Einstein's Equation:

$$
G_{\mu \nu}=R_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} g_{\mu \nu} R=8 \pi \hat{G} T_{\mu \nu}
$$

where $G_{\mu \nu}$ is the Einstein Tensor, and $\hat{G}$ is the Newtonian constant.
Note:

1. The equation is non-linear in the metric, which we should expect since there are no neutral observers $\rightarrow$ no superposition of sources as in Maxwell's EM equations (methods used in EM (like method of images) would work in gravity because the equations aren't linear).
2. Alternative:
$G=g^{\mu \nu} G_{\mu \nu}=R-\frac{1}{2} g^{\mu \nu} g_{\mu \nu} R=-R=8 \pi \hat{G} T$
where $\hat{G}$ is the Newtonian constant, and $T=g^{\mu \nu} T_{\mu \nu}$.
$G$ is the scalar associated with the Einstein tensor (and Newton's constant)
$\rightarrow R_{\mu \nu}=8 \pi \hat{G}\left(T_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} g_{\mu \nu} T\right)$
3. The addition of a term $\Lambda g_{\mu \nu}$ is compatible with our criteria, where $\Lambda$ is a constant. $\Lambda$ represents vacuum energy, and is known as the cosmological constant. We will return to this in section 7.
Einstein called $\Lambda$ his greatest blunder, but cosmological observations suggest that it is non-zero (but very small).

### 5.3 Newtonian Limit

Consider the line element

$$
d s^{2}=e^{2 \phi} d t^{2}-d x^{2}
$$

with $\phi=\phi(x) \ll 1$. This $\phi$ will represent the gravitational potential. The Einstein equations become the Poisson equations in this Newtonian space.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \rightarrow L_{e f f}=e^{2 \phi} \dot{t}^{2}-\dot{x}^{2} \\
& \frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial \dot{t}}=2 e^{2 \phi} \dot{t} ; \frac{d L_{e f f}}{d t}=0 \rightarrow \ddot{t}=0 \\
& \frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial \dot{x}}=-2 \dot{x} ; \frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial x}=2 \partial_{x} \phi e^{2 \phi} \dot{t}^{2} \\
& \rightarrow \ddot{x}+\partial_{x} \phi e^{2 \phi} \dot{t}^{2}=0 \\
& \Gamma^{x}=\partial_{x} \phi e^{2 \phi}, \Gamma=0 \text { otherwise } \\
& \text { For } \phi \ll 1, \\
& \frac{\ddot{x}}{\dot{t}^{2}}=\frac{\partial^{2} x}{\partial t^{2}}=-\partial_{x} \phi=-\nabla \phi
\end{aligned}
$$

$\rightarrow$ Newtonian equations of motion for test particle.
Now consider
$R_{\mu \nu}=R^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho v}=\partial_{\rho} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{\nu} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho}+\Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\gamma \rho} \Gamma^{\gamma}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\nu} \Gamma^{\gamma}{ }_{\mu \nu}$
Use $\Gamma^{x}{ }_{t t}=\partial_{x} \phi+\nabla\left(\phi^{3}\right) \rightarrow \Gamma \sim \phi \rightarrow \Gamma^{2} \sim \phi^{2}$ (very small)
Therefore only need to calculate the first two terms.

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{\mu \nu} & \approx \partial_{\rho} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{v} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho} \\
& =\partial_{t} \underbrace{\Gamma^{t}{ }_{\mu \nu}}_{=0}-\partial_{\nu} \Gamma^{x}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{\nu} \underbrace{\Gamma^{t}}_{=0}{ }_{\mu t}-\partial_{\nu} \underbrace{\Gamma^{x}{ }_{\mu x}}_{=0}
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $R_{\mu \nu}=\partial_{x} \Gamma^{x}{ }_{\mu \nu}$ (only non-zero part).
$R_{\mu \nu}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}\partial_{x}{ }^{2} \phi \quad \mu \nu=t t \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{array}\right.$
Hence $R_{t t}=\nabla^{2} \phi$

Now consider
$T_{\mu \nu}=(P+\rho) U_{\mu} U_{v}-P g_{\mu \nu}$
$T_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} g_{\mu \nu} T=U_{\mu} U_{v}(P+\rho)-\frac{1}{2}(P-\rho) g_{\mu \nu}$
In the non-relativistic limit, $u_{\mu}=(1,2)$ and $\rho \ll P$
$\rightarrow R_{t t}=\nabla^{2} \phi=8 \pi G\left(T_{t t}-\frac{1}{2} g_{t t} T\right)=4 \pi G \rho$
Poisson equation $\nabla^{2} \phi=4 \pi G \rho$, hence $\phi=-\frac{G M}{r}$.

