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# Phys 476

## GENERAL RELATIVITY

University of Waterloo

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## Disclaimer

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Latest versions of all my course notes are available at **[www.tcfraser.com](http://www.tcfraser.com)**.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 History

The first lecture was a summary of astrophysical history from around  $\sim 200\text{BC}$  to today. I elected not to take notes as it was pretty standard stuff and a lot of slides. Sorry.

# 2 Tensor Formalism

At the core of General Relativity is the mathematics of differential geometry. Differential geometry requires the idea of tensors, a generalization of vectors and matrices and forms that can handle messy geometries and metrics.

Let  $V$  be a vector space of finite dimension. Any  $V$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  through the coefficients of a chosen basis. Let the basis of  $V$  be given by,

$$\{e_i\}_{i=0,\dots,n}$$

Then any vector  $v \in V$  is expressible by,

$$v = \sum_{i=0}^n v^i e_i$$

Where  $v^i$  are the  $i$ -th coefficients of the vector  $v$  with respect to the basis  $\{e_i\}$ .

## 2.1 Einstein Summation Rule

For convenience let's provide a new, shorter notation for the vector  $v$ .

$$v^i e_i = v^0 e_0 + \dots + v^n e_n = \sum_{i=0}^n v^i e_i$$

Effectively, we have just **dropped the summation sign**. The einstein summation rule is as follows:

If there are two identical indices, 1 “up” and 1 “down”, it means that a summation is secretly present, it's just be removed for convenience. Note that the  $i$  in this case is *dummy index*.

$$v^i e_i = v^\alpha e_\alpha = v^j e_j$$

Here  $v^i$  are the components of vector  $v \in V$  and are real numbers.  $v^i \in \mathbb{R}, \forall i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ .

Note  $v^i$  is called the vector  $v$  when  $i$  is the set  $\{0, \dots, n\}$ , but can also be called the  $i$ -th component of  $v$  when  $i$  has a fixed value  $i \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ .

## 2.2 Examples of Basis for V

The values of  $e_i$  or the  $i$ 's themselves can take on many possible values.

- Cartesian coordinates  $t, x, y, z$
- spherical coordinates  $t, r, \phi, \theta$
- etc.

Each of the above examples is the space  $V = \mathbb{R}^4$  (with some bounds for spherical coordinates).

## 2.3 Dual Vector Space

The dual vector space of  $V$  denoted  $V^*$  is also isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  and is built from the space of linear forms on  $V$ .

$$V^* = \{w : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid w(\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2) = \alpha w(v_1) + \beta w(v_2)\}$$

where  $v_1, v_2 \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

In Quantum Mechanics, the vectors are the bras and the elements of the dual space (called the co-vectors) are the kets.

We note,

$$\{f^i\}_{i=0,\dots,n}$$

is the basis for  $V^*$  is defined by the kronecker symbol  $\delta$ ,

$$f^j(e_j) = \delta^j_i$$

$$\delta^j_i = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

An element in  $V^*$  is  $w = w_i f^i$ .  $w_i$  are the components of the covector  $w$ . Note that for a **finite dimensional vector space**,

$$V^{**} = V$$

## 2.4 Bilinear Maps

Introduce a bilinear map  $B(v, w)$  where  $B : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where,

$$B(\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2, w) = \alpha B(v_1, w) + \beta B(v_2, w)$$

and the same for the other parameter  $w$ .

Examples include the inner product (otherwise known as the scale or dot product).

