Differential Geometry

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"hokay" -Sergey Frolov

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1 Definition of a Manifold

1.1 Regions

• A region ("open set") is a set of D points in \mathbb{R}^n such that together with each point p_0 , D also contains all points sufficiently closer to p_0 , i.e.:

$$\forall p_0 = (x_0^1, \dots, x_0^n) \in D \ \exists \ \epsilon > 0,$$

 $st : p = (x^1, \dots, x^n) \in D, \text{ iff } |x^i - x_0^i| < \epsilon.$

• A region with out a boundary is obtained fro ma region D by adjoining all boundary points to D. The boundary of a region is the set of all boundary points.

1.2 Differentiable Manifold

- A differentiable n-dimensional manifold is a set M together with the following structure on it. The set M is the union of a finite or countably infinite collection of subsets U_q with the following properties:
 - Each subset U_q has defined on it co-ords x_q^{α} , $\alpha = 1, \ldots, n$ called local co-ords by virtue of which U_q is identifiable with a region of Euclidean n-space \mathbb{R}^n with Euclidean co-ords x_q^{α} . The U_q with their co-ord systems are called *charts* or *local coordinate neighborhoods*.
 - Each non-empty intersection $U_q \cap U_p$ of a pair of charts thus has defined on it two co-ord systems, the restriction of x_p^{α} and x_q^{α} . It is required that under each of these coordinatizations the intersection $U_q \cap U_p$ is identifiable with a region of \mathbb{R}^n and that each of these co-ordinate systems be expressible in terms of the other in a one to one differentiable manner. Thus, if a the transition functions from x_p^{α} to x_q^{α} and back are given by:

$$x_p^{\alpha} = x_p^{\alpha}(x_q^1, \dots, x_q^n), \quad \alpha = 1, \dots, n$$

$$x_q^{\alpha} = x_q^{\alpha}(x_p^1, \dots, x_p^n), \quad \alpha = 1, \dots, n$$

Then the Jacobian $J_{pq} = det(\partial x_p^{\alpha}/\partial x_q^{\alpha})$ is non-zero on $U_p \cap U_q$.

1.3 Abuse of notation

• Regular partial derivative do not have the same "canceling" that total derivative have (dx*dy/dx = dy) But we can restore this property through Einstein summation convention. That is that:

$$\sum_{\gamma=1}^{n} \frac{\partial x_{p}^{\alpha}}{\partial x_{q}^{\gamma}} \frac{\partial x_{q}^{\gamma}}{\partial x_{q}^{\beta}} = \frac{\partial x_{p}^{\alpha}}{\partial x_{q}^{\gamma}} \frac{\partial x_{q}^{\gamma}}{\partial x_{q}^{\beta}} = \delta_{\beta}^{\alpha}$$

2 Elements of Topology

2.1 Topological space

- A topological space is a set X of points of which certain subsets called *open sets* of the topological space, are distinguished, these open sets have to satisfy:
 - The intersection of any two (and hence of any finite collection) open sets should again be an open set.
 - The union of any collection of open sets must again be open.
 - The empty set and the whole set X must be open.
- The compliment of any open set is called a *closed* set of the topological space.

In Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n the "Euclidean topology" is the usual one where the open sets are the open regions.

2.1.1 Induced topology

• Given any subset $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the *induced topology* on A is that where the open sets are the intersections $A \cap U$, where U ranges over all open sets of \mathbb{R}^n .

2.1.2 Continuity

• A map $f: X \to Y$ of one topological space to another is called *continuous* if the complete inverse image $f^{-1}(U)$ of every open set $U \subset Y$ is open in X.

2.1.3 Homeomorphic

• Two topological space are *topologically equivalent* or *homeomorphic* if there is a one to one and onto map (bijective) between them, such that it and its inverse are continuous.

2.1.4 Topology on a manifold

• The topology on a manifold M is given by the following specifications of the open sets. In every local co-ordinate neighborhood U_q the open regions are to be open in the topology on M; the totality of open sets of M is then obtained by admitting as open, also arbitrary unions countable collections of such regions, i.e. by closing under countable unions.

2.2 Metric space

- A metric space is a set which comes equipped with a "distance function" i.e. a real-valued function $\rho(x,y)$, defined on pairs x,y of its elements and having the following properties:
 - Symmetry: $\rho(x,y) = \rho(y,x)$.
 - Positivity: $\rho(x,x) = 0$, $\rho(x,y) > 0$ if $x \neq y$.
 - The triangle inequality: $\rho(x,y) \le \rho(x,z) + \rho(z,y)$.

2.2.1 Hausdorff

• A topological space is called *Hausdorff* if any two points are contained in disjoint open sets. Any metric space is Hausdorff because the open balls of radius $\rho(x,y)/3$ with centers at c,y do not intersect.

All topological spaces we consider will be Hausdorff.

2.2.2 Compact

• A topological space X is said to be compact if every countable collection of open sets covering X contains a finite sub-collection already covering X.

If X is a metric space the compactness is equivalent to the condition that from every sequence of points of X a convergent sub-sequence can be selected.

2.2.3 Connected

• A topological space is connected if any two points can be joined by a continuous path.

