

Recall, a tensor of type  $(r,s)$  at a point  $p \in M$  is a multilinear map,

$$T: \underbrace{T_p^*M \times \dots \times T_p^*M}_{r \text{ copies}} \times \underbrace{T_pM \times \dots \times T_pM}_{s \text{ copies}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

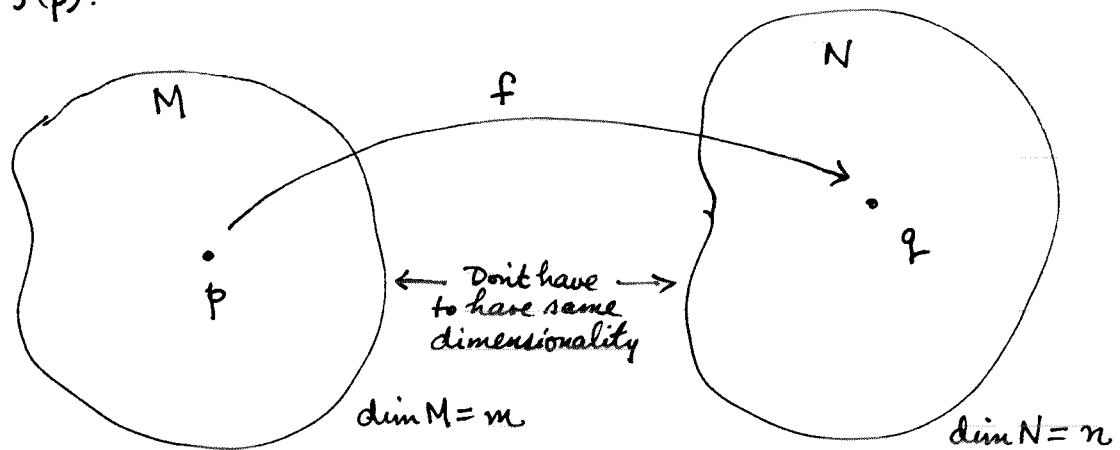
The components of  $T$  are given by (w.r.t. a chart)

$$T^{i_1 \dots i_r}_{j_1 \dots j_s} = T(dx^{i_1}, \dots, dx^{i_r}; \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{j_1}}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{j_s}}).$$

A tensor field on  $M$  is an assignment of a tensor at each point  $p \in M$ .

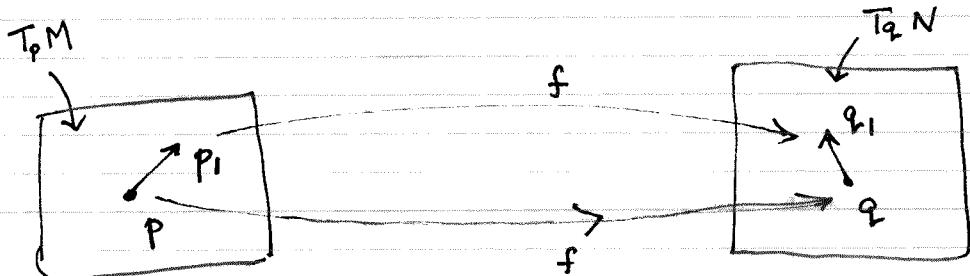
The components of a tensor field are functions of position.

Now we consider the behavior of fields under maps. Let  $f: M \rightarrow N$  be a map between manifolds, let  $p \in M$  and  $q \in N$  be points such that  $q = f(p)$ .

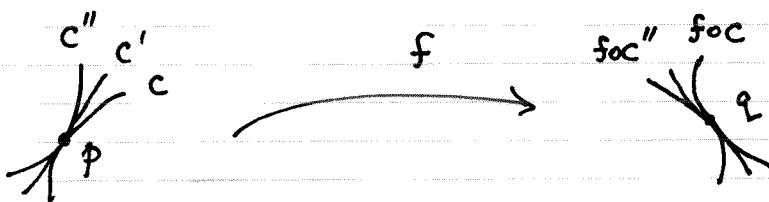


Question: Given  $X \in T_p M$ , is there any way to associate it with a  $Y \in T_{f(p)} N$ ? Yes, use the small displacement interpretation of a tangent vector ( $p$ , close to  $p$ ), and define  $q_1 = f(p_1)$ . (You map both the base and the tip of the small arrow under  $f$ ,

to get a new small arrow on  $N$ . Both are understood to be displacements taking place in some elapsed parameter  $\Delta t$ .)



