

# Manifolds and Many More

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CEA, LIST

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- Most operations in linear algebra are performed on vectors/linear transformations/etc which are expressed in some *coordinate system*, but nature does not come equipped with those. Can we define things in a way that is independent of a choice of coordinates?
- The general idea is to extend *globally* what we know *locally*.

# Differential geometry in $\mathbb{R}^n$

# Derivation

## Definition

The **derivative**  $f'(x_0)$  of a function

$$f : U \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

at  $x_0 \in U$  is defined as

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{\substack{t \rightarrow 0 \\ x_0 + t \in U}} \frac{f(x_0 + t) - f(x_0)}{t}$$

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Or equivalently,

$$f(x_0 + t) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot t + |t| \cdot \varepsilon(t)$$

with

$$\varepsilon : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon(t) = 0$$



# Differentiation

## Definition

The **differential**  $df_p$  of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  at a point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a linear map

$$df_p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

such that, for  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$f(p + v) = f(p) + df_p(v) + \|v\| \cdot \varepsilon(v)$$

with  $\varepsilon : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $\lim_{\|v\| \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon(v) = 0$ .

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- Does not depend on  $\| - \|$ : all the norms are equivalent on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Uniquely defined:  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete.

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- Uniquely defined:  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete.

Notice that differentials might not exist, but I won't bother about definition problems here.

## Basic properties

### Proposition

- Given  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  linear,

$$f(p + v) = f(p) + f(v) + \|v\| \cdot 0$$

so,  $df_p = f$ .

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- $d(g \circ f)_p = dg_{f(p)} \circ df_p$
- $d(f^{-1})_{f(p)} = (df_p)^{-1}$
- etc.

## Vector spaces

### Definition

A **vector space**  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{k} = \mathbb{R}$  consists of

- an (additive) abelian group  $V$ :

$$(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$$

$$0 + v = v$$

$$v - v = 0$$

$$v + w = w + v$$



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A **vector space**  $V$  over a field  $\mathbb{k} = \mathbb{R}$  consists of

- an (additive) abelian group  $V$ :
- an action of  $\mathbb{k}$  over  $V$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(v + w) &= \alpha v + \alpha w & (\alpha + \beta)v &= \alpha v + \beta v \\ \alpha(\beta v) &= (\alpha\beta)v & 1v &= v \end{aligned}$$

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## Definition

A **linear map**  $f : V \rightarrow W$  is a function satisfying

$$f(v + w) = f(v) + f(w) \quad f(\alpha v) = \alpha f(v)$$

We denote by  $V \rightarrow W$  the set of linear maps between  $V$  and  $W$ .

# Differentiation

## Definition

Given

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

its **differential** is

$$df : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

(when it is defined on every point  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ).

## Linearity of differentiation

The linear space  $V \rightarrow W$  (pointwisely) inherits a structure of vector space

$$f + g = v \mapsto f(v) + g(v) \qquad \alpha f = v \mapsto \alpha f(v)$$

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$$f + g = v \mapsto f(v) + g(v) \qquad \alpha f = v \mapsto \alpha f(v)$$

Given  $p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , differentiation at  $p$  is linear over  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$d(f + g)_p = df_p + dg_p \qquad d(\alpha f)_p = \alpha df_p$$

## Differentials and partial derivation

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$$df_p = v \mapsto df(p, v) : \mathbb{R}^n \multimap \mathbb{R}^m$$

- We can also consider **partial derivative** in direction  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\partial_v f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = p \mapsto df(p, v) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$



## Differential in a basis

### Proposition

Given a basis  $(e_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}df_p(v) &= df_p\left(\sum_i v_i \cdot e_i\right) \\&= \sum_i v_i \cdot df_p(e_i) \\&= \sum_i v_i \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(p)\end{aligned}$$

In other words,

$$df_p = \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(p) \cdot dx^i$$

with  $x^i : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  the canonical  $i$ -th projection.

## The chain rule

Given  $x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the chain rule says

$$d(g \circ x)_t = dg_{x(t)} \circ dx_t$$

which is a way to write the usual chain rule

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \frac{dx^i}{dt}$$

# Manifolds

## Definition

An  $n$ -dimensional **smooth manifold** consists of

- a topological space  $X$
- an open covering  $(U_i)_{i \in I}$  of  $X$ :  $\bigcup_{i \in I} U_i = X$
- *charts*  $\varphi_i : U_i \rightarrow V_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  (invertible and continuous) forming an *atlas*: the *transition functions*

$$\varphi_{ij} = \varphi_j \circ \varphi_i^{-1} : V_i \rightarrow V_j$$

are smooth.

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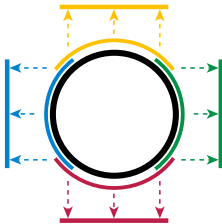
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## Example

The 1-sphere:

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$



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## Example

Every finite-dimensional vector space  $V \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ .

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## Remark

In the following, we will not bother about definition issues and suppose that  $V_i = \mathbb{R}^n$ .

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are smooth.

## Remark

There are many possible variations over the definition:

- we can replace “smooth” by other adjective such as “differentiable”, “analytic”, etc.
- we can replace  $\mathbb{R}$  by  $\mathbb{C}$  and consider holomorphic transitions



## Compatible atlases

Two atlases on  $X$  are **compatible** when their union is still an atlas.

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Two atlases on  $X$  are **compatible** when their union is still an atlas.

- Compatibility is an equivalence relation.
- The union of an equivalence relation is a **maximal atlas**.
- An atlas is included in a unique maximal atlas.

In theory we can thus use the maximal atlas,  
but smaller is simpler in practice.

# Morphisms

## Definition

Given two  $m$ - and  $n$ -manifolds  $M = (X, U_i, \varphi_i)$  and  $N = (Y, V_i, \psi_i)$ , a **morphism**

$$f : M \rightarrow N$$

is a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  such that for every  $i, j$  the function  $f_{ij}$  is smooth and satisfies

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \mathbb{R}^m & \xrightarrow{f_{ij}} & \mathbb{R}^n \\ \varphi_i \uparrow & & \uparrow \psi_j \\ U_i & \xrightarrow{f} & V_j \end{array}$$

## The category of manifolds

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- It has coproducts of manifolds of same dimension.
- It has cartesian products (of dim  $m + n$ )
- It is *not* cartesian closed (the hom-space would be an infinite-dimensional manifold. . . )

## Smooth functions

We write

$$M^* = \mathbf{Man}(M, \mathbb{R})$$

for the set of smooth functions from  $M$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e. functions

$$f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that for every  $i$ ,  $f \circ \varphi_i$  is smooth.



# Tangent spaces

## Tangent spaces

A **path** is a smooth map  $\gamma : (-1, 1) \rightarrow M$ .

### Definition

Fix a chart  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . We define an equivalence relation on paths  $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$  such that  $\gamma(0) = p$  by

$$\gamma \sim \rho \quad \text{whenever} \quad (\varphi \circ \gamma)'(0) = (\varphi \circ \rho)'(0)$$

The **tangent space**  $T_p M$  is the quotient of those paths (*germs*).

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### Remark

This equivalence relation is independent of the chart.

## Tangent spaces as vector spaces

### Proposition

Given a chart  $(U, \varphi)$ , the map  $T_\varphi : T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined by

$$T_\varphi(\gamma) = (\varphi \circ \gamma)'(0)$$

is an isomorphism.

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is an isomorphism.

This allows to transfer the structure of vector space of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $T_p$ ,  
e.g.

$$\gamma + \rho = T_\varphi^{-1}((T_\varphi \gamma) + (T_\varphi \rho))$$

(and this does not depend on the choice of the chart).

