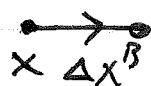
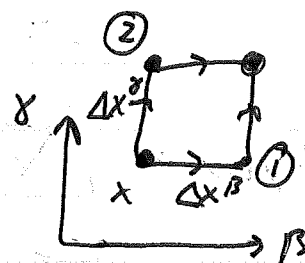


Curvature

The simplest setting in which to discuss Riemannian curvature is: parallel transport around a small closed path.

The central concern in gravitational kinematics, because it provides a geometrical (coordinate independent) language in describing gravitational tidal forces

or, alternatively, consider two distinct paths from x to destination



Recall that $\Gamma_2 dx^2$ is "connection one-form", matrix valued

Parallel transport from x to $x + \Delta x^\beta e_\beta$

$$U^\delta \Rightarrow [1 - \Gamma_\beta(x) \Delta x^\beta]^\delta_\eta U^\eta \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Common:} \\ \text{quadratic term} \\ \text{here won't} \\ \text{contribute} \end{array} \right) \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Matrix indices} \\ \text{suppressed} \end{array} \right)$$

weird notation
x is a word
 $\Delta x e$ is a vector

Transport to $x + \Delta x^\beta e_\beta + \Delta x^\gamma e_\gamma$ along path ①

$$\text{①: } [1 - \Gamma_\gamma(x + \Delta x^\beta e_\beta) \Delta x^\gamma] [1 - \Gamma_\beta(x) \Delta x^\beta]$$

$$= 1 - \Gamma_\gamma \Delta x^\gamma - \Gamma_\beta \Delta x^\beta - \partial_\beta \Gamma_\gamma \Delta x^\beta \Delta x^\gamma + \Gamma_\gamma \Gamma_\beta \Delta x^\beta \Delta x^\gamma$$

(to quadratic order in Δx)

Transport along path ②

$$\text{②: } [1 - \Gamma_\beta(x + \Delta x^\gamma e_\gamma) \Delta x^\beta] [1 - \Gamma_\gamma(x) \Delta x^\gamma]$$

$$= 1 - \Gamma_\beta(x) \Delta x^\beta - \Gamma_\gamma(x) \Delta x^\gamma - \partial_\gamma \Gamma_\beta \Delta x^\gamma \Delta x^\beta + \Gamma_\beta \Gamma_\gamma \Delta x^\gamma \Delta x^\beta + \dots$$

Hence ① - ②: $(-\partial_\beta \Gamma_\gamma + \Gamma_\gamma \Gamma_\beta + \partial_\gamma \Gamma_\beta - \Gamma_\beta \Gamma_\gamma) \Delta x^\beta \Delta x^\gamma$

$$= -[\partial_\beta + \Gamma_\beta, \partial_\gamma + \Gamma_\gamma] \Delta x^\beta \Delta x^\gamma = -[\nabla_\beta, \nabla_\gamma] \Delta x^\beta \Delta x^\gamma$$

The effect of parallel transport around a small closed path is encoded in the curvature. Z-form

$$U^\alpha \rightarrow \left[\mathbb{1} + R_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \right]^\alpha_\beta U^\beta$$

$$R_{\mu\nu} = [\nabla_\mu, \nabla_\nu] \quad \left. \begin{array}{c} \text{rectangle} \\ dx^\mu, dx^\nu \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{sign depends on} \\ \text{orientation} \\ \text{of square} \end{array}$$

commutator of covariant derivatives

$$\Delta U^\alpha = (R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu) U^\beta$$

Here $R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu}$ really is a $(1,3)$ tensor

e.g. $(\nabla_\mu \nabla_\nu - \nabla_\nu \nabla_\mu) V^\alpha = R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} V^\beta$
 — Both sides transform as a tensor

Important subtlety:

$\nabla_\beta \nabla_\alpha V^\delta$ includes a term in which connection coefficient of ∇_β acts on ∇_α

$$\begin{aligned} & \nabla_\beta (\partial_\alpha V^\delta + \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\gamma V^\gamma) \\ &= \partial_\beta \partial_\alpha V^\delta + (\partial_\beta \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\gamma) V^\gamma + \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\gamma \partial_\beta V^\gamma \\ & \quad + \Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\delta (\partial_\alpha V^\gamma + \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\eta V^\eta) + \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\gamma \nabla_\beta V^\gamma \\ & \quad - (\Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\gamma) (\partial_\gamma V^\delta + \Gamma_{\gamma\delta}^\eta V^\eta) \\ &= \partial_\beta \partial_\alpha V^\delta + \partial_\beta \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\gamma V^\gamma \\ & \quad + \Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\delta \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\eta V^\eta + \Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\delta \Gamma_{\alpha\delta}^\eta V^\eta \end{aligned}$$

Also symmetric
(sym under $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$)

In components, then

WARNING $\left[R^\alpha_{\beta\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu \Gamma^\alpha_{\nu\beta} - \partial_\nu \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\beta} + \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\delta} \Gamma^\delta_{\nu\beta} - \Gamma^\alpha_{\nu\delta} \Gamma^\delta_{\mu\beta} \right]$

Some authors have a different convention here. Recall (e.g. Weinberg)

$$\Gamma^\alpha_{\nu\beta} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\delta} [g_{\nu\delta,\beta} + g_{\beta\delta,\nu} - g_{\nu\beta,\delta}]$$

or $\Gamma_{\alpha\nu\beta} = \frac{1}{2} (g_{\nu\alpha,\beta} + g_{\alpha\beta,\nu} - g_{\nu\beta,\alpha})$

Warning: 1st index is transformed
upper index

Now recall that we can choose locally inertial coordinates with $\Gamma = 0$. In these coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} &= \partial_\mu \Gamma_{\alpha\nu\beta} - \partial_\nu \Gamma_{\alpha\mu\beta} \\ &= \partial_\mu \frac{1}{2} [g_{\nu\alpha,\beta} + g_{\alpha\beta,\nu} - g_{\nu\beta,\alpha}] \\ &\quad - \partial_\nu \frac{1}{2} [g_{\mu\alpha,\beta} + g_{\alpha\beta,\mu} - g_{\mu\beta,\alpha}] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} [g_{\nu\alpha,\beta\mu} - g_{\nu\beta,\alpha\mu} - g_{\mu\alpha,\nu\beta} + g_{\mu\beta,\alpha\nu}] \end{aligned}$$

we can "transform away" the connection coefficients by choosing the right coordinates, but we cannot "transform away" curvature — an intrinsic (tensor) quantity

$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}$ is essentially 2nd derivatives of g , with certain symmetry properties

individually it's a rank 4 tensor
linear in 2nd derivs of g

Remark: $E + M$ $D_\mu = \partial_\mu - ie A_\mu$
 $[D_\mu, D_\nu] = -ie F_{\mu\nu} = \text{maxwell field}$

What symmetries?