Bilinear forms are bilinear maps such that the following conditions are true:

- symmetric:  $B(v, w) = B(w, v)$
- non-degenerated:  $B(v, w) = 0 \quad \forall v \implies w = 0$

Playing with indices,

$$\begin{aligned} B(v, w) &= B(v^\alpha e_\alpha, w^\beta e_\beta) \\ &= v^\alpha B(e_\alpha, w^\beta e_\beta) \quad \text{By linearity} \\ &= v^\alpha w^\beta B(e_\alpha, e_\beta) \quad \text{By linearity} \end{aligned}$$

A bilinear map used in this way provides a way to eliminate the headache of complicated cross sums. Define new notation,

$$B(e_\alpha, e_\beta) \equiv g_{\alpha\beta}$$

Where  $g_{\alpha\beta}$  is a real number  $\mathbb{R}$  because  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are summed over.

$$B(v, w) = v^\alpha w^\beta g_{\alpha\beta} = v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} w^\beta = w^\beta g_{\alpha\beta} v^\alpha$$

All of the above terms are commutative because in the end, it represents a sum over all  $\alpha, \beta$ .

$$B(v, w) = \underbrace{v^0 w^0 g_{00} + \dots + v^2 w^3 g_{2,3} + \dots + v^n w^n g_{nn}}_{(n+1)^2 \text{ terms}}$$

## 2.5 Distance and Norms

To define a distance in a vector space, we can use norms. In this case,  $g_{\alpha\beta}$  would be called the metric. The Euclidean metric (with respect to a cartesian basis) for example would be,

$$g_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{cases} 1 & \alpha = \beta \\ 0 & \alpha \neq \beta \end{cases}$$

We can also choose to enforce that the basis be orthonormal,

$$B(e_i, e_j) = \begin{cases} \pm 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Note that the potential for a negative norm means the notion of positive definiteness is no longer guaranteed.

## 2.6 Signatures of Metrics

We call the signature of the metric the number of  $+1$ 's and  $-1$ 's appearing in  $g_{ij}$  when dealing with the orthonormal basis. Signature is denoted as:

$$(p, q) = \left( \underbrace{p}_{\text{positive}}, \underbrace{q}_{\text{negative}} \right)$$

For example,

- Euclidean metric:  $(n+1, 0)$
- Minkowski metric:  $(n, 1)$

Note the order of the signature is chosen to be  $(p, q)$  and not  $(q, p)$  by convention.

## 2.7 Co-vectors from Vectors

Note that  $v^i$  was called the vector and  $w_i$  was called the covector. This notation seems to indicate that conversion between  $V$  and  $V^*$  is notationally equivalent to raising and lowering the indices.

We call the following operation “Lowering the index using the metric”.

$$\underbrace{v^\alpha}_{\text{components of vector}} \mapsto g_{\alpha\beta} v^\beta = \underbrace{v_\alpha}_{\text{components of covector}}$$

In use,

$$B(v, w) = v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} w^\beta = \underbrace{v_\beta}_{\text{bra}} \underbrace{w^\beta}_{\text{ket}}$$

## 2.8 Linear Map on V to V

$$M : V \rightarrow V$$

Where  $M$  is a matrix. An the map is equivalent to  $v \rightarrow Mv \in V$ . Some definition,

$$(Mv)^\alpha = \underbrace{M^\alpha_\beta}_{\text{Matrix(components)}} v^\beta$$

Note that  $M^\alpha_\beta \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  fixed. Example: The identity matrix is denoted  $\delta^\alpha_\beta = \mathbb{I}$ .

## 2.9 Scalar Product on Dual Space

Introduce a scalar product for the co-vectors  $w$ .

$$w, t \in V^*$$

$$w \cdot t = w_\alpha h^{\alpha\beta} t_\beta$$

Where  $h^{\alpha\beta}$  is symmetric and non-degenerate.

So how is the scalar product between the dual and normal space related? Specifically how are  $g_{\alpha\beta}$  and  $h^{\alpha\beta}$  connected? Well,

$$\begin{aligned} v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} w^\beta &= v^\alpha w_\alpha \\ &= v_\gamma h^{\gamma\alpha} w_\alpha \\ &= v^\nu g_{\nu\gamma} h^{\gamma\alpha} w_\alpha \\ &= v^\nu g_{\nu\gamma} h^{\gamma\alpha} g_{\alpha\mu} w^\mu \end{aligned}$$

Since this is true for any  $v$  and  $w$  we require that,

$$h^{\gamma\alpha} g_{\alpha\mu} = \delta^\gamma_\mu$$

This means we say that the metric  $h$  is the inverse of the metric  $g$ . Convention on  $V^*$ : we denote the metric  $g^{\alpha\beta}$  (the indices are “up”).

