

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \operatorname{Re}(H_{\mu\nu} e^{ik^{\mu} x_{\mu}}) = |H_+| \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cos \omega(t-t_0)$$

modulus
since can
be complex

-t₀
since can
be complex
it is plain that
comes from it
being complex

Along λ , $\xi = 0$, equations are

$$\left(\text{since } h_{00} = h_{33} = 0\right) \frac{d^2 y_0}{dt^2} = \frac{d^2 y_3}{dt^2} = 0$$

(no relative acceleration in direction of the wave)

(then, and no relation to time coordinate.)

$$\frac{d^2 y_1}{dt^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_1$$

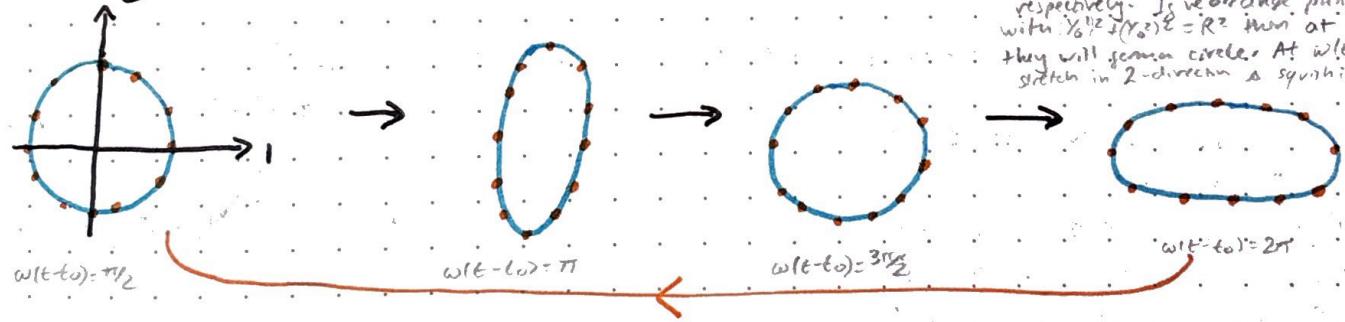
$$\frac{d^2 y_2}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_2$$

$|H_+|$ is small, so solve perturbatively with $\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \frac{dy_2}{dt} = 0$

$$Y_1 = Y_0^1 (1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega t)$$

initially, ramsat at origin & expand.
we collect a set of test masses on circle
as time passes, this is going to squash &伸展 in y_1 direction & stretch in y_2 direction

$$Y_2 = Y_0^2 (1 - \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega t)$$



stretching in y_1 direction
squashing in y_2 direction.

note very: any displacement is $\propto Y_1^1$; $\propto Y_2^2$.
respectively. If we change pixels in 12 plane
with $Y_0^1 Y_0^2 \propto R^2$ turn at $\omega(t-t_0) = \pi/2$
they will form a circle. At $\omega(t-t_0) = \pi$ thus
stretch in 2-direction & squash in 1-direction etc.

Exercise: Find solution for x polarization.

note to self: solve perturbatively

attempt:

zeroth order solution (no wave):

since $dY/dt = 0 \Rightarrow Y_1 = Y_0^1 + O(\epsilon^2)$

first order correction:

plug in $Y_1 = Y_0^1 + \delta Y_1$ into \ddot{Y}_1

$$\Rightarrow \delta Y_1 = Y_2^1 |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^1$$

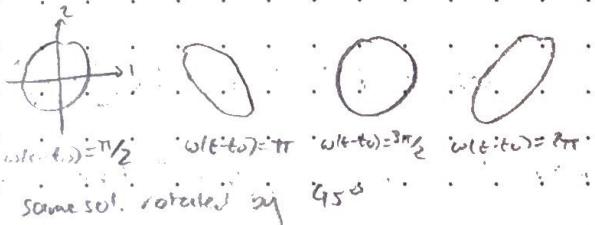
so put together $Y_1 = Y_0^1 + \delta Y_1$ gives:

$$Y_1 = Y_0^1 (1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0)) Y_0^1$$

attempt: solve as ge + polarization

$$Y^2 = Y_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^1$$

$$Y^1 = Y_0^1 + \frac{1}{2} |H_+| \cos \omega(t-t_0) Y_0^2$$



Lecture 18

20.11.24

- Last lecture: • monochromatic plane gravitational waves
• effect on test particles

• objects move freely falling, wave travels into the page



(X POLARISATION) $\circ \circ \circ \circ \circ$ (z)

(+ POLARISATION)

Found only geodesic deviations

THE FIELD FAR FROM A SOURCE

Return to linearised Einstein equations with matter

$$\text{thinking like E-M}\quad \text{oscillations in electric}\quad (\ast) \partial_\mu \partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi T_{\mu\nu} \quad \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad \text{wave gauge condition}$$

gauge
potential satisfies wave eqn
→ 4-divergence free → Leonard-Fischer potential

As is the case for electromagnetism, we can solve (*) explicitly using a retarded Green's function:

$$h_{\mu\nu}(t, \underline{x}) = 4 \int d^3x' \frac{T_{\mu\nu}(t - |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|, \underline{x}')}{|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|} \quad (+)$$

Where $|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|$ is computed in the Euclidean metric

(from now on away)

If matter is concentrated within a distance d of the origin (so $T_{\mu\nu}^{(t, \underline{x})} = 0$ for $|\underline{x}'| > d$), we can expand in the far field region where $r = |\underline{x}'| \gg |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|$ (d). Then

$$|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|^2 = r^2 - 2\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}' + |\underline{x}'|^2 = r^2(1 - \frac{2}{r} \underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}' + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2}))$$

with $\hat{\underline{x}} = \underline{x}/r$. Hence,

$$|\underline{x} - \underline{x}'| = r(1 - \frac{1}{r} \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}') + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2}) = r - \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}' + O(\frac{d^2}{r^2})$$

and $T_{\mu\nu}(t - |\underline{x} - \underline{x}'|, \underline{x}') = T_{\mu\nu}(t', \underline{x}') + \hat{\underline{x}} \cdot \underline{x}' \partial_0 T_{\mu\nu}(t', \underline{x}') + \dots$

where $t' = t - r$.

If $T_{\mu\nu}$ varies on a timescale τ so that $\partial_0 T_{\mu\nu} \sim \frac{1}{\tau} T_{\mu\nu}$, then second term above is $O(d/\tau)$ which we can neglect if matter moves non-relativistically. We thus have,

$$h_{ij} = \frac{4}{r} \int d^3x' T_{ij}(t', \underline{x}') \quad t' = t - r \quad (\ast \ast)$$

This gives the spatial components of h_{ij} . To find remaining components we use gauge condition: $\partial_0 h_{0i} = \partial_i h_{ji}$, $\partial_0 h_{00} = \partial_i h_{0i}$.

From $\partial_0 h_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (ν component and $\nu = 0$)

First solve for t_{0i} then t_{00} .

$$\text{note: } \partial_t T^{00} = 0$$

We can simplify the integral in $(**)$ by recalling that

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{conservation}) \quad \text{and that } T_{\mu\nu}(t, \underline{x}) \text{ vanishes for } |\underline{x}| > d.$$

Dropping primes in the integral

$$\int d^3x T^{ij}(t, \underline{x}) = \int d^3x \partial_k (T^{ik} x_j) - (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(giving drop prime, inner last index line
to note it's not 3 during index, so doesn't
matter)

$$= \int T^{ik} x_j n^k ds - \int d^3x (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(do integration by parts using fact divergence vanishes \rightarrow integral of $t -$ intg
driving T^{ij})

$$= \int_{|\underline{x}|=d} T^{ik} x_j n^k ds - \int d^3x (\partial_k T^{ik}) x_j$$

(subtract what happens when
done this the th)

$$= \int d^3x (\partial_0 T^{0i}) x_j = \partial_0 \int d^3x T^{0i} x_j$$

(since $\partial_0 x_j = 0$)

(LHS symmetric in i, j)
so replace RHS w/
symmetric part.
(recall T^{ij} is symmetric)

(Cov. into
surface int,
over sphere
volume, b/c.
assumption
 $T^{ij} = 0, |\underline{x}| > d$)

$\partial_0 T^{0i} + \partial_j T^{ji} = 0$

Symmetrising on i, j

$$\int d^3x T^{ij}(t, \underline{x}) = \partial_0 \int d^3x \left(\frac{1}{2} T^{0i} x_j + \frac{1}{2} T^{0j} x_i \right)$$

(realise again this looks like divergence of something to a correction)

$$= \partial_0 \int d^3x \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \partial_k (T^{0k} x_i x_j) - \frac{1}{2} \partial_k T^{0k} x_i x_j \right\}$$

(again notice spatial divergence g. energy-momentum which I know as above I can replace w/ time divergence of T^{00} since

$$= \partial_0 \int d^3x \partial_0 T^{00} x_i x_j$$

(first time deriving T_{ij} at present)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 \partial_0 \int d^3x T^{00} x_i x_j = \frac{1}{2} I_{ij}(t)$$

$$\text{Where } I_{ij}(t) = \int d^3x T^{00}(t, \underline{x}) x_i x_j$$

(in these words)

2nd moment of 00
component of E.M. tensor
(mass energy) evaluated at
time t .

