

GENERAL RELATIVITY

Office hours
8.40 (20 mins before lecture)

Prof Claude Warnick (Printed notes by Prof Harvey Reall)

(↳ also look at Tony notes) (although slightly diff.)

General relativity is our best theory of gravitation on the largest scales.

It is:

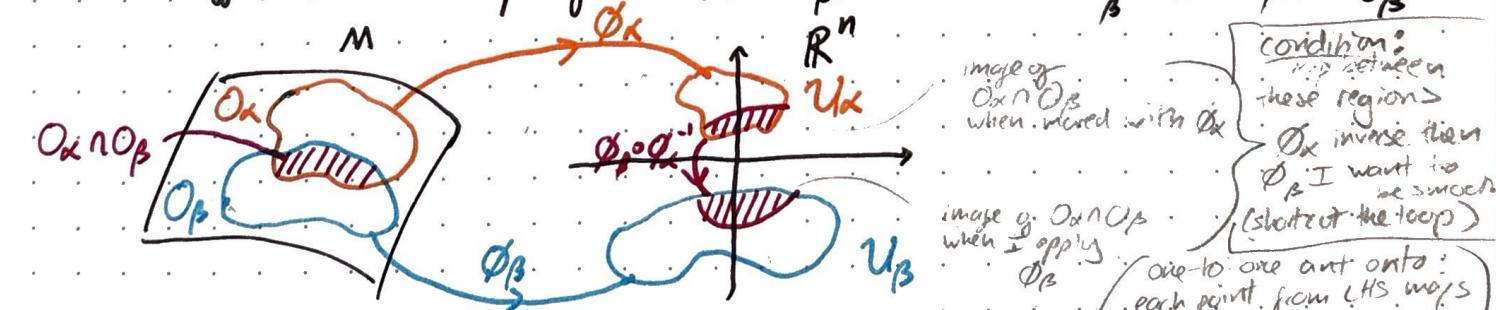
- CLASSICAL: No quantum effects
- GEOMETRICAL: Space + time are combined in a curved spacetime
- DYNAMICAL: In contrast to Newton's theory of gravity, Einstein's gravitational field has its own non-trivial dynamics

Differentiable Manifolds

The basic object of study in differential geometry is the (differentiable) manifold. This is an object which locally looks like \mathbb{R}^n and has enough structure to let us do calculus.

DEF: A differentiable manifold of dimension n is a set M , together with a collection of coordinate charts $(\Omega_\alpha, \phi_\alpha)$, where

- $\Omega_\alpha \subset M$ are subsets of M such that $\bigcup \Omega_\alpha = M$
- ϕ_α is a bijective map (one-to-one and onto) from Ω_α to U_α , an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n
- If $\Omega_\alpha \cap \Omega_\beta \neq \emptyset$, then $\phi_\beta \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}$ is a smooth (infinitely differentiable) map from $\phi_\alpha(\Omega_\alpha \cap \Omega_\beta) \subset U_\alpha$ to $\phi_\beta(\Omega_\alpha \cap \Omega_\beta) \subset U_\beta$



REMARKS:

- Could replace smooth with finite differentiability (e.g. k-times differentiable)
- The charts define a topology on the original manifold M . (don't worry too much about this)
- $\Omega_\alpha \subset M$ is open iff $\phi_\alpha(\Omega_\alpha \cap \Omega_\beta)$ is open in \mathbb{R}^n for all α . (think this is maybe just pointing of interest for those who have done topology)
- Every open subset of M is itself a manifold. (Restrict charts to it)

The collection $\{\Omega_\alpha, \phi_\alpha\}$ is called an atlas. Two atlases are compatible if their union is an atlas.

An atlas A is maximal if there exists no atlas B with $A \subsetneq B$ (subset but not equal to). Every atlas is contained to a maximal atlas (consider the union of all compatible atlases). We can assume without loss of generality that we work with a maximal atlas.

EXAMPLES

1. If $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is open, we can take $\Omega = U$, $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ $\phi: \Omega \rightarrow U$ $\{(U, \phi)\}$ is an atlas.

(2D sphere?)

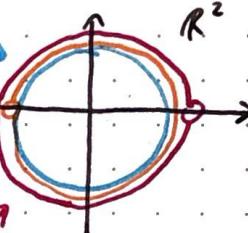
2. $S^1 = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |p| = 1\}$

if $p \in S^1 \setminus \{(-1, 0)\} = O_1$, there

is a unique $\theta_1 \in (-\pi, \pi)$ s.t.

$$p = (\cos \theta_1, \sin \theta_1)$$

open interval (excluding $\pi, -\pi$)



(the circles
are on
top of
each other)

deg. coordinate
chart using
angles around
the circle

If $p \in S^1 \setminus \{(1, 0)\} = O_2$, then there is a unique $\theta_2 \in (0, 2\pi)$ s.t. $p = (\cos \theta_2, \sin \theta_2)$

open interval
(minus/not including that point)

$$\phi_1: p \rightarrow \theta_1, \quad p \in O_1, \quad U_1 = (-\pi, \pi)$$

$$\phi_2: p \rightarrow \theta_2, \quad p \in O_2, \quad U_2 = (0, 2\pi)$$

exercise

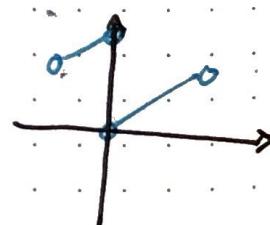
$$\phi_1(O_1 \cap O_2) = (-\pi, 0) \cup (0, \pi) \quad (\text{open set})$$

transitions
between
these sets

$$\phi_2 \circ \phi_1^{-1}(0) = \begin{cases} 0 & \theta \in (0, \pi) \\ 0+2\pi & \theta \in (-\pi, 0) \end{cases}$$

smooth where defined similarly for $\phi_1 \circ \phi_2^{-1}$
 S^1 is a manifold.

higher dimensional sphere

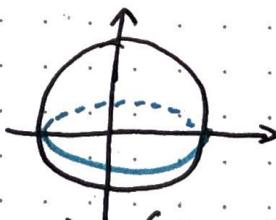


$$3. S^n = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \mid |p| = 1\}$$

Define charts by stereographic projection, if $\{e_1, \dots, e_{n+1}\}$ is a standard basis for \mathbb{R}^{n+1} and $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ the basis for \mathbb{R}^n , write

$$p = p^1 e_1 + \dots + p^{n+1} e_{n+1}$$

point or surface of sphere

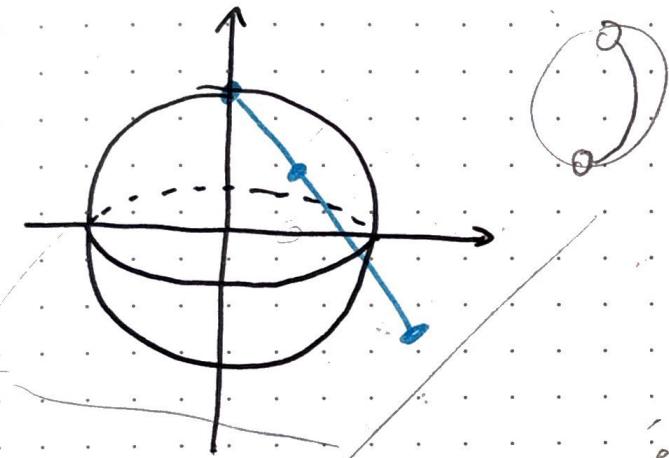
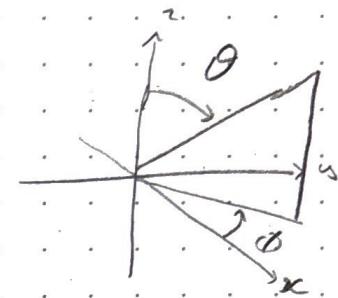


Set $O_1 = S^n \setminus \{E_{n+1}\}$ (minus sphere)

$$\varphi_1(p) = \frac{1}{1-p^{n+1}} (p^1 e_1 + \dots + p^n e_n)$$

$$O_2 = S^n \setminus \{-E_{n+1}\}$$

$$\varphi_2(p) = \frac{1}{1+p^{n+1}} (p^1 e_1 + \dots + p^n e_n)$$



1st map takes point p projects onto plane transverse to $n+1$ direction through the north pole
Other map does the same through the south pole

Claim $\varphi_1(O_1 \cap O_2) = \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$ and $\varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1}(x) = \frac{x}{|x|^2}$

smooth on $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}$

similar for $\varphi_1 \circ \varphi_2^{-1}$, S^n is an n -manifold

$$\text{and } \varphi_1(p) = 2e, \text{ then we see } \partial_x \circ \varphi_1^{-1}(x) = \frac{1-p^{n+1}}{1+p^{n+1}} x$$

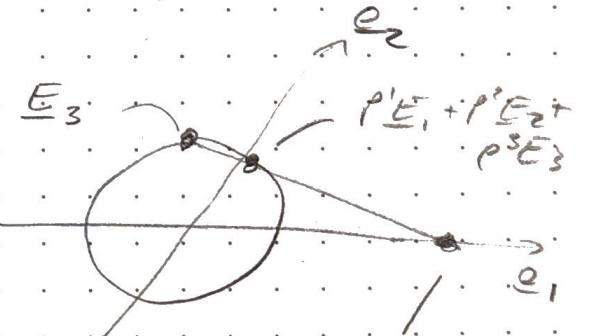
$$\text{then since point } x \text{ on } n\text{-sphere has unit norm} \rightarrow (p^1)^2 + \dots + (p^n)^2 = 1 - (p^{n+1})^2 \text{ and so } |x| = \sqrt{(p^1)^2 + (p^n)^2} = \frac{1-(p^{n+1})^2}{(1-p^{n+1})} \frac{x}{1-p^{n+1}}$$

$$\text{so } \varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1^{-1}(x) = \frac{x}{|x|^2}$$

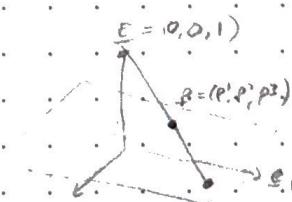
which is smooth

$$p = p^1 E_1 + p^2 E_2 + p^3 E_3$$

$$\varphi_1(p) = \frac{1}{1-p^3} (p^1 e_1 + p^2 e_2)$$



$$\frac{1}{1-p^3} (p^1 e_1 + p^2 e_2)$$



$$(x, y, z) = (0, 0, 1) + \lambda(p^1, p^2, p^3 - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{1-p^3} p^1, y = \frac{1}{1-p^3} p^2$$

$$\text{so } \varphi_1(p) = \frac{1}{1-p^3} (p^1 e_1 + p^2 e_2)$$

Lecture 2

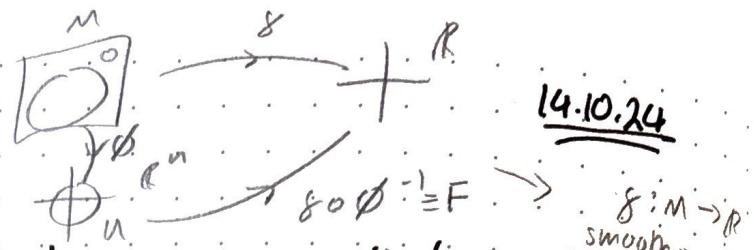
Smooth functions on manifolds

Suppose M, N are manifolds of dim n, n' respectively

let $f: M \rightarrow N$

Then let $p \in M$ and pick charts (U_α, ϕ_α) for M and (U_β, ϕ_β) for N with $p \in U_\alpha$, $f(p) \in U_\beta$. Then $\phi_\beta \circ f \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}: \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha) \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \phi_\beta(U_\beta) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n'}$ maps an open neighbourhood of $\phi_\alpha(p)$ in $U_\alpha \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ to

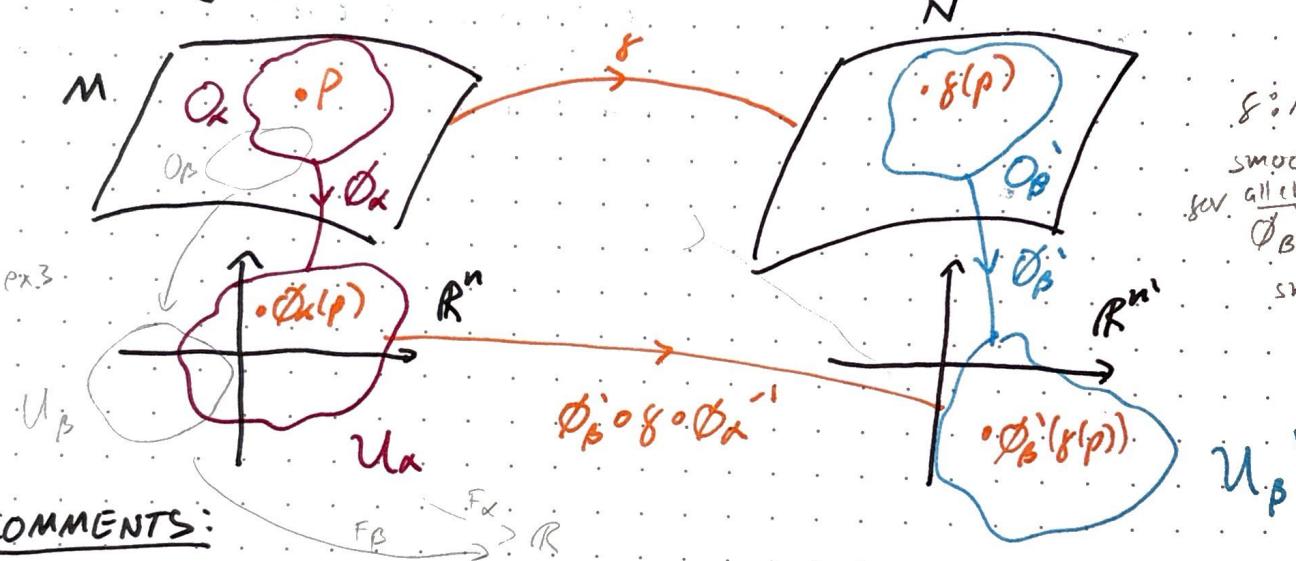
If this function is smooth for all possible choices of chart, we say $f: M \rightarrow N$ is smooth.



14.10.24

$f: M \rightarrow N$
smooth & for
all atlases

says $F = f \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}: U_\alpha \rightarrow U_\beta$
all in tangent space is smooth



$f: M \rightarrow N$
smooth &
for all choices of chart
 $\phi_\beta \circ f \circ \phi_\alpha$
smooth

COMMENTS:

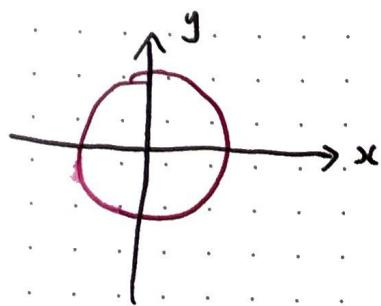
- A smooth map $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ which has a smooth inverse is called a diffeomorphism ($n = n'$)
- If $N = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{C}$ we sometimes call ψ a scalar field
- If $M = I \subset \mathbb{R}$ an open interval then $\psi: I \rightarrow N$ is a smooth curve in N
- If ψ is smooth in one atlas, it is smooth in all compatible atlases

EXAMPLES:

1. Recall $S^1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |x| = 1\}$
let $\psi(x, y) = x$ $\psi: S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Using previous charts

$$\psi \circ \phi_1^{-1}: (-\pi, \pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$



similarly $g \circ \phi_1^{-1}(\theta_1) = \cos \theta_1$

notes:
 ϕ is any other chart then
 $g \circ \phi^{-1} = g \circ \phi_1^{-1} \circ (\phi_1 \circ \phi^{-1})$
which is smooth since
we have shown $\phi_1 \circ \phi^{-1}$ is
smooth, & $\phi_1 \circ \phi^{-1}$ is
smooth by definition of
a manifold

$g \circ \phi_2^{-1} : (0, 2\pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$g \circ \phi_2^{-1}(\theta_2) = \cos \theta_2 \therefore g$ is smooth

2. If (O, ϕ) is a coordinate chart on M , write $\boxed{\phi}$

$$\phi(p) = (x^1(p), x^2(p), \dots, x^n(p)) \quad p \in O$$

Then $x^i(p)$ defines a map from O to \mathbb{R} . This is a smooth for each $i=1, \dots, n$. If (O', ϕ') is another overlapping coordinate chart then $x_i \circ \phi'^{-1}$ is the i th component of $\phi \circ (\phi')^{-1}$, hence smooth

it's convenient to def. ϕ by specifying F instead of ϕ .

3. We can define a smooth function chart-by-chart

For simplicity $N = \mathbb{R}$, let $\{(O_\alpha, \phi_\alpha)\}$ be an atlas on M . Define smooth functions $\boxed{F_\alpha : U_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}}$

and suppose $F_\alpha \circ \phi_\alpha = F_\beta \circ \phi_\beta$ on $O_\alpha \cap O_\beta$ for all α, β .

Then for $p \in M$ we can define $f(p) = F_\alpha \circ \phi_\alpha(p)$ where (O_α, ϕ_α) is any chart with $p \in O_\alpha$. f is smooth as

$$f \circ \phi_\beta^{-1} = F_\alpha \circ \phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}$$

smooth since we defined it to be smooth

smooth

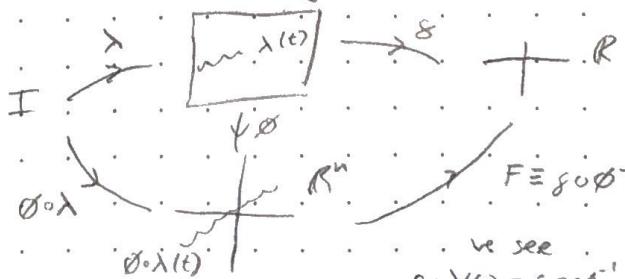
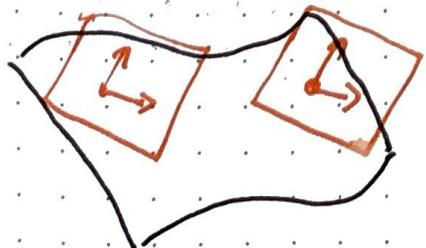
$\therefore f$ is smooth

$\phi_\alpha \circ \phi_\beta^{-1}$ smooth

In practice, often don't distinguish between f and its coordinate representations F_α . (i.e. will say $f(x)$ when we mean $F_\alpha(x)$)

CURVES AND VECTORS

For a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 we have a notion of 'tangent space' at a point consisting of all vectors tangent to the surface.



think: $\begin{cases} \lambda \text{ is a map } \lambda: I \rightarrow M \\ \lambda(t) \text{ is a curve in } M \\ \phi \text{ is a map } \phi: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \\ \phi(p) \text{ is a point in } \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$

we see $f \circ \lambda(t) = g \circ \phi^{-1} \circ \phi \circ \lambda(t)$
so we move out of the manifold to \mathbb{R}^n where we can do differentiation and eval. $\frac{d}{dt}(f(\lambda(t)))$

The tangent spaces are vector spaces (copies of \mathbb{R}^2). Different points have different tangent spaces.

In order to define the tangent space for a manifold, we first consider tangent vectors of a curve,

Recall $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ is a smooth map. is a smooth curve in M

is a open interval
in \mathbb{R} : $(0,1)$

\mathbb{R}
interval

(a smooth curve in a manifold M is a smooth function $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$) \rightarrow by smooth function
means the λ is in
smooth map from
 I to M , which
charts do

If $\lambda(t)$ is a smooth curve in \mathbb{R}^n and $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function. The chain rule gives

$$\frac{d}{dt}[f(\lambda(t))] = \underline{x}(t) \cdot \nabla f(\lambda(t))$$

where $\underline{x}(t) = \frac{d\lambda(t)}{dt}$ is the tangent vector to λ at t .

IDEA: treat as though equivalent?
this map takes
 $f \rightarrow \underline{x} \cdot \nabla f$

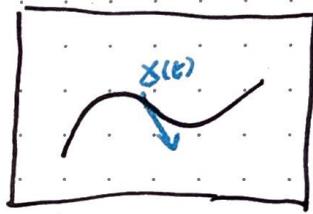
identifying $\underline{x}(t)$ with $\underline{x}(t) \cdot \nabla$

DEF Let $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ be a smooth curve with (wlog) $\lambda(0) = p$.

The tangent vector to λ at p is the linear map X_p from the space of smooth functions $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$X_p(f) := \left. \frac{d}{dt} f(\lambda(t)) \right|_{t=0}$$

\mathbb{R}^n



X_p is the vector $X_p(f)$
specifies how the vector acts
on a function, it is a map

We observe:

i) X_p is linear: $X_p(f + af) = X_pf + ax_pg$. f, g smooth, at t

ii) X_p satisfies Leibniz rule $X_p(fg) = (X_pf)g(p) + f(p)X_pg$

If $(0, \phi)$ is a chart $p \in O$, write $\phi(p) = (x^1(p), \dots, x^n(p))$

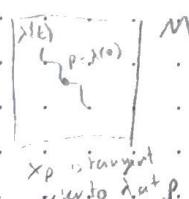
Let $F = f \circ \phi^{-1}$ and $x^i(t) = x^i(\lambda(t))$

Then $f \circ \lambda(t) = f \circ \phi^{-1} \circ \phi \circ \lambda(t) = F \circ x(t)$

and $\left. \frac{d}{dt}(f(\lambda(t))) \right|_{t=0} = \left. \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m(i)} \right|_{\phi(p)} \left. \frac{dx^m}{dt} \right|_{t=0}$ Einstein summation
convention: sum over
repeated $m=1, \dots, n$

depends on f, ϕ depends on λ, ϕ

(see preceding page)



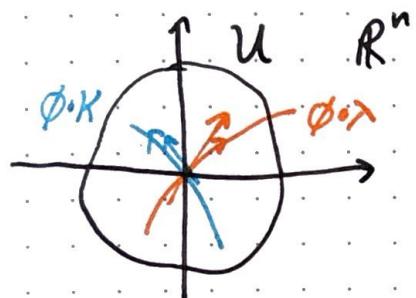
Lecture 3

16.10.24

$$(*) \quad X_p(\gamma) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}(\phi(p)) \cdot \frac{dx^m(t)}{dt}|_{t=0}$$

Prop the set of tangent vectors to curves at P forms a vector space $T_p M$ of dimension $n = \dim M$. We call $T_p M$ the tangent space to M at p (dim manifold)

pf/ Given X_p, Y_p tangent vectors, we need to show $\alpha X_p + \beta Y_p$ is a tangent vector for $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Let λ, K be smooth curves with $\lambda(0) = K(0) = p$ and whose tangent vectors at p are X_p, Y_p resp. Let $(0, \phi)$ be a chart with $p \in O$, $\phi(p) = 0$ (chart centered at p)



$$\text{Let } V(t) = \phi^{-1}[\alpha \phi(\lambda(t)) + \beta \phi(K(t))]$$

$$V(0) = \phi^{-1}(0) = p$$

From (*) we have that if Z_p is the tangent to V at p :

$$\begin{aligned} Z_p(V) &= \frac{d}{dt}(V(t))|_{t=0} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}|_0 \frac{d}{dt}[\alpha x^m(\lambda(t)) + \beta x^m(K(t))]|_{t=0} \\ &= \alpha \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}|_0 \frac{d}{dt}x^m(\lambda(t)) + \beta \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}|_0 \frac{d}{dt}x^m(K(t)) \\ &= \alpha X_p + \beta Y_p \end{aligned}$$

Thus $T_p M$ is a vector space.

To see $T_p M$ is n -dimensional consider the curves

$$\lambda_{\mu}(t) = \phi^{-1}(0, \dots, 0, t, 0, \dots, 0)$$

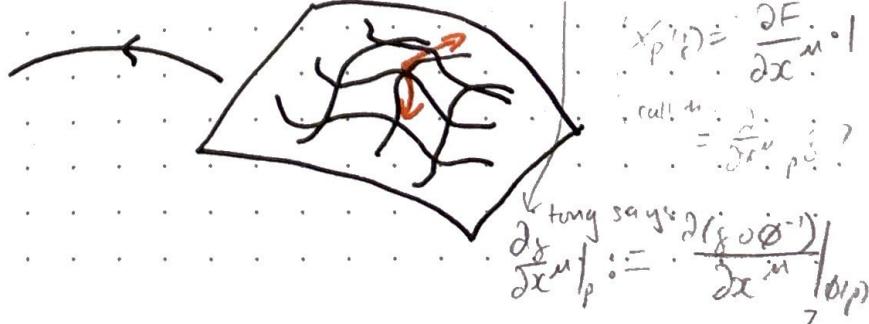
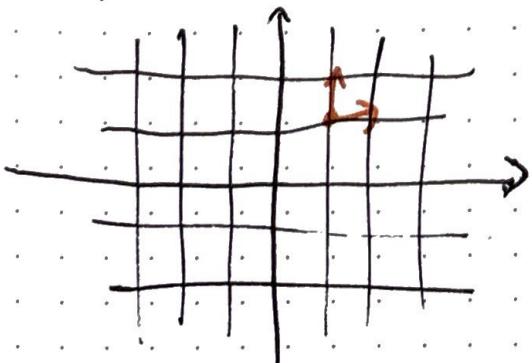
think of it like basis? vector in \mathbb{R}^n getting moved to M (see pic below)

We denote the tangent vector to λ_{μ} at p by $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p$. To see why, note that (*)

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p \delta = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}|_{\phi(p)=0}$$

$$F(\phi(p)) = \delta \circ \phi^{-1}(\phi(p)) \cdot \delta(p) = \delta(p)$$

approach from other end
tang.
don't know how to do it
8 dim M local
minimum + \mathbb{R}^n - F
to $\delta \circ \phi^{-1}$
on \mathbb{R}^n



The vectors $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p$ are linearly independent. Otherwise $\exists \alpha^m \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. not all zero s.t.

$$\alpha^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^m \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m} \Big|_0 = 0 \quad \forall F, \text{ setting } F = x^v \text{ gives } \alpha^v = 0$$

Further, $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p$ form a basis for $T_p M$, since if λ is any curve with tangent X_p at p (*) gives

$$X_p(f) = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m} \Big|_0 \frac{d}{dt} x^m(\lambda(t)) \Big|_{t=0} = X^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p f$$

where $X^m = \frac{d}{dt} x^m(\lambda(t)) \Big|_{t=0}$ are the components of X_p w.r.t. the basis $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p \right\}_{m=1}^n$ for $T_p M$ //

true for any f so $X_p = X^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p$ can express any vector $X_p \in T_p M$ as a linear combination of basis vectors $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p$

Notice that $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p \right\}_{m=1}^n$ depends on the coordinate chart ϕ .

Suppose we choose another chart at p . Write $\phi' = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$. Then, again centered we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= g \circ \phi^{-1}(x) = g \circ \phi'^{-1} \circ \phi'^{-1} \circ \phi^{-1}(x) \\ &= F'(x'(x)) \end{aligned}$$

so $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p f = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m} \Big|_{\phi(p)} = \left(\frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^m}\right)_{\phi(p)} \left(\frac{\partial F'}{\partial x^v}\right)_{\phi'(p)} = \left(\frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^m}\right)_{\phi(p)} \cdot \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v}\right)_p f$

We deduce that

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^m}\right)_{\phi(p)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v}\right)_p$$

Let X^m be components of X_p w.r.t. $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p \right\}_{m=1}^n$ and

X'^m be components of X_p w.r.t. $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p \right\}_{m=1}^n$

$$\text{i.e. } X_p = X^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}\right)_p = X'^m \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x'^m}\right)_p$$

$$= X^m \left(\frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^m}\right)_{\phi(p)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v}\right)_p$$

$$\text{so } x^m = \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^\nu} \right)_{\phi(p)} x^\nu$$

We do not have to choose a coordinate basis such as $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^\nu} \right)_p \right\}_{\mu=1}^n$ with respect to a general basis $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ for $T_p M$. We write $x_p = x^m e_\mu$ for $x^m \in \mathbb{R}$ are components w.r.t. $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$.

We always use summation convention: we always contract one upstairs and one downstairs index. The index on $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}$ counts as downstairs.

COVECTORS

Side note: how does this relate to x^ν ?
Any vector in
 V can be written as $x^\nu e_\nu$.

