

SHORT INTRODUCTION TO TENSOR PRODUCT, EXTERNAL ALGEBRA AND FORMS IN FLAT SPACE

1) Which is the difference among
 $R \times R = R^2$, $R \oplus R$, $R \otimes R$?

The easiest way use a base: $x\vec{i} \in R$ $y\vec{j} \in R$

$$R^2 = \{ (x\vec{i}, y\vec{j}) \} \quad 2 \text{ dim}$$

$$R \oplus R = \{ x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} \} \quad 2 \text{ dim}$$

$$R \otimes R = \{ x\vec{i} \otimes y\vec{j} \} \quad 1 \text{ dim}$$

Notice

- \otimes is defined for all sets
- $E \oplus F$, $E \otimes F$ require the concept of sum and scalar multipl.

2) $R^5 \simeq R^3 \oplus R^2$ $R^3 \otimes R^2$

$$R^5 \ni \sum_{i=1}^3 x^i \vec{e}_i + \sum_{a=1}^2 y^a \vec{f}_a \quad 5 \text{ dim}$$

$$R^3 \otimes R^2 \ni \sum_{i=1}^3 \sum_{a=1}^2 u^{ia} \vec{e}_i \otimes \vec{f}_a \quad 6 \text{ dim}$$

Notice

- generically $u \in R^3 \otimes R^2$ can NOT be written
as $(\sum x^i \vec{e}_i) \otimes (\sum y^a \vec{f}_a)$

Count d.o.f. $\# u^{ia} = 3 \cdot 2 = 6$ $\# x^i + \# y^a = 3+2=5$

- Already seen in Q.M.

$$|\psi_{\text{tot}}\rangle \Leftrightarrow \psi(x) \psi_{\text{spin}}$$

is actually

$$|\psi(x)\rangle \otimes |\psi_{\text{spin}}\rangle$$

and

$$|\psi_{\text{tot}}\rangle = \sum c_{n,s} |\psi_n(x)\rangle \otimes |\psi_s\rangle$$

- Entangled state $|1,0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\left| \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_1 \otimes \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_2 + \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_1 \otimes \left| \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle_2 \right)$

- Think of density matrix

States which can be written as $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$
 are pure states but generic ρ can be written as
 $\rho = \sum c_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$

TENSORS

- They are generalization of vectors, covectors and metrics.
- Take a vector space V with basis $\{\vec{e}_i\}$

A vector is $v = v^i e_i$

Why write v and not (v^i) ?

v is an entity, a concept which happens to have components v^i w.r.t. a basis $\{e_i\}$

Suppose we change basis $\tilde{e}_i = \Lambda_i^j e_j$,
the vector v is unchanged, its components are
 $v = v^i e_i = \tilde{v}^i \tilde{e}_i = \tilde{v}^i \Lambda_i^j e_j$

$$\Rightarrow v^i = \tilde{v}^i \Lambda_i^j \quad \text{or} \quad \tilde{v}^i = v^j (\Lambda^{-1})_j^i$$

HENCE it is better to work with concepts
BUT computations are done with components.

- We can construct the dual space V^* as the space of linear function on V

$$f \in V^* \Leftrightarrow f(\lambda u + \mu v) = \lambda f(u) + \mu f(v)$$

In particular V^* is a vector space and has a basis.

Given a basis for V we can easily construct one for V^* , explicitly given $\{e_i\}$ we define the linear functions $\{e^i\}$ so that

$$e^i(v) = \delta^i_j e^j(e_i) = \delta^i_j = \delta^i_i$$

Now for a generic f we have

$$f(v) = v^i f(e_i) = v^i f_i = f_i e^i(v)$$

hence $f = f_i e^i$

- Now $f(v)$ can be written as $\sigma(f)$, i.e.

