

## Chapter 13

# Differential forms

There is a special class of tensor fields, which is so useful as to have a separate treatment. There are called **differential  $p$ -forms** or  **$p$ -forms** for short.

- A  $p$ -form is a  $(0, p)$  tensor which is completely antisymmetric, i.e., given vector fields  $v_1, \dots, v_p$ ,

$$\omega(v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_p) = -\omega(v_1, \dots, v_j, \dots, v_i, \dots, v_p) \quad (13.1)$$

for any pair  $i, j$ .  $\square$

A 0-form is defined to be a function, i.e. an element of  $C^\infty(\mathcal{M})$ , and a 1-form is as defined earlier.

The antisymmetry of any  $p$ -form implies that it will give a non-zero result only when the  $p$  vectors are linearly independent. On the other hand, no more than  $n$  vectors can be linearly independent in an  $n$ -dimensional manifold. So  $p \leq n$ .

Consider a 2-form  $A$ . Given any two vector fields  $v_1, v_2$ , we have  $A(v_1, v_2) = -A(v_2, v_1)$ . Then the components of  $A$  in a chart are

$$A_{ij} = A(\partial_i, \partial_j) = -A_{ji}. \quad (13.2)$$

Similarly, for a  $p$ -form  $\omega$ , the components are  $\omega_{i_1 \dots i_p}$ , and components are multiplied by  $(-1)$  whenever any two indices are interchanged.

It follows that a  $p$ -form has  $\binom{n}{p}$  independent components in  $n$ -dimensions.

Any 1-form produces a function when acting on a vector field. So given a pair of 1-forms  $A, B$ , it is possible to construct a 2-form  $\omega$

by defining

$$\omega(u, v) = A(u)B(v) - B(u)A(v), \quad \forall u, v. \quad (13.3)$$

- This is usually written as  $\omega = A \otimes B - B \otimes A$ , where  $\otimes$  is called the **outer product**.  $\square$
- Then the above construction defines a product written as

$$\omega = A \wedge B = -B \wedge A, \quad (13.4)$$

and called the **wedge product**. Clearly,  $\omega$  is a 2-form.  $\square$

Let us work in a coordinate basis, but the results we find can be generalized to any basis. The coordinate bases for the vector fields,  $\{\partial_i\}$ , and 1-forms,  $\{dx^i\}$ , satisfy  $dx^i(\partial_j) = \delta_j^i$ . A 1-form  $A$  can be written as  $A = A_i dx^i$ , and a vector field  $v$  can be written as  $v = v^i \partial_i$ , so that  $A(v) = A_i v^i$ . Then for the  $\omega$  defined above and for any pair of vector fields  $u, v$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(u, v) &= A(u)B(v) - B(u)A(v) \\ &= A_i u^i B_j v^j - B_i u^i A_j v^j \\ &= (A_i B_j - B_i A_j) u^i v^j. \end{aligned} \quad (13.5)$$

The components of  $\omega$  are  $\omega_{ij} = \omega(\partial_i, \partial_j)$ , so that

$$\omega(u, v) = \omega(u^i \partial_i, v^j \partial_j) = \omega_{ij} u^i v^j. \quad (13.6)$$

Then  $\omega_{ij} = A_i B_j - B_i A_j$  for the 2-form defined above. We can now construct a basis for 2-forms, which we write as  $dx^i \wedge dx^j$ ,

$$dx^i \wedge dx^j = dx^i \otimes dx^j - dx^j \otimes dx^i. \quad (13.7)$$

Then a 2-form can be expanded in this basis as

$$\omega = \frac{1}{2!} \omega_{ij} dx^i \wedge dx^j, \quad (13.8)$$

because then

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(u, v) &= \frac{1}{2!} \omega_{ij} (dx^i \otimes dx^j - dx^j \otimes dx^i)(u, v) \\ &= \frac{1}{2!} \omega_{ij} (u^i v^j - u^j v^i) = \omega_{ij} u^i v^j. \end{aligned} \quad (13.9)$$

Similarly, a basis for  $p$ -forms is

$$dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_p} = dx^{[i_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes dx^{i_p]}, \quad (13.10)$$

where the square brackets stand for total antisymmetrization: all even permutations of the indices are added and all the odd permutations are subtracted. (Caution: some books define the ‘square brackets’ as antisymmetrization with a factor  $1/p!$ .) For example, for a 3-form, a basis is

$$\begin{aligned} dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k = & dx^i \otimes dx^j \otimes dx^k - dx^j \otimes dx^i \otimes dx^k \\ & + dx^j \otimes dx^k \otimes dx^i - dx^k \otimes dx^j \otimes dx^i \\ & + dx^k \otimes dx^i \otimes dx^j - dx^i \otimes dx^k \otimes dx^j. \end{aligned} \quad (13.11)$$

Then an arbitrary 3-form  $\Omega$  can be written as

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{3!} \Omega_{ijk} dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k. \quad (13.12)$$

Note that there is a sum over indices, so that the factorial goes away if we write each basis 3-form up to permutations, i.e. treating different permutations as equivalent. Thus a  $p$ -form  $\alpha$  can be written in terms of its components as

