

Local Inertial Frames and Riemann Normal Coordinates

What Haktle calls a "Local Inertial Frame" (LIF) is actually a coordinate system in the neighborhood of a point with special properties. See p. 140. The construction of these coordinates does involve a special frame at one point, but the coordinate system covers a finite region about that point. Therefore I prefer to refer to the coordinates as "Riemann Normal Coordinates" (RNC for short), which is their proper name, rather than L.I.F.

The idea of RNC is that since a small region of space-time around a point (event) P is approximately flat, it should be possible to introduce special coordinates in a neighborhood of P that look as close as possible to the usual $(txyz)$ ~~coordinates~~ coordinates of special relativity. In these notes we'll write $\bar{x}^\mu$ for these coordinates (the RNC), while letting x^μ (without the overbar) represent an arbitrary system of coordinates. In particular, it will turn out that if we Taylor expand the metric $\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(\bar{x})$ in RNC about the point P , we get

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(P) &= \eta_{\mu\nu} \\ \frac{\partial \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}}{\partial \bar{x}^\alpha}(P) &= 0, \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

so that

(2)

$$\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(x) = \eta_{\mu\nu} + 0 + O(\bar{x}^\mu - \bar{x}_P^\mu)^2. \quad (2)$$

In fact, we'll arrange things so that $\bar{x}_P^\mu$ (the RNC of point P itself) is 0, so the last term is just $O(\bar{x}^\mu)^2$. The construction of RNC depends on the choice of P ; different P 's give different RNC's.

Let $\underline{e}_\mu(P) = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \right|_P$ be the coordinate basis vectors (in coordinates x^μ), evaluated at P . These satisfy

$$\underline{e}_\mu(P) \cdot \underline{e}_\nu(P) = g_{\mu\nu}(P), \quad (3)$$

where $g_{\mu\nu}$ is the metric tensor in the x^μ coordinates.

By forming linear combinations of these basis vectors we can get an orthonormal frame at P , call it $\underline{e}_{\hat{\mu}}(P)$.

Let the linear combinations be specified by a matrix $E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\nu}$,

$$\underline{e}_{\hat{\mu}}(P) = E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\nu} \underline{e}_{\nu}(P) \quad (4).$$

The matrix $E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\nu}$ is not a function of x , it only operates at the one point P . To determine $E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\nu}$ we require

$$\underline{e}_{\hat{\mu}}(P) \cdot \underline{e}_{\hat{\nu}}(P) = \eta_{\mu\nu} = E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\alpha} g_{\alpha\beta}(P) E_{\hat{\nu}}^{\beta}. \quad (5)$$

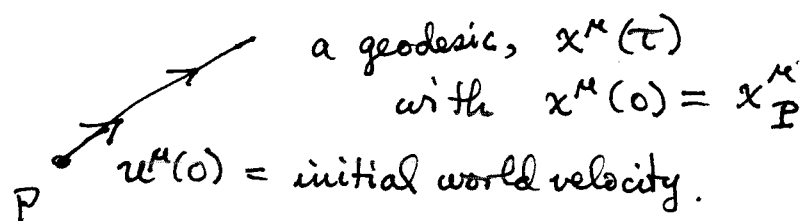
In matrix language, this is

$$\eta = E g E^T. \quad (6)$$

To find E we first diagonalize the symmetric matrix $g_{\mu\nu}(P)$ with an orthogonal matrix, and then multiply this by a scaling transformation (a diagonal matrix with positive diagonal elements) that reduce the eigenvalues to ± 1 . The result is $\eta = \text{diag}(-1, +1, +1, +1)$.

So $E_{\mu}^{\hat{\nu}}$ becomes known; it is a matrix of numbers.

Next, we solve the geodesic equations for geodesics that start at P , with initial world velocity $u^{\mu}(0)$. We assume $\tau=0$ at P , so $u^{\mu}(0)$ means $u^{\mu}(P)$. We do this in the original coordinates x^{μ} .



For simplicity we'll just talk about time-like geodesics, but we can also construct space-like and light-like geodesics out of P as well.

