

A Very Impressive and Fancy Title for a Thesis

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Abstract

A really interesting and fascinating abstract

1 Introduction

NOTATION: we use a system of geometrized units $G = c = 1$.

2 From the Einstein's field equation to gravitational wave solutions

Albert Einstein developed the General Theory of Relativity between 1907 and 1917, creating a new tool to observe the universe. The General Theory of Relativity has changed the way we describe and study the gravitational phenomena. In particular, the new theory of gravitation was not only able to solve unexplained observations, as for instance, anomalies in the newtonian description of planets' orbits as Mercury, but it also predicted new phenomena such as gravitational time dilation, gravitational lensing and gravitational waves. One of the most important test of the General Theory of Relativity was the discovery of the gravitational waves (GW).

2.1 Linearized Einstein's field equation

The Einstein's field equation represents how the geometry of space-time is related to the presence of masses and energy:

$$G_{\mu\nu} \equiv R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu} \quad (1)$$

On the right hand side we have the energy-momentum tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$, which is interpreted as the flux of four momentum p^μ accross a surface of constant x^ν , and $G = 6.67408 \times 10^{-11} \text{ N m}^2 \text{ kg}^{-2}$ and $c = 299\,792\,458 \text{ m/s}$ that are respectively the Newton constant of gravitation and the speed of light. On the left hand side the Einstein tensor $G_{\mu\nu}$ includes a measure of the curvature of spacetime through the Ricci tensor $R_{\mu\nu}$, the Ricci scalar $R = R_{\mu\nu}g^{\mu\nu}$ and the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$.

In order to solve the Einstein's equation we will make assumptions on the metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$ and we will derive the Einstein tensor $G_{\mu\nu}$ going through the following steps:

- (a) Calculate the Christoffel symbol

$$\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\gamma} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\rho} (\partial_\beta g_{\gamma\rho} + \partial_\gamma g_{\rho\beta} - \partial_\rho g_{\beta\gamma}) \quad (2)$$

where ∂_μ means the partial derivative $\partial/\partial x^\mu$.

- (b) Calculate the Riemann curvature tensor

$$R^\alpha_{\beta\gamma\sigma} = \Gamma^\alpha_{\gamma\lambda} \Gamma^\lambda_{\sigma\beta} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\lambda} \Gamma^\lambda_{\gamma\beta} + \partial_\gamma \Gamma^\alpha_{\sigma\beta} - \partial_\sigma \Gamma^\alpha_{\gamma\beta} \quad (3)$$

- (c) Obtain the Ricci tensor and the Ricci scalar from the Riemann curvature tensor

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R^\alpha_{\mu\alpha\nu} \quad R = \eta^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} = R^\mu_\mu \quad (4)$$

$G_{\mu\nu}$ and $T_{\mu\nu}$ are symmetric tensors because $g_{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric as well. So the Einstein's field equation is a set of non-linear second-order partial differential equations with 10 linearly independent variables.

We show that the equation(1) leads to gravitational wave solutions if we consider a weak gravitational field, where the spacetime is nearly flat. Therefore, we assume the metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$ to be equal to the Minkowski metric $\eta = \text{diag}(-1, +1, +1, +1)$ plus a small perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu} \quad (5)$$

where perturbation is symmetric and $|h_{\mu\nu}| \ll 1$ for all μ and ν .

The metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ is also used to lower and raise indeces, however, in linearized theory we consider only the first order approximation in $h_{\mu\nu}$. So, it is possible to raise and lower indeces using the Minkoswian metric $\eta_{\mu\nu}$.

Taking into account the mentioned approximations we follow the described procedure to calculate the so-called linearized Einstein's field equation. The Christoffel symbol is obtained keeping up to the first order in the perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$

$$\Gamma^\alpha_{\beta\gamma} = \frac{1}{2}\eta^{\alpha\rho}(\partial_\beta h_{\gamma\rho} + \partial_\gamma h_{\rho\beta} - \partial_\rho h_{\beta\gamma})$$