## Tangent spaces

Actually, since it is enough to “test” linear morphisms coordinatewise, we can define  $T_pM$  as follows:

### Definition

Fix a chart  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . We consider paths  $\gamma : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M$  such that  $\gamma(0) = p$  and “copath”  $g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $g(p) = 0$ . We define

$$\langle \gamma | g \rangle_p = \frac{\partial (g \circ \gamma)}{\partial t}(0)$$

Two paths  $\gamma, \rho$  are equivalent when

$$\forall g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \langle \gamma | g \rangle_p = \langle \rho | g \rangle_p$$

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### Remark

The dual notion on copaths gives rise to the notion of **cotangent** vector space of **covectors**  $T_p^* M$ .

# Differentials

## Definition

Given a morphism  $f : M \rightarrow N$ , we define its **differential** at  $p \in M$

$$df_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{f(p)} N$$

by

$$df_p(\gamma) = f \circ \gamma$$



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Given two such functions  $f, g \in M^*$ , we can

- add them:  $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$
- multiply them by  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ :  $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$
- multiply them:  $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \times g(x)$

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The two first equip the space with a structure of vector space, which satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} (fg)h &= f(gh) & fg &= gf \\ f(g+h) &= fg + fh & (f+g)h &= fg + gh \end{aligned}$$

which is called a (commutative) **algebra**.

# Algebras

## Definition

An **algebra** is a vector space  $A$  together with a *multiplication*

$$- \cdot - : A \otimes A \rightarrow A$$

such that multiplication is associative

$$\forall a, b, c \in A, \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$$

## Properties of derivation

Given  $f : M \rightarrow N$ , we have defined  $df_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{f(p)} N$ .

Given  $v \in T_p M$ , we can also define  $\partial_v : M^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$\partial_v(f) = df_p(v) = (f \circ \gamma)'(0)$$

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### Proposition

Suppose given  $f, g : M^*$ .

- Differentiation is linear:

$$\partial_v(f + g) = \partial_v f + \partial_v g \qquad \partial_v(\alpha f) = \alpha \partial_v f$$

- It satisfies the **Leibnitz law**: given  $v \in T_p M$ ,

$$\partial_v(f \cdot g) = \partial_v f \cdot g(p) + f(p) \cdot \partial_v g$$

## Tangent space – via derivations

Actually, this can be taken as a definition,  
by identifying  $v$  with  $\partial_v$ !

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### Definition

The **tangent space**  $T_p M$  is the vector space whose elements are

$$v : M^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that

$$\begin{aligned}v(f + g) &= v(f) + v(g) \\v(\alpha g) &= \alpha v(g) \\v(f \cdot g) &= v(f) \cdot g(p) + f(p) \cdot v(g)\end{aligned}$$

i.e. the space of **derivations** at  $p$  of the algebra  $M^*$ .



## Tangent space – via derivations

With this definition it is easy to show that  $T_pM$  is a vector space:

$$(v + w)(f) = v(f) + w(f) \quad (\alpha v)(f) = \alpha v(f)$$

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With this definition it is easy to show that  $T_pM$  is a vector space:

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Given a chart  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $p \in U$  and a basis  $(x^i)$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the vectors  $\partial_i$  defined by

$$\partial_i(f) = \frac{\partial(f \circ \varphi^{-1})}{\partial x^i}$$

form a basis for this vector space.

## Derivation as a functor

We have a functor

$$\mathbf{pMan} \rightarrow \mathbf{Vect}$$

which sends

$$(M, x) \quad \text{to} \quad T_x M$$

and

$$f : (M, x) \rightarrow (N, y) \quad \text{to} \quad df_x : T_x M \rightarrow T_y N$$

The chain rule is precisely the axiom of functoriality wrt composition.

## Vector fields

Intuition: a vector field is given by a vector  $v_p \in T_p M$  for each point  $p \in M$ , which varies continuously in  $p$ .

We'll use tangent bundles to define them.

# Tangent bundle

## Definition

The **tangent bundle** is

$$TM = \coprod_{p \in M} T_p M$$

## Proposition

*If  $M$  is an  $n$ -manifold,  $TM$  is canonically a  $2n$ -manifold.*

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## Proposition

*If  $M$  is an  $n$ -manifold,  $TM$  is canonically a  $2n$ -manifold.*

We write  $\pi : TM \rightarrow M$  for the canonical projection

$$\pi = v \in T_p M \mapsto p$$

## Vector fields

### Definition

A **vector field**  $v$  is a section of the tangent bundle  $TM$ , i.e. a map

$$v : M \rightarrow TM$$

such that

$$\pi \circ v = \text{id}_M$$

Vectors fields are denoted  $\Gamma(TM)$ .

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Vectors fields are denoted  $\Gamma(TM)$ .

This means that  $v(p) = (q, v_q \in T_qM)$  such that  $q = p$ .

Notice that the map  $v$  is required to be smooth!



## Vector fields – via derivations

### Definition

A **vector field** is a function  $v : M^* \rightarrow M^*$  such that

$$v(f + g) = v(f) + v(g)$$

$$v(\alpha f) = \alpha v(f)$$

$$v(f \cdot g) = v(f) \cdot g + f \cdot v(g)$$

i.e. a **derivation** of the algebra  $M^*$ .

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### Proposition

*Vector fields over  $M$  form an  $M^*$ -module with*

$$(v + w)(f) = v(f) + w(f)$$

$$(g \cdot v)(f) = g \cdot v(f)$$

## Pullback and push forward

A morphism  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$  induces

- a **pullback** function

$$\phi^* : N^* \rightarrow M^*$$

defined by

$$\phi^*(f) = f \circ \phi$$

## Pullback and push forward

A morphism  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$  induces

- a **pullback** function

$$\phi^* : N^* \rightarrow M^*$$

defined by

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### Remark

Notice that functions are *contravariant* and vectors are *covariant*.

## Coordinates

The vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is equipped with canonical **coordinate functions**, which are the projections

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These induce coordinate functions  $\varphi^* x^i : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that we (abusively) still denote  $x^i$ , called **local coordinates**.

TODO: Change of basis.....

## Writing conventions

In the following, we use **Einstein summation convention**: we implicitly sum over repeated indices in a formula, e.g.

$$v = v^i \partial_i$$

(with  $v^i = v(x^i)$ ) means

$$v = \sum_i v^i \partial_i$$



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(with  $v^i = v(x^i)$ ) means

$$v = \sum_i v^i \partial_i$$

Concerning the indices, we write

- $x^i$  for a contravariant quantities (coordinates,  $n$ -forms, etc.)
- $\partial_i$  for a covariant quantities (vectors, etc.)

Notice that

$$v = v^i \partial_i \quad \text{and} \quad \omega = \omega_j dx^j$$

# Differential 1-forms

## Differential

Recall that given  $p \in M$  and  $f : M \rightarrow N$ , we have defined

$$df_p : T_p M \rightarrow T_{f(p)} N$$

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by

$$df(v)(p) = df_p(v_p)$$

This function can easily be shown to be linear over the module  $M^*$ :

$$df(v + w) = df(v) + df(w) \qquad df(\alpha v) = \alpha df(v)$$

## Definition

A **differential 1-form**

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We write  $\Omega^1(M)$  for the  $M^*$ -*module* of differential forms.



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## Example

Given  $f \in M^*$ , its **differential** (or **exterior derivative**)

$$df \quad = \quad v \mapsto p \mapsto df_p(v_p)$$

is a 1-form.

