

# Fiber Bundles, The Hopf Map and Magnetic Monopoles

Dominick Scaletta

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## 1 Preliminaries

**Definition 1** *An  $n$ -dimension differentiable manifold is a topological space  $\mathcal{X}$  with a differentiable structure that is Hausdorff and second countable.*

**Example 1**  $\mathbb{R}^n, S^n, T^n$ , etc...

**Definition 2** *A diffeomorphism between two differentiable manifolds,  $M$  and  $N$  is a smooth, bijective map  $\phi : M \rightarrow N$  with a smooth inverse.*

**Definition 3** *A topological group  $G$  is a topological space such that the product and inverse operations are continuous maps.*

**Definition 4** *A Lie group  $G$  is a topological group such that the product and inverse operations are smooth maps.*

**Example 2**  $\mathbb{R}, O(n), SO(n), U(n), SU(n)$ , etc...

**Counterexample 1**  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$  with the subspace topology is a topological group, but not a Lie group.

## 2 Fiber Bundles

**Definition 5** *A Fiber Bundle is defined as the following:*

1. *Differentiable manifolds  $B$  and  $E$ , called the Base Space and the Total Space, respectively.*
2. *A topological space  $F$ , called the Fiber, or Typical Fiber (typically a differentiable manifold).*
3. *A surjection  $\pi : E \rightarrow B$  called the Projection.*
4. *A topological group  $G$  called the structure group (typically a Lie group).*

5. A family of diffeomorphisms  $\Psi = \{\psi_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  such that given an open cover  $\{U_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in I}$  of  $B$ , for all  $x \in B$  there exists a  $U_\alpha \ni x$  and a  $\psi_\alpha \in \Psi$  so that

$$\psi_\alpha : U_\alpha \times F \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U_\alpha)$$

called *Trivializations of the bundle* and

$$\pi(\psi_\alpha(x, y)) = x, \quad \text{for all } (x, y) \in U_\alpha \times F$$

The set  $\{(U_\alpha, \psi_\alpha)\}_{\alpha \in I}$  is called a *coordinate representation for  $E$* . For all coordinate representations,

$$\psi_{\alpha, x} : F \rightarrow F_x = \{y \in E \mid \pi(y) = x\},$$

$\psi_{\alpha, x}(y) = \psi_\alpha(x, y)$  is bijective for all  $y \in F$  and  $x \in U_\alpha$

6. A set of maps  $\{t_{ij}\}$  such that if  $x \in U_\alpha \cap U_\beta$ ,  $t_{\alpha\beta} = \psi_{\alpha, x}^{-1} \circ \psi_{\beta, x}$  is given by an element  $g \in G$  and  $\psi_\beta(x, y) = \psi_\alpha(x, t_{\alpha\beta}(x)y)$ . These are called the *Transition functions*. We require that

$$t_{\alpha\alpha}(x) = Id_x, \quad x \in U_\alpha,$$

$$t_{\alpha\beta}(x) = t_{\beta\alpha}^{-1}(x), \quad x \in U_\alpha \cap U_\beta,$$

$$t_{\alpha\beta}(x) \cdot t_{\beta\gamma}(x) = t_{\alpha\gamma}(x), \quad x \in U_\alpha \cap U_\beta \cap U_\gamma.$$

If all the  $t_{ij}$ 's are identity maps, then  $E = B \times F$  is called a *trivial bundle*.

Often in literature fiber bundles are simply denoted by  $F - E - B$ ,  $\pi : E \rightarrow B$  or  $E \xrightarrow{\pi} B$ .

**Definition 6** A *Section of a fiber bundle*  $\pi : E \rightarrow B$  is a map  $s : B \rightarrow E$  such that  $\pi \circ s = Id_B$

**Example 3** A *cylinder is an example of a trivial bundle*. The base space is given by  $S^1$  and the typical fiber is given by some interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ , say  $[-1, 1]$ . The transition functions are thus given by the identity.

If instead of taking the structure group to be the identity, we realize a structure with non-trivial topology.