Recall that if V is a vector space over \mathbb{R} , the dual space V^* is the space of linear maps from V to \mathbb{R} . If V is n -dimensional so is V^* . Given a basis $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ for V , we define the dual basis $\{f^\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ for V^* by requiring $f^\mu(e_\nu) = \delta_\nu^\mu = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu = \nu \\ 0 & \text{if } \mu \neq \nu \end{cases}$

Matrix multiplication.
Row \times column $=$ scalar gives
read number, for usual basis
vector other dual is the transpose

If V is finite dimensional then $V^{**} = (V^*)^*$ is isomorphic to V : to an element X of V we associate the linear map $\Lambda_X: V^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ $\Lambda_X(w) = w(X)$ $w \in \mathbb{R}, V^*$

Def the dual space of $T_p M$ is denoted $T_p^* M$ and called the cotangent space to M at p . An element of $T_p^* M$ is a covector at p . If $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is a basis for $T_p M$ and $\{f^\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ the dual basis for $T_p^* M$, we can extend and expand a covector η as $\eta = \eta^\mu f^\mu$ for $\eta^\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ the components of η .

Notes: (bijective means there is a bijection between V^{**} and V I think)
the bijection (also the isomorphism) is $\phi: V \rightarrow V^{**}$, where $\phi(X)(w) = w(X)$ for all $w \in V^*$.

Lecture 4

18.10.24

- Recap:
- Defined $T_p M$: space of tangent vectors at p . basis $\{e_m\}_{m=1}^n$
 - Coord basis $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} \right)_p \right\}_{m=1}^n$
 - change of basis $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} \right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^m} \right)_{\phi(p)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} \right)_p$, $x'(x) = \phi' \circ \phi^{-1}(x)$
 - Dual space $T_p^* M$: space of covectors
 - linear maps η from $T_p M$ to \mathbb{R}
 - dual basis $\{g^m\}_{m=1}^n$ satisfying $g^m(e_v) = \delta^m_v$; $\eta = \eta^m g^m (\eta^m)$
- NOTE**
- * $\eta(e_v) = \eta_m g^m(e_v) = \eta_m \delta^m_v = \eta_v$
 - * $\eta(X) = \eta(X^m e_m) = X^m \eta(e_m) = X^m \eta_m$
- general action on X
- general components
zero except η_v component
contraction between components

DEF If $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function, define

$(df)_p \in T_p^* M$, the differential of f at p by

$$(df)_p(X) = X(f) \quad \text{for any } X \in T_p M$$

$(df)_p$ is sometimes also called the gradient of f at p .

* If f is constant $X(f) = 0 \Rightarrow (df)_p = 0$

* If (O, ϕ) is a coord chart with $p \in O$ and $\phi = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$ then we can set $f = x^m$ to find $(dx^m)_p$ now

$$(dx^m)_p \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} \right)_{\phi(p)} = \delta^m_v \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{use } (df)_p(x) \\ = x^m \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{renders } g^m \text{ basis of} \\ \text{cotangent space to } \\ \text{be dual to basis of} \\ \text{tangent space} \end{array}$$

Hence $\{(dx^m)_p\}_{m=1}^n$ is the dual basis to $\{\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} \right)_p\}_{m=1}^n$

In this basis we can compute

$$\text{components } [(df)_p]_m = (df)_p \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} \right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} \right)_p f = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m} \right)_{\phi(p)} \quad (F = f \circ \phi)$$

Justifying the language 'GRADIENT'

Exercise: show that if (O', ϕ') is another chart with $p \in O'$, then

$$(dx^m)_p = \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x'^v} \right)_{\phi'(p)} (dx'^v)_p, \quad x'(x') = \phi' \circ \phi^{-1}$$

and hence if η_m, η'_m are components w.r.t.

simple; just plug into
 $(dx^m)_p \eta_m = (dx'^v)_p \eta'_v$

$$\eta'_m = \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x'^v} \right)_{\phi'(p)} \eta_v$$

tangent space vectors tangent to manifold

rotant space less clear, vector annihilated by

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{show that each side gives the same for general vector } x \text{ (not just w.r.t. } x' \text{)} \\ &(dx^m)_p(x) = (dx^m)_p(x \circ (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})) \\ &\quad \text{using } \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} = \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x'^v} \right)_{\phi'(p)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^v} \\ &\quad \text{and } x'! \quad \text{law of the} \\ &\quad = (dx^m)_p(x \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^v} (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})) \\ &\quad = \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x'^v} (dx'^v)_p(x \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}) \end{aligned}$$

The (co)tangent bundle

TM is 2n dimensional if M is dim. n
because element of TM is a point in manifold
specified by a point and the subspace
aligned with a vector in the corresponding
tangent space $T_p M$

We can glue together the tangent spaces $T_p M$ as p varies to get a new 2n dimensional manifold TM , the tangent bundle. We get
(union over all points in the manifold) $TM = \bigcup_{p \in M} \{p\} \times T_p M$

TM is the collection of all the tangent spaces for all points in a manifold

The set of ordered pairs (p, x) , with $p \in M$, $x \in T_p M$. If $\{\phi_\alpha, \psi_\alpha\}$ is an atlas on M , we obtain an atlas for TM by setting

$$\phi_\alpha = \bigcup_{p \in \phi_\alpha} \{p\} \times T_p M$$

and

$$\phi_\alpha(p, x) = (\phi_\alpha(p), x^m) \in U_\alpha \times \mathbb{R}^n = U_\alpha$$

where

x^m are the components of x w.r.t. the coord bases of ϕ_α

Exercise: If $(0, \phi)$ and $(0, \phi')$ are two charts on M , show that on $U \cap U'$, if we write $\phi' \circ \phi^{-1}(x) = x'(t)$ then $\phi' \circ \phi^{-1}(x, x^m) = (x'(x), \left(\frac{\partial x'^m}{\partial x^v}\right)_x x^v)$ deduce TM is a manifold

A similar construction permits us to define the cotangent bundle

$$T^*M = \bigcup_{p \in M} \{p\} \times T_p^*M$$

Exercise: Show that the map $\pi: TM \rightarrow M$ which takes $(p, x) \mapsto p$ is smooth

[mostly forget the last 10 mins of what I was saying \Rightarrow bundle construction is not going to play much of a role in the rest of the course]

ABSTRACT INDEX NOTATION

We've used greek letters μ, ν etc. to label components of vectors (or covectors) w.r.t. the basis $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ (resp. $\{\delta_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$). Equations involving these quantities refer to the specific basis. E.g. if we write $x^\mu = \delta^\mu$ (no longer true if change to diff. basis). This says x only has one non-zero component in current basis. This won't be true in other bases. We know some equations hold in all bases, e.g.

$$\eta(x) = x^\mu \eta_\mu \quad \text{(abstract index promotes this being a statement to latin indices)}$$

To capture this, we can use abstract index notation (AIN). We denote a vector by X^α where the latin index α does not denote a component, rather it tells us X^α is a vector.

(if eqn true in all bases we're allowed to write it)
latin indices replacing greek ones

downstairs

Similarly we denote a covector η by η_a .
If an equation is true in all bases we can replace
greek indices by latin indices.

$$\text{i.e. } \eta(X) = X^a \eta_a = \eta_a X^a$$

$$\text{or } X(\eta) = X^a (\eta_a)_a$$

(we do this because
switch out as far as
in any basis this is true)

An equation in AIN can always be turned into an equation for components by picking a basis and changing $a \rightarrow \mu, b \rightarrow v$ etc.

TENSORS - some quantities not described by either a scalar or a vector, even in Newtonian physics e.g. momentum inertia - need higher rank object

In Newtonian physics, we know some quantities are described by higher rank objects (e.g. inertia tensor of a body).

DEF: A tensor of type (r,s) is a multilinear map

$$T: T_p^*(M) \times \dots \times T_p^*(M) \times T_p M \times \dots \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

r factors *s factors*

Multilinear means linear in each argument

Examples

① A tensor of type $(0,1)$ is a linear map $T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ i.e. a covector

② A tensor of type $(1,0)$ is a linear map $T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ i.e. an element $(T_p M)^* \cong T_p M$ a vector

③ We can define a $(1,1)$ tensor, δ , by $\delta(w, x) = w(x)$, $w \in T_p^* M, x \in T_p M$

If $\{e_\mu\}$ is a basis for $T_p M$ and $\{\eta^\mu\}$ the dual basis, the components of an (r,s) tensor T are

$$T^{M_1 \dots M_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s} := T(\eta^{M_1}, \dots, \eta^{M_r}, e_{v_1}, \dots, e_{v_s}) \quad (\text{by definition})$$

In AIN we denote T by $T^{a_1 \dots a_r}_{b_1 \dots b_s}$. Tensors at p form a vector space over \mathbb{R} of $\text{DIM } N^{r+s}$.

EXAMPLES

① consider δ above

$$\delta^M_V := \delta(g^M, e_V) = g^M(e_V) = \begin{cases} 1 & M=V \\ 0 & M \neq V \end{cases}$$

we can write δ as

δ^a_b in AIN

kronecker delta defines a $(1,1)$ tensor

② consider a $(2,1)$ tensor T , let $w, \eta \in T_p^* M, X \in T_p M$

$$\begin{aligned} T(w, \eta, X) &= T(w^M \eta^V, X^\sigma e_\sigma) \\ &= w^M \eta^V X^\sigma T(g^M, g^V, e_\sigma) \end{aligned}$$

because
multilinear

defining
components

$$\text{in AIN } T(w, \eta, X) = w^a \eta^b X^c T^{ab}_c$$

generalisation to higher ranks

basing on given covectors & vectors, a tensor type (r,s) will give me a real number

Lecture 5

21.10.24

CHANGE OF BASES

We've seen how components of X or η w.r.t. a coordinate basis ($\{x^m\}$, η^ν resp.) change under a change of coordinates.

We don't have to only consider coordinate bases.

Suppose $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ and $\{\tilde{e}_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ are two bases for $T_p M$ with dual bases $\{\delta_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ and $\{\tilde{\delta}_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$.

We can expand $g^{uv} = A^u_v g^v$ and $e_\mu = B^\nu_\mu \tilde{e}_\nu$ for some $A^u_v, B^\nu_\mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_\nu &= g^{uv} (e'_v) = A^u_\tau g^\tau (B^\sigma_\nu e_\sigma) \quad \text{as linear map} \\ &= A^u_\tau B^\sigma_\nu g^\tau (e_\sigma) = A^u_\tau B^\sigma_\nu \delta^\tau_\sigma \\ &= A^u_\sigma B^\sigma_\nu \quad \text{identity matrix} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $B^\mu_\nu = (A^{-1})^\mu_\nu$.

If $e_\mu = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})_p$ and $\tilde{e}_\mu = (\frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}^m})_p$

We've already seen $A^u_\nu = \left(\frac{\partial x^u}{\partial x^\nu}\right)_{\phi(p)}$, $B^\mu_\nu = \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial \tilde{x}^\nu}\right)_{\phi(p)}$

which indeed satisfy $A^u_\sigma B^\sigma_\nu = \delta^u_\nu$ by the chain rule.

A change of bases induces a transformation of tensor components.

E.g. if T is a $(1,1)$ -tensor

$$T^u_\nu = T(g^u, e_\nu)$$

$$T^u_\nu = T(g^u, e_\nu) = T(A^u_\sigma g^\sigma, (A^{-1})^\nu_\mu e_\mu)$$

$$= A^u_\sigma (A^{-1})^\nu_\mu T(g^\sigma, e_\mu) = A^u_\sigma (A^{-1})^\nu_\mu T^\sigma$$

(It's also easy to show components of $(2,1)$ -tensor transform as $T^{\alpha\nu} = A^{\alpha}_\sigma A^\nu_\tau (A^{-1})^\sigma_\mu T^{\mu\tau}$)

TENSOR OPERATIONS

Given an (r,s) -tensor, we can form an $(r-1, s-1)$ -tensor by contraction.

For simplicity assume T is a $(2,2)$ -tensor. Define a $(1,1)$ -tensor s by $S(w, X) = T(w, g^u, X, e_\mu)$ (*)

To see this is independent of the choice of basis:

$$T(w, g^u, X, e_\mu) = T(w, A^u_\sigma g^\sigma, X, (A^{-1})^\nu_\mu e_\nu)$$

$$= A^u_\sigma (A^{-1})^\nu_\mu T(w, g^\sigma, X, e_\nu)$$

$$= \delta^\nu_\sigma T(w, g^\sigma, X, e_\nu) = T(w, g^\nu, X, e_\nu) = S(w, X)$$

answering the question:
How do general
basis vectors transform?
i.e. see previous
results for coord. basis
transformations indeed
satisfying this?

answering the question:
How do general
basis vectors transform?
i.e. see previous
results for coord. basis
transformations indeed
satisfying this?

not also
easy to show
how components
wrt general curved
bases transform
(e.g. plug into $x^m \partial_{x^m} = \tilde{x}^\nu \partial_{\tilde{x}^\nu}$
as before)

regarding
 $x^m = A^m_\nu x^\nu$
 $\eta^m = (A^{-1})^\nu_m \eta^\nu$

The components
of (r,s) -vector
transform under an
arbitrary change
of basis.

i.e. show how
it factors into vector &
covector

So $(*)$ does not depend on the choice of basis. S and T have components related by

$$S_v^u = T_{v}^{uv}$$

In any basis in AIN we write $S_b^a = T^{ac} \cdot bc$

note to self:
def S (a (1,1)-tensor) as
a (r,s) -tensor w/ all
upstairs/downstairs
index contracted.
Main defn holds in all
bases we consider
 $S_{ab} = T_{ab}$

Generalise to contract any upstairs index with any downstairs index in a general (r,s) -tensor.

\rightarrow note e.g. $S_e^{bc} = T^{abc} \cdot de$ {there are
 $S_{ab}^{cd} = T_{abcd}$ ways to
contract $T^{abc} \cdot de$ }

Another way to make new tensors from old is to form the tensor product.

If S is a (p,q) -tensor and T is an (r,s) -tensor then $S \otimes T$ is a $(ptr, q+rs)$ -tensor:

?
interproduct

$$S \otimes T(w^1, \dots, w^p, n^1, \dots, n^r, x_1, \dots, x_q, y_1, \dots, y_s)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & n^i, w^i \in T_p M \\ & x_r, y_i \in T_q M \end{aligned}$$

equivalent definitions
= $S(w^1, \dots, w^p, x_1, \dots, x_q) T(n^1, \dots, n^r, y_1, \dots, y_s)$

In AIN $(S \otimes T)^{a_1, \dots, a_p, b_1, \dots, b_r}_{c_1, \dots, c_q, d_1, \dots, d_s} = S^{a_1, \dots, a_p}_{b_1, \dots, b_r} T^{b_1, \dots, b_r}_{c_1, \dots, c_q, d_1, \dots, d_s}$

Show that these are equivalent?
need to show that this def does not depend on choice of basis

Exercise: for any $(1,1)$ -tensor T , in a basis we have $T = T_v^u e_u \otimes f^v$

(\rightarrow show both sides act on (v, x) give the same thing?)

The final tensor operations we require are (anti-)symmetrisation

If T is a $(0,2)$ -tensor, we can define two new tensors

$$S(x, y) := \frac{1}{2} (T(x, y) + T(y, x))$$

$$A(x, y) := \frac{1}{2} (T(x, y) - T(y, x))$$

In AIN $S_{ab} = \frac{1}{2} (T_{ab} + T_{ba})$ we write

$$S_{ab} = T_{(ab)}$$

$$A_{ab} = \frac{1}{2} (T_{ab} - T_{ba})$$

$$A_{ab} = T_{[a,b]}$$

These operations can be applied to any pair of matching indices in a more general tensor

eq. $T^{a(bc)}_{\quad de} := \frac{1}{2} (T^{abc}_{\quad de} + T^{acb}_{\quad de})$ etc.

We can (anti-)symmetrise over more than two indices

* To symmetrise over n indices, sum over all permutations of the indices and divide by $n!$

* To anti-symmetrise over n indices sum over all permutations weighted by sign ($\text{even} = +$) and divide by $n!$

$$\text{e.g. } T^{(abc)} := \frac{1}{3!} (T^{abc} + T^{bca} + T^{cab} + T^{acb} + T^{cba} + T^{bac})$$

$$T^{[abc]} := \frac{1}{3!} (T^{abc} + T^{bca} + T^{cab} - T^{acb} - T^{cba} - T^{bac})$$

To exclude indices from (anti-)symmetrisation, use vertical lines

$$\text{e.g. } T^{(ablc)} = \frac{1}{2} (T^{abc} + T^{cba})$$

TENSOR BUNDLES

(not super relevant)

→ notes: exercise shorthand $T^{(ab)} X_{[ac|bd]} = 0$
 \Rightarrow attempt $T^{(ab)} X_{[ac|bd]} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{ac|bd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{bd|ac}$
 $\text{since } T^{(ab)} \text{ symmetric} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{ac|bd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{bd|ac}$
 $\text{then related dummy indices} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{ac|bd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{bd|ac} = 0$

The space of (r,s) -tensors at a point p is the vector space $(T^r_s)_p M$, these can be glued together to form the bundle of (r,s) -tensors

$$T^r_s M = \bigcup_{p \in M} \mathbb{R}^3 \times (T^r_s)_p M$$

If (O, ϕ) is a coordinate chart on M , set

$$O = \bigcup_{p \in O} \mathbb{R}^3 \times (T^r_s)_p M \subset T^r_s M$$

$$\hat{\phi}(p, s_p) = (\phi(p), s_{v_1, \dots, v_s})$$

components w.r.t.
coordinate basis

this stuff isn't
in notes

$T^r_s M$ is a manifold, with a natural smooth map $\pi: T^r_s M \rightarrow M$ such that $\pi(p, s_p) = p$.

singularities at stuff defined at a point but in physics we want to consider how stuff varies in spacetime \Rightarrow introduce concept of a field

An (r,s) -TENSOR FIELD is a smooth map $T: M \rightarrow T^r_s M$ such that $\pi \circ T = \text{id}$.

If (O, ϕ) is a coordinate chart on M then

$$\hat{\phi} \circ T \circ \phi^{-1}(x) = (x, T^{M_1, \dots, M_r}_{v_1, \dots, v_s}(x))$$

which is smooth provided the components $T^{M_1, \dots, M_r}_{v_1, \dots, v_s}(x)$ are smooth functions of x .

SPECIAL CASE If $T^r_s M = T^1_0 M \cong TM$

the tangent bundle \rightarrow the tangent spaces tied together as p varies

view field is map from M to TM !

The tensor field is called a vector field in a local coord. patch, if X is a vector field, we can write

$$X(p) = (p, X_p) \quad \text{with} \quad X_p = \underset{\text{smooth}}{x^m(x)} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} \right)_p$$

slight abuse
view x^m as m th component of X
we smooth by requiring vector field to be smooth on each coordinate patch

In particular $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}$ are always smooth (but only defined locally)

(tors) vector field is a smooth assignment of a tangent vector X_p to each point $p \in M$

$(X(p))(p) = X_p(p)$

so if you give it a field, it's pretty basic analysis

map $p \mapsto X(p)$

is smooth if y_i smooth for every i

gluing together the pieces of tensors at each point p it provides a tensor field is constructed by picking a member of

TM is a set of ordered pairs $(p, X_p) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times T_p M$
so vector field $X(p) = (p, X_p)$ maps $M \rightarrow TM$ (provided $X(M)$ is smooth)

view TM as the set of all tangent vectors to curves at p

tangent bundle is gluing together all these local spots as pieces

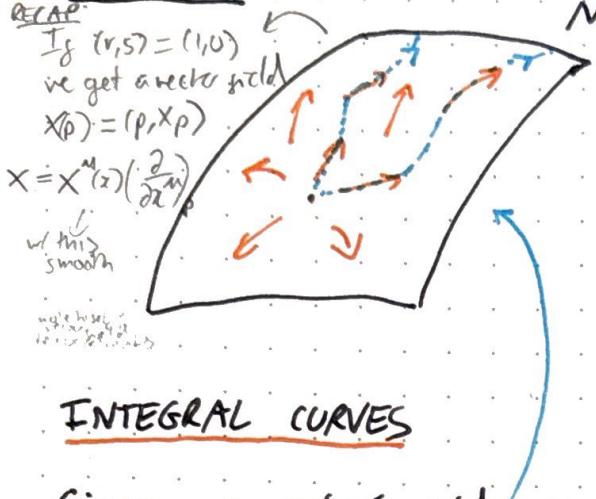
vector field picks out a member $T_p M$ for each position in a smooth manner

15

Lecture 6

assign to every point a velocity
like a fluid velocity field

23.10.24



INTEGRAL CURVES

Given a vector field X on M , we say a curve $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ is an integral curve of X if its tangent at every point is X . i.e. denote the tangent vector to λ at t by

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dt}(t) \text{ then, } (+) \frac{d\lambda}{dt}(t) = X_{\lambda(t)} \quad \forall t \in I$$

through each point p , an integral curve passes, unique up to extension / shift of the parameter.

To see this, pick a chart ϕ with $\phi = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$ and $\phi(p) = 0$. In this chart $(+)$ becomes

$$(*) \frac{dx^m}{dt}(t) = X^m(x(t))$$

$$x^m(t) = x^m(\lambda(t))$$

Assuming wlog that $\lambda(0) = p$ we see that get an initial condition $(**)$ $x^m(0) = 0$

Standard ODE theory gives that $(*)$ with $(**)$ has a solution unique up to extension.

COMMUTATORS

Suppose X and Y are two vector fields and $g: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is smooth then $X(Y(g))$ is a smooth fn. Is it of the form $K(g)$ for some vector field K ? No, because

$$\begin{aligned} X(Y(g)) &= X(gY(g)) + gY(g) = X(gY(g)) + X(gY(g)) \\ &= gX(Y(g)) + gX(Y(g)) + X(gY(g)) + X(gY(g)) \end{aligned}$$

So Leibniz doesn't hold. But if we consider

$$[X, Y](g) := X(Y(g)) - Y(X(g)) \text{ then Leibniz does hold.}$$

In fact $[X, Y]$ defines a vector field

We can build a new vector field
new vector field
16 the commutator $[X, Y]$
which acts on functions
as

the commutator
area the lie
bracket

or simpler to put
that $[X(g), Y(g)]$
will be negative
noncommutative
etc individually?

we can see
 $[X(g), Y(g)]$
obeys
closure rule
not unit
field because
Lie bracket

To see this use coordinates

$$\begin{aligned}
 [X, Y](g) &= X\left(Y^v \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^v}\right) - Y\left(X^u \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^u}\right) \\
 &= X^u \frac{\partial}{\partial x^u} \left(Y^v \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^v}\right) - Y^v \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} \left(X^u \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^u}\right) \\
 &\stackrel{\text{terms cancel}}{=} \cancel{X^u Y^v \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x^u \partial x^v}} - \cancel{Y^v X^u \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x^v \partial x^u}} + \cancel{X^u \frac{\partial Y^v}{\partial x^u} \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^v}} - \cancel{Y^v \frac{\partial X^u}{\partial x^v} \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^u}} \\
 &\stackrel{\text{equiv?}}{=} \left(X^u \frac{\partial Y^v}{\partial x^u} - Y^v \frac{\partial X^u}{\partial x^v}\right) \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^v} = [X, Y]^v \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^v}
 \end{aligned}$$

Where $[X, Y]^v = X^u \frac{\partial Y^v}{\partial x^u} - Y^v \frac{\partial X^u}{\partial x^v}$ are the components of the commutator.

Since g arbitrary: $[X, Y] = [X, Y]^v \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v}$, valid only in a coordinate basis. (i.e. can't write this in any)

METRIC TENSOR

We're familiar from Euclidean geometry (and special relativity) with the fact that the fundamental object when talking about distance and angles (time intervals/rapidity) is an inner product between vectors.

E.g. * $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + x_3 y_3$

\mathbb{R}^3 w/ Euclidean geometry

* $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = -x^0 y^0 + x^1 y^1 + x^2 y^2 + x^3 y^3$

\mathbb{R}^{3+1} w/ Minkowski geometry

DEF: A metric tensor at $p \in M$ is a $(0,2)$ -tensor g satisfying

- i) g is symmetric: $g(x, y) = g(y, x) \quad \forall x, y \in T_p M$ ($g_{ab} = g_{ba}$)
- ii) g is non-degenerate: $g(x, y) = 0$ for all $y \in T_p M$ iff $x = 0$

NOTATION: sometimes write $g(x, y) = \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle_g = x \cdot y$

By adapting the Gram-Schmidt algorithm we can always find a basis $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ for $T_p M$ such that

$$g(e_\mu, e_\nu) = \begin{cases} 0 & \mu \neq \nu \\ +1 \text{ or } -1 & \mu = \nu \end{cases} \quad \leftarrow \text{orthonormal basis}$$

i.e. $g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & 0 \\ -1 & \ddots & \\ 0 & \ddots & +1 \end{pmatrix}$

The number of -1 's and $+1$'s appearing does not depend on choice of basis (Sylvester's law of inertia) and is called the signature.

• If g has signature $++\dots+$ we say it is RIEMANNIAN

• If g has signature $-++\dots+$ we say it is LORENTZIAN

DEF: A Riemannian (resp. Lorentzian) manifold is a pair (M, g) where M is a manifold and g is a Riemannian (resp. Lorentzian) metric tensor field.

REMARKS: On a Riemannian manifold (notes: sometimes also called a spacetime) the norm of a vector $X \in T_p M$ is

$$\|X\| = \sqrt{g(X, X)}$$

* The angle between $X, Y \in T_p M$ is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{g(X, Y)}{\|X\| \|Y\|}$$

* The length of a curve $\lambda: (a, b) \rightarrow M$ is given by

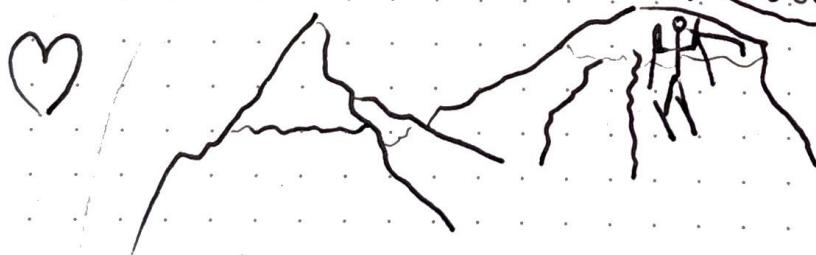
$$l(\lambda) = \int_a^b \left| \frac{d\lambda}{dt}(t) \right| dt$$

EXERCISE! Is $\tau: (c, d) \rightarrow (a, b)$ with $\frac{d\tau}{dt} > 0$, $\tau(c) = a$, $\tau(d) = b$ then $\tilde{\lambda} = \lambda \circ \tau: (c, d) \rightarrow M$ is a representation of λ

(reparametrize
curve does get
the same dist?)

show $l(\tilde{\lambda}) = l(\lambda)$

I'd rather
be skiing



is $l(\tilde{\lambda})$ length is
independent of parametrization

$$\text{attempt: } l(\lambda) = \int_a^b \left| \frac{d\lambda}{dt} \right| dt$$

$$l(\tilde{\lambda}) = \int_c^d \left| \frac{d\tilde{\lambda}}{dt} \right| dt$$

$$\text{use } \tilde{\lambda} = \lambda(\tau(t)) \Rightarrow l(\tilde{\lambda}) = \int_c^d \left| \frac{d\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{d\tau}{dt} \right| dt$$

$$= \int_a^b \left| \frac{d\lambda}{dt} \right| dt = l(\lambda) ??$$

So our def. of length is
indep. of parametrization

notes: can also show that $y^m = \frac{dt}{d\tau} x^m$ if y is tangent vector
attempt: components $y^m = \frac{dx^m}{d\tau}$, $x^m = \frac{dx^m}{dt}$

$$\Rightarrow y^m = \frac{dx^m}{dt} \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{dt}{d\tau} x^m ??$$

true for all bases so $m \neq a$??

