1 Introduction

Einstein’s theory of general relativity triggered a multiplicity of new ideas in differential geometry. In 1917, Levi-Civita discovered that Einstein’s interpretation of the Christoffel symbols in Riemannian geometry as components of the gravitational field could be given a geometrical meaning by the concept of parallel displacement. That was the starting point for investigating a whole range of generalized differential geometric structures. J. A. Schouten and his student D. Struik studied symbolic methods for establishing an “absolute calculus” in Amsterdam. In Zürich, H. Weyl formed the generalized concept of an affine connection, no longer necessarily derived from a Riemannian metric, and generalized the concept of metrical structure with the idea of a gauge metric and a non-integrable scale connection. A. Eddington investigated affine and linear connections at Cambridge. In Paris, E. Cartan started his programme of bringing Klein’s view of geometry to bear upon differential geometry, and at Princeton the group around O. Veblen, L. P Eisenhart and T. Y. Thomas looked for projective structures in differential geometry. Most of these geometrical research programmes were closely related to attempts to create a unified field theory of matter, interactions and geometry.²

The upsurge of new ideas made the 1920s and 1930s a happy time for differential geometry. In this contribution we look at the proposals of H. Weyl and E. Cartan from the early 1920s. The question of how the Kleinian view of transformation groups could be imported into a differential geometric setting played a crucial role for both of them. They gave different answers, although with a certain overlap. Only after further steps of generalization could their views be subsumed into an even wider frame, that of connections in principal fibre bundles. This was an achievement of the second half of the century, with C. Ehresmann as one of the principal players. It will not be discussed here; here we concentrate on Weyl’s and Cartan’s respective views in the 1920s.

2 Weyl

Weyl’s papers of 1918 and STM

In April 1918, A. Einstein presented Weyl’s paper Gravitation and electricity (Gravitation und Elektrizität) (Weyl 1918a) to the Berlin Academy of Sciences. He added a short critical comment explaining why he doubted the reliability of the physical interpretation Weyl gave. The paper contained a scale gauge generalization of Riemannian geometry, with a length connection expressed with a differential form \( \varphi = \sum_{\alpha} \varphi_{\alpha} dx^\alpha \) as a crucial ingredient. Weyl wanted to identify the scale connection with the potential of the electromagnetic field and built the first geometrically unified theory (UFT) of gravity and electromagnetism on this idea (Vizgin 1994, O’Raifeartaigh 1997). The unification built crucially on the property of \( \varphi \) being a gauge field. This idea turned out to be of long-lasting importance, although not in its original form. A few weeks later, a second paper of Weyl followed in Mathematische Zeitschrift (Weyl 1918b). It presented the same topic to a mathematical audience and put the Weylian metric in the perspective of a broader view of differential geometry. Here Weyl generalized Levi-Civita’s idea of parallel displacement in a Riemannian manifold to that of an affine connection \( \Gamma = (\Gamma_{ij}^k) \) (logically) independent of any metric.

The manuscript of Weyl’s first book on mathematical physics, Space – Time – Matter (STM) (Raum – Zeit – Materie), delivered to the publishing house (Springer) Easter 1918, did not contain Weyl’s new geometry and proposal for a UFT. It was prepared from the lecture notes of a course given in the Summer semester of 1917 at the Polytechnical Institute (ETH) Zürich. Weyl included his recent findings only in the 3rd edition (1919) of the book. The English and French versions (Weyl 1922b, Weyl 1922a), translated from the fourth revised edition (1921), contained a short exposition of Weyl’s generalized metric and the idea for a scale gauge theory of electromagnetism. E. Cartan read it and referred to it immediately.

Weyl’s basic ideas for the generalization of Riemannian metrics in his papers of 1918 and in STM (3rd edition ff.) may be summarised as follows:

(1) Generalize Levi-Civita’s concept of parallel displacement for Riemannian manifolds to an abstract kind of “parallel displacement”, not a priori linked to a metrical structure, \( \Gamma = (\Gamma_{ij}^k) \), called an affine connection (or torsion free linear connection in Cartanian’s terminology).

(2) Build up geometry from the purely infinitesimal point of view (“local” in today’s physicists language, i.e. using essentially the tangent structure of the manifold), with similarities as the basic transformations of space structure because no natural unit should be assumed in geometry a priori.

(3) The possibility to directly compare metrical quantities (physical observables) at different points of the space-time manifold \( M \) ought to be considered a defect of Rie-
wanian geometry which is due to its historical origin in Gaussian surface theory. It presupposes a kind of "distant geometry" counter to modern field physics. In Weyl's view it should be possible to choose a scale (Maßstab) freely and independently at every point of the spacetime \( M \), to gauge the manifold. Then one arrives at a Riemannian (or Lorentzian, etc.) metric \( g := (g_{\mu\nu}) \) with the squared line element

\[
d s^2 = \sum_{\mu\nu} g_{\mu\nu} d x^\mu d x^\nu.
\]

Let us call it the Riemannian component of a gauged Weylian metric. Comparison of quantities (observables) at different points was then possible only by integrating a length or scale connection, given by a differential 1-form,

\[
\varphi = (\varphi_\mu) \quad \varphi = \sum \varphi_\mu dx^\mu = \varphi_i dx^i,
\]

which expresses the infinitesimal change of measuring standards (relative to the gauge). Both components together \( (g, \varphi) \) specify the metric in the chosen gauge.