• Antisymmetric under $\mu \leftrightarrow \nu$ Clear, since

$$R_{\mu\nu} = [\nabla_\mu, \nabla_\nu]$$

• Antisymmetric under $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$

Also clear, since $(\mathbb{I} + R_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu)^\alpha_\beta$ is an infinitesimal rotation of a tangent vector

E.g.
 $(\mathbb{I} + \epsilon)(\mathbb{I} + \epsilon)\eta = \eta$
 $\Rightarrow \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} + \epsilon_{\beta\alpha} = 0$

• Also symmetric under

$$\mu \leftrightarrow \alpha$$

$$\nu \leftrightarrow \beta$$

is not a
 general property of
 curvature - but

i.e. curvature
 derived from
 a metric

is the Riemannian
 curvature

• One more symmetry

$$0 = R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\mu} + R_{\beta\gamma\alpha\mu} + R_{\gamma\alpha\beta\mu}$$

where does fol come from?

It means that $\nabla_\alpha \nabla_\beta \omega_\gamma = \frac{1}{2} R_{\alpha\beta\gamma}^\delta \omega_\delta = 0$

completely antisymmetrized
 in $\alpha \beta \gamma$

This is analogous to $d^2 \omega = 0$, where $\omega = 1$ form

It is a covariant version of $\text{div}(\text{curl } \vec{v}) = 0$

But... why is it true?

Follows from $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\gamma = \Gamma_{\beta\alpha}^\gamma$

Taking into account these symmetry constraints,

we can count the number of independent components

$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}$ - How many numbers to characterize curvature?

In 4 dimensions

$$\underbrace{R_{\alpha\beta}}_{\text{anti}} \underbrace{\mu\nu}_{\text{antisym}}$$

$\Rightarrow$ 6 values $\Rightarrow 6 = \frac{1}{2} 4 \cdot 3$ values

symmetry

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} 6 \cdot 7 = 21 \text{ values}$$

and one more
constraint

$$0 = R_{1230} + R_{2310} + R_{3120}$$

$\Rightarrow$ R has 20 components

20 is the number of independent quantities we can measure by performing parallel transport (NOT for general tangent spaces $T_x M$, but for a Riemannian connection -- a connection derived from a metric -- otherwise: $6 \times 6 = 36$)

Why 20? First, generalize to m dimensions

$$\frac{1}{2} \binom{m}{2} \left[\binom{m}{2} + 1 \right] - \binom{m}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} m(m-1) \right] \left[\frac{1}{2} m(m-1) + 1 \right] - \frac{1}{24} m(m-1)(m-2)(m-3)$$

$$= m(m-1) \left[\frac{1}{8} m(m-1) + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{24} (m-2)(m-3) \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{12} m^2 + \frac{1}{12} m$$

$$= \frac{1}{12} m^2 (m^2 - 1)$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1 & m=2 \\ 6 & m=3 \\ 20 & m=4 \end{cases}$$

Just one quantity in 2 dimensions

(e.g. ratio of circumference to radius is only intrinsic measure of local curvature)

Let's do the counting another way

$g_{\mu\nu,16}$ has $10 \cdot 10 = 100$ components

but we can set many to zero by choosing a suitable coordinate system....

E.g. $y^a(x^\mu)$

$$\Rightarrow g_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow g_{ab} = g_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^a} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^b}$$

$$\Rightarrow g_{ab,c} = g_{\mu\nu,1} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^c} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^a} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^b} + 2 g_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial^2 x^\mu}{\partial y^a \partial y^c} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^b}$$

$$g_{ab,cd} = g_{\mu\nu,16} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^d} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^c} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^a} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^b}$$

$$+ \dots + 2 g_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial^2 x^\mu}{\partial y^a \partial y^c \partial y^d} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial y^b}$$

• $g_{\mu\nu}$ has $\frac{1}{2} n(n+1)$ components

and there are $n^2 \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^a} \Rightarrow$ Enough to set $g_{ab} = \eta_{ab}$

and we have $\frac{1}{2} n(n-1)$ "extra" functions

why? - this is the number of parameters for a Lorentz transformation of the local coordinates, which leave η_{ab} invariant

• $g_{\mu\nu,1}$ has $n \cdot \frac{1}{2} n(n+1)$ components, the same number as $\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial y^a \partial y^b} \Rightarrow$ we have enough freedom to set $g_{\mu\nu,1} = 0$

- $g_{\mu\nu}$ has $[\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)]^2$ components
 But there are only $n \cdot \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(n+2)$ $\frac{\partial^3 x^\mu}{\partial y^a \partial y^b \partial y^c}$
 $\Rightarrow$ we don't have enough freedom to transform
 ~~g_{ab}~~ g_{ab} to zero —

Remaining parameters:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{4}n^2(n+1)^2 - \frac{1}{6}n^2(n+1)(n+2) &= n^2(n+1) \left(\frac{1}{4}n + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{6}n - \frac{1}{3} \right) \\ &= n^2(n+1) \frac{1}{12}(n-1) \\ &= \frac{1}{12}n^2(n^2-1) \end{aligned}$$

The Riemann tensor
 completely characterizes
 the invariant information
 encoded in 2nd derivatives
 of the metric

The Bianchi Identity

In addition to the algebraic constraints just noted that reduce the number of independent components of $R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}$, it also obeys an important differential constraint — the Bianchi identity — it's the rough analog in GR of the source-free Maxwell eqns of EM.

