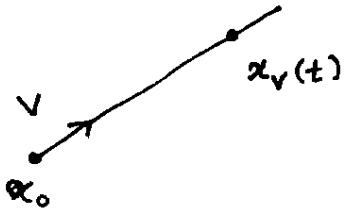


Summary of Riemann normal coordinates. $x_0 = \text{chosen point}$

$$x_v(t) = \text{sln of geodesic eqn. } \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{dt^2} + \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu \frac{dx^\alpha}{dt} \frac{dx^\beta}{dt} = 0$$

subject to init. condns. $x^\mu(0) = x_0^\mu$

$$\frac{dx^\mu}{dt}(0) = v^\mu, \quad v \in T_{x_0} M.$$

Facts: $x_v(t)$ depends only on tV .

dist = $s = t|v|$.

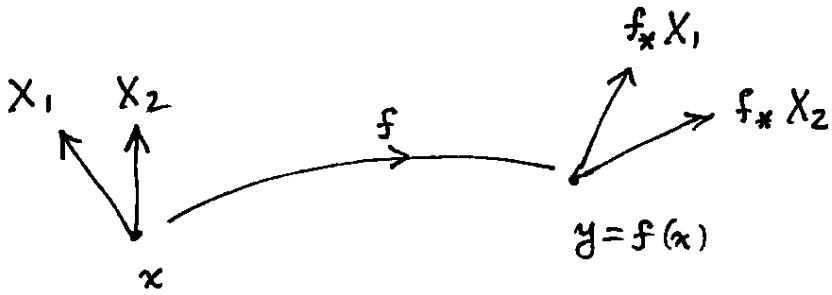
For example, if V is a unit vector, $|v|=1$, then $\exp(V)$ is a point on M at unit dist. from x_0 .



Define: $\exp: T_{x_0} M \rightarrow M: V \mapsto x_v(1) = \exp(V)$

Let $\{e_\mu\}$ be basis in $T_{x_0} M$, $V = w^\mu e_\mu$. Then assign coords w^μ to point $\exp(v)$ on M . w^μ are R.N.C. on M .

Now for some remarks about conformal transformations and isometries. Let (M, g) be a (pseudo)-Riemannian manifold, with Levi-Civita connection ∇ , and consider a map $f: M \rightarrow M$. [This discussion is easily generalized to the case $f: M \rightarrow N$, between two Riem. manifolds]. Let $y = f(x)$, some $x \in M$, and let $X_1, X_2 \in T_x M$.



We compare the scalar products $g|_x(X_1, X_2)$ and $g|_{f(x)}(f_* X_1, f_* X_2)$. If these are proportional by some positive scale factor, written $e^{2\sigma(x)}$ where $\sigma: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar field, i.e., if $\exists \sigma$ such that

$$g|_{f(x)}(f_* X_1, f_* X_2) = e^{2\sigma(x)} g|_x(X_1, X_2)$$

for all $X_1, X_2 \in T_x M$, and all $x \in M$, then we say $f: M \rightarrow M$ is a conformal transformation. The condition can be written more compactly as

$$\boxed{f_* g = e^{2\sigma} g.} \quad (\text{Defn of conformal trans. } f).$$

If this equation holds for $\sigma=0$, i.e., if

$$\boxed{f_* g = g} \quad (\text{Defn. of isometry } f).$$

then f is said to be an isometry. An isometry is a special

case of a conformal transformation. Under conformal transformation, scalar products are preserved up to a scaling; this preserves angles but not necessarily lengths. Under an isometry, both lengths and angles are preserved.

Historical note: Conformal transformations entered physics with Weyl's 1919 attempt to unify E+M and general relativity (then very new). In Weyl's theory, the integral $\int A_\mu dx^\mu$ of the E+M vector potential was interpreted as a scale factor for a scaling of the metric. The idea failed, however, because this scale factor is path dependent. But this is where the word "gauge" comes from in "gauge transformation." Later $\int A_\mu dx^\mu$ was reinterpreted as part of the phase of the quantum wave function, the change of which is still called a gauge transformation.

In modern times conformal field theories are important as exactly solvable 2D models of quantum field theories, in 2D critical phenomena, and in string theory.

An example of a conformal transformation in 2D is any complex function $w = w(z)$ on the complex plane. Let $z = x + iy$, $w = u + iv$. Then can easily show,

$$dx^2 + dy^2 = \frac{du^2 + dv^2}{u_x^2 + u_y^2}, \quad u_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, \quad u_y = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

because of Cauchy-Riemann conditions. Thus the mapping $z \mapsto w$ is conformal.

