

## CONTENTS

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List of Boxes	xiii
Preface	xv
Contents of <i>Modern Classical Physics</i> , volumes 1-5	xxi

### PART VII GENERAL RELATIVITY 1151

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<b>24</b>	<b>From Special to General Relativity</b>	<b>1153</b>
24.1	Overview	1153
24.2	Special Relativity Once Again	1153
	24.2.1 Geometric, Frame-Independent Formulation	1154
	24.2.2 Inertial Frames and Components of Vectors, Tensors, and Physical Laws	1156
	24.2.3 Light Speed, the Interval, and Spacetime Diagrams	1159
24.3	Differential Geometry in General Bases and in Curved Manifolds	1160
	24.3.1 Nonorthonormal Bases	1161
	24.3.2 Vectors as Directional Derivatives; Tangent Space; Commutators	1165
	24.3.3 Differentiation of Vectors and Tensors; Connection Coefficients	1169
	24.3.4 Integration	1174
24.4	The Stress-Energy Tensor Revisited	1176
24.5	The Proper Reference Frame of an Accelerated Observer	1180
	24.5.1 Relation to Inertial Coordinates; Metric in Proper Reference Frame; Transport Law for Rotating Vectors	1183
	24.5.2 Geodesic Equation for a Freely Falling Particle	1184
	24.5.3 Uniformly Accelerated Observer	1186
	24.5.4 Rindler Coordinates for Minkowski Spacetime	1187
	Bibliographic Note	1190

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**T2** Track Two; see page xvii

<b>25</b>	<b>Fundamental Concepts of General Relativity</b>	<b>1191</b>	
25.1	History and Overview	1191	
25.2	Local Lorentz Frames, the Principle of Relativity, and Einstein's Equivalence Principle	1195	
25.3	The Spacetime Metric, and Gravity as a Curvature of Spacetime	1196	
25.4	Free-Fall Motion and Geodesics of Spacetime	1200	
25.5	Relative Acceleration, Tidal Gravity, and Spacetime Curvature	1206	
	25.5.1 Newtonian Description of Tidal Gravity	1207	
	25.5.2 Relativistic Description of Tidal Gravity	1208	
	25.5.3 Comparison of Newtonian and Relativistic Descriptions	1210	
25.6	Properties of the Riemann Curvature Tensor	1213	
25.7	Delicacies in the Equivalence Principle, and Some Nongravitational Laws of Physics in Curved Spacetime	1217	
	25.7.1 Curvature Coupling in the Nongravitational Laws	1218	T2
25.8	The Einstein Field Equation	1221	
	25.8.1 Geometrized Units	1224	
25.9	Weak Gravitational Fields	1224	
	25.9.1 Newtonian Limit of General Relativity	1225	
	25.9.2 Linearized Theory	1227	
	25.9.3 Gravitational Field outside a Stationary, Linearized Source of Gravity	1231	T2
	25.9.4 Conservation Laws for Mass, Momentum, and Angular Momentum in Linearized Theory	1237	T2
	25.9.5 Conservation Laws for a Strong-Gravity Source	1238	T2
	Bibliographic Note	1239	
<b>26</b>	<b>Relativistic Stars and Black Holes</b>	<b>1241</b>	
26.1	Overview	1241	
26.2	Schwarzschild's Spacetime Geometry	1242	
	26.2.1 The Schwarzschild Metric, Its Connection Coefficients, and Its Curvature Tensors	1242	
	26.2.2 The Nature of Schwarzschild's Coordinate System, and Symmetries of the Schwarzschild Spacetime	1244	
	26.2.3 Schwarzschild Spacetime at Radii $r \gg M$ : The Asymptotically Flat Region	1245	
	26.2.4 Schwarzschild Spacetime at $r \sim M$	1248	
26.3	Static Stars	1250	
	26.3.1 Birkhoff's Theorem	1250	
	26.3.2 Stellar Interior	1252	
	26.3.3 Local Conservation of Energy and Momentum	1255	
	26.3.4 The Einstein Field Equation	1257	
	26.3.5 Stellar Models and Their Properties	1259	
	26.3.6 Embedding Diagrams	1261	

26.4	Gravitational Implosion of a Star to Form a Black Hole	1264	
	26.4.1 The Implosion Analyzed in Schwarzschild Coordinates	1264	
	26.4.2 Tidal Forces at the Gravitational Radius	1266	
	26.4.3 Stellar Implosion in Eddington-Finkelstein Coordinates	1267	
	26.4.4 Tidal Forces at $r = 0$ —The Central Singularity	1271	
	26.4.5 Schwarzschild Black Hole	1272	
26.5	Spinning Black Holes: The Kerr Spacetime	1277	T2
	26.5.1 The Kerr Metric for a Spinning Black Hole	1277	T2
	26.5.2 Dragging of Inertial Frames	1279	T2
	26.5.3 The Light-Cone Structure, and the Horizon	1279	T2
	26.5.4 Evolution of Black Holes—Rotational Energy and Its Extraction	1282	T2
26.6	The Many-Fingered Nature of Time	1293	T2
	Bibliographic Note	1297	
<b>27</b>	<b>Gravitational Waves and Experimental Tests of General Relativity</b>	<b>1299</b>	
27.1	Overview	1299	
27.2	Experimental Tests of General Relativity	1300	
	27.2.1 Equivalence Principle, Gravitational Redshift, and Global Positioning System	1300	
	27.2.2 Perihelion Advance of Mercury	1302	
	27.2.3 Gravitational Deflection of Light, Fermat's Principle, and Gravitational Lenses	1305	
	27.2.4 Shapiro Time Delay	1308	
	27.2.5 Geodetic and Lense-Thirring Precession	1309	
	27.2.6 Gravitational Radiation Reaction	1310	
27.3	Gravitational Waves Propagating through Flat Spacetime	1311	
	27.3.1 Weak, Plane Waves in Linearized Theory	1311	
	27.3.2 Measuring a Gravitational Wave by Its Tidal Forces	1315	
	27.3.3 Gravitons and Their Spin and Rest Mass	1319	
27.4	Gravitational Waves Propagating through Curved Spacetime	1320	
	27.4.1 Gravitational Wave Equation in Curved Spacetime	1321	
	27.4.2 Geometric-Optics Propagation of Gravitational Waves	1322	
	27.4.3 Energy and Momentum in Gravitational Waves	1324	
27.5	The Generation of Gravitational Waves	1327	
	27.5.1 Multipole-Moment Expansion	1328	
	27.5.2 Quadrupole-Moment Formalism	1330	
	27.5.3 Quadrupolar Wave Strength, Energy, Angular Momentum, and Radiation Reaction	1332	
	27.5.4 Gravitational Waves from a Binary Star System	1335	
	27.5.5 Gravitational Waves from Binaries Made of Black Holes, Neutron Stars, or Both: Numerical Relativity	1341	T2

27.6	The Detection of Gravitational Waves	1345	
	27.6.1 Frequency Bands and Detection Techniques	1345	
	27.6.2 Gravitational-Wave Interferometers: Overview and Elementary Treatment	1347	
	27.6.3 Interferometer Analyzed in TT Gauge	1349	T2
	27.6.4 Interferometer Analyzed in the Proper Reference Frame of the Beam Splitter	1352	T2
	27.6.5 Realistic Interferometers	1355	T2
	27.6.6 Pulsar Timing Arrays	1355	T2
	Bibliographic Note	1358	
<b>28</b>	<b>Cosmology</b>	<b>1361</b>	
28.1	Overview	1361	
28.2	General Relativistic Cosmology	1364	
	28.2.1 Isotropy and Homogeneity	1364	
	28.2.2 Geometry	1366	
	28.2.3 Kinematics	1373	
	28.2.4 Dynamics	1376	
28.3	The Universe Today	1379	
	28.3.1 Baryons	1379	
	28.3.2 Dark Matter	1380	
	28.3.3 Photons	1381	
	28.3.4 Neutrinos	1382	
	28.3.5 Cosmological Constant	1382	
	28.3.6 Standard Cosmology	1383	
28.4	Seven Ages of the Universe	1383	
	28.4.1 Particle Age	1384	
	28.4.2 Nuclear Age	1387	
	28.4.3 Photon Age	1392	
	28.4.4 Plasma Age	1393	
	28.4.5 Atomic Age	1397	
	28.4.6 Gravitational Age	1397	
	28.4.7 Cosmological Age	1400	
28.5	Galaxy Formation	1401	T2
	28.5.1 Linear Perturbations	1401	T2
	28.5.2 Individual Constituents	1406	T2
	28.5.3 Solution of the Perturbation Equations	1410	T2
	28.5.4 Galaxies	1412	T2
28.6	Cosmological Optics	1415	T2
	28.6.1 Cosmic Microwave Background	1415	T2
	28.6.2 Weak Gravitational Lensing	1422	T2
	28.6.3 Sunyaev-Zel'dovich Effect	1428	T2

28.7	Three Mysteries	1431	T2
	28.7.1 Inflation and the Origin of the Universe	1431	T2
	28.7.2 Dark Matter and the Growth of Structure	1440	T2
	28.7.3 The Cosmological Constant and the Fate of the Universe	1444	T2
	Bibliographic Note	1447	
<b>App. A</b>	<b>Special Relativity: Geometric Viewpoint</b>	<b>T2 1449</b>	
2.1	Overview	1449	
2.2	Foundational Concepts	1450	
	2.2.1 Inertial Frames, Inertial Coordinates, Events, Vectors, and Spacetime Diagrams	1450	
	2.2.2 The Principle of Relativity and Constancy of Light Speed	1454	
	2.2.3 The Interval and Its Invariance	1457	
2.3	Tensor Algebra without a Coordinate System	1460	
2.4	Particle Kinetics and Lorentz Force without a Reference Frame	1461	
	2.4.1 Relativistic Particle Kinetics: World Lines, 4-Velocity, 4-Momentum and Its Conservation, 4-Force	1461	
	2.4.2 Geometric Derivation of the Lorentz Force Law	1464	
2.5	Component Representation of Tensor Algebra	1466	
	2.5.1 Lorentz Coordinates	1466	
	2.5.2 Index Gymnastics	1466	
	2.5.3 Slot-Naming Notation	1468	
2.6	Particle Kinetics in Index Notation and in a Lorentz Frame	1469	
2.7	Lorentz Transformations	1475	
2.8	Spacetime Diagrams for Boosts	1477	
2.9	Time Travel	1479	
	2.9.1 Measurement of Time; Twins Paradox	1479	
	2.9.2 Wormholes	1480	
	2.9.3 Wormhole as Time Machine	1481	
2.10	Directional Derivatives, Gradients, and the Levi-Civita Tensor	1482	
2.11	Nature of Electric and Magnetic Fields; Maxwell's Equations	1483	
2.12	Volumes, Integration, and Conservation Laws	1487	
	2.12.1 Spacetime Volumes and Integration	1487	
	2.12.2 Conservation of Charge in Spacetime	1490	
	2.12.3 Conservation of Particles, Baryon Number, and Rest Mass	1491	
2.13	Stress-Energy Tensor and Conservation of 4-Momentum	1494	
	2.13.1 Stress-Energy Tensor	1494	
	2.13.2 4-Momentum Conservation	1496	
	2.13.3 Stress-Energy Tensors for Perfect Fluids and Electromagnetic Fields	1497	
	Bibliographic Note	1500	

References	1503
Name Index	1513
Subject Index	1515
Contents of the Unified Work, <i>Modern Classical Physics</i>	1527
Preface to <i>Modern Classical Physics</i>	1535
Acknowledgments for <i>Modern Classical Physics</i>	1543

## From Special to General Relativity

The Theory of Relativity confers an absolute meaning on a magnitude which in classical theory has only a relative significance: the velocity of light. The velocity of light is to the Theory of Relativity as the elementary quantum of action is to the Quantum Theory: it is its absolute core.

MAX PLANCK (1949)

### 24.1 Overview

24.1

We begin our discussion of general relativity in this chapter with a review, and elaboration of relevant material already covered in earlier chapters. In Sec. 24.2, we give a brief encapsulation of special relativity drawn largely from Chap. 2, emphasizing those aspects that underpin the transition to general relativity. Then in Sec. 24.3 we collect, review, and extend the fundamental ideas of differential geometry that have been scattered throughout the book and that we shall need as foundations for the mathematics of *spacetime curvature* (Chap. 25). Most importantly, we generalize differential geometry to encompass coordinate systems whose coordinate lines are not orthogonal and bases that are not orthonormal.

Einstein's field equation (to be studied in Chap. 25) is a relationship between the curvature of spacetime and the matter that generates it, akin to the Maxwell equations' relationship between the electromagnetic field and the electric currents and charges that generate it. The matter in Einstein's equation is described by the stress-energy tensor that we introduced in Sec. 2.13. We revisit the stress-energy tensor in Sec. 24.4 and develop a deeper understanding of its properties.

In general relativity one often wishes to describe the outcome of measurements made by observers who refuse to fall freely—for example, an observer who hovers in a spaceship just above the horizon of a black hole, or a gravitational-wave experimenter in an Earthbound laboratory. As a foundation for treating such observers, in Sec. 24.5 we examine measurements made by accelerated observers in the flat spacetime of special relativity.

### 24.2 Special Relativity Once Again

24.2

Our viewpoint on general relativity is unapologetically geometrical. (Other viewpoints, e.g., those of particle theorists such as Feynman and Weinberg, are quite different.) Therefore, a prerequisite for our treatment of general relativity is understanding special relativity in geometric language. In Chap. 2, we discussed the foundations of

1153

### BOX 24.1. READERS' GUIDE

- This chapter relies significantly on:
  - Chap. 2 on special relativity, which now should be regarded as Track One.
  - The discussion of connection coefficients in Sec. 11.8.
- This chapter is a foundation for the presentation of general relativity theory and cosmology in Chaps. 25–28.

special relativity with this in mind. In this section we briefly review the most important points.

We suggest that any reader who has not studied Chap. 2 read Sec. 24.2 first, to get an overview and flavor of what will be important for our development of general relativity, and then (or in parallel with reading Sec. 24.2) read those relevant sections of Chap. 2 that the reader does not already understand.

#### 24.2.1

#### 24.2.1 Geometric, Frame-Independent Formulation

review of the geometric, frame-independent formulation of special relativity

In Secs. 1.1.1 and 2.2.2, we learned that *every law of physics must be expressible as a geometric, frame-independent relationship among geometric, frame-independent objects*. This is equally true in Newtonian physics, in special relativity, and in general relativity. The key difference between the three is the geometric arena: in Newtonian physics, the arena is 3-dimensional Euclidean space; in special relativity, it is 4-dimensional Minkowski spacetime; in general relativity (Chap. 25), it is 4-dimensional curved spacetime (see Fig. 1 in the Introduction to Part I and the associated discussion).

Principle of Relativity—laws as geometric relations between geometric objects

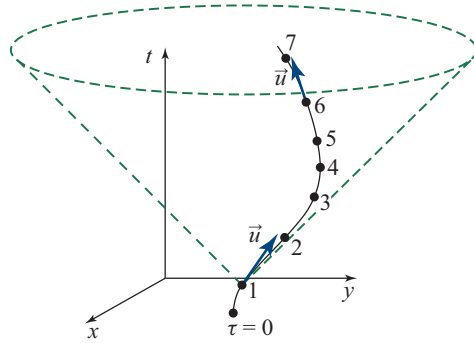
In special relativity, the demand that the laws be geometric relationships among geometric objects that live in Minkowski spacetime is the *Principle of Relativity*; see Sec. 2.2.2. Examples of the geometric objects are:

examples of geometric objects: points, curves, proper time ticked by an ideal clock, vectors, tensors, scalar product

1. A point  $\mathcal{P}$  in spacetime (which represents an *event*); Sec. 2.2.1.
2. A parameterized curve in spacetime, such as the world line  $\mathcal{P}(\tau)$  of a particle, for which the parameter  $\tau$  is the particle's *proper time* (i.e., the time measured by an ideal clock<sup>1</sup> that the particle carries; Fig. 24.1); Sec. 2.4.1.

