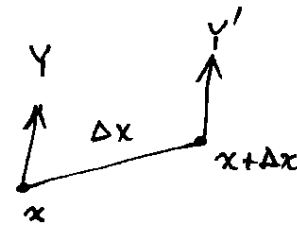


Summary.Vectors, infinitesimal transport:

$$Y'^{\mu} = (\delta_{\nu}^{\mu} + \Delta x^{\sigma} \Gamma_{\sigma\nu}^{\mu}) Y^{\nu} \quad (\text{coord})$$



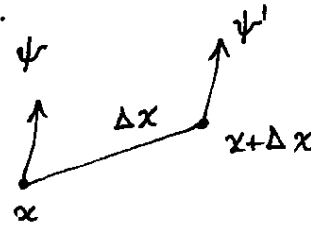
$$Y'^{\alpha} = (\delta_{\beta}^{\alpha} + \Delta x^{\gamma} \Gamma_{\gamma\beta}^{\alpha}) Y^{\beta} \quad (\text{O.N. vielbein})$$

$$\Lambda = (I + \Omega)^{\alpha}_{\beta}, \quad \Lambda = I + \Omega \in O(3,1)$$

$$\Omega_{\alpha\beta} = -\Delta x^{\gamma} \Gamma_{\alpha\gamma\beta} = -\Omega_{\beta\alpha}.$$

Spinors:

$$\psi' = D(\Lambda) \psi$$



$D(\Lambda)$ = Dirac "representation" of Lorentz group. Actually, it's not a representation (it's double valued), and it's not a rep. of the whole Lorentz group, only the proper, orthochronous Lorentz group. Move on all that in a moment, for now be sloppy and just write $D(\Lambda)$, and call on standard material on Lorentz transforming the Dirac equation. This tells us, for infinitesimal Lorentz transformations, ($\Omega \ll 1$),

$$D(I + \Omega) = 1 + \frac{i}{4} \Omega_{\alpha\beta} \sigma^{\alpha\beta},$$

where $\sigma^{\alpha\beta} = \frac{i}{2} [\gamma^{\alpha}, \gamma^{\beta}]$ (standard notation for Dirac matrices). Recall $\{\gamma^{\alpha}, \gamma^{\beta}\} = 2\eta^{\alpha\beta}$

Summary of the relevant facts regarding Dirac matrices and Lorentz transforming Dirac spinors:

↓ explain later.

$$D(\Lambda_1) D(\Lambda_2) = \pm D(\Lambda_1 \Lambda_2)$$

$$\psi' = D(\Lambda) \psi \quad (\text{Lorentz transforming Dirac spinor})$$

$$D(\Lambda)^{-1} \gamma^\alpha D(\Lambda) = \Lambda^\alpha{}_\beta \gamma^\beta \quad (\gamma^\alpha \text{ transforms as a 4-vector})$$

$$\gamma^0 D(\Lambda)^\dagger \gamma^0 = D(\Lambda)^{-1}$$

Hence

$$D(I + \Omega) = 1 - \frac{i}{4} \Omega_{\alpha\beta} \sigma^{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\psi' = \left(1 + \frac{i}{4} \frac{\delta y}{\Delta x} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \sigma^{\alpha\beta} \right) \psi$$

So, basic idea is that under an infinitesimal parallel transport, a spinor transforms by the same (infinitesimal) Lorentz transformation as a vector, but the spinor rep. of the L.T. must be used.

