Differential forms: from classical force to the Wilson loop



Jens Boos

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PSI seminar

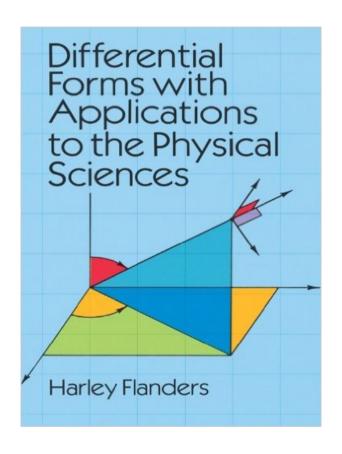
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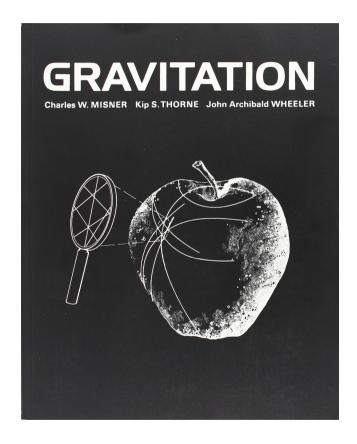
Motivation & Outline

Differential forms provide a superior formalism as compared to vector calculus. But: we can also use it to understand physics more easily.

- I. Differential forms in 3D Euclidean space
 - Hodge dual
 - visualization of forms
 - example 1: classical force
 - example 2: vacuum electrodynamics
- II. Differential forms in gauge theory
 - electrodynamics as a U(1) gauge theory
 - Stokes' theorem and the Wilson loop
 - General Relativity and beyond
- III. Conclusions & Summary

Literature





I. Differential forms in 3D Euclidean space

A p-form in n dimensions has $\# = \frac{n!}{p!(n-p)!}$ independent components.

For n=3: one 0-form, three 1-forms, three 2-forms, one 3-form, and that's it.

Note that there is a correspondence between p- and (n-p)-forms via the **Hodge** dual:

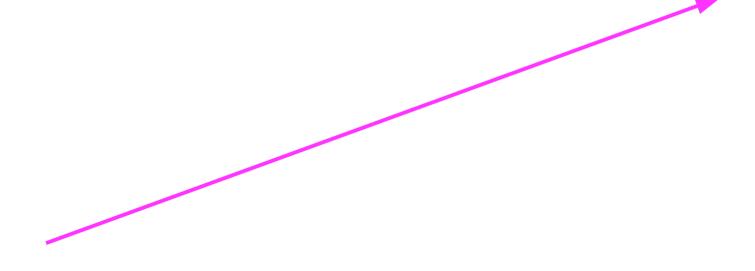
$$\star\,\omega = \star\left(\tfrac{1}{p!}\omega_{a_1\ldots a_p}dx^{a_1}\wedge\cdots\wedge dx^{a_p}\right) = \tfrac{1}{p!(n-p)!}\omega^{a_1\ldots a_p}\epsilon_{a_1\ldots a_pb_1\ldots b_{n-p}}dx^{b_1}\wedge\cdots\wedge dx^{b_{n-p}}$$

In 3D one has $\star \star = 1$, and therefore

$$dx \simeq dy \wedge dz$$
, $dy \simeq dz \wedge dx$, $dz \simeq dx \wedge dy$, $1 \simeq dx \wedge dy \wedge dz$.

How does a 1-form act on a vector? Simple counting: $\partial_{\mu} \perp dx^{\alpha} = \delta^{\alpha}_{\mu}$

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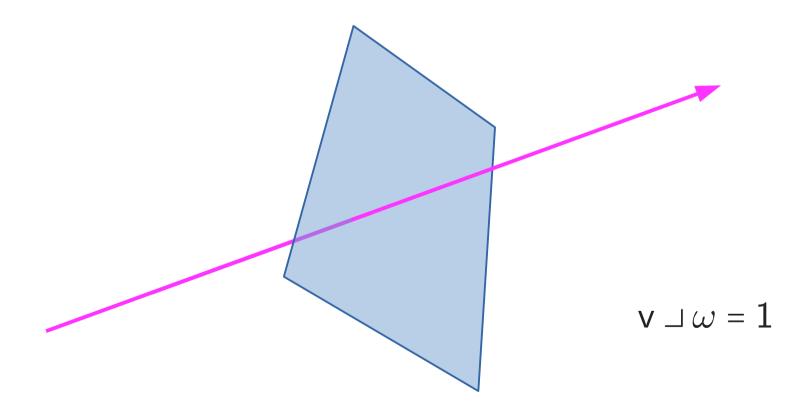
How can we count geometrically?