### 5.4 Gravitational Radiation

Consider a metric with a small perturbation from Minkowski spacetime.

$$
g_{\mu \nu}=\eta_{\mu \nu}+\varepsilon h_{\mu \nu}(\varepsilon \ll 1)
$$

created by a matter distribution $\varepsilon T_{\mu \nu}$.
Since $g^{\mu \nu} g_{\mu \rho}=\delta_{\rho}^{\mu+o\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)}$, we must have that

$$
g^{\mu \nu}=\eta^{\mu \nu}-\varepsilon h^{\mu \nu}
$$

hence,
$\Gamma^{\mu}{ }_{\alpha \beta}=\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon\left(-\partial^{\mu} h_{\alpha \beta}+\partial_{\alpha} h_{\beta}{ }^{\mu}+\partial_{\beta} h_{\alpha}{ }^{\mu}\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$
and

$$
\begin{aligned}
R_{\mu \nu} & =R^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho v} \\
& =\partial_{\rho} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{\mu} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{v \rho}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon\left(-\square h_{\mu \nu}+\partial_{\mu}\left(\partial_{\rho} h^{\rho}{ }_{v}\right)+\partial_{v}\left(\partial_{\rho} h^{\rho}{ }_{\mu}\right)-\partial_{\mu} \partial_{v} h\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\quad=\partial_{\rho} \partial^{\rho}$ and $h=h^{\rho}{ }_{\rho}$
Now consider the effect of a coordinate transformation.
$x^{\prime \mu}=x^{\mu}+\varepsilon \xi^{\mu}$
$\rightarrow J_{\alpha}^{\prime \mu}=\delta_{\alpha}^{\mu}+\varepsilon \partial_{\alpha} \xi^{\mu}$ and $J_{\alpha}^{\mu}=\delta_{\alpha}^{\mu}-\varepsilon \partial_{\alpha} \xi^{\mu}+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$
If $h_{\mu \nu}^{\prime}$ is the metric perturbation in the new coordinate system, then
$\eta_{\mu \nu}+\varepsilon h^{\prime}{ }_{\mu \nu}=J_{\mu}^{\alpha} J_{v}^{\beta}\left(\eta_{\alpha \beta}+\varepsilon h_{\alpha \beta}\right)=\eta_{\mu \nu}+\varepsilon\left(h_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{\mu} \xi_{v}-\partial_{v} \xi_{\mu}\right)+O\left(\varepsilon^{2}\right)$
$\rightarrow$ physical processes should be invariant under the "gauge transformation" $h_{\mu \nu}^{\prime}=h_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{\mu} \xi_{\nu}-\partial_{v} \xi_{\mu}$.
(c.f. $A^{\prime}{ }_{\mu}=A_{\mu}+\nabla_{\mu} \phi$ in ED)

Consider $\partial^{\mu} h^{\prime}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{v} h^{\prime}=\partial^{\mu} h_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{v} h-\square \xi_{v}$
$\rightarrow$ by a gauge transformation we can set $\partial^{\mu} h^{\prime}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{\nu} h^{\prime}=0$ if we choose
$\square \xi_{v}=\partial^{\mu} h_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{v} h$
Hence, we can always choose the de-Donder gauge where $\partial^{\mu} h_{\mu \nu}=\frac{1}{2} \partial_{\nu} h$. Note that this is similar to the choice of the Lorentz gauge in EM.
$\rightarrow R_{\mu \nu}=-\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \square h_{\mu \nu} \rightarrow \square h_{\mu \nu}=-16 \pi G\left(T_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} g_{\mu \nu} T\right)$
This is the wave equation for the generation and propagation of gravitational waves. It is very similar to that for dipole EM radiation.
Consider free wave-like solutions with $T_{\mu \nu}=0$, i.e. $\square h_{\mu \nu}=0$.
Solutions $h_{\mu \nu}=e_{\mu \nu} e^{i k x}$
$e_{\mu \nu}$ is the polarization tensor. $k x=k_{\mu} x^{\mu}$.
$\square h_{\mu \nu}=0 \rightarrow k_{\mu} k^{\mu}=0$ i.e. $k$ is null.
$\partial^{\mu} h_{\mu \nu}-\frac{1}{2} \partial_{v} h=0 \rightarrow p_{\mu \nu} k^{\mu}=\frac{1}{2} k_{v} e^{\mu}{ }_{\mu}\left({ }^{*}\right)$
$e_{\mu \nu}$ has 10 degrees of freedom ( $4 \times 4$ symmetric tensor), but * is 4 equations $\rightarrow$ only 6 degrees of freedom (maximum).
Moreover, for a wave of the form $e_{\mu \nu}$, a further gauge transformation can be made, in this form: $e^{\prime}{ }_{\mu \nu}=e_{\mu \nu}+\alpha_{\mu} k_{\nu}+\alpha_{\nu} k_{\mu}$ using $\xi_{\mu}=i \alpha_{\mu} e^{i k \cdot x}$, in which $\alpha_{\mu}$ is arbitrary and * is unchanged.
Since $\alpha_{\mu}$ is a 4-vector, this removes 4 degrees of freedom. $\rightarrow 2$ degrees of freedom for free gravitational waves, i.e. two polarization states.
Consider an x-directed wave $k^{0}=k^{\prime}=k, k^{2}=k^{3}=0$, then
$h_{\mu \nu}=\left(\begin{array}{c:c}0 & 0 \\ \hdashline 0 & h_{t} \\ h_{x} & h_{x}\end{array}\right) e^{i k \cdot x}$
$h_{\mu \nu}=h_{t} e^{t}{ }_{\mu \nu}+h_{x} e^{x}{ }_{\mu \nu}$
where $e^{t}{ }_{\mu \nu}=\left(\begin{array}{c:c}0 & 0 \\ \hdashline 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ & 0\end{array}\right), e^{x}{ }_{\mu \nu}=\left(\begin{array}{c:c}0 & 0 \\ \hdashline 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ & 1\end{array}\right)$
In contrast to EM radiation, gravitational radiation is generated by the mass quadropole: Power $P=\frac{G}{5}\left|\dddot{I}_{i j}\right|$, where $I_{i j}=\int e\left(x_{i} x_{j}-\frac{1}{3} \delta_{i j} \underline{x}^{2}\right) d^{3} x$ is the quadrapole of the matter distribution $\rho(\underline{x})$.

