## 1. Diffeomorphisms

We start by asking how the components of a vector field transform under the arbitrary reparameterizations  $x^{\mu} = f^{\mu}(\tilde{x})$  for a differentiable set of functions  $\{f^{\mu}\}$ . We are given that the coordinate basis vectors follow  $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}_{\alpha}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}} \mathbf{e}_{\mu}(x)$ .

Starting from the definition of a vector field  $\mathbf{v} = v^{\alpha} \mathbf{e}_{\alpha}$ , we see that since the abstract vector field is ignorant of the particular coordinatization used on the manifold:

$$\mathbf{v} = \tilde{\mathbf{v}} = \tilde{v}^{\alpha}(\tilde{x})\tilde{\mathbf{e}}_{\alpha}(\tilde{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}\right)\tilde{v}^{\alpha}\mathbf{e}_{\mu}(x) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{v}^{\alpha}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}{\partial x^{\mu}}v^{\mu}(x).$$

From this point we can easily ascertain the transformation law for a 1-form,  $\omega \in T^1(\mathcal{M})$ . We start with the fact that the dual basis  $d\tilde{x}^{\alpha} = \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}{\partial r^{\mu}} dx^{\mu}$ . The components thus transform as

$$\omega = \tilde{\omega} = \tilde{\omega}_{\alpha}(\tilde{x})d\tilde{x}^{\alpha} = \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}{\partial x^{\mu}}\right)\tilde{\omega}_{\alpha}(\tilde{x})dx^{\mu} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{\omega}_{\alpha}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}\omega_{\mu}(x)$$

Moving one step up the tensorial ladder, we can ask how the components of the metric,  $g_{\alpha\beta}$ , transform. Let us take a lesson from above and write metric  $\mathbf{g} = g_{\alpha\beta} dx^{\alpha} \otimes dx^{\beta}$ . Then from the rules governing the transformation of the dual basis:

$$\mathbf{g} = \tilde{\mathbf{g}} = \tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta} \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}}{\partial x^{\mu}} \right) \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{x}^{\beta}}{\partial x^{\nu}} \right) dx^{\mu} \otimes dx^{\nu} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\beta}} g_{\mu\nu}$$

What is key here is that the arbitrary relabeling of points on  $\mathcal{M}$  does not change **g**. What does this mean for the change of the determinant of the metric  $g = \det ||g_{\mu\nu}||$ ? We know that the det  $AB = \det A \det B$ , and so, we can see that

$$\tilde{g} = \det \left| \left| \tilde{g}_{\alpha\beta} \right| \right| = \det \left| \left| \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial x^{\nu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\beta}} g_{\mu\nu} \right| \right| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{g} = J^2 g$$

where the transformation in the last step was written as a product of Jacobians given by

$$J = \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial \tilde{x}^{\alpha}} \right) \right|$$

Lastly, we want to know why the spacetime volume element on  $\mathcal{M}$  is  $\sqrt{|g|}$ . First, we note that what we desire is that the volume of  $\mathcal{M}$  is invariant under reparameterizations

$$\tilde{V}_{\mathcal{M}} = V_{\mathcal{M}} = \int_{\mathcal{M}} d^d x \cdot (?)$$

What should fill in for '?' is something built out of the metric, since we need a notion of the 'size' of regions of  $\mathcal{M}$ , and can compensate for how the dual basis transforms. We know from basic multivariate calculus that

$$d^d x = J d^d \tilde{x}$$

for J given above. Now given the transformation rules above, we see that what should fill in for the volume element must have a transformation like  $J^{-1}$  to keep  $V_{\mathcal{M}}$  invariant under diffeomorphisms. The previous calculation shows that

$$\sqrt{|g|} = \sqrt{|J^{-2}\tilde{g}|} = J^{-1}\sqrt{|\tilde{g}|},$$

which is precisely what we want. Thus, demanding that the volume element be built out of the metric and that the total volume is diffeomorphism invariant leads to  $\sqrt{|g|}$  being the unique candidate for the volume element. Simply demanding the transformation of  $J^{-1}$  is not sufficient as any the square root of the determinant of any (0, 2)-tensor transforms this way.