It can be expressed as

$$0 = \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\nu} \alpha_\beta \quad \text{where } [\] \text{ denotes antisymmetrization}$$

$$[\text{or } \nabla_\lambda \nabla_\mu \nabla_\nu] = 0 (?)$$

To derive it, note that

$$[\nabla_{\lambda}, \nabla_{\mu}] \nabla_{\nu} \omega_{\alpha} = \nabla_{\lambda} [\nabla_{\mu}, \nabla_{\nu}] \omega_{\alpha}$$

Now write out both sides —

we note that e.g.

$$[\nabla_{\alpha}, \nabla_{\beta}] T^{\gamma_1 \gamma_2 \dots} = R_{\alpha\beta}^{\gamma_1} T^{\gamma_2 \dots} + R_{\alpha\beta}^{\gamma_2} T^{\gamma_1 \dots}$$

(derivatives acting on T cancel
— see discussion on p. 19)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \text{Antisym}_{\lambda\mu\nu} \left(R_{\lambda\mu\nu}^{\gamma} \nabla_{\gamma} \omega_{\alpha} + R_{\lambda\mu\alpha}^{\beta} \nabla_{\nu} \omega_{\beta} \right) \\ &= \text{RHS} = \text{Antisym}_{\lambda\mu\nu} \left(\nabla_{\lambda} (R_{\mu\nu\alpha}^{\beta} \omega_{\beta}) \right) \\ &= \text{Antisym}_{\lambda\mu\nu} \left((\nabla_{\lambda} R_{\mu\nu\alpha}^{\beta}) \omega_{\beta} + R_{\mu\nu\alpha}^{\beta} \nabla_{\lambda} \omega_{\beta} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$\Downarrow$
 $0 = R_{[\lambda\mu\nu]}^{\gamma}$

$$\nabla_{\lambda} R_{\mu\nu\alpha}^{\beta} = 0$$

Since $R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}$ is already antisymmetric in $\mu \leftrightarrow \nu$, we may write this as:

More general than Riemannian geometry — i.e. depends on how R is constructed from Γ , not on how Γ is constructed from g

$$0 = \nabla_{\lambda} R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \nabla_{\mu} R_{\nu\lambda\alpha\beta} + \nabla_{\nu} R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

Remark: One easy way to derive the identity is to use the locally inertial coords, where $\nabla = \partial$ and

$$R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{2} [g_{\beta\mu, \nu\alpha} - g_{\beta\nu, \mu\alpha} - g_{\alpha\mu, \beta\nu} + g_{\alpha\nu, \mu\beta}]$$

We can check that the 12 terms cancel pairwise:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & g_{\beta\mu, \nu\alpha\lambda} - g_{\beta\nu, \mu\alpha\lambda} - g_{\alpha\mu, \beta\nu\lambda} + g_{\alpha\nu, \mu\beta\lambda} \\
 & + g_{\beta\nu, \lambda\alpha\mu} - g_{\beta\lambda, \nu\alpha\mu} - g_{\alpha\nu, \beta\lambda\mu} + g_{\alpha\lambda, \nu\beta\mu} \\
 & + g_{\beta\lambda, \mu\alpha\nu} - g_{\beta\mu, \lambda\alpha\nu} - g_{\alpha\lambda, \beta\mu\nu} + g_{\alpha\mu, \lambda\beta\nu} \\
 & = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Contracted Bianchi Identities

We can obtain other tensor from Riemann by contractions — filling some of its slots with the metric

$$R_{\mu\alpha} = g^{\nu\beta} R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \quad \text{Ricci Tensor}$$

↳ can't contract here because antisymmetric

Then $R_{\mu\alpha} = R_{\alpha\mu}$ — symmetric tensor

Has 10 components — NOT enough to fully characterize 4-dim curvature (but its 6 components are enough in 3-dim)

Hence:

$$R = g^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu}$$

Curvature Scalar

↳ All too is in 2 dimensions! (the "trace" of the Ricci tensor)

What does the Bianchi identity for Riemann imply for Ricci?

$$0 = g^{\nu\beta} (\text{Bianchi})$$

$$0 = g^{\nu\beta} [\nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \nabla_\mu R_{\nu\lambda\alpha\beta} + \nabla_\nu R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}]$$

$$= \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\alpha} - \nabla_\mu R_{\lambda\alpha} + \nabla^\beta R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

(remember: $\nabla g = 0$)

$$0 = \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\alpha} - \nabla_\mu R_{\lambda\alpha} + \nabla^\beta R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

and hence $0 = g^{\mu\alpha} [\text{above}]$

$$= \nabla_\lambda R - \nabla^\alpha R_{\lambda\alpha} - \nabla^\beta R_{\lambda\beta}$$

$$\text{i.e. } 0 = \nabla^\alpha R_{\beta\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} \nabla_\beta R$$

$$= \nabla^\alpha \left[R_{\beta\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\beta\alpha} R \right]$$

we may define:

$$G^{\alpha\beta} = R^{\alpha\beta} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} R$$

= Einstein Tensor = "trace-reversed Ricci Tensor"

- so called because

$$G^\alpha_\alpha = -R^\alpha_\alpha = -R$$

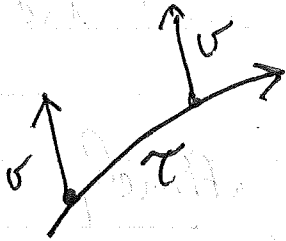
Then

$$\boxed{\nabla_\beta G^{\alpha\beta} = 0}$$

is the contracted
Bianchi
identity

Curvature and Geodesic Deviation

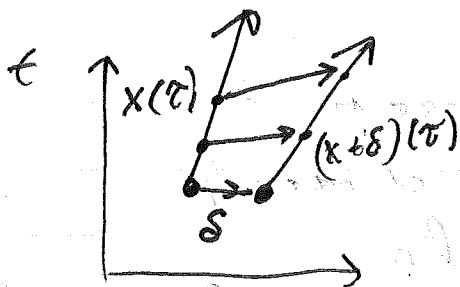
The connection between gravitation physics and Riemannian curvature is: curvature describes the tidal forces that cause neighboring geodesics (freely falling bodies) to converge or diverge. Let's find the precise relation



Let τ be the affine parameter of a geodesic with tangent vector $\vec{U} = \frac{d}{d\tau}$

Denote by $\frac{D}{d\tau} \vec{V} = \nabla_{\vec{U}} \vec{V}$

the covariant derivative along the geodesic of the vector $\vec{V}$ (e.g. τ is the proper time of a freely falling observer, and $\nabla_{\vec{U}} \vec{V}$ describes how $\vec{V}$ changes relative to locally inertial coordinate system)



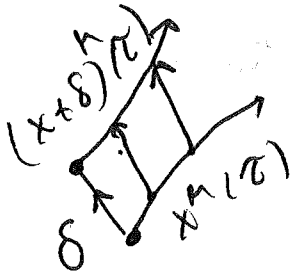
In flat space, consider 2 inertial bodies, each moving on a trajectory parametrized by its own proper time - the deviation

In Minkowski coordinates

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{is } \delta(\tau) = \delta_0^\mu + (\tau - \tau_0) u_0^\mu \\ \text{— linear in } \tau \end{array} \right.$$

In a spacetime diagram in flat space,
the trajectories are straight lines,
with equally spaced increments of τ on
each line

Tidal forces are characterized by the
leading departure from linearity
in τ , to leading order in the
small separation S .



