

COMPUTATIONS OF NAMBU-POISSON COHOMOLOGIES

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ABSTRACT. In this paper, we want to associate to a 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}).

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 a 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 ([Mo]), 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 [I2]). 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 $\Lambda = f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ 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 C^∞ case is not entirely solved). The techniques we use in this paper are quite the same as in [Mo].

2. NAMBU-POISSON COHOMOLOGY

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

1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification.* 53D17.

Key words and phrases. Nambu-Poisson structures, singularities, Nambu-Poisson cohomology.

We consider a 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 $\{ , \dots , \}$

$$\mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \times \dots \times \mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M), \quad (f_1, \dots, f_r) \longmapsto \{f_1, \dots, f_r\},$$

which satisfies

$$\{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, gh\} = \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, g\}h + g\{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, h\} \quad (L)$$

$$\{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, \{g_1, \dots, g_r\}\} = \sum_{i=1}^r \{g_1, \dots, g_{i-1}, \{f_1, \dots, f_{r-1}, g_i\}, g_{i+1}, \dots, g_r\} \quad (FI)$$

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 a 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 [T] by Takhtajan in order to give a formalism to an idea of Y. Nambu ([Na]).

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

$$0 \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathcal{X}^1(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathcal{X}^2(M) \longrightarrow 0$$

with $\partial(g) = [g, \Pi] = X_g$ (Hamiltonian of g) if $g \in \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$ and $\partial(X) = [X, \Pi]$ ($[\cdot, \cdot]$ indicates Schouten's bracket) if $X \in \mathcal{X}^1(M)$. The cohomology of this complex is called the Poisson cohomology of (M, Π) . This cohomology has been studied for instance in [Mo], [N1] and [V].

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

$$0 \longrightarrow (\mathcal{C}^\infty(M))^{n-1} \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathcal{X}^1(M) \xrightarrow{\partial} \mathcal{X}^n(M) \longrightarrow 0$$

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 $H_\Lambda^0(M)$, $H_\Lambda^1(M)$ 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, i.e. $H_\Lambda^2(M)$ 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 [I2], 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 $\Omega^{n-1}(M) \longrightarrow \mathcal{X}^1(M) : \alpha \mapsto i_\alpha \Lambda$. Note that $\ker \#_\Lambda = \{0\}$ (because the set of regular points of Λ is dense). We can define (see [I1]) a \mathbb{R} -bilinear operator $\llbracket \cdot, \cdot \rrbracket : \Omega^{n-1}(M) \times \Omega^{n-1}(M) \longrightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(M)$ by

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

The vector space $\Omega^{n-1}(M)$ equipped with $\llbracket \cdot, \cdot \rrbracket$ is a Lie algebra (for any Nambu-Poisson structure, it is a Leibniz algebra). Moreover this bracket verifies $\#_\Lambda \llbracket \alpha, \beta \rrbracket = \llbracket \#_\Lambda \alpha, \#_\Lambda \beta \rrbracket$ for any α, β in $\Omega^{n-1}(M)$. The triple $(\Lambda^{n-1}(T^*(M)), \llbracket \cdot, \cdot \rrbracket, \#_\Lambda)$ 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 [I2]). 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 $\Omega^{n-1}(M) \times \dots \times \Omega^{n-1}(M) \longrightarrow \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)$. The cohomology operator $\partial : C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M)) \longrightarrow C^{k+1}(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ is defined by

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

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 $H_{NP}^\bullet(M, \Lambda)$, 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

$$\begin{aligned} d_f : \Omega^k(M) &\longrightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M) \\ \alpha &\longmapsto f d\alpha - k df \wedge \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to prove that $d_f \circ d_f = 0$. We denote $H_f^\bullet(M)$ the cohomology of this complex. Let \flat be the isomorphism $\mathcal{X}^1(M) \longrightarrow \Omega^{n-1}(M)$ $X \longmapsto i_X \omega$.

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

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

Proof : 1- Obvious.

