

Symplectic geometry

Lecture 6

Symplectic manifolds.

Examples.

Hamiltonian mechanics.

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Definition of a symplectic manifold.

Definition 1 *A symplectic manifold is a pair (M, ω) consisting of a manifold M together with a closed non-degenerate two form ω on M .*

Non degeneracy means that for each $m \in M$ the bilinear form ω_m is a symplectic form on TM_m . Equivalently, the top exterior power ω^n does not vanish anywhere.

The **Liouville form** of (M, ω) is defined as

$$\Lambda := \frac{1}{n!} \omega^n.$$

Symplectomorphisms.

Definition 2 *Given two symplectic manifolds (M_1, ω_1) and (M_2, ω_2) a diffeomorphism*

$$F : M_1 \rightarrow M_2$$

*is called a **symplectomorphism** if*

$$F^* \omega_2 = \omega_1.$$

The group of all symplectomorphisms of (M, ω) with itself is denoted by $\text{Symp}(M, \omega)$ or simply by $\text{Symp}(M)$ if ω is understood.

Symplectic and Hamiltonian vector fields.

The set of all vector fields X on M such that

$$D_X\omega = 0$$

is denoted by $\mathfrak{X}(M, \omega)$ or by $\mathfrak{X}(M)$ if ω is understood.

These are called **symplectic** vector fields.

Definition 3 *For any smooth function H on M the corresponding **Hamiltonian vector field** X_H is the unique vector field satisfying*

$$i(X_H)\omega = dH.$$

The space of vector fields X of the form $X = X_H$ for some smooth H is denoted by $\mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M, \omega)$ or by $\mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M)$ if ω is understood.

Hamiltonian vector fields are symplectic.

If $X = X_H$ then Weil's formula gives

$$D_X\omega = di(X)\omega = d(dH) = 0$$

since $d\omega = 0$. So

$$\mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M, \omega) \subset \mathfrak{X}(M, \omega).$$

The bracket of two symplectic vector fields is Hamiltonian.

If $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M, \omega)$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(M, \omega)$ then

$$\begin{aligned} i([X, Y])\omega &= i(D_X Y)\omega \\ &= D_X [i(Y)\omega] - i(Y)D_X \omega \\ &= D_X [i(Y)\omega] \\ &= i(X)di(Y)\omega + di(X)i(Y)\omega \\ &= d[i(X)i(Y)\omega]. \end{aligned}$$

In short the Lie bracket of two elements of $\mathfrak{X}(M, \omega)$ belongs to $\mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M, \omega)$:

$$i([X, Y])\omega = d[i(X)i(Y)\omega] = d[-\omega(X, Y)]. \quad (1)$$

Poisson brackets.

$$i([X, Y])\omega = d[i(X)i(Y)\omega] = d[-\omega(X, Y)]. \quad (1)$$

Consider the surjective linear map

$$C^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M) \quad H \mapsto X_H.$$

The kernel of this map consists of the locally constant functions. In de Rham theory this space is denoted by $H^0(M)$ or by $Z^0(M)$. We use (1) to define the **Poisson bracket** of two C^∞ functions:

$$\{F, G\} := -\omega(X_F, X_G) = i(X_F)i(X_G)\omega = i(X_F)dG = X_F G.$$

This is clearly anti-symmetric in F and G as follows from the first expression: $\{F, G\} := -\omega(X_F, X_G)$. Also, we have the derivation identity:

$$\{F, GH\} = \{F, G\}H + G\{F, H\}$$

which follows from the last expression $\{F, G\} := X_F G$.

$$i([X, Y])\omega = d[i(X)i(Y)\omega] = d[-\omega(X, Y)]. \quad (1)$$

Finally, it follows from (1) in the form

$$[X_F, X_G] = X_{\{F, G\}} \quad (2)$$

and Weil's formula that the Jacobi identity is satisfied:

$$\{F, \{G, H\}\} = \{\{F, G\}, H\} + \{G, \{F, H\}\}.$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \{F, \{G, H\}\} &= X_F\{G, H\} \\ &= D_{X_F}\{G, H\} \\ &= -D_{X_F}(\omega(X_G, X_H)) \end{aligned}$$

