

COMPUTATIONS OF NAMBU-POISSON COHOMOLOGIES

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ABSTRACT. We want to associate to an n -vector on a manifold of dimension n a cohomology which generalizes the Poisson cohomology of a 2-dimensional Poisson manifold. Two possibilities are given here. One of them, the Nambu-Poisson cohomology, seems to be the most pertinent. We study these two cohomologies locally, in the case of germs of n -vectors on \mathbb{K}^n ($\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}).

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1. Introduction. A way to study a geometrical object is to associate to it a cohomology. In this paper, we focus on the n -vectors on an n -dimensional manifold M .

If $n = 2$, the 2-vectors on M are the Poisson structures thus, we can consider the Poisson cohomology. In dimension 2, this cohomology has three spaces. The first one, H^0 , is the space of functions whose Hamiltonian vector field is zero (Casimir functions). The second one, H^1 , is the quotient of the space of infinitesimal automorphisms (or Poisson vector fields) by the subspace of Hamiltonian vector fields. The last one, H^2 , describes the deformations of the Poisson structure. In a previous paper (see [9]) we have computed the cohomology of germs at 0 of Poisson structures on \mathbb{K}^2 ($\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}).

In order to generalize this cohomology to the n -dimensional case ($n \geq 3$), we can follow the same reasoning. These spaces are not necessarily of finite dimension and it is not always easy to describe them precisely.

Recently, a team of Spanish researchers has defined a cohomology, called Nambu-Poisson cohomology, for the Nambu-Poisson structures (see [6]). In this paper, we adapt their construction to our particular case. We will see that this cohomology generalizes in a certain sense the Poisson cohomology in dimension 2. Then we compute locally this cohomology for germs at 0 of n -vectors $\Lambda = f(\partial/\partial x_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$ on \mathbb{K}^n ($\mathbb{K} = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}), with the assumption that f is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of finite codimension (“most of” the germs of n -vectors have this form). This computation is based on a preliminary result that we have shown, in the formal case and in the analytical case (so, the \mathcal{C}^∞ case is not entirely solved). The techniques we use in this paper are quite the same as in [9].

2. Nambu-Poisson cohomology. Let M be a differentiable manifold of dimension n ($n \geq 3$), admitting a volume form ω . We denote by $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ the space of \mathcal{C}^∞ functions on M , by $\Omega^k(M)$ ($k = 0, \dots, n$) the $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ -module of k -forms on M , and by $\chi^k(M)$ ($k = 0, \dots, n$) the $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ -module of k -vectors on M .

We consider an n -vector Λ on M . Note that Λ is a Nambu-Poisson structure on M .

Recall that a Nambu-Poisson structure on M of order r is a skew-symmetric r -linear map $\{, \dots, \}$

$$\mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \times \dots \times \mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M), \quad (f_1, \dots, f_r) \mapsto \{f_1, \dots, f_r\}, \quad (2.1)$$

which satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, gh\} &= \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, g\}h + g\{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, h\}, \\ \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, \{g_1, \dots, g_r\}\} &= \sum_{i=1}^r \{g_1, \dots, g_{i-1}, \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, g_i\}, g_{i+1}, \dots, g_r\}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

for any $f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, g, h, g_1, \dots, g_r$ in $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$. It is clear that we can associate to such a bracket an r -vector on M . If $r = 2$, we rediscover Poisson structures. Thus, Nambu-Poisson structures can be seen as a kind of generalization of Poisson structures. The notion of Nambu-Poisson structures was introduced in [14] by Takhtajan in order to give a formalism to an idea of Y. Nambu (see [12]).

Here, we suppose that the set $\{x \in M; \Lambda_x \neq 0\}$ is dense in M . We are going to associate a cohomology to (M, Λ) .

2.1. The choice of the cohomology. If M is a differentiable manifold of dimension 2, then the Poisson structures on M are the 2-vectors on M . If Π is a Poisson structure on M , then we can associate to (M, Π) the complex

$$0 \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \chi^1(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \chi^2(M) \rightarrow 0 \quad (2.3)$$

with $\partial(g) = [g, \Pi] = X_g$ (Hamiltonian of g) if $g \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ and $\partial(X) = [X, \Pi]$ ($[,]$ indicates Schouten's bracket) if $X \in \chi^1(M)$. The cohomology of this complex is called the Poisson cohomology of (M, Π) . This cohomology has been studied for instance in [9, 10, 15].

Now if M is of dimension n with $n \geq 3$, we want to generalize this cohomology. Our first approach was to consider the complex

$$0 \rightarrow (\mathcal{C}^\infty(M))^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial} \chi^1(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \chi^n(M) \rightarrow 0 \quad (2.4)$$

with $\partial(X) = [X, \Lambda]$ and $\partial(g_1, \dots, g_{n-1}) = i_{dg_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dg_{n-1}} \Lambda = X_{g_1, \dots, g_{n-1}}$ (Hamiltonian vector field) where we adopt the convention $i_{dg_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dg_{n-1}} \Lambda = \Lambda(dg_1, \dots, dg_{n-1}, \bullet)$. We denote by $H_\Lambda^0(M)$, $H_\Lambda^1(M)$, and $H_\Lambda^2(M)$ the three spaces of cohomology of this complex. With this cohomology, we rediscover the interpretation of the first spaces of the Poisson cohomology, that is, $H_\Lambda^2(M)$ describes the infinitesimal deformations of Λ and $H_\Lambda^1(M)$ is the quotient of the algebra of vector fields which preserve Λ by the ideal of Hamiltonian vector fields.

In [6], the authors associate to any Nambu-Poisson structure on M a cohomology. The second idea is then to adapt their construction to our particular case.

Let $\#_\Lambda$ be the morphism of $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ -modules $\Omega^{n-1}(M) \rightarrow \chi^1(M) : \alpha \mapsto i_\alpha \Lambda$. Note that $\ker \#_\Lambda = \{0\}$ (because the set of regular points of Λ is dense). We can define (see [7]) an \mathbb{R} -bilinear operator $[[,]]: \Omega^{n-1}(M) \times \Omega^{n-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(M)$ by

$$[[\alpha, \beta]] = \mathcal{L}_{\#_\Lambda \alpha} \beta + (-1)^n (i_{d\alpha} \Lambda) \beta. \quad (2.5)$$

The vector space $\Omega^{n-1}(M)$ equipped with $[[,]]$ is a Lie algebra (for any Nambu-Poisson structure, it is a Leibniz algebra). Moreover, this bracket verifies that $\#_\Lambda[[\alpha, \beta]] = [\#_\Lambda\alpha, \#_\Lambda\beta]$ for any $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega^{n-1}(M)$. The triple $(\Lambda^{n-1}(T^*(M)), [[,]], \#_\Lambda)$ is then a Lie algebroid and the Nambu-Poisson cohomology of (M, Λ) is the Lie algebroid cohomology of $\Lambda^{n-1}(T^*(M))$ (for any Nambu-Poisson structure, it is more elaborate see [6]). More precisely, for every $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$, we consider the vector space $C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ of the skew-symmetric and $\mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ - k -multilinear maps $\Omega^{n-1}(M) \times \dots \times \Omega^{n-1}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$. The cohomology operator $\partial : C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)) \rightarrow C^{k+1}(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \partial c(\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_k) &= \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i (\#_\Lambda \alpha_i) \cdot c(\alpha_0, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_i, \dots, \alpha_k) \\ &+ \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} c([[\alpha_i, \alpha_j]], \alpha_0, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_i, \dots, \hat{\alpha}_j, \dots, \alpha_k) \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

for all $c \in C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ and $\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_k$ in $\Omega^{n-1}(M)$.

