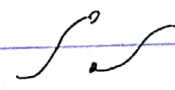


Lecture 1: Topological spaces

(a) coarsest level: spacetime is a set

Not enough to talk about continuity of maps.

In classical physics, no jumps. 

Weakest structure that can be established on a set which allows a def. of continuity: a topology.

Def. Let M be a set.

A topology \mathcal{O} is a subset $\mathcal{O} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(M)$ (power set) satisfying

- (i) $\emptyset \in \mathcal{O}, M \in \mathcal{O}$
- (ii) $U \in \mathcal{O}, V \in \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow U \cup V \in \mathcal{O}$
- (iii) $U_\alpha \in \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} U_\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$

α - index set. can be uncountable.

Example. (1) $M = \{1, 2, 3\}$

(a) $\mathcal{O}_1 = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ is a topo.

(b) $\mathcal{O}_2 = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$

Not a topo.

(2) M any set.

(a) $M_{\text{chaotic}} := \{\emptyset, M\}$

(b) $M_{\text{discrete}} := \mathcal{P}(M)$

2.a & 2.b are utterly useless.

(3) $M = \mathbb{R}^d = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}$

Terminology

M set

\mathcal{O} topology

(M, \mathcal{O}) topological space (a set w/ additional structure)

$U \in \mathcal{O} \Leftrightarrow$ call $U \subseteq M$ an open set

$M \setminus A \in \mathcal{O} \Leftrightarrow$ call $A \subseteq M$ a closed set

\triangle open \nRightarrow closed

2. Continuous Maps

$f: M \rightarrow N$

The answer to the q. of whether a map is cont. depends (by def.) on which topology is chosen on M and N .

Def. $\mathcal{O}_{\text{standard}} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}^d)$

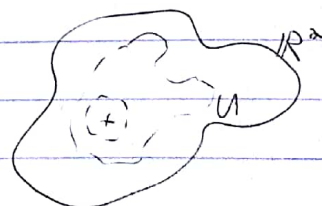
2 steps: soft ball

(a) $B_r(p) := \{ (q_1, q_2, \dots, q_d) \mid \sum (q_i - p_i)^2 < r^2 \}$

(b) $U \in \mathcal{O}_{\text{standard}}$

\Uparrow

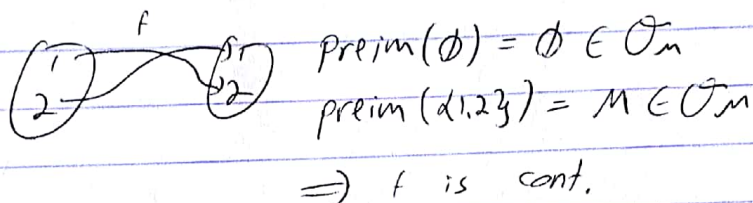
$\forall p \in U: \exists r \in \mathbb{R}^+ : B_r(p) \subseteq U$



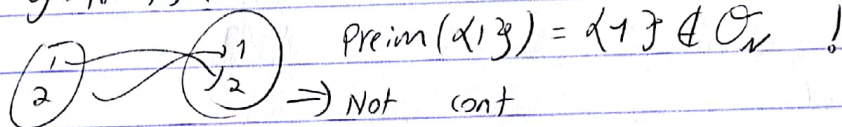
Def. Let (M, \mathcal{O}_M) and (N, \mathcal{O}_N) be topo. spaces.
 Then, a map $f: M \rightarrow N$ is called continuous
 (wrt \mathcal{O}_N and \mathcal{O}_M) if
 $\forall V \in \mathcal{O}_N : \text{preim}_f(V) \in \mathcal{O}_M$

Mnemonic: "A map is cont. iff the preimage of
 (all) open sets are open sets."

