

Last time:

$$G_{\alpha\beta} = K T_{\alpha\beta}$$

— Fixes only 6 degrees of freedom of metric, $g_{\alpha\beta}$ because $G^{\alpha\beta}_{;\beta} = 0$

Think of $g_{\alpha\beta}$ like A_α in EM

$G_{\alpha\beta}$ like $F_{\alpha\beta}$ in EM

EM: can always change $A_\alpha \rightarrow A_\alpha + \phi_\alpha$ w/out changing $F_{\alpha\beta}$
Maxwell's eqs. determine only some of A_α (up to gauge)

GR: can change $g_{\alpha\beta} \rightarrow g'_{\alpha\beta}$ via coord xformation
w/out changing physics (comps of $G_{\alpha\beta}$ change too)

Einstein's Eqs determine $g_{\alpha\beta}$ only up to coord xformations.

Example $T_{\alpha\beta} = 0$ flat space

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$$

or

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2$$

or

$$ds^2 = dv^2 - v^2 du^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2$$

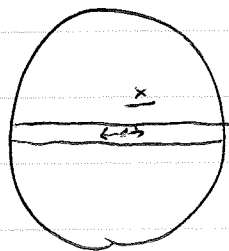
all flat space.

But unlike EM, where you can eliminate A_α , in GR you can't eliminate $g_{\alpha\beta}$

The constant K

Bore a hole in the Earth, drop a particle inside.

Let it oscillate



Geodesic Deviation in LRF at center of Earth, small oscillations:

$$\frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} = R^i_{00j} x^j$$

$$\text{or } \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = R^x_{00x} X$$

Newtonian physics:

$$\frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -\frac{G}{x^2} M(\text{inside sphere of radius } x)$$

$$= -\frac{G}{x^2} \left(\frac{4}{3} \pi x^3 \rho \right)$$

$$= -\frac{4\pi}{3} \rho x \quad (\text{let } G=1)$$

$$\text{Compare: } R^x_{00x} = -\frac{4\pi}{3} \rho = -R^x_{0x0}$$

$$\Rightarrow R^x_{0x0} = \boxed{R_{00} = 4\pi \rho}$$

$$\text{Compare with } G_{\alpha\alpha} = K T_{\alpha\alpha} = R_{\alpha\alpha} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\alpha\alpha} R$$

$$\text{Take trace: } R - 2R = K T = -R$$

$$So \quad R_{00} = K T_{00} - \frac{1}{2} g_{00} K T$$

$$= K \left(T_{00} + \frac{1}{2} (T^0_0 + T^k_k) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} K T_{00} + \frac{1}{2} K T^k_k$$

Why? speed of sound
 $\sim \left(\frac{P}{\rho}\right)^2 \sim \frac{T_{ij}}{T_{00}}$
 $\ll 1$
 $T^k_k \ll T^0_0$

$$So \quad R_{00} = \frac{1}{2} K T_{00} = \frac{1}{2} K \rho$$

$$K = 8\pi$$

$$\boxed{G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi T_{\mu\nu}}$$

Einstein's equations

Cosmological Constant

Einstein considered evolution of the universe.

- He assumed:
- Uniform density ρ
 - Homogeneous
 - Isotropic
 - Closed universe
 - Perfect Fluid

$\Rightarrow$ Restricts metric to $-dt^2 + a^2(t)[d\chi^2 + \sin^2\chi(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2)]$

3-sphere

$$G_{ae} = 8\pi T_{ae} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 + 1 = \frac{8}{3}\pi\rho a^2 \\ 2a \frac{d^2a}{dt^2} = -\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 - 1 - 8\pi p a^2 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Also } T^a_{ae} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}(sa^3) = -P \frac{d}{dt}(a^3)$$