The Nambu-Poisson cohomology of (M, Λ) , denoted by $H_{NP}^*(M, \Lambda)$, is the cohomology of this complex.

2.2. An equivalent cohomology. So defined, the Nambu-Poisson cohomology is quite difficult to manipulate. We are going to give an equivalent cohomology which is more accessible.

Recall that we assume that M admits a volume form ω .

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$, we define the operator

$$d_f : \Omega^k(M) \longrightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M), \quad \alpha \longmapsto f d\alpha - k df \wedge \alpha. \quad (2.7)$$

It is easy to prove that $d_f \circ d_f = 0$. We denote by $H_f^*(M)$ the cohomology of this complex. Let \flat be the isomorphism $\chi^1(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(M)$, $X \mapsto i_X \omega$.

LEMMA 2.1. (1) If $X \in \chi^1(M)$, then $\#_\Lambda(\flat(X)) = (-1)^{n-1} f X$, where $f = i_\Lambda \omega$.
 (2) If X and Y are in $\chi^1(M)$, then

$$(-1)^{n-1} [[\flat(X), \flat(Y)]] = f \flat([X, Y]) + (X \cdot f) \flat(Y) - (Y \cdot f) \flat(X). \quad (2.8)$$

PROOF. (1) Obvious.

(2) We have $\#_\Lambda([[\flat(X), \flat(Y)]]) = [\#_\Lambda(\flat(X)), \#_\Lambda(\flat(Y))]$ (property of the Lie algebroid), which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \#_\Lambda([[\flat(X), \flat(Y)]]) &= f(X \cdot f)Y - f(Y \cdot f)X + f^2[X, Y] \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} \#_\Lambda((X \cdot f) \flat(Y) - (Y \cdot f) \flat(X) + f \flat([X, Y])). \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

The result follows via the injectivity of $\#_\Lambda$. □

PROPOSITION 2.2. If We put $f = i_\Lambda \omega$, then $H_{NP}^*(M, \Lambda)$ is isomorphic to $H_f^*(M)$.

PROOF. For every k , we consider the application $\varphi : C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)) \rightarrow \Omega^k(M)$ defined by

$$\varphi(c)(X_1, \dots, X_k) = c((-1)^{n-1} \flat(X_1), \dots, (-1)^{n-1} \flat(X_k)), \quad (2.10)$$

where $c \in C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ and $X_1, \dots, X_k \in \chi^1(M)$. It is easy to see that φ is an isomorphism of vector spaces. We show that it is an isomorphism of complexes.

Let $c \in C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$. We put $\alpha = \varphi(c)$. If X_0, \dots, X_k are in $\chi^1(M)$, then $\varphi(\partial c)(X_0, \dots, X_k) = (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \partial c(b(X_0), \dots, b(X_k)) = A + B$, where

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^{i\#\Lambda} (b(X_i)) \cdot c(b(X_0), \dots, \widehat{b(X_i)}, \dots, b(X_k)), \\ B &= (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} c([[b(X_i), b(X_j)]], b(X_0), \dots, \widehat{b(X_i)}, \dots, \widehat{b(X_j)}, \dots, b(X_k)). \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

We have $A = f \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i X_i \cdot \alpha(X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, X_k)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} B &= f \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} \alpha([X_i, X_j], X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, \hat{X}_j, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad + \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} (X_i \cdot f) \alpha(X_j, X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, \hat{X}_j, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad - \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} (X_j \cdot f) \alpha(X_i, X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, \hat{X}_j, \dots, X_k) \\ &= f \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} \alpha([X_i, X_j], X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, \hat{X}_j, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad - k \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i (X_i \cdot f) \alpha(X_0, \dots, \hat{X}_i, \dots, X_k). \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

Consequently, $\varphi(\partial c) = d_f \alpha = d_f(\varphi(c))$. \square

REMARK 2.3. We claim that this cohomology is a “good” generalization of the Poisson cohomology of a 2-dimensional Poisson manifold. Indeed, if (M, Π) is an orientable Poisson manifold of dimension 2, we consider the volume form ω on M and we put

$$\phi^2: \chi^2(M) \rightarrow \Omega^2(M), \quad \phi^1: \chi^1(M) \rightarrow \Omega^1(M), \quad (2.13)$$

defined by

$$\phi^2(\Gamma) = (i_\Gamma \omega) \omega, \quad \phi^1(X) = -i_X \omega, \quad (2.14)$$

for every 2-vector Γ and vector field X .

We also put $\phi^0 = id: \mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$.

If we denote by ∂ the operator of the Poisson cohomology, and $f = i_\Pi \omega$, it is quite easy to see that

$$\phi: (\chi^*(M), \partial) \rightarrow (\Omega^*(M), d_f) \quad (2.15)$$

is an isomorphism of complexes.

REMARK 2.4. (1) The definitions we have given make sense if we work in the holomorphic case or in the formal case.

(2) Important: if h is a function on M which does not vanish on M , then the cohomologies $H_f^*(M)$ and $H_{fh}^*(M)$ are isomorphic.

Indeed, the applications $(\Omega^k(M), d_{fh}) \rightarrow (\Omega^k(M), d_f)$, $\alpha \mapsto \alpha/h^k$ give an isomorphism of complexes.

In particular, if f does not vanish on M then $H_f^\bullet(M)$ is isomorphic to the de Rham's cohomology.

2.3. Other cohomologies. We can construct other complexes which look like $(\Omega^*(M), d_f)$. More precisely we denote, for $p \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$d_f^{(p)} : \Omega^k(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M), \quad \alpha \mapsto f d\alpha - (k-p) df \wedge \alpha. \quad (2.16)$$

We denote by $H_{f,p}^\bullet(M)$ the cohomology of these complexes. We will see in [Section 3](#) some relations between these different cohomologies.

Using the contraction $i_\bullet \omega$, it is quite easy to prove the following proposition.

PROPOSITION 2.5. *The spaces $H_\Lambda^1(M)$ and $H_\Lambda^2(M)$ are isomorphic to $H_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(M)$ and $H_{f,n-2}^n(M)$.*

REMARK 2.6. The two properties of [Remark 2.4](#) are valid for $H_{f,p}^\bullet(M)$ with $p \in \mathbb{Z}$.

3. Computation. Henceforth, we will work locally. Let Λ be a germ of n -vectors on \mathbb{K}^n (\mathbb{K} indicates \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}) with $n \geq 3$. We denote by $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($\Omega^k(\mathbb{K}^n), \chi(\mathbb{K}^n)$) the space of germs at 0 of (holomorphic, analytic, \mathcal{C}^∞ , formal) functions (k -forms, vector fields). We can write Λ (with coordinates (x_1, \dots, x_n)) $\Lambda = f(\partial/\partial x_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$, where $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We assume that the volume form ω is $dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$.

We suppose that $f(0) = 0$ (see [Remark 2.4](#)) and that f is of finite codimension, which means that $Q_f = \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)/I_f$ (I_f is the ideal spanned by $\partial f/\partial x_1, \dots, \partial f/\partial x_n$) is a finite-dimensional vector space.

