

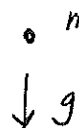
L3 - General Relativity I

GR is Einstein's theory of gravity, which superseded Newton's. Some essential features of GR are:

- * Mass curves spacetime. Thus, GR is a geometric theory of gravity.
- * Test particles move on the straightest possible trajectories within this curved spacetime. These trajectories appear to be orbits.
- * Even light is thus bent in a gravitational field. — a new prediction.
- * Light is also redshifted (λ increases) as it climbs out of a gravitational field.

Gravity as a Fictitious Force

Recall free-fall in Newtonian gravity. Galileo found that $a = g$ regardless of the mass. Newton's explanation was



$$F = mg = ma \rightarrow a = g$$

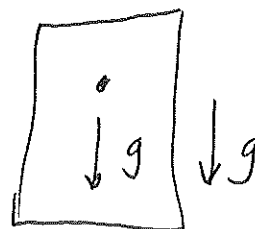
But actually, there are two different masses:

m_g — the gravitational mass that determines the force on the body

m_i — the inertial mass that gives the sluggishness with which the body responds to any force, gravity or not

So, to Newton, it was a coincidence that $m_g = m_i$

Einstein viewed the matter another way. If we are in a freely falling environment (an elevator), the object would appear to float. He called this the principle of equivalence:



In any inertial (freely falling) reference frame, gravity vanishes

We recall that there are other forces that disappear when one is not in the right reference frame — centrifugal force, Coriolis force, etc. So one only detects gravity if one is in a non-inertial reference frame. In any inertial frame, the dynamics of special relativity apply.

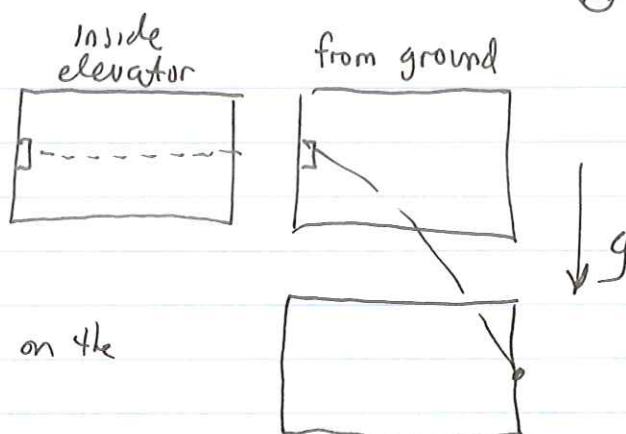
Bending of Light

Consider shooting a flashlight beam within a falling elevator:

An observer inside the elevator sees no gravity. Thus, the beam travels in a straight line and hits the middle of the opposite wall.

The same must be true for an observer on the ground.

Thus light bends gravity.



Curvature of Space

Consider two closely spaced points in 3D space, separated by $\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z$. The distance between them is

"metric"

$$\Delta s^2 = \Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2 + \Delta z^2 \equiv \Delta x_1^2 + \Delta x_2^2 + \Delta x_3^2$$

We can think of this as the dot product of $(\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2, \Delta x_3)$ with itself. More formally

$$\Delta s^2 = \sum_i h_{ij} \Delta x_i \Delta x_j$$

"metric coefficients"

Here, $h_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Of course, we can only use another coordinate system. E.g. spherical:

$$\Delta s^2 = (\Delta r)^2 + (r \Delta \theta)^2 + (r \sin \theta \Delta \phi)^2$$

The metric coefficients are now different, but Δs^2 is the same as long as the coordinates are related by the proper transformation. We are viewing the same line segment in two different coordinate systems. The distance is invariant

Differential geometry: We can construct a complicated function of the metric coefficients and their derivatives w/ respect to the coordinates called the "curvature tensor." In the above examples, all components of this tensor vanish, in any system. But if we draw a short arc on the surface of a sphere, the tensor would not vanish: space is curved. (eg the interior angles of a Δ do not sum to 180°)

up to now has not been *

Curvature of Spacetime

Going back to special relativity, and an inertial frame, consider two closely spaced events. Construct the spacetime interval

$$\Delta s^2 = (c\Delta t)^2 - \Delta x^2 - \Delta y^2 - \Delta z^2$$

flat-space
metric

which we can write as

$$\Delta s^2 = \eta_{ij} \Delta x^i \Delta x^j$$

$$\Delta x^0 = c\Delta t$$

$$\Delta x^1 = \Delta x$$

etc.

The metric coefficients are:

$$\eta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j=0 \\ -1 & \text{if } i=j=1,2,3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If you go to another reference frame, the coordinates of the events are related by the Lorentz transformation. It can be shown (proof in HW) that Δs^2 is the same in the new system. It is a "Lorentz invariant."

We can also write the flat-space metric in spherical coordinates:

$$\Delta s^2 = (c\Delta t)^2 - (\Delta r)^2 - (r\Delta\theta)^2 - (r\sin\theta\Delta\phi)^2$$

The metric coefficients change, but the spacetime is still "flat"

Differential geometry: Again, we can construct a curvature tensor out of the metric coefficients and their first derivatives. It vanishes in both cases.

> If there is gravity, we must be in a non-inertial (accelerating) reference frame. We can still write

$$\Delta s^2 = g_{\mu\nu} \Delta x^\mu \Delta x^\nu$$

As always, the actual metric coefficients depend on the choice of coordinate system. But GR asserts that the curvature tensor does not vanish. *

Equivalence Principle Revisited

If we transform to a freely-falling (inertial) reference frame, both the coordinates and the metric coefficients change. If we use Cartesian coordinates in the inertial frame, then the metric coefficients become η_{ij} (Euclidean) locally - it is not Euclidean everywhere. Minkowski

Field Equations

The exact connection between mass and curvature is given by the field equations:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{A non-linear equation, since} \\ \text{the grav field itself acts as} \\ \text{a source of mass/energy} \end{array} \right.$$

$G_{\mu\nu}$ (Einstein tensor) is a combination of the curvature tensor and $g_{\mu\nu}$ itself.

$T_{\mu\nu}$ is the "stress-energy tensor". This describes all non-gravitational sources of mass and energy.

Schwarzschild Metric

Schwarzschild set $T_{\mu\nu} = 0$ and obtained the metric for the spacetime surrounding a point mass M located at the origin. The result is

$$\boxed{(ds)^2 = \left(c dt \sqrt{1 - 2GM/rc^2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - 2GM/rc^2}} \right)^2 - (r d\theta)^2 - (r \sin\theta d\phi)^2}$$

Notice that the angular parts are the same as in flat space, reflecting spherical symmetry.

Addendum on Light

Recall that in special relativity, $ds^2 = 0$. GR asserts that this remains true even in a non-inertial frame.

Consider a light ray propagating radially outward in the Schwarzschild metric.

Here, $d\theta = d\phi = 0$

$$\text{so} \quad c dt \sqrt{1 - 2GM/rc^2} = \frac{dr}{\sqrt{1 - 2GM/rc^2}}$$

(13)

Thus, the time for light to propagate from r_1 to r_2 is

$$t = \int dt = \frac{1}{c} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dr}{1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}}$$

NB: It doesn't matter when the light leaves r_1 ; the travel time is always the same; a consequence of the fact that the gravitational field is time-independent. This fact will prove to be important.