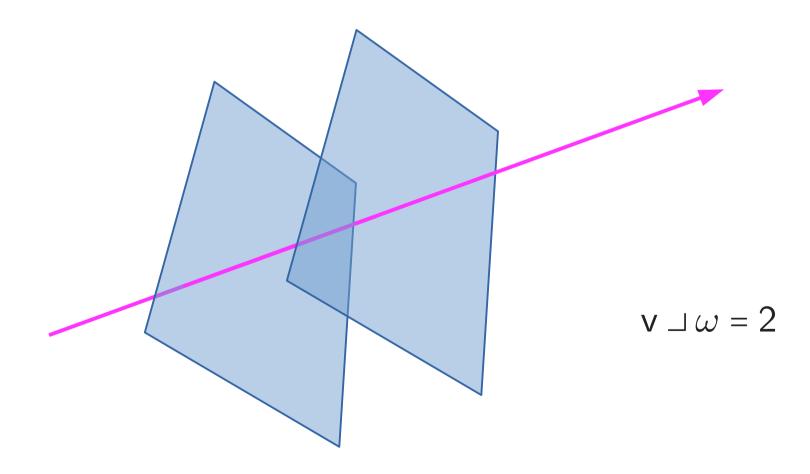
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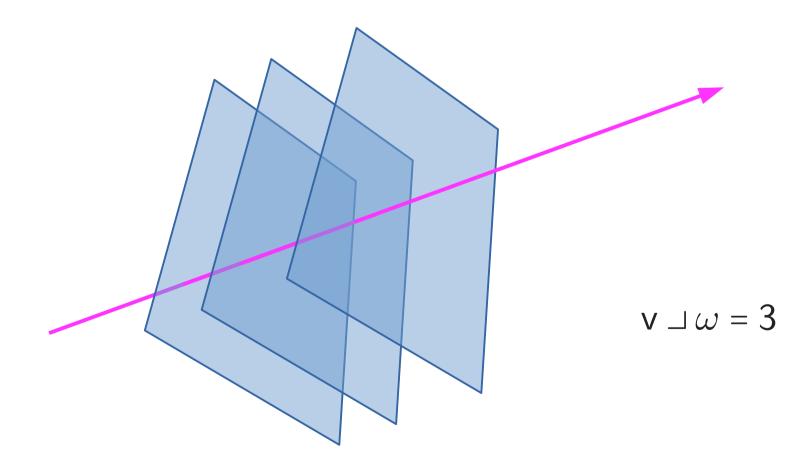
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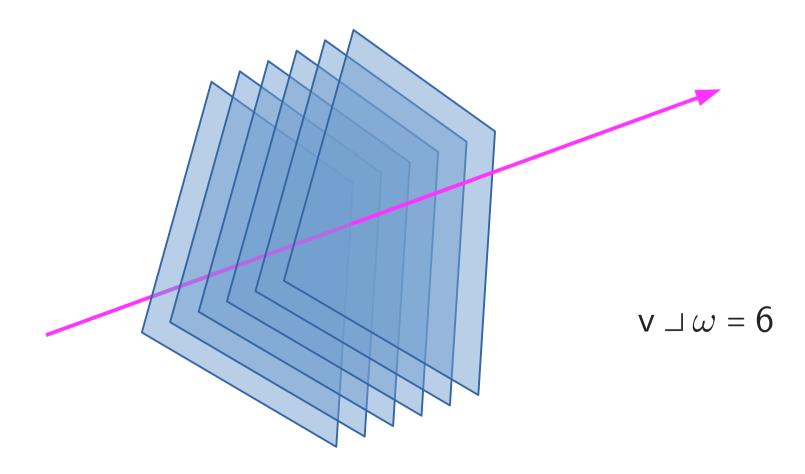
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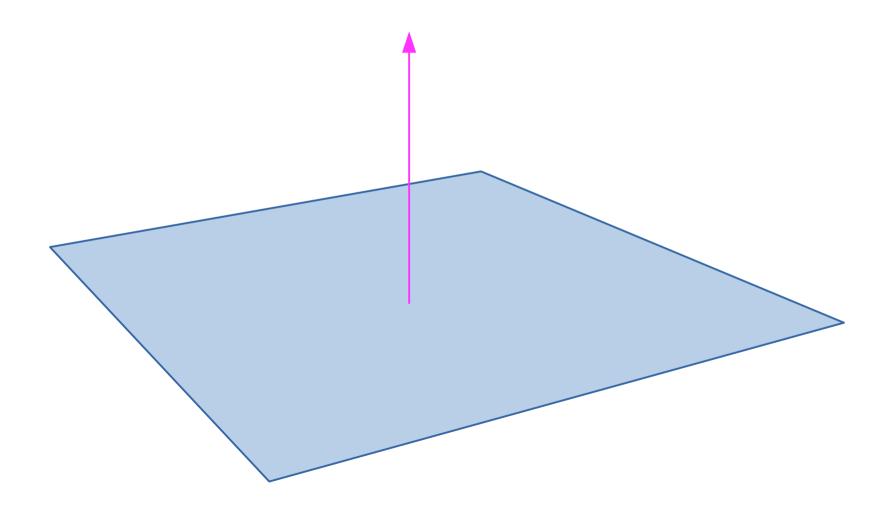


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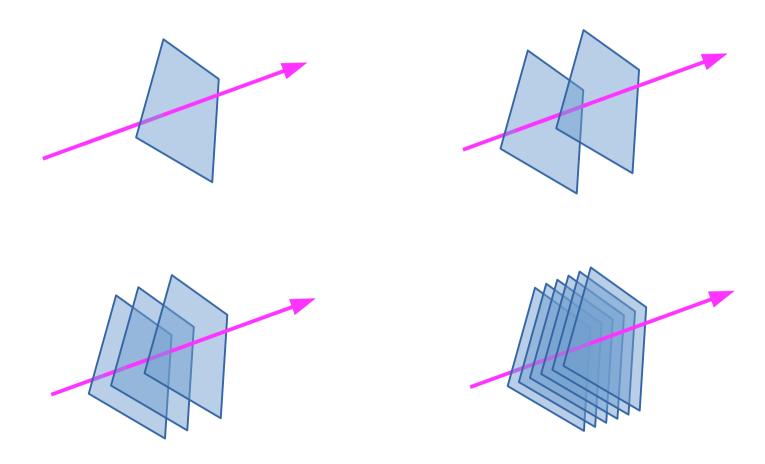


Why does that work?

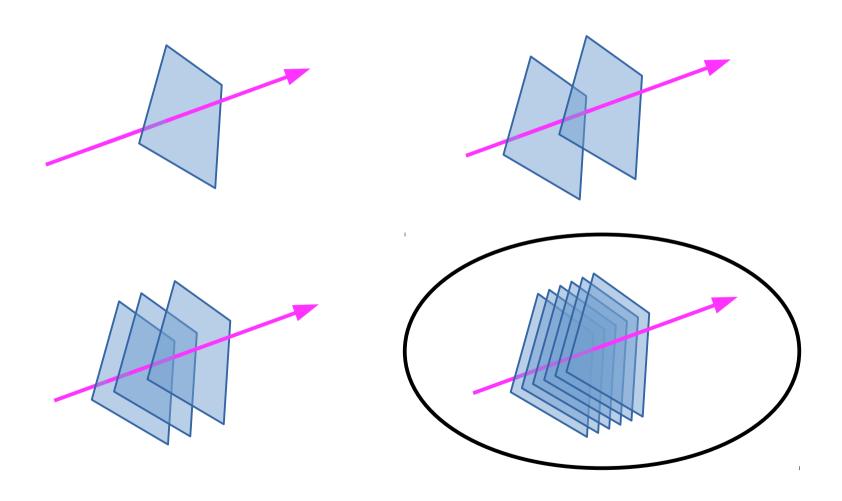
 \rightarrow a (n-1)-dimensional hypersurface is described by an n-dimensional normal vector.



