

Title: AMATH 875/PHYS 786 - Fall 2015 - Lecture 6

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Abstract: <p>Course Description coming soon.</p>

GR for Cosmology, Achim Kempf, Fall 15, Lecture 6

Integration!

Q: What is special about totally antisymmetric covariant tensors, i.e., about differential forms?

A: Antisymmetry \Rightarrow special transformation property under chart changes:
 $\sim \det(\text{Jacobian})$
 \Rightarrow suitable for integration:

A: Antisymmetry \Rightarrow special transformation property under chart changes:

$$\sim \det(\text{Jacobian})$$

\Rightarrow suitable for integration:

S -forms have natural integrals in S -dimensional manifolds

Except: Depending on charts, sign of Jacobian may be wrong!



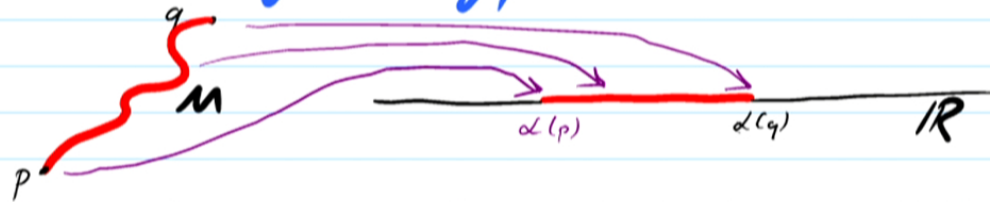
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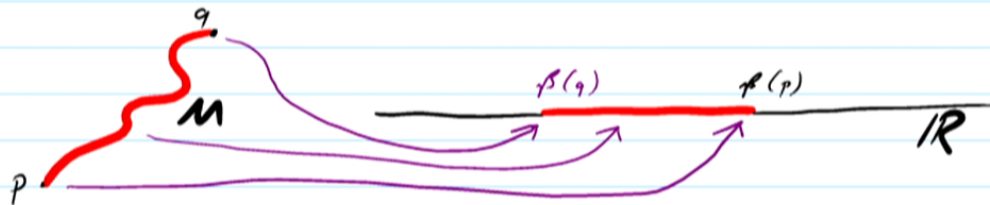
Namely: Consider e.g. 1-dim mfld:



□ could have charts of the type



□ or charts of the type

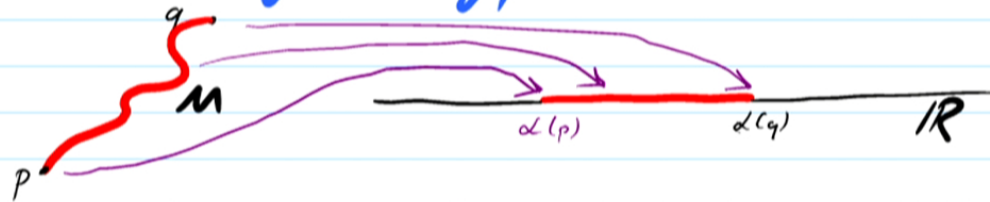


Thus: Before defining integration on manifolds, must study notion of "Orientation" of the manifold.

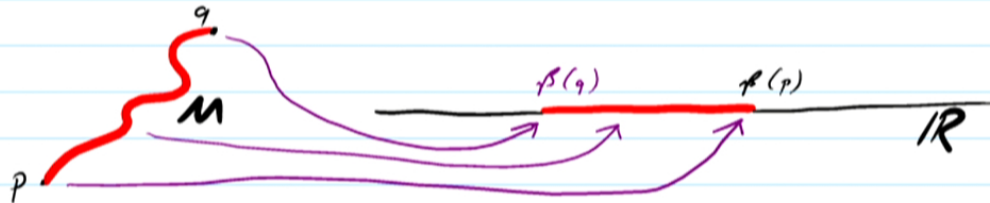
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For n -dim mflds, may need several charts.

Definitions:

- A complete collection of charts, i.e., an **Atlas**, A , is called **oriented** if among all overlapping charts with coordinates say x, \tilde{x} the Jacobi determinants are positive:

$$\det \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^i}{\partial x^j} \right) > 0$$

- A mfld M is called **orientable**



are not orientable.

- ▢ A mfd, M , together with a choice of oriented atlas, A , is called an **oriented manifold**.
- ▢ Then, an arbitrary chart is called **positive (or negative)** if its jacobian determinant with charts of the atlas A is positive (or negative).



