

An Introduction to Manifolds

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Goal

- 1 This project is about the extension of calculus from curves and surfaces to higher dimensions. The higher-dimensional analogues of smooth curves and surfaces are called manifolds.
- 2 We generalize the notion of directional derivative on $\mathbb{R}^n$ by introducing equivalence relation on C^∞ functions in the neighborhood of a point p and call the linear map of directional derivative as derivation at p .
- 3 We discuss the notion of a smooth manifold and smooth maps between two manifolds. Using coordinate charts, one can transfer the notion of smooth maps from Euclidean spaces to manifolds.
- 4 A smooth map of manifolds induces a linear map, called its differential, of tangent spaces at corresponding points. In local coordinates, the differential is represented by the Jacobian matrix of partial derivatives of the map.
- 5 We introduce the concept of submanifolds, immersion, submersion maps on a manifold and rank, critical, regular points and level set.

What is a Manifold?

Preliminary concepts required to define a Manifold

A topological space is **second countable** if it has a countable basis. A **neighborhood** of a point p in a topological space M is any open set containing p . An **open cover** of M is a collection $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of open sets in M whose union $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha$ is M . A topological space M is **locally Euclidean** of dimension n if every point p in M has a neighborhood U such that there is a **homeomorphism** ϕ from U onto an open subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition

A topological **manifold** is a Hausdorff, second countable, locally Euclidean space. Manifold is of dimension n if it is locally Euclidean of dim n .

- U is called *coordinate neighborhood*.
- ϕ is called *coordinate map* on U .
- $(U, \phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n)$ is called a *chart*.



Figure: Sphere



Figure: Torus



Figure: Double
Torus



Figure: Möbius Strip



Figure: Klein Bottle

Figure: Different types of Manifolds

Transition Functions

Two charts $(U, \phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n)$ and $(V, \psi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n)$ are C^∞ **compatible** if these two maps are C^∞ maps, they are called **transition functions**.

$$\begin{aligned}\phi \circ \psi^{-1} &: \psi(U \cap V) \longrightarrow \phi(U \cap V) \\ \psi \circ \phi^{-1} &: \phi(U \cap V) \longrightarrow \psi(U \cap V)\end{aligned}$$

- $\phi \circ \psi^{-1}$ and $\psi \circ \phi^{-1}$ are called **transition functions** between the charts.
- If $U \cap V$ is empty, they are automatically C^∞ compatible.

A ' C^∞ -Atlas' on a locally Euclidean space M is a collection $\mathcal{U} = \{(U_\alpha, \phi_\alpha)\}$ of pairwise C^∞ compatible charts that cover M i.e., $M = \bigcup_\alpha U_\alpha$. An atlas $\mathcal{A}$ on a locally Euclidean space is said to be **maximal atlas** if it is not contained in a larger atlas i.e., if $\mathcal{B}$ is another atlas containing $\mathcal{A}$ then $\mathcal{B} = \mathcal{A}$.

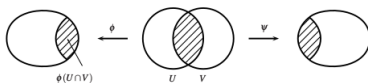


Figure: The Transition function $\psi \circ \phi^{-1}$ is defined on $\phi(U \cap V)$

Smooth Manifold

Smooth Manifold

A manifold is **smooth manifold** or C^∞ manifold if the transition maps are smooth. It is a topological manifold together with a maximal atlas (also called differentiable structure on M). To show, that a topological space M is a C^∞ manifold, it suffices to check that,

- M is Hausdorff and second countable,
- M has a C^∞ atlas.

Let M be a smooth manifold of dimension n . A function $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be a C^∞ or **smooth map** at a point $p \in M$ if there is a chart (U, ϕ) about $p \in M$ such that $f \circ \phi^{-1} : \phi(U) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is C^∞ at $\phi(p)$. f is said to be C^∞ on M if f is C^∞ at every point of M .