Example (a) $M = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $\mathcal{O}_M = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\}$
 $N = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $\mathcal{O}_N = \{\emptyset, \{1, 2\}\}$

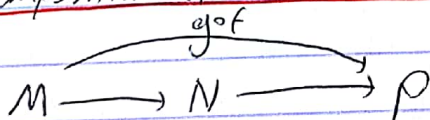


(b) $g: N \rightarrow M$



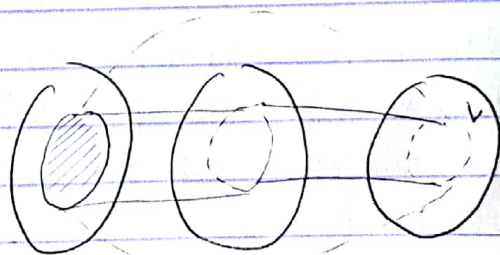
Same map, different topologies.

3. Composition of continuous maps



$$g \circ f : M \rightarrow P$$

Key Thm. f cont. \Rightarrow $g \circ f$ cont.
 g cont.



Proof. Let $V \in \mathcal{O}_P$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{preim}_{g \circ f}(V) &= \{m \in M \mid (g \circ f)(m) \in V\} \\ &= \{m \in M \mid f(m) \in \text{preim}_g(V)\} \\ &= \text{preim}_f(\underbrace{\text{preim}_g(V)}_{\in \mathcal{O}_N}) \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\in \mathcal{O}_M} \end{aligned}$$

4. Inheriting a topology

There are many useful ways to inherit a topo. from some given topo. space (s).

Important for spacetime physicists:

$$S \subset M \xrightarrow{\quad} \mathcal{O}_M$$

Q. can one construct on S a topo from \mathcal{O}_M on M ?

yes. Def. $\mathcal{O}_S \subset \mathcal{P}(S)$ "subset topo."

$$\mathcal{O}_S := \{U \cap S \mid U \in \mathcal{O}_M\}$$

claim: \mathcal{O}_S is a topo.

$$(i) \emptyset = \emptyset \cap S \Rightarrow \emptyset \in \mathcal{O}_S$$

$$M = M \cap S \Rightarrow M \cap S \in \mathcal{O}_S$$

$$(ii) A, B \in S \Rightarrow \exists \tilde{A}, \tilde{B} \in \mathcal{O}_M$$

$$A = \tilde{A} \cap S$$

$$B = \tilde{B} \cap S$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cap B = (\tilde{A} \cap S) \cap (\tilde{B} \cap S)$$

$$= (\tilde{A} \cap \tilde{B}) \cap S$$

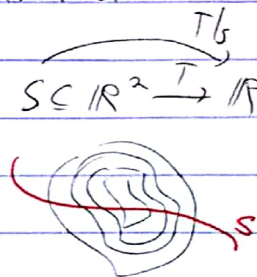
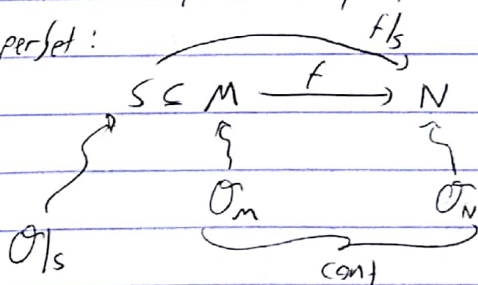
$$\underbrace{\tilde{A} \cap \tilde{B}}_{\in \mathcal{O}_M} \cap S$$

$$\Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{O}_S$$

(iii)

use of this specific way to inherit a topo from a

Superset:



$$\Downarrow \\ f|_S : S \rightarrow N \text{ is cont.}$$

Tensor Calculus, Multilinear Algebra, and Diff Geom.

Lecture 2: Manifolds

Topological spaces: there are so many of them that mathematicians cannot even classify them.

For spacetime physics, we may focus on topo. spaces (M, \mathcal{O}) that can be charted, analogously to how the surface of the earth is charted.