The Riemann curvature tensor is

$$\begin{aligned} R^\mu_{\beta\gamma\nu} &= \partial_\gamma \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\beta} - \partial_\nu \Gamma^\mu_{\gamma\beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}[\eta^{\mu\rho}(\partial_\gamma \partial_\nu h_{\beta\rho} + \partial_\gamma \partial_\beta h_{\nu\rho} - \partial_\gamma \partial_\rho h_{\beta\nu}) - \eta^{\mu\sigma}(\partial_\nu \partial_\beta h_{\gamma\sigma} + \partial_\nu \partial_\gamma h_{\beta\sigma} - \partial_\nu \partial_\sigma h_{\beta\gamma})] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\gamma \partial_\beta h^\mu_\nu - \partial_\gamma \partial^\mu h_{\beta\nu} - \partial_\nu \partial_\beta h^\mu_\gamma + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h_{\beta\gamma}) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where we neglected the first two terms in eq(3) because they are second order terms. Contracting the first and the third indeces we get the Ricci tensor

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\beta\nu} &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \partial_\beta h^\mu_\nu - \partial_\mu \partial^\mu h_{\beta\nu} - \partial_\nu \partial_\beta h^\mu_\mu + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h_{\beta\mu}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \partial_\beta h^\mu_\nu - \square h_{\beta\nu} - \partial_\nu \partial_\beta h + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h_{\beta\mu}) \end{aligned}$$

where the trace of the perturbation is defined as $h = \eta^{\mu\nu} h_{\mu\nu} = h^\mu_\mu$, and the d'Alambertian operator in flat space is $\square = \partial_\mu \partial^\mu$.

Contracting again to obtain the Ricci scalar yields

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \partial^\nu h^\mu_\nu - \square h^\beta_\beta - \partial_\beta \partial^\beta h + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h^\nu_\mu) \\ &= \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h^{\mu\nu} - \square h \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Einstein tensor is

$$G_{\beta\nu} = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \partial_\beta h^\mu_\nu - \square h_{\beta\nu} - \partial_\nu \partial_\beta h + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h_{\beta\mu} - \eta_{\beta\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\lambda h^{\mu\lambda} - \eta_{\beta\nu} \square h) \quad (7)$$

If we define the **trace-reversed** perturbation

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}h\eta_{\mu\nu} \quad \bar{h} = \bar{h}^{\mu\nu}\eta_{\mu\nu} = -h$$

we can simplify the equation(7). Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\beta\nu} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_\mu \partial_\beta \bar{h}^\mu_\nu - \square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu} - \cancel{\partial_\nu \partial_\beta h} + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu \bar{h}_{\beta\mu} + \cancel{\frac{1}{2} \eta_{\nu\mu} \partial^\mu \partial_\beta h} - \cancel{\frac{1}{2} \eta_{\beta\nu} \square h} + \cancel{\frac{1}{2} \eta_{\beta\mu} \partial_\nu \partial^\mu h} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_\mu \partial_\beta \bar{h}^\mu_\nu - \square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu} + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu \bar{h}_{\beta\mu} - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\beta\nu} \square h \right) \end{aligned}$$

If we contract the above tensor we obtain

$$R = \partial_\mu \partial_\beta \bar{h}^\mu_\nu + \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h - \square h = \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \square h$$

So the Einstein's tensor expressed as a function of $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}$ is

$$G_{\beta\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \partial_\beta \bar{h}^\mu_\nu - \square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu} + \partial_\nu \partial^\mu \bar{h}_{\beta\mu} - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu}) \quad (8)$$

This expression can be simplified further by choosing an appropriate gauge transformation. Using the **Lorenz gauge** condition

$$\partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (9)$$

the Einstein's tensor of equation(8) becomes

$$G_{\beta\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\beta \partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\alpha} \eta_{\alpha\nu} + \partial_\nu \partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\alpha} \eta_{\alpha\beta} - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu \partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} - \square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu}) = -\frac{1}{2} \square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu}$$

The linearized Einstein's field equation is

$$\square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu} = -16\pi T_{\beta\nu} \quad (10)$$

we will solve the above equation with individual approximations in section(), whereas we work in vacuum. The energy-momentum tensor $T_{\beta\nu}$ is null in vacuum so the linearized Einstein's equation in vacuum assumes the form of the wave equation in a tensorial form

$$\square \bar{h}_{\beta\nu} = 0 \quad (11)$$

The above equation shows that the trace-reversed metric perturbation propagate as a wave distorting a flat spacetime.

