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Chapter 1

Flat Spacetime

1.1 Spacetime Physics

- Space tells matter how to move, matter tells space how to curve. Physics is simple when local, and when we eliminate force at a distance life is good.
- *Events* are coordinate-independent points in spacetime that are defined by “what happens there” or more concretely by an intersection of worldlines.
- Spacetime is locally Lorentzian, a.k.a. flat or non-accelerating. Gravitation/curvature is defined as the acceleration of the separation between two nearby geodesics.

We measure curvature by the following: characterize ξ the separation between two originally parallel geodesics, then propagate each forward by distance s . They are not necessarily parallel anymore (e.g. two great circles on a sphere), and the separation obeys the following EOM

$$\frac{d^2\xi}{ds^2} + R\xi = 0 \tag{1.1}$$

where R is the *Gaussian Curvature* of the surface.

Generalizing to multiple dimensions, the separation ξ is a vector, and we describe $\frac{D^2\xi}{ds^2}$ with a capital D since the coordinates of the derivative $\frac{d^2\xi}{ds^2}$ is subject to the whims of the coordinate lines, which should not affect the separation between these two geodesics that live beyond coordinates. The curvature is instead described by the Riemann curvature tensor, which takes

as arguments the 4-velocity $\mathbf{u} = \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau}$ and yields

$$\frac{D^2 \xi^\alpha}{d\tau^2} + R^\alpha_{\beta\gamma\delta} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} \xi^\gamma \frac{dx^\delta}{d\tau} = 0 \quad (1.2)$$

where \mathbf{R} is the 4-component Reimann curvature tensor. We call this the *equation of geodesic deviation*.

These functions are sister functions of the Lorentz force equation in electromagnetism

$$\frac{d^2 x^\alpha}{d\tau^2} - \frac{e}{m} F^\alpha_{\beta} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} = 0.$$

- \mathbf{R} is a fickle object, subject to perturbation e.g. by gravitational waves. A certain piece of the tensor is generated only by the local mass distribution though, \mathbf{G} the *Einstein curvature tensor*, incidently proportional to the *stress-energy tensor* as $\mathbf{G} = 8\pi\mathbf{T}$. Its interpretation is a local average curvature.

1.1.1 Practice Problems

Exercise 1.1 Show that the Gaussian curvature of a cylinder $R = 0$.

Choose cylindrical coordinates (a, θ, z) for the surface of the cylinder of radius a . We assert temporarily that all geodesics can be parameterized as $g(s|\omega, \dot{z}) = (a, \omega s, \dot{z}s)$, i.e. correspond to uniform translation along and rotation about the axis of the cylinder. Then, using the equation of geodesic deviation with Gaussian Curvatures

$$\frac{d^2 \xi}{ds^2} + R\xi = 0$$

for $\xi = g_1 - g_2$ the separation, then since g_1, g_2 are linear functions of s , their second derivatives with respect to s are zero and thus $\frac{d^2 \xi}{ds^2} = 0$. Observe that this happens regardless of the value of ξ , thus $R = 0$.

We now justify our parameterization $g(s|\omega, \dot{z})$. Two points separated infinitesimally (a, θ, z) , $(a, \theta + \delta\theta, z + \delta z)$ are separated by distance

$$\sqrt{\delta z^2 + a^2 \delta\theta^2} = d\theta \sqrt{\left(\frac{dz}{d\theta}\right)^2 + a^2}.$$

The distance between two points $(\theta_1, z_1), (\theta_2, z_2)$ is then given by

$$D[z(\theta)] = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dz}{d\theta}\right)^2 + a^2} d\theta$$

where $z(\theta)$ is any trajectory that runs between the desired endpoints. This is then a variational calculus problem, and thus the $z(\theta)$ that minimizes the path must satisfy the Euler-Lagrange Equation

$$\frac{d}{d\theta} \frac{\partial I(z', z)}{\partial z'} - \frac{\partial I(z', z)}{\partial z} = 0.$$

We note then that $I(z', z) = \int \sqrt{\left(\frac{dz}{d\theta}\right)^2 + a^2}$ is independent of z and so we instantly find that $I(z', z) = C$ a constant. This furthermore implies that $\frac{dz}{d\theta}$ is a constant and so that $z \propto \theta$. Call the constant of proportionality $z \propto \alpha\theta$.