1. Topological Manifolds

Def. A topo. space (M, \mathcal{O}) is called a d-dimensional topo. manifold if

$$\forall p \in M : \exists U \in \mathcal{O} : \exists x: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d : x(u) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$$

(1) x is invertible

$$x^{-1}: x(U) \rightarrow U$$

(2) x is continuous

U is equip. w/ $\mathcal{O}|_U$

\mathbb{R}^d is equip. w/ \mathcal{O}_{std}

(3) x^{-1} is continuous

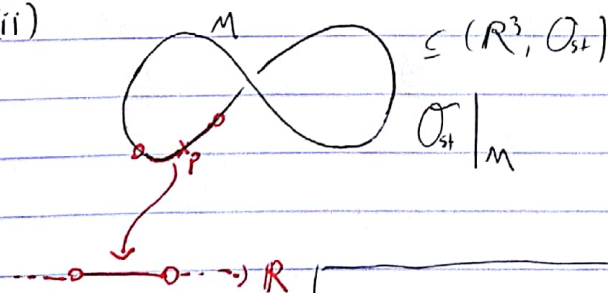
Examples

(i)

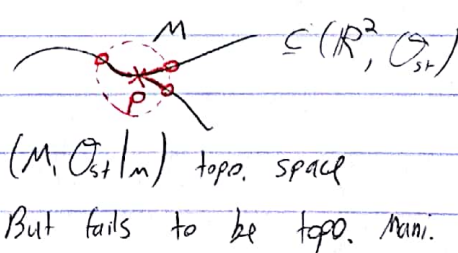


this is a 2-dim. topo. manifold.

(ii)



(iii)



$(M, \mathcal{O}_{st}|_M)$ topo. space

But fails to be topo. mani.

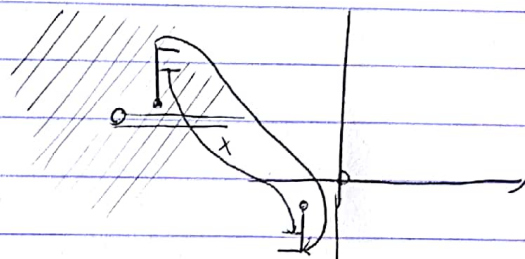
• $x: U \rightarrow x(U) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ chart map
 $x(p) = (x^1(p), x^2(p), \dots, x^d(p))$
 $x^i: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

(U, x) chart

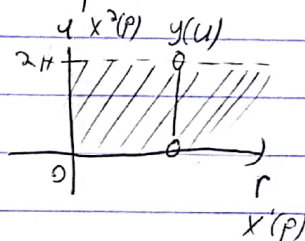
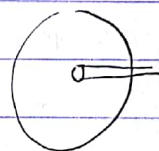
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x^1: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \vdots \\ x^d: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \end{array} \right\} \Leftrightarrow x: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$$

called coordinate maps

Example: $M = \mathbb{R}^2$, \mathcal{O}_{st}
 $U = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(a, 0)\}$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^+$
 $x: U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$
 $(m, n) \mapsto (-m, -n)$

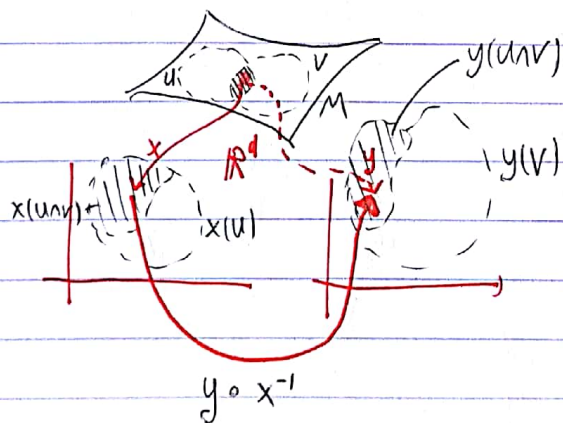


another chart map on U :
 $(m, n) \mapsto (\sqrt{m^2 + n^2}, \arctan(\frac{n}{m}))$



3. chart transition maps

Imagine two charts (U, x) and (V, y) with overlapping regions. $U \cap V \neq \emptyset$



formally:

$$\begin{array}{c} U \cap V \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \mathbb{R}^d \ni x(U \cap V) \xrightarrow{y \circ x^{-1}} y(U \cap V) \in \mathbb{R}^d \end{array}$$

called the chart transition map.