In the context of manifolds, we denote the standard co-ordinates on $\mathbb{R}^n$ by $r^1, \dots, r^n$. If $(U, \phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n)$ is a chart of a manifold, we let $x^i = r^i \circ \phi$ be the i -th component of ϕ and write $\phi = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$ and $(U, \phi) = (U, x^1, \dots, x^n)$. Thus, for $p \in U$, $(x^1(p), \dots, x^n(p))$ is a point in $\mathbb{R}^n$. The functions $x^1, \dots, x^n$ are called local coordinates on U .

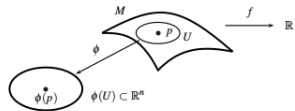


Figure: Checking that a function f is C^∞ at p by pulling back to $\mathbb{R}^n$.

The definition of smoothness of a function f at a point is independent of the chart (U, ϕ) . For if $f \circ \phi^{-1}$ is C^∞ at $\phi(p)$ and (V, ψ) be any other chart about $p \in M$, then on $\psi(V \cap U)$, the function

is also C^∞ at $\phi(p)$.

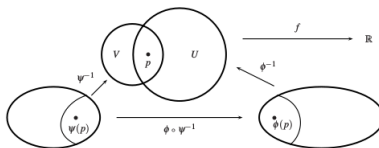


Figure: Checking that a function f is C^∞ at p via two charts.

If M be a manifold of dimension n and $f : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a *real valued* C^∞ function on M , then for every chart (V, ψ) on M , $f \circ \psi^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \supset \psi(V) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is C^∞ on $\psi(V)$.

Smooth Map between two Manifolds

Let N and M be manifolds of dimension n and m , respectively. A continuous map $F : N \rightarrow M$ is C^∞ at a point p in N if there are charts (V, ψ) about $F(p)$ in M and (U, ϕ) about p in N such that the composition $\psi \circ F \circ \phi^{-1}$, a map from the open subset $\phi(F^{-1}(V) \cap U)$ of $\mathbb{R}^n$ to $\mathbb{R}^m$, is C^∞ at $\phi(p)$. The continuous map $F : N \rightarrow M$ is said to be C^∞ if it is C^∞ at every point of N .

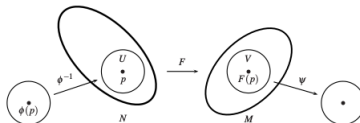


Figure: Checking that a map $F : N \rightarrow M$ is C^∞ at p .

We assume $F : N \rightarrow M$ continuous to ensure that $F^{-1}(V)$ is an open set in N . Thus, C^∞ maps between manifolds are by definition continuous.

Product Manifold

We have (finite) products in the category of manifolds. Say, M and N are m and n -dim C^∞ manifolds, respectively, then the product space $M \times N$ into an $m + n$ -dim C^∞ manifold. If we have a coordinate patch (U, ϕ_U) on M and another (V, ϕ_V) on N , then we surely have $U \times V \subseteq M \times N$ as an open subset of the product space. We just define

$$\phi_{U \times V} = \phi_U \times \phi_V : U \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$$

If U' and V' are another pair of coordinate patches we can set up the transition function

$$\phi_{U' \times V'} \circ \phi_{U \times V}^{-1} = (\phi_{U'} \times \phi_{V'}) \circ (\phi_U \times \phi_V) = (\phi_{U'} \circ \phi_U^{-1}) \times (\phi_{V'} \circ \phi_V^{-1})$$

Each of these factors is smooth on M and N . Since smoothness is determined component-wise, the product mapping is smooth as well. So we have an atlas making $M \times N$ a C^∞ manifold. The collection $\{(U_i \times V_j, \phi_{U_i} \times \phi_{V_j})\}$ of charts is an atlas on $M \times N$.



Infinite cylinder.



Torus.

Figure: the infinite cylinder $S^1 \times \mathbb{R}$ and the torus $S^1 \times S^1$ are product manifolds

Jacobian Matrix

Partial Derivative

On a manifold M of dimension n , let (U, ϕ) be a chart and f a C^∞ function. As a function into $\mathbb{R}^n$, ϕ has n components $x^1, \dots, x^n$. If $r^1, \dots, r^n$ are the standard coordinates on $\mathbb{R}^n$, then $x^i = r^i \circ \phi$.

