

Sat. June 9<sup>th</sup> 2012

Some notes on Lie's third theorem.

This theorem claims that one can essentially reconstruct a Lie Group directly from the structure constant. Here I will follow the argument in M. Flanders that sees Lie's third theorem as a result in the theory of partial differential equations.

First, we work in  $E^n$  & introduce  $n^3$  constants satisfying:

$$C^i_{(jk)} = 0 \quad \text{- antisymmetry} \quad (1)$$

$$C^i_{jk} C^j_{rs} + C^i_{js} C^j_{kr} + C^i_{jr} C^j_{sk} = 0 \quad \text{Jacobi} \quad (2)$$

Lie's Third Theorem ~~implies~~ asserts the existence of  $n$  linearly independent one forms  $\overrightarrow{dx^i} = \{ \omega^i \}_{i=1}^n$  defined on some nbd. of the origin  $0 \in E^n$ , and furthermore satisfying

$$d\omega^i = \frac{1}{2} \sum C^i_{jk} \omega^j \wedge \omega^k \quad (3)$$

on the nbd,  $N_0$ , of the origin.

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$T$  inv. under  $\bar{V}, \bar{W}$

$$L_{\bar{V}} T = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$L_{\bar{W}} T = 0 \quad (2)$$

If  $a$  and  $b$  are constants on the manifold,  $T$  is invariant under the field  $\bar{Z} := a\bar{V} + b\bar{W}$ .

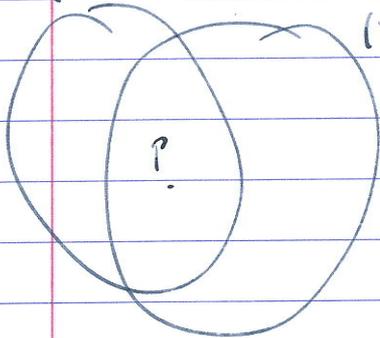
$$L_{\bar{Z}} T = 0 \quad (3)$$

$L_{\bar{V}+\bar{W}}$

If we treat  $C$  as a  $[1,2]$  tensor define in the nbd. of some point  $p \in M$ , what would happen to such a  $C$  if a coordinate change is made?

$$C(p) = (C^i_{jk}) \mapsto J^i \circ J_j^m \circ J_k^n C^l_{mn}$$

(U, 4)



(V, 4)

these are jacobians induced by the change of coordinates. Since they are evaluated at  $p$  they are:  $(J^i \circ J_j^m) \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$  and therefore corresponds to a change of basis in the Lie Algebra, leaving the Lie Algebra intact.

June 15<sup>th</sup> 2012

# Generalized gauge structures

I. Classical Electrodynamics ( $U(1)$  gauge theory)

i)  $(\mathbb{R}^4, \eta)$  - spacetime (background)

ii)  $U(1)$ -group (gauge)

→ Fibre bundle with base space  $(\mathbb{R}^4, \eta)$  and structure group  $U(1)$

II. Yang-Mills theory ( $G$  compact semisimple gauge theory)

generalizes above (EM) in its second argument ingredient

i)  $(\mathbb{R}^4, \eta)$  - background spacetime

ii)  $G$  - structure group (compact semisimple)

III. Group manifold as base space

July 23<sup>rd</sup> 2012

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Notes on 2 papers on groupoids

- i) A. Weinstein Groupoids: Unifying internal and external symmetry [1]
- ii) R. Brown From groups to groupoids: a Brief survey. [2]

We first examine the definition and motivating example in [1], the semi-tiled plane.

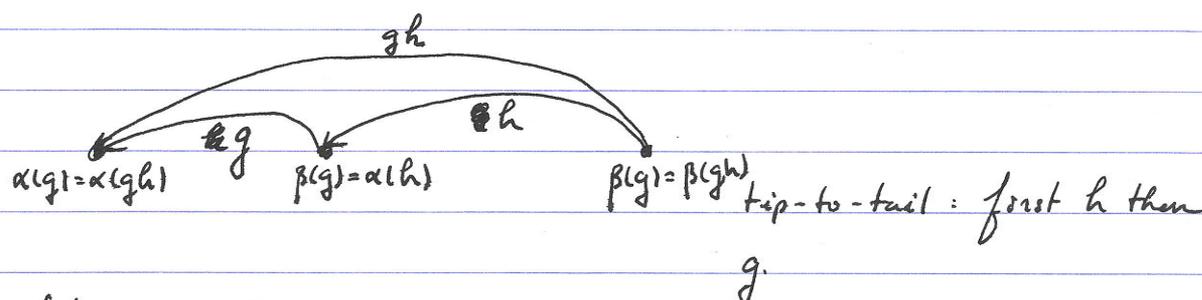
A groupoid with base  $B$  and is a set  $G$  with mappings  $\alpha, \beta: G \rightarrow B$  and a partially defined binary operation  $(g, h) \rightarrow gh$  satisfying the following 4 axioms:

1. The operation is defined only for certain pairs of elements:  
 $gh$  is only defined when  $\beta(g) = \alpha(h)$
2. It is associative: if either  $(gh)k$  or  $g(hk)$  is defined the other is as well and they are equal.
3. For each  $g \in G$  there are left and right identities  $\lambda_g, \rho_g$   
s.t.  $\lambda_g g = g$  and  $g \rho_g = g$ .
4. Each  $g$  in  $G$  has an inverse  $g^{-1}$  for which  ~~$gg^{-1} = \lambda_g$~~   
 $gg^{-1} = \lambda_g$        $g^{-1}g = \rho_g$

From a categorical perspective, elements of  $G$  are arrows and elements of  $B$  are objects: arrows are multiplied by putting them tip to tail.

An extremely trivial theorem is:  $\alpha(g^{-1}) = \beta(g^{-1})$ . This follows simply because  $gg^{-1}$  is defined.

We can translate this to a category diagram



Note:  $\alpha(gh) = \alpha(g)$

pt:  ~~$\alpha(ghh^{-1}) = \alpha(gh) = \alpha(g)$~~

$(\lambda_g g)h = \lambda_g(gh)$  implies that  $\lambda_g(gh)$  is defined since the LHS is obviously defined.

The idea is simple  $gh$  is defined only when the target of  $h$  is the source of  $g$ . Thus  $\alpha$  is the target map and  $\beta$  is the source map.

This is kind of similar to requiring the range element of a certain map to lie in the domain of another in order for the composition of those maps to be defined on that element.

Now, going back to  $\alpha(gh) = \alpha(g)$ : it's obvious because the target of  $gh$  is the same as the target of  $g$ .

Now we try to show that  $\alpha(g)$  and  $\lambda_g$  determine each other.

~~$\alpha(g)$  is the target map of  $g$ .~~

$\alpha(g)$  is the target map ( $\alpha: G \rightarrow B$ ) evaluated at  $g$ , meaning the point in  $B$  upon which ~~map~~ the map (arrow)  $g$  lands. We WTS that this point determines the arrow that corresponds to the identity of  $g$ . To see this, perhaps.

~~$\alpha(\lambda_g g) = \alpha(g)$  by the theorem on the~~

~~prev. page~~

~~$\alpha(g)$  by the definition of  $\lambda_g$  (left identity).~~

~~since  $\alpha(\lambda_g g h) = \alpha(g) \forall h$ .~~

Suppose I know  $\alpha(g)$ , how can I find  $\lambda_g$ ? Well,  $\lambda_g$  must satisfy

$$\alpha(\lambda_g g) = \alpha(g)$$

$$\alpha(g g^{-1}) = \alpha(g^{-1}) = \alpha(\lambda_g)$$

$$\alpha(g) \quad \alpha(g^{-1} g) = \alpha(g) = \alpha(\lambda_g)$$

OK... so  $\alpha(g^{-1} g) = \alpha(g)$  and so  $\alpha(g) = \alpha(\lambda_g)$

$$\alpha(\lambda_g)$$

So I know  $\alpha(g)$  at least defines  $\alpha(\lambda_g)$ ; does  $\alpha(\lambda_g)$  define  $\lambda_g$ ?

$$\Omega, \alpha(gg^{-1}) = \alpha(\lambda_g)$$

$$\parallel$$

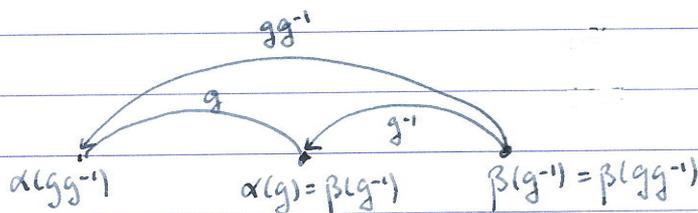
$$\alpha(g)$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha(g) = \alpha(\lambda_g) \quad \forall g \in G$$

the target of an arrow must be the target of its left identity

So suppose I wanted to figure out  $\lambda_g$ , but only knew  $\alpha(g)$ . Well,  $g^{-1}$  is the reversed arrow of  $g$  and if I knew that I can compute  $gg^{-1} = \lambda_g$ , so I can just find  $g^{-1}$  from  $\alpha(g)$  but...

Maybe a diagram helps:



Note: Since

$$1. \beta(gg^{-1}) = \beta(g^{-1})$$

$$\parallel$$

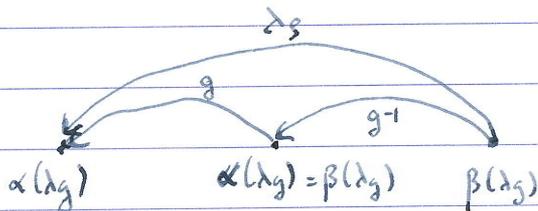
$$\beta(\lambda_g)$$

$$2. \text{ since } \alpha(g) = \beta(g^{-1})$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\alpha(\lambda_g) = \beta(\lambda_g)$$

Then



Now since  $\alpha(\lambda_g) = \beta(\lambda_g)$  all three bottom base points are the same

August 30<sup>th</sup> 2012

1.

## Notes on the teleparallel equivalent of General Relativity.

From a paper by Pereira et al.

"Whether gravitation a curved or torsioned spacetime — or equivalently a Riemannian or a Weitzenböck spacetime structure — turns out to be, at least classically, a matter of convention."

This was exactly Poincaré's point of view, but given the amazing success of GR circa 1920's and the fact that Poincaré did not have the precise example of teleparallel theory in hand, it is unfortunate but understandable that his very deep insight lost traction. Even in the 1980's, as evidenced by the arguments in the wonderful book of Torricelli, the view that the choice of geometry cannot be conventional as Poincaré had insisted was still dominant. At this point (2012) the force of Poincaré's insight seems to be apparent. GR could have been discovered through teleparallel gravity — it is not at all an awkward reformulation that could only have been devised once one already knew the answers from ordinary GR, which is basically the change that advocates of Poincaré's conventionalism have had to face.

$$B_{\mu}^a = B^a_{\mu} \tilde{P}_a \quad (1)$$

$B_{\mu}$  is, in Pereira's conception, the gauge potential of the gravitational field. Its values lie in the Lie Algebra of the translation group.

In my conception the values would lie in the Lie Algebroid of the translation groupoid.

For Pereira

$$[p^a, p^b] = 0 \quad (2) *$$

I believe this is simply wrong. The translation algebroid is non-abelian.

$$\eta^a = \partial / \partial x^a \quad (3) *$$

The status of this equation is a bit unclear in my formalism. The status of  $x^a$  in my theory is very similar (perhaps formally equivalent) to conceptions in which  $x^a$  are Goldstone fields (c.f. Fergusson). But the space upon which these scalars are a parametrization must be considered with care: is it an affine space e.g.?

In my theory (2)\* should be replaced by

$$[\eta_x^a, \eta_x^b] = T_x^{ab} \eta_x^c \quad (2)$$

where

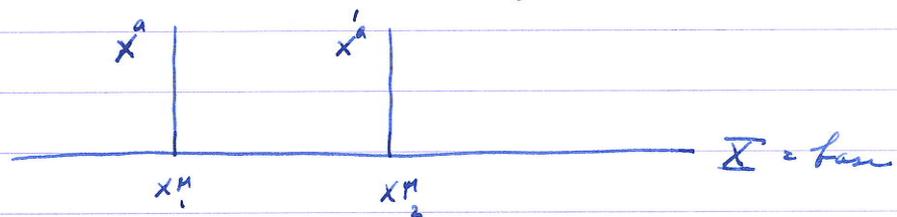
$T_x^{ab}$  is basically the gravitational field.

For Pereira, a gauge transformation is

$$x'^a = x^a + \alpha^a \quad \alpha^a(x^M) \quad (4) *$$

$$\delta x^a = (\alpha^b \eta_b) \cdot x^a \quad (5) *$$

Here Pereira defines a gauge transformation to be a translation of the parameters that parametrize the tangent space, but requiring a different parameter translation at different points in the spacetime manifold. E.g.



2 pts.

We allow a translation, e.g.  $x^a + 5$  @  $x_1^M$  to be different from the one @  $x_2^M$ , e.g.  $x^a + 7$ .

Now consider a general source field  $\psi(x^M)$ , defined on the base manifold. It may be a vector scalar or spinor. But regardless of its internal structure it has the gauge transformation

$$\delta \psi = (\alpha^a \eta_a) \cdot \psi \quad (6) *$$

$\delta \psi$  stands for the functional change at the pt  $x^M$  (for a clear definition of functional change we refer the reader to Blagovizich).



## General Idea

Take a look at some teleparallel solutions:

- de Sitter
- Schwarzschild Solution
- Kerr-Newman

### de Sitter

the teleparallel version of dS is a constant torsion

maximally symmetric

It is a solution of the sourceless teleparallel field equation with a cosmological term  $\Lambda$ :

○ ∈ GR

● ∈ teleparallel

$$\partial_\nu (h \dot{S}_\lambda^{\nu\sigma}) - k^2 (h \dot{t}_\lambda^{\sigma}) - \delta_\lambda^\sigma \Lambda = 0$$

Go to stereographic coordinates

• one specific class of frames

$$h^a_\mu = \Omega \delta^a_\mu ; \quad \Omega := \frac{1}{1 - (r^2/\ell^2)}$$

$$\omega^2 = \gamma_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu \quad g_{\mu\nu} = h^a_\mu h^b_\nu \gamma_{ab} = \Omega^2(x) \gamma_{\mu\nu}$$

Weyl tensor connection:

$$\overset{\circ}{\Gamma}{}^\sigma_{\mu\nu} = h^a_\nu \partial_\mu h^a_\sigma$$

$$h^a{}_\mu = \Omega \delta^a{}_\mu \quad \text{thus,}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^S{}_{\nu\mu} &= \Omega \delta_a^S \partial_\mu \Omega \delta^a{}_\nu \\ &= \Omega \delta^S{}_\nu \partial_\mu \Omega \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \eta_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu$$

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{1 - (\sigma^2/12)}$$

$$\partial_\mu \ln \Omega$$

$$= -\partial_\mu \left(1 - \frac{\sigma^2}{12}\right)$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{12} \partial_\mu \sigma^2$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{12} (\partial_\mu \eta_{\alpha\beta} x^\alpha x^\beta)$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{12} \eta_{\alpha\beta} (\delta_\mu^\alpha x^\beta + x^\alpha \delta_\mu^\beta)$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{12} (x_\mu + x_\mu) = \frac{\Lambda}{6} x_\mu$$

$$\text{torsion: } \overset{\circ}{T}{}^\lambda{}_{\mu\nu} = \delta^\lambda{}_\nu \partial_\mu \ln \Omega - \delta^\lambda{}_\mu \partial_\nu \ln \Omega$$

$$= \delta^\lambda{}_\nu \frac{\Lambda}{6} x_\mu - \delta^\lambda{}_\mu \frac{\Lambda}{6} x_\nu$$

$$= 2 \frac{\Lambda}{6} \delta^\lambda{}_{[\nu} x_{\mu]} \quad (\text{the two } \nu\text{'s from def. of } [x_\nu, x_\mu])$$

$$\boxed{\overset{\circ}{T}{}^\lambda{}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \delta^\lambda{}_{[\nu} x_{\mu]}}$$

$$h^a{}_\mu = \Omega \delta^a{}_\mu$$

$$\overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^S{}_{\nu\mu} = \underbrace{h_a^S}_{\Omega^{-1} \delta_a^S} \partial_\mu \underbrace{h^a{}_\nu}_{\Omega \delta^a{}_\nu}$$

$$= \Omega^{-1} \underbrace{\delta_a^S \delta^a{}_\nu}_{\delta^S{}_\nu} \partial_\mu \Omega \quad \ln$$

$$= \frac{\delta^S{}_\nu}{\Omega} \partial_\mu \ln \Omega$$

$$= \delta^S{}_\nu \partial_\mu \ln \Omega \quad \text{agree with Eq 7.5.}$$

So we have  $\dot{T}$  a linear function in  $x$ . This is supposed to be "constant torsion". So we need to understand constant torsion

$$\dot{S}^{\rho\mu\nu} = \left[ \dot{K}^{\mu\nu\rho} - g^{\rho\nu} \dot{T}^{\sigma\mu}{}_{\sigma} + g^{\rho\mu} \dot{T}^{\sigma\nu}{}_{\sigma} \right]$$

The Lagrangian can be written in terms of this "Superpotential"

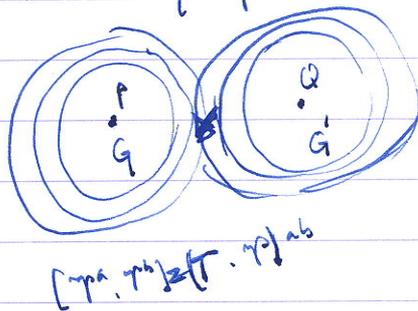
$$\dot{L} = \frac{\hbar}{4k^2} \dot{T}^{\rho\mu\nu} \dot{S}^{\rho\mu\nu}$$

Thinking again about the big picture

GR with an asymptotic group allows the definition of a Hamiltonian especially when there is SUSY.

But if we break up GR into pieces that have certain asymptotic symmetries we lose some very important insights about the theory of gravitation. The typical solution of GR (M.g) does not possess any symmetry! The absence of a global timelike Killing vector  $\Rightarrow$  no Hamiltonian can be written. To my mind this is the fundamental reason for the inability to quantize. With no group around what do we do?

Answer - Groupoids - Algebroids



$[p^a, p^b] = T^ab_{cd} p^c p^d$  - is an algebra - what symmetry does it define?

• local translation

→ actually it must be more specific.

What kind of local translation? Is there a local integration to a group?

$$(T \cdot p)^{ab} \cdot \eta = \delta \eta \quad \Bigg|_{\text{PCM}}$$

$\Sigma_{ijk}$  SU(2)

SU(3)

$$\delta_b^c \underline{X}^a_d - \delta_d^a \underline{X}^c_b$$

$$\delta_b^c \underline{X}^f_d$$

$$(\delta_b^c \delta_f^a \delta_d^g - \delta_d^a \delta_f^c \delta_b^g) \underline{X}^f_g$$

$$(\delta_b^c \delta_f^a \delta_d^g - \delta_f^c \delta_d^a \delta_b^g) \underline{X}^f_g$$

Certain  $f_{\mu\nu}(x)$  correspond to certain local symmetries in a nbhd. of the pt  $x \in \mathbb{R}^4$ .

For dS space  $\dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \delta^{\lambda}_{[\nu} x_{\mu]}$  is the torsion.

Divergence of torsion

$$\cancel{\partial^{\mu} \dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \partial^{\mu} (\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} x_{\mu})}$$

$$\partial^{\mu} \dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{6} \partial^{\mu} (\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} x_{\mu} - \delta^{\lambda}_{\mu} x_{\nu})$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{6} (\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} \cdot 4 - \delta^{\lambda}_{\mu} \delta^{\mu}_{\nu})$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{6} (4\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} - \delta^{\lambda}_{\nu}) = \frac{\Lambda}{2} \delta^{\lambda}_{\nu}$$

For curvature Riemann  $\rightarrow$  Ricci  $\rightarrow$  scalar.

" torsion

$$\dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\lambda\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{6} (\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} x_{\lambda} - \delta^{\lambda}_{\lambda} x_{\nu})$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda}{6} (x_{\nu} - 4x_{\nu}) = -\frac{\Lambda}{2} x_{\nu}$$

Teleparallel dS:

$$\dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \delta^{\lambda}_{[\nu} X_{\mu]} \quad \text{torsion for dS} \quad (1)$$

$$\partial^{\mu} \dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{\Lambda}{2} \delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} \quad \text{div T for dS} \quad (2)$$

$$\dot{T}^{\lambda}_{\lambda\nu} = -\frac{\Lambda}{2} X_{\nu} \quad \dot{T}_{\nu} \text{ for dS} \quad (3)$$

The Lagrangian density for ~~the~~ Teleparallel is

$$\dot{\mathcal{L}} = \frac{\hbar}{2k^2} \left[ \frac{1}{4} \dot{T}^{\rho}_{\mu\nu} \dot{T}^{\mu\nu}_{\rho} + \frac{1}{2} \dot{T}^{\rho}_{\mu\nu} \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_{\rho} - \dot{T}^{\rho}_{\rho\mu} \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_{\nu} \right] \quad (4)$$

$$k^2 = \frac{4\pi G}{c^4} \quad \hbar = \det(h^a_{\mu})$$

$$\dot{\mathcal{L}}_{dS} = \frac{\hbar}{2k^2} \left[ \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 \delta^{\rho}_{[\nu} X_{\mu]} \delta^{\mu\nu}_{\rho} X^{\mu} + \dots - \dots \right] \quad (5)$$

Explicitly this first term is:

$$\frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} \cdot (\delta^{\rho}_{\nu} X_{\mu} - \delta^{\rho}_{\mu} X_{\nu}) (\delta^{\mu\nu}_{\rho} X^{\mu} - \delta^{\rho\mu}_{\nu} X^{\nu}) \quad (6)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 \cdot \left\{ 4x^2 - \underbrace{\delta^{\rho}_{\nu} X_{\mu} X^{\nu}}_{x^2} - \underbrace{\delta^{\nu}_{\mu} X_{\nu} X^{\mu}}_{x^2} + 4x^2 \right\} \quad (7)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 \cdot 14 \cdot x^2 \quad (8)$$

Now,  $\dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_{\rho} =$  raise middle index.

$$g^{\rho\mu} \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_{\rho} = g^{\rho\mu} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{3} \delta^{\nu}_{\rho} X_{\rho} \quad (9)$$

$$= g^{\rho\mu} \cdot \frac{\Lambda}{3} (\delta^{\nu}_{\rho} X_{\rho} - \delta^{\nu}_{\rho} X_{\rho}) \quad (10)$$

$$= \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) (g^{\nu\mu} X_{\rho} - \delta^{\nu}_{\rho} X^{\mu}) \quad (11)$$

Second term in  $\dot{L}_{ds}$  is:

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{T}_{\mu\nu}^S \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_S \quad (12)$$

fix factors of  $\frac{1}{2}$  from anti-symmetry normalization.

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 (\delta^S_\nu x_\mu - \delta^S_\mu x_\nu) (g^{\nu\mu} x_S - \delta^S_\nu x^\mu) \quad (13)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 \left( \underbrace{g^{\mu\nu} x_\mu x_\nu}_{x^2} - 4x^2 - \underbrace{g^{\nu\mu} x_\nu x_\mu}_{x^2} + \underbrace{\delta^S_\mu x_\nu x^\mu}_{x^2} \right) \quad (14)$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 (\cancel{x^2} - 4x^2 - \cancel{x^2} + x^2) \quad (15)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 (-3x^2) = \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right)^2 x^2 \quad (16)$$

The third term  $\dot{L}_{ds}$  is:

$$- \dot{T}_{S\mu}^S \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}_{\nu} \quad (17)$$

Let's be careful with this term

first factor:  $\dot{T}_{S\mu}^S = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) \delta \dots \quad (18)$

$$\dot{T}_{S\mu}^S = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) \delta^S_{[\mu} x_{\nu]} = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) (\delta^S_\mu x_\nu - \delta^S_\nu x_\mu) \quad (19)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) (4x_\mu - x_\mu) = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) \cdot 3x_\mu \quad (20)$$

second factor:

$$\dot{T}^{S\mu}_S = \frac{\Lambda}{3} \delta^S \dots \quad (21)$$

$$\dot{T}^{S\mu}_S = \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) (\delta^S_{[\mu} x^{\nu]})$$

$$= \left(\frac{\Lambda}{3}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} (\delta^S_\mu x^\nu - \delta^S_\nu x^\mu) \quad (22)$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{T}_s^{\mu\nu} = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) (4x^\mu - x^\nu) \quad (23)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot 3x^\mu \quad (24)$$

the ~~second~~ <sup>third</sup> term is then:

$$- \dot{T}_{s\mu}^s \dot{T}^{\nu\mu}$$

$$- \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \cdot (3) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) x_\mu - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot 3 \cdot x^\mu \quad (25)$$

$$- \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \cdot (3)^2 x^2 = - \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 x^2 \quad (26)$$

$$\dot{L}_{ds} = \frac{\hbar}{24^2} [$$

Double check:  $\Omega = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{v^2}{12}}$

$$\ln \Omega = \ln(1) - \ln\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{12}\right)$$

$$\partial_\mu \ln \Omega = - \partial_\mu \ln\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{12}\right)$$

$$= - \frac{1}{1 - \frac{v^2}{12}}$$

$$\partial_\mu \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{12}\right) = - \frac{1}{12} \partial_\mu v^2$$

$$\partial_\mu v^2 = \partial_\mu g_{\alpha\beta} v^\alpha v^\beta$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 h^a_\mu &= \Omega \delta^a_\mu & g_{\mu\nu} &= h^a_\mu \eta_{ab} h^b_\nu \\
 & & &= \Omega^2 \delta^a_\mu \eta_{ab} \delta^b_\nu \\
 & & &= \Omega^2 \eta_{\mu\nu}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}}$$

$$\ln \Omega = \ln 1 - \ln \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12} \right) \quad \begin{array}{l} x = \ln 1 \\ e^x = 1 \end{array}$$

$$\partial_\mu \ln \Omega = -\partial_\mu \ln \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12} \right) \quad x=0$$

$$= - \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}} \right) \cdot -\frac{1}{12} \partial_\mu \sigma^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial_\mu \sigma^2 &= \partial_\mu \eta_{\epsilon\sigma} x^\epsilon x^\sigma = \eta_{\epsilon\sigma} (\delta_\mu^\epsilon x^\sigma + x^\epsilon \delta_\mu^\sigma) \\
 &= \eta_{\mu\sigma} x^\sigma + x_\sigma \delta_\mu^\sigma \\
 &= x_\mu + x_\mu = 2x_\mu //
 \end{aligned}
 \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} x \text{ must} \\ \text{be raised} \\ \text{and lowered} \\ \text{by } g, \text{ not} \\ \eta. \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \partial_\mu \ln \Omega &= - \left( \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}} \right) \cdot \left( -\frac{\Lambda}{12} \right) \cdot 2x_\mu \\
 &= \left( \frac{\frac{\Lambda}{6} \cdot x_\mu}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}} \right) = \left( \frac{\Lambda}{6} \right) \frac{x_\mu}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\overset{\cdot}{\Gamma}{}^\lambda_{\mu\nu} = \delta^\lambda_\mu \partial_\nu \Omega = \delta^\lambda_\mu \left( \frac{\Lambda}{6} \right) \frac{x_\nu}{1 - \frac{\sigma^2 \Lambda}{12}}$$

$$= \delta^\lambda_\mu \left( \frac{\Lambda \Omega}{6} \right) x_\nu$$

$$\boxed{\overset{\cdot}{\Gamma}{}^\lambda_{\mu\nu} = \left( \frac{\Lambda \Omega}{6} \right) \delta^\lambda_\mu x_\nu}$$

The torsion

$$\begin{aligned}T^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} &= \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\nu\mu} - \Gamma^{\lambda}_{\mu\nu} \\&= \delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} \partial_{\mu} \Omega - \delta^{\lambda}_{\mu} \partial_{\nu} \Omega \\&= \left(\frac{\Lambda \Omega}{6}\right) (\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} x_{\mu} - \delta^{\lambda}_{\mu} x_{\nu})\end{aligned}$$

$$T^{\lambda}_{\lambda\nu} = \left(\frac{\Lambda \Omega}{6}\right) (\underbrace{\delta^{\lambda}_{\nu} x_{\lambda}}_{x_{\nu}} - \underbrace{\delta^{\lambda}_{\lambda} x_{\nu}}_{4x_{\nu}})$$

$$T^{\lambda}_{\lambda\nu} = \left(\frac{\Lambda \Omega}{2}\right) x_{\nu}$$

$$T^{\lambda}_{\nu\lambda} = \left(\frac{\Lambda \Omega}{2}\right) x_{\nu}$$

$$T^{\mu\nu}_{\sigma} = g_{\sigma\alpha} g^{\mu\epsilon} g^{\nu\delta} T^{\alpha}_{\epsilon\delta}$$

$$= \frac{\Lambda \Omega}{2} T$$

$$= \Omega^b \eta_{\sigma\alpha} \eta^{\mu\epsilon} \eta^{\nu\delta}$$



What is the nature of a groupoid?

There is a traditional and wonderfully beautiful argument that the mathematical theory of groups captures, in a parsimonious way, the conceptual structure of symmetry.

The concept of symmetry that it codifies is the following:

Consider a system  $S$  and a set of operations  $\mathcal{O}$  that may be performed on the set  $S$ , an element  $o \in \mathcal{O}$  is called a symmetry of  $S$  if observations of  $S$  done just before and just after the performance of  $o$  are indistinguishable.

With this philosophical conception of system and symmetry operation, one is led parsimoniously to the abstract notion of group as it was defined by Galois.

I am looking for the analogous philosophic construction that would lead to the notion of groupoid. I have always felt uncomfortable with things like: Hopf algebra symmetries, because of the beauty and generality of the above argument for the parsimonious connexion between symmetry and the abstract theory of groups. As of right now (Tuesday September 4<sup>th</sup> 2012) it seems to me that, if we simply assume that the system  $S$  has an internal structure we may be led directly to the groupoid structure with in a parsimonious fashion.

So, let's try to prove this:

Let  $S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3$  for example.

Now we will look at the space of all operations  $\mathcal{O}$  as we did in the case of groups.

Sept. 10 2012

## Energy and Teleparallel Gravity

Some scratch on Schwarzschild

naive choice of tetrad

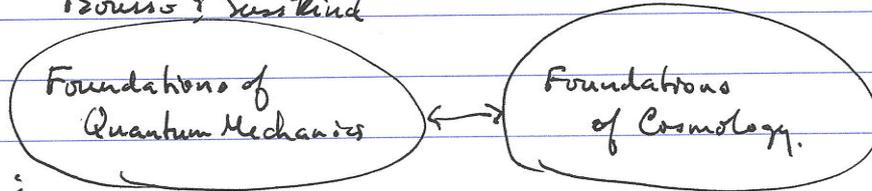
Spherical symmetry  $\rightarrow (t, r, \theta, \varphi)$

## Susskind Lecture

Big problems with global multiverse.

Foundations of quantum mechanics

Bourso & Susskind



Issues:

1. At what pt. do the virtual realities described by the wave-fn. become objective realities
2. What is the meaning of probability
3. Who or what gets to observe the whole multiverse.

3 fictions

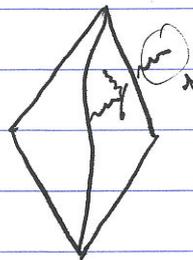
1. Wfn. collapse ~~is~~ not is an irreversible process
2.  $\text{Prob.}(A) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N_{\text{TOTAL}}}$  the fiction is that  $N$  can go to infinity.
3. There is a multiversal archivist. Someone who observes the multiverse.

Decoherence - modern form of wfn collapse. wfn gets entangled with the environment.

Postulate 1:

Things happen. There exists a mechanism for irreversible decoherence.

(This rules out closed cosmologies. Quantum recurrences.)  
because Quantum recurrences undo decoherence.  
dS is an escape  
AdS is a better closed box cosmology.



cannot recover.

$\Rightarrow$  event horizons may allow real decoherence.

Note dS decays in a time much smaller than the recurrence time.

Postulate 2:

frequentist  $P(A) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N_{\text{tot}}}$

Need

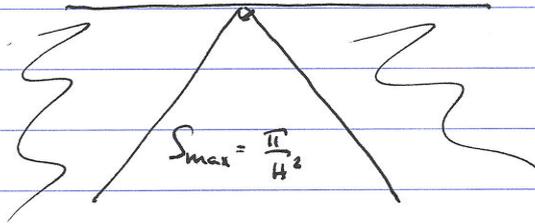
a)  $\infty$  # of trial

b) way to order them so we don't get  $\infty$ .

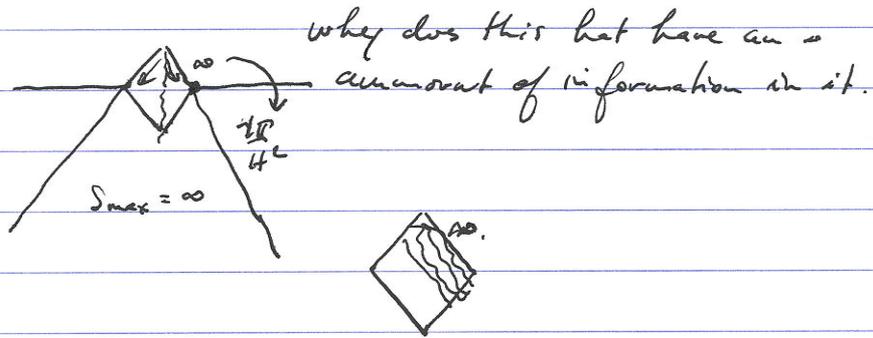
ordering or regulating.

Postulate 3: There really is a multiversal archivist. The mathematical observables are physical observables.

multiversal archivist  $\rightarrow$  subsystem. Must be able to record everything in the system in which it is contained.



Imagine a very late decay of dS to bubbles with zero c.c. (Banks?)



$\{x^0, x^1\}$  / Algebra  $f(x^0, x^1)$

$[x^0, x^1] = f(x^0, x^1)$  Representations.

$$f(x^0, x^1) = A + Bx^0 + Cx^1 + Dx^0x^1 + Ex^1x^0 + \dots$$

$$\text{or } \sim Ae^{-\beta x^1}$$

$$e^{-\beta x^1} \approx 1 - \beta x^1$$



$$[x^0, x^1] \approx A(1 - \beta x^1)$$

$$[x^0, x^1] \approx A - (AB)x^1$$

$$x^0 |x^0\rangle = x^0 |x^0\rangle$$

$$\langle x^1 | \psi \rangle = \psi(x^1)$$

$$x^1 |x^1\rangle = x^1 |x^1\rangle$$

~~$$(x^0 + ix^1) |0\rangle = (x^0 + ix^1) |0\rangle$$~~

$$\langle x^0 | x^1 \rangle$$

Why isn't the wf a fn of space and time?