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\{F, \{G, H\}\} &= X_F \{G, H\} \\
&= D_{X_F} \{G, H\} \\
&= -D_{X_F}(\omega(X_G, X_H)) \\
&= -(D_{X_F}\omega)(X_G, X_H) - \omega(D_{X_F}X_G, X_H) - \omega(X_G, D_{X_F}X_H) \\
&\hspace{25em} \text{by Leibnitz's rule} \\
&= -\omega([X_F, X_G], X_H) - \omega(X_G, [X_F, X_H]) \text{ since } D_{X_F}\omega = 0 \\
&= -\omega(X_{\{F,G\}}, X_H) - \omega(X_G, X_{\{F,H\}}) \text{ by (2)} \\
&= \{\{F, G\}, H\} + \{G, \{F, H\}\}. \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

So the Poisson bracket gives a Lie algebra structure on $C^\infty(M)$ and the map $F \mapsto X_F$ is a surjective Lie algebra homomorphism

$$C^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M).$$

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The locally constant functions are in the center of $C^\infty(M)$. In particular they form a trivial Lie algebra and we have the exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow Z^0(M) \rightarrow C^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathfrak{X}_{\text{Ham}}(M) \rightarrow 0$$

of Lie algebras.

Poisson algebras.

A **Poisson algebra** is defined to be a commutative algebra (under a multiplication denoted by $m(F, G) = FG$) which is also a Lie algebra where the bracket of F with G is denoted by $\{F, G\}$, and such that the Lie bracket acts as derivations of the commutative multiplication. So we can say that the smooth functions on a symplectic manifold form a Poisson algebra.

Siméon Denis Poisson



Born: 21 June 1781 in Pithiviers, France

Died: 25 April 1840 in Sceaux (near Paris), France

Poisson manifolds.

More generally, we say that a manifold is a Poisson manifold if its space of smooth functions is equipped with the structure of Poisson algebra. Every symplectic manifold is a Poisson manifold, but the converse is not true. For example, we could define a Poisson structure on any manifold by setting the Poisson bracket of any two functions to be zero. As a less trivial example, we can consider the case where $N = M \times S$ where M is a symplectic manifold and where S is any auxiliary manifold. Any two smooth functions on N restrict, for each $s \in S$ to smooth functions on M where we can take their Poisson bracket which then gives a function on N .

The basic local example.

Consider a symplectic vector space V of dimension $2n$. Let $q_1, \dots, q_n, p_1, \dots, p_n$ be (linear) coordinates with respect to a symplectic basis $e_1, \dots, e_n, f_1, \dots, f_n$. In any vector space, we have the identification of the tangent space at every point x with V . This means that any vector in V can be identified with a vector field. In our case, the vectors e_i are identified with the vector fields $\partial/\partial q_i$ and the vectors f_j are identified with $\partial/\partial p_j$. This implies that in the q, p coordinates we have

$$\omega = \sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i$$

and hence the Liouville form is

$$\Lambda = dq_1 \wedge dp_1 \wedge dq_2 \wedge dp_2 \wedge \dots \wedge dq_n \wedge dp_n.$$

By restriction, we can consider the form $\omega = \sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i$ on any open set U of V . (We will see later (Darboux's theorem) that every symplectic form is locally symplectomorphic to this example.)

Given a smooth function H on U , let

$$X_H = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \right). \quad (3)$$

Then

$$i(X_H)\omega = \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} dp_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} dq_i = dH.$$

In other words, X_H is the Hamiltonian vector field associated to H as required by the notation.

Hamilton's equations.

$$X_H = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} \right).$$

Hence the ordinary differential equations defined by H are

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}, \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}.$$

These are the famous Hamilton equations of classical mechanics.

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}, \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}.$$

If $U = V$ and $H = p_j$ these equations become

$$\dot{p}_j = 0, \quad \dot{q}_i = 0, i \neq j, \quad \dot{q}_j = 1.$$

So the flow generated by X_H consists of translation by t in the e_j direction.

Similarly, the flow corresponding to q_j consists of translation by t in the $-f_j$ direction.

Quadratic Hamiltonians.