**Example 4** A *Möbius band is the simplest example of a non-trivial fiber bundle*. Again, the base space is given by  $S^1$  and the typical fiber is given by  $[-1, 1] \subset \mathbb{R}$ . The transition functions are now given by  $t_{12} : t \mapsto -t$ . It is easy to see that the structure group is then  $\mathbb{Z}/2$ .

This is a special example in that rarely if ever do we see a discrete group for a structure group. An analogous example to the cylinder and Möbius band are the torus and the Klein bottle. The torus,  $S^1 \times S^1$ , is a trivial bundle in which the base space is a circle and the fiber over each point is a circle. The Klein bottle is a nontrivial circle bundle.

**Example 5** A vector bundle is a fiber bundle having a vector space  $V$  as its fiber and  $GL(V)$ , or one of its subgroups, as a structure group.

**Example 6** The tangent bundle is the most common example of a vector bundle.

To see this, let's begin with a definition for the tangent bundle.

**Definition 7** Consider a smooth compact submanifold  $M \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  of dimension  $m$ . At each point  $x \in M$  attach a copy of  $\mathbb{R}^m$  tangential to  $M$ . This is the tangent space of  $M$  at  $x$ , denoted  $T_x M$ . Then the tangent bundle is the disjoint union of the tangent spaces, i.e.

$$TM = \coprod_{x \in M} T_x M = \bigcup_{x \in M} \{x\} \times T_x M.$$

So elements of  $TM$  can be defined as  $(x, v)$  where  $x \in M$  and  $v \in T_x M$ .

To see that this is indeed a fiber bundle we can first observe that there is a natural projection  $\pi : TM \rightarrow M$  defined by  $(x, v) \mapsto x$  (i.e.  $\pi$  takes  $T_x M$  to  $x$ ). So the fibers are given by the  $T_x M$ 's. To each chart  $U_\alpha$  on  $M$  with coordinates  $(x_\alpha^1, \dots, x_\alpha^m)$  there is a corresponding chart  $\tilde{U}_\alpha$  with coordinates  $(x_\alpha^1, \dots, x_\alpha^m, v_\alpha^1, \dots, v_\alpha^m)$  where  $v = \dot{x}$  is a tangent vector to  $M$  along some curve in  $M$ . The transition functions between charts have the form

$$x_\beta^i = x_\alpha^i(x_\alpha), \quad v_\beta^j = \frac{\partial x_\alpha^j}{\partial x_\beta^i}(x_\alpha) v_\alpha^i$$

We can observe that the structure group is given by  $GL(m, \mathbb{R})$ .

**Example 7** A covering space is another example of a fiber bundle. In this case the fiber is discrete and the structure group is a factor group of  $\pi_1(B)$ .

**Definition 8** A bundle  $\pi : E \rightarrow B$  in which  $F = G$ , where  $G$  is a Lie group that has a smooth right action of  $E$  such that

1. The action is free ( $e \cdot g = e \Leftrightarrow g = e$ ).
2. The action preserves the fibers.

then  $\pi : E \rightarrow B$  is a principal  $G$ -bundle, often denoted  $P(B, G)$ .

**Example 8**  $S^n$  is a 2-fold cover of  $\mathbb{R}P^n$ . The action of  $O(1)$  on  $S^n$  gives it the structure of a principal  $O(1)$ -bundle over  $\mathbb{R}P^n$ ;

$$O(1) - S_{\mathbb{R}}^{n+1} - \mathbb{R}P^n.$$

Similarly,

$$U(1) - S_{\mathbb{C}}^{n+1} - \mathbb{C}P^n$$

is a principal  $U(1)$  bundle. For the remainder of the talk we will be focusing on a principal  $U(1)$  bundle.