Both trajectories are affinely
parametrized geodesics

$$0 = \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} x^\mu + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu(x) \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau}$$

$$0 = \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} (x+S)^\mu + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu(x+S) \frac{d}{d\tau} (x+S)^\nu \frac{d}{d\tau} (x+S)^\lambda$$

And so — to first order in S

$$0 = \frac{d^2 S^\mu}{d\tau^2} + 2\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu S^\nu \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} + 2\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \frac{dS^\lambda}{d\tau}$$



But — this is the coordinate change in S ,
which could arise from a screwy choice of
coordinates — we are interested in

$$\nabla_\tau \nabla_\tau S = \frac{D^2}{d\tau^2} S \quad - \text{covariant deriv along geodesic, which has geometric meaning}$$

i.e. u^λ (25)

$$\frac{D}{D\tau} g^\mu = \nabla_u g^\mu = \frac{d}{d\tau} g^\mu + \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D^2}{D\tau^2} g^\mu &= \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} g^\mu + \partial_\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma \\ &\quad + \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{d^2 x^\lambda}{d\tau^2} g^\sigma + 2 \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{dg^\sigma}{d\tau} \\ &\quad + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \Gamma^\alpha_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma \end{aligned}$$

Now -- we substitute in the above expression for:

$$\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} g^\mu \text{ and } \frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} x^\lambda$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D^2}{D\tau^2} g^\mu &= \left[-\partial_\sigma \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\eta} g^\sigma \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\eta}{d\tau} - 2 \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\lambda} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \frac{dg^\lambda}{d\tau} \right] \\ &\quad + \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \left[-\Gamma^\lambda_{\alpha\beta} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} \right] g^\sigma + \partial_\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma \\ &\quad + \left[2 \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{dg^\sigma}{d\tau} \right] + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \Gamma^\alpha_{\lambda\sigma} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma \end{aligned}$$

cancel

$$= \left[\partial_\nu \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} - \partial_\sigma \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\lambda} + \Gamma^\mu_{\gamma\nu} \Gamma^\gamma_{\lambda\sigma} - \Gamma^\mu_{\gamma\sigma} \Gamma^\gamma_{\nu\lambda} \right] \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} g^\sigma$$

$\Downarrow$
 $R^\mu_{\lambda\nu\sigma}$

Our conclusion is

$$\left[\frac{D^2}{D\tau^2} \delta^\mu = R^\mu{}_{\nu\sigma} \frac{dx^\lambda}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \delta^\sigma \right]$$

or $\left[\nabla_u \nabla_u \delta^\mu = R^\mu{}_{\nu\sigma} u^\lambda u^\nu \delta^\sigma \right]$

— the equation of geodesic deviation

Why is it Riemann — which we defined in terms of parallel transport around a closed path — that characterizes geodesic deviation?

It is because $R^\mu{}_{\nu\sigma}$ is the tensor that completely characterizes the coordinate-independent content of the 2nd derivatives of the metric ... and these 2nd derivatives control both the path dependence of parallel transport and geodesic deviation in an infinitesimal region!

(25A)

simplify the derivation by choosing locally inertial coordinates ($\Gamma = 0$)

then $0 = \frac{d^2 \delta^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \partial_\sigma \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\lambda} \delta^\sigma u^\nu u^\lambda$

and $\frac{D^2}{D\tau^2} \delta^\mu = \frac{d^2 \delta^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \partial_\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} u^\lambda u^\sigma \delta^\alpha$

$$= \partial_\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\lambda\sigma} u^\lambda u^\sigma \delta^\alpha - \partial_\sigma \Gamma^\mu_{\nu\lambda} \delta^\sigma u^\nu u^\lambda$$

$$= R^\mu_{\lambda\alpha\sigma} u^\lambda u^\sigma \delta^\alpha$$

The Einstein Field Equ

Recall - here are two sides to the theory of gravitation -
Both guided by the principle of equivalence $\Rightarrow$

 You don't feel gravity when freely falling

$\hookrightarrow$ General covariance: laws with no preferred coordinate system

① How does matter move? - on geodesics

Tidal forces: $\nabla_\mu \nabla_\nu \delta^{\mu}_{\alpha} = R^{\mu}_{\alpha \gamma \delta} u^{\gamma} u^{\delta} \delta^{\mu}_{\alpha}$

Spacetime curvature tells matter how to move - geodesic deviation

② But how does spacetime know how to curve?

$\nabla \parallel$ ① Lorentz force law: How charges move

② Maxwell eqns: How charges determine $E+B$

∇
A field eqn for gravitation

em tensor $T^{\mu}_{\nu} \Rightarrow$ metric $g_{\mu\nu}$

(up to a change of coordinates)

Again - general covariance
can guide us - an eqn with
a meaning independent of coordinates...

Recall Newton

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho$$

we already made the identification

$$h_{00} = -2\phi, \text{ from geodesic eqn}$$

$$\text{and } \Gamma^{\alpha}_{00} \approx -\frac{1}{2} h_{00}, \alpha \approx \nabla^{\alpha} \phi$$

we should obtain this
in a suitable limit!