Let us now consider the cases where H is a homogeneous quadratic polynomial: We want to consider three types of homogeneous quadratic polynomials:

- Polynomials of “mixed type”, that is, linear combinations of $q_i p_j$.
- Polynomials in p , that is linear combinations of $p_i p_j$, and
- Polynomials in q , that is linear combinations of $q_i q_j$.

Quadratic Hamiltonians - mixed type.

First consider the polynomial $q_i p_j$. The corresponding X_H given by (3) is

$$q_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_j} - p_j \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i}.$$

If we let E_{ij} denote the $n \times n$ matrix with a 1 in the ij position and zeros elsewhere, then this vector field corresponds to the action of the matrix (in $sp(V)$) given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} E_{ij} & 0 \\ 0 & -E_{ij}^t \end{pmatrix}.$$

By linearity, we see that the most general polynomial of the form $\sum_{ij} a_{ij} q_i p_j$ corresponds to a matrix of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} A & 0 \\ 0 & -A^t \end{pmatrix}.$$

Polynomials in p .

Similarly, the polynomial $p_i p_j, i \neq j$ corresponds to the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & S_{ij} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where S_{ij} has ones in the ij and ji positions and zeros elsewhere, while $\frac{1}{2}p_i^2$ corresponds to the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & E_{ii} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So the most general polynomial quadratic in the p 's alone corresponds to an element of $sp(V)$ of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & S \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where S is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix.

Polynomials in q .

The quadratic polynomial $q_i q_j$ corresponds to the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -S_{ij} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and, in general, a quadratic polynomial of the form $\sum a_{ij} q_i q_j$ corresponds to an element of $sp(V)$ of the form

Text

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -S & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

By what we observed earlier, the Poisson bracket of quadratic polynomials corresponds to the negative of the bracket on the Lie algebra $sp(V)$.

The cotangent bundle.

Let Q be an arbitrary smooth manifold. Its cotangent bundle T^*Q is defined (as a set) as the union of all cotangent spaces at all points of Q , where the cotangent space T_x^*Q is defined as the space of all linear functions on T_xQ . It is routine to check that T^*Q has a natural structure as a manifold, and that the projection $\pi : T^*Q \rightarrow Q$ sending every element of T_x^*Q to x is smooth.

The canonical one form on a cotangent bundle.

If Q is a differentiable manifold, then its cotangent bundle T^*Q carries a **canonical one form** $\alpha = \alpha_Q$ defined as follows: Let