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{p!} \alpha_{i_1 \dots i_p} dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_p}. \quad (13.13)$$

**Examples:** A 2-form in two dimensions can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= \frac{1}{2!} \omega_{ij} dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \frac{1}{2!} (\omega_{12} dx^1 \wedge dx^2 + \omega_{21} dx^2 \wedge dx^1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2!} (\omega_{12} - \omega_{21}) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \\ &= \omega_{12} dx^1 \wedge dx^2. \end{aligned} \quad (13.14)$$

□

A 2-form in three dimensions can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \omega &= \frac{1}{2!} \omega_{ij} dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \omega_{12} dx^1 \wedge dx^2 + \omega_{23} dx^2 \wedge dx^3 + \omega_{31} dx^3 \wedge dx^1 \end{aligned} \quad (13.15)$$

In three dimensions, consider two 1-forms  $\alpha = \alpha_i dx^i$ ,  $\beta = \beta_i dx^i$ .  
Then

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha \wedge \beta &= (\alpha_i \beta_j - \alpha_j \beta_i) \frac{1}{2!} dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \alpha_i \beta_j dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= (\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \\ &\quad + (\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2) dx^2 \wedge dx^3 \\ &\quad + (\alpha_3 \beta_1 - \alpha_1 \beta_3) dx^3 \wedge dx^1.\end{aligned}\tag{13.16}$$

The components are like the cross product of vectors in three dimensions. So we can think of the wedge product as a generalization of the cross product.

• We can also define the **wedge product** of a  $p$ -form  $\alpha$  and a  $q$ -form  $\beta$  as a  $(p+q)$ -form satisfying, for any  $p+q$  vector fields  $v_1, \dots, v_{p+q}$ ,

$$\alpha \wedge \beta (v_1, \dots, v_{p+q}) = \frac{1}{p!q!} \sum_P (-1)^{\deg P} \alpha \otimes \beta (P(v_1, \dots, v_{p+q})).\tag{13.17}$$

Here  $P$  stands for a permutation of the vector fields, and  $\deg P$  is 0 or 1 for even and odd permutations, respectively. In the outer product on the right hand side,  $\alpha$  acts on the first  $p$  vector fields in a given permutation  $P$ , and  $\beta$  acts on the remaining  $q$  vector fields.  $\square$

The wedge product above can also be defined in terms of the components of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in a chart as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= \frac{1}{p!} \alpha_{i_1 \dots i_p} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p} \\ \beta &= \frac{1}{q!} \beta_{j_1 \dots j_q} dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_q} \\ \alpha \wedge \beta &= \frac{1}{p!q!} \alpha_{i_1 \dots i_p} \beta_{j_1 \dots j_q} (dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p}) \wedge (dx^{j_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{j_q}).\end{aligned}\tag{13.18}$$

Note that  $\alpha \wedge \beta = 0$  if  $p+q > n$ , and that a term in which some  $i$  is equal to some  $j$  must vanish because of the antisymmetry of the wedge product.

It can be shown by explicit calculation that wedge products are associative,

$$\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma) = (\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma.\tag{13.19}$$

Cross-products are not associative, so there is a distinction between cross-products and wedge products. In fact, for 1-forms in three dimensions, the above equation is analogous to the identity for the triple product of vectors,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}. \quad (13.20)$$

For a  $p$ -form  $\alpha$  and  $q$ -form  $\beta$ , we find

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = (-1)^{pq} \beta \wedge \alpha. \quad (13.21)$$

**Proof:** Consider the wedge product written in terms of the components. We can ignore the parentheses separating the basis forms since the wedge product is associative. Then we exchange the basis 1-forms. One exchange gives a factor of  $-1$ ,

$$dx^{i_p} \wedge dx^{j_1} = -dx^{j_1} \wedge dx^{i_p}. \quad (13.22)$$

Continuing this process, we get

$$\begin{aligned} dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_p} \wedge dx^{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{j_q} \\ &= (-1)^p dx^{j_1} \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_p} \wedge dx^{j_2} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{j_q} \\ &= \cdots \\ &= (-1)^{pq} dx^{j_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{j_q} \wedge dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_p}. \end{aligned} \quad (13.23)$$

Putting back the components, we find

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = (-1)^{pq} \beta \wedge \alpha \quad (13.24)$$

as wanted.  $\square$

- The wedge product defines an algebra on the space of differential forms. It is called a **graded commutative algebra**.  $\square$
- Given a vector field  $v$ , we can define its **contraction** with a  $p$ -form by

$$\iota_v \omega = \omega(v, \cdots) \quad (13.25)$$

with  $p-1$  empty slots. This is a  $(p-1)$ -form. Note that the position of  $v$  only affects the sign of the contracted form.  $\square$

**Example:** Consider a 2-form made of the wedge product of two 1-forms,  $\omega = \lambda \wedge \mu = \lambda \otimes \mu - \mu \otimes \lambda$ . Then contraction by  $v$  gives

$$\iota_v \omega = \omega(v, \bullet) = \lambda(v)\mu - \mu(v)\lambda = -\omega(\bullet, v). \quad (13.26)$$

