## Lecture 3

Brief Review of Topology and Geometry I -- Topological Numbers \& Differential Forms

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Prologue:
Paradigms in Condensed Matter Physics

## The Search for New States/Phases of Matter

The search for new elements led to a golden age of chemistry.
The search for new particles led to the golden age of particle physics.
Now in a of condensed matter physics, we ask: what are the possible fundamental states of matter?

## (Known in

 early $20^{\text {th }}$ century )

Crystal: Broken translational symmetry


Magnet: Broken rotational symmetry


Superconductor: Broken gauge symmetry

## Landau-Ginzburg-Wilson Paradigm (CMT)

- Classical Phase Transitions:
$\checkmark$ Associated with symmetry breaking
$\checkmark$ Characterized by local order parameter(s)
$\checkmark$ Disorder-Order Transition driven by thermal fluctuations Examples: superfluids, ferromagnetism, superconductivity
- Landau-Fermi Liquid Theory:
$\checkmark$ Quasi-particles are fermions (existence of Fermi surface)
$\checkmark$ Quasiparticles have same charge and spin (quantum numbers) as electrons
$\checkmark$ Electron interactions incorporated in energy as
functional of quasiparticle occupation number
(quasiparticle energy and Landau parameters)
Examples: Helium 3, many metals etc
- Common Feature: Can be understood by Renormalization Group Flow Fixed Points (Wilson \& Shankar)


## Topological Order: Beyond the Landau Paradigm

- Novel phases at $\mathrm{T}=0$ due to quantum effects (quantum matter)
- No symmetry breaking, no local order parameter(s)
- Characterized by a topological number
- Robust against weak disorders and interactions
- Correspondence between bulk and edge (in 2d) /surface (in 3d)
- Topology-dependent ground state degeneracy
- Fractionalization of quantum numbers (of quasiparticles)
- Fractional (exchange and exclusion) statistics of quasiparticles
- Intricate interplay between symmetries and topological orders
- Examples: quantum Hall effect, Mott insulators, quantum spin Hall effect, quantum spin liquids,topological insulators/superconductors, Dirac/Weyl semimetals, connection w/ fundamental Physics etc


## Respondence to Professor Wen’s Classes

- Class 1: Symmetry Breaking in T=0 Quantum Phase Transition (with the example of the 1d Transverse Ising Model)
- Class 2: Topological Order (beyond Landau's paradigm) (in the context of String-Net Models)


## A Primer of Topology



## Surface of Orange, Mug and Pretzel

## Surface of Orange, Mug and Pretzel



Topology: Properties unchanged under continuous deformations

## Surface of Orange, Mug and Pretzel

How to describe and characterize topological differences between these three things?

## Königsberg Seven Bridge Problem



Problem:
Is it possible for a walker to go through all several bridges only once and to return to the starting position?
[source: MacTutor History of Mathematics Archive]

## Euler's Solution of the Seven Bridge Problem



Swistzland Stamp (2207)
Impossible! Because each vertex is connected to an odd number of links.

- The Seven bridges of Königsberg


Credit: Aiden Ball

## Euler Characteristics for Polyhedra

| LEONHARE EULER <br> 1707-1783 | Name | Image | $\begin{gathered} \text { Vertices } \\ V \end{gathered}$ | Edges <br> E | Faces <br> F | Euler characteristic: $V-E+F$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Tetrahedron |  | 4 | 6 | 4 | 2 |
|  | Hexahedron or cube |  | 8 | 12 | 6 | 2 |
|  | Octahedron |  | 6 | 12 | 8 | 2 |
|  | Dodecahedron |  | 20 | 30 | 12 | 2 |
|  | Icosahedron |  | 12 | 30 | 20 | 2 |

(Credit: Wikipedia)

$$
\chi(M) \equiv V-E+F(M: 2 d \text { closed surface })
$$

Actually true for any Convex/Spherical polyhedra!