For, $p \in U$, we define the **partial derivative** $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}$ of f with respect to x^i at p to be :

$$\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \right|_p f := \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(p) := \frac{\partial (f \circ \phi^{-1})}{\partial r^i}(\phi(p)) := \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial r^i} \right|_{\phi(p)} (f \circ \phi^{-1})$$

Jacobian Matrix of a function between two manifolds

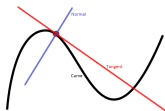
Let $F : N \rightarrow M$ be a smooth map, and let $(U, \phi) = (U, x^1, \dots, x^n)$ and $(V, \psi) = (V, y^1, \dots, y^m)$ be charts on N and M respectively such that $F(U) \subset V$. Denote by :

$$F^i := y^i \circ F = r^i \circ \psi \circ F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is the i th component of F in the chart (V, ψ) . Then the matrix $\left[\frac{\partial F^i}{\partial x^j} \right]$ is called the **Jacobian matrix** of F relative to the charts (U, ϕ) and (V, ψ) . The transition map $\phi \circ \phi^{-1} : \phi(U \cap V) \rightarrow \psi(U \cap V)$ is a diffeomorphism of open subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$. It's Jacobian matrix $J(\psi \circ \phi^{-1})$ at $\phi(p)$ is the matrix $\left[\frac{\partial y^i}{\partial x^j} \right]$ of partial derivatives at p .

Concept of Tangent Vector to a Surface

Our Ordinary Concept of Tangent in an Example :



Let the points of $\mathbb{R}^3$ be denoted by (x, y, z) and consider the sphere M whose equation is $x^2 + y^2 + (z - 1)^2 = 1$. The point $p = (0, 0, 0)$ lies on M , and for any real number a and b both not 0, the line $\{(au, bu, 0) : -\infty < u < \infty\}$ is a tangent to M at p . Say, $a = 1$, $b = 2$, then the line $y = 2x$ is tangent line restricted to $x - y$ plane and $(1, 2, 0)$ is tangent vector of M at p .

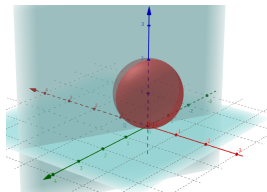


Figure: Intersection of planes $y = 2x$ and $z = 0$ is one such tangent vector $\{(u, 2u, 0)\}$ at $(0, 0, 0)$

A basic principle in manifold theory is the linearization principle, according to which a manifold can be approximated near a point by its tangent space at the point. However, this elementary analytic-geometric notion does not extend very well to arbitrary differentiable manifolds. Instead, tangent vectors will be defined either as directional derivatives or point-derivation or a velocity vector at the point.

Tangent Vector as Directional Derivative

In calculus we visualize the tangent space at p in $\mathbb{R}^n$ denoted by $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ as the vector space of all arrows emanating from p . The line through a point $p = (p^1, \dots, p^n)$ with direction $v = \langle v^1, \dots, v^n \rangle$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$ has parametrization :

$$c(t) = (p^1 + tv^1, \dots, p^n + tv^n).$$

If f is C^∞ in a neighborhood of p in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and v is a tangent vector at p , the **directional derivative** of f in the direction v at p is defined to be

$$D_v f = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c(t)) - f(p)}{t} = \left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} f(c(t))$$

By the chain rule,

$$D_v f = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dc^i}{dt}(0) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(p) = \sum_{i=1}^n v^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}(p)$$

The association $v \mapsto D_v$ of the directional derivative D_v to a tangent vector v offers a way to characterize tangent vectors as certain operators on functions.