The simplest solution to the linearized Einstein's equation(11) is a plane wave

$$\bar{h}_{\beta\nu} = A_{\beta\nu} \exp(i k_\alpha x^\alpha)$$

where $A_{\beta\nu}$ is called **amplitude tensor** and it is symmetric, since $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric. Substitution of the plane wave solution into equation(11) implies that $k_\alpha k^\alpha = 0$, so k^α is a null four vector. Therefore, the plane wave solution is a gravitational wave which travels at the speed of light in the spatial direction $\mathbf{k} = (k^1, k^2, k^3)/k^0$ and with frequency $\omega = k^0$, i.e. $\bar{h}_{\beta\nu} = A_{\beta\nu} \exp[i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{x} - \omega t)]$. Furthermore, any $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}$ satisfying the linearized Einstein's field equation(11) in vacuum describes a **gravitational wave** propagating at the speed of light, and it can be Fourier-expanded as a superposition of plane waves.

2.2 Gauge transformations and GW polarizations

A **gauge transformation** in linearized theory is defined as a transformation of the perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$ into a new metric perturbation $h'_{\mu\nu}$

$$h'_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu \quad (12)$$

for a given vector field ξ^μ . Gauge transformations are particularly important because they leave the Riemann curvature tensor unchanged (up to the first order in $h_{\mu\nu}$), indeed, the physical spacetime is unchanged. The invariance of the curvature under such transformations is analogous to the traditional gauge invariance of electromagnetism.

Assuming that the Einstein's field equation(10) are valid everywhere the metric perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$ contains: gauge degrees of freedom; physical, radiative degrees of freedom; and physical, non-radiative degrees of freedom tied to the matter source of the GW.

It is possible to show that the linearized Einstein's equation can be written as 5 Poisson-type equations for certain combinations of spacetime metric, plus a wave equation for the transverse-traceless components of the metric perturbation, which represents the radiative degrees of freedom.

Nevertheless this procedure will manifestly demonstrate that the radiative degrees of freedom in spacetime are two, it is a cumbersome and long derivation. Instead, we ignore the degrees of freedom tied to the matter and we consider only solutions of equation(11):

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = A_{\mu\nu} \exp(i k_\alpha x^\alpha)$$

By using the Lorenz gauge and the transverse traceless gauge, we reduce progressively the number degrees of freedom of a plane wave from 10 to 2.

We want now to find the conditions on the parameter ξ_μ in order to satisfy the Lorenz gauge condition, that we used in the previous section. The initial metric perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$ transforms into $h'_{\mu\nu}$ if a gauge transformation is used. However, the new trace reversed metric $\bar{h}'_{\mu\nu}$ transforms as

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{h}'_{\mu\nu} &= h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} (h + \partial_\alpha \xi^\alpha + \partial_\alpha \xi^\alpha) \\ \bar{h}'_{\mu\nu} &= \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha \xi^\alpha \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Imposing the Lorenz gauge $\partial_\mu \bar{h}'^{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = 0$ we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\mu \bar{h}'^{\mu\nu} &= \partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \partial^\mu \xi^\nu + \partial_\mu \partial^\nu \xi^\mu - \partial_\mu \eta^{\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha \xi^\alpha \\ &= 0 + \square \xi^\nu + \partial^\nu \partial_\mu \xi^\mu - \partial^\nu \partial_\alpha \xi^\alpha = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Any metric perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$ can therefore be put into a Lorenz gauge by using transformations that satisfy

$$\square \xi_\mu = 0$$

The plane wave $\xi_\mu = C_\mu \exp[i k_\alpha x^\alpha]$ is a solution of the above equation and it generates a gauge transformation through the four arbitrary constants C_μ .

The **Transverse-Traceless (TT) gauge** is the most convenient gauge for the analysis of the gravitational waves, and it is defined for a plane wave by the following conditions:

- a) The Lorenz gauge condition fixes four components of $A_{\mu\nu}$

$$\partial^\mu \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = A_{\mu\nu} k^\nu = 0$$

The amplitude tensor $A_{\mu\nu}$ and the four vector k^μ are orthogonal.

- b) Three components of the amplitude tensor can be eliminated selecting $\xi_\mu = C_\mu \exp[i k_\alpha x^\alpha]$ so that $A^{\mu\nu} u_\mu = 0$ for some chosen four velocity u_μ . Three and not four components are fixed, since one further constraint $k^\mu A_{\mu\nu} u^\nu$ needs to be satisfied.
- c) One component of the amplitude tensor can be eliminated selecting $\xi_\mu = C_\mu \exp[i k_\alpha x^\alpha]$ so that $A_\mu^\mu = 0$.