## Exterior derivative

### Proposition

The **exterior derivative**  $d : M^* \rightarrow \Omega^1(M)$  is

- *linear*:

$$d(f + g) = df + dg$$

$$d(\alpha f) = \alpha df$$

- *a derivation*:

$$d(f \cdot g) = df \cdot g + f \cdot dg$$

### Proposition

The  $dx^i$  form a basis of the  $M^*$ -module of 1-forms over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$df = \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} \cdot dx^i$$

(or locally in a manifold).

## Cotangent vectors

### Definition

A **cotangent vector** at  $p \in M$  is an element of  $T_p^*M \cong \mathbb{R}^n$ .  
We thus write  $T_p^*M$  for the cotangent vectors at  $p$ .

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We thus write  $T_p^*M$  for the cotangent vectors at  $p$ .

### Proposition

One can form the **cotangent vector bundle**

$$T^*M = \coprod_{p \in M} T_p^*M$$

and 1-forms are its sections

$$\Omega^1(M) \cong \Gamma(T^*M)$$

TODO: cotangent vectors and 1-forms are contravariant

Derivative is natural: given  $f \in M^*$  and  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$ ,

$$d(\phi^* f) = \phi^*(df)$$

## (Co)tangent space as infinitesimals

Given  $p \in M$ , consider the ideals

$$I_p = \{f \in M^* \mid f(p) = 0\}$$

and

$$I_p^2 = \left\{ \sum_i f_i g_i \mid f_i, g_i \in I \right\}$$

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### Proof.

A derivation  $D$  satisfies  $D(f) = 0$  for  $f \in I_p^2$ , i.e.  $D : I_p / I_p^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .  
Conversely, given  $r \in I_p / I_p^2$ ,  $D(f) = r((f - f(x)) + I_p^2)$  is a derivation.





# Towards Algebraic Geometry

## Towards algebraic geometry

Given a manifold  $M$ , an open set  $U \subseteq M$  is also canonically a manifold. We can thus consider the (ring of) smooth functions  $U^* = \mathbf{Man}(U, \mathbb{R})$ . The collection of all those form a (pre)sheaf:

### Definition

A **presheaf**  $(X, \mathcal{O})$  is a functor  $\mathcal{O} : \mathcal{O}(X)^{\text{op}} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$  from the category of open sets in  $X$  and reversed inclusions to a category  $\mathcal{C}$ .

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- Here, we have  $X = M$ ,  $\mathcal{O}(U) = U^*$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \mathbf{Rings}$ .
- Given  $U \subseteq V$ , we have a **restriction** function

$$\mathcal{O}(V) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(U)$$

and we write the image of  $f \in \mathcal{O}(V)$

$$f|_U^V \quad \text{or} \quad f|_U$$

## Definition

A **sheaf** is a presheaf such that, for every open covering  $(U_i)$  of any open  $U \subseteq X$ :

- ① *Locality*. If  $f, g \in O(U)$  satisfy

$$f|_{U_i} = g|_{U_i}$$

for each  $U_i$  then

$$f = g$$

- ② *Gluing*. If there exists  $f_i \in O(U_i)$  are such that

$$f_i|_{U_i \cap U_j} = f_j|_{U_i \cap U_j}$$

then there exists  $f \in O(U)$  such that

$$f_i = f|_{U_i}$$

# Sheaves

In the case  $\mathcal{C}$  has products, this is equivalent to

## Definition

A **sheaf** is a presheaf such that for any covering  $U_i$  of  $U$  the diagram

$$O(U) \longrightarrow \prod_i O(U_i) \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\quad} \\ \xrightarrow{\quad} \end{array} \prod_{i,j} O(U_i \cap U_j)$$

is an equalizer, where the arrows are products  $-|_{U_i}^U$ ,  $-|_{U_i \cap U_j}^{U_i}$  and  $-|_{U_i \cap U_j}^{U_j}$  respectively.

# What can we recover from rings?

## Proposition

*The points of  $M$  are in bijection with the maximal ideals of the algebra  $M^*$ .*

## Proof.

To a point  $p$ , one can associate the ideal

$$I_p = \{f \in M^* \mid f(p) = 0\}$$

which is maximal and conversely, every maximal ideal is of this form! □

## Definition

Given a point  $p$  and functions  $f, g : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $p \in U$ , we define an equivalence relation by

$$f \sim g \quad \text{when} \quad f|_V = g|_V$$

for some  $V \subseteq U$  with  $p \in V$ . The equivalence class of a function is its **germ** and the collection of all germs at  $p$  is the **stalk** at  $p$ .

# The tangent space

## Definition

The **cotangent space** at  $p$  is  $I_p/I_p^2$  where  $I_p$  is the maximal ideal of the stalk  $O_{M,p}$ .



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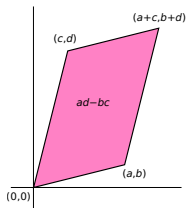
## Definition

The **tangent space** is the sheaf of morphisms from  $O_M$  into the ring of **dual numbers**  $\mathbb{R}[X]/X^2$ .

# Differential Forms

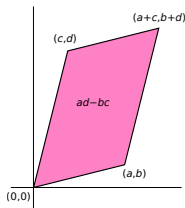
## The area of a parallelogram

What is the area of a parallelogram spanned by vectors  $u$  and  $v$ ?



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We should have:

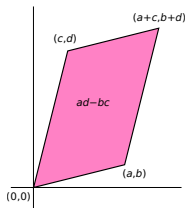
- $A(u, v)$  bilinear:

$$A(u_1 + u_2, v) = A(u_1, v) + A(u_2, v) \quad A(\alpha u, v) = \alpha A(u, v)$$

- $A(u, u) = 0$

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- $A(u, u) = 0$
- and therefore  $A(u, v) = -A(v, u)$

$$A(u+v, u+v) = A(u, u) + A(u, v) + A(v, u) + A(v, v) = A(u, v) + A(v, u)$$

## The area of a parallelogram

Up to a multiplicative constant, there is only one alternating linear form:

$$A : V \otimes V \rightarrow V$$

this is the determinant of  $2 \times 2$  matrices!

$$A(u, v) = \det([u, v])$$

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So, the area of a parallelogram generated by  $u$  and  $v$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \det(u, v) &= \det(u_1x^1 + u_2x^2, v_1x^1 + v_2x^2) \\ &= u_1v_1 \det(x^1, x^1) + u_1v_2 \det(x^1, x^2) + u_2v_1 \det(x^2, x^1) + u_2v_2 \det(x^2, x^2) \\ &= (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1) \det(x^1, x^2) \end{aligned}$$

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(and this generalizes in higher dimensions)



## A basis for areas

A differential 1-form can be seen as a way to measure (infinitesimal) distances:

$$dx : \Gamma(TM) \rightarrow M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

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In order to measure areas with 2-forms, we should therefore take the pairs  $(dx^i, dx^j)$  as basis for 2-forms but quotiented by relations imposing that

$$(dx^i, dx^j) = -(dx^j, dx^i)$$

## Change of variables in integration

In dimension 1, the fundamental theorem of calculus gives:

$$\int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(\phi(t))\phi'(t) dt$$

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$$\int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(\phi(t))\phi'(t) dt$$

More generally, given  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  open and  $\varphi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  injective and differentiable with continuous partial derivatives:

$$\int_{\varphi(U)} f dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_U (f \circ \varphi) |\det(D\varphi)| dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

where  $D\varphi$  is the **Jacobian** of  $\varphi$ :  $(D\varphi)_{ij} = \partial_i \varphi_j$ .

## Division in the ring of dual numbers

The ring of dual numbers is  $\mathbb{R}[\varepsilon]/\varepsilon^2$ .