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Definition:

An n -form $\Omega \in \Lambda_n(M)$ is called
a volume form if it nowhere

vanishes. (We will later find a preferred volume form
for space-time)

Proposition:

M possesses a volume form



Integration:

□ Recall change of cds in integration in \mathbb{R}^n :

For $(x^1, \dots, x^n) \rightarrow (\tilde{x}^1, \dots, \tilde{x}^n)$:

Riemann or Lebesgue integrals \rightarrow

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(x^1, \dots, x^n) dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(x(\tilde{x})) \det\left(\frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^j}\right) d\tilde{x}^1 \dots d\tilde{x}^n \quad (*)$$

$g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

⌈ Jacobian determinant is negative if coordinate systems change handedness.

□ Now for a general n -dimensional diffable mfld M ,
consider an n -form ω in a chart.

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$$\omega = f(x) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

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Then what is ω in an overlapping, second chart?

$$\omega = f(x(\tilde{x})) \frac{\partial x^1}{\partial \tilde{x}^{i_1}} \frac{\partial x^2}{\partial \tilde{x}^{i_2}} \dots \frac{\partial x^n}{\partial \tilde{x}^{i_n}} \underbrace{d\tilde{x}^{i_1} \wedge d\tilde{x}^{i_2} \wedge \dots \wedge d\tilde{x}^{i_n}}_{\text{totally antisymmetric!}}$$



○ terms are nonzero only if contain each number $1, \dots, n$ exactly once, e.g. $d\tilde{x}^1 \wedge d\tilde{x}^3 \wedge d\tilde{x}^2 \wedge d\tilde{x}^4 \wedge d\tilde{x}^5 \wedge \dots \wedge d\tilde{x}^n$.

○ Reorder those terms - they are all

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up to a possible factor -1 because $dx^i \wedge dx^j = -dx^j \wedge dx^i$

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$$\Rightarrow \omega = f(x(\tilde{x})) \det\left(\frac{\partial x^i}{\partial \tilde{x}^j}\right) d\tilde{x}^1 \wedge d\tilde{x}^2 \wedge \dots \wedge d\tilde{x}^n$$

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$g: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

⌚ Jacobian determinant is negative if coordinate systems change handedness.

□ Now for a general n -dimensional diffable mfd M , consider an n -form ω in a chart:

$$\omega = f(x) dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

The following definition of the integral of n -forms in an n -dim. diffable mfd is chart-independent, i.e., is well-defined:

Definition:

Assume M is an oriented n -dim mfd

and $\omega \in \Lambda_n(M)$ reads in a chart α : $\omega = f(x) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$.

Then, if one chart suffices:

$$\int_M \omega := \int_{\alpha(M)} f(x) dx^1 dx^2 \dots dx^n$$

usual Riemann or Lebesgue integral
image of M in \mathbb{R}^n

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usual Riemann or Lebesgue integral
↖ image of M in \mathbb{R}^n

Else: Piece right hand side together from several charts

Note: how to piece together does not matter as long as charts are from the atlas that M is equipped with. That's why orientation is important.

Definition: The boundary operator, ∂

- ▮ Assume $G \subset M$ is a region (i.e. an n -dim., open and connected subset) of the n -dim manifold M .

We denote the $(n-1)$ dim. boundary manifold of G by ∂G :

$$\partial G := \text{boundary}(G)$$

↙ the boundary operator

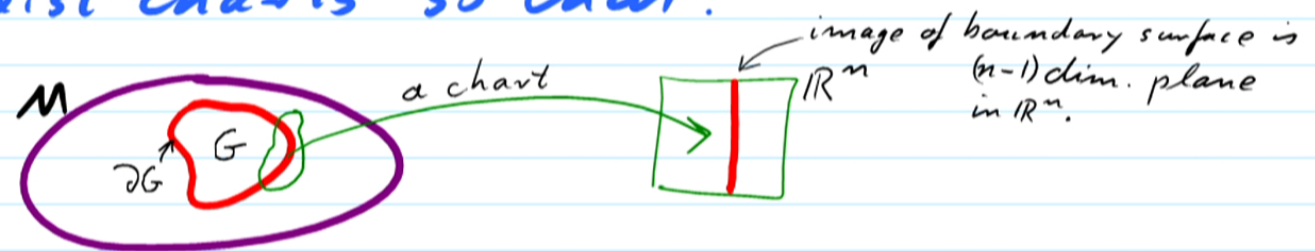
- ▮ We say that ∂G is smooth if locally there exist charts so that:

↙ image of boundary surface is

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Proposition: If M is orientable, then so

Proposition: If M is orientable, then so is G . Also, the orientation of G induces an orientation of ∂G .

