

I. Differential manifolds

In GR the space-time is identified with a differential manifold. Let us introduce various concepts that will lead us to define a differential manifold.

* **Topological space**: It is a set of points (events), along with a set of neighbourhoods for each point, satisfying a set of axioms relating points and neighbourhoods. It is the most general type of mathematical space that allows for definition of limits, continuity and connectedness.

* **Manifold M** : It is the n -dimensional generalisation of a curve (1-manifold) or a surface (2-manifold). More precisely, a manifold is a topological space that "locally resembles \mathbb{R}^n " where n is the dimension of the manifold.

Q: What does it mean that "locally resembles \mathbb{R}^n "?

A: We have to introduce more concepts to discuss this.

* **Open n -ball of radius r in \mathbb{R}^n** : Set of points (events) in the manifold around a point $x_0^\mu = (x_0^1, \dots, x_0^n)$ for which

$$|x - x_0| = \sqrt{\sum_{\mu=1}^n (x^\mu - x_0^\mu)^2} < r \quad [\mu = 1, \dots, n]$$

* **Open set $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$** : For each point belonging to U there is an open n -ball around it which is fully contained in U .

* **Coordinate map**: let us consider a manifold \mathcal{M} and a submanifold $O \subset \mathcal{M}$. A coordinate map is then a one-to-one (injective) application (map)

$$\psi : O \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$p \in O \longrightarrow x_p^\mu \quad \text{with } \mu = 1, \dots, n$$

* **Coordinate system (chart)**: let us consider the subset $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ corresponding to the image of $O \subset \mathcal{M}$, namely,

$$U = \psi(O) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

If $U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is an open set then we say that the pair

$(O, \psi) \equiv$ coordinate system or chart

and that

$O \subset \mathcal{M} \equiv$ open submanifold of \mathcal{M}

* Properties of the coordinate map ψ :

- Bijective : Then it is invertible

$$I = \psi^{-1} \circ \psi : O \subset \mathcal{M} \xrightarrow{\psi} U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{\psi^{-1}} O \subset \mathcal{M}$$

- Coordinate representation :

$$\psi : p \in O \rightarrow \underbrace{x_p^{\mathcal{M}}}_{\text{coordinates}} \in U \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

"Coordinates of point (event) p "

- A point $p \in \mathcal{M}$ may have different coordinates on different charts.

* Atlas C^∞ : It is a set of charts $\{(O_\alpha, \psi_\alpha)\}$ satisfying the two conditions

i) Any $p \in \mathcal{M}$ is at least in a chart O_α
 $\Rightarrow \{O_\alpha\}$ fully covers \mathcal{M}

ii) At the intersection $O_\alpha \cap O_\beta \neq \emptyset$, the transition function