• weak field

$$g_{\mu\nu} \approx \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}, |h| \ll 1$$

• slow sources, weak

$$\text{So } \Gamma_{00}^\alpha \approx \nabla^\alpha \phi$$

$$\text{And } \dots = \partial_\mu \Gamma_{\nu\beta}^\alpha - \partial_\nu \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\alpha + \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{00\nu}^\alpha \approx \partial_0 \Gamma_{\nu 0}^\alpha - \partial_\nu \Gamma_{00}^\alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{00} \approx -\partial_0 \Gamma_{\alpha 0}^\alpha + \partial_\alpha \Gamma_{00}^\alpha$$

$$\approx -\partial_0 \Gamma_{00}^\alpha + \partial_\alpha \Gamma_{00}^\alpha = \partial_i \Gamma_{00}^i = \partial_i \partial^i \phi$$

So in the Newtonian limit

$$R_{00} = \nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi G \rho \approx 4\pi G T_{00}$$

$$\text{So we can guess: } R_{\mu\nu} = 4\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \quad (??)$$

Einstein made such a guess - but there is a problem with

$$R \propto \nabla \cdot \nabla$$

Ricci

Blanchi:

$$\nabla_\mu R^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} \partial^\nu R = 0$$

Hence $\partial^\nu T^\lambda_\lambda = 0$ - NOT
true for general em tensor

$$\text{We have } \nabla \cdot T = 0, \text{ but } \underline{\text{NOT}} \nabla \cdot R = 0$$

At least,
it is not
an identity -
but so what?

The key to constructing
a consistent field eqn:

Recall that $\nabla \cdot G = 0$

$$G^{\mu\nu} = R^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} R$$

(Contracted
Blanchi identity)

$$\text{Now } G^{00} = R^{00} + R^{00} = 2 \nabla^2 \phi$$

Hence

$$G^{00} = 8\pi G T^{00}$$

and we are led to
propose

$$\boxed{G = 8\pi G T}$$

The Einstein field eqn -

$$\begin{aligned} T^{ij} &\approx 0 \\ \Rightarrow G^{ij} &\approx 0 \\ \Rightarrow R^{ij} &\approx \frac{1}{2} g^{ij} R \\ \Rightarrow R &= \frac{1}{2} R - R^{00} \\ \Rightarrow R &= 2 R^{00} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or in this} \\ \text{case we} \\ g_{\mu\nu} &= R(g_{\mu\nu} \\ &- \frac{1}{2} g T) \end{aligned}$$

We may as well choose our units so that

$$G = c = 1, \text{ and then}$$

$$\boxed{G = 8\pi T}$$

ordinarily $\frac{GM}{r} \sim v^2$ so $\frac{GM}{c^2} \sim \text{distance}$

In these units-- mass and distance have the same dimensions (because a mass can be interpreted as a source of curvature:

$$\frac{1}{\text{distance}^2} \sim \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{distance}^3}).$$

We can write the Einstein eq differently:

$$(R^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} R) = 8\pi T^{\mu\nu}$$

Take trace $-R = 8\pi T^\mu{}_\mu$

$$\Rightarrow R^{\mu\nu} = 8\pi T^{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} R$$

$$= 8\pi (T^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} T^\lambda{}_\lambda)$$

(which is actually how Einstein wrote it in 1915)

If there is no matter (source-free gravitation), then $T^{\mu\nu} = 0$

and

$$\boxed{R^{\mu\nu} = 0}$$

the empty-space Einstein eq

of the 20 components of the Riemann curvature, 10 vanish in "the vacuum," but 10 do not... This equation describes: pure spacetime geometry

it can wiggle, shake and "warp" w/o any sources

[Mach was wrong: spacetime not determined by the distant fixed stars.]

$$R^{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad \text{--- It sure looks simple}$$

But recall

$$\Gamma = g^{-1}(\partial g + \partial g - \partial g)$$

$$R = (\partial \Gamma - \partial \Gamma + \Gamma \Gamma - \Gamma \Gamma)$$

These eqns
are actually
highly
nonlinear
in the
metric



And indeed, are capable of
exhibiting much weirder and
wondrous behavior!

Far more difficult
than source-free
Maxwell eqns

Comment:

The cosmological

Term Some history of the field eqn (Pais, "Subtle is the Lord")

1907 (Bern) [P. of equivalence] for uniform acceleration,
and - red shift
- Bending of light (Eq 6R)

1907-1911, he was busy with q. theory (in Zurich)

1911 (Prague) $\rightarrow$ he understands the significance
of the P. of Equiv more broadly — there is
[no absolute acceleration]

1912 — First attempts at dynamics of grav. field

[c = speed of light = a scalar field

$$\Delta c = K \rho]$$

still
only
static
fields

Realizes that energy momentum, the source for
gravitation, should have a contribution from
gravity itself $\Rightarrow$ [A nonlinear theory]

Any other symmetric tensor aside from $R_{\mu\nu}$?
 How about the metric

$$\nabla \cdot g = 0, \text{ since } \nabla g = 0$$

$$\boxed{G + \Lambda g = 8\pi T}$$

= "cosmological constant"

not introduced by Einstein until later...

We could also write this as

$$G = 8\pi \left(T - \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} g \right)$$

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(\rho, p, p, p)$$

↳ and interpret as a constant
 (vacuum) contribution to
 energy momentum

For $\Lambda > 0$, the vacuum has

$$p_{\text{vac}} = \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi} > 0$$

$$p_{\text{vac}} = -\rho_{\text{vac}} < 0 \quad \text{negative pressure?}$$

Really the same as tension

We work to pull out

the piston if we are

creating pos. energy density



Cosmological term modifies Newtonian limit

$$G^{00} = \frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \phi = 8\pi (\rho + \rho_{\text{vac}})$$

Best limit - lower limit on how fast the expansion of the universe is decelerating (accelerating)

$$|\Lambda| < 10^{-29} \text{ g/cm}^3 \quad (!)$$

1917 - Einstein pioneers relativistic cosmology

Λ - for a static universe

A great mistake because:

But not such a great mistake - it makes sense to include Λ .

- ① His universe was unstable
- ② He failed to predict universe is dynamic

cf Newton's similar mistake: universe must be ∞ so won't collapse? (Homogeneous collapse can occur)

What about other conserved tensors?

There are more - involving more powers of Riemann ($\Rightarrow$ quadratic metric)

$$\text{E.g. } \mathcal{L} = \sqrt{g} (c_1 + c_2 R + c_3 R_{\mu\nu} R^{\mu\nu} + c_4 R^2 + \dots)$$

Best guess

$$L_{\text{Pl}} = \sqrt{\hbar} \left(= \left(\frac{\hbar G}{c^3} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx 1.6 \times 10^{-33} \text{ cm} \right)^{c_3/c_2 \sim (\text{Length})^2}$$

(Planck in 1899!!)

