# Introduction to General Relativity (ASTP-760) Notes

Daniel Wysocki

Fall 2015

# Contents

Chapter 1	Special relativity	3
1.1	Fundamental principles of special relativity (SR) theory	3
1.2	Definition of an inertial observer in SR	3
1.3	New units	3
1.4	Spacetime diagrams	4
1.5	Construction of the coordinates used by another observer	4
1.6	Invariance of the interval	4
1.7	Invariant hyperbolae	5
1.8	Particularly important results	5
1.9	The Lorentz transformation	5
1.10	The velocity-composition law	5
1.11	Paradoxes and physical intuition	5
1.12	Further reading	5
1.13	Appendix: The twin 'paradox' dissected	5
1.14	Exercises	5
Chapter 2	Vector analysis in special relativity	9
2.1	Definition of a vector	9
2.2	Vector algebra	9
2.3	The four-velocity	9
2.4	The four-momentum	9
2.5	Scalar product	9
2.6	Applications	9
2.7	Photons	9
2.8	Further reading	9
2.9	Exercises	9

# Chapter 1

# Special relativity

### 1.1 Fundamental principles of special relativity (SR) theory

Special relativity can be summarized by two fundamental postulates:

- 1. The principle of relativity (Galileo), which states that no experiment may measure the absolute velocity of an observer.
- 2. The universality of the speed of light (Einstein), which states that the speed of light is constant when measured from any inertial reference frame.

#### 1.2 Definition of an inertial observer in SR

When we say "observer", what we really mean is a coordinate system. Thus an inertial observer is a coordinate system that meets the following 3 criteria:

- 1. The distance between two spatial points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  is independent of time.
- 2. Time is synchronized and moves at the same rate at all spatial points.
- 3. At any constant time, space is Euclidean.

It follows from these criteria that the observer must be unaccelerated.

#### 1.3 New units

The speed of light, c, is approximately  $3.00 \times 10^8 \, \mathrm{ms^{-1}}$  in SI units. However, these units predate relativity, and are very inconvenient. Life becomes easier if we define our units around c, such that  $c \equiv 1$ .

This can be done by repurposing the meter as a measure of time as well. We thereby define the meter as "the time it takes light to travel 1 meter". Thus the speed of light becomes

$$c = \frac{1 \,\mathrm{m}}{1 \,\mathrm{m}}.$$

Indeed, it turns out in SR that time is most conveniently measured in distance ( $c = 3.00 \times 10^{10}$  cm), and in GR mass is as well ( $G/c^{-2} = 7.425 \times 10^{-29}$  cm g<sup>-1</sup>).

### 1.4 Spacetime diagrams

#### 1.5 Construction of the coordinates used by another observer

### 1.6 Invariance of the interval

For two nearby events, we can define the **invariant interval**, defining a 4D Minskowski spacetime:

$$ds^{2} = -(c dt)^{2} + dx^{2} + dy^{2} + dz^{2},$$

or when we set  $c \equiv 1$ :

$$ds^{2} = -dt^{2} + dx^{2} + dy^{2} + dz^{2}.$$
 (Schutz 1.1)

This notation can be simplified be defining

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \operatorname{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}; \quad ds^{2} = \sum_{\mu=0}^{3} \sum_{\nu=0}^{3} \eta_{\mu\nu} \, dx^{\mu} \, dx^{\nu}$$

When we want to find  $d\bar{s}^2$ , we can consider the fact that each of its components,  $d\bar{x}^{\alpha}$ , is a linear combination of the components of  $ds^2$ ,

$$\mathrm{d}\bar{x}^{\alpha} = \sum_{\beta=0}^{3} a_{\alpha\beta} x^{\beta}.$$

Now, when we consider the square of  $d\bar{x}^{\alpha}$ , the cross terms make it a quadratic function. Since the sum of four quadratics (the four  $d\bar{x}^{\alpha}$ 's) is also a quadratic, we can write  $d\bar{s}^2$  as

$$d\bar{s} = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{3} \sum_{\beta=0}^{3} M_{\alpha\beta} (dx^{\alpha}) (dx^{\beta})$$
 (Schutz 1.2)

If are talking about light,  $ds^2 = 0$ , and so we can say

$$ds^2 = 0 = -dt^2 + dr^2 \implies dt = dr$$

Now by looking at Exercise 8 in Section 1.14, we see that

$$d\bar{s}^{2} = M_{00}(dr)^{2} + 2\left(\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{0i} dx^{i}\right) dr + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j},$$
 (Schutz 1.3)

where

$$M_{0i} = 0 (Schutz 1.4a)$$

and

$$M_{ij} = -(M_{00})\delta_{ij}, (Schutz 1.4b)$$

where  $\delta_{ij}$  is the Kronecker delta.

### 1.7 Invariant hyperbolae

## 1.8 Particularly important results

#### 1.9 The Lorentz transformation

## 1.10 The velocity-composition law

## 1.11 Paradoxes and physical intuition

## 1.12 Further reading

## 1.13 Appendix: The twin 'paradox' dissected

#### 1.14 Exercises

1 Convert the following to units in which c=1, expressing everything in terms of m and kg. (Note that  $c=1 \implies 1 \approx 3 \times 10^8 \, \mathrm{m \, s^{-1}} \approx (3 \times 10^8)^{-1} \mathrm{m^{-1}} \, \mathrm{s}$ 