1. Recall that an ideal clock is one that ticks uniformly when compared, e.g., to the period of the light emitted by some standard type of atom or molecule, and that has been made impervious to accelerations. Thus two ideal clocks momentarily at rest with respect to each other tick at the same rate independent of their relative acceleration; see Secs. 2.2.1 and 2.4.1. For greater detail, see Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler (1973, pp. 23–29, 395–399).





**FIGURE 24.1** The world line  $\mathcal{P}(\tau)$  of a particle in Minkowski spacetime and the tangent vector  $\vec{u} = d\mathcal{P}/d\tau$  to this world line;  $\vec{u}$  is the particle's 4-velocity. The bending of the world line is produced by some force that acts on the particle, such as the Lorentz force embodied in Eq. (24.3). Also shown is the light cone emitted from the event  $\mathcal{P}(\tau = 1)$ . Although the axes of an (arbitrary) inertial reference frame are shown, no reference frame is needed for the definition of the world line, its tangent vector  $\vec{u}$ , or the light cone. Nor is one needed for the formulation of the Lorentz force law.

3. Vectors, such as the particle's 4-velocity  $\vec{u} = d\mathcal{P}/d\tau$  [the tangent vector to the curve  $\mathcal{P}(\tau)$ ] and the particle's 4-momentum  $\vec{p} = m\vec{u}$  (with  $m$  the particle's rest mass); Secs. 2.2.1 and 2.4.1.
4. Tensors, such as the electromagnetic field tensor  $\mathbf{F}(\_, \_)$ ; Secs. 1.3 and 2.3.

Recall that a tensor is a linear real-valued function of vectors; when one puts vectors  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$  into the two slots of  $\mathbf{F}$ , one obtains a real number (a scalar)  $\mathbf{F}(\vec{A}, \vec{B})$  that is linear in  $\vec{A}$  and in  $\vec{B}$  so, for example:  $\mathbf{F}(\vec{A}, b\vec{B} + c\vec{C}) = b\mathbf{F}(\vec{A}, \vec{B}) + c\mathbf{F}(\vec{A}, \vec{C})$ . When one puts a vector  $\vec{B}$  into just one of the slots of  $\mathbf{F}$  and leaves the other empty, one obtains a tensor with one empty slot,  $\mathbf{F}(\_, \vec{B})$ , that is, a vector. The result of putting a vector into the slot of a vector is the scalar product:  $\vec{D}(\vec{B}) = \vec{D} \cdot \vec{B} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{D}, \vec{B})$ , where  $\mathbf{g}(\_, \_)$  is the metric.

In Secs. 2.3 and 2.4.1, we tied our definitions of the inner product and the spacetime metric to the ticking of ideal clocks: If  $\Delta\vec{x}$  is the vector separation of two neighboring events  $\mathcal{P}(\tau)$  and  $\mathcal{P}(\tau + \Delta\tau)$  along a particle's world line, then

$$\mathbf{g}(\Delta\vec{x}, \Delta\vec{x}) \equiv \Delta\vec{x} \cdot \Delta\vec{x} \equiv -(\Delta\tau)^2. \quad (24.1)$$

This relation for any particle with any timelike world line, together with the linearity of  $\mathbf{g}(\_, \_)$  in its two slots, is enough to determine  $\mathbf{g}$  completely and to guarantee that it is symmetric:  $\mathbf{g}(\vec{A}, \vec{B}) = \mathbf{g}(\vec{B}, \vec{A})$  for all  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$ . Since the particle's 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$  is

$$\vec{u} = \frac{d\mathcal{P}}{d\tau} = \lim_{\Delta\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathcal{P}(\tau + \Delta\tau) - \mathcal{P}(\tau)}{\Delta\tau} \equiv \lim_{\Delta\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta\vec{x}}{\Delta\tau}, \quad (24.2)$$

Eq. (24.1) implies that  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{u}, \vec{u}) = -1$  (Sec. 2.4.1).

The 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$  is an example of a *timelike* vector (Sec. 2.2.3); it has a negative inner product with itself (negative “squared length”). This shows up pictorially in the

spacetime metric

light cone; timelike, null, and spacelike vectors

fact that  $\vec{u}$  lies inside the *light cone* (the cone swept out by the trajectories of photons emitted from the tail of  $\vec{u}$ ; see Fig. 24.1). Vectors  $\vec{k}$  on the light cone (the tangents to the world lines of the photons) are *null* and so have vanishing squared lengths:  $\vec{k} \cdot \vec{k} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{k}, \vec{k}) = 0$ ; vectors  $\vec{A}$  that lie outside the light cone are *spacelike* and have positive squared lengths:  $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} > 0$  (Sec. 2.2.3).

An example of a physical law in 4-dimensional geometric language is the Lorentz force law (Sec. 2.4.2):

Lorentz force law

$$\frac{d\vec{p}}{d\tau} = q\mathbf{F}(\_, \vec{u}). \quad (24.3)$$

Here  $q$  is the particle's charge (a scalar), and both sides of this equation are vectors, or equivalently, first-rank tensors (i.e., tensors with just one slot). As we learned in Secs. 1.5.1 and 2.5.3, it is convenient to give names to slots. When we do so, we can rewrite the Lorentz force law as

slot-naming index notation

$$\frac{dp^\alpha}{d\tau} = qF^{\alpha\beta}u_\beta. \quad (24.4)$$

Here  $\alpha$  is the name of the slot of the vector  $d\vec{p}/d\tau$ ,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the names of the slots of  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\beta$  is the name of the slot of  $\mathbf{u}$ . The double use of  $\beta$  with one up and one down on the right-hand side of the equation represents the insertion of  $\vec{u}$  into the  $\beta$  slot of  $\mathbf{F}$ , whereby the two  $\beta$  slots disappear, and we wind up with a vector whose slot is named  $\alpha$ . As we learned in Sec. 1.5, this slot-naming index notation is isomorphic to the notation for components of vectors, tensors, and physical laws in some reference frame. However, no reference frames are needed or involved when one formulates the laws of physics in geometric, frame-independent language as above.

Those readers who do not feel completely comfortable with these concepts, statements, and notation should reread the relevant portions of Chaps. 1 and 2.

## EXERCISES

### Exercise 24.1 Practice: Frame-Independent Tensors

Let  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  be second-rank tensors.

- Show that  $\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$  is also a second-rank tensor.
- Show that  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$  is a fourth-rank tensor.
- Show that the contraction of  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$  on its first and fourth slots is a second-rank tensor. (If necessary, consult Secs. 1.5 and 2.5 for discussions of contraction.)
- Write the following quantities in slot-naming index notation: the tensor  $\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B}$ , and the simultaneous contraction of this tensor on its first and fourth slots and on its second and third slots.

## 24.2.2

### 24.2.2 Inertial Frames and Components of Vectors, Tensors, and Physical Laws

inertial reference frame

In special relativity, a key role is played by *inertial reference frames*, Sec. 2.2.1. An inertial frame is an (imaginary) latticework of rods and clocks that moves through spacetime freely (inertially, without any force acting on it). The rods are orthogonal to one another and attached to inertial-guidance gyroscopes, so they do not rotate. These

rods are used to identify the spatial, Cartesian coordinates  $(x^1, x^2, x^3) = (x, y, z)$  of an event  $\mathcal{P}$  [which we also denote by lowercased Latin indices  $x^j(\mathcal{P})$ , with  $j$  running over 1, 2, 3]. The latticework's clocks are ideal and are synchronized with one another by the Einstein light-pulse process. They are used to identify the temporal coordinate  $x^0 = t$  of an event  $\mathcal{P}$ :  $x^0(\mathcal{P})$  is the time measured by that latticework clock whose world line passes through  $\mathcal{P}$ , at the moment of passage. The spacetime coordinates of  $\mathcal{P}$  are denoted by lowercased Greek indices  $x^\alpha$ , with  $\alpha$  running over 0, 1, 2, 3. An inertial frame's spacetime coordinates  $x^\alpha(\mathcal{P})$  are called *Lorentz coordinates* or *inertial coordinates*.

Lorentz (inertial) coordinates

In the real universe, spacetime curvature is small in regions well removed from concentrations of matter (e.g., in intergalactic space), so special relativity is highly accurate there. In such a region, frames of reference (rod-clock latticeworks) that are nonaccelerating and nonrotating with respect to cosmologically distant galaxies (and hence with respect to a local frame in which the cosmic microwave radiation looks isotropic) constitute good approximations to inertial reference frames.

Associated with an inertial frame's Lorentz coordinates are basis vectors  $\vec{e}_\alpha$  that point along the frame's coordinate axes (and thus are orthogonal to one another) and have unit length (making them orthonormal); see Sec. 2.5. This orthonormality is embodied in the inner products

orthonormal basis vectors of an inertial frame

$$\vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \vec{e}_\beta = \eta_{\alpha\beta}, \quad (24.5)$$

where by definition:

$$\eta_{00} = -1, \quad \eta_{11} = \eta_{22} = \eta_{33} = +1, \quad \eta_{\alpha\beta} = 0 \quad \text{if } \alpha \neq \beta. \quad (24.6)$$

Here and throughout Part VII (as in Chap. 2), we set the speed of light to unity (i.e., we use the geometrized units introduced in Sec. 1.10), so spatial lengths (e.g., along the  $x$ -axis) and time intervals (e.g., along the  $t$ -axis) are measured in the same units, seconds or meters, with  $1 \text{ s} = 2.99792458 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$ .

geometrized units

In Sec. 2.5 (see also Sec. 1.5), we used the basis vectors of an inertial frame to build a component representation of tensor analysis. The fact that the inner products of timelike vectors with each other are negative (e.g.,  $\vec{e}_0 \cdot \vec{e}_0 = -1$ ), while those of spacelike vectors are positive (e.g.,  $\vec{e}_1 \cdot \vec{e}_1 = +1$ ), forced us to introduce two types of components: *covariant* (indices down) and *contravariant* (indices up). The covariant components of a tensor are computable by inserting the basis vectors into the tensor's slots:  $u_\alpha = \vec{u}(\vec{e}_\alpha) \equiv \vec{u} \cdot \vec{e}_\alpha$ ;  $F_{\alpha\beta} = \mathbf{F}(\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta)$ . For example, in our Lorentz basis the covariant components of the metric are  $g_{\alpha\beta} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta) = \vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \vec{e}_\beta = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$ . The contravariant components of a tensor were related to the covariant components via "index lowering" with the aid of the metric,  $F_{\alpha\beta} = g_{\alpha\mu} g_{\beta\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$ , which simply said that one reverses the sign when lowering a time index and makes no change of sign when lowering a space index. This lowering rule implied that the contravariant components of the metric in a Lorentz basis are the same numerically as the covariant

covariant and contravariant components of vectors and tensors

components,  $g^{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$ , and that they can be used to raise indices (i.e., to perform the trivial sign flip for temporal indices):  $F^{\mu\nu} = g^{\mu\alpha} g^{\nu\beta} F_{\alpha\beta}$ . As we saw in Sec. 2.5, tensors can be expressed in terms of their contravariant components as  $\vec{p} = p^\alpha \vec{e}_\alpha$ , and  $\mathbf{F} = F^{\alpha\beta} \vec{e}_\alpha \otimes \vec{e}_\beta$ , where  $\otimes$  represents the tensor product [Eqs. (1.5)].

We also learned in Chap. 2 that any frame-independent geometric relation among tensors can be rewritten as a relation among those tensors' components in any chosen Lorentz frame. When one does so, the resulting component equation takes precisely the same form as the slot-naming-index-notation version of the geometric relation (Sec. 1.5.1). For example, the component version of the Lorentz force law says  $dp^\alpha/d\tau = q F^{\alpha\beta} u_\beta$ , which is identical to Eq. (24.4). The only difference is the interpretation of the symbols. In the component equation  $F^{\alpha\beta}$  are the components of  $\mathbf{F}$  and the repeated  $\beta$  in  $F^{\alpha\beta} u_\beta$  is to be summed from 0 to 3. In the geometric relation  $F^{\alpha\beta}$  means  $\mathbf{F}(\_, \_)$ , with the first slot named  $\alpha$  and the second  $\beta$ , and the repeated  $\beta$  in  $F^{\alpha\beta} u_\beta$  implies the insertion of  $\vec{u}$  into the second slot of  $\mathbf{F}$  to produce a single-slotted tensor (i.e., a vector) whose slot is named  $\alpha$ .

As we saw in Sec. 2.6, a particle's 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$  (defined originally without the aid of any reference frame; Fig. 24.1) has components, in any inertial frame, given by  $u^0 = \gamma$ ,  $u^j = \gamma v^j$ , where  $v^j = dx^j/dt$  is the particle's ordinary velocity and  $\gamma \equiv 1/\sqrt{1 - \delta_{ij} v^i v^j}$ . Similarly, the particle's energy  $E \equiv p^0$  is  $m\gamma$ , and its spatial momentum is  $p^j = m\gamma v^j$  (i.e., in 3-dimensional geometric notation:  $\mathbf{p} = m\gamma \mathbf{v}$ ). This is an example of the manner in which a choice of Lorentz frame produces a "3+1" split of the physics: a split of 4-dimensional spacetime into 3-dimensional space (with Cartesian coordinates  $x^j$ ) plus 1-dimensional time  $t = x^0$ ; a split of the particle's 4-momentum  $\vec{p}$  into its 3-dimensional spatial momentum  $\mathbf{p}$  and its 1-dimensional energy  $\mathcal{E} = p^0$ ; and similarly a split of the electromagnetic field tensor  $\mathbf{F}$  into the 3-dimensional electric field  $\mathbf{E}$  and 3-dimensional magnetic field  $\mathbf{B}$  (cf. Secs. 2.6 and 2.11).

The Principle of Relativity (all laws expressible as geometric relations between geometric objects in Minkowski spacetime), when translated into 3+1 language, says that, when the laws of physics are expressed in terms of components in a specific Lorentz frame, the form of those laws must be independent of one's choice of frame. When translated into operational terms, it says that, if two observers in two different Lorentz frames are given identical written instructions for a self-contained physics experiment, then their two experiments must yield the same results to within their experimental accuracies (Sec. 2.2.2).

