

(1)

(1.1) We previously defined $\tilde{\epsilon}$ as the permutation symbol;

$$\tilde{\epsilon}_{\mu_0 \dots \mu_3} = \begin{cases} +1, & (\mu_0 \dots \mu_3) \text{ even perm. of } (0123) \\ -1, & \text{odd} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

E.g. $\tilde{\epsilon}_{0123} = +1$

It is completely antisymmetric (check for yourself!)
It's also very useful for representing determinants:
for a 4x4 matrix M with components M^μ_ν

(1.2)
$$\tilde{\epsilon}_{0123} (\det M) = M^\alpha_0 M^\beta_1 M^\gamma_2 M^\delta_3 \tilde{\epsilon}_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}$$

(by defn of det.)

Applying to $(\frac{\partial x'^\mu}{\partial x^\nu})$, we have

(1.3)
$$\tilde{\epsilon}_{\mu'_0 \dots \mu'_{d-1}} = \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right|}_{\text{Jacobian}} \tilde{\epsilon}_{\nu_0 \dots \nu_{d-1}} \Lambda^{\nu_0}_{\mu'_0} \dots \Lambda^{\nu_{d-1}}_{\mu'_{d-1}}$$

; $\Lambda^\nu_{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^{\mu'}} (\neq \text{constant})$

Taking the det of $g_{\mu'\nu'} = \Lambda^\lambda_{\mu'} \Lambda^\sigma_{\nu'} g_{\lambda\sigma}$, see that

(1.4)
$$\det(g_{\dots}(x')) = \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right|^{-2} \det(g_{\dots}(x))$$

Renaming $\sqrt{|\det(g_{\dots}(x'))|} \equiv \sqrt{-g}$
↑ signature -+++

(1.5) we have $\boxed{\sqrt{-g} \tilde{\epsilon}_{\mu \dots \nu} = \epsilon_{\mu \dots \nu} \text{ is a tensor}}$

Similarly,

(1.6) $\boxed{\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \right) \tilde{\epsilon}^{\mu \dots \nu} = \epsilon^{\mu \dots \nu} \text{ is a tensor.}}$
(not a mistake)

▷ Naive volume element $dx^0 dx^1 \dots dx^n$ is not tensorial (!)
Need a factor of $\sqrt{-g}$ to make it fly. \Rightarrow to integrate over spacetime, e.g. some scalar field $\phi(x^\nu)$, we write

(1.7)
$$\boxed{\int \phi} = \int \sqrt{-g} d^4x \phi(x)$$
 This is a scalar
i.e. sensible in GR.

Differential forms

▷ A p-form is just a completely antisymmetric (0,p) tensor. These are incredibly cool geometric objects that are useful for describing a limited class of physically interesting objects including electromagnetism. We can define several operations which are exclusive to forms. For a p-form in n dim's there are $\binom{n}{p} = \frac{n!}{(n-p)!p!}$ independent components.

(2.1) • $(A \wedge B)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p+q}} = \frac{(p+q)!}{p!q!} A_{[\mu_1 \dots \mu_p} B_{\mu_{p+1} \dots \mu_{p+q}]}$ Wedge product

Example: $d = dx^\mu \partial_\mu$ (coord basis for (0,1) tensors)
 $A = dx^\nu A_\nu$

then $(d \wedge A)_{\mu\nu} = 2 \partial_{[\mu} A_{\nu]} = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu = F_{\mu\nu}$

or, more simply: $F = d \wedge A$

Note that $A \wedge B = (-1)^{pq} B \wedge A \neq B \wedge A$ in general!

(2.2) • $(d B)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{p+1}} = (p+1) \partial_{[\mu_1} B_{\mu_2 \dots \mu_{p+1}]}$ Exterior derivative
 e.g. ϕ a function (0-form)
 $d\phi = dx^\mu \partial_\mu \phi$

The amazing thing about d, the exterior derivative is that it DOES produce a tensor. The reason is that the failure of partial derivative to give a tensor was proportional to $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\lambda} \left(\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) = \partial_\lambda \partial_\nu x^\mu$ which is symmetric in (λ, ν) .


This cute fact is restricted only to p-forms, though.

(2.3) • Interesting property: $d^2 \equiv 0$ on any p-form.
 (e.g. for E&M, when $F = d \wedge A$ if we take $A_2 = A_1 + d\lambda$, then $F_2 = d \wedge (A_1 + d\lambda) = d \wedge A_1 + d \wedge d \wedge \lambda = F_1$, so the gauge invariance in E&M is easy to see in the language of differential forms.)

BUT!

If $dG = 0$, this does not imply that G can be written as d of something, unless your spacetime manifold is topologically trivial. A form G such that $d \wedge G = 0$ is called closed; forms satisfying $G = d \wedge \beta \exists \beta$ are called exact.