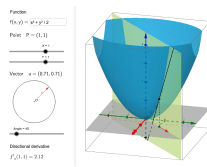


Figure: Example :
Directional Derivative

Defining Tangent Space via Tangent Curve

Let M be a C^k manifold and $x \in M$. Pick a coordinate chart $\phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, where $x \in U \subseteq M$ is open. Let, $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 : (-1, 1) \rightarrow M$ with $\gamma_1(0) = x = \gamma_2(0)$ be two curves initialized at x , such that $\phi \circ \gamma_1, \phi \circ \gamma_2 : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ are differentiable. Then γ_1 and γ_2 are said to be equivalent at 0 if and only if the derivatives of $\phi \circ \gamma_1$ and $\phi \circ \gamma_2$ at 0 coincide. This defines an equivalence relation on the set of all differentiable curves initialized at x , and equivalence classes of such curves are known as tangent vectors of M at x . The equivalence class of any such curve γ is denoted by $\gamma'(0)$.

The tangent space of M at x , denoted by $T_x M$, is then defined as the set of all tangent vectors at x ; independent of the choice of coordinate chart $\phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

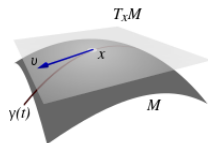


Figure: The tangent space $T_x M$ and a tangent vector $v \in T_x M$, along a curve traveling through $x \in M$.

To define vector-space operations on $T_x M$, we use a chart $\phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and define a map $d\phi_x : T_x M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ by:

$$d\phi_x(\gamma'(0)) \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \left. \frac{d}{dt} [(\phi \circ \gamma)(t)] \right|_{t=0}, \quad \text{where } \gamma \in \gamma'(0).$$

This construction does not depend on the particular chart $\phi : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and the curve γ being used. The map $d\phi_x$ turns out to be bijective and may be used to transfer the vector-space operations on $\mathbb{R}^n$ over to $T_x M$, thus turning the latter set into an n -dimensional real vector space.

Defining Tangent Space via Point-Derivation

Germ

Consider the set of all pairs (f, U) , where U is a neighborhood of p and $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a C^∞ function. $(f, U) \equiv (g, V)$ if there is an open set $W \subset U \cap V$ containing p such that $f = g$ when restricted to W . The equivalence class of (f, U) is called the **Germ** of f at p . The set of all germs of C^∞ functions on $\mathbb{R}^n$ at p is $C_p^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

Point Derivation

For each tangent vector v at a point p in $\mathbb{R}^n$, the directional derivative at p gives a map of real vector spaces $D_v : C_p^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. D_v is $\mathbb{R}$ -linear and satisfies the Leibniz rule : $D_v(fg) = (D_v f)g(p) + f(p)D_v g$. Any linear map $D : C_p^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the Leibniz rule is called a **derivation** at p or a **point-derivation** of C_p^∞ . Since, directional derivatives at p are all derivations at p , so there is a map,

$$v \mapsto D_v = \sum v^j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \Big|_p$$

Tangent Space as point-derivation

A **tangent vector** at a point p in a manifold M is a *derivation at p* . The tangent vectors at p form a vector space $T_p(M)$, called the tangent space of M at p . If U is an open set containing p in M , then the algebra $C_p^\infty(U)$ of germs of C^∞ functions in U at p is the same as $C_p^\infty(M)$. Hence, $T_p U = T_p M$.

Differential of a Map

Suppose $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is smooth and p is a point in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Let $x^1, \dots, x^n$ be the coordinates on $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $y^1, \dots, y^m$ be the coordinates on $\mathbb{R}^m$. Then the tangent vectors $\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} \right|_p, \dots, \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n} \right|_p$ form a basis for the tangent space $T_p(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and $\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial y^1} \right|_{F(p)}, \dots, \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial y^m} \right|_{F(p)}$ form a basis for the tangent space $T_{F(p)}(\mathbb{R}^m)$.

The linear map $F_* : T_p(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow T_{F(p)}(\mathbb{R}^m)$ is described by the matrix $[a_j^i]$ relative to these two bases :

$$F_* \left(\left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right|_p \right) = \sum_k a_j^k \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial y^k} \right|_{F(p)}, \quad a_j^k \in \mathbb{R}$$

Let $F : N \rightarrow M$ be a C^∞ map between two manifolds. At each point $p \in N$, the map F induces a linear map of tangent spaces called its differential at p , $F_* : T_p N \rightarrow T_{F(p)} M$. If $X_p \in T_p N$, then $F_*(X_p)$ is the tangent vector in $T_{F(p)} M$ defined as :

$$(F_*(X_p))(f) = X_p(f \circ F) \in \mathbb{R} \quad \text{for } f \in C_{F(p)}^\infty(M)$$

f is a germ at $F(p)$, represented by a C^∞ function in a neighborhood of $F(p)$.