The components of tensors in one Lorentz frame are related to those in another by a Lorentz transformation (Sec. 2.7), so the Principle of Relativity can be restated as saying that, when expressed in terms of Lorentz-frame components, *the laws of physics must be Lorentz-invariant* (unchanged by Lorentz transformations). This is the version of the Principle of Relativity that one meets in most elementary treatments of special relativity. However, as the above discussion shows, it is a mere shadow of the true Principle of Relativity—the shadow cast into Lorentz frames when one performs

component equations are same as slot-naming-index-notation equations

components of 4-velocity in an inertial frame

3 + 1 split

Principle of Relativity restated: laws take same form in every inertial frame

Lorentz transformations

Principle of Relativity restated: laws are Lorentz invariant

a 3+1 split. The ultimate, fundamental version of the Principle of Relativity is the one that needs no frames at all for its expression: *all the laws of physics are expressible as geometric relations among geometric objects that reside in Minkowski spacetime.*

ultimate version of Principle of Relativity

### 24.2.3 Light Speed, the Interval, and Spacetime Diagrams

24.2.3

One set of physical laws that must be the same in all inertial frames is Maxwell's equations. Let us discuss the implications of Maxwell's equations and the Principle of Relativity for the speed of light  $c$ . (For a more detailed discussion, see Sec. 2.2.2.) According to Maxwell,  $c$  can be determined by performing nonradiative laboratory experiments; it is not necessary to measure the time it takes light to travel along some path; see Box 2.2. The Principle of Relativity requires that such experiments must give the same result for  $c$ , independent of the reference frame in which the measurement apparatus resides, so the speed of light must be independent of reference frame. It is this frame independence that enables us to introduce geometrized units with  $c = 1$ .

light speed is the same in all inertial frames

Another example of frame independence (Lorentz invariance) is provided by the *interval between two events* (Sec. 2.2.3). The components  $g_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$  of the metric imply that, if  $\Delta\vec{x}$  is the vector separating the two events and  $\Delta x^\alpha$  are its components in some Lorentz coordinate system, then the squared length of  $\Delta\vec{x}$  [also called the *interval* and denoted  $(\Delta s)^2$ ] is given by

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta s)^2 &\equiv \Delta\vec{x} \cdot \Delta\vec{x} = \mathbf{g}(\Delta\vec{x}, \Delta\vec{x}) = g_{\alpha\beta} \Delta x^\alpha \Delta x^\beta \\ &= -(\Delta t)^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2. \end{aligned} \quad (24.7)$$

interval between two events

Since  $\Delta\vec{x}$  is a geometric, frame-independent object, so must be the interval. This implies that the equation  $(\Delta s)^2 = -(\Delta t)^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2 + (\Delta z)^2$  by which one computes the interval between the two chosen events in one Lorentz frame must give the same numerical result when used in any other frame (i.e., this expression must be Lorentz invariant). This *invariance of the interval* is the starting point for most introductions to special relativity—and, indeed, we used it as a starting point in Sec. 2.2.

invariance of the interval

Spacetime diagrams play a major role in our development of general relativity. Accordingly, it is important that the reader feel very comfortable with them. We recommend reviewing Fig. 2.7 and Ex. 2.14.

spacetime diagrams

#### Exercise 24.2 Example: Invariance of a Null Interval

### EXERCISES

You have measured the intervals between a number of adjacent events in spacetime and thereby have deduced the metric  $\mathbf{g}$ . Your friend claims that the metric is some other frame-independent tensor  $\tilde{\mathbf{g}}$  that differs from  $\mathbf{g}$ . Suppose that your correct metric  $\mathbf{g}$  and his wrong one  $\tilde{\mathbf{g}}$  agree on the forms of the light cones in spacetime (i.e., they agree as to which intervals are null, which are spacelike, and which are timelike), but they give different answers for the value of the interval in the spacelike and timelike cases:  $\mathbf{g}(\Delta\vec{x}, \Delta\vec{x}) \neq \tilde{\mathbf{g}}(\Delta\vec{x}, \Delta\vec{x})$ . Prove that  $\tilde{\mathbf{g}}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  differ solely by

a scalar multiplicative factor,  $\tilde{\mathbf{g}} = a\mathbf{g}$  for some scalar  $a$ . We say that  $\tilde{\mathbf{g}}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  are *conformal to each other*. [Hint: Pick some Lorentz frame and perform computations there, then lift yourself back up to a frame-independent viewpoint.]

**Exercise 24.3** *Problem: Causality*

If two events occur at the same spatial point but not simultaneously in one inertial frame, prove that the temporal order of these events is the same in all inertial frames. Prove also that in all other frames the temporal interval  $\Delta t$  between the two events is larger than in the first frame, and that there are no limits on the events' spatial or temporal separation in the other frames. Give *two* proofs of these results, one algebraic and the other via spacetime diagrams.

**24.3**      **24.3 Differential Geometry in General Bases and in Curved Manifolds**

The differential geometry (tensor-analysis) formalism reviewed in the last section is inadequate for general relativity in several ways.

First, in general relativity we need to use bases  $\vec{e}_\alpha$  that are not orthonormal (i.e., for which  $\vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \vec{e}_\beta \neq \eta_{\alpha\beta}$ ). For example, near a spinning black hole there is much power in using a time basis vector  $\vec{e}_t$  that is tied in a simple way to the metric's time-translation symmetry and a spatial basis vector  $\vec{e}_\phi$  that is tied to its rotational symmetry. This time basis vector has an inner product with itself  $\vec{e}_t \cdot \vec{e}_t = g_{tt}$  that is influenced by the slowing of time near the hole (so  $g_{tt} \neq -1$ ); and  $\vec{e}_\phi$  is not orthogonal to  $\vec{e}_t$  ( $\vec{e}_t \cdot \vec{e}_\phi = g_{t\phi} \neq 0$ ), as a result of the dragging of inertial frames by the hole's spin. In this section, we generalize our formalism to treat such nonorthonormal bases.

Second, in the curved spacetime of general relativity (and in any other curved space, e.g., the 2-dimensional surface of Earth), the definition of a vector as an arrow connecting two points (Secs. 1.2 and 2.2.1) is suspect, as it is not obvious on what route the arrow should travel nor that the linear algebra of tensor analysis should be valid for such arrows. In this section, we refine the concept of a vector to deal with this problem. In the process we introduce the concept of a *tangent space* in which the linear algebra of tensors takes place—a different tangent space for tensors that live at different points in the space.

Third, once we have been forced to think of a tensor as residing in a specific tangent space at a specific point in the space, the question arises: how can one transport tensors from the tangent space at one point to the tangent space at an adjacent point? Since the notion of a gradient of a vector depends on comparing the vector at two different points and thus depends on the details of transport, we have to rework the notion of a gradient and the gradient's connection coefficients.

Fourth, when doing an integral, one must add contributions that live at different points in the space, so we must also rework the notion of integration.

We tackle each of these four issues in turn in the following four subsections.



### 24.3.1 Nonorthonormal Bases

24.3.1

Consider an  $n$ -dimensional *manifold*, that is, a space that, in the neighborhood of any point, has the same topological and smoothness properties as  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean space, though it might not have a locally Euclidean or locally Lorentz metric and perhaps has no metric at all. If the manifold has a metric (e.g., 4-dimensional spacetime, 3-dimensional Euclidean space, and the 2-dimensional surface of a sphere) it is called “Riemannian.” In this chapter, all manifolds we consider will be Riemannian.

manifold

At some point  $\mathcal{P}$  in our chosen  $n$ -dimensional manifold with metric, introduce a set of basis vectors  $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$  and denote them generally as  $\vec{e}_\alpha$ . We seek to generalize the formalism of Sec. 24.2 in such a way that the index-manipulation rules for components of tensors are unchanged. For example, we still want it to be true that covariant components of any tensor are computable by inserting the basis vectors into the tensor’s slots,  $F_{\alpha\beta} = \mathbf{F}(\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta)$ , and that the tensor itself can be reconstructed from its contravariant components:  $\mathbf{F} = F^{\mu\nu} \vec{e}_\mu \otimes \vec{e}_\nu$ . We also require that the two sets of components are computable from each other via raising and lowering with the metric components:  $F_{\alpha\beta} = g_{\alpha\mu} g_{\beta\nu} F^{\mu\nu}$ . The only thing we do not want to preserve is the orthonormal values of the metric components: we must allow the basis to be nonorthonormal and thus  $\vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \vec{e}_\beta = g_{\alpha\beta}$  to have arbitrary values (except that the metric should be nondegenerate, so no linear combination of the  $\vec{e}_\alpha$ s vanishes, which means that the matrix  $\|g_{\alpha\beta}\|$  should have nonzero determinant).

tensors in a nonorthonormal basis

We can easily achieve our goal by introducing a second set of basis vectors, denoted  $\{\vec{e}^1, \vec{e}^2, \dots, \vec{e}^n\}$ , which is *dual* to our first set in the sense that

dual sets of basis vectors

$$\vec{e}^\mu \cdot \vec{e}_\beta \equiv \mathbf{g}(\vec{e}^\mu, \vec{e}_\beta) = \delta^\mu_\beta. \quad (24.8)$$

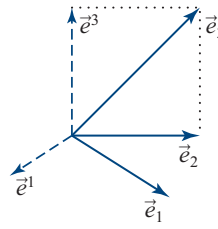
Here  $\delta^\alpha_\beta$  is the Kronecker delta. This duality relation actually constitutes a *definition* of the  $\vec{e}^\mu$  once the  $\vec{e}_\alpha$  have been chosen. To see this, regard  $\vec{e}^\mu$  as a tensor of rank one. This tensor is defined as soon as its value on each and every vector has been determined. Expression (24.8) gives the value  $\vec{e}^\mu(\vec{e}_\beta) = \vec{e}^\mu \cdot \vec{e}_\beta$  of  $\vec{e}^\mu$  on each of the four basis vectors  $\vec{e}_\beta$ ; and since every other vector can be expanded in terms of the  $\vec{e}_\beta$ s and  $\vec{e}^\mu(\_)$  is a linear function, Eq. (24.8) thereby determines the value of  $\vec{e}^\mu$  on every other vector.

The duality relation (24.8) says that  $\vec{e}^1$  is always perpendicular to all the  $\vec{e}_\alpha$ s except  $\vec{e}_1$ , and its scalar product with  $\vec{e}_1$  is unity—and similarly for the other basis vectors. This interpretation is illustrated for 3-dimensional Euclidean space in Fig. 24.2. In Minkowski spacetime, if the  $\vec{e}_\alpha$  are an orthonormal Lorentz basis, then duality dictates that  $\vec{e}^0 = -\vec{e}_0$ , and  $\vec{e}^j = +\vec{e}_j$ .

The duality relation (24.8) leads immediately to the same index-manipulation formalism as we have been using, if one defines the contravariant, covariant, and mixed components of tensors in the obvious manner:

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \mathbf{F}(\vec{e}^\mu, \vec{e}^\nu), \quad F_{\alpha\beta} = \mathbf{F}(\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta), \quad F^\mu_\beta = \mathbf{F}(\vec{e}^\mu, \vec{e}_\beta); \quad (24.9)$$

covariant, contravariant, and mixed components of a tensor



**FIGURE 24.2** Nonorthonormal basis vectors  $\vec{e}_j$  in Euclidean 3-space and two members  $\vec{e}^1$  and  $\vec{e}^3$  of the dual basis. The vectors  $\vec{e}_1$  and  $\vec{e}_2$  lie in the horizontal plane, so  $\vec{e}^3$  is orthogonal to that plane (i.e., it points vertically upward), and its inner product with  $\vec{e}_3$  is unity. Similarly, the vectors  $\vec{e}_2$  and  $\vec{e}_3$  span a vertical plane, so  $\vec{e}^1$  is orthogonal to that plane (i.e., it points horizontally), and its inner product with  $\vec{e}_1$  is unity.

see Ex. 24.4. Among the consequences of this duality are the following:

covariant and contravariant components of the metric

1. The matrix of contravariant components of the metric is inverse to that of the covariant components,  $||g^{\mu\nu}|| = ||g_{\alpha\beta}||^{-1}$ , so that

$$g^{\mu\beta} g_{\beta\nu} = \delta^\mu_\nu. \quad (24.10)$$

This relation guarantees that when one raises an index on a tensor  $F_{\alpha\beta}$  with  $g^{\mu\beta}$  and then lowers it back down with  $g_{\beta\mu}$ , one recovers one's original covariant components  $F_{\alpha\beta}$  unaltered.

reconstructing a tensor from its components

2. One can reconstruct a tensor from its components by lining up the indices in a manner that accords with the rules of index manipulation:

$$\mathbf{F} = F^{\mu\nu} \vec{e}_\mu \otimes \vec{e}_\nu = F_{\alpha\beta} \vec{e}^\alpha \otimes \vec{e}^\beta = F^\mu_\beta \vec{e}_\mu \otimes \vec{e}^\beta. \quad (24.11)$$

component equations are same as slot-naming-index-notation equations

3. The component versions of tensorial equations are identical in mathematical symbology to the slot-naming-index-notation versions:

$$\mathbf{F}(\vec{p}, \vec{q}) = F^{\alpha\beta} p_\alpha p_\beta. \quad (24.12)$$

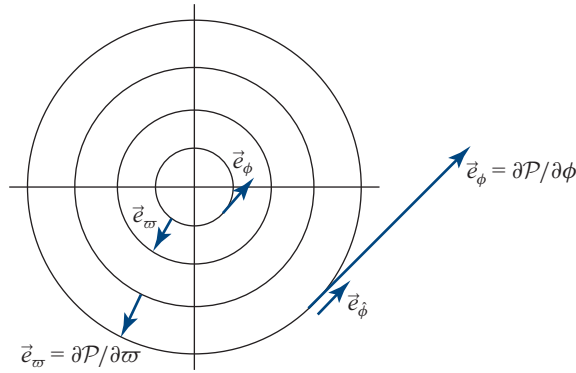
Associated with any coordinate system  $x^\alpha(\mathcal{P})$  there is a *coordinate basis* whose basis vectors are defined by

coordinate basis

$$\vec{e}_\alpha \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{P}}{\partial x^\alpha}. \quad (24.13)$$

Since the derivative is taken holding the other coordinates fixed, the basis vector  $\vec{e}_\alpha$  points along the  $\alpha$  coordinate axis (the axis on which  $x^\alpha$  changes and all the other coordinates are held fixed).





**FIGURE 24.3** A circular coordinate system  $\{\varpi, \phi\}$  and its coordinate basis vectors  $\vec{e}_\varpi = \partial\mathcal{P}/\partial\varpi$ ,  $\vec{e}_\phi = \partial\mathcal{P}/\partial\phi$  at several locations in the coordinate system. Also shown is the orthonormal basis vector  $\vec{e}_{\hat{\phi}}$ .

In an orthogonal curvilinear coordinate system [e.g., circular polar coordinates  $(\varpi, \phi)$  in Euclidean 2-space; Fig. 24.3], this coordinate basis is quite different from the coordinate system's orthonormal basis. For example,  $\vec{e}_\phi = (\partial\mathcal{P}/\partial\phi)_\varpi$  is a very long vector at large radii and a very short one at small radii; the corresponding unit-length vector is  $\vec{e}_{\hat{\phi}} = (1/\varpi)\vec{e}_\phi = (1/\varpi)\partial/\partial\phi$  (i.e., the derivative with respect to physical distance along the  $\phi$  direction). By contrast,  $\vec{e}_\varpi = (\partial\mathcal{P}/\partial\varpi)_\phi$  already has unit length, so the corresponding orthonormal basis vector is simply  $\vec{e}_{\hat{\varpi}} = \vec{e}_\varpi$ . The metric components in the coordinate basis are readily seen to be  $g_{\phi\phi} = \varpi^2$ ,  $g_{\varpi\varpi} = 1$ , and  $g_{\varpi\phi} = g_{\phi\varpi} = 0$ , which are in accord with the equation for the squared distance (interval) between adjacent points:  $ds^2 = g_{ij}dx^i dx^j = d\varpi^2 + \varpi^2 d\phi^2$ . Of course, the metric components in the orthonormal basis are  $g_{\hat{i}\hat{j}} = \delta_{ij}$ .

orthogonal curvilinear coordinates

Henceforth, we use hats to identify orthonormal bases; bases whose indices do not have hats will typically (though not always) be coordinate bases.