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With  $c \neq 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{a + b\varepsilon}{c + d\varepsilon} &= \frac{(a + b\varepsilon)(c - d\varepsilon)}{(c + d\varepsilon)(c - d\varepsilon)} \\ &= \frac{ac + (bc - ad)\varepsilon - db\varepsilon^2}{c^2 - d^2\varepsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{a}{c} + \frac{bc - ad}{c^2}\varepsilon\end{aligned}$$

# Exterior algebra

## Definition

Given a vector space (or a module)  $V$ , its **free algebra** is

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The **exterior algebra**  $\Lambda V$  of  $V$  is

$$\Lambda V = TV/I$$

where  $I$  is the two-sided ideal generated by  $x \otimes x$  with  $x \in V$ .  
Its tensor product is written  $\wedge$ .



## Antisymmetry

### Proposition

We have  $x \wedge x = 0$  and  $x \wedge y = -y \wedge x$ .

### Proof.

$$0 = (x+y) \wedge (x+y) = x \wedge x + x \wedge y + y \wedge x + y \wedge y = x \wedge y + y \wedge x. \quad \square$$

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### Proposition

Given a basis  $(e_i)$  of  $V$ , a basis of  $\Lambda V$  is  $e_{i_1} \wedge e_{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge e_{i_k}$  with  $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k$ . If  $\dim V = n$  then

$$\dim \Lambda V = 2^n \quad \text{and} \quad \dim \Lambda^k V = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

## Grading

The exterior algebra is naturally graded as a quotient of the tensor algebra by a homogeneous ideal:

$$\Lambda V = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \Lambda^k V$$

The elements of  $\Lambda^k V$  are of the form

$$v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge \dots \wedge v_k$$

with  $v_i \in V$ .

## Example

### Example

Given  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with the canonical orthonormal basis  $x, y$  and two vectors  $v$  and  $w$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}v \wedge w &= (v_x x + v_y y) \wedge (w_x x + w_y y) = (v_x w_y - v_y w_x) x \wedge y \\ &= \det(u, v) x \wedge y\end{aligned}$$

where the determinant computes the (signed) area of the parallelogram spanned by  $v$  and  $w$ .

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where the determinant computes the (signed) area of the parallelogram spanned by  $v$  and  $w$ .

### Example

Similarly in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we have

$$v \wedge w = (v_x w_y - v_y w_x) x \wedge y + (v_x w_z - v_z w_x) x \wedge z + (v_y w_z - v_z w_y) y \wedge z$$

and

$$u \wedge v \wedge w = \det(u, v, w) x \wedge y \wedge z$$

## The special dimension 3

We have seen that

$$\dim \Lambda^k V = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

When  $\dim V = 3$ , we have  $\dim \Lambda^2 V = \dim V = 3$ , so that

$$\Lambda^2 V \cong V$$

but there is no canonical isomorphism, which explains why the “right-hand rule” can be replaced by the “left-hand rule”, i.e. there is no particular reason to choose between the two isomorphisms

$$x \wedge y \mapsto z$$

$$y \wedge x \mapsto z$$

$$x \wedge z \mapsto y$$

$$z \wedge x \mapsto y$$

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Moreover, this does not generalize in other dimensions. . .

Definition

$p$ -forms are defined as the exterior algebra of the  $M^*$ -module  $\Omega^1(M)$ :

$$\Omega(M) = \Lambda \Omega^1(M) \quad \Omega^k(M) = \Lambda^k \Omega^1(M)$$



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A  $p$ -form  $\omega$  can be assimilated to a function

$$\Lambda^k(T_p M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

i.e. an alternating multilinear map

$$\omega : T_p M \times \dots \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

i.e.

$$\omega(\dots, x, \dots, x, \dots) = 0$$

or

$$\omega(\dots, x, \dots, y, \dots) = -\omega(\dots, y, \dots, x, \dots)$$

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We also have a definition as sections of the exterior power of the cotangent bundle

$$\Omega^k(M) = \Gamma(\Lambda^k T_p^* M)$$

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Remark

$$\Omega^0(M) = M^*.$$

## Remark

A 2-form is the same as an antisymmetric matrix.

# Integration

## Pullback

Suppose given  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$ . We can define a **pullback** operation:

- on 0-forms:

$$\phi^* : \Omega^0 N \rightarrow \Omega^0 M \quad \text{by} \quad \phi^*(f) = f \circ \phi$$

with  $f \in \Omega^0 N$

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- on cotangent vectors:

$$\phi^* : T_p^* N \rightarrow T_{\phi(p)}^* M \quad \text{by} \quad \phi^*(\omega)(v) = \omega(\phi_* v)$$

with  $\omega \in T_p^* N$  and  $v \in T_{\phi(p)} M$

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with  $\omega \in T_p^* N$  and  $v \in T_{\phi(p)} M$

- on 1-forms:

$$\phi^* : \Omega^1 N \rightarrow \Omega^1 M \quad \text{by} \quad (\phi^* \omega)_p = \phi^*(\omega_{\phi(p)})$$

with  $\omega \in \Omega^1 N$



## Proposition

Given  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$  there exists a unique **pullback** map

$$\phi^* : \Omega N \rightarrow \Omega M$$

such that  $\phi^*$  agrees with the previous definition on  $\Omega^0 M$ , on  $\Omega^1 M$  and such that

$$\begin{aligned}\phi^*(\alpha\omega) &= \alpha\phi^*\omega \\ \phi^*(\omega + \mu) &= \phi^*\omega + \phi^*\mu \\ \phi^*(\omega \wedge \mu) &= \phi^*\omega \wedge \phi^*\mu\end{aligned}$$

## Integration on $\mathbb{R}^n$

Given  $\omega \in \Omega^n U$  with  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  open, we can define

$$\int_U \omega = \int_U \omega \, dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

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In order to check whether this is independent of the choice of basis, recall that

$$\int_{\phi(U)} f \, dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_U (f \circ \phi) |\det(D\phi)| \, dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

## Integration on $\mathbb{R}^n$

Given  $\omega \in \Omega^n U$  with  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  open, we can define

$$\int_U \omega = \int_U \omega dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

In order to check whether this is independent of the choice of basis, recall that

$$\int_{\phi(U)} f dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_U (f \circ \phi) |\det(D\phi)| dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

### Proposition

*Given a diffeomorphism  $\phi : U \rightarrow V$  between two open subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\det(D\phi)$  is of constant sign  $\delta$ , then for every  $n$ -form  $\omega \in \Omega^n V$ ,*

$$\int_U \phi^* \omega = \delta \int_V \omega$$

## Orientable manifolds

Given two basis  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  of  $T_p M$  with  $y_j = T_j^i x_i$  then

$$y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge y_n = (\det T) x_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n$$

Two such **volume elements** have the same **orientation** when  $\det(T) > 0$ .

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### Definition

A **volume form** on an  $n$ -manifold  $M$  is an  $n$ -form which is nowhere zero. A manifold is **orientable** when it admits a volume form.

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### Remark

For instance the Möbius strip is not orientable.

## Integration on a manifold

We write  $\Omega_c^n M$  for the  $n$ -forms with compact support.