Alternatively, in the equivalence class of curves interpretation, just map the curves themselves:



Thus we can say, if  $X = [c]$ , then  $Y = [f \circ c]$ . This defines a map

linear

$$f_* : T_p M \rightarrow T_q N$$

where  $f_*$  is called the tangent map, derivative map, or push-forward. Note that  $f_*$  can be defined succinctly by

$$f_* [c] = [f \circ c].$$

If we impose coordinates (charts) on  $M$  and  $N$  (containing  $p$  and  $q$ ), we can write  $f_*$  in coordinates. Let  $x^i$  be coordinates on  $M$  and  $y^i$  those on  $N$ . Let

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^n x^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}|_p$$

$$f_* x = Y = \sum_{i=1}^n Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}|_q$$

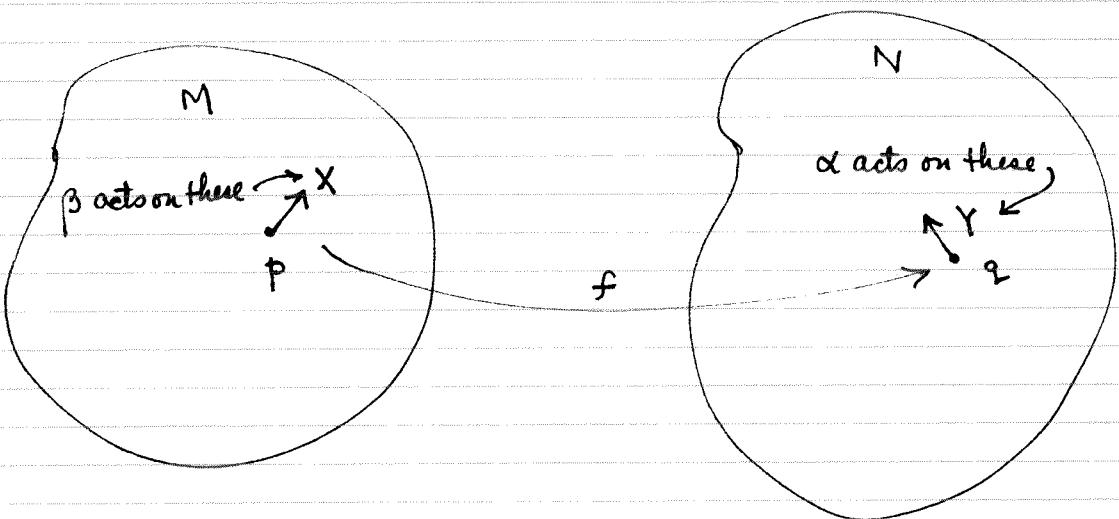
Then

this is just the chain rule,  
 ↵ if you think  $x^i = \frac{dx^i}{dt}$ ,  $y^i = \frac{dy^i}{dt}$ .

$$y^i = \sum_j \frac{\partial y^i}{\partial x^j} x^j,$$

where  $\frac{\partial y^i}{\partial x^j}$  is the coordinate representation of the derivatives of  $f$ .

This is how we map vectors. For covectors, it works the other way, i.e., given a covector  $\alpha \in T_q^* N$ , we can associate it with another covector  $\beta \in T_p^* M$ .



That is, we define a map  $f^*: T_q^* N \rightarrow T_p^* M$  by demanding  $\beta(X) = \alpha(Y)$  when  $Y = f_* X$ . That is,  $\beta = f^* \alpha$  is defined by

$$(f^* \alpha)(X) = \alpha(f_* X), \quad \forall X \in T_p M.$$

The covector  $f^* \alpha \in T_p^* M$  is said to be the pull-back of  $\alpha \in T_q^* N$ , because it works in the opposite direction to  $f$ .

This is for a covector at a point (two of them,  $\alpha$  and  $f^* \alpha$ ).

- If now we let  $\alpha$  be a covector field (same symbol, new meaning),  $\alpha \in \mathbb{X}^*(N)$ , then  $f^* \alpha \in \mathbb{X}^*(M)$ , is given by

$$(f^*\alpha)_p(x) = \alpha_{f(p)}(f_*x), \quad \forall p \in M$$

(4)

where the subscript indicates the point at which the field is evaluated.

Thus 1-forms on N get pulled back into 1-forms on M.