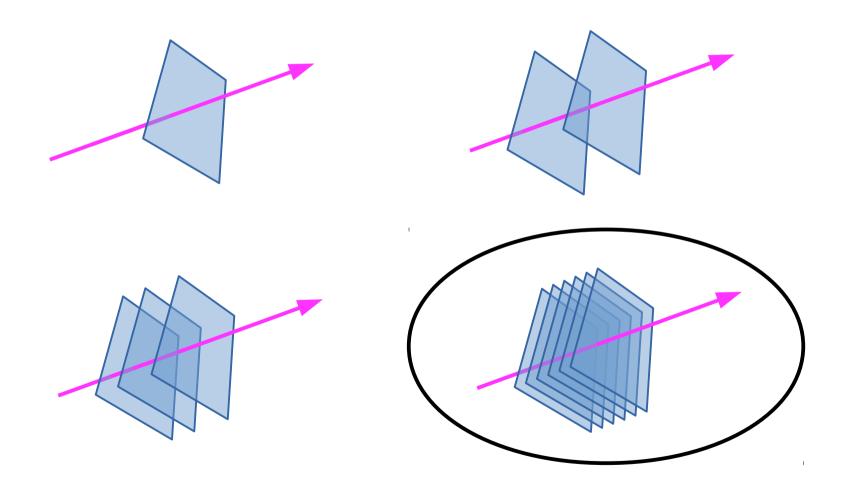
So which form is the "strongest" one?



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Physical interpretation: work along the direction specified by vector.

Visualization of differential 1-forms: a word of caution

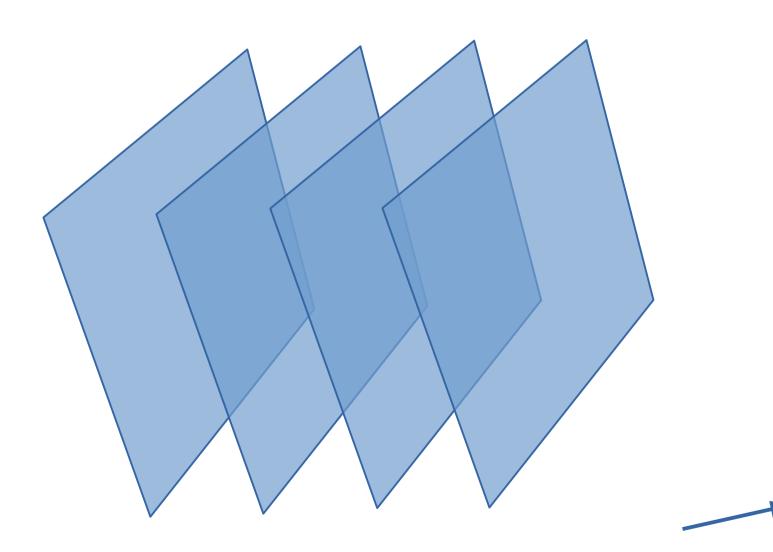
Explicit construction can be very hard, for example:

$$\omega = 12ydx - \sin(y)dy + zx^2dz = f(x, y, z)dx + g(x, y, z)dy + h(x, y, z)dz$$

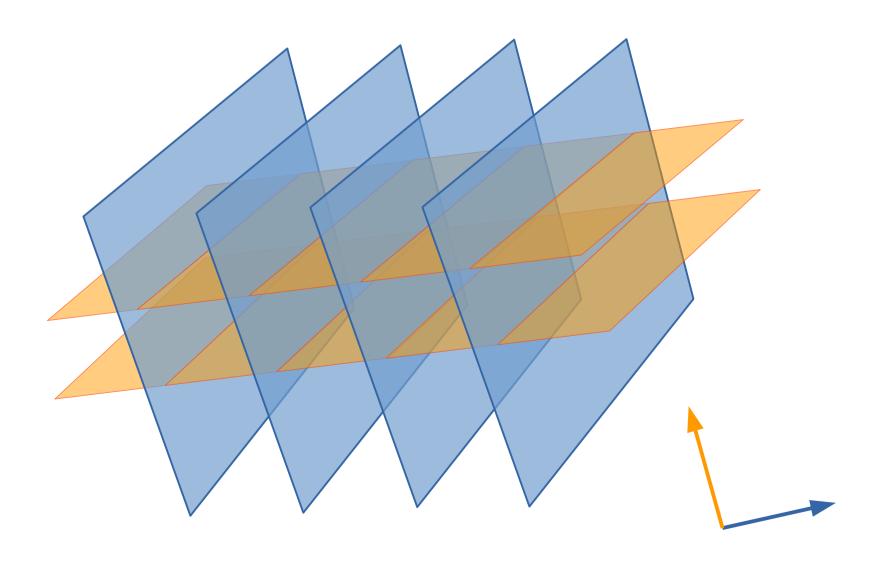
- 1. Corresponding vector field is $v = f\partial_x + g\partial_y + h\partial_z$, OK.
- 2. Can we derive a potential? Only possible for $d\omega = 0 \Leftrightarrow \nabla \times v = 0$.
 - YES: Very good, see before. Differential form = equipotential surfaces.
 - NO: More complicated, but surfaces can still be built locally.
- → Bottom line: locally, the surface picture is reasonable, but be careful with global concepts.

What about 2-forms? Need two "counting surfaces"!