$$f(v) = \sigma(f)$$

i.e. $V^{**} = V$

$$\sigma(f) = v^i e_i(f) = v^i f_j e_i(e_j) = v^i f_j \delta_i^j$$

- $\tilde{e}_i = \Lambda_i^j e_j \Rightarrow \tilde{e}^l = (\Lambda^{-1})_m^l e^m = (\Lambda^{-T})^l_m e^m$

$$\text{chk } \tilde{e}^l(\tilde{e}_n) = (\Lambda^{-T})^l_m \Lambda_n^j \delta_j^m = (\Lambda \Lambda^{-1})_n^l = \delta_n^l$$

- $\tilde{f}_n = f(\tilde{e}_n) = \Lambda_n^j f_j$

- A matrix $\|M_{ij}\|$ can be thought as a bilinear function and we can write

$$M = M_{ij} e^i \otimes e^j$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so that } M(u, v) &= u^l v^m M(e_l, v^m) \\ &= u^l v^m M_{ij} e^i(e_l) e^j(v^m) \\ &= M_{ij} u^i v^j \end{aligned}$$

The entries M_{ij} can be computed as

$$M(e_i, e_j) = M_{ij}$$

Formally we write $M: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
or $M \in V^* \otimes V^*$

- Tensors are generalization of matrices

$$T: \underbrace{V^* \times \dots \times V^*}_m \times \underbrace{V \times \dots \times V}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

components $T(e^{i_1}, \dots, e^{i_m}, e_{j_1}, \dots, e_{j_n}) = T^{i_1 \dots i_m}_{j_1 \dots j_n}$

transformation

$$\tilde{T}(\tilde{e}^{i_1}, \dots, \tilde{e}_{j_n}) = \tilde{T}^{i_1 \dots i_m}_{j_1 \dots j_n} =$$

$$= (\Lambda^{-T})^{i_1}_{l_1} \dots (\Lambda^{-T})^{i_m}_{l_m} \Lambda^{j_1}_{m_1} \dots \Lambda^{j_n}_{m_n} T(e^{l_1} \dots e_{m_n})$$

$$= (\Lambda^{-T})^{i_1}_{l_1} \dots (\Lambda^{-T})^{i_m}_{l_m} \Lambda^{j_1}_{m_1} \dots \Lambda^{j_n}_{m_n} T^{l_1 \dots l_m}_{m_1 \dots m_n}$$

- Up to now we have not required a metric which is a bilinear $g(u, v)$, i.e. a tensor $g = g_{ij} e^i \otimes e^j$
- Invertible matrices M_{ij} $\det M \neq 0$ can be used to raise and lower indices. There are two big ones $M = g$, i.e. symmetric matrix, and $M = \omega$, i.e. antisymmetric matrix, which correspond to metric and symplectic structure
- Tensor can be used to define groups.
If we take $M_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$ and we consider transformations which leave it invariant we get the group $O(n)$.
If we consider transformations which leave both δ_{ij} and $\epsilon_{i_1 \dots i_n}$ invariant we get $SO(n)$.
The procedure can be generalized to exceptional groups!

DIFFERENTIAL FORMS

1) Example, take a function $f(x)$, define

$$df \equiv dx^\mu \partial_\mu f$$

then extract the meaning of $df \equiv dx^\mu \partial_\mu$.

2) Suppose now we have a covector $\omega_\mu(x)$, we can make a 1-form as

$$\omega = \omega_\mu(x) dx^\mu$$

Notice it can be integrated on a curve

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma: [0,1] &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ t &\mapsto \gamma^\mu(t) \end{aligned}$$

as follows

$$\int_\gamma \omega \equiv \int_0^1 dt \, \omega_\mu(\gamma(t)) \frac{d\gamma^\mu}{dt}$$

How does d act on ω ?

$$d\omega \Rightarrow "dx^\mu \partial_\mu \omega_\nu dx^\nu" \quad \text{since}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega &= \partial_\mu \omega_\nu dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu = -\partial_\mu \omega_\nu dx^\nu \wedge dx^\mu = -\partial_\nu \omega_\mu dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \omega_\nu - \partial_\nu \omega_\mu) dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu = \partial_{[\mu} \omega_{\nu]} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \end{aligned}$$