## 2.10 Invariance of Scalar Product

Let us say we have a matrix  $M : v \rightarrow \tilde{v} = Mv, w \rightarrow \tilde{w} = Mw$  and that  $M$  preserves the scalar product.

$$\tilde{v} \cdot \tilde{w} = v \cdot w \quad \forall v, w$$

Examine,

$$M^\gamma_\alpha v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} M^\beta_\rho w^\rho = v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} w^\beta$$

Use commutativity and dummyness of indices to obtain,

$$v^\alpha M^\gamma_\alpha g_{\alpha\rho} M^\rho_\beta w^\beta = v^\alpha g_{\alpha\beta} w^\beta$$

Drop outer co-vectors  $v$  and  $w$  to get,

$$M^\gamma_\alpha g_{\alpha\rho} M^\rho_\beta = g_{\alpha\beta} \tag{2.1}$$

Note that this expression is consistent with the Einstein summation convention.

An example of an  $M$  on euclidean space could be a rotation matrix, or the identity.

When  $M$  satisfies 2.1, it is said to be orthogonal. If  $\det(M) = 1$  then we say that  $M$  is *special*.

### 2.11 Trace of M

What is the trace of  $M$ ?

$$\text{Tr}(M) = M^\alpha{}_\alpha = M^0{}_0 + \dots + M^n{}_n$$

This is just a notationally convention. It is the sum of the diagonal terms of  $M$ .

### 2.12 Tensor Product

A tensor product makes a linear map a multi-linear map.

**Theorem:**

Let  $E$  and  $F$  be 2 vector spaces (with finite dimensionality.)

$\exists$  a unique (!) set (up to isomorphism)  $E \otimes F$  such that if  $f$  is a bilinear map  $f : E \times F \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  then  $\exists$  a linear map  $f^* : E \otimes F \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f = f^* \circ \phi$  with

$$\begin{array}{ccc} E \times F & & \\ \phi \downarrow & \searrow f & \\ E \otimes F & \xrightarrow{f^*} & \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

Then we have,

$$\text{Lin}(E \otimes F, \mathbb{R}) \cong \text{Bin}(E \times F, \mathbb{R})$$

$$\text{Lin}(f^*, \mathbb{R}) \cong \text{Bin}(f, \mathbb{R})$$

where ‘ $\cong$ ’ is used to denote *isomorphic*.

**Properties:**

Basis for  $E \otimes F$  is  $e_\alpha \otimes g_\alpha$  where  $e_\alpha$  is the basis for  $E$  and  $g_\alpha$  is the basis for  $F$ . For  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $t, v \in E$ ,  $u, w \in F$ ,

- $\dim(E \otimes F) = \dim(E) \dim(F)$
- $a(v \otimes w) = (av) \otimes w = v \otimes (aw)$
- $(v + t) \otimes w = v \otimes w + t \otimes w$
- $v \otimes (w + u) = v \otimes w + v \otimes u$
- $a \otimes w = aw$
- $\mathbb{R} \otimes F = F$

Note that  $V^* \otimes V^* \cong \text{Bin}(V \times V, \mathbb{R})$ . To motivate this, let  $f^\alpha \otimes f^\beta$  be the basis for  $V^* \otimes V^*$ , and then a general element in  $V^* \otimes V^*$  is,

$$t = t_{\alpha\beta} f^\alpha \otimes f^\beta$$

Note that  $t_{\alpha\beta}$  is just a set of numbers. Then the tensor product is expanded as follows,