Examples of isometries are translations and rotations (the Euclidean group) on Euclidean \mathbb{R}^n .

A concept closely related to conformal transformations is the following.

Let M be a manifold with two metrics g and \bar{g} , and suppose

$$\bar{g} = e^{2\phi} g.$$

Then g and \bar{g} are said to be conformally related. Let δ be a metric that in some coordinates has the form $\delta_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}$ (flat space). Then if $\bar{g} = e^{2\phi} \delta$, then \bar{g} is said to be conformally flat.

As discussed, the integrability condition for the existence of a coordinate system such that $g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}$ is the vanishing of the Riemann tensor, $R^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = 0$. It turns out that there is another (less restrictive) condition that g satisfies if it is conformally flat, i.e., if there exists a coord. system and scalar field ϕ such that $g_{\mu\nu} = e^{2\phi} \delta_{\mu\nu}$. This condition is the vanishing of the Weyl tensor,

$$W_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \frac{1}{m-2} (g_{\mu\beta} R_{\alpha\nu} - g_{\mu\nu} R_{\beta\alpha} + g_{\alpha\nu} R_{\mu\beta} - g_{\beta\alpha} R_{\mu\nu}) \\ + \frac{1}{(m-1)(m-2)} (g_{\mu\alpha} g_{\beta\nu} - g_{\mu\beta} g_{\alpha\nu}) R,$$

where $m = \dim M$, $R_{\mu\nu}$ = Ricci tensor, R = curvature scalar. W has the property that it is invariant under conformal transformations; hence if g is conformally flat, then $W=0$. Conversely, if $W=0$, then for $m \geq 4$, the metric is conformally flat; for $m=3$ $W=0$ always, and for $m=2$, any g is conformally flat.

Back to isometries. It's easy to show that given (M, g) , the set of isometries forms a group. This can be thought of as an abstract group G whose action Φ_a on M is the set of isometries, that is

$$\Phi_a^* g = g, \quad a \in G.$$

(g = metric, not a group element). Assume that G is a Lie group, and let $a = \exp(tV)$ where $V \in \mathfrak{g}$ = Lie algebra of G . Then

$$\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0} \Phi_{\exp(tV)}^* = V_M = \text{induced vector field called } X_V \in \mathcal{X}(M).$$

This eqn. holds if both sides act on scalars. For other tensors, (such as g) replace RHS by \mathcal{L}_{X_V} (the Lie derivative). Thus if G is the isometry group, then

$$\Phi_{\exp(tV)}^* g = g,$$

or, applying $\left. \frac{d}{dt} \right|_{t=0}$,

$$\mathcal{L}_{X_V} g = 0.$$

A vector field $X \in \mathcal{X}(M)$ such that $\mathcal{L}_X g = 0$ is called a Killing vector field. Killing vector fields represent infinitesimal isometries. A problem is to find the Killing vector fields given g .

Let X be a Killing vector field. Then by writing \mathcal{L}_X in components, we have

$$(\mathcal{L}_X g)_{\alpha\beta} = X^\mu g_{\alpha\beta,\mu} + X^\mu_\alpha g_{\mu\beta} + X^\mu_\beta g_{\alpha\mu} = 0.$$

This is a differential equation that X must satisfy. ~~use metric connection~~ Use the Levi-Civita connection, so that

$$g_{\alpha\beta,\mu} = \Gamma_{\mu\alpha}^\sigma g_{\sigma\beta} + \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\sigma g_{\alpha\sigma}$$

Thus

$$\cancel{X_\alpha^\sigma g_{\beta\gamma} \partial_\mu X_\nu^\gamma g_{\alpha\mu}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X_\alpha^\sigma g_{\beta\gamma} + X_\beta^\sigma g_{\alpha\gamma} + \Gamma_{\mu\alpha}^\sigma g_{\beta\gamma} X^\mu + \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\sigma g_{\alpha\gamma} \\ = g_{\beta\gamma} X_\alpha^\sigma + g_{\alpha\gamma} X_\beta^\sigma \\ = \boxed{X_\beta; \alpha + X_\alpha; \beta = 0} \end{aligned}$$

This is Killing's eqn., nice compact form for eqn. that Killing vectors must satisfy.