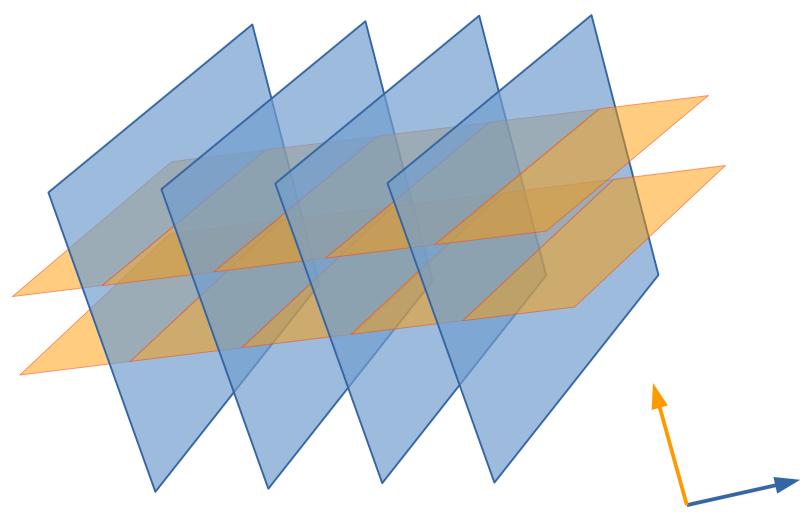
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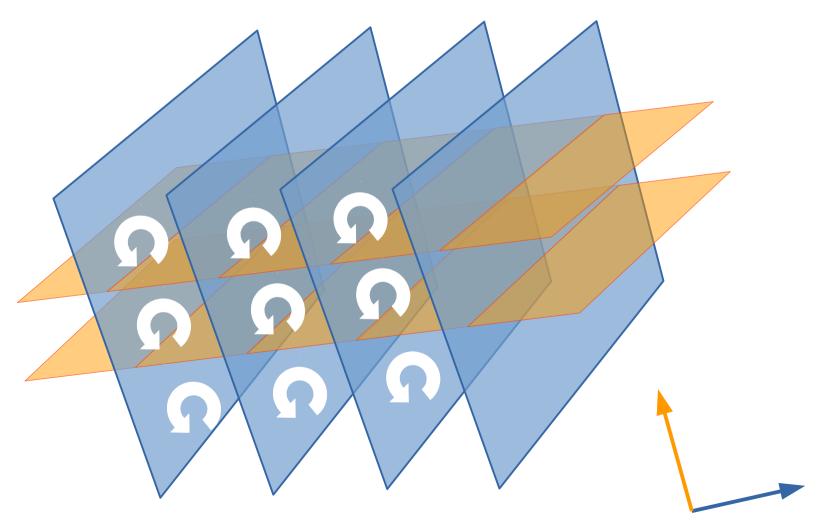


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Physical interpretation: flux through area spanned by the two vectors.

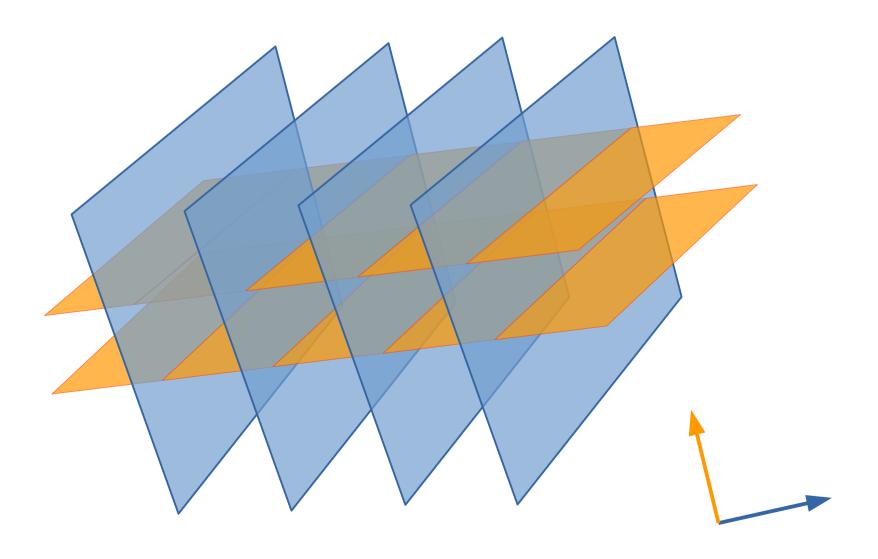
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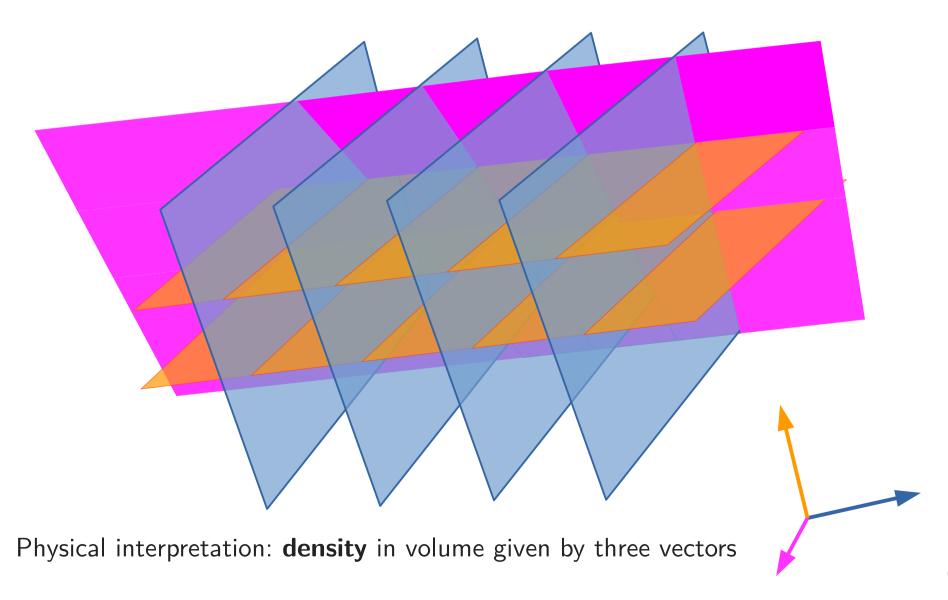
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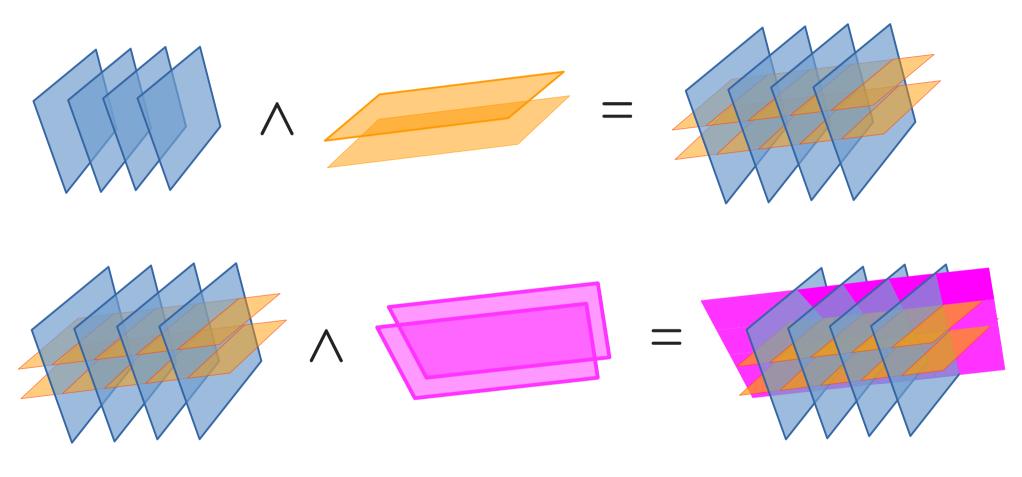