This means that we have sufficient freedom to fix the values of 8 components of $A_{\mu\nu}$ from a), b) and c), hence, reducing the number of independent component from 10 to 2. Note that $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} = h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}$ from c).

What are the physical consequences of using the TT gauge?

Let us consider a test a particle at rest with four-velocity $u^\alpha = (1, 0, 0, 0)$ in a nearly flat spacetime. If we orient our spatial coordinate axes so that the a plane gravitational wave is travelling in the positive z-direction $k^\sigma = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega)$ the transverse traceless conditions becomes

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A_{\mu 0}^{\text{TT}} \omega + A_{\mu 3}^{\text{TT}} \omega = 0 \\ A_{0\nu}^{\text{TT}} = 0 \\ A_{00}^{\text{TT}} + A_{11}^{\text{TT}} + A_{22}^{\text{TT}} + A_{33}^{\text{TT}} = 0 \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & A_{11}^{\text{TT}} & A_{12}^{\text{TT}} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{12}^{\text{TT}} & -A_{11}^{\text{TT}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

As a consequence of the transverse traceless gauge the only non-zero component of the metric perturbation $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}$ are, respectively, the plus (+) and the cross (\times) polarization of the gravitational wave

$$\bar{h}_{11}^{\text{TT}} = -\bar{h}_{22}^{\text{TT}} \equiv h_+$$

$$\bar{h}_{12}^{\text{TT}} = \bar{h}_{21}^{\text{TT}} \equiv h_\times$$

So, the plane wave solution in the TT gauge is:

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_\times & 0 \\ 0 & h_\times & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

where we express the real part of the solution with

$$h_+ = A_{11}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega(t - z))$$

$$h_\times = A_{12}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega(t - z))$$

h_+ and h_\times are the two independent polarizations of a gravitational wave and they completely characterize the gravitational wave solution. We finally found that the radiative degrees of freedom are only two and they are represented by h_+ and h_\times .

In the next section we will understand the physical meaning of these two polarizations.

3 Effects of Gravitational Waves

We have shown how the gravitational waves are obtained from the Einstein's field equation. By using the transverse traceless gauge we introduced crucial simplifications. We want now to explain the important physical consequences of the theoretical results obtained in the previous part. Throughout the next sections we will use the linearized theory of gravitational waves and we consider our metric to be in the TT Gauge.

3.1 Free particles

In general relativity the trajectory of a free falling particle is described by the **geodesic equation**

$$\frac{d^2x^\beta}{d\tau^2} + \Gamma^\beta_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} = 0 \quad (15)$$

where the coordinates of the particle are represented x^β and τ is the proper time. We choose a frame in which a test particle is initially at rest, i.e. with initial four-velocity

$$u^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

We consider a plane wave in the TT gauge propagating towards the test particle. Equation(15) can be used to express the initial acceleration of the particle

$$\left(\frac{du^\beta}{d\tau} \right)_0 = -\Gamma^\beta_{00} = -\frac{1}{2}\eta^{\beta\alpha}(\partial_0 h_{\alpha 0} + \partial_0 h_{0\alpha} + \partial_\alpha h_{00})$$

However, we recall from the TT gauge that

$$h_{0\alpha}^{TT} = 0 \quad h_{\mu\nu}^{TT} = \bar{h}_{\mu\nu}^{TT}$$

for all α . Hence, the initial acceleration of the particle is zero and a free particle, initially at rest, will remain at rest indefinitely.

In this context "being at rest" means that the coordinates of the particle do not change, so the TT gauge is a good choice of coordinate. As the gravitational waves propagates, the coordinate system moves with the ripples of the spacetime, in order to keep the particle in the initial position.

In the TT gauge free falling bodies are not influenced by GWs, and their coordinate separation is constant. However, the proper separation is not constant, so let us calculate it.

Consider two free falling test particles located at $z = 0$ and separated on the x axis by a coordinate distance L_c . We still consider a plane wave in the TT gauge propagating in

the z direction.

