

Physics 464/511

Lecture Q

Fall, 2016

## 1 Parallel Transport

Consider a manifold with a vector or a 1-form defined at each point. Such an object might be a physical field, which would have field equations involving derivatives of this vector quantity. How can we tell on a curved manifold whether a vector  $\mathbf{V} = V^\mu(x_A)\partial_\mu$  at the point A is the same or different from  $\mathbf{V}$  at B,  $V^\mu(x_B)\partial_\mu$ ? The naïve thing would be if  $V^\mu(x_A) = V^\mu(x_B)$ . But the  $V^\mu$ 's are chart dependent and such a statement of equality of components at different points can be true for one chart and not another, and has no real meaning for the manifold. It is also the *wrong* requirement even for the simple example of a two dimensional Euclidean space in polar coordinates, for a vector in the  $\rho$  direction for  $\phi = 0$  is completely different from one of the same magnitude in the  $\rho$  direction at  $\phi = \pi/2$ .

This is true even for A and B very near each other. By definition, all charts agree on whether two directions differ by a finite angle as  $A \rightarrow B$ , but not on the rate. Thus  $\lim_{x_B \rightarrow x_A} V^\mu(x_B)$  is well defined, but not  $\partial_\nu V^\mu(x_B)$ , in the sense that it is chart-dependent.

Thus an arbitrary manifold has no means of comparing vectors at different points, unless there is an extra structure placed on the manifold telling how to move a coordinate system from point A to a nearby point B.

Let the equivalence principle help us out, by giving us a chart<sup>1</sup>  $C' = \{\xi^\alpha\}$  of a neighborhood of the event A which is cartesian and inertial at A. Then  $g'_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{x}_A) = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$  and  $g'_{\alpha\beta,\gamma}(\mathbf{x}_A) = 0$ . A vector  $\mathbf{V} = V^\mu\partial_\mu = V'^\alpha\partial'_\alpha$  defined at A is parallel transported an infinitesimal distance from A by holding its coordinates fixed, because that's how one parallel transports in flat space cartesian coordinates. Thus if we have a vector field  $\mathbf{V}$  and we ask what the "physical change" in  $\mathbf{V}$  is along the  $\partial'_\alpha$  direction, it is  $\mathbf{V}(B) - \mathbf{V}(A)_{\text{transported}} \approx \Delta\xi^\alpha (\partial'_\alpha V'^\beta) \partial'_\beta$ . Let us define that to be  $\Delta\xi^\alpha$  times the **covariant derivative**  $D_{\alpha'}$  in the  $\Delta\xi^\alpha$  direction. With  $\Delta x^\mu$  the corre-

<sup>1</sup>Some awkward notation here: the coordinates of  $C'$  will be called  $\xi^\alpha$  without a prime, but the derivative will be  $\partial'_\alpha = \partial/\partial\xi^\alpha$ . The indices  $\mu, \nu, \rho, \sigma$  will refer to the coordinates  $x^\mu$  of the chart  $C$ , while indices  $\alpha, \beta$  will refer to the chart  $C'$ .

sponding change in chart  $C'$ 's coordinates, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x^\mu D_\mu \mathbf{V} &= \Delta\xi^\alpha (\partial'_\alpha V'^\beta) \partial'_\beta \\ &= \Delta x^\mu \frac{\partial\xi^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \partial'_\alpha \left( V^\nu \frac{\partial\xi^\beta}{\partial x^\nu} \right) \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial\xi^\beta} \partial_\rho \\ \text{or } D_\mu \mathbf{V} &= \partial_\mu \left( V^\nu \frac{\partial\xi^\beta}{\partial x^\nu} \right) \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial\xi^\beta} \partial_\rho \\ &= \left[ \partial_\mu V^\rho + \underbrace{\frac{\partial^2\xi^\beta}{\partial x^\mu \partial x^\nu} \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial\xi^\beta}}_{\Gamma^\rho{}_{\nu\mu}} V^\nu \right] \partial_\rho \end{aligned}$$

Thus the components of the vector  $D_\mu \mathbf{V} = (D_\mu v)^\rho \partial_\rho$  are

$$(D_\mu V)^\rho = \partial_\mu V^\rho + \Gamma^\rho{}_{\nu\mu} V^\nu.$$

Again,  $D_\mu$  is known as the **covariant derivative**.