Armed with this, we find that the arclength of the geodesic between the desired endpoints is

$$D[z(\theta)] = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \sqrt{\alpha^2 + a^2} d\theta \quad (1.3)$$

$$= \sqrt{\alpha^2 + a^2} \Delta z. \quad (1.4)$$

Recalling that s parameterizes the length of our geodesic, we find that s, z, θ must all be proportional. Call the ratios $\frac{\theta}{s} = \omega, \frac{z}{s} = \dot{z}$, justifying our parameterization.

Exercise 1.1b *Alternatively, employ $R = \frac{1}{\rho_1 \rho_2}$ where ρ_1, ρ_2 are the principal radii of curvature at the point in question in the enveloping Euclidean 3D space.*

We note that one of the radii in a cylinder is a while the other is infinite, thus $R = 0$.

Exercise 1.3 *Show that given ω , the rotational frequency of a planet about a fixed central mass M , we can not individually determine r the radius of orbit or M . Instead, derive a relation between ω and ρ the Kepler Density of the mass, the density if M were spread over the sphere of radius r .*

We know that a central acceleration $\ddot{r} = r\omega^2 = \frac{GM}{c^2 r^2}$ under Newton's Law of Gravitation.

Thus, we have

$$\omega^2 = \frac{GM}{c^2 r^3} = \frac{4\pi G}{3} \frac{\rho}{c^2}$$

where since there are no other constraints on the motion we are done.

1.2 Special Relativity and 1-forms

SR/GR aspire to describe all laws as relationships between geometric objects, i.e. events are points, [tangent] vectors connect points, and the metric (defining lengths of vectors) is also geometric. First some definitions

Vector The vector joining A, B as $\frac{d}{d\lambda}P(\lambda)$ where $P(\lambda)$ is the straight line joining A, B .

Metric tensor $G(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$.

Differential forms Consider the propagation of a plane wave with wavevector \vec{k} . There are surfaces of codimension 1 that have equal phase. Define $\tilde{\mathbf{k}}$ such that a vector \vec{v} incurs phase difference $\langle \tilde{\mathbf{k}}, \vec{v} \rangle$.

This is an example of a 1-form, a differential form that takes a single vector and returns a scalar, often also denoted by σ boldface greek letters. We call $\langle \sigma, \vec{v} \rangle$ the contraction of σ with \vec{v} .

Note that there is a one-to-one correspondence $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}$ and \mathbf{p} , i.e. $\langle \tilde{\mathbf{p}}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ is the same as $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u}$, and so we sometimes omit the tilde.

More generally, a 1-form is a local approximation the same way a vector is a local derivative, i.e. if we want the phase of a point P close to P_0 , we have

$$\phi(P) = \phi(P_0) + \langle \tilde{\mathbf{k}}, P - P_0 \rangle + \dots \quad (1.5)$$

Gradient as a 1-form The gradient is a 1-form, not a vector, since it is the first-order approximation

$$f(P) = f(P_0) + \langle \mathbf{d}f, P - P_0 \rangle + \dots \quad (1.6)$$

Coordinates Choose an orthonormal basis \mathbf{e}_α for vectors, then there is also a basis $\mathbf{w}^\alpha = \mathbf{d}x^\alpha$ for

1-forms, such that

$$\langle \mathbf{w}^\alpha, \mathbf{e}_\beta \rangle = \delta_\beta^\alpha \quad (1.7)$$

$$\langle v^\alpha \mathbf{w}^\alpha, \sigma_\beta \mathbf{e}_\beta \rangle = \langle \sigma, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \sigma_\alpha v^\alpha \quad (1.8)$$

4-velocity To work w/ dynamical variables, we need to start mapping quantities to geometric objects somewhere. Start with the 4-velocity, which in specific Lorentz reference frame has components

$$\begin{aligned} u^0 &= \frac{dt}{d\tau} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - |\vec{v}|^2}} \\ u^j &= \frac{dx^j}{d\tau} &= \frac{v^j}{\sqrt{1 - |\vec{v}|^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (1.9)$$

Lorentz Transformations Two types, rotations and boosts, generate a tensor Λ^α_β . Rotations look like

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.10)$$

while boosts look like

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \cosh \alpha & 0 & 0 & \sinh \alpha \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \sinh \alpha & 0 & 0 & \cosh \alpha \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.11)$$

where velocity $\beta = \tanh \alpha$.