A simpler example of the pull-back is for scalar fields. Let  $\phi \in \mathcal{F}(N)$ ,  $\phi: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a scalar field. Then we define the pull-back  $\psi = f^*\phi \in \mathcal{F}(M)$  by

$$\psi(p) = (f^*\phi)(p) = \phi(f(p)) = (\phi \circ f)(p),$$

that is,  $f^*\phi = \phi \circ f$ .

Return to the pull-back of covectors, and put it into coordinate language. Let  $x^i, y^i$  be coordinates on M and N as above, and let  $\beta = f^*\alpha$ , so that

$$\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i dy^i|_q$$

$$\beta = \sum_{i=1}^m \beta_i dx^i|_p$$

Then

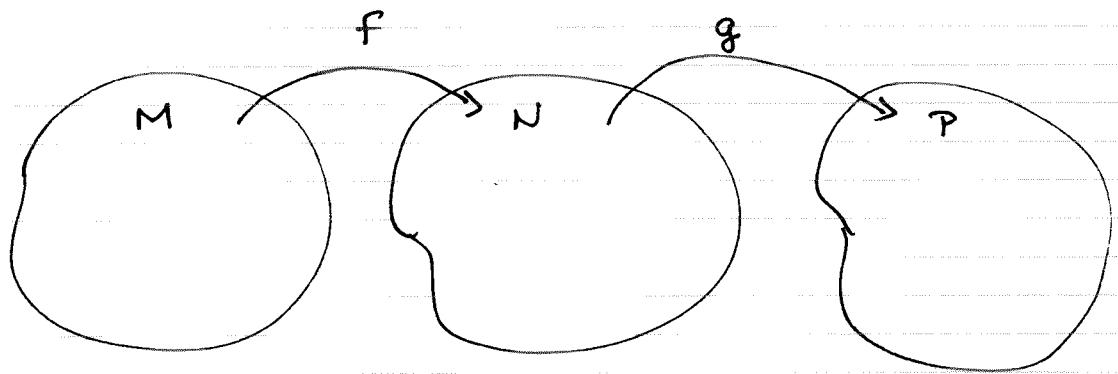
$$\beta_i = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial y^j}{\partial x^i} \alpha_j.$$

Notice that  $f^{-1}$  need not be defined in order to define  $f_*$  and  $f^*$ . In particular, M and N need not have the same dimensionality. But if  $f^{-1}$  does exist (then  $\dim M = \dim N$ ), then we can "push forward" covectors from M to N (by  $f^{-1*}$ ) and  
(continued page after next)

5

Behavior of  $f^*$ ,  $f_*$  under compositions. Let  $f: M \rightarrow N$ ,

$$g: N \rightarrow P$$



Then

$$g \circ f : M \rightarrow P,$$

and  $(g \circ f)_* = g_* \circ f_*$ .

This is fairly obvious, you just map the small displacement vector (in  $M$ ) under a succession of 2 linear maps, first by  $f_*$ , then  $g_*$ , to get  $(g \circ f)_*$ .

As for pull-backs, the rule is

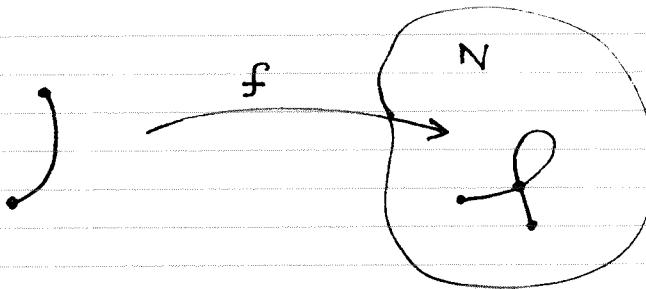
$$(g \circ f)^* = f^* \circ g^* \quad (\text{in reverse order}).$$

"pull-back" vectors from  $N$  to  $M$  (by  $f_*^{-1}$ ).