REMARK 3.1. It is important to note that, according to Tougeron's theorem (cf. [3]), if f is of finite codimension, then the set $f^{-1}(\{0\})$ is, from the topological point of view, the same as the set of the zeros of a polynomial.

Therefore, if g is a germ at 0 of functions which satisfies $fg = 0$, then $g = 0$.

Moreover, we suppose that f is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree N (for a justification of this additional assumption, see [Section 4](#)). We are going to recall the definition of the quasihomogeneity.

3.1. Quasihomogeneity. Let $(w_1, \dots, w_n) \in (\mathbb{N}^*)^n$. We denote by W the vector field $w_1 x_1 (\partial/\partial x_1) + \dots + w_n x_n (\partial/\partial x_n)$ on \mathbb{K}^n . We say that a nonzero tensor T is quasihomogeneous with weights w_1, \dots, w_n and of (quasi)degree $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ if $\mathcal{L}_W T = NT$ (\mathcal{L} indicates the Lie derivative operator). Note that T is then polynomial.

If f is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree N , then $N = k_1 w_1 + \dots + k_n w_n$ with $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{N}$; so, an integer is not necessarily the quasidegree of a polynomial. If $f \in \mathbb{K}[[x_1, \dots, x_n]]$, we can write $f = \sum_{i=0}^\infty f_i$ with f_i quasihomogeneous of degree i (we adopt the convention that $f_i = 0$ if i is not a quasidegree); f is said to be of order d ($\text{ord}(f) = d$) if all of its monomials have a degree d or higher. For more details, see [3].

Since \mathcal{L}_W and the exterior differentiation d commute, if α is a quasihomogeneous k -form, then $d\alpha$ is a quasihomogeneous $(k+1)$ -form of degree $\text{deg } \alpha$. In particular, it is important to notice that dx_i is a quasihomogeneous 1-form of degree w_i (note that $\partial/\partial x_i$ is a quasihomogeneous vector field of degree $-w_i$). Thus, the volume form

$\omega = dx_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge dx_n$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $w_1 + \cdots + w_n$. Note that a quasihomogeneous nonzero k -form ($k \geq 1$) has a degree strictly positive.

Note that if f is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree N , then the n -vector $\Lambda = f(\partial/\partial x_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum_i w_i$.

In what follows, the degrees will be quasidegrees with respect to $W = w_1 x_1 (\partial/\partial x_1) + \cdots + w_n x_n (\partial/\partial x_n)$.

We will need the following result.

LEMMA 3.2. *Let $k_1, \dots, k_n \in \mathbb{N}$ and put $p = \sum k_i w_i$. Assume that $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $\alpha \in \Omega^i(\mathbb{K}^n)$ verify $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(g)) > p$ and $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\alpha)) > p$ (j_0^∞ indicates the ∞ -jet at 0). Then*

- (1) *there exists $h \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $W \cdot h - ph = g$,*
- (2) *there exists $\beta \in \Omega^i(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\mathcal{L}_W \beta - p\beta = \alpha$.*

PROOF. The first claim is only a generalization of Lemma 3.5 in [9] (it also appears in Lemma 2 in [2]) and it can be proved in the same way. The second claim is a consequence of the first. \square

Now, we compute the spaces $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (i.e., $H_{Np}^k(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$) for $k = 0, \dots, n$. We denote by $Z_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $B_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ the spaces of k -cocycles and k -cobords. We also compute some spaces $H_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with particular interest in the spaces $H_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (i.e., $H_\Lambda^2(\mathbb{K}^n)$) and $H_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (i.e., $H_\Lambda^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$). We denote by $Z_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($B_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$) the spaces of k -cocycles (k -cobords) for the operator $d_f^{(p)}$.

3.2. Two useful preliminary results. In the computation of these spaces of cohomology, we need the two following propositions. The first is only a corollary of the de Rham's division lemma (see [4]).

PROPOSITION 3.3. *Let $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ of finite codimension. If $\alpha \in \Omega^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($1 \leq k \leq n-1$) verifies $df \wedge \alpha = 0$, then there exists $\beta \in \Omega^{k-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\alpha = df \wedge \beta$.*

PROPOSITION 3.4. *Let $f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ of finite codimension. Let α be a k -form ($2 \leq k \leq n-1$) which verifies $d\alpha = 0$ and $df \wedge \alpha = 0$, then there exists $\gamma \in \Omega^{k-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\alpha = df \wedge d\gamma$.*

PROOF. We prove this result in the formal case and in the analytical case.

Formal case: let α be a quasihomogeneous k -form of degree p which verifies the hypotheses. Since $df \wedge \alpha = 0$, we have $\alpha = df \wedge \beta_1$, where β_1 is a quasihomogeneous $(k-1)$ -form of degree $p-N$. Now, since $d\alpha = 0$, we have $df \wedge d\beta_1 = 0$ and so $d\beta_1 = df \wedge \beta_2$, where β_2 is a quasihomogeneous $(k-1)$ -form of degree $p-2N$. This way, we can construct a sequence (β_i) of quasihomogeneous $(k-1)$ -forms with $\text{deg } \beta_i = p - iN$ which verifies that $d\beta_i = df \wedge \beta_{i+1}$. Let $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p - qN \leq 0$. Thus, we have $\beta_q = 0$ and so $d\beta_{q-1} = 0$, that is, $\beta_{q-1} = d\gamma_{q-1}$, where γ_{q-1} is a $(k-2)$ -form. Consequently, $d\beta_{q-2} = df \wedge d\gamma_{q-1}$ which implies that $\beta_{q-2} = -df \wedge \gamma_{q-1} + d\gamma_{q-2}$, where γ_{q-2} is a $(k-2)$ -form. In the same way, $d\beta_{q-3} = df \wedge d\gamma_{q-2}$ so $\beta_{q-3} = -df \wedge \gamma_{q-2} + d\gamma_{q-3}$, where γ_{q-3} is a $(k-2)$ -form. This way, we can show that $\beta_1 = -df \wedge \gamma_2 + d\gamma_1$, where γ_1 and γ_2 are $(k-2)$ -forms. Therefore, $\alpha = df \wedge d\gamma_1$.

Analytical case: in [8], Malgrange gave a result on the relative cohomology of a germ of an analytical function. In particular, he showed that in our case, if β is a germ at

0 of analytical r -forms ($r < n - 1$) which verifies $d\beta = df \wedge \mu$ (μ is an r -form) then there exist two germs of analytical $(r - 1)$ -forms γ and ν such that $\beta = d\gamma + df \wedge \nu$.

Now, we prove our proposition. Let α be a germ of analytical k -forms ($2 \leq k \leq n - 1$) which verifies the hypotheses of the proposition. Then there exists a $(k - 1)$ -form β such that $\alpha = df \wedge \beta$ (Proposition 3.3). But since $0 = d\alpha = -df \wedge d\beta$, we have $d\beta = df \wedge \mu$ and so (see [8]) $\beta = d\gamma + df \wedge \nu$, where γ and ν are analytical $(k - 2)$ -forms. We deduce that $\alpha = df \wedge d\gamma$, where γ is analytic. \square

REMARK 3.5. Important: in fact, some results which appear in [13] lead us to think that this proposition is not true in the real \mathcal{C}^∞ case.

The computation of the spaces $H_{f,p}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, $H_{f,p}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($p \neq n - 2$), and $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$ does not use this proposition, so it still holds in the \mathcal{C}^∞ case.

The results we find on the other spaces should be the same in the \mathcal{C}^∞ case as in the analytical case but another proof need to be found.