Now, the covariant derivative is defined by the parallel transport. We put $\Delta x^\alpha = \epsilon X^\alpha$ where $X \in T_x M$, and define (for $Y \in \mathcal{X}(M)$)

$$\nabla_x Y = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [Y(x + \epsilon X) - Y']$$

$$\text{gives } (\nabla_x Y)^\mu = X^\nu (Y^\mu{}_{,\nu} + \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^\mu Y^\sigma)$$

Similarly, define (for a spinor field $\psi(x)$):

$$\nabla_x \psi = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} [\psi(x + \epsilon X) - \psi']$$

$$\nabla_x \psi = X^\alpha \left[\psi_{,\alpha} - \frac{i}{4} \Gamma_{\beta\alpha\gamma} \sigma^{\beta\gamma} \psi \right]$$

$$\nabla_\alpha \psi = \psi_{,\alpha} - \frac{i}{4} \Gamma_{\beta\alpha\gamma} \sigma^{\beta\gamma} \psi$$

Covariant derivs on Dirac spinors

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Here ~~Ψ~~ Ψ, α means $e_\alpha \Psi$, $e_\alpha =$ member of O.N. vierbein.

Then Dirac Lagrangian, to be added to gravitational Lagrangian considered above, is

$$\mathcal{L}_D = \bar{\Psi} \left(i \gamma^\alpha \nabla_\alpha - m \right) \Psi.$$

We can now show that $\nabla_\alpha \Psi$ has the right transformation properties under a gauge transformation. Remind you, latter is defined by

$$e'_\alpha = \Lambda_\alpha^\beta e_\beta.$$

Then, given that $\Psi' = D(\Lambda) \Psi$, you find that

$$\nabla'_\alpha \Psi' = \Lambda_\alpha^\beta D(\Lambda) \nabla_\beta \Psi$$

Exercise for you to derive

$\nabla_\alpha \Psi$ transforms as a covector in its α -index, and as a spinor in Ψ . This transformation law is necessary for the invariance of the integral $\int \sqrt{|g|} d^4x \mathcal{L}_D$.

About the "representation" $D(\Lambda)$. Actually, it's a spinor (double-valued) representation, more exactly, should write $\Lambda(D)$ instead of $D(\Lambda)$ if you want a single valued rep. Parallel comparison with the non-relativistic case is useful.

$O(3) =$ classical rotation group, $SO(3) =$ identity component (throw away parity). Then $SU(2) =$ double cover of $SO(3)$, spinor rotation group:

$$\begin{array}{c} SU(2) \\ \downarrow \pi \\ SO(3) \end{array}$$

And then spinors are transformed by some representation of $SU(2)$, $SU(2)$ itself for spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles, a 4D rep for spin $\frac{3}{2}$, etc.

③

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In the relativistic generalization of this, $O(3,1) =$ full Lorentz group. Denote $L_0 =$ identity component of $O(3,1) = \frac{1}{4}$ of $O(3,1)$ (throw away parity, time reversal). L_0 consists of matrices $\Lambda \in O(3,1)$ such that $\det \Lambda = +1$ and $\Lambda^0_0 \geq 1$ (proper, orthochronous Lorentz transformations). The group L_0 has a double cover or spinor representation, which is $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$.

$$\begin{array}{c} L_0 \\ \downarrow \pi \\ SL(2, \mathbb{C}) \end{array}$$

So relativistic spinors get transformed by a rep. of $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$. It turns out that there are two inequivalent 2×2 reps of $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$, one is $SL(2, \mathbb{C})$ itself, call the other $\overline{SL(2, \mathbb{C})}$. They correspond to two different ways of promoting the Pauli matrices ~~into~~ $\vec{\sigma}$ into a 4-vector,

$$\sigma_\mu = (1, \vec{\sigma}) \quad \text{or} \quad \overline{\sigma}_\mu = (-1, \vec{\sigma}).$$

The Dirac (4×4) rep. is the direct sum of these two,

$$D = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} SL(2, \mathbb{C}) & 0 \\ \hline 0 & \overline{SL(2, \mathbb{C})} \end{array} \right] \quad \text{in the right basis.}$$

More about this in my 221B notes on the Dirac eqn.

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Now we begin Hodge * theory and harmonic forms. To preview the results a bit, when we add a metric to a manifold we can do new things with differential forms and find new connections to old subjects such as cohomology groups (which do not require a metric for their definition).