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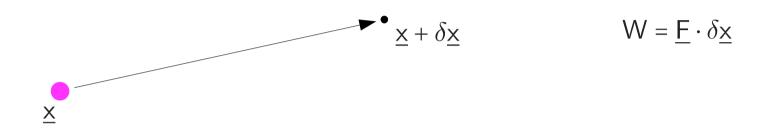
In summary:

The exterior product visualized:



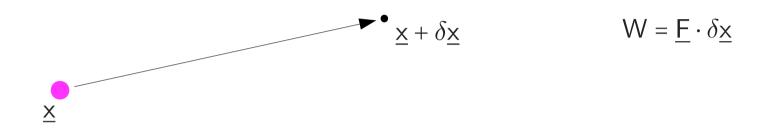
Example 1: classical force

Imagine you want to determine a **force** \underline{F} on a particle \bullet :



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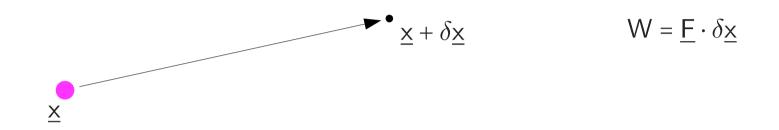
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- → **operational interpretation** of differential forms?

The field strength 2-form is given by

$$F = dt \wedge \left(\underbrace{E_x dx + E_y dy + E_z dz}\right) + \underbrace{B_x dy \wedge dz + B_y dz \wedge dx + B_z dx \wedge dy}_{electric field} \quad \text{magnetic field} \\ \leftrightarrow \text{1-form} \quad \leftrightarrow \text{2-form}$$

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This is equivalent to the antisymmetric $\binom{0}{2}$ tensor

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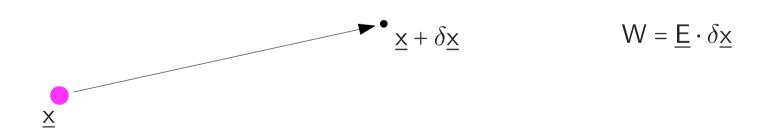
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Translation formulas:
$$F = \frac{1}{2}F_{\alpha\beta}dx^{\alpha} \wedge dx^{\beta}$$
, $F_{\mu\nu} = \partial_{\nu} \perp (\partial_{\mu} \perp F)$

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Operational interpretation of the **electric** field:



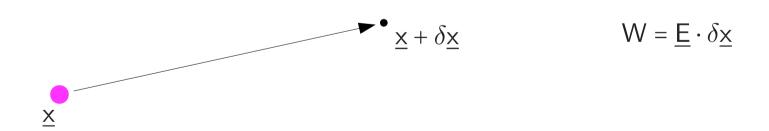
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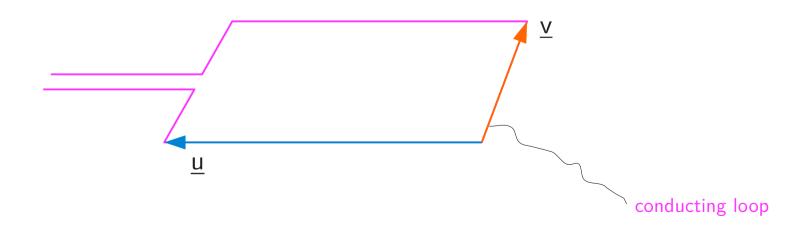


In differential form language: $W = \delta x \perp E \rightarrow \text{equivalent to the classical force.}$

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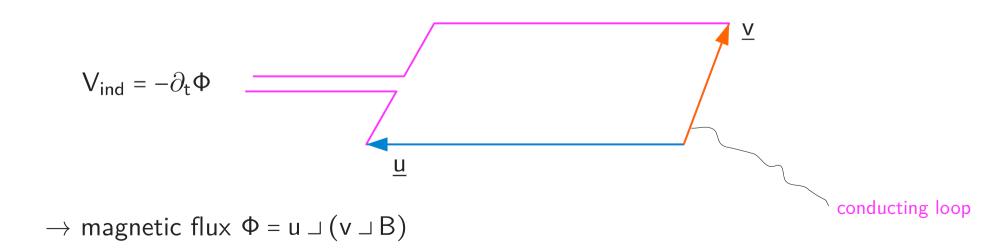
Operational interpretation of the **magnetic** field 2-form B:



The field strength 2-form is given by

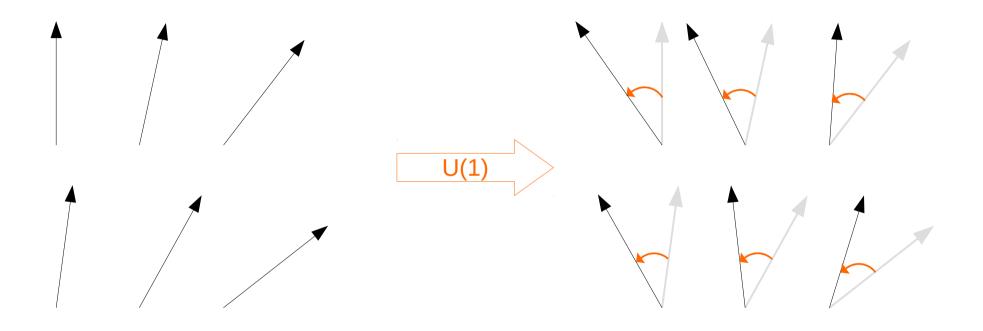
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Operational interpretation of the **magnetic** field 2-form B:



II. A brief introduction to U(1) gauge theory

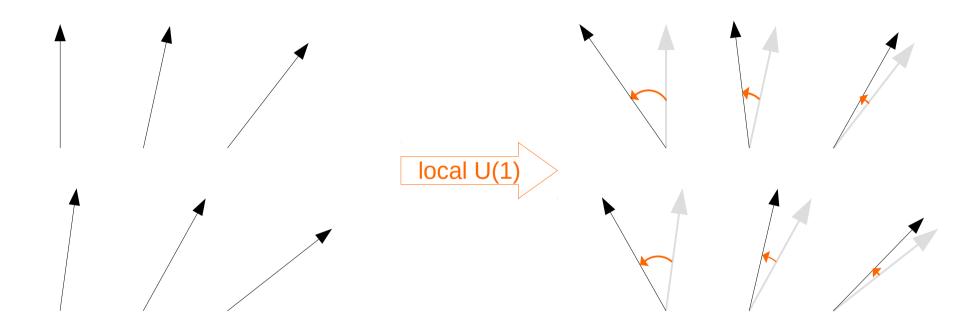
Consider a complex field ϕ under a global U(1) transformation $\phi \mapsto e^{i\alpha}\phi$, with $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$:



If the theory is invariant under this transformation, we call U(1) a **rigid symmetry**.

II. A brief introduction to U(1) gauge theory

Now carry out a local transformation $\phi \mapsto e^{i\alpha(x)}\phi$:

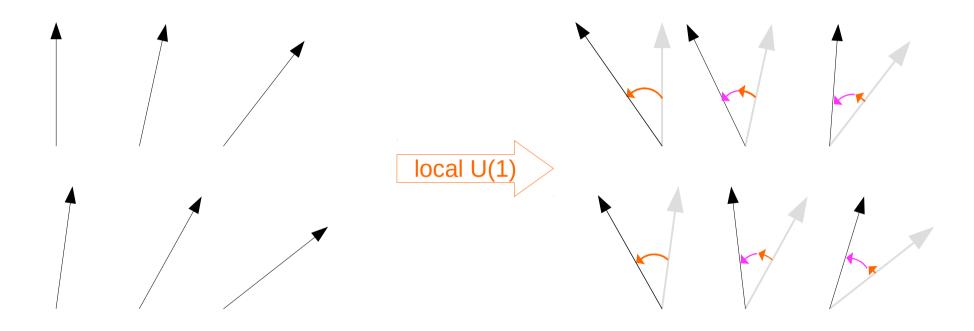


Due to x-dependence, any dynamical theory is **not invariant anymore**.

How do we rescue this? We need a gauge potential A!

II. A brief introduction to U(1) gauge theory

The gauge potential restores gauge invariance by $d \mapsto d + ie A$:

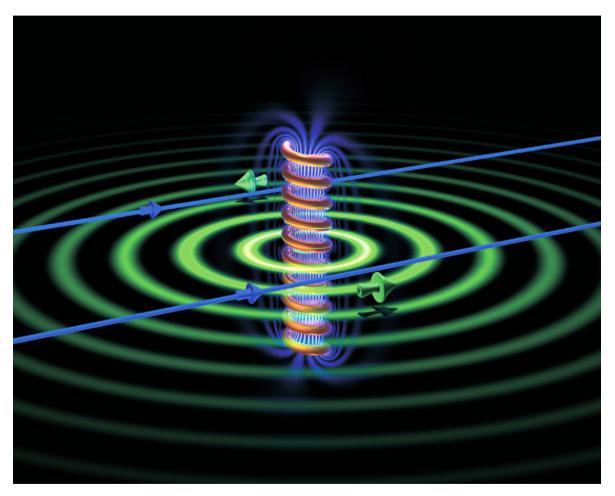


What have we gained? We can construct a Lagrangian for A using F := dA:

 $\mathcal{L} := F \wedge \star F + j \wedge A$ yields **electrodynamics** with conserved current j

Electrodynamics: the Aharonov–Bohm effect

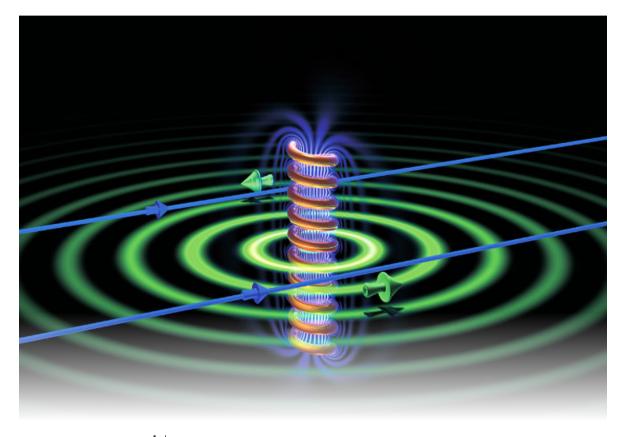
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http://physics.aps.org/story/v28/st4

Electrodynamics: the Aharonov–Bohm effect

Consider the wave function $\Psi(x,t)$ of a particle which travels around a closed loop \mathscr{C} .



It picks up the phase shift $e^{i\phi}$, with $\phi \propto \oint_{\mathscr{C}} A$. The path \mathscr{C} is closed, and for a trivial topology this implies that $\mathscr{C} = \partial S$. Stokes' theorem then gives us $\phi \propto \oint_{\partial S} A \propto \oint_{S} dA$ such that $e^{i\phi} \in U(1)$.

We saw: integrating the gauge connection around a closed loop gives a group element.

$$\rightarrow$$
 Wilson loop $W_{\mathscr{C}} \coloneqq \mathsf{Tr}\Big[\mathcal{P}\exp{i\oint_{\mathscr{C}}\mathsf{A}}\Big]$

In gauge theories, $A = A^a t_a$, where t_a are the generators of the Lie group.