3.3. Computation of $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We consider the application $d_f^{(p)} : \Omega^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \rightarrow \Omega^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$, $g \mapsto f dg + p df \wedge g$.

THEOREM 3.6. (1) If $p > 0$ then $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$.
 (2) If $p \leq 0$ then $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n) = \mathbb{K} \cdot f^{-p}$.

PROOF. (1) If $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ verifies $d_f^{(p)} g = 0$, then $d(f^p g) = 0$, and so $f^p g$ is constant. But as $f(0) = 0$, $f^p g$ must be 0, that is, $g = 0$ (because f is of finite codimension; see Remark 3.1).

(2) We use an induction to show that for any $k \geq 0$, if g satisfies $f dg = kg df$ then $g = \lambda f^k$, where $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$.

For $k = 0$ it is obvious.

Now we suppose that the property is true for $k \geq 0$. We show that it is still valid for $k + 1$. Let $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ be such that

$$f dg = (k + 1)g df. \quad (3.1)$$

Then $df \wedge dg = 0$ and so there exists $h \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $dg = h df$ (Proposition 3.3). Replacing dg by $h df$ in (3.1), we get $f h df = (k + 1)g df$, that is, $g = (1/(k + 1))fh$. Now, this former relation gives, on one hand, $f dg = (1/(k + 1))(f^2 dh + fh df)$ and on the other hand, using (3.1), $f dg = fh df$. Consequently, $f dh = kh df$ and so $h = \lambda f^k$ with $\lambda \in \mathbb{K}$. \square

3.4. Computation of $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$

LEMMA 3.7. Let $\alpha \in Z_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $1 \leq k \leq n - 2$. Then α is cohomologous to a closed k -form.

PROOF. We have $f d\alpha - (k - p) df \wedge \alpha = 0$. If $k = p$ then α is closed. Now we suppose that $k \neq p$. We put $\beta = d\alpha \in \Omega^{k+1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We have

$$0 = df \wedge (f d\alpha - (k - p) df \wedge \alpha) = f df \wedge \alpha, \quad (3.2)$$

so $df \wedge \alpha = 0$.

Now, since $d\beta = 0$ and $df \wedge \beta = 0$, [Proposition 3.4](#) gives $\beta = df \wedge d\gamma$ with $\gamma \in \Omega^{k-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then, if we consider $\alpha' = \alpha - (1/(k-p))(f d\gamma - (k-p-1)df \wedge \gamma)$, we have $d\alpha' = 0$ and $f d\gamma - (k-p-1)df \wedge \gamma \in B_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$. \square

THEOREM 3.8. *If $k \in \{2, \dots, n-2\}$ then $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$.*

PROOF. Let $\alpha \in Z_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then $\alpha \in \Omega^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and verifies $f d\alpha - k df \wedge \alpha = 0$.

According to [Lemma 3.7](#) we can assume that α is closed. Now we show that $\alpha \in B_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Since $d\alpha = 0$ and $df \wedge \alpha = 0$, there exists $\beta \in \Omega^{k-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\alpha = df \wedge d\beta$ ([Proposition 3.4](#)). Thus, $\alpha = d_f((-1/(k-1))d\beta)$. \square

REMARK 3.9. It is possible to adapt this proof to show that $H_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$ if $k \in \{2, \dots, n-2\}$ and $p \neq k, k-1$.

LEMMA 3.10. *Let $\alpha \in Z_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$. If $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\alpha)) > N$ then $\alpha \in B_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$.*

PROOF. According to [Lemma 3.7](#), we can assume that $d\alpha = 0$.

Since $df \wedge \alpha = 0$ we have $\alpha = g df$ (see [Proposition 3.3](#)), where g is in $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and verifies $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(g)) > 0$. We show that f divides g .

Let $\bar{g} \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ be such that $W \cdot \bar{g} = g$ (see [Lemma 3.2](#)); note that $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\bar{g})) > 0$.

We have $\mathcal{L}_W(df \wedge d\bar{g}) = N df \wedge d\bar{g} + df \wedge d\bar{g}$, and since $df \wedge d\bar{g} = -d\alpha = 0$, $df \wedge d\bar{g}$ verifies

$$\mathcal{L}_W(df \wedge d\bar{g}) = N df \wedge d\bar{g}, \quad (3.3)$$

which means that $df \wedge d\bar{g}$ is either 0 or quasihomogeneous of degree N .

But since $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(df \wedge d\bar{g})) > N$, $df \wedge d\bar{g}$ must be 0.

Consequently, there exists $\nu \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\partial \bar{g} / \partial x_i = \nu(\partial f / \partial x_i)$ for any i . Thus, $W \cdot \bar{g} = \nu W \cdot f$ and so $g = \nu f$.

We deduce that $\alpha = f\beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

Now, we have

$$0 = d\alpha = df \wedge \beta + f d\beta, \quad 0 = df \wedge \alpha = f df \wedge \beta, \quad (3.4)$$

which implies that $d\beta = 0$.

Therefore, $\alpha = f dh = d_f(h)$ with $h \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. \square

THEOREM 3.11. *The space $H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is of dimension 1 and spanned by df .*

PROOF. Let $\alpha \in Z_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$. According to [Lemma 3.10](#), we only have to study the case where α is quasihomogeneous with $\text{deg}(\alpha) \leq N$. We have $f d\alpha - df \wedge \alpha = 0$, so $df \wedge d\alpha = 0$. We deduce that $d\alpha = df \wedge \beta$, where β is a quasihomogeneous 1-form of degree $\text{deg}(\alpha) - N \leq 0$. But since dx_i is quasihomogeneous of degree $w_i > 0$ for any i , every quasihomogeneous nonzero 1-form has a strictly positive degree. We deduce that $\beta = 0$ and so $d\alpha = 0$. Therefore, $df \wedge \alpha = 0$ which implies that $\alpha = g df$, where g is a quasihomogeneous function of degree $\text{deg}(\alpha) - N \leq 0$. Consequently, if $\text{deg}(\alpha) < N$ then $g = 0$; otherwise g is constant. To conclude, note that df is not a cobord because f does not divide df . \square

3.5. Computation of $H_{f,p}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We compute the spaces $H_{f,p}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ for $p \neq n-1$. We consider the application

$$d_f^{(n-q)} : \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \longrightarrow \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n), \quad \alpha \longmapsto f d\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha, \quad (3.5)$$

with $q \neq 1$ (note that if $q = n$ then we obtain the space $H_{Np}^n(M, \Lambda)$ and if $q = 2$ then we have $H_\Lambda^2(\mathbb{K}^n)$).

We denote $\mathcal{F}^n = \{df \wedge \alpha; \alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)\}$. It is clear that $\mathcal{F}^n \simeq I_f$ (recall that I_f is the ideal of $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ spanned by $\partial f / \partial x_1, \dots, \partial f / \partial x_n$) and that $\Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n) / \mathcal{F}^n \simeq Q_f = \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n) / I_f$.

We put $\sigma = i_W \omega$ (recall that $W = w_1 x_1 (\partial / \partial x_1) + \dots + w_n x_n (\partial / \partial x_n)$ and that ω is the standard volume form on \mathbb{K}^n). Note that σ is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $\sum_i w_i$ and that $d_g \wedge \sigma = (W \cdot g)\omega$ if $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

If $\alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, we use the notation $\operatorname{div}(\alpha)$ for $d\alpha = \operatorname{div}(\alpha)\omega$; for example, $\operatorname{div}(\sigma) = \sum_i w_i$. Note that if α is quasihomogeneous, then $\operatorname{div}(\alpha)$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $\deg \alpha - \sum_i w_i$.