The proper distance between the particles is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_0^{L_c} |g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu|^{1/2} = \int_0^{L_c} \sqrt{g_{11}} dx = \int_0^{L_c} \sqrt{1 + h_+(t, z=0)} dx \\ &\approx \int_0^{L_c} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}h_+(t, z=0)\right) dx = L_c \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}h_+(t, z=0)\right) \end{aligned}$$

The proper distance is stretched by the passing gravitational wave and the two particles oscillate with a fractional length change given by

$$\frac{\delta L}{L} \approx \frac{1}{2}h_+(t, z=0) \quad (16)$$

The proper distance is a very important quantity for a laser interferometer gravitational wave detector, because the phase $\delta\phi$ accumulated by a photon that travels down and back the arm of a laser interferometer is

$$\delta\phi = \frac{4\pi\delta L}{\lambda}$$

where λ is the wavelength and δL is the distance the mirror moves relative to the beam splitter. Although we used TT gauge to calculate the above formula, it can be shown that this result is gauge independent.

If we had considered two particles on the y axis separated by the same coordinate distance, the proper distance would have been

$$L \approx L_c \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}h_+(t, z=0)\right)$$

Therefore, recalling the expression of the plus polarization for a plane wave

$$h_+ = A_{11}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega(t-z))$$

we notice that the particles along x axis are stretched, whereas the particles along the y axis are squeezed. This is one of the features of the plus polarization, that we will thoroughly analyze in the next section.

3.2 Geodesic deviation of test particles

The **geodesic deviation equation** expresses the relative acceleration between two neighboring geodesics belonging to a one-parameter geodesics $\gamma_s(\tau)$:

$$\frac{D^2}{d\tau^2} S^\mu = R^\mu_{\nu\rho\sigma} T^\nu T^\rho S^\sigma \quad (17)$$

where $S^\mu = \partial x^\mu / \partial s$ is the deviation from the geodesic, $T^\nu = \partial x^\mu / \partial \tau$ is the tangent to the geodesic and the directional covariant derivative is

$$\frac{D}{d\tau} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \nabla_\mu$$

The geodesic deviation equation is particularly important because it describes the relative motions of free falling objects and it gives a coordinate-independent measure of the gravitational wave effect. It will also clarify the meaning of the plus and the cross polarizations.

If we consider some nearby particles with four-velocities described by a single vector field u^μ and separation vector field S^μ , the geodesic deviation equation(17) becomes

$$\frac{D^2}{d\tau^2} S^\mu = R^\mu_{\nu\rho\sigma} u^\nu u^\rho S^\sigma \quad (18)$$

The four-velocity vector can be approximated with a unit vector in the time direction plus corrections of order $h^{TT}\mu\nu$ and higher, however the Riemann curvature tensor is already first order. Therefore, we ignore the corrections of the four-velocity vector and we write $u^\nu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$.

Since we have already calculated the Riemann curvature tensor in equation(6) we recall the result taking into account the TT gauge conditions

$$\begin{aligned} R^\mu_{00\sigma} &= \frac{1}{2} (\partial_0 \partial_0 h^{TT\mu}_\sigma - \partial_0 \partial^\mu h^{TT}_{0\sigma} - \partial_\sigma \partial_0 h^{TT\mu}_0 + \partial_\sigma \partial^\mu h^{TT}_{00}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 \partial_0 h^{TT\mu}_\sigma \quad \text{using } h^{TT}_{\mu 0} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

In the lowest order approximation the particles are slowly moving, then we have $\tau = x^0 = t$, so the geodesic deviation equation becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^\mu = \frac{1}{2} S^\sigma \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h^{TT\mu}_\sigma \quad (19)$$

The above equation is a set of differential equations that can be rewritten using the two polarizations of the metric perturbation (equation(14))

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^1 &= \frac{1}{2} S^1 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_+ + \frac{1}{2} S^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_\times \\ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^2 &= \frac{1}{2} S^1 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_\times - \frac{1}{2} S^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_+ \end{aligned}$$

These can be solved to yield, to lowest order,

$$\begin{aligned} S^1 &= S^1(t=0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} h_+ \right) + \frac{1}{2} h_\times S^2(t=0) \\ S^2 &= S^2(t=0) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} h_+ \right) + \frac{1}{2} h_\times S^1(t=0) \end{aligned}$$

+ Polarization of the gravitational wave



Figure 1: Effect of the h_+ component on a ring of free-falling test particles at $\omega t = n\pi/6$ with $n = 0, \dots, 12$.