### 3 The Hopf Map

The Hopf map shows us that  $S^3$  is a principal  $U(1)$ -bundle over  $S^2$ . Recall that,

$$S^3 = \{(x_1, \dots, x_4) \mid \sum_{i=1}^4 x_i^2 = 1\}$$

and for  $z_1 = x_1 + ix_2$  and  $z_2 = x_3 + ix_4$

$$S^3 \cong S_{\mathbb{C}}^1 = \{(z_1, z_2) \mid |z_1|^2 + |z_2|^2 = 1\}$$

We define the Hopf map  $\pi : S^3 \rightarrow S^2$  by

$$\begin{aligned}\xi_1 &= 2(x_1x_3 + x_2x_4), \\ \xi_2 &= 2(x_2x_3 - x_1x_4), \\ \xi_3 &= (x_1)^2 + (x_2)^2 - (x_3)^2 - (x_4)^2\end{aligned}$$

To verify that the  $\xi$ 's indeed parametrize  $S^2$  we can observe that

$$(\xi_1)^2 + (\xi_2)^2 + (\xi_3)^2 = ((x_1)^2 + (x_2)^2 + (x_3)^2 + (x_4)^2)^2 = 1$$

Now, take  $(X, Y)$  to be coordinates given by stereographic projection from the north pole,  $N$ , onto  $U_S = S^2 - N$ . Then,

$$(X, Y) = \left( \frac{\xi_1}{1 - \xi_3}, \frac{\xi_2}{1 - \xi_3} \right).$$

If we observe the complex plane through the equator,  $Z = X + iY$  is in the unit circle. With a little algebra, we find that

$$Z = \frac{\xi_1 + i\xi_2}{1 - \xi_3} = \frac{x_1 + ix_2}{x_3 + ix_4} = \frac{z_1}{z_2}, \quad \xi \in U_S$$

We can, of course, proceed similarly for the coordinates  $(U, V)$  of  $U_N = S^2 - S$ . Then,

$$(U, V) = \left( \frac{\xi_1}{1 + \xi_3}, \frac{-\xi_2}{1 + \xi_3} \right),$$

and therefore

$$W = U + iV = \frac{\xi_1 - i\xi_2}{1 + \xi_3} = \frac{x_3 + ix_4}{x_1 + ix_2} = \frac{z_2}{z_1}, \quad \xi \in U_N.$$

Observe that on  $U_N \cap U_S$ ,  $Z = \frac{1}{W}$ , and that  $(z_1, z_2)$  is invariant under  $(z_1, z_2) \mapsto (\lambda z_1, \lambda z_2)$  for  $\lambda \in U(1)$  since  $|\lambda| = 1$  and  $(\lambda z_1, \lambda z_2) \in S^3$ . Now, we can observe the fiber bundle structure as follows. Define local trivializations

$$\psi_S^{-1} : \pi^{-1}(U_S) \rightarrow U_S \times U(1)$$

by

$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \left( \frac{z_1}{z_2}, \frac{z_2}{|z_2|} \right)$$

and

$$\psi_N^{-1} : \pi^{-1}(U_N) \rightarrow U_N \times U(1)$$

by

$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto \left( \frac{z_2}{z_1}, \frac{z_1}{|z_1|} \right)$$

Note that these maps are well defined, for instance, on  $U_S$ ,  $z_2 \neq 0$ , so both  $\frac{z_1}{z_2}$  and  $\frac{z_2}{|z_2|}$  are nonsingular. On the equator,  $\xi_3 = 0$ ,  $|z_1| = |z_2| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  so the trivializations on the equator are given by,

$$\psi_S^{-1} : (z_1, z_2) \mapsto \left( \frac{z_1}{z_2}, \sqrt{2}z_2 \right)$$

and

$$\psi_N^{-1} : (z_1, z_2) \mapsto \left( \frac{z_2}{z_1}, \sqrt{2}z_1 \right)$$

The transition function on  $U_N \cap U_S$  is then

$$t_{NS}(\xi) = \frac{\sqrt{2}z_1}{\sqrt{2}z_2} = \xi_1 + i\xi_2 \in U(1)$$

As we go around the equator, we see that  $t_{NS}(\xi)$  makes one lap around the unit circle in the complex plane. Therefore, this bundle is of homotopy class 1 of  $\pi_1(U(1)) = \mathbb{Z}$ , which as we will see describes a monopole of unit strength. Notice that we cannot find a global triviality for  $S^3$ . To see this observe that  $\pi_1(S^2 \times S^1) = \pi_1(S^2) \oplus \pi_1(S^1) \cong \mathbb{Z} \neq 0 = \pi_1(S^3)$ . For a different perspective, one can similarly define the Hopf map