If we add a metric to M , we can define a scalar product of wave functions,

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_M \sqrt{|g|} d^m x f g$$

$$\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle = \int_M d^m x \sqrt{|g|} f_1 f_2$$

where $m = \dim M$, $f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{F}(M)$. (Real valued functions here.) Thus the wave functions make a Hilbert space. We also have interesting operators that act on these wave fns, such as the generalized Laplacian ∇^2 (which requires a metric for its definition), and which lead to orthonormal sets of eigenfunctions.

All this (the scalar product, Laplacians) etc. can be generalized to arbitrary r -forms. It turns out for example that the degeneracy of the 0 eigenvalue of ∇^2 is the same as the Betti number of M .

The permutation or Levi-Civita symbol is familiar:

$$\epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m} = \begin{cases} +1 & (\mu_1 \dots \mu_m) = \text{even perm of } (1 \dots m) \\ -1 & (\mu_1 \dots \mu_m) = \text{odd perm of } (1 \dots m) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Just because we put lower indices on it does not mean that it is a tensor. In fact, suppose a tensor has components $E_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m}$ in one coord. system x^μ , and examine what its components are in another coord. syst. x'^μ :

Here $\{\theta^\mu\}$ is any basis (coordinate or non-coordinate). Note that if $\{\theta^\mu\}$ is an O.N. vielbein, then $\sqrt{|g|} = 1$ and $\Omega = \theta^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^m$.

It is of interest to compute the completely contravariant components of Ω :

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m} &= g^{\mu_1 \nu_1} \dots g^{\mu_m \nu_m} \Omega_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_m} \\ &= \det(g^{\mu\nu}) \sqrt{|g|} \varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m}\end{aligned}$$

But $\det g^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{g} = \text{sgn}(g)/|g|$. So,

$$\boxed{\Omega^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m} = \frac{\text{sgn}(g)}{\sqrt{|g|}} \varepsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_m}. \quad \text{useful later.}}$$

We don't worry that LHS has upper indices and RHS has lower, since ε is not a tensor.

Ω is called the invariant volume form since its integral over any region $R \subseteq M$ is the volume of that region in the metrical sense,

$$\int_R \Omega = \text{vol}(R).$$

On a space with $m = \dim M$ dimensions, both r -forms and $(m-r)$ -forms have the same number of indep. components,

$$\binom{m}{r} = \binom{m}{m-r}.$$

Thus r -forms and $(m-r)$ -forms (at a point $x \in M$) are vector spaces of the same dimensionality, and are isomorphic as vector spaces.

In the absence of a metric or other additional structure, however, there is no natural isomorphism between these spaces. Now, however, we will assume we have a metric (M, g) . Then there is a natural mapping \rightarrow an isomorphism, actually, between these spaces,

$$\text{Hodge } * : \Omega^r(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{m-r}(M).$$

It is defined by its action on the basis forms of $\Omega^r(M)$, then extended to arb. Ω^r forms by linearity. The defn. is

$$* (\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}) = \frac{1}{(m-r)!} \Omega^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r}{}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}} (\theta^{\nu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\nu_{m-r}}).$$

Indices on Ω are raised with $g^{\mu\nu}$.

As a special case, consider the 0-form $1 \in \Omega^0(M)$ (const scalar). Then $r=0$ in the above, and we have

$$* 1 = \frac{1}{m!} \Omega_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_m} \theta^{\nu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\nu_m} = \Omega,$$

$$* 1 = \Omega$$

The defn above makes it clear that $*$ is linear, but is it an isomorphism (i.e., is it invertible)? We answer by computing $**$, a map: $\Omega^r(M) \rightarrow \Omega^r(M)$. We apply defn above twice, get

$$** (\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}) = \frac{1}{(m-r)!} \Omega^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r}{}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}} \times \frac{1}{r!} \Omega^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}}{}_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r} (\theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_r}).$$