We can define integration by “splitting over charts”:

### Proposition

*Given a smooth oriented  $n$ -manifold  $M$  there exists a unique linear*

$$\int_M : \Omega_c^n(M) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

*such that if  $\text{supp } \omega \subseteq U$  with  $(U, \varphi)$  positively oriented chart then*

$$\int_M \omega = \int_{\varphi(U)} (\varphi^{-1})^* \omega$$



## Integration on a manifold

In the case where  $\omega$  does not have compact support, we have to suppose that  $M$  is *paracompact and Hausdorff*. In this case, it admits partitions of unity:

### Definition

A **partition of unity** is a collection of functions  $f_i \in M^*$  such that

- 1  $f_i$  is zero outside  $U_i$
- 2 for every point  $p \in M$ ,  $\sum_i f_i(p) = 1$
- 3 for every point  $p \in M$  there is an open neighborhood on which finitely many  $f_i$  are nonzero.

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We thus have

$$\omega = \sum_i f_i \omega$$

## Integration on a manifold

Since  $\omega = \sum_i f_i \omega$ , we define

$$\int_M \omega = \sum_i \int_{U_i} f_i \omega$$

where by definition

$$\int_{U_i} f_i \omega = \int_{\varphi(U_i^*)} (\varphi_i^{-1})^* f_i \omega$$

with  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  a positively oriented chart.

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with  $(U_i, \varphi_i)$  a positively oriented chart.

### Proposition

*This does not depend on the choice of the partition of unity.*

# Derivation

## Definition

The **exterior derivative**

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

is defined by

- 1  $d : \Omega^0(M) \rightarrow \Omega^1(M)$  is the usual differential
- 2  $d$  is linear  
(the  $\Omega^k(M)$  are real vector spaces)
- 3  $d(\omega \wedge \mu) = d\omega \wedge \mu + (-1)^k \omega \wedge d\mu$   
for  $\omega \in \Omega^k(M)$  and  $\mu \in \Omega(M)$
- 4  $d(d\omega) = 0$  for  $\omega \in \Omega(M)$

In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , given

$$\omega = \omega_x dx + \omega_y dy + \omega_z dz$$

for  $\omega \in \Omega^1 M = M^*$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= d(\omega_x dx + \omega_y dy + \omega_z dz) \\ &= d\omega_x \wedge dx + \omega_x \wedge d dx + d\omega_y \wedge dy + \omega_y \wedge d dy + d\omega_z \wedge dz + \omega_z \wedge d dz \\ &= d\omega_x \wedge dx + d\omega_y \wedge dy + d\omega_z \wedge dz \\ &= (\partial_x \omega_x dx + \partial_y \omega_x dy + \partial_z \omega_x dz) \wedge dx + \dots \\ &= \partial_x \omega_x dx \wedge dx + \partial_y \omega_x dy \wedge dx + \partial_z \omega_x dz \wedge dx + \dots \\ &= -\partial_y \omega_x dx \wedge dy + \partial_z \omega_x dz \wedge dx + \dots \\ &= (\partial_x \omega_y - \partial_y \omega_x) dx \wedge dy + (\partial_y \omega_z - \partial_z \omega_y) dy \wedge dz + (\partial_z \omega_x - \partial_x \omega_z) dz \wedge dx \\ &\approx \nabla \times \omega \end{aligned}$$

In  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , given

$$\omega = \omega_{xy} dx \wedge dy + \omega_{yz} dy \wedge dz + \omega_{zx} dz \wedge dx$$

we have similarly

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= d\omega_{xy} \wedge dx \wedge dy + d\omega_{yz} \wedge dy \wedge dz + d\omega_{zx} \wedge dz \wedge dx \\ &= \partial_z \omega_{xy} dz \wedge dx \wedge dy + \partial_x \omega_{yz} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz + \partial_y \omega_{zx} dy \wedge dz \wedge dx \\ &= (\partial_x \omega_{yz} + \partial_y \omega_{zx} + \partial_z \omega_{xy}) dx \wedge dy \wedge dz \\ &\approx \nabla \cdot \omega \end{aligned}$$



An easy computation shows that

- $d : \Omega^0(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  is the **gradient**

$$\nabla = f \mapsto \partial_i f dx^i$$

- $d : \Omega^1(\mathbb{R}^3) \rightarrow \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$  is the **curl**

$$\nabla \times - = \omega \mapsto \partial_i \omega_j dx^i \wedge dx^j$$

- $d : \Omega^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \rightarrow \Omega^3(\mathbb{R}^3)$  is the **divergence**

$$\nabla \cdot - = \omega \mapsto (\partial_1 \omega_{23} + \partial_2 \omega_{13} + \partial_3 \omega_{12})$$

with  $\omega = \omega_{12} dx^1 \wedge dx^2 + \omega_{13} dx^1 \wedge dx^3 + \omega_{23} dx^2 \wedge dx^3$ .

## In local coordinates

Given a multiset  $I = (i_1, \dots, i_k)$  in  $\{1, \dots, k\}$ , with  $i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_k$ , the exterior derivative of the  $k$ -form

$$\omega = f_I dx^I = f_{i_1, \dots, i_k} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}$$

is

$$d\omega = \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_i f_I dx^i \wedge x^I$$

and this extends to general  $k$ -forms

$$\omega = \sum_I f_I dx^I$$

# Riemannian manifolds

## Riemannian manifolds

### Definition

A **Riemannian metric** is a bilinear map

$$g : V \otimes V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

which is symmetric and *positive-definite*:

$g(v, v) \geq 0$  with equality only if  $v = 0$

## Riemannian manifolds

### Definition

A **semi-Riemannian metric** is a bilinear map

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### Definition

A **semi-Riemannian manifold**  $M$  is such that each  $T_p M$  is equipped with such a metric  $g_p$  which “varies smoothly with  $p$ ”, i.e. for every vector fields  $v, w \in \Gamma(TM)$ , the function  $p \mapsto g_p(v_p, w_p)$  is a smooth function  $M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

(i.e. we have a smooth section of the positive definite quadratic forms on the tangent bundle).

### Definition

The **length** of a curve  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M$  is

$$L(\gamma) = \int_0^1 \|\gamma'(t)\| dt = \int_0^1 \sqrt{g_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))} dt$$

### Definition

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Every (connected) Riemannian manifold is thus a metric space with

$$d(x, y) = \inf\{\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow M \mid \gamma(0) = x, \gamma(1) = y\}$$



## Volume form

Locally, the components of the metric are

$$g_{ij} = g(\partial_i, \partial_j)$$

### Proposition

*Given a Riemannian manifold one can define a volume form by*

$$\text{vol} = \sqrt{|\det(g_{ij})|} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

This allows us to define, for any  $f \in M^*$ :

$$\int_M f = \int_M f \text{vol}$$

## Hodge star operator

### Remark

Since  $g_p$  is nondegenerate,  $g_p(v_p, -) : T_p M \rightarrow T_p^* M$  is a bijection.

This allows one to transfer stuff such as the inner product to 1-forms.

## Hodge star operator

### Remark

Since  $g_p$  is nondegenerate,  $g_p(v_p, -) : T_p M \rightarrow T_p^* M$  is a bijection.

This allows one to transfer stuff such as the inner product to 1-forms.