LEMMA 3.12. (1) *If the ∞ -jet at 0 of y does not contain a component of degree qN (in particular if $q \leq 0$) then $y \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow y \in \mathcal{F}^n$.*

(2) *If y is a quasihomogeneous n -form of degree qN , then $y \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \Rightarrow y \in \mathcal{F}^n$.*

PROOF. If $y = f d\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha \in B^n(d_f^{(n-q)})$, where $\alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}$ then $y = df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta = -(q-1)\alpha + (\operatorname{div}(\alpha)/N)\sigma$. This shows the second claim and the first part of the first one.

Now we prove the reverse of the first claim.

Formal case: let $y = \sum_{i>0} \mathcal{Y}^{(i)}$ and $\beta = \sum \beta^{(i-N)}$ (with $\mathcal{Y}^{(i)}$ of degree i , $\mathcal{Y}^{(qN)} = 0$ and $\beta^{(i-N)}$ of degree $i-N$) such that $y = df \wedge \beta$. If we put $\alpha = (-1/(q-1))\beta + \sum_i (\operatorname{div}(\beta^{(i-N)}) / ((q-1)(i-qN))\sigma$, we have $d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) = y$.

Analytical case: if β is analytic at 0, the function $\operatorname{div}(\beta)$ is analytic too, and since $\lim_{i \rightarrow +\infty} (1/(i-qN)) = 0$, the $(n-1)$ -form defined above is also analytic at 0.

\mathcal{C}^∞ case: we suppose that $y = df \wedge \beta$. If we denote $\tilde{y} = j_0^\infty(y)$, then there exists a formal $(n-1)$ -form $\tilde{\alpha}$ such that $\tilde{y} = f d\tilde{\alpha} - (q-1)df \wedge \tilde{\alpha}$. Let α be a $\mathcal{C}^\infty - (n-1)$ -form such that $\tilde{\alpha} = j_0^\infty(\alpha)$. This form verifies $f d\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha = y + \epsilon$, where ϵ is flat at 0. Since $B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \subset \mathcal{F}^n$, $\epsilon \in \mathcal{F}^n$ so that $\epsilon = df \wedge \mu$, where μ is flat at 0. Let $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ be such that $W \cdot g - ((q-1)N - \sum w_i)g = \operatorname{div}(\mu) / (q-1)$ (**Lemma 3.2**). Then the form $\theta = (-1/(q-1))\mu + g\sigma$ verifies $d_f^{(n-q)}(\theta) = \epsilon$. \square

REMARK 3.13. (1) **Lemma 3.12** gives $B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \subset \mathcal{F}^n$. Thus, there is a surjection from $H_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ onto Q_f . Therefore, if f is not of finite codimension, then $H_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is an infinite-dimensional vector space.

(2) According to this lemma, if y is in \mathcal{F}^n then there exists a quasihomogeneous n -form θ , of degree qN , such that $y + \theta \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Note that θ is in \mathcal{F}^n .

The first claim of this lemma allows us to state the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.14. *If $q \leq 0$ then $H_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \simeq Q_f$.*

Now we suppose that $q > 1$.

LEMMA 3.15. *Let $\alpha \in \Omega^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $p \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $f d_f^{(p)}(\alpha) = d_f^{(p-1)}(f\alpha)$.*

PROOF. The proof is obvious. \square

LEMMA 3.16. (1) *Let $q > 2$. If $\alpha \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N$ and verifies $f\alpha \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, then $\alpha \in B_{f,n-q+1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$.*

(2) *If α is quasihomogeneous of degree N with $f\alpha \in B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, then $\alpha = 0$.*

PROOF. (1) We suppose that $\alpha = g\omega$ with $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N - \sum w_i$. We have $f g \omega = f d\beta - (q-1)df \wedge \beta$, where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $(q-1)N$.

If we put $\theta = -(q-1)\beta + ((\operatorname{div}(\beta) - g)/N)\sigma$, then $df \wedge \theta = 0$, and so $\theta = df \wedge \gamma$, where γ is a quasihomogeneous $(n-2)$ -form of degree $(q-2)N$. Consequently, $\beta = (-1/(q-1))df \wedge \gamma + ((\operatorname{div}(\beta) - g)/(q-1)N)\sigma$. Now, a computation shows that $f d\beta - (q-1)df \wedge \beta = (1/(q-1))f df \wedge d\gamma$, that is, $f\alpha = (1/(q-1))f df \wedge d\gamma$. Therefore, $\alpha = (1/(q-1))df \wedge d\gamma = (1/(q-1))d_f^{(n-q+1)}((-1/(q-2))d\gamma)$.

(2) As in (1) (with $q=2$), we have $f\alpha = f g \omega = d_f^{(n-2)}(\beta)$ with $\deg g = N$ and $\deg \beta = N$. We put $\theta = -\beta + ((\operatorname{div}(\beta) - g)/N)\sigma$.

If $\theta \neq 0$ then $\theta = df \wedge \gamma$, where γ is a quasihomogeneous $(n-2)$ -form of degree 0 which is not possible. So $\theta = 0$, that is, $\beta = ((\operatorname{div}(\beta) - g)/N)\sigma$.

We deduce that $f d\beta - df \wedge \beta = 0$, that is, $\alpha = 0$. \square

Let \mathcal{B} be a monomial basis of Q_f (for the existence of such a basis, see [3]). We denote by r_j ($j = 2, \dots, q-1$) the number of monomials of \mathcal{B} whose degree is $jN - \sum w_i$ (this number does not depend on the choice of \mathcal{B}). We also denote by s the dimension of the space of quasihomogeneous polynomials of degree $N - \sum w_i$ and c the codimension of f .

THEOREM 3.17. *Let $\alpha \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then there exist unique polynomials h_1, \dots, h_q (possibly zero) such that*

- (a) h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$,
- (b) h_j ($2 \leq j \leq q-1$) is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} of degree $jN - \sum w_i$,
- (c) h_q is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} , and

$$\alpha = (h_q + f h_{q-1} + \dots + f^{q-1} h_1)\omega \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}. \quad (3.6)$$

In particular, the dimension of $H_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is $c + r_{q-1} + \dots + r_2 + s$.

PROOF

EXISTENCE. We suppose that $\alpha = g\omega$ with $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. There exists h_q , a linear combination of the monomials of \mathcal{B} , such that $g = h_q \pmod{I_f}$. So, according to Lemma 3.12 (see Remark 3.13), $g\omega = h_q\omega + df \wedge \beta \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}$, where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $(q-1)N$.

Consequently, $g\omega = h_q\omega + (1/(q-1))f d\beta - (1/(q-1))[f d\beta - (q-1)df \wedge \beta] \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}$, so we can write

$$g\omega = h_q\omega + f g_{q-1}\omega \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}, \quad (3.7)$$

where g_{q-1} is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N - \sum w_i$.

In the same way,

$$g_{q-1}\omega = h_{q-1}\omega + fg_{q-2}\omega \pmod{B_{f,n-q+1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}, \quad (3.8)$$

where h_{q-1} is a linear combination of the monomials of \mathcal{B} of degree $(q-1)N - \sum w_i$ and g_{q-2} is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-2)N - \sum w_i, \dots$,

$$g_2\omega = h_2\omega + fh_1\omega \pmod{B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}, \quad (3.9)$$

where h_2 is a linear combination of the monomials of \mathcal{B} of degree $2N - \sum w_i$ and h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$.