It's easy to expand the solution $x^{\mu}(\tau)$ out to second order in τ . Since the equation of motion is

$$\frac{d^2 x^{\mu}}{d\tau^2} = -\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu}(x) \frac{dx^{\alpha}}{d\tau} \frac{dx^{\beta}}{d\tau}, \quad (7)$$

we have

$$x^{\mu}(0) = x_P^{\mu}, \quad \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\tau}(0) = u^{\mu}(0), \quad (8a)$$

and

$$\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2}(0) = -\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu(0) u^\alpha(0) u^\beta(0). \quad (8b).$$

So, the Taylor series of the geodesic is

$$x^\mu(\tau) = x^\mu(P) + \tau u^\mu(0) - \frac{\tau^2}{2} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu(0) u^\alpha(0) u^\beta(0) + O(\tau^3) \quad (9)$$

Now let's find the components of the initial world velocity in terms of the ON frame $\underline{e}_{\hat{\mu}}(P)$. The relation is

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{u}(0) &= u^{\hat{\mu}}(0) \underline{e}_{\hat{\mu}}(P) = u^\nu(0) \underline{e}_{\hat{\nu}}(P) \\ &= u^{\hat{\mu}}(0) E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\hat{\nu}} \underline{e}_{\hat{\nu}}(P), \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

or,

$$u^\nu(0) = E_{\hat{\mu}}^{\hat{\nu}} u^{\hat{\mu}}(0). \quad (11)$$

Plugging this into (9) gives

$$\begin{aligned} x^\mu(\tau) &= x^\mu(P) + \tau E_{\hat{\alpha}}^{\hat{\mu}} u^{\hat{\alpha}}(0) \cancel{\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu(0)} \\ &\quad - \frac{\tau^2}{2} \Gamma_{\gamma\delta}^\mu E_{\hat{\alpha}}^{\hat{\gamma}} E_{\hat{\beta}}^{\hat{\delta}} u^{\hat{\alpha}}(0) u^{\hat{\beta}}(0) \\ &\quad + \dots \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where we've juggled indices somewhat.

Now we define the RNC by

$$\bar{x}^\alpha = u^{\hat{\alpha}}(0)\tau, \quad (13)$$

so that

$$x^\mu = x^\mu_P + E_{\hat{\alpha}}{}^\mu \bar{x}^\alpha - \frac{1}{2} \Gamma_{\gamma\delta}{}^\mu(0) E_{\hat{\alpha}}{}^\gamma E_{\hat{\beta}}{}^\delta \bar{x}^\alpha \bar{x}^\beta + \mathcal{O}(\bar{x}^3) \quad (14).$$

This is an explicit formula connecting the original coordinates x^μ and the RNC $\bar{x}^\mu$, carried to 2nd order in the RNC.

It is an exercise to show that under this coordinate transformation, the metric $\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}(\bar{x})$ in RNC has the form shown in (2).

Equation (13) is exact (not a Taylor series) because it is the definition of the RNC. It means that to find the RNC of a point with coordinates x^μ , call it Q, you first find the geodesic connecting P to Q, you then take the initial world velocity of this geodesic $u^\mu(0)$, then you convert it to the ON basis using (11) to get $u^{\hat{\mu}}(0)$, then $\bar{x}^\mu$ is defined by (13), where τ is the amount of proper time between P and Q. The Taylor series (14) expressed this process through $\mathcal{O}(\tau^2)$.

(6)

This means that the equation of a geodesic starting at P in RNC is

$$\frac{d^2 \bar{x}^\alpha}{d\tau^2} = 0. \quad (15)$$

But this must equal $-\bar{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^\alpha(\bar{x}) \frac{d\bar{x}^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{d\bar{x}^\nu}{d\tau}$; so along the geodesic, where

$$\frac{d\bar{x}^\mu}{d\tau} = u^{\hat{\mu}}(0) = \text{const}, \quad (16)$$

we have

$$\bar{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^\alpha(\bar{x}(\tau)) u^{\hat{\mu}}(0) u^{\hat{\nu}}(0) = 0. \quad (17)$$

This does not imply that $\bar{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^\alpha(\bar{x}(\tau)) = 0$, only that one component vanishes. However, at the special point $\bar{x} = 0$, that is, at P itself, $\bar{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^\alpha = 0$, because (17) applies there for all choices of initial $u^{\hat{\mu}}(0)$. Thus we obtain

$$\bar{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^\alpha(0) = 0. \quad (18).$$

Now, $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha$ (in any coordinates) are proportional to the derivatives of $g_{\mu\nu}$:

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \left(\frac{\partial g_{\beta\mu}}{\partial x^\nu} + \frac{\partial g_{\beta\nu}}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\beta} \right), \quad (19).$$

so if the derivatives of $g_{\mu\nu}$ vanish at a point, then so does $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha$. The converse is also true; if $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\alpha$ vanishes

at a point, then so does $\frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\alpha}$.

Therefore, in RNC at point P ($\bar{x}=0$), we have

$$\frac{\partial \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}}{\partial \bar{x}^\alpha}(P) = 0.$$

This proves the second part of (i).