$$\begin{aligned} t(v \otimes w) &= t(v^\alpha e_\alpha \otimes w^\beta e_\beta) \\ &= t_{\gamma\delta} (f^\gamma \otimes f^\delta) (v^\alpha e_\alpha \otimes w^\beta e_\beta) \\ &= t_{\gamma\delta} v^\alpha w^\beta (f^\gamma \otimes f^\delta) (e_\alpha \otimes e_\beta) \quad \text{By linearity} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= t_{\gamma\delta} v^\alpha w^\beta f^\gamma(e_\alpha) f^\delta(e_\beta) \quad \text{By foiling and definition of } f \\
&= t_{\gamma\delta} v^\alpha w^\beta \delta^\gamma_\alpha \delta^\delta_\beta \\
&= t_{\gamma\delta} v^\gamma w^\beta \delta^\delta_\beta \quad \text{By sifting property of } \delta \\
&= t_{\gamma\delta} v^\gamma w^\delta \quad \text{By sifting property of } \delta \text{ again}
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $t(v \otimes w)$  is the tensor product  $V^* \otimes V^*$  and  $t_{\gamma\delta}$  is the components of the bilinear form, one can see the connection  $V^* \otimes V^* \cong \text{Bin}(V \times V, \mathbb{R})$ .

Tensors allow one to write bilinear maps as linear maps. What about multi-linear maps?

### Tensors:

A tensor of rank  $(k, l)$  is a multilinear map

$$\underbrace{V^* \times \cdots \times V^*}_k \times \underbrace{V \times \cdots \times V}_l \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

which transforms *well* under the change of basis of  $V$  and  $V^*$ .

Tensor	Rank
vectors	$(1, 0)$
co-vectors	$(0, 1)$
scalar	$(0, 0)$
metric	$(0, 2)$
inverse metric	$(2, 0)$
matrix	$(1, 1)$

The set of tensors of rank  $(k, l)$  is a vector space of dimension  $n^{k+l}$  (if  $V$  has dimension  $n$ ). Checking with the examples above motivates this fact.

Using the basis  $e_{\alpha_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{\alpha_k} \otimes f^{\beta_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes f^{\beta_l}$

$$T = T^{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_k}_{\beta_1 \beta_2 \cdots \beta_l} e_{\alpha_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes e_{\alpha_k} \otimes f^{\beta_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes f^{\beta_l}$$

For fixed  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  this is a real number in  $\mathbb{R}$ . These are the *components of the tensor*.

By abuse of notation we will call  $T^{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \cdots \alpha_k}_{\beta_1 \beta_2 \cdots \beta_l}$  the tensor.

We are talking about these transformations as change of basis of  $V$  and  $V^*$ . Examples:

- rotations (boost)
- change of coordinates from Cartesian to spherical, cylindrical, etc.

We can have a linear change of basis  $\tilde{x}^\mu = A^\mu_\nu x^\nu$ .

### Example:

Cartesian	Polar
$e_1 = \vec{i}$	$\tilde{e}_1 = e_r$
$e_2 = \vec{j}$	$\tilde{e}_2 = e_\theta$

### Example:

$$\tilde{e}_\alpha = \underbrace{\frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\alpha}}_{\text{Jacobian}} e_\nu = A^\nu_\alpha e_\nu$$

Note: *Up in the denominator means down on the original coordinates (LHS).*

For example,

$$\begin{aligned} x^1 = x & \quad \tilde{x}^1 = r \\ x^2 = y & \quad \tilde{x}^2 = \theta \end{aligned}$$

$$\tilde{e}_1 = e_r = \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \tilde{x}^1} e_1 + \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \tilde{x}^1} e_2 = \cos \theta e_1 + \sin \theta e_2$$

$$\tilde{e}_2 = e_\theta = \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \tilde{x}^2} e_1 + \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \tilde{x}^2} e_2 = -r \sin \theta e_1 + r \cos \theta e_2$$

**Vectors in multiple basis:**

$$v = v^\nu e_\nu = \tilde{v}^\nu \tilde{e}_\nu$$

With conversion of basis given by,

$$\tilde{e}_\alpha = A^\nu_{\alpha} e_\nu$$

Thus substituting in,

$$v^\nu e_\nu = \tilde{v}^\alpha A^\nu_{\alpha} e_\nu \quad \text{Drop } e_\nu$$

$$v^\nu = \tilde{v}^\alpha A^\nu_{\alpha}$$

But with  $A$  as a Jacobian,

$$\begin{aligned} v^\nu &= \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \tilde{x}^\alpha} \tilde{v}^\alpha \\ \tilde{v}^\alpha &= \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^\alpha}{\partial x^\nu} v^\nu \end{aligned}$$

But what about the dual space?