Then both components and basis vectors are simply contracted w/ this tensor. Lorentz transformations obey $\Lambda^T \eta \Lambda = \eta$ transpose.

1.2.1 Exercises

2.2–2.4 Derive the following formulae:

$$\begin{aligned}
 u_\alpha &= \eta_{\alpha\beta} u^\beta \\
 u^\alpha &= \eta^{\alpha\beta} u_\beta \\
 \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= u^\alpha v^\beta \eta_{\alpha\beta} = u^\alpha v_\alpha = u_\alpha v_\beta \eta^{\alpha\beta}
 \end{aligned}$$

This is trivial,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= u_\alpha v_\beta \eta^{\alpha\beta} \\
 &= \langle \tilde{\mathbf{u}}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = u^\alpha v_\beta \\
 &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \tilde{\mathbf{v}} \rangle = u^\alpha v^\beta \\
 u_\alpha \eta^{\alpha\beta} &= u^\beta \tag{1.12}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$v_\beta \eta^{\alpha\beta} = v^\alpha \tag{1.13}$$

2.5 Verify the following coordinate-free relations a particle of mass m and 4-momentum \mathbf{p} measured by an observer with 4-velocity \mathbf{u} :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{u}^2 &= -1 \\
 E &= -\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u} \\
 m^2 &= -\mathbf{p}^2 \\
 |\vec{p}| &= \sqrt{(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u})^2 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p})} \\
 |\vec{v}| &= \frac{|\vec{p}|}{E} \\
 \mathbf{v} &= \frac{\mathbf{p} + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u})\mathbf{u}}{-\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u}}
 \end{aligned}$$

We must go into an arbitrary Lorentz frame for this:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{u}^2 &= -\frac{1}{1-v^2} + \sum_i \frac{v_i^2}{1-v^2} \\
 &= -1 \tag{1.14}
 \end{aligned}$$

We know that $E^2 = m^2 + |\vec{p}|^2$, where $\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$, and so

$$\begin{aligned} -\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u} &= -m \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} \\ &= m \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \\ m^2 + |\vec{p}|^2 &= m^2 \frac{1}{1-v^2} \\ E^2 &= (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u})^2 \end{aligned} \tag{1.15}$$

and the sign is chosen by defining E as positive.

But then, knowing the definition $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{u}$, this yields $m^2 = -\mathbf{p}^2$.

Again, $E^2 = m^2 + |\vec{p}|^2$, so since $E^2 = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u})^2$ and $m^2 = -\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p}$, we find $|\vec{p}|^2 = (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{u})^2 + \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p}$.

Earlier, we used that $\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$, and moreover we've seen that $E = m\gamma$ so we have $E = \frac{|\vec{p}|}{|\vec{v}|} = m\gamma$.

Not sure how to do the last one ☺.

2.6 Ascribe a function $T(Q)$ to describe the temperature at event Q . To an observer traveling with 4-velocity \mathbf{u} , show that he measures temperature change $\frac{dT}{d\tau} = \langle dT, \mathbf{u} \rangle$. Why is this reasonable?

If the observer travels from event P to event $P + \mathbf{u}\Delta\tau$, then the temperature at the new event can be computed as an expansion about the initial point, which to first order is $\Delta T = \langle dT, \mathbf{u}\Delta\tau \rangle$. Divide both sides by $\Delta\tau$ to obtain the desired result. Note that we want τ the proper time in the above relation because we are expanding in events about the rest frame of the temperature function T .