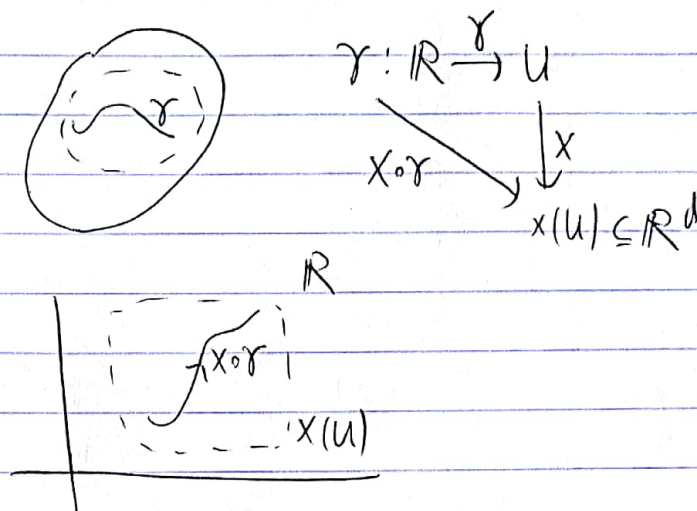
Informally: contains the instructions how to glue together the charts of the atlas.



4. Manifold philosophy

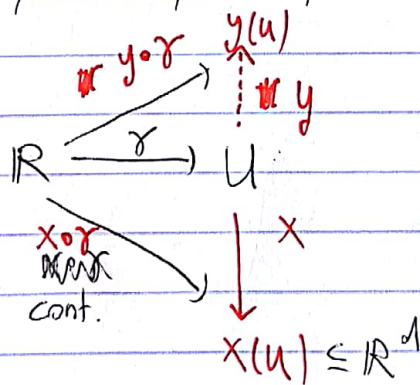
Often it is desirable (or indeed the only way) to define properties like continuity of real world objects (" $R \xrightarrow{\gamma} M$ ") by judging suitable conditions not on the real world object but on a chart representative of the r-w object.

Advantages:



Disadvantage: maybe ill-defined (because an arbitrarily chosen chart is employed). We need to make sure that the defined property does not change if we afford another "fantasy" = (i.e., chart).

Formally:



$$\begin{aligned} y \circ \gamma &= (y \circ x^{-1}) \circ x \circ \gamma \\ &= y \circ (x^{-1} \circ x) \circ \gamma \\ &= y \circ \text{id} \circ \gamma \\ &= y \circ \gamma \end{aligned}$$

Def: $x \circ \gamma: R \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ diff.

\updownarrow
 γ diff

Lecture 3: Multilinear Algebra

- We will not equip space (time) with a vector space structure.

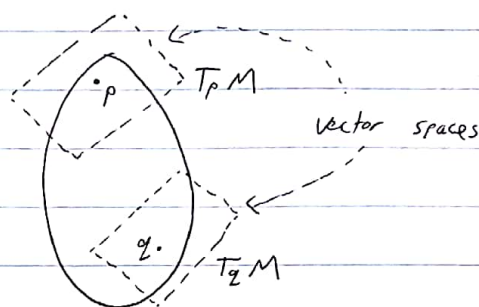
Do you know where $S \cdot \text{Paris} = ?$ $\text{Paris} + \text{Vienna} = ?$

However, the tangent spaces $T_p M$ do.