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Transform this. First raise + lower $\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}$ indices to make indices uniformly upper or lower. Next, on $\Omega_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r} \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r}$, migrate λ indices to left of ν indices, This involves $(m-r)r$ sign changes, so

$$\Omega_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r} \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r} = (-1)^{r(m-r)} \Omega_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}}.$$

Thus,

$$** (\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}) = \frac{1}{(m-r)!} \frac{1}{r!} (-1)^{r(m-r)}$$

$$\times \boxed{\Omega_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r \nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}} \Omega_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}}} \theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_r}$$

$$\rightarrow = \frac{\text{sgn}(g)}{\sqrt{|g|}} \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r \nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}} \times \sqrt{|g|} \epsilon_{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \nu_1 \dots \nu_{m-r}}$$

$$= \text{sgn}(g) \text{sgn} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \dots \mu_r \\ \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \end{pmatrix} (m-r)!$$

where we use identities for products of two ϵ 's and where

$$\text{sgn} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \dots \mu_r \\ \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \pm 1 & \text{if } (\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r) \text{ is } \begin{matrix} \text{even} \\ \text{odd} \end{matrix} \text{ prod of } \mu_1 \dots \mu_r \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{sgn} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \dots \mu_r \\ \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_r \end{pmatrix} \theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_r} \\ &= r! \theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}. \end{aligned}$$

Putting it all together, we have

$$** (\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}) = \text{sgn}(g) (-1)^{r(m-r)} (\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}).$$

or

$$** = \text{sgn}(g) (-1)^{r(m-r)} \quad \text{when acting on } \omega \in \Omega^r(M).$$

equivalently,

$$*^{-1} = \text{sgn}(g) (-1)^{r(m-r)} *$$

Thus $*$ is invertible, and $*$ is an isomorphism.

Now consider the interaction of $*$ with \wedge . Let $\alpha, \beta \in \Omega^r(M)$.

Then $*\beta$ is an $(m-r)$ -form, and

$$\alpha \wedge *\beta \in \Omega^m(M).$$

Thus $\alpha \wedge *\beta$ must be proportional to the volume form Ω , i.e., it must be $f\Omega$ for some scalar f . Now we work out what f is.

Write

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{r!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r}$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{r!} \beta_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \theta^{\nu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\nu_r}$$

Hence

$$*\beta = \frac{1}{r!} \beta_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \frac{1}{(m-r)!} \Omega^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{m-r} \theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_{m-r}},$$

and

$$\alpha \wedge *\beta = \frac{1}{(r!)^2 (m-r)!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \beta_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \Omega^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{m-r} \\ \times \theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r} \wedge \theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_{m-r}}.$$

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Transform this, First raise + lower $\nu_1 \dots \nu_r$ indices, use
 $\theta^{\mu_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\mu_r} \wedge \theta^{\lambda_1} \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^{\lambda_{m-r}} = \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{m-r}} \theta^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^m$. Get,

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = \frac{1}{(r!)^2 (m-r)!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \beta^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} \sqrt{|g|} \epsilon_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{m-r}} \\ \times \epsilon_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_{m-r}} \theta^1 \wedge \dots \wedge \theta^m$$

$$= \frac{1}{(r!)^2 (m-r)!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \beta^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_r} (m-r)! \operatorname{sgn} \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \dots \mu_r \\ \nu_1 \dots \nu_r \end{pmatrix} \Omega$$

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = \left(\frac{1}{r!} \alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \beta^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \right) \Omega$$

The scalar multiplying Ω is the complete contraction of the components of α with those of β .