The chart  $C$  was an arbitrary chart. In some other chart with coordinates  $x'^\mu$ , would we have  $(D_\mu \mathbf{V})^\rho$  behave like a suitable tensor, with one covariant and one contravariant index? That is, is

$$(D'_\mu \mathbf{V})^{\rho'} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\partial x'^\rho}{\partial x^\sigma} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\mu} (D_\nu \mathbf{V})^\sigma$$

The left hand side is

$$\begin{aligned} (D_{\mu'} \mathbf{V})^{\rho'} &= \partial'_{\mu'} V'^{\rho'} + \Gamma'^{\rho'}{}_{\mu'\kappa} V'^{\kappa} \\ &= \underbrace{\frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^{\mu'}} \partial_\nu \left( \frac{\partial x'^{\rho'}}{\partial x^\sigma} V^\sigma \right)}_{\frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^{\mu'}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho'}}{\partial x^\sigma} \partial_\nu V^\sigma + \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^{\mu'}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho'}}{\partial x^\lambda} \right) V^\lambda} + \Gamma'^{\rho'}{}_{\mu'\kappa} \frac{\partial x'^{\kappa}}{\partial x^\lambda} V^\lambda \end{aligned}$$

The right hand side is

$$\frac{\partial x'^\rho}{\partial x^\sigma} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\mu} (\partial_\nu V^\sigma + \Gamma^\sigma{}_{\nu\lambda} V^\lambda).$$

We find covariance if it is true that

$$\Gamma'^{\rho'}{}_{\mu'\kappa} \frac{\partial x'^{\kappa}}{\partial x^\lambda} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\partial x'^\rho}{\partial x^\sigma} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\mu} \Gamma^\sigma{}_{\nu\lambda} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\mu} \frac{\partial x'^\rho}{\partial x^\lambda}.$$

or

$$\Gamma^{\nu\rho}_{\mu\kappa} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\sigma}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\kappa}} \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu\lambda} - \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\kappa}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\lambda}}.$$

Note

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \left( \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\kappa}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \delta^{\rho}_{\kappa} = 0 \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\mu} \partial x'^{\kappa}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} + \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\rho}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \end{aligned}$$

The second term matches our above questionable identity, which becomes

$$\Gamma^{\nu\rho}_{\mu\kappa} \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\sigma}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial x'^{\mu}} \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\kappa}} \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu\lambda} + \frac{\partial x'^{\kappa}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \frac{\partial^2 x^{\lambda}}{\partial x'^{\mu} \partial x'^{\kappa}}.$$

But this is true, as verified from

$$\Gamma^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\partial x^{\lambda}}{\partial \xi^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^2 \xi^{\alpha}}{\partial x^{\mu} \partial x^{\nu}}$$

which is Eq. 1 from Lecture P.

We have gone to great lengths to define the covariant derivative of a vector, which is nontrivial because the basis vectors may change from point to point. There were no such difficulties for a scalar, as the scalar did not require basis vectors. Thus  $D_{\mu}f = \partial_{\mu}f$ . For forms we must again worry about a basis, but we can take a shortcut if we use Leibniz product rule,  $D_{\mu}(AB) = D_{\mu}(A)B + AD_{\mu}(B)$  which must hold for any derivative (and in particular it holds for  $\partial/\partial \xi^{\alpha}$ ). Let  $\mathbf{A} = A_{\mu} \mathbf{d}x^{\mu}$  be a 1-form which we wish to covariantly differentiate. With  $\mathbf{V}$  and arbitrary vector,

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mu} \langle \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{V} \rangle &= \partial_{\mu} \langle \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{V} \rangle = \langle D_{\mu} \mathbf{A} | \mathbf{V} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{A} | D_{\mu} \mathbf{V} \rangle \\ &= \partial_{\mu} (A_{\nu} V^{\nu}) = (D_{\mu} \mathbf{A})_{\nu} V^{\nu} + A_{\rho} (\partial_{\mu} V^{\rho} + \Gamma^{\rho}_{\nu\mu} V^{\nu}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$(D_{\mu} \mathbf{A})_{\nu} = \partial_{\mu} A_{\nu} - \Gamma^{\rho}_{\nu\mu} A_{\rho}.$$

The rules for an arbitrary tensor can be found by considering tensor products of vectors and 1-forms. We find

$$\begin{aligned} (D_{\mu} T)^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r}_{\rho_1 \dots \rho_s} &= \partial_{\mu} T^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r}_{\rho_1 \dots \rho_s} + \sum_{i=1}^r \Gamma^{\nu_i}_{\alpha\mu} T^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{i-1} \alpha \nu_{i+1} \dots \nu_r}_{\rho_1 \dots \rho_s} \\ &\quad - \sum_{i=1}^s \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\rho_i \mu} T^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r}_{\rho_1 \dots \rho_{i-1} \alpha \rho_{i+1} \dots \rho_s}. \end{aligned}$$