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

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

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

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

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

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

where $c \in C^k(\Omega^{n-1}(M); \mathcal{C}^\infty(M))$ and $X_1, \dots, X_k \in \mathcal{X}(M)$. 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 $\mathcal{X}(M)$ then $\varphi(\partial c)(X_0, \dots, X_k) = (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \partial c(\widehat{b(X_0), \dots, b(X_k)}) = A + B$ where
 $A = (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \#_{\Delta}(\widehat{b(X_i)}) \cdot c(\widehat{b(X_0), \dots, b(X_i), \dots, b(X_k)})$
 $B = (-1)^{(n-1)(k+1)} \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} c(\llbracket \widehat{b(X_i), b(X_j)} \rrbracket, \widehat{b(X_0), \dots, b(X_i), \dots, b(X_j), \dots, b(X_k)})$.
 We have $A = f \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i X_i \cdot \alpha(X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, X_k)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} B &= f \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} \alpha(\llbracket X_i, X_j \rrbracket, X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, \widehat{X_j}, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad + \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} (X_i \cdot f) \alpha(X_j, X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, \widehat{X_j}, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad - \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} (X_j \cdot f) \alpha(X_i, X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, \widehat{X_j}, \dots, X_k) \\ &= f \sum_{0 \leq i < j \leq k} (-1)^{i+j} \alpha(\llbracket X_i, X_j \rrbracket, X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, \widehat{X_j}, \dots, X_k) \\ &\quad - k \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i (X_i \cdot f) \alpha(X_0, \dots, \widehat{X_i}, \dots, X_k). \end{aligned}$$

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

Remark 2.3. We claim that this cohomology is a “good” generalisation 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

$$\phi^2 : \mathcal{X}^2(M) \longrightarrow \Omega^2(M) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi^1 : \mathcal{X}^1(M) \longrightarrow \Omega^1(M)$$

defined by

$$\phi^2(\Gamma) = (i_{\Gamma} \omega) \quad \text{and} \quad \phi^1(X) = -i_X \omega$$

for every 2-vector Γ and vector field X .

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

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

$$\phi : (\mathcal{X}^\bullet(M), \partial) \longrightarrow (\Omega^\bullet(M), d_f)$$

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 doesn't vanish on M , then the cohomologies $H_f^\bullet(M)$ and $H_{fh}^\bullet(M)$ are isomorphic.

Indeed, the applications $(\Omega^k(M), d_{fh}) \longrightarrow (\Omega^k(M), d_f) \quad \alpha \longmapsto \frac{\alpha}{h^k}$ give an isomorphism of complexes.

In particular, if f doesn't 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 $(\Omega^\bullet(M), d_f)$. More precisely we denote, for $p \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} d_f^{(p)} : \Omega^k(M) &\longrightarrow \Omega^{k+1}(M) \\ \alpha &\longmapsto f d\alpha - (k-p) df \wedge \alpha. \end{aligned}$$

We will denote $H_{f,p}^\bullet(M)$ the cohomology of these complexes. We will see in the next section 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 $\mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($\Omega^k(\mathbb{K}^n), \mathcal{X}(\mathbb{K}^n)$) 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)) $\Lambda = f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ 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 $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}$) is a finite dimensional vector space.

Remark 3.1. It is important to note that, according to Tougeron's theorem (see for instance [AGV]), 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 3). We are going to recall the definition of the quasi-homogeneity.

3.1. Quasi-homogeneity. Let $(w_1, \dots, w_n) \in (\mathbb{N}^*)^n$. We denote W the vector field $w_1 x_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + \dots + w_n x_n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ on \mathbb{K}^n . We will say that a 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, consult [AGV].

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 $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$ is a quasihomogeneous vector field of degree $-w_i$). Thus, the volume form $\omega = dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $w_1 + \dots + w_n$. Note that a quasihomogeneous non zero 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 $\Lambda = f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ is quasihomogeneous of degree $N - \sum_i w_i$.

