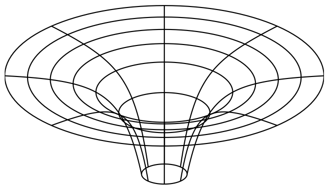


Phys415

General Relativity

Lecture Notes

Contents

0 Physical Overview of General Relativity

In General Relativity, gravity is no longer a "force", but an effect of the *curvature of spacetime.*

> *Space tells matter how to move;*
> *Matter tells space how to curve.*
> — Misner, Thorne and Wheeler

$$
\begin{array}{ccccc}
\text{Newtonian Gravity} & & \text{Special Relativity} & & \text{Quantum Mechanics} \\
G & & c & & \hbar \\
& \diagdown \quad \diagup & & \diagdown \quad \diagup & \\
& \textbf{General Relativity} & & \text{Quantum Field Theory} & \\
& G, c & & c, \hbar & \\
& & \diagdown \quad \diagup & & \\
& & \text{Quantum Gravity?} & & \\
& & G, c, \hbar & &
\end{array}
$$

In Newtonian gravity, escape velocity is given by $\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{GMm}{R}$. Hence, gravity is significant if $\frac{v^2}{2} \sim \frac{GM}{R}$. Special relativity is significant when $v^2 \sim c^2$. General relativity, at the intersection of the two, is significant when $\frac{c^2}{2} \sim \frac{GM}{R} \iff R \sim \frac{2GM}{c^2}$; this is the *Schwarzschild radius.* Where the escape velocity coincides with the speed of light, the existence of a *black hole* is implied.

I Review of Special Relativity

Background

See (Schutz, 2009, ch 1) and (Doughty, 2018, ch 5, 12, 13).

Assumptions of Special Relativity:

1. The world is described by a 4-dimensional continuum[1], **spacetime**, or **Minkowski space** $\mathcal{M}^4$, which is the set of all **events** x^μ,

$$x^\mu \equiv \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}} = (x^0, x^i) \equiv (x^0, \vec{x}) = (ct, \vec{x}).$$

Notation

Greek indices, μ, ν run over *spacetime* index values; $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.
Latin indices (mid-alphabet), i, j, k run over *spatial* index values; $\{1, 2, 3\}$.
$\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}$ is a 4-vector (twiddle); $\vec{x}$ is a 3-vector (under bar).

2. There exist **inertial frames**; namely, frames in which the measured values of time t and position x^i of events result in *linear* equations of motion for *free* particles.

Postulates of Special Relativity:

1. Principle of Relativity: The laws of physics are invariant under transformations $x^\nu \to x^{\bar{\mu}}(x^\nu)$ from one inertial frame to another (and such transformations form a group).

2. Constancy of the Speed of Light: There exists an invariant upper bound on all velocities

$$\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{x}}{\mathrm{d}t}\right| \leq \left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{x}}{\mathrm{d}t}\right|_{\max} = c \quad \text{(speed of light)}$$

and this value is the same in all inertial frames.

[1] Mathematically, a *Lorentzian manifold*...

For photons,

$$c = \underbrace{\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{x}}{\mathrm{d}t}\right|}_{\text{frame } K} = \underbrace{\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{x}'}{\mathrm{d}t}\right|}_{\text{frame } K'} . \tag{I.1}$$

Rewriting (I.1) we see that, for photons,

$$\underbrace{(\mathrm{d}x)^2 + (\mathrm{d}y)^2 + (\mathrm{d}z)^2 - c^2(\mathrm{d}t)^2}_{\text{frame } K} = \underbrace{(\mathrm{d}x')^2 + (\mathrm{d}y')^2 + (\mathrm{d}z')^2 - c^2(\mathrm{d}t')^2}_{\text{frame } K'} = 0.$$

This suggests the definition of the **spacetime interval** between any neighbouring events x^μ and $x^\mu + \mathrm{d}x^\mu$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{d}s^2 &\equiv -c^2\mathrm{d}t^2 + \mathrm{d}x^2 + \mathrm{d}y^2 + \mathrm{d}z^2 \\ &= \eta_{\mu\nu}\mathrm{d}x^\mu\mathrm{d}x^\nu && \textit{...pseudo-Riemannian structure} \end{aligned}$$

where $x^\mu = (x^0, x^i) = (ct, x, y, z)$ and where

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & +1 & & \\ & & +1 & \\ & & & +1 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \mathrm{diag}\,(-1, +1, +1, +1) \equiv -1 \oplus \mathbb{1}_3.$$