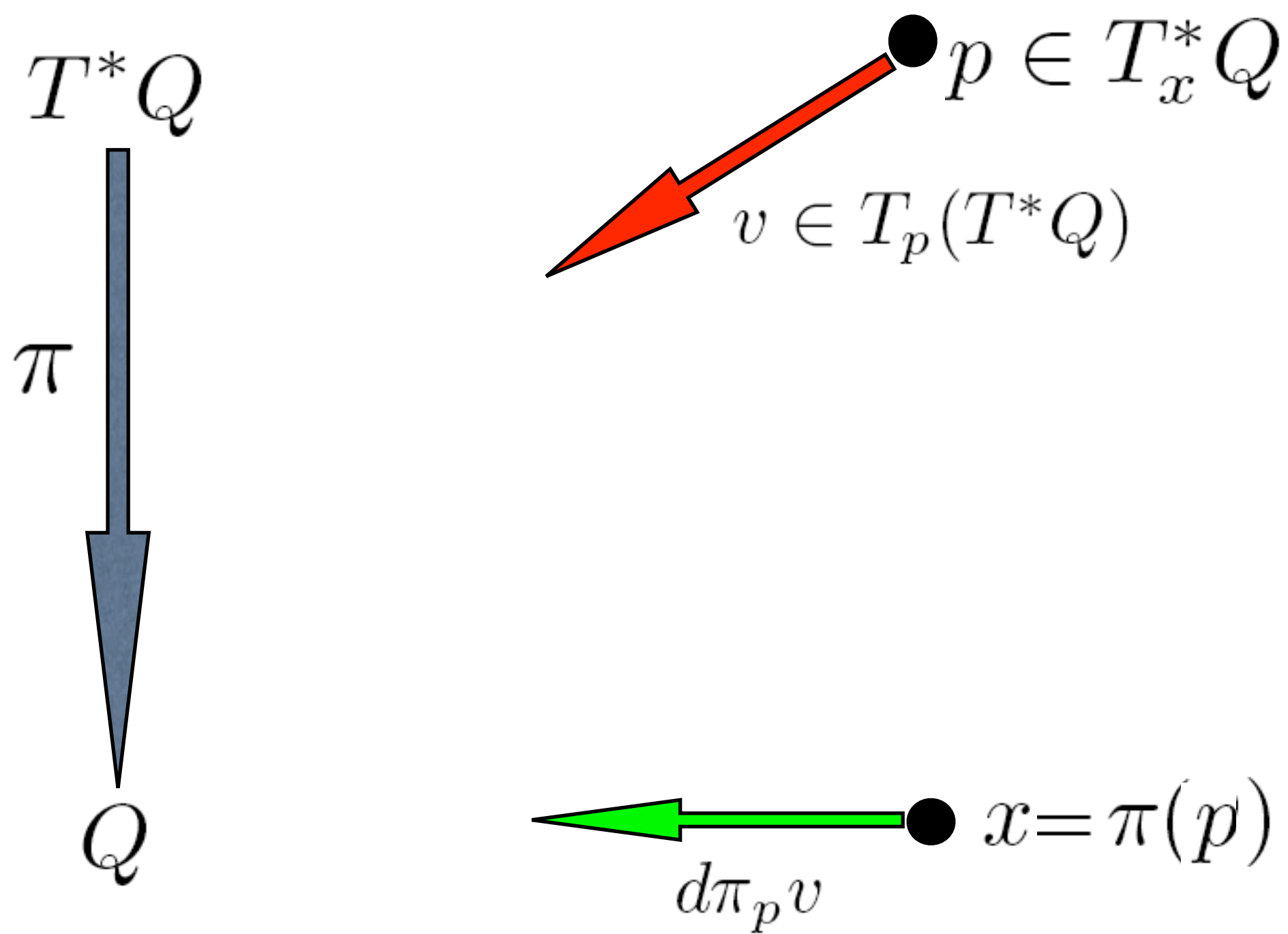
$$\pi : T^*Q \rightarrow Q$$

be the projection sending any covector $p \in T_x^*Q$ to its base point x . If $v \in T_p(T^*Q)$ is a tangent vector to T^*Q at p , then

$$d\pi_p v$$

is a tangent vector to Q at x . In other words, $d\pi_p v \in T_x Q$. But $p \in T_x^*Q$ is a linear function on $T_x Q$, and so we can evaluate p on $d\pi_p v$. The canonical linear differential form α is defined by

$$\langle \alpha_p, v \rangle := \langle p, d\pi_p v \rangle \quad \text{if } v \in T_p(T^*Q). \quad (4)$$



$$\langle \alpha_p, v \rangle := \langle p, d\pi_p v \rangle$$

The canonical two form on the cotangent bundle.

This is defined as

$$\omega_Q = -d\alpha_Q. \quad (5)$$

Let q^1, \dots, q^n be local coordinates on Q . Then dq^1, \dots, dq^n are differential forms which give a basis of T_x^*Q at each x in the coordinate neighborhood U . In other words, the most general element of T_x^*Q can be written as $p_1(dq^1)_x + \dots + p_n(dq^n)_x$. Thus $q^1, \dots, q^n, p_1, \dots, p_n$ are local coordinates on

$$\pi^{-1}U \subset T^*Q.$$

In terms of these coordinates the canonical one-form is given by

$$\alpha = p \cdot dq = p_1 dq^1 + \dots + p_n dq^n$$

Hence the canonical two-form has the standard local expression

$$\omega = dq \wedge \cdot dp = dq^1 \wedge dp_1 + \dots + dq^n \wedge dp_n. \quad (6)$$

Hamilton's equations on the cotangent bundle.

If H is a C^∞ function on T^*Q then we get the corresponding vector field X_H which in terms of the local expression (6) takes on the form of Hamilton's differential equations:

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}, \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}.$$

Suppose that $Q = \mathbb{R}^n$ so that these coordinates are in fact global, corresponding to (the standard, say) linear coordinates on Q . If

$$H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_i p_i^2$$

where $m > 0$ is the "mass", these equations become

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{1}{m} p_i, \quad \dot{p}_i = 0.$$

Galileo.