In the sequel, the degrees will be quasidegrees with respect to $W = w_1 x_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + \dots + w_n x_n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$.

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 $W.h - ph = g$,*
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 generalisation of a lemma given (in dimension 2) in [Mo] and it can be proved in the same way. The second claim is a consequence of the first.

Now we are going to compute the spaces $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (i.e $H_{NP}^k(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$) for $k = 0, \dots, n$. We will denote $Z_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and $B_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ the spaces of k -cocycles and k -cobords. We will 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 will denote $Z_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ ($B_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$) 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 will need the two following propositions. The first is only a corollary of the de Rham's division lemma (see [dR]).

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 are going to 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 $d\beta_i = df \wedge \beta_{i+1}$. Let $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p-qN \leq 0$. Thus, we have $\beta_q = 0$ and so $d\beta_{q-1} = 0$ i.e. $\beta_{q-1} = d\gamma_{q-1}$ 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 [Ma], Malgrange gives a result on the relative cohomology of a germ of an analytical function. In particular, he shows 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 a r -form) then there exists two germs of analytical $(r-1)$ -forms γ and ν such that $\beta = d\gamma + df \wedge \nu$.

Now, we are going to 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 ([Ma]) $\beta = d\gamma + df \wedge \nu$ 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 [R] 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 $H_{f,p}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$ doesn't 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 $d_f^{(p)} : \Omega^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \longrightarrow \Omega^1(\mathbb{K}^n)$ $g \longmapsto fdg + pdf \wedge g$.

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 i.e. $g = 0$ (because f is of finite codimension; see remark 3.1).

2- We will use an induction to show that for any $k \geq 0$, if g satisfies $fdg = kgdf$ 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 $fdg = (k + 1)gdf$ (*). Then $df \wedge dg = 0$ and so there exists $h \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ such that $dg = hdf$ (proposition 3.3). Replacing dg by hdf in (*), we get $fhdf = (k + 1)gdf$ i.e. $g = \frac{1}{k+1}fh$. Now, this former relation gives on the one hand $fdg = \frac{1}{k+1}(f^2dh + fhdf)$ and on the other hand, using (*), $fdg = fhdf$. Consequently, $fdh = khdf$ 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 $fd\alpha - (k - p)df \wedge \alpha = 0$. 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

$$0 = df \wedge (fd\alpha - (k - p)df \wedge \alpha) = fd\alpha \wedge \alpha$$

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 $\alpha' = \alpha - \frac{1}{k-p}(fd\gamma - (k - p - 1)df \wedge \gamma)$, we have $d\alpha' = 0$ and $fd\gamma - (k - p - 1)df \wedge \gamma \in B_{f,p}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$. \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 $fd\alpha - kdf \wedge \alpha = 0$. 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, $\alpha = d_f(\frac{-1}{k-1}d\beta)$. \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 $\alpha = gdf$ (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 $W.\bar{g} = g$ (lemma 3.2); note that $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\bar{g})) > 0$.

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

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

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 $\frac{\partial \bar{g}}{\partial x_i} = \nu \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ for any i . Thus, $W.\bar{g} = \nu W.f$ and so $g = \nu f$.

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

Now, we have

$$0 = d\alpha = df \wedge \beta + fd\beta \quad \text{and} \quad 0 = df \wedge \alpha = fdf \wedge \beta,$$

which implies that $d\beta = 0$.

Therefore, $\alpha = fdh = d_f(h)$ 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 non zero 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 $\alpha = gdf$ 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 doesn't divide df . \square

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

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

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

We put $\sigma = i_W \omega$ (recall that $W = w_1 x_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + \dots + w_n x_n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ 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 $dg \wedge \sigma = (W.g)\omega$ if $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$.