- Beneficial to first study vector spaces abstractly for two reasons:

(i) for construction of $T_p M$ one needs an intermediate vector space $C^\infty(M)$

(ii) tensor techniques are most easily understood in an abstract setting.



1. Vector spaces

Def. A vector space $(V, +, \cdot)$ is

(i) a set V

(ii) $+: V \times V \rightarrow V$ "addition"

(iii) $\cdot: \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$ "scalar multiplication"

satisfying

$$C^+ \quad v + w = w + v$$

$$A^+ \quad (u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$$

$$N^+ \quad \exists 0 \in V : \forall v \in V : v + 0 = v$$

$$I^+ \quad \forall v \in V : \exists (-v) \in V : v + (-v) = 0$$

$$A \quad \lambda \cdot (\mu \cdot v) = (\lambda \cdot \mu) \cdot v$$

$$D \quad (\lambda + \mu) \cdot v = \lambda \cdot v + \mu \cdot v$$

$$D \quad \lambda \cdot v + \lambda \cdot w = \lambda \cdot (v + w)$$

$$U \quad 1 \cdot v = v$$

Note that some of the ops. are on the vector space while some are on \mathbb{R} .

Terminology: An element of a vector space is often referred to, informally, as a vector.

- \mathbb{R}^3 can be made into a vector space.

Example.

def. set $P := \{ p: (-1, +1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid p(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N p_n \cdot x^n \}$
 Polynomials of (fixed) degree.

Is \square a vector?

$$\square(x) = x^2$$

No. $\square \in P$. But there is no $+$, \cdot defined.

$$+ : P \times P \rightarrow P$$

$$(p, q) \mapsto p+q$$

$$\text{where } (p+q)(x) := p(x) + q(x)$$

\uparrow op. over P \uparrow op. over \mathbb{R}

$$\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times P \rightarrow P$$

$$(\lambda, p) \mapsto \lambda \cdot p$$

$$\text{where } (\lambda \cdot p)(x) := \lambda \cdot p(x)$$

Again, is \square a vector?

Yes. But who cares?

It's a bad Q.

$(P, +, \cdot)$ is a vector space.

$\square \in P$

2. Linear maps

In topology, maps respected the "open set" structure.

These are the structure respecting maps between vector spaces:

Def. $(V, +_V, \cdot_V)$ and $(W, +_W, \cdot_W)$ vector spaces
 then a map

$$\varphi : V \rightarrow W$$

is called linear if

$$(i) \quad \varphi(v + \tilde{v}) = \varphi(v) + \varphi(\tilde{v})$$

$$(ii) \quad \varphi(\lambda \cdot v) = \lambda \cdot \varphi(v)$$

Example: Diff. operator

$$\sigma: P \rightarrow P$$

$$p \mapsto \sigma(p) := p'$$

Why is it linear?

$$(i) \quad \sigma(p+q) = (p+q)' = p' + q' = \sigma(p) + \sigma(q)$$

$$(ii) \quad \sigma(\lambda \cdot p) = (\lambda \cdot p)' = \lambda \cdot p' = \lambda \cdot \sigma(p)$$

Notation: $\varphi: V \rightarrow W$ linear $\Leftrightarrow \varphi: V \xrightarrow{\sim} W$

Theorem:
$$\begin{array}{ccc} V & \xrightarrow[\sim]{\varphi} & W \xrightarrow[\sim]{\psi} U \\ & \searrow \scriptstyle \varphi \circ \psi & \nearrow \end{array}$$

- The composition of linear maps is linear.
- In order to truly understand what's going on you must not introduce a basis. It clouds everything.