Orientation allows us to generalize the right-hand rule as follows:

### Definition

The **Hodge star operator** on an oriented  $n$ -manifold  $M$

$$\star : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{n-k}(M)$$

is the unique  $M^*$ -linear map such that for  $\omega, \mu \in \Omega^k(M)$

$$\omega \wedge \star \mu = \langle \omega, \mu \rangle \text{vol}$$

# Maxwell equations

## Maxwell equations

The Maxwell equations

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} - \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \vec{j}$$

## Maxwell equations

The Maxwell equations

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \vec{B} &= 0 \\ \nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} &= 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \vec{E} &= \rho \\ \nabla \times \vec{B} - \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} &= \vec{j}\end{aligned}$$

become, with  $E \in \Omega^1(M)$  and  $B \in \Omega^2(M)$  and  $M = \mathbb{R} \times S$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}d_S B &= 0 \\ \partial_t B + d_S E &= 0 \\ \star_S d_S \star_S E &= \rho \\ -\partial_t E + \star_S d_S \star_S B &= j\end{aligned}$$

## Maxwell equations

- $\vec{E}$  is the **electric field**
- $\vec{B}$  is the **magnetic field**
- $\rho$  is the **charge density**
- $\vec{j}$  is the **electric current density**
- $\nabla = (\partial_1, \partial_2, \partial_3)$
- the **divergence** measures flux

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \partial_1 F_1 + \partial_2 F_2 + \partial_3 F_3 = \lim_{V \rightarrow \{*\}} \iint_{S(V)} \frac{\vec{F} \cdot \vec{n}}{|V|} dS$$

- the **curl** measures rotation

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \times \vec{F} &= (\partial_2 F_3 - \partial_3 F_2, \partial_1 F_3 - \partial_3 F_1, \partial_1 F_2 - \partial_2 F_1) \\ &= \lim_{A \rightarrow \{*\}} \oint_A \left( \frac{\vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}_i}{|A|} \right) \end{aligned}$$

## Lorentzian metrics

For spacetime  $M = \mathbb{R} \times S$ , we want a **Lorentzian metric** of signature  $(n - 1, 1)$ , i.e. something like

$$(g_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

A vector  $v$  is

- **spacelike** if  $v \cdot v > 0$
- **timelike** if  $v \cdot v < 0$
- **lightlike** if  $v \cdot v = 0$



## Maxwell equations

By writing the **electromagnetic field**

$$F = B + E \wedge dt$$

that is

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -E_x & -E_y & -E_z \\ E_x & 0 & B_z & -B_y \\ E_y & -B_z & 0 & B_x \\ E_z & B_y & -B_x & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Maxwell equations

By writing the **electromagnetic field**

$$F = B + E \wedge dt$$

and

$$J = j - \rho dt$$

we arrive at

$$\begin{aligned} dF &= 0 \\ \star d \star F &= J \end{aligned}$$

# Integration

## Closed and exact forms

- A differential form  $\omega$  such that  $d\omega = 0$  is **closed**
- A differential form  $\omega \in \Omega^{k+1}(M)$  for which there exists  $\mu \in \Omega^k(M)$  such that  $d\mu = \omega$  is **exact**

So,  $d^2 = 0$  can be phrased: *exact forms are closed*.

## Integrating 1-forms

When is a 1-form exact?

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Given  $\omega \in \Omega^1(M)$  and a (piecewise) smooth path  $\gamma : [0, T] \rightarrow S$ , we can integrate  $\omega$  along  $\gamma$  by

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = \int_0^T \gamma^*(\omega)(t) dt = \int_0^T \omega_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t)) dt$$

## Integrating 1-forms

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$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = \int_0^T \gamma^*(\omega)(t) dt = \int_0^T \omega_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t)) dt$$

Given  $p \in M$ , we can (try to) define  $f \in M^* = \Omega^0(M)$

$$\mu(q) = \int_{\gamma} \omega$$

for some path  $\gamma : p \rightsquigarrow q$ , so that

$$d\mu = \omega$$

## Integrating 1-forms

In order for the definition  $\mu(q) = \int_{\gamma} \omega$  to work we have to suppose that  $M$  is *simply connected*!

### Proposition

Given a homotopy  $\gamma_s$  between paths  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$ ,

$$I_s = \int_0^T \omega_{\gamma_s(t)}(\gamma'_s(t)) dt$$

does not depend on  $s$  when  $d\omega = 0$ .



## Integrating 1-forms

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Given a homotopy  $\gamma_s$  between paths  $\gamma_0$  and  $\gamma_1$ ,

$$I_s = \int_0^T \omega_{\gamma_s(t)}(\gamma'_s(t)) dt$$

does not depend on  $s$  when  $d\omega = 0$ .

### Proof.

Up to splitting  $\gamma$ , we can suppose that we are working in a chart. In local coordinates we have

$$\omega_{\gamma_s(t)}(\gamma'_s(t)) = \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_t \gamma_s^i(t)$$

## Integrating 1-forms

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does not depend on  $s$  when  $d\omega = 0$ .

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_s I_s &= \int \partial_s [\omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_t \gamma_s^i(t)] dt \\ &= \int [\partial_s \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_t \gamma_s^i(t) + \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_s \partial_t \gamma_s^i(t)] dt \\ &= \int [\partial_s \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_t \gamma_s^i(t) - \partial_t \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) \partial_s \gamma_s^i(t)] dt \\ &= \int \partial_j \omega_i(\gamma_s(t)) [\partial_s \gamma_s^j \partial_t \gamma_s^i - \partial_t \gamma_s^j \partial_s \gamma_s^i] dt \\ &= \int (d\omega)_{ij} \partial_s \gamma^i \partial_t \gamma^j dt \end{aligned}$$



## The Poincaré Lemma

We have just shown that the integral only depends on the endpoints of  $\gamma : p \rightsquigarrow q$ , which always exists.

### Theorem

*When  $M$  is simply connected, every closed 1-form  $\omega$  (i.e.  $d\omega = 0$ ) is exact:  $\omega = d\mu$  with*

$$\mu(q) = \int_{\gamma} \omega$$

*for some path  $\gamma : p \rightsquigarrow q$  from some fixed point  $p$ .*

## The Poincaré Lemma

For instance, in the Maxwell equations we have

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$$

When the second term vanishes (under magneto-static conditions), we have

$$\text{d}\vec{E} = \nabla \times \vec{E} = 0$$

and therefore there exists a scalar function  $V$  such that

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla V$$

called the electric potential.

## A counter-example

When  $M$  is not simply connected, this fails to be true.

Consider  $M = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\}$  and with  $\gamma$  a loop around the unit circle (once) in counterclockwise orientation. Take

$$\omega = \frac{x \, dy - y \, dx}{x^2 + y^2}$$

This 1-form is closed ( $d\omega = 0$ ) and

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = \pi \neq 0 = \int_{\text{id}} \omega$$

where  $\text{id}$  is a constant loop.

(In order to show this, use polar coordinates by change of basis.)

## Formulation with loops

### Definition

A manifold is **contractible** if every loop based at a point  $p$  is homotopic to the constant loop at  $p$ .

### Proposition

A 1-form  $\omega$  is exact iff  $\oint_{\gamma} \omega = 0$  for every loop  $\gamma$ .

### Proof.

Use Green's theorem which states that

$$\int_{\gamma} \omega = \int_0^{\varepsilon} \int_0^{\varepsilon} (\partial_i \omega_j - \partial_j \omega_i) dx^i dx^j$$

□

## Towards Stokes' theorem

Recall

- the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a)$$

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$$\int_S (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot \vec{n} = \int_\gamma \vec{F}$$

- Gauss' theorem: given a volume  $R$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ ,

$$\int_R \nabla \cdot \vec{F} = \int_{\partial R} \vec{F} \cdot \vec{n}$$

## Manifolds with boundaries

### Definition

A **half-space**  $H$  is

$$H^n = \{ \pi(x) \geq 0 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$

where  $\pi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a non-zero linear map (typically the projection on  $x_n$ ).

Its boundary is

$$\partial H^n = \ker \pi \cong \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$$

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### Definition

An  **$n$ -manifold with boundary** is a manifold with charts

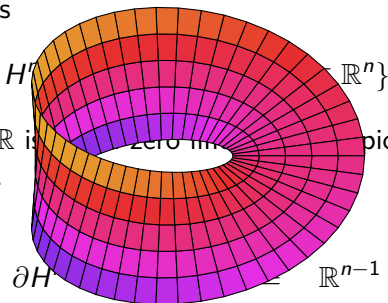
$$\varphi_i : U_i \rightarrow H^n$$

and smooth transition maps.