For photons, $\mathrm{d}s^2 = 0$. Using the two postulates, one may show that the interval $\mathrm{d}s^2$ is invariant with respect to coordinates based in any inertial frame (Schutz, 2009, §1.6).

$$\mathrm{d}s^2 = \eta_{\mu\nu}\mathrm{d}x^\mu\mathrm{d}x^\nu = \eta_{\bar{\mu}\bar{\nu}}\mathrm{d}x^{\bar{\mu}}\mathrm{d}x^{\bar{\nu}}. \tag{I.2}$$

Note

- The symbol $\mathrm{d}s^2$ for the interval is purely notational convention, since we may have $\mathrm{d}s^2 < 0$ is some cases.
- The first postulate alone implies either S.R. or its $c \to \infty$ limit (a.k.a. Galilean relativity).
- Formally, $\mathrm{d}x^\mu\mathrm{d}x^\nu$ is shorthand for the *tensor product* $\mathrm{d}x^\mu \otimes \mathrm{d}x^\nu$, and you will see that $\mathrm{d}s^2 = \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{\eta}}$ is really the *metric tensor*...

I.1 Lorentz Transformations

In an inertial frame K, the equations of motion of a free particle are linear;

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x^\mu}{\mathrm{d}\lambda^2} = 0 \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad x^\mu = x_0^\mu + u^\mu \lambda,$$

where x_0^μ, u^μ are constant and λ is a parameter. Similarly, in any other inertial frame $\bar{K}$,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda^2} = 0 \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad x^{\bar{\mu}} = x_0^{\bar{\mu}} + u^{\bar{\mu}} \lambda.$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\mathrm{d}x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda} &= \frac{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\nu}\frac{\mathrm{d}x^\nu}{\mathrm{d}\lambda} = \frac{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\nu} u^\nu && \textit{...chain rule} \\
\implies 0 &= \frac{\mathrm{d}^2 x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}\left(\frac{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\nu} u^\nu\right) u^\alpha = \frac{\partial^2 x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\alpha \partial x^\nu} u^\nu u^\alpha && \because u^\nu \textit{ constant} \\
\implies 0 &= \frac{\partial^2 x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\alpha \partial x^\nu}. && \textit{...since true } \forall u^\alpha
\end{aligned}$$

So the required transformation between inertial frames is *linear*;

$$\boxed{x^{\bar{\mu}} = L^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\nu x^\nu + a^{\bar{\mu}},} \tag{I.3}$$

where $a^{\bar{\mu}}$ and $L^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\nu \equiv \frac{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^n u}$ are constants. Differentiate (I.3) and substitute into (I.2) to give $\eta_{\mu\nu}\mathrm{d}x^\mu \mathrm{d}x^\nu = \eta_{\bar{\mu}\bar{\nu}} L^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\mu L^{\bar{\nu}}{}_\nu \mathrm{d}x^\mu \mathrm{d}x^\nu$. Since this is true $\forall\, \mathrm{d}x^\mu$,

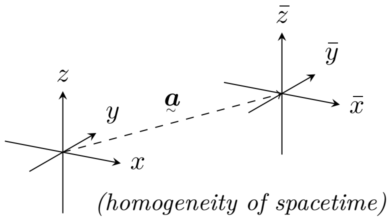
$$\boxed{\eta_{\bar{\mu}\bar{\nu}} L^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\mu L^{\bar{\nu}}{}_\nu = \eta_{\mu\nu}.} \tag{I.4}$$

In matrix form, (I.3) and (I.4) are

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \bar{\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}} &= L\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}} + \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{a}}, && \text{(I.3a)} \\ L^\top \eta L &= \eta. && \text{(I.4a)} \end{aligned}}$$

Transformations $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}} \mapsto \bar{\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}}$ defined by (I.3), (I.4) are the *inhomogeneous* Lorentz transformations, or **Poincaré transformations**, and form the Poincaré group $\mathrm{IO}(1,3)$ (pronounced Inhomogeneous Orthogonal group).

"Inhomogeneous" refers to the inclusion of spacetime translations $x^\nu \mapsto x^{\bar{\mu}} = \delta^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\nu x^\nu + a^{\bar{\mu}}$, which form a subgroup T^4 of the Poincaré group. If we set $a^{\bar{\mu}} = 0$ in (I.3), we are left with *homogeneous* transformations, called simply the **Lorentz transformations**.



(homogeneity of spacetime)

In G.R., our task is to generalise these ideas to general coordinate frames for which $L^{\bar{\mu}}{}_\nu$ are not necessarily constant.

I.1.1 Examples of Lorentz Transformations

A transformation belonging to the (homogeneous) Lorentz group $\mathrm{O}(1,3)$ can be represented as a matrix acting on coordinates x^μ when they are *viewed as vectors.*

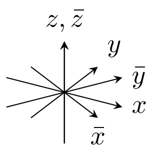
$$x^\mu \cong \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}} = \begin{pmatrix} x^0 \\ x^1 \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

> *Note*
>
> Spacetime events (i.e., *points* in spacetime) are not themselves vectors—neither addition nor scalar multiplication of events makes physical sense (i.e., spacetime itself is not a *vector space*). However, in S.R. we may represent events by their associated displacement vector relative to a chosen orthogonal inertial frame.

The Lorentz group $\mathrm{O}(1,3)$ consists of (combinations of) the following:

- **Rotations,** e.g., about the z-axis (in the xy-plane) by an angle θ;

$$L_R(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & -\sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$



(isotropy of spacetime)

- **Boosts,** e.g., by a velocity $\vec{v}$ in the x-direction;

$$L_B(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh\alpha & -\sinh\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ -\sinh\alpha & \cosh\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos i\alpha & i\sin i\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ i\sin i\alpha & \cos i\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

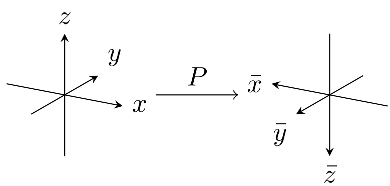
where $\alpha = \tanh^{-1}\frac{v}{c}$ is the *rapidity parameter.* In terms of the velocity $\beta \equiv \frac{v}{c}$, one has $\cosh\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \equiv \gamma$ and $\sinh\alpha = \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \equiv \beta\gamma$.

> *Note*
>
> Boosts appear similar to rotations, but differ as a consequence of the indefiniteness of the metric: they are *hyperbolic.* E.g., consider a vector space with signature $(-+)$; a 'rotation' which preserves the inner product has the same form of the tx-submatrix in $L_B(\alpha)$.
>
> Formally, an x-boost of rapidity α is equivalent to a rotation by an 'imaginary angle' $\alpha' = i\alpha$ through the τx-plane, where $\tau = it$ is 'imaginary time'... though this is not a good picture physically!

An important difference between rotations and boosts is that, where $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ for rotations, we have $-\infty < \alpha < \infty$ for boosts, i.e., rotations form a *compact*[2] subgroup of the Lorentz (or Poincaré) group, whereas boosts are *non-compact*—and in fact do not form a subgroup (because, in general, the composition of two boosts forms a combination of a rotation and a boost).

Both rotations and boosts depend on continuous parameters (θ or α). However, the Lorentz group $O(1,3)$ also contains *discrete* transformations...

- **Parity inversion**; $P = \mathrm{diag}(1, -\mathbb{1}_3) \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.



Notice that P is *not* equivalent to a rotation; it transforms a right-handed frame into a left and vice versa, since $\det P = -1$.

[2] A *compact* set is one for which any infinite sequence of elements contains a convergent subsequence. E.g., $[0, 2\pi)$ is compact, but $\mathbb{R}$ is not (consider the sequence $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots\} \subset \mathbb{R}$).

Note

In even spatial dimensions, the transformation $R = \mathrm{diag}(1, -\mathbb{1}_{2n})$ is *not* a parity transformation; it is a rotation by π and has $\det R = 1$. In these cases, inversions $x_i \mapsto -x_i$ of a *single* spatial coordinate are each parity transformations.

- **Time reversal**; $T = \mathrm{diag}(-1, \mathbb{1}_3)$.

The Lorentz matrix condition (I.4) implies that $(\det L)^2 = 1 \iff \det L = \pm 1$ for any Lorentz transformation $L \in \mathrm{O}(1,3)$. Those with $\det L = +1$ and those with $\det L = -1$ form two disconnected pieces of $\mathrm{O}(1,3)$, but only the first piece contains the identity transformation $\delta^{\bar{\mu}}{}_{\nu}$.

Inspecting the $\bar{\mu}\nu = \bar{0}0$ component of (I.4) gives

$$\left(L^{\bar{0}}{}_{0}\right)^2 - \sum_{\bar{k}=1}^{3} \left(L^{\bar{k}}{}_{0}\right)^2 = 1 \implies \left(L^{\bar{0}}{}_{0}\right)^2 \geq 1,$$

which shows that there exists two disconnected classes of Lorentz transformation with $L^{\bar{0}}{}_{0} \geq 1$ and $L^{\bar{0}}{}_{0} \leq -1$. Those with $L^{\bar{0}}{}_{0} \geq 1$ are called **orthochronous**.

I.1.2 The Restricted Lorentz Group

We define the subgroup of restricted Lorentz transformations by adding two conditions to the Lorentz matrix condition (I.4); that they be 1) orthochronous and 2) have determinant unity.

$$\mathrm{SO}^{+}(1,3) \equiv \left\{ \Lambda \;\middle|\; \Lambda^{\top}\eta\Lambda = \eta, \Lambda^{\bar{0}}{}_{0} \geq 1, \det \Lambda = 1 \right\}$$

We have removed the discrete transformations involving P and T, so that $\mathrm{SO}^{+}(1,3)$ is *continuous* and *connected*, unlike $\mathrm{O}(1,3)$.

Notation

The S in $\mathrm{SO}^{+}(1,3)$ refers to the condition $\det \Lambda = 1$, and the $^{+}$ refers to orthochronality. Sometimes $\mathrm{SO}^{+}(1,3)$ is simply written as $\mathrm{SO}(1,3)$.

Groups whose elements may be continuously parametrised are **Lie groups**. The translation group T^4 (parametrised continuously by Δx^{μ}) and the rotation group $\mathrm{SO}(3)$ (parametrised continuously by three angles) are examples of *connected* Lie groups.

Reintroducing translations to the restricted Lorentz group gives the restricted Poincaré group $\mathrm{ISO}^+(1,3)$—also a connected Lie group. Unrestricted groups may be reconstructed by reintroducing the discrete transformations;

$$\mathrm{O}(1,3) = \left\{ \Lambda, \Lambda P, \Lambda T, \Lambda PT \;\middle|\; \Lambda \in \mathrm{SO}^+(1,3) \right\}.$$

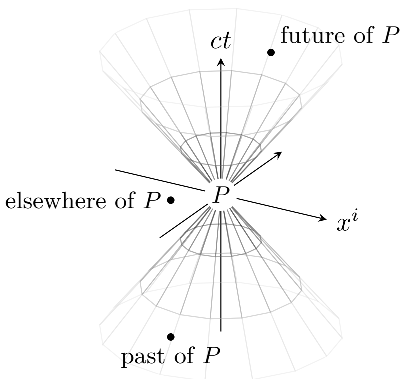
I.2 The Scalar Product in Minkowski Spacetime

If $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}} = x^\mu \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{e}}_\mu$ and $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{y}} = y^\mu \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{e}}_\mu$ are 4-vectors

I.3 The Causal Structure of Minkowski Spacetime

Because of the indefiniteness of the Minkowski metric (and hence of the Minkowski scalar product), 4-vectors can have positive, zero or negative norm.

A 4-vector $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{V}}$ is called $\begin{cases}\text{timelike}\\ \text{null}\\ \text{spacelike}\end{cases}$ if $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{V}} \cdot \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{V}} = V_\mu V^\mu = \eta_{\mu\nu} V^\mu V^\nu \begin{cases} < 0 \\ = 0 \\ > 0 \end{cases}$.



One spatial dimension suppressed; lightcone in $(3+1)$-d spacetime is a continuum of spheres.

By the second postulate, all *causally connected* events relative to an event P lie in its future or past lightcone, because P cannot causally influence events outside the lightcone without transmitting superluminal data.

A particle's **worldline** is a curve $x^\mu = x^\mu(\lambda)$ whose tangent $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{V}}$ given by $V^\mu = \frac{\mathrm{d}x^\mu}{\mathrm{d}\lambda}$ is everywhere timelike; $V^\mu V_\mu < 0$. This implies that, in an inertial frame, the particles velocity $\vec{v}$ is subluminal $|\vec{v}| < c$ *(exercise)*. □

Consider a freely moving particle whose (timelike) worldline unit tangent vector is $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{V}}$. There always exists a Lorentz transformation which sends a timelike unit vector to $V^{\mu} \mapsto V^{\bar{\mu}} = (1,0,0,0)$ *(exercise)*. The **proper time interval** $\mathrm{d}\tau$ between two neighbouring events along the particle's worldline is defined as the interval of time measured in the particle's instantaneous rest frame.

$$c^2 \mathrm{d}\tau^2 = -\eta_{\mu\nu} \mathrm{d}x^{\mu} \mathrm{d}x^{\nu} \tag{I.5}$$

Note

Since $\mathrm{d}x$ is timelike, $\eta_{\mu\nu}\mathrm{d}x^{\mu}\mathrm{d}x^{\nu} < 0$, so (I.5) contains a minus sign. Proper time is not defined for spacelike intervals, since this would yield an imaginary time. Instead, proper distance is defined by $\mathrm{d}\ell^2 = \eta_{\mu\nu}\mathrm{d}x^{\mu}\mathrm{d}x^{\nu}$.

Proper time is the time *experienced* by the particle, i.e., the time that would be measured by a clock moving on the same worldline.

Suppose we have a worldline $x^{\mu}(\lambda)$. Integrate $\mathrm{d}\tau$ via (I.5) along the path to get the total proper time elapsed between events $x^{\mu}(\lambda_i)$ and $x^{\mu}(\lambda_f)$.

$$\Delta\tau = \frac{1}{c} \int_{\lambda_i}^{\lambda_f} \mathrm{d}\lambda \sqrt{-\eta_{\mu\nu} \frac{\mathrm{d}x^{\mu}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda} \frac{\mathrm{d}x^{\nu}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda}} \tag{I.6}$$

Note

The proper time elapsed depends on the path taken between the two events. (See the Twin Paradox.)

Particle worldlines can be characterised by an action principle: variation of (I.6) with respect to the trajectories, $\delta x^{\mu}(\lambda)$, yields the equations of motion $\frac{\partial^2 x^{\mu}}{\partial \lambda^2} = 0$ (holding $\delta x^{\mu} = 0$ fixed at both ends) *(exercise)*. In fact, the extremised trajectory minimises the proper time—*freely falling particles take the path of maximum proper time.*

By (I.5), $c^2\mathrm{d}\tau^2 = -\mathrm{d}t^2 + \sum_i (\mathrm{d}x^i)^2 = \mathrm{d}t^2(-1 + \vec{v}\cdot\vec{v})$ where $v^i \equiv \frac{\mathrm{d}x^i}{\mathrm{d}t}$ so

$$\mathrm{d}\tau = \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}\mathrm{d}t \equiv \gamma \mathrm{d}t \tag{I.7}$$

is the proper time of a frame moving at velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to a frame with coordinates (ct, x^i).

I.3.1 4-velocity

Since proper time $\mathrm{d}\tau$ is an *invariant*, we are motivated to define the 4-vector

$$u^\mu \equiv \frac{\mathrm{d}x^\mu}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{\mathrm{d}\tau}\left(c, \frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{x}}{\mathrm{d}t}\right) = \gamma(c, \vec{v}),$$

where γ is defined as in (I.7). In the particle's instantaneous rest frame, $\|\vec{v}\|^2 = u^i u_i = 0$, so that $u^\mu u_\mu = u^0 u_0 = -c^2$. However, since this is an invariant (it is a scalar, which does not transform under Poincaré transformations), we have

$$\boxed{\|\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{u}}\|^2 \equiv \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{u}} \cdot \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{u}} \equiv u^\mu u_\mu = -c^2}$$

in *all frames.*

I.3.2 4-momentum

Relativistic 4-momentum is defined by

$$\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}} \equiv m\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{u}} = \left(\frac{E}{c}, \vec{p}\right), \qquad E = \gamma m c^2, \qquad \vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}. \tag{I.8}$$

This form of 4-momentum may be deduced from an action using the Hamiltonian approach. We want to extremise (I.2), but first multiply by mc^2 to get the units right. The action is

$$S = -mc^2 \int_{\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}_i}^{\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}_f} \mathrm{d}\tau = \int_{t_i}^{t_f} \mathrm{d}t L$$

where the Lagrangian is

$$L = L(\vec{x}, \dot{\vec{x}}; t) = -mc^2\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = -mc^2\sqrt{1 - \frac{\dot{\vec{x}} \cdot \dot{\vec{x}}}{c^2}}.$$

Then, the Hamiltonian (total energy) and conjugate momentum are

$$E = \vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - L = \gamma m v^2 + \frac{mc^2}{\gamma} = \gamma m c^2,$$

$$\vec{p} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\vec{x}}} = mc^2 \frac{1}{2} \frac{2\dot{\vec{x}}}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = \gamma m \vec{v},$$

matching the definition (I.8).

In all rest frames,

$$\boxed{\|\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}}\|^2 = \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}} \cdot \underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}} = p^\mu p_\mu = -m^2c^2}$$

as can be shown by evaluating in the particle's instantaneous rest frame and using scalar invariance.

For photons with $m = 0$, the 4-momentum $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}}$ is a null vector. Photons have no instantaneous rest frame—but we can always find a frame in which $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{p}} = \frac{E}{c}(1, 0, 0, 1)$.

I.3.3 Angular momentum

The covariant orbital angular momentum of a particle about an event $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{x}}_0 = \{x_0^\mu\}$ is defined as

$$j^{\mu\nu} = (x^\mu - x_0^\mu)p^\nu - (x^\nu - x_0^\nu)p^\mu,$$

where x^μ and p^μ are the particle's position and momentum. This is an antisymmetric tensor, $j^{\mu\nu} = -j^{\nu\mu} = j^{[\mu\nu]}$, with 6 independent components: j^{0k}, $j^{k\ell}$, $k < \ell$.

Example

About the origin $x_0^\mu = 0$, we have $j^{ij} = x^i p^j - x^j p^i$ which is equivalent to $j^{ij} = \epsilon^{ijk}\ell_k$ where $\vec{l} = \vec{x} \times \vec{p}$. j^{0k} represents the motion of the centre of mass: $j^{0k} = x^0 p^k - x^k p^0 = \gamma mc(v^k t - x^k)$.

I.4 Gauß's Theorem in Minkowski Spacetime

In three dimensional Euclidean space, Gauß's theorem is

$$\int_R \mathrm{d}^3x\, \nabla \cdot \vec{V} = \oint_{\partial R} \mathrm{d}\vec{S} \cdot \vec{V},$$

where $\vec{V}$ is a 3-vector and $R \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ is a region of Euclidean space with boundary ∂R. The surface element $\mathrm{d}\vec{S}$ is normal to the boundary ∂R. In index form,

$$\int_R \mathrm{d}^3x\, \partial_i V^{i\ldots} = \oint_{\partial R} \mathrm{d}S_i V^{i\ldots},$$

where dots denote possible free indices, which are not involved. The proof of Gauß's theorem does not require 3 dimensions or a $+++$ metric signature. In Minkowski spacetime $\mathcal{M}^4$, Gauß's theorem reads

$$\int\limits_R \mathrm{d}^4x\,\partial_\mu V^{\mu\cdots} = \oint\limits_{\partial R} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu V^{\mu\cdots},$$

where ∂R is now the boundary of a simply-connection region $R \subset \mathcal{M}^4$ with normal surface element $\mathrm{d}\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}$.

In 4-dimensional spacetime, we often choose the boundary ∂R so that it has three parts: Σ^+, spacelike surface toward future; Σ^-, spacelike surface toward past; ∂R^∞, timelike surface at spatial infinity, joining Σ^+ and Σ^-.

Note

The outward normal to Σ^- is *past-pointing*.

This decomposition is convenient if the fields involved vanish at spatial infinity, in which case the contribution from ∂R^∞ vanishes.

I.5 Conserved Currents

A 4-vector field $\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{J}} = J^\mu\partial_\mu$ which is divergence free

$$\operatorname{div}\underset{\sim}{\boldsymbol{J}} \equiv \frac{\partial J^\mu}{\partial x^\mu} \equiv \partial_\mu J^\mu \equiv J^\mu{}_{,\mu} = 0 \tag{I.9}$$

is called a **4-current**. Equation (I.9) is a conservation law. By Gauß's theorem, supposing that contributions at spatial infinity vanish,

$$0 = \int\limits_R \mathrm{d}^4x\,\partial_\mu J^\mu = \int\limits_{\Sigma^-} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu + \int\limits_{\Sigma^+} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu.$$

If we define $\Sigma_f := \Sigma^+$ and Σ_p to be Σ^- but future-pointing instead of past-pointing, i.e., $\int_{\Sigma_p} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu = -\int_{\Sigma_-} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu$, then the equation above becomes

$$\int\limits_{\Sigma_p} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu = \int\limits_{\Sigma_f} \mathrm{d}\Sigma_\mu J^\mu = \int\limits_{t\ \text{const.}} \mathrm{d}^3x\,J^0$$

II The Equivalence Principle

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