The relationship between forms and vectors we just preserved in our definition of  $D$  on a form has nothing to do with the metric. But another connection we would like to have is that parallel transport of a pair of vectors should not change their inner product  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ . Thus  $\partial_{\mu} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = D_{\mu} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$  if  $D_{\mu} \mathbf{u} = 0$  and  $D_{\mu} \mathbf{v} = 0$ . But

$$D_{\mu} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = (\mathbf{D}_{\mu} \mathbf{g})(u, v) + \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{D}_{\mu} \mathbf{u}, v) + \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{D}_{\mu} \mathbf{v}),$$

and the last two terms are zero, so we must have

$$D_{\mu} \mathbf{g} = 0.$$

To check this, evaluate

$$(D_{\mu} \mathbf{g})_{\rho\sigma} = g_{\rho\sigma, \mu} - \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\rho\mu} g_{\lambda\sigma} - \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\sigma\mu} g_{\lambda\rho}$$

by our general relation for a tensor, so

$$(D_{\mu} \mathbf{g})_{\rho\sigma} = g_{\rho\sigma, \mu} - \Gamma_{\sigma\rho\mu} - \Gamma_{\rho\sigma\mu} = 0,$$

which is true (see Lecture P p. 7), so all is well.

Note: As  $\mathbf{D}g = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{D}$  commutes with raising and lowering indices! That is important, *e.g.*

$$g^{\mu\nu} \left( \mathbf{D}_{\rho} \underbrace{\mathbf{A}}_{\text{1-form}} \right)_{\nu} = \left( \mathbf{D}_{\rho} \underbrace{\mathbf{A}}_{\text{vector}} \right)^{\mu}.$$

Our definition of covariant derivative assumed the vector or scalar or 1-form was a field defined in the neighborhood of the event. Sometimes there are quantities only defined on, for example, a path. The velocity of a particle as it moves along its world-line is an example.  $\mathbf{u}$  is simply not defined except along the path, and neither is, say, the spin of the particle  $\mathbf{S}$ . But we can define a covariant derivative along the path as it would be were  $\mathbf{S}$  defined everywhere

$$\left( \frac{D}{D\lambda} \mathbf{S} \right)^{\nu} = \left( \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\lambda} D_{\mu} \mathbf{S} \right)^{\nu} = \left( \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\lambda} \left( \frac{\partial S^{\nu}}{\partial x^{\mu}} + \Gamma^{\nu}_{\rho\mu} S^{\rho} \right) \right) = \frac{dS^{\nu}}{d\lambda} + \Gamma^{\nu}_{\rho\mu} S^{\rho} \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\lambda}.$$

The last expression is well-defined entirely along the path of the particle, even though the expressions in quotes are not.

Recall from the end of Lecture D that  $\vec{\nabla} f \sim \mathbf{d}f$  without requiring any knowledge of  $\mathbf{g}$ . Similarly  $\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \sim \mathbf{d}\mathbf{A}$  doesn't depend on  $\mathbf{g}$  or  $\Gamma$ . But  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = * \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{A}$ , and the  $*$  requires the use of<sup>2</sup>  $\varepsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \sqrt{g} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$ , where it is  $\epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$ , not  $\varepsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$ , which is a constant ( $\pm 1$  or  $0$ ). Thus if  $\mathbf{A} = A_\mu \mathbf{d}x^\mu$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} * \mathbf{A} &= \frac{1}{3!} A^\mu \sqrt{g} \epsilon_{\mu\rho\sigma\kappa} \mathbf{d}x^\rho \wedge \mathbf{d}x^\sigma \wedge \mathbf{d}x^\kappa \\ \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{A} &= \frac{1}{3!} \partial_\nu (A^\mu \sqrt{g}) \epsilon_{\mu\rho\sigma\kappa} \mathbf{d}x^\nu \wedge \mathbf{d}x^\rho \wedge \mathbf{d}x^\sigma \wedge \mathbf{d}x^\kappa \\ \text{and } * \mathbf{d} * \mathbf{A} &= \frac{1}{3!} \partial_\nu (A^\mu \sqrt{g}) g^{-1/2} \epsilon^{\nu\rho\sigma\kappa} \epsilon_{\mu\rho\sigma\kappa} = g^{-1/2} \partial_\mu (A^\mu \sqrt{g}) \end{aligned}$$

