

Lecture 4 — Manifolds and Curved Spacetime

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- We now move from Minkowski to General Space:

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow g_{\mu\nu}$$

- Differentiable Manifolds

- Manifold: A space (in n -dimensions) that looks locally like \mathbb{R}^n and can be constructed by smoothly stitching together these regions
- Rotations in $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow$ Lie Groups are manifolds with a group structure
- To be more precise, we have a set M with a set of (all possible) charts of open subsets to \mathbb{R}^n
 - * Chart \leftrightarrow coordinate system
- These charts must be smooth, continuous, invertible, and differentiable
- Now we will define (co)tangent spaces on these manifolds, with metrics that map (dual) vectors to \mathbb{R}

- The Equivalence Principle

- In special relativity, we had the principle that the laws of physics were the same in all inertial frames
- Einstein’s “happiest thought”: If someone falls from a roof, nothing falls in their frame
- Equivalence of inertial frames should be generalized to include gravity
- Weak Equivalence Principle (WEP)
 - * Inertial mass = gravitational mass

$$F = m_i a \text{ (inertial)}$$

$$F = -m_g \nabla \Phi \text{ (gravitational "charge")}$$

$$m_i = m_g \text{ (WEP: Eötvös experiments, late 19th century)}$$

- * All freely falling bodies behave the same/are indistinguishable ($a = -\nabla\Phi$)
- * Define inertial trajectory as unaccelerated (subject only to gravity)
- * In small enough regions of space-time, freely falling particles behave the same in a gravitational field or a uniformly accelerated field (physicist in a box, accelerating reference frame)
- Strong Equivalence Principle (SEP)
 - * All laws of physics, including gravitation, look like SR
 - Einstein Equivalence Principle (EEP) plus the impact of gravitational binding energy
 - Rules out “fifth force”
- Tidal Forces
 - Causes tides on Earth
 - Locally inertial frames
- Gravitational Redshift

$$\Delta v = \frac{az}{c}$$

- Relativistic Doppler Shift:

$$\lambda_{obs} = \lambda_o \left(\frac{1 + \frac{v}{c}}{1 - \frac{v}{c}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

- * Using Taylor expansion, we may simply write this as:

$$\lambda_{obs} = 1 + \frac{v}{c}$$

- * Bringing this together, we get:

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_o} \approx \frac{\Delta v}{c} = \frac{az}{c^2}$$

- EEP says that this must be the same as a gravitational field:

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_o} = \frac{a_g z}{c^2} = \frac{\Delta\Phi}{c^2}$$

- This is the time from start to end of wavelength, and can be used to compare clocks
- If we have a case where $\Delta t_o = \lambda_o c^{-1}$ and $\Delta t_1 = \lambda_1 c^{-1}$, and $\lambda_1 > \lambda_o$ then $\Delta t_1 > \Delta t_o$, which indicates gravitational time dilation

- Classic Tests of General Relativity

1. Precession of the perihelion of Mercury — 19th century: 43" per century discrepancy successful "post-diction" of GR (about 10% of total effect)
2. Bending of star light by sun (gravitational lensing) — GR predicts a factor of 2 larger deflection (1919 Eddington Expedition to observe the solar eclipse)
3. Gravitational Redshift — 1954: Popper measurement of a white dwarf, 1959: Pound-rebka at Jefferson lab (Harvard), 22.5m

- Vectors and Tensors on Manifolds (Curved Spacetime)

- We already saw $V = V^\mu \hat{e}_\mu$ at point P on T_p
- What is the basis?

- * We want to define tangent vectors before we have a vector space on M
- * Instead, consider a function f and a curve λ . The directional derivative is:

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda} x^\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} f = \frac{d}{d\lambda} x^\mu \partial_\mu f \quad (\text{gradient} \cdot \text{tangent } \vec{v})$$

- * f could have been anything, so we define the tangent vector:

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \partial_\mu$$

- * $\{\hat{e}_\mu = \partial_\mu\}$ is the coordinate basis ("points" in the direction of x^μ)
- * Not orthonormal, but always well defined
- * In this basis, things transform according to:

$$\partial_{\mu'} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu'}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^{\mu'}} = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^{\mu'}} \partial_\mu$$

- * Similarly, $V = V^\mu \partial_\mu$ is preserved, so:

$$V^{\mu'} \partial_{\mu'} = V^\mu \partial_\mu \Rightarrow V^{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu'}}{\partial x^\mu} V^\mu$$

- General Coordinate Transform

- In flat space: $x^{\mu'} = \Lambda_\mu^{\mu'}$

$$\frac{dx^{\mu'}}{dx^\mu} = \Lambda_\mu^{\mu'}$$

- We recover the transform of vectors
- Vector Fields:

- * X : One vector at each point on the manifold

- * X, Y : Both define a field that can be used to take directional derivatives of functions on μ

$$[X, Y](f) = X(Y(f)) - Y(X(f)) \quad \underline{\text{commutator}}$$

– Dual Vectors

- * Recall we defined the gradient: df

$$df \left(\frac{d}{d\lambda} \right) = \frac{df}{d\lambda} \quad \text{map a vector to } \mathbb{R}$$

- * Basis for dual vectors dx^μ
- * Gradient of the coordinate function:

$$dx^\mu(\partial_\nu) = \frac{dx^\mu}{dx^\nu} = \delta_\nu^\mu$$

$$V = V^\mu \partial_\mu$$

$$\omega = \omega_\nu dx^\nu$$

$$\omega_{\mu'} = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^{\mu'}} \omega_\mu$$

- We can now write the transformation of an arbitrary (k, l) tensor on a manifold:

$$T_{\nu_1' \dots \nu_l'}^{\mu_1' \dots \mu_k'} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu_1'}}{\partial x^{\mu_1}} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\mu_k'}}{\partial x^{\mu_k}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu_1}}{\partial x^{\nu_1'}} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\nu_l}}{\partial x^{\nu_l'}} T_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_l}^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k}$$

- * Warning: in curved space $\partial_\mu W_\nu$ is not a tensor; unlike in flat space, the derivative of the transform can be non-zero (Λ is the same everywhere)

• The Metric

- $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ in Minkowski space
- $g_{\mu\nu}$ in general curved spacetime

$$g_{\mu\nu} g^{\nu\sigma} = \delta_\mu^\sigma \quad (\text{defines inverse})$$

- Metric really describes basically everything about a spacetime

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

- * (0,2)-tensor components, metric components, with ds^2 being called the “line element” or “metric”