A famous example in physics is called the Aharonov-Bohm effect.


 ← Outside cylinder, $F_{\mu\nu} = 0$ ($\vec{E} = \vec{0}, \vec{B} = \vec{0}$) $\Rightarrow F = 0$
 But A is not "pure gauge": it cannot be written as $d\beta = \int_{\beta}$
 We know A is not trivial because $\int_C A \neq 0$

(3.1) • Stokes's Theorem is simply $\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$, generally.

This is amazingly cool.

For our AB-effect example, $\int_C A = \int_{\text{surface}} F \neq 0 \because \vec{B}$ 😊

▷ p-forms & (n-p)-forms have same # cpts. \Rightarrow define $(*A)_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-p}} = \frac{1}{p!} \epsilon^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_p} \mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-p} A_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_p}$ Hodge dual

Then (check) $*(*A) = (-1)^{1+p(n-p)}$ \uparrow one \ominus sign in $(\eta_{\mu\nu})$

The amazing thing is how amazing Maxwell's eqns look in differential form notation.

The current J is a 1-form; then $*J$ is a (n-1)-form in n dimensions of space-time. Consider also dA , a 2-form. Then $*dA = *F$ is an (n-2)-form. Taking another d of this, we get an (n-1)-form. In fact, Maxwell's eqns are simply

$$\boxed{*d*A = J} ;$$

the requirement that $dF=0$ is an immediate consequence of defining

$$\boxed{F = dA}$$

This is also called the Bianchi identity.

Gauge invariance is the statement that F is invariant under $A \rightarrow A + d\lambda$ (for arbitrary λ) 😊

Covariant Derivative

④

Remember when we tried to make a tensor in curved space out of ∂ (tensor) but failed, $\because \partial_\lambda (\Lambda^\mu_\nu) \neq 0$ ☹️
Let's fix this by inventing a new type of derivative which does make a new tensor out of an old one.

We define the covariant derivative ∇ to satisfy

(1) Linearity: $\nabla(T+S) = \nabla T + \nabla S$

(2) Leibnitz rule: $\nabla(T \otimes S) = (\nabla T) \otimes S + T \otimes (\nabla S)$

[$\hat{\leftarrow}$ like $\partial_\mu(ab) = (\partial_\mu a) \cdot b + a \cdot (\partial_\mu b) \dots$]

[not pronounced "Christ-awful" ☹️]

We define the Christoffel connection Γ by (in components)

(4.1)

$$\Gamma^\lambda_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\lambda\sigma} (\partial_\mu g_{\nu\sigma} + \partial_\nu g_{\mu\sigma} - \partial_\sigma g_{\mu\nu})$$

[σ is summed over]

and the covariant derivative on vectors by (again, in

(4.2)

$$\nabla_\mu V^\lambda = \partial_\mu V^\lambda + \Gamma^\lambda_{\mu\nu} V^\nu$$

components)

The important feature of this Γ thingy is that $(\nabla_\mu V^\nu)$ transforms properly i.e. as a bona fide (1,1) tensor!

⊛ ∇ The proper derivation is quite boring and lengthy; I do not believe it wise to grind through it here in class. It is much better to figure it out on your own time - you will appreciate it more this way (although it does take some "sweat" - but so do most good things in life ☺️)
↳ See e.g. pp 97-98 of Carroll.

For a one-form: in components

(4.3)

$$\nabla_\mu \omega_\nu = \partial_\mu \omega_\nu - \Gamma^\lambda_{\mu\nu} \omega_\lambda$$

(N.B.: Neither term on the RHS here or in (4.1) is a bona fide tensor.)

It is also straightforward (but boring) to work out the rule for a general (k,l) tensor :-)

(5.1)
$$\nabla_{\sigma} T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l} = \partial_{\sigma} T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l} + \Gamma^{\mu_1}_{\sigma \lambda} T^{\lambda \mu_2 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l} + \Gamma^{\mu_2}_{\sigma \lambda} T^{\mu_1 \lambda \mu_3 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l} + \dots - \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\sigma \nu_1} T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\lambda \nu_2 \dots \nu_l} - \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\sigma \nu_2} T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}_{\nu_1 \lambda \nu_3 \dots \nu_l} + \dots$$

This definition of ∇ has the other nice properties:

- (3) commutes with contraction, i.e.
e.g. $\nabla_{\mu} (T^{\lambda}{}_{\lambda \rho}) = (\nabla T)^{\lambda}{}_{\lambda \rho}$ or $\nabla_{\mu} (\delta^{\nu}{}_{\lambda}) = 0$
- (4) ∇ reduces to ∂ action on scalars
i.e. $\nabla_{\mu} \phi = \partial_{\mu} \phi$.