Using Lemma 3.15, we get

$$\alpha = g\omega = (h_q + h_{q-1} + f^2h_{q-2} + \dots + f^{q-1}h_1)\omega \pmod{B_f^n(d_f^{(n-q)})}. \quad (3.10)$$

UNICITY. Let $g = h_q + fh_{q-1} + \dots + f^{q-1}h_1$ with h_1, \dots, h_q as in the statement of the theorem. We suppose that $g\omega \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then $g\omega \in \mathcal{I}_f^n$, that is, $g \in I_f$. But since $fh_{q-1} + \dots + f^{q-1}h_1 \in I_f$ (because $f \in I_f$) we have $h_q \in I_f$ and so $h_q = 0$.

Now, according to Lemma 3.16, $(h_{q-1} + fh_{q-2} + \dots + f^{q-2}h_1)\omega$ is in $B_{f,n-q+1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and so, in the same way, $h_{q-1} = 0$.

This way, we get $h_q = h_{q-1} = \dots = h_2 = 0$ and $fh_1\omega \in B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Lemma 3.16 gives $h_1 = 0$. \square

This theorem allows us to give the dimension of the spaces $H_{Np}^n(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ and $H_\Lambda^2(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

COROLLARY 3.18. *Let $\alpha \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then there exist unique polynomials h_1, \dots, h_n (Possibly zero) such that*

- (a) h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$,
- (b) h_j ($2 \leq j \leq n-1$) is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} of degree $jN - \sum w_i$,
- (c) h_n is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} , and

$$\alpha = (h_n + fh_{n-1} + \dots + f^{n-1}h_1)\omega \pmod{B_f^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}. \quad (3.11)$$

In particular, the dimension of $H_{Np}^n(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ is $c + r_{n-1} + \dots + r_2 + s$.

COROLLARY 3.19. *Let $\alpha \in \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then there exist unique polynomials h_1, h_2 (possibly zero) such that*

- (a) h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$,
- (b) h_2 is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} , and

$$\alpha = (h_2 + fh_1)\omega \pmod{B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}. \quad (3.12)$$

In particular, the dimension of $H_\Lambda^2(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is $c + s$.

REMARK 3.20. If $q = 1$, then the space $H_{f,n-1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is $\Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)/f\Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ which is of infinite dimension.

3.6. Computation of $H_{f,p}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We compute the spaces $H_{f,p}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $p \neq n-1$. We consider the piece of complex

$$\Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n) \longrightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \longrightarrow \Omega^n(\mathbb{K}^n), \quad (3.13)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) &= f d\alpha - (q-2) df \wedge \alpha \quad \text{if } \alpha \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n), \\ d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) &= f d\alpha - (q-1) df \wedge \alpha \quad \text{if } \alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n), \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

with $q \neq 1$.

Remember that if $q = n$, we obtain $H_{NP}^{n-1}(K^n, \Lambda)$ and if $q = 2$ we have $H_\Lambda^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

LEMMA 3.21. *If $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, then $\alpha = (\operatorname{div}(\alpha)/(q-1)N)\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and so, $d\alpha$ verifies $\mathcal{L}_W(d\alpha) - (q-1)N d\alpha = (q-1)N df \wedge d\beta$.*

PROOF. It is sufficient to notice that $df \wedge (\alpha - (\operatorname{div}(\alpha)/(q-1)N)\sigma) = 0$ (see [Proposition 3.3](#)). For the second claim, we have $(q-1)N d\alpha = (W \cdot \operatorname{div}(\alpha) + (\sum w_i) \operatorname{div}(\alpha))\omega - (q-1)N df \wedge d\beta$ and the conclusion follows. \square

LEMMA 3.22. *If $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $\operatorname{ord}(j_0^\infty(\alpha)) > (q-1)N$, then α is cohomologous to a closed $(n-1)$ -form. In particular, if $q \leq 0$ then every $(n-1)$ -cocycle for $d_f^{(n-q)}$ is cohomologous to a closed $(n-1)$ -form.*

PROOF. We have $\alpha = (\operatorname{div}(\alpha)/(q-1)N)\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ ([Lemma 3.21](#)) with

$$\mathcal{L}_W(d\alpha) - (q-1)N d\alpha = (q-1)N df \wedge d\beta. \quad (3.15)$$

Now, let $\gamma \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $\mathcal{L}_W \gamma - (q-2)N\gamma = (q-1)N\beta$ (γ exists because $\operatorname{ord}(j_0^\infty(\beta)) > (q-2)N$, see [Lemma 3.2](#)).

We have $\mathcal{L}_W d\gamma - (q-2)N d\gamma = (q-1)N d\beta$. Thus $df \wedge d\gamma$ verifies

$$\mathcal{L}_W(df \wedge d\gamma) - (q-1)N df \wedge d\gamma = (q-1)N df \wedge d\beta. \quad (3.16)$$

From (3.15) and (3.16) we get $d\alpha = df \wedge d\gamma$.

Indeed, $\mathcal{L}_W(d\alpha - df \wedge d\gamma) = (q-1)N(d\alpha - df \wedge d\gamma)$ but $d\alpha - df \wedge d\gamma$ is not quasi-homogeneous of degree $(q-1)N$.

Now, if we put $\theta = \alpha - (1/(q-1))(f d\gamma - (q-2) df \wedge \gamma)$, we have $d\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \alpha \bmod B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. \square

[Lemma 3.22](#) allows us to state the following theorem.

THEOREM 3.23. *If we suppose that $q \leq 0$ then $H_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$.*

PROOF. Let $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We can suppose (according to [Lemma 3.22](#)) that $d\alpha = 0$. Thus we have $df \wedge \alpha = 0$. [Proposition 3.4](#) gives then, $\alpha = df \wedge d\gamma$ with $\gamma \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Therefore, $\alpha = d_f^{(n-q)}(-1/(q-2))d\gamma$. \square

Now, we assume that $q > 1$.

LEMMA 3.24. *If $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form whose degree is strictly lower than $(q-1)N$, then α is cohomologous to a closed $(n-1)$ -form.*

PROOF. According to [Lemma 3.21](#), we have $\alpha = (\operatorname{div}(\alpha)/(q-1)N)\sigma + df \wedge \beta$, and so

$$d\alpha = \frac{(q-1)N}{\operatorname{deg}(\alpha) - (q-1)N} df \wedge d\beta. \quad (3.17)$$

We deduce that, if we put $\theta = \alpha - d_f^{(n-q)}((N/(\deg(\alpha) - (q-1)N))d\beta)$, we have $d\theta = 0$. \square

REMARK 3.25. A consequence of Lemmas 3.22 and 3.24 is that, if $q > 1$, every cocycle $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is cohomologous to a cocycle $\eta + \theta$, where η is in $Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and is closed, and θ is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N$.

LEMMA 3.26. *Let $\alpha = g\sigma$, where g is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree $(q-1)N - \sum w_i$. Then*

- (1) if $q > 2$, then $\alpha \in B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow g\omega \in B_{f,n-q+1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$,
- (2) if $q = 2$, $\alpha \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow \alpha = 0$.