We can construct the basis  $\{\vec{e}^\mu\}$  that is dual to the coordinate basis  $\{\vec{e}_\alpha\} = \{\partial\mathcal{P}/\partial x^\alpha\}$  by taking the gradients of the coordinates, viewed as scalar fields  $x^\alpha(\mathcal{P})$ :

$$\vec{e}^\mu = \vec{\nabla} x^\mu. \quad (24.14)$$

the basis dual to a coordinate basis

It is straightforward to verify the duality relation (24.8) for these two bases:

$$\vec{e}^\mu \cdot \vec{e}_\alpha = \vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \vec{\nabla} x^\mu = \nabla_{\vec{e}_\alpha} x^\mu = \nabla_{\partial\mathcal{P}/\partial x^\alpha} x^\mu = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\alpha} = \delta^\mu_\alpha. \quad (24.15)$$

In any coordinate system, the expansion of the metric in terms of the dual basis,  $\mathbf{g} = g_{\alpha\beta}\vec{e}^\alpha \otimes \vec{e}^\beta = g_{\alpha\beta}\vec{\nabla} x^\alpha \otimes \vec{\nabla} x^\beta$ , is intimately related to the line element  $ds^2 = g_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dx^\beta$ . Consider an infinitesimal vectorial displacement  $d\vec{x} = dx^\alpha(\partial/\partial x^\alpha)$ . Insert this displacement into the metric's two slots to obtain the interval  $ds^2$  along

$d\vec{x}$ . The result is  $ds^2 = g_{\alpha\beta} \nabla x^\alpha \otimes \nabla x^\beta (d\vec{x}, d\vec{x}) = g_{\alpha\beta} (d\vec{x} \cdot \nabla x^\alpha) (d\vec{x} \cdot \nabla x^\beta) = g_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta$ :

the line element for the invariant interval along a displacement vector

$$ds^2 = g_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta. \quad (24.16)$$

Here the second equality follows from the definition of the tensor product  $\otimes$ , and the third from the fact that for any scalar field  $\psi$ ,  $d\vec{x} \cdot \nabla \psi$  is the change  $d\psi$  along  $d\vec{x}$ .

Any two bases  $\{\vec{e}_\alpha\}$  and  $\{\vec{e}_{\bar{\mu}}\}$  can be expanded in terms of each other:

transformation matrices linking two bases

$$\vec{e}_\alpha = \vec{e}_{\bar{\mu}} L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha, \quad \vec{e}_{\bar{\mu}} = \vec{e}_\alpha L^\alpha_{\bar{\mu}}. \quad (24.17)$$

(By convention the first index on  $L$  is always placed up, and the second is always placed down.) The quantities  $\|L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha\|$  and  $\|L^\alpha_{\bar{\mu}}\|$  are transformation matrices, and since they operate in opposite directions, they must be the inverse of each other:

$$L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha L^\alpha_{\bar{\nu}} = \delta^{\bar{\mu}}_{\bar{\nu}}, \quad L^\alpha_{\bar{\mu}} L^{\bar{\mu}}_\beta = \delta^\alpha_\beta. \quad (24.18)$$

These  $\|L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha\|$  are the generalizations of Lorentz transformations to arbitrary bases [cf. Eqs. (2.34) and (2.35a)]. As in the Lorentz-transformation case, the transformation laws (24.17) for the basis vectors imply corresponding transformation laws for components of vectors and tensors—laws that entail lining up indices in the obvious manner:

transformation of tensor components between bases

$$A_{\bar{\mu}} = L^\alpha_{\bar{\mu}} A_\alpha, \quad T^{\bar{\mu}\bar{\nu}}_{\bar{\rho}} = L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha L^{\bar{\nu}}_\beta L^\gamma_{\bar{\rho}} T^{\alpha\beta}_\gamma, \quad (24.19)$$

and similarly in the opposite direction.

For coordinate bases, these  $L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha$  are simply the partial derivatives of one set of coordinates with respect to the other:

transformation matrices between coordinate bases

$$L^{\bar{\mu}}_\alpha = \frac{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}{\partial x^\alpha}, \quad L^\alpha_{\bar{\mu}} = \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial x^{\bar{\mu}}}, \quad (24.20)$$

as one can easily deduce via

$$\vec{e}_\alpha = \frac{\partial \mathcal{P}}{\partial x^\alpha} = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathcal{P}}{\partial x^\mu} = \vec{e}_\mu \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\alpha}. \quad (24.21)$$

In many physics textbooks a tensor is *defined* as a set of components  $F_{\alpha\beta}$  that obey the transformation laws

$$F_{\alpha\beta} = F_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial x^\alpha} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial x^\beta}. \quad (24.22)$$

This definition (valid only in a coordinate basis) is in accord with Eqs. (24.19) and (24.20), though it hides the true and very simple nature of a tensor as a linear function of frame-independent vectors.

**Exercise 24.4** *Derivation: Index-Manipulation Rules from Duality*

For an arbitrary basis  $\{\vec{e}_\alpha\}$  and its dual basis  $\{\vec{e}^\mu\}$ , use (i) the duality relation (24.8), (ii) the definition (24.9) of components of a tensor, and (iii) the relation  $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{A}, \vec{B})$  between the metric and the inner product to deduce the following results.

(a) The relations

$$\vec{e}^\mu = \mathbf{g}^{\mu\alpha} \vec{e}_\alpha, \quad \vec{e}_\alpha = \mathbf{g}_{\alpha\mu} \vec{e}^\mu. \quad (24.23)$$

(b) The fact that indices on the components of tensors can be raised and lowered using the components of the metric:

$$F^{\mu\nu} = \mathbf{g}^{\mu\alpha} F_\alpha{}^\nu, \quad p_\alpha = \mathbf{g}_{\alpha\beta} p^\beta. \quad (24.24)$$

(c) The fact that a tensor can be reconstructed from its components in the manner of Eq. (24.11).

**Exercise 24.5** *Practice: Transformation Matrices for Circular Polar Bases*

Consider the circular polar coordinate system  $\{\varpi, \phi\}$  and its coordinate bases and orthonormal bases as shown in Fig. 24.3 and discussed in the associated text. These coordinates are related to Cartesian coordinates  $\{x, y\}$  by the usual relations:  $x = \varpi \cos \phi$ ,  $y = \varpi \sin \phi$ .

(a) Evaluate the components ( $L^x{}_\varpi$ , etc.) of the transformation matrix that links the two coordinate bases  $\{\vec{e}_x, \vec{e}_y\}$  and  $\{\vec{e}_\varpi, \vec{e}_\phi\}$ . Also evaluate the components ( $L^\varpi{}_x$ , etc.) of the inverse transformation matrix.

(b) Similarly, evaluate the components of the transformation matrix and its inverse linking the bases  $\{\vec{e}_x, \vec{e}_y\}$  and  $\{\vec{e}_{\hat{\phi}}, \vec{e}_{\hat{\phi}}\}$ .

(c) Consider the vector  $\vec{A} \equiv \vec{e}_x + 2\vec{e}_y$ . What are its components in the other two bases?

24.3.2 Vectors as Directional Derivatives; Tangent Space; Commutators

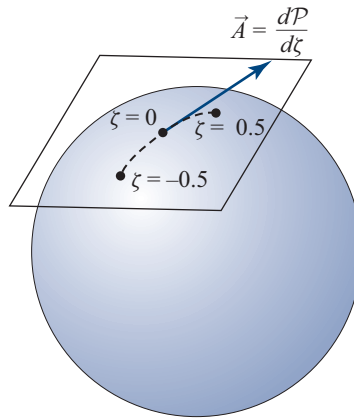
24.3.2

As discussed in the introduction to Sec. 24.3, the notion of a vector as an arrow connecting two points is problematic in a curved manifold and must be refined. As a first step in the refinement, let us consider the tangent vector  $\vec{A}$  to a curve  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta)$  at some point  $\mathcal{P}_o \equiv \mathcal{P}(\zeta = 0)$ . We have defined that tangent vector by the limiting process:

$$\vec{A} \equiv \frac{d\mathcal{P}}{d\zeta} \equiv \lim_{\Delta\zeta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta) - \mathcal{P}(0)}{\Delta\zeta} \quad (24.25)$$

tangent vector to a curve

[Eq. (24.2)]. In this definition the difference  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta) - \mathcal{P}(0)$  means the tiny arrow reaching from  $\mathcal{P}(0) \equiv \mathcal{P}_o$  to  $\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta)$ . In the limit as  $\Delta\zeta$  becomes vanishingly small, these two points get arbitrarily close together. In such an arbitrarily small region of the manifold, the effects of the manifold's curvature become arbitrarily small and



**FIGURE 24.4** A curve  $\mathcal{P}(\xi)$  on the surface of a sphere and the curve's tangent vector  $\vec{A} = d\mathcal{P}/d\xi$  at  $\mathcal{P}(\xi = 0) \equiv \mathcal{P}_o$ . The tangent vector lives in the tangent space at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  (i.e., in the flat plane that is tangent to the sphere there, as seen in the flat Euclidean 3-space in which the sphere's surface is embedded).

negligible (just think of an arbitrarily tiny region on the surface of a sphere), so the notion of the arrow should become sensible. However, before the limit is completed, we are required to divide by  $\Delta\xi$ , which makes our arbitrarily tiny arrow big again. What meaning can we give to this?

One way to think about it is to imagine embedding the curved manifold in a higher-dimensional flat space (e.g., embed the surface of a sphere in a flat 3-dimensional Euclidean space, as shown in Fig. 24.4). Then the tiny arrow  $\mathcal{P}(\Delta\xi) - \mathcal{P}(0)$  can be thought of equally well as lying on the sphere, or as lying in a surface that is tangent to the sphere and is flat, as measured in the flat embedding space. We can give meaning to  $[\mathcal{P}(\Delta\xi) - \mathcal{P}(0)]/\Delta\xi$  if we regard this expression as a formula for lengthening an arrow-type vector in the flat tangent surface; correspondingly, we must regard the resulting tangent vector  $\vec{A}$  as an arrow living in the tangent surface.

tangent space at a point

The (conceptual) flat tangent surface at the point  $\mathcal{P}_o$  is called the *tangent space* to the curved manifold at that point. It has the same number of dimensions  $n$  as the manifold itself (two in the case of the surface of the sphere in Fig. 24.4). Vectors at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  are arrows residing in that point's tangent space, tensors at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  are linear functions of these vectors, and all the linear algebra of vectors and tensors that reside at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  occurs in this tangent space. For example, the inner product of two vectors  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$  at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  (two arrows living in the tangent space there) is computed via the standard relation  $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = \mathbf{g}(\vec{A}, \vec{B})$  using the metric  $\mathbf{g}$  that also resides in the tangent space. (Scalars reside in both the manifold and the tangent space.)

This pictorial way of thinking about the tangent space and vectors and tensors that reside in it is far too heuristic to satisfy most mathematicians. Therefore, mathematicians have insisted on making it much more precise at the price of greater abstraction. Mathematicians define the tangent vector to the curve  $\mathcal{P}(\xi)$  to be the derivative  $d/d\xi$

that differentiates scalar fields along the curve. This derivative operator is well defined by the rules of ordinary differentiation: if  $\psi(\mathcal{P})$  is a scalar field in the manifold, then  $\psi[\mathcal{P}(\zeta)]$  is a function of the real variable  $\zeta$ , and its derivative  $(d/d\zeta)\psi[\mathcal{P}(\zeta)]$  evaluated at  $\zeta = 0$  is the ordinary derivative of elementary calculus. Since the derivative operator  $d/d\zeta$  differentiates in the manifold along the direction in which the curve is moving, it is often called the *directional derivative* along  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta)$ . Mathematicians notice that all the directional derivatives at a point  $\mathcal{P}_o$  of the manifold form a vector space (they can be multiplied by scalars and added and subtracted to get new vectors), and so the mathematicians define this vector space to be the tangent space at  $\mathcal{P}_o$ .

directional derivative

This mathematical procedure turns out to be isomorphic to the physicists' more heuristic way of thinking about the tangent space. In physicists' language, if one introduces a coordinate system in a region of the manifold containing  $\mathcal{P}_o$  and constructs the corresponding coordinate basis  $\vec{e}_\alpha = \partial\mathcal{P}/\partial x^\alpha$ , then one can expand any vector in the tangent space as  $\vec{A} = A^\alpha \partial\mathcal{P}/\partial x^\alpha$ . One can also construct, in physicists' language, the directional derivative along  $\vec{A}$ ; it is  $\partial_{\vec{A}} \equiv A^\alpha \partial/\partial x^\alpha$ . Evidently, the components  $A^\alpha$  of the physicist's vector  $\vec{A}$  (an arrow) are identical to the coefficients  $A^\alpha$  in the coordinate-expansion of the directional derivative  $\partial_{\vec{A}}$ . Therefore a one-to-one correspondence exists between the directional derivatives  $\partial_{\vec{A}}$  at  $\mathcal{P}_o$  and the vectors  $\vec{A}$  there, and a complete isomorphism holds between the tangent-space manipulations that a mathematician performs treating the directional derivatives as vectors, and those that a physicist performs treating the arrows as vectors.

“Why not abandon the fuzzy concept of a vector as an arrow, and *redefine the vector  $\vec{A}$  to be the same as the directional derivative  $\partial_{\vec{A}}$* ?” mathematicians have demanded of physicists. Slowly, over the past century, physicists have come to see the merit in this approach. (i) It does, indeed, make the concept of a vector more rigorous than before. (ii) It simplifies a number of other concepts in mathematical physics (e.g., the commutator of two vector fields; see below). (iii) It facilitates communication with mathematicians. (iv) It provides a formalism that is useful for calculation. With these motivations in mind, and because one always gains conceptual and computational power by having multiple viewpoints at one's fingertips (see Feynman, 1966, p. 160), we henceforth shall regard vectors both as arrows living in a tangent space and as directional derivatives. Correspondingly, we assert the equalities:

tangent vector as directional derivative along a curve

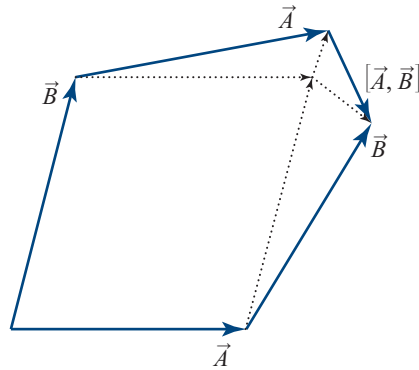
$$\boxed{\frac{\partial\mathcal{P}}{\partial x^\alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}, \quad \vec{A} = \partial_{\vec{A}},} \quad (24.26)$$

and often expand vectors in a coordinate basis using the notation

$$\boxed{\vec{A} = A^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}.} \quad (24.27)$$

This directional-derivative viewpoint on vectors makes natural the concept of the *commutator* of two vector fields  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$ :  $[\vec{A}, \vec{B}]$  is the vector that, when viewed

commutator of two vector fields



**FIGURE 24.5** The commutator  $[\vec{A}, \vec{B}]$  of two vector fields. The vectors are assumed to be so small that the curvature of the manifold is negligible in the region of the diagram, so all the vectors can be drawn lying in the manifold itself rather than in their respective tangent spaces. In evaluating the two terms in the commutator (24.28), a locally orthonormal coordinate basis is used, so  $A^\alpha \partial B^\beta / \partial x^\alpha$  is the amount by which the vector  $\vec{B}$  changes when one travels along  $\vec{A}$  (i.e., it is the rightward-and-downward pointing dashed arrow in the upper right), and  $B^\alpha \partial A^\beta / \partial x^\alpha$  is the amount by which  $\vec{A}$  changes when one travels along  $\vec{B}$  (i.e., it is the rightward-and-upward pointing dashed arrow). According to Eq. (24.28), the difference of these two dashed arrows is the commutator  $[\vec{A}, \vec{B}]$ . As the diagram shows, this commutator closes the quadrilateral whose legs are  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$ . If the commutator vanishes, then there is no gap in the quadrilateral, which means that in the region covered by this diagram, one can construct a coordinate system in which  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$  are coordinate basis vectors.

as a differential operator, is given by  $[\partial_{\vec{A}}, \partial_{\vec{B}}]$ —where the latter quantity is the same commutator as one meets elsewhere in physics (e.g., in quantum mechanics). Using this definition, we can compute the components of the commutator in a coordinate basis:

$$[\vec{A}, \vec{B}] \equiv \left[ A^\alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\alpha}, B^\beta \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta} \right] = \left( A^\alpha \frac{\partial B^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} - B^\alpha \frac{\partial A^\beta}{\partial x^\alpha} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\beta}. \quad (24.28)$$

This is an operator equation where the final derivative is presumed to operate on a scalar field, just as in quantum mechanics. From this equation we can read off the components of the commutator in any coordinate basis; they are  $A^\alpha B^\beta_{,\alpha} - B^\alpha A^\beta_{,\alpha}$ , where the comma denotes partial differentiation. Figure 24.5 uses this equation to deduce the geometric meaning of the commutator: it is the fifth leg needed to close a quadrilateral whose other four legs are constructed from the vector fields  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$ . In other words, it is “the change in  $\vec{B}$  relative to  $\vec{A}$ ,” and as such it is a type of derivative of  $\vec{B}$  along  $\vec{A}$ , called the *Lie derivative*:  $\mathcal{L}_{\vec{A}} \vec{B} \equiv [\vec{A}, \vec{B}]$  (cf. footnote 2 in Chap. 14).