## Gauss-Bonnet Theorem

$$
\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{M} K d A=\chi(M)=2(1-g)
$$

where
M: 2d closed surface
K: Gauss Curvature , g: genus (\# handles)

$g=0$

$g=1$

$g=3$

## Ideas inspired by this Line of Thoughts

- Discrete approach can be Exact for Topology of a Continuous Object (Combinatoric Topology)
- Bulk-Boundary Relationship plays a Central role in Topology (Homology)
- Topological Inumbrer/nvariant can be expressed as an Integral
(Differential Topology: Cohomology and Homotopy)

Integral Calculus is Important in Curved Manifold without Metric

## Winding Numbers | $\left(S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}\right)$

Contour integral in complex analysis


$$
w=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} d \theta \frac{d \theta^{\prime}}{d \theta}=\text { integer }
$$

## Winding Number II $\left(S^{2} \rightarrow S^{2}\right)$



$$
w=\frac{1}{4 \pi} \int d x d y \boldsymbol{n} \cdot\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{n}}{\partial x} \times \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{n}}{\partial y}\right)
$$



$$
w=1
$$



$w=-1$

## A Primer of Topology for Physicists

- Manifold and Differential Forms

Stokes Theorem

- Mapping Degree/Winding Numbers

Kronecker Invariant, WZW Action

- Topology in Gauge Theory

Aharonov-Bohm Effect and Flux Quantum
Dirac Quantization for Magnetic Monopole Instantons and Theta Vacuum Index Theorem for Zero Modes and Anomaly

- Descent Equations:

Relations in Different Dimensions

## Topology

Definition: Properties that remain unchanged under continuous (or smooth) deformation.

1. Combinatoric Topology: Pure Math
2. Algebraic Topology:
(1)Homotopy group, (2)Homology group, (3)Cohomology group 3. Differential Topology:

Differential forms $\Rightarrow$ Integral topological invariants $\Rightarrow$ Topological number
In physics we need to get a number to be compared with experiments, so topological numbers obtained by integral invariants are very useful in physics, though not every topological number can be expressed as an integral.

## Integration over a smooth manifold

Manifolds are generalization of curves, surfaces, hyper-surfaces, etc.
A manifold (with dimension $n$ ) is defined by the following data:

1. Local coordinates patches (with $n$ coordinates in each patch)


Fig: local coordinates for a 2 -sphere
2. In overlapping region(s), the coordinate transformations

$$
x^{\prime \mu}=f^{\mu}\left(x^{1}, x^{2}, \cdots, x^{n}\right), \quad(\mu=1,2, \cdots, n)
$$

must be smooth.
3. Collection of all admissible coordinates patches that covers the whole manifold, a differential structure).
Here, properties 2 and 3 contain global information.

## Integration elements

In $\mathbb{R}^{3}$, we have the following integrations.
(1) Line integral $\int_{c} \vec{A} \cdot d \vec{x}$
(2) Surface integral $\int_{S} \vec{E} \cdot d \vec{\sigma}$
(3) Volume integral $\int_{V} f(\vec{x}) d \tau$

In higher dimensions, the surface and volume elements are not vector and scalar but anti-symmetric tensors.

$$
\begin{aligned}
d \vec{\sigma} & \rightarrow \quad d \sigma^{\mu \nu}=d x^{\mu} \wedge d x^{\nu} \\
d \tau & \rightarrow \quad d \tau^{\mu \nu \lambda}=d x^{\mu} \wedge d x^{\nu} \wedge d x^{\lambda}
\end{aligned}
$$

Here, for example, an volume element formed by three infinitesimal non-planar vectors $\delta u_{a}(a=1,2,3)$ is understood as

$$
\begin{equation*}
d x^{\mu} \wedge d x^{\nu} \wedge d x^{\lambda} \rightarrow \epsilon^{a b c}\left(\delta u_{a}\right)^{\mu}\left(\delta u_{b}\right)^{\nu}\left(\delta u_{c}\right)^{\lambda} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Differential forms as "integrands"