PROOF. (1) (a) We suppose that $\alpha \in B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, that is, $\alpha = f d\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then $d\alpha = (q-1)df \wedge d\beta$.

On the other hand, $d\alpha = (q-1)Ng\omega$ so $g\omega = (1/N)df \wedge d\beta = d_f^{(n-q+1)}(-d\beta/(q-2)N)$.

(b) Now we suppose that $g\omega \in B_{f,n-q+1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, that is, $g\omega = f d\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta$, where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $(q-2)N$. We put $y = i_W\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} d_f^{(n-q)}(y) &= f dy - (q-2)df \wedge y = f d(i_W\beta) - (q-2)df \wedge (i_W\beta) \\ &= f(\mathcal{L}_W\beta - i_W d\beta) - (q-2)[-i_W(df \wedge \beta) + (i_W df) \wedge \beta] \\ &= f(q-2)N\beta - i_W[f d\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta] - (q-2)(W \cdot f)\beta \\ &= -i_W[f d\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta]. \end{aligned} \tag{3.18}$$

Consequently, $d_f^{(n-q)}(y) = i_W(g\omega) = -g\sigma$.

(2) If $\alpha = f d\beta$, where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-2)$ -form of degree $\deg \alpha - N = 0$, then $\beta = 0$ and so $\alpha = 0$. \square

We recall that \mathcal{B} indicates a monomial basis of Q_f . We adopt the same notations as for Theorem 3.17.

THEOREM 3.27. *We suppose that $q > 2$. Let $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. There exist unique polynomials h_1, \dots, h_{q-1} (possibly zero) such that*

- (a) h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$,
- (b) h_k ($k \geq 2$) is a linear combination of monomials of \mathcal{B} of degree $kN - \sum w_i$, and

$$\omega = (h_{q-1} + fh_{q-2} + \dots + f^{q-2}h_1)\sigma \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)}. \tag{3.19}$$

In particular, the dimension of the space $H_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is $r_{q-1} + \dots + r_2 + s$.

PROOF. If $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, then α is cohomologous to $\eta + \theta$, where η is in $Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and is closed, and θ is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N$ (see Remark 3.25).

The same proof as of Theorem 3.23 shows that η is a cobord.

Now, we have to study θ . According to Lemma 3.21, we can write $\theta = (\text{div}(\theta)/(q-1)N)\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ ($\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$) with $\mathcal{L}_W(d\theta) - (q-1)Nd\theta = (q-1)Ndf \wedge d\beta$. Since θ is quasihomogeneous of degree $(q-1)N$, the former relation gives $df \wedge d\beta = 0$. Consequently, if we put $y = df \wedge \beta$, Proposition 3.4 gives $y = df \wedge d\xi$.

Therefore, $y = d_f^{(n-q)}(-(1/(q-2))d\xi)$ and so $\theta = (\text{div}(\theta)/(q-1)N)\sigma \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)}$. The conclusion follows using Lemma 3.26 and Theorem 3.17. \square

COROLLARY 3.28. *We suppose that $q = n$. Let $\alpha \in Z_f^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. There exist unique polynomials h_1, \dots, h_{n-1} (possibly zero) such that*

- (a) h_1 is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum w_i$,
- (b) h_k ($k \geq 2$) is a linear combination of monomials of \mathfrak{B} of degree $kN - \sum w_i$, and

$$\omega = (h_{n-1} + fh_{n-2} + \dots + f^{n-2}h_1)\sigma \pmod{B_f^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)}. \quad (3.20)$$

In particular, the dimension of the space $H_{NP}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ is $r_{n-1} + \dots + r_2 + s$.

REMARK 3.29. If $q = 2$, the description of the space $H_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (and so $H_\Lambda^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$) is more difficult. It is possible to show that this space is not of finite dimension. Indeed, we consider the case $n = 3$ for simplicity (but it is valid for any $n \geq 3$). We put $\alpha = g((\partial f / \partial x) dx \wedge dz + (\partial f / \partial y) dy \wedge dz)$, where g is a function which depends only on z . We have $d\alpha = 0$ and $df \wedge \alpha = 0$, so $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-1}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ but $\alpha \notin B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ because f does not divide α .

We can yet give more precisions on the space $H_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

THEOREM 3.30. *Let E be the space of $(n-1)$ -forms $h\sigma$, where h is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree $N - \sum w_i$, and F the quotient of the vector space $\{df \wedge dy; y \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)\}$ by the subspace $\{df \wedge d(f\beta); \beta \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)\}$.*

Then $H_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) = E \oplus F$.

PROOF. Let α in $Z_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

According to [Remark 3.25](#), there exist a closed $(n-1)$ -form η with $\eta \in Z_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form θ of degree N , such that α is cohomologous to $\eta + \theta$.

We have ([Lemma 3.21](#)) $\theta = (\text{div}(\theta)/N)\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ with β quasihomogeneous of degree 0 which is possible only if $\beta = 0$. So, $\theta = g\sigma$, where g is a quasihomogeneous polynomial of degree $N - \sum w_i$. [Lemma 3.26](#) says that $\theta \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ if and only if $\theta = 0$.

Now we study η . [Proposition 3.4](#) gives $\eta = df \wedge dy$, where y is an $(n-3)$ -form. If we suppose that $\eta \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, then $df \wedge dy = f d\xi$ with $\xi \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, and so $df \wedge d\xi = 0$. Now we apply [Proposition 3.4](#) to $d\xi$ and we obtain $d\xi = df \wedge d\beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Consequently, $df \wedge dy = f df \wedge d\beta$ which implies that $dy = f d\beta + df \wedge \mu$ with $\mu \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, and so $dy = d(f\beta) + df \wedge \nu$ with $\nu \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

Therefore, $\eta \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow \eta = df \wedge d(f\beta)$. □

3.7. Summary. It is time to sum up the results we have found.

The cohomology $H_f^*(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (and so the Nambu-Poisson cohomology $H_{NP}^\bullet(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$) has been entirely computed (see [Theorems 3.6, 3.8, 3.11](#), and [Corollaries 3.18 and 3.28](#)).

The spaces of this cohomology are of finite dimension and only the “extremal” ones (i.e., H^0, H^1, H^{n-1} , and H^n) are possibly different to $\{0\}$. The spaces $H_{NP}^0(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ and $H_{NP}^1(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ are always of dimension 1. The dimensions of the spaces $H_{NP}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ and $H_{NP}^n(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ depend, on one hand, on the type of the singularity of Λ (via the role played by Q_f), and on the other hand, on the “polynomial nature” of Λ .

Concerning the cohomology $H_{f,n-2}^\bullet(\mathbb{K}^n)$, we have computed H^n , that is, $H_\Lambda^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (see [Corollary 3.19](#)) and we have given a sketch of description of H^{n-1} (see [Theorem 3.30](#)).

We have also computed the spaces $H_{f,n-2}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (see [Theorem 3.6](#)) and $H_{f,n-2}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (see [Theorem 3.8](#)) for $k \neq n-2, n-1$, but these spaces are not particularly interesting for our problem. The space $H_\Lambda^2(\mathbb{K}^n)$, which describes the infinitesimal deformations of Λ is of finite dimension and its dimension has the same property as the dimension of $H_{Np}^n(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$. On the other hand, the space $H_\Lambda^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$ which is the space of the vector fields preserving Λ modulo the Hamiltonian vector fields, is not of finite dimension.

It is interesting to compare the results we have found on these two cohomologies with the ones given in [9] on the computation of the Poisson cohomology in dimension 2.