# Manifolds with boundaries

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An  $n$ -**manifold with boundary** is a manifold with charts

$$\varphi_i : U_i \rightarrow H^n$$

and smooth transition maps.

## Boundary

The **boundary** of such an  $n$ -manifold  $M$  is

$$\partial M = \{x \in M \mid \exists i, x \in U_i \text{ and } \varphi_i(x) \in \partial H^n\}$$

and is canonically an  $(n - 1)$ -manifold.

## Stokes' theorem

### Theorem

Given a compact oriented  $n$ -manifold  $M$  with boundary and an  $(n - 1)$ -form  $\omega$ ,

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

## DeRham cohomology

Given a manifold  $M$  we have constructed a cochain complex

$$\dots \xleftarrow{d^3} \Omega^2 M \xleftarrow{d^2} \Omega^1 M \xleftarrow{d^1} \Omega^0 M \xleftarrow{d^0} 0$$

of vector spaces:

$$d \circ d = 0$$

which implies

$$\text{im } d^k \subseteq \text{ker } d^{k+1}$$

(exact forms are closed).

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### Definition

We define the **DeRham cohomology groups** by

$$H^k = \text{ker } d^{k+1} / \text{im } d^k$$



We have  $H^0 M = \ker d^1$ . Given  $f \in H^0 M$ , we have locally

$$df = \partial_i f dx^i = 0$$

so  $f$  is constant on connected components.

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A basis of  $H^0 M$  is thus the  $f_i \in M^*$ , with  $i$  indexing connected components of  $M$ , such that

$$f_i(p) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \text{ in the } i\text{-th connected component} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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In other words

$$H^0 M \cong \mathbb{R}^c$$

where  $c$  is the number of connected components of  $M$ .

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Given a circle  $S$  in  $M$ , we have by Stoke's theorem

$$\int_S \omega = \int_S df = \int_{\partial S} f = 0$$

because  $\partial S$  is empty.

Consider  $\omega \in \text{im } d^1 \subseteq \Omega^1M$ : we have

$$\omega = df$$

for some  $f \in M^*$ .

Given a circle  $S$  in  $M$ , we have by Stoke's theorem

$$\int_S \omega = \int_S df = \int_{\partial S} f = 0$$

because  $\partial S$  is empty.

We have seen that if  $S$  is a circle around a hole then we can find  $\omega$  such that  $\int_S \omega \neq 0$ , so  $H^1M$  is not empty.

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$H^1M$  counts the “number of holes” in  $M$ .

Frobenius Algebras  
&  
Topological Quantum  
Field Theories

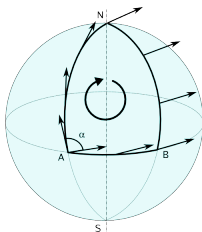


# Connections

## Connections

The idea of a connection is to relate nearby tangent spaces in order to

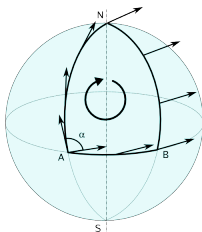
- *parallel transport*:



## Connections

The idea of a connection is to relate nearby tangent spaces in order to

- *parallel transport*:



- define the *derivative* of a vector field: the formula

$$D_v w = \lim_{q \rightarrow p} \frac{w(q) - w(p)}{\|q - p\|}$$

does not make sense because  $w(q) \in T_q M$  and  $w(p) \in T_p M$ .  
However, we will manage if we can parallel transport  $w(q)$   
into  $T_p M$ .

# Bundles

## Definition

A **bundle**

$$E \xrightarrow{\pi} M$$

is a manifold  $E$  equipped with a projection to  $M$ . The **fiber** over  $p \in M$  is

$$E_p = \{v \in E \mid \pi(v) = p\}$$

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For instance, the **trivial bundle** with **standard fiber**  $F$  is

$$M \times F$$

equipped with the first projection.

## Definition

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Given a submanifold  $U \subseteq M$ , we can define the restriction bundle

$$E|_U = \pi^{-1}(U) = \{v \in E \mid \pi(v) \in U\}$$

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A bundle is **locally trivial** with standard fiber  $F$  when each point  $p \in M$  has a neighborhood  $U$  and a bundle isomorphism

$$\varphi : E|_U \rightarrow U \times F$$

# Vector bundles

## Definition

A **vector bundle** is a bundle such that

- ① each fiber is a vector space



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A **vector bundle** is a bundle such that

- ① each fiber is a vector space
- ② and each point  $p \in M$  has a neighborhood  $U$  and a bundle morphism

$$\varphi : E|_U \rightarrow U \times \mathbb{R}^n$$

such that for every  $p \in U$ ,

$$\varphi(p, -) : E_p \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}^n$$

is a linear isomorphism.

## Vector bundles

Common operations on vector spaces extend fiberwise on bundles:

$$(E^*)_p = E_p^* \quad (E \otimes F)_p = E_p \otimes F_p \quad \text{etc.}$$

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We write  $\Gamma E$  for the manifold of sections of a bundle:

$$s : M \rightarrow E \quad \text{with} \quad \pi \circ s = \text{id}_M$$

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$$s = s^i e_i$$

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A vector bundle with a basis is isomorphic to a trivial bundle, so we generally consider basis only locally.

# Connections

## Definition

A **connection** is a bilinear map

$$\nabla : \Gamma TM \otimes \Gamma E \rightarrow \Gamma E$$

which is

- 1  $M^*$ -linear in the first variable:

$$\nabla_{fV} w = f \nabla_V w$$

- 2 Leibnitz in the second variable:

$$\nabla_V(fw) = df(V)w + V \nabla_V w$$

$\nabla_V w$  is called the **covariant derivative** of  $w$  in direction  $v$ .

## Parallel transport

### Definition

A vector field  $v$  is **parallel** if  $\nabla v = 0$  (i.e. for every  $w$ ,  $\nabla_w v = 0$ ).

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These often don't exist because parallel transport depend on paths:

## Definition

Given a path  $\gamma : p \rightsquigarrow q$  and  $v_p \in T_p M$ , a vector field  $v \in \Gamma TM$  is the **parallel transport** of  $v_p$  along  $\gamma$  if

- 1  $v(p) = v_p$
- 2  $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}(t)} v(\gamma(t)) = 0$  for every  $t$   
(i.e.  $v$  is parallel wrt the pullback connection on the pullback bundle  $\gamma^* TM$ )



## Connections in a basis

If we write locally the *vector potential*  $A$ :

$$D_{\partial_k} e_j = A_{kj}^i e_i$$

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we have, given a section  $s \in \Gamma E$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} D_v s &= D_{v^k \partial_k} s \\ &= v^k D_{\partial_k} s \\ &= v^k D_{\partial_k} (s^i e_i) \\ &= v^k \left( (\partial_k s^i) e_i + A_{ki}^j s^i e_j \right) \\ &= v^k \left( \partial_k s^i + A_{kj}^i s^j \right) e_i \end{aligned}$$

i.e.

$$(D_k s)^i = \partial_k s^i + A_{kj}^i s^j$$

## An $\text{End}(E)$ -valued 1-form

A connection is a linear map

$$\nabla : \Gamma TM \otimes \Gamma E \rightarrow \Gamma E$$

so locally, is described by a section  $A$  of

$$T^*U \otimes E^*|_U \otimes E|_U \cong T^*U \otimes (E|_U \rightarrow E|_U)$$

with coordinates

$$A = A_{kj}^i dx^k \otimes x^j \otimes x_i$$

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called the **vector potential**.