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

Lemma 3.12. *1- If the ∞ -jet at 0 of γ doesn't contain a component of degree qN (in particular if $q \leq 0$) then $\gamma \in B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow \gamma \in \mathcal{I}^n$.*

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

Proof : If $\gamma = fd\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha \in B^n(d_f^{(n-q)})$ where $\alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}$ then $\gamma = df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta = -(q-1)\alpha + \frac{\text{div}(\alpha)}{N}\sigma$. 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 $\gamma = \sum_{i>0} \gamma^{(i)}$ and $\beta = \sum \beta^{(i-N)}$ (with $\gamma^{(i)}$ of degree i , $\gamma^{(qN)} = 0$ and $\beta^{(i-N)}$ of degree $i-N$) such that $\gamma = df \wedge \beta$. If we put $\alpha = \frac{-1}{q-1}\beta + \sum_i \frac{\text{div}(\beta^{(i-N)})}{(q-1)(i-qN)}\sigma$, we have $d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) = \gamma$.

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

C^∞ case : We suppose that $\gamma = df \wedge \beta$. If we denote $\tilde{\gamma} = j_0^\infty(\gamma)$ then there exists a formal $(n-1)$ -form $\tilde{\alpha}$ such that $\tilde{\gamma} = fd\tilde{\alpha} - (q-1)df \wedge \tilde{\alpha}$. Let α be a C^∞ - $(n-1)$ -form such that $\tilde{\alpha} = j_0^\infty(\alpha)$. This form verifies $fd\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha = \gamma + \varepsilon$ where ε is flat at 0. Since $B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \subset \mathcal{I}^n$, $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{I}^n$ so that $\varepsilon = df \wedge \mu$ where μ is flat at 0. Let $g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ be such that $W.g - ((q-1)N - \sum w_i)g = \frac{\text{div}(\mu)}{q-1}$ (lemma 3.3). Then the form $\theta = \frac{-1}{q-1}\mu + g\sigma$ verifies $d_f^{(n-q)}(\theta) = \varepsilon$. \square

Remark 3.13. 1- This lemma gives $B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n) \subset \mathcal{I}^n$. 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 a infinite-dimensional vector space.

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

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 $fd_f^{(p)}(\alpha) = d_f^{(p-1)}(f\alpha)$.*

Proof : Obvious.

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 $fg\omega = fd\beta - (q-1)df \wedge \beta$ where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $(q-1)N$.

If we put $\theta = -(q-1)\beta + \frac{\text{div}(\beta)-g}{N}\sigma$ 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 $\beta = \frac{-1}{q-1}df \wedge \gamma + \frac{\text{div}(\beta)-g}{(q-1)N}\sigma$. Now, a computation shows that $fd\beta - (q-1)df \wedge \beta = \frac{1}{q-1}fdf \wedge d\gamma$ i.e. $f\alpha = \frac{1}{q-1}fdf \wedge d\gamma$.

Therefore, $\alpha = \frac{1}{q-1}df \wedge d\gamma = \frac{1}{q-1}d_f^{(n-q+1)}\left(\frac{-1}{q-2}d\gamma\right)$.

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

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, $\theta = 0$ i.e. $\beta = \frac{\text{div}(\beta) - q}{N} \sigma$.
We deduce that $fd\beta - df \wedge \beta = 0$ i.e. $\alpha = 0$. \square

Let \mathcal{B} be a monomial basis of Q_f (for the existence of such a basis, see [AGV]). We denote r_j ($j = 2, \dots, q-1$) the number of monomials of \mathcal{B} whose degree is $jN - \sum w_i$ (this number doesn't depend on the choice of \mathcal{B}). We also denote 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*

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

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

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 the former remark), $g\omega = h_q\omega + df \wedge \beta \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)}$ where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-1)$ -form of degree $(q-1)N$.

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

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

with $\deg g_{q-1} = (q-1)N - \sum w_i$.

In the same way,

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

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 $(q-2)N - \sum w_i \dots$

... ...