The Chain Rule : If $F : N \rightarrow M$ and $G : M \rightarrow P$ are smooth map of manifolds and $p \in N$, then,

$$(G \circ F)_{*,p} = G_{*,F(p)} \circ F_{*,p}.$$

Existence of a Curve with given initial vector

A **smooth curve** in a manifold M is by definition a smooth map $c : (a, b) \rightarrow M$ from some open interval (a, b) into M . Usually we assume $0 \in (a, b)$ and say that c is a curve starting at p if $c(0) = p$. The *velocity vector* $c'(t_0)$ of the curve c , which is the velocity of c at the point $c(t_0)$ at time $t_0 \in (a, b)$ is defined to be

$$c'(t_0) := c_* \left(\frac{d}{dt} \Big|_{t_0} \right) \in T_{c(t_0)} M.$$

Velocity of a Curve in Local Coordinates : Let $c : (a, b) \rightarrow M$ be a smooth curve, and let $(U, x^1, \dots, x^n)$ be a coordinate chart about $c(t)$. Set $c^i = x^i \circ c$ for the i th component of a c in the chart. Then $c'(t)$ is given by

$$c'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n c^i(t) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \Big|_{c(t)}.$$

Every smooth curve c at p in a manifold M gives rise to a tangent vector $c'(0)$ in $T_p M$. Conversely, one can show that every tangent vector $X_p \in T_p M$ is the velocity vector of some curve at p .

Existence of a Curve with given initial vector : For any point p in a manifold M and any tangent vector $X_p \in T_p M$, there are $\epsilon > 0$ and a smooth curve $c : (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow M$ such that $c(0) = p$ and $c'(0) = X_p$.

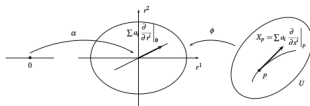


Figure: Existence of a curve through a point with a given initial vector.

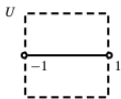
How to define a Sub-Manifold?

Submanifold

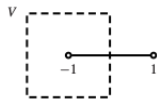
A subset S of a manifold N of dimension n is a **regular submanifold** of dimension k if for every $p \in S$, there is a coordinate neighborhood $(U, \phi) = (U, x^1, \dots, x^n)$ of p in the maximal atlas of N such that $U \cap S$ is defined by the vanishing of $n - k$ of the coordinate functions. Such a chart (U, ϕ) in N , is called an **adapted chart** relative to S . On $U \cap S$, $\phi = (x^1, \dots, x^k, 0, \dots, 0)$.

Let $\phi_S : U \cap S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^k$ be the restriction of the first k components of ϕ to $U \cap S$ i.e $\phi_S := (x^1, \dots, x^k)$. Hence, $(U \cap S, \phi_S)$ is a chart for S in the subspace topology. Then, $(n - k)$ is said to be the **co-dimension** of S in N .

Example : The interval $S :=]-1, 1[$ on the x -axis is a regular submanifold of the xy -plane. As an adapted chart, we can take the open square $U :=]-1, 1[\times]-1, 1[$ with coordinates x, y . Then $U \cap S$ is precisely the zero set of y on U . But, $V :=]-2, 0[\times]-1, 1[$, then (V, x, y) is not an adapted chart relative to S , since $V \cap S$ is the open interval $] -1, 0[$ on the x -axis, while the zero set of y on V is the open interval $] -2, 0[$ on the x -axis.



U is an adapted chart.



V is not an adapted chart.

