

# General Relativity

## Principle of Equivalence

### The Odd Thing about Gravity

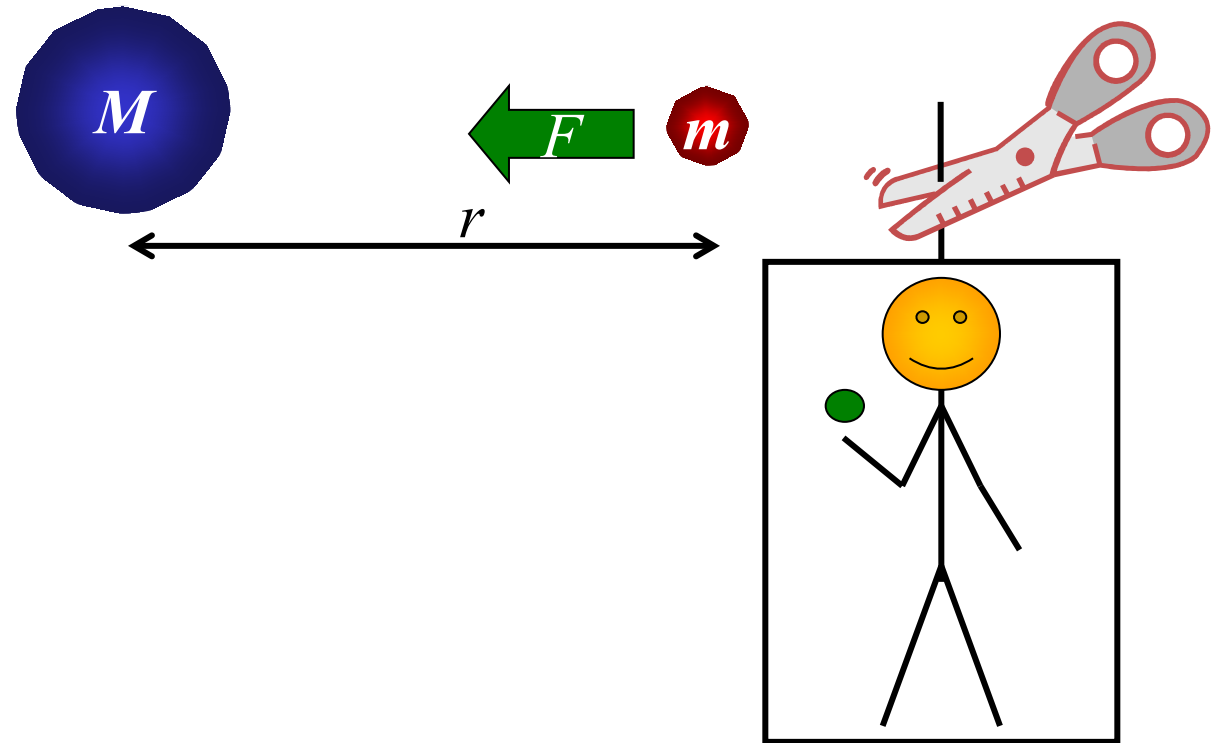
- The force of gravity is proportional to the mass of the object it acts on

$$\vec{F} = -\frac{GMm\hat{r}}{r^2}$$

- The acceleration is the same, no matter the mass you drop

$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a} \qquad \vec{a} = -\frac{GM\hat{r}}{r^2}$$

- Suppose you are in an elevator
- Now, we cut the cable
  - You fall
  - Other things fall at the same rate
- To you, it looks like you are weightless



# Weightlessness



- This is why astronauts are weightless - they are always falling
  - They are *not* far from the Earth

# Principle of Equivalence

- Are there any other force formulas that are proportional to mass?
  - Suppose you are on a merry-go-round
  - Centrifugal force