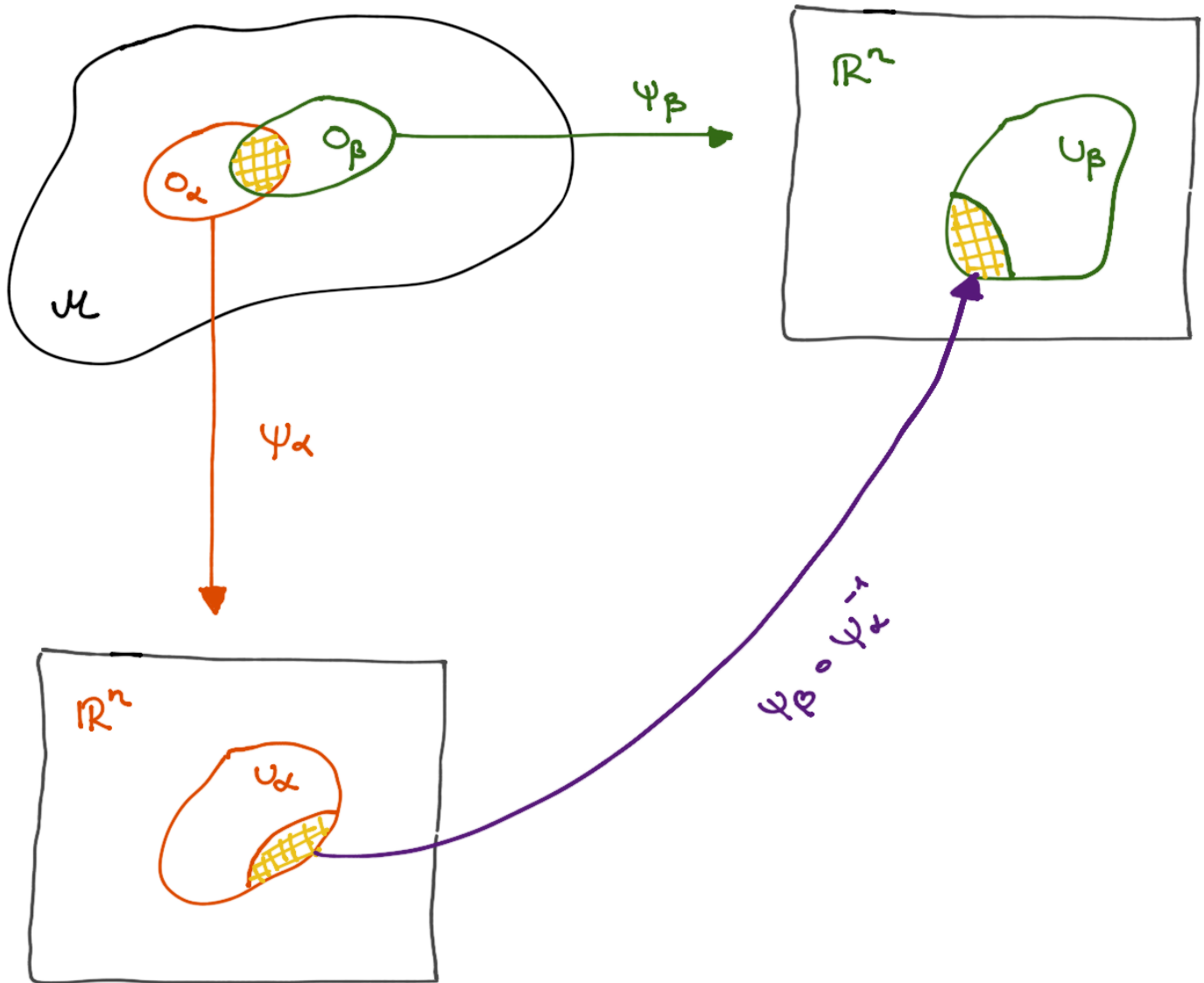
$$\psi_\alpha(O_\alpha \cap O_\beta) \subset U_\alpha \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \psi_\beta(O_\alpha \cap O_\beta) \subset U_\beta \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

is C^∞ .

* Maximal atlas C^∞ : It is an atlas C^∞ that contains all possible coordinate systems.

\Rightarrow Differential manifold: It is a manifold \mathcal{M} endowed with a maximal atlas C^∞ .

* Scheme of coordinate maps:



* Examples :

- \mathbb{R}^n
- S^n
- Group manifolds : $G = e$
- etc

\rightarrow Coordinates on the manifold

$\theta^a t_a$

$\hookrightarrow a = 1, \dots, \underbrace{\dim(G)}_n$

$n = \dim(G)$

II. Vectors and dual vectors on \mathcal{M}

In order to define objects in \mathcal{M} we will have to first introduce the notion of a function on \mathcal{M}

$$f : \mathcal{M} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$p \in \mathcal{M} \longrightarrow f(p) \in \mathbb{R}$$

* **Smooth $f(p)$** : A function is called smooth (or C^∞) if the application

$$f \circ \psi^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is C^∞ for all the coordinate systems (O, ψ)

$\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M}) \equiv$ Set of smooth functions on \mathcal{M}

* **Curve γ passing through $p \in \mathcal{M}$** : It is defined as an application from an interval to \mathcal{M}

$$\gamma : (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$$

$$\lambda \in (a, b) \longrightarrow \gamma(\lambda)$$

For convenience we will choose that the interval contains $\lambda = 0$ and will denote p the point at $\lambda = 0$, namely, $p = \gamma(0)$

* Derivative of a function f : It is a differential operator defined along a curve $\gamma \subset M$

$$f \circ \gamma : (a, b) \subset \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\lambda \in (a, b) \longrightarrow (f \circ \gamma)(\lambda)$$

so that the derivative is defined on a point p as

$$\left. \frac{df}{d\lambda} \right|_p \equiv \left. \frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{d\lambda} \right|_{\lambda=0}$$

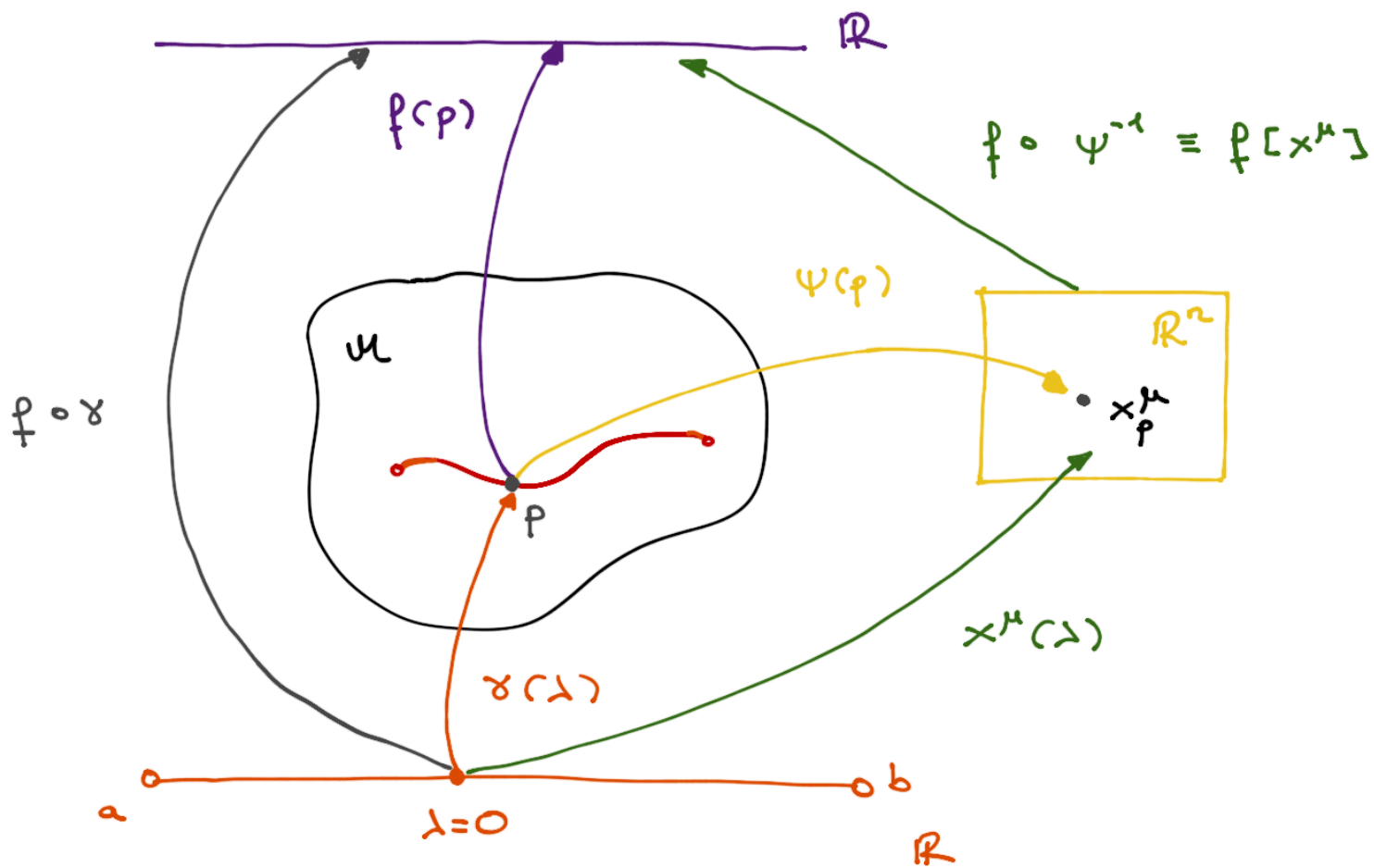
An alternative (more intuitive) way of thinking about this is

$$f \circ \gamma = \underbrace{f \circ \psi^{-1}}_{\text{"f-function"}} \circ \underbrace{\psi \circ \gamma}_{x^M(\lambda)} \equiv f[x^M(\lambda)]$$

so that

$$\frac{df}{d\lambda} \Big|_p \equiv \frac{d(f \circ \gamma)}{d\lambda} \Big|_{\lambda=0} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \Big|_{\lambda=0}$$

* Scheme :



Then :

$$\frac{df}{d\lambda} = \left[\frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}}_{\partial_\mu} \right] f \quad \cong \quad \boxed{\frac{d}{d\lambda} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \underbrace{\partial_\mu}_{\text{tangent direction to the curve } \gamma}}$$

Denoting the tangent direction to the curve

$$V^\mu \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda}$$

one arrives at the concept of **vector fields** as differential operator acting on $\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M})$

$$V \equiv V^\mu \partial_\mu$$

Ex: $V^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow V = \partial_0$

$\Rightarrow \partial_\mu \equiv$ tangent vector to the direction x^μ

* **Tangent space** $T_p(\mathcal{M})$: It is the vector space containing all the curves on \mathcal{M} passing through $p \in \mathcal{M}$.

Then:

- $(V + W)(f) = V(f) + W(f) \quad \forall V, W \in T_p(\mathcal{M}), f \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M})$
- $(\alpha V)(f) = \alpha V(f) \quad \forall V \in T_p(\mathcal{M}), \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

→ A tangent vector $V = V^\mu \partial_\mu$ satisfies :

i) Linearity : $V(\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha V(f) + \beta V(g)$

ii) Leibniz rule : $V(fg) = V(f)g + fV(g)$

for $f, g \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{M})$.

• Coordinate basis on $T_p(\mathcal{M})$: $\{\partial_\mu\} \equiv \{\hat{e}_\mu = \partial_\mu\}$

⇓
 $\text{Dim}[T_p(\mathcal{M})] = n$

⇒ In a coordinate basis : $V = V^\mu \partial_\mu$
 $V(f) = V^\mu \partial_\mu f$

• A tangent space $T_p(\mathcal{M})$ can be defined at any $p \in \mathcal{M}$.

• Choosing a V^μ at each $T_p(\mathcal{M}) \Rightarrow$ Vector field on \mathcal{M} .

* Lie bracket : It is defined as the commutator of two vector fields

$$\begin{aligned} [u, v](f) &= u^\rho \partial_\rho (v^\lambda \partial_\lambda f) - v^\rho \partial_\rho (u^\lambda \partial_\lambda f) \\ &= [u^\rho \partial_\rho v^\lambda - v^\rho \partial_\rho u^\lambda] \partial_\lambda f \end{aligned}$$

$$= [u, v]^{\lambda} \partial_{\lambda} f$$

with

$$[u, v]^{\lambda} = u^{\rho} \partial_{\rho} v^{\lambda} - v^{\rho} \partial_{\rho} u^{\lambda} \quad \text{"Lie bracket"}$$

The Lie bracket satisfies

- $[u, v] = -[v, u]$ (antisymmetry)
- $[u, [v, w]] + [w, [u, v]] + [v, [w, u]] = 0$ (Jacobi)
- $[\alpha u + \beta v, w] = \alpha [u, w] + \beta [v, w]$ (bilinear)

so it defines a Lie algebra.

* Cotangent (dual) space $T_p^*(\mathcal{M})$: It is a vector space dual to the tangent space $T_p(\mathcal{M})$. It consists of applications called "dual vectors"

$$\begin{aligned} \omega : T_p(\mathcal{M}) &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ v &\rightarrow \omega(v) \end{aligned}$$

such that

$$i) (\omega + \eta)(v) = \omega(v) + \eta(v) \quad ii) (\alpha \omega)(v) = \alpha \omega(v)$$

with $\omega, \eta \in T_p^*(\mathcal{M})$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

• Dual coordinate basis on $T_p^*(\mathcal{M})$: $\{ \hat{\theta}^\mu = dx^\mu \}$

such that: $\hat{\theta}^\mu(\hat{e}_\nu) = \delta_\nu^\mu$ $\text{Dim}[T_p^*(\mathcal{M})] = n$

Any dual vector can then be expanded as

$$\omega = \omega_\mu \hat{\theta}^\mu = \omega_\mu dx^\mu$$

and then one has that

$$\omega(V) = \omega_\rho V^\rho$$

Ex 1: $dx^\mu = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} dx^\nu = \delta_\nu^\mu dx^\nu = dx^\mu \Rightarrow \omega_\nu = \delta_\nu^\mu$

Ex 2: $df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x^\mu} dx^\mu \Rightarrow \omega_\mu = \partial_\mu f \Rightarrow$ Gradient of f is a dual vector

NOTE: We could have alternatively started by introducing $T_p^*(\mathcal{M})$ and then

$$V: T_p^*(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\omega \rightarrow \omega(V) \equiv V(\omega) = V^\rho \omega_\rho$$

Then it follows that $(T_p^*(\mathcal{M}))^* = T_p(\mathcal{M})$

III. Tensors on \mathcal{M}

Tensor fields are well-defined objects living on the manifold \mathcal{M} .

* **Mixed tensor of type (k, l)** : It is an application

$$T : \underbrace{T_p^* \times \dots \times T_p^*}_k\text{-times} \times \underbrace{T_p \times \dots \times T_p}_l\text{-times} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k, V_1, \dots, V_l) \rightarrow T(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k, V_1, \dots, V_l)$$

so it has a multilinear action on k -copies of $T_p^*(\mathcal{M})$ and l copies of $T_p(\mathcal{M})$.

Using a coordinate basis $\{\partial_\mu, dx^\mu\}$ to describe a tensor of type (k, l) one has

$$T = T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k} \nu_1 \dots \nu_l \partial_{\mu_1} \otimes \dots \otimes \partial_{\mu_k} \otimes dx^{\nu_1} \otimes \dots \otimes dx^{\nu_l}$$

Important: The properties of T do not depend on the choice of the coordinate basis. However, the tensor components $T^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_k} \nu_1 \dots \nu_l$ do depend on the choice of coordinate basis.

* Tensors and changes of coordinate basis :

Let us consider two different choices of coordinate basis

$$\text{Basis : } \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu}, dx^\mu \right\} \Rightarrow T = T^{\mu \dots \nu \dots} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \otimes \dots \otimes dx^\nu \otimes \dots$$

$$\text{Basis}' : \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\mu}, dx'^\mu \right\} \Rightarrow T = T'^{\mu \dots \nu \dots} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\mu} \otimes \dots \otimes dx'^\nu \otimes \dots$$

Important: The basis elements are related by

$$dx^\nu = \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\rho} dx'^\rho \quad ; \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} = \frac{\partial x'^\lambda}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\lambda}$$

It then follows that

$$\begin{aligned} T &= T^{\mu \dots \nu \dots} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} \otimes \dots \otimes dx^\nu \otimes \dots \\ &= T^{\mu \dots \nu \dots} \frac{\partial x'^\lambda}{\partial x^\mu} \dots \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\rho} \dots \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\lambda} \otimes \dots \otimes dx'^\rho \otimes \dots \\ &= T'^{\lambda \dots \rho \dots} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'^\lambda} \otimes \dots \otimes dx'^\rho \otimes \dots \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$T'^{\lambda \dots \rho \dots}(x') = \frac{\partial x'^\lambda}{\partial x^\mu} \dots \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x'^\rho} T^{\mu \dots \nu \dots}(x)$$

IV. Metric tensor on \mathcal{M}

The metric is a tensor of type $(0, 2)$

$$g = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \otimes dx^\nu$$

that plays a central role in the geometric description of space-time.

* **Scalar product**: Being an application it allows as to define the product of two vectors

$$g : T_p \times T_p \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$(v, w) \longrightarrow g(v, w) = g_{\mu\nu} v^\mu w^\nu$$

$$\equiv v \cdot w$$

↳ scalar product

and also the **norm** of a vector u^μ

$$\|u\|^2 = g(u, u) = g_{\mu\nu} u^\mu u^\nu$$

* Line element (distance) on \mathcal{M} : A particularly important vector is

$$ds = dx^\mu \hat{e}_\mu \Rightarrow \|ds\|^2 \equiv ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

which allows us to define the distance between two points (events) separated by dx^μ . More concretely

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

Line element on a general space-time \mathcal{M}

NOTE: Minkowski space-time (Special Relativity) is recovered if setting $g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}$.

Comments:

- The definition of variety does NOT need of a metric.
- Different metrics $g, \tilde{g}, \text{etc.}$ can be assigned to the same variety

- Only when specifying a metric on \mathcal{M} we endow it with a "shape", curvature, etc. Different metrics may give rise to a different curvature.

* Some properties:

- Non-singular : $\det(g_{\mu\nu}) \neq 0$

- Inverse : $(g^{-1})^{\mu\nu} \equiv g^{\mu\nu}$ so that $g^{\mu\nu} g_{\nu\rho} = \delta_{\rho}^{\mu}$
 $\Rightarrow \det(g^{\mu\nu}) = \frac{1}{\det(g_{\mu\nu})}$

- Symmetry : $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$; $g^{\mu\nu} = g^{\nu\mu}$

[distance from A to B = distance from B to A]

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{V \cdot W} = \underbrace{W \cdot V} \quad \forall V, W \in T_p(\mathcal{M})$$

"angle" between V and W "angle" between W and V

* Types of vectors : Let us consider a vector $V \in T_p(\mathcal{M})$

- $\|V\|^2 < 0$: Time-like
- $\|V\|^2 = 0$: Null
- $\|V\|^2 > 0$: Space-like

* Vector \leftrightarrow Dual vector correspondence : The metric tensor allows us to establish a correspondence between tensors of (κ, ℓ) -type and (ℓ, κ) -type.

For example

$$V^\mu \rightarrow V_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} V^\nu$$

$$V_\mu \rightarrow V^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} V_\nu$$

so that

$$V^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} V_\nu = \underbrace{g^{\mu\nu} g_{\nu\rho}}_{\delta^\mu_\rho} V^\rho = V^\mu \quad [\text{consistency}]$$

Then, for a (κ, ℓ) -tensor, one has

$$\underbrace{T_{\mu_1 \dots \mu_\kappa}^{\nu_1 \dots \nu_\ell}}_{(\ell, \kappa)\text{-tensor}} = g_{\mu_1 \rho_1} \dots g_{\mu_\kappa \rho_\kappa} g^{\nu_1 \sigma_1} \dots g^{\nu_\ell \sigma_\ell} \underbrace{T_{\rho_1 \dots \rho_\kappa}^{\sigma_1 \dots \sigma_\ell}}_{(\kappa, \ell)\text{-tensor}}$$

Important: The metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$ and its inverse $g^{\mu\nu}$ allow us to lower and raise any number of indices of a tensor $T_{\mu \dots}^{\nu \dots}$.

v. Tensor densities on \mathcal{M}

In the theory of Special Relativity there are tensors, like η_{ab} and ϵ_{abcd} , which are invariant due to Lorentz transformations being $\Lambda \in O(1,3)$ and "proper" so that $|\Lambda|=1$.

However, under a change of coordinate basis, one has

$$\underbrace{g_{\mu\nu}'}_{(*)} = \frac{\partial x^\rho}{\partial x'^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\sigma}{\partial x'^\nu} g_{\rho\sigma} \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right| = \left| \frac{\partial x}{\partial x'} \right|^{-1} \neq 0$$

we assume $\left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right| > 0$

which translates into the existence of tensor densities transforming with some power of $\left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right|$

$$T^{\mu\nu}{}_\sigma = \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right|^w \frac{\partial x'^\mu}{\partial x^\rho} \frac{\partial x^\sigma}{\partial x'^\nu} T^{\rho\sigma}$$

[$w \equiv$ "weight"]

$$\text{Ex. 1: } |g'| = \left| \frac{\partial x}{\partial x'} \right|^2 |g| \quad [\text{from } (*)]$$

[$w = -2$]

$$\text{Ex. 2: } \epsilon^{\lambda\epsilon\psi\tau} \frac{\partial x'^\lambda}{\partial x^\lambda} \frac{\partial x'^\epsilon}{\partial x^\epsilon} \frac{\partial x'^\psi}{\partial x^\psi} \frac{\partial x'^\tau}{\partial x^\tau} = \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right| \epsilon^{\lambda\epsilon\psi\tau}$$

definition of det

[$w = -1$]

$$\text{Ex. 3: } d^4x' = \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right| d^4x \Rightarrow \text{Fundamental theorem of integral calculus}$$

[$w = 1$]

↳ volume element under a change of coordinate basis

Starting from tensor densities one can construct regular tensors

$$\bullet \sqrt{|g'|} d^4 x' = \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial x}{\partial x'} \right| \left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right|}_{1} \sqrt{|g|} d^4 x = \sqrt{|g|} d^4 x$$

$\Rightarrow \sqrt{|g|} d^4 x \equiv$ Volume tensor (no indices) invariant under a change of coordinate basis

$$\bullet \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g'|}} \varepsilon'^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma} = \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial x'}{\partial x} \right| \left| \frac{\partial x}{\partial x'} \right|}_{1} \frac{\partial x'^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \frac{\partial x'^{\nu}}{\partial x^{\epsilon}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\psi}} \frac{\partial x'^{\sigma}}{\partial x^{\tau}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \varepsilon^{\lambda\epsilon\psi\tau}$$

$$= \frac{\partial x'^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \frac{\partial x'^{\nu}}{\partial x^{\epsilon}} \frac{\partial x'^{\rho}}{\partial x^{\psi}} \frac{\partial x'^{\sigma}}{\partial x^{\tau}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \varepsilon^{\lambda\epsilon\psi\tau}$$

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g'|}} \varepsilon'^{\mu\nu\rho\sigma}$ is a tensor and not a density

For a tensor density $\mathcal{T}'^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_m}$ of weight w one finds

$$\left(\sqrt{|g'|} \right)^w \mathcal{T}'^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_m} = \left(\frac{\partial x'^{\mu_1}}{\partial x^{\lambda_1}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial x'^{\mu_n}}{\partial x^{\lambda_n}} \right) \left(\frac{\partial x^{\sigma_1}}{\partial x'^{\nu_1}} \right) \dots \left(\frac{\partial x^{\sigma_m}}{\partial x'^{\nu_m}} \right) \left(\sqrt{|g|} \right)^w \mathcal{T}^{\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n}_{\sigma_1 \dots \sigma_m}$$

$\Rightarrow \left(\sqrt{|g'|} \right)^w \mathcal{T}'^{\mu_1 \dots \mu_n}_{\nu_1 \dots \nu_m}$ is a tensor and not a density

v. Locally Inertial Frames (LIF)

Manifold: a manifold is a topological space that "locally resembles \mathbb{R}^n " where n is the dimension of the manifold.

This statement can now be made more precise ...

Since the metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric, it can always be "locally" (point by point) diagonalised and brought into a canonical form η_{ab} . This is

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x) = e_{\mu}^a(x) e_{\nu}^b(x) \eta_{ab}$$

[at each point x]

with

$$\eta_{ab} = \text{diag}(-1, \dots, -1, 1, \dots, 1)$$

Signature: It is defined as the number of $-$ and $+$ signs.

$\approx >$ Our space-time has signature $(1, 3)$

Metrics are classified according to their signature:

- $\eta_{ab} = \delta_{ab} \Rightarrow$ Riemannian or Euclidean
- If η_{ab} contains one and only one $-$ sign
 \Rightarrow Pseudo-Riemannian or Lorentzian
[Minkowski space-time]

Then

$$\text{sign} [\det(g_{\mu\nu})] = (-1)^s$$

of $-$ signs in the signature
[Minkowski: $s=1$]

* **LIF**: The local change of coordinate basis is encoded into the "frames" or "tetrads" or "vierbein"

$$e_{\mu}^a(x), \quad e_a^{\mu}(x)$$

These fields specify a Local Inertial Frame (LIF) coordinate basis

$$\hat{\theta}^a = e_{\mu}^a(x) dx^{\mu}, \quad dx^{\mu} = e_a^{\mu}(x) \hat{\theta}^a$$

Important: $e_{\mu}^a(x)$ and $e_a^{\mu}(x)$ depend on the point x !!

so that

$$g^{\mu\nu} e_{\mu}^a e_{\nu}^b = \eta^{ab} \quad , \quad \eta^{ab} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = g^{\mu\nu}$$
$$g_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = \eta_{ab} \quad , \quad \eta_{ab} e_{\mu}^a e_{\nu}^b = g_{\mu\nu}$$

As a result one has that

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^{\mu} dx^{\nu} = \underbrace{g_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu}}_{\eta_{ab}} \hat{\theta}^a \hat{\theta}^b = \eta_{ab} \hat{\theta}^a \hat{\theta}^b$$

Message : There is a coordinate basis change bringing the geometry locally flat. Equivalently, there is a LIF

$$\hat{\theta}^a = e_{\mu}^a(x) dx^{\mu}$$

in which the metric is the Minkowski η_{ab} metric.

Q : Is there a general coordinate transformation (g.c.t.)

$$\xi^a = \zeta^a(x)$$

flattening the geometry ?

A1: Locally YES

A2: Globally NO [otherwise: geometry = coordinate artefact]

Justification: If such a g.c.t $\zeta^a = \zeta^a(x)$ existed globally then

$$\underbrace{\hat{\Theta}^a}_{d\zeta^a} = e_{\mu}^a dx^{\mu} \Rightarrow e_{\mu}^a(x) = \frac{\partial \zeta^a}{\partial x^{\mu}}$$

Applying Schwarz theorem

$$\frac{\partial^2 \zeta^a}{\partial x^{\nu} \partial x^{\mu}} = \frac{\partial^2 \zeta^a}{\partial x^{\mu} \partial x^{\nu}} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial e_{\mu}^a}{\partial x^{\nu}} = \frac{\partial e_{\nu}^a}{\partial x^{\mu}}$$

which is not true for a general geometry at any x .

* Local form of $g_{\mu\nu}$: It is not possible to find a global LIF, but at each $p \in \mathcal{U}$, it is possible to find local coordinates ζ^a such that

$$g_{\mu\nu}(\zeta) = \eta_{\mu\nu} + O(\zeta^2)$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_{\mu\nu}(p) &= \eta_{\mu\nu} \\
 \partial_\rho g_{\mu\nu}(p) &= 0 \\
 \partial_\rho \partial_\sigma g_{\mu\nu}(p) &\neq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow The metric differs from Minkowski only at quadratic order when using these local coordinates ξ^a .

* **Local Lorentz transformations**: Let us recall that frame fields $e_\mu^a(x)$ are defined by the relation

$$g_{\mu\nu}(x) = e_\mu^a(x) e_\nu^b(x) \eta_{ab}$$

Then it is easy to see that **local redefinition** of the frame fields of the form

$$e_\mu^a(x) \rightarrow \tilde{e}_\mu^a(x) = \underbrace{\Lambda^a_c(x)}_{\substack{\Lambda^a_c(x) \in \text{SO}(1,3) \\ \hookrightarrow \text{Local!!}}} e_\mu^c(x)$$

yields the same metric

$$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = \tilde{e}_\mu^a \tilde{e}_\nu^b \eta_{ab} = \underbrace{\Lambda^a_c \Lambda^b_d \eta_{ab}}_{\eta_{cd}} e_\mu^c e_\nu^d = g_{\mu\nu}$$

Important : There is a local (gauge) ambiguity when defining $e_{\mu}^a(x)$:

$$\Lambda^a_b(x) = e^{\frac{1}{2} \Theta^{cd}(x) [M_{cd}]^a_b}$$

with $\Theta^{cd}(x) = -\Theta^{dc}(x)$ being 6 independent functions $\approx >$ 6 gauge fields $\underbrace{\omega_{\mu}^{cd}(x)}_{\text{spin connection}}$ to define a covariant derivative !!

Comment : This is a gauge theory approach to Gravity. We will not develop it any further here. Instead, we will move to a more geometrical approach.