3) generalize to 2-form

$$\omega^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \omega_{\mu\nu}(x) dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu = \sum_{\mu < \nu} \omega_{\mu\nu}(x) dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$$

It can be integrated on a 2-surface

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{(2)}: [0,1] \times [0,1] &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ (u,t) &\mapsto x^\mu(u,t) \end{aligned}$$

as follows

$$\int_{\gamma_{(2)}} \omega^{(2)} = \int_0^1 du \int_0^1 dt \omega_{\mu\nu}(x(u,t)) \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial t}$$

since merely evaluating $\omega_{(2)}$ on $\gamma_{(2)}$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \omega^{(2)}|_{\gamma_{(2)}} &= \frac{1}{2} \omega_{\mu\nu}(x(u,t)) \left[\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial v} dv \right] \wedge \left[\frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial u} du + \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial v} dv \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \omega_{\mu\nu} \left(\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial v} du \wedge dv + \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial v} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial u} dv \wedge du \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \omega_{\mu\nu} \left(\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial u} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial v} - \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial v} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial u} \right) du \wedge dv \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\omega_{\mu\nu} \partial_u x^\mu \partial_v x^\nu - \omega_{\nu\mu} \partial_v x^\nu \partial_u x^\mu \right) du \wedge dv \\ &= \omega_{\mu\nu} \partial_u x^\mu \partial_v x^\nu du \wedge dv \end{aligned}$$

The action of ω is given by

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega^{(2)} &= \frac{1}{2} \partial_\lambda \omega_{\mu\nu} dx^\lambda \wedge dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu = \\ &= \frac{1}{3!} (3 \partial_{[\lambda} \omega_{\mu\nu]}) dx^\lambda \wedge dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \end{aligned}$$

4) Generalize to K -form

$$\omega^{(K)} = \frac{1}{K!} \omega_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_K} dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_K}$$

Integrate over K -surface and act with d

Notice

• In R^n there are at most n -forms since

$$dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_{n+1}} \equiv 0$$

because of antisymmetry

5) Duals

In R^n we can define an object

$$\varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n}$$

completely antisymmetric with $\varepsilon_{12\dots n} = +1$

Ex R^3 ε_{ijk}

The same is true for $\varepsilon^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n}$ with indices raised using $g^{\mu\nu}$.

Then we define

$$\star \omega^{(K)} = \frac{1}{K!} \frac{1}{(n-K)!} \varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_{n-K}} \omega^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_K} dx^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\mu_{n-K}}$$

6) Product of forms

Examples

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \quad \omega_{(1)} \wedge \psi_{(1)} &= \omega_\mu dx^\mu \wedge \psi_\nu dx^\nu = \omega_\mu \psi_\nu dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \\ &= -\omega_\mu \psi_\nu dx^\nu \wedge dx^\mu = -\psi_{(1)} \wedge \omega_{(1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet \quad \omega_{(1)} \wedge \psi_{(2)} = + \psi_{(2)} \wedge \omega_{(1)}$$

generically

$$\omega_{(k)} \wedge \omega_{(l)} = (-1)^{kl} \omega_{(l)} \wedge \omega_{(k)}$$