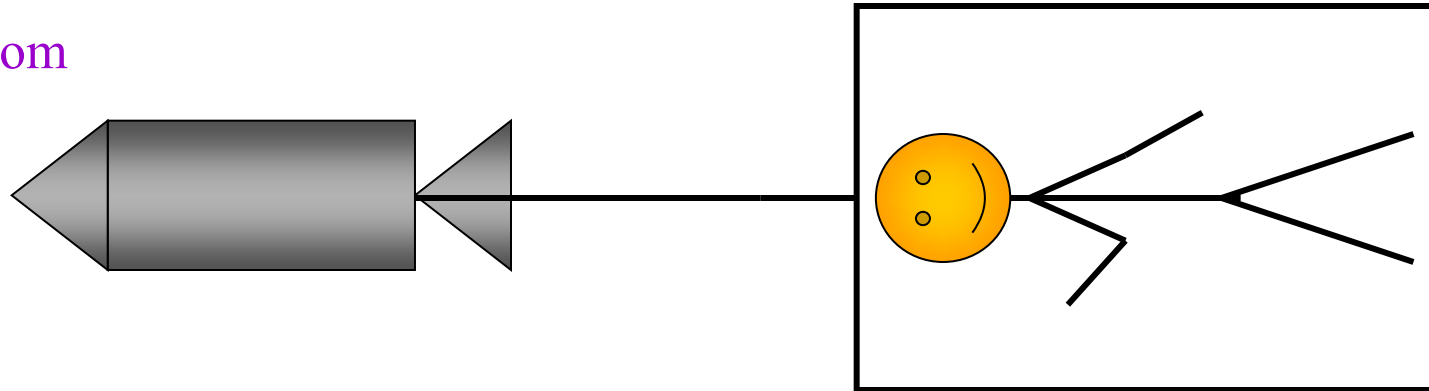
$$\vec{F} = \frac{mv^2 \hat{r}}{r}$$

- Like gravity, everything “accelerates” equally
- You can make it go away by letting go



Can we create “gravitational” effects through acceleration?

- Put the person out in space in the elevator
- Attach to an accelerating rocket
- The effects are indistinguishable from gravity



**The effects of gravity are indistinguishable from the effects of being in an accelerated reference frame**

# Reexamining the Metric

- We will start by reexamining the metric – the distance formula
  - Or in this case, the proper time formula

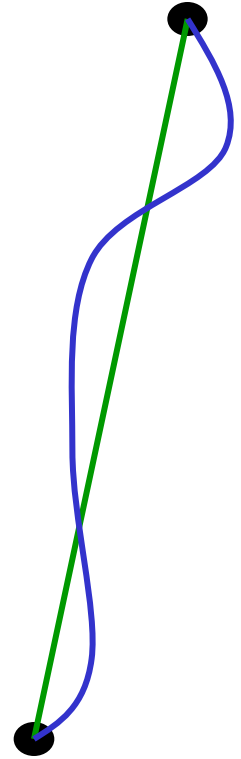
$$c^2 \Delta \tau^2 = c^2 \Delta t^2 - \Delta x^2 - \Delta y^2 - \Delta z^2$$

- This formula works if you move in a straight line
- What if you don't move in a straight line?
- You can divide any longer path into several short segments
- Then, find the distance formula for each one

$$c^2 d\tau^2 = c^2 (dt)^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2$$

$$c\tau = \int \sqrt{c^2 (dt)^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2}$$

$$c\tau = \int dt \sqrt{c^2 - \left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2}$$



- We won't be using this formula
- Interestingly, you can show that the straight line has the *longest* proper time path – called a geodesic

**An object with no forces acting on it will always follow a geodesic, which is the longest proper time path between two points in spacetime**

# Changing Coordinates

- It is important to be able to change coordinates to a different system

$$c^2 d\tau^2 = c^2 (dt)^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2$$

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

- Let's change to spherical coordinates:  $(x, y, z, t) \rightarrow (r, \theta, \phi, t)$

$$dy = d(r \sin \theta \sin \phi) = (dr) \sin \theta \sin \phi + r (d \sin \theta) \sin \phi + r \sin \theta (d \sin \phi)$$

$$= \sin \theta \sin \phi (dr) + r \cos \theta \sin \phi (d\theta) + r \sin \theta \cos \phi (d\phi)$$