Example: $\sigma \circ \sigma: P \xrightarrow{\sim} P$

3. Vector space of Homomorphisms

fun fact: $(V, +, \cdot)$ $(W, +, \cdot)$ vector spaces

def. $\mathcal{H} = \{ \varphi: V \xrightarrow{\sim} W \}$ all linear maps
 $\text{Hom}(V, W)$

We can make this into a vector space

$$\oplus: \text{Hom}(V, W) \times \text{Hom}(V, W) \rightarrow \text{Hom}(V, W)$$

$$(\varphi, \psi) \mapsto \varphi \oplus \psi$$

$$\text{where } (\varphi \oplus \psi)(v) := \varphi(v) + \psi(v)$$

\odot : ... similarly

$\text{Hom}(V, W), \oplus, \odot$ is a vector space.

Example: $\text{Hom}(P, P)$ is a vector space.

$$\sigma \in \text{Hom}(P, P)$$

$$\sigma \circ \sigma \in \text{Hom}(P, P)$$

$$\underbrace{\sigma \circ \dots \circ \sigma}_n \in \text{Hom}(P, P)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{~~Monoid~~ } \sigma \circ \sigma \oplus \sigma \circ \sigma \in \text{Hom}(P, P)$$

4. Dual Vector Space

Heavily used special case:

$(V, +, \cdot)$ vector space:

Def. $V^* := \{ \varphi : V \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R} \} = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$

If you know V and V^* you can construct all the rest.

(V^*, \oplus, \odot) is a vector space.

dual vector space (to V)

Terminology: an element $\varphi \in V^*$ is called, informally, a covector.

Example: $I : P \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}$
i.e., $I \in P^*$

def. $I(p) := \int_0^1 dx \, p(x)$

linear: $I(p+q) = \int_0^1 dx \, (p+q)(x) = \dots = I(p) + I(q)$
 $I(\lambda p) = \lambda I(p)$

That is, $I = \int_0^1 dx$ is a covector. An element in P^* .

5. Tensors

Def. Let $(V, +, \cdot)$ be a vector space.

An (r, s) -tensor, T , over V

is a multilinear map

$$T: \underbrace{V^* \times \dots \times V^*}_r \times \underbrace{V \times \dots \times V}_s \xrightarrow{\{r+s\} \text{ times}} \mathbb{R}$$

then

Example: T $(1, 1)$ -tensor

~~$T(\varphi, v)$~~

$$T(\varphi + \psi, v) = T(\varphi, v) + T(\psi, v)$$

$$T(\lambda \varphi, v) = \lambda T(\varphi, v)$$

$$T(\varphi, v + w) = T(\varphi, v) + T(\varphi, w)$$

$$T(\varphi, \lambda v) = \lambda T(\varphi, v)$$

Example:

~~$T(\varphi, v)$~~

$$T(\varphi + \psi, v + w) = T(\varphi, v + w) + T(\psi, v + w)$$

$$= T(\varphi, v) + T(\varphi, w) + T(\psi, v) + T(\psi, w)$$

Exercise: Given $T: V^* \times V \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}$ that is multilinear

def. $\phi_T: V \xrightarrow{\sim} (V^*)^* = V$ (if $\dim V < \infty$)

$$v \mapsto \underbrace{T(\cdot, v)}_{V^* \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}}$$

remember that

$$V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$$

Given $\phi: V \xrightarrow{\sim} V$

can construct $T_\phi: V^* \times V \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}$

$$(\varphi, v) \mapsto \varphi(\phi(v))$$

\Rightarrow given T : $T = T_{\phi_T}$

given ϕ : $\phi = \phi_{T_\phi}$ (why?)

Example: $g: P \times P \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}$

$$(p, q) \mapsto \int_1^1 dx \, p(x) q(x) \quad (\text{inner product})$$

a $(0,2)$ -tensor over P .