The differential $k$-form (of degree $k$ ) is

$$
\omega=\frac{1}{k!} \omega_{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{k}} d x^{\mu_{1}} \wedge \ldots \wedge d x^{\mu_{k}}
$$

where $\omega_{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{k}}$ and $d x^{\mu_{1}} \wedge \ldots \wedge d x^{\mu_{k}}$ are totally anti-symmetric, respectively. We have following properties:
(1) $d x^{\mu} \wedge d x^{\nu}=-d x^{\nu} \wedge d x^{\mu}$. More generally,
$\omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{2}=(-1)^{\operatorname{deg}\left(\omega_{1}\right) \cdot \operatorname{deg}\left(\omega_{2}\right)} \omega_{2} \wedge \omega_{1}$.
(2) Define: $d \omega=\frac{1}{k!} \frac{\partial \omega_{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{k}}}{\partial x^{\mu}} d x^{\mu} d x^{\mu_{1}} \wedge \ldots \wedge d x^{\mu_{k}}$.

Namely we have $d \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} d x^{\mu} \wedge$.
(3) $d^{2}=0$ (Most important property)
(4) Leibniz Rule: $d\left(\omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{2}\right)=\left(d \omega_{1}\right) \wedge \omega_{2}+(-1)^{\operatorname{deg} \omega_{1}} \omega_{1} \wedge\left(d \omega_{2}\right)$

## Differential Forms (cont.)

(5) Given a map $f: M \rightarrow N,\left(x^{\mu} \mapsto y^{\mu}\right)$, then for a k-form $\omega$ on $N$ we obtain a form

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{*} \omega & =\frac{1}{k!} \omega_{\alpha_{1}, \ldots \alpha_{k}}(y(x)) d y^{\alpha_{1}}(x) \wedge \ldots \wedge y^{\alpha_{k}}(x) \\
& =\frac{1}{k!} \omega_{\alpha_{1}, \ldots \alpha_{k}}(y(x)) \frac{\partial y^{\alpha_{1}}}{\partial x^{\mu_{1}}} \ldots \frac{\partial y^{\alpha_{k}}}{\partial x^{\mu_{k}}} d x^{\mu_{1}} \wedge \ldots \wedge d x^{\mu_{k}}
\end{aligned}
$$

defined on $M$. This operation is called Pull-Back.
(6) Stoke's Theorem describes the Bulk-Boundary Relation:

$$
\int_{V} d \omega=\int_{\partial V} \omega
$$

Corollary: If $\omega$ is a closed form, i.e. $d \omega=0$, then $\int_{S} \omega$ is unchanged under smooth deformation of the compact manifold $S$. (A compact manifold has no boundary.)
Therefore, a closed form is always associated with an integral topological invariant. Useful topological integral invariants include mapping degrees, or winding numbers, and Chern numbers.

## Stokes' Theorem in 3 dimensions

For 0-form $f(\vec{x}) \equiv f(x, y, z)$, then 1-form $d f=\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^{i}} d x^{i}$
For 1-form $A=A_{i}(\vec{x}) d x^{i}$, we have two possible derivations
Curl (2-form) : $d A=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial A_{j}}{\partial x^{i}} d x^{i} \wedge d x^{j} \quad, \quad(d A)_{i j}=\epsilon_{i j k}(\nabla \times \vec{A})_{k}$
Dual (2-form): $\quad * A=\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{i j k} A_{k} d x^{i} \wedge d x^{j}$,
Divergence (0-form): $\quad d * A=\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{l}} A_{k}\left(\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{i j k}\right) d x^{l} \wedge d x^{i} \wedge d x^{j}$
$*(d * A)=\epsilon_{i j l}(d * A)_{i j l}=\nabla \cdot \vec{A}$
Stokes Theorem unifies the usual Green's, Stokes's and Gausss's Theorems:

## Mapping Degree

$$
\varphi: M \rightarrow N \quad(\operatorname{dim}(M)=\operatorname{dim}(N), M, N \text { are compact and oriented })
$$

Intuition: The image of $\varphi(M)$ must cover $N$ an integer times.
Consider $\varphi: S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$