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{1}{m}p_i, \quad \dot{p}_i = 0.$$

So if we write $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ and $\mathbf{q} = (q_1, \dots, q_n)$ so that $\dot{\mathbf{q}}$ is the velocity then the solution curves of this system are

$$\mathbf{q}(t) = \mathbf{q}(0) + t\dot{\mathbf{q}}(0), \quad \mathbf{p}(t) \equiv m\dot{\mathbf{q}}(0).$$

The particle moves along a straight line with constant velocity (Galileo's law) and $\mathbf{p} = m\dot{\mathbf{q}}$ is the momentum.

$\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$

If

$$H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_i p_i^2 + V(q)$$

then the above equations are modified so as to become

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{1}{m} p_i, \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial q_i}.$$

So if we still interpret \mathbf{p} as momentum, then the differential form on Q

$$-dV = \sum_i \frac{\partial V}{\partial q_i} dq_i$$

represents a “force field” and the preceding equations give Newton’s law $F = m\mathbf{a}$. Notice that Hamilton’s equations give Newton’s laws for a “conservative system” where the force field is the differential of a function.

Lagrangian submanifolds of the cotangent bundle.

A submanifold Λ of a symplectic manifold is called **Lagrangian** if its tangent space $T_x\Lambda$ at every point $x \in \Lambda$ is a Lagrangian subspace of T_xM . Put another way, the dimension of Λ is one half the dimension of M and the restriction on the symplectic form ω to Λ is identically zero.

To say that a submanifold $\Lambda \subset T^*Q$ is Lagrangian means that Λ has the same dimension as Q and that the restriction to Λ of the canonical one form α_Q is closed.

Horizontal Lagrangian submanifolds of the cotangent bundle.

Suppose that Z is a submanifold of T^*Q and that the restriction of $\pi : T^*Q \rightarrow Q$ to Z is a diffeomorphism. This means that Z is the image of a section

$$s : Q \rightarrow T^*Q.$$

Giving such a section is the same as assigning a covector at each point of Q , in other words it is a linear differential form. For the purposes of the discussion we temporarily introduce a redundant notation and call the section s by the name β_s when we want to think of it as a linear differential form. We claim that

$$s^* \alpha_Q = \beta_s.$$

$$s^* \alpha_Q = \beta_s.$$

Indeed, if $w \in T_x Q$ then $d\pi_{s(x)} \circ ds_x(w) = w$ and hence

$$\begin{aligned} s^* \alpha_Q(w) &= \langle (\alpha_Q)_{s(x)}, ds_x(w) \rangle = \\ &= \langle s(x), d\pi_{s(x)} ds_x(w) \rangle = \langle s(x), w \rangle = \beta_s(x)(w). \end{aligned}$$

Thus the submanifold Z is Lagrangian if and only if $d\beta_s = 0$. Let us suppose that Q is connected and simply connected. Then $d\beta = 0$ implies that $\beta = d\phi$ where ϕ is determined up to an additive constant.

With some slight abuse of language, let us call a Lagrangian submanifold Λ of T^*Q **horizontal** if the restriction of $\pi : T^*Q \rightarrow Q$ to Λ is a diffeomorphism. We have proved

Proposition 1 *Suppose that Q is connected and simply connected. Then every horizontal Lagrangian submanifold of T^*Q is given by a section $\gamma_\phi : Q \rightarrow T^*Q$ where γ_ϕ is of the form*

$$\gamma_\phi(x) = d\phi(x)$$

where ϕ is a smooth function determined up to an additive constant.

Diffeomorphisms of Q yield symplecomorphisms of T^*Q .