What length?

But - what about Λ ?

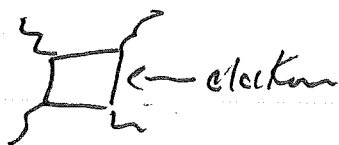
Too small by $\sim 10^{122}$

Neglect at long length scales

(Most serious disagreement between theory & exp in physics)

Similar issue in electromagnetism:

$$L_{em} = -\frac{1}{4} F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu} \quad \text{--- what about } (F_{\mu\nu} F^{\mu\nu})^2, (\epsilon_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} F^{\mu\nu} F^{\alpha\beta})^2 \text{ etc?}$$



$$\Rightarrow \frac{\alpha^2}{m_e^4} \text{ suppression}$$

Negligible at ordinary distances



Find T_{em} with 4 derivatives $\sim G$

Natural expansion parameter $(L_{pl}/L)^2$

Another comment on electromagnetism
— it has a Bianchi identity too!

$$\text{Analogy of } \epsilon^{\alpha\mu\nu} \nabla_\alpha R_{\mu\nu\lambda\beta} = 0$$

$$\text{is } \epsilon^{\alpha\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha F_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad \text{K.E. source free eqns!}$$

Maxwell

$F_{\mu\nu}$ is a source $\Rightarrow$

$$\partial_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = J^\nu$$

consistent with

$\partial_\nu J^\nu = 0$ if $F^{\mu\nu}$ antisymmetric

(or -- antisymmetry of $F^{\mu\nu}$

means that source must be conserved)

1912 (Zurich)

Recalls Gaussian theory of surfaces

Grossman tells him of Ricci, Levi-Civita, Riemann

- Riemannian geom as the crucial tool
- Eqs for $S_{\mu\nu}$
- Guess $T_{\mu\nu} = S_{\mu\nu} \leftarrow$ same tensor constructed from $S_{\mu\nu}$

Great progress — but some unfortunate misconceptions

Erroneous claim

Cannot obtain $\Delta\phi = 4\pi G\rho$ as a weak field limit!

He still doesn't understand general covariance:
Coordinates must be restricted

• $\nabla g = 0 \Rightarrow$ Cannot construct a tensor eqn from g

• Field eqns cannot determine $S_{\mu\nu}$

completely! (He does not understand that it is not supposed to!)

Meanwhile — Nordström 1912 — a special relativistic theory

$$\Box = \square \quad - \quad \Box \Box = K T^{\alpha}_{\alpha}$$

1913 Einstein (+ Fokker) point out —

This is

$R = \text{const } T$
Ricci scalar

where $S_{\mu\nu} = \chi^2 \eta_{\mu\nu}$

1914 (Berlin)

But E thinks this is not enough good reason

• Another wrong paper as why field eqns cannot be generally covariant

- He develops a theory with only linear covariance

Nov 1915 - until July, 1915, he still believed old theory
- in October, he is dissatisfied

A new paper every week communicated to Russian Academy

Nov 4: • Tensor ought not to determine $g_{\mu\nu}$ completely

- More general covariance, but unimodular Tensors only

Nov. 11: A forgettable paper? - demanding that } Requires
matter satisfy $T^{\mu}_{\mu} = 0 (!)$ $\sqrt{g} = 1$

He writes $R_{\mu\nu} = -K T_{\mu\nu}$

Nov. 18: still $\sqrt{g} = 1$ - but

- Perihelion of mercury
- Bending of light: Twice his 1907 prediction
(Good thing was prevented earlier eclipse expedition)

Nov. 25

$$\boxed{R^{\mu\nu} = K (T^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} T)} \quad \text{TADA!}$$

still does not know about Bianchi

He thinks $O: T^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu}$ constrains metric

(Realizes $\sqrt{g} = 1$ on Nov. 18 was just a gaudy choice)

Note: Hilbert Nov. 20 had it first

$$O \int \sqrt{g} d^4x \left[L_{\text{matter}} - \frac{1}{2} K R \right]$$

He doesn't know Bianchi either

Hand E
catalog of
6 letters
Nov. 7-19

- In Oct 1916, E. finally realizes that $T^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu} = 0$ follows from $G^{\mu\nu} \propto T^{\mu\nu}$
- In Aug 1917, Weyl shows that $G^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu}$ follows from Hilbert's variational principle
- Only in 1924 does a paper appear that points out that Bianchi identity had long been known (since 1880) in diff geom literature

Remark: $0 = T^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu}, 0 = G^{\mu\nu}_{;\nu}$] special case of Noether's thm?

Gravitational Waves

Even w/o any matter, gravitation is interesting

$$\boxed{R^{\mu\nu} = 0}$$

still allows
Riemann $R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} \neq 0$



Space can shake, rattle, and roll

Nonlinear and complicated

(cf "Einstein Challenge" of coalescing black holes)

Much easier on the linearized ("weak field") eqns
Propagating ripples of spacetime curvature

The traditional approach - use coordinates that are "near Minkowski"

$$g_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} + h_{\alpha\beta} \quad |h| \ll 1$$

(But not longer around vcc, as in our discussion of Newtonian limit)

The Einstein eqn $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ becomes a linear eqn for h , which we can interpret as eqn

for $h_{\alpha\beta}$ in flat space (with linear Lorentz invariance)

$$\boxed{h_{\alpha\beta} = \Lambda^\mu_\alpha \Lambda^\nu_\beta h_{\mu\nu}} -$$

(Since the "background" η by itself is Lorentz invariant)

How h transforms under linear coord trans.