Few Important Concepts

Immersion, Submersion

A C^∞ map $F : N \rightarrow M$ is said to be an **immersion** at $p \in N$ if its differential $F_{*,p} : T_p N \rightarrow T_{F(p)} M$ is injective. F is **submersion** at $p \in N$ if $F_{*,p}$ is surjective. F is said to be an immersion if it is immersion at every $p \in N$. Suppose $\dim N = n$, $\dim M = m$. Then, $\dim T_p N = n$ and $\dim T_{F(p)} M = m$. Injectivity of the map $F_{*,p}$ (immersion) implies $n \leq m$. Similarly, surjectivity of $F_{*,p}$ (submersion) implies $n \geq m$.

Example. The prototype of an immersion is the inclusion of $\mathbb{R}^n$ in a higher dimensional $\mathbb{R}^m$:

$$i(x^1, \dots, x^n) = (x^1, \dots, x^n, 0, \dots, 0).$$

The prototype of a submersion is the projection of $\mathbb{R}^n$ onto a lower dimensional $\mathbb{R}^m$:

$$\pi(x^1, \dots, x^m, x^{m+1}, \dots, x^n) = (x^1, \dots, x^m).$$

Rank

Consider a smooth map $F : N \rightarrow M$ of manifolds. It's rank at a point p in N , denoted by $\text{rk } F(p)$ is defined as the rank of the differential, $F_{*,p} : T_p N \rightarrow T_{F(p)} M$. Since $F_{*,p}$ is represented by the Jacobian matrix,

$$\text{rk } F(p) = \text{rk} \left[\frac{\partial F^i}{\partial x^j}(p) \right]$$

Since differential of a map is independent of coordinate charts, so is rank of a Jacobian matrix.

Few Important Concepts

Critical Point, Regular Point

A point p in N is a **critical point** of F if the differential $F_{*,p} : T_p N \rightarrow T_{F(p)} M$ fails to be surjective. A point in M is **critical value** if it is image of a critical point. It is a **regular point** of F if the differential $F_{*,p}$ is surjective. In other words, p is a regular point of the map F if and only if F is a submersion at p . A point in M is a **regular value** if it is not a critical value.

Level Set

A **level set** of a map $F : N \rightarrow M$ is a subset $F^{-1}(\{c\}) = \{p \in N \mid F(p) = c\}$ for some $c \in M$. The value $c \in M$ is called *level* of the level set $F^{-1}(\{c\})$. $F^{-1}(0)$ is called *zero set* of F .

The inverse image $F^{-1}(c)$ of a regular value c is called a *regular level set*. If the zero set $F^{-1}(0)$ is a regular level set of $F : N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$, it's called a *regular zero set*.

Example. (The 2-sphere in $\mathbb{R}^3$) The unit 2-sphere $S^2 = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1\}$ is the level set $g^{-1}(1)$ of level 1 of the function $g(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$. We will use the inverse function theorem to find adapted charts of $\mathbb{R}^3$ that cover S^2 . As the proof will show, the process is easier for a zero set, mainly because a regular submanifold is defined locally as the zero set of coordinate functions. To express S^2 as a zero set, we rewrite its defining equation as $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0$. Then $S^2 = f^{-1}(0)$.

Further Scope of Study

- Since a manifold in general does not have standard coordinates, only coordinate-independent concepts makes sense on a manifold. For example, on a manifold of dimension n , it is not possible to integrate functions. The objects that can be integrated are **differential forms** which are generalizations of real-valued functions on a manifold. Instead of assigning to each point of the manifold a number, a differential k -form assigns to each point a k -covector on its tangent space. For $k = 0$ and 1 , differential k -forms are functions and covector fields respectively.
- Many of the problems in mathematics share common features. This has given rise to the **theory of categories and functors**, which tries to clarify the structural similarities among different areas of mathematics. A category is essentially a collection of objects and arrows between objects. Smooth manifolds and smooth maps form a category, and so do vector spaces and linear maps.
- A **Lie group** is a manifold that is also a group such that the group operations are smooth. Lie's original motivation was to study the group of transformations of a space as a continuous analogue of the group of permutations of a finite set. Indeed, a diffeomorphism of a manifold M can be viewed as a permutation of the points of M .

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THANK YOU