Practice Problems For Mathematics 4B03

Question 1 : (Carmo page 61)

An *n*-dimensional differentiable manifold with (regular) boundary is a set M and a family of injective maps $f_{\alpha} : U_{\alpha} \subset H^n \to M$ of open sets of H^n into M such that:

- 1. $\bigcup_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(U_{\alpha}) = M$
- 2. For all pairs α , β with $f_{\alpha}(U_{\alpha}) \cap f_{\beta}(U_{\beta}) = W \neq \phi$ the sets $f_{\alpha}^{-1}(W)$ and $f_{\beta}^{-1}(W)$ are open sets in H^n and the maps $f_{\beta}^{-1} \circ f_{\alpha}$, $f_{\alpha}^{-1} \circ f_{\beta}$ are differentiable.
- 3. The family $\{(U_{\alpha}, f_{\alpha})\}$ is maximal relative to (1) and (2).
- (i) S^4 is an example of a four-dimensional compact manifold with boundary.
- (ii) The mobius band is an example of a non-orientable two-dimensional compact manifold with boundary.
- (iii) A cone with a point removed or H^n , the half plane with dimension n, are both examples of an orientable non-compact manifold with boundary.

Question 2 : (Hitchin page 23)

A vector field on a manifold M is a smooth map

$$X: M \to TM = \bigcup_{a \in M} T_a$$

such that

$$p \circ X = id_M.$$

- T_a when $a \in M$ is the dual space of the quotient space $T_a^* = C^{\infty}(M)/Z_a$
- $C^{\infty}(M)$ is all the C^{∞} function on M. Recall that a function is C^{∞} if it has derivatives of all orders.
- $p: TM \to M$ is the projection map which assigns $X_a \in T_aM$ to a. p has the property that it is smooth with surjective derivative.
- (i) For $a, b \in \mathbb{H}$ (the unit quaternions) with the regular definitions of i, j and k the following 6 vector fields are everywhere linearly independent on $S^3 \times S^3$.

$\langle ia, ib \rangle$	$\langle ia, jb \rangle$
$\langle ja, jb \rangle$	$\langle ia, kb \rangle$
< ka, kb >	$\langle ja, kb \rangle$

(ii) Pictured on Camo page 101 for I = -2 where I is the index.

(iii) By Gauss-Bonet theorem there are no vector fields on S^2 which have no zeros. The explanation is as follows: Gauss Bonet Theorem states that

$$2\pi\chi(M) = 2\pi \sum_{p_i \in A} I(p_i) = \iint_M k dA$$

where χ is the Euler characteristic, $A = \{p : V(p) = 0\}$ where V is any vector field, and I is the index of p_i .

We know that $\chi(S^2) = 2$ however in order to have a vector filed V with no zeros we must have that $2\pi\chi(S^2) = 0$ which is impossible.

Question 3 : (Garrity page 122)

Let M be a manifold. An exterior differential k-form on M is a map ω such that

$$\omega: M \longrightarrow \wedge^k (T_p M) *,$$

Written:

$$\omega(p) = \sum_{i_1 < \ldots < i_k} a_{i_1 \ldots i_k}(p) (dx^{i_1} \wedge \ldots \wedge dx^{i_k})_p$$

for $i_j \in \{1...n\}$, where each $a_{i_1...i_k}$ is differentiable.

- (i) There are no closed 2-forms on S^3 that are not exact.
- (ii) A simple closed 1-form on the torus T^2 , using the canonical parametrization in euclidian space, is:

$$\omega = d\theta$$

(iii)

Question 4 : (mathworld)

A *lie group* is a differentiable manifold obeying the group properties and that satisfies the additional condition that the group operations are differentiable.

The simplest examples of Lie groups are one-dimensional. Under addition, the real line is a Lie group. After picking a specific point to be the identity element, the circle is also a Lie group. Another point on the circle at angle θ from the identity then acts by rotating the circle by the angle θ In general, a Lie group may have a more complicated group structure, such as the orthogonal group O(n) (i.e., the orthogonal matrices), or the general linear group (i.e., the invertible matrices).

A Lie Group is a differentiable manifold G that is also a group in the algebraic sense, with multiplication $m: G \times G \longrightarrow G$ and inversion $i: G \longrightarrow G$, both differentiable, given by:

$$m(g,h) = gh \qquad \qquad i(g) = g^{-1}$$

Look at $SO(3) = \{A \in O(3) : det(A) = 1\}$:

This is clearly a group under matrix multiplication since $I_3 \in SO(3)$, matrix multiplication is associative, and for $A, B \in SO(3)$:

$$(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T} = B^{-1}A^{-1} = (AB)^{-1} \qquad det(AB) = det(A)det(B) = 1$$

and

 $A^{-1} = A^T \in SO(3)$ since $det(A) = det(A^T)$ and $A^T \in O(3)$.