Several things to note about this. First, the answer is symmetric in α, β , so

$$\alpha \wedge \beta = \beta \wedge \alpha$$

Next, if g is pos. def., then $\alpha_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \alpha^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_r} \geq 0$, i.e. you get a pos. def. scalar product of r -forms. Define

$$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \int_M \alpha \wedge \beta = \langle \beta, \alpha \rangle$$

Then if g is pos. def. (a Riemannian manifold) then this scalar product is also pos. def., i.e., $\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle \geq 0$ and $\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle = 0$ iff $\alpha = 0$.

Notice that if α, β are 0-forms (call them f_1, f_2), then we get the obvious scalar product of them,

$$\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle = \int \Omega f_1 f_2 = \int d^m x \sqrt{|g|} f_1 f_2.$$

More generally, if g is pos. def., we have ~~an~~ a scalar product on $\Omega^r(M)$ that allows us to define a Hilbert space of r -forms. The functional analysis of this is easiest in the case of compact M .

An example of this scalar product. Let F be the EM field tensor in 4D space time, (maybe curved),

$$F = \frac{1}{2} F_{\mu\nu} \theta^\mu \wedge \theta^\nu.$$

Then

$$\langle F, F \rangle = \int F \wedge *F = \frac{1}{2} \int F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \sqrt{|g|} d^4 x.$$

This is 2x the EM field action,

$$S_{EM} = \frac{1}{2} \langle F, F \rangle.$$

(But the scalar product is not pos. def. on space-time.)

Now consider interaction of $*$ with exterior deriv. d .

Let $\alpha \in \Omega^r(M)$, $\beta \in \Omega^{r-1}(M)$. Then $\langle \alpha, d\beta \rangle$ is meaningful.

We define the operator d^\dagger (the adjoint of d) by

$$\langle \alpha, d\beta \rangle = \langle d^\dagger \alpha, \beta \rangle, \quad \forall \alpha \in \Omega^r(M), \beta \in \Omega^{r-1}(M).$$

d^\dagger is the unique operator that makes this equation true. Note that

$$d^\dagger: \Omega^r(M) \rightarrow \Omega^{r-1}(M)$$

$$d: \Omega^{r-1}(M) \rightarrow \Omega^r(M)$$

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(d and d^+ work in opposite directions).

We can find an expression for d^+ as follows.

$$\langle d^+ \alpha, \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha, d\beta \rangle = \langle d\beta, \alpha \rangle = \int_M d\beta \wedge * \alpha.$$

But $d(\beta \wedge * \alpha) = d\beta \wedge * \alpha + (-1)^{r-1} \beta \wedge d* \alpha$, so

$$\rightarrow = \int_M d(\beta \wedge * \alpha) - (-1)^{r-1} \int_M \beta \wedge d* \alpha.$$

First term vanishes by Stokes' theorem (we assume $\partial M = 0$), so

$$\rightarrow = (-1)^r \int_M \beta \wedge d* \alpha = (-1)^r \int_M \beta \wedge *(*^{-1} d* \alpha)$$

$$= (-1)^r \langle \beta, *^{-1} d* \alpha \rangle = (-1)^r \langle *^{-1} d* \alpha, \beta \rangle.$$

This implies,

$$\boxed{d^+ = (-1)^r *^{-1} d*} \quad \text{acting on } r\text{-forms.}$$

In this expression, $*^{-1}$ acts on an $(m-r+1)$ -form, so

$$*^{-1} = \text{sgn}(g) (-1)^{(m-r+1)(r-1)} *$$

Since

$$r + (m-r+1)(r-1) \equiv mr + m + 1 \pmod{2},$$

we have

$$\boxed{d^+ = \text{sgn}(g) (-1)^{mr+m+1} * d*}$$

alternative expression,
acting on r -forms.

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We note the identity,

$$\boxed{d^+ d^+ = 0}$$

which is easily proved,

$$d^+ d^+ = *d**d* = \pm *dd* = 0.$$

↓ sign of **.

Note that d^+ annihilates any 0-form,

$$d^+ f = 0, \quad f \in \mathbb{F}(M)$$

because there are no (-1) -forms.