- Similarly,

$$dx = (dr) \sin \theta \cos \phi + r (d \sin \theta) \cos \phi + r \sin \theta (d \cos \phi)$$

$$= \sin \theta \cos \phi (dr) + r \cos \theta \cos \phi (d\theta) - r \sin \theta \sin \phi (d\phi)$$

$$dz = (dr) \cos \theta + r (d \cos \theta) = \cos \theta (dr) - r \sin \theta (d\theta)$$

$$c^2 d\tau^2 = \dots = c^2 (dt)^2 - (dr)^2 - r^2 (d\theta)^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta (d\phi)^2$$

# Moving in Curved Coordinates (1)

- The geodesic principle works in any coordinate system

An object with no forces acting on it will always follow a geodesic, which is the longest proper time path between two points in spacetime

- It is possible, starting from the metric, to find equations that describe geodesic motion

$$c^2 d\tau^2 = c^2 (dt)^2 - (dr)^2 - r^2 (d\theta)^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta (d\phi)^2$$

$$x^\mu = (t, r, \theta, \phi) \quad g^{\mu\nu} = (g_{\mu\nu})^{-1} \quad g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} c^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu = \frac{1}{2} \sum_\nu g^{\mu\nu} \left( \frac{\partial g_{\nu\alpha}}{\partial x^\beta} + \frac{\partial g_{\nu\beta}}{\partial x^\alpha} - \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\nu} \right)$$

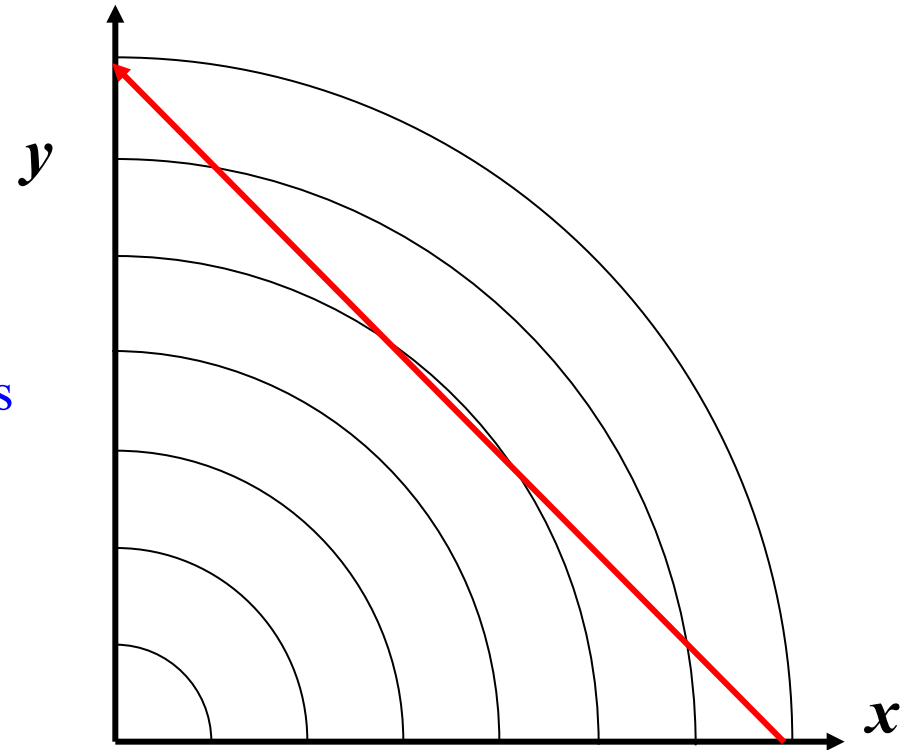
$$\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \sum_\beta \sum_\alpha \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\mu \left( \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \right) \left( \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} \right) = 0$$

# Moving in Curved Coordinates (2)

- The effects of moving in curved coordinates looks like acceleration

$$\frac{d^2 r}{d\tau^2} = r \left( \frac{d\theta}{d\tau} \right)^2 + r \sin^2 \theta \left( \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} \right)^2$$