In SO(3), multiplication is differentiable because the matrix entries of AB are linear polynomials of the entries of A and B, and inversion is differentiable because Cramer's rule expresses entries of A^{-1} as rational functions of entries of A.

Look at $T^3 = S^1 \times S^1 \times S^1$:

We can easily see that S^1 is a lie group by simply imbedding it in the complex plane. Then $S^1 = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\}$. This is a group under complex multiplication, and $m(e^{i\theta_1}, e^{i\theta_2}) = e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$ and $i(e^{i\theta_1}) = e^{-i\theta_1}$ are both clearly smooth maps.

Now, if G_1 and G_2 are lie groups, $G_1 \times G_2$ is also a lie group with componentwise multiplication, so T^3 is a lie group.

Next, a basis for the tangent space of SO(3) at the identity is:

$$E_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad E_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad E_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since SO(3) is a lie group, we can use the group action through left multiplication to cycle through the group, so our linearly independent vector fields are:

$$\varphi(a) = aE_1$$
 $\varphi(a) = aE_2$ $\varphi(a) = aE_3.$

NOT DONE

Question 5: (Hitchin page 53)

An *n*-dimensional manifold is said to be *orientable* if it has an everywhere non-vanishing n-form ω .

 $\mathbb{R}p^n$ is orientable if n is odd and nonorientable if n is even. There is a map $\phi : S^n \to \mathbb{R}p^n$ defined as $\phi : x \mapsto [x]$ where [x] is the equivalency class of $x \sim -x$ where the det $\phi = (-1)^{n+1}$ so S^n has an orientation which will carry over to $\mathbb{R}p^n$ if the det $\phi = 1$. This implies that if n is odd $\mathbb{R}p^n$ has an orientation.

Yes, all Lie groups have an orientation. Pick any orientation at the identity point and then move this orientation to any point p by using the group operation.

Question 6: (mathworld)

Let $f: M \to N$ be a map between two compact, connected, oriented *n*-dimensional manifolds without boundary. Then f induces a homomorphism f_* from the homology groups $H_n(M)$ to $H_m(N)$, both canonically isomorphic to the integers, and so f_* can be thought of as a homomorphism of the integers. The integer d(f) to which the number 1 gets sent is called the degree of the map f.

There is an easy way to compute d(f) if the manifolds involved are smooth. Let $x \in \mathbb{N}$, and approximate f by a smooth map homotopic to f such that x is a "regular value" of f (which exist and are everywhere by sard's theorem). By the implicit function theorem, each point in $f^{-1}(x)$ has a neighborhood such that restricted to it is a diffeomorphism. If the diffeomorphism is orientation preserving, assign it the number -1, and if it is orientation reversing, assign it the number -1. Add up all the numbers for all the points in $f^{-1}(x)$, and that is the d(f), the degree of f. One reason why the degree of a map is important is because it is a homotopy invariant. A sharper result states that two self-maps of the *n*-sphere are homotopic iff they have the same degree. This is equivalent to the result that the *n*-th homotopy group of the *n*-sphere is the set \mathbb{Z} of integers. The isomorphism is given by taking the degree of any representation.

One important application of the degree concept is that homotopy classes of maps from n-spheres to n-spheres are classified by their degree (there is exactly one homotopy class of maps for every integer n, and n is the degree of those maps).

A map F of degree one from the torus $T^2 = S^1 \times S^1$ to the sphere S^2 is given by:

$$F: (\theta, \phi) \mapsto (\theta', \phi')$$

where

$$T^{2} = S^{1} \times S^{1} = ((a + b\cos\phi)\cos\theta, (a + b\cos\phi)\sin\theta, b\sin\phi)$$

and

 $S^2 = (\cos\theta'\cos\phi', \sin\theta'\cos\phi', \sin\phi')$

Where $F^{-1}(\pi, 0) = (\pi, 0)$ and $sign(DF_{\pi, 0}) = 1$ which implies that degF = 1.

Question 7: Since there are no exact 0-forms on T^2 or S^2 , and the closed forms on S^2 and T^2 are functions with df = 0 (constants). We have that

$$H^0(T^2) \approx H^0(S^2) \cong \mathbb{R}$$

Since every circle on S^2 is contractible to a point and every 1-form on S^2 can be seen as a 1-form on a circle in S^2 because if you have a closed form ω on S^2 by Poincare's Lemma you may take $\omega = df_+$ for some function f_+ on the upper half of ω and $\omega = df_-$ for some function f_- on the lower half. Since

$$\int_{\text{the equator}} \omega = 0$$

we have that

$$\oint df_+ = \oint df_- = 0 \Rightarrow \oint df_+ - df_- = 0$$

Which gives $d(f_+ - f_-) = 0$ so $f_+ = f_- + C$ for some constant C. So for $S^2 \omega = d(f_+)$ for some function f, so ω is exact.

lemma: every closed 1-form is exact. So there are no closed non-exact 1-froms $\Rightarrow H^1(S^2) = \{0\}$

 T^2 on the other hand has 2-linearly independent 1-froms $d\theta_1$, $d\theta_2$ where T^2 is parameterized by $(e^{i\theta_1}, e^{i\theta_2})$.