$$\pi : S_{\mathbb{C}}^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}P^1$$

by

$$(z_1, z_2) \mapsto [(z_1, z_2)] = \{\lambda(z_1, z_2) | \lambda \in \mathbb{C} - \{0\}\}.$$

This map takes points  $\lambda(z_1, z_2) \in S^3$  with  $|\lambda| = 1$  to single points in  $\mathbb{C}P^1$ .

Play video 7 on <http://dimensions-math.org/Dim-reg-AM.htm>.

## 4 Magnetic Monopoles

Recall Gauss' Law for magnetism,

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

or in integral form

$$\oint_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0.$$

These equations imply that the magnetic field is given by a solenoidal vector field. What if we redefine Gauss' law as

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 4\pi g \quad (1)$$

where  $g$  is the magnetic charge? This equation then has the solution

$$\mathbf{B} = g \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3} = -\nabla \frac{g}{r}. \quad (2)$$

This implies that

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \quad (3)$$

is no longer valid because,

$$\oint (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$

But this is a contradiction since (1) implies that

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \int \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 4\pi g.$$

But we know that as we move away from the origin,  $\mathbf{B}$  has no divergence, so we must find a vector potential  $\mathbf{A}$  that obeys (3) almost everywhere. For simplicity, let us find a vector potential that fails to hold on a line. Following Dirac, we can take this line to be  $z > 0$ . Again, we take advantage of Stokes' theorem,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = - \int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S}, \quad (4)$$

where  $C$  is a circle of constant  $\theta$  on a sphere of constant radius  $r$  about the origin, and  $S$  is the lower part of the sphere bounded above by  $C$ . Then, the surface integral (4) easily follows,

$$\int_S \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \frac{g}{r^2} 2\pi r^2 (1 + \cos \theta).$$

We can then take as a solution of (4) to be,

$$\mathbf{A} = A_\phi \hat{\phi},$$

with

$$A_\phi = -\frac{g(1 + \cos \theta)}{r \sin \theta}.$$

Now we let  $\theta \rightarrow 0$  and notice that the singularity is only on the  $z$  axis and

$$\oint_{C'} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{S'} (\nabla \times \mathbf{A}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}' = -4\pi g,$$

where  $C'$  is the infinitesimal circle, and  $S'$  the infinitesimal area. We can observe from this that the singularity of  $\nabla \times \mathbf{A}$  is indeed on the axis and can conclude that the magnetic field is given by

$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} + 4\pi g \delta(x)\delta(y)\theta(z)\hat{\mathbf{z}},$$

where

$$\theta(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & z > 0, \\ 0, & z < 0. \end{cases}$$

This seems like a pretty janky way to describe a monopole, but fortunately this singularity can be avoided if we abandon the use of a single vector potential. This is where our old friend Hopf gives us a hand. But first, I left out a big story about connections on principal bundles. An important thing to note is that a principal bundle is what physicists refer to as a gauge, and that locally a connection one form is referred to as a gauge potential. The nicest case of this is given by  $U(1)$  gauge potentials which describe electromagnetism. We will use the following facts about connections, the proofs of which can be found in “Geometry, Topology and Physics” by M Nakahara.