The commutator is useful as a tool for distinguishing between coordinate bases and noncoordinate bases (also called nonholonomic bases). In a coordinate basis, the basis vectors are just the coordinate system’s partial derivatives,  $\vec{e}_\alpha = \partial / \partial x^\alpha$ , and since partial derivatives commute, it must be that  $[\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta] = 0$ . Conversely (as Fig. 24.5 shows), if one has a basis with vanishing commutators  $[\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta] = 0$ , then it

coordinate bases have vanishing commutators

is possible to construct a coordinate system for which this is the coordinate basis. In a noncoordinate basis, at least one of the commutators  $[\vec{e}_\alpha, \vec{e}_\beta]$  will be nonzero.

### 24.3.3 Differentiation of Vectors and Tensors; Connection Coefficients

24.3.3

In a curved manifold, the differentiation of vectors and tensors is rather subtle. To elucidate the problem, let us recall how we defined such differentiation in Minkowski spacetime or Euclidean space (Sec. 1.7). Converting to the notation used in Eq. (24.25), we began by defining the directional derivative of a tensor field  $\mathbf{F}(\mathcal{P})$  along the tangent vector  $\vec{A} = d/d\zeta$  to a curve  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta)$ :

$$\nabla_{\vec{A}} \mathbf{F} \equiv \lim_{\Delta\zeta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{F}[\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta)] - \mathbf{F}[\mathcal{P}(0)]}{\Delta\zeta}. \quad (24.29)$$

directional derivative of a tensor field

This definition is problematic, because  $\mathbf{F}[\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta)]$  lives in a different tangent space than does  $\mathbf{F}[\mathcal{P}(0)]$ . To make the definition meaningful, we must identify some connection between the two tangent spaces, when their points  $\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta)$  and  $\mathcal{P}(0)$  are arbitrarily close together. That connection is equivalent to identifying a rule for transporting  $\mathbf{F}$  from one tangent space to the other.

In flat space or flat spacetime, and when  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector  $\vec{F}$ , that transport rule is obvious: keep  $\vec{F}$  parallel to itself and keep its length fixed during the transport. In other words, keep constant its components in an orthonormal coordinate system (Cartesian coordinates in Euclidean space, Lorentz coordinates in Minkowski spacetime). This is called the *law of parallel transport*. For a tensor  $\mathbf{F}$ , the parallel transport law is the same: keep its components fixed in an orthonormal coordinate basis.

Now, just as the curvature of Earth's surface prevents one from placing a Cartesian coordinate system on it, so nonzero curvature of any other manifold prevents one from introducing orthonormal coordinates; see Sec. 25.3. However, in an arbitrarily small region on Earth's surface, one can introduce coordinates that are arbitrarily close to Cartesian (as surveyors well know); the fractional deviations from Cartesian need be no larger than  $O(L^2/R^2)$ , where  $L$  is the size of the region and  $R$  is Earth's radius (see Sec. 25.3). Similarly, in curved spacetime, in an arbitrarily small region, one can introduce coordinates that are arbitrarily close to Lorentz, differing only by amounts quadratic in the size of the region—and similarly for a *local* orthonormal coordinate basis in any curved manifold.

When defining  $\nabla_{\vec{A}} \mathbf{F}$ , one is sensitive only to first-order changes of quantities, not second, so the parallel transport used in defining it in a flat manifold, based on constancy of components in an orthonormal coordinate basis, must also work in a *local* orthonormal coordinate basis of any curved manifold: In Eq. (24.29), one must transport  $\mathbf{F}$  from  $\mathcal{P}(\Delta\zeta)$  to  $\mathcal{P}(0)$ , holding its components fixed in a locally orthonormal coordinate basis (parallel transport), and then take the difference in the tangent space at  $\mathcal{P}_o = \mathcal{P}(0)$ , divide by  $\Delta\zeta$ , and let  $\Delta\zeta \rightarrow 0$ . The result is a tensor at  $\mathcal{P}_o$ : the directional derivative  $\nabla_{\vec{A}} \mathbf{F}$  of  $\mathbf{F}$ .



gradient of a tensor field

Having made the directional derivative meaningful, one can proceed as in Secs. 1.7 and 2.10: define the gradient of  $\mathbf{F}$  by  $\nabla_{\vec{A}}\mathbf{F} = \vec{\nabla}\mathbf{F}(\_, \_, \vec{A})$  [i.e., put  $\vec{A}$  in the last—differentiation—slot of  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{F}$ ; Eq. (1.15b)].

As in Chap. 2, in any basis we denote the components of  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{F}$  by  $F_{\alpha\beta;\gamma}$ . And as in Sec. 11.8 (elasticity theory), we can compute these components in any basis with the aid of that basis's *connection coefficients*.

In Sec. 11.8, we restricted ourselves to an orthonormal basis in Euclidean space and thus had no need to distinguish between covariant and contravariant indices; all indices were written as subscripts. Now, dealing with nonorthonormal bases in spacetime, we must distinguish covariant and contravariant indices. Accordingly, by analogy with Eq. (11.68), we define the connection coefficients  $\Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta}$  as

$$\nabla_\beta \vec{e}_\alpha \equiv \nabla_{\vec{e}_\beta} \vec{e}_\alpha = \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \vec{e}_\mu. \quad (24.30)$$

The duality between bases  $\vec{e}^\nu \cdot \vec{e}_\alpha = \delta^\nu_\alpha$  then implies

$$\nabla_\beta \vec{e}^\mu \equiv \nabla_{\vec{e}_\beta} \vec{e}^\mu = -\Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \vec{e}^\alpha. \quad (24.31)$$

Note the sign flip, which is required to keep  $\nabla_\beta(\vec{e}^\mu \cdot \vec{e}_\alpha) = 0$ , and note that the differentiation index always goes last on  $\Gamma$ . Duality also implies that Eqs. (24.30) and (24.31) can be rewritten as

$$\Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} = \vec{e}^\mu \cdot \nabla_\beta \vec{e}_\alpha = -\vec{e}_\alpha \cdot \nabla_\beta \vec{e}^\mu. \quad (24.32)$$

With the aid of these connection coefficients, we can evaluate the components  $A_{\alpha;\beta}$  of the gradient of a vector field in any basis. We just compute

$$\begin{aligned} A^\mu_{;\beta} \vec{e}_\mu &= \nabla_\beta \vec{A} = \nabla_\beta (A^\mu \vec{e}_\mu) = (\nabla_\beta A^\mu) \vec{e}_\mu + A^\mu \nabla_\beta \vec{e}_\mu \\ &= A^\mu_{,\beta} \vec{e}_\mu + A^\mu \Gamma^\alpha_{\mu\beta} \vec{e}_\alpha \\ &= (A^\mu_{,\beta} + A^\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta}) \vec{e}_\mu. \end{aligned} \quad (24.33)$$

In going from the first line to the second, we have used the notation

$$A^\mu_{,\beta} \equiv \partial_{\vec{e}_\beta} A^\mu; \quad (24.34)$$

that is, *the comma denotes the result of letting a basis vector act as a differential operator on the component of the vector*. In going from the second line of (24.33) to the third, we have renamed some summed-over indices. By comparing the first and last expressions in Eq. (24.33), we conclude that

$$A^\mu_{;\beta} = A^\mu_{,\beta} + A^\alpha \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta}. \quad (24.35)$$

The first term in this equation describes the changes in  $\vec{A}$  associated with changes of its component  $A^\mu$ ; the second term *corrects for* artificial changes of  $A^\mu$  that are induced by turning and length changes of the basis vector  $\vec{e}_\mu$ . We shall use the short-hand terminology that the second term “corrects the index  $\mu$ .”

connection coefficients for a basis and its dual

components of the gradient of a vector field



By a similar computation, we conclude that in any basis the covariant components of the gradient are

$$A_{\alpha;\beta} = A_{\alpha,\beta} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\beta} A_{\mu}, \quad (24.36)$$

where again  $A_{\alpha,\beta} \equiv \partial_{\vec{e}_{\beta}} A_{\alpha}$ . Notice that, when the index being corrected is down [ $\alpha$  in Eq. (24.36)], the connection coefficient has a minus sign; when it is up [ $\mu$  in Eq. (24.35)], the connection coefficient has a plus sign. This is in accord with the signs in Eqs. (24.30) and (24.31).

These considerations should make obvious the following equations for the components of the gradient of a second rank tensor field:

$$\begin{aligned} F^{\alpha\beta}_{;\gamma} &= F^{\alpha\beta}_{,\gamma} + \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\mu\gamma} F^{\mu\beta} + \Gamma^{\beta}_{\mu\gamma} F^{\alpha\mu}, \\ F_{\alpha\beta;\gamma} &= F_{\alpha\beta,\gamma} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\alpha\gamma} F_{\mu\beta} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\gamma} F_{\alpha\mu}, \\ F^{\alpha}_{\beta;\gamma} &= F^{\alpha}_{\beta,\gamma} + \Gamma^{\alpha}_{\mu\gamma} F^{\mu}_{\beta} - \Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\gamma} F^{\alpha}_{\mu}. \end{aligned} \quad (24.37)$$

components of the gradient of a tensor field

Notice that each index of  $\mathbf{F}$  must be corrected, the correction has a sign dictated by whether the index is up or down, the differentiation index always goes last on the  $\Gamma$ , and all other indices can be deduced by requiring that the free indices in each term be the same and all other indices be summed.

If we have been given a basis, then how can we compute the connection coefficients? We can try to do so by drawing pictures and examining how the basis vectors change from point to point—a method that is fruitful in spherical and cylindrical coordinates in Euclidean space (Sec. 11.8). However, in other situations this method is fraught with peril, so we need a firm mathematical prescription. It turns out that the following prescription works (see Ex. 24.7 for a proof).

1. Evaluate the commutation coefficients  $c_{\alpha\beta}{}^{\rho}$  of the basis, which are defined by the two equivalent relations:

$$[\vec{e}_{\alpha}, \vec{e}_{\beta}] \equiv c_{\alpha\beta}{}^{\rho} \vec{e}_{\rho}, \quad c_{\alpha\beta}{}^{\rho} \equiv \vec{e}^{\rho} \cdot [\vec{e}_{\alpha}, \vec{e}_{\beta}]. \quad (24.38a)$$

commutation coefficients for a basis

(Note that in a coordinate basis the commutation coefficients will vanish. Warning: Commutation coefficients also appear in the theory of Lie groups; there it is conventional to use a different ordering of indices than here:  $c_{\alpha\beta}{}^{\rho}$  here =  $c^{\rho}{}_{\alpha\beta}$  Lie groups.)

2. Lower the last index on the commutation coefficients using the metric components in the basis:

$$c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \equiv c_{\alpha\beta}{}^{\rho} g_{\rho\gamma}. \quad (24.38b)$$

3. Compute the quantities

$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma} \equiv \frac{1}{2} (g_{\alpha\beta,\gamma} + g_{\alpha\gamma,\beta} - g_{\beta\gamma,\alpha} + c_{\alpha\beta\gamma} + c_{\alpha\gamma\beta} - c_{\beta\gamma\alpha}). \quad (24.38c)$$

formulas for computing connection coefficients

Here the commas denote differentiation with respect to the basis vectors as though the metric components were scalar fields [as in Eq. (24.34)]. Notice that the pattern of indices is the same on the  $g$ s and on the  $c$ s. It is a peculiar pattern—one of the few aspects of index gymnastics that cannot be reconstructed by merely lining up indices. In a coordinate basis the  $c$  terms will vanish, so  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  will be symmetric in its last two indices. In an orthonormal basis  $g_{\mu\nu}$  are constant, so the  $g$  terms will vanish, and  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  will be antisymmetric in its first two indices. And in a Cartesian or Lorentz coordinate basis, which is both coordinate and orthonormal, both the  $c$  terms and the  $g$  terms will vanish, so  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  will vanish.

4. Raise the first index on  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  to obtain the connection coefficients

$$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\gamma} = g^{\mu\alpha} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}. \quad (24.38d)$$

In a coordinate basis, the  $\Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\gamma}$  are sometimes called *Christoffel symbols*, though we will use the name connection coefficients independent of the nature of the basis.

The first three steps in the above prescription for computing the connection coefficients follow from two key properties of the gradient  $\vec{\nabla}$ . First, the gradient of the metric tensor vanishes:

vanishing gradient of the metric tensor

$$\vec{\nabla} \mathbf{g} = 0. \quad (24.39)$$

Second, for any two vector fields  $\vec{A}$  and  $\vec{B}$ , the gradient is related to the commutator by

relation of gradient to commutator

$$\nabla_{\vec{A}} \vec{B} - \nabla_{\vec{B}} \vec{A} = [\vec{A}, \vec{B}]. \quad (24.40)$$

For a derivation of these relations and then a derivation of the prescription 1–4, see Exs. 24.6 and 24.7.

The gradient operator  $\vec{\nabla}$  is an example of a geometric object that is not a tensor. The connection coefficients  $\Gamma^{\mu}_{\beta\gamma} = \vec{e}^{\mu} \cdot (\nabla_{\vec{e}_{\gamma}} \vec{e}_{\beta})$  can be regarded as the components of  $\vec{\nabla}$ ; because it is not a tensor, these components do not obey the tensorial transformation law (24.19) when switching from one basis to another. Their transformation law is far more complicated and is rarely used. Normally one computes them from scratch in the new basis, using the above prescription or some other, equivalent prescription (cf. Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler, 1973, Chap. 14). For most curved spacetimes that one meets in general relativity, these computations are long and tedious and therefore are normally carried out on computers using symbolic manipulation software, such as Maple, Matlab, or Mathematica, or such programs as GR-Tensor and MathTensor that run under Maple or Mathematica. Such software is easily found on the Internet using a search engine. A particularly simple Mathematica program for use with coordinate

bases is presented and discussed in Appendix C of Hartle (2003) and is available on that book's website: <http://web.physics.ucsb.edu/~gravitybook/>.