By definition,

$$\tilde{f}^\beta (\tilde{e}_\nu) = \delta^\beta_\nu = \tilde{f}^\beta (A^\alpha_{\nu} e_\alpha) = A^\alpha_{\nu} \tilde{f}^\beta (e_\alpha)$$

Let  $\tilde{f}^\beta (e_\alpha)$  be expressed as  $\tilde{f}^\beta = B^\beta_{\gamma} f^\gamma$

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{f}^\beta (\tilde{e}_\nu) &= A^\alpha_{\nu} B^\beta_{\gamma} f^\gamma (e_\alpha) \\ &= A^\alpha_{\nu} B^\beta_{\gamma} \delta^\gamma_\alpha \\ &= B^\beta_{\gamma} A^\gamma_{\nu} \\ &= \delta^\beta_{\nu} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $B$  is the inverse of  $A$ .

What does performing *well* mean? A tensor is performing well if its components transform as

$$T^{\nu_1 \nu_2 \dots \nu_k}_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_l} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\nu_1}}{\partial x^{\beta_1}} \dots \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\nu_k}}{\partial x^{\beta_k}} \frac{\partial x^{\gamma_1}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha_1}} \dots \frac{\partial x^{\gamma_l}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha_l}} T^{\beta_1 \beta_2 \dots \beta_k}_{\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \dots \gamma_l} = \tilde{T}^{\nu_1 \nu_2 \dots \nu_k}_{\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_l}$$

If you find something like  $T^\alpha_{\beta}$ , is it a tensor? **No! You must check if it transforms well.**

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} v^\alpha \quad \text{This is not a tensor.}$$

The derivative here prevents it from being well-formed. In the future we will define a derivative that allows a tensor to transform well.

### 2.13 Operations on Tensors

- Add (with matching rank):  $T^{\alpha_1\alpha_2}_{\beta_1\beta_2} + C^{\alpha_1\alpha_2}_{\beta_1\beta_2}$ .
- Contraction (partial trace):  $\mathcal{T}(k, k) \rightarrow \mathcal{T}(k-1, k-1)$ .
  - $T^{\alpha_1\cdots\alpha_i\cdots\alpha_k}_{\beta_1\cdots\beta_j\cdots\beta_l} \rightarrow T^{\alpha_1\cdots\alpha_i\cdots\alpha_k}_{\beta_1\cdots\alpha_j\cdots\beta_l}$
- “Outer” Product (Gluing together tensors)
  - $\mathcal{T}(k, l) \times \mathcal{T}(k', l') \rightarrow \mathcal{T}(k+k', l+l')$
  - $(T_1, T_2) \rightarrow T_1 T_2$
  - $T_1 T_2 \rightarrow T_1^{\nu_1\cdots\nu_k}_{\alpha_1\cdots\alpha_l} T_2^{\beta_1\cdots\beta_k}_{\gamma_1\cdots\gamma_l}$
  - **Example:**  $(v^\alpha, w_\beta) \rightarrow v^\alpha \otimes w_\beta = v^\alpha w_\beta$ . (In QM this is  $|\phi\rangle\langle\varphi|$ )

The metric  $g_{\alpha\beta}$  can change the rank of a tensor. Recall a metric is rank (0,2) is symmetric and is non-degenerate.