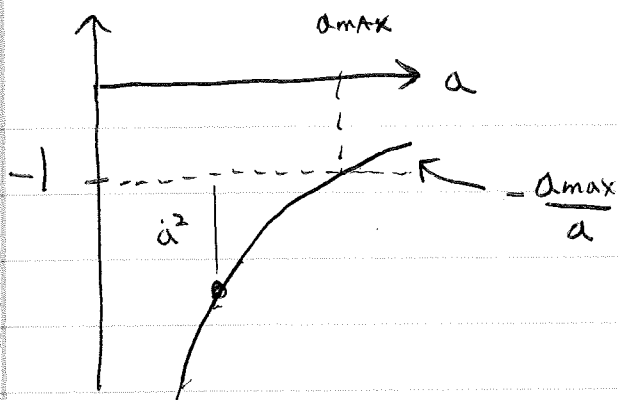
For present universe, $P \ll \rho$ ("matter dominated")

$$\text{so } \frac{d}{dt}(sa^3) = 0 \quad \text{or } \rho a^3 = \text{const} = \frac{3}{8\pi} a_{\text{max}}$$

$$\text{so } G_{ae} = 8\pi T_{ae} \Rightarrow$$

$$\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2 - \frac{a_{\text{max}}}{a} = -1$$

$$\frac{d^2a}{dt^2} = -\frac{a_{\text{max}}}{2a^2}$$



Like energy diagram

$$\underbrace{\left(\frac{da}{dt}\right)^2}_{\text{Kinetic}} - \underbrace{\frac{a_{\max}}{a}}_{\text{Potential}} = \underbrace{-1}_{\text{Total}}$$

⇒ No static solution!

Universe expands to $a = a_{\max}$, then contracts.

What did Einstein do?

Give up "no curvature in empty space"

$$G_{\alpha\beta} + \Lambda g_{\alpha\beta} = 8\pi T_{\alpha\beta}$$

↖ cosmological constant.
Can get static universe!

13 years later (1929) Hubble discovered universe is expanding.

Einstein's "Greatest Blunder".

Λ has 2 effects:

- Effective density $\rho = \frac{\Lambda}{8\pi}$

(Think $T_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & 0 \\ 0 & -p \end{pmatrix}$)

Adds

- Effective negative pressure $p = -\frac{\Lambda}{8\pi}$

Λ thought to be zero 1929 $\approx$ 1998

Since ^{late} 1990s, observations show expansion of

Universe accelerating

Can be (so far) explained by $\Lambda \sim 1.3 \times 10^{-56} \text{ cm}^{-2}$
 $\sim 3 \times 10^{-46} \text{ M}_\odot^{-2}$
"dark energy"

Λ is small

No effect on lab experiments, black holes, ^{non cosmological} astrophysics.

Only in low density large regions
(cosmology) does it matter.

$\sim 70\%$ of mass-energy in universe.

Lie Derivative

Def A

Suppose we have a vector field $\vec{V}$

Suppose we choose coordinates such that $\vec{V} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1}$

i.e. one of the coord basis vectors is $\vec{V}$.
Lie derivative along $\vec{V}$

Then in this coord system, define $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}} \tilde{T} = \frac{\partial T^{\alpha\beta\dots}_{rs\dots}}{\partial x^1} \tilde{e}_\alpha \otimes \tilde{e}_\beta \otimes \tilde{\omega}^r \otimes \tilde{\omega}^s \dots$

Tensor Field

$$\text{i.e. } (\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}} \tilde{T})^\alpha{}_\beta = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} (T^\alpha{}_\beta)$$

Def B

Scalar Fields : define $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}} f = \partial_{\vec{V}} f$ directional deriv.

Vector Fields : define $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}} \vec{u} = [\vec{V}, \vec{u}]$

Demand Leibnitz Rule, commutation w/ contraction, linearity

Show Def A + B same for vectors;

$$\text{IF } \vec{V} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^1} \text{ then } V^\alpha = \begin{cases} 1 & \alpha=1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } [\vec{V}, \vec{u}]^\beta &= V^\alpha \frac{\partial u^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} - u^\alpha \frac{\partial V^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} \xrightarrow{\text{because } V^\alpha \text{ const}} \quad \text{(Coord basis)} \\ &\quad \nearrow \quad \searrow \\ \delta^\alpha_1 &= \frac{\partial u^\beta}{\partial x^1} \quad \text{agrees with Def A.} \end{aligned}$$

Lie Derivative of 1-Form?