- But it really isn't
  - It is moving as straight as it can in curved coordinates
- You can always eliminate this apparent acceleration, simply by returning to “flat” coordinates
- It is possible, starting from the metric alone, to prove that spacetime is really just flat

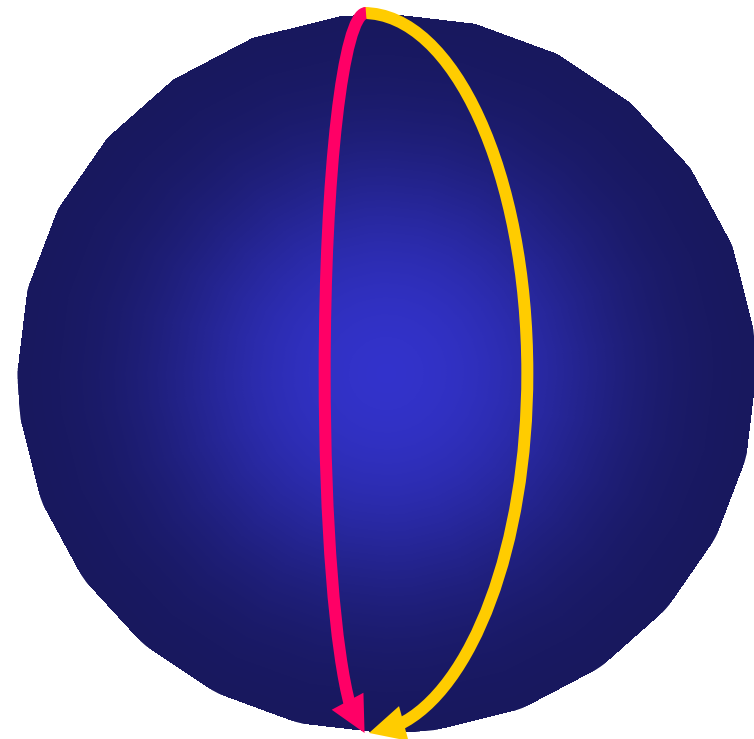


# Curved Space

- It is possible to live in a spacetime that is inherently curved
  - It's not just the coordinates, it's spacetime itself that is curved
- Consider the surface of the Earth
  - Think of it as a 2D object

Imagine two explorers setting out from the North Pole in “straight lines” (geodesics)

- At first they are traveling away from each other
- When they reach the equator, they will be traveling “parallel” to each other; their distance is no longer increasing
- They then start traveling towards each other
- They meet at the south pole
- The curvature is real
- It is space itself that is curved, not the coordinates only



$$ds^2 = a^2 (d\theta)^2 + a^2 \sin^2 \theta (d\phi)^2$$



# Curvature

- How can we tell, looking only at the distance formula (the metric), if the curvature is real or a consequence of our coordinate choice?
- The Riemann Tensor tells you if it is curved
- If the Riemann tensor is zero, space is not curved; if it is non-zero, it is curved
- Changing coordinates doesn't make it go away

$$R^{\mu}{}_{\nu\alpha\beta} = \frac{\partial \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\beta}}{\partial x^{\alpha}} - \frac{\partial \Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\alpha}}{\partial x^{\beta}} + \sum_{\sigma} \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu\beta} \Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\sigma} - \sum_{\sigma} \Gamma^{\sigma}_{\nu\alpha} \Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\sigma}$$

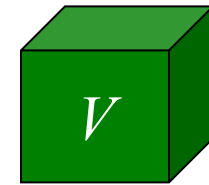
Some other measures of curvature:

- The Ricci tensor:  $R_{\alpha\beta} = \sum_{\mu} R^{\mu}{}_{\alpha\mu\beta}$
- The Ricci scalar:  $R = \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta} R_{\alpha\beta} g^{\alpha\beta}$
- The Einstein tensor:  $G_{\alpha\beta} = R_{\alpha\beta} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\alpha\beta} R$