**Example:**

Changing from rank (1,0) to rank (0,1):

$$v^\alpha \rightarrow v_a = g_{\alpha\beta} v^\beta$$

Changing from rank (2,2) to rank (4,0):

$$C^{\alpha\beta}_{\gamma\delta} \rightarrow C_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = g_{\alpha\rho} g_{\beta\eta} C^{\rho\eta}_{\gamma\delta}$$

Changing from rank (2,2) to a different rank (2,2):

$$C^{\alpha\beta}_{\gamma\delta} \rightarrow C^\alpha_{\beta\gamma}{}^\delta = g_{\beta\rho} g^{\gamma\eta} C^{\alpha\rho}_{\eta\delta}$$

### 2.14 Facts About Tensors

**Order Matters:**

The order of indices that label a tensor is **very** important. It indicates the product space you are mapping *from* to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} C^\alpha_{\beta} : & \quad V^* \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ C_\alpha{}^\beta : & \quad V \times V^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ C^\beta_{\alpha} : & \quad \text{Nothing. Don't do this.} \end{aligned}$$

**Equality between tensors:**

As tensors, indices must match:

Position of indices is matching:  $C^\alpha_{\gamma}{}^\delta = T^\alpha_{\gamma}{}^\delta$

Position of indices is **not** matching:  $C^\alpha_{\gamma}{}^\delta \neq T^\alpha_{\gamma\delta}$

But for fixed  $\alpha, \gamma, \delta$ , one can abuse the notation a bit:

$$C^\alpha_{\gamma}{}^\delta = T^\alpha_{\gamma\delta} \quad \text{Try to avoid this.}$$

## 2.15 Outer Product and Contraction

### Example:

Outer Product:  $M^\alpha_\beta M^\gamma_\delta = C^\alpha_\beta{}^\gamma_\delta$

Contraction:  $M^\alpha_\beta M^\beta_\delta = C^\alpha_\beta{}^\beta_\delta = C^\alpha_\gamma$

### Example:

Outer product and contraction:  $C^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\gamma\delta} T^{\gamma\delta}{}_\rho = A^{\alpha\beta}{}_\rho$

This doesn't make sense:  $C^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\gamma\gamma} T^{\gamma\delta}{}_\rho = ??$

Note, when there is a “+” sign we can be “loose” with the indices. Here the dual indices **do not** indicate a summation. This acts as an abuse of notation, but is sometimes difficult to avoid.

$$C^{\alpha\gamma} T_\gamma{}^\delta + F_\gamma{}^\delta A^{\alpha\gamma}$$

## 2.16 Interpretation of Tensors

By looking at the indices, how can we interpret the physical meaning of the tensor object?

Tensor	Interpretation
$v^\nu$	vector
$v_\nu$	covector
$M^\alpha_\beta$	matrix ( $\alpha$ rows, $\beta$ columns)
$M^\alpha_\alpha$	contracted matrix (trace)
$M^{\alpha\gamma}_\delta$	matrix whose elements are vectors themselves ( $\cdot^\gamma_\delta$ is the matrix)
$M^{\alpha\gamma}_\delta$	vector with matrix components ( $M^\alpha$ is the vector)
$R^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\gamma\delta}$	matrix of matrices *

\*For example, if  $\dim V = 4$ ,  $R^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\gamma\delta}$  has  $4^4 = 256$  components. Note however, there can be many symmetries that reduce the number of unique components.

## 2.17 Symmetry of Tensor

We can always build a symmetric and antisymmetric part of a tensor  $T^{\alpha\beta}$ . Let's look at the case of 2 indices  $\alpha, \beta$ :

### Symmetric Part:

$$T_{(\alpha\beta)} = \frac{1}{2} (T_{\alpha\beta} + T_{\beta\alpha})$$

$$T_{(\alpha\beta)} = T_{(\beta\alpha)}$$

### Antisymmetric Part:

$$T_{[\alpha\beta]} = \frac{1}{2} (T_{\alpha\beta} - T_{\beta\alpha})$$

$$T_{[\alpha\beta]} = -T_{[\beta\alpha]}$$

Note that for all tensors  $T^{\alpha\beta} = T^{(\alpha\beta)} + T^{[\alpha\beta]}$ . This acts as the decomposition into odd and even symmetries of the tensor.