Now consider the mapping  ~~$\rightarrow$~~  of one manifold of a certain dimensionality into one of higher dimensionality,  $f: M \rightarrow N$ ,  $\dim M \leq \dim N$ . Then  $f$  is called an immersion if  $f_*$  is of maximal rank,

$$\text{rank } f_*: T_p M \rightarrow T_{f(p)} N = \dim M.$$

This means that each little piece of  $M$ , which looks like  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , gets mapped into a subset of  $N$  that also looks like  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . This means that  $f_*$  is injective (the image of  $M$  under  $f$  is locally  $\overset{\leftarrow}{\dim M}$ -dimensional). However, an immersion does not preclude self-intersections:

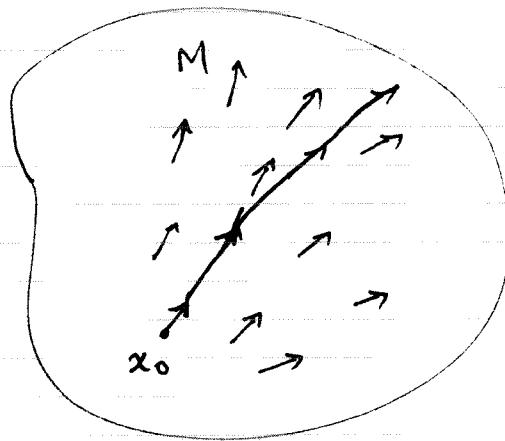


To exclude self-intersections, we can demand that  $f$  itself be an injection. ~~This means~~ Then  $f$  is called an imbedding (because  $f$  "looks like"  $M$ ).

Now we consider ordinary differential equations (ODE's) and flows.

Begin with an intuitive picture of a vector field, as a small displacement (each understood to be taking place in some elapsed parameter  $\Delta t$ ), attached to each point of  $M$ :

- picture of  
 $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$



Idea: Each point gets up and moves a small amount in time  $\Delta t$ .

If you just follow these arrows, starting with some initial point  $x_0$ , you trace out a curve called the integral curve of  $X$ . By following an integral curve for time  $t$ , starting at  $x_0$ , you get a final point  $\Phi(x_0, t)$  described by a function

$\downarrow$  at least sometimes it has this domain

$$\Phi: M \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow M,$$

$$x = \Phi(x_0, t),$$

where  $\Phi$  is called ~~the~~ <sup>the</sup> advance map.

To make this more precise, express the vector field  $X$  in some chart:

$$X = \sum_i X^i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$$

This is an operator which when acting on scalars  $f$  gives a number interpreted as  $df/dt$ . In particular, letting it act on the coordinates themselves gives a set of ODEs:

$$\frac{dx^i}{dt} = X^i(x).$$

$x$ = a point
$x^i$ = its coordinates
$X$ = a vector
$X^i$ = its components.

Thus, a vector field on a manifold is a generalization of a system of ODE's on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Standard theorems on ODE's say that the system above has a unique solution  $x^i(t)$  satisfying  ~~$x^i(0) = x_0^i$~~  for  $t$  in some interval

$[0, T]$ , if the functions  $x^i(x)$  are smooth. This is the (important) uniqueness theorem for ODE's (really, existence and uniqueness).

However, even if the vector field  $\mathbf{x}^i(x)$  is smooth, the solution may not exist for all  $t$  (for example, it may run off to infinity in finite  $t$ ). (For an example of this, consider  $\dot{x} = x^2$ ,  $x_0 = 1$  ( $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ), for which  $x \rightarrow \infty$  as  $t \rightarrow 1$ .) For simplicity, we will assume that this does not happen, i.e., that solutions  $x^i(t)$  exist for all time, for any  $x_0^i$ . Then we can speak of the "general solution functions"  $\Phi^i(t, x_0)$  that give  $x^i(t)$ , assuming  $x^i(0) = x_0^i$ . These ~~solutions~~ functions satisfy, [we write  $\dot{x}^i(t) = \Phi^i(t, x_0)$ , indicating explicitly the dependence on i.c.'s]

$$1) \quad \Phi^i(0, x_0) = x_0^i$$

$$2) \quad \frac{\partial \Phi^i}{\partial t}(t, x_0) = \mathbf{x}^i(\Phi(t, x_0)).$$

These are just the initial conditions and ODE's expressed in terms of  $\Phi^i$ . [We would normally write them,

$$1) \quad x^i(0) = x_0^i$$

$$2) \quad \frac{dx^i}{dt} = \mathbf{x}^i(x(t)) . ]$$

All of the above is in one chart. By mapping a solution  $x^i(t)$  in the given chart back onto  $M$ , we get a segment of an integral curve. Just before we run off one chart we can switch to another, thereby continuing the integral curve.

The result is that we define a map  $\Phi: \mathbb{R} \times M \rightarrow M$  or maps  $\Phi_t: M \rightarrow M$  (a different notation), such that