## EXERCISES

### Exercise 24.6 *Derivation: Properties of the Gradient $\vec{\nabla}$*

- (a) Derive Eq. (24.39). [Hint: At a point  $\mathcal{P}$  where  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{g}$  is to be evaluated, introduce a locally orthonormal coordinate basis (i.e., locally Cartesian or locally Lorentz). When computing in this basis, the effects of curvature show up only to second order in distance from  $\mathcal{P}$ . Show that in this basis, the components of  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{g}$  vanish, and from this infer that  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{g}$ , viewed as a frame-independent third-rank tensor, vanishes.]
- (b) Derive Eq. (24.40). [Hint: Again work in a locally orthonormal coordinate basis.]

### Exercise 24.7 *Derivation and Example: Prescription for Computing Connection Coefficients*

Derive the prescription 1–4 [Eqs. (24.38)] for computing the connection coefficients in any basis. [Hints: (i) In the chosen basis, from  $\vec{\nabla}\mathbf{g} = 0$  infer that  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma} + \Gamma_{\beta\alpha\gamma} = g_{\alpha\beta,\gamma}$ . Notice that this determines the part of  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  that is symmetric in its first two indices. Show that the number of independent components of  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$  thereby determined is  $\frac{1}{2}n^2(n+1)$ , where  $n$  is the manifold's dimension. (ii) From Eq. (24.40) infer that  $\Gamma_{\gamma\beta\alpha} - \Gamma_{\gamma\alpha\beta} = c_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ , which fixes the part of  $\Gamma$  antisymmetric in the last two indices. Show that the number of independent components thereby determined is  $\frac{1}{2}n^2(n-1)$ . (iii) Infer that the number of independent components determined by (i) and (ii) together is  $n^3$ , which is the entirety of  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ . By somewhat complicated algebra, deduce Eq. (24.38c) for  $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ . (The algebra is sketched in Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler, 1973, Ex. 8.15.) (iv) Then infer the final answer, Eq. (24.38d), for  $\Gamma^\mu{}_{\beta\gamma}$ .]

### Exercise 24.8 *Practice: Commutation and Connection Coefficients for Circular Polar Bases*

Consider the circular polar coordinates  $\{\varpi, \phi\}$  of Fig. 24.3 and their associated bases.

- (a) Evaluate the commutation coefficients  $c_{\alpha\beta}{}^\rho$  for the coordinate basis  $\{\vec{e}_\varpi, \vec{e}_\phi\}$ , and also for the orthonormal basis  $\{\vec{e}_{\hat{\varpi}}, \vec{e}_{\hat{\phi}}\}$ .
- (b) Compute by hand the connection coefficients for the coordinate basis and also for the orthonormal basis, using Eqs. (24.38). [Note: The answer for the orthonormal basis was worked out pictorially in our study of elasticity theory; Fig. 11.15 and Eq. (11.70).]
- (c) Repeat this computation using symbolic manipulation software on a computer.

### Exercise 24.9 *Practice: Connection Coefficients for Spherical Polar Coordinates*

- (a) Consider spherical polar coordinates in 3-dimensional space, and verify that the nonzero connection coefficients, assuming an orthonormal basis, are given by Eq. (11.71).

(b) Repeat the exercise in part (a) assuming a coordinate basis with

$$\mathbf{e}_r \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial r}, \quad \mathbf{e}_\theta \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \quad \mathbf{e}_\phi \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}. \quad (24.41)$$

(c) Repeat both computations in parts (a) and (b) using symbolic manipulation software on a computer.

**Exercise 24.10** *Practice: Index Gymnastics—Geometric Optics*

This exercise gives the reader practice in formal manipulations that involve the gradient operator. In the geometric-optics (eikonal) approximation of Sec. 7.3, for electromagnetic waves in Lorenz gauge, one can write the 4-vector potential in the form  $\vec{A} = \vec{A}e^{i\varphi}$ , where  $\vec{A}$  is a slowly varying amplitude and  $\varphi$  is a rapidly varying phase. By the techniques of Sec. 7.3, one can deduce from the vacuum Maxwell equations that the wave vector, defined by  $\vec{k} \equiv \vec{\nabla}\varphi$ , is null:  $\vec{k} \cdot \vec{k} = 0$ .

- (a) Rewrite all the equations in the above paragraph in slot-naming index notation.
- (b) Using index manipulations, show that the wave vector  $\vec{k}$  (which is a vector field, because the wave's phase  $\varphi$  is a scalar field) satisfies the geodesic equation  $\nabla_{\vec{k}}\vec{k} = 0$  (cf. Sec. 24.5.2). The geodesics, to which  $\vec{k}$  is the tangent vector, are the rays discussed in Sec. 7.3, along which the waves propagate.

24.3.4

24.3.4 Integration

Our desire to use general bases and work in curved manifolds gives rise to two new issues in the definition of integrals.

The first issue is that the volume elements used in integration involve the Levi-Civita tensor [Eqs. (2.43), (2.52), and (2.55)], so we need to know the components of the Levi-Civita tensor in a general basis. It turns out (see, e.g., Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler, 1973, Ex. 8.3) that the covariant components differ from those in an orthonormal basis by a factor  $\sqrt{|g|}$  and the contravariant by  $1/\sqrt{|g|}$ , where

$$g \equiv \det ||g_{\alpha\beta}|| \quad (24.42)$$

is the determinant of the matrix whose entries are the covariant components of the metric. More specifically, let us denote by  $[\alpha\beta \dots \nu]$  the value of  $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta \dots \nu}$  in an orthonormal basis of our  $n$ -dimensional space [Eq. (2.43)]:

$$[12 \dots n] = +1, \\ [\alpha\beta \dots \nu] = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \alpha, \beta, \dots, \nu \text{ is an even permutation of } 1, 2, \dots, n \\ -1 & \text{if } \alpha, \beta, \dots, \nu \text{ is an odd permutation of } 1, 2, \dots, n \\ 0 & \text{if } \alpha, \beta, \dots, \nu \text{ are not all different.} \end{cases} \quad (24.43)$$

(In spacetime the indices must run from 0 to 3 rather than 1 to  $n = 4$ .) Then in a general right-handed basis the components of the Levi-Civita tensor are

$$\epsilon_{\alpha\beta\dots\nu} = \sqrt{|g|} [\alpha\beta\dots\nu], \quad \epsilon^{\alpha\beta\dots\nu} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{|g|}} [\alpha\beta\dots\nu], \quad (24.44)$$

components of Levi-Civita tensor in an arbitrary basis

where the  $\pm$  is plus in Euclidean space and minus in spacetime. In a left-handed basis the sign is reversed.

As an example of these formulas, consider a spherical polar coordinate system  $(r, \theta, \phi)$  in 3-dimensional Euclidean space, and use the three infinitesimal vectors  $dx^j (\partial/\partial x^j)$  to construct the volume element  $d\Sigma$  [cf. Eq. (1.26)]:

$$dV = \epsilon \left( dr \frac{\partial}{\partial r}, d\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, d\phi \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right) = \epsilon_{r\theta\phi} dr d\theta d\phi = \sqrt{g} dr d\theta d\phi = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi. \quad (24.45)$$

Here the second equality follows from linearity of  $\epsilon$  and the formula for computing its components by inserting basis vectors into its slots; the third equality follows from our formula (24.44) for the components. The fourth equality entails the determinant of the metric coefficients, which in spherical coordinates are  $g_{rr} = 1$ ,  $g_{\theta\theta} = r^2$ , and  $g_{\phi\phi} = r^2 \sin^2 \theta$ ; all other  $g_{jk}$  vanish, so  $g = r^4 \sin^2 \theta$ . The resulting volume element  $r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$  should be familiar and obvious.

The second new integration issue we must face is that such integrals as

$$\int_{\partial\mathcal{V}} T^{\alpha\beta} d\Sigma_{\beta} \quad (24.46)$$

[cf. Eqs. (2.55), (2.56)] involve constructing a vector  $T^{\alpha\beta} d\Sigma_{\beta}$  in each infinitesimal region  $d\Sigma_{\beta}$  of the surface of integration  $\partial\mathcal{V}$  and then adding up the contributions from all the infinitesimal regions. A major difficulty arises because each contribution lives in a different tangent space. To add them together, we must first transport them all to the same tangent space at some single location in the manifold. How is that transport to be performed? The obvious answer is “by the same parallel transport technique that we used in defining the gradient.” However, when defining the gradient, we only needed to perform the parallel transport over an infinitesimal distance, and now we must perform it over long distances. When the manifold is curved, long-distance parallel transport gives a result that depends on the route of the transport, and in general there is no way to identify any preferred route (see, e.g., Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler, 1973, Sec. 11.4).

As a result, *integrals such as Eq. (24.46) are ill-defined in a curved manifold. The only integrals that are well defined in a curved manifold are those such as  $\int_{\partial\mathcal{V}} S^{\alpha} d\Sigma_{\alpha}$ , whose infinitesimal contributions  $S^{\alpha} d\Sigma_{\alpha}$  are scalars (i.e., integrals whose value is a scalar).* This fact will have profound consequences in curved spacetime for the laws of conservation of energy, momentum, and angular momentum (Secs. 25.7 and 25.9.4).

integrals in a curved manifold are well defined only if infinitesimal contributions are scalars

## EXERCISES

### Exercise 24.11 *Practice: Integration—Gauss’s Theorem*

In 3-dimensional Euclidean space Maxwell’s equation  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho_e/\epsilon_0$  can be combined with Gauss’s theorem to show that the electric flux through the surface  $\partial\mathcal{V}$  of a sphere is equal to the charge in the sphere’s interior  $\mathcal{V}$  divided by  $\epsilon_0$ :

$$\int_{\partial\mathcal{V}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \int_{\mathcal{V}} (\rho_e/\epsilon_0) dV. \quad (24.47)$$

Introduce spherical polar coordinates so the sphere’s surface is at some radius  $r = R$ . Consider a surface element on the sphere’s surface with vectorial legs  $d\phi\partial/\partial\phi$  and  $d\theta\partial/\partial\theta$ . Evaluate the components  $d\Sigma_j$  of the surface integration element  $d\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\dots, d\theta\partial/\partial\theta, d\phi\partial/\partial\phi)$ . (Here  $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$  is the Levi-Civita tensor.) Similarly, evaluate  $dV$  in terms of vectorial legs in the sphere’s interior. Then use these results for  $d\Sigma_j$  and  $dV$  to convert Eq. (24.47) into an explicit form in terms of integrals over  $r$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\phi$ . The final answer should be obvious, but the above steps in deriving it are informative.

## 24.4 The Stress-Energy Tensor Revisited

In Sec. 2.13.1, we defined the stress-energy tensor  $\mathbf{T}$  of any matter or field as a symmetric, second-rank tensor that describes the flow of 4-momentum through spacetime. More specifically, the total 4-momentum  $\vec{P}$  that flows through some small 3-volume  $\vec{\Sigma}$  (defined in Sec. 2.12.1), going from the negative side of  $\vec{\Sigma}$  to its positive side, is

$$\mathbf{T}(\_, \vec{\Sigma}) = (\text{total 4-momentum } \vec{P} \text{ that flows through } \vec{\Sigma}); \quad T^{\alpha\beta}\Sigma_\beta = P^\alpha \quad (24.48)$$

[Eq. (2.66)]. Of course, this stress-energy tensor depends on the location  $\mathcal{P}$  of the 3-volume in spacetime [i.e., it is a tensor field  $\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{P})$ ].

From this geometric, frame-independent definition of the stress-energy tensor, we were able to read off the physical meaning of its components in any inertial reference frame [Eqs. (2.67)]:  $T^{00}$  is the total energy density, including rest mass-energy;  $T^{j0} = T^{0j}$  is the  $j$ -component of momentum density, or equivalently, the  $j$ -component of energy flux; and  $T^{jk}$  are the components of the stress tensor, or equivalently, of the momentum flux.

In Sec. 2.13.2, we formulated the law of conservation of 4-momentum in a local form and a global form. The local form,

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0, \quad (24.49)$$

says that, in any chosen Lorentz frame, the time derivative of the energy density plus the divergence of the energy flux vanishes,  $\partial T^{00}/\partial t + \partial T^{0j}/\partial x^j = 0$ , and similarly

stress-energy tensor

local form of 4-momentum conservation

for the momentum,  $\partial T^{j0}/\partial t + \partial T^{jk}/\partial x^k = 0$ . The global form,  $\int_{\partial\mathcal{V}} T^{\alpha\beta} d\Sigma_\beta = 0$  [Eq. (2.71)], says that all the 4-momentum that enters a closed 4-volume  $\mathcal{V}$  in spacetime through its boundary  $\partial\mathcal{V}$  in the past must ultimately exit through  $\partial\mathcal{V}$  in the future (Fig. 2.11). Unfortunately, this global form requires transporting vectorial contributions  $T^{\alpha\beta} d\Sigma_\beta$  to a common location and adding them, which cannot be done in a route-independent way in curved spacetime (see the end of Sec. 24.3.4). Therefore (as we shall discuss in greater detail in Secs. 25.7 and 25.9.4), the global conservation law becomes problematic in curved spacetime.

The stress-energy tensor and local 4-momentum conservation play major roles in our development of general relativity. Almost all of our examples will entail perfect fluids.

Recall [Eq. (2.74a)] that in the local rest frame of a perfect fluid, there is no energy flux or momentum density,  $T^{j0} = T^{0j} = 0$ , but there is a total energy density (including rest mass)  $\rho$  and an isotropic pressure  $P$ :

$$T^{00} = \rho, \quad T^{jk} = P\delta^{jk}. \quad (24.50)$$

From this special form of  $T^{\alpha\beta}$  in the fluid's local rest frame, one can derive a geometric, frame-independent expression for the fluid's stress-energy tensor  $\mathbf{T}$  in terms of its 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$ , the metric tensor  $\mathbf{g}$ , and the rest-frame energy density  $\rho$  and pressure  $P$ :

$$\mathbf{T} = (\rho + P)\vec{u} \otimes \vec{u} + P\mathbf{g}; \quad T^{\alpha\beta} = (\rho + P)u^\alpha u^\beta + Pg^{\alpha\beta} \quad (24.51)$$

stress-energy tensor for a perfect fluid

[Eq. (2.74b)]; see Ex. 2.26. This expression for the stress-energy tensor of a perfect fluid is an example of a geometric, frame-independent description of physics.

The equations of relativistic fluid dynamics for a perfect fluid are obtained by inserting the stress-energy tensor (24.51) into the law of 4-momentum conservation  $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 0$ , and augmenting with the law of rest-mass conservation. We explored this in brief in Ex. 2.26, and in much greater detail in Sec. 13.8. Applications that we have explored are the relativistic Bernoulli equation and ultrarelativistic jets (Sec. 13.8.2) and relativistic shocks (Ex. 17.9). In Sec. 13.8.3, we explored in detail the slightly subtle way in which a fluid's nonrelativistic energy density, energy flux, and stress tensor arise from the relativistic perfect-fluid stress-energy tensor (24.51).

These issues for a perfect fluid are so important that readers are encouraged to review them (except possibly the applications) in preparation for our foray into general relativity.

Four other examples of the stress-energy tensor are those for the electromagnetic field (Ex. 2.28), for a kinetic-theory swarm of relativistic particles (Secs. 3.4.2 and 3.5.3), for a point particle (Box 24.2), and for a relativistic fluid with viscosity and diffusive heat conduction (Ex. 24.13). However, we shall not do much with any of these during our study of general relativity, except viscosity and heat conduction in Sec. 28.5.