If we have a  $p$ -form  $\omega = \frac{1}{p!} \omega_{i_1 \dots i_p} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p}$ , its contraction with a vector field  $v = v^i \partial_i$  is

$$\iota_v \omega = \frac{1}{(p-1)!} \omega_{ii_2 \dots i_p} v^i dx^{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p}. \quad (13.27)$$

Note the sum over indices. To see how the factor becomes  $\frac{1}{(p-1)!}$ , we write the contraction as

$$\iota_v \omega = \frac{1}{p!} \omega_{i_1 \dots i_p} dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p} (v^i \partial_i). \quad (13.28)$$

Since the contraction is done in the first slot, so we consider the action of each basis 1-form  $dx^{i_k}$  on  $\partial_i$  by carrying  $dx^{i_k}$  to the first position and then writing a  $\delta_i^{i_k}$ . This gives a factor of  $(-1)$  for each exchange, but we get the same factor by rearranging the indices of  $\omega$ , thus getting a  $+1$  for each index. This leads to an overall factor of  $p$ .

• given a diffeomorphism  $\varphi : \mathcal{M}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{M}_2$ , the **pullback** of a 1-form  $\lambda$  (on  $\mathcal{M}_2$ ) is  $\varphi^* \lambda$ , defined by

$$\varphi^* \lambda(v) = \lambda(\varphi_* v) \quad (13.29)$$

for any vector field  $v$  on  $\mathcal{M}_1$ .  $\square$

Then we can consider the pullback  $\varphi^* dx^i$  of a basis 1-form  $dx^i$ . For a general 1-form  $\lambda = \lambda_i dx^i$ , we have  $\varphi^* \lambda = \varphi^*(\lambda_i dx^i)$ . But

$$\varphi^* \lambda(v) = \lambda(\varphi_* v) = \lambda_i dx^i(\varphi_* v). \quad (13.30)$$

Now,  $dx^i(\varphi_* v) = \varphi^* dx^i(v)$  and the thing on the right hand side is a function on  $\mathcal{M}_1$ , so we can write this as

$$\varphi^* \lambda(v) = (\varphi^* \lambda_i) \varphi^* dx^i(v), \quad (13.31)$$

where  $\varphi^* \lambda_i$  are now functions on  $\mathcal{M}_1$ , i.e.

$$(\varphi^* \lambda_i)|_P = \lambda_i|_{\varphi(P)} \quad (13.32)$$

So we can write  $\varphi^* \lambda = (\varphi^* \lambda_i) \varphi^* dx^i$ . For the wedge product of two 1-forms,

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi^*(\lambda \wedge \mu)(u, v) &= (\lambda \wedge \mu)(\varphi_* u, \varphi_* v) \\ &= \lambda \otimes \mu(\varphi_* u, \varphi_* v) - \mu \otimes \lambda(\varphi_* u, \varphi_* v) \\ &= \lambda(\varphi_* u) \mu(\varphi_* v) - \mu(\varphi_* u) \lambda(\varphi_* v) \\ &= \varphi^* \lambda(u) \varphi^* \mu(v) - \varphi^* \mu(u) \varphi^* \lambda(v) \\ &= (\varphi^* \lambda \wedge \varphi^* \mu)(u, v). \end{aligned} \quad (13.33)$$

Since  $u, v$  are arbitrary vector fields it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi^*(\lambda \wedge \mu) &= \varphi^*\lambda \wedge \varphi^*\mu \\ \varphi^*(dx^i \wedge dx^j) &= \varphi^*dx^i \wedge \varphi^*dx^j .\end{aligned}\quad (13.34)$$

Since the wedge product is associative, we can write (by assuming an obvious generalization of the above formula)

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi^*(dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k) &= \varphi^*((dx^i \wedge dx^j) \wedge dx^k) \\ &= \varphi^*(dx^i \wedge dx^j) \wedge \varphi^*dx^k \\ &= \varphi^*dx^i \wedge \varphi^*dx^j \wedge \varphi^*dx^k ,\end{aligned}\quad (13.35)$$

and we can continue this for any number of basis 1-forms. So for any  $p$ -form  $\omega$ , let us define the pullback  $\varphi^*\omega$  by

$$\varphi^*\omega(v_1, \dots, v_p) = \omega(\varphi_*v_1, \dots, \varphi_*v_p) ,\quad (13.36)$$

and in terms of components, by

$$\varphi^*\omega = \frac{1}{p!} (\varphi^*\omega_{i_1 \dots i_p}) \varphi^*dx^{i_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{i_p} .\quad (13.37)$$

We assumed above that the pullback of the wedge product of a 2-form and a 1-form is the wedge product of the pullbacks of the respective forms, but it is not necessary to make that assumption – it can be shown explicitly by taking three vector fields and following the arguments used earlier for the wedge product of two 1-forms.

Then for any  $p$ -form  $\alpha$  and  $q$ -form  $\beta$  we can calculate from this that

$$\varphi^*(\alpha \wedge \beta) = \varphi^*\alpha \wedge \varphi^*\beta .\quad (13.38)$$

Thus pullbacks commute with (are distributive over) wedge products.