# The Stress-Energy Tensor

What causes gravity? Energy and momentum

- The presence of matter, or mass density, is the cause of gravity
  - Mass density is proportional to energy density
- If energy makes a difference, why not momentum as well?
  - Momentum density also contributes to gravity



$$u = \frac{E}{V}$$

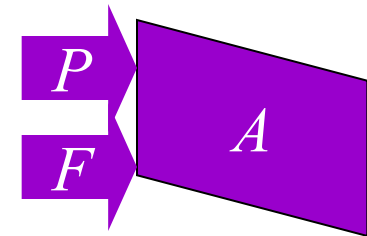
$$\vec{g} = \frac{\vec{P}}{V}$$

The flow of energy and momentum also causes gravity

$$P = \vec{A} \cdot \vec{g}$$

- Another way of looking at momentum density is the transfer of energy
  - It is like power flowing through an area

$$\vec{F} = \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{A}$$



- You can also transmit momentum across a boundary
  - This is what forces do
  - Pressure is a good example
  - A more general example is called the stress tensor

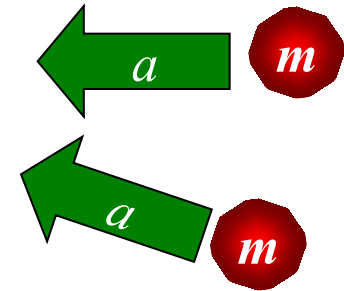
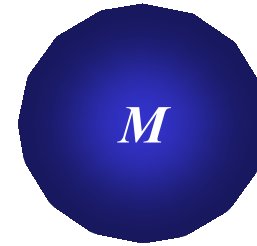
- Gravitational effects in general relativity are caused by the energy density  $u$ , the momentum density vector  $\vec{g}$ , and the stress tensor  $\sigma$

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} uc^2 & g_x & g_y & g_z \\ g_x & \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ g_y & \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ g_z & \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Einstein's Equations

The central idea of Einstein:

- Gravity looks just like acceleration, except
  - When you have a source of gravity, parallel doesn't remain parallel
- This tells you gravity has to do with curvature
- The stress-energy tensor  $T_{\mu\nu}$  must be related to the curvature
- Einstein found a relationship that worked, now called Einstein's equations
- It may look simple, but it isn't
  - This is really 16 equations (since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  each take on 4 values)
  - The expression on the left contains hundreds of terms
  - It is highly non-linear



$$G_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\alpha\beta}$$

# Geodesics in Curved Spacetime

- Why do particles curve under the influence of gravity?
  - Because spacetime itself is curved!

An object with no **non-gravitational** forces acting on it will always follow a geodesic, which is the longest proper time path between two points in spacetime

$$G_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} + \sum_{\beta} \sum_{\alpha} \Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} \left( \frac{dx^{\alpha}}{d\tau} \right) \left( \frac{dx^{\beta}}{d\tau} \right) = 0$$

**Matter tells space how to curve, and  
space tells matter how to move**

# Homogenous and Isotropic Geometries

## Flat Geometry in Spherical Coordinates

- The universe is, apparently, homogenous and isotropic
  - The same everywhere and in all directions
- This is sufficient to *almost* specify the shape of space right now
- What possible shape of space are uniform and isotropic?

- One obvious one is flat space, which has distance formula

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

- Most useful to rewrite this in spherical coordinates

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi, \quad y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi, \quad z = r \cos \theta$$

- With some work (PHY 215), the local distance formula is then

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

# The 2-Sphere

- There are other geometries that are homogenous and isotropic
- For example, the set of points a distance  $a$  from the origin in 3D is called a *2-sphere*

- Every point on the sphere is equivalent to every other point
- These points satisfy
- All such points can be described by giving just two angles

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$$

$$x = a \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

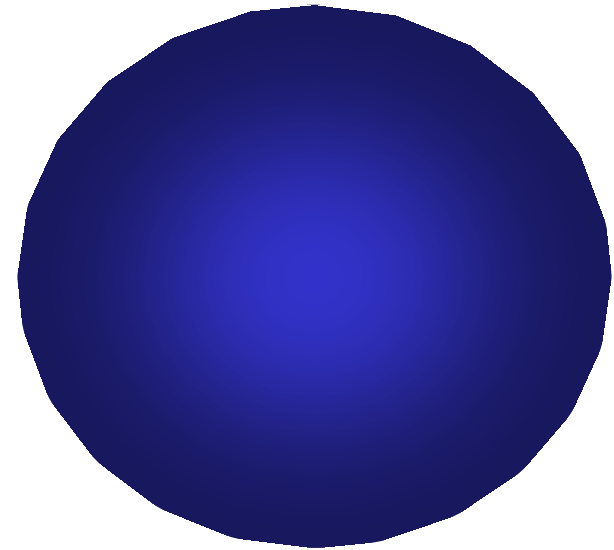
$$y = a \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