... and

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

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

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

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 $g\omega \in \mathcal{I}^n$ i.e. $g \in I_f$. 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*

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

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

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*

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

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

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

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

with $d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) = fd\alpha - (q-2)df \wedge \alpha$ if $\alpha \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$,
and $d_f^{(n-q)}(\alpha) = fd\alpha - (q-1)df \wedge \alpha$ if $\alpha \in \Omega^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $q \neq 1$. // Remember that if $q = n$ we obtain $H_{NP}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n, \Lambda)$ 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 $\alpha = \frac{\text{div}(\alpha)}{(q-1)N}\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ and so, $d\alpha$ verifies $\mathcal{L}_W(d\alpha) - (q-1)Nd\alpha = (q-1)Ndf \wedge d\beta$.*

Proof : It is sufficient to notice that $df \wedge (\alpha - \frac{\text{div}(\alpha)}{(q-1)N}\sigma) = 0$ (proposition 3.3). For the second claim, we have $(q-1)Nd\alpha = (W \cdot \text{div}(\alpha) + (\sum w_i) \text{div}(\alpha))\omega - (q-1)Ndf \wedge d\beta$ and the conclusion follows. \square

Lemma 3.22. *If $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ with $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\alpha)) > (q-1)N$ 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 $\alpha = \frac{\text{div}(\alpha)}{(q-1)N}\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ (lemma 3.21) with

$$\mathcal{L}_W(d\alpha) - (q-1)Nd\alpha = (q-1)Ndf \wedge d\beta \quad (*).$$

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 $\text{ord}(j_0^\infty(\beta)) > (q-2)N$, see lemma 3.2).

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

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

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

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

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

This lemma 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 the former lemma) 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, $\alpha = d_f^{(n-q)}(-\frac{1}{q-2}d\gamma)$. \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 $(q-1)\mathbb{N}$ then α is cohomologous to a closed $(n-1)$ -form.*

Proof : According to lemma 3.21, we have $\alpha = \frac{\text{div}(\alpha)}{(q-1)\mathbb{N}}\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ and so,

$$d\alpha = \frac{(q-1)\mathbb{N}}{\text{deg}(\alpha) - (q-1)\mathbb{N}} df \wedge d\beta.$$

We deduce that, if we put $\theta = \alpha - d_f^{(n-q)}(\frac{\mathbb{N}}{\text{deg}(\alpha) - (q-1)\mathbb{N}}d\beta)$, 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 $(q-1)\mathbb{N}$.

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

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

Proof : 1- • We suppose that $\alpha \in B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ i.e. $\alpha = fd\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta$ with $\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Then $d\alpha = (q-1)d\beta \wedge df$.

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} d_f^{(n-q)}(\gamma) &= fd\gamma - (q-2)df \wedge \gamma \\ &= fd(i_W\beta) - (q-2)df \wedge (i_W\beta) \\ &= f(\mathcal{L}_W\beta - i_Wd\beta) - (q-2)[-i_W(df \wedge \beta) + (i_Wdf) \wedge \beta] \\ &= f(q-2)\mathbb{N}\beta - i_W[fd\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta] - (q-2)(W.f)\beta \\ &= -i_W[fd\beta - (q-2)df \wedge \beta]. \end{aligned}$$

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

2- If $\alpha = fd\beta$ where β is a quasihomogeneous $(n-2)$ -form of degree $\text{deg } \alpha - \mathbb{N} = 0$

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*

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

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

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 in theorem 3.23 shows that η is a cobord.

Now, we have to study θ . According to lemma 3.21, we can write $\theta = \frac{\text{div}(\theta)}{(q-1)N}\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ ($\beta \in \Omega^{n-2}(\mathbb{K}^n)$) 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 $\gamma = df \wedge \beta$, proposition 3.4 gives $\gamma = df \wedge d\xi$.