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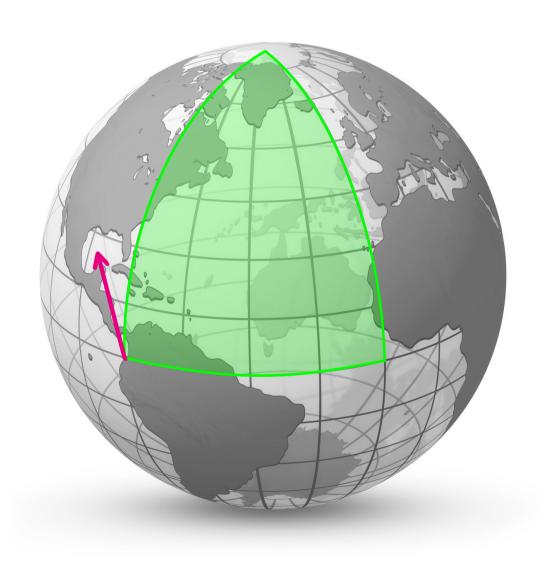
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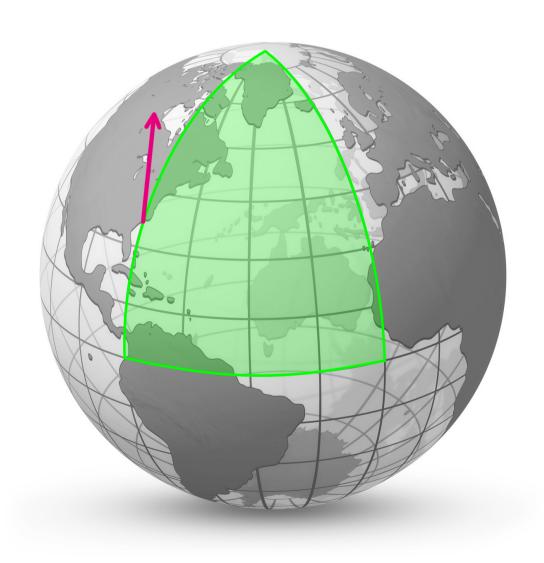
Why is it interesting?

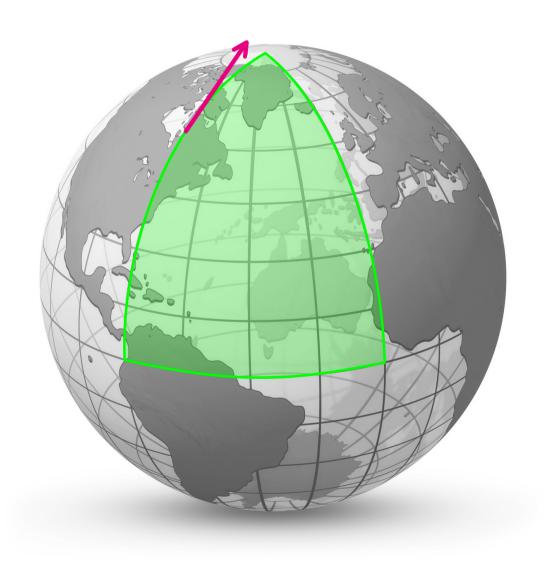
- Yang–Mills theories
- Loop Quantum Gravity
- but even in General Relativity, if you look for it...