For more indices:

$$T^{(\alpha\beta)}{}_{[\gamma\delta]} = \frac{1}{4} (T^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\gamma\delta} + T^{\beta\alpha}{}_{\gamma\delta} - T^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\delta\gamma} - T^{\beta\alpha}{}_{\delta\gamma})$$

What does  $T^{(\alpha\beta\gamma)}$  mean? For that we will need a permutation group.

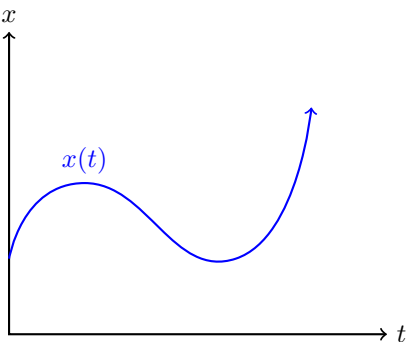
### 3 Physics Review

Moving away from tensors for a moment...

#### 3.1 Newtonian Physics

According to Galileo and Newton, we got the interpretation that both space and time is flat ( $\mathbb{R}^3$ ) and is absolute. More specifically, all clocks will have the same time if they are started/synced at some shared moment. It is built on cartesian coordinate system:  $(\vec{x}, t)$ . With this we say that an object is at position  $\vec{x}$  at time  $t$ . In this context, coordinates are *outcomes of measurements*. In General Relativity, the notion of coordinates can be quite different.

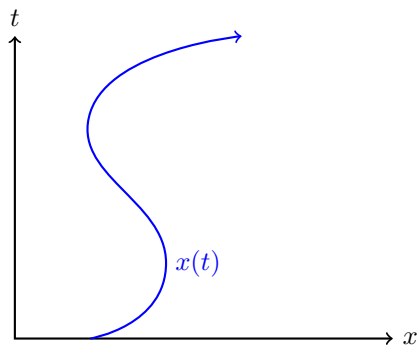
Consider a particle (2d spacetime):



Typically,  $x$  is drawn as the ordinate ( $y$ -axis) and  $t$  as the abscissa ( $x$ -axis).

#### Spacetime diagram:

In a spacetime diagram,  $t$  is drawn as the ordinate.



If we begin to use light to probe the position of objects, we are going to run into some surprising results. We will have to abandon Newtonian Physics and switch to the domain of Special Relativity.

##### 3.1.1 Newton's Dynamical Law & Inertial Observers

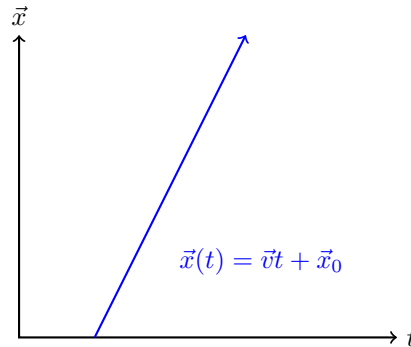
$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$$

Where  $\vec{F}$  is the total force applied to the system,  $\vec{a} = \ddot{\vec{x}} = \frac{d^2\vec{x}}{dt^2}$  and  $m$  is the inertial mass. For  $\vec{x}$  it is convenient to use the Cartesian coordinate system.

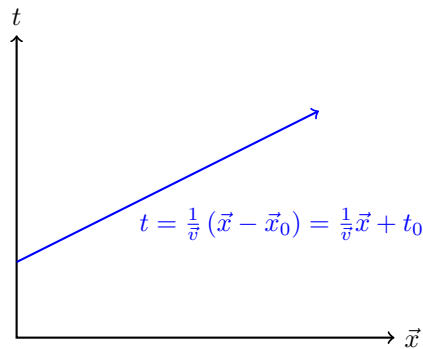
If  $\vec{F} = \vec{0}$  then the dynamics becomes  $\ddot{\vec{x}} = 0$  which yields solution,

$$\vec{x}(t) = \vec{v}t + \vec{x}_0$$

Where  $\vec{x}_0$  is the initial condition and  $\vec{v}$  is the velocity in the observer's frame. This solution describes a straight line.