**BOX 24.2. STRESS-ENERGY TENSOR FOR A POINT PARTICLE T2**

For a point particle that moves through spacetime along a world line  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta)$  [where  $\zeta$  is the affine parameter such that the particle's 4-momentum is  $\vec{p} = d/d\zeta$ , Eq. (2.14)], the stress-energy tensor vanishes everywhere except on the world line itself. Correspondingly,  $\mathbf{T}$  must be expressed in terms of a Dirac delta function. The relevant delta function is a scalar function of two points in spacetime,  $\delta(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{P})$ , with the property that when one integrates over the point  $\mathcal{P}$ , using the 4-dimensional volume element  $d\Sigma$  (which in any inertial frame just reduces to  $d\Sigma = dt dx dy dz$ ), one obtains

$$\int_{\mathcal{V}} f(\mathcal{P}) \delta(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{P}) d\Sigma = f(\mathcal{Q}). \quad (1)$$

Here  $f(\mathcal{P})$  is an arbitrary scalar field, and the region  $\mathcal{V}$  of 4-dimensional integration must include the point  $\mathcal{Q}$ . One can easily verify that in terms of Lorentz coordinates this delta function can be expressed as

$$\delta(\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{P}) = \delta(t_{\mathcal{Q}} - t_{\mathcal{P}}) \delta(x_{\mathcal{Q}} - x_{\mathcal{P}}) \delta(y_{\mathcal{Q}} - y_{\mathcal{P}}) \delta(z_{\mathcal{Q}} - z_{\mathcal{P}}), \quad (2)$$

where the deltas on the right-hand side are ordinary 1-dimensional Dirac delta functions. [Proof: Simply insert Eq. (2) into Eq. (1), replace  $d\Sigma$  by  $dt_{\mathcal{Q}} dx_{\mathcal{Q}} dy_{\mathcal{Q}} dz_{\mathcal{Q}}$ , and perform the four integrations.]

The general definition (24.48) of the stress-energy tensor  $\mathbf{T}$  implies that the integral of a point particle's stress-energy tensor over any 3-surface  $\mathcal{S}$  that slices through the particle's world line just once, at an event  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta_0)$ , must be equal to the particle's 4-momentum at the intersection point:

$$\int_{\mathcal{S}} T^{\alpha\beta} d\Sigma_{\beta} = p^{\alpha}(\zeta_0). \quad (3)$$

It is a straightforward but sophisticated exercise (Ex. 24.12) to verify that the following frame-independent expression has this property:

$$\mathbf{T}(\mathcal{Q}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \vec{p}(\zeta) \otimes \vec{p}(\zeta) \delta[\mathcal{Q}, \mathcal{P}(\zeta)] d\zeta. \quad (4)$$

Here the integral is along the world line  $\mathcal{P}(\zeta)$  of the particle, and  $\mathcal{Q}$  is the point at which  $\mathbf{T}$  is being evaluated. Therefore, Eq. (4) is the point-particle stress-energy tensor.



**Exercise 24.12** *Derivation: Stress-Energy Tensor for a Point Particle* T2

Show that the point-particle stress-energy tensor (4) of Box 24.2 satisfies that box's Eq. (3), as claimed.

**Exercise 24.13** *Example: Stress-Energy Tensor for a Viscous Fluid with Diffusive Heat Conduction*

This exercise serves two roles: It develops the relativistic stress-energy tensor for a viscous fluid with diffusive heat conduction, and in the process it allows the reader to gain practice in index gymnastics.

In our study of elasticity theory, we introduced the concept of the irreducible tensorial parts of a second-rank tensor in Euclidean space (Box 11.2). Consider a relativistic fluid flowing through spacetime with a 4-velocity  $\vec{u}(\mathcal{P})$ . The fluid's gradient  $\vec{\nabla}\vec{u}$  ( $u_{\alpha;\beta}$  in slot-naming index notation) is a second-rank tensor in spacetime. With the aid of the 4-velocity itself, we can break it down into irreducible tensorial parts as follows:

$$u_{\alpha;\beta} = -a_{\alpha}u_{\beta} + \frac{1}{3}\theta P_{\alpha\beta} + \sigma_{\alpha\beta} + \omega_{\alpha\beta}. \quad (24.52)$$

Here: (i)

$$P_{\alpha\beta} \equiv g_{\alpha\beta} + u_{\alpha}u_{\beta} \quad (24.53)$$

is a tensor that projects vectors into the 3-space orthogonal to  $\vec{u}$  (it can also be regarded as that 3-space's metric; see Ex. 2.10); (ii)  $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}$  is symmetric, trace-free, and orthogonal to the 4-velocity; and (iii)  $\omega_{\alpha\beta}$  is antisymmetric and orthogonal to the 4-velocity.

- (a) Show that the rate of change of  $\vec{u}$  along itself,  $\nabla_{\vec{u}}\vec{u}$  (i.e., the fluid 4-acceleration) is equal to the vector  $\vec{a}$  that appears in the decomposition (24.52). Show, further, that  $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{u} = 0$ .
- (b) Show that the divergence of the 4-velocity,  $\nabla \cdot \vec{u}$ , is equal to the scalar field  $\theta$  that appears in the decomposition (24.52). As we shall see in part (d), this is the fluid's rate of expansion.
- (c) The quantities  $\sigma_{\alpha\beta}$  and  $\omega_{\alpha\beta}$  are the relativistic versions of a Newtonian fluid's shear and rotation tensors, which we introduced in Sec. 13.7.1. Derive equations for these tensors in terms of  $u_{\alpha;\beta}$  and  $P_{\mu\nu}$ .
- (d) Show that, as viewed in a Lorentz reference frame where the fluid is moving with speed small compared to the speed of light, to first order in the fluid's ordinary velocity  $v^j = dx^j/dt$ , the following statements are true: (i)  $u^0 = 1$ ,  $u^j = v^j$ ; (ii)  $\theta$  is the nonrelativistic rate of expansion of the fluid,  $\theta = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} \equiv v^j_{,j}$  [Eq. (13.67a)]; (iii)  $\sigma_{jk}$  is the fluid's nonrelativistic shear [Eq. (13.67b)]; and (iv)  $\omega_{jk}$  is the fluid's nonrelativistic rotation tensor [denoted  $r_{ij}$  in Eq. (13.67c)].
- (e) At some event  $\mathcal{P}$  where we want to know the influence of viscosity on the fluid's stress-energy tensor, introduce the fluid's local rest frame. Explain why, in that

frame, the only contributions of viscosity to the components of the stress-energy tensor are  $T_{\text{visc}}^{jk} = -\zeta\theta g^{jk} - 2\mu\sigma^{jk}$ , where  $\zeta$  and  $\mu$  are the coefficients of bulk and shear viscosity, respectively; the contributions to  $T^{00}$  and  $T^{j0} = T^{0j}$  vanish. [Hint: See Eq. (13.73) and associated discussions.]

- (f) From nonrelativistic fluid mechanics, infer that, in the fluid's rest frame at  $\mathcal{P}$ , the only contributions of diffusive heat conductivity to the stress-energy tensor are  $T_{\text{cond}}^{0j} = T_{\text{cond}}^{j0} = -\kappa\partial T/\partial x^j$ , where  $\kappa$  is the fluid's thermal conductivity and  $T$  is its temperature. [Hint: See Eq. (13.74) and associated discussion.] Actually, this expression is not fully correct. If the fluid is accelerating, there is a correction term:  $\partial T/\partial x^j$  gets replaced by  $\partial T/\partial x^j + a^j T$ , where  $a^j$  is the acceleration. After reading Sec. 24.5 and especially Ex. 24.16, explain this correction.
- (g) Using the results of parts (e) and (f), deduce the following geometric, frame-invariant form of the fluid's stress-energy tensor:

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = (\rho + P)u_\alpha u_\beta + P g_{\alpha\beta} - \zeta\theta g_{\alpha\beta} - 2\mu\sigma_{\alpha\beta} - 2\kappa u_{(\alpha} P_{\beta)}{}^\mu (T_{;\mu} + a_\mu T). \quad (24.54)$$

Here the subscript parentheses in the last term mean to symmetrize in the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  slots.

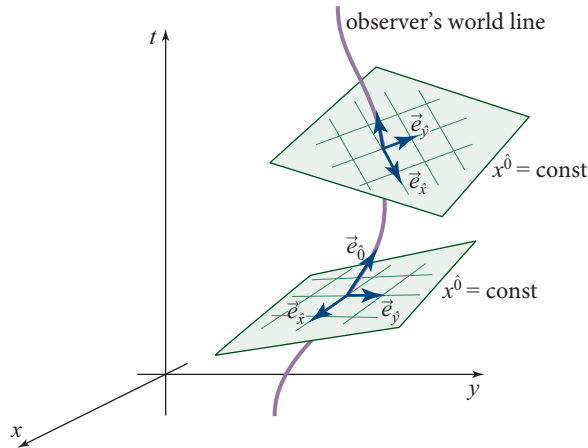
From the divergence of this stress-energy tensor, plus the first law of thermodynamics and the law of rest-mass conservation, one can derive the full theory of relativistic fluid mechanics for a fluid with viscosity and heat flow (see, e.g., Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler, 1973, Ex. 22.7). This particular formulation of the theory, including Eq. (24.54), is due to Carl Eckart (1940). Landau and Lifshitz (1959) have given a slightly different formulation. For discussion of the differences, and of causal difficulties with both formulations and the difficulties' repair, see, for example, the reviews by Israel and Stewart (1980), Andersson and Comer (2007, Sec. 14), and López-Monsalvo (2011, Sec. 4).

## 24.5 24.5 The Proper Reference Frame of an Accelerated Observer

Physics experiments and astronomical measurements almost always use an apparatus that accelerates and rotates. For example, if the apparatus is in an Earthbound laboratory and is attached to the laboratory floor and walls, then it accelerates upward (relative to freely falling particles) with the negative of the “acceleration of gravity,” and it rotates (relative to inertial gyroscopes) because of the rotation of Earth. It is useful, in studying such an apparatus, to regard it as attached to an accelerating, rotating reference frame. As preparation for studying such reference frames in the presence of gravity, we study them in flat spacetime. For a somewhat more sophisticated treatment, see Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler (1973, pp. 163–176, 327–332).

Consider an observer with 4-velocity  $\vec{U}$ , who moves along an accelerated world line through flat spacetime (Fig. 24.6) so she has a nonzero 4-acceleration:

$$\vec{a} = \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{U}} \vec{U}. \quad (24.55)$$



**FIGURE 24.6** The proper reference frame of an accelerated observer. The spatial basis vectors  $\vec{e}_{\hat{x}}$ ,  $\vec{e}_{\hat{y}}$ , and  $\vec{e}_{\hat{z}}$  are orthogonal to the observer's world line and rotate, relative to local gyroscopes, as they move along the world line. The flat 3-planes spanned by these basis vectors are surfaces of constant coordinate time  $x^{\hat{0}} \equiv$  (proper time as measured by the observer's clock at the event where the 3-plane intersects the observer's world line); in other words, they are the observer's slices of simultaneity and "3-space." In each of these flat 3-planes the spatial coordinates  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}\}$  are Cartesian, with  $\partial/\partial\hat{x} = \vec{e}_{\hat{x}}$ ,  $\partial/\partial\hat{y} = \vec{e}_{\hat{y}}$ , and  $\partial/\partial\hat{z} = \vec{e}_{\hat{z}}$ .

Have that observer construct, in the vicinity of her world line, a coordinate system  $\{x^{\hat{\alpha}}\}$  (called her *proper reference frame*) with these properties: (i) The spatial origin is centered on her world line at all times (i.e., her world line is given by  $x^{\hat{j}} = 0$ ). (ii) Along her world line, the time coordinate  $x^{\hat{0}}$  is the same as the proper time ticked by an ideal clock that she carries. (iii) In the immediate vicinity of her world line, the spatial coordinates  $x^{\hat{j}}$  measure physical distance along the axes of a little Cartesian latticework that she carries (and that she regards as purely spatial, which means it lies in the 3-plane orthogonal to her world line). These properties dictate that, in the immediate vicinity of her world line, the metric has the form  $ds^2 = \eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}} dx^{\hat{\alpha}} dx^{\hat{\beta}}$ , where  $\eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}}$  are the Lorentz-basis metric coefficients, Eq. (24.6); in other words, all along her world line the coordinate basis vectors are orthonormal:

$$g_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\hat{\alpha}}} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\hat{\beta}}} = \eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}} \quad \text{at } x^{\hat{j}} = 0. \quad (24.56)$$

Moreover, properties (i) and (ii) dictate that along the observer's world line, the basis vector  $\vec{e}_{\hat{0}} \equiv \partial/\partial x^{\hat{0}}$  differentiates with respect to her proper time, and thus is identically equal to her 4-velocity  $\vec{U}$ :

$$\vec{e}_{\hat{0}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\hat{0}}} = \vec{U}. \quad (24.57)$$

There remains freedom as to how the observer's latticework is oriented spatially. The observer can lock it to the gyroscopes of an *inertial-guidance system* that she carries (Box 24.3), in which case we say that it is "nonrotating"; or she can rotate it relative to such gyroscopes. For generality, we assume that the latticework rotates.

proper reference frame of an accelerated observer

rotating and nonrotating proper reference frames

### BOX 24.3. INERTIAL GUIDANCE SYSTEMS

Aircraft and rockets often carry inertial guidance systems, which consist of an accelerometer and a set of gyroscopes.

The accelerometer measures the system's 4-acceleration  $\vec{a}$  (in relativistic language). Equivalently, it measures the system's Newtonian 3-acceleration  $\mathbf{a}$  relative to inertial coordinates in which the system is momentarily at rest. As we see in Eq. (24.58), these quantities are two different ways of thinking about the same thing.

Each gyroscope is constrained to remain at rest in the aircraft or rocket by a force that is applied at its center of mass. Such a force exerts no torque around the center of mass, so the gyroscope maintains its direction (does not precess) relative to an inertial frame in which it is momentarily at rest.

As the accelerating aircraft or rocket turns, its walls rotate with some angular velocity  $\vec{\Omega}$  relative to these inertial-guidance gyroscopes. This is the angular velocity discussed in the text between Eqs. (24.57) and (24.58).

From the time-evolving 4-acceleration  $\vec{a}(\tau)$  and angular velocity  $\vec{\Omega}(\tau)$ , a computer can calculate the aircraft's (or rocket's) world line and its changing orientation.

Its angular velocity, as measured by the observer (by comparing the latticework's orientation with inertial-guidance gyroscopes), is a 3-dimensional spatial vector  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$  in the 3-plane orthogonal to her world line; and as viewed in 4-dimensional spacetime, it is a 4-vector  $\vec{\Omega}$  whose components in the observer's reference frame are  $\Omega^{\hat{j}} \neq 0$  and  $\Omega^{\hat{0}} = 0$ . Similarly, the latticework's acceleration, as measured by an inertial-guidance accelerometer attached to it (Box 24.3), is a 3-dimensional spatial vector  $\mathbf{a}$  that can be thought of as a 4-vector with components in the observer's frame:

$$a^{\hat{0}} = 0, \quad a^{\hat{j}} = (\hat{j}\text{-component of the measured } \mathbf{a}). \quad (24.58)$$

This 4-vector is the observer's 4-acceleration, as one can verify by computing the 4-acceleration in an inertial frame in which the observer is momentarily at rest.