Any closed one-form on T^2 differes from $c_1 d\theta_1 + c_2 d\theta_2 + \dots + c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ by an exact form. So $\{\text{closed forms/exact forms}\} \cong \mathbb{R}^2 \Rightarrow H^1(T^2) \approx \mathbb{R}^2$ and isomorphic to $H^0(T^2)$ and $H^0(S^2)$, so

$$H^2(T^2) \approx \mathbb{R} \approx H^2(S^2)$$

Now to show that every differentiable map $f: S^2 \to T^2$ has degree zero we do

$$deg(f) = \frac{\int_{S}^{2} f^{*}\omega}{\int_{T}^{2} \omega}$$

so ω is a closed form which is not exact because $deg(f) = \frac{0}{\text{something}} = 0$.

Question 8: .

To prove that $\mathcal{L}_x \phi = \iota_x d\phi + d\iota_x \phi$ where $\iota_x : \Omega^p \to \Omega^{p-1}, d : \Omega^p \to \Omega^{p+1}$, and $\mathcal{L}_x : \Omega^p \to \Omega^p$ we only need to check the formula on functions and 1-forms of the form dx^i . So we let

$$\alpha = \sum a_{i_1,\dots,i_k} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_k}.$$

So since α is a p-form $\iota_x \alpha(v_1, ..., v_{p-1}) = \alpha(x, v_1, ..., v_{p-1})$ and

$$\mathcal{L}_x f = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\phi_t^*(f) - f}{t} = \frac{f \circ \phi_t - f}{t}.$$

So the directional derivative of F in the direction of x is given by $(\iota_x d + d\iota_x)f = \iota df = df(x) = x(f) = df(x)$. So $\mathcal{L}_x = \iota_x d + d\iota_x$ which implies that $\mathcal{L}_x \phi = (\iota_x d + d\iota_x)\phi = \iota_x d\phi + d\iota_x\phi$.

To computer $\mathcal{L}_x \phi$ for $X = x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + z \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$ and $\phi = e^{-x^2 - y^2 - z^2} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$ on \mathbb{R}^2 we realize that

$$= \mathcal{L}_{x}(f(x, y, z)dx \wedge dy \wedge dz)$$

= $(\mathcal{L}_{x}f)dx \wedge dy \wedge dz + fd(\mathcal{L}_{x}x) \wedge dy \wedge dz + fdx \wedge d(\mathcal{L}_{x}y) \wedge dz + fdx \wedge dy \wedge d(\mathcal{L}_{x}z)$
where $\mathcal{L}_{x}x = (x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + z\frac{\partial}{\partial z})x = x$ so
= $\mathcal{L}_{x}fdx \wedge dy \wedge dz + 3fdx \wedge dy \wedge dz$

we also note that

$$= \mathcal{L}_{x}f$$

= $(x\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + y\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + z\frac{\partial}{\partial z})e^{-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}} + x(e^{-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}})(-2x) + y(e^{-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}})(-2y) + z(e^{-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}})(-2z)$
= $-(2x^{2} + 2y^{2} + 2z^{2})e^{-x^{2}-y^{2}-z^{2}}$

so we complete the computation by doing

$$= \mathcal{L}_x f dx \wedge dy \wedge dz + 3f dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$$

= $-(2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2)e^{-x^2 - y^2 - z^2} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz + 3e^{-x^2 - y^2 - z^2} dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$

Question 9:

Question 10: (Garrity page 138)

Stoke's Theory: Let M be an oriented k-dimensional manifold in \mathbb{R}^n with boundary ∂M , a smooth (k-1)-dimensional manifold with orientation induced from the orientation of M. Let ω be a differential (k-1)-form. Then:

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

This is the quantitative version of the intuition that the

average of a function on boundary = average of a derivative on interior.