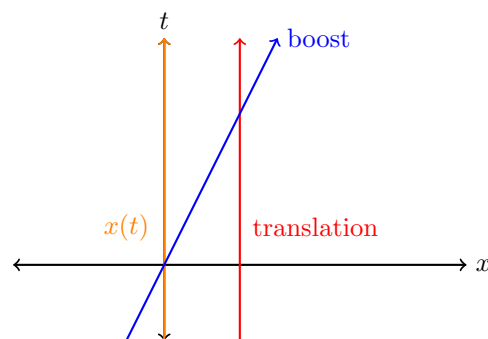


However, consider this solution in a spacetime diagram,



**Definition:**

The class of frames (observers) for which the the dynamics of a system is  $\ddot{\vec{x}} = \vec{0}$  are called an inertial observers.



Note that rotations are not visible in this diagram as there is only one 1 space dimension. Transformations that relate inertial observers:

- translation:  $\vec{x}(t) \rightarrow \vec{x}'(t) = \vec{x}(t) + \vec{a}$
- rotation:  $\vec{x}(t) \rightarrow \vec{x}'(t) = R \cdot \vec{x}$
- Galilean boost:  $\vec{x}(t) \rightarrow \vec{x}'(t) = -\vec{v}t + \vec{x}(t)$

For each of these transformations  $\ddot{x}' = \vec{0}$ . We will now prove the set of all these transformation of  $\vec{x}(t) \rightarrow \vec{x}'(t)$  form a group.

### Groups:

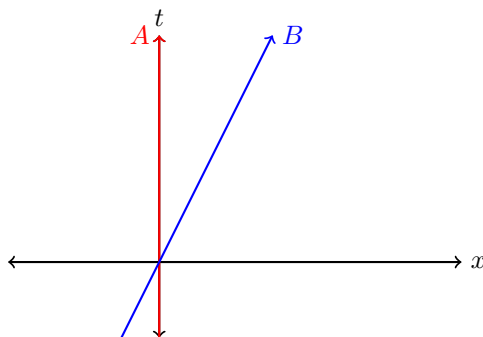
A Group is a set  $G$  equipped with an associated product  $(\cdot)$ , a unit element and an inverse.

- $g_1 \cdot g_2 = g \in G, g_i \in G$
- $g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3) = (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3$
- $g \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot g = g$
- $g \cdot g^{-1} = g^{-1} \cdot g = 1$
- In general,  $g_1 \cdot g_2 \neq g_2 \cdot g_1$ .
- An abelian group is one where  $g_1 \cdot g_2 = g_2 \cdot g_1$ .

Upon careful examinations of translations and rotation of space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , both translations and rotations form a group. What about Galilean boosts?

Consider person  $A$  (Alice) standing on the ground and person  $B$  (Bob) in a rocket traveling with velocity  $\vec{v}_1$  with respect to  $B$ . Give person  $B$  a ball in the rocket and let him/her kick it with velocity  $\vec{v}_2$  with respect to  $B$ . What is the velocity of the ball with respect to person  $A$ ? Switching between the perspectives of the system is equivalent to performing a Galilean Boost.

### Matrix Representation of a Group:



The boost  $B^\alpha_\gamma$  is given by,

$$B^\alpha_\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -v_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Person  $A$  (sitting on the ground) is given by,

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Their product is given by,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -v_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -v_1 t \\ -v_2 t \\ -v_3 t \end{bmatrix}$$

This is the trajectory of Alice with respect to Bob parametrized with time  $t$ . What about Bob's perspective under this linear map?

$$\begin{bmatrix} t \\ v_1 t \\ v_2 t \\ v_3 t \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -v_3 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ -v_1 t + v_1 t \\ -v_2 t + v_2 t \\ -v_3 t + v_3 t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus Galilean boosts form an abelian group. When we move to the regime of Special Relativity, we will see that boosts no longer form an abelian group.

### 3.2 The Relativity Principle

Two inertial observers moving with constant velocity cannot be distinguished by any physical experiment.

This is most easily observed when sitting on a train next to another train. When your train is moving, it is unclear whether or not your train is moving or the other one is.