Let Q_1 and Q_2 be manifolds and let $f : Q_1 \rightarrow Q_2$ be a diffeomorphism. Then the tangent map

$$df : TQ_1 \rightarrow TQ_2$$

is a diffeomorphism and so dually there is a diffeomorphism

$$F = (df^{-1})^* : T^*Q_1 \rightarrow T^*Q_2.$$

In more detail: If $\xi \in T_x^*Q_1$ then $F(\xi) \in T_{f(x)}^*Q_2$ is given by

$$F(\xi) = (d(f^{-1})_{f(x)})^* \xi.$$

$$F(\xi) = (d(f^{-1})_{f(x)})^* \xi.$$

The map F covers the map f in the sense that $\pi_2 \circ F = f \circ \pi_1$ where $\pi_1 : T^*Q_1 \rightarrow Q_1$ and $\pi_2 : T^*Q_2 \rightarrow Q_2$ are the standard projections. We claim that

$$F^* \alpha_2 = \alpha_1 \tag{7}$$

where α_1 is the canonical one form on T^*Q_1 and α_2 is the canonical one form on T^*Q_2 . Indeed, this is a matter of chasing through the definitions: Let

$$v \in T_\xi(T^*Q_1), \quad \xi \in T_x^*Q_1.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle F^* \alpha_2, v \rangle &= \langle \alpha_2, dF_\xi(v) \rangle \\ &:= \langle F(\xi), d\pi_{2, F(\xi)} dF_\xi(v) \rangle \\ &= \langle F(\xi), df_x(d\pi_{1, \xi}(v)) \rangle \\ &:= \langle (df^{-1})_{f(x)}^* \xi, df_x d\pi_{1, \xi}(v) \rangle \\ &= \langle \xi, d\pi_{1, \xi}(v) \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha_1, v \rangle. \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

It follows from (8) that F is a symplectomorphism for the canonical symplectic structures on the cotangent bundles.

It follows from the definition that composition of diffeomorphisms corresponds to composition of the associated symplectomorphisms. In particular, we get a group homomorphism

$$\text{Diff}(Q) \rightarrow \text{Symp}(T^*Q)$$

for any manifold Q . In particular, every flow on Q gives rise to a flow on T^*Q preserving the canonical one form and hence to a symplectic vector field. We claim that this vector field is Hamiltonian. Let us prove this in slightly more generality:

Exact symplectic manifolds.

We say that a symplectic manifold (M, ω) is **exact** if there is a one form α on M such that $\omega = -d\alpha$.

Suppose that X is a vector field on M such that $D_X\alpha = 0$. Then by Weil's formula

$$0 = i(X)d\alpha + di(X)\alpha$$

so

$$i(X)\omega = d\langle\alpha, X\rangle.$$

We see that

$$X = X_H, \quad H = \langle\alpha, X\rangle.$$

We see that

$$X = X_H, \quad H = \langle \alpha, X \rangle.$$

In the case that $M = T^*Q$ with α the canonical one form and X the vector field on T^*Q coming from a vector field Y on Q we see that $X = X_H$ where

$$H(\xi) = \langle \xi, Y(\pi\xi) \rangle.$$

In a local coordinate system with

$$Y = \sum_i Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i}$$

this reads

$$H(q, p) = \sum p_i Y^i(q).$$

Suppose that \mathcal{E} is a vector field on an exact symplectic manifold with

$$i(\mathcal{E})\omega = -\alpha$$

where $d\alpha = -\omega$. Then

$$D_{\mathcal{E}}\omega = -d\alpha = \omega.$$

For example, consider the one parameter group of transformations on T^*Q consisting of multiplication of the cotangent vectors by e^t . In local coordinates, the generator is the “Euler vector field”

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_i p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i}.$$

Clearly

$$i(\mathcal{E}) \sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i = - \sum_i p_i dq_i = -\alpha.$$

As another example, consider a symplectic vector space so that

$$\omega = \sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i$$

and let

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \left(p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} + q_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right).$$

Then

$$i(\mathcal{E})\omega = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (q_i dp_i - p_i dq_i).$$

If we set

$$\alpha := \frac{1}{2} \sum_i (p_i dq_i - q_i dp_i)$$

then $d\alpha = -\omega$.

Conversely, suppose we have a vector field \mathcal{E} on a symplectic manifold (M, ω) with $D_{\mathcal{E}}\omega = \omega$. By Weil's formula this says that

$$\omega = di(\mathcal{E})\omega$$

so if we set

$$\alpha := -i(\mathcal{E})\omega$$

then

$$d\alpha = -\omega$$

and \mathcal{E} is the corresponding “Euler vector field”.

Adding a “magnetic field”.