This above discussion can be rephrased in the language of differential forms. The components of a k-form are totally anti-symmetric covariant tensors of rank k. On a *d*-dimensional manifold  $\mathcal{M}$ , differentiable functions f are 0-forms and d-forms, or top forms, are all proportional to the Levi-Civita tensor

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{d!} \epsilon_{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_d} dx^{\alpha_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\alpha_d}$$

and

$$\epsilon_{\alpha_1\dots\alpha_d} = \sqrt{|g|} [\alpha_1\dots\alpha_d].$$

The beauty of the language of forms is that k-forms can be viewed as integrands of kdimensional integrals. Thus,  $\epsilon$  is the volume form, and integrating a scalar function (0-form), f, over the manifold is the same as integrating against  $\epsilon$ 

$$\int_{\mathcal{M}} d^d x \sqrt{|g|} f = \int_{\mathcal{M}} f \epsilon$$

Put in other language seen with differential forms, the volume form is given in terms of the Hodge- $\star$  operation, which maps *p*-forms to (d - p)-forms on a *d*-dimensional manifold, by

$$\star 1 = \frac{\sqrt{|g|}}{d!} [\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_d] dx^{\alpha_1} \wedge \dots \wedge dx^{\alpha_d}$$

## 2. Derivatives and Such

a.  $\partial_{\alpha} \log g$ :

For calculations involving variations of the metric determinant, it is convenient to use the identity det  $A = \exp(\operatorname{Tr} \log A)$ . As such, it becomes clear that

$$\partial_a(\log \det A) = \partial_a \operatorname{Tr} \log A = \operatorname{Tr} A^{-1} \partial_a A,$$

and so affecting the trace, we see

$$\partial_{\alpha}(\log g) = g^{\beta\delta}g_{\beta\delta,\alpha}.$$

b.  $\Gamma^{\alpha}_{\ \alpha\beta} = \partial_{\beta} \log \sqrt{|g|}$ :

In a coordinate basis, lets recall the definition of the Christoffel symbols

$$\Gamma^{\alpha}_{\ \beta\delta} = \frac{g^{\alpha\gamma}}{2} \big( g_{\beta\gamma,\delta} + g_{\delta\gamma,\beta} - g_{\beta\delta,\gamma} \big),$$

and trace over the first two indices

$$\Gamma^{\alpha}_{\ \alpha\beta} = \frac{g^{\alpha\gamma}}{2} \big( g_{\gamma\alpha,\beta} + g_{\beta\gamma,\alpha} - g_{\gamma\beta,\alpha} \big) = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\gamma} g_{\alpha\gamma,\beta}.$$

The last equality used the symmetry of the metric to cancel the last two terms. From part [a.],

$$\partial_{\beta} \log \sqrt{|g|} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha \gamma} g_{\alpha \gamma, \beta}.$$

c.  $\nabla_{\alpha} A^{\alpha}$ :

Starting with the definition of the covariant derivative of a vector

$$\nabla_{\beta}A^{\alpha} = \partial_{\beta}A^{\alpha} + \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\ \beta}\gamma A^{\gamma}.$$

Affecting the trace, over  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ 

$$\nabla_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} = \partial_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} + \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\ \alpha\gamma}A^{\gamma},$$

and using the result in part [b.]

$$\nabla_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} = \partial_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} + \partial_{\gamma}(\log\sqrt{g})A^{\gamma} = \partial_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}}A^{\alpha}\partial_{\alpha}\sqrt{g},$$

which can be rearranged to give

$$\nabla_{\alpha}A^{\alpha} = |g|^{-\frac{1}{2}}(\sqrt{g}A^{\alpha})_{,\alpha}.$$

d.  $\Box \phi$ :

First, we rewrite  $\Box \equiv \nabla_{\alpha} \nabla^{\alpha}$ , and use the results from part [c.]

$$\nabla_{\alpha} \left( \nabla^{\alpha} \phi \right) = g^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sqrt{g} \nabla^{\alpha} \phi \right)_{,\alpha} = g^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sqrt{g} g^{\alpha\beta} \partial_{\beta} \phi \right)_{,\alpha}$$

where in the last equality we used metric compatibility of the Christoffel connection  $\nabla_a g_{bc} = 0$  and that  $\nabla_a f = \partial_a f$  for any  $f \in \Omega^0(\mathcal{M})$ .

## 3. Fun with $S^d$

To begin, we want to understand the particular coordinatization, i.e. the round metric, of the unit d-dimensional sphere,  $S^d$ , such that the angles  $\{\alpha_i\}$  cover the sphere with

$$ds^{2} = d\alpha_{1}^{2} + \sin^{2} \alpha_{1} d\alpha_{2}^{2} + \ldots + \prod_{i=1}^{d-1} \sin^{2} \alpha_{i} d\alpha_{d}^{2}.$$
 (1)

That is we want to study the embedding  $S^d \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ . Let us define coordinates on  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ ,  $\{x_0, \ldots, x_d\}$  with the flat Euclidean metric

$$ds_{\mathbb{R}}^2 = \delta_{ab} dx^a dx^b.$$

We want to find the unit  $S^d$  embedded in this space, which can be found by defining the co-dimension 1 hypersurface in  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  such that each point on the surface is unit distance away from the origin  $\{0, \ldots, 0\}$ . This is found by the restriction

$$x_0^2 + x_1^2 + \ldots + x_d^2 = 1.$$

Any coordinatization of a unit  $S^d \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  must satisfy this relation. We can use a generalization of the familiar parameterization of the  $S^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ :

$$x_0 = \cos \alpha_1, \quad x_1 = \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2, \quad \dots, \quad x_{d-1} = \prod_{i=1}^{d-1} \sin \alpha_i \cos \alpha_d, \quad x_d = \prod_{i=1}^d \sin \alpha_i.$$

If we compute the line element on this surface, pullback the standard Euclidean metric on  $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$  to get the desired form as in eq. (1). To illustrate this, lets use a low dimensional example,  $S^2 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ , and compute the line element. Note that, with the above coordinates on the d=2 hypersurface

$$dx_0^2 = \sin^2 \alpha_1 d\alpha_1^2$$
  

$$dx_1^2 = \cos^2 \alpha_1 \cos^2 \alpha_2 d\alpha_1^2 + \sin^2 \alpha_1 \sin^2 \alpha_2 d\alpha_2^2 - 2\cos \alpha_1 \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2 \sin \alpha_2 d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2$$
  

$$dx_2^2 = \cos^2 \alpha_1 \sin^2 \alpha_2 d\alpha_1^2 + \sin^2 \alpha_1 \cos^2 \alpha_2 d\alpha_2^2 + 2\cos \alpha_1 \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2 \sin \alpha_2 d\alpha_1 d\alpha_2.$$

Plugging this into  $\delta_{ab}dx^a dx^b$ , we see that

$$ds^2 = \delta_{ab} dx^a dx^b = d\alpha_1^2 + \sin^2 \alpha_1 d\alpha_2^2 \qquad \checkmark$$

What are the ranges for the  $\alpha_i$ ? To cover the sphere,  $\{\alpha_i \in [0, \pi] | 1 \leq i \leq d-1\}$  and  $\alpha_d \in [0, 2\pi]$ . Note that you can visualize this as a nested fibration of an S<sup>1</sup> over d-1 intervals  $\mathcal{I} = [0, \pi]$ . In this coordinate system if we had chosen  $\alpha_d \in [0, \pi]$  and another  $\alpha_k \in [0, 2\pi]$ , then we would not have covered the entirety of the sphere (check this again with a low dimensional example). Alternatively if we had chosen multiple  $\alpha_k \in [0, 2\pi]$ , then we would have ended up with a multiple covering of the sphere.

For brevity, label  $\Gamma^{\alpha_i}_{\alpha_j\alpha_k} \equiv \Gamma^i_{\ jk}$ . Using your favorite package for differential geometry, the calculation of  $\Gamma^i_{\ jk}$  over a number of dimensions is done quickly, and from there a pattern quickly emerges:

$$\Gamma^{j}_{ij} = \Gamma^{j}_{ji} = \cot \alpha_{i}, \ i < j$$
  
$$\Gamma^{i}_{jj} = -g_{jj} \cot \alpha_{i} \prod_{k=1}^{i-1} \csc^{2} \alpha_{k}, \ i < j$$

with the rest vanishing identically. So, the geodesic equation with affine parameter  $\lambda$  becomes, with  $\dot{\alpha}_i = \frac{d\alpha_i(\lambda)}{d\lambda}$ ,

$$\ddot{\alpha}^i + 2\Gamma^i{}_{ji}\dot{\alpha}^j \dot{\alpha}^i + \Gamma^i{}_{kk} (\dot{\alpha}^k)^2 = 0, \quad j < i, \, k > i.$$

We can note that the  $\alpha_d$  equation can always be written as

$$\dot{\alpha}_d = c_d \prod_{k=1}^{d-1} \csc^2 \alpha_k(\lambda)$$

for some constant  $c_d$ .

How are we going to solve this? We can exploit the symmetry of the background and affect an SO(d+1) rotation such that any solution we wish to find passes through the 'north pole' defined by  $\alpha_1(0) = 0$ . If from this point we only allow  $\alpha_1$  to vary such that  $\dot{\alpha}_j = 0$  for j > 1, then the geodesic equations reduce to

 $\ddot{\alpha}_i = 0$ 

for all *i*. The solution to this is obviously  $\alpha_1(\lambda) = c_1 \lambda$  and  $\alpha_j = c_j$  for j > 1 and  $c_i$  constant, which is the parameterization of a great circle.

Lastly, calculating the Riemann curvature tensor, Ricci tensor, and Ricci scalar for the  $S^d$  (see the Mathematica notebook posted along with the solutions), one finds that

$$R_{ijkl} = g_{ik}g_{jl} - g_{il}g_{jk}$$
$$R_{ij} = (d-1)g_{ij}$$
$$R = d(d-1)$$

In particular, this shows that the arbitrary constant used in the problem statement K = 1. A manifold whose curvatures can be expressed in this way, for any K, is called a 'symmetric space'.