Here are some examples of Killing vector fields on some spaces. First take Euclidean \mathbb{R}^m in standard coordinates. Then $X_\beta; \alpha = X_\beta; \alpha$, and Killing's eqn. is

$$X_\beta; \alpha + X_\alpha; \beta = 0, \text{ also } X_\beta = X^\beta \text{ since } g_{\mu\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}.$$

Expand X_α in a Taylor series:

$$\cancel{X_\alpha = a_\alpha + b_{\alpha\beta} X^\beta + c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} X^\beta X^\gamma +}$$

$$X_\alpha = a_\alpha + b_{\alpha\beta} X^\beta + c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} X^\beta X^\gamma + \dots$$

so

$$X_{\alpha;\beta} = b_{\alpha\beta} + 2 c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} X^\gamma + \dots$$

$$\underline{X_{\beta;\alpha} = b_{\beta\alpha} + 2 c_{\beta\alpha\gamma} X^\gamma + \dots}$$

$$0 = (b_{\alpha\beta} + b_{\beta\alpha}) + 2(c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} + c_{\beta\alpha\gamma}) X^\gamma + \dots$$

Thus $b_{\alpha\beta} = -b_{\beta\alpha}$ (antisymmetric), a_α = any const vector. As for c , it is symmetric in $\beta\gamma$ and antisymm. in $\alpha\beta$, which $\Rightarrow c=0$. Same for all higher tensors. Thus we find

$$X_\alpha = a_\alpha + b_{\beta\alpha} x^\beta.$$

We recognize this as an infinitesimal displacement (a_α) composed with an infinitesimal rotation ($b_{\beta\alpha} = -b_{\beta\alpha}$ means $\theta \in \text{so}(n)$).

The number of parameters is $m + \frac{m(m-1)}{2} = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ ($m = \dim M$).

This is the number of lin. indep. Killing vector fields; it is a finite number. In fact, it is the maximum number that a space of m dimensions can have. For this reason, Euclidean \mathbb{R}^m is called a maximally symmetric space. Another example of a Max-Sym. Space is the sphere S^m , with the induced metric obtained by embedding in Euclidean \mathbb{R}^{m+1} . S^m is invariant under $O(n+1)$, a group with $m(m+1)/2$ dimensions. (Same number). Similarly, surfaces of const. neg. curvature can be imbedded in Minkowski \mathbb{R}^{n+1} , and are maximally symmetric under the $(n+1)$ -dimensional Lorentz group.

Since the Killing vectors are the infinitesimal generators of the ~~group~~ action of the isometry group on M , they must form a Lie algebra. This is easy to show directly. Let X, Y be two Killing vector fields, so

$$\mathcal{L}_X g = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}_Y g = 0.$$

Then since $[\mathcal{L}_X, \mathcal{L}_Y] = \mathcal{L}_{[X,Y]}$, we have $\mathcal{L}_{[X,Y]} g = 0$, hence $[X, Y]$ is also a Killing vector field.

Can also talk about conformal Killing vectors.

New subject. Now we put the basic equations of metrical geometry into a noncoordinate basis, and also introduce the formalism of Cartan. In 4 dimensions, a noncoordinate basis is sometimes called a tetrad or vierbein (German for "four legs"), because a frame is a set of lin. indep. vectors $\overset{\leftarrow}{\rightarrow}$ ^{a "dreibein"}. In many dimensions, we may refer to the frame as a vielbein (many legs).

Nakahara distinguishes components w.r.t. to a vielbein from those w.r.t. a coordinate basis by using $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots$ for the vielbein and μ, ν, λ, \dots for the coordinate basis. We will just use any indices in the following, but it will be understood that we are working in a non-coordinate basis.

- Let $\{e_\mu\}$ be the basis vector fields, assumed to be lin. indep. at each point of some region of space. Let $\{\theta^\mu\}$ be the dual basis of 1-forms, so that

$$\theta^\mu(e_\nu) = \delta_\nu^\mu.$$

The basis vectors satisfy

$$[e_\mu, e_\nu] = c_{\mu\nu}^\sigma e_\sigma$$

where $c_{\mu\nu}^\sigma = -c_{\nu\mu}^\sigma$ are the structure constants. (not really const. however). Similarly, we have

$$d\theta^\mu = -\frac{1}{2} c_{\alpha\beta}^\mu \theta^\alpha \wedge \theta^\beta.$$

(derived previously). (Here's how:

$$\begin{aligned} d\theta^\mu(e_\alpha, e_\beta) &= e_\alpha \underbrace{[\theta^\mu(e_\beta)]}_{\delta_\beta^\mu} - e_\beta \underbrace{[\theta^\mu(e_\alpha)]}_{\delta_\alpha^\mu} - \theta^\mu([e_\alpha, e_\beta]) \\ &= 0 - 0 - c_{\alpha\beta}^\sigma \theta^\mu(e_\sigma) = \cancel{c_{\alpha\beta}^\mu} - c_{\alpha\beta}^\mu. \end{aligned}$$

Also use the notation,

$$e_\alpha f = f_\alpha \quad \text{for } f \in \mathcal{F}(M).$$

Note: Nakahara avoids this, he always writes things like $e_\alpha [\Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\mu]$ for what I will write as $\Gamma_{\beta\gamma,\alpha}^\mu$.