Let σ be a closed two form on Q . We can use π to pull this two form back to T^*Q and since $d\pi^* = \pi^*d$ the two form $\pi^*\sigma$ is closed, as is

$$\omega_Q + \pi^*\sigma.$$

I claim that $\omega_Q + \pi^*\sigma$ is symplectic. So I must prove that it is of maximal rank which is the same as saying that $(\omega_Q + \pi^*\sigma)^n$ is nowhere zero. Since ω_Q and $\pi^*\sigma$ are both even, we can apply the binomial formula

$$(\omega_Q + \pi^*\sigma)^n = \sum_k \binom{n}{k} \omega_Q^{n-k} (\pi^*\sigma)^k$$

$$(\omega_Q + \pi^* \sigma)^n = \sum_k \binom{n}{k} \omega_Q^{n-k} (\pi^* \sigma)^k$$

and it is enough to prove that all terms except the first, that is all terms with $k > 0$, vanish, for then $(\omega_Q + \pi^* \sigma)^n = \omega_Q^n$ which we know is nowhere zero. It is easiest to prove this in local coordinates where

$$\omega_q = \sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i \quad \text{and} \quad \pi^* \sigma = \sum_{i < j} B_{ij}(q) dq_i \wedge dq_j.$$

But $(\pi^* \sigma)^k$ is then a sum of terms each of which involves the wedge product of $2k$ dq 's and ω_Q^{n-k} is a sum of terms each of which involves the wedge product of $n - k$ dq 's. So if $k > 0$ the product $\omega_Q^{n-k} \wedge (\pi^* \sigma)^k$ is a sum of terms involving the wedge product of $n + k$ dq 's which must vanish.

The effect of the “magnetic field”.

So $\omega_Q + \pi^*\sigma$ does indeed define a new symplectic structure on T^*Q . Let us see what effect this modification of the symplectic structure has in the simple case where $Q = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $H = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_i p_i^2$ in the standard coordinates. We are looking for the vector field

$$X_H = \sum_i a_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} + \sum b_i \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i}$$

such that

$$i(X_H) \left(\sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i + \sum_{i < j} b_{ij} dq_i \wedge dq_j \right) = \frac{1}{m} \sum p_i dp_i.$$

$$i(X_H) \left(\sum_i dq_i \wedge dp_i + \sum_{i < j} b_{ij} dq_i \wedge dq_j \right) = m \sum p_i dp_i.$$

The only way to pick up $\frac{1}{m}p_i$ as the coefficient of dp_i is to have $a_i = \frac{1}{m}p_i$ as before. So the first half of Hamilton's equations

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{1}{m}p_i$$

remains unchanged. But now

$$\begin{aligned} & i \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right) (\omega_Q + \pi^* \sigma) \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_i p_i dp_i + i \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right) \sum B_{ij} dq_i \wedge dq_j \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& i \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right) (\omega_Q + \pi^* \sigma) \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_i p_i dp_i + i \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right) \sum B_{ij} dq_i \wedge dq_j
\end{aligned}$$

and this second term must be compensated for by the coefficients of the $\frac{\partial}{\partial p_j}$. So we must choose the b_i so that

$$\sum b_i dq_i = i \left(\frac{1}{m} \sum p_i \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i} \right) \left(\sum B_{ij} dq_i \wedge dq_j \right).$$

This then modifies the second half of Hamilton's equations to become

$$\dot{p}_i = b_i.$$

We have introduced a “magnetic force” which now involves the velocity.

$$\dot{p}_i = b_i.$$

We have introduced a “magnetic force” which now involves the velocity. To see what this looks like in terms of notation used in the standard physics courses let us take $n = 3$, and (for convenience) $m = 1$ and write $\pi^* \sigma$ as

$$\pi^* \sigma = B_3 dq_1 \wedge dq_2 - B_2 dq_1 \wedge dq_3 + B_1 dq_2 \wedge dq_3.$$

Then

$$i \left(p_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial q_1} + p_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial q_2} + p_3 \frac{\partial}{\partial q_3} \right) \pi^* \sigma$$

$$= (B_2 p_3 - B_3 p_2) dq_1 + (B_3 p_1 - B_1 p_3) dq_2 + (B_1 p_2 - B_2 p_1) dq_3.$$

So the force is expressed as the “cross product” of the velocity and the magnetic field.