2.7 Show the below Lorentz transformation corresponds to motion with velocity $\beta\vec{n}$ and satisfies $\Lambda^T \eta \Lambda = \eta$.

$$\Lambda^0_0 = \gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \tag{1.16}$$

$$\Lambda^0_j = \Lambda^j_0 = -\beta\gamma n^j \tag{1.17}$$

$$\Lambda^j_k = \Lambda^k_j = (\gamma - 1)n^j n^k + \delta^{jk} \tag{1.18}$$

We know that the above matrix is a Lorentz transformation if it satisfies $\Lambda^T \eta \Lambda = \eta$. Most explicitly, recall that $\Lambda^\mu_{\bar{\nu}}$ is the LT from unprimed vectors to primed vectors $v_\mu \Lambda^\mu_{\bar{\nu}}$. The transpose is swapping the order of the arguments $\Lambda^\mu_{\bar{\nu}} = (\Lambda^T)_{\bar{\nu}}^\mu$. Thus, what we aspire to

show is

$$(\Lambda^T)_{\bar{\nu}}^{\mu} \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\rho}_{\bar{\sigma}} = \eta_{\bar{\nu}\bar{\sigma}} \quad (1.19)$$

$$\eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\mu}_{\bar{\nu}} \Lambda^{\rho}_{\bar{\sigma}} = \eta_{\bar{\nu}\bar{\sigma}} \quad (1.20)$$

Let's examine the following few cases

- $\bar{\nu} = \bar{\sigma} = 0$ —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\mu}_0 \Lambda^{\rho}_0 &= (-\gamma^2 + \beta^2 \gamma^2 n_j n^j) \\ &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

- $\bar{\nu} = \bar{\sigma} \neq 0$ —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\mu}_i \Lambda^{\rho}_i &= -\beta^2 \gamma^2 (n_i)^2 + [(\gamma - 1)^2 (n_i)^2 n^j n_j + 2(\gamma - 1)(n_i)^2 + 1] \\ &= (n_i)^2 [\gamma^2 - 2\gamma + 1 + 2\gamma - 2 - \beta^2 \gamma^2 + 1] + 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

- $\bar{\nu} \neq \bar{\sigma}, \bar{\nu} = 0$ —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\mu}_0 \Lambda^{\rho}_i &= \beta \gamma^2 n^i - \beta \gamma (\gamma - 1) n^i n^j n_j - \beta \gamma n^j \\ &= \beta \gamma (\gamma n^i - (\gamma - 1) n^i n^j n_j - n^j) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $\bar{\nu} \neq \bar{\sigma}$, none are 0 —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\mu\rho} \Lambda^{\mu}_i \Lambda^{\rho}_j &= -\beta^2 \gamma^2 n^i n^j + (\gamma - 1)^2 n^i n^j n^k n_k + 2(\gamma - 1) n^i n^j \\ &= n^i n^j [-\beta^2 \gamma^2 + \gamma^2 - 2\gamma + 1 + 2\gamma - 2] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

This verifies our claim that this tensor acts as a Lorentz transformation. To verify that it is a boost of $\beta \hat{n}$, we could simply rotate such that \hat{n} lies along a coordinate axis. This would be very easy if we had a simple form for the rotation matrix, but I don't have one handy, so let's be more creative. Consider starting in a reference frame moving with some 4-velocity \mathbf{v} . The components in this comoving frame of the 4-velocity are simply $(-1, \vec{0})$. If we boost

with our provided Lorentz transformation, we obtain

$$\mathbf{v} = (-\gamma, -\beta\gamma\hat{n}) \quad (1.21)$$

which, comparing with our earlier provided formula, corresponds to a 3-velocity of $-\beta\hat{n}$. Thus, the boost takes us into a frame that is moving with $+\beta\hat{n}$ relative to the initial reference frame.

1.3 Tensors, Electromagnetic Field and Stress-Energy

Lorentz Force Law The Lorentz force law both defines fields and predicts motions. It is written in geometric form

$$\frac{dp^\alpha}{d\tau} = eF^\alpha{}_\beta u^\beta \quad (1.22)$$

where \mathbf{F} is the Faraday tensor satisfying

$$\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{d\tau} = e\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{u}) \quad (1.23)$$

$$F^\alpha{}_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & E_x & E_y & E_z \\ E_x & 0 & B_z & -B_y \\ E_y & -B_z & 0 & B_x \\ E_z & B_y & -B_x & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1.24)$$

Tensors A tensor with rank $\begin{pmatrix} n \\ m \end{pmatrix}$ takes n 1-forms and m vectors to a scalar. Components of a tensor e.g. $S^{\alpha\beta}{}_\gamma$ can be computed by inserting the basis objects $S^{\alpha\beta}{}_\gamma = S^{\alpha\beta}{}_\gamma \sigma_\alpha \rho_\beta v^\gamma$. These transform with Lorentz transformation too.