Now begin with (M, ∇) , but don't assume any g , nor that torsion $T=0$. ~~Comp~~ First we define connection coefficients,

$$\nabla_\mu \equiv \nabla e_\mu$$

$$\nabla_\mu e_\nu = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha e_\alpha$$

$$\text{Equivalently, } \nabla_\mu \theta^\nu = -\Gamma_{\mu\alpha}^\nu \theta^\alpha.$$

Now defin of torsion,

$$T(x, y) = \nabla_x y - \nabla_y x - [x, y]. = -T(y, x) = \text{a vector field.}$$

Components:

$$\begin{aligned} T(e_\mu, e_\nu) &= T_{\mu\nu}^\alpha e_\alpha \\ &= \nabla_\mu e_\nu - \nabla_\nu e_\mu - [e_\mu, e_\nu] \\ &= (\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha - \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^\alpha - C_{\mu\nu}^\alpha) e_\alpha \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$T_{\mu\nu}^\alpha = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\alpha\beta} - \Gamma_{\nu\mu}^{\alpha\beta} - C_{\mu\nu}^{\alpha\beta}$$

similarly for the curvature tensor,

$$R(x, y) = [\nabla_x, \nabla_y] - \nabla_{[x, y]}$$

~~$R(e_\alpha, e_\beta) e_\nu = R^\mu_{\nu\alpha\beta} e_\mu$~~

4/13/04 (9)

We found previously, (4/8/04, p. 4)

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu\alpha\beta} = \Gamma_{\beta\nu,\alpha}^{\mu} - \Gamma_{\alpha\nu,\beta}^{\mu} + \Gamma_{\beta\nu}^{\sigma} \Gamma_{\alpha\sigma}^{\mu} - \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\sigma} \Gamma_{\beta\sigma}^{\mu} - C_{\alpha\beta}^{\sigma} \Gamma_{\sigma\nu}^{\mu}.$$

Now follow Cartan and make the following definitions:

$$\omega_{\nu}^{\mu} = \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\mu} \theta^{\alpha} \quad (\text{Lie-algebra valued 1-form})$$

$$T^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} T_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} \theta^{\alpha} \wedge \theta^{\beta} \quad (\text{vector-valued 2-form})$$

$$R^{\mu}_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} R^{\mu}_{\nu\alpha\beta} \theta^{\alpha} \wedge \theta^{\beta} \quad (\text{Lie-algebra valued 2-form}).$$

Now take

$$\begin{aligned} d\theta^{\mu} &= -\frac{1}{2} C_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} \theta^{\alpha} \wedge \theta^{\beta} && \text{use components of } T, \text{ elim.} \\ &= +\frac{1}{2} \left(T_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} - \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} + \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^{\mu} \right) \theta^{\alpha} \wedge \theta^{\beta} && C_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} \text{ in favor of } T, \Gamma, \\ &= T^{\mu} - \omega_{\beta}^{\mu} \wedge \theta^{\beta}, && \text{equal} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$d\theta^{\mu} + \omega_{\beta}^{\mu} \wedge \theta^{\beta} = T^{\mu} \quad \text{1st Cartan structure eqn.}$$

LHS is a kind of covariant derivative of a 1-form.

Next, take defn. $\omega_{\nu}^{\mu} = \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\mu} \theta^{\alpha}$, apply d :

$$\begin{aligned} d\omega_{\nu}^{\mu} &= d(\Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\mu} \theta^{\alpha}) = \Gamma_{\alpha\nu,\beta}^{\mu} \theta^{\beta} \wedge \theta^{\alpha} + \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\mu} d\theta^{\alpha} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\Gamma_{\alpha\nu,\beta}^{\mu} - \Gamma_{\beta\nu,\alpha}^{\mu} \right) \theta^{\beta} \wedge \theta^{\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} \Gamma_{\alpha\nu}^{\mu} C_{\alpha\tau}^{\alpha} \theta^{\sigma} \wedge \theta^{\tau} \end{aligned}$$