Info: $T \in \text{Hom}(\dots)$

6. Vectors and Covectors as tensors

Theorem. $\varphi \in V^* \Leftrightarrow \varphi: V \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow \varphi$ is a $(0,1)$ -tensor
(rec. proof) "covector"

Theorem. $V \in V \xrightarrow{\sim} (V^*)^* \Leftrightarrow V: V^* \xrightarrow{\sim} \mathbb{R}$
 \uparrow
($\dim V < \infty$) $\Leftrightarrow V$ is $(1,0)$ -tensor

All of this has been said without talking about a basis or of vectors as a collection of numbers. If you did not see the numbers then you did well.

7. Bases

Def. $(V, +, \cdot)$ vector space.

A subset $B \subset V$ is called a basis if

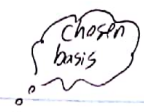
$$\forall v \in V \exists ! \text{finite } F \subset B : \exists \underbrace{!}_{\text{unique}} v^1, v^2, \dots, v^n : v = v^1 f_1 + \dots + v^n f_n.$$

$\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ $\in \mathbb{R}$

There is another notion of a basis where F can be infinite. For that you need additional structure (a topology).

Def. If \exists basis B with finitely many elements, say d many, then we call d the dim of the vector space. $d := \dim V$.
This is well defined.

Remark: $(V, +, \cdot)$ be a finite dim vector space. Having chosen a basis e_1, \dots, e_n of $(V, +, \cdot)$, we may uniquely associate



$$V \rightarrow (v^1, \dots, v^n)$$

called the components of V w.r.t the chosen basis
 where $v^1 e_1 + \dots + v^n e_n = V$

So, you may introduce a basis but it has a cost. Everything will depend on it now.

Basis for the dual space

choose basis e_1, \dots, e_n for V

can choose basis $\epsilon^1, \dots, \epsilon^n$ for V^* with no relation to the basis of V .

However, more economical to require:

once e_1, \dots, e_n on V has been chosen, then ~~required~~

$$\epsilon^a(e_b) = \delta_b^a = \begin{cases} 1 & a=b \\ 0 & a \neq b \end{cases}$$

this uniquely determines choice of $\epsilon^1, \dots, \epsilon^n$
 from the choice of e_1, \dots, e_n

Def. if a basis $\epsilon^1, \dots, \epsilon^n$ of V^* satisfies this, it is called the dual basis (of the dual space).

This way, we keep the number of choices down.

Example: P ($N=3$)

$$e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3 \text{ basis if } \left. \begin{aligned} e_0(x) &= 1 \\ e_1(x) &= x \\ e_2(x) &= x^2 \\ e_3(x) &= x^3 \end{aligned} \right\} e_a(x) = x^a$$

What is the dual basis?

$$\epsilon^0, \epsilon^1, \epsilon^2, \epsilon^3 \text{ dual basis } \epsilon^a := \frac{1}{a!} \partial^a \Big|_{x=0}$$

proof: $\epsilon^a(e_b) = \delta_b^a$

8. Components of Tensors

and e_1, \dots, e_n basis of V

Def. Let T be an (r, s) -tensor over a finite dim vector space V . Then define the $(r+s)$ ~~dim V num~~ many real numbers

$$i_1, \dots, i_r, j_1, \dots, j_s \in \{1, \dots, \dim V\}$$

$$T_{i_1, \dots, i_r, j_1, \dots, j_s} := T(e^{i_1}, \dots, e^{i_r}, e_{j_1}, \dots, e_{j_s})$$

$\in \mathbb{R}$

components of the tensor w.r.t the chosen basis

Why is this useful? Knowing the components one can reconstruct the tensor.

Example: T $(1, 1)$ -tensor

$$T^i_j := T(e^i, e_j)$$

to reconstruct,

$$T(\varphi, v) = T\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\dim V} \varphi_i e^i, \sum_{j=1}^{\dim V} v^j e_j\right)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{\dim V} \sum_{j=1}^{\dim V} \varphi_i v^j T(e^i, e_j)$$

T^i_j

$$= : \varphi_i v^j T^i_j \quad (\text{fuck this notation})$$