We can thus write

$$(\nabla_v s)^i = v(s^i) + (A(v)s)^i$$

## The flat connection

Given a choice of local trivialization of  $E$ , the **standard flat connection** is

$$\nabla_v^0 s = v(s^i) e_i$$

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### Proposition

*Any connection  $\nabla$  can be written as*

$$\nabla = \nabla^0 + A$$

*for some potential  $A \in \Gamma(T^*M \otimes (E \rightarrowtail E))$ , i.e.*

$$\nabla_v s = \nabla_v^0 s + A(v)s$$

## Torsion and curvature

### Definition

The **torsion** of  $\nabla$  is

$$T(v, w) = \nabla_v w - \nabla_w v - [v, w]$$

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### Definition

The **curvature** of  $\nabla$  is

$$R_{u,v}(w) = \nabla_u \nabla_v w - \nabla_v \nabla_u w - \nabla_{[u,v]} w$$



# Levi-Civita connection

## Theorem

Given a Riemannian manifold  $(M, g)$ , there exists a unique connection which is

- 1 an isometry:

$$\nabla g = 0$$

- 2 torsion-free: for any  $v, w \in \Gamma TM$ ,  $T(v, w) = 0$ , i.e.

$$\nabla_v w - \nabla_w v = [v, w]$$

# Differential $\lambda$ -calculus

## Syntax

Terms are built from the syntax

$$t ::= x \mid tt \mid \lambda x.t \mid \alpha t \mid t + t \mid 0 \mid Dt \cdot t$$

with  $x$  a variable and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  (or any fixed rig such as  $\mathbb{N}$ ).

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with  $x$  a variable and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  (or any fixed rig such as  $\mathbb{N}$ ).

So, we have added linear combination of terms, but more importantly

$$Dt \cdot u$$

which is the derivative of (function)  $t$  wrt its argument, and will satisfy

$$D(\lambda x.t) \cdot u = \lambda x. (\partial_x t \cdot u)$$

## Intuitions

The partial derivative  $\partial_x t \cdot u$  is the sum of all possible replacement of *one* occurrence of  $x$  in  $u$  by  $t$ :

$$\begin{aligned} D(\lambda x. x(xy)) \cdot u &= \lambda x. \partial_x(x(xy)) \cdot u \\ &= \lambda x. u(xy) + \lambda x. x(uy) \end{aligned}$$

## Structural congruence

We consider them up to structural congruence:

- $\alpha$ -conversion
- terms form an  $\mathbb{R}$ -module:  
 $(s + t) + u = s + (t + u), \alpha(\beta t) = (\alpha\beta)t, \dots$

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and

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\sum_k \alpha_k t_k\right) u &= \sum_k \alpha_k t_k u \\ \lambda x. \sum_k \alpha_k t_k &= \sum_k \alpha_k (\lambda x. t_k) \\ D(st) &= D(s)t \\ D(Dt \cdot u) \cdot v &= D(Dt \cdot v) \cdot u \\ D\left(\sum_k \alpha_k t_k\right) \cdot \left(\sum_l \beta_l u_l\right) &= \sum_{k,l} \alpha_k \beta_l (Dt_k \cdot u_l)\end{aligned}$$

## Linearity

Notice that we are linear in function only:

$$\left( \sum_k \alpha_k t_k \right) u = \sum_k \alpha_k t_k u$$

Otherwise, we would not be coherent with  $\beta$ -reduction:

$$(\lambda x.xx)(s+t) \longrightarrow (s+t)(s+t) = ss + st + ts + tt$$

vs

$$(\lambda x.xx)s + (\lambda x.xx)t \longrightarrow ss + tt$$



## Partial derivative

$$\partial_x \left( \sum_k \alpha_k t_k \right) \cdot u = \sum_k \alpha_k (\partial_x t_k) \cdot u$$

$$\partial_x x \cdot u = u$$

$$\partial_x y \cdot u = 0$$

$$\partial_x (st) \cdot u = (\partial_x s \cdot u) t + (Ds \cdot (\partial_x t \cdot u)) t$$

$$\partial_x (\lambda y \cdot t) \cdot u = \lambda y \cdot (\partial_x t \cdot u)$$

$$\partial_x ((Dt \cdot u) \cdot v) = D(\partial_x t \cdot v) + Dt \cdot (\partial_x u \cdot v)$$

## Reduction

- $\beta$ -reduction:

$$(\lambda x.s) t \longrightarrow s[t/x]$$

- differential reduction:

$$D(\lambda x.t) \cdot u \longrightarrow \lambda x. ((\partial_x s) \cdot u)$$

i.e. we substitute only one linear occurrence of  $x$  (and take the sum over all possibilities)

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### Theorem

*The reduction is confluent and differential  $\lambda$ -calculus is a conservative extension of  $\lambda$ -calculus (we did not quotient pure  $\lambda$ -terms wrt reduction).*

## Derivative wrt $i$ -th variable

The original article by Eherhard and Reigner defines  $D_i$ , differentiation with the  $i$ -th argument.

The generalization does not bring major problems:

$$D_0 = D$$

and

$$D_{i+1}(\lambda x.t) \cdot u = \lambda x.(D_i t \cdot u)$$

provided  $x \notin \text{FV}(u)$ .

(+ lots of details...)

## The Taylor formula

Terms can be generalized to countable sums of terms,  
i.e. formal series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k t_k$ .

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When we substitute  $x$  by  $u$  in  $t$ , we substitute it a fixed number  
 $n \in \mathbb{N}$  of times (the number of occurrences of  $x$ ):

### Theorem

$$tu \rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (D^n t \cdot u^n)_0$$

## Free algebras

### Definition

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So, the differential of a function

$$f : !A \multimap B$$

should be of type

$$df : !A \multimap A \multimap B \cong !A \otimes A \multimap B$$

# Differential Semantics

## The power of analogy

diff. geom.	comp. sci.
manifold	program (cfg)
vector field	choice (in branchings)
1-form	semantics
closed 1-form	local confluence

## Graphs as manifolds

### Definition

A **manifold**  $M$  is a graph with  $V$  as vertices,  $E$  as edges,  $s, t : E \rightarrow V$  as source and target maps, possibly with some higher-dimensional cells (such as a precubical set, a polygraph, etc.) and morphisms are graph morphisms (or maybe categorical morphisms ?).

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Starting from this we get the following.

- The **tangent bundle** is  $s : E \rightarrow V$ .
- The **tangent space** at  $x \in V$  is the set

$$T_x M = \{e \in E \mid s(e) = x\}$$

- A **vector field** consists of a choice of edge originating at every vertex.

# The state space

## Definition

The **state space**  $R$  is a (higher) category.

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## Example

- We can take  $R$  the category of possible memories and memory operations as morphisms. For instance, given a set  $V$  of values and a number  $k$  of memory cells,  $R$  is the simply connected groupoid on  $V^k$  (?).
- We can take  $R$  the category whose objects are elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  and the only morphism  $f : x \rightarrow y$  is  $y - x$ .
- Can we think of “non-trivial” examples?

## Differential forms

We suppose fixed a set  $S$  of **states** (typically the possible states for the memory of the computer). This will replace  $\mathbb{R}$  as “negation object”.

### Definition

The **dual** of a set  $X$  is

$$X^* \cong X \rightarrow S$$



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### Definition

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$$X^* \cong X \rightarrow S$$

- A **function**  $f : M^*$  is