We can always raise/lower indices w/ the metric, so we only discuss the total rank of a tensor usually. In any case, a raised index is contravariant and a lowered index is called covariant.

Tensor Operations In geometric notation, the gradient of a tensor $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \mathbf{S} &= \partial_\xi (S_{\alpha\beta\gamma} u^\alpha v^\beta w^\gamma \xi^\delta) \\ &= S_{\alpha\beta\gamma,\delta} u^\alpha v^\beta w^\gamma \xi^\delta \end{aligned} \quad (1.25)$$

Contracting a tensor is to sum over one raised and one lowered index, e.g. $M_{\mu\nu} = R_{\alpha\mu}{}^\alpha{}_\nu$.

Divergence (on the first index of \mathbf{S}) is defined

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{S} = \nabla \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{w}^\alpha, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{e}_\alpha) S^\alpha_{\beta\gamma, \alpha} \quad (1.26)$$

Transpose is interchanging the order of arguments.

Wedge product is antisymmetrized tensor product

$$\mathbf{u} \wedge \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{u} \quad (1.27)$$

Maxwell's Equations These become

$$F_{\alpha\beta, \gamma} + F_{\beta\gamma, \alpha} + F_{\gamma\alpha, \beta} = 0 \quad F^{\alpha\beta}_{, \beta} = 4\pi J^\alpha \quad (1.28)$$

Stress-Energy Tensor \mathbf{T} is a symmetric, second rank tensor whose components T_{jk} is the j -component of force acting across a unit surface area \mathbf{e}_k . Note that $\mathbf{T}^\alpha_\beta u^\beta = -\frac{dp^\alpha}{dV}$ 4-momentum density, but also $T_{\alpha\beta} u^\beta$ gives the component of the 4-momentum density along the α direction.

It is conserved $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0$ (note that thanks to symmetry we can take the divergence on either index).

One example of \mathbf{T} is the following: An observer wants to know at event P_0 how much 4-momentum a volume corresponding to 1-form Σ contains. This is expressed $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{T}(-, \Sigma)$, but the 1-volume of the box is simply $\Sigma = -V\mathbf{u}$, so $\mathbf{p} = V\mathbf{T}(-, \mathbf{u})$.

Alternatively, in a perfect fluid/ideal gas, we know that the space-space components of the tensor are $T_{ij} = p\delta_{ij}$, i.e. they are equal on the diagonal and vanish off it, so long as we are in the rest frame of the fluid where all velocities are isotropically distributed. The off diagonal terms vanish since we will never measure net x momenta when we are moving only in the y direction if the momenta are isotropic, and the on-diagonal terms must all be equal for isotropy as well. Moreover, the T_{0j} components are the densities of the j components of momentum, while T_{00} is the mass-energy density. Thus, $T_{00} = \rho$, $T_{ij} = p\delta_{ij}$ and all other terms are zero. Note that ρ is the rest-plus-kinetic energy.

1.3.1 Exercises

3.4 Formalize the tensor product $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{v}$ e.g. if \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} are first-rank tensors, then $T^{\alpha\beta} = u^\alpha v^\beta$.

Let $\mathbf{T} = \bigotimes_i \mathbf{u}_i$ where $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ is a collection of tensors of rank n_i . Then \mathbf{T} is a tensor of rank $N = \sum_i n_i$ whose indicies are simply the concatenation of the \mathbf{u}_i indicies. Thus, in the above $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{u} \otimes \mathbf{v}$, then the first index of \mathbf{T} is the index of \mathbf{u} and the second \mathbf{v} .

3.10 Show that any second rank tensor \mathbf{T} can be uniquely decomposed into symmetric and anti-symmetric components $T^{\mu\nu} = A^{\mu\nu} + S^{\mu\nu}$.