$$\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \langle \vec{u}, \tilde{\omega} \rangle = \vec{v} \langle \vec{u}, \tilde{\omega} \rangle = V^{\beta} (\nabla_{\beta} u^{\alpha}) \omega_{\alpha} + V^{\beta} (\nabla_{\beta} \omega_{\alpha}) u^{\alpha} \quad ①$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But also } \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \langle \vec{u}, \tilde{\omega} \rangle &= \langle \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \vec{u}, \tilde{\omega} \rangle + \langle \vec{u}, \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{\omega} \rangle \\ &= \langle [\vec{v}, \vec{u}], \tilde{\omega} \rangle + \langle \vec{u}, \mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{\omega} \rangle \\ &= (V^{\alpha} \nabla_{\alpha} u^{\beta} - u^{\alpha} \nabla_{\alpha} V^{\beta}) \omega_{\beta} \\ &\quad + u^{\alpha} (\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{\omega})_{\alpha} \quad ② \end{aligned}$$

compare ① + ②

$$u^{\alpha} (\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{\omega})_{\alpha} - u^{\alpha} (\nabla_{\alpha} V^{\beta}) \omega_{\beta} = V^{\beta} u^{\alpha} \nabla_{\beta} \omega_{\alpha}$$

must be true for all u^{α}

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{(\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{\omega})_{\alpha} = V^{\beta} \nabla_{\beta} \omega_{\alpha} + \omega_{\beta} \nabla_{\alpha} V^{\beta}}$$

In general,

$$(\mathcal{L}_{\vec{v}} \tilde{T})^{\alpha\beta\cdots}_{\mu\nu\cdots} = V^{\lambda} T^{\alpha\beta\cdots}_{\mu\nu\cdots;\lambda}$$

$$+ T^{\alpha\beta\cdots}_{\lambda\nu\cdots} V^{\lambda}_{;\mu} + \cdots$$

$$- T^{\lambda\beta\cdots}_{\mu\nu\cdots} V^{\alpha}_{;\lambda} - \cdots$$

Infinitesimal Coordinate Transformations

Let $X^\mu_{\text{new}}(P) = X^\mu_{\text{old}}(P) + \epsilon V^\mu(P)$

$\vec{V}$ = vector field

ϵ = small.

Then suppose you have a scalar Function f

Then $f^{\text{new}}(X^\alpha_{\text{new}}(P)) = f^{\text{old}}(X^\alpha_{\text{old}}(P))$ scalars invariant at P

$$= f^{\text{old}}(X^\alpha_{\text{new}}(P) - \epsilon V^\alpha(P))$$

$$= f^{\text{old}}(X^\alpha_{\text{new}}(P)) - \epsilon \underbrace{V^\alpha f_{,\alpha}}_{\substack{\frac{df}{d\lambda} \text{ if } \vec{V} = \frac{d}{d\lambda}}}$$

How about ^{components of} a tensor field?

$$T^{\alpha}_{\beta}{}^{\text{new}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}(P)) = \underbrace{\frac{\partial X^\mu_{\text{old}}}{\partial X^\beta_{\text{new}}} \frac{\partial X^\alpha_{\text{new}}}{\partial X^\mu_{\text{old}}}}_{\text{Transformation law}} T^{\mu}_{\nu}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{old}}(P))$$

$$= (\delta^\nu_{\beta} - \epsilon V^\nu_{,\beta}) (\delta^\alpha_{\mu} + \epsilon V^\alpha_{,\mu}) T^{\mu}_{\nu}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}(P) - \epsilon V^\lambda(P))$$

$$= T^{\alpha}_{\beta}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}(P)) - \epsilon V^\nu_{,\beta} T^{\alpha}_{\nu}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}(P))$$

$$+ \epsilon V^\alpha_{,\mu} T^{\mu}_{\beta}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}(P))$$

$$- \epsilon T^{\alpha}_{\beta,\lambda} V^\lambda$$

Notice this is $T^{\alpha}_{\beta}{}^{\text{new}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}) = T^{\alpha}_{\beta}{}^{\text{old}}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}}) - \left(\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}} T \right)^{\alpha}_{\beta}(X^\lambda_{\text{new}})$

- Lie derivative $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{V}}(T)$ represents change in components of T under infinitesimal coord. transform.