Lecture 7

25.10.24

In a coordinate basis, $g = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \otimes dx^\nu$. We often write $dx^\mu dx^\nu := \delta_{\mu\nu} (dx^1 \otimes dx^2 + dx^2 \otimes dx^1)$ and by convention write $g = ds^2$ so that

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

Note to self:
the diagonal terms
are symmetric, and
so what's important
of this

Notes for 3D gravitation
 $d^3x = dx^1 dx^2 dx^3$

Examples:

i) \mathbb{R}^n with $g = ds^2 = (dx^1)^2 + (dx^2)^2 + \dots + (dx^n)^2$
 $= \delta_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

flat
(Euclidean example)

is called Euclidean space. Any chart covering \mathbb{R}^n in which the metric takes this form is called CARTESIAN.

ii) $\mathbb{R}^{1+3} = \{(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)\}$ with

$$g = ds^2 = -(dx^0)^2 + (dx^1)^2 + (dx^2)^2 + (dx^3)^2$$

$$= \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{cases} -1 & \mu = \nu = 0 \\ 1 & \mu = \nu \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Is Minkowski space. A coordinate chart covering \mathbb{R}^{1+3} in which the metric takes this form is an inertial frame

iii) On $S^2 = \{\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid |\underline{x}| = 1\}$ define a chart by

(curved example)

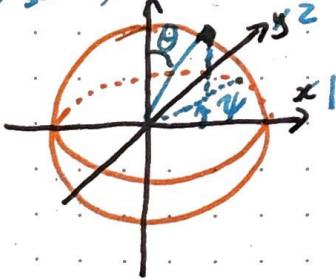
map an open square in \mathbb{R}^2 into S^2

$$\phi^{-1}: (0, \pi) \times (-\pi, \pi) \rightarrow S^2$$

$$(\theta, \psi) \mapsto (\sin \theta \cos \psi, \sin \theta \sin \psi, \cos \theta)$$

No? don't think so

other way



In this chart the round metric is

$$g = ds^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\psi^2$$

set of points where all satisfied (i.e.)



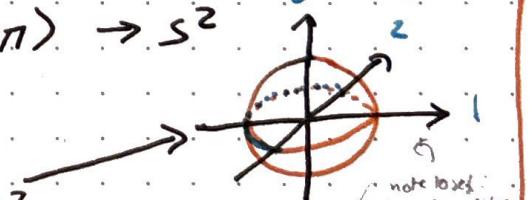
This covers $S^2 \setminus \{\underline{x} \in S^2 \mid x^3 = 0, x^1 \leq 0\}$

miss poles 2
cut out of
back of
sphere

To cover the rest let $\tilde{\phi}^{-1}: (0, \pi) \times (-\pi, \pi) \rightarrow S^2$

$$(\theta, \psi) \mapsto (-\sin \theta \cos \psi, \cos \theta, \sin \theta \sin \psi)$$

which covers $S^2 \setminus \{\underline{x} \in S^2 \mid x^3 = 0, x^1 \geq 0\}$



setting $g = d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\psi^2$ defines a metric on all of S^2 . (check this by finding coordinate transform from unprimed to primed then on region of overlap the metric defined in each set of coords is the same tensor)
("painful" to do this)

note loss of
imagine pitch
angle but related
axes $x^1 \rightarrow -x^3$
 $y \rightarrow z$

see next lecture?

(w/c upstairs indices transform w/ inv. transformation basis to down
indices)

Since g_{ab} is non-degenerate, it is invertible as a matrix in any basis. We can check the inverse defines a symmetric $(2,0)$ -tensor. $\boxed{g^{ab}}$ satisfying

$$g^{ab} g_{bc} = \delta^a_c$$

Example: In the θ coordinates of the S^2 example

$$g^{uv} = (1, \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta})$$

An important property of the metric is that it induces a canonical identification of $T_p M$ and $T_p^* M$.

- * Given $X^a \in T_p M$ we define a covector $g^{ab} X^a = X^b$
- * Given $\eta_a \in T_p^* M$ we define a vector $g^{ab} \eta_a = \eta_b$

In (\mathbb{R}^3, δ) Euclidean space we often do this without realising - (metric & its inverse are the identity in these coordinates: don't really distinguish between vectors & covectors)

More generally, this allows us to raise tensor indices with g^{ab} and lower with g_{ab} .

Example: Is $T^a{}_c$ is a $(2,1)$ -tensor then $T_a{}^b$ is the $(2,0)$ -tensor given by

$$T_a{}^b = g_{ad} g^{dc} T^d{}_e \quad \text{etc.}$$

LORENTZIAN SIGNATURE

→ irrelevant b/c this is what we assume spacetime to have (manifold not dim.)

In Lorentzian signature, indices $0, 1, \dots, n$, at any point P

In a Lorentzian manifold, we take basis indices u, v to 0 to n .
In a general manifold, we can find a basis e_μ such that $g(e_\mu, e_\nu) = \eta_{\mu\nu} \equiv \text{diag}(-1, 1, \dots, 1)$

This basis is not unique, if $e'_\mu = (A^{-1})^\nu{}_\mu e_\nu$ is another such basis then

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = g(e_\mu, e_\nu) = (A^{-1})^\sigma{}_\mu (A^{-1})^\tau{}_\nu \eta_{\sigma\tau} = (A^{-1})^\sigma{}_\mu (A^{-1})^\tau{}_\nu \eta_{\sigma\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow A^\mu{}_\kappa A^\nu{}_\rho \eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\kappa\rho}$$

which is the condition that $A^\mu{}_\nu$ is a LORENTZ TRANSFORMATION (cf. special relativity).

different orthonormal bases at p are related by Lorentz transformations

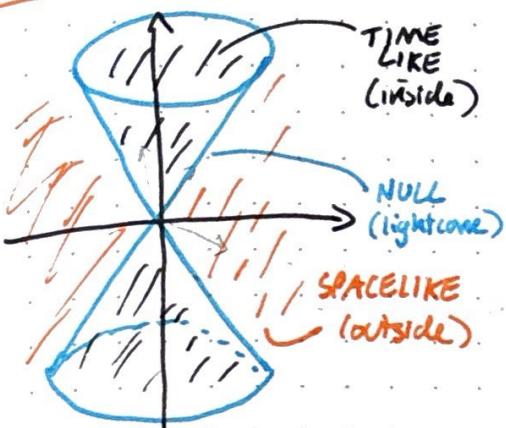
The tangent space at p has $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ as metric tensor (in this basis).

so has the structure of Minkowski space in particular

on a Lorentzian manifold (M, g)

DEF:

$X \in T_p M$ is **SPACELIKE**



NULL/LIGHTLIKE } IF }
TIMELIKE }

$$g(x, x) > 0$$

$$g(x, x) = 0$$

$$g(x, x) < 0$$

(every
whilst a vector has to be one or more
a curve can be more → start off one
become another)

notes:
a causal vector is note the causal vectors into two disconnected sets
timelike or null

A curve $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ in a Lorentzian manifold is spacelike or timelike or null if the tangent vector is everywhere spacelike or timelike or null resp.

A spacelike curve has a well-defined **LENGTH** given by the same formula as in Riemannian case.

For a timelike curve $\lambda: (a, b) \rightarrow M$, the relevant quantity is the **PROPER TIME**

$$\tau(\lambda) = \int_a^b -g_{ab} \frac{dx^a}{du} \frac{dx^b}{du} du \quad (u \text{ is parameter along curve})$$

If $g_{ab} \frac{dx^a}{du} \frac{dx^b}{du} = -1$ for all u , then λ is parametrised by proper time.

In this case we call the tangent vector the **4-VELOCITY** of λ .

$$u^a := \frac{dx^a}{du}$$

def: if proper time is used to parametrise a timelike curve, then the tangent vector to the curve is called the velocity of the curve in coordinate basis: $u^a = \frac{dx^a}{dt}$

Similarly $\star \rightarrow dx^a = g_{ab} u^b du$ which implies a velocity is a unit timelike vector: $g_{ab} u^a u^b = -1$.

CURVES OF EXTREMAL PROPER TIME

Suppose $\lambda: (0, 1) \rightarrow M$ is timelike, satisfies $\lambda(0) = p$, $\lambda(1) = q$, and extremises proper time among all such curves. This is a variational problem associated to (in a coordinate chart)

$$\tau[\lambda] = \int_0^1 G(x^a(u), \dot{x}^a(u)) du$$

$$\left(\star \equiv \frac{d}{du} \text{ here} \right)$$

$$\text{with } G(x^a(u), \dot{x}^a(u)) = \sqrt{-g_{ab}(x(u)) \dot{x}^a(u) \dot{x}^b(u)}$$

$$(†) \left[\frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial \dot{x}^a} \right) = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x^a} \right]$$

, we can compute:

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial \dot{x}^m} = -\frac{1}{G} g_{ab} \dot{x}^b, \quad \frac{\partial G}{\partial x^m} = -\frac{1}{2G} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m} (g_{ab}) \dot{x}^a \dot{x}^b = -\frac{1}{2G} g_{ab,m} \dot{x}^a \dot{x}^b$$

$$= g_{ab,m}$$

and with I have I can compute which gives rise to new solution \dot{x}^a is to give parametrisation

Lecture 8

28.10.24

CURVES OF EXTREMAL PROPER TIME cont.

(using hard arbitrary parametrisation)

- * Now fix parametrisation so curve is parametrised by time t . Doing this

$$\frac{dx^\mu}{dt} = \dot{x}^\mu \frac{du}{dt} \quad \text{and} \quad -1 = g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt}$$

chain rule

condition t is proper time along curve

alternatively
from definition
notes $\frac{du}{dt} = \sqrt{-g} \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} g^{\mu\nu}$
write this in components
 $(\frac{du}{dt})^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} = 1$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{du}{dt} = \sqrt{-g}$
so $\frac{d}{du} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \frac{d}{dt}$

- * Reduce $-1 = g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu (\frac{du}{dt})^2 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dt} = \sqrt{-g} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} \frac{d}{du} = \frac{d}{dt}$

- * Returning to (1) we find

$$\frac{d}{dt} (g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt}) = \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu,\mu} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt}$$

which we can solve

$$\Rightarrow g_{\mu\nu} \frac{d^2x^\nu}{dt^2} + g_{\nu,\rho} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\rho,\mu} \frac{dx^\sigma}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt} = 0$$

multiplied by $\frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt}$ symmetric in ν, ρ

- * Thus

$$\frac{d^2x^\nu}{dt^2} + \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\nu \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt} = 0 \quad (*)$$

the geodesic equation

- * where $\Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\nu := \frac{1}{2} g^{\nu\sigma} (g_{\mu\sigma,\rho} + g_{\rho\sigma,\mu} - g_{\sigma\mu,\rho})$ are the

CHRISTOFFEL SYMBOLS or g

Comments

NOTE: $\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\mu = \Gamma_{\rho\nu}^\mu$ (symmetric in downstairs indices)

$\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\mu$ are not tensor components (e.g. exercise 2.1)

• We can solve (*) with standard ODE theory, solutions are called **GEODESICS**

• The same equation governs curves of extremal length in a Riemannian manifold (or spacelike curves in a Lorentzian manifold) parametrised by arc length

EXERCISE 1 Show that (*) can be obtained as the Euler-Lagrange equation for the Lagrangian

$$L = -g_{\mu\nu} (x(t)) \dot{x}^\mu(t) \dot{x}^\nu(t)$$

surprisingly
reverses!
derivative
prefer!!

surprisingly
reverses!!
surprisingly good!!
eq / christoffel symbols

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial x^\mu} = 0$$

an easier way to derive the geodesic eqn
or christoffel symbols

EXAMPLES:

(i.e. the components of the metric are constant)

1) In Minkowski space in an inertial frame $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}$. so

$$\Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\nu = 0 \quad \text{and geodesic equation is}$$

$$\frac{d^2x^\mu}{dt^2} = 0$$

trying to solve \rightarrow
solutions are straight lines

notes: in minkowski spacetime, timelike curves of extremal proper time are straight lines.
it can be shown that these lines maximize the proper time between two points in a rigid spacetime. this is only true locally.

Only in the neighborhood of P

$$\text{given by } (t, r, \theta, \varphi)$$

2) The Schwarzschild metric in Schwarzschild coords. is a metric on $M = \mathbb{R}_t \times (2m, \infty)_r \times S^2_{\theta, \varphi}$

$$ds^2 = -f dt^2 + \frac{dr^2}{f} + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\varphi^2)$$

$$f = 1 - \frac{2m}{r} \quad \text{then}$$

$$L = f \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{dr}{d\tau} \right)^2 - r^2 \left(\frac{d\theta}{d\tau} \right)^2 - r^2 \sin^2\theta \left(\frac{d\varphi}{d\tau} \right)^2$$

(emphasize
 t is just a
(timelike) coordinate
in spacetime,

t is parameter
around curve)

note to self:
(4 coords, one for each $x^i = t, r, \theta, \varphi$, consider t :

$$E-L \text{ equation for } t(\tau) \text{ is } \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{t}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial t} \quad t' = \frac{dt}{d\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(f \frac{dt}{d\tau} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f \frac{d^2t}{d\tau^2} + \frac{df}{dr} \left(\frac{dr}{d\tau} \right) \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau} \right) = 0$$

$$x^M = (t, r, \theta, \varphi)$$

$$\text{Compare to (*) to see } \Gamma_{1,0}^0 = \Gamma_{0,1}^0 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8} \frac{df}{dr}$$

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^0 = 0 \quad \text{otherwise}$$

Rest of symbols can be found from other EL equations

(done on examples sheet)
just consider each of the 4 el eqs. and read off the Γ symbols.
remember symmetry $\Gamma_{ij}^{kl} = \Gamma_{ji}^{lk}$ gives factor 2
and all symbols not seen are zero. (remember f is g^{11}).

note: story his
often more
elegant to use
using formula using
metric ideas
explicit computation

COVARIANT DERIVATIVE

For a function $g: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we know that $\frac{dx^m}{dx^m}$ are components of a covector $(dg)_m$.

For a vector field, we can't just differentiate components

b/c partial derivative
lousy & it does not
give another tensor
field

EXERCISE: show that if V is a vector field then

$T_v^m := \frac{dV^m}{dx^v}$ are not components of a $(1,1)$ -tensor

(notes here $\frac{dV^m}{dx^m}$?) \rightarrow components of tensor transfrom as $T_v^m = \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^v} T_0^0$

components of vector transform as $V_m(x) = \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^v} V^v(x)$

so part $T_v^m = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} V^m$

$$[T_v^m = \frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^v} \frac{\partial x^v}{\partial x^v} T_0^0 + \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^v} \right) V^v]$$

exterior term:
does not transform
as tensor!

(it fails)

DEF:

A covariant derivative ∇ on a manifold M is a map sending x, y smooth vector fields to a vector field $\nabla_x y$ satisfying $(x, y, z \text{ smooth } v \text{ yields } , \text{ e.g. functions})$

want it to satisfy

$$i) \nabla_{gX+gY} Z = g\nabla_X Z + g\nabla_Y Z$$

$$ii) \nabla_X (Y+Z) = \nabla_X Y + \nabla_X Z$$

$$iii) \nabla_X (fY) = f\nabla_X Y + (\nabla_X f)Y \quad \text{where } \nabla_X f := X(f)$$

note below: $T_p M \rightarrow T_p M$ is a linear map
equivalently we can think it as
linear map $T_p M \rightarrow T_p M$
i.e. $v \mapsto T_p M(v)$

note below, i.e. ∇ is a covariant derivative, so it is a partial derivative
 $\nabla_X f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial X}$

Leibniz rule

Note

i) implies that $\nabla Y : X \mapsto \nabla_X Y$ is a linear map of $T_p M$ to itself, so defines a $(1,1)$ -tensor, the COVARIANT DERIVATIVE of Y ≡ AFFINE CONNECTION

In AIN $(\nabla Y)^a_b = \nabla_b Y^a$ or $Y^a_{;b}$

notation: ∇Y shorthand for $\nabla e_v Y$
and $\nabla_X Y^v$ shorthand for $(\nabla Y)^v$
tensor says the semi-colon notation is stupid (stagger)

DEF:

In a basis e_μ the CONNECTION COMPONENTS $\Gamma_{\nu\mu}^\lambda$ are defined by

$$\nabla_{e_\mu} e_\nu = \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^\lambda e_\lambda$$

These determine ∇

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_X Y &= \nabla_{X^\mu e_\mu} (Y^\nu e_\nu) \stackrel{(i)}{=} X^\mu \nabla_{e_\mu} (Y^\nu e_\nu) = X^\mu (e_\mu(Y^\nu)) e_\nu \\ &\quad + Y^\sigma \nabla_{e_\mu} e_\sigma \\ &= (X^\mu e_\mu(Y^\nu) + \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu Y^\sigma X^\mu) e_\nu \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$(\nabla_X Y)^\nu = X^\mu (e_\mu(Y^\nu) + \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu Y^\sigma)$$

the ν th component of ∇Y

$$\text{and } Y^\nu_{;\mu} = e_\mu(Y^\nu) + \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu Y^\sigma$$

$$\text{In a coord basis } e_\mu = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \text{ then } Y^\nu_{;\mu} = Y^\nu_{,\mu} + \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu Y^\sigma$$

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\sigma \text{ are not components of a tensor}$$

E.g. for η a tensor field we define $(\nabla_X \eta)(Y) := \nabla_X (\eta(Y)) - \eta(\nabla_X Y)$

$$\begin{aligned} (\nabla_X \eta)(Y) &= X^\mu e_\mu (\eta_\sigma Y^\sigma) - \eta_\sigma (\nabla_X Y)^\sigma \\ &= X^\mu e_\mu (\eta_\sigma) Y^\sigma + X^\mu \eta_\sigma e_\mu (Y^\sigma) - \eta_\sigma (X^\nu e_\nu (Y^\sigma)) + X^\nu \eta_\sigma Y^\nu \\ &= (e_\mu (\eta_\sigma) - \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu \eta_\nu) X^\mu Y^\sigma \quad \therefore \nabla \eta \text{ is a tensor-}(0,2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla_\mu \eta_\sigma = e_\mu (\eta_\sigma) - \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\nu \eta_\nu =: \eta_{\sigma;\mu}$$

in coord basis

$$\eta_{\sigma;\mu} = \eta_{\sigma,\mu} - \eta_\sigma \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^\nu$$

can use Leibniz rule to find the basis components of ∇T for a general tensor

X^M was called
not status since there transposed
basis vectors under (longitude)
basis (status don't) so X^M ≠ X^m

useful
expressions
we have shown
in words
(easy not rigorous check is to take
inner product with basis vectors).

30.10.24

Lecture 9

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_v X^M &= X^M_{;v} = X^M_{,\nu} + \Gamma^M_{\sigma \nu} X^\sigma \\ \nabla_v w_m &= w_m_{;\nu} = w_{m,\nu} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\mu \nu} w_\sigma \end{aligned}$$

not in words

$$T^{M_1 \dots M_r} = T^{M_1 \dots M_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s, p} + \Gamma^M_{\sigma \nu} T^{\sigma M_2 \dots M_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s} + \dots$$

Show for (1,1) tensor as $T(w, X) = w_\mu X^\nu T^M_\nu$

\rightarrow we want to find $T^M_{v,p} = \nabla_p T^M_\nu$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(1) consider tensorize: } T(w, X) &= (\partial_\mu w_\nu) X^\nu T^M_\nu + w_\mu (\partial_\nu X^\nu) T^M_\nu + w_\mu X^\nu (\partial_\nu T^M_\nu) \\ &\rightarrow \text{plug in our expressions for } \nabla_p w_\nu \text{ and } \nabla_p X^\nu \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(2) consider scalar density: } T(w, X) &= (\partial_\mu w_\nu) X^\nu T^M_\nu + w_\mu (\partial_\nu X^\nu) T^M_\nu + w_\mu X^\nu (\partial_\nu T^M_\nu) \\ &\text{since } \nabla_p T = \nabla_p (\partial_\mu w_\nu X^\nu T^M_\nu), \text{ remember contracting (1,1) tensors:} \\ &\text{vector & covector gives scalar (or less rigorously)} \\ &\text{so this is just covariant derivative of a scalar = normal deriv.} \\ &= g_{\mu\nu} \cdot \partial_\mu (w_\nu X^\nu T^M_\nu) = (\partial_\mu w_\nu) X^\nu T^M_\nu + w_\mu (\partial_\nu X^\nu T^M_\nu + g_{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu T^M_\nu) \text{ (in words)} \end{aligned}$$

(3) compare both expressions, cancel terms & simplifying \Rightarrow

$$\nabla_p T^M_\nu = T^M_{v,p} = T^M_{v,p} + \Gamma^M_{\sigma \nu} T^{\sigma M}_\nu - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu \sigma} T^M_\nu //$$

• Remark If T^a_b is a (1,1) tensor, then $T^a_{b;c}$ is a (1,2) tensor and we can take further covariant derivatives.

$$(T^a_{b;c})_{;d} = T^a_{b;cd} = \nabla_d \nabla_c T^a_b$$

In general $T^a_{b;cd} \neq T^a_{b;dc}$

Γ (newest index to be taken)

no this asterisk
semincolon but means
take covariant derivative
 ∇ twice

If f is a function $f_{;a} = (df)_a$ is a covector. In a coordinate basis

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{im} = \delta_{,m} &\Rightarrow \delta_{imv} = \delta_{,mv} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{mu} \delta_{,i\sigma} \\ &\Rightarrow \delta_{i\sigma} = - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{[m u]} \delta_{,i\sigma} \end{aligned}$$

use this $\delta_{imv} = \delta_{im} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{mu} \delta_{,i\sigma}$

plug in expression for $w_m v$ with $w = df$

components of (df)

reminder $(df)_p(x) = x(p)$?
and so $\nabla_x f := x(f) = (df)_p(x)$?
 $\nabla f = x(f) = X^M \partial_M f = X^M (\partial_M f)$ in words \rightarrow but saw before
 $\partial_M f = [df]_M$
so $X^M \nabla f = X^M [df]_M$
 $\Rightarrow \nabla f = [df]_M$
also $= \partial_M f$

DEF: A connection (= covariant derivative) is torsion free or symmetric if $\nabla_a \nabla_b f - \nabla_b \nabla_a f = 0$

For any function f in a coordinate basis this is equivalent to

$$\Gamma^p_{\sigma \mu \nu} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \Gamma^p_{\sigma \nu} = \Gamma^p_{\nu \sigma}$$

nesting here
we will work in
symmetric
order so
defined
to be in
worded
order at
bottom right

LEMMA: If ∇ is torsion free, then for X, Y vector fields

$$\nabla_X Y - \nabla_Y X = [X, Y]$$

use result 1)
from earlier

$$\begin{aligned} (\nabla_X Y - \nabla_Y X)^M &= X^\sigma Y^M - Y^\sigma X^M \\ &= X^\sigma (Y^M_{,\sigma} + \Gamma^M_{\rho \sigma} Y^\rho) - Y^\sigma (X^M_{,\sigma} + \Gamma^M_{\rho \sigma} X^\rho) \\ &= [X, Y]^M + 2X^\sigma Y^\rho \Gamma^M_{\rho \sigma} = [X, Y]^M \end{aligned}$$

This is a tensor equation so if true in one basis, true in all \square

Note: Even if ∇ is torsion free, $\nabla_a \nabla_b X^c \neq \nabla_b \nabla_a X^c$ in general.

THE LEVI-CIVITA CONNECTION

For a manifold with metric, there is a preferred connection
 FTM (fundamental theorem of Riemannian geometry)

If (M, g) is a manifold with a metric, there is a unique torsion free connection ∇ satisfying $\nabla g = 0$. This is called the Levi-Civita connection.

PROOF: Suppose such a connection exists. By Leibniz rule, if X, Y, Z are smooth vector fields

$$* X(g(Y, Z)) = \nabla_X(g(Y, Z)) = (\nabla_X g)(Y, Z) + g(\nabla_X Y, Z) + g(Y, \nabla_X Z)$$

$$X(g(Y, Z)) = \underline{g(\nabla_X Y, Z)} + \underline{g(Y, \nabla_X Z)} \quad a)$$

$$Y(g(Z, X)) = \underline{g(\nabla_Y Z, X)} + \underline{g(Z, \nabla_Y X)} \quad b)$$

$$Z(g(X, Y)) = \underline{g(\nabla_Z X, Y)} + \underline{g(X, \nabla_Z Y)} \quad c)$$

* $a) + b) - c)$:

$$X(g(Y, Z)) + Y(g(Z, X)) - Z(g(X, Y)) = \underline{g(\nabla_X Y + \nabla_Y X, Z)} + \underline{g(\nabla_X Z - \nabla_Z X, Y)} + \underline{g(\nabla_Y Z - \nabla_Z Y, X)}$$

* Use $\nabla_X Y - \nabla_Y X = [X, Y]$

$$X(g(Y, Z)) + Y(g(Z, X)) - Z(g(X, Y)) = 2g(\nabla_X Y, Z) - g([X, Y], Z) - g([Z, X], Y)$$

deters unique Z is arbitrary & g is non-degenerate

$$+ * g([Y, Z], X)$$

$$* \Rightarrow g(\nabla_X Y, Z) = \frac{1}{2} \{ X(g(Y, Z)) + Y(g(Z, X)) - Z(g(X, Y)) + g([X, Y], Z) + g([Z, X], Y) - g([Y, Z], X) \}$$

This determines $\nabla_X Y$ uniquely since g is non-degenerate.
 Conversely we can use (4) to define $\nabla_X Y$. Then need to check properties of a symmetric connection hold.

$$* E.g. g(\nabla_{gX} Y, Z) = \frac{1}{2} \{ gX(g(Y, Z)) + Y(g(Z, X)) - Z(g(X, Y)) + g([gX, Y], Z) \}$$

$$\text{show } \nabla_{gX} Y = g \nabla_X Y$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{using } (4) \text{ with } X \text{ and } Y \text{ arguments but not } Z \\ & \text{expanding } Y(g) = g(Yg) + g(Yg) \rightarrow \text{and } [gX, Y] = g[X, Y] - X[g] \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \{ gX(g(Y, Z)) + gY(g(Z, X)) - gZ(g(X, Y)) + \cancel{Y(g)g(Z, X)} - \cancel{Z(g)g(X, Y)} \\ & \quad + g(g[X, Y] - \cancel{Y(g)X}, Z) + g(g[Z, X] + \cancel{Z(g)X}, Y) - g(g[Y, Z], X) \} \end{aligned}$$

$$* \Rightarrow g(\nabla_{gX} Y, Z) = g(g \nabla_X Y, Z) \Rightarrow g(\nabla_{gX} Y - g \nabla_X Y, Z) = 0 \quad \forall Z$$

$$* \text{ so } \nabla_{gX} Y = g \nabla_X Y \text{ as } g \text{ non-degenerate.}$$

Exercise: check other properties

In a coord. basis we can compute

$$g(\nabla_{\mu} e_{\nu}, e_{\sigma}) = \frac{1}{2} \{ e_{\mu}(g(e_{\nu}, e_{\sigma})) + e_{\nu}(g(e_{\sigma}, e_{\mu})) - e_{\sigma}(g(e_{\mu}, e_{\nu})) \}$$

$$g(\Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\tau} e_{\tau}, e_{\mu}) = \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^{\tau} g_{\tau\sigma} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{\nu\mu,\sigma} + g_{\mu\nu,\sigma} - g_{\nu\sigma,\mu})$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^{\tau} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\tau\sigma} (g_{\nu\mu,\sigma} + g_{\mu\nu,\sigma} - g_{\nu\sigma,\mu})$$

so we have to take ∇ to be
torsion free since the difference
between two connections is a tensor field, whereas
any connection is the Levi-Civita connection
and a tensor field.

If ∇ is Levi-Civita can raise/lower indices and this commutes with covariant differentiation.

$$\text{if } \nabla \text{ is Levi-Civita then } g_{ab} \nabla_c X^a = \nabla_c (g_{ab} X^a) = \nabla_c X_b$$

GEODESICS

We found that a curve extremizing proper time satisfies

$$(F) \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dt^2} + \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}(x(t)) \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \frac{dx^\rho}{dt} = 0$$

t proper time along curve

The tangent vector X^α to the curve has components $X^\alpha = \frac{dx^\alpha}{dt}$. Extending this off the curve we get a vector field, of which the geodesics is an integral curve. We note

$$\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dt^2} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \right) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} = X_{;\nu}^\mu X^\nu \quad (\text{Chain rule})$$

$$(F) \text{ becomes } X_{;\nu}^\mu X^\nu + \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu} X^\nu X^\rho = 0 \Leftrightarrow X^\mu X_{;\nu}^\mu = 0 \Leftrightarrow \nabla_X X = 0.$$

Extend to any connection

DEF: Let M be a manifold with connection ∇ . An AFFINELY PARAMETRIZED GEODESIC satisfies

notes: an integral curve of a vector field X satisfies $\nabla_X X = 0$.

$$\nabla_X X = 0$$

any connection

where X is the tangent vector.

(lecture 10) note: if we reparametrize $t \rightarrow t(u)$ then

$$\frac{dx^\mu}{du} = \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \frac{dt}{du}$$

y x h

conclude right
the process of affine parametrization
is not unique, it may depend on the choice
of affine parameter for any
geodesic
 $t = au + b$

so $X \rightarrow Y = hX$ with $h > 0$

$$\nabla_Y Y = \nabla_{hX} (hX) = h \nabla_X (hX) = h^2 \nabla_X X + hX \cdot X(h) = gY$$

With $f = X(h) = \frac{d}{dt}(h) = \dot{h} \frac{dh}{du} = \frac{1}{h} \frac{d^2 h}{du^2}$, so $\nabla_Y Y = 0 \Leftrightarrow t = \alpha u + \beta$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$

$$X(\beta) := \frac{d}{dt} f = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{d}{dx^{\alpha}} f$$

$$\begin{cases} \text{affine} \\ \text{connection} : \nabla_X Y = 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \frac{d}{dx^{\alpha}} Y = 0 \\ \text{with respect to } \frac{d}{dx^{\alpha}} \text{ and } \frac{d}{dt} \end{cases}$$

what is meant by "affinely parametrized"
 ∇ or reparametrized:
 ∇ describes the same curve
 $\nabla_Y Y = X(h)Y \neq 0$,
but in general not affinely parametrized.
but it is always possible to find a parameter s s.t. it is.
in this case, $\nabla_s Y = 0$.
 $u = at + b$
using inverse always restricts to AP's

$$\begin{cases} \text{affine} \\ \text{connection} : \nabla_X Y = 0 \\ \Leftrightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \frac{d}{dx^{\alpha}} Y = 0 \\ \text{with respect to } \frac{d}{dx^{\alpha}} \text{ and } \frac{d}{dt} \end{cases}$$

line components

Lecture 10

Ex. 10.1.1. Let x be tangent to an APG ϕ . Then the Levi-Civita connection
in notes shows that $Dg(\phi(x), x) = 0$:
attempt: $Dg(\phi(x), x) = Dg(\phi(x), x) + g(Dx, x) + g(x, Dx) = 2g(x, x) = 0$
so therefore the tangent vector cannot change along a timelike or null geodesic. A geodesic is a curve whose tangent vector is always spacelike, timelike, space-like or null.

Theorem: given $p \in M$, $x_p \in T_p M$, there exists a unique A.P.G. $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ satisfying

$$\lambda(0) = p \quad \dot{\lambda}(0) = x_p$$

PROOF: choose coordinates with $\phi(p) = 0$.
satisfies $Dx X = 0$ with $X = x^m \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}$. This becomes

$$x^m(t) = \phi(\lambda(t))$$

$$X^m = \frac{dx^m}{dt}$$

2nd order diff. eqn.
unique solution
by specifying 2 init. conditions

$$\frac{d^2 x^m}{dt^2} + \Gamma^m_{\nu\sigma} \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \frac{dx^\sigma}{dt} = 0 \quad (\text{GE})$$

and $x^m(0) = 0 \quad \frac{dx^m}{dt}(0) = x_p^m$

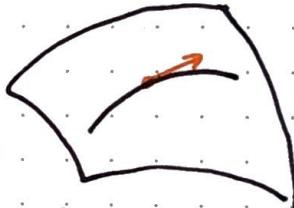
This has a unique solution $x^m: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ for ϵ sufficiently small by standard ODE theory. \square

End of ODE w/ two B.C.s
uniqueness follows from standard ODE theory

GEODESIC POSTULATE

not acted on by
any force except
gravity

In general relativity, free particles move along geodesics of the Levi-Civita connection



These are **TIMELIKE** for massive particles and **NULL/LIGHTLIKE** for massless particles.

Normal Coordinates

locally specifies points on manifold
by direct & distance to get there
by eq. give directions to walk there, but in reality there are many paths

uniqueness problem

If we fix $p \in M$, we can map $T_p M$ into M by setting

uses x_p to map point in $T_p M$ to point $\phi(x_p)$ at point p through ϕ .

$\psi(x_p) = \lambda_{x_p}(1)$ where λ_{x_p} is the unique affinely parametrised geodesic with

$$\lambda_{x_p}(0) = p, \quad \dot{\lambda}_{x_p}(0) = x_p$$

Notice that

rescale vector equi-tangency argument

$$\lambda_{\alpha x_p}(t) = \lambda_{x_p}(\alpha t) \quad \text{for } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$$

since if t is affine param. then $v = \dot{\lambda}(t)$ is also affine param. for $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

since if $\tilde{\lambda}(t) = \lambda_{x_p}(\alpha t)$ affine reparametrisation so still geodesic, and $\tilde{\lambda}(0) = \alpha \lambda_{x_p}(0) = \alpha x_p, \tilde{\lambda}(0) = p$.

Moreover, $\alpha \mapsto \psi(\alpha x_p)$ is an affinely parametrised geodesic

$$= \lambda_{x_p}(\alpha)$$

- define map ϕ from
- tangent space to M
- claim it's "one-to-one"
- sufficiently small neighbourhood
- e.g. origin been $\phi(0)$
- bijective map

Note especially:

• lengthening a ball and
• scaling up its radius
• if it moves w/ initial
velocity $2x$ faster it
gives twice distance

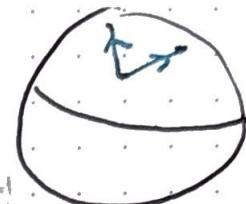
x_p

αx_p

i.e. the exponential map sends x_p to the point unit distance
along the geodesic through p = tangent x_p at p .
but it sends $t x_p$ distance t along that same geodesic.

CLAIM: If $U \subset T_p M$ is a sufficiently small neighbourhood of the origin, then $\pi: T_p M \rightarrow M$ is one-to-one and onto. (don't prove here) compare this easily, check jacobian is invertible (not part of his course)

DEF: Construct normal coordinates at p , suppose $\{e_m\}$ is a basis for $T_p M$, as follows. For



$q \in \pi(U) \subset M$, we define $\theta(q) = (x^1, \dots, x^n)$

where x^m are components of the unique $x_p \in U$ with $\pi(x_p) = q$. (w.r.t. $\{e_m\}$)

By our previous observation, the curve given in normal coordinates by $x^m(t) = t y^m$ for y^m constant is an

affinely parametrised geodesic so from the geodesic eqn. (GE) we know it's a geodesic so can just plug it in?

$$\Gamma_{v\sigma}^m(ty) y^\nu y^\sigma = 0$$

Set $t=0$ deduce (since y arbitrary) that $\Gamma_{v\sigma}^m|_p = 0$

So if ∇ is torsion free, $\Gamma_{v\sigma}^m|_p = 0$ in normal coordinates.

If ∇ is the Levi-Civita connection of a metric, then otherwise this would be a strange result

$$g_{uv,\rho}|_p = 0$$

$$\text{use } \Gamma_{v\mu}^{\rho} g_{\rho v} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{uv,\mu} + g_{\mu v,\nu} - g_{\mu v,\nu})$$

(right normal curves are curves where the spacetime metric is vanishingly small up to 1st order)

Since $g_{uv,\rho} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{uv,\rho} + g_{\rho v,\mu} - g_{\mu v,\rho}) + \frac{1}{2} (g_{uv,\rho} + g_{\mu v,\rho} - g_{\rho v,\mu})$

$$= \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^{\sigma} g_{\sigma v} + \Gamma_{\rho v}^{\sigma} g_{\sigma\mu} = 0 \quad \text{at } p.$$

because $\Gamma_{\mu\rho}^{\sigma}$ vanishes then the class of the metric vanishes.

We can always choose the basis $\{e_m\}$ for $T_p M$ on which base the normal coordinates to be orthonormal. We have

LEMMA: On a Riemannian/Lorentzian manifold we can choose normal coordinates at p s.t. $g_{uv,\rho}|_p = 0$ and

$$g_{uv}|_p = \begin{cases} \delta_{uv} & \text{RIEMANNIAN} \\ \eta_{uv} & \text{LORENTZIAN} \end{cases}$$

1st derivative vanishes at p

PROOF: The curve given in normal coordinates by $t \mapsto (t, 0, \dots, 0)$ is the APG with $x(0) = p$, $\dot{x}(0) = e_i$ by previous argument. But by defn. of coord basis this vector is $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}\right)_p$ so if $\{e_m\}$ is ON at p ($\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_m}\right)_p$) from an ON basis. \square

long: if we pick the initial basis $\{e_m\}$ to be orthonormal then the geodesics will point in orthogonal directions which ensures the metric takes the same values as δ_{uv}

CURVATURE

Parallel transport

Suppose $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ is a curve with tangent vector $\lambda(t)$ along λ . If we say a tensor field T is parallelly transported/propagated along λ , i.e.

outward: if λ is a curve with tangent vector x^a then the field T is parallelly transported along λ if $\nabla_{\lambda} T = 0$

$$\nabla_{\lambda} T = 0 \quad \text{on } \lambda \quad (\text{PP})$$

(symmetric parametrization)

"looks a bit like geodesic eqn (GE)"

* If λ is an APG then λ is parallelly propagated along λ .

* A parallelly propagated tensor is determined everywhere on λ by its value at one point:

E.g. If T is a $(1,1)$ tensor then in coordinates (PP) becomes

$$0 = \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} T^\nu_{,\mu} = \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} (T^\nu_{,\mu} + \Gamma^\nu_{\rho\mu} T^\rho_\sigma - \Gamma^\rho_{\sigma\mu} T^\nu_\rho)$$

$$\text{but } T^\nu_{,\mu} \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} (T^\nu_\sigma) \quad \text{so } \frac{d}{dt} (T^\nu_\sigma) = \frac{d}{dt} (T^\nu_\sigma)$$

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt} T^\nu_\sigma + (\Gamma^\nu_{\rho\mu} T^\rho_\sigma - \Gamma^\rho_{\sigma\mu} T^\nu_\rho) \frac{dx^\mu}{dt}$$

use $\nabla_{\lambda} T^\nu_\sigma = T^\mu_{,\nu\sigma} = T^\mu_{,\nu\sigma} + \Gamma^\mu_{\rho\sigma} T^\rho_\nu - \Gamma^\rho_{\nu\sigma} T^\mu_\rho$
then $\nabla_{\lambda} T^\nu_\sigma = X^\mu \Gamma^\nu_{\mu\sigma}$
 $X^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{dt}$
component of tangent vector

This is a 1st order linear ODE for $T^\nu_\sigma(x(t))$ so ODE theory gives a unique soln. once $T^\nu_\sigma(x(0))$ specified.

* Parallel transport along a curve from p to q gives an isomorphism between tensors at p and q . This depends on the choice of curve in general.

1st order i.e.

$\frac{d}{dt} T^\nu_\sigma$ (how many components of T)

The isomorphism depends on the choice of path. On a curved manifold, parallel transporting around a loop may not return you to the same tensor. non-involution means the map is invertible & preserves tensor structure i.e. maps tensors to tensors. i.e. isomorphism is structure preserving map that can be reversed by an invertible mapping.

Lecture 11

4.11.24

THE RIEMANN TENSOR

The Riemann tensor captures the extent to which parallel transport depends on the curve.

LEMMA: Given X, Y, Z vector fields, ∇ a connection, define

$$R(X, Y)Z = \nabla_X \nabla_Y Z - \nabla_Y \nabla_X Z - \nabla_{[X, Y]} Z$$

Then $(R(X, Y)Z)^a = R^a_{bcd} X^c Y^d Z^b$ for a $(1, 3)$ -tensor R^a_{bcd} , the Riemann tensor.

PROOF: Suppose f is smooth function, then

$$\begin{aligned} R(fX, Y)Z &= \nabla_{fx} \nabla_Y Z - \nabla_Y \nabla_{fx} Z - \nabla_{[fx, Y]} Z \\ &= f \nabla_X \nabla_Y Z - \nabla_Y (f \nabla_X Z) - \nabla_{[fx, Y]} Z - f \nabla_{[x, Y]} Z \\ &= f \nabla_X \nabla_Y Z - f \nabla_Y \nabla_X Z - Y(f) \nabla_X Z - f \nabla_{[x, Y]} Z + Y(f) \nabla_X Z \\ &= f R(X, Y)Z. \end{aligned}$$

Since $R(X, Y)Z = -R(Y, X)Z$, we have $R(X, fY)Z = fR(X, Y)Z$

Exercise check $R(X, Y)(fZ) = fR(X, Y)Z$ (similar computation to above, we have 3 results)

Now suppose we pick a basis $\{e_\mu\}$ with dual basis $\{e^\nu\}$

$$\begin{aligned} R(X, Y)Z &= R(X^\rho e_\rho, Y^\sigma e_\sigma)(Z^\nu e_\nu) = X^\rho Y^\sigma Z^\nu \quad \text{for } R(e_\rho, e_\sigma)e_\nu \\ &= R^\mu_{\nu\rho\sigma} X^\rho Y^\sigma Z^\nu e_\mu \end{aligned}$$

where $R^\mu_{\nu\rho\sigma} = g^\mu (R(e_\mu, e_\sigma)e_\nu)$ are components of R

R^α_{bcd} in this basis. Since result holds in one basis, it holds in all bases. \square

holds in one basis so
holds in any basis

In a coordinate basis $e_\mu = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}$ and $[e_\mu, e_\nu] = 0$ so

$$R(e_\rho, e_\sigma)e_\nu = \nabla_{e_\rho}(\nabla_{e_\sigma} e_\nu) - \nabla_{e_\sigma}(\nabla_{e_\rho} e_\nu) = \nabla_{e_\rho}(\Gamma^\tau_{\nu\sigma} e_\tau) - \nabla_{e_\sigma}(\Gamma^\tau_{\nu\rho} e_\tau)$$

$$= \partial_\rho(\Gamma^\tau_{\nu\sigma}) e_\tau + \Gamma^\tau_{\nu\sigma} \Gamma^\mu_{\tau\rho} e_\mu - \partial_\sigma(\Gamma^\tau_{\nu\rho}) e_\tau - \Gamma^\tau_{\nu\rho} \Gamma^\mu_{\tau\sigma} e_\mu$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence } R^\mu_{\nu\rho\sigma} = \partial_\rho(\Gamma^\mu_{\nu\sigma}) - \partial_\sigma(\Gamma^\mu_{\nu\rho}) + \Gamma^\tau_{\nu\sigma} \Gamma^\mu_{\tau\rho} - \Gamma^\tau_{\nu\rho} \Gamma^\mu_{\tau\sigma}$$

note also: $\nabla_p(\Gamma) = e_j(\Gamma) = \partial_p(\Gamma)$
since Γ are not tensor components, they're
scalar functions (not components of a tensor)

especially last 2
rows) 31

In normal coordinates we can drop the last two terms.

Example: For the Levi-Civita connection of Minkowski space in an inertial frame, choose inertial coords, $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = 0$, so $R^{\mu}_{\nu\lambda\sigma} = 0$

inertial coords exist globally in flat spacetime
inertial coords are normal coords but normal coords are not inertial coords
normal coords valid for not flat spacetime but are only valid locally

hence $R^{\alpha}_{\beta\gamma\delta} = 0$. Such a space with flat L-C connection is called flat.

A note of caution:

$$(\nabla_x \nabla_y Z)^c = X^a \nabla_a (Y^b \nabla_b Z^c) \neq X^a Y^b \nabla_a \nabla_b Z^c$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{hence } (\nabla(X,Y)Z)^c &= X^a \nabla_a (Y^b \nabla_b Z^c) - Y^a \nabla_a (X^b \nabla_b Z^c) - [X,Y]^b \nabla_b Z^c \\ &= X^a Y^b \nabla_a \nabla_b Z^c - Y^a X^b \nabla_a \nabla_b Z^c + (\nabla_X Y - \nabla_Y X - [X,Y])^b \nabla_b Z^c \end{aligned}$$

So if ∇ is torsion free,

$$\nabla_a \nabla_b Z^c - \nabla_b \nabla_a Z^c = R^c_{abd} Z^d \quad \text{RICCI IDENTITY}$$

on ex. sheet 2 there's a question to generalise for an expression for

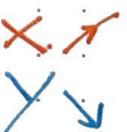
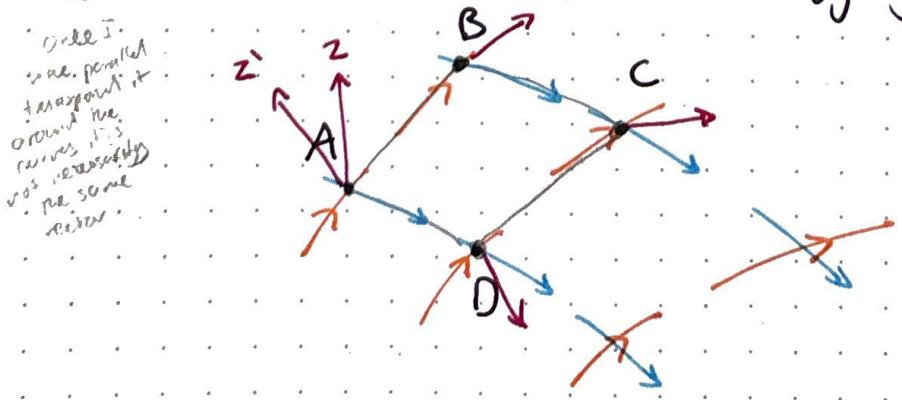
$$\nabla_{[a} \nabla_{b]} T^{c_1 \dots c_r}_{\quad d_1 \dots d_s}$$

We can construct a new tensor from R^a_{bcd} by contraction:

Definition: The RICCI TENSOR is the $(0,2)$ -tensor

$$R_{ab} = R^c_{acd}$$

Suppose X, Y are vector fields satisfying $[X, Y] = 0$



plan dijive
E integral
g.x megn
apoint then
E along integral
curve g.X
through a point
then back E
from back E
i get to
the same
point

Go from A to B by glancing parameter distance ϵ along int. curve of X
 B to C " " " " " " " "
 C to D " " " " " " " "
 D to A " " " " " " " "
 (property that commutators vanish)

Since $[X, Y] = 0$, we indeed return to start.

CLAIM: (See H. Reall notes.)

If Z is parallelly transported around ABCD to a vector Z' , then

$$(Z - Z')^{\mu} = \epsilon^2 R^{\mu}_{\nu\rho\sigma} Z^{\nu} X^{\rho} Y^{\sigma} + O(\epsilon^3)$$

Geodesic Deviation

Let ∇ be a symmetric connection. Suppose $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ is an APG through p. We can pick normal coordinates centred at p such that λ is given by $t \mapsto (t, 0, \dots, 0)$.

Suppose we start a geodesic with

$$x_s^{\mu}(0) = s x_0^{\mu}$$

$$\dot{x}_s^{\mu}(0) = s x_0^{\mu} + (1, 0, \dots, 0)$$

Then we find $x_s^{\mu}(t) = x^{\mu}(s, t) = (t, 0, 0, \dots, 0) + \text{SYM}(t) + O(s^2)$

$y^{\mu}(t) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial s}|_{s=0}$ are components of a vector field along λ .

Measuring the (infinitesimal) deviation of the geodesics, we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 x^{\mu}}{\partial t^2} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma}(x^{\mu}(s, t)) \frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial t} \frac{\partial x^{\sigma}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad \text{take } \frac{\partial}{\partial s}|_{s=0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 y^{\mu}}{\partial t^2} + \partial_p(\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma})|_{s=0} T^{\nu} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho} + 2 \Gamma^{\mu}_{\rho\sigma} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} Y^{\rho} T^{\sigma} = 0 \quad T^{\mu} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial t}|_{s=0}$$

$$\Rightarrow T^{\nu} (T^{\sigma} Y^{\mu}_{;\sigma})_{;\nu} + \partial_{\mu}(\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma})|_{s=0} T^{\nu} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho} + 2 \Gamma^{\mu}_{\rho\sigma} \frac{\partial Y^{\rho}}{\partial t} T^{\sigma} = 0$$

$$\text{At } p=0, \Gamma=0, \text{ so } T^{\nu} (T^{\sigma} Y^{\mu}_{;\sigma} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\sigma\sigma} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho})_{;\nu} + (\partial_p \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma})|_{p=0} T^{\nu} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho} = 0.$$

$$\text{(lect. 12)} \Rightarrow T^{\nu} (T^{\sigma} Y^{\mu}_{;\sigma})_{;\nu} + (\partial_p \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma} - \partial_{\nu} \Gamma^{\mu}_{\rho\sigma}) T^{\nu} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\nabla_T \nabla_T Y)^{\mu} + R^{\mu}_{\sigma\rho\nu} T^{\nu} T^{\sigma} Y^{\rho} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla_T \nabla_T Y + R(Y, T) = 0}$$

GEODESIC EQUATION
DEVIATION JACOBI
EQN.

$$\text{note: } \nabla_T \nabla_T S = R(T, S)T$$

$$\text{main } T^a \nabla_a (T^b \nabla_b S^d) = T^a S^b T^c R^d_{abc}$$

result \Rightarrow curvature results in relative acceleration of geodesics

if hidden & manifest
spacetime is locally parallel surfaces
remain parallel under

Lecture 12

SUMMARY

$$R^a_{bcd} = 0$$

$$R^a_{[bcd]} = 0; R^a_{[abc]d} = 0 \quad (\text{torsion-free})$$

$$R_{abcd} = R_{dcba} \quad (\text{Levi-Civita})$$

6.11.24

SYMMETRIES OF THE RIEMANN TENSOR

From the definition it's clear that $R^a_{bcd} = -R^a_{bdc} \Leftrightarrow R^a_{b[cd]} = 0$

PROPOSITION: If ∇ is torsion free then $R^a_{[bcd]} = 0$

PROOF: Fix $p \in M$, choose normal coordinates at p and work in coordinate basis, then

$$\Gamma^\sigma_{\mu\nu}|_p = 0 \text{ and } \Gamma^\sigma_{\mu\nu} = \Gamma^\sigma_{\nu\mu} \text{ everywhere}$$

antisymmetric
over indices then both
these terms vanish.

$$R^m_{v[\mu}{}|_p = \partial_\mu(\Gamma^m_{v\sigma})|_p - \partial_\sigma(\Gamma^m_{v\mu})|_p$$

arbitrary
at each point
is again to prove stuff
establish it holds at arbitrary point
 p so holds everywhere
(not just at p). P arbitrary and so $R^m_{v[\mu}{}|_p = 0$ everywhere \square .

do the long way
metric
note we're fixing
symmetric in $v\sigma$,
but then symmetric in
 $\mu\sigma$ so antisymmetric
with $\mu\sigma$.
since we have
only antisymmetric
part?

local coordinate
choose $v\sigma$ in one
then they vanish

PROPOSITION: If ∇ is torsion free then the Bianchi Identity holds:

BIANCHI
IDENTITY

$$R^a_{b[c}{}_{d];c} = 0$$

there is 1st, 2nd Bianchi identity, etc.
we say just Bianchi identity we usually mean
this one.

PROOF: Choose coordinates as above then $R^m_{v[\mu}{}_{;\tau]}{}|_p = R^m_{v[\mu}{}_{,\tau]}{}|_p$
schematically,

$$R^m_{v[\mu} \partial^\mu + \Gamma^\mu_{v[\mu} \partial^\mu \text{ so } \partial R^m_{v[\mu} = \partial \partial^\mu + \partial^\mu \cdot \Gamma^\mu_{v[\mu}$$

and since $\Gamma^\mu_{v[\mu} = 0$ we deduce

$$R^m_{v[\mu}{}_{,\tau]}{}|_p = \partial_\tau \partial_\mu \Gamma^m_{v\sigma}|_p - \partial_\mu \partial_\sigma (\Gamma^m_{v\tau})|_p.$$

By symmetry of the mixed partial derivatives, we see

$$R^m_{v[\mu}{}_{,\tau]}{}|_p = 0$$

(same logic as above. It is antisymmetric in $\mu\tau$)
symmetric in $\mu\tau$ so $[v\mu]$ makes it all vanish

since p arbitrary result follows \square .

(these identities hold for any
torsion free connection)

* Suppose ∇ is the Levi-Civita connection of a manifold with metric g we can lower an index with g_{ab} and consider R_{abcd} .
Claim R_{abcd} has additional symmetries.

PROPOSITION: R_{abcd} satisfies $R_{abcd} = R_{cdab}$ ($\Rightarrow R_{(ab)cd} = 0$)

PROOF: Pick normal coordinates at p so that $\partial_\mu g_{\nu\rho}|_p = 0$. We notice that

$$0 = \partial_\mu \delta^\nu_{\sigma}|_p = \partial_\mu (g^{\nu\tau} g_{\tau\sigma})|_p = (\partial_\mu g^{\nu\tau}) g_{\tau\sigma}|_p$$

because g non-degenerate

$$\Rightarrow \partial_\mu g^{\nu\tau}|_p = 0$$

connection component
vanishes at p .
but also partial
deriv. vanishes

$$\text{hence } \partial_p(\Gamma_{v\sigma}^m)|_p = \partial_p(\tfrac{1}{2}g^{uv}(g_{\sigma v, u} + g_{v u, \sigma} - g_{u v, \sigma}))|_p \\ = \tfrac{1}{2}g^{uv}(g_{\sigma v, vp} + g_{v u, \sigma p} - g_{u v, \sigma p})|_p$$

we have $R_{uv\sigma\lambda}|_p = g_{\mu\lambda}(\partial_p\Gamma_{v\sigma}^\mu - \partial_\sigma\Gamma_{v\mu}^\mu)|_p$

I.e. I swap 1st 2 indices.
it's symmetric itself? so

$= \tfrac{1}{2}(g_{\mu v, vp} + g_{v \mu, \mu p} - g_{v \mu, vp} - g_{\mu v, \mu p})|_p$

This satisfies $R_{uv\sigma\lambda}|_p = R_{\sigma\lambda uv}|_p$ hence true everywhere. \square .

COROLLARY: The Ricci tensor is symmetric $R_{ab} = R_{ba}$ $\rightarrow R_{ab} = g^{dc}R_{dabc} = g^{dc}R_{dabc}$
 w/metric we can go further, one more contraction $\rightarrow R_{ab} = R_{ab}$ and $R_{ab} = g_{ab}R$.

DEFINITION: * the Ricci scalar (scalar curvature) is $R = R_a{}^a = g_{ab}R_{ab}$.
 * The Einstein tensor is $G_{ab} = R_{ab} - \tfrac{1}{2}g_{ab}R$.

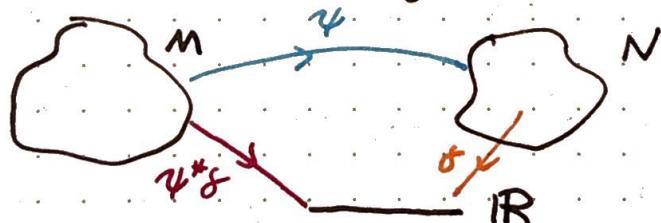
Exercise: The Bianchi identity implies $\nabla_a G^a{}_b = 0$ (Bianchi identity)

(the gauge group of einstein eqns.)

DIFFEOMORPHISMS AND THE LIE DERIVATIVE

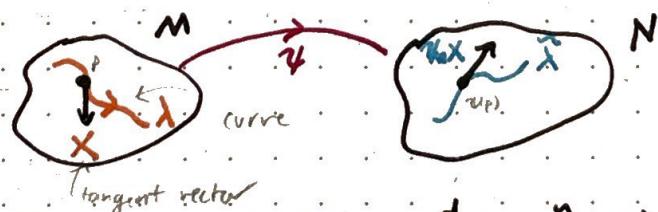
Suppose $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ is a smooth map, then ψ induces maps between corresponding vector/covector bundles.

DEFINITION: Given $g: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the PULL BACK of g by ψ is the map $\psi^*g: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $\psi^*g(p) = g(\psi(p))$.



DEFINITION: Given $X \in T_p M$, we define the PUSH FORWARD of X by ψ , $\psi_* X \in T_{\psi(p)} N$ as follows.

Let $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ be a curve with $\lambda(0) = p$, $\lambda'(0) = X$. Then set $\tilde{\lambda} = \psi \circ \lambda$, $\tilde{\lambda}: I \rightarrow N$ gives a curve in N with $\tilde{\lambda}(0) = \psi(p)$. We set $\psi_* X = \tilde{\lambda}'(0)$.



Note: If $g: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ then $\psi_* X(g) = \frac{d}{dt}(g \circ \tilde{\lambda}(t))|_{t=0} = \frac{d}{dt}(g \circ \psi \circ \lambda(t))|_{t=0}$

(recall $x_p(g) := \frac{d}{dt}g(\lambda(t))|_{t=0}$)

$= \frac{d}{dt}(\psi^*g \circ \lambda(t))|_{t=0} = X(\psi^*g)$

$$(\psi_* X(g))_p(v) = X(\psi^*g)_p(v)$$

$$(\psi_* X(g))_p(v) = X(\psi^*g)_p(v)$$

Exercise: If x^m are coords on M near p , y^α are coords on N near $\psi(p)$ then ψ gives a map $\psi^*(y^\alpha)$. Show that in a coordinate basis.

$$(\psi_*x)^\alpha = \left(\frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^m} \right)_p x^m \quad (\text{or } \psi_*(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})_p = \left(\frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^m} \right)_p \frac{\partial}{\partial y^\alpha})$$

On cotangent bundle we go backwards

DEFINITION: If $\eta \in T_{\psi(p)}^*N$, then the pullback of η , $\psi^*\eta \in T_p M$, is defined by

$$\psi^*\eta(x) = \eta(\psi_*x) \quad \forall x \in T_p M$$

Note: If $f: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $\psi^*(df) [x] = df[\psi_*x] = \psi_*X(f) = X(\psi^*f)$

$$= d(\psi^*f)[x]$$

since x arbitrary

$$\Rightarrow \psi^*df = d(\psi^*f)$$

Exercise: With notation as before, show that

$$(\psi^*\eta)_m = \left(\frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^m} \right)_p \eta_\alpha \quad (\text{or } \psi^*(dy^\alpha)_p = \left(\frac{\partial y^\alpha}{\partial x^m} \right)_p (dx^m)_p)$$

* We can extend the pullback to map a $(0,s)$ -tensor at $\psi(p) \in N$ to a $(0,s)$ -tensor ψ^*T at $p \in M$ by

$$\text{by requiring } \psi^*T(x_1, \dots, x_s) = T(\psi_*x_1, \dots, \psi_*x_s) \quad \forall x_i \in T_p M.$$

* Similarly we can push forward a $(s,0)$ -tensor S at $p \in M$ to a $(s,0)$ -tensor ψ_*S at $\psi(p) \in N$ by

$$\psi_*S(\eta_1, \dots, \eta_s) = S(\psi^*\eta_1, \dots, \psi^*\eta_s) \quad \forall \eta_i \in T_{\psi(p)}^*N.$$

* If $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ has the property that $\psi_*: T_p M \rightarrow T_{\psi(p)} N$ is injective (one-to one), we say ψ is an immersion ($\dim N \geq \dim M$).

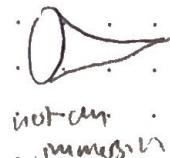
* If N is a manifold with metric g , and $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ is an immersion, we can consider ψ^*g .

* If g is Riemannian, then ψ^*g is non-degenerate and positive definite, so defines a metric on M , the induced metric.

Note: If we pull back a Lorentzian metric, there is no guarantee it ends up on the manifold. It will talk about Lorentzian metric later.

SUMMARY

- maps between manifolds induce maps between cotangent bundles
- $\psi^*g = g \circ \psi$; $\psi_*X(g) = X(\psi^*g)$; $\psi^*\eta(X) = \eta(\psi_*X)$
- $(\psi: M \rightarrow N, X \in T_p M, g: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \eta \in T_{\psi(p)}^*N)$
- extend to general tensor
- $\psi: T_p M \rightarrow T_{\psi(p)} N$ injective, it is an IMMERSION
- 36 ψ is an immersion, if N riemannian manifold, then ψ^*g is a metric on M



injective map
2 vectors go to 2
directions in the
image so the
image is transitive
there are
vector pointing in
the same way
here.

Lecture 13

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{U}^* S_{M \times N} &= \left(\frac{\partial y^{ij}}{\partial x^{kl}} \right) \cdots \left(\frac{\partial y^{rs}}{\partial x^{tu}} \right) S_{kl}, \text{ i.e., as} \\ \mathcal{U}^* T_{\alpha \beta \gamma \delta} &= \left(\frac{\partial y^{ij}}{\partial x^{kl}} \right) \cdots \left(\frac{\partial y^{pq}}{\partial x^{rs}} \right) T_{\alpha \beta \gamma \delta} \end{aligned}$$

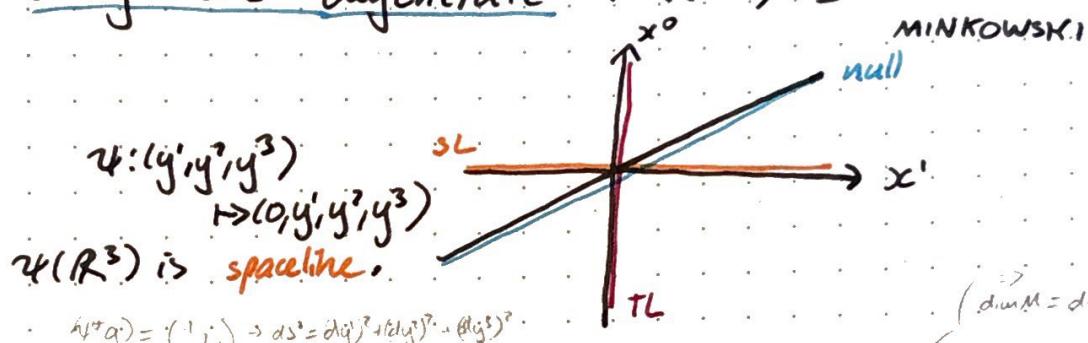
Exercise: Let $(N, g) = (\mathbb{R}^3, \delta)$, $M = S^2$. Let ψ be the map taking a point on S^2 w/ spherical coordinates $(0, 0)$ to $(x^1, x^2, x^3) = (\sin\theta \cos\phi, \sin\theta \sin\phi, \cos\theta)$. Then

$$\psi^*((dx^1)^2 + (dx^2)^2 + (dx^3)^2) = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$$

[Note: we take the standard metric δ on \mathbb{R}^3 , pulled it back via the embedding of the sphere. I recovered the familiar spherical metric $ds^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$.]

If ψ is an immersion, (N, g) is Lorentzian, then ψ^*g is not in general a metric on M . There are 3 important cases:

- * ψ^*g is a Riemannian metric $\Rightarrow \psi(M)$ is Spacelike
- * ψ^*g is a Lorentzian metric $\Rightarrow \psi(M)$ is timelike
- * ψ^*g is everywhere degenerate $\Rightarrow \psi(M)$ is null



$$\psi^*(g) = (-1, 1) \rightarrow ds^2 = dy^1)^2 + (dy^2)^2 - (dy^3)^2$$

Recall that $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ is a diffeomorphism if it is bijective with a smooth inverse. If we have a diffeomorphism we can push forward a general (r,s) -tensor at p to an (r,s) -tensor at $\psi(p)$ by

$$\psi_* T(n^1, \dots, n^r, x_1, \dots, x_s) = T(\psi^{*}n^1, \dots, \psi^{*}n^r, \psi^{-1}_* x_1, \dots, \psi^{-1}_* x_s)$$

$$\forall n^1, \dots, n^r \in T_{\psi(p)}^r N$$

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_s \in T_{\psi(p)}^s N$$

Define a pull-back by $\psi^{-1} = \psi^*$

If M, N are diffeomorphisms, we often don't distinguish between them we can think of $\psi: M \rightarrow M$

We say a diffeomorphism $\psi: M \rightarrow M$ is a symmetry of T if $\psi_* T = T$. If T is the metric, we say ψ is an Isometry. e.g. in Minkowski space w/ an orthonormal frame

$$\psi(x^0, x^1, \dots, x^n) = (x^0 + t, x^1, \dots, x^n) \text{ is a symmetry of } g.$$

An important class of diffeomorphisms are those generated by a vector field.

If X is a smooth vector field, we associate to each point $p \in M$ the point $\psi_t^*(p) \in M$ given by flowing a parameter distance t along

8.11.24

reminder to self: integral curve of a vector field
is curve where the tangent to the
curve is equal to the vector field
at that point

the integral curve of X starting at p .

Suppose $\psi_t^X(p)$ is well defined for all $t \in I \subset \mathbb{R}$ for each $p \in M$
then $\psi_t^X: M \rightarrow M$ is well defined a diffeomorphism for all $t \in I$.

Further

* If $t, s, t+s \in I$ then $\psi_t^X \circ \psi_s^X = \psi_{t+s}^X$ and $\psi_0^X = \text{id}$ (*)

(well defined for all t, s)

If $I = \mathbb{R}$ this gives $\{\psi_t^X\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ the structure of a one-parameter abelian group.

* If ψ_t^X is any smooth family of diffeomorphisms satisfying

(*) we can define a vector field by

if we satisfy (*) then $\psi_t^X(p)$ is a
curve through p parametrized by
 t so we're in a vector field
to be tangent to the curve at
 p by along the curve p
e.g. $X(p) = \frac{d}{dt}(\psi_t^X(p))|_{t=0}$

$$X(p) = \frac{d}{dt}(\psi_t^X(p))|_{t=0} \quad \text{then } \psi_t^X = \psi_t^X$$

We can use ψ_t^X to compare tensors at different points as $t \rightarrow 0$
this gives a new notion of derivative.

THE LIE DERIVATIVE

Suppose $\psi_t^X: M \rightarrow M$ is the smooth one-parameter family of
diffeomorphisms generated by a vector field X .

DEFINITION: For a tensor field T , the lie derivative of T
with respect to X is

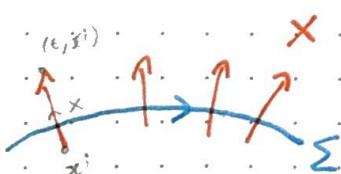
note several ways
phrase in terms
covered $(\psi_{t-s})^* = (\psi_t)^*$

$$(dx T)_p = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{((\psi_t^X)^* T)_p - T_p}{t}$$

It's easy to see that the constant α, β and
(r, s) tensors S, T

$$d_x(\alpha S + \beta T) = \alpha d_x S + \beta d_x T$$

To see how d_x acts in components, it's helpful to construct
coordinates adapted to X .



Near p we can construct an $(n-1)$ -surface Σ which
is transverse to X (i.e. nowhere tangent). Pick
rounds x_i on Σ and assign the coordinate (t, x_i)
to the point a parameter distance t along the
integral curve g_X satisfying starting at x_i on Σ .

In these coords, $X = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ and $\psi_t^X(t, x_i) = (t+t, x_i)$.

so if $y^u = (\psi_t^X)^*(x^u)$ then $\frac{\partial y^u}{\partial x^v} = \delta^u_v$ and

$$[(\psi_t^X)^* T]^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_{(t, x_i)} = T^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_{(t+t, x_i)}$$

$$38 \quad \text{general } \psi_t^X T^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_p = \left(\frac{\partial x^{u_1}}{\partial y^{u_1}} \right) \left(\frac{\partial y^{u_2}}{\partial x^{u_2}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial y^{u_r}}{\partial x^{u_r}} \right) T^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_{(t, x_i)} \rightarrow \text{with } \frac{\partial y^u}{\partial x^v} = \delta^u_v \text{ then } \psi_t^X T^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_p = T^{u_1 \dots u_r}_{v_1 \dots v_s}|_{(t+t, x_i)}$$

$$\text{thus } (\mathcal{L}_X T)^{M_1 \dots M_r}_{\quad V_1 \dots V_s} |_P = \frac{\partial T^{M_1 \dots M_r}}{\partial t} \Big|_{V_1 \dots V_s} |_P$$

So in these coords, \mathcal{L}_X acts on components by $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$. In particular we immediately see

$$\textcircled{1} \cdot \mathcal{L}_X(S \otimes T) = (\mathcal{L}_X S) \otimes T + S \otimes (\mathcal{L}_X T) \quad \textcircled{2} \cdot \mathcal{L}_X \text{ commutes w/ contraction}$$

e.g. $(\mathcal{L}_X(T(x,y))) = (\mathcal{L}_X T)(x,y) + T(\mathcal{L}_X x, y) + T(x, \mathcal{L}_X y)$ \leftarrow it holds?

To write \mathcal{L}_X in a coordinate-free fashion, we can simply seek a basis independent expression that agrees with \mathcal{L}_X in these coords.

E.g. * For a function $\mathcal{L}_X f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = X(f)$ in these coords

* For a vector field Y we observe that

$$(\mathcal{L}_X Y)^M = \frac{\partial Y^M}{\partial t} = X^\sigma \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\sigma} (Y^M) - Y^\sigma \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\sigma} X^M = [X, Y]^M$$

point basis to compute

$$\mathcal{L}_X Y = [X, Y]$$

using basis indep. turns so

(vector follows since in these coords $X = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ so $X^M = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$)

components are const so vanish

Exercise: • In any coord basis show if w_a is a covector field,

$$(\mathcal{L}_X w)_a = X^\sigma \partial_\sigma w_a + w_a \partial_\sigma X^\sigma$$

D is torsion free

$$(\mathcal{L}_X w)_a = X^b \nabla_b w_a + w_b \nabla_a X^b$$

• If g_{ab} is a metric tensor, D Levi-Civita, then

similarly consider $\mathcal{L}_X(g^{1/2})$.

$$\text{and } (\mathcal{L}_X g)_{ab} = X^\sigma \partial_\sigma g_{ab} + g_{ab} \partial_\sigma X^\sigma$$

in normal coords $\partial_\sigma g_{ab}$ vanishes
promote to D since ∇_a (vector) and neglect

components w/ respect to ∇_a (metric) \rightarrow tensor eq 50
promote to am

If \mathcal{L}_X is a one-parameter family of isometries for a manifold with metric g , then $\mathcal{L}_X g = 0$.

Conversely, if $\mathcal{L}_X g = 0$ then X generates a one-parameter family of isometries.

curvature
Something like $\mathcal{L}_X g = g$
(i.e. isometries of the metric)

DEFINITION: A vector field K satisfying $\mathcal{L}_K g = 0$ is called a **KILLING VECTOR**. It satisfies Killing's equation

$$\nabla_a K_b + \nabla_b K_a = 0 \quad (\nabla \text{ Levi-Civita})$$

LEMMA: Suppose K is killing and $\lambda: I \rightarrow M$ is a geodesic of the Levi-Civita connection. Then $g_{ab} \lambda^a K^b$ is const. along λ .

tangent to geodesics
 ∇X

PROOF! $\frac{d}{dt}(K_b \lambda^b) = \lambda^a \nabla_a (K_b \lambda^b) = (\nabla_a K_b) \lambda^a \lambda^b + K_b \lambda^a \nabla_a \lambda^b$

$\leftarrow 0$ (Killing).

vanishes for geodesic

0.

basically proves isometry within the time
now consider eq.

W is symmetric
a,b symmetric $\nabla_a K_b$
symmetric w/ left action
since K is killing?

Lecture 14

Physics in Curved Spacetime

Minkowski space (special relativity)

We review physical theories in Minkowski \mathbb{R}^{1+3} equipped with $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$. We set $c=1$.

① Klein-Gordon equation

$$\partial_\mu \partial^\mu \phi - m^2 \phi = 0 \quad (\alpha)$$

Note that in inertial cords $\partial_\mu = \partial_\mu$ so we can write this in a covariant manner as

promote partial
to parallel

$$\nabla_a \nabla^a \phi - m^2 \phi = 0$$

Associate to (a) is the energy-momentum tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \phi \partial_\nu \phi - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} (\partial_\sigma \phi \partial^\sigma \phi + m^2 \phi^2)$$

or covariantly

$$T_{ab} = \nabla_a \phi \nabla_b \phi - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{ab} (\nabla_c \phi \nabla^c \phi + m^2 \phi^2)$$

This satisfies $T_{ab} = T_{ba}$, (check) $\nabla_a T^a_b = 0$

② Maxwell's eq^{equations}

The Maxwell field is an anti-symmetric (0,2)-tensor

$$F_{\mu\nu} = -F_{\nu\mu} \quad \text{where } F_{0i} = E_i, F_{ij} = E_{ijk} B_k \quad (i,j=1,2,3)$$

If j_μ is the charge current density, then Maxwell's eq^{eq} are

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\mu F_{\nu}^{\mu} &= 4\pi j_\nu & \nabla_a F^a_c &= 4\pi j_c \\ \partial[\mu F_{\nu}^{\mu}] &= 0 & \nabla[a F_{bc}] &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\} \quad (b)$$

Associated to (b) is the energy-momentum tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu} = F_{\mu}^{\sigma} F_{\nu\sigma} - \frac{1}{4} \eta_{\mu\nu} F_{\sigma\tau} F^{\sigma\tau}$$

$$\rightarrow T_{ab} = F_a^c F_{bc} - \frac{1}{4} \eta_{ab} F_{cd} F^{cd}$$

Check $T_{ab} = T_{ba}$, $\nabla_a T^a_b = 0$ for source-free Maxwell

③ Perfect Fluid

$\nabla_a F_{bc} = 0$ and $F_{ab} = F_{ba}$
(and this is a paper 2014?)

A perfect fluid is described by a local velocity field u^μ

hypothetical (idealised, with no viscosity), perfectly elastic by P, ρ and U^a velocity)

satisfying $U^a U_a = -1$, together with a pressure P and density ρ . They satisfy the first law of thermodynamics

$$U^a \partial_a P + (\rho + P) \partial_P U^a = 0$$

$$\text{covariantly} \rightarrow U^a \nabla_a P + (\rho + P) \nabla_P U^a = 0$$

and Euler's equation (read as continuity momentum law)

$$(\rho + P) U^a \partial_a U^b + \partial_b P + U^a U^b \partial_a P = 0$$

$$\rightarrow (P + \rho) U^a \nabla_a U^b + \nabla_b P + U^a U^b \nabla_a P = 0$$

Associated is the energy-momentum tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu} = (\rho + P) U_\mu U_\nu + P \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\rightarrow T_{ab} = (\rho + P) U_a U_b + P \eta_{ab}$$

$$\text{again } T_{ab} = T_{ba}, \nabla_a T_b^a = 0$$

Notice that in all these cases, we can, if we wish, promote the Minkowski η to a general Lorentzian metric g , and take ∇ to be the Levi-Civita connection. Consider normal coordinates, we see that words exist near any point $q \in M$, such that the physics described is approximately Minkowskian, with corrections of the order of curvature.

minimal coupling approach: we could have eq. extra terms to T_{ab} that just happen to vanish in minkowski
don't know if these exist! but simplest approach is to add them even though they don't exist.

GENERAL RELATIVITY

In Einstein's theory of general relativity we postulate that spacetime is a 4-dimensional Lorentzian manifold (M, g) . We also require any matter model to consist of

- * some matter fields ϕ^α
- * eq² of motion for ϕ^α which are expressed geometrically in terms of $g (+ \nabla, R \dots)$
- * an energy-momentum tensor T_{ab} depending on ϕ^α satisfies $T_{ab} = T_{ba}, \nabla_a T_b^a = 0$

The matter should reduce to a non-grav theory when (M, g) is fixed to be Minkowski.

The metric g should satisfy the Einstein equations

$$R_{ab} - \frac{1}{2} g_{ab} + \Lambda g_{ab} = 8\pi G T_{ab}$$

A cosmological constant ($\Lambda > 0$ but small), G Newton's constant.

The Einstein eq² together with the EoMs for ϕ^α constitute a coupled system which must be solved simultaneously.

notes: at point p on the trajectory of a test body (test particle), we can introduce a local inertial frame. equivalence principle states in this frame, may experiments should be indistinguishable from those done in some way in inertial frame in惯性系 so \Rightarrow the acceleration of the curve at p . $\nabla_X X$ must vanish (curves in manifold follow laws in manifold).

GEODESIC POSTULATE

Free test particles move along timelike/null geodesics if they have non zero/zero rest mass.

Gauge Freedom

Consider Maxwell with no source

$$\partial_\mu F_{\nu}^{\mu} = 0 \quad (m1)$$

$$\partial_{[\mu} F_{\nu]\rho} = 0 \quad (m2)$$

view tensor eq. as evolution equation

we have gauge freedom/gauge symmetry if there exist distinct configurations that are physically equivalent a gauge transformation maps a field configuration to a physically equivalent configuration

diffeomorphisms are gauge transformations if ge

don't worry about factors of ϵ , choose chart with them

a standard approach to solve $m2$ is to introduce the gauge potential A_μ s.t. $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{[\mu} A_{\nu]} \quad$, then $m1$ becomes

$$\partial_\mu \partial^\mu A_\nu - \partial_\mu \partial^\nu A_\mu = 0 \quad (*)$$

We'd like to solve $(*)$ given data at $x^0 = 0 \quad \Sigma$. However this eq. doesn't give a good evolution problem.

local (as smooth as or R^{1+3} new Σ not vanishes)

Is $X \in C^\infty(R^{1+3})$ which vanishes near $\text{Supp}(X)$

Σ , then $\tilde{A}_\mu = A_\mu + \partial_\mu X$ will also solve

(*) and $\partial_\mu \tilde{A}_\nu = \partial_{[\mu} A_{\nu]} \quad$

To resolve this, we can fix a gauge eq. if we assume $\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$. then (*) becomes

$$\partial_\mu \partial^\mu A_\nu = 0 \quad (**)$$

a wave eq. for each cpt of A_ν .

component

initial wave eq. for each component with unique solutions given by specifying A_μ and its first time derivative in Σ (unique solns. to initial value problem)

L15:

$\partial_\mu g_{\mu\nu} = 0$
in geometric sense
metric tensor changes
in space

metr. g commutes with?	
∂_μ	yes (per definition).
∂_ν	no (unless g is const.)
Γ	yes
tensor involution	yes

[A]

$$\text{Prove: } R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{\mu\nu,\rho\sigma} + g_{\mu\rho,\nu\sigma} - g_{\mu\nu,\sigma\rho} - g_{\mu\sigma,\nu\rho}) - \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda\nu}^\sigma + \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda\nu}^\rho$$

① start w/ expression for $R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$ in terms of connection components.

$$R_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \partial_\mu \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\sigma - \partial_\nu \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\sigma + \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda\nu}^\rho - \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda \Gamma_{\lambda\sigma}^\rho$$

② lower μ , remember g commutes w/ Γ but not ∂ ! so last 2 terms cancel (cancel $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda$)

③ but 1st and 2nd term look like $g_{\mu\lambda} \partial_\lambda \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\sigma \rightarrow$ need to find this.

$$\rightarrow g_{\mu\lambda} \partial_\lambda \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\sigma = \partial_\lambda (g_{\mu\lambda} \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\sigma) - \Gamma_{\mu\lambda} g_{\nu\rho}^\sigma$$

but this involves Γ use expression involving covariant index:

$$\rightarrow \Gamma_{\nu\rho\lambda} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{\nu\lambda,\rho} + g_{\nu\rho,\lambda} - g_{\lambda\mu,\nu})$$

to isolate $g_{\mu\lambda}$ symmetrize over end two indices (not $\nu\lambda$) would equally well get $\lambda\mu$

this gives $g_{\mu\lambda} \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^\sigma = \Gamma_{\nu\lambda} g_{\mu\rho} + \Gamma_{\mu\lambda} g_{\nu\rho}$

$$(B) \text{ Prove } R_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\lambda} g_{\nu\rho} \Gamma_{\lambda\rho}^\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\nu \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^\lambda - \text{etc.}$$

$$\text{① } R_{\mu\nu} = g^{\lambda\mu} R_{\lambda\mu\nu} \text{ plug in our expression [A]}$$

the missing bit is the $\frac{1}{2} (g_{\mu\nu,\lambda\rho} + g_{\mu\rho,\nu\lambda} - g_{\mu\nu,\sigma\rho} - g_{\mu\sigma,\nu\rho})$ term

$$\text{② we could believe } g_{\mu\nu,\lambda\rho} = \partial_\lambda (g_{\mu\nu,\rho} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda) \text{ but it's wrong}$$

$$\text{so? } g_{\mu\nu,\lambda\rho} = \partial_\lambda (\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\rho + \Gamma_{\mu\rho}^\nu)$$

$$\rightarrow g_{\mu\nu,\lambda\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \delta^\lambda_\mu (R_{\nu\rho} + R_{\mu\rho}) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^\rho_\nu (R_{\mu\lambda} + R_{\nu\lambda})$$

③ combine & simplifying from note 1 & ip 2, this reduces our main expr to $R_{\mu\nu}$ (it's contracted w/ $g_{\mu\nu}$ so all the Γ 's will vanish since they're antisymmetric in ν,λ)

$$\text{④ integrate w/ respect to } \lambda, \text{ take } g_{\mu\nu}(\partial_\lambda \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda) \text{ is zero since this} = \partial_\lambda \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda - \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda \partial_\lambda \Gamma$$

$$\text{⑤ final piece } \rightarrow \text{ to figure out } \partial_\lambda g_{\mu\nu}^\lambda \text{ (it's zero)} \text{ since } g_{\mu\nu,\lambda}^\lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \partial_\lambda g_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = 0 \text{ to find } \partial_\lambda g_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = -g_{\mu\lambda} \partial_\lambda g_{\nu}^\lambda$$

$$\text{⑥ put everything together!}$$

Lecture 15

13.11.24

Recap: Maxwell $\partial_\mu F^\mu_\nu = 0 \quad \partial_\mu [F^\mu_\nu \partial^\nu] = 0$. Let $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A_\nu$, then $M1 \Rightarrow \square A_\nu - \partial_\mu \partial^\mu A_\nu = 0$. But cannot solve this as good evolution problem. For example, $\tilde{A}_\mu = A_\mu + \partial_\mu \chi$ also solves (*) with some F and some initial data $A_\nu|_{t=0}$, $\partial_\mu A_\nu|_{t=0}$ (provided $\text{supp}(\chi) \cap \mathcal{E}_{t=0} = \emptyset$). To resolve, we fix a gauge via $\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$. Then (*) $\Rightarrow \square A_\nu = 0$ (+), which has unique solution given $A_\nu|_{t=0}$, $\partial_\mu A_\nu|_{t=0}$.

CLAIM: There is no non-trivial χ s.t. \tilde{A}_ν also satisfies $\partial_\mu \tilde{A}^\mu = 0$ and the same initial conditions. If we solve (+) for data s.t.

$$\partial_\mu A^\mu|_{t=0}, \partial_0 (\partial_\mu A^\mu)|_{t=0}$$

then we find $\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0$, and so our solution solves (*) and hence Maxwell's equations.

Gauge Freedom for Einstein

energy-momentum tensor

If (M, g) solves Einstein equations with $\psi: M \rightarrow M$ a diffeomorphism, then $\psi^* g$ solves the Einstein equations with $\psi^* T$. At a local level, this arises as the coordinate indices of the Einstein equations.

In order to solve EEs, we need to find a way to fix coordinates. There are several approaches, we consider wave harmonic gauge.

(fixing harmonic coords turns EE into a well-posed evolution problem)
show this!

LEMMA: In any local coordinate system

$$R_{\mu\nu\lambda\sigma} = \frac{1}{2}(g_{\mu\nu,\lambda\sigma} + g_{\sigma\mu,\nu\lambda} - g_{\mu\sigma,\nu\lambda} - g_{\nu\mu,\sigma\lambda}) - \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^\nu \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^\lambda + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\sigma \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\lambda$$

(wave operator, curved wave operator)

$$\text{and } R_{\nu\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\sigma} g_{\nu\lambda,\mu\sigma} + \frac{1}{2}\partial_\nu \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^\mu + \frac{1}{2}\partial_\lambda \Gamma_{\mu\mu}^\nu - \Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^\nu \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^\sigma + \Gamma_{\lambda\sigma}^\nu \Gamma_{\sigma\mu}^\mu + \Gamma_{\lambda\sigma}^\mu \Gamma_{\mu\sigma}^\nu$$

PROOF: on moodle

This form of Ricci is well-adapted to wave/harmonic coordinates.

(new, but old coords
fixes our choice
(previous coords is gauge fixing in
this context))

x means don't treat as vector component

Suppose we choose a system of coords $\{x^\mu\} \mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$ which satisfy the wave equation $\nabla_\mu \nabla^\mu x^\nu = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \nabla^\mu (\partial_\mu x^\nu) = \partial^\mu \partial_\mu x^\nu + \Gamma^{\mu\nu}_\mu \partial_\mu x^\nu$$

(note to self:
 x^ν is scalar not the components of a vector!
 $\therefore \nabla_\mu x^\nu = \partial_\mu x^\nu$ then $\partial_\mu x^\nu$ is covariant
so we can take partial derivative)

$= 0$ since $\Gamma^{\mu\nu}_\mu = 0$

since $\partial_\mu x^\nu$ is covariant

δ^ν_ν

(total
harmonic coords s.t. each
coordinate w.r.t. each other
wave equation obv.)

$$\nabla^\mu_\nu w_\nu = w_\nu + \Gamma^{\mu\nu}_\nu w_0 \quad 43$$

order $\Gamma^{\mu\nu}$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma_{\mu}^{\mu\nu} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\nu}(g_{\alpha\kappa,\sigma} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\sigma,\kappa}) = 0$$

the three
Riemann
blue vanish

For such coordinates,

$$R_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho}g_{\nu\lambda}{}_{,\rho\lambda} + (\Gamma_{\lambda\mu\nu}\Gamma^{\lambda\sigma}_{\sigma} + \Gamma_{\lambda\mu\nu}\Gamma^{\sigma\lambda}_{\sigma} + \Gamma_{\lambda\mu\sigma}\Gamma^{\sigma\lambda}_{\nu})$$

negt. vacuum Einstein
equation (no matter/energy) \Rightarrow solutions
 $R_{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow$ EE reduces to $R_{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow$ spacetime curvature generated purely by gravity itself

$P_{\mu\nu}(g, \partial g)$

right Pow is a
nonlinear part of
a curv. field

SO $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ reduces to a system of nonlinear wave equations in this gauge. We can solve this (locally) given initial data. Further, we can show that if the gauge condition is initially satisfied, it will remain time $\nabla(t, x)$ (Choquet-Bruhat '54) \Rightarrow (i.e. the gauge condition holds initially it will continue to hold under time evolution)

usually mean
curvature in time
by Riemann

analogous to wave
we don't need
any

Linearised Theory

Suppose we are in a situation where the gravitational field is weak. We expect to be able to describe the nature as a perturbation of Minkowski

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}, \quad \eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$$

$\epsilon \ll 1$ is a small parameter and we work to $O(\epsilon)$ (i.e. neglect $O(\epsilon^2)$).

If the metric has this form we say we're in "almost inertial" coordinates. One can check

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} - \epsilon h^{\mu\nu}, \quad \text{where } h^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\sigma} h_{\sigma\nu} \eta^{\nu\tau}$$

(minus sign!)

i.e. for $O(\epsilon)$ quantities can raise/lower with η .

Suppose our metric is also in wave gauge, then

$$0 = g^{\mu\nu}(g_{\mu\kappa,\sigma} - \frac{1}{2}g_{\mu\sigma,\kappa}) = \epsilon \partial^\mu(h_{\mu\kappa} - \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\kappa}h), \quad h = \eta^{\mu\nu}h_{\mu\nu}$$

Using our expression for the Ricci tensor

need extra stress energy tensor to cancel

$$R_{\mu\nu} = -\epsilon \frac{1}{2}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h_{\mu\nu}$$

note to self:
Ricci tensors are second order
in perturbations so vanish
then only term left is $\frac{1}{2}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h_{\mu\nu}$
vanishes since metric is constant

In order for Einstein equations to hold, we would must have

relabel
to avoid confusion
with E-momentum tensor

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon T_{\mu\nu}$$

note to self: EEs
 $R_{\mu\nu} - R/2g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$

then to order $O(\epsilon)$ in the Einstein equations

$$-\frac{1}{2}\square h_{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{4}\eta_{\mu\nu}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\text{get } R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon(-\frac{1}{2}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h_{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{4}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\eta_{\mu\nu}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h) = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$

will usually set $G=1$ by choice of units

since it's in 1st order $T_{\mu\nu}$ must be 1st order in
order for EE to hold so we rename it as $T_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon T_{\mu\nu}$

44

so 1st order in ϵ EE becomes: $-\frac{1}{2}\square h_{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{4}\eta^{\sigma\tau}\eta_{\mu\nu}\partial_\sigma\partial_\tau h = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$

note to self: EEs
 $R_{\mu\nu} - R/2g_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$
 $\rightarrow R = R^2/2 = g^{\mu\nu}R_{\mu\nu}$
just plug in our expression right
 $R_{\mu\nu}$
(remember η commutes w/ ∂)

$$\Rightarrow \square h_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\partial_\mu \partial^\mu v = 0$$

$$(\square = \partial_t^2 - \nabla^2)$$

$$\text{where } h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} h \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\Rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} h \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

(we say we impose this but it looks like it follows from gauge fix our words not important?)

These are the linearised Einstein equations in a wave (harmonic, Lorenz, de Donder) gauge. We can solve these given initial data at $\Sigma t=0 \Sigma = \Sigma$.

If the data satisfies $\partial_\mu \partial^\mu v|_\Sigma = \partial_0 (\partial_\mu \partial^\mu v)|_\Sigma = 0$, then since $\partial_\mu T^\mu_\nu = 0$, we have

$$\square (\partial_\mu \partial^\mu v) = 0 \text{ so gauge holds for all times.}$$

gauge condition holds for all time.

Linearised gauges

Suppose we have a physically equivalent solution not necessarily in wave gauge. We've seen that 2 such equivalent solutions are related by a diffeomorphism.

In order that the diffeomorphism reduces smoothly to the identity as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, it should take the form Φ_ϵ^5 for some vector field ξ .

If S is any tensor field, then from the definition of Lie derivative

$$(\Phi_\epsilon^5)^* S = S + \epsilon \mathcal{L}_\xi S + O(\epsilon^2)$$

$$(\text{from } \partial_\mu T^\mu_\nu = \frac{\partial \Phi_\epsilon^5}{\partial x^\mu} T^\mu_\nu)$$

In particular

$$* ((\Phi_\epsilon^5)^* \eta)_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon (\underbrace{\partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu}_{h_{\mu\nu}}) + O(\epsilon^2)$$

$$(\text{from } (\Phi_\epsilon^5)^* \eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon \mathcal{L}_\xi \eta_{\mu\nu})$$

change in object is
the derivative of ξ times the
object

Equivalent deriv is same
as partial deriv at order ϵ since
christoffel symbols already at order ϵ)

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu$$

in the unperturbed
spacetime

So if $S = O(\epsilon)$ it will be invariant under gauge transformations to $O(\epsilon)$. Tensors vanishing on Minkowski are gauge invariant in linear perturbation theory. In particular $T_{\mu\nu}$ is gauge invariant.

(by EM tensors are gauge inv. as its $O(\epsilon)$ as we saw from Einstein eqs.)

However, *, thus $h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu$ represents a linear gauge transformation (c.f. $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu t$).

conclusion: If we have a physically equivalent solution, not necessarily in wave gauge, then it should be related to any other such solution by a diffeomorphism Φ_ϵ^5 for some vector field ξ . From def. of Lie derivative for any tensor field S : $(\Phi_\epsilon^5)^* S = S + \epsilon \mathcal{L}_\xi S + O(\epsilon^2)$ (change in ϵ m. tensor is $\mathcal{L}_\xi S$, so if $S = O(\epsilon)$, it will be invariant under gauge transformations to $O(\epsilon)$ tensor's vanishing on Minkowski are gauge invariant in linear perturbation).

most things we care interested in will vanish in minkowski e.g. $T_{\mu\nu}$ but one important thing that won't vanish is the metric itself!

Lecture 16

(including back the three terms)
we sacked off (but one is)
pp. 30 only 2 extra terms?

From formulae in last lecture (or on Moodle), if we linearise $R_{\mu\nu}$ without fixing a gauge, we find

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon (\partial^{\rho} \partial_{(\mu} h_{\nu)\rho} - \frac{1}{2} \partial^{\rho} \partial^{\sigma} h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} h)$$

Substituting in $h_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\mu} \xi_{\nu} + \partial_{\nu} \xi_{\mu}$ we can check $R_{\mu\nu}$ vanishes, so $h_{\mu\nu}$ solves the vacuum Einstein equations. We call such a solution a pure gauge solution.

EXERCISE:

Show that if $h_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_{\mu} \xi_{\nu} + \partial_{\nu} \xi_{\mu}$ then

(see p. 48.)

$$\partial^{\mu} h^{\nu}_{\mu\nu} = \partial^{\mu} \partial^{\nu}_{\mu\nu} + \partial_{\mu} \partial^{\nu}_{\nu}$$

Deduce that:

- * Any linearised perturbation can be put into wave gauge by a suitable gauge transformation.
- * Any pure gauge solution of the wave gauge fixed equations with $\xi_{\mu}|_{t=0} = 0$, $\partial \xi_{\mu}|_{t=0} = 0$ vanishes everywhere.

THE NEWTONIAN LIMIT

We'd expect that if GR is a good theory of gravity, we should be able to recover Newton's theory of gravitation in the limit where fields are weak and matter is slowly moving in comparison with the speed of light ($c=1$ in our units).

Let us suppose that matter is modelled by a perfect fluid with velocity field U^a , density ρ and pressure p .

In all but the most extreme situations, $\rho \gg p$ (in standard units $P/\rho \approx v_s^2 \ll c^2$).

We choose coordinates such that [think of as Lagrangian coordinates for fluid] $U^a = \frac{d}{dt}$.
[C.f. Mach's principle.]

Note that this does not imply the fluid is at rest: distances are measured with the METRIC.

The condition that the fluid moves non-relativistically becomes the assumption that we are in the weak field limit

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu} \quad (h_{\mu\nu} = O(\epsilon))$$

NOTE: motivation in course structure: gauge fixing terms
linearise, why not linearise then gauge fix?
we know doing it the first way we know
our gauge comes from a gauge condition
that makes sense in the first order theory problem

15.11.24

also want to require that
members of the particles
are not too dominant
small relative velocities &
accelerations

$$\partial h_{\mu\nu} \sim \epsilon^2 h_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\partial \partial h_{\mu\nu} \sim \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}$$

more body goes massless we will be able to
not a single very
to do this; instead, the derivatives are small
power of mass is velocity & acceleration one.
inertial

(reminds us self-h₀₀ is O(ε) so ∂h₀₀ is O(ε²))

For consistency require $\rho = O(\epsilon)$ and $p = O(\epsilon^2)$.

The linearised Einstein equations become

$$\partial^\mu \partial_\mu h_{00} = -16\pi T_{00}$$

$$T_{00} = \rho, \quad T_{0i} = T_{ij} = 0 \quad (\text{to } O(\epsilon^2)).$$

Deduce that

since condition on
mass density is O(ε)
and time deriv is O(ε²)
 $\Rightarrow \partial^\mu \partial_\mu h_{00} = -16\pi \rho$
 $\Rightarrow \partial^\mu \partial_\mu h_{00} = -16\pi \rho$

$$\Delta h_{00} = -16\pi \rho$$

h_{0i}, h_{ij} vanish at $O(\epsilon)$

$$h_i = h_{00} \delta^{0i}$$

Since

$$h_{\mu\nu} = h_{00} \delta_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} h \quad h = -h_{00}$$

$$\Rightarrow h_{00} = \frac{1}{2} h_{00}$$

$$\Delta \left(-\frac{h_{00}}{2}\right) = 4\pi \rho \quad (\text{e.g. } \Delta \phi = 4\pi G\rho)$$

Suggests we identify $-\frac{h_{00}}{2}$ with the Newtonian potential ϕ .

its own field is small enough
that we can ignore

Consider a test particle in this background. By geodesic postulate its motion is determined by the Lagrangian.

$$\begin{aligned} L &= g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu \\ &= \eta_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu + h_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu \\ &= -t^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{\vec{x}}^2 + h_{00} \dot{t}^2 + O(\epsilon^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot &\equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \\ x^\mu &= (t, \vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

Suppose motion is non-relativistic, so $|\dot{\vec{x}}|^2 = O(\epsilon)$. Conservation of L gives,

$$-t^2 = -1 + O(\epsilon) \Rightarrow t = 1 + O(\epsilon)$$

2. Euler-Lagrange equation:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}_i} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial x_i}$$

$$2 \frac{d}{dt} (\dot{x}_i) = 2 \ddot{x}_i = h_{00, i} \dot{t}^2$$

Since $t = 1 + O(\epsilon)$, $\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} + O(\epsilon)$, we have

$$\frac{d^2 x_i}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{2} h_{00, i} + O(\epsilon^2) = 2_i \phi + O(\epsilon^2)$$

WE'VE RECOVERED NEWTON'S LAWS OF GRAVITATION!

$$\ddot{x} = -\nabla \phi$$

note to self: can see this
by doing as $\tau \rightarrow \frac{dt}{dt} = \frac{1}{1+O(\epsilon)}$
 $\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{dt}{dt} \frac{d}{dt}$

GRAVITATIONAL WAVES

One of the most spectacular recent results in gravitational physics was the measurement in 2015 of gravitational waves sourced by two colliding black holes.

Near the source, the field is not weak, but by the time we detect the waves, the weak field approximation is relevant.

* From p 46
we know that under diffeomorphism i.e. gauge transformation
metric perturbation transforms as
 $h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h'_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} + 2\partial_\mu \xi_\nu + 2\partial_\nu \xi_\mu$. (from defn of deriv.)
so we want to find out how $t_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}h h_{\mu\nu}$ transforms.
plug in transformed $h_{\mu\nu}$
 $t'_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow t'_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2}h'_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}h'_{\mu\nu}$ $\stackrel{\text{(cancels)}}{=} t_{\mu\nu}$
 $t'_{\mu\nu} = t_{\mu\nu} + 2\partial_\mu \xi_\nu + 2\partial_\nu \xi_\mu - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \xi_\nu$
so now we want to find $\partial^\mu t'_{\mu\nu}$: just plug in $t_{\mu\nu}$
 $\partial^\mu t'_{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu t_{\mu\nu} + \partial^\mu 2\partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial^\mu 2\partial_\nu \xi_\mu - \partial^\mu \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \xi_\nu$
 $t_{\mu\nu}$ cancels $\Rightarrow \partial^\mu t'_{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu t_{\mu\nu} + \partial^\mu 2\partial_\mu \xi_\nu$

*
if ξ obeys wave gauge then, plug in $\partial_\mu \xi_\nu, \partial^\mu \xi_\mu, \partial^\mu \xi_\nu$ to our
expression for $t'_{\mu\nu}$:
 $t'_{\mu\nu} = t_{\mu\nu} + (X_{\mu\nu} + X_{\nu\mu})e^{i\omega x^0} - \eta_{\mu\nu} X^\rho \eta_{\rho\nu} e^{i\omega x^0}$
so since $t_{\mu\nu} = H_{\mu\nu} e^{i\omega x^0}$, we can see gauge freedom action terms:
 $H_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow H'_{\mu\nu} = H_{\mu\nu} + X_{\mu\nu} + X_{\nu\mu} - \eta_{\mu\nu} X^\rho \eta_{\rho\nu}$

Lecture 17

GW propagate in vacuum
want to solve Einstein

18.11.24

Seek a propagating wave solution to the vacuum linearised Einstein equations in wave gauge

$$\square h_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad \partial^\mu h^\nu_\mu = 0$$

Making the Ansatz

plane wave
propagating in
directions of k^μ

plugging in)

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \text{Re}(H_{\mu\nu} e^{ik^\mu x_\mu})$$

(note: suppose
grav waves)

convenient gauge for grav. waves

discussion

symmetric

$$H_{\mu\nu} = + H_{\mu\nu} \text{ const.}$$

$$k^\mu \text{ const.}$$

We see that this is a solution if

$$k^\mu k_\mu = 0 \Rightarrow k^\mu \text{ is null: waves travel at speed of light}$$

$$k_\mu H^\mu = 0 \quad \text{take } k^\mu = \omega(1, 0, 0, 1) \quad \text{wloc}$$

There is still some residual gauge freedom: recalling that the diffeomorphism generated by ξ acts on $\partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu}$ by

$$*\partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \xi_\nu.$$

unless the condition $\partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} = 0$
does not eliminate all gauge
freedom we still have residual
degrees of freedom

If $\partial_\mu \partial^\mu \xi_\nu = 0$, then gauge condition is preserved. Let

$$(g. always wave, g.
then we can use the gauge
condition $\partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} = 0$) \xi_\nu = \text{Re}(-iX_\nu e^{ik^\mu x_\mu}) \text{ then } \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \xi_\nu = 0.$$

(complex no represents phase shift)

(since k^μ null)

correct for the fact ξ_ν is
a thing, not nothing

And (check)

(now residual gauge
freedom acts on H)

$$H_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow H_{\mu\nu} + k_\mu X_\nu + k_\nu X_\mu - \eta_{\mu\nu} k_\sigma X^\sigma$$

use up gauge freedom to get $H_{\mu\nu} = 0$ & $H^{\mu\nu} = 0$.

Exercise * show that if we take $X_0 = 0$, $X_i = -\frac{H_{0i}}{k_0}$

(note total value
is not zero?
show that $H_{00} > 0$
use $\omega^2 = \omega k_0^2$
and $H_{00} + H_{11} = 0$?)

then we can set $H_{00} = 0$

* Making a further transformation of the form

$$X_0 = \alpha k_0, \quad X_i = -\alpha k_i$$

show we can additionally impose $H_{\mu\nu} = 0$

$$H_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} = t_{\mu\nu}$

Since $H_{00} = 0$ and $H_{0\mu} k^\mu = \omega(H_{00} + H_{11}) = 0$, we deduce $H_{11} = 0$. With symmetry + tracelessness of $H_{\mu\nu}$ we have

$$H_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & H_t & H_x & 0 \\ 0 & H_x & -H_t & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

H_t, H_x are constants
corresponding to two independent polarisations of the wave.

$H_{00} = 0$
 $H_{0\mu} = 0$

(rows are 0
(columns?))

then will not be sat by
symmetry & tracelessness

what does this solution
mean physically?

traceless means sum of
non-main diagonal is zero

any free particle in free fall \rightarrow will always be geodesic
and need to consider collection of test particles all moving in a similar direction

To understand the consequences of such a gravitational wave, we recall the geodesic deviation equation. If λ is a geodesic with tangent T , then a vector Y joining λ to a nearby geodesic satisfies

$$T^a \nabla_a (T^b \nabla_b Y^c) = R^c_{abd} T^d T^a Y^b.$$

current speed of records yet? maybe I am freely falling particle & set up my records as follows

Suppose a freely falling observer sets up a frame consisting of $e_0 = T$ (tangent to observer's worldline), together with three spacelike vectors e_1, e_2, e_3 which are parallelly transported along the worldline and initially satisfy $g(e_\mu, e_\nu) = \eta_{\mu\nu}$. Since parallel transport preserves inner products, we can assume $\{e_\alpha\}$ is ORN for all time. Since $T^a \nabla_a (e_\alpha) = 0$. Geodesic equation implies

$$T^a \nabla_a (T^b \nabla_b (Y_\alpha e^\alpha)) = R_{abcd} e_\alpha^a e_\beta^b e_\gamma^c Y^d$$

$\rightarrow (\nabla_T(Y_\alpha) = T(Y_\alpha) = \frac{dy_\alpha}{dt}$, then apparently dy_α is also scalar w/ $\nabla_T(\frac{dy_\alpha}{dt}) = T(\frac{dy_\alpha}{dt}) = \frac{d^2y_\alpha}{dt^2}$?)

Now $Y_\alpha e^\alpha =: Y_\alpha$ is a scalar, so equation becomes

$$\frac{d^2 Y_\alpha}{dt^2} = R_{abcd} e_\alpha^a e_\beta^b e_\gamma^c Y^d e_\delta^\beta.$$

then : raised & lower α, β indices w/ $\eta_{\alpha\beta}$.

For our problem of a gravitational wave spacetime, the Riemann curvature is $O(\epsilon)$ so we only need e_α to leading order. We can assume $e_0 = \partial_t$, $e_i = \partial_i$ and λ is $t \mapsto (t, 0, 0, 0)$

Then

$$\frac{d^2 Y_\alpha}{dt^2} = R_{\alpha 0 0 \beta} Y^\beta + O(\epsilon^2)$$

To $O(\epsilon)$ we have

$$R_{\alpha 0 0 \beta} = \frac{1}{2} (h_{\alpha \nu, \mu 0} + h_{\alpha \mu, \nu 0} - h_{\mu \nu, \alpha 0} - h_{\nu \alpha, \mu 0})$$

since $h_{\alpha \mu} = 0 \Rightarrow h_{\alpha \nu} = 0$, and $h_{\mu \nu} = 0 \Rightarrow h_{\alpha \nu} = h_{\mu \nu}$ so we have $h_{\alpha \nu} = 0$. (2)

but since $h_{\alpha \nu} = 0$, we find

$$R_{\alpha 0 0 \beta} = \frac{1}{2} h_{\alpha \beta, 00}$$

so defining $h_{\alpha \beta} = h_{\alpha \mu} h_{\beta \mu}$ we get $\frac{d^2 Y_\alpha}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 h_{\alpha \beta}}{\partial t^2} Y^\beta$

(used $t = \tau$ to $O(\epsilon)$)

Let's consider the $+$ POLARISATION:

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \operatorname{Re}(H_{\mu\nu} e^{ik^{\mu} x_{\mu}}) = |H_+| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cos \omega(t-t_0)$$

modulus
since can
be complex

-t₀
since can
be complex
it is plain that
comes from it
being complex

Along λ , $\xi = 0$, equations are

$$\left(\text{since } h_{00} = h_{33} = 0\right) \frac{d^2 y_0}{dt^2} = \frac{d^2 y_3}{dt^2} = 0$$

(no relative acceleration in direction of the wave)

(then, and no relation to time coordinate.)

$$\frac{d^2 y_1}{dt^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_1$$

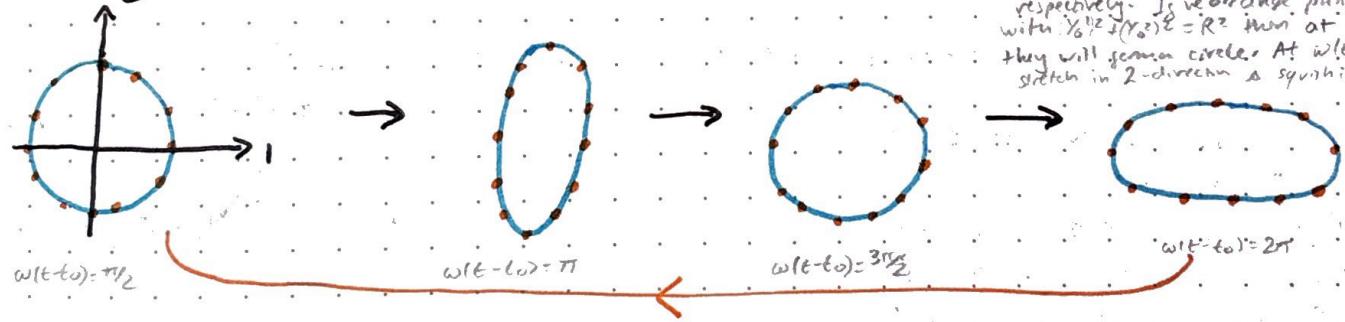
$$\frac{d^2 y_2}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_2$$

$|H_+|$ is small, so solve perturbatively with $\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \frac{dy_2}{dt} = 0$

$$Y_1 = Y_0^1 (1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega t)$$

initially, ramsat at origin & expand.
we collect a set of test masses on circle
as time passes, this is going to squash &伸展 in y_1 direction & stretch in y_2 direction

$$Y_2 = Y_0^2 (1 - \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega t)$$



stretching in y_1 direction
squashing in y_2 direction.

time varying displacement is y_1^1 ; y_2^1 .
respectively. If we choose pixels in 12 plane
with y_0^1, y_0^2 & R^2 then at $\omega(t-t_0) = \pi/2$
they will form a circle. At $\omega(t-t_0) = \pi$ they
stretch in 2-direction & squash in 1-direction etc.

Exercise: Find solution for x polarization.

note to self: solve perturbatively

attempt:

zeroth order solution (no wave):

since $dY/dt = 0 \Rightarrow Y_1 = Y_0^1 + O(\epsilon^2)$

since $dY/dt = 0 \Rightarrow Y_2 = Y_0^2 + O(\epsilon^2)$

first order correction:

plug in $Y_1 = Y_0^1 + \delta Y_1$ into \ddot{y}_1

$$\Rightarrow \delta Y_1 = Y_2 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^1$$

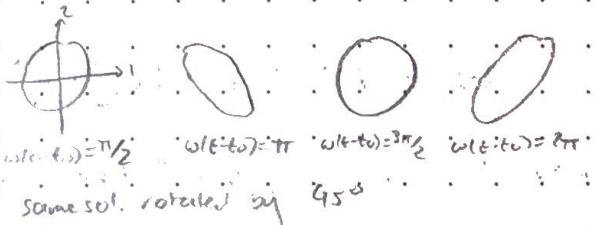
so put together $Y_1 = Y_0^1 + \delta Y_1$ gives:

$$Y_1 = Y_0^1 (1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0)) Y_0^1$$

attempt: solve as ge + polarization

$$Y^2 = Y_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^1$$

$$Y^1 = Y_0^1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^2$$



Lecture 18

20.11.24

- Last lecture: • monochromatic plane gravitational waves
• effect on test particles

• objects move freely falling, wave travels into the page



(X POLARISATION) $\circ \circ \circ \circ \circ$ (z)

(+ POLARISATION)

Found only geodesic deviations

THE FIELD FAR FROM A SOURCE

Return to linearised Einstein equations with matter

$$\text{thinking like E-M}\quad \text{oscillations in electric}\quad (\ast) \partial_\mu \partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi T_{\mu\nu} \quad \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad \text{wave gauge condition}$$

gauge
potential satisfies wave eqn
→ 4-divergence free → Leonard-Fischer potential

As is the case for electromagnetism, we can solve (*) explicitly using a retarded Green's function:

$$h_{\mu\nu}(t, \underline{x}) = 4 \int d^3x' \frac{T_{\mu\nu}(t - |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|, \underline{x}')}{|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|} \quad (+)$$

Where $|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|$ is computed in the Euclidean metric

(from now on away)

If matter is concentrated within a distance d of the origin (so $T_{\mu\nu}^{(t, \underline{x})} = 0$ for $|\underline{x}'| > d$), we can expand in the far field region where $r = |\underline{x}'| \gg |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|$ (d). Then

$$|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|^2 = r^2 - 2\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}' + |\underline{x}'|^2 = r^2(1 - \frac{2}{r} \underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}' + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2}))$$

with $\hat{\underline{x}} = \underline{x}/r$. Hence,

$$|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'| = r(1 - \frac{1}{r} \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}') + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2}) = r - \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}' + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2})$$

and $T_{\mu\nu}(t - |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|, \underline{x}') = T_{\mu\nu}(t', \underline{x}') + \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}' \partial_0 T_{\mu\nu}(t', \underline{x}') + \dots$

where $t' = t - r$.

If $T_{\mu\nu}$ varies on a timescale τ so that $\partial_0 T_{\mu\nu} \sim \frac{1}{\tau} T_{\mu\nu}$, then second term above is $O(d/\tau)$ which we can neglect if matter moves non-relativistically. We thus have,

$$h_{ij} = \frac{4}{r} \int d^3x' T_{ij}(t', \underline{x}') \quad t' = t - r \quad (\ast \ast)$$

This gives the spatial components of h_{ij} . To find remaining components we use gauge condition: $\partial_0 h_{0i} = \partial_i h_{ji}$, $\partial_0 h_{00} = \partial_i h_{0i}$.

From $\partial_0 h_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (ν component and $\nu = 0$)

First solve for t_{0i} then t_{00} .

$$\text{note: } \partial_t T^{00} = 0$$

We can simplify the integral in $(**)$ by recalling that

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{conservation}) \quad \text{and that } T_{\mu\nu}(t, \underline{x}) \text{ vanishes for } |\underline{x}| > d.$$

Dropping primes in the integral

$$\int d^3x T^{ij}(t, \underline{x}) = \int d^3x \partial_k (T^{ik} x_j) - (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(giving drop prime, inner last index line
to note it's not 3 during index, so doesn't
matter)

$$= \int T^{ik} x_j n^k ds - \int d^3x (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(do integration by parts using fact divergence vanishes \rightarrow integral of $t -$ intg
driving T^{ij})

$$= \int_{|\underline{x}|=d} T^{ik} x_j n^k ds - \int d^3x (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(subtract what happens when
done this the th)

$$= \int d^3x (\partial_0 T^{0i}) x_j = \partial_0 \int d^3x T^{0i} x_j$$

(since $\partial_0 x_j = 0$)

(LHS symmetric in i,j)
so replace RHS w/
symmetric part.
(recall T^{ij} is symmetric)

(Cov. into
surface int
over sphere
volume, b/c.
assumption
 $T^{ij} = 0, |\underline{x}| > d$)

$\partial_0 T^{0i} + \partial_j T^{ji} = 0$

Symmetrising on i,j

$$\int d^3x T^{ij}(t, \underline{x}) = \partial_0 \int d^3x \left(\frac{1}{2} T^{0i} x_j + \frac{1}{2} T^{0j} x_i \right)$$

realise again this looks like divergence of something to a correction

$$= \partial_0 \int d^3x \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \partial_k (T^{0k} x_i x_j) - \frac{1}{2} \partial_k T^{0k} x_i x_j \right\}$$

again notice spatial divergence g. energy-momentum which I know as above I can replace w/ time divergence of T^{00} since

$$= \partial_0 \int d^3x \partial_0 T^{00} x_i x_j$$

(first time deriving T_{ij} at present)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 \partial_0 \int d^3x T^{00} x_i x_j = \frac{1}{2} I_{ij}(t)$$

(again pull out time derivative since this is integral over spatial derivs.)

$$\text{Where } I_{ij}(t) = \int d^3x T^{00}(t, \underline{x}) x_i x_j$$

(in these words)

2nd moment of 00
component of E.M. tensor
(mass energy) evaluated at time t .

Noting $T_{00} = T^{00}$ and $T_{ij} = T^{ij}$ we deduce,

$$t_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r).$$

$r \gg d$

$t \gg d$

Now reconstruct remaining components using gauge condition.

$$\partial_0 t_{0i} = \partial_j t_{ji} = \partial_j \left(\frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right)$$

evaluated at r

$$\Rightarrow t_{0i} = \partial_j \left(\frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

const of integration
depends only on \underline{x}

$$t_{0i} = -\frac{2\dot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) - 2 \frac{\ddot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

$\partial_i r = \frac{x_i}{r} = \hat{x}_i$

using chain rule and this fact

for second \dot{x}, \ddot{x} but not important relative between r and t until now.

We now assume $r \gg t$ so we are in radiation zone so can drop first term (it's $O(1/r)$ relative to second) and get

$$t_{0i} = -\frac{2\dot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

Now use,

integrate as
before

$$\partial_0 t_{00} = \partial_i t_{0i} = \partial_i \left(-\frac{2\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(x) \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow t_{00} = -2\partial_i \left(\frac{\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right) + t \partial_i k_i(x) + f(r) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{ex divergence of } k \\ \text{another integration} \end{array}$$

$$= \frac{2\hat{x}_i \hat{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) + t \partial_i k_i(x) + \begin{array}{l} \text{TERMS SUBLEADING IN} \\ \text{T/r} \end{array}$$

To fix constants of integration, return to

$$t_{uv} = 4 \int d^3x' \frac{T_{uv}(t-|x-x'|, x')}{|x-x'|}$$

and observe that to leading order in $\frac{d}{r}$
 best me on the go
 do the computation
 yourselves

$$t_{00} \approx \frac{4E}{r} \quad t_{0i} \approx -\frac{4P_i}{r}$$

where $E = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, x')$, $P_i = \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t, x')$
 E, P actually const. in time although in principle they depend on retarded time

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Observing that } \partial_0 \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t, x') &= \int d^3x' \partial_0 T_{0i}(t', x') \\ &= \int d^3x' \partial_i T_{0i}(t', x') \end{aligned}$$

so E, P constant in time.

Exercise:
 chosen
 Minkowski gauge
 centre of mass
 sits at origin

By a gauge transformation generated by a multiple of
 $\xi^\mu = (P \cdot x, -Pt)$
 we can set $P = 0$. This is the centre of momentum frame.

We've shown that:

$$* t_{00}(t, x) = \frac{4M}{r} + \frac{2\hat{x}_i \hat{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

$$* t_{0i}(t, x) = -\frac{2\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

$$* t_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

where $r \gg t \gg d$, in centre of momentum frame where $E = M$

what do we expect?

tell us probably depends only on first moment

derivable from energy-momentum tensor e.g. binary pulsar system conserves energy, net & far enough away,

of energy & mass

g & p & rotation

next time: assign energy to these perturbations so we can understand how waves that are sourced by moving particles (only now, when you almost certainly have to touch our "isolate computation") actually carry energy away from the system

Lecture 19

22.11.24

Last Lecture

* Linearised field far from a non-relativistic source:

$$T_{00}^{(t, \underline{x})} = \frac{4M}{r} + \frac{2\dot{x}_i \dot{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

$$\text{where } I_{ij}^{(t)} = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, \underline{x}') x_i' x_j' \quad r = |\underline{x}'|$$

$$T_{0i}^{(t, \underline{x})} = -\frac{\dot{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

$$M = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, \underline{x}')$$

$$T_{ij}^{(t, \underline{x})} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

and we are in centre-of-momentum frame

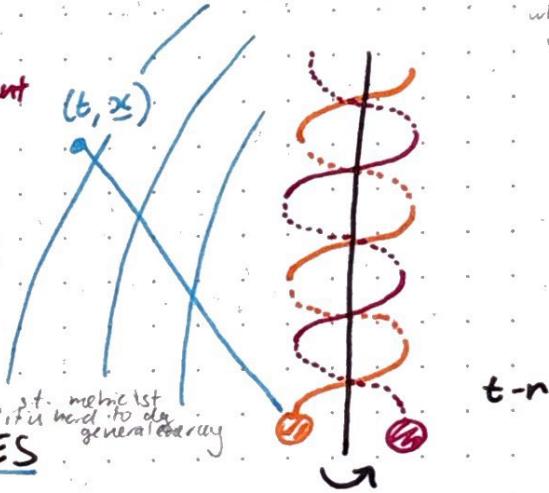
$$P_i = \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t', \underline{x}') = 0$$

valid in radiation zone:

distance $\rightarrow r \gg t \gg d$
from source timescales
of motion of source spatial extent of source

hard problem to
def energy in GR!

today:
these waves carry energy away
will affect it eq rotation
hard to work very far away
what does mean by energy?
hard to assign energy to grav.
normally define us clear but, we usually pick accds if it's hard to do
and because so



ENERGY IN GRAVITATIONAL WAVES

Defining the local energy / local energy flux for a gravitational field is hard in general because we can always choose coords st.

$$\int d^3x \rho = 0$$

There is no hope of an energy density quadratic in first derivatives.

prob of def. energy is hard, but we can get round this by working in our perturbation theory.

In the context of perturbation theory there are various ways to define an energy. To do this we consider how to continue a perturbative solution beyond linear order.

We consider the ungauged vacuum Einstein equations and suppose

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} \quad \text{Work to } O(\epsilon^2)$$

We observe (indicate this is linear piece) (order $O(h)$ in Ricci flat metric around minispace).

$$R_{\mu\nu}[\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] + \epsilon^2 R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h]$$

where (ungauged ricci tensor to 1st order)

$$R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] = 2\delta^{\rho}_{\mu} \partial_{\rho} h_{\nu\rho} - \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\rho}_{\mu} \partial_{\rho} h_{\nu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} h$$

and

$$R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h] = \frac{1}{2} h^{\rho\sigma} \partial_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} h_{\rho\sigma} - h^{\rho\sigma} \partial_{\rho} \partial_{\sigma} h_{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{4} \partial_{\mu} h_{\rho\sigma} \partial_{\nu} h^{\rho\sigma}$$

$$+ \partial^{\rho} h^{\sigma}_{\nu} \partial_{\rho} h_{\mu\sigma} + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{\sigma} (h^{\rho\sigma} \partial_{\rho} h_{\mu\nu}) - \frac{1}{4} \partial^{\rho} h_{\rho} \partial_{\sigma} h_{\mu\nu} - (\partial h^{\rho\sigma} - \frac{1}{2} \partial^{\rho} h) \partial_{\mu} h_{\rho\sigma}$$

are quadratic terms.

This implies

(from tensor to quadratic order)

brackets evaluated on $h^{(1)}$

call these terms thus

$$R_{\mu\nu}[\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] + \epsilon^2 (R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] + R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}])$$

Thus what we really want is Einstein tensor, ignore this ϵ^2

$$G_{\mu\nu}[\eta + \epsilon h^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h^{(2)}] = \epsilon G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]$$

3 linear order in ϵ

$-8\pi t_{\mu\nu}[h^{(1)}]$ remember when I take trace, it also get terms from order ϵ correction in metric

(*)

quadratic order in ϵ

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{from } \epsilon^2 \text{ (E.E.s) } \\ \text{from } \epsilon^2 \text{ (metric) } \\ \text{and metric (E.E.s) } \end{array} \right. + \epsilon^2 (G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] + R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}\eta^{\sigma\tau}R_{\sigma\tau}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}]) \\ + \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}h^{(2)\sigma\tau}R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2}h_{\mu\nu}\eta^{\sigma\tau}R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] \end{array} \right) \quad \text{turnout pure terms actually 0 because in vacuum}$$

[note: what is meant by $G^{(1)}$?

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] = R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] - \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}\eta^{\sigma\tau}R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h]$$

We now consider the contracted Bianchi identity,

$$g^{\mu\nu}\nabla_\mu G_{\nu\rho} = 0$$

which holds for any metric. Using (*) and expanding gives

$$(+) 0 = \epsilon \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu G_{\nu\rho}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] + \epsilon^2 (\eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu G_{\nu\rho}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] - 8\pi \partial_\rho t_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]) \\ + h^{(1)} \cdot R^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]. \quad \text{SCHEMATIC}$$

Considering $G_{\mu\nu}[\eta + \epsilon h^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h^{(2)}] = 0$, using (*) order by order, we deduce

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0 \quad (\Rightarrow R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0)$$

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] = -R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] + \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}\eta^{\sigma\tau}R_{\sigma\tau}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] = 8\pi t_{\mu\nu}[h^{(1)}]$$

Thus $h^{(2)}$ solves the linearised Einstein equations sourced by an 'energy momentum tensor'

want it to be divergence free: use Bianchi identity

From (+) we deduce that

$$\eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu G_{\nu\rho}^{(1)}[h] = 0, \text{ which holds for ANY perturbation } h.$$

And $\eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu t_{\nu\rho}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0$ when $h^{(1)}$ satisfies linearised E.E.s

We can identify $t_{\mu\nu}$ with Energy-momentum of the gravitational field, however, it is not gauge invariant. If $h^{(1)}$ decays sufficiently at ∞ , then $\int d^3x$ is invariant, (so gives total energy of field) but no gauge invariant local conservation.

We can get approximate gauge invariance by averaging.

Let w be smooth, vanish for $|x|^2 + t^2 > a$, and satisfy

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^4} w(x, t) d^3x dt = 1.$$

use w to get a "local average" on regions of scale a

We define the average of a tensor in almost inertial coordinates by

ball of size
W supported on outside
so non-zero outside
ball of size a so deriv
of order W/a

$$\langle X_{\mu\nu}(x) \rangle = \int_{R^4} W(y-x) X_{\mu\nu}(y) d^4y$$

spacetime y
idea is we can
avg over suitable region
to regularize inv

Suppose we're in far field regime, with radiation of wavelength λ and we average over a region of size $a \gg \lambda$. Since $\partial_\mu W \sim W/a$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \partial_\mu X_{\mu\nu} \rangle &= \int_{R^4} \partial_\mu W(y-x) X_{\mu\nu}(y) d^4y \\ &\sim \frac{1}{a} \langle X_{\mu\nu} \rangle \\ &\sim \frac{\lambda}{a} \langle \partial_\mu X_{\mu\nu} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

We can ignore total derivatives inside averages, and thus

$$\langle A \partial B \rangle = \langle \partial(AB) \rangle - \langle (\partial A)B \rangle \approx -\langle (\partial A)B \rangle$$

With this we can show:

EXERCISE: 1) If h solves vacuum linearised E.E.

integrating by parts

(raise + lower with)
n

$$\langle \eta^{\mu\nu} R^{(2)}_{\mu\nu}[h] \rangle = 0.$$

this kind of
the first we
were looking for all
along

$$2) \langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_\mu t_{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu t^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu h \partial_\nu h - 2 \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu t_{\mu\nu} \rangle.$$

$$3) \langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle \text{ is gauge invariant.}$$

Using this formula and last lecture's results, we can find energy lost by a system producing gravitational waves.

The averaged spatial energy flux is $S_i = -\langle t_{0i} \rangle$.

We calculate average energy flux across a sphere of radius r centered on source

$$\langle P \rangle = - \int_{S_r} r^2 d\Omega \langle t_{0i} \rangle \hat{x}_i$$

In wave gauge

$$\langle t_{0i} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_0 t_{0\mu\nu} \partial_i h^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 h \partial_i h \rangle$$

drop out

$$= \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_0 h_{jk} \partial_i h_{jk} - 2 \partial_0 h_{ij} \partial_i h_{0j} + \partial_0 h_{00} \partial_i h_{00} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 h \partial_i h \rangle$$

$$\text{Using } h_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

O IN RADIATION GAUGE

$$\partial_0 h_{jk} = \frac{2}{r} I_{jk}(t-r) \quad \partial_i h_{jk} = \left(-\frac{2}{r} I_{jk}(t-r) - \frac{2}{r^2} I_{jk}(t-r) \right) \hat{x}_i$$

$$\therefore -\frac{1}{32\pi} \int r^2 d\Omega \langle \partial_0 h_{jk} \partial_i h_{jk} \rangle \hat{x}_i = \frac{1}{2} \langle I_{ij} I_{ij} \rangle_{t-r} \quad \leftarrow \text{AVERAGE OVER WINDOW CENTERED AT } t-r$$

cancel off time so will not care later
for the other terms in middle

but principle compute all terms to
with out four

Lecture 20

25.11.24

Last lecture:

* EM tensor for linearised gravitational perturbations

$$t_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{8\pi} \left(R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} [h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\rho\sigma} R_{\rho\sigma}^{(1)} [h^{(1)}] \right)$$

$$\text{where } R_{\mu\nu} [\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} [h] + \epsilon^2 R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} [h] + O(\epsilon^2)$$

* After averaging over a window of size $a \gg \lambda$ (λ typical wavelength of grav. radiation) have

$$\langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \left(2 \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h - 2 \partial_\rho \partial^\rho \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h \right)$$

so in wave gauge

NEW CONTENT

* Insert expressions from radiation zone solution derived in previous lectures to compute flux through large sphere

$$\langle P \rangle_E = - \int_{\{r=const\}} r^2 dr \langle t_{0i} \rangle \hat{x}_i = \underbrace{15}_{\text{Luminous mode}} \langle Q_{ij} Q_{ij} \rangle_{E-r}$$

rare triple deg
in physics
long working on
mode

Where

$$Q_{ij} = I_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} I_{kk} \delta_{ij} \text{ is the } \underline{\text{quadratic tensor}}$$

DIFFERENTIAL FORMS

We want to derive Einstein's equations from an actions principle. For this we need to discuss integration on manifolds, to do so we first discuss differential forms.

DEF: A p -form is a totally antisymmetric $(0,p)$ -tensor field on M . The space of p -forms is $\mathcal{C}^p M$.

Note: If $p > M$ a p -form must vanish. A 1-form is a covector field.

We have a natural product on forms. If X is a p -form and Y a q -form then $(X \wedge Y)$ is the $(p+q)$ -form.

$$(X \wedge Y)_{a_1 \dots a_p b_1 \dots b_q} = \frac{(p+q)!}{p! q!} X_{[a_1 \dots a_p]} Y_{b_1 \dots b_q]}$$

It has the properties. (**CHECK!**):

$$* X \wedge Y = (-1)^{pq} Y \wedge X \quad (\Rightarrow X \wedge X = 0 \text{ if } p \text{ odd})$$

$$* (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z = X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$$

If $\{g^m\}_{m=1}^n$ is a dual basis (i.e. basis of covectors), then
 $\{g^{m_1} \wedge \dots \wedge g^{m_p}\}_{m_1 < \dots < m_p}$

and we can write

$$X = \frac{1}{p!} X_{m_1 \dots m_p} g^{m_1} \wedge \dots \wedge g^{m_p}.$$

Another important feature of forms is that we can define a derivative
 $d: \Omega^p M \rightarrow \Omega^{p+1} M$ by

EXTERIOR DERIVATIVE

DEF: If X is a p -form, then in a coordinate basis

$$(dX)_{m_1 \dots m_{p+1}} = (p+1) \partial_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \quad (*)$$

SYMMETRIC IN
 m_{p+1}, m_1

Suppose ∇ is any symmetric connection, then

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}} &= \partial_{m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}} - \Gamma_{m_2 m_1}^\sigma X_{\sigma m_3 \dots m_{p+1}} - \dots - \Gamma_{m_{p+1} m_1}^\sigma X_{m_2 \dots m_p} \\ \Rightarrow \nabla_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} &= \partial_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore (dX)_{m_1 \dots m_{p+1}} = (p+1) \nabla_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \quad \text{tensor eq \& property of } \nabla$$

Thus $(dX)_{a_1 \dots a_{p+1}} = (p+1) \nabla_{[a_1} X_{a_2 \dots a_{p+1}]} \quad$ is well-defined independently of coordinates. However, $(*)$ shows it does not depend on a metric or connection.

EXERCISE (sheet 4) show:

- * $d(dX) = 0$ $(X \text{ } p\text{-form})$
- * $d(X \wedge Y) = dX \wedge Y + (-1)^p X \wedge dY$ $(Y \text{ } q\text{-form})$
- * $\phi^* dX = d(\phi^* X)$ if $\phi: N \rightarrow M$

The last property implies that d commutes with Lie derivatives i.e. $d_L(dX) = d(d_L X)$.

d is called the **EXTERIOR DERIVATIVE**.

We say X is CLOSED if $dX = 0$, and X is EXACT if $X = dY$ for some Y . $\text{EXACT} \Rightarrow \text{CLOSED}$, but the converse is only true locally.

POINCARÉ LEMMA:

If X is a closed p -form ($p > 1$), then for any $r \in M$ there is an open neighbourhood $N \subset M$ with $r \in N$ and a $(p-1)$ -form Y defined on N such that $X = dY$.

The extent to which CLOSED ≠ EXACT captures topological properties of M .

Eg. On S^1 the form $d\theta$ (see ex. 1.3) is closed, but not exact (despite confusing notation).

THE TETRAD FORMALISM

In GR it's often useful to work with an orthonormal basis of vector fields (TETRAD) $\{e_a^{\mu}\}_{\mu=0}^3$, satisfying

$$g_{ab} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} \quad (\text{Sur is Riemannian})$$

Recall that the dual basis $\{\delta_a^{\mu}\}_{\mu=0}^3$ is defined by

$$\delta_v^{\mu} = g^{\mu\nu} e_v^{\nu} = g^{\mu\nu} e_a^{\nu} \delta_a^{\mu}.$$

We claim that

$$\delta_a^{\mu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu}$$

PROOF: $(\eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu}) e_v^{\sigma} = \eta^{\mu\nu} \eta_{\nu\sigma} = \delta_v^{\mu}$.

Recalling that g_{ab} raises + lowers roman indices, and introducing the **CONVENTION** that $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ raises + lowers greek indices, we have

$$\delta_a^{\mu} = e_a^{\mu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu},$$

we will thus denote basis vectors e_m and dual basis vectors e^m .

Recall that two orthonormal bases are related by

$$e_m^a = (A^{-1})_m^{\nu} e_{\nu}^a \quad \text{where } \eta_{\mu\nu} A_{\mu}^{\mu} A_{\nu}^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}.$$

Unlike in special relativity, A_{ν}^{μ} need not be constant. GR arises by gauging the Lorentz symmetry SC!

CLAIM: $\eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = g_{ab}$, $e_a^{\mu} e_{\mu}^b = \delta_a^b$

PROOF: Contract with e_p^b :

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} e_p^b = \eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} \delta_p^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu p} e_a^{\mu} = (e_a)_p = g_{ab} e_p^b$$

Since equation holds for contracted with any basis vector, it holds in general.

Second equation follows from first by raising b .

Take sum over covectors
because the 2 terms, which
is metric if either statement
helps to make but say
metric

Lecture 21Last Lecture:* Differential forms, $\Omega^k M$ → $X \wedge Y$ 'wedge product'→ dX 'exterior derivative'* Tetrad formalism $\{e_m\}$ oh basis, $\{e^m\}$ dual basis $e_a^m = g_{ab} e_b^m$
→ raise + lower {LATIN indices w/ g_{ab}
GREEK indices w/ $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ }

$$\rightarrow g_{ab} = e_a^m e_b^{\nu} \eta_{\mu\nu}, \quad \eta_{\mu\nu} = e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} g_{ab}, \quad e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = \delta_{ab}^{\mu\nu}, \quad e_a^{\mu} e_a^{\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}^{\mu\nu}$$

CONNECTION 1-FORMS

Let ∇ be the Levi-Civita connection. The connection 1-forms are defined to be

$$(\omega^m_v)_a := e_b^m \nabla_a e_b^v$$

(just defining Γ)

seen before: taking ∇ of basis vecs
is related to connection components
⇒ this is just diff way of encoding the Γ 's

Recalling

$$e_v^a \nabla_a e_b^m = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla_c e_b^m = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b e_c^{\nu}$$

$$\therefore (\omega^m_v)_a = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b e_c^{\nu}.$$

so margin calculation
yourself using above
relations (last sec.)

so $(\omega^m_v)_a$ encodes the connection components.

so what?
→ we'll see
later
but first some lemmas,

LEMMA: $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_a = -(\omega_{\nu\mu})_a$

this is not set of const's
so if ω is differentiable w/ respect to ∇

PROOF: $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_a = (e_b)_\mu \nabla_a e_b^v = \nabla_a ((e_b)_\mu e_b^v) - e_b^b \nabla_a (e_b)_\mu$

same as line above w/ indices swapped
↓ minus sign

$$= - (e_b)_v \nabla_a e_b^v = - (\omega_{\nu\mu})_a$$

Now consider the exterior derivative of a basis 1-form.

LEMMA: The 1-form e^m satisfies Cartan's first structure eqn.
reminds us it's not tensor
indices don't mean
think of it as one-form
and think exterior derivative
for each index

check: consistent def^m (clearly 1-form)
in 1 form and 2nd term
also 2-form?

PROOF: Note $(\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v = (e_c^v \nabla_a e_b^c) e_b^v = \nabla_a e_b^v$
Thus

$$\nabla_a e_b^m = (\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v = - (\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v$$

by antisymmetry of
property

$$\Rightarrow (de^m)_{ab} = 2 \nabla_{[a} e^m_{b]} = - 2 (\omega^m_v)_{[a} e^v_{b]} = - (\omega^m_v \wedge e^v)_{ab}$$

what does this mean?

→ can find components of ω by
computing exterior derivative of e^m .

→ efficient way of finding connection components!

from algorithm
wedge product (1st, 2nd)

Note that in the orthonormal basis,

$$(de^u)_{\nu\sigma} = 2(\omega^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma}),$$

so if we compute its two antisymmetric components of ω

so computing de^u leads to $(\omega^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma})_{\sigma}$ since $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_{\rho} = -(\omega_{\nu\mu})_{\rho}$.
 We can check $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_{\rho} = (\omega_{\mu\nu\rho})_{\mu} + (\omega_{\nu\rho\mu})_{\nu} - (\omega_{\rho\mu\nu})_{\nu}$.

So we can determine ω^{μ}_{ν} and hence Γ by computing de^u .

Example: The Schwarzschild Metric

remember
metric
 $e^0 = \sqrt{1 - \frac{2M}{r}}$

computing extra derivs
is efficient: can
see where they cancel
easily.

has an obvious tetrad:

$$e^0 = g dt \quad e^1 = \frac{1}{g} dr \quad e^2 = r d\theta \quad e^3 = r \sin\theta d\phi$$

where $g = \sqrt{1 - \frac{2M}{r}}$. fixes the metric ^{read wedge}

$$\text{Then } de^0 = dg \wedge dt + g d(dt) = g' dr \wedge dt = g' e^1 \wedge e^0$$

$$de^1 = d(\frac{1}{g}) \wedge dr + \frac{1}{g} d(dr) = -\frac{g'}{g^2} dr \wedge dr = 0$$

$$de^2 = dr \wedge d\theta$$

$$de^3 = \sin\theta dr \wedge d\phi + r \cos\theta d\theta \wedge d\phi = \frac{g}{r} e^1 \wedge e^3 + \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^2 \wedge e^3$$

$$de^0 = -\omega^0_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^0_1 = g' e^0, \omega^0_2 \propto e^2, \omega^0_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^1 = -\omega^1_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^1_0 \propto e^0, \omega^1_2 \propto e^2, \omega^1_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^2 = -\omega^2_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^2_1 = \frac{g}{r} e^2, \omega^2_0 \propto e^0, \omega^2_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^3 = -\omega^3_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^3_0 \propto e^0, \omega^3_1 = \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^3, \omega^3_2 = \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^2$$

can check all these statements are consistent w/ each other

We have:

$$\omega_{01} = -\omega_{10} = g' e^0$$

$$\omega_{21} = -\omega_{12} = \frac{g}{r} e^2$$

$$\omega_{31} = -\omega_{13} = \frac{g}{r} e^3$$

$$\omega_{32} = -\omega_{23} = \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^3$$

all other components vanish

you will have to believe me this is an efficient way to compute connection components more easily we can compute curvature components from these curvature 2-forms

CURVATURE 2-FORMS

We compute $d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu}$

$$(d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_{ab} = \nabla_a (\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_b - \nabla_b (\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_a$$

expand out using Leibniz

$$= \nabla_a (e_c^{\mu} \nabla_b e^c_{\nu}) - \nabla_b (e_c^{\mu} \nabla_a e^c_{\nu})$$

$$= e_c^{\mu} (\nabla_a \nabla_b e^c_{\nu} - \nabla_b \nabla_a e^c_{\nu}) + \nabla_a e^{\mu}_c \nabla_b e^c_{\nu} - \nabla_b e^{\mu}_c \nabla_a e^c_{\nu}$$

$$= e_c^{\mu} (R^c_{\nu ab}) e^d_{\nu} + e^d_{\alpha} (\nabla_a e^{\mu}_{\alpha}) e^{\sigma}_{\beta} (\nabla_b e^{\delta}_{\sigma}) - e^d_{\alpha} (\nabla_b e^{\mu}_{\alpha}) \cdot e^{\sigma}_{\beta} (\nabla_a e^{\delta}_{\sigma})$$

$$= (\mathbb{H}^m_v)_{ab} + (\omega_\sigma^m \wedge \omega_\nu^o)_{ab}$$

where $(\mathbb{H}^m_v)^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} R^m_{\nu\sigma\tau} e^\sigma \wedge e^\tau$ are the curvature 2-forms. We've shown Cartan's second structure equation,

$$dw_\nu^m + \omega_\sigma^m \wedge \omega_\nu^o = (\mathbb{H}^m_v),$$

gives an efficient way to compute $R^m_{\nu\sigma\tau}$ in an or basis.

Returning to our example:

$$\begin{aligned} dw_1^o &= d(f^o e^o) = d(f^o f dt) = (f'' f + f'^2) dr \wedge dt = (f'' f + f'^2) e^r \wedge e^o \\ \text{only non-zero when } n=1 &\quad \text{since } \omega_1^o \wedge \omega_1^m = \omega_1^o \wedge \omega_1^1 + \omega_2^o \wedge \omega_1^2 + \omega_3^o \wedge \omega_1^3 + \omega_0^o \wedge \omega_1^0 = 0 \quad \text{(all vanish)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore (\mathbb{H}_1^o) = - (f'' f + f'^2) e^r \wedge e^o$$

$$\text{hence } R_{101}^o = - (f'' f + f'^2) = -\frac{1}{2} (f^2)'' = \frac{2M}{r^3}$$

$$\text{and } R_{\nu\sigma\tau}^m = 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

we start with 6 numbers
at least 1 component of $R^m_{\nu\sigma\tau}$
but actually we get rid since requires
since 0 otherwise \rightarrow that
is why it is apparent, no need
to take lots of terms and find
what is zero; zero components just
simplifies the argument

Exercise: Find other (\mathbb{H}^m_v) and show R_{ab} .

tetrad stuff was arbitrary aside from \rightarrow generate original goal for introducing differential forms was to do integrals on manifold so we can derive Einstein's equations from an action principle; now lets return to this original goal (to understand integrals)

first step is to look at volume form

VOLUME FORM AND HODGE DUAL

We say a manifold is **ORIENTABLE** if it admits a nowhere vanishing n -form ($n = \dim M$) $E_a \dots a_n$, an orientation form.

Two such forms are equivalent if $E' = f E$ for some smooth, everywhere positive f. $[E]_n$ is an orientation.

A basis of vectors $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is **right-handed** if

$$E(e_1, \dots, e_n) > 0.$$

(canonical choice normalization is to set this = 1)

(crossed basis vectors)

A coordinate system is right-handed if $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}\}_{\mu=1}^n$ are right-handed.

why are about handedness?
if we use rig stores theorem we need to
linear direction/normal to surface etc.
intrinsically handedness/orientation is
bound up in integrating!

Lecture 22

29.11.24

Last lecture

* Tetrad formalism

- Cartan's 1st + 2nd structure equations

$$de^{\mu} + \omega^{\mu}_{\nu} \wedge e^{\nu} = 0$$

$$d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu} + \omega^{\mu}_{\sigma} \wedge \omega^{\sigma}_{\nu} = \Theta^{\mu}_{\nu}$$

$$\omega_{\mu\nu} = -\omega_{\nu\mu}$$

$$\Theta^{\mu}_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} R^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma\tau} e^{\sigma} \wedge e^{\tau}$$

connection
1-forms
curvature 2-forms

- * Manifold is orientable if it admits a nowhere vanishing n -form, ϵ .

- Two such forms equivalent if $\epsilon' = g\epsilon$ ($g > 0$ everywhere)

- $[\epsilon]_N$ is an orientation

- $\{e^{\mu}\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is right-handed if $\epsilon(e_1, \dots, e_n) > 0$. coord. system is RH if $\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} \right\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is RH.

means unorientable is the chosen orientation

no preferred normalisation
Eijk is as good as SEijk
until we introduce a metric

in \mathbb{R}^3 this is standard orientation
Eijk (right-handed basis)

An oriented manifold with metric has a preferred normalisation for ϵ . For a right-handed orthonormal basis, we define the volume form ϵ by

$$\epsilon(e_1, \dots, e_n) = 1 \quad (\text{indep. of choice of RH o/n basis})$$

If we work in a RH coord. system $\{x^{\mu}\}_{\mu=1}^n$, then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} = e^{\mu}_\alpha e^{\alpha}_\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} = e^{\mu}_\alpha e_\mu$$

Then

$$\epsilon\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n}\right) = \epsilon(e_1^{\mu_1} e_{\mu_1}, \dots, e_n^{\mu_n} e_{\mu_n})$$

$$= \sum_{\pi \in \text{Sym}(n)} \sigma(\pi) e_1^{\pi(1)} \times \dots \times e_n^{\pi(n)} = \det(e_x^{\mu})$$

$$\text{but } e^{\mu}_\alpha e^{\nu}_\beta \eta_{\mu\nu} = g_{\alpha\beta} \Rightarrow \det(e_x^{\mu}) = \sqrt{|g|} \quad \text{where } g = \det(g_{\alpha\beta})$$

thinking twice as matrices
deduce after reminding ourselves about combinatorial factors:

$$\therefore \epsilon = \sqrt{|g|} dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n.$$

Equivalently, $\epsilon_{123\dots n} = \sqrt{|g|}$ in coord. basis.

EXERCISE: In the same coord. basis

$$\epsilon^{123\dots n} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} + \text{ RIEMANNIAN} \\ - \text{ LORENTZIAN} \end{array} \right.$$

LEMMA: $\nabla \epsilon = 0$

PROOF: In normal coords. at p , $\partial_{\mu} g_{\alpha\beta}|_p = 0$, $\Gamma^{\sigma}_{\mu\nu}|_p = 0$.

$\Rightarrow \nabla_{U_1} E_{U_2 \dots U_{n+1}} = \partial_{U_1} E_{U_2 \dots U_{n+1}} + (\Gamma \cdot E) = 0$ at p
tensor equation so holds everywhere \square

LEMMA:

$$\epsilon^{a_1 \dots a_p c_{p+1} \dots c_n} \epsilon_{b_1 \dots b_p c_{p+1} \dots c_n} = \pm p!(n-p)! \delta_{[b_1}^{a_1} \delta_{b_2}^{a_2} \dots \delta_{b_p]}^{a_p}$$

$\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

PROOF: (exercise)

p -form on manifold

$(n-p)$ -forms on manifold

We can use ϵ to relate $\mathcal{R}^p M$ to $\mathcal{R}^{n-p} M$:

DEF: On an oriented manifold with metric, the HODGE DUAL of a p -form X is

$$(*X)_{a_1 \dots a_{n-p}} = \frac{1}{p!} \epsilon_{a_1 \dots a_{n-p} b_1 \dots b_p} X^{b_1 \dots b_p}$$

From previous results we can show

LEMMA: $*(*X) = \pm (-1)^{p(n-p)} X$ $\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

$$(*d*X)_{a_1 \dots a_{p-1}} = \pm (-1)^{p(n-p)} \nabla^b X_{a_1 \dots a_{p-1} b}$$

$\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

Examples

① In Euclidean space, identifying a vector field X^a with the one-form X_a , the usual operations of vector calculus become

$$\nabla f = df, \quad \operatorname{div} X = *d*X, \quad \operatorname{curl} X = *dX$$

$$\text{note } d^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \operatorname{curl} \nabla f = 0 \text{ and } \operatorname{div} \operatorname{curl} X = 0.$$

no longer makes sense to think curl curl ref. in $\geq 3D$

why need hodge dual?
so hodge dual operation needed to write down some things (curl need ϵ) \rightarrow this out. this is how we generalise
higher dim. this is how we generalise

② Maxwell's Equations

$$\nabla^a F_{ab} = -4\pi j_b \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_{[a} F_{bc]} = 0$$

can be written

$$d*X = -4\pi*j, \quad dF = 0.$$

Poincaré's lemma implies we can write $F = dA$ for some one-form A , locally. (not necessarily do this globally)

we have introduced this formulation w/ d & $*d$, terms out this makes integration on manifolds & stokes thm. quite elegant.

INTEGRATION ON MANIFOLDS

Suppose on a manifold M we have a RH coordinate chart $\phi: O \rightarrow U$ with coordinates x^m . If X is an n -form which vanishes outside O , we can write

challenge: can always pick a coord patch to integrate over manifold but changing coords in general changes jacobian factor so I won't get same ans.
want to figure out what I can integrate to get same ans whole world enclose

$$X = X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

If $\psi: O \rightarrow U$ is another RM coordinate chart with coords $\{y^m\}$ then

$$X = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} dy^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy^n = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \frac{\partial y^1}{\partial x^1} \dots \frac{\partial y^n}{\partial x^n} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

$$= \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \det \left(\frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^n} \right) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

$$\therefore X_{1\dots n} = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \det \left(\frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^n} \right)$$

As a result

$$\int_U X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_M \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} dy^1 \dots dy^n$$

We can define

$$\int_M X = \int_O X := \int_U X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

(if you don't know what manifold is, ignore it!)

On any (2nd countable) manifold, we can find a countable atlas of charts (O_i, ϕ_i) , and smooth functions $\chi_i: M \rightarrow [0,1]$ such that χ_i vanishes outside O_i and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \chi_i(p) = 1 \quad \forall p \in M, \text{ and the sum is locally finite}$$

(don't really need to worry about this in practice 'just writing so you have the definitions')

Then for any n -form X we define

$$\int_M X = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_M \chi_i X = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{O_i} \chi_i X$$

(don't worry about this too much, in practice in GL we can cover w/ 1 chart or at least mostly w/ 1 chart (sufficiently small enough bit of M you ignore))

This doesn't depend on a choice of χ_i 's.

Remarks

- Computation showing coord. invariance implies that for a diffeomorphism $\phi: M \rightarrow M$

$$\int_M X = \int_M \phi^* X$$

- If M is a manifold with metric and vol. form ϵ , then if $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar, $f\epsilon$ is an n -form, and we can define $\int_M f = \int_M f\epsilon$.

In local coordinates, if f vanishes outside O

$$\int_M f = \int_U f(x) \sqrt{g} dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_M f d\text{vol}_g$$



SUBMANIFOLDS AND STOKES THEOREM

DEF: Suppose S, M are manifolds and $\dim S = m < n = \dim M$. A smooth map $c: S \rightarrow M$ is an embedding if it is an injection (i.e. $c_*: T_p S \rightarrow T_{c(p)} M$ is injective) and if c is injective i.e. $c(p) = c(q) \Rightarrow p = q$. If c is an embedding, then $c(S)$ is an embedded submanifold. (If $m = n - 1$ we call it a hypersurface) (mostly drop c when obvious from context and write $c(S) = S$).

condition that it is an embedding (so it's injective)
intersection in blue case
condition that injective, $c(S)$ has as many tangent directions as S , due to

rotating p

If S, M are orientable, and $c(S)$ is an embedded submanifold of M . We define the integral of an n -form X over $c(S)$ by

$$\int_{c(S)} X = \int_S c^*(X).$$

Note that if $X = dY$ then

$$\int_{c(S)} dY = \int_S d(c^* Y).$$

$$(d\phi^* y = \phi^* dy)$$

Lecture 23

2.12.24

- Last lecture
- * If M is an n -dim manifold, X is an n -form defined on M .
 - * If M carries a metric (or otherwise has a preferred choice of volume form ϵ) defined

$$\int_M \& := \int_M \& \epsilon = \int_M \& d\text{vol}_g.$$

is ϵ is volume form of g

- * If S is an m -dimensional manifold ($m < n$), then $c: S \rightarrow M$ is an embedding if it is an IMMERSION and is INJECTIVE.

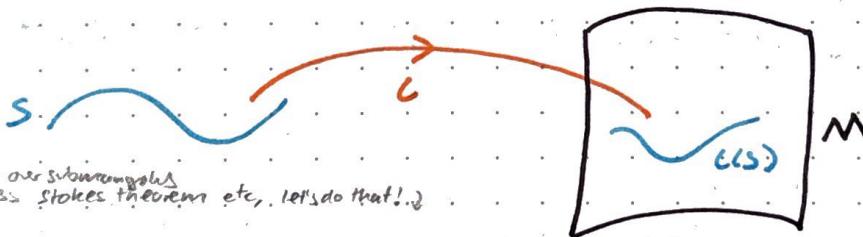
$$c(p) = c(q) \Rightarrow p = q$$

$c: T_p S \rightarrow T_{c(p)} M$ injective

If so, $c(S)$ is an m -dim SUBMANIFOLD of M .

- * If $c(S)$ is an m -dim submanifold and Y is an m -form on M , then

$$\int_{c(S)} Y := \int_S c^*(Y)$$



we talk about integrating over submanifolds because we want to discuss Stokes theorem etc, let's do that! :)

as previously

DEF: A manifold with boundary, M , is defined just as for a manifold, but charts are maps

$\phi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{U}_\alpha$, where U_α is an open subset of M of \mathbb{R}^n (not \mathbb{R}^n instead half-space)

$$\mathbb{U}_\alpha = \{(x^1, \dots, x^n) | x^1 \leq 0\}$$



maps into region in \mathbb{R}^2 in 1st half plane, patch of coordinates is mapped onto purple region

The boundary of M , ∂M is the set of points mapped in any chart to $\{x^1 = 0\}$. It is naturally an $n-1$ diml manifold with an embedding $c: \partial M \rightarrow M$.

If M is oriented, ∂M inherits an orientation by requiring (x^2, \dots, x^n) is a RH chart on ∂M when (x^1, \dots, x^n) is RH on M .

"in practice we are not going to use this definition but it's good to have it"

STOKES THEOREM

If N is an oriented n -diml manifold with boundary, and X is an $(n-1)$ -form, then

$$\int_N dX = \int_{\partial N} X.$$

elegant form
doesn't require stroke on manifold.
(basis of all integration by parts arguments)
on manifolds
except boundary
stuff?

Stokes theorem is the basis of all 'integration by parts' arguments.
If N carries a metric, we can reformulate Stokes theorem as the divergence theorem. slightly more convenient form?

If V is a vector field on N , then we define

$$(V \downarrow \epsilon)_{a_2 \dots a_n} = V^a \epsilon_{aa_2 \dots a_n}$$

We can check that $d(V \downarrow \epsilon) = (\nabla_a V^a) \epsilon$. check yourself

If we define the flux of V through an embedded hypersurface S by think of no cross contraction between vector, surface

$$\int_S V \cdot dS := \int_S V \downarrow \epsilon$$

a little bit of a cheat, we just do RHS to be what we want, it's more like your div theorem so check this

then Stokes theorem implies $\int_N \nabla_a V^a dvol_g = \int_{\partial N} V \cdot dS$.

Recall that a hypersurface $\{(S)\}$ is

$$\begin{cases} \text{SPACELIKE if } h = c^* g \text{ is RIEMANNIAN} \\ \text{TIMELIKE if } h = c^* g \text{ is LORENTZIAN} \end{cases}$$

In this case we can relate $(^*(V \downarrow \epsilon_g))$ to the volume form on (S, h) .

Pick b_2, \dots, b_n a RH o/n basis on S (w.r.t. h). Then $(\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n)$ are o/n in N . The unit normal to S is the unique unit vector \vec{n} orthogonal to $(\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n)$ with

$$E(\vec{n}, \# b_2, \dots, \# b_n) = g(\vec{n}, \vec{n}) \quad (= \pm 1).$$

$$\text{If } \{(S)\} \begin{cases} \text{SPACELIKE} \leftrightarrow \vec{n} \text{ TIMELIKE} \\ \text{TIMELIKE} \leftrightarrow \vec{n} \text{ SPACELIKE} \end{cases}$$

with this definition,

$$V \downarrow \epsilon (\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n) = V^a \vec{n}_a$$

$$\text{thus } (^*(V \downarrow \epsilon_g)) = (^*(V^a \vec{n}_a)) E_h$$

volumic
form on induced
metric on S .

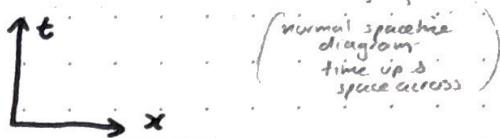
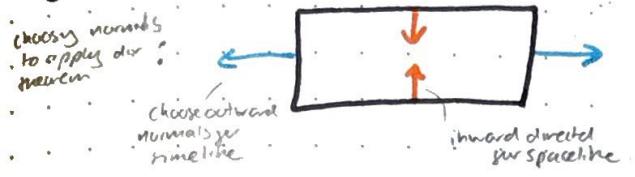
what he immediately calls a diverging vector
yield through an submanifold
(bit giddily w/ direction of normal)

$$\int_S V \cdot dS = \int_S V^a \vec{n}_a dvol_h.$$

We've shown

$$\int_{\partial N} V^a \vec{n}_a dvol_h = \int_N \nabla_a V^a dvol_g.$$

Checking the definitions, \vec{n}^a points 'out' of N for ∂N TIMELIKE (or in Riemannian) and 'into' N for ∂N SPACELIKE.



div theorem:
Only difference to what we are used to in vector calc.
(is we have to insert signs into directions of unit vectors)

[what about null boundaries?
there is no well-defined unit normal b/c normal to null surface is null vector & we can't normalize null vector so give maths sense
for null surface (advol is well-defined) but can't separately normalize ∇a & $dvol$? (Don't worry about this too much)]

THE EINSTEIN HILBERT ACTION

We want to derive Einstein's equations from an action principle, we expect an action of the form

$$S[g, \text{MATTER}] = \int_M L(g, \text{MATTER}) dvol_g$$

where L is a scalar Lagrangian. If we ignore matter for now, an obvious guess for L is $L=R$, scalar curvature. This gives the Einstein-Hilbert action.

$$S_{EH}[g] = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M R g dvol_g$$

need a scalar that depends on g to result in here to integrate, an obvious guess is scalar curvature (work thought to see this weeks)

In order to derive e.o.m. from an action, we consider $g + \delta g$ where δg vanishes outside a compact (= bounded) set in M , and expand to first order in δg (considered small). We require variation of S_{EH} to vanish at this order. We want to compute

$$\delta S_{EH} = S_{EH}[g + \delta g] - S_{EH}[g] \quad (\text{ignore } O((\delta g)^2))$$

First we consider $dvol_g = \sqrt{|g|} dx^1 \dots dx^n$ (assume δg non-zero in a single coord patch)
To compute $\delta \sqrt{|g|}$, recall we can write the determinant as

$$g = g_{\bar{m}\bar{n}} \Delta^{\bar{m}\bar{n}}$$

where Δ^{uv} is cofactor matrix $\Delta^{uv} = (-1)^{u+v}$

delete v^{th} column & u^{th} row

① delete this column & row, find det of resulting matrix & multiply by ± 1 .
giving component of cofactor matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} g^{11} & \dots & g^{1v} & \dots & g^{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ g^{u1} & \dots & g^{uv} & \dots & g^{un} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ g^{n1} & \dots & g^{nv} & \dots & g^{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

Δ^{uv} is independent of g_{uv} , and satisfies $\Delta^{uv} = g^{uv} \Delta^{uv}$. consider under $g_{uv} \rightarrow g_{uv} + \delta g_{uv}$, $\delta g = \frac{\partial g}{\partial g_{uv}} \delta g_{uv} = \Delta^{uv} \delta g_{uv} = g^{uv} \delta g_{uv}$

$$\therefore \delta \sqrt{|g|} = \delta \sqrt{|g|} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} (-\delta g) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{|g|} g^{uv} \delta g_{uv}$$

$$\therefore \delta(dvol_g) = \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \delta g_{ab} dvol_g$$

we have joint variation in volume form
 $dvol_g$ asto variations metric, now
wrote out change in R_g

To compute δR_g , we first consider $\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}$. The difference of two connections is a tensor, so this is a tensor $\delta \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu}$. To compute this, we can consider normal coordinates for g_{ab} at some point p . Then since $\partial_\mu g_{\nu\rho}|_p = 0$.

only non zero
contr. comes
from varying
derivative
piece

$$\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}|_p = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\delta g_{\nu\rho,p} + \delta g_{\rho\nu,p} - \delta g_{\nu\rho,\sigma})|_p$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\delta g_{\nu\rho,p} + \delta g_{\rho\nu,v} - \delta g_{\nu\rho,\sigma})|_p$$

expr for variation in Christoffel symbols; use this to give variation in R
 $\therefore \delta \Gamma_{bc}^a = \frac{1}{2} g^{ad} (\delta g_{ab;c} + \delta g_{cd;b} - \delta g_{bc;d}).$

tensor e.g. both
sides, true w.r.t.
 p to aim
(since arbitrary)

Next we consider $\delta R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu}$. Again work in normal coords at p .

$$R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu} = \partial_\rho (\Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu}) - \partial_\sigma (\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}) + \Gamma^\mu \circ \Gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu}|_p = [\partial_\rho (\delta \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu}) - \partial_\sigma (\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu})]|_p$$

$$= [\nabla_\rho \delta \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu} - \nabla_\sigma \delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}]|_p$$

$$\therefore \delta R_{bcd}^a = \nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{bd}^a - \nabla_d \delta \Gamma_{bc}^a$$

same as before, promote to AIN

$$\Rightarrow \delta R_{abc} = \nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - \nabla_b \delta \Gamma_{ac}^c$$

observing that $\delta(g^{ab}g_{bc}) = 0 \Rightarrow (\delta g^{ab}) = -g^{ac}g^{bd}\delta g_{cd}$. We finally have

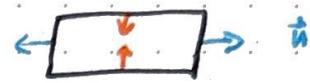
$$\begin{aligned} \delta R_g &= \delta(g^{ab}R_{ab}) = (\delta g^{ab})R_{ab} + g^{ab}\delta R_{ab} \\ &= -R^{ab}\delta g_{ab} + g^{ab}(\nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - \nabla_b \delta \Gamma_{ac}^c) \\ &= -R^{ab}\delta g_{ab} + \nabla_c X^c \end{aligned}$$

where $X^c = g^{ab}\delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - g^{cb}\delta \Gamma_{ba}^a$.

Lecture 24

Last lecture * Stokes / divergence theorem:

$$\int_M \nabla_a X^a d\text{vol}_g = \int_{\partial M} X^a n_a d\text{vol}_h$$



→ imposed exterior
gives field where we
integrate scalar
curvature of metric
over the manifold.

* Einstein - Hilbert action

$$S_{EH}[g] = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M R g d\text{vol}_g$$

* Under a variation $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$

$$\delta(d\text{vol}_g) = \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g ;$$

issue is manifold infinite
then may not get finite action S_{EH}
(but generally we ignore this) and
anyway we only really care about the
variation in the action which makes sense.
even if it is negative
we can contract into variations involving some divergence
or have involving variation of δg symbol!

(δg small, vanish outside coordinate)

$$\delta(R_g) = -R^{ab} \delta g_{ab} + \nabla_a X^a$$

$$X^a = g^{cd} \delta \Gamma^a_{cd} - g^{ac} \delta \Gamma^c_{cd}.$$

We deduce from the formulae for δR_g , $\delta d\text{vol}_g$ that

$$\delta S_{EH} = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{ab} R - R^{ab} \right) \delta g_{ab} + \nabla_c X^c \right\} d\text{vol}_g .$$

[usually when we
are deriving E-L equations:
(something nice) \times variation + piece we integrate
away by parts]

$$= \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M -G^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

where we've used the fact that δg and hence X vanish on ∂M . to drop the last term using the divergence theorem.

We immediately see that $\delta S_{EH} = 0$ for all variations δg_{ab} if and only if g_{ab} solves the vacuum Einstein equations.

Suppose we also have a contribution from matter fields

$$S_{\text{tot.}} = S_{EH} + S_{\text{matter}}, \quad S_{\text{matter}} = \int_M L[\phi, g] d\text{vol}_g .$$

Under a variation $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$ we must have

$$\delta S_{\text{matter}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_M T^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

for some symmetric 2-tensor T^{ab} .

↑ it's just whatever
we need to put in to
make this statement true.

↑ note: this is not the only poss definition for the energy-momentum
but this defn is nicely consistent w/ relativity.

Varying g in $S_{\text{tot.}}$ gives $[G^{ab} = 8\pi T^{ab}]$ i.e. Einstein's equations

E.g. If ψ is a scalar and $L_{\text{matter}} = -\frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi$, then under $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$

piece from varying g (in matter)

piece from varying volume
(from which we integrate L over)

$$\delta S_{\text{matter}} = - \int_M \left[\frac{1}{2} \delta(g^{ab}) \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi d\text{vol}_g + \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi \delta(d\text{vol}_g) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_M (g^{ac} g^{bd} \nabla_c \psi \nabla_d \psi \delta g_{ab} - \frac{1}{2} (g^{cd} \nabla_c \psi \nabla_d \psi) g^{ab} \delta g_{ab}) d\text{vol}_g$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_M T^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

where $T^{ab} = \nabla^a \psi \nabla^b \psi - \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_c \psi \nabla^c \psi$.

using stuff from
last lecture

Exercise: Show that varying $\psi \rightarrow \psi + \delta\psi$ gives the wave equation $\nabla_c \nabla^c \psi = 0$.

It can be shown that diffeomorphism invariance of the matter action implies $\nabla T^{ab} = 0$. (T^{ab} is divergence free)

CONCLUDE: so we have nice way of formulating einstein's eqns of GR in terms of an action principle which is nice because this is how we think about most modern physical theories (i.e. starting from an action principle).

"e-wave-chy".

THE CAUCHY PROBLEM FOR EINSTEIN'S EQUATIONS

We expect Einstein's equations can be solved given data on a spacelike hypersurface Σ . What is the right data?

Suppose $\iota: \Sigma \rightarrow M$ is an embedding, such that $\iota(\Sigma)$ is spacelike. Then $h = \iota^*(g)$ is Riemannian.

Let n be a choice of unit normal to $\iota(\Sigma)$. We define g for X, Y vector fields on Σ

$$k(X, Y) = \iota^*(g(n, \nabla_{\tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}))$$

(strictly speaking need to extend these to the surface, but that gives same ans so ignore this subtlety)

where $\iota_* X = \tilde{X}$, $\iota_* Y = \tilde{Y}$ on $\iota(\Sigma)$.

We pick local coordinates $\{\tilde{y}^i\}$ on Σ and $\{x^\mu\}$ on M such that $\iota: (y^1, y^2, y^3) \mapsto (0, y^1, y^2, y^3)$, then $n_\mu = \alpha \delta^\mu_0$.

If X, Y vector fields on Σ , say $X = X^i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}$, $Y = Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}$, take $\tilde{X} = X^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$, $\tilde{Y} = Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$.

Then $k(X, Y) = g_{\mu\nu} n^\mu \tilde{X}^\sigma \nabla_\sigma \tilde{Y}^\nu$

$$= \alpha \delta^\mu_\nu \tilde{X}^\sigma (\partial_\sigma \tilde{Y}^\nu + \Gamma^\nu_{\sigma\tau} \tilde{Y}^\tau) = \alpha \Gamma^\mu_{ij} X^i Y^j$$

called 2nd fundamental form

$\therefore k$ is a symmetric 2-tensor on Σ . We can show (example sheet 4) that $\iota^*(M, g)$ solves the vacuum Einstein equations, then Einstein constraint equations hold: what are these? \rightarrow eqns relating k & h , they hold in manifold Σ , not on larger manifold.

(on curvature w.r.t. h) (b) $\nabla_i k^{ij} - (b) \nabla_j k^{ij} = 0$ } (t)

all raising & lowering done with h (c) $R_h - k^{ij} k_{ij} + k^{ij} k_{ji} = 0$ }

since (1st term vanishes $y^0 = 0$?)

what do true say if want to characterise initial condns for EEs in terms of what we can think of k as some kind of normal dev. to g .

Conversely, if we are given

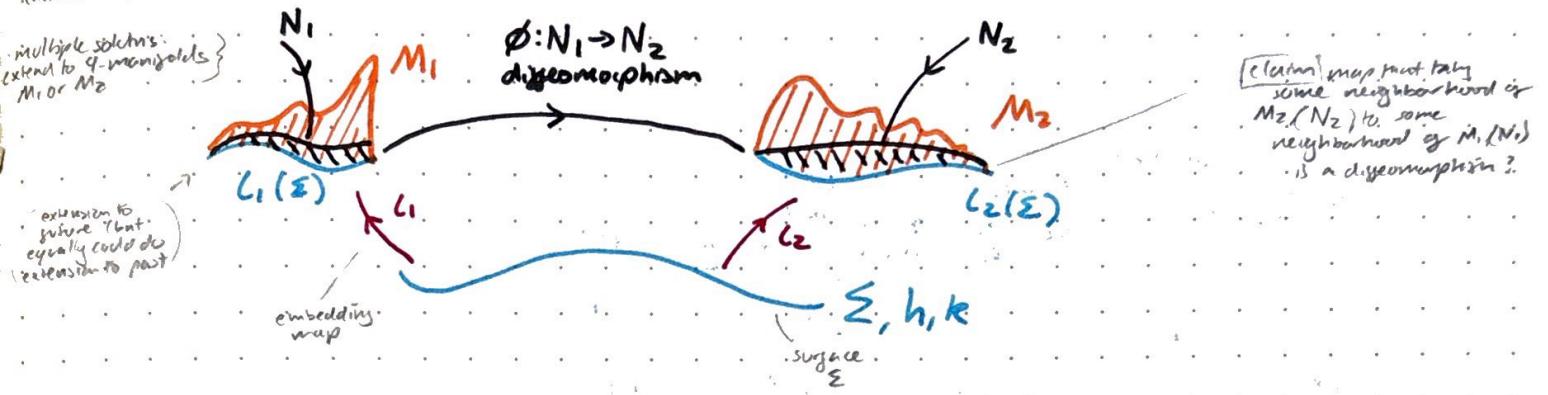
Σ A 3-manifold

h A Riemannian metric on Σ

k A symmetric 2-tensor on Σ

such that (†) hold. Then there exists a solution (M, g) of the vacuum Einstein equations, and an embedding $\iota: \Sigma \rightarrow M$ such that h is the induced metric on Σ , and κ is the 2nd fundamental form of $\iota(\Sigma)$.

idea now: forget the 4D manifold & think about 3D manifold Σ on which we are given data which solves these constraints.
claim is: given this data I can construct a solution in which the data embeds as an initial hypersurface. Moreover
(non-trivial) it is unique up to extension → what does this mean?



(This result is due to Choquet-Bruhat (existence) and Choquet-Bruhat + Geroch (geometric uniqueness).)

gives us way of looking at EES as evolution problem but w/o having to begin by fixing a gauge (finding ICs that satisfy the constraint equations is difficult.)

well done ☺