We finally have all ingredients for one of Math's most important theorems:

Stokes' theorem: If closure \bar{G} of G is a compact n -dim region, then:

$$\int d\omega = \int \omega \quad \text{for all } \omega \in \Lambda_{n-1}(M)$$

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Special case I:

Assume: $M = \mathbb{R}$, $G = (a, b)$

Therefore: $\partial G = \{a, b\}$

Then, Stokes' theorem is $\int_G df = \int_{\partial G} f$, namely:

$$\int_a^b df = f \Big|_a^b \quad (\text{fund. thm of calculus})$$

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Special case II: \square $M = \mathbb{R}^2$, $G \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ a region with (closed) boundary curve ∂G .

\uparrow recall: this is automatic because $\partial \circ \partial = 0$

\square Consider a 1-form $\omega \in \Lambda_1(M)$:

$$\omega = \omega_1(x) dx^1 + \omega_2(x) dx^2$$

$$\implies d\omega = \left(\frac{\partial \omega_2}{\partial x^1} - \frac{\partial \omega_1}{\partial x^2} \right) dx^1 \wedge dx^2$$

Now Stokes' theorem:

$$\int_G d\omega = \int_{\partial G} \omega \implies \iint_G \left(\frac{\partial \omega_2}{\partial x^1} - \frac{\partial \omega_1}{\partial x^2} \right) dx^1 dx^2 = \int_{\partial G} (\omega_1 dx^1 + \omega_2 dx^2)$$

\square This is known as "Green's theorem".

Special case III: (exercise)

Similarly, one can show that what is often called the Stokes theorem for $M = \mathbb{R}^3$, namely

$$\int_G \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^3} \right) \times \vec{w} \, dG = \int_{\partial G} \vec{w} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

"cross product": $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = (a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2, a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3, a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1)$

$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^2}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^3} \right)$

\int_G : a 2 dim submanifold of M

\vec{w} : vector field

$\int_{\partial G}$: 1 dim boundary of A .

is indeed this special case:

Special case III: (exercise)

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↑ vector field

↑ a 2 dim submanifold of M

↑ 1 dim boundary of A .

is indeed this special case:

$$\text{div}_\Omega \xi := L_\xi(\Omega)$$

↑ Lie derivative

Wait! Isn't the divergence, at least on \mathbb{R}^m , simply

$$\text{div} \xi = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \xi^i = \xi^i_{,i}$$

Let's check in a chart:



▢ Assume $\Omega = a(x) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$ (volume form)

and $\xi = \xi^i(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$ (vector field)

▢ Then:

by
Leibniz
rule

$$= \xi^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} a(x)$$

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▣ Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{div}_\Omega \xi &= L_\xi \Omega \stackrel{\text{by Leibnitz rule}}{=} \xi^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} a(x) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m + \dots \\ &\quad + a \sum_{i=1}^m dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge L_\xi(dx^i) \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(\text{recall: } L_\xi(dx^i) = d(\xi(x^i)) = d\left(\xi^j \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} x^i\right) = d(\xi^j \delta_j^i) = d(\xi^i) = \frac{\partial \xi^i}{\partial x^r} dx^r \right)$$

only dx^i term

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$\leftarrow \in \Lambda_0(U)$

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only dx^i term survives in wedge product

$$\Rightarrow \text{div}_\Omega \xi = (\xi^i a_{,i} + a \xi^i_{,i}) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\text{div}_\Omega \xi = \frac{1}{a} (a \xi^i)_{,i} \Omega}$$

Notice: If $a \equiv 1$ then $\text{div}_\Omega \xi = \frac{\partial \xi^i}{\partial x^i}$ as expected for the divergence in the simplest case

Lecture 2 - CHECK ON A UNIT!

□ Assume $\Omega = a(x) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^m$ (volume form)

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only dx^i term survives in wedge product

Thus: Indeed, if $a(x) = 1 \forall x$ then $\text{div}_\Omega \xi = \xi^i_{,i} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$.

Now, we can derive Gauss' theorem from Stokes':

$$\square \operatorname{div}_{\Omega} \xi := L_{\xi} \Omega \in \Lambda_n(\mathcal{M})$$

$$\square \operatorname{div}_{\Omega} \xi = (d \circ i_{\xi} + i_{\xi} \circ d) \Omega$$

$$\Rightarrow \operatorname{div}_{\Omega} \xi = d \circ i_{\xi}(\Omega)$$

Recall:
 $d\Omega = 0$ because anti-symmetry doesn't allow $(n+1)$ forms.