$$z = a \cos \theta$$

$$dx = a \cos \theta \cos \phi d\theta - a \sin \theta \sin \phi d\phi$$

$$dy = a \cos \theta \sin \phi d\theta + a \sin \theta \cos \phi d\phi$$

$$dz = -a \sin \theta d\theta$$



- The distance can then be worked out using the 3D flat metric

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 = \dots = a^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

- But we want a space with three internal dimensions

# The 3-Sphere

- Consider the set of points in four dimensions a distance  $a$  from the origin

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + w^2 = a^2$$

- These points can form a three-dimensional space – the 3-sphere – which can be described in terms of three angles

$$x = a \sin \psi \sin \theta \cos \phi, \quad y = a \sin \psi \sin \theta \sin \phi, \quad z = a \sin \psi \cos \theta, \quad w = a \cos \psi$$

- If you work out the distance between nearby points, it works out to

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 + dw^2 = \dots = a^2 \left[ d\psi^2 + \sin^2 \psi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

- Just like flat space, this three-dimensional space is isotropic and homogenous

# Isotropic and Homogenous Geometries

- So far we have two possible geometries that work:

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

- There is one parameter describing the second one, the radius  $a$  or scale factor of the universe

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ d\psi^2 + \sin^2 \psi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

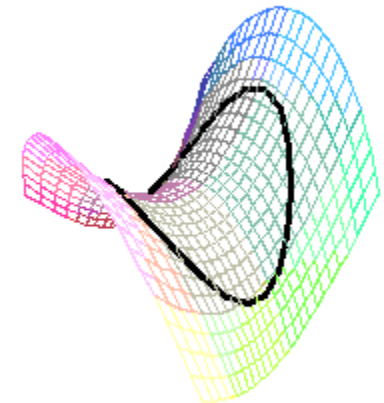
- In contrast, flat space has no “scale” to it
- The first is said to have zero curvature, the second has positive curvature

- There is one more type of solution, with negative curvature:

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ d\psi^2 + \sinh^2 \psi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$\sinh \psi = \frac{1}{2} (e^\psi - e^{-\psi})$$

- This one also has a scale factor  $a$  which is meaningful
- The 2d equivalent of this is saddle shaped





# A Common Way of Writing Them

- Here are all our possible geometries:

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

- To make them all look as similar as possible, we can make the following substitutions in cases 2 and 3:

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ d\psi^2 + \sin^2 \psi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ d\psi^2 + \sinh^2 \psi (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$r = \sin \psi \quad \text{or} \quad r = \sinh \psi$$

- Then we have  $dr = \cos \psi d\psi = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \psi} d\psi = \sqrt{1 - r^2} d\psi$

$$dr = \cosh \psi d\psi = \sqrt{1 + \sinh^2 \psi} d\psi = \sqrt{1 + r^2} d\psi$$

- And our metric becomes, in these two cases:

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 \mp r^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

- In fact, if you simply set  $a = 1$  for the first case, you can make all three formulas nearly identical:

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

- We have  $k = 0$  for the first case,  $k = +1$  for the second and  $k = -1$  for the third.