For any tensor $T^{\mu\nu}$, consider its transpose $T^{\nu\mu}$. Define

$$S^{\mu\nu} = \frac{T^{\mu\nu} + T^{\nu\mu}}{2} = T^{(\mu\nu)} \quad A^{\mu\nu} = \frac{T^{\mu\nu} - T^{\nu\mu}}{2} = T^{[\mu\nu]}$$

and the inverse operation $T^{\mu\nu} = A^{\mu\nu} + S^{\mu\nu}$. Uniqueness is manifest because combining the equations for index $\mu\nu$ and index $\nu\mu$ results in two equations for two unknowns (either $A^{\mu\nu}, S^{\mu\nu}$ or $T^{\mu\nu}, T^{\nu\mu}$ depending on which direction we're going) which exhibits a single unique solution. If each component exhibits a unique solution then the entire system of equations generated by the matrix equation is unique.

3.11 Show that $A_{\mu\nu}S^{\mu\nu} = 0$, if A, S are antisymmetric and symmetric respectively. This in conjunction with the result from the next problem shows that we only need the symmetric/antisymmetric portions of a tensor when multiplying against an antisymmetric/symmetric tensor.

For each fixed μ, ν , we see that $(A_{\mu\nu})(S_{\mu\nu}) = -(A_{\nu\mu})(S_{\nu\mu})$. Since for each (μ, ν) pair we also sum over (ν, μ) the sum must vanish.

3.12 Show that for an arbitrary tensor V , $V_{(\mu\nu\dots)}$ is symmetric, $V_{[\mu\nu\dots]}$ is antisymmetric, and that only second rank tensor is fully described by its symmetric/antisymmetric parts.

Let V be rank N , then we recall that $V_{(\mu\nu\dots)}$ is shorthand for

$$V_{(\mu\nu\dots)} = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_{\alpha\beta\dots \in \text{Permutations}} V_{\alpha\beta\dots}$$

and so when we index V with a one permutation of indicies as opposed to another, we don't change the list of all permutations and thus $V_{(\mu\nu\dots)}$ is invariant under exchange of any indicies, thus rendering it symmetric.

Recall moreover that

$$V_{[\mu\nu\dots]} = \frac{1}{N!} \sum_{\alpha\beta\dots \in \text{Permutations}} V_{\alpha\beta\dots} \varepsilon_{\alpha\beta\dots}$$

We note then that if we interchange two indicies on the left hand side, each of the ε contribute a single sign change (ε is fully antisymmetric in all indicies) and so the left hand side must too be antisymmetric.

As for full decomposition, we note that any N -rank tensor generally has d^N degrees of freedom, assuming there are d allowed values per index. To compute DOF for symmetric tensor, we have N indistinct indicies to deposit into d distinct values, yielding $\binom{d+N-1}{N}$ allowed values. For antisymmetric, we have d allowed values of which we choose N , so $\binom{d}{N}$ allowed values.

The numerator of these expressions is bound by $(2k)^N$, since $N \leq d$, while we are dividing by $N!$. Thus, the ratio of the sum of the decomposed DOF to the full DOF is $\frac{2^N}{N!}$ which vanishes. In fact, even for $N = 3$ we have $\binom{d+2}{3} + \binom{d}{3} < d^3$, so we know that for $N \geq 3$ we can't have equal numbers of DOF.

3.14 Define the dual of a tensor J to be obtained by contraction against the Levi-Civita symbol, e.g. $\star J_{\alpha\beta\gamma} = J^\mu \varepsilon_{\mu\alpha\beta\gamma}$ in four dimensions. For an arbitrary m -rank tensor, the definition goes $(\star J) = \frac{1}{N!} J \varepsilon$. Show that $\star \star J = (-1)^N J$ for antisymmetric J .

We leverage the following identity: $\varepsilon^{\{\alpha_i\}} \varepsilon_{\{\beta_i\}} = \det(\delta_{\alpha_i \beta_j})$ where the argument of the determinant is the (i, j) th index of a matrix and δ is the Kronecker delta.

Then, $\star \star J$ where J is of rank m in an N dimensional space is simply

$$(\star \star J)^{\alpha_i} = \frac{1}{N!} J^{\beta_i} \varepsilon_{\beta_i \dots \gamma_j} \varepsilon^{\gamma_j \dots \alpha_i}$$

We cyclically permute the indicies on the second ε . This incurs N swaps and so a net sign of $(-1)^N$. There are $\frac{N!}{m!}$ choices of these last $N - m$ indicies to sum over.