2.3 Orientation

- A manifold M is said to be *orientated* of one can choose its atlas (collection of all the charts) so that for every pair U_p, U_q of intersecting co-ordinate neighborhoods the Jacobian of the transition functions is positive.
- We say that the co-ordinate systems x and y define the same orientation if J > 0 and the opposite orientation if J < 0.

3 Mappings on Manifolds

3.1 Manifold mappings

• A mapping $f: M \to N$ is said to be smooth of smoothness class k if for all p, q for which f determines functions $y_q^b(x_p^1, \ldots, x_p^m) = f(x_p^1, \ldots, x_p^m)_p^b$, these functions are, where defined, smooth of smoothness class k (i.e. all their partial derivatives up to those of k-th order exist and are continuous).

the smoothness class of f cannot exceed the maximum class of the manifolds.

3.2 Equivalent manifolds

• The manifolds M and N are said to be *smoothly equivilent* or diffeomorphic if there is a one to one and onto map f such that both $f: M \to N$ and $f^{-1}: N \to M$ are smooth of some class $k \ge 1$. Since f^{-1} exits then the Jacobian $J_{pq} \ne 0$ wherever it is defined.

3.3 Tangent vector

• A tangent vector to an m-dim manifold M at an arbitrary point x is represented in terms of local co-ords $x_{-}^{\alpha}p$ by an m tuple ξ^{α} of components which are linked to the components in terms of any other system x_q^{β} of local co-ords by:

$$\xi_p^{\alpha} = \left(\frac{\partial x_p^{\alpha}}{\partial x_q^{\beta}}\right)_x \xi_q^{\beta}, \quad \forall \ \alpha \tag{3.1}$$

- The set of all tangent vectors to an m-dim manifold M at a point x forms an m-dm vector space $T_x = T_x M$, the tangent space to M at the point x.
- Thus, the velocity at x of any smooth curve M through x is a tangent vector to M at x.

3.4 Push forward

• A smooth map f from M to N gives rise for each x to a *push forward* or an *induced linear* map to tangent spaces:

$$f_*: T_xM \to T_{f(x)}N$$

defined as sending the velocity at x of any smooth curve $x = x(\tau)$ on M to the velocity vector at f(x) of the curve $f(x(\tau))$ on N. If the map f is given by: $y^b = f^b(x^1, \ldots, x^m)$ for $x \in M$ and $y \in N$, then the push forward map f_* is:

$$\xi^{\alpha} \to \eta^b = \frac{\partial f^b}{\partial x^{\alpha}} \xi^{\alpha}.$$

• For a real valued function $f: M - > \mathbb{R}$, the push-forward map f_* corresponding to each $x \in M$ is a real valued linear function on the tangent space to M at x:

$$\xi^a \to \eta = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\alpha} \xi^\alpha$$

and it is represented by the gradiant of f at x, and is a co-vector or one form. Thus f_* can be identified with the differential df, in particular:

$$dx_p^\alpha:\xi^\alpha\to\eta=\xi_p^\alpha$$

3.5 Directional derivative

• We can associate with each vector $\xi = (\xi^i)$ a linear differential operator as follows: Since the gradient $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}$ of a function f is a co-vector, the quantity:

$$\partial_{\xi} f = \xi^i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i}$$

is a scalar called the directional derivative of f in the direction of ξ .

• Thus an arbitrary vector ξ corresponds to the operator:

$$\partial_{\xi} = \xi^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$$

So we can identify $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \equiv e_i$ as the Canonical basis of the tangent space.

3.6 Riemann metric

• A *Riemann metric* on a manifold M is a point-dependent, positive-definite quadratic form on the tangent vectors at each point, depending smoothly on the local co-ords of the points.

Thus at each point $x = (x_p^1, ..., x_p^m)$ of each chart U_p , the metric is given by a symmetric metric $g_{\alpha\beta}(x_p^1, ..., x_p^m)$, and determines a symmetric scalar product of pairs of tangent vectors at the point x.

$$\left\langle \xi,\eta\right\rangle =g_{\alpha\beta}^{(p)}\xi_{p}^{\alpha}\eta_{p}^{\beta}=\left\langle \eta,\xi\right\rangle ,\quad\left|\xi\right|^{2}=\left\langle \xi,\xi\right\rangle$$

This scalar product is to be co-ordinate independent:

$$g_{\alpha\beta}^{(p)}\xi_p^{\alpha}\eta_p^{\beta} = g_{\alpha\beta}^{(q)}\xi_q^{\alpha}\eta_q^{\beta}$$

And therefor the coefficients $g_{\alpha\beta}^{(p)}$ of the quadratic form transform as:

$$g_{\gamma\delta}^{(q)} = \frac{\partial x_p^{\alpha}}{\partial x_q^{\gamma}} \frac{\partial x_p^{\beta}}{\partial x_{\alpha}^{\delta}} g_{\alpha\beta}^{(p)}$$
(3.2)

For a pseudo-Riemann metric M one just requires the quadratic form to be nondegenerate. Note that 3.2 can be re-written as:

$$ds^{2} = g_{\alpha\beta}^{(p)} dx_{p}^{\alpha} dx_{p}^{\beta} = g_{\alpha\beta}^{(q)} dx_{q}^{\alpha} dx_{q}^{\beta}$$

Where ds is called a line element, and it is chart-independent. ds is used to measure the distance between two infinitesimally close points.

Differential Geometry 4 Tensors

4 Tensors

4.1 Tensor def

• A tensor of type (k, l) and rank k + l on an m-dim manifold M is given each local co-ord system (x_n^i) by a family of functions:

$$^{(p)}T^{i_1,\dots,i_k}_{j_1,\dots,j_l}(x)$$
 of the point x .

In other local co-ord (x_q^i) the components $^{(p)}T_{j_1,\ldots,j_l}^{i_1,\ldots,i_k}(x)$ of the same tensor are:

$${}^{(p)}T^{s_1,\dots,s_k}_{t_1,\dots,t_l}(x) = \frac{\partial x^{s_1}_q}{\partial x^{i_1}_p} \cdots \frac{\partial x^{s_k}_q}{\partial x^{i_k}_p} \frac{\partial x^{j_1}_p}{\partial x^{t_1}_q} \cdots \frac{\partial x^{j_l}_p}{\partial x^{t_l}_q} \cdot {}^{(p)}T^{i_1,\dots,i_k}_{j_1,\dots,j_l}(x)$$

4.2 Operations on Tensors

4.2.1 Permutation of indices

• Let σ be some permutation of $1, 2, \ldots, l$. σ acrs on the ordered tuple (j_1, \ldots, j_l) as $\sigma(j_1, \ldots, j_l) = (j_{\sigma_1}, \ldots, j_{\sigma_l})$. We say that a tensor $\tilde{T}_{j_1, \ldots, j_l}^{i_1, \ldots, i_k}(x)$ =is obtained from a tensor $T_{j_1, \ldots, j_l}^{i_1, \ldots, i_k}(x)$ by means of a permutation σ of the lower indices if at each point of M:

$$\tilde{T}^{i_1,\dots,i_k}_{j_1,\dots,j_l}(x) = T^{i_1,\dots,i_k}_{\sigma(j_1,\dots,j_l)}(x)$$

Permutation of upper indicies is defined similarly.

4.2.2 Contraction of indicies

• By the contraction of a tensor $T_{j_1,\ldots,j_l}^{i_1,\ldots,i_k}(x)$ of type (k,l) with respect to the indcies i_a,j_a we mean the tensor (summation over n):

$$T^{i_1,\dots,i_{k-1}}_{j_1,\dots,j_{l-1}}(x) = T^{i_1,\dots i_{a-1},n,i_{a+1},\dots,i_k}_{j_1,\dots,j_{a-1},n,j_{a+1},\dots,j_l}(x)$$

Of type (k - 1, l - 1)

4.2.3 Product of Tensors

• Given two tensors $T = \left(T_{j_1,\dots,j_l}^{i_1,\dots,i_k}\right)$ of type (k,l) and $P = \left(P_{j_1,\dots,j_q}^{i_1,\dots,i_p}\right)$ of type (p,q), we define their product to be the tensor product $S = T \otimes P$ of type (k+p,l+q) with components:

$$S_{j_1,\dots,j_{l+q}}^{i_1,\dots,i_{k+p}} = T_{j_1,\dots,j_l}^{i_1,\dots,i_k} P_{j_{l+1},\dots,j_q}^{i_{k+1},\dots,i_p}$$

This multiplication is *not commutative* but it is associative.

• The result of applying the above three operations to tensors are again tensors.

Differential Geometry 4 Tensors

4.3 Co-Vectors

• Recall that the differential of a function f of x^1, \ldots, x^n corresponding to the increments dx^i in the x^i is:

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^i} dx^i$$

Since dx^i is a vector df has the same value in any co-ord system. In general, given any co-vector (T_i) , the differential form $T_i dx^i$ is invariant under change of chart. We can thus identify $dx^i \equiv e^i$ as the canonical basis of co-vectors or cotangent space.

4.4 Skew-Symmetric Tensor

• A skew-symmetric tensor of type (0,k) is a tensor T_{i_1,\ldots,i_k} satisfying:

$$T_{\sigma(i_1,\ldots,i_k)} = \mathfrak{s}(\sigma)T_{i_1,\ldots,i_k}$$

where for all permutations $\mathfrak{s}(\sigma)$ is the sign function. i.e. $\mathfrak{s}(\sigma) = +1(-1)$ for even(odd) permutation. If two indices of T_{i_1,\ldots,i_k} are the same then the corresponding component of T_{i_1,\ldots,i_k} is 0. This means if k > n the tensor is automatically 0.

• The standard basis at a given point is:

$$dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k}, \quad i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_k$$

Where:

$$dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k} = \sum_{\sigma \in S_k} \mathfrak{s}(\sigma) e^{i\sigma_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes e^{i\sigma_k}$$

Here S_k is the symmetric group. i.e. the group of all permutations of k elements.

• The differential form of the skew-symmetric tensor (T_{i_1,\dots,i_k}) is:

$$T_{i_1,\dots,i_k}e^{i_1}\otimes\dots\otimes e^{i_k} = \sum_{i_1< i_2<\dots< i_k} T_{i_1,\dots,i_k} dx^{i_1}\wedge\dots\wedge dx^{i_k}$$
$$= \frac{1}{k!} T_{i_1,\dots,i_k} dx^{i_1}\wedge\dots\wedge dx^{i_k}$$

Where the last step can be made as both $dx^{i_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge dx^{i_k}$ and T_{i_1,\dots,i_k} are anti-symmetric.

4.5 Volume element

• A metric g_{ij} on a manifold is a tensor of type (0,2) and on an oriented manifold of dim(M) = n such a metric gives rise to a *volume element*:

$$T_{i_1,\dots,i_n} = \sqrt{|g|}\epsilon i_1,\dots,i_n, \quad g = \det(g_{ij})$$

It is convenient to write the volume element in the notation of differential forms:

$$\Omega = \sqrt{|g|} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

If g_{ij} is Riemann then the volume V of M is:

$$V = \int_{M} \Omega = \int_{M} \sqrt{|g|} dx^{1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{n}$$

4.6 Generalized push forward

• We can generalize the push froward map we had on vectors earlier to the space of tensors (k,0):

$$f_*: \xi^{i_1,\dots,i_k} \to \eta^{a_1,\dots,a_k} = \frac{\partial f^{a_1}}{\partial x^{i_1}} \cdots \frac{\partial f^{a_k}}{\partial x^{i_k}} \xi^{i_1,\dots,i_k}$$

4.7 Pull back

• Let $T_x^{(0,k)}M$ denote the space of tensors of type (0,k) at $x \in M$. Let f be a smooth map from M to N. It gives rise to a map:

$$f^*: T_{f(x)}^{(0,k)}N \to T_x^{(0,k)}M$$

which in terms of $x^i \in U \subset M$, and $y^a \in V \subset N$ is written as:

$$f^*: \eta_{a_1,\dots,a_k} \to \xi_{i_1,\dots,i_k} = \frac{\partial f^{a_1}}{\partial x^{i_1}} \cdots \frac{\partial f^{a_k}}{\partial x^{i_k}} \eta_{a_1,\dots,a_k}$$

The map f^* is called the *pullback*.

• We can then note the following relationship between pullbacks and push forwards. Let us denote the action of a vector on another vector as follows:

$$\zeta(\theta) \equiv \zeta_{i_1,\dots,i_k} \theta^{i_1,\dots,i_k}$$

Then we can write that:

$$(f^*\eta)(\xi) = \frac{\partial f^{a_1}}{\partial x^{i_1}} \cdots \frac{\partial f^{a_k}}{\partial x^{i_k}} \eta_{a_1,\dots,a_k} \xi^{i_1,\dots,i_k} = \eta(f_*\xi)$$

5 Manifolds and surfaces

5.1 Immersion

• A manifold M of dim m is said to be immersed in a manifold N of dim $n \ge m$ if \exists a smooth map $f: M \to N$ such that the push forward map f_* is at each point a one to one map of the tangent space.

The map f is called the *immersion* of M to N.

Since f_* is at each a point one to one map of the tangent space, in terms of local co-ords the Jacobian matrix of f at each point has rank equal to $m = \dim M$.

5.1.1 Embedding

- An immersion of M to N is called an *embedding* if it one to one. Then M is called a *sub-manifold* of N.
- To see the difference between these two definitions note that a Klein bottle is immersed in \mathbb{R}^3 but not embedded as its tangent spaces are distinct (intersecting points can have different tangent spaces) but the map of points is not one- to one as there are cross overs.

5.2 Manifold with boundary

• A closed region A of a manifold M defined by an inequality:

$$f(x) \le 0$$
, $(\operatorname{or} f(x) \ge 0)$

where f is a real-valued function on M. This region is a Manifold with boundary. It is assumed that the boundary ∂A given by f(x) = 0 is a non-singular sub-manifold of M i.e. $\nabla f \neq 0$ on ∂A .

5.2.1 Closed manifold

• A compact manifold without a boundary is called *closed*.

5.3 Surfaces as Manifolds

• A Non-singular surface M of dimension k in n-dim Euclidean space is given by a set of n - k equations:

$$f_i(x^1, ..., x^n) = 0, \quad i = 1, ..., n - k$$

where $\forall x$ the matrix $\left(\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x^{\alpha}}\right)$ has rank n-k.

5.4 Orientation of surfaces

5.4.1 Orientation class

• Consider a frame $\tau_1 = (e_1^{(1)}, \dots, e_n^{(1)})$ called an ordered basis and another frame $\tau_1 = (e_1^{(2)}, \dots, e_n^{(2)})$ then we say that they lie in the *same orientation class* if det A > 0 and the *opposite orientation*

class if det A < 0. Where A is defined as:

$$A: e_k^{(1)}: \to e_k^{(2)}$$

5.4.2 Orientability

• A manifold is said to be *orientable* if it is possible to choose at every point of it a single orientation class depending continuously on the points.

A particular choice of such an orientation class for each point is called an orientation of the manifold, and a manifold equipped with a particular orientation is said to be *oriented*.

If no orientation exists the manifold is said to be non-orientable

5.5 Two-sided hyper-surface

• A connected (n-1)-dim sub-manifold of \mathbb{R}^n is called two sided if a single valued continuous field of unit normals can be defined on it.

such a sub-manifold is called a two-sided hyper-surface.

6 Lie Groups

6.1 Group

- A group is a non-empty set G on which there is defined a binary operation $(a,b) \to ab$ satisfying the following properties:
 - Closure: If a and b belong to G, then $ab \in G$.
 - Associativity: $\forall a, b, c \in G$, a(bc) = (ab)c.
 - Identity: \exists an element $1 \in G$ st: a1 = 1a = a, $\forall a \in G$
 - Inverse: If $a \in G$ then $\exists a^{-1} \in G$ st: $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$.

6.2 Lie Group

• A manifold G is called a *Lie Group* if it has given on it a group operation with the properties that the maps $\varphi: G \to G$, defined by $\varphi(g) = g^{-1}$ and $\psi: G \times G \to G$ defined by $\psi(g,h) = gh$, are smooth maps.

6.3 Example of Lie groups

6.3.1 General Linear group

• This is $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ consisting of all $n \times n$ real matrices with non zero determinant in a region \mathbb{R}^{n^2} . dim $GL(n,\mathbb{R}) = n^2$.

6.3.2 Special Linear group

• This is $SL(n,\mathbb{R})$ consisting of all $n \times n$ real matrices with determinant equal to 1. It is a hyper-surface in \mathbb{R}^{n^2} .

$$det A = 1, \quad A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$$

$$\dim SL(n,\mathbb{R}) = n^2 - 1.$$

6.3.3 Orthogonal group

• This is $O(n,\mathbb{R})$ consisting of all $n \times n$ real matrices Satisfying:

$$A^T \cdot A = \mathbb{I}, \quad A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$$

$$\dim O(n,\mathbb{R}) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1).$$

6.3.4 Special Orthogonal group

• This is $SO(n,\mathbb{R})$ consisting of all $n \times n$ real matrices Satisfying:

$$A^T \cdot A = \mathbb{I}, \quad det(A) = 1, \quad A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{R})$$

dim
$$SO(n, \mathbb{R}) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$$
.

6.3.5 Pseudo Orthogonal group

• This is O(p,q,n) consisting of all $n \times n$ real matrices Satisfying:

$$A^T \cdot \eta \cdot A = \eta, \quad \det(A) = 1, \quad \eta = \operatorname{diag}\{\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_{p}, \underbrace{-1, \dots, -1}_{q}\}$$

dim
$$O(p, q, n) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$$
.

6.3.6 Unitary group

• This is U(n) consisting of all $n \times n$ complex matrices Satisfying:

$$A^{\dagger} \cdot A = \mathbb{I}, \quad A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$$

$$\dim U(n) = n^2.$$

6.3.7 Special Unitary group

• This is SU(n) consisting of all $n \times n$ complex matrices Satisfying:

$$A^{\dagger} \cdot A = \mathbb{I}, \quad \det(A) = 1, \quad A \in Mat(n, \mathbb{C})$$

$$\dim U(n) = n^2 - 1.$$

7 Projective spaces

7.1 Real protective space

- The real Projective space $\mathbb{R}P^n$ is the set if all straight lines in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} passing through the origin. Equivalently it is the set of equivalence classes of non-zero vectors in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} where two non-zero vectors are equivalent if they are scalar multiples of one another.
- We may think of $\mathbb{R}P^n$ as obtained from S^n by gluing, that is identifying diametrically opposite points. This means we have the isomorphism $\mathbb{R}P^n \simeq S^n/Z_2$.

7.2 Quaternions

• The set $\mathbb H$ of Quaternions consists of all linear combinations:

$$q \in \mathbb{H}, \quad q = a\mathbf{1} + b\mathbf{i} + c\mathbf{j} + d\mathbf{k}, \quad a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}$$

Where 1, i, j, k are linearly independent. Where these bases satisfy the following multiplications:

$$egin{aligned} m{i} \cdot m{j} &= m{k} = -m{j} \cdot m{i}, & m{j} \cdot m{k} &= m{i} = -m{k} \cdot m{j}, & m{k} \cdot m{i} &= m{j} = -m{i} \cdot m{k}, \\ m{i} \cdot m{i} &\equiv m{i}^2 = -1, & m{k} \cdot m{k} &\equiv m{k}^2 = -1, \\ m{i} \cdot m{1} &= m{i} = m{1} \cdot m{i}, & m{j} \cdot m{1} &= m{j} = m{1} \cdot m{j}, & m{k} \cdot m{1} &= m{k} = m{1} \cdot m{k}, & m{1} \cdot m{1} &= m{1}. \end{aligned}$$

This makes $\mathbb H$ an associative algebra over the field of real numbers.

7.3 Complex Projective spaces

- The complex projective space \mathbb{CP}^{\ltimes} is the set of equivalence classes of non-zero vectors in $\mathbb{C}^{\ltimes+\mathbb{H}}$ where two nonzero vectors are equivalent if they are scalar multiples of one another.
- In a similar manner to the real projective space we can identify the isomorphism: $\mathbb{C} \simeq S^{2n+1}/U(1)$.

Differential Geometry 8 Lie Algebras

8 Lie Algebras

8.1 Neighborhood of identity element

• Let G be a Lie group. let the point $g_0 \equiv 1 \in G$ be the identity element of G, and let $T = T_{(1)}$ be the tangent space at the identity element. We can now express the group operations on G in a chart U_0 containing g_0 in terms of local co-ords. We choose co-ords in U_0 so that the identity element is the origin. $g_0 \equiv 1 = (0, ..., 0)$. then if we let:

$$g_1 = (x^1, \dots, x^n), \quad g_2 = (y^1, \dots, y^n), \quad g_3 = (z^1, \dots, z^n)$$

Which allows us to define the product of two elements:

$$g_1g_2 = (\psi^1(x, y), \dots, \psi^n(x, y)) = (\psi^i(x, y)) \in U_0$$

An inverse as:

$$g_1^{-1} = (\varphi^1(x), ..., \varphi^n(x)) = (\varphi^i(x)) \in U_0$$

These functions $\varphi(x), \psi(x)$ satisfy:

$$\psi^{i}(x,0) = \psi^{i}(0,x) = x^{i}$$

$$\psi^{i}(x,\varphi(x))$$

$$\psi^{i}(x,\psi(y,z)) = \psi^{i}(\psi(x,y),z)$$

8.1.1 Taylor expansion

• Let $\psi^i(x,y)$ be sufficiently smooth and for $x,y,z \sim \epsilon$:

$$\psi^{i}(x,y) = x^{i} + y^{i} + b^{i}_{jk}x^{j}y^{k} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{3})$$
$$b^{i}_{jk} = \frac{\partial^{2}\psi^{i}}{\partial x^{j}\partial y^{k}} \bigg|_{x=y=0}$$

8.2 Commutator

• Let $\xi, \eta \in T$, and their components in terms of x^i are ξ^i and η^i . Then we can define the *commutator* $[\xi, \eta] \in T$ is defined by:

$$[\xi,\eta]^i = c^i_{jk}\xi^j\eta^k, \quad c^i_{jk} \equiv b^i_{jk} - b^i_{kj}$$

• It has three basic quantities:

- It is bi-linear operation on the n-dim vector space T.

- Skew-symmetry: $[\xi, \eta] = -[\eta, \xi]$.

- Jacoby identity: $[[\xi, \eta], \zeta] + [[\zeta, \xi], \eta] + [[\eta, \zeta], \xi]$

Differential Geometry 8 Lie Algebras

8.3 Lie Algebra

• A Lie algebra is a vector space \mathcal{G} over a field F with a bi-linear operation $[\cdot, \cdot]: \mathcal{G} \times \mathcal{G} \to \mathcal{G}$ which is called a commutator or a lie bracket, such that the three axioms above are satisfied.

- This means we can identify the tangent space of a Lie Group at the identity is with respect to the commutator operation of a Lie algebra called the *Lie algebra of the Lie group G*.
- If we choose $\xi = e_j, \eta = e_k$, then combined with the fact that $(e_m) = \delta_m^n$, then we have:

$$[e_j, e_k]^i = c^i_{jk} e_i$$

8.3.1 Structure Constants

• The constants c_{jk}^i which determine the commutation operation on a Lie algebra, and which are skew-symmetric in j, k are called the *structure constants* of the Lie algebra.

9 One parameter subgroups

• A One parameter subgroup of a lie group G is defined to be a parametric curve F(t) on the manifold G such that:

$$F(0) = 1$$
, $F(t_1 + t_2) = F(t_1)F(t_2)$, $F(-t) = F^{-1}(t)$

The velocity vector at F(t) is:

$$\left. \frac{dF}{dt} = \frac{dF(t+\epsilon)}{dt} \right|_{\epsilon=0} = \left. \frac{d}{d\epsilon} (F(t)F(\epsilon)) \right|_{\epsilon=0} = F(t) \frac{dF(\epsilon)}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=0}$$

Hence:

$$\dot{F}(t) = F(t)\dot{F}(0)$$
 or $F^{-1}(t)\dot{F}(t) = \dot{F}(0)$

i.e. the induced action of left multiplication by $F^{-1}(t)$ sends $\dot{F}(t)$ to $\dot{F}(0) = const \in T$.

• conversely, $\forall A \in T$ the equation $F^{-1}(t)\dot{F}(t) = A$ is satisfied by a unique one-parameter subgroup F(t) of G. If G is a matrix group then F(t) - exp(At).

9.1 Co-ords of the first kind

- One parameter subgroups can be used to define so called *canonical* in a neighborhood of the identity of a Lie group G.
- Let A_1, \ldots, A_n form a basis for the Lie algebra T. Then $\forall A = \sum_i A_i x^i \in T \exists$ a one parameter group F(t) = exp(At). To the point F(1) = exp(A) we assign as co-ords co-officiants x^1, \ldots, x^n , which gives us a system of co-ords in a sufficiently small neighborhood of $g_0 = 1 \in G$. These are called the *canonical co-ords of the first kind*.

9.2 Co-ords of the second kind

• Another system of co-ords is obtained by introducing $F_i(t) = exp(At)$ and representing a point g sufficiently close to g_0 as:

$$g = F_1(t_1)F_2(t_2)\cdots F_n(t_n)$$

for small $t_1, ..., t_n$. Assigning co-ords $x^1 = t_1, ..., x^n = t_n$ to the point g, we get the canonical co-ords of the second kind.

10 Linear Representations

10.1 Representations

• A Linear representation of a group G of dimG = n is a homomorphism:

$$\rho: G \to GL(r, \mathbb{R}), \quad \text{or} \quad \rho: G \to GL(r, \mathbb{C})$$

• Given a representation ρ of G the map:

$$\chi_{\varrho}: G \to \mathbb{R}, \quad \text{or} \quad G \to \mathbb{C}$$

defined by:

$$\chi_{\rho}(g) = \operatorname{tr}(\rho(g))$$

is called the *character* of the representation ρ .

• A representation ρ of G is said to be *irreducible* if the vector space \mathbb{R}^r contains no proper subspace invariant under the matrix group $\rho(G)$.

10.1.1 Matrix Invariance

• A subspace W of the representation space \mathbb{R}^r is called *invariant under the matrix group* $\rho(G)$ (or simply G invariant) if:

$$\rho(G)W \subset W, \quad \forall \ g \in G$$

Then we can restrict ρ to W and get a subrepresentation.

10.2 Schur's Lemma

• Let $\rho_i: G \to GL(r_i, \mathbb{R}), \quad i = 1, 2$ be two irreducible representations (irreps) of a group G. If $A: \mathbb{R}^{r_1} \to \mathbb{R}^{r_2}$ is a linear transformation changing ρ_1 to ρ_2 , i.e. stratifying:

$$A\rho_1(g) = \rho_2 A, \quad \forall \ g \in G$$

Then either A is the zero transformation or else a bijection, in which case $r_1 = r - 2$.

10.3 Push Forward Representation

• If G is a Lie group and a representation $\rho: G \to GL(r, \mathbb{R})$ is a smooth map, then the push-froward map ρ_* is a linear map from the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} = T_{(1)}$ to the space of all $r \times r$ matrices:

$$\rho_*:\mathfrak{q}\to Mat(r,\mathbb{R})$$

It can then be shown that this means ρ_* is a representation of the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} , i.e. that it is a Lie algebra homomorphism. Meaning it is linear and preserves the commutators $\rho_*[\xi,\eta] = [\rho_*\xi,\rho_*\eta]$.

10.4 Faithful

- A representation $\rho: G \to GL(r, \mathbb{R})$ is called *faithful* if it is one to one i.e. if its Kernel is trivial. So $\rho(g) \neq \mathbb{I}$ unless $g = g_0$.
- If a Lie group has a faithful representation then it can be realized as a matrix Lie group.

10.5 Inner automorphism

- For each $h \in G$ the transformation $G \to G$ defined by $g \to hgh^{-1}$ is called the *inner anthropomorphism*. of G determined by h.
- Any inner anthropomorphism does not move the identity element. i.e. $g_0 = hg_0h^{-1}$ and therefor the push forward (induced linear) map of the tangent space T to G at g_0 is a linear transformation of T denoted by:

$$Ad_h: T \to T$$

it satisfies the following:

- $-Ad_{q_0}=id$, where id is the identity transformation of T.
- $-Ad_{h_1}Ad_{h_2}=Ad_{h_1h_2}$ for all $h_1,h_2\in G$. because $h_1h_2gh_2^{-1}h_1^{-1}=(h_1h_2)g(h_1h_2)^{-1}$.
- Choosing $h_1 = h, h_2 = h^{-1}$, we get that $Ad_{h^{-1}} = Ad_h^{-1}$
- This means that the map $h \to Ad_h$ is a linear representation of the group G. i.e. a homomorphism to a group of linear transformations, $Ad: G \to GL(n, \mathbb{R}), h \to Ad_h = Ad(h)$. This representation of G is called Adjoint.

10.6 One Parameter Adjoint

• Let $F(t) = e^{At}$ be a one parameter subgroup of a Lie group G. Then $Ad_{F(t)}$ is a one parameter subgroup of $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$.

The vector $\frac{d}{dt}Ad_{F(t)}\Big|_{t=0}$ lies in the Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} \sim Mat(n,\mathbb{R})$ of the Group $GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ and can be regarded as a linear operator.

• This operator is denoted ad_A and is given by:

$$ad_A: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}, \quad B \to [A, B], \quad B \in T \simeq \mathbb{R}^n$$

11 Simple Lie Algebras and Forms

11.1 Simple & Semi-Simple

- A Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g} = \{\mathbb{R}^n, c^i_{jk}\}$ is said to be *simple* if it is *non-commutative* and has *no proper ideals*, i.e. subspaces $\mathcal{I} \neq \mathfrak{g}, 0$ for which $[\mathcal{I}, \mathfrak{g}] \subset \mathcal{I}$.
- It is instead called *semi-simple* if we can write $\mathfrak{g} = \mathcal{I}_1 \otimes \mathcal{I}_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{I}_k$ Where the \mathcal{I}_j are ideals which are simple as Lie algebras. These ideals are pairwise commuting $[\mathcal{I}_i, \mathcal{I}_j] = 0, i \neq j$.

A Lie group is defined to be simple or semi-simple according to its Lie algebra.

• A theorem that can be proven is that if the Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} of a Lie group G is simple, then the linear representation $Ad: G \to GL(n,\mathbb{R})$ is *irreducible*, i.e. \mathfrak{g} has no proper invariant subspaces under the group of inner automorphisms Ad_G .

11.2 Killing Form

• The Killing form on an arbitrary Lie algebra \mathfrak{g} is defined (up to a sign) by:

$$\langle A, B \rangle = -\operatorname{tr}(ad_A ad_B)$$

- If the Killing form of a Lie algebra is positive definite then the Lie algebra is semi-simple.
- We also have that a Lie algebra is semi-simple if and only if its Killing form is non-degenerate.

Differential Geometry 12 Group Actions

12 Group Actions

12.1 Left and Right actions

- We say that a Lie group G is represented as a group of transformations of a manifold M, or has a left action on M if:
 - There is associated with each of its elements g a diffeomorphism from M to itself. $x \mapsto \mathcal{T}_q(x), \quad x \in M$. Such that $\mathcal{T}_q\mathcal{T}_h = \mathcal{T}_{qh}, \ \forall \ g,h \in G$.
 - $-\mathcal{T}_g(x)$ depends smoothly on the arguments g, x i.e. the map $(g, x) \mapsto \mathcal{T}_g(x)$ is a smooth map from $G \times M \to M$.
- The Lie group is said to have Right action on M if the above definition is valid with $\mathcal{T}_g \mathcal{T}_h = \mathcal{T}_{hg}$.

12.2 Transitivity

• The action of a group G on M is said to be transitive if for every two points $x, y \in M$ there exists an element of G such that $\mathcal{T}_g(x) = y$.

To show that an action of a group on a manifold is transitive it is sufficient to choose any point of M as a reference point x_0 , and to prove that for any point $y \in M$ there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $y = \mathcal{T}_g(x_0)$.

12.2.1 Homogeneity

- A manifold on which a Lie group acts transitively is called a homogeneous space of the Lie group.
- In particular, G is a homogeneous space for itself, e.g. as $h \to \mathcal{T}_g(h) = gh$, $h \in G$. G is called the principle homogeneous space.

12.2.2 Isotropy group

• Let x be any point of a homogeneous space M of a Lie group G. The isotropy group (or stationary group) H_x of the point x is the stabilizer of x under the action of G:

$$H_r = \{h | \mathcal{T}_h(x) = x\}$$

- All isotropy groups H_x of points x of a homogeneous space are isomorphic.
- There is a one to one correspondence between the points of a homogeneous space M of a group G, and the left cosets gH of H in G, where H is the isotropy group and G acts on the left. Thus we can write $M \simeq G/H$, i.e. M is a diffeomorphic to the quotient space G/H.

12.3 Examples of Homogeneous spaces

12.3.1 Stiefel manifolds

- For each n, k the Stiefel manifold $V_{n,k}$ has as its points all orthonormal k-frames $x = (e_1, \ldots, e_k)$ of k vectors e_a in \mathbb{R}^n .
- The dimension of $V_{n,k}$ is $nk \frac{1}{2}k(k+1)$ and $V_{n,k} \simeq O(n)/O(n-k) \simeq SO(n)/SO(n-k)$.

Differential Geometry 12 Group Actions

12.3.2 Real Grassmanian manifolds

- The points of $G_{n,k}$ are the k dimensional planes passing through the origin of \mathbb{R}^n .
- It can be shown that $G_{n,k} \simeq O(n)/(O(k) \times O(n-k)) \simeq G_{n,n-k}$. The dimension of $G_{n,k}$ is (n-k)k

Differential Geometry 13 Vector Bundles

13 Vector Bundles

13.1 Tangent Bundle

- The tangent bundle T(M) of an n dimensional manifold M is a 2n dimensional manifold defined as follows:
 - The points of T(M) are the pairs $(x,\xi), x \in M, \xi \in T_xM$.
 - Given a chart U_q of M with the local co-ords (x_q^i) , the corresponding chart U_q^T of T(M) is the set of all pairs (x, ξ) where:

$$x = (x_1^1, \dots, x_q^n) \in U_q, \quad \xi \in \xi_q^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_q^i} \in T_x M$$

with local co-ords $(y_q^1,\ldots,y_q^{2n})=(x_q^1,\ldots,x_q^n,\xi_q^1,\ldots,\xi_q^n)=(x_q^i,\xi_q^i).$

• This tangent bundle is a smooth oriented manifold.

13.1.1 Cotangent Bundle

- The cotangent bundle $T^*(M)$ of an n dimensional manifold M is a 2n dim manifold defined as follows:
 - The points $T^*(M)$ are the pairs (x,p)