We can now apply Stokes' theorem $\int_G d v = \int_{\partial G} v$:

$$\int_G d i_{\xi}(\Omega) = \int_{\partial G} i_{\xi}(\Omega)$$

i.e.:

$$\int \overbrace{d i_{\xi}(\Omega)}^{n\text{-form}} = \int \overbrace{i_{\xi}(\Omega)}^{(n-1)\text{-form}}$$

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$$\int_G \overbrace{d i_\xi(\Omega)}^{n\text{-form}} = \int_{\partial G} \overbrace{i_\xi(\Omega)}^{(n-1)\text{ form}} \quad \text{"Gauß' theorem"}$$

→ So far, we have:

□ differentiations, $\xi, d, i_\xi, L_\xi, \text{div}_\xi \Omega$

□ integration \int_G

But, still lacking:

□ A notion of distance between points!

The problem:

→ So far, we have:

□ differentiations, ξ , d , i_ξ , L_ξ , $\text{div}_\xi \Omega$

□ integration $\int_G v$

But, still lacking:

□ A notion of distance between points!

The problem:

□ Numerical distance of cds (x^1, x^2, \dots, x^m)

Definition:

A (pseudo)-Riemannian metric

on M is a covariant 2-tensor field g ,

i.e., a map $g: M \rightarrow T_p(M)_2$ which obeys

Δ $g: (\xi, \eta) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$\swarrow \searrow$ any two vector fields

with $g(\xi, \eta) = g(\eta, \xi)$ (symmetry)

\square $g_p(\xi, \eta) = 0$ for all $\xi \in T_p(M)$

\nwarrow any point $p \in M$.

} means g is non-degen 20/22?

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with $g(\xi, \eta) = g(\eta, \xi)$ (symmetry)

\square $g_p(\xi, \eta) = 0$ for all $\xi \in T_p(M)$

\uparrow any point $p \in M$.

only if $\eta = 0$ at p .

means g is
 non degenerate
 i.e. has no
 kernel i.e.
 is invertible

□ g is called a Riemannian metric if $g(\xi, \xi) > 0$ for all ξ at all $p \in M$.

Definition:

A differentiable manifold M together with a (pseudo) Riemannian metric g is called a (pseudo) Riemannian manifold.

The metric in a basis:

△ Assume the $\{\theta^i\}^m$ (e.g., $\theta^i = dx^i$) are

The metric in a basis:

▮ Assume the $\{\theta^i\}_{i=1}^n$ (e.g. $\theta^i = dx^i$) are a basis of $\Lambda_1(p) = T_p^*(M)$, at each $p \in M$.

▮ Then: $g = g_{ij} \theta^i \otimes \theta^j$

\uparrow
 $g_{ij}(x)$

▮ Assume $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ (e.g. $e_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$) is the dual basis of the tangent vector space, $T_p(M)$, at all $p \in M$:

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$$\theta^i(e_r) = \delta^i_r$$

□ Then: $g(e_r, e_s) = g_{ij} \theta^i(e_r) \theta^j(e_s)$
 $= g_{rs}$

For Space-Time
 the equivalence

□ M is called Lorentzian, if for all $p \in M$ th

GR always assumes Lorentzian m/m.

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$$\theta^i(e_r) = \delta^i_r$$

Then: $g(e_r, e_s) = g_{rs} \theta^i(e_r) \theta^i(e_s)$
 $= g_{rs}$

For Space-Time
 the equivalence
 principle requires:

M is called Lorentzian, if for all $p \in M$ there are bases so that $g_{ij}(p) = \eta_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & 0 \\ & 1 & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

GR always assumes Lorentzian m.f.d.

I.e.: $\forall p \in M, \exists$ dual bases θ^i, e_j , so that $g(e_r, e_s) = \eta_{rs}$ (We'll later use the freedom to choose the θ^i basis this way to get $g_{ij}(x) = \eta_{ij}$)

Assume $\{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$ (e.g. $e_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$) is the dual basis of the tangent vector space, $T_p(M)$, at all $p \in M$:

$$\theta^i(e_r) = \delta^i_r$$

Then: $g(e_r, e_s) = g_{rs} \theta^i(e_r) \theta^i(e_s)$
 $= g_{rs}$

For Space-Time
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 principle requires:

M is called Lorentzian, if for all $p \in M$ there are bases so that $g_{ij}(p) = \eta_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & 0 \\ & 1 & \\ 0 & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

GR always assumes Lorentzian mfd.

I.e.: $\forall p \in M, \exists$ dual bases θ^i, e_j , so that $g(e_r, e_s) = \eta_{rs}$ (We'll later use the freedom to choose the θ^i basis this way to get $g_{ij}(x) = \eta_{ij}$)