Finally, if $p \neq 0, n-2, n-1$, we have computed the spaces $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n), H_{f,p}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n), H_{f,p}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, and $H_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $k \neq p, p+1$.

If $p = n-1$, we have computed the spaces $H_{f,n-1}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $H_{f,n-1}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ for $2 \leq k \leq n-2, k \neq p, p+1$ (the space $H_{f,n-1}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is of infinite dimension).

4. Examples. In this section, we explicit the cohomology of some particular germs of n -vectors.

4.1. Normal forms of n -vectors. Let $\Lambda = f(\partial/\partial x_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$ be a germ at 0 of n -vectors on \mathbb{K}^n ($n \geq 3$) with f of finite codimension (see the beginning of [Section 3](#)) and $f(0) = 0$ (if $f(0) \neq 0$, then the local triviality theorem, see [1, 5] or [11], allows us to write, up to a change of coordinates, that $\Lambda = \partial/\partial x_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$).

PROPOSITION 4.1. *If 0 is not a critical point for f , then there exist local coordinates y_1, \dots, y_n such that*

$$\Lambda = y_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial y_n}. \tag{4.1}$$

PROOF. A similar proposition is shown for instance in [9] in dimension 2. The proof can be generalized to the n -dimensional ($n \geq 3$) case.

Now we suppose that 0 is a critical point of f . Moreover, we suppose that the germ f is simple, which means that a sufficiently small neighbourhood (with respect to Whitney’s topology; see [3]) of f intersects only a finite number of R -orbits (two germs g and h are said to be R -equivalent if there exists φ , a local diffeomorphism at 0, such that $g = h \circ \varphi$). Simple germs are those who present a certain kind of stability under deformation. □

The following theorem can be found in [2].

THEOREM 4.2. *Let f be a simple germ at 0 of finite codimension. Suppose that f has at 0 a critical point with critical value 0. Then there exist local coordinates y_1, \dots, y_n such that the germ $\Lambda = f(\partial/\partial x_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial x_n$ can be written, up to a multiplicative constant, $g(\partial/\partial y_1) \wedge \cdots \wedge \partial/\partial y_n$, where g is in the following list:*

$$\begin{aligned} A_k : y_1^{k+1} \pm y_2^2 \pm \cdots \pm y_n^2, \quad k \geq 1, \quad D_k : y_1^2 y_2 \pm y_2^{k-1} \pm y_3^2 \pm \cdots \pm y_n^2, \quad k \geq 4, \\ E_6 : y_1^3 + y_2^4 \pm y_3^2 \pm \cdots \pm y_n^2, \quad E_7 : y_1^3 + y_1 y_2^3 \pm y_3^2 \pm \cdots \pm y_n^2, \\ E_8 : y_1^3 + y_2^5 \pm y_3^2 \pm \cdots \pm y_n^2. \end{aligned} \tag{4.2}$$

Proposition 4.1 and **Theorem 4.2** describe most of the germs at 0 of n -vectors on \mathbb{K}^n vanishing at 0.

We can notice that the models given in the former list are all quasihomogeneous polynomials; which justifies the assumption we made in **Section 3**.

4.2. Some examples. (1) The regular case: $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1$.

It is easy to see that $Q_f = \{0\}$ and that f is quasihomogeneous of degree $N = 1$, with respect to $w_1 = \dots = w_n = 1$. We have $N - \sum w_i < 0$, so $H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \simeq \mathbb{K}$, $H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n) = \mathbb{K} \cdot dx_1$ and $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$ for any $k \geq 2$.

(2) Nondegenerate singularity: $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$ with $n \geq 3$.

We have $N = 2$ and $w_1 = \dots = w_n = 1$. The space Q_f is isomorphic to \mathbb{K} and is spanned by the constant germ 1, which is of degree 0.

We deduce that $H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \simeq \mathbb{K}$, $H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n) = \mathbb{K} \cdot (x_1 dx_1 + \dots + x_n dx_n)$ and $H_f^k = \{0\}$ for $2 \leq k \leq n-2$.

In order to describe the spaces $H_f^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $H_f^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$, we look for an integer $k \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ such that $kN - \sum w_i = \deg 1$, that is, $2k - n = 0$.

Therefore,

(a) if n is even, then $\{\omega, f^{n/2}\omega\}$ is a basis of $H_f^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $H_f^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is spanned by $\{f^{n/2-1}\sigma\}$,

(b) if n is odd, then $H_f^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$ and the space $H_f^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ is spanned by $\{\omega\}$.

We recall that $\omega = dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ and

$$\sigma = i_W \omega = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} x_i dx_i \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx_i} \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n. \quad (4.3)$$

(3) The case A_2 with $n = 3$: $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1^3 + x_2^2 + x_3^2$.

Here, $w_1 = 2$, $w_2 = w_3 = 3$, and $N = 6$. Thus, $N - \sum w_i = -2$, $2N - \sum w_i = 4$, and $3N - \sum w_i = 10$.

Moreover, $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x_1\}$ is a monomial basis of Q_f . But as $\deg 1 = 0$ and $\deg x_1 = 3$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^3) &\simeq \mathbb{K}, & H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^3) &= \mathbb{K} \cdot (3x_1 dx_1 + 2x_2 dx_2 + 2x_3 dx_3), \\ H_f^2(\mathbb{K}^3) &= H_f^3(\mathbb{K}^3) = \{0\}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

(4) The case D_5 with $n = 4$: $f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = x_1^2 x_2 + x_2^4 + x_3^2 + x_4^2$.

We have $w_1 = 3$, $w_2 = 2$, $w_3 = w_4 = 4$, and $N = 8$, then $N - \sum w_i = -5$, $2N - \sum w_i = 3$, $3N - \sum w_i = 11$, and $4N - \sum w_i = 19$.

Now, $\mathcal{B} = \{1, x_1, x_2, x_2^2, x_2^3\}$ is a monomial basis of Q_f . Here, $\deg 1 = 0$, $\deg x_1 = 3$, $\deg x_2 = 2$, $\deg x_2^2 = 4$, and $\deg x_2^3 = 6$. Thus, the only element of \mathcal{B} whose degree is of type $kN - \sum w_i$ is x_1 .

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^4) &\simeq \mathbb{K}, & H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^4) &= \mathbb{K} \cdot (2x_1 x_2 dx_1 + (x_1^2 + 4x_2^3) dx_2 + 2x_3 dx_3 + 2x_4 dx_4), \\ H_f^2(\mathbb{K}^4) &= \{0\}, & H_f^3(\mathbb{K}^4) &= \mathbb{K} \cdot (x_1 \sigma), \end{aligned} \quad (4.5)$$

and $\{\omega, x_1 \omega, x_2 \omega, x_2^2 \omega, x_2^3 \omega, x_1 f \omega\}$ is a basis of $H_f^4(\mathbb{K}^4)$.

Here, we have $W = 3x_1(\partial/\partial x_1) + 2x_2(\partial/\partial x_2) + 4x_3(\partial/\partial x_3) + 4x_4(\partial/\partial x_4)$ and

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma &= 3x_1 dx_2 \wedge dx_3 \wedge dx_4 - 2x_2 dx_1 \wedge dx_3 \wedge dx_4 \\ &\quad + 4x_3 dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge dx_4 - 4x_4 dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge dx_3.\end{aligned}\tag{4.6}$$

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