Also - consider small shifts in the coords

$$x'^\alpha = x^\alpha + \epsilon^\alpha \quad \frac{\partial x'^\alpha}{\partial x^\beta} = \delta^\alpha_\beta + \epsilon^\alpha_{,\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow g'_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} + h_{\alpha\beta} - \epsilon_{\alpha,\beta} - \epsilon_{\beta,\alpha} + \dots$$

"Gauge symmetry"

$$\boxed{h_{\alpha\beta} \rightarrow h_{\alpha\beta} - \partial_\beta \epsilon_\alpha - \partial_\alpha \epsilon_\beta}$$

demanded from freedom to choose coords as we please

$R_{\mu\nu}$ is gauge-invariant to first order

$$R_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu} \approx \frac{1}{2} (h_{\alpha\nu,\beta\mu} + h_{\beta\mu,\alpha\nu} - h_{\alpha\mu,\beta\nu} - h_{\beta\nu,\alpha\mu})$$

(This is because $R \rightarrow (1 \oplus \epsilon) R$ -- it is a tensor
here $R \rightarrow R + O(\epsilon)$ --)

Quite analogous to freedom $A_\mu \rightarrow A_\mu + \partial_\mu \Lambda$
(we can fix the gauges as we please)

Analog of Lorentz gauge $\partial_\mu A^\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \square A^\mu = 0$
is Nilsson gauge $\partial_\mu (h^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} h)$

↑ trace reversed
" $\bar{h}$ "

And then $\square \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = 0$
 $\partial_\mu \bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = 0$
Does not fix gauge completely $\Rightarrow$ source free

A wave eqn: $\bar{h}^{\mu\nu} = e^{\mu\nu} e^{ik \cdot x}$
 $\Rightarrow k^2 = 0$
 $k_\mu e^{\mu\nu} = 0$

Remaining freedom: $h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} - \partial_\mu \xi_\nu - \partial_\nu \xi_\mu$

$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} h$
 $\rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} - \partial_\mu \xi_\nu - \partial_\nu \xi_\mu + \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial^\lambda \xi_\lambda$

$\xi_\mu = e_\mu e^{ik \cdot x}$

or $e_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow e_{\mu\nu} - i k_\mu e_\nu - i k_\nu e_\mu + i \eta_{\mu\nu} k \cdot e$

Enough freedom to impose:

$k_\alpha = k(1 0 0 1)$
 $\hat{z}$ direction

$e^\mu{}_\mu = 0$
 $e_{0\mu} = e_{3\mu} = 0$ } = Transverse
Traceless
gauge"

Now we need to figure out the gauge-invariant meaning of the soln:

E.g., construct Riemann, and consider geodesic deviation of (tidal forces on) test particles

But Roger & Lip use an elegant approach that short-circuits much of this analysis, by working directly with ^{invariant} (tensor) quantities --

Vacuum propagation

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

It's like writing $wave eqn for F_{\mu\nu}$ instead of A_μ in some ways it is easier to work with vectors than tensors

what do we know about Riemann?

Recall uncontracted Bianchi identity

$$0 = \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\alpha} - \nabla_\mu R_{\lambda\alpha} + \nabla^\beta R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\nabla^\beta R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}} \quad \text{so Riemann is divergence free in each index}$$

Going back to uncontracted Bianchi

$$0 = \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \nabla_\mu R_{\nu\lambda\alpha\beta} + \nabla_\nu R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

Divergence free $\Rightarrow$

$$0 = \nabla^\lambda (\text{above}) = \nabla^\lambda \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} + \nabla^\lambda \nabla_\mu R_{\nu\lambda\alpha\beta} + \nabla^\lambda \nabla_\nu R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta}$$

Now -- if we could commute ∇ through T_μ or T_ν -- we could use divergence free condition

But -- they don't commute $[\nabla_\lambda, T_\mu]^\alpha = R^\alpha_{\beta\lambda\mu}$

On the other hand, if curvature is small -- neglect terms quadratic in Riemann and obtain

$$\boxed{(\nabla \cdot \nabla) \underline{R} = 0}$$

i.e.

$$\nabla^\lambda \nabla_\lambda R_{\mu\alpha\beta} = 0$$

WARNING: weak
field approximation

In "nearly Minkowski" coordinates,
again neglecting effects higher order in
curvature

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla = \square \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\square \underline{R} = 0}$$

A wave equation

As for -- wave
propagating in z
direction

$$\boxed{R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}(t-z)}$$

Each
component
is a function
of $t-z$

But -- how many independent
components -- how many
polarizations?

Plug $R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}(t-z)$ into Bianchi identity

$$\text{Linearized } \partial_\mu R_{\nu\lambda\alpha\beta} + \partial_\nu R_{\lambda\mu\alpha\beta} + \partial_\lambda R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = 0$$

$$\partial_0 R_{xy\alpha\beta} = 0 = \partial_z R_{xy\alpha\beta}$$

$$\partial_z R_{x0\alpha\beta} + \partial_0 R_{zx\alpha\beta} = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = \partial_0 (R_{zx\alpha\beta} - R_{x0\alpha\beta})$$

$$\partial_z R_{y0\alpha\beta} + \partial_0 R_{zy\alpha\beta} = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = \partial_0 (R_{zy\alpha\beta} - R_{y0\alpha\beta})$$

$$R_{xy\alpha\beta} = \text{constant} \Rightarrow = 0 \quad (\text{localized wavepacket})$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} R_{xy\alpha\beta} = 0 \\ R_{x0\alpha\beta} = R_{zx\alpha\beta} \\ R_{y0\alpha\beta} = R_{zy\alpha\beta} \end{array}}$$

$\mu\nu$ or $\alpha\beta$ can have the values

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} xy \rightarrow 0 \\ zx \rightarrow x0 \\ zy \rightarrow y0 \end{array}}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & \leftarrow & xy & & yz & & zx \\ & & 0x & \leftarrow & 0y & & 0z \end{array}$$

We can eliminate
 $yz \quad zx \quad xy$

Now only components are R_{i0j0}

What further restrictions from the vacuum Einstein Eqs?

$$0 = R^\mu{}_\alpha \mu\beta$$

$$R^i{}_{0ix} = R_{z0zx} = R_{z0x0} = 0$$

$$R^i{}_{0iy} = R_{z0zy} = R_{z0y0} = 0$$

$$R^i{}_{0iz} = R_{x0xz} + R_{y0yz} = -R_{x0x0} - R_{y0y0} = 0$$

$$R^i{}_{0i0} = R_{x0x0} + R_{y0y0} + R_{z0z0} = 0$$

31A

The remaining 6 eqns are trivial identities -- so we learn

$$R_{z0x0} = 0$$

$$R_{z0y0} = 0$$

$$R_{z0z0} = 0$$

The waves are
"Transverse"

$$R_{z0\alpha\beta} = 0$$

↗
"no z-component"