Of these last indicies, we note that $(\star \star J)^{\alpha_i} = J^{\beta_i} \varepsilon_{\beta_i} \varepsilon^{\alpha_i}$. For each ordering of β_i , they must all be distinct obviously if they are to contribute to the sum, and if they are an even[odd] permutation of the α_i then $J^{\beta_i} = \pm J^{\alpha_i}$, but the ε are same[different] signs too, so the two sides have the same sign regardless of permutation. That's $m!$ orderings, so for each set of indicies α_i , we have $\frac{1}{N!} N! (-1)^N J^{\alpha_i}$ on the right hand side, and the claim is proven.

We leveraged a simple lemma here, the identity initially stated, but it's easy to show that the expression has the desired properties. The two ε symbols must be antisymmetric under exchange of two indicies. If two indicies are exchanged, then either two rows or two columns of the right hand side are exchanged, and by the property of determinants a net sign flip is

also incurred. Moreover, in the base case $\{\alpha_i\} \equiv \{\beta_i\}$ element-by-element, then both sides are clearly unity. Thus, the right hand side satisfies the desired properties.

1.4 Accelerated Observers

Overview SR accomodates accelerated observers via local Lorentz frames. It's impossible to tell whether you're accelerating or whether you're in gravity, so it's possible to compute all gravity as if just accelerating. The mathematical result is GR.

Hyperbolic Motion If we require $\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt}$ to satisfy $0 = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{u}$, then we can show that this produces a trajectory satisfying $x^2 - t^2 = g^{-2}$, hyperbolic motion (note that $a^\mu a_\mu = g^2$).

Rotations in 4D In 3D, rotation was defined about an angular velocity vector ω_i . In 4D, we instead rotate about a plane $\Omega^{\mu\nu}$, such that

$$\frac{dv^\mu}{d\tau} = -\Omega^{\mu\nu} v_\nu \quad (1.29)$$

Compare to $\frac{dv_i}{dt} = \epsilon_{ijk} \omega_j v_k$.

Coordinates in Accelerated Frames Choose basis vectors \mathbf{e}_α such that $\mathbf{e}_0 = \mathbf{u}$ the 4-velocity of the frame, and \mathbf{e}_1 the acceleration. Thus, $\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3$ must be unaffected by LT in the 1-direction. We lastly require no rotation outside of the above two criteria.

We can verify that the choice $\Omega = \mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{u}$, $\Omega^{\mu\nu} = a^\mu u^\nu - a^\nu u^\mu$ is the rotation that is enforced by our former criteria: any vector orthogonal to \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{u} doesn't get rotated $\Omega^{\mu\nu} w_\nu = 0$.

A vector that undergoes the given Lorentz transformation specified by Ω (i.e. $\frac{dv^\mu}{d\tau} = \Omega^{\mu\nu} v_\nu$) is said to undergo *Fermi-Walker transport* along the worldline of the observer.

These coordinates approximate a Lorentz coordinate system out to g^{-1} .

1.4.1 Exercises

Self Derive hyperbolic motion.

6.1 Compute the proper time for an observer to travel distance L at acceleration g for half, then $-g$ for the other half.

6.6 Show that in the LLT coordinate system ξ^α , the proper time measured at coordinate ξ^1 is given $\frac{d\tau}{d\xi^0} = 1 + g\xi^1$.

6.8 Consider an observer that allows his LLT to rotate, not Fermi-Walker transport. Specifically, we rotate as

$$\frac{d\mathbf{e}_\alpha}{d\tau} = -\boldsymbol{\Omega} \cdot \mathbf{e}_\alpha \quad (1.30)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Omega} = \mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{u} + u_\alpha \omega_\beta \varepsilon^{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}$, the second component being the spatial rotation, where ω is perpendicular to 4-velocity \mathbf{u} . Show that

- $\mathbf{e}_0 = \mathbf{u}$ is permitted by the above.
- The second term, call it $\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{SR}$, obeys

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{SR} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Omega}_{SR} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega} = 0$$

- Compare the basis vectors transported via the above rules with those obtained via Fermi-Walker transport. Show that the space-like components are rotated by ω . Hint: pick a moment where the tetrads coincide and show that the change in their difference is rotating like $\vec{\omega} \cdot \vec{e}_j$.