There is a discussion in Carroll (somewhat advanced) showing that (4.1) is actually the unique $\Gamma^{\lambda}{}_{\mu\nu}$ satisfying axioms (1)-(4) [in pp4-5 above] provided that

(5.2) (a) $\Gamma^{\lambda}{}_{\mu\nu} = \Gamma^{\lambda}{}_{\nu\mu}$ ← "torsion-free"

and

(5.3) (b) $\nabla_{\sigma} g^{\mu\nu} = 0$ ← "metric-compatible"

There is a really simple way to look at these based on a story involving [vier]beins e^a_{μ} :

(5.4) $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{ab} e^a_{\mu} e^b_{\nu}$

(5.5) Define $\omega^a_b = \omega^a_{b\mu} dx^{\mu}$ and $e^a = e^a_{\mu} dx^{\mu}$. Then
↑ "Spin connection"

(5.6) $T^a \equiv D e^a = d e^a + \omega^a_b \wedge e^b = 0$ is (5.3)

Then one may wonder what is $\left. \begin{matrix} \text{) } \\ \text{) } \end{matrix} \right\}$ Cartan structure eqns"

(5.7) $R^a_b \equiv D \omega^a_b = d \omega^a_b + \omega^a_c \wedge \omega^c_b$

This is called the curvature tensor and its components $R^a_{b[\mu\nu]}$ $dx^{\mu} \wedge dx^{\nu} = R^a_b$ we will meet again soon.

It obeys the "Bianchi identity":
 $DR^a_b = 0$

Stokes's Theorem

A special cool little identity is satisfied by this non-tensor the Christoffel connection:

(6.1)
$$\Gamma^\lambda_{\lambda\nu} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \partial_\nu (\sqrt{-g})$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla_\mu V^\mu = \partial_\mu V^\mu + \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} (\partial_\mu \sqrt{-g}) V^\mu$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \partial_\mu (\sqrt{-g} V^\mu)$$

and so

(6.2)
$$\int_\Sigma (\nabla_\mu V^\mu) \sqrt{-g} d^d x = \int_{\partial\Sigma} n_\mu V^\mu \sqrt{-g} d^{d-1} x$$

unit normal to $\partial\Sigma$ *induced metric on $\partial\Sigma$*
(See Appendix E for more.)

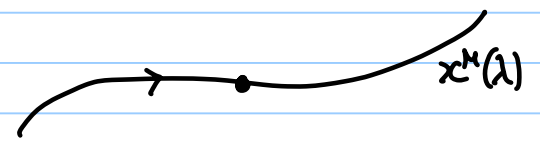
Parallel Transport ← really big, important idea!!

Introducing a covariant derivative was a great idea. 😊
It allows us to write tensor equations "wherever we go".
"all" we need to do is be sure to write D's (∇'s) rather than ∂'s. But... what rate of change does D measure?

A way to answer this question is to ask when ∇ of some tensor is zero, to get a handle on ∇.
For this, we actually have to specify what path along which we hope to compare tensors - because comparing tensors at two different points is, a priori, meaningless in GR: the spacetime metric differs!

So consider a path $x^\mu(\lambda)$ and define the directional

(6.3) Covariant derivative $\frac{D}{d\lambda} \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \nabla_\mu$
(Carroll's funny notation)



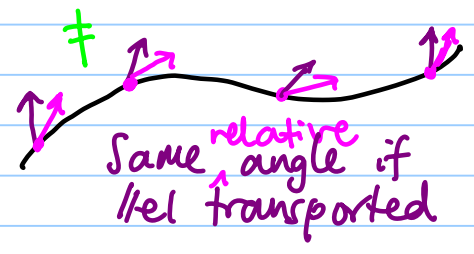
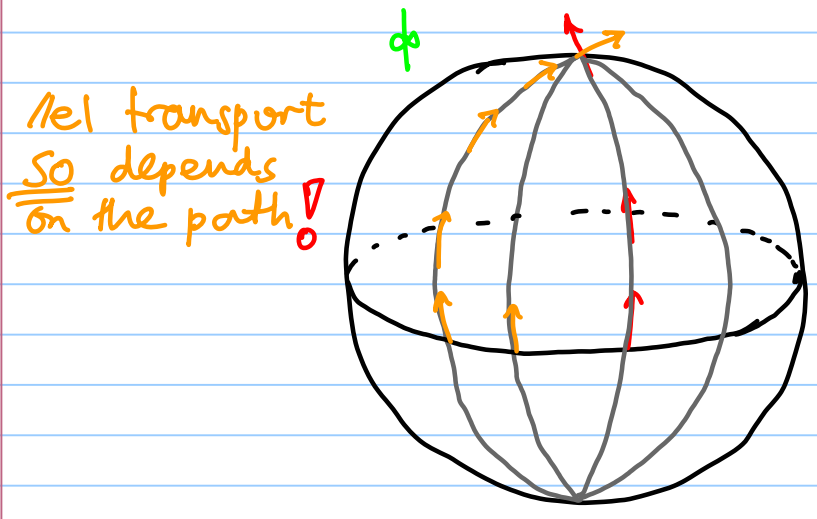
This guy is defined ^φ only along the path $x^M(\lambda)$.