That is perhaps not what you expected ( $\partial_\mu A^\mu$ ?). But it is the covariant derivative of the vector  $\mathbf{A}$ , contracted to form a divergence,

$$D_\mu A^\mu = \partial_\mu A^\mu + \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\mu} A^\nu,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{as } \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\mu} &= \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\rho} (g_{\nu\rho,\mu} + g_{\mu\rho,\nu} - g_{\nu\mu,\rho}) = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\rho} g_{\mu\rho,\nu} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr } G^{-1} \partial_\nu G \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr } \partial_\nu \ln G = \frac{1}{2} \partial_\nu \ln \det G = \partial_\nu \ln (g^{1/2}) = g^{-1/2} \partial_\nu g^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

(where the matrix  $G = g_{..}$ ).

$$\text{Thus } D_\mu A^\mu = g^{-1/2} \partial_\mu (A^\mu \sqrt{g}).$$

If we used  $D_\mu$  for the divergence, why not for the curl? We did, but it made no difference,

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \sim D_\mu A_\nu - D_\nu A_\mu = \partial_\mu A_\nu - \partial_\nu A_\mu - \underbrace{\left( \Gamma^\rho_{\nu\mu} - \Gamma^\rho_{\mu\nu} \right)}_0 A_\rho,$$

so the  $\Gamma$  dependence falls out of the antisymmetric part of the covariant derivative of a 1-form. Define the tensor product of two 1-forms and therein lies (if  $\mathbf{A}$  is a 1-form)

$$\mathbf{d}x^\mu \otimes D_\mu \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{d}x^\mu \otimes \mathbf{d}x^\nu (\partial_\mu A_\nu - \Gamma^\rho_{\nu\mu} A_\rho).$$

<sup>2</sup>Recall from Lecture E that we defined  $\epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$  to be the totally antisymmetric set of constants with  $\epsilon_{0123} = 1$ , but this was not covariant, and we also defined  $\varepsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \sqrt{g} \epsilon_{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$  which is covariant.

The antisymmetric part is just  $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{A}$ , but the symmetric part is dependent on the connection coefficients. Similarly<sup>3</sup>  $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{F} \sim D_{[\mu} F_{\nu\rho]}$ , and the  $\Gamma$  drops out.

### Generalization to internal vector spaces:

Let us suppose we have a physical system involving a field  $\psi$  which takes values in an internal vector space, so that in some particular basis we have  $\psi^a, a = 1, \dots, N$ . Let us also suppose that the physics is invariant under a group of transformations generated by  $L^a_b$  of the basis, or under

$$\psi'^a = (e^{-i\theta L})^a_b \psi^b \quad (1)$$

made independently at each spacetime point. Then if any derivatives are to enter the theory at all, there must be some additional structure. Let us assume a kind of equivalence principle: at any one point  $\mathcal{P}$  of spacetime it is possible to find a set of bases  $e_a(x)$  of the internal vector space such that, at  $\mathcal{P}$ , the physics is described by a Lagrangian  $\mathcal{L}(\psi, \partial_\mu \psi)$  with no other fields (analogous to the laws of special relativity with no gravitational fields). Then in any other basis, the Lagrangian must be described by

$$\mathcal{L}(\psi', D'_\mu \psi')$$

where the relationship between the bases (1) also holds for

$$\begin{aligned} D'_\mu \psi' &= ((e^{-i\theta L})^a_b \partial_\mu \psi^b) = (e^{-i\theta L})^a_b \partial_\mu (e^{i\theta L} \psi')^b \\ &= \partial_\mu \psi'^a + (e^{-i\theta L})^a_b \partial_\mu (e^{i\theta L})^b_c \psi'^c, \end{aligned}$$

or  $D_\mu = \mathbb{I} \partial_\mu + e^{-i\theta L} \partial_\mu e^{i\theta L}$  is a matrix acting on the vector space of the  $\psi$ 's. Define

$$A^a_{c\mu} = e^{-i\theta L} \partial_\mu e^{i\theta L} = \mathbf{A}_\mu.$$

Note that although  $e^{i\theta L}$  connects two bases at the same point, the one for which the ‘‘inertial’’ frame has no  $A$ , and the other an arbitrary, general basis, the  $\mathbf{A}$  refers only to the general basis, but in a sense at neighboring points. It defines parallel transport in the vector space of the  $\psi$ 's.

<sup>3</sup>More neglected notation: a term with a bunch of lower indices enclosed in square brackets means to antisymmetrize in those indices, so  $D_{[\mu} F_{\nu\rho]} := \frac{1}{3} (D_\mu F_{\nu\rho} - D_\nu F_{\mu\rho} - D_\rho F_{\nu\mu})$  (where I already made use of the antisymmetry of  $F_{\mu\nu}$ ). Enclosing in curly brackets means symmetrize ( $F_{\{\mu,\nu\}} = 0$ ), and the same applies to a bunch of contravariant indices.