1. Let  $P(M, G)$  be a principal bundle,  $\{U_i\}$  be an open cover of  $M$  and  $\sigma_i$  be a local section defined on each  $U_i$ . Given a  $Lie(G)$  valued one form  $\mathcal{A}_i$  on  $U_i$  and a local section  $\sigma_i : U_i \rightarrow \pi^{-1}(U_i)$ , there exists a connection one form (called an Ehresmann connection)  $\omega \in Lie(G) \otimes T^*M$  such that  $\mathcal{A}_i = \sigma_i^* \omega$ .
2. The compatibility condition for these is given by

$$\mathcal{A}_j = t_{ij}^{-1} \mathcal{A}_i t_{ij} + t_{ij}^{-1} dt_{ij}.$$

This is what physicists refer to as a gauge transformation.

The dirac monopole is defined on  $\mathbb{R}^3 - \{0\}$ , which is homotopy equivalent to  $S^2$ , and is described by a principal  $U(1)$ -bundle  $P(S^2, U(1))$ . We can cover  $S^2$  by two charts,

$$U_N \equiv \{(\theta, \phi) | 0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{1}{2}\pi + \epsilon\} \quad U_S \equiv \{(\theta, \phi) | \frac{1}{2}\pi - \epsilon \leq \theta \leq \pi\}$$

with  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  polar coordinates. Let  $\omega$  be an Ehresmann connection on  $P(S^2, U(1))$  and  $\sigma_N, \sigma_S$  to be local sections on  $U_N, U_S$ , respectively. Then we can define local gauge potentials (Wu-Yang)

$$\mathcal{A}_N = \sigma_N^* \omega \quad \mathcal{A}_S = \sigma_S^* \omega$$

by

$$\mathcal{A}_N = g(1 - \cos\theta)d\phi \quad \mathcal{A}_S = -g(1 + \cos\theta)d\phi$$

Now take the transition function  $t_{NS}$  defined on the equator  $U_N \cap U_S$ . We can write

$$t_{NS} = \exp[i\varphi(\phi)] \quad \varphi : S^1 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

Then the gauge potentials are related by the compatibility condition

$$\mathcal{A}_N = t_{NS}^{-1} \mathcal{A}_S t_{NS} + t_{NS}^{-1} dt_{NS}, \quad (5)$$

which gives us

$$d\varphi = \mathcal{A}_N - \mathcal{A}_S = 2gd\phi. \quad (6)$$

Now, as  $\phi$  goes around the equator,  $\varphi(\phi)$  has the range

$$\Delta\varphi \equiv \int d\varphi = \int_0^{2\pi} 2gd\phi = 4\pi g.$$

So for  $t_{NS}$  to be defined uniquely, it must be an integer multiple of  $2\pi$ ,

$$\frac{\Delta\varphi}{2\pi} = 2g \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

This is the quantization condition for magnetic monopoles. But now let us see how monopoles give us electric charge quantization. Consider a particle with mass  $m$  and charge  $e$  moving in the field of a sufficiently massive magnetic monopole. We can write Schrödinger's equation for the particle's wave function as

$$\frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} - \frac{e}{c} \mathbf{A})^2 |\psi(\mathbf{r})\rangle = E |\psi(\mathbf{r})\rangle.$$

It can be shown that under the gauge transformation

$$\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} + \nabla\Lambda,$$

the wavefunction transforms as

$$|\psi(\mathbf{r})\rangle \rightarrow \exp\left[\frac{ie\Lambda}{\hbar c}\right] |\psi(\mathbf{r})\rangle, \quad \Lambda = 2g\phi.$$

We saw by equations (5) and (6) that  $\mathcal{A}_N - \mathcal{A}_S = 2gd\phi = \nabla 2g\phi$ . If  $\psi^N$  and  $\psi^S$  are wavefunctions defined on  $U_N$  and  $U_S$  respectively, then they are related by

$$|\psi^S(\mathbf{r})\rangle = \exp\left[\frac{ie\Lambda}{\hbar c}\right] |\psi^N(\mathbf{r})\rangle$$

Now, if we fix  $\theta$  and observe the wavefunctions as they go from  $\phi = 0$  to  $\phi = 2\pi$  we note that the wavefunction is required to be single valued, therefore

$$\frac{2eg}{\hbar c} = n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

This tells us that if a single monopole exists, then all electric charges are quantized!



## 5 References

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