## Section 6 - Schwartzchild solution

6.1 - Spherically Symmetric Vacuum Solution

Vacuum $\rightarrow T_{\mu \nu}=0 \rightarrow R_{\mu \nu}=0$ except at one point.
Spherically symmetric with area of the 2 -sphere $4 \pi r^{2}$.
$\rightarrow d s^{2}=A(r, T) d T^{2}-2 B(r, T) d T d r-C(r, T) d r^{2}-r^{2}\left(d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right)$
Consider a change of timescale $T=T(t, r)$
$\rightarrow d T=\dot{T} d t+T^{\prime} d r$, where $\dot{T}=\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$ and $T^{\prime}=\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}$.
Therefore
$d s^{2}=A \dot{T}^{2}+2 \dot{T}\left(A T^{\prime}-B\right) d t d r-\left(C+2 B T^{\prime}-A T^{\prime 2}\right) d r^{2}-r^{2}\left(d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2}\right)$
If we choose $A T^{\prime}=B$ and set coefficient of $d t^{2}=e^{\nu(t, r)}$, and coefficient of
$d r^{2}=-e^{\lambda(r, t)} \rightarrow$ most general spherically symmetric metric, i.e.
$d s^{2}=e^{\nu(t, r)} d t^{2}-e^{\lambda(t, r)} d r^{2}-r^{2}\left(d \theta^{2}+\sin ^{2} \alpha d \phi^{2}\right)$
$\rightarrow g_{\mu \nu}=\operatorname{diag}\left(e^{\nu},-e^{\lambda},-r^{2},-r^{2} \sin ^{2} \alpha\right)$
$g^{\mu \nu}=\operatorname{diag}\left(e^{-\nu}, e^{-\lambda},-\frac{1}{r^{2}},-\frac{1}{r^{2} \sin ^{2} \alpha}\right)$
To compute the Christoffel symbols, use
$L_{e f f}=\left(\frac{d s}{d \tau}\right)^{2}=e^{\nu} \dot{t}^{2}-e^{\lambda} \dot{r}^{2}-r^{2}\left(\dot{\theta}^{2}+\sin ^{2} \alpha \dot{\phi}^{2}\right)$
For t:
$\frac{\partial L_{e f f}}{\partial \dot{t}}=2 e^{\nu} \dot{t} ; \frac{\partial L_{\text {eff }}}{\partial t}=\frac{\partial v}{\partial t} e^{\nu} \dot{t}^{2}-\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} e^{\lambda} \dot{r}^{2}$
$\rightarrow \ddot{t}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} \dot{t}+\frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \dot{r} \dot{t}+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} e^{\lambda-v} r^{-2}=0$
$\Gamma^{t}{ }_{t t}=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} ; \Gamma^{t}{ }_{r t}=\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} ; \Gamma^{t}{ }_{r r}=\frac{1}{2} e^{\lambda-v} \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t}$
Similarly for (r), $(\theta)$ and $(\phi)$.
Then compute $R_{\mu \nu}=R^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho v}=\partial_{\rho} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\partial_{v} \Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\mu \rho}+\Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\gamma \rho} \Gamma^{\gamma}{ }_{\mu \nu}-\Gamma^{\rho}{ }_{\nu} \Gamma^{\gamma}{ }_{\mu \rho}$, from which we can derive:
$R_{t t}=\frac{1}{2} e^{v-\lambda}\left(v^{\prime \prime}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}-\lambda^{\prime}\right)+\frac{2 v^{\prime}}{r}\right)+\dot{\lambda}(\dot{v}-\dot{\lambda})-\frac{1}{2} \ddot{\lambda}$
$R_{t r}=\frac{\dot{\lambda}}{2 r}$
$R_{r r}=\frac{1}{2} e^{v-\lambda}\left(\ddot{\lambda}-\frac{1}{2} \dot{\lambda}(\dot{v}-\dot{\lambda})\right)-\frac{1}{2}\left(v^{\prime \prime}+\frac{1}{2} v^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}-\lambda^{\prime}\right)-\frac{2 \lambda^{\prime}}{r}\right)$
$R_{\theta \theta}=1-e^{-\lambda}\left(1+\frac{1}{2} r\left(v^{\prime}-\lambda^{\prime}\right)\right)$
$R_{\phi \phi}=\sin ^{2} \theta R_{\theta \theta}$