Therefore, $\gamma = d_f^{(n-q)}(-\frac{1}{q-2}d\xi)$ and so $\theta = \frac{\text{div}(\theta)}{(q-1)N}\sigma \pmod{B_{f,n-q}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)}$. 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*

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

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

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, let us consider the case $n = 3$ in order to simplify (but it is valid for any $n \geq 3$). We put $\alpha = g(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx \wedge dz + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}dy \wedge dz)$ where g is a function which depends only on z . We have $d\alpha = 0$ and $df \wedge \alpha = 0$ so $\alpha \in Z_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ but $\alpha \notin B_{f,n-2}^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ because f doesn't 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 $\{df \wedge d\gamma; \gamma \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)\}$ 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 , such that α is cohomologous to $\eta + \theta$.

We have (lemma 3.21) $\theta = \frac{\text{div}(\theta)}{N}\sigma + df \wedge \beta$ with β quasihomogeneous of degree

0 which is possible only if $\beta \neq 0$. 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 $\eta = df \wedge d\gamma$ where γ is a $(n-3)$ -form. If we suppose that $\eta \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n)$ then $df \wedge d\gamma = fd\xi$ 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, $df \wedge d\gamma = fdf \wedge d\beta$ which implies that $d\gamma = fd\beta + df \wedge \mu$ with $\mu \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$, and so $d\gamma = d(f\beta) + df \wedge \nu$ with $\nu \in \Omega^{n-3}(\mathbb{K}^n)$. Therefore, $\eta \in B_{f,n-2}^{n-1}(\mathbb{K}^n) \Leftrightarrow \eta = df \wedge d(f\beta)$. \square

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

The cohomology $H_f^\bullet(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (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 the 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 , i.e. $H_\Lambda^n(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (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 $H_{f,n-2}^0(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (theorem 3.6) and $H_{f,n-2}^k(\mathbb{K}^n)$ (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 [Mo] 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 will explicit the cohomology of some particular germs of n -vectors.

4.1. Normal forms of n -vectors. Let $\Lambda = f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ 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 [AlGu], [G] or [N2], allows us to write, up to a change of coordinates, that $\Lambda = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$).

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

$$\Lambda = y_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial y_n}.$$

Proof : A similar proposition is shown for instance in [Mo] 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 [AGV]) of f intersects only a finite number of R-orbits (two germs g and h are said 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 [A] with only sketches of the proofs. In [Mo], a similar theorem (in dimension 2) is proved and the demonstration can be adapted here.

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 $\Lambda = f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}$ can be written, up to a multiplicative constant, $g \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \frac{\partial}{\partial y_n}$ where g is in the following list.*

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

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 2.

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 $H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \simeq \mathbb{K}$, $H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n) = \mathbb{K}.dx_1$ and $H_f^k(\mathbb{K}^n) = \{0\}$ for any $k \geq 2$.

2- Non degenerate 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 $H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^n) \simeq \mathbb{K}$, $H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^n) = \mathbb{K}.(x_1 dx_1 + \dots + x_n dx_n)$ 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 $kN - \sum w_i = \deg 1$ i.e. $2k - n = 0$.

Therefore,

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

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

$$\sigma = i_W \omega = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} x_i dx_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \widehat{dx}_i \wedge \dots \wedge dx_n.$$

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:

$$H_f^0(\mathbb{K}^3) \simeq \mathbb{K}, H_f^1(\mathbb{K}^3) = \mathbb{K} \cdot (3x_1 dx_1 + 2x_2 dx_2 + 2x_3 dx_3)$$

$$\text{and } H_f^2(\mathbb{K}^3) = H_f^3(\mathbb{K}^3) = \{0\}.$$

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,

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

$$H_f^2(\mathbb{K}^4) = \{0\}, H_f^3(\mathbb{K}^4) = \mathbb{K} \cdot (x_1 \sigma)$$

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 $W = 3x_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} + 2x_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} + 4x_3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} + 4x_4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_4}$ and

$$\sigma = 3x_1 dx_2 \wedge dx_3 \wedge dx_4 - 2x_2 dx_1 \wedge dx_3 \wedge dx_4 + 4x_3 dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge dx_4 - 4x_4 dx_1 \wedge dx_2 \wedge dx_3.$$

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