To secure consistency, a different choice of the scale \( \hat{g} = \Omega^2 g \) has to be accompanied by a transformation

\[
\hat{\varphi} = \varphi - d(\log \Omega) = \varphi - \frac{d\Omega}{\Omega},
\]

a gauge transformation (Eichtransformation) in the literal sense of the word. In late 1918, this word appeared in correspondence with Einstein (Einstein 1987ff., VIII, 661), maybe after their oral discussion in the months before. In 1919, Weyl started to use it in his publications.

In moderately modernized language, we may consider a Weylian metric \( [(g, \varphi)] \) to be defined by an equivalence class of pairs \( (g, \varphi) \). Equivalence is given by gauge transformations.

With this generalization of Riemannian geometry, Weyl looked for gauge covariant descriptions of properties and in particular for gauge invariant objects, among which the scale curvature (curvature of the scale connection) \( f := df \) was the first to be found. He discovered that a Weylian metric uniquely determines a compatible affine connection, the (scale gauge dependent) Weyl-Levi-Civita connection \( \Gamma = \Gamma(g, \varphi) \). It leads to scale invariant Riemann and Ricci curvatures, Riem, Ric, and scale invariant geodesics. A Weylian metric turned out to be reducible to a Riemann one if and only if \( f = d\varphi = 0 \) (integrable Weyl geometry). Finally, Weyl derived a tensor \( C = (\xi^i\partial_i) \) depending only on the conformal class \( [g] \) of the metric, with \( C = 0 \) a necessary condition for conformal flatness (but not sufficient) if \( \dim M = n > 3 \). Later it was called conformal curvature or the Weyl tensor (Weyl 1918b, 21).

As has already been mentioned, Weyl originally identified the scale connection \( \varphi \) with the potential of the electromagnetic field. That led to a gauge field theory for electromagnetism with group \( (\mathbb{R}^+, \cdot) \). He thus thought that the Weylian metric \( [(g, \varphi)] \) was able to unify gravity and electromagnetic interaction. In this frame the Mie-Hilbert theory of matter with its combined Lagrangian for gravity and electromagnetism could be placed in a geometrically unified scheme. This would, so Weyl hoped for roughly two years, lead to a success for a purely field theoretic, dynamistic theory of matter.

Einstein did not trust Weyl's new theory physically, although he admired it from a mathematical point of view. He praised the "beautiful consequence (wunderbare Geschlossenheit)" of Weyl's thought "... apart from its agreement with reality ..." (emphasis, ES) (Einstein 1987ff., vol. VIII, letter 499). For Einstein the path dependence of the scale transfer function for the measurement units

\[
\Lambda(p_0, p_1) = \mathcal{L}(\gamma) d\tau, \quad \gamma \text{ path from } p_0 \text{ to } p_1
\]

gave reason for serious concern. In his view, no stable frequency of atomic clocks could be expected in Weyl's theory. But Weyl was not convinced. He countered with the assumption that there seems to be a natural gauge for atomic clocks because they adapt to the local field constellation of scalar curvature (Weyl gauge).

Other physicists, among them A. Sommerfeld, W. Pauli and A. Eddington, reacted differently and at first positively. But after a period of reconsideration they also adopted a more critical position. That did not remain without influence on Weyl. In particular, Pauli's critique formulated in his article on general relativity in the Enzyklopädie Mathematischer Wissenschaften (Pauli 1921), known to Weyl in draft already in Summer 1920, and during discussions at Bad Nauheim in September the same year, left traces on Weyl's position.

In late 1920, Weyl withdrew from defending his programme of a purely field theoretical explanation of matter and relativised the role of his unified field theory. But he did not give up his programme of purely infinitesimal geometry.

What remained?

Weyl's ideas contained two germs of insight which turned out to be of long-lasting importance:

- The enlargement of the automorphism group of classical differential geometry by the scale gauge group resulted in a new invariance principle. Weyl identified it as "the law of the conservation of electricity" (Weyl 1918a, 38).
- Moreover, scale gauge geometry was conceptually basic and structurally well founded. Weyl showed this in an investigation which he called the analysis of the problem of space (APOS).

The first point was later identified as a special case of E. Noether's theorems (Noether 1918). With Yang/Mills and Utiyama's generalization, it became an important structural feature of non-abelian gauge theory in the second half of the century. With regard to the second point, Weyl took up motifs of the 19th century discussion of the problem of space in the sense of Helmholtz – Lie – Klein and adapted the mode of questioning to the constellation of field theoretic geometry after the rise of GRT. That made Weyl's enterprise compatible to Élie Cartan's broader programme of an infinitesimal implementation of the Kleinian viewpoint.

Analysis of the problem of space (APOS)

Between 1921 and 1923, Weyl looked for deeper conceptual foundations of his purely infinitesimal geometry in a manifold \( M \) (the "extensive medium of the external world") as an a priori characterization of the "possible nature of space". In a clear allusion to Kant's distinction of different kinds of statements a priori, Weyl distinguished an "analytic" part and a "synthetic" part of his investigation. In the first step, Weyl analysed what he considered the necessary features of any meaningful transfer of congruence considerations to purely
in infinitesimal geometry. In the second step he enriched the properties of the resulting structure by postulates he considered basic for a coherent geometric theory.

His basic idea was that a group of generalized “rotations”, a (connected) Lie subgroup $G \subset SL_n\mathbb{R}$, had to be considered similarly to Kleinian geometry. In the new framework of purely infinitesimal geometry, the group could no longer be assumed to operate on the manifold $M$ itself but had only “infinitesimal” ranges of operation. In slightly modernised terminology, $G$ operates on every tangent space of $M$ separately.

Conceptually necessary features (“Analytic part” of APOS):
- At each point $p$ (“Analytic part” of APOS):
  - Thus an infinitesimal congruence structure. This is the case if they differ from point to point
    $$G_p = h_p^{-1}Gh_p,$$
    where $h_p$ lies in the normalizer $\tilde{G}$ of $G$ and depends on the point $p$. Weyl called $\tilde{G}$ the “similarity group” of $G$.

The $G_p$ allowed one to speak of point congruences (“rotations”) inside each infinitesimal neighbourhood $T_pM$ only. In order to allow for a “metrical comparison” between two neighbourhoods of $p$ and $p'$, even for infinitesimally close points $p$ and $p'$, another gadget was necessary. Weyl argued that the most general conceptual possibility for such a comparison was given by a linear connection.
- In addition to the $G_p$, a linear connection $\Lambda = (\Lambda_{i\bar{k}})$ is given (in general with torsion in the later terminology of Cartan).
- Weyl called $\Lambda$ an infinitesimal congruence transfer, or even simply a (generalized) metrical connection.

An infinitesimal congruent transfer need not be “parallel”. Thus an affine connection $\Gamma$ (without torsion) continued to play a different role from a general metrical connection. Moreover, two connections $\Lambda_{\bar{k}}$ and $\Lambda'_{\bar{k}}$ may characterize the same infinitesimal congruence structure. This is the case if they differ (point dependently) by “infinitesimal rotations” from the Lie group of $G$. In modern language, that meant:

$$\Lambda \sim \tilde{\Lambda} \iff \Lambda - \tilde{\Lambda} = \Lambda,$$

where $\Lambda$ differs from $\tilde{\Lambda}$ in a different way.

The only groups satisfying the conditions for “rotation” groups in the APOS (analytical and synthetic part) are the special orthogonal groups of any signature $G \cong SO(p, q)$ with “similarities” $G \cong SO(p, q) \times \mathbb{R}$.

That was a pleasing result for Weyl’s generalization of Riemannian metrics. It indicated that the structure of Weyl geometry was not just one among many more or less arbitrary generalizations of Riemannian geometry but of basic conceptual importance.

According to the 4th edition of STM, Weyl proudly declared that the analysis of the problem of space ought to be considered “… a good example of the essential analysis [Wesensanalyse] striven for by phenomenological philosophy (Husserl), an example that is typical for such cases where a non-immanent essence is dealt with” (Weyl 1922b), translation from (Ryckman 2005, 157).

In his Barcelona lectures (Weyl 1923) Weyl gave an interesting argument by analogy to the constitution of “a state” in which a postulate of freedom (for citizens, rather than for matter in general) is combined with a postulate of coherence. He expected from the constitution of a liberal republic that the free activity of the citizens is restricted only by the demand that it does not contradict the “general well-being” of the community (the “state”). So Weyl saw a structural analogy between the constitution of a liberal state and the “nature of space” and used it to motivate the choice of the postulates of the “synthetic” part of his analysis of the space.

After a translation of the geometrical postulates into conditions for the Lie algebra of the groups which are able to serve as “rotations” of an infinitesimal congruence geometry in the sense of the APOS (analytical and synthetic part), Weyl managed, in an involved case by case argument, to prove the following.

Theorem. The only groups satisfying the conditions for “rotation” groups in the APOS (analytical and synthetic part) are the special orthogonal groups of any signature $G \cong SO(p, q)$ with “similarities” $G \cong SO(p, q) \times \mathbb{R}$.
Weyl on conformal and projective structure in 1921

Shortly after having arrived at the main theorem of APOS, Weyl wrote a short paper on the “placement of projective and conformal view” in infinitesimal geometry (Weyl 1921). It was triggered by a paper of Schouten which he had to review for F. Klein. In his paper Weyl investigated classes of affine connections with the same geodesics. These defined a projective structure (“projektive Beschaffenheit”) on a differentiable manifold. Weyl derived an invariant of the projective path structure, the projective curvature tensor $\Pi$ of $M$. Vanishing of $\Pi$ was a condition for the manifold to be projectively flat. In this case it is locally isomorphic to a linear projective space.

In addition, Weyl found a highly interesting relationship between conformal and projective differential geometry and a Weylian metric.

**Theorem.** If two Weylian manifolds $(M, [(g, \varphi)])$, $(M', [(g', \varphi')])$ have identical conformal curvature $C = C'$ and identical projective curvature $\Pi = \Pi'$, they are locally isometric in the Weyl metric sense (Weyl 1921).

This theorem, so Weyl explained, seemed to be of deep physical import. The conformal structure was the mathematical expression for the causal structure in a general relativistic spacetime. Physically interpreted, the projective structure characterized the inertial fall of mass points, independent of parametrization, i.e., independent of conventions for measuring local time. Thus Weyl’s theorem showed that the causal and inertial structure of spacetime uniquely determine its Weyl – not Riemannian – metric. This observation was taken up by Ehlers/Pirani/Schild half a century later in their famous paper *The geometry of free fall and light propagation* (Ehlers 1972). It made the community of researchers in gravitation theory aware of the fundamental character of Weyl metric structures for gravity.

Outlook on Weyl in the later 1920s

In the following years (1923–1925) Weyl started his extensive research programme in the representation theory of Lie groups (Hawkins 2000). After an intermezzo of intense studies in the philosophy of mathematical sciences in late 1925 and 1926 (Weyl 1927), he turned toward the new quantum mechanics. He published his book on *Group Theory and Quantum Mechanics* (Weyl 1928) and, a little later, on the general relativistic theory of the Dirac equation with a $U(1)$ version of the gauge idea. This idea had been proposed, in different contexts, by E. Schrödinger, F. London, O. Klein and V. Fock.

In the early 1920s, he started a correspondence with E. Cartan, interrupted for some years but taken up again in 1930. In a later phase of the correspondence the two mathematicians tried to find out how far they could agree on the basic principles of infinitesimal geometry in the area dominated by the ideas of general relativity. We come back to this point at the end of this paper.

## 3 Cartan

Towards an infinitesimal version of Kleinian spaces

In 1921–1922 Cartan studied the new questions arising from the theory of general relativity (GRT) for differential geometry. At that time he could already build upon a huge expertise in the theory of infinitesimal Lie groups (now Lie algebras),\(^7\) which he had collected over a period of roughly 30 years. Among others, he had classified the simple complex Lie groups in (Cartan 1894), and 20 years later the real ones (Cartan 1914). Moreover, he had brought to perfection the usage of differential forms (“Pfaffian forms”) in differential geometry (Katz 1985). In 1910 he had started to describe the differential geometry of classical motions by generalizing Darboux’s method of “trièdres mobiles” (moving frames) (Cartan 1910).\(^8\)

In the early 1920s Cartan turned towards reshaping the Kleinian programme of geometry from an infinitesimal geometric point of view. In several notes in the *Comptes rendus* he first announced his ideas of how to use infinitesimal group structures for studying the foundations of GRT. Different from Weyl and most other authors, he did not rely on the “absolute calculus” of Ricci/Levi-Civita. He rather built, as much as possible, on his calculus of differential forms. Starting from Levi-Civita’s parallel displacement like Weyl, he generalized this idea to connections with respect to various groups and devised a general method for differential geometry, which transferred Klein’s ideas of the Erlangen programme to the infinitesimal neighbourhood in a differentiable manifold. These were “glued” together by the generalized connection in such a (“deformed”) way that the whole collection did not, in general, reduce to a classical Kleinian geometry. The arising structures were later to be called *Cartan geometries* (Sharpe 1997).

**Deforming Euclidean space**

Before Cartan could “deform” Euclidean space $\mathbb{E}^3$, the latter had to be analysed in the literal sense of the word. That is, the homogeneous space $\mathbb{E}^3 \cong \text{Isom} \mathbb{E}^3 / SO(3, \mathbb{R})$ was thought to be disassembled into infinitesimal neighbourhoods bound together by a connection, such that from an integral point of view classical Euclidean geometry was recovered. In a second step, the arising structure could be deformed to a more general infinitesimal geometry.

In order to analyse Euclidean space with coordinates $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ Cartan postulated that:

- orthogonal 3-frames (“trièdres” – triads) $(e_1(x), e_2(x), e_3(x))$ be given at every point $A$;
- frames in an “infinitesimally close point” $A'$ (described in old-fashioned notation by coordinates $x + dx$) may be related back to the one in $A$ by (classical) parallel transport.

Cartan expressed that by differential 1-forms

$$\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \quad \omega_{ij} = -\omega_{ji} \quad (1 \leq i, j \leq 3).$$

In total, $\omega = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \omega_{12}, \omega_{13}, \omega_{23})$ obtained values in the infinitesimal *inhomogeneous Euclidean group* $\mathbb{E}^3 \oplus \mathfrak{so}(3)$.\(^9\)

Cartan knew that in Euclidean space the $\omega$s had to satisfy a compatibility condition

$$\omega'_i = \sum_k [\omega_i \omega_{kj}]; \quad \omega'_{ij} = \sum_k [\omega_i \omega_{kj}].$$

He called this the *structure equation* of Euclidean space (later the *Maurer-Cartan equation*). Here $\omega'_i$ denoted the exterior derivative of the differential form and square brackets the alternating product of differential forms.
Using upper and lower index notation $\omega^i$ and $\omega_i^j$ for the differential forms and Einstein’s summation convention, the equation may be rewritten as

$$\text{d}\omega^i = \omega^i_j \wedge \omega^j_k + \Omega^i_{jk},$$

Passing to “deformed Euclidean space”, Cartan allowed for the possibility that parallel transport of the triads around an infinitesimal closed curve may result in an “infinitesimal small translation” and/or an infinitesimal “rotation” (Cartan 1922d, 593f.). Then the structure equations were generalized and became, denoted in moderately modernized symbolism,

$$\text{d}\omega^i = \omega^i_k \wedge \omega^k_j + \Omega^i_j,$$

with differential 2-forms $\Omega^i_j$ (values in the translation part of the Euclidean group) and $\Omega^i_k$ (rotational part), which describe the deviation from Euclidean space. Cartan called them the torsion (2) and curvature form (3) respectively.

Cartan spaces in general
A little later, Cartan went a step further and generalized his approach of deforming Euclidean spaces to other homogeneous spaces. The underlying idea was:

One notices that what one has done for the Euclidean group, the structural equations of which \([1) in our notation, E.S.] have been deformed into \([2, 3)], can be repeated for any finite [dimensional] or infinite [dimensional] group.\(^{10}\) (Cartan 1922a, 627)

As announced in this programmatic statement, Cartan studied diverse “spaces with connections” or “non-holonomous spaces. The underlying idea was:

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He directed his interest on the infinitesimal neighbourhoods in $S$, described, in modernized symbolism, by

$$l/\gamma \cong \mathbb{I} \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{I} = \text{Lie} L, \quad \gamma = \text{Lie} G ,$$

and $l$ an infinitesimal sub-“group” (i.e., subalgebra of $l$), invariant under the adjoint action of $G$.\(^{11}\)

The “deformation” of a Kleinian geometry in $S \cong L/G$ presupposed identifications of a typical infinitesimal neighbourhood of $S$ with the infinitesimal neighbourhoods of any point of a manifold $M$ (Cartan: “continuum”) that was used to parametrize the deformed space. Cartan thought about such identification in terms of smoothly gluing homogeneous spaces $S$ to any point $p \in M$. More precisely, $l$ had to be “identified” with $T_pM$ for all points $x \in M$ in such a manner that the transition to an infinitesimally close point $p'$ could be related to the $T_{p'}M$ sufficiently smoothly. Such an identification was not always without difficulties, although in general Cartan presented the transformation group $L$ as operating on a (properly chosen) class of “reference systems” (“répères”) and could derive such an identification from the infinitesimal elements in the “translational” part of $L$.\(^{13}\) These intricacies aside, a connection 1-form $\omega$ on $M$ with values in $l$ could be used to define a connection in the infinitesimalized Kleinian geometry. Then the structural equations (2), (3) defined torsion and curvature of the respective “non-holonomous”(Cartan) space.

In particular, Cartan studied non-holonomic spaces of the:

- Poincaré group in papers on the geometrical foundation of general relativity (Cartan 1922a, Cartan 1923a, Cartan 1924b) (for torsion $\Omega = 0$ such a Cartan space reduced to a Lorentz manifold and could be used for treating Einstein’s theory in Cartan geometric terms).
- Inhomogeneous similarity group (for torsion = 0, this case reduced to Weylian manifolds).
- Conformal group (Cartan 1922b).
- Projective group (Cartan 1924c).

In the last case, Cartan introduced barycentric reference systems in infinitesimal neighbourhoods of a manifold (tangent spaces $T_pM$ (“répères attachés aux differentes point de la variété”) and considered projective transformations of them. He remarked that this is possible in “… infinitely many different ways according to the choice of the reference systems”.\(^{14}\)

That came down to considering the projective closure of all tangent space.

In this way, Cartan developed an impressive conceptual frame for studying different types of differential geometries: Riemannian, Lorentzian, Weylian, affine, conformal, projective, … All of them were not only characterized by connections and curvature but enriched with the possibility of allowing for the new phenomenon of torsion. And all of them arose from Cartan’s unified method of adapting the Kleinian viewpoint to infinitesimal geometry.

Cartan’s space problem
Cartan learned about Weyl’s problem of space from the French translation of STM (Weyl 1922a) and gave it his own twist (Cartan 1922c, Cartan 1923b). He tried to make sense of Weyl’s descriptions of how the “nature of space” ought to be characterized by “rotations” operating in infinitesimal neighbourhoods in terms of his own concepts. He interpreted Weyl’s vague description of the “nature of space” to mean a class of non-holonomic spaces with isotropy group $G \subset SL_m\mathbb{R}$ and the corresponding inhomogeneous group $L \cong G \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$.

Cartan understood Weyl’s “metrical connection” in the sense of a class of (Cartan) connections $\omega$ with regard to $G$, and $L$, where two exemplars of the class $\omega, \bar{\omega} \in [\omega]$ differed by a 1-form with values in $\gamma$ only. That was a plausible restatement of the “analytical part” of Weyl’s discussion; but Cartan passed without notice over Weyl’s distinction between “congruences” ($G$) and “similarities” ($\hat{G}$). So he suppressed the specific group extension (basically $\hat{G} = G \ltimes \mathbb{R}^n$) which led to Weyl’s scale gauge structure.

On that background Cartan reinterpreted Weyl’s “synthetic” part of the analysis and stated:

- “le premier axiome de M. H. Weyl”: In any class $[\omega]$ defining a (“metrical”) connection with values in $L$, one can find one connection with $\text{torsion} = 0$.
- “le second axiome de M. H. Weyl”. Every class $[\omega]$ gives rise to only one torsion free connection.

Cartan’s rephrased “premier axiome” had, in fact, not much to do with Weyl’s postulate of freedom but at least it was an attempt to make mathematical sense of it. Using his knowledge in classification of infinitesimal Lie groups, he could ar-
gave that the “first axiom” is satisfied not only by the generalized special orthogonal groups $SO(p, q)$ but also by the special linear group itself, the symplectic group (if $n$ is even) and the largest subgroup of $SL_n\mathbb{R}$ with an invariant $1$-dimensional subspace (Cartan 1923b, 174). If the second axiom was added, only the special orthogonal groups remained (Cartan 1923b, 192).

Cartan’s simplification avoided the subtleties and vagueness of Weyl’s “postulate of freedom”. Together with the streamlining of the analytical part of the analysis, he arrived at a slightly modified characterization of the problem of space. In this form it was transmitted to the next generation of differential geometers and entered the literature as Cartan’s problem of space (S. S. Chern, H. Freudenthal, W. Klingenberg, Kobayashi/Nomizu).

In the 1950/60s, Cartan’s space problem was translated into fibre bundle language of modern differential geometry without the use of Cartan spaces. In these terms, an $n$-frame bundle over a differentiable manifold $M$, with group reducible to $G \subset SL_n\mathbb{R}$, was called a $G$-structure on $M$. In $G$-structures, linear connections with and without torsion could be investigated. The central question of the Cartan–Weyl space problem (i.e., the Weylian space problem in Cartan’s reduced form) turned into the following. Which groups $G \subset SL_n\mathbb{R}$ have the property that every $G$-structure carries exactly one torsion free connection?

It turned out that the answer was essentially the one given by Weyl and Cartan, i.e. the generalized special orthogonal groups of any signature, with some additional other special cases (Kobayashi 1963, vol. II). From the group theoretical point of view these considerations were still closely related to Weyl’s problem of space, while the geometrical question had from the group theoretical point of view these considerations were still closely related to Weyl’s problem of space, while the geometrical question had from the group theoretical point of view these considerations were still closely related to Weyl’s problem of space, while the geometrical question had been modified twice, first by Cartan then by the differential geometers of the next generation. Only a minority of authors were still aware of the difference between Weyl’s and Cartan’s problem of space (Scheibe 1988, Laugwitz 1958). These authors insisted that it ought not to be neglected from a geometrical point of view.

Toronto talk: Erlangen, Riemann and GRT

At the International Congress of Mathematicians 1924 in Toronto, Cartan found an occasion to explain his view of differential geometry in a clear and intuitive way to a broader mathematical audience. He started from a reference to the classical problem of space in the sense of the late 19th century:

From M. F. Klein (Erlangen programme) and S. Lie one knows the important role of group theory in geometry. H. Poincaré popularized this fundamental idea among the wider scientific public […] In each geometry one attributes the properties [of figures] to the corresponding group, or fundamental group [Hauptgruppe] […] It was clear, however, that Riemann’s “Mémoire célèbre: Über die Hypothesen, welche der Geometrie zu Grunde liegen” stood in stark contrast to such a perspective.

At first look, the notion of group seems alien to the geometry of Riemannian spaces, as they do not possess the homogeneity of space with [Hauptgruppe]. In spite of this, even though a Riemannian space has no absolute homogeneity, it does, however, possess a kind of infinitesimal homogeneity; in the immediate neighbourhood it can be assimilated to a [Kleinian space]. […] Such an “assimilation”, as understood by him, stood in close connection to frames of references or, in the language of physics, to observer systems in relativity. Cartan observed:

[T]he theory of relativity faces the paradoxical task of interpreting, in a non-homogeneous universe, all the results of so many experiences by observers who believe in homogeneity of the universe. This development has partially filled the gap which separated Riemannian spaces from Euclidean space (“qui permit de combler en partie la fosse qui séparait les espace de Riemann de l’espace euclidien”) […]. (Cartan 1924a)

Thus he did not hide the important role of general relativity for posing the question of how to relate the homogeneous spaces of the classical problem of space to the inhomogeneous spaces of Riemann. But while in physics and philosophy physics the debate on the changing role of “rigid” measuring rods or even “rigid” bodies was still going on, Cartan himself had been able to “fill the gap which separated Riemannian spaces from Euclidean space” in his own work – building upon the work of Levi-Civita and his own expertise in Lie group theory and differential forms. That was similar to what Weyl had intended; but Cartan devised a quite general method for constructing finitely and globally inhomogeneous spaces from infinitesimally homogeneous ones. In the result, Cartan achieved a reconciliation of the Erlangen programme and Riemann’s differential geometry on an even higher level than Weyl had perceived.

4 Discussion Cartan – Weyl (1930)

Weyl’s Princeton talk 1929

In June 1929, Weyl visited the United States and used the occasion to make Cartan’s method known among the Princeton group of differential geometers. Veblen and T. Y. Thomas had started to study projective differential geometry from the point of view of path structures (Ritter 2011). To bring both viewpoints together, Weyl outlined Cartan’s approach of infinitesimal Kleinian geometries. He discussed, in particular, how to identify Cartan’s generalized “tangent plane”, the infinitesimal homogeneous space $I$ in the notation above, with the tangent spaces $T_pM$ (“infinitesimal neighbourhood” of $p$) of the differentiable manifold $M$. To make the Princeton view comparable with Cartan’s, one needed not only that an isomorphism $1 \rightarrow T_pM$ be given for every point $p \in M$ but also a contact condition of higher order (“semi-osculating”) (Weyl 1929, 211). In this case, a torsion free projective connection, in the sense of Cartan, was uniquely characterized by a projective path structure studied by the Princeton group (leaving another technical condition aside).

Cartan’s disagreement

Cartan was not content with Weyl’s presentation of his point of view. He protested in a letter to Weyl, written in early 1920:

Je prends connaissance de votre article recent […] paru dans le Bulletin of the Amer. Math. Society. Je ne crois pas fondée les critiques que vous adressez à ma théorie des espace à connexion
A correspondence of three letters between January and December 1930 followed.\textsuperscript{15} Cartan did not agree that an infinitesimal Kleinian space had to be linked to the tangent spaces $T_pM$ of the manifold as strictly as Weyl had demanded. He defended a much more general point of view.\textsuperscript{16} He even went so far as to admit a homogeneous space of different dimension from the base manifold.\textsuperscript{17} Thus Cartan tended toward what later would become fibre bundles over the manifold, here a projective bundle with fibres of dimension $n$ over a manifold of dimension $m$. On the other hand, he had also studied the conditions under which the integral curves of second order differential equations could be considered as geodesics of a (“normal”) projective connection (Cartan 1924c, 28ff.).

Weyl insisted even more on the necessity of a (“semi-osculating”) identification of the infinitesimal homogeneous space with the tangent spaces of the manifold, in order to get a differential geometric structure that would be truly intrinsic to $M$. He reminded his correspondent that they had discussed this question already in 1927, after a talk of E. Cartan at Bern:\textsuperscript{18}

I remember that we discussed this question already at Bern, and that I was unable to make my point of view understood by you. (Weyl to Cartan, 24 Nov 1930)

In particular, for the conformal and projective structures Weyl now saw great advantages of the studies of the Princeton group (Veblen, Eisenhart, Thomas). Apparently he came to the conclusion that they could be connected to the Cartan approach only after such a smooth (semi-osculating) identification.

Although he did not mention it in the discussion, it seems quite likely that the physical import of conformal (causal) and projective (inertial) structures for GRT played an important background role for Weyl’s insistence on the “intrinsic” study of conformal and projective structures. In 1922, Weyl had realised that inertial/projective and causal/conformal structure together determine a Weylian metric uniquely (compare with the end of Section 2). Such considerations make sense, of course, only if conformal and projective structures are understood as intrinsic to the manifold.

Trying to find a compromise

Although Cartan at first defended his more abstract point of view, he agreed that he might better have chosen a different terminology avoiding the intuitive language of a “projective tangent space”, which he applied even in the more abstract case of fibre dimension different from $\dim M$.

After Weyl had explained why he insisted on the closer identification, Cartan became more reconciliatory:

[... ] je vous accorde très volontiers. [... ] C’est un problème important et naturel de chercher comment l’espace linéaire tangent est ‘eingebettet’ dans l’espace non-holonome donné. (Cartan to Weyl, 19 Dec 1930)

At the end of the year, after the initial problems of understanding each other had been resolved, Cartan admitted that Weyl’s question was not just any kind of specification inside his more general approach. Cartan’s general view was neither withdrawn nor devalued; it later found its extension in the theory of fibre bundles. But for the more intrinsic questions of differential geometry the identification of infinitesimal Kleinian geometry with the tangent space of the base manifold has become part of the standard definition of Cartan geometry.\textsuperscript{19}

\section{In place of a résumé}

Weyl and Cartan started from quite different vantage points for the study of generalized differential geometric structures motivated by the rise of general relativity. Both put infinitesimal group structures in the centre of their considerations. In the early 1920s, Cartan had a lead over Weyl in this regard and it was exactly such geometrical considerations that led Weyl into his own research programme in Lie group representations (Hawkins 2000). After he came into contact with Einstein’s theory, Cartan immediately started to work out a general framework for how differential geometry could be linked to an infinitesimalized generalization of Klein’s Erlangen programme.

Weyl, on the other hand, started from a natural, philosophically motivated generalization of Riemannian geometry which, as he hoped, if for about two years, might be helpful for unifying gravity and electromagnetism and might help to solve the riddle of a field theoretic understanding of basic matter structures. After he began to doubt the feasibility of such an approach, he turned towards a more general conceptual-philosophical underpinning of his geometry. That led him to take up the analysis of the problem of space from the point of view of infinitesimal geometry.

Both authors agreed upon the importance of using infinitesimal group structures for a generalization of differential geometry in the early 1920s. They read each other’s work and managed to come to grips with it, even though sometimes with difficulties and with certain breaks. Still, at the end of the 1930s Weyl admitted, in an otherwise very positive and detailed review of Cartan’s recent book (Cartan 1937), the problems he had had with reading Cartan.\textsuperscript{20} But in spite of differences with regard to technical tools and emphasis of research guidelines, they came to basically agree on the way that connections in various groups could be implemented as basic conceptual structural tools in the rising “modern” differential geometry of the second third of the new century.

\section*{Notes}


3. Noether’s paper Invariante Variationsprobleme was presented 26 July 1918 to the Göttingen Academy of Science by F. Klein; the final version appeared in September 1918. Weyl could not know it in his publications (Weyl 1918a, Weyl 1918b). He referred to variational considerations of Hilbert, Lorentz, Einstein, Klein and himself. This remained so even in his later publications (Kosman-Schwarzbach 2011, Rowe 1999).

4. Weyl continued to call $\Gamma$ a “parallel transfer”, in distinction to the “metrical” transfer.

5. In this sense, the analysis of the problem of space may also be read as a belated answer to another of Einstein’s objections to accepting Weyl geometry as a conceptual basis for gravitation theory: why should there not appear a “Weyl II” who proposes to make angle measurement dependent on the local choice of units? (Einstein 1987ff., VIII, 777)


7. Here we shall switch between the historical and the present terminology without discrimination.

8. For a more detailed discussion of the following see (Nabonnand 2009).

9. The infinitesimal displacement $dx = (dx_1, dx_2, dx_3)$ from $A$ to $A'$ is described by a tangent vector $\sum \omega e_i$. The $\omega$ are differential 1-forms dual to the $e_i$ (they depend linearly on the $dx_i$). The change of orthogonal frames in $A$ to frames $e_1', e_2', e_3'$ in $A'$ is described by an infinitesimal rotation $e_i = \sum \omega^j e_j ((\omega^j_i)$ element of the Lie algebra so(3)), the entries of which not only depend linearly on $dx_i$ but also on the parameters of the rotation group (written by Cartan as $x_1, x_2, x_3$).

10. “On conçoit que ce qui a été fait pour le groupe euclidien, dont les équations de structure (1) sont déformées en (1’), peut se répéter (Cartan 1930, Cartan to Weyl, 5 Jan 1930).

11. “En tous cas le problème d’établir une correspondance ponctuelle dans ma théorie, est hors de question” (Cartan 1930, Cartan to Weyl, 5 Jan 1930).


13. Later the “metrical transfer”.

14. “… une infinité des manières different suivant le choix de répères”. Translated into much later language, Cartan hinted here at the possibility of different trivializations of the projective tangent bundle.

15. The correspondence is preserved at ETH Zürich, Handschriften- abteilung (Cartan 1930). I thank P. Nabonnand for giving me access to a transcription.

16. “En tous cas le problème d’établir une correspondance ponctuelle entre l’espace à connexion projective et l’espace projectif tangent ne se pose ici pour moi: c’est un problème intéressant mais qui, dans ma théorie, est hors de question” (Cartan 1930, Cartan to Weyl, 5 Jan 1930).

17. “On pourrait même généraliser la géométrie différentielle projective à $n$ dimensions sur un continuum à $m \neq n$ dimension […]” (Cartan to Weyl, 5 Jan 1930).

18. (Cartan 1927).


20. “Does the reason lie only in the great French geometric tradition on which Cartan draws, and the style and contents of which he takes more or less for granted as a common ground for all geometers, while we, born and educated in other countries, do not share it?”(Weyl 1938, 595)

Bibliography


Chapter 5 studies Cartan geometries which generalize homogenous spaces in the same way that Riemannian geometry generalizes Euclidean geometry. One of the beautiful facets of Cartan Geometries is that curvature appears as an exact local measurement of "broken symmetry". The last three chapters study three examples: Riemannian geometry, conformal geometry and projective geometry. Some of the topics studied include: - a complete proof of the Lie group - Lie algebra correspondence - a classification of the Cartan space forms - a classification of submanifolds in conformal geometry - Car... Whitney, Chevalley, Steenrod, Cartan-Eilenberg, and others have subsequently refined and generalized this definition to apply to manifolds in the large which may be differentiable, analytic, or complex analytic, and to the various types of fibre bundles which may be constructed over them. The resulting definitions are a basic tool in modern geometrical researches (in particular, for the geometry of paths, as noted above).Â Riemannian geometry was already involved in the relativistic theory of gravita-tion. Einstein, Weyl, and others were searching for a more inclusive geometric structure which would yield a field theory unifying gravi-tation and electromagnetism.Â Veblen's own early in-terest in the role of ordinal numbers in logic was subsequently taken up by his