7) $d^2=0$

$$dd = dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \wedge \dots$$

$$= dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \partial_{[\mu} \partial_{\nu]} \wedge \dots$$

$$= 0$$

8) Worked examples in \mathbb{R}^3 , index $i, j, k = 1, 2, 3$

- $\omega_{(0)} = f$

$$df = dx^i \partial_i f = (\vec{\nabla} f)_i dx^i \quad \text{gradient}$$

$$\star f = \frac{1}{0!} \frac{1}{3!} f \varepsilon_{ijk} dx^i dx^j dx^k = f dx^1 dx^2 dx^3$$

$$d^2 f = \partial_i \partial_j f dx^i \wedge dx^j = 0$$

$$d \star f = 0$$

$$\star df = \frac{1}{2!1!} \varepsilon_{ij}{}^k \partial_k f dx^i \wedge dx^j$$

- $\omega_{(1)} = v_i dx^i$

$$d\omega_{(1)} = \partial_{[i} v_{j]} dx^i \wedge dx^j$$

$$\star \omega_{(1)} = \frac{1}{2!} \frac{1}{1!} \varepsilon_{ij}{}^k v_k dx^i \wedge dx^j$$

$$\star d\omega_{(1)} = \frac{1}{2!1!} \varepsilon_{ij}{}^k \partial_j v_k dx^i = \frac{1}{2} (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{v})_i dx^i$$

$$\begin{aligned} \star \omega_{(1)} &= \frac{1}{2!1!} \varepsilon_{ij}{}^k \partial_l v_k dx^l \wedge dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon_{ij}{}^k \partial_l v_k \varepsilon^{lij} dx^1 dx^2 dx^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 2 \delta^{kl} \partial_l v_k dx^3 \\ &= (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{v}) dx^3 \end{aligned}$$

- $\omega_{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} B_{ij} dx^i \wedge dx^j = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \tilde{B}_k dx^i \wedge dx^j$

so it is the same of $*\omega_{(1)}$

Green theorem in \mathbb{R}^2

$$\int_{\gamma} f dx + g dy = \int_S \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right) dx dy$$

$$\int_{\partial S} \omega_{(1)} = \int_S d\omega_{(1)}$$

Gauss theorem in \mathbb{R}^3

$$\int_V \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{f} d^3V = \int_{\partial V} \vec{f} \cdot \vec{n} d^3$$

$$\int_V d * \omega_{(1)} = \int_{\partial V} * \omega_{(1)}$$

More generically

$$\int_{S_{(k+1)}} d\omega_{(k)} = \int_{\partial S_{(k)}} \omega_{(k)}$$

corr [13/01/14]

Maxwell equation (in rationalized MKS)

We are in $D=4$ with metric $\|g_{\mu\nu}\| = (-1, 1, 1, 1)$

so we need paying attention when raising and lowering indices. In particular

$$\varepsilon_{0123} = 1 \Rightarrow \varepsilon^{0123} = -1$$

Start from Lorentz

$$m \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} = q F^\mu{}_\nu \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau}$$

write it in components for low speed n.t. $\tau \approx t$ and $x^0 = ct$

Naively

$$\mu=0 \quad 0 = q (F^0{}_i \dot{x}^i) \quad \text{SYNCHRONOUS??}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu=i \quad m \ddot{x}^i &= q (F^i{}_j \dot{x}^j + F^i{}_0 c) = + q F_{i0} c + q F_{ij} \dot{x}^j \\ &= q E_i + q \varepsilon_{ijk} \dot{x}^j B^k \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{hence} \quad F_{i0} = \frac{1}{c} E_i \quad F_{ij} = \varepsilon_{ijk} B^k$$

Notice

$$F^0{}_i \dot{x}^i = E_i \frac{v^i}{c} \sim 0 \quad \text{or!}$$

Homogeneous Maxwell equations

$$\begin{cases} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E} + \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0 \end{cases}$$

are nothing else but

$$\partial_{[\mu} F_{\rho\sigma]} = 0 \quad \leftrightarrow \quad dF = 0$$

or introducing $F = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu$

Let us check it

$$F = \frac{1}{2} E_i dx^i \wedge (cdt) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} B^i dx^j \wedge dx^k$$

$$\begin{aligned} dF &= \partial_\mu E_i dx^\mu \wedge dx^i \wedge dt + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_\mu B^i dx^\mu \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k \\ &= \partial_i E_j dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dt + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_t B^i dt \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \partial_\ell B^i d\ell \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k \\ &= \left(\partial_{i\ell} E_j + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\ell ij} \partial_t B^\ell \right) dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dt \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{\ell ij} \partial_\ell B^\ell dx^i \wedge dx^j \wedge dx^k \end{aligned}$$