Geometrically, the coordinates of the proper reference frame are constructed as follows. Begin with the basis vectors  $\vec{e}_{\hat{\alpha}}$  along the observer's world line (Fig. 24.6)—basis vectors that satisfy Eqs. (24.56) and (24.57), and that rotate with angular velocity  $\vec{\Omega}$  relative to gyroscopes. Through the observer's world line at time  $x^{\hat{0}}$  construct the flat 3-plane spanned by the spatial basis vectors  $\vec{e}_{\hat{j}}$ . Because  $\vec{e}_{\hat{j}} \cdot \vec{e}_{\hat{0}} = 0$ , this 3-plane is orthogonal to the world line. All events in this 3-plane are given the same value of coordinate time  $x^{\hat{0}}$  as the event where it intersects the world line; thus the 3-plane is a surface of constant coordinate time  $x^{\hat{0}}$ . The spatial coordinates in this flat 3-plane are ordinary, Cartesian coordinates  $x^{\hat{j}}$  with  $\vec{e}_{\hat{j}} = \partial/\partial x^{\hat{j}}$ .

constructing coordinates  
of proper reference frame

24.5.1 Relation to Inertial Coordinates; Metric in Proper Reference Frame; Transport Law for Rotating Vectors

24.5.1

It is instructive to examine the coordinate transformation between these proper-reference-frame coordinates  $x^{\hat{\alpha}}$  and the coordinates  $x^{\mu}$  of an inertial reference frame. We pick a very special inertial frame for this purpose. Choose an event on the observer's world line, near which the coordinate transformation is to be constructed; adjust the origin of the observer's proper time, so this event is  $x^{\hat{0}} = 0$  (and of course  $x^{\hat{j}} = 0$ ); and choose the inertial frame to be one that, arbitrarily near this event, coincides with the observer's proper reference frame. If we were doing Newtonian physics, then the coordinate transformation from the proper reference frame to the inertial frame would have the form (accurate through terms quadratic in  $x^{\hat{\alpha}}$ ):

$$x^i = x^{\hat{i}} + \frac{1}{2}a^{\hat{i}}(x^{\hat{0}})^2 + \epsilon^{\hat{i}\hat{j}\hat{k}}\Omega^{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{k}}x^{\hat{0}}, \quad x^0 = x^{\hat{0}}. \quad (24.59)$$

Here the term  $\frac{1}{2}a^{\hat{i}}(x^{\hat{0}})^2$  is the standard expression for the vectorial displacement produced after time  $x^{\hat{0}}$  by the acceleration  $a^{\hat{i}}$ ; and the term  $\epsilon^{\hat{i}\hat{j}\hat{k}}\Omega^{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{k}}x^{\hat{0}}$  is the standard expression for the displacement produced by the rotation rate (rotational angular velocity)  $\Omega^{\hat{j}}$  during a short time  $x^{\hat{0}}$ . In relativity theory there is only one departure from these familiar expressions (up through quadratic order): after time  $x^{\hat{0}}$  the acceleration has produced a velocity  $v^{\hat{j}} = a^{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{0}}$  of the proper reference frame relative to the inertial frame; correspondingly, there is a Lorentz-boost correction to the transformation of time:  $x^0 = x^{\hat{0}} + v^{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{j}} = x^{\hat{0}}(1 + a_{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{j}})$  [cf. Eq. (2.37c)], accurate only to quadratic order. Thus, the full transformation to quadratic order is

$$\begin{aligned} x^i &= x^{\hat{i}} + \frac{1}{2}a^{\hat{i}}(x^{\hat{0}})^2 + \epsilon^{\hat{i}\hat{j}\hat{k}}\Omega^{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{k}}x^{\hat{0}}, \\ x^0 &= x^{\hat{0}}(1 + a_{\hat{j}}x^{\hat{j}}). \end{aligned} \quad (24.60a)$$

inertial coordinates related to those of the proper reference frame of an accelerated, rotating observer

From this transformation and the form of the metric,  $ds^2 = -(dx^0)^2 + \delta_{ij}dx^i dx^j$  in the inertial frame, we easily can evaluate the form of the metric, accurate to linear order in  $\mathbf{x}$ , in the proper reference frame:

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{x})(dx^{\hat{0}})^2 + 2(\boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{x}) \cdot d\mathbf{x} dx^{\hat{0}} + \delta_{\hat{j}\hat{k}}dx^{\hat{j}}dx^{\hat{k}} \quad (24.60b)$$

metric in proper reference frame of an accelerated, rotating observer

(Ex. 24.14a). Here the notation is that of 3-dimensional vector analysis, with  $\mathbf{x}$  the 3-vector whose components are  $x^{\hat{j}}$ ,  $d\mathbf{x}$  that with components  $dx^{\hat{j}}$ ,  $\mathbf{a}$  that with components  $a^{\hat{j}}$ , and  $\boldsymbol{\Omega}$  that with components  $\Omega^{\hat{j}}$ .

Because the transformation (24.60a) was constructed near an arbitrary event on the observer's world line, the metric (24.60b) is valid near any and every event on the world line (i.e., it is valid all along the world line). In fact, it is the leading order in an expansion in powers of the spatial separation  $x^{\hat{j}}$  from the world line. For higher-order terms in this expansion see, for example, Ni and Zimmermann (1978).

Notice that precisely on the observer's world line, the metric coefficients  $g_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}}$  [the coefficients of  $dx^{\hat{\alpha}}dx^{\hat{\beta}}$  in Eq. (24.60b)] are  $g_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}} = \eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}}$ , in accord with Eq. (24.56). However, as one moves farther away from the observer's world line, the effects of the acceleration  $a^{\hat{j}}$  and rotation  $\Omega^{\hat{j}}$  cause the metric coefficients to deviate more and more strongly from  $\eta_{\hat{\alpha}\hat{\beta}}$ .

From the metric coefficients of Eq. (24.60b), one can compute the connection coefficients  $\Gamma^{\hat{\alpha}}_{\hat{\beta}\hat{\gamma}}$  on the observer's world line, and from these connection coefficients, one can infer the rates of change of the basis vectors along the world line:  $\nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{e}_{\hat{\alpha}} = \nabla_0\vec{e}_{\hat{\alpha}} = \Gamma^{\hat{\mu}}_{\hat{\alpha}0}\vec{e}_{\hat{\mu}}$ . The result is (Ex. 24.14b):

$$\nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{e}_{\hat{0}} \equiv \nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{U} = \vec{a}, \quad (24.61a)$$

$$\nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{e}_{\hat{j}} = (\vec{a} \cdot \vec{e}_{\hat{j}})\vec{U} + \epsilon(\vec{U}, \vec{\Omega}, \vec{e}_{\hat{j}}, \underline{\quad}). \quad (24.61b)$$

Equation (24.61b) is the general "law of transport" for constant-length vectors that are orthogonal to the observer's world line and that the observer thus sees as purely spatial. For the spin vector  $\vec{S}$  of an inertial-guidance gyroscope (Box 24.3), the transport law is Eq. (24.61b) with  $\vec{e}_{\hat{j}}$  replaced by  $\vec{S}$  and with  $\vec{\Omega} = 0$ :

$$\boxed{\nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{S} = \vec{U}(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{S})}. \quad (24.62)$$

This is called *Fermi-Walker transport*. The term on the right-hand side of this transport law is required to keep the spin vector always orthogonal to the observer's 4-velocity:  $\nabla_{\vec{U}}(\vec{S} \cdot \vec{U}) = 0$ . For any other vector  $\vec{A}$  that rotates relative to inertial-guidance gyroscopes, the transport law has, in addition to this "keep-it-orthogonal-to  $\vec{U}$ " term, a second term, which is the 4-vector form of  $d\mathbf{A}/dt = \boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{A}$ :

$$\nabla_{\vec{U}}\vec{A} = \vec{U}(\vec{a} \cdot \vec{A}) + \epsilon(\vec{U}, \vec{\Omega}, \vec{A}, \underline{\quad}). \quad (24.63)$$

Equation (24.61b) is this general transport law with  $\vec{A}$  replaced by  $\vec{e}_{\hat{j}}$ .

## 24.5.2

### 24.5.2 Geodesic Equation for a Freely Falling Particle

Consider a particle with 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$  that moves freely through the neighborhood of an accelerated observer. As seen in an inertial reference frame, the particle travels through spacetime on a straight line, also called a *geodesic* of flat spacetime. Correspondingly, a geometric, frame-independent version of its *geodesic law of motion* is

$$\boxed{\nabla_{\vec{u}}\vec{u} = 0} \quad (24.64)$$

(i.e., the particle parallel transports its 4-velocity  $\vec{u}$  along  $\vec{u}$ ). It is instructive to examine the component form of this geodesic equation in the proper reference frame of the observer. Since the components of  $\vec{u}$  in this frame are  $u^{\alpha} = dx^{\alpha}/d\tau$ , where  $\tau$  is the particle's proper time (not the observer's proper time), the components  $u^{\hat{\alpha}}_{;\hat{\mu}}u^{\hat{\mu}} = 0$  of the geodesic equation (24.64) are

equations for transport of proper reference frame's basis vectors along observer's world line

Fermi-Walker transport for the spin of an inertial-guidance gyroscope

transport law for a vector that is orthogonal to observer's 4-velocity and rotates relative to gyroscopes

geodesic law of motion for freely falling particle

$$u^{\hat{\alpha}}{}_{,\hat{\mu}}u^{\hat{\mu}} + \Gamma^{\hat{\alpha}}{}_{\hat{\mu}\hat{\nu}}u^{\hat{\mu}}u^{\hat{\nu}} = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\hat{\mu}}} \frac{dx^{\hat{\alpha}}}{d\tau} \right) \frac{dx^{\hat{\mu}}}{d\tau} + \Gamma^{\hat{\alpha}}{}_{\hat{\mu}\hat{\nu}}u^{\hat{\mu}}u^{\hat{\nu}} = 0; \quad (24.65)$$

or equivalently,

$$\boxed{\frac{d^2x^{\hat{\alpha}}}{d\tau^2} + \Gamma^{\hat{\alpha}}{}_{\hat{\mu}\hat{\nu}} \frac{dx^{\hat{\mu}}}{d\tau} \frac{dx^{\hat{\nu}}}{d\tau} = 0.} \quad (24.66)$$

Suppose, for simplicity, that the particle is moving slowly relative to the observer, so its ordinary velocity  $v^{\hat{j}} = dx^{\hat{j}}/dx^{\hat{0}}$  is nearly equal to  $u^{\hat{j}} = dx^{\hat{j}}/d\tau$  and is small compared to unity (the speed of light), and  $u^{\hat{0}} = dx^{\hat{0}}/d\tau$  is nearly unity. Then to first order in the ordinary velocity  $v^{\hat{j}}$ , the spatial part of the geodesic equation (24.66) becomes

$$\frac{d^2x^{\hat{i}}}{(dx^{\hat{0}})^2} = -\Gamma^{\hat{i}}{}_{\hat{0}\hat{0}} - (\Gamma^{\hat{i}}{}_{\hat{j}\hat{0}} + \Gamma^{\hat{i}}{}_{\hat{0}\hat{j}})v^{\hat{j}}. \quad (24.67)$$

By computing the connection coefficients from the metric coefficients of Eq. (24.60b) (Ex. 24.14), we bring this low-velocity geodesic law of motion into the form

$$\frac{d^2x^{\hat{i}}}{(dx^{\hat{0}})^2} = -a^{\hat{i}} - 2\epsilon^{\hat{i}}{}_{\hat{j}\hat{k}}\Omega^{\hat{j}}v^{\hat{k}}, \quad \text{that is,} \quad \frac{d^2\mathbf{x}}{(dx^{\hat{0}})^2} = -\mathbf{a} - 2\boldsymbol{\Omega} \times \mathbf{v}. \quad (24.68)$$

This is the standard nonrelativistic form of the law of motion for a free particle as seen in a rotating, accelerating reference frame. The first term on the right-hand side is the inertial acceleration due to the failure of the frame to fall freely, and the second term is the Coriolis acceleration due to the frame's rotation. There would also be a centrifugal acceleration if we had kept terms of higher order in distance away from the observer's world line, but this acceleration has been lost due to our linearizing the metric (24.60b) in that distance.

This analysis shows how the elegant formalism of tensor analysis gives rise to familiar physics. In the next few chapters we will see it give rise to less familiar, general relativistic phenomena.

geodesic equation for slowly moving particle in proper reference frame of accelerated, rotating observer

#### Exercise 24.14 *Derivation: Proper Reference Frame*

- Show that the coordinate transformation (24.60a) brings the metric  $ds^2 = \eta_{\alpha\beta}dx^\alpha dx^\beta$  into the form of Eq. (24.60b), accurate to linear order in separation  $x^{\hat{j}}$  from the origin of coordinates.
- Compute the connection coefficients for the coordinate basis of Eq. (24.60b) at an arbitrary event on the observer's world line. Do so first by hand calculations, and then verify your results using symbolic-manipulation software on a computer.
- Using the connection coefficients from part (b), show that the rate of change of the basis vectors  $\mathbf{e}_{\hat{\alpha}}$  along the observer's world line is given by Eq. (24.61).

#### EXERCISES



- (d) Using the connection coefficients from part (b), show that the low-velocity limit of the geodesic equation [Eq. (24.67)] is given by Eq. (24.68).

### 24.5.3

### 24.5.3 Uniformly Accelerated Observer

As an important example (cf. Ex. 2.16), consider an observer whose accelerated world line, written in some inertial (Lorentz) coordinate system  $\{t, x, y, z\}$ , is

$$t = (1/\kappa) \sinh(\kappa\tau), \quad x = (1/\kappa) \cosh(\kappa\tau), \quad y = z = 0. \quad (24.69)$$

Here  $\tau$  is proper time along the world line, and  $\kappa$  is the magnitude of the observer's 4-acceleration:  $\kappa = |\vec{a}|$  (which is constant along the world line; see Ex. 24.15, where the reader can derive the various claims made in this subsection and the next).

The world line (24.69) is depicted in Fig. 24.7 as a thick, solid hyperbola that asymptotes to the past light cone at early times and to the future light cone at late times. The dots along the world line mark events that have proper times  $\tau = -1.2, -0.9, -0.6, -0.3, 0.0, +0.3, +0.6, +0.9, +1.2$  (in units of  $1/\kappa$ ). At each of these dots, the 3-plane orthogonal to the world line is represented by a dashed line (with the 2 dimensions out of the plane of the paper suppressed from the diagram). This 3-plane is labeled by its coordinate time  $x^{\hat{0}}$ , which is equal to the proper time of the dot. The basis vector  $\vec{e}_{\hat{1}}$  is chosen to point along the observer's 4-acceleration, so  $\vec{a} = \kappa \vec{e}_{\hat{1}}$ . The coordinate  $x^{\hat{1}}$  measures proper distance along the straight line that starts out tangent to  $\vec{e}_{\hat{1}}$ . The other two basis vectors  $\vec{e}_{\hat{2}}$  and  $\vec{e}_{\hat{3}}$  point out of the plane of the figure and are parallel transported along the world line:  $\nabla_{\vec{U}} \vec{e}_{\hat{2}} = \nabla_{\vec{U}} \vec{e}_{\hat{3}} = 0$ . In addition,  $x^{\hat{2}}$  and  $x^{\hat{3}}$  are measured along straight lines, in the orthogonal 3-plane, that start out tangent to these vectors. This construction implies that the resulting proper reference frame has vanishing rotation,  $\vec{\Omega} = 0$  (Ex. 24.15), and that  $x^{\hat{2}} = y$  and  $x^{\hat{3}} = z$ , where  $y$  and  $z$  are coordinates in the  $\{t, x, y, z\}$  Lorentz frame that we used to define the world line [Eqs. (24.69)].

Usually, when constructing an observer's proper reference frame, one confines attention to the immediate vicinity of her world line. However, in this special case it is instructive to extend the construction (the orthogonal 3-planes and their resulting spacetime coordinates) outward arbitrarily far. By doing so, we discover that the 3-planes all cross at location  $x^{\hat{1}} = -1/\kappa$ , which means the coordinate system  $\{x^{