3
components
remain $\begin{bmatrix} R_{x0y0} \\ R_{x0x0} \\ R_{y0y0} \end{bmatrix}$

And also $\searrow R_{x0x0} + R_{y0y0} = 0$

(The waves are "Kerless")

Transverse-Kerless: "TT"

In the "gauge fixed" Longrange, we have

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = e_{\mu\nu}^{(+)} h_+(t-z) + e_{\mu\nu}^{(\times)} h_{\times}(t-z)$$

"h-plus"

"h-cross"

$$e_{\mu\nu}^{(+)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

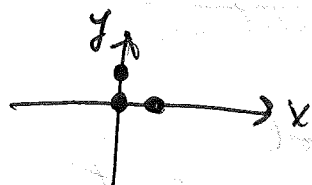
$$e_{\mu\nu}^{(\times)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

And $R^x_{0x0} = -\frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_+(t-z) = -R^y_{0y0}$

$$R^y_{0x0} = -\frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_{\times}(t-z) = R^x_{0y0}$$

R_{0j0} is transverse (No $\hat{z}$ component)
and traceless [$R_{z0z0} = R_{z0x0} = R_{z0y0} = 0$]

A gravitational wave has 2 independent polarizations: plus and cross



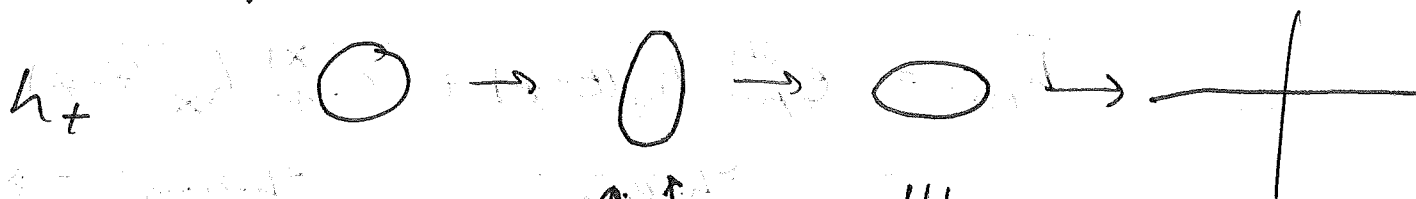
What tidal acceleration does the wave produce?

Geodesic deviation $\frac{D^2 \delta^{\mu}}{D\tau^2} = R^{\mu}_{\nu\lambda\sigma} u^{\nu} u^{\lambda} \delta^{\sigma}$

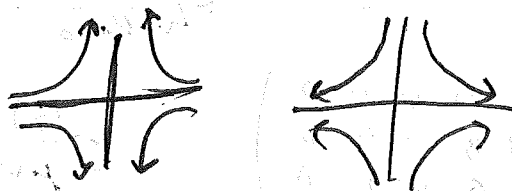
For particles initially at rest
 $\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \delta^i = -R^i_{0j0} \delta^j \Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\delta}^x &= \frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_+ \delta^x + \frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_{\times} \delta^y \\ \ddot{\delta}^y &= \frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_{\times} \delta^x - \frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_+ \delta^y \end{aligned}$$

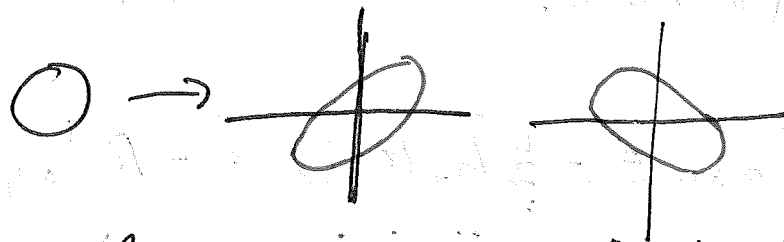
Acting on a circle of free particles



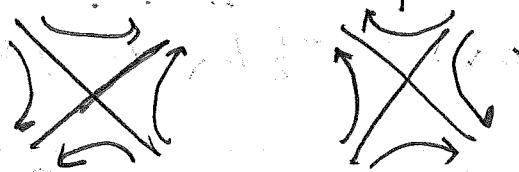
Quadrupole
tidal field



h_x



Same quadrupole
field -- only
rotated 45°



(Origin of Ke names + and X)

Are they really independent?

$e_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow R e R^T$ under rotations

and $e^{(+)}$ and $e^{(x)}$ are orthogonal
basis states of a 2dim representation
of the 2D rotation group

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \epsilon \\ -\epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1-\epsilon \\ \epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} + \\ x \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2\epsilon \\ -2\epsilon & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} + \\ x \end{pmatrix}$$

Helicity states

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (e^{(+)} \pm i e^{(x)}), \quad \lambda = \pm 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} & (1 + i\epsilon \sigma_y) (\sigma_z) (1 - i\epsilon \sigma_y) \\ &= \sigma_z + i\epsilon [\sigma_y, \sigma_z] = \sigma_z - 2\epsilon \sigma_x \end{aligned}$$

Are the waves "real"?

They have a subtle property - unlike the case of an em wave, we can't express its energy-momentum as the integral of a local density!

Why not? Equivalence principle
— the wave is "invisible" in the local
Lorentz frame

It is a general
feature that in GR
energy is not
the sum of its
parts

Chapel Hill 1957
— a spirited discussion

Feynman's
beads on a stick
(the stick remains stiff
— but the beads move)



Friction $\Rightarrow$
the stick heats
up.

must locally
be

Generation of the Waves

Solve, in the
sage-fixed formalism

$$\square \bar{L}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi T_{\mu\nu}$$

Do a multipole expansion
No "quadrupole dipole", so
leading term is quadrupole

$$L = \frac{1}{5} \langle \ddot{\mathbf{I}}_{ij} \ddot{\mathbf{I}}^{ij} \rangle$$

cf Binary pulsar

$$L \sim M^2 \ell^4 \omega^6$$



Roemer
4°/year

period 7h 45min

$$M_1 \sim M_2 \sim 1.4 M_\odot$$

$$5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ yr}^{-1} \text{ rate of orbit decay}$$

measured to better than 1%

Measure
period
Doppler shifts
Precession



predict L

$$\frac{dP}{dt} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ sec/yr}$$