Then we get

$$\begin{aligned} & \epsilon_{ik} \epsilon_{ij} \left(\partial_{il} E_{jl} + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ljk} \partial_t B^l \right) \\ &= (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E})_k + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ikl} \partial_t B^l = \\ &= (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{E})_k + \partial_t B_k = 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\epsilon_{ijk} \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ljk} \partial_l B^l = \delta_{il} \partial_l B^l = \partial_i B^i = 0$$

In homogeneous Maxwell equations

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0 \\ \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \mu_0 \vec{J} = \frac{1}{c^2 \epsilon_0} \vec{J} \end{array} \right. \quad \text{since } \mu_0 \epsilon_0 = \frac{1}{c^2}$$

or nothing else but

$$\partial_\mu \tilde{F}^{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} F_{\rho\sigma} \right) = J^\nu$$

or $d * F = * j \frac{1}{\epsilon_0}$ with $J = \int_\mu dx^\mu = \frac{\rho}{c} d(ct) + J_i dx^i$

Let us derive it

$$\begin{aligned} *F &= \frac{1}{2!} \frac{1}{2!} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} F_{\rho\sigma} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{0i} j^k F_{jk} dt \wedge dx^i + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ij} {}^{0l} F_{0l} dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \frac{c}{2} \epsilon_{ij} j^k F_{jk} dt \wedge dx^i + \frac{1}{2} (-) \epsilon_{ij} {}^{0l} F_{0l} dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= \frac{c}{2} \epsilon_{ij} j^k \epsilon_{jkl} B_l dt \wedge dx^i - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ij} (-) \left(-\frac{1}{c} E_l \right) dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &= c B_i dt \wedge dx^i + \frac{1}{2c} \epsilon_{ij} E_l dx^i \wedge dx^j \end{aligned}$$

Then we get

$$\begin{aligned} d * F &= c \partial_j B_i dt \wedge dx^i \wedge dx^j + \frac{1}{2c} \epsilon_{ij} \partial_t E_l dt \wedge dx^i \wedge dx^j \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2c} \epsilon_{ij} \partial_k E_l dx^k \wedge dx^i \wedge dx^j \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left(-c \partial_{[i} B_{j]} + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \epsilon_{kij} \partial_t E_k \right) dx^i dx^j dx^k$$

$$+ \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \epsilon_{kij} \partial_k E_l \right) dx^k dx^i dx^j$$

Now we can exam ϵ_j^i

$$\epsilon_j^i = \frac{1}{3! 1!} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} \int^\sigma dx^\mu dx^\nu dx^\rho dx^\sigma$$

$$= \frac{1}{3!} \epsilon_{ijk0} \int^0 dx^i dx^j dx^k + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{0ijk} \int^k dx^0 dx^i dx^j$$

$$= (-1)^2 \frac{1}{6} \epsilon_{ijk} \int_0 dx^i dx^j dx^k + \frac{c}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \int_0 dt dx^i dx^k$$

therefore we get

$$\bullet \quad \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \epsilon_{kij} \partial_k E_l = \frac{1}{6} \epsilon_{ijk} \int_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \epsilon_{kij} \partial_k E_l = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 6 \int_0 / \epsilon_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{c}{\epsilon_0} \int_0 = \rho \frac{1}{\epsilon_0}$$

• and

$$-c \partial_{[i} B_{j]} + \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \epsilon_{kij} \partial_t E_k = \frac{c}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \int_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon_{ijk} \rho$$

$$-c (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B})_l + \frac{1}{c} \partial_t E_l = c j_l$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{B} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{c \epsilon_0} \vec{j}$$