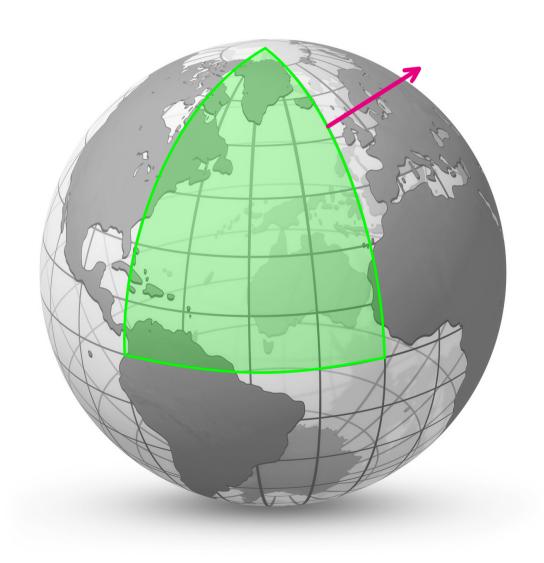






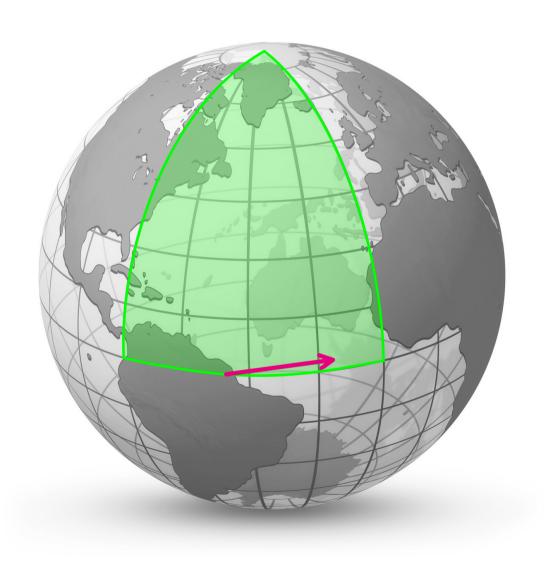


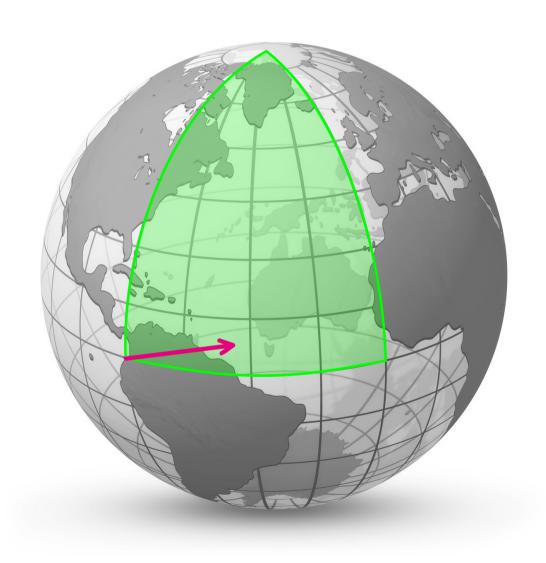


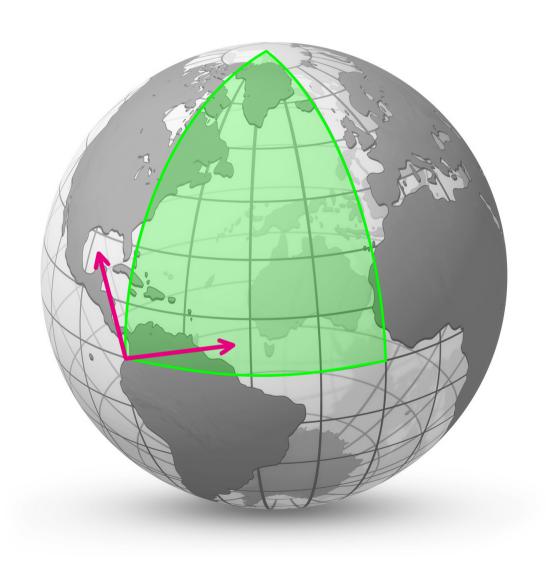


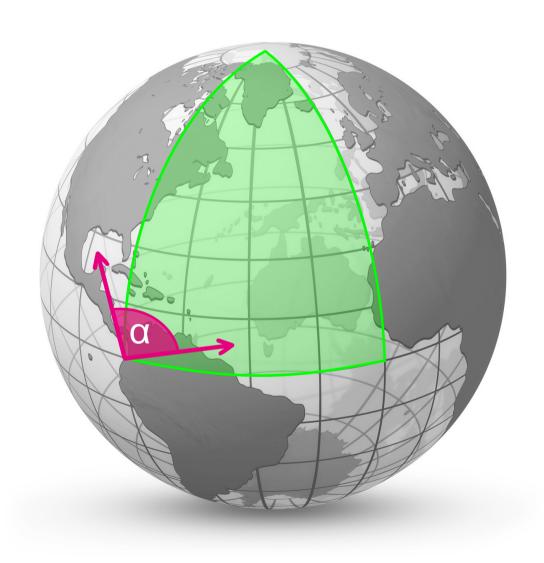








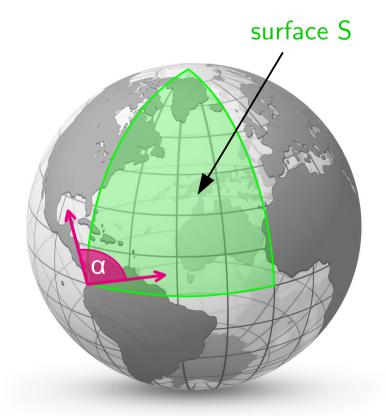




Three facts:

- On the manifold, we have a non-vanishing curvature 2-form: $R^{\mu}_{\ \nu} = \frac{1}{2} R^{\mu}_{\ \nu \alpha \beta} dx^{\alpha} \wedge dx^{\beta}$
- Curvature 2-form related to the connection 1-form Γ^{μ}_{ν} via $R^{\mu}_{\nu} \coloneqq d\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu} + \Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha} \wedge \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\nu}$
- Parallel transport of **vector** along closed loop ∂S yields a rotation:

$$\mathsf{M}^{\mu}{}_{\nu} = \int\limits_{\mathsf{S}} \frac{1}{2} \mathsf{R}^{\mu}{}_{\nu\alpha\beta} \mathsf{dx}^{\alpha} \wedge \mathsf{dx}^{\beta}$$



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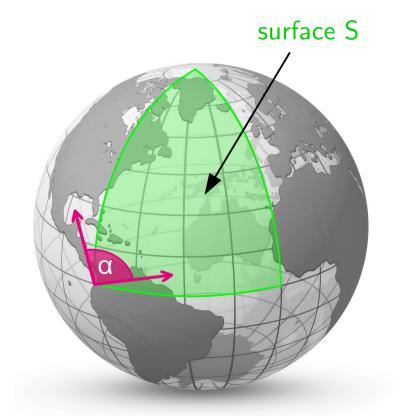
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Interpretation: $v^{\mu} = M^{\mu}_{\alpha} v^{\alpha}$

Remember: $R^{\mu}_{\nu} = "D\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu}"$ (just like F = dA)

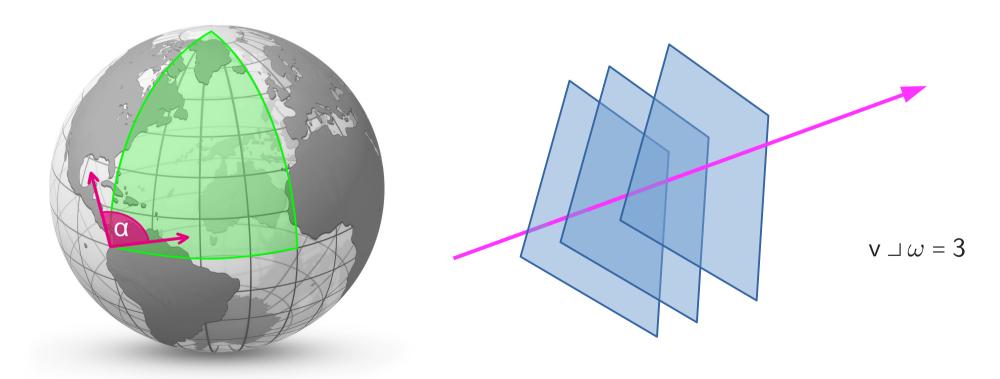
ightarrow Stokes: The matrix $M^{\mu}_{\ \nu}$ is the holonomy of the curvature 2-form around ∂S .



III. Conclusions

We find:

- Differential forms tell us about physics.
- They can be (locally) visualized as planes counting intersections with vectors.
- They have a broad application range, including gauge theories.



Abstract

Differential forms: from classical force to the Wilson loop

We start by reviewing basic properties of differential forms in three dimensions. Using the Hodge star and thereby deriving a visualization procedure, we move on to classical mechanics and vacuum electrodynamics. Therein, differential forms can be interpreted operationally, and their full physical significance becomes clear.

We now move on to more abstract grounds: we revisit electrodynamics as a gauge theory, and discuss its connection 1-form and its relation to the group U(1). We close by motivating the geometric interpretation of connection 1-forms in gauge theories using the Wilson loop, and sketch its application to General Relativity and beyond.