⊕ We say that a tensor T is parallel-transported along the path $x^M(\lambda)$ if
(7.1) $(\frac{D}{d\lambda} T)^{M_1 \dots M_k}_{N_1 \dots N_l} = \frac{dx^\sigma}{d\lambda} \nabla_\sigma T^{M_1 \dots M_k}_{N_1 \dots N_l} = 0$
(a.k.a. "Equation of parallel transport")

- Notice that this is a nice proper tensor eqn because ∇T is a tensor and so is $\frac{dx}{d\lambda}$.
- Also, since $\nabla g = 0$, parallel transport preserves the inner product of two tensors ^φ
e.g.: for 2 vectors V & W ,
$$\frac{D}{d\lambda} (g_{\mu\nu} V^\mu W^\nu) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{D}{d\lambda} g_{\mu\nu}\right)}_0 V^\mu W^\nu + g_{\mu\nu} \left[\underbrace{\left(\frac{D}{d\lambda} V^\mu\right)}_0 W^\nu + V^\mu \underbrace{\left(\frac{D}{d\lambda} W^\nu\right)}_0\right]$$

 $= 0$ (✓).

This is a crucial property of parallel transport.



⊕ A geodesic is a path that parallel-transport its own tangent vector!
(7.2)
$$\frac{D}{d\lambda} \left(\frac{dx^M}{d\lambda}\right) = 0 = \frac{d^2 x^M}{d\lambda^2} + \Gamma^M_{\nu\sigma} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\lambda} \frac{dx^\sigma}{d\lambda}$$
 Nice ODE.

Remarks (not made in today's lecture):

(8)

We can also think about parallel transport, a notion that needs a ∇ (and hence a Γ), as follows.

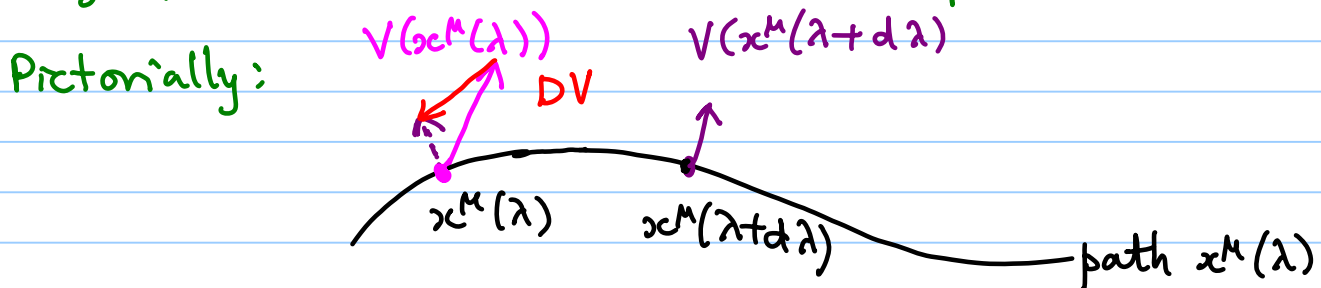
When we take an ordinary derivative, we do it by, e.g. taking $\lim_{\Delta x^M \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x^M + \Delta x^M) - f(x^M)}{\Delta x^M} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^M}$

In curved space, the result of this isn't a tensor. What we do to take the covariant derivative is!

- Take our tensor T at " $x^M + \Delta x^M$ " where we measure Δx^M along the path $x^M(\lambda)$: we take $x^M(\lambda + \Delta\lambda)$ as our " $x^M + \Delta x^M$ " & find T there.
- We parallel-transport T back to $x^M(\lambda)$ along $x^M(\lambda)$.
- We compare the parallel-transported-back T to the actual T at $x^M(\lambda)$, and we divide by $\Delta\lambda$.

The result is $\frac{D}{d\lambda} T$.

E.g. for a 4-vector V with components V^M :-



& $\frac{DV}{d\lambda}$ is the directional covariant derivative along $x^M(\lambda)$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{DV^{\nu}}{d\lambda} = \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\lambda} \nabla_{\mu} V^{\nu}$$

is the "covariant" rate of change of V^{ν} w.r.t. λ at the spacetime point $x^M(\lambda)$.