(a) 10 J

$$\begin{aligned} 10\,\mathrm{J} &= 10\,\mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{m} = 10\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^2\,\mathrm{s}^{-2} \approx 10\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^2\,\mathrm{s}^{-2} \cdot ((3\times10^8)^{-1}\mathrm{m}^{-1}\,\mathrm{s})^2 \\ &\approx 10\,\mathrm{kg}(3\times10^8)^{-2} = 10\,\mathrm{kg}\bigg(\frac{1}{9}\times10^{-16}\bigg) \approx 1.11\times10^{-16}\,\mathrm{kg} \end{aligned}$$

(b) 100 W

$$\begin{split} 100\,\mathrm{W} &= 100\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^2\,\mathrm{s}^{-3} \approx 100\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^2\,\mathrm{s}^{-3} \cdot ((3\times10^8)^{-1}\mathrm{m}^{-1}\,\mathrm{s})^3 \\ &\approx 100\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1}(3^{-3}\times10^{-24}) = \frac{100}{27}\times10^{-24}\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1} \approx 3.7\times10^{-24}\,\mathrm{kg}\,\mathrm{m}^{-1} \end{split}$$

- **2** Convert the following from natural units (c = 1) to SI units:
- (a) A velocity  $v = 10^{-2}$ .

$$v = 10^{-2} = 10^{-2}c = 10^{-2}3 \times 10^8 \,\mathrm{m \, s^{-1}} = 3 \times 10^6 \,\mathrm{m \, s^{-1}}$$

(b) Pressure  $P = 10^{19} \text{kg m}^{-3}$ .

$$P = 10^{19} \text{kg m}^{-3} \approx 10^{19} \text{kg m}^{-3} (3 \times 10^8 \,\text{m s}^{-1})^2$$
$$\approx 10^{19} \text{kg m}^{-3} (9 \times 10^{16} \,\text{m}^2 \,\text{s}^{-2}) = 9 \times 10^{35} \,\text{N m}^2$$

- **3** Draw the t and x axes of the spacetime coordinates of an observer  $\mathcal{O}$  and then draw:
- (a) The world line of  $\mathcal{O}$ 's clock at  $x = 1 \,\mathrm{m}$ .

8

(a) Derive Equation (Schutz 1.3) from (Schutz 1.2) for general  $M_{\alpha\beta}$ .

Equation (Schutz 1.3) is just an expansion of the summation in (Schutz 1.2).

We start by taking out the  $dt^2$  term, which corresponds to  $\alpha = \beta = 0$ , which gives us

$$\mathrm{d}\bar{s}^2 = M_{00}(\mathrm{d}t)^2 + \dots,$$

now we use the equivalence of dt and dr to make the substitution

$$d\bar{s}^2 = M_{00}(dr)^2 + \dots$$

For the middle terms, we use the fact that  $M_{\alpha\beta} = M_{\beta\alpha}$ , and look at only the terms where one of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is zero. The symmetry means we can write  $M_{0i} = M_{i0}$ , and pull out a 2 because there are twice as many

1.14. EXERCISES 7

terms, giving us

$$d\bar{s}^2 = M_{00}(dr)^2$$

$$+ 2\left(\sum_{i=1}^3 M_{0i}(dx^i)(dt)\right)$$

$$+ \dots$$

Now we use the equivalence of dt and dr once again, and pull the term out of the sum, giving us

$$d\bar{s}^2 = M_{00}(dr)^2 + 2\left(\sum_{i=1}^3 M_{0i} dx^i\right) dr + \dots$$

Finally, we simply include the terms which have not yet been accounted for, which are all the *spacial-only* terms, which arrives us back at Equation (Schutz 1.3):

$$d\bar{s}^{2} = M_{00}(dr)^{2} + 2\left(\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{0i} dx^{i}\right) dr + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j}.$$

(b) Since  $d\bar{s}^2 = 0$  in Equation (Schutz 1.3), for any  $dx^i$ , replace  $dx^i$  with  $-dx^i$ , and subtract that result from the original equation. This will establish that  $M_{0i} = 0$ .

$$d\bar{s}^{2} = M_{00}(dr)^{2}$$

$$-2\left(\sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{0i} dx^{i}\right) dr$$

$$+\sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j}.$$

$$d\bar{s}^{2} - d\bar{s}^{2} = 0 = 0 M_{00} (dr)^{2} + 4 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{0i} dx^{i} \right) dr + 0 \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j}.$$

$$0 = A \left( \sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{0i} \, \mathrm{d}x^{i} \right) dr$$

Now there are two possibilities. In one case,  $dx^i \equiv 0$ , but that is a trivial solution and in general is not true. The other case is that  $M_{0i} \equiv 0$ , which means we can simplify Equation (Schutz 1.3) to

$$d\bar{s}^{2} = M_{00}(dr)^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j}.$$

(c) Use the result of part (b) with  $d\bar{s}^2 = 0$  to establish Equation (Schutz 1.4b).

$$d\bar{s}^{2} = 0 = M_{00}(dr)^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j}$$

$$\implies -M_{00}(dr)^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \sum_{j=1}^{3} M_{ij} dx^{i} dx^{j},$$

now if we expand  $(dr)^2$ , we see that there can only be non-zero  $M_{ij}$  when i=j, and so

$$-M_{00}\left((dx^{2}) + (dy^{2}) + (dz^{2})\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{3} M_{ii}(dx^{i})^{2}$$
$$\implies -(M_{00})\delta_{ij} = M_{ij},$$

which is simply Equation (Schutz 1.4b).

# Chapter 2

# Vector analysis in special relativity

- 2.1 Definition of a vector
- 2.2 Vector algebra
- 2.3 The four-velocity
- 2.4 The four-momentum
- 2.5 Scalar product
- 2.6 Applications
- 2.7 Photons
- 2.8 Further reading
- 2.9 Exercises