Noting $T_{00} = T^{00}$ and $T_{ij} = T^{ij}$ we deduce,

$$t_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r).$$

$r \gg d$

$$t \gg d$$

Now reconstruct remaining components using gauge condition.

$$\partial_0 t_{0i} = \partial_j t_{ji} = \partial_j \left(\frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right)$$

evaluated at r

$$\Rightarrow t_{0i} = \partial_j \left(\frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

const of integration
depends only on \underline{x}

$$t_{0i} = -\frac{2\dot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) - 2 \frac{\ddot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

$\partial_i r = \frac{x_i}{r} = \hat{x}_i$

for assume $r \gg d$, $\dot{r} \gg d$ but not rapid relative between r and \dot{r} until now.

We now assume $r \gg t$ so we are in radiation zone so can drop first term (it's $O(1/r)$ relative to second) and get

$$t_{0i} = -\frac{2\dot{x}_i}{r^2} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(\underline{x})$$

Now use,

integrate as
before

$$\partial_0 t_{00} = \partial_i t_{0i} = \partial_i \left(-\frac{2\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) + k_i(x) \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow t_{00} = -2\partial_i \left(\frac{\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) \right) + t \partial_i k_i(x) + f(r) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{ex divergence of } k \\ \text{another integration} \end{array}$$

$$= \frac{2\hat{x}_i \hat{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}(t-r) + t \partial_i k_i(x) + \begin{array}{l} \text{TERMS SUBLEADING IN} \\ \text{T/r} \end{array}$$

To fix constants of integration, return to

$$t_{uv} = 4 \int d^3x' \frac{T_{uv}(t-|x-x'|, x')}{|x-x'|}$$

and observe that to leading order in $\frac{d}{r}$
 best me on the go
 do the computation
 yourselves \rightarrow

$$t_{00} \approx \frac{4E}{r} \quad t_{0i} \approx -\frac{4P_i}{r}$$

where $E = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, x')$, $P_i = \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t, x')$
 E, P actually const. in time although in principle they depend on retarded time

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Observing that } \partial_0 \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t, x') &= \int d^3x' \partial_0 T_{0i}(t', x') \\ &= \int d^3x' \partial_i T_{0i}(t', x') \end{aligned}$$

so E, P constant in time.

Exercise:
 chosen
 Minkowski gauge
 centre of mass
 sits at origin

By a gauge transformation generated by a multiple of
 $\xi^\mu = (P \cdot x, -Pt)$
 we can set $P = 0$. This is the centre of momentum frame.

We've shown that:

$$* t_{00}(t, x) = \frac{4M}{r} + \frac{2\hat{x}_i \hat{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

$$* t_{0i}(t, x) = -\frac{2\hat{x}_i}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

$$* t_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

where $r \gg t \gg d$, in centre of momentum frame where $E = M$

what do we expect?

tell us probably depends only on first moment

derivable from energy-momentum tensor, e.g. binary pulsar system, etc. for enough energy

of energy, mass is conserved

so if you want

next time: assign energy to these perturbations so you can understand how waves that are sourced by moving particles (only now, when you almost certainly have to touch your laptop's computer)

Lecture 19

22.11.24

Last Lecture

* Linearised field far from a non-relativistic source:

$$T_{00}^{(t, \underline{x})} = \frac{4M}{r} + \frac{2\dot{x}_i \dot{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

$$\text{where } I_{ij}^{(t)} = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, \underline{x}') x_i' x_j' \\ r = |\underline{x}'|$$

$$T_{0i}^{(t, \underline{x})} = -\frac{\dot{x}_j}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

$$M = \int d^3x' T_{00}(t, \underline{x}')$$

$$T_{ij}^{(t, \underline{x})} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}^{(t-r)}$$

and we are in centre-of-momentum frame

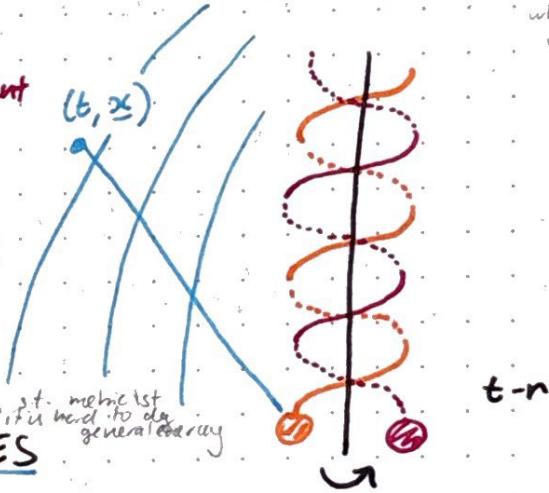
$$P_i = \int d^3x' T_{0i}(t', \underline{x}') = 0$$

valid in radiation zone:

distance $\rightarrow r \gg t \gg d$
from source timescales
of motion of source spatial extent of source

hard problem to
def energy in GR!

today:
these waves carry energy away
will affect it eq rotation
hard to work very far away
what does mean by energy?
hard to assign energy to grav.
normally define us clear but, we usually pick accds if it's hard to do
and because so



ENERGY IN GRAVITATIONAL WAVES

Defining the local energy / local energy flux for a gravitational field is hard in general because we can always choose coords st.

$$\int d^3x \rho = 0$$

There is no hope of an energy density quadratic in first derivatives.

prob of def. energy is hard, but we can get round this by working in perturbation theory.

In the context of perturbation theory there are various ways to define an energy. To do this we consider how to continue a perturbative solution beyond linear order.

We consider the ungauged vacuum Einstein equations and suppose

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} \quad \text{Work to } O(\epsilon^2)$$

We observe (indicate this is linear piece) (order $O(h)$ in Ricci flat metric around minispace).

$$R_{\mu\nu}[\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] + \epsilon^2 R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h]$$

where (ungauged Ricci tensor to 1st order)

$$R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] = 2\delta^{\rho}_{\mu}\delta^{\sigma}_{\nu}h_{\rho\sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\delta^{\rho}_{\mu}\delta^{\sigma}_{\nu}h_{\rho\sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}h$$

and

$$R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h] = \frac{1}{2}h^{\rho\sigma}\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}h_{\rho\sigma} - h^{\rho\sigma}\partial_{\mu}\partial_{\nu}h_{\rho\sigma} + \frac{1}{4}\partial_{\mu}h_{\rho\sigma}\partial_{\nu}h^{\rho\sigma}$$

$$+ \partial^{\rho}h^{\sigma}_{\nu}\partial_{\mu}h_{\rho\sigma} + \frac{1}{2}\partial_{\sigma}(h^{\rho\sigma}\partial_{\mu}h_{\rho\sigma}) - \frac{1}{4}\partial^{\rho}h^{\sigma}_{\nu}\partial_{\mu}h_{\rho\sigma} - (\partial h^{\rho\sigma} - \frac{1}{2}\partial^{\rho}h)\partial_{\mu}h_{\rho\sigma}$$

are quadratic terms.

This implies

(from tensor to quadratic order)

brackets evaluated on $h^{(1)}$

call these terms thus

$$R_{\mu\nu}[\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] + \epsilon^2 (R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] + R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}])$$

Thus what we really want is Einstein tensor, ignore this ϵ^2

$$G_{\mu\nu}[\eta + \epsilon h^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h^{(2)}] = \epsilon G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]$$

$$(*) \quad \text{quadratic order in } \epsilon \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{from } \epsilon^2 \text{ term} \\ \text{at linear order} \\ + \epsilon^2 (G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] + R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\sigma\tau} R_{\sigma\tau}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}]) \\ \text{from metric} \\ (\text{ex E.E.s}) \\ + \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} h^{(2)\sigma\tau} R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2} h_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\sigma\tau} R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] \end{array} \right) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{remember when I take trace, I also get terms from order } \epsilon \text{ correction in metric} \\ \text{turnout here terms actually 0 because metric vacuum bg} \end{array}$$

[note: what is meant by $G^{(1)}$?

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] = R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h] - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\sigma\tau} R_{\sigma\tau}^{(1)}[h]$$

We now consider the contracted Bianchi identity,

$$g^{\mu\rho} \nabla_\rho G_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

which holds for any metric. Using (*) and expanding gives

$$(+) \quad 0 = \epsilon \eta^{\mu\sigma} \partial_\sigma G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] + \epsilon^2 (\eta^{\mu\sigma} \partial_\sigma G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] - 8\pi \partial_\mu t_{\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] + h^{(1)} \cdot R^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]).$$

SCHEMATIC

Considering $G_{\mu\nu}[\eta + \epsilon h^{(1)} + \epsilon^2 h^{(2)}] = 0$, using (*) order by order, we deduce

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0 \quad (\Rightarrow R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0)$$

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(2)}] = -R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] + \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\sigma\tau} R_{\sigma\tau}^{(2)}[h^{(1)}] = 8\pi t_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}]$$

Thus $h^{(2)}$ solves the linearised Einstein equations sourced by an 'energy momentum tensor'

want it to be divergence free: use Bianchi identity

From (+) we deduce that

$$\eta^{\mu\sigma} \partial_\mu G_{\sigma\nu}^{(1)}[h] = 0, \text{ which holds for ANY perturbation } h.$$

And $\eta^{\mu\sigma} \partial_\mu t_{\nu}^{(1)}[h^{(1)}] = 0$ when $h^{(1)}$ satisfies linearised E.E.s.

We can identify $t_{\mu\nu}$ with Energy-momentum of the gravitational field, however, it is not gauge invariant. If $h^{(1)}$ decays sufficiently at ∞ , then $\int d^3x$ is invariant, (so gives total energy of field) but no gauge invariant local conservation.

We can get approximate gauge invariance by averaging.

Let w be smooth, vanish for $|x|^2 + t^2 > a$, and satisfy

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^4} w(x, t) d^3x dt = 1.$$

use w to get a "local average" on regions of scale a

We define the average of a tensor in almost inertial coordinates by

ball of size
W supported on outside
so non-zero outside
ball of size a so deriv
of order W/a

$$\langle X_{\mu\nu}(x) \rangle = \int_{R^4} W(y-x) X_{\mu\nu}(y) d^4y$$

spacetime y
idea is we can
avg over suitable region
to regularize inv

Suppose we're in far field regime, with radiation of wavelength λ and we average over a region of size $a \gg \lambda$. Since $\partial_\mu W \sim W/a$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \partial_\mu X_{\mu\nu} \rangle &= \int_{R^4} \partial_\mu W(y-x) X_{\mu\nu}(y) d^4y \\ &\sim \frac{1}{a} \langle X_{\mu\nu} \rangle \\ &\sim \frac{\lambda}{a} \langle \partial_\mu X_{\mu\nu} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

We can ignore total derivatives inside averages, and thus

$$\langle A \partial B \rangle = \langle \partial(AB) \rangle - \langle (\partial A)B \rangle \approx -\langle (\partial A)B \rangle$$

With this we can show:

EXERCISE: 1) If h solves vacuum linearised E.E.

integrating by parts

(raise + lower with)
n

$$\langle \eta^{\mu\nu} R^{(2)}_{\mu\nu}[h] \rangle = 0.$$

this kind of
the first we
were looking for all
along

$$2) \langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_\mu t_{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu t^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu h \partial_\nu h - 2 \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu t_{\mu\nu} \rangle.$$

$$3) \langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle \text{ is gauge invariant.}$$

Using this formula and last lecture's results, we can find energy lost by a system producing gravitational waves.

The averaged spatial energy flux is $S_i = -\langle t_{0i} \rangle$.

We calculate average energy flux across a sphere of radius r centered on source

$$\langle P \rangle = - \int_{S_r} r^2 d\Omega \langle t_{0i} \rangle \hat{x}_i$$

In wave gauge

$$\langle t_{0i} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_0 t_{0\mu\nu} \partial_i h^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 h \partial_i h \rangle$$

drop out

$$= \frac{1}{32\pi} \langle \partial_0 h_{jk} \partial_i h_{jk} - 2 \partial_0 h_{ij} \partial_i h_{0j} + \partial_0 h_{00} \partial_i h_{00} - \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 h \partial_i h \rangle$$

$$\text{Using } h_{ij} = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij}(t-r)$$

O IN RADIATION GAUGE

$$\partial_0 h_{jk} = \frac{2}{r} I_{jk}(t-r) \quad \partial_i h_{jk} = \left(-\frac{2}{r} I_{jk}(t-r) - \frac{2}{r^2} I_{jk}(t-r) \right) \hat{x}_i$$

$$\therefore -\frac{1}{32\pi} \int r^2 d\Omega \langle \partial_0 h_{jk} \partial_i h_{jk} \rangle \hat{x}_i = \frac{1}{2} \langle I_{ij} I_{ij} \rangle_{t-r} \quad \leftarrow \text{AVERAGE OVER WINDOW CENTERED AT } t-r$$

cancel off time so will not care later
for the other terms in middle

but principle compute all terms to
with out four

Lecture 20

25.11.24

Last lecture:

* EM tensor for linearised gravitational perturbations

$$t_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{8\pi} \left(R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} [h^{(1)}] - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} \eta^{\rho\sigma} R_{\rho\sigma}^{(1)} [h^{(1)}] \right)$$

$$\text{where } R_{\mu\nu} [\eta_{\mu\nu} + \epsilon h_{\mu\nu}] = \epsilon R_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} [h] + \epsilon^2 R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} [h] + O(\epsilon^2)$$

* After averaging over a window of size $a \gg \lambda$ (λ typical wavelength of grav. radiation) have

$$\langle t_{\mu\nu} \rangle = \frac{1}{32\pi} \left(2 \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h - \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h - 2 \partial_\rho \partial^\rho \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h \right)$$

so in wave gauge

NEW CONTENT

* Insert expressions from radiation zone solution derived in previous lectures to compute flux through large sphere

$$\langle P \rangle_E = - \int_{\{b=nr\}} r^2 dr \langle t_{0i} \rangle \hat{x}_i = 15 \langle Q_{ij} Q_{ij} \rangle_{E-r}$$

rare triple deg
in physics
long working on
middle

where

$$Q_{ij} = I_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} I_{kk} \delta_{ij} \text{ is the } \underline{\text{quadratic tensor}}$$

DIFFERENTIAL FORMS

We want to derive Einstein's equations from an actions principle. For this we need to discuss integration on manifolds, to do so we first discuss differential forms.

DEF: A p -form is a totally antisymmetric $(0,p)$ -tensor field on M . The space of p -forms is $\mathcal{C}^p M$.

Note: If $p > M$ a p -form must vanish. A 1-form is a covector field.

We have a natural product on forms. If X is a p -form and Y a q -form then $(X \wedge Y)$ is the $(p+q)$ -form.

$$(X \wedge Y)_{a_1 \dots a_p b_1 \dots b_q} = \frac{(p+q)!}{p! q!} X_{[a_1 \dots a_p]} Y_{b_1 \dots b_q]}$$

It has the properties. (**CHECK!**):

$$* X \wedge Y = (-1)^{pq} Y \wedge X \quad (\Rightarrow X \wedge X = 0 \text{ if } p \text{ odd})$$

$$* (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z = X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$$

If $\{g^m\}_{m=1}^n$ is a dual basis (i.e. basis of covectors), then
 $\{g^{m_1} \wedge \dots \wedge g^{m_p}\}_{m_1 < \dots < m_p}$

and we can write

$$X = \frac{1}{p!} X_{m_1 \dots m_p} g^{m_1} \wedge \dots \wedge g^{m_p}.$$

Another important feature of forms is that we can define a derivative
 $d: \Omega^p M \rightarrow \Omega^{p+1} M$ by

EXTERIOR DERIVATIVE

DEF: If X is a p -form, then in a coordinate basis

$$(dX)_{m_1 \dots m_{p+1}} = (p+1) \partial_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \quad (*)$$

SYMMETRIC IN
 m_{p+1}, m_1

Suppose ∇ is any symmetric connection, then

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}} &= \partial_{m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}} - \Gamma_{m_2 m_1}^\sigma X_{\sigma m_3 \dots m_{p+1}} - \dots - \Gamma_{m_{p+1} m_1}^\sigma X_{m_2 \dots m_p} \\ \Rightarrow \nabla_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} &= \partial_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore (dX)_{m_1 \dots m_{p+1}} = (p+1) \nabla_{[m_1} X_{m_2 \dots m_{p+1}]} \quad \text{tensor eq \& property of } \nabla$$

Thus $(dX)_{a_1 \dots a_{p+1}} = (p+1) \nabla_{[a_1} X_{a_2 \dots a_{p+1}]} \quad$ is well-defined independently of coordinates. However, $(*)$ shows it does not depend on a metric or connection.

EXERCISE (sheet 4) show:

- * $d(dX) = 0$ $(X \text{ } p\text{-form})$
- * $d(X \wedge Y) = dX \wedge Y + (-1)^p X \wedge dY$ $(Y \text{ } q\text{-form})$
- * $\phi^* dX = d(\phi^* X)$ if $\phi: N \rightarrow M$

The last property implies that d commutes with Lie derivatives i.e. $d_L(dX) = d(d_L X)$.

d is called the **EXTERIOR DERIVATIVE**.

We say X is CLOSED if $dX = 0$, and X is EXACT if $X = dY$ for some Y . $\text{EXACT} \Rightarrow \text{CLOSED}$, but the converse is only true locally.

POINCARÉ LEMMA:

If X is a closed p -form ($p > 1$), then for any $r \in M$ there is an open neighbourhood $N \subset M$ with $r \in N$ and a $(p-1)$ -form Y defined on N such that $X = dY$.

The extent to which CLOSED ≠ EXACT captures topological properties of M .

Eg. On S^1 the form $d\theta$ (see ex. 1.3) is closed, but not exact (despite confusing notation).

THE TETRAD FORMALISM

In GR it's often useful to work with an orthonormal basis of vector fields (TETRAD) $\{e_a^{\mu}\}_{\mu=0}^3$, satisfying

$$g_{ab} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} \quad (\text{Sur is Riemannian})$$

Recall that the dual basis $\{e_a^{\mu}\}_{\mu=0}^3$ is defined by

$$\delta_v^{\mu} = g^{\mu\nu} (e_v)^{\nu} = g^{\mu\nu} e_a^{\nu} e_a^{\mu}.$$

We claim that

$$e_a^{\mu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu}$$

PROOF: $(\eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu}) e_v^{\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} \eta_{\nu v} = \delta_v^{\mu}$.

Recalling that g_{ab} raises + lowers roman indices, and introducing the **CONVENTION** that $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ raises + lowers greek indices, we have

$$e_a^{\mu} = e_a^{\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} g_{ab} e_b^{\nu},$$

we will thus denote basis vectors e_m and dual basis vectors e^m .

Recall that two orthonormal bases are related by

$$e_m^a = (A^{-1})_m^{\nu} e_{\nu}^a \quad \text{where } \eta_{\mu\nu} A_{\mu}^{\mu} A_{\nu}^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu}.$$

Unlike in special relativity, A_{ν}^{μ} need not be constant. GR arises by gauging the Lorentz symmetry SC!

CLAIM: $\eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = g_{ab}$, $e_a^{\mu} e_{\mu}^b = \delta_a^b$

PROOF: Contract with e_p^b :

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} e_p^b = \eta_{\mu\nu} e_a^{\mu} \delta_p^{\nu} = \eta_{\mu p} e_a^{\mu} = (e_a)_p = g_{ab} e_p^b$$

Since equation holds for contracted with any basis vector, it holds in general.

Second equation follows from first by raising b .

Take sum over a vectors
because the 2-tensor, which
is metric, is finite, stated
Helps track number but says
many

Lecture 21

Last Lecture:

* Differential forms, $\Omega^k M$ → $X \wedge Y$ 'wedge product'→ dX 'exterior derivative'* Tetrad formalism $\{e_m\}$ oh basis, $\{e^m\}$ dual basis $e_a^m = g_{ab} e_b^m$
→ raise + lower $\begin{cases} \text{LATIN indices w/ } g_{ab} \\ \text{GREEK indices w/ } \eta_{\mu\nu} \end{cases}$

$$\rightarrow g_{ab} = e_a^m e_b^{\nu} \eta_{\mu\nu}, \quad \eta_{\mu\nu} = e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} g_{ab}, \quad e_a^{\mu} e_b^{\nu} = \delta_{ab}^{\mu\nu}, \quad e_a^{\mu} e_a^{\nu} = \delta_{\mu\nu}^{\mu\nu}$$

CONNECTION 1-FORMS

Let ∇ be the Levi-Civita connection. The connection 1-forms are defined to be

$$(\omega^m_v)_a := e_b^m \nabla_a e_b^v$$

(just defining Γ)

seen before: taking ∇ of basis vecs
is related to connection components
⇒ this is just diff way of encoding the Γ 's

Recalling

$$e_v^a \nabla_a e_b^m = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla_c e_b^m = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b e_c^{\nu}$$

$$\therefore (\omega^m_v)_a = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\sigma} e_{\sigma}^b e_c^{\nu}.$$

so margin calculation
yourself using above
relations (last sec.)

so $(\omega^m_v)_a$ encodes the connection components.

so what?
→ we'll see
later
but first some lemmas,

LEMMA: $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_a = -(\omega_{\nu\mu})_a$

this is set of const's
so if ω is differentiable w/ respect to ∇

PROOF: $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_a = (e_b)_\mu \nabla_a e_b^v = \nabla_a ((e_b)_\mu e_b^v) - e_b^b \nabla_a (e_b)_\mu$

same as line above w/ indices swapped
↓ minus sign

$$= - (e_b)_v \nabla_a e_b^v = - (\omega_{\nu\mu})_a$$

Now consider the exterior derivative of a basis 1-form.

LEMMA: The 1-form e^m satisfies Cartan's first structure eqn.

(remember, it's not tensor)
indices don't mean
thinking of it as one-form
and giving exterior derivative
for each index)

check: consistent def^m (clearly 1-form)
in 1 form and 2nd term
also 2-form?

PROOF: Note $(\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v = (e_c^v \nabla_a e_b^c) e_b^v = \nabla_a e_b^m$
Thus

$$\nabla_a e_b^m = (\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v = - (\omega^m_v)_a e_b^v$$

by antisymmetry of
property

$$\Rightarrow (de^m)_{ab} = 2 \nabla_{[a} e^m_{b]} = - 2 (\omega^m_v)_{[a} e^v_{b]} = - (\omega^m_v \wedge e^v)_{ab}$$

what does this mean?

→ linear good component of ω by
computing exterior derivative of e^m .

↳ efficient way of finding connection components!

from algorithmic
wedge product (1st, 2nd)

Note that in the orthonormal basis,

$$(de^u)_{\nu\sigma} = 2(\omega^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma}),$$

so if we compute its two antisymmetric components of ω

so computing de^u leads to $(\omega^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma})_{\sigma}$ since $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_{\rho} = -(\omega_{\nu\mu})_{\rho}$.
 We can check $(\omega_{\mu\nu})_{\rho} = (\omega_{\mu\nu\rho})_{\mu} + (\omega_{\nu\rho\mu})_{\nu} - (\omega_{\rho\mu\nu})_{\nu}$.

So we can determine ω^{μ}_{ν} and hence Γ by computing de^u .

Example: The Schwarzschild Metric

remember
metric
 $e^0 = \sqrt{1 - \frac{2M}{r}}$

computing extra derivs
is efficient: can
see where they cancel
easily.

has an obvious tetrad:

$$e^0 = g dt \quad e^1 = \frac{1}{g} dr \quad e^2 = r d\theta \quad e^3 = r \sin\theta d\phi$$

where $g = \sqrt{1 - \frac{2M}{r}}$. fixes the metric ^{read wedge}

$$\text{Then } de^0 = dg \wedge dt + g d(dt) = g' dr \wedge dt = g' e^1 \wedge e^0$$

$$de^1 = d(\frac{1}{g}) \wedge dr + \frac{1}{g} d(dr) = -\frac{g'}{g^2} dr \wedge dr = 0$$

$$de^2 = dr \wedge d\theta$$

$$de^3 = \sin\theta dr \wedge d\phi + r \cos\theta d\theta \wedge d\phi = \frac{1}{r} e^1 \wedge e^3 + \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^2 \wedge e^3$$

$$de^0 = -\omega^0_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^0_1 = g' e^0, \omega^0_2 \propto e^2, \omega^0_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^1 = -\omega^1_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^1_0 \propto e^0, \omega^1_2 \propto e^2, \omega^1_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^2 = -\omega^2_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^2_1 = \frac{1}{r} e^2, \omega^2_0 \propto e^0, \omega^2_3 \propto e^3$$

$$de^3 = -\omega^3_{\mu\nu} \wedge e^{\mu} \Rightarrow \omega^3_0 \propto e^0, \omega^3_1 = \frac{1}{r} e^3, \omega^3_2 = \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^2$$

can check all these statements are consistent w/ each other

We have:

$$\omega_{01} = -\omega_{10} = g' e^0$$

$$\omega_{21} = -\omega_{12} = \frac{1}{r} e^2$$

$$\omega_{31} = -\omega_{13} = \frac{1}{r} e^3$$

$$\omega_{32} = -\omega_{23} = \frac{\cot\theta}{r} e^3$$

all other components vanish

you will have to believe me this is an efficient way to compute connection components more easily we can compute curvature components from these curvature 2-forms

CURVATURE 2-FORMS

We compute $d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu}$

$$(d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_{ab} = \nabla_a (\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_b - \nabla_b (\omega^{\mu}_{\nu})_a$$

expand out using Leibniz

$$= \nabla_a (e_c^{\mu} \nabla_b e^c_{\nu}) - \nabla_b (e_c^{\mu} \nabla_a e^c_{\nu})$$

$$= e_c^{\mu} (\nabla_a \nabla_b e^c_{\nu} - \nabla_b \nabla_a e^c_{\nu}) + \nabla_a e^{\mu}_c \nabla_b e^c_{\nu} - \nabla_b e^{\mu}_c \nabla_a e^c_{\nu}$$

$$= e_c^{\mu} (R^c_{\nu ab}) e^d_{\nu} + e^d_{\alpha} (\nabla_a e^{\mu}_{\alpha}) e^{\sigma}_{\beta} (\nabla_b e^{\delta}_{\sigma}) - e^d_{\alpha} (\nabla_b e^{\mu}_{\alpha}) \cdot e^{\sigma}_{\beta} (\nabla_a e^{\delta}_{\sigma})$$

$$= (\mathbb{H}_v^m)_{ab} + (\omega_\sigma^m \wedge \omega_v^\sigma)_{ab}$$

where shown $(H)_v^u = \frac{1}{2} R_{v\sigma}^u e^\sigma \wedge e^\tau$ are the curvature 2-forms. We've

$$dw^M_v + \omega^M_\sigma \wedge \omega^\sigma_v = \textcircled{H}^M_v,$$

gives an efficient way to compute R_{rot}^M in an old basis.

Returning to our example:

$$\text{hence } R_{101}^0 = -(\bar{f}^{11}\bar{f} + \bar{f}^{12}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\bar{f}^2)^{11} = \frac{2M}{r^3}$$

and $R_{vol}^M = 0$ otherwise.

Exercise: Find other (H_v^M) and show Rab .

The original goal for introducing differential forms was to do integrals on manifolds as we have been doing on curves and surfaces.

VOLUME FORM AND HODGE DUAL

We say a manifold is **ORIENTABLE** if it admits a nowhere vanishing n -form ($n = \dim M$) $\omega = a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n$, an orientation form.

Two such forms are equivalent if $E' = gE$ for some smooth, everywhere positive g . $[E]_n$ is an orientation.

A basis of vectors $\{e_m\}_{m=1}^n$ is right-handed if

$$\varepsilon(e_1, \dots, e_n) > 0.$$

A coordinate system is right-handed if $\{\frac{\partial}{\partial x^u}\}_{u=1}^n$ are right-handed.

- why care about handedness?
- \rightarrow if we use e.g. Stokes theorem we need to know direction / normal to surface etc.
- intrinsically handedness/orientation is built up in integration!

Lecture 22

29.11.24

Last lecture

* Tetrad formalism

- Cartan's 1st + 2nd structure equations

$$de^{\mu} + \omega^{\mu}_{\nu} \wedge e^{\nu} = 0$$

$$d\omega^{\mu}_{\nu} + \omega^{\mu}_{\sigma} \wedge \omega^{\sigma}_{\nu} = \Theta^{\mu}_{\nu}$$

$$\omega_{\mu\nu} = -\omega_{\nu\mu}$$

$$\Theta^{\mu}_{\nu} = \frac{1}{2} R^{\mu}_{\nu\sigma\tau} e^{\sigma} \wedge e^{\tau}$$

connection
1-forms
curvature 2-forms

- * Manifold is orientable if it admits a nowhere vanishing n -form, ϵ .

- Two such forms equivalent if $\epsilon' = g\epsilon$ ($g > 0$ everywhere)

- $[\epsilon]_N$ is an orientation

- $\{e^{\mu}\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is right-handed if $\epsilon(e_1, \dots, e_n) > 0$. coord. system is RH if $\left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} \right\}_{\mu=1}^n$ is RH.

means unorientable is the chosen orientation

no preferred normalisation
Eijk is as good as SEijk
until we introduce a metric

in \mathbb{R}^3 this is standard orientation
Eijk (right-handed basis)

An oriented manifold with metric has a preferred normalisation for ϵ . For a right-handed orthonormal basis, we define the volume form ϵ by

$$\epsilon(e_1, \dots, e_n) = 1 \quad (\text{indep. of choice of RH o/n basis})$$

If we work in a RH coord. system $\{x^{\mu}\}_{\mu=1}^n$, then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} = e^{\mu}_\alpha e^{\alpha}_\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} = e^{\mu}_\alpha e_\mu$$

Then

$$\epsilon\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^n}\right) = \epsilon(e_1^{\mu_1} e_{\mu_1}, \dots, e_n^{\mu_n} e_{\mu_n})$$

$$= \sum_{\pi \in \text{Sym}(n)} \sigma(\pi) e_1^{\pi(1)} \times \dots \times e_n^{\pi(n)} = \det(e_x^{\mu})$$

$$\text{but } e^{\mu}_\alpha e^{\nu}_\beta \eta_{\mu\nu} = g_{\alpha\beta} \Rightarrow \det(e_x^{\mu}) = \sqrt{|g|} \quad \text{where } g = \det(g_{\alpha\beta})$$

thinking twice as matrices
deduce after reminding ourselves about combinatorial factors:

$$\therefore \epsilon = \sqrt{|g|} dx^1 \wedge dx^2 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n.$$

Equivalently, $\epsilon_{123\dots n} = \sqrt{|g|}$ in coord. basis.

EXERCISE: In the same coord. basis

$$\epsilon^{123\dots n} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} + \text{ RIEMANNIAN} \\ - \text{ LORENTZIAN} \end{array} \right.$$

LEMMA: $\nabla \epsilon = 0$

PROOF: In normal coords. at p , $\partial_{\mu} g_{\alpha\beta}|_p = 0$, $\Gamma^{\sigma}_{\mu\nu}|_p = 0$.

$\Rightarrow \nabla_{U_1} E_{U_2 \dots U_{n+1}} = \partial_{U_1} E_{U_2 \dots U_{n+1}} + (\Gamma \cdot E) = 0$ at p
tensor equation so holds everywhere \square

LEMMA:

$$\epsilon^{a_1 \dots a_p c_{p+1} \dots c_n} \epsilon_{b_1 \dots b_p c_{p+1} \dots c_n} = \pm p!(n-p)! \delta_{[b_1}^{a_1} \delta_{b_2}^{a_2} \dots \delta_{b_p]}^{a_p}$$

$\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

PROOF: (exercise)

p -form on manifold

$(n-p)$ -forms on manifold

We can use ϵ to relate $\mathcal{R}^p M$ to $\mathcal{R}^{n-p} M$:

DEF: On an oriented manifold with metric, the HODGE DUAL of a p -form X is

$$(*X)_{a_1 \dots a_{n-p}} = \frac{1}{p!} \epsilon_{a_1 \dots a_{n-p} b_1 \dots b_p} X^{b_1 \dots b_p}$$

From previous results we can show

LEMMA: $*(*X) = \pm (-1)^{p(n-p)} X$ $\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

$$(*d*X)_{a_1 \dots a_{p-1}} = \pm (-1)^{p(n-p)} \nabla^b X_{a_1 \dots a_{p-1} b}$$

$\{ + \text{ RIEMANNIAN}$
 $- \text{ LORENTZIAN}$

Examples

① In Euclidean space, identifying a vector field X^a with the one-form X_a , the usual operations of vector calculus become

$$\nabla f = df, \quad \operatorname{div} X = *d*X, \quad \operatorname{curl} X = *dX$$

remembering that d acting twice with d gives 0
• d gives ± what I started with

This seems esoteric but we are actually quite familiar with it without even realising in vector calc when we take div,grads & curls

why need hodge dual?

so hodge dual operation needed to write down something meaningful for curl need ϵ) \rightarrow this sort of thing

② Maxwell's Equations

$$\nabla^a F_{ab} = -4\pi j_b \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_{[a} F_{bc]} = 0$$

can be written

$$d*X = -4\pi*j, \quad dF = 0.$$

Poincaré's lemma implies we can write $F = dA$ for some one-form A , locally. (not necessarily do this globally)

we have introduced this formulation w/ d & $*d$, terms out this makes integration on manifolds & stokes thm. quite elegant.

INTEGRATION ON MANIFOLDS

Suppose on a manifold M we have a RH coordinate chart $\phi: O \rightarrow U$ with coordinates x^m . If X is an n -form which vanishes outside O , we can write

challenge: can always pick a coord patch to integrate over manifold but changing coords in general changes jacobian factor so I won't get same ans.
want to figure out what I can integrate to get same ans whole world enclose

$$X = X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

If $\psi: O \rightarrow U$ is another RM coordinate chart with coords $\{y^m\}$ then

$$X = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} dy^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dy^n = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \frac{\partial y^1}{\partial x^1} \dots \frac{\partial y^n}{\partial x^n} dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

$$= \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \det \left(\frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^v} \right) dx^1 \wedge \dots \wedge dx^n$$

$$\therefore X_{1\dots n} = \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} \det \left(\frac{\partial y^m}{\partial x^v} \right)$$

As a result

$$\int_U X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_M \tilde{X}_{1\dots n} dy^1 \dots dy^n$$

We can define

$$\int_M X = \int_O X := \int_U X_{1\dots n} dx^1 \dots dx^n$$

(if you don't know what manifold is, ignore it!)

On any (2nd countable) manifold, we can find a countable atlas of charts (O_i, ϕ_i) , and smooth functions $\chi_i: M \rightarrow [0,1]$ such that χ_i vanishes outside O_i and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \chi_i(p) = 1 \quad \forall p \in M, \text{ and the sum is locally finite}$$

(don't really need to worry about this in practice 'just writing so you have the definitions')

Then for any n -form X we define

$$\int_M X = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_M \chi_i X = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{O_i} \chi_i X$$

(don't worry about this too much, in practice in GL we can cover w/ 1 chart or at least mostly w/ 1 chart (sufficiently small enough bit of M you ignore))

This doesn't depend on a choice of χ_i 's.

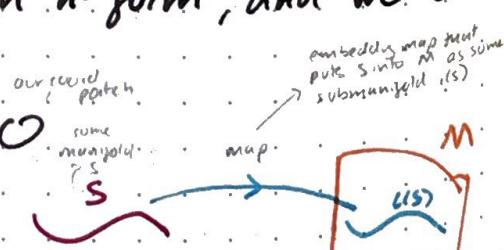
Remarks • Computation showing coord. invariance implies that for a diffeomorphism $\phi: M \rightarrow M$

$$\int_M X = \int_M \phi^* X$$

- If M is a manifold with metric and vol. form ϵ , then if $f: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar, $f\epsilon$ is an n -form, and we can define $\int_M f = \int_M f\epsilon$.

In local coordinates, if f vanishes outside O

$$\int_M f = \int_U f(x) \sqrt{g} dx^1 \dots dx^n = \int_M f d\text{vol}_g$$



SUBMANIFOLDS AND STOKES THEOREM

DEF: Suppose S, M are manifolds and $\dim S = m < n = \dim M$. A smooth map $c: S \rightarrow M$ is an embedding if it is an injection (i.e. $c_*: T_p S \rightarrow T_{c(p)} M$ is injective) and if c is injective i.e. $c(p) = c(q) \Rightarrow p = q$. If c is an embedding, then $c(S)$ is an embedded submanifold. (If $m = n - 1$ we call it a hypersurface) (mostly drop c when obvious from context and write $c(S) = S$).

condition that it is an embedding (so it is injective)
intersection in blue case
condition that injective, $c(S)$ has as many tangent directions as S , due to

If S, M are orientable, and $c(S)$ is an embedded submanifold of M . We define the integral of an n -form X over $c(S)$ by

$$\int_{c(S)} X = \int_S c^*(X).$$

Note that if $X = dY$ then

$$\int_{c(S)} dY = \int_S d(c^* Y).$$

$$(d\phi^* y = \phi^* dy)$$

Lecture 23

2.12.24

- Last lecture
- * If M is an n -dim manifold, X is an n -form defined on M .
 - * If M carries a metric (or otherwise has a preferred choice of volume form ϵ) defined

$$\int_M \& := \int_M \& \epsilon = \int_M \& d\text{vol}_g.$$

is ϵ is volume form of g

- * If S is an m -dimensional manifold ($m < n$), then $c: S \rightarrow M$ is an embedding if it is an IMMERSION and is INJECTIVE.

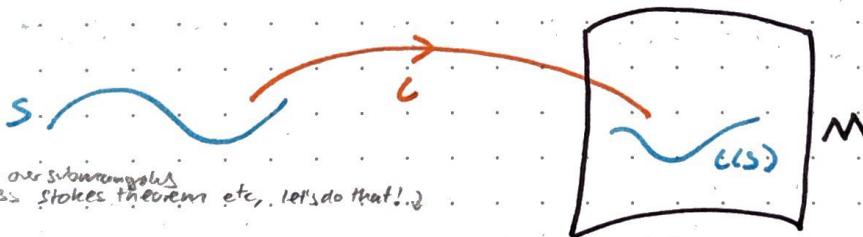
$$c(p) = c(q) \Rightarrow p = q$$

$c: T_p S \rightarrow T_{c(p)} M$ injective

If so, $c(S)$ is an m -dim SUBMANIFOLD of M .

- * If $c(S)$ is an m -dim submanifold and Y is an m -form on M , then

$$\int_{c(S)} Y := \int_S c^*(Y)$$



we talk about integrating over submanifolds because we want to discuss Stokes theorem etc, let's do that! :)

as previously

DEF: A manifold with boundary, M , is defined just as for a manifold, but charts are maps

$\phi_\alpha: U_\alpha \rightarrow \mathbb{U}_\alpha$, where U_α is an open subset of M of \mathbb{R}^n (not \mathbb{R}^n instead half-space)

$$\mathbb{U}_\alpha = \{(x^1, \dots, x^n) | x^1 \leq 0\}$$



maps into region in \mathbb{R}^2 in 1st half plane, patch of coordinates is mapped onto purple region

The boundary of M , ∂M is the set of points mapped in any chart to $\{x^1 = 0\}$. It is naturally an $n-1$ diml manifold with an embedding $c: \partial M \rightarrow M$.

If M is oriented, ∂M inherits an orientation by requiring (x^2, \dots, x^n) is a RH chart on ∂M when (x^1, \dots, x^n) is RH on M .

"in practice we are not going to use this definition but it's good to have it"

STOKES THEOREM

If N is an oriented n -dim^l manifold with boundary, and X is an $(n-1)$ -form, then

$$\int_N dX = \int_{\partial N} X.$$

elegant form
doesn't require stroke on manifold.
(basis of all integration by parts arguments)
on manifolds
except boundary
stuff?

Stokes theorem is the basis of all 'integration by parts' arguments.
If N carries a metric, we can reformulate Stokes theorem as the divergence theorem. slightly more convenient form?

If V is a vector field on N , then we define

$$(V \downarrow \epsilon)_{a_2 \dots a_n} = V^a \epsilon_{aa_2 \dots a_n}$$

We can check that $d(V \downarrow \epsilon) = (\nabla_a V^a) \epsilon$. check yourself

If we define the flux of V through an embedded hypersurface S by think of no cross-convention between vector, surface & surface

$$\int_S V \cdot dS := \int_S V \downarrow \epsilon$$

a little bit of a cheat, we just do RHS to be what we want, it's more like your div theorem so check this

then Stokes theorem implies $\int_N \nabla_a V^a dvol_g = \int_{\partial N} V \cdot dS$.

Recall that a hypersurface $\{(S)\}$ is

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{SPACELIKE} & \text{if } h = c^* g \text{ is RIEMANNIAN} \\ \text{TIMELIKE} & \text{if } h = c^* g \text{ is LORENTZIAN} \end{array} \right.$$

In this case we can relate $(^*(V \downarrow \epsilon_g))$ to the volume form on (S, h) .

Pick b_2, \dots, b_n a RH o/n basis on S (w.r.t. h). Then $(\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n)$ are o/n in N . The unit normal to S is the unique unit vector \vec{n} orthogonal to $(\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n)$ with

$$E(\vec{n}, \# b_2, \dots, \# b_n) = g(\vec{n}, \vec{n}) \quad (= \pm 1).$$

$$\text{If } \{(S)\} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{SPACELIKE} & \leftrightarrow \vec{n} \text{ TIMELIKE} \\ \text{TIMELIKE} & \leftrightarrow \vec{n} \text{ SPACELIKE} \end{array} \right.$$

with this definition,

$$V \downarrow \epsilon (\# b_2, \dots, \# b_n) = V^a \vec{n}_a$$

$$\text{thus } (^*(V \downarrow \epsilon_g)) = (^*(V^a \vec{n}_a)) E_h$$

volume form on induced metric on S

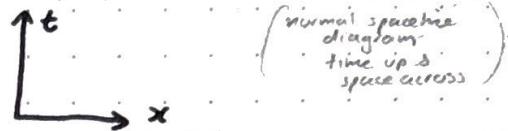
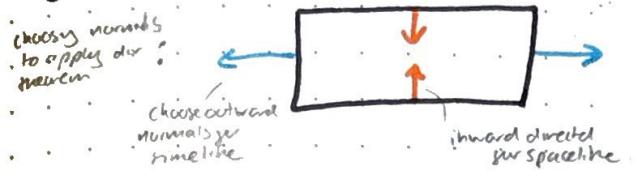
what we immediately call a living vector field through an submanifold (bit giddy w/ dream of normal)

$$\int_S V \cdot dS = \int_S V^a \vec{n}_a dvol_h.$$

We've shown

$$\int_{\partial N} V^a \vec{n}_a dvol_h = \int_N \nabla_a V^a dvol_g.$$

Checking the definitions, \vec{n}^a points 'out' of N for ∂N TIMELIKE (or in Riemannian) and 'into' N for ∂N SPACELIKE.



div theorem:
Only difference to what we are used to in vector calc.
(is we have to insert signs into directions of unit vectors)

[what about null boundaries?
there is no well-defined unit normal b/c normal to null surface is null vector & we can't normalize null vector so give maths sense
for null surface (advol is well-defined) but can't separately normalize ∇a & $dvol$? (Don't worry about this too much)]

THE EINSTEIN HILBERT ACTION

We want to derive Einstein's equations from an action principle, we expect an action of the form

$$S[g, \text{MATTER}] = \int_M L(g, \text{MATTER}) dvol_g$$

where L is a scalar Lagrangian. If we ignore matter for now, an obvious guess for L is $L=R$, scalar curvature. This gives the Einstein-Hilbert action.

$$S_{EH}[g] = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M R g dvol_g$$

need a scalar that depends on g to result in here to integrate, an obvious guess is scalar curvature (work thought to see this weeks)

(our unknown)

In order to derive e.o.m. from this, consider variation $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$ that 'varies outside bounded regions'. We want that the action does not change to 1st order when we make this variation (principle of least action.)

In order to derive e.o.m. from an action, we consider $g + \delta g$ where δg vanishes outside a compact (=bounded) set in M , and expand to first order in δg (considered small). We require variation of S_{EH} to vanish at this order. We want to compute

$$\delta S_{EH} = S_{EH}[g + \delta g] - S_{EH}[g] \quad (\text{ignore } O((\delta g)^2))$$

First we consider $dvol_g = \sqrt{|g|} dx^1 \dots dx^n$ (assume δg non-zero in a single coord. patch)
To compute $\delta \sqrt{|g|}$, recall we can write the determinant as

$$g = g_{\bar{m}\bar{n}} \Delta^{\bar{m}\bar{n}}$$

where Δ^{uv} is cofactor matrix $\Delta^{uv} = (-1)^{u+v}$

delete v^{th} column & u^{th} row

① delete this column & row, find det of resulting matrix & multiply by ± 1 .
giving component of cofactor matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} g^{11} & \dots & g^{1v} & \dots & g^{1n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ g^{u1} & \dots & g^{uv} & \dots & g^{un} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ g^{n1} & \dots & g^{nv} & \dots & g^{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

② note that component of matrix is independent of g_{uv} because we deleted this row from matrix when computing det.

"jacobians from linear symmetry"

Δ^{uv} is independent of g_{uv} , and satisfies $\Delta^{uv} = g^{uv}$ consider under $g_{uv} \rightarrow g_{uv} + \delta g_{uv}$, $\delta g = \frac{\partial g}{\partial g_{uv}} \delta g_{uv} = \Delta^{uv} \delta g_{uv} = g^{uv} \delta g_{uv}$

$$\therefore \delta \sqrt{-g} = \delta \sqrt{g} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{-g}} (-\delta g) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{-g} g^{uv} \delta g_{uv}$$

$$\therefore \delta(dvol_g) = \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \delta g_{ab} dvol_g$$

we have joint variation in volume form
 $dvol_g$ after varying metric, now write out change in R_g

To compute δR_g , we first consider $\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}$. The difference of two connections is a tensor, so this is a tensor $\delta \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu}$. To compute this, we can consider normal coordinates for g_{ab} at some point p . Then since $\partial_\mu g_{\nu\rho}|_p = 0$.

only non zero
contr. comes
from varying
derivative
piece

$$\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}|_p = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\delta g_{\nu\rho,p} + \delta g_{\rho\nu,p} - \delta g_{\nu\rho,\sigma})|_p$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} (\delta g_{\nu\rho,p} + \delta g_{\rho\nu,v} - \delta g_{\nu\rho,\sigma})|_p$$

expr for variation in Christoffel symbols; use this to give variation in R
 $\therefore \delta \Gamma_{bc}^a = \frac{1}{2} g^{ad} (\delta g_{ab;c} + \delta g_{cd;b} - \delta g_{bc;d}).$

tensor e.g. both
sides, tree will
 P is parallel
(since arbitrary)

Next we consider $\delta R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu}$. Again work in normal coords at p .

$$R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu} = \partial_\rho (\Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu}) - \partial_\sigma (\Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}) + \Gamma \circ \Gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta R_{\nu\rho\sigma}^{\mu}|_p = [\partial_\rho (\delta \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu}) - \partial_\sigma (\delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu})]|_p$$

$$= [\nabla_\rho \delta \Gamma_{\nu\sigma}^{\mu} - \nabla_\sigma \delta \Gamma_{\nu\rho}^{\mu}]|_p$$

$$\therefore \delta R_{bcd}^a = \nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{bd}^a - \nabla_d \delta \Gamma_{bc}^a$$

same as before, promote to AIN

$$\Rightarrow \delta R_{abc} = \nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - \nabla_b \delta \Gamma_{ac}^c$$

observing that $\delta(g^{ab}g_{bc}) = 0 \Rightarrow (\delta g^{ab}) = -g^{ac}g^{bd}\delta g_{cd}$. We finally have

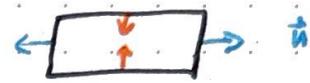
$$\begin{aligned} \delta R_g &= \delta(g^{ab}R_{ab}) = (\delta g^{ab})R_{ab} + g^{ab}\delta R_{ab} \\ &= -R^{ab}\delta g_{ab} + g^{ab}(\nabla_c \delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - \nabla_b \delta \Gamma_{ac}^c) \\ &= -R^{ab}\delta g_{ab} + \nabla_c X^c \end{aligned}$$

where $X^c = g^{ab}\delta \Gamma_{ab}^c - g^{cb}\delta \Gamma_{ba}^a$.

Lecture 24

Last lecture * Stokes / divergence theorem:

$$\int_M \nabla_a X^a d\text{vol}_g = \int_{\partial M} X^a n_a d\text{vol}_h$$



→ imposed exterior
gives field where we
integrate scalar
curvature of metric
over the manifold.

* Einstein - Hilbert action

$$S_{EH}[g] = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M R g d\text{vol}_g$$

* Under a variation $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$

$$\delta(d\text{vol}_g) = \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g ;$$

issue is manifold infinite
then may not get finite action S_{EH}
(but generally we ignore this) and
anyway we only really care about the
variation in the action which makes sense.
even if it is negative
we can contract into variation using some divergence
or have involving variation of δg symbol!

(δg small, vanish outside coordinate)

$$\delta(R_g) = -R^{ab} \delta g_{ab} + \nabla_a X^a$$

$$X^a = g^{cd} \delta \Gamma^a_{cd} - g^{ac} \delta \Gamma^c_{cd}.$$

We deduce from the formulae for δR_g , $\delta d\text{vol}_g$ that

$$\delta S_{EH} = \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} g^{ab} R - R^{ab} \right) \delta g_{ab} + \nabla_c X^c \right\} d\text{vol}_g .$$

[usually when we
are deriving E-L equation:
(something nice) \times variation + piece we integrate
away by parts]

$$= \frac{1}{16\pi} \int_M -G^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

where we've used the fact that δg and hence X vanish on ∂M . to drop the last term using the divergence theorem.

We immediately see that $\delta S_{EH} = 0$ for all variations δg_{ab} if and only if g_{ab} solves the vacuum Einstein equations.

Suppose we also have a contribution from matter fields

$$S_{\text{tot.}} = S_{EH} + S_{\text{matter}}, \quad S_{\text{matter}} = \int_M L[\phi, g] d\text{vol}_g .$$

Under a variation $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$ we must have

$$\delta S_{\text{matter}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_M T^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

for some symmetric 2-tensor T^{ab} .

↑ it's just whatever
we need to put in to
make this statement true.

↑ note: this is not the only poss definition for the energy-momentum
but this defn is nicely consistent w/ relativity.

Varying g in $S_{\text{tot.}}$ gives $[G^{ab} = 8\pi T^{ab}]$ i.e. Einstein's equations

E.g. If ψ is a scalar and $L_{\text{matter}} = -\frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi$, then under $g \rightarrow g + \delta g$

piece from varying g (in matter)

piece from varying volume
(from which we integrate L over)

$$\delta S_{\text{matter}} = - \int_M \left[\frac{1}{2} \delta(g^{ab}) \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi d\text{vol}_g + \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_a \psi \nabla_b \psi \delta(d\text{vol}_g) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_M (g^{ac} g^{bd} \nabla_c \psi \nabla_d \psi \delta g_{ab} - \frac{1}{2} (g^{cd} \nabla_c \psi \nabla_d \psi) g^{ab} \delta g_{ab}) d\text{vol}_g$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_M T^{ab} \delta g_{ab} d\text{vol}_g$$

where $T^{ab} = \nabla^a \psi \nabla^b \psi - \frac{1}{2} g^{ab} \nabla_c \psi \nabla^c \psi$.

using stuff from
last lecture

Exercise: Show that varying $\psi \rightarrow \psi + \delta\psi$ gives the wave equation $\nabla_c \nabla^c \psi = 0$.

It can be shown that diffeomorphism invariance of the matter action implies $\nabla T^{ab} = 0$. (T^{ab} is divergence free)

CONCLUDE: So we have nice way of formulating Einstein's eqns of GR in terms of an action principle which is nice because this is how we think about most modern physical theories (i.e. starting from an action principle).

"e-wave-chy".

THE CAUCHY PROBLEM FOR EINSTEIN'S EQUATIONS

We expect Einstein's equations can be solved given data on a spacelike hypersurface Σ . What is the right data?

Suppose $\iota: \Sigma \rightarrow M$ is an embedding, such that $\iota(\Sigma)$ is spacelike. Then $h = \iota^*(g)$ is Riemannian.

Let n be a choice of unit normal to $\iota(\Sigma)$. We define g for X, Y vector fields on Σ

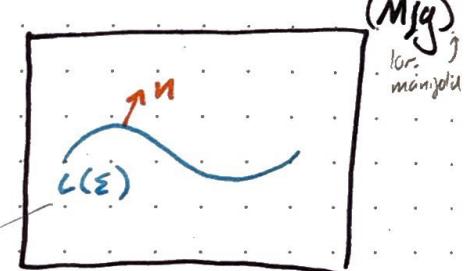
$$k(X, Y) = \iota^*(g(n, \nabla_{\tilde{X}} \tilde{Y}))$$

(strictly speaking need to extend these to the surface, but that gives same ans so ignore this subtlety)

where $\iota_* X = \tilde{X}$, $\iota_* Y = \tilde{Y}$ on $\iota(\Sigma)$.

metric in big spacetime induces a Riemannian metric on the surface

some spacelike surface



We pick local coordinates $\{y^i\}$ on Σ and $\{x^\mu\}$ on M such that $\iota: (y^1, y^2, y^3) \mapsto (0, y^1, y^2, y^3)$, then $n_\mu = \alpha \delta^\mu_0$.

If X, Y vector fields on Σ , say $X = X^i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}$, $Y = Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}$, take $\tilde{X} = X^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$, $\tilde{Y} = Y^i \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}$.

Then $k(X, Y) = g_{\mu\nu} n^\mu \tilde{X}^\sigma \nabla_\sigma \tilde{Y}^\nu$

$$= \alpha \delta^\mu_\nu \tilde{X}^\sigma (\partial_\sigma \tilde{Y}^\nu + \Gamma^\nu_\sigma \tilde{Y}^\sigma) = \alpha \Gamma^\mu_{ij} X^i Y^j$$

called 2nd fundamental form

$\therefore k$ is a symmetric 2-tensor on Σ . We can show (example sheet 4) that $\iota^*(M, g)$ solves the vacuum Einstein equations, then Einstein constraint equations hold: what are these? \rightarrow eqns relating k & h , they hold in manifold Σ , not on larger manifold.

(on curvature w.r.t. h) (a) $\nabla_i k^i_j - (b) \nabla_j k^i_i = 0$ } (T)

$$R_h - k^i_j k^j_i + k^i_i k^j_j = 0$$

since (1st term vanishes $y^0 = 0$?)

what do true say if want to characterise initial conditions for EEs in terms of what we can think of k as some kind of normal dev. to g .

Conversely, if we are given

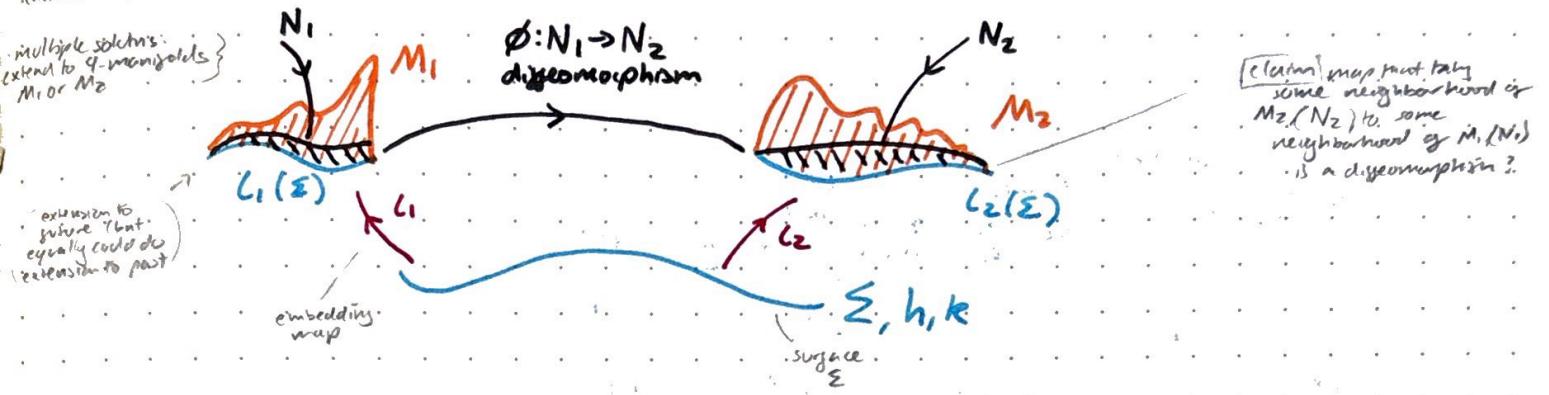
Σ A 3-manifold

h A Riemannian metric on Σ

k A symmetric 2-tensor on Σ

such that (†) hold. Then there exists a solution (M, g) of the vacuum Einstein equations, and an embedding $\iota: \Sigma \rightarrow M$ such that h is the induced metric on Σ , and κ is the 2nd fundamental form of $\iota(\Sigma)$.

idea now: forget the 4D manifold & think about 3D manifold Σ on which we are given data which solves these constraints.
claim is: given this data I can construct a solution in which the data embeds as an initial hypersurface. Moreover
(non-trivial) it is unique up to extension → what does this mean?



(This result is due to Choquet-Bruhat (existence) and Choquet-Bruhat + Geroch (geometric uniqueness).)

gives us way of looking at EES as evolution problem but w/o having to begin by fixing a gauge (finding ICs that satisfy the constraint equations is difficult.)

well done ☺