Let us study the effects of the two polarizations h_+ and h_\times of a gravitational wave, which propagates through the center of a ring of free-falling test particles. So, let us use consider a plane wave travelling along the z axis, and let us place a ring of free-falling test particles on the x-y plane with its center in $(0, 0, 0)$. The ring is initially parametrized by $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ with $\theta \in (0, 2\pi]$ and the separation vector S^μ measures the deformation of the ring from its center.

Beginning with the case $h_\times = 0$ and $h_+ \neq 0$, the solutions of the geodesic deviation equation are

$$S^1 = \cos \theta \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} A_{11}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t) \right)$$

$$S^2 = \sin \theta \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} A_{11}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t) \right)$$

where $h_+ = A_{11}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t)$ for a plane wave. The time evolution of the ring is shown in Figure(1).

When the plus polarized gravitational wave propagates through the ring, it increases the proper distance between the ring and its center along the x axis when the phase of the wave is close to $\omega t = 0, 2\pi$, meanwhile it squeezes the test particles along the y axis. If the phase of the gravitational wave is close to $\omega t = \pi/2, 3\pi/2$ the ring is stretched along the y axis and the test particles move inwards, therefore, the proper distance from the center of the ring is reduced. As the wave passes, the test particles bounce back and forth in the shape of + as shown in Figure(3a).

On the other hand, the case where $h_\times \neq 0$ and $h_+ = 0$ yields the geodesic deviation solutions to be

$$S^1 = \cos \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta A_{12}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t)$$

$$S^2 = \sin \theta + \frac{1}{2} \cos \theta A_{12}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t)$$

where $h_\times = A_{12}^{\text{TT}} \cos(\omega t)$ for a plane wave. The relationship between these solutions and those for $h_+ \neq 0$ can be easily found if we consider an angle of $\theta = \pi/4$, therefore we obtain In this case the circle of particles bounce back and forth in the shape of

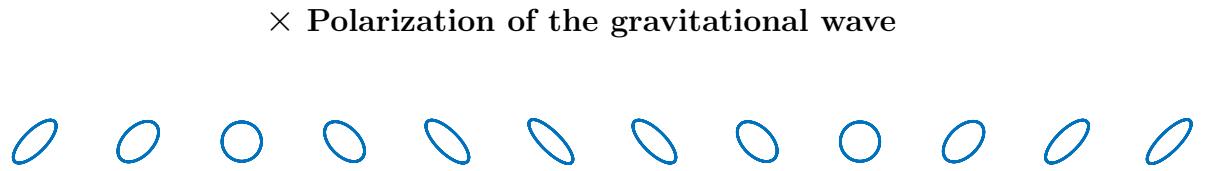


Figure 2: Effect of the h_x component on a ring of free-falling test particles at $\omega t = n\pi/6$ with $n = 0, \dots, 12$.

+ Polarization and \times Polarization

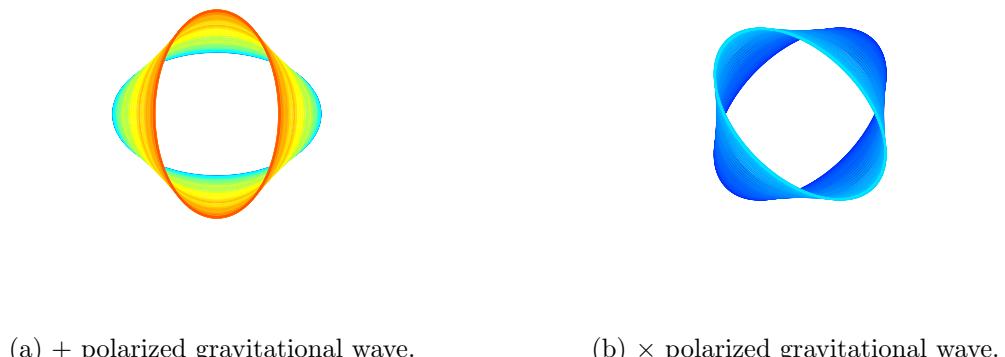


Figure 3: Evolution of a ring of free-falling test particles.

3.3 Detection of GW

4 Production of Gravitational Waves

We have studied how the gravitational waves propagate in vacuum. We now want to understand the relation between the gravitational waves and their source. In most of the physical scenarios the system that produces the gravitational waves is small compared to the distances with the detector. Therefore, In order to study the solutions of the linearized Einstein's field equation(10) we make a crucial approximation

4.1 Solution of the linearized Einstein's equation

The

5 Conclusion

6 Appendices

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