We will define S^- to be the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 1$ and S^+ to be the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 4$. and not that $\int_{S^2} P dy \wedge dz + Q dz \wedge dx + R dx \wedge dy = \int (P, Q, R) \cdot \vec{n}$ where \vec{n} is the normal to the sphere. Finally as given

$$\omega = \frac{xdy \wedge dz + ydz \wedge dx + zdx \wedge dy}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

for S^+

$$\int_{x^2+y^2+z^2=1} \frac{(x,y,z)}{4} \cdot \frac{(x,y,z)}{z} = \int_{S^2(2)} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{vol}(S^2(2)) = \frac{1}{2} 4\pi \cdot 4 = 8\pi$$

for S^-

$$\int_{x^2+y^2+z^2=1} (x,y,z) \cdot (x,y,z) = \int_{S^2} 1 = 4\pi$$

 So

$$\int_{\partial M} = \int_{S^+} \omega - \int_{S^-} \omega = 8\pi - 4\pi = 4\pi$$

Now it is necessary to check $\int d\omega$ against Stokes Theorem.

$$d\omega = 3\frac{dx \wedge dy \wedge dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - \frac{(2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2)dx \wedge dy \wedge dz}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2}$$

= $3\frac{dx \wedge dy \wedge dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - 2\frac{dx \wedge dy \wedge dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$
= $\frac{dx \wedge dy \wedge dz}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

and to take the integral we use polar co-ordinates and since the angles don't matter the integral will be the volume of the sphere

$$\int_{S^2} d\theta d\phi = \int_1^2 \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot r^2 dr = 4\pi$$

so we have that $\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$ as desired.

Question 11:

Question 12: (Hitchin page 61)

Brouwer's fixed point theorem: Let B be the unit ball $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x|| \le 1\}$ and let $F : B \to B$ be a smooth map from B to itself. Then F has a fixed point, that is, there exists x such that F(x) = x.

proof:

Step 1: Show that there does not exist a differentiable map $f : B^n \to S^{n-1} = \partial B^n$ such that $f|_{\partial B^n} = identity$. Since ∂B^n is a compact, orientalbe manifold there is a nowhere vanishing n-1 form ω on S^{n-1} . If we assume such an f exists then $d(f^*(\omega)) = f(d(\omega)) = 0$ since ω is an n-1 form and $dim(S^{n-1}) = n-1$, so $d\omega = 0$. Now by Stokes Theory we have:

$$0 = \int_{B}^{n} d(f^{*}(\omega)) = \int_{\partial B^{n}} f^{*}(\omega) = \int_{\partial B^{n}} \omega \neq 0$$

since ω is increasing. This serves as a contradiction.

Step 2: Assume there exists a differentiable $g: B^n \to B^n$ with $g(p) \neq p$ for all $p \in B^n$. Then the line through p and g(p) intersects ∂B^n at two points, so the ray starting at g(p) and passing through p intersects ∂B^n at one point.

Let $h: B^n \to \partial B^n$ be the map given by $p \mapsto t_p(p-g(p))$ where t_p is some non-negative real number so that $||g(p) + t_p(p-g(p))|| = 1$.

Then h is a continuous differentiable map and well defined because $g(p) \neq p$ and $h|_{\partial B^n} = identity$ which contradicts Step 1.

So it must be the case that the Brouwer's fixed point theorem is correct.

Question 13: (Clara)

Given $\sigma(u, v) = (a \cos u \cos v, b \cos u \sin v, c \sin u)$, the parameterization of the ellipsoid, the calculation for the Gaussian curvature is as follows:

$$\sigma_u = (-a\sin u\cos v, -b\sin u\sin v, c\cos u) \qquad \sigma_v = (-a\cos u\sin v, b\cos u\cos v, 0)$$

$$\sigma_{uu} = (=a\cos u\cos v, -b\cos u\sin v, -c\sin u) \qquad \sigma_{uv} = (a\sin u\sin v, -b\sin u\cos v, 0)$$

$$\sigma_{vv} = (-a\cos u\cos v, -b\cos u\sin v, 0)$$

$$\begin{split} n &= \frac{\phi_u \times \phi_v}{||\phi_u \times \phi_v||} \\ E &= <\sigma_u, \sigma_u >= \sin^2 u (a^2 \cos^2 v + b^2 \sin^2 v) + c^2 \cos^2 u \\ F &= <\sigma_u, \sigma_v >= (a^2 - b^2) \cos u \cos v \sin u \sin v \\ G &= <\sigma_v, \sigma_v >= \cos^2 u [(a^2 - b^2) \sin^2 v + b^2] \\ L &= \phi_{uu} \cdot n = \frac{abc \cos u}{\sqrt{b^2 c^2 \cos^4 u \cos^2 v + a^2 c^2 \cos^4 u \sin^2 v + a^2 b^2 \cos^2 u \sin^2 u}} \\ M &= \phi_{uv} \cdot n = 0 \\ N &= \phi_{vv} \cdot n = \frac{abc \cos^3 u}{\sqrt{b^2 c^2 \cos^4 u \cos^2 v + a^2 c^2 \cos^4 u \sin^2 v + a^2 b^2 \cos^2 u \sin^2 u}} \\ K &= \frac{LN - M^2}{EG - F^2} = \text{gaussian curvature} \end{split}$$

Question 14:

Question 15: