

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:

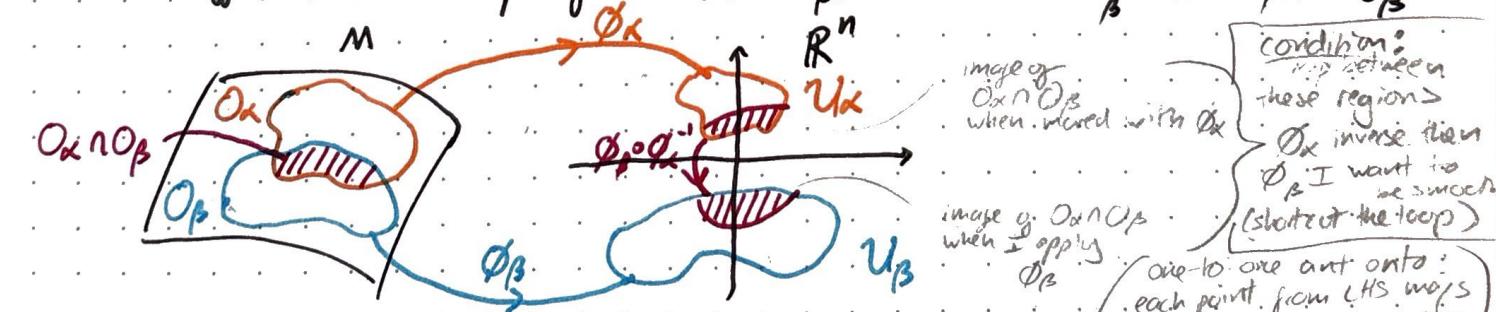
- CLASSICAL: No quantum effects
- GEOMETRICAL: Space + time are combined in a curved spacetime
- DYNAMICAL: In contrast to Newton's theory of gravity, Einstein's gravitational field has its own non-trivial dynamics

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 . (curly bracket, 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?)

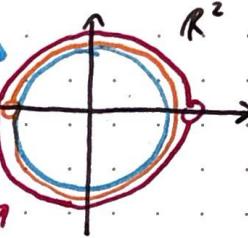
2. $S^1 = \{p \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid |p| = 1\}$

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

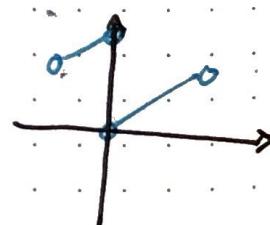
$$\phi_1(O_1 \cap O_2) = (-\pi, 0) \cup (0, \pi) \quad (\text{open set})$$

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.

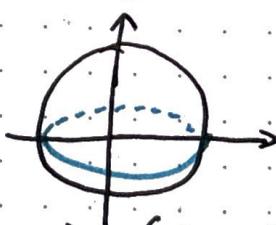
higher dimensional sphere



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

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

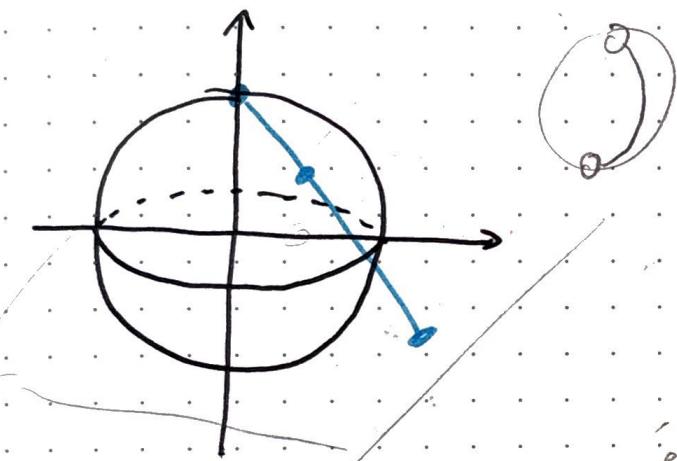
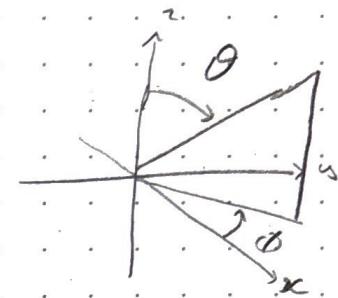


Set $O_1 = S^n \setminus \{E_{n+1}\}$ (minus sphere)

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

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

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



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

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

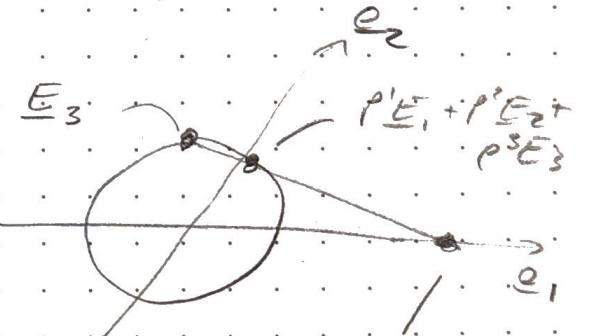
$$\text{then since point } p \text{ on } n\text{-sphere has unit norm } \rightarrow (p^1)^2 + \dots + (p^n)^2 = 1 - (p^{n+1})^2, \text{ and so } |x| = \frac{(p^1)^2 + \dots + (p^n)^2}{(1-p^{n+1})^2} = \frac{1-(p^{n+1})^2}{(1-p^{n+1})^2}$$

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

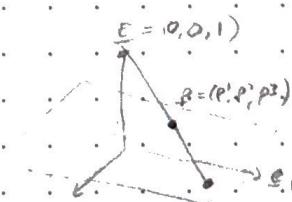
which is smooth

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

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



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



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

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

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

Lecture 2

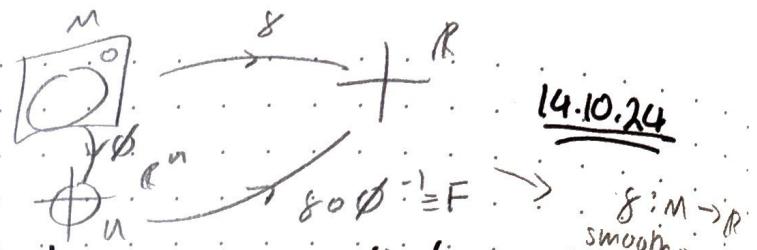
Smooth functions on manifolds

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

let $f: M \rightarrow N$

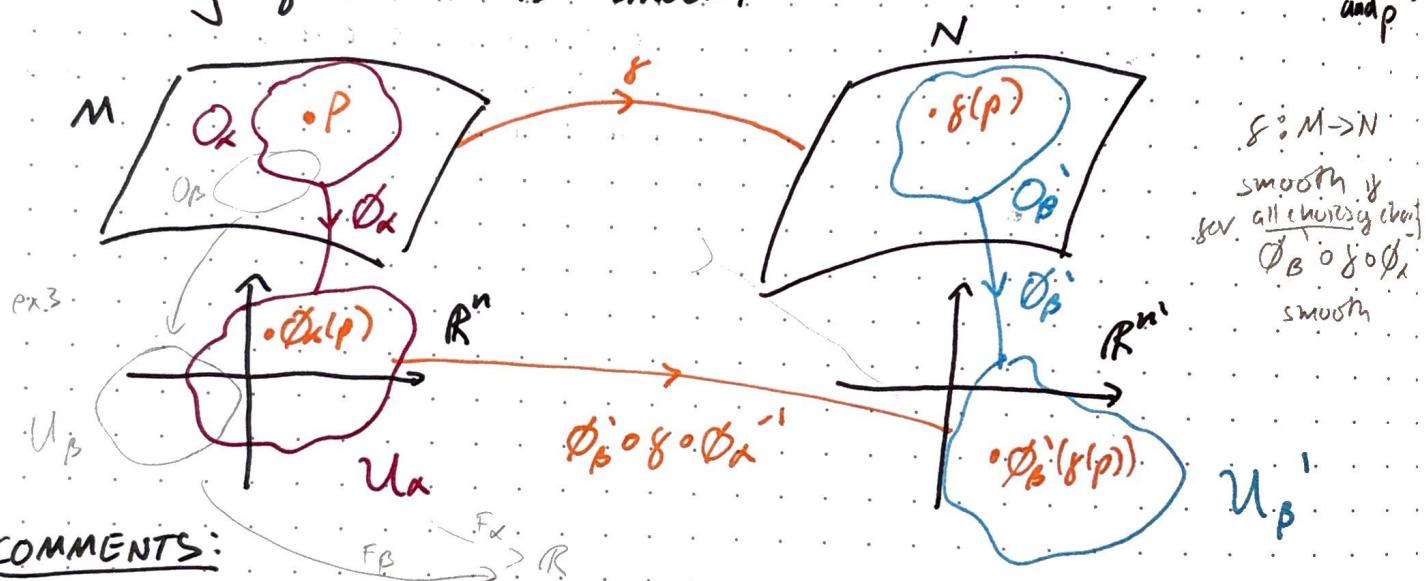
Then let $p \in M$ and pick charts (U_α, ϕ_α) for M and (U_β, ϕ_β) for N with $p \in U_\alpha$, $f(p) \in U_\beta$. Then $\phi_\beta \circ f \circ \phi_\alpha^{-1}: \phi_\alpha(U_\alpha) \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \phi_\beta(U_\beta) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n'}$ maps an open neighbourhood of $\phi_\alpha(p)$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

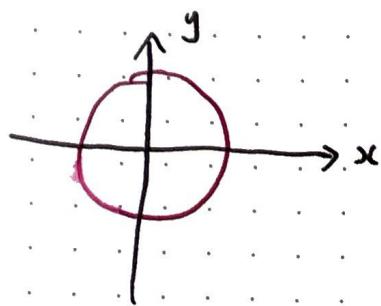
- A smooth map $\psi: M \rightarrow N$ which has a smooth inverse is called a diffeomorphism ($n = n'$)
- If $N = \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{C}$ we sometimes call ψ a scalar field
- If $M = I \subset \mathbb{R}$ an open interval then $\psi: I \rightarrow N$ is a smooth curve in N
- If ψ is smooth in one atlas,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

$$\phi(p) = (x^1(p), x^2(p), \dots, x^n(p)) \quad p \in O \quad \boxed{\phi} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

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 $\boxed{F_\alpha} : U_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

coordinate chart representations of ϕ

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

\hookrightarrow

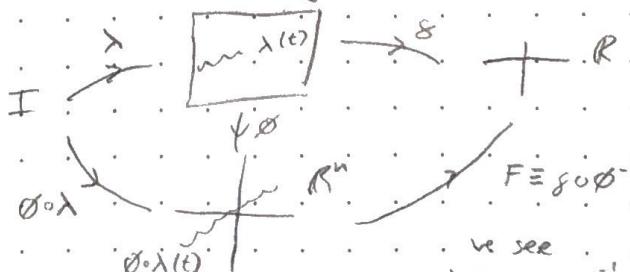
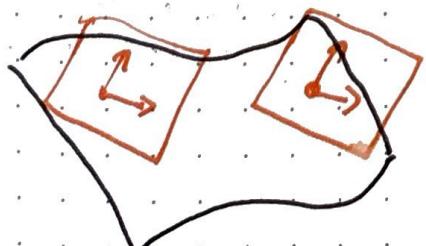
$\therefore O_\alpha \cap O_\beta \neq \emptyset$

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

In practice, often don't distinguish between f and its coordinate chart 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}^n). 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} : $(0, 1) \subset \mathbb{R}$

\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
 $f \rightarrow \underline{x} \cdot \nabla f$

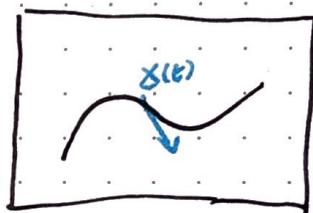
identifying $\underline{x}(t)$ with $\underline{x}(t) \cdot \nabla$

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: $X_p(f + af) = X_pf + ax_p f$. 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 $\phi(p) = (x^1(p), \dots, x^n(p))$

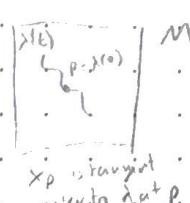
Let $F = f \circ \phi^{-1}$ and $x^i(t) = x^i(\lambda(t))$

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

from ϕ
 ϕ to itself

$$\text{and } \left. \frac{d}{dt}(f(\lambda(t))) \right|_{t=0} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m(i)} \left. \frac{dx^m}{dt} \right|_{t=0}}_{\text{depends on } f, \phi} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Einstein summation} \\ \text{convention: sum over} \\ \text{repeated } m=1, \dots, n \end{array}$$

(see preceding page)



x_p is tangent
vector to λ at p .

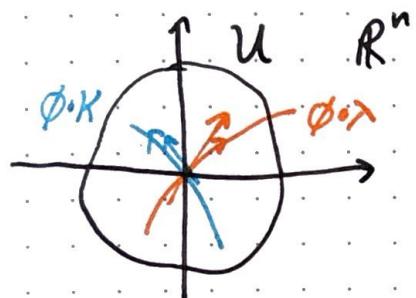
Lecture 3

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 :

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

Thus $T_p M$ is a vector space.

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

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

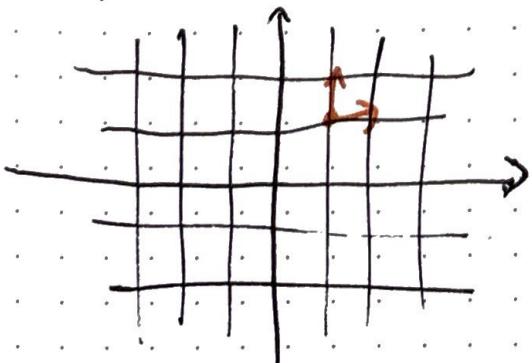
think of it like basis? vector in \mathbb{R}^n getting moved to M (see pic below)

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

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

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

approach from other end
tang.
don't have
now to do
+ F
+ g and M
+ n - d. F
+ to do
+ on \mathbb{R}^n



$$\begin{aligned} X_p(\gamma) &= \frac{\partial F}{\partial x^m}|_0 \cdot \frac{dx^m(t)}{dt}|_{t=0} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}|_{\phi(p)} \cdot \frac{d\phi^m(t)}{dt}|_{t=0} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi^m}{\partial x^m}|_p := \frac{\partial (\delta \circ \phi^{-1})}{\partial x^m}|_{\phi(p)}$$

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

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

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

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 $\left\{ \left(\frac{\partial x^m}{\partial x^\mu} \right)_p \right\}_{\mu=1}^n$ with respect to a general basis $\{e_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ for $T_p M$. We write $x_\mu = x^m e_\mu$ 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^m ?
Any vector in
 V can be written as $x^m e_m$.

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

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

renders $\{dx^m\}_p$ basis of cotangent space to be dual to basis of tangent space

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

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

$(F = f \circ \phi)$

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

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{show that each side gives the same for general vector } x \\ &x \text{ (we do this with } \eta \text{ separately)} \\ &(dx^m)_p(x) = (dx^m)_p(x \circ (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})) \\ &= (dx^m)_p(x \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m})) \\ &= (dx^m)_p(x \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v}) \cdot (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x^v} (dx^m)_p(x \circ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^m}) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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 $\tilde{U} \cap \tilde{U}'$, if we write $\phi' \circ \phi^{-1}(x) = x'(t)$ then $\tilde{\phi}' \circ \tilde{\phi}^{-1}(x, x^m) = (x'(x), \left(\frac{\partial x'^m}{\partial x^v}\right)_x x^v)$
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

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

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

$$T(w, \eta, X) = T(w^M \eta^V, X^\sigma e_\sigma)$$

because
multilinear

$$= w_M \eta_V X^\sigma T(g^M, g^V, e_\sigma)$$

defining
components

$$= w_M \eta_V X^\sigma T^{MV}$$

$$\text{in AIN } T(w, \eta, X) = w_A \eta_B X^C T^{AB}_C$$

generalisation to higher ranks

basically given a covector & a vector, a tensor type $(1,1)$ 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 ($\{x^\mu\}$, 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 $\{e_\nu\}_{\nu=1}^n$ are two bases for $T_p M$ with dual bases $\{\delta_\mu\}_{\mu=1}^n$ and $\{\delta_\nu\}_{\nu=1}^n$.

We can expand $g^\mu = A^\mu_\nu g^\nu$ and $e_\mu = B^\nu_\mu \delta_\nu$ for some $A^\mu_\nu, B^\nu_\mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_\nu &= g^\mu (e_\nu) = A^\mu_\tau g^\tau (B^\sigma_\nu e_\sigma) \quad \text{a linear map} \\ &= A^\mu_\tau B^\sigma_\nu g^\tau (e_\sigma) = A^\mu_\tau B^\sigma_\nu \delta^\tau_\sigma \\ &= A^\mu_\sigma B^\sigma_\nu \quad \delta^\mu_\nu \text{ identity matrix} \end{aligned}$$

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

If $e_\mu = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu})_p$ and $e_\nu = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu})_p$

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

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

A change of bases induces a transformation of tensor components.

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

$$T^\mu_\nu = T(g^\mu, e_\nu)$$

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

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

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

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 $S(w, X) = T(w, g^\mu, X, e_\mu)$ (*)

To see this is independent of the choice of basis:

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

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

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

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
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not also
easy to show
how components
wrt general curved
bases transform
(e.g. plug into $x^\mu \delta_\mu = x^\nu \delta_\nu$
as before)

regarding
 $x^\mu = A^\mu_\nu x^\nu$
 $\eta^\mu = (A^{-1})^\mu_\nu \eta^\nu$

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
 $s_{ab} = T_{ab}^{bc}$

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

$$\rightarrow \text{note e.g. } S_e^{bc} = T_{abc}^{de} \cdot de \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{note why?} \\ \text{so bc upstairs gives factor A which cancels} \\ \text{w/ bc upstairs w/ such A! from derivation} \end{array} \right. \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{there are} \\ \text{ways to} \\ \text{contract } T_{abc}^{de} \end{array} \right.$$

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}

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

$$n^i, w^i \in T_p M \\ x_r, y_i \in T_p M$$

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

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? ^{we 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 $T = T_v^u e_u \otimes f^v$

(^{↳ show both sides acting 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

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

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 $T^{(ab)} X_{[ac|bd]} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{acbd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{acdb}$
 $\text{since } T^{(ab)} \text{ symmetric} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{acbd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ba)} X_{acbd}$
 $\text{then related dummy indices} = \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{acbd} - \frac{1}{2} T^{(ab)} X_{acbd} = 0$

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

$$\text{If } T^r_s M = T^1_0 M \cong TM$$

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 in all other components

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 function, it's going back and forth from M to TM

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

so if you give it a function, it's going back and forth from M to TM

it's like TM is gluing together the spaces of tensors at each point p , it provides a tensor bundle \rightarrow it's constructed by picking a member of

TM is a set of ordered pairs $(p, X_p) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times T_p M$
so vector field $X(p) = (p, X_p)$ maps $M \rightarrow TM$ (providing $X(M)$ is smooth)

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

tangent bundle is gluing together all these little tangent spaces as p varies

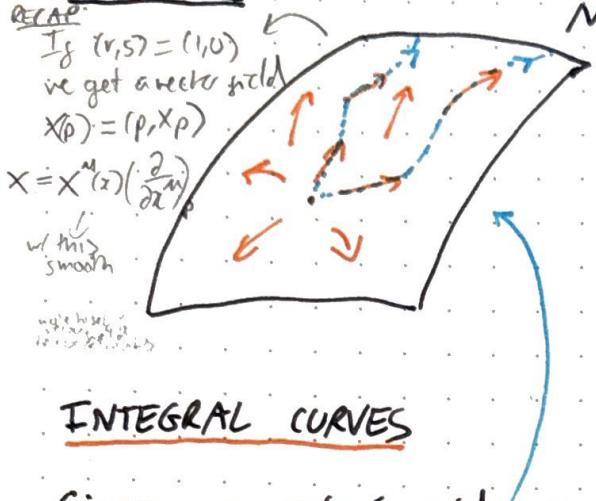
vector field picks out a member $T_p M$ for each position in M in a smooth manner

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Lecture 6

assign to every point a velocity
like a fluid velocity field

23.10.24



A vector field can act on a function $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by to give a new function Xf by
 $Xf(p) = X_p(f)$

In coordinates

$$Xf(p) = X^m(\phi(p)) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^m}|_{\phi(p)}$$

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
noncommutativity, therefore
etc individually?

we can begin
 $X(Y(g))$ obeys
closure rule
 $[X(g), Y(g)]$ is not zero
field because
Leibniz rule

To see this use coordinates

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

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. (we have said a way of generating a vector field from two other vector fields)

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

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

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

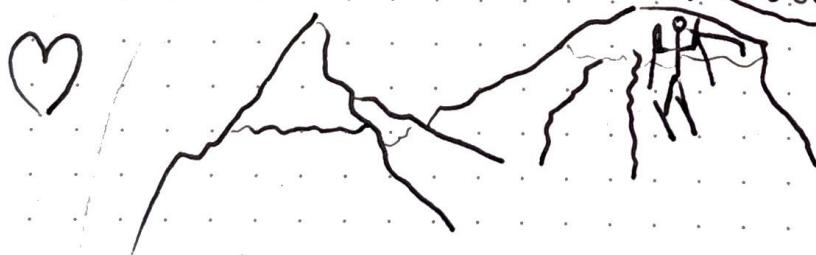
$$l(\lambda) = \int_a^b \left| \frac{d\lambda}{dt}(t) \right| dt$$

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 $m = a$??

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)

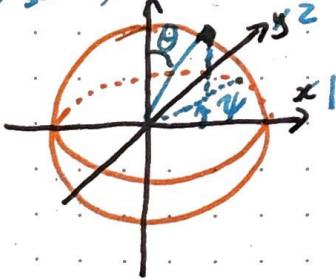
map an open square in \mathbb{R}^2 into S^2

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

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

No? don't think so

other way



In this chart the round metric is

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

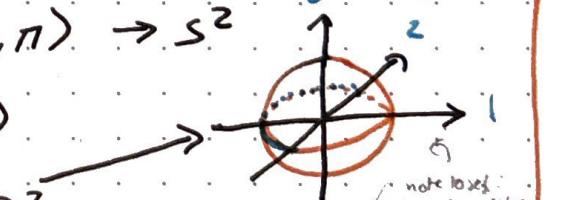
set of points where all satisfied (i.e.)

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

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

note loss of
imagine pitch
lego but rotated
axes $x^1 \rightarrow -x^3$
 $y \rightarrow x^2$

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)

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 $g^{ab} \eta_a = \eta_b$

(vector) (covektor) (by lowering w/ metric)

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 $T^a{}_c$ 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

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 (manifold not dim.)

At any point on a general Lorentzian manifold, we can find a basis

$$\sum e_\mu e^\mu = 0 \quad \text{st. } g(e_u, e_v) = \eta_{uv} \equiv \text{diag}(-1, 1, \dots, 1)$$

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

$$\eta_{uv} = g(e_u, e_v) = (A^{-1})^\mu{}_u (A^{-1})^\nu{}_v g(e_\mu, e_\nu) = (A^{-1})^\mu{}_u (A^{-1})^\nu{}_v \eta_{\mu\nu}$$

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

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

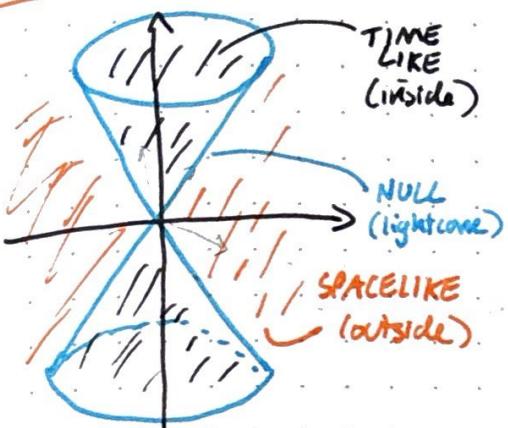
The tangent space at p has η_{uv} as metric tensor (in this basis).

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 $\star \rightarrow dx^a = g_{ab} du^b dx^b$ 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

i.e. extremal $L(\lambda) = \int du \sqrt{g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu}$ vs $\tau(\lambda) = \int du \sqrt{-g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu}$

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
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

metric does not depend on t explicitly

2) The Schwarzschild metric in Schwarzschild coords. is given by

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

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

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

note to self: for each $x^a = t, r, \theta, \varphi$, consider t :

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

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

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

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

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

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

Rest of symbols can be found from other EL equations

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

COVARIANT DERIVATIVE

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

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

b/c partial derivative
lousy & it doesn't give another tensor field

EXERCISE: show that if V is a vector field then

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

(note here $\frac{dV^\mu}{dx^\nu}$) \rightarrow components of tensor transfrom as $T_v^M = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\sigma}{\partial x^\nu} T_\sigma^0$

components of vector transform as $V^\mu(x) = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} V^\nu(x)$

so $\frac{\partial V^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} V^\mu$

$$[T_v^M = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\sigma}{\partial x^\nu} T_\sigma^0 + \left(\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} \right) V^\nu]$$

exterior term does not transform as tensor

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: $T_p M \rightarrow T_p M$
 (multilinear map $T_p M \times T_p M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$)
 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, partial deriv
 $\nabla_X f = \text{par}(f) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial X}$

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_m the CONNECTION COMPONENTS $\Gamma_{v,p}^m$ are defined by

$$\nabla_{e_p} e_v = \sum_{v,p} \Gamma_{v,p}^m e_m$$

These determine ∇

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_X Y &= \nabla_{X^m e_m} (Y^v e_v) \stackrel{(i)}{=} X^m \nabla_{e_m} (Y^v e_v) = X^m (e_m(Y^v)) e_v \\ &\quad \stackrel{(ii), (iii)}{=} X^m (e_m(Y^v)) e_v \\ &= (X^m e_m(Y^v) + \Gamma_{\sigma,m}^v Y^\sigma X^m) e_v \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$(\nabla_X Y)^v = X^m (e_m(Y^v) + \Gamma_{\sigma,m}^v Y^\sigma)$$

the v th component of ∇Y

$$\text{and } Y^v_{;\mu} = e_\mu(Y^v) + \Gamma_{\sigma,\mu}^v Y^\sigma$$

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

$\Gamma_{\sigma,\mu}^v$ are not components of a tensor

components not tensors but they have transform law that converts your fact to not atensor

$$Y^v = \frac{dy^v}{dx^\mu}$$

but notice $\mu - \mu$ transform as a tensor

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

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

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

in coord basis

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

in coord basis

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

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

$$\nabla_v X^M = X^M_{;v} = X^M_{,\nu} + \Gamma^M_{\sigma \nu} X^\sigma$$

$$\nabla_v w_M = w_M_{;v} = w_M_{,\nu} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu M} w_\sigma$$

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

$$+ \Gamma^M_{\sigma \rho} T^{M_1 \dots M_{r-1} \sigma}_{v_1 \dots v_s, v_p} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu \rho} T^{M_1 \dots M_r}_{\sigma v_2 \dots v_s}$$

(1) consider tensorize $T(w, x) = w_M x^\nu T^M_\nu$
 $\nabla_p T = \nabla_p (w_M x^\nu T^M_\nu) = (\nabla_p w_M) x^\nu T^M_\nu + w_M (\nabla_\nu x^\nu) T^M_\nu + w_M x^\nu (\nabla_p T^M_\nu)$
 \rightarrow plug in our expressions for $\nabla_p w_M$ and $\nabla_\nu x^\nu$

(2) consider scalar density $T(w, x)$: remember contracting (1,1) tensors.
 $\nabla_p T = \nabla_p (w_M x^\nu T^M_\nu)$. we have no free indices or basis vectors, in the brackets
 \Rightarrow so this is just covariant derivative of a scalar (= normal deriv.)

$$= g_{\nu \rho} (\nabla_p w_M x^\nu T^M_\rho) = (\nabla_p w_M) x^\nu T^M_\nu + w_M (\nabla_\rho x^\nu) T^M_\rho + g_{\nu \rho} g_{\mu \nu} g^{\mu \rho} (\text{in words})$$

(3) compare both expressions, cancel terms & simplifying \Rightarrow
 $\nabla_p T^M_\nu = T^M_{;\nu} = T^M_{v,p} + \Gamma^M_{\nu \rho} T^{\rho M} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu \rho} T^M_\sigma$

• 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

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

(no this asterisk
semincolon, but needs
take covariant derivative
 ∇ twice)

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

(newest index to be taken)

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

$$\delta_{im} = \delta_{,M} \Rightarrow \delta_{imv} = \delta_{,MV} - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{Mu} \delta_{,\sigma}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta_{;EUV} = - \Gamma^{\sigma}_{[EUV]} \delta_{,\sigma}$$

$$\begin{cases} \delta_{MUV} = \delta_{MUV} \\ \partial_M \delta_{,U} = \partial_U \delta_{,M} \end{cases}$$

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

$$\Gamma^P_{[EUV]} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \Gamma^P_{EUV} = \Gamma^P_{EVU}$$

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

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

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

PROOF: In a coordinate basis

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

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

use result from
earlier