

(1)

Another ( $r=1$ ) example of  $d$ . Let  $A \in \Omega^1(M)$ ,

$$A = A_\mu dx^\mu$$

$$\text{Then } dA = A_{\mu,\nu} dx^\nu \wedge dx^\mu$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{(A_{\nu,\mu} - A_{\mu,\nu})}_{\text{components of } F} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu.$$

$\hookrightarrow$  components of  $F = dA$ ,  $F \in \Omega^2(M)$ .

$$F = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu.$$

Example with  $r=2$ . Let  $F \in \Omega^2(M)$ ,

$$F = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$$

$$dF = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu,\sigma} dx^\sigma \wedge dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$$

$$= \frac{1}{3!} \underbrace{(F_{\mu\nu,\sigma} + F_{\sigma\mu,\nu} + F_{\nu\sigma,\mu})}_{\text{components of } dF} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \wedge dx^\sigma$$

We recognize these examples from E+M ( $A_\mu$  = vector potential,  $F_{\mu\nu}$  = field tensor).

### Properties of $d$ .

(1) Distributive law on  $\wedge$  product. Let  $\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$ ,  $\beta \in \Omega^s(M)$ .

$$\text{Then } d(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (d\alpha) \wedge \beta + (-1)^{r-s} \alpha \wedge (d\beta).$$

(2) If  $\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$ , then

$$d\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_{r+1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{r+1} (-1)^{i+1} x_i \alpha(x_1, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, x_{r+1})$$

$\downarrow$  omit.

$$+ \sum_{i < j} (-1)^{i+j} \alpha([x_i, x_j], x_1, \dots, \hat{x}_i, \dots, \hat{x}_j, \dots, x_{r+1}).$$

$$(3) \quad d^2 = 0.$$

Comments. Property (2) is equivalent to defn of  $d$  (since it gives action of  $dd$  on arb. set of vectors). Turns out properties (1)+(3) also imply defn of  $d$ . Prop. (1) follows easily from " $d = \partial \wedge$ " (you use a chain rule, but in order to bring the  $d$  in to act on  $\beta$  in the 2nd term, you must commute it through  $\alpha$ , which introduces  $(-1)^r$  factor.)

Proof of property (3):

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{r!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_r}$$

$$d\alpha = \frac{1}{r!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r, \nu} dx^\nu \wedge dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_r} \quad (\text{defn. of } d).$$

$$dd\alpha = \frac{1}{r!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r, \nu \sigma} \underbrace{dx^\sigma \wedge dx^\nu}_{\text{symm}} \wedge \underbrace{dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_r}}_{\text{antisymm}} = 0.$$

Special cases of (2):

$$r=0, \quad f \in \mathcal{F}(M).$$

$$df(x) = x f.$$

$$r=1, \quad \alpha \in \Omega^1(M)$$

$$d\alpha(X, Y) = X \alpha(Y) - Y \alpha(X) - \alpha([X, Y])$$

$$r=2, \quad \beta \in \Omega^2(M)$$

$$d\beta(X, Y, Z) = X \beta(Y, Z) - Y \beta(X, Z) + Z \beta(X, Y) \\ - \beta([X, Y], Z) + \beta([X, Z], Y) - \beta([Y, Z], X).$$

(A) Another property of  $d$ . Let  $f: M \rightarrow N$  be a map (not nec. a diffeo.). Let  $\alpha \in \Omega^r(N)$ , so  $f^*\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$ . Then

$$f^*(d\alpha) = d(f^*\alpha) \quad d \text{ commutes with pull-backs.}$$

Easy to prove in components/coordinates.

### Important terminology.

An  $r$ -form  $\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$  is closed if  $d\alpha = 0$ .

It is exact if  $\exists \beta \in \Omega^{r-1}(M)$  such that  $d = d\beta$ .

Now we consider the interior product. Let  $x \in X(M)$ , then the interior product is an operator  $i_x: \Omega^r(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{r-1}(M)$ , defined by ( $\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$ ):

$$(i_x \alpha)(Y_1, \dots, Y_{r-1}) = \alpha(x, Y_1, \dots, Y_{r-1}).$$

This is a purely algebraic operation (just insert  $x$  into 1st slot of  $\alpha$ ), no differentiation required. Notice that  $i_x$  lowers the rank of  $\alpha$ , while  $d$  raises it. Properties of  $i_x$ :

$$(1) \quad i_x(\alpha \wedge \beta) = (i_x \alpha) \wedge \beta + (-1)^r \alpha \wedge (i_x \beta), \quad \alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$$

$$(2) \quad i_x^2 = 0$$

$$(3) \quad [L_x = i_x d + d i_x] \quad (\text{Acting on forms}).$$

Property (3) is the Cartan formula. The geometrical meaning of this formula must wait until we cover Stokes' theorem.

A proof is given in the book. The proof I prefer runs along

these lines:

- ① Show that the Cartan formula works for  $r=0$  and  $r=1$ .
- ② Show that  $i_x d + d i_x$  is a derivation (obeys Leibnitz) when acting on  $\wedge$  products.

These steps are straightforward. They prove the Cartan formula because an arbitrary form can be represented as a linear combination of  $\wedge$  products of 0-forms and 1-forms.