Fig: Map $S^{1} \rightarrow S^{1}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { (1). } \theta \mapsto \theta^{\prime} & =\theta & & (0 \leq \theta<2 \pi), \text { it covers } 1 \text { time. } \\
\text { (2). } \theta \mapsto \theta^{\prime} & =2 \theta & & (0 \leq \theta<2 \pi), \text { it covers } 2 \text { time. } \\
\text { (3). } \theta \mapsto \theta^{\prime} & =\theta & & (0 \leq \theta<\pi) \\
& =2 \pi-\theta & & (\pi \leq \theta<2 \pi)
\end{aligned}
$$

it covers 0 times.
The (integer) number of times that $f(M)$ covers $N$ can be expressed bv an integral mathematicallv.

## Mapping degree (cont.)

Mapping degree or winding number:

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)=\frac{\int_{M} \varphi^{*} \omega}{\int_{N} \omega}
$$

where $\omega$ is n -form on $N$ (Volume form).
Example 1. Kronecker Integral: $N=S^{n}$
$\varphi: M \rightarrow S^{n} \quad\left(S^{n}\right.$ is unit sphere $\left(\sum_{\alpha=1}^{n+1}\left(y^{\alpha}\right)^{2}=1\right)$ )
So we have $\sum_{\alpha}^{n+1}\left(\varphi^{\alpha}(x)\right)^{2}=1 \quad$ (unit vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ )
Take $\omega=$ to be the volume element

$$
\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)=\frac{1}{V_{n}} \int d^{n} \times \frac{1}{n!} \varepsilon^{\mu_{1} \ldots \mu_{n}} \varepsilon_{\alpha_{1} \ldots \alpha_{n+1}} \varphi^{\alpha_{1}}(x) \frac{\partial \varphi^{\alpha_{2}}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu_{1}}} \ldots \frac{\partial \varphi^{\alpha_{n+1}}(x)}{\partial x^{\mu_{n}}}
$$

with $\quad V_{n}=\frac{(n+1) \pi^{\frac{n+1}{2}}}{\Gamma\left[\frac{1}{2}(n+3)\right]}$.

## Properties of Mapping Degree

We have the following properties:
Homotopy Invariant: $\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)$ is homotopic invariant.
Definition: We say $\varphi_{1} \sim \varphi_{2}$ if exists smooth $F: M \times I \rightarrow N$, such that

$$
F(x, t=0)=\varphi_{1}(x), \quad F(x, t=1)=\varphi_{2}(x)
$$

( $F$ represents the process in which $\varphi_{1}$ is deformed to $\varphi_{2}$ )
$\varphi_{1} \sim \varphi_{2} \Rightarrow \operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{1}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{2}\right)$
Note. The converse is NOT true generally, but true in Kronecker's case. We have Hopf Theorem. Suppose $M$ is connected, compacted and oriented. For maps $\varphi_{1}, \varphi_{2}: M \rightarrow S^{n},(\operatorname{dim}(M)=n)$. We have

$$
\varphi_{1} \sim \varphi_{2} \Leftrightarrow \operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{1}\right)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{2}\right)
$$

## Homotopy Integral Invariant (cont.)

Example 2: The case when $N=G$ (Lie Group)
Here $\operatorname{dim}(M) \neq \operatorname{dim}(N)$ is allowed.
Consider a map $g: M \rightarrow G,(x \mapsto g(x), g(x) \in G)$. The form

$$
\operatorname{Tr}\left\{\left[g^{-1}(x) d g(x)\right]^{k}\right\}
$$

is the pull-back on $M$ of $\left[g^{-1} d g\right]^{k}$ on $G$. Here $g^{-1} d g$ is the Cartan-Maurer 1-form on $G$ :

$$
g^{-1} d g=\sum_{a=1}^{r} T^{a} V_{\alpha}^{a}(g) d g^{\alpha}
$$

Where $r=\operatorname{dim}(G)$ and $g^{\alpha}$ are coordinates on $G$. So the pull-back is given by

$$
g^{-1}(x) d g(x)=\sum_{a=1}^{r} T^{\alpha} \widetilde{V}_{\mu}^{a}(g(x)) d x^{\mu}
$$

where $\widetilde{V}_{\mu}^{a}=V_{\alpha}^{a}(g(x)) \frac{\partial g^{\alpha}}{\partial x^{\mu}}$.

## Homotopy Integral Invariant (cont.)

Let us define $w[g(x)]=c_{k} \int_{M} \operatorname{Tr}\left\{\left[g^{-1}(x) d g(x)\right]^{k}\right\}$.
Lemma. $\operatorname{Tr}\left(g^{-1} d g\right)^{k}=0, \quad$ if $k=$ even;

$$
\mathrm{d} \operatorname{Tr}\left(\mathrm{~g}^{-1} d g\right)^{k}=0, \quad \text { if } k=o d d
$$

When $M$ is a $k$-sphere, $S^{k}$ with $k=o d d, c_{k}=\frac{\left(\frac{k-1}{2}\right)!}{(2 \pi)^{\frac{k+1}{2}} k!}$.
Theorem. $w[g(x)]=$ integer .
Application: In gauge theories, a map $g: M \rightarrow G$ is called a gauge transformation and $w(g)$, if non-zero, is called the winding number of the large gauge transformation $f$.
Example 3: $M=S^{3}, N=S U(2)$. In this case, $w(g)$ can be calculated by either of the above formulas.
Let us define $\left(g_{1} \circ g_{2}\right)(x)=g_{1}(x) \cdot g_{2}(x)$. Then we have the following property:

$$
\begin{gathered}
w\left(g_{1} \circ g_{2}\right)=w\left(g_{1}\right)+w\left(g_{2}\right) \\
\operatorname{Tr}\left[\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right)^{-1} d\left(g_{1} g_{2}\right)\right]^{3}=\operatorname{Tr}\left[\left(g_{1}^{-1} d g_{1}\right)\right]^{3}+\operatorname{Tr}\left[\left(g_{2}^{-1} d g_{2}\right)^{3}\right]+d(\text { something }) .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Reference Books

1. H. Flanders, "Differential Forms with Applications to the Physical Sciences", (Dover Publications, 1989)
2. C. Nash and S. Sen, "Topology and Geometry for Physicists", (Academic Press, Inc. , London, 1983)

These are suitable for this class. For advanced textbooks see, e.g.,
3. Y. Choquet-Bruhat, C. Dewitt-Morette and M. Dillard-Bleick, "Anaysis, Manifolds and Physics" , Revised Edition, (North-Holland, Amsterdam, 1982)
4. T. Frankel, "The Geometry of Physics -- An Introduction", (Cambridge University Press, 1997)

## Problems

1. Given $\alpha=2 y z \mathrm{dx}+x^{2} \mathrm{dy}+\mathrm{xyzdz}, \beta=\sin \mathrm{xdx}+$ cos $y \mathrm{~d} y$, compute (1) $\alpha \wedge \beta$, and (2) d $\alpha$.
2. Given $\alpha$ and $\beta$ as given above, explicitly compute (3) $d(d \alpha)$ and (4) $d(\alpha \wedge \beta)$.
3. If further $\gamma=3 z^{3} \mathrm{~d} \mathrm{x}+\left(x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} y+5 y^{2} \mathrm{dz}$, compute $\alpha \wedge \beta \wedge \gamma=$ ?
4. Consider a 2 -sphere $S^{2}$, described by $x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}=1$.

Show that its surface element is given by $\beta=x d y \wedge d z+y d z \wedge d x+z d x \wedge d y$.
Hint: Use the polar coordinates: $x=\sin \theta \cos \phi, y=\sin \theta \sin \phi, z=\cos \theta$.
prove that $\beta=\sin \theta d \theta \wedge d \phi, d \beta=3 d x \wedge d y \wedge d z$.

## End