# It's Time to Include Time

$$ds^2 = a^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right] \quad k = 0, 1, -1$$

- This is what the universe looks like at any moment of time
- From isotropy and homogeneity we know the only thing that can happen over time is that the distances between objects can increase or decrease uniformly
- Therefore, the only thing that is different at different times is to change  $a$  to a function of time

$$ds^2 = a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

- We also should include time itself in the formula
- By homogeneity, time runs at the same rate everywhere
- At some point (say here), this would add a  $-c^2 dt^2$  to the distance formula

- Therefore, the distance formula is

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

# Two Equivalent Ways of Writing the Metric

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$k = 0, 1, -1$$

- We can also go back to writing this equation in terms of  $\psi$

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ d\psi^2 + f(\psi)^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$f(\psi) = \begin{cases} \sinh \psi & \text{if } k = -1 \\ \psi & \text{if } k = 0 \\ \sin \psi & \text{if } k = 1 \end{cases}$$

- General Relativity works in any choice of coordinates
  - Pick whichever is easiest for computations

# The Friedman-Robertson-Walker Metric

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$k = 0, 1, -1$$

- This is the only possible universe that is isotropic and homogenous at all times
- Any particular object “at rest” in this universe will stay at constant  $r$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\phi$
- The behavior of the scale factor  $a(t)$  will depend on gravity
- Einstein’s equations relate the curvature  $G_{\alpha\beta}$  to the presence of that which causes gravity, the Stress-Energy Tensor  $T_{\alpha\beta}$ :

$$G_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\alpha\beta}$$

- We need to find  $T_{\alpha\beta}$

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho c^2 & g_x & g_y & g_z \\ g_x & \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ g_y & \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ g_z & \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

# Matter and Energy in the Universe

## The Stress-Energy Tensor

- Use the fact that the universe is homogenous
  - So it can't depend on location
- And it's isotropic
  - So it can't prefer any particular direction

- The component  $u$  is just the energy density
- Since there is no net motion, this is just
  - Where  $\rho$  is the mass density

$$u = \rho c^2$$

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} uc^2 & g_x & g_y & g_z \\ g_x & \sigma_{xx} & \sigma_{xy} & \sigma_{xz} \\ g_y & \sigma_{yx} & \sigma_{yy} & \sigma_{yz} \\ g_z & \sigma_{zx} & \sigma_{zy} & \sigma_{zz} \end{pmatrix}$$

- The components  $g_x, g_y, g_z$  represents momentum in the  $x$ -,  $y$ -, and  $z$ -direction
  - Clearly this must vanish
- Terms like  $\sigma_{xy}$  represents force in the  $y$ -direction transported in the  $x$ -direction
  - Terms like this must also vanish
- Terms like  $\sigma_{xx}$  represents pressure in the  $x$ -direction
  - These won't vanish, but must be the same in all directions
- This is just the pressure

$$\sigma_{xx} = \sigma_{yy} = \sigma_{zz} = P$$

# Friedman's Equation

$$ds^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + a^2(t) \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]$$

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho c^4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & P \end{pmatrix}$$

- We now need to use Einstein's equations

$$G_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\alpha\beta}$$

- Getting the Einstein tensor is a lot of work
  - Fortunately, I have programs that do the work for me
- I will use only the time-time component
- Substitute this in

$$G_{\tilde{t}\tilde{t}} = \frac{3kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{3\dot{a}^2}{a^2}$$

$$\frac{3kc^2}{a^2} + \frac{3\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} \rho c^4$$

- Now rearrange slightly

- This is the Friedman Equation we found before

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho - \frac{kc^2}{a^2}$$

# $\Omega$ and The Shape of the Universe

$$\frac{\dot{a}^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi}{3} G\rho - \frac{kc^2}{a^2}$$

$$\frac{\dot{a}}{a} = H$$

- Recall again that
- We also defined the density parameter
- So that we have

$$\Omega = \frac{\frac{8\pi}{3} G\rho}{H^2}$$

$$H^2 = H^2 \Omega - \frac{kc^2}{a^2}$$

$$\frac{kc^2}{a^2} = H^2 (\Omega - 1)$$

- If we know the sign of  $\Omega - 1$ , we also know the sign of  $k$
- And since  $k = 0, +1$ , or  $-1$ , we know  $k$

<u>Dens.</u>	<u>Curv.</u>	<u>Name</u>
$\Omega < 1$	$k = -1$	Open
$\Omega = 1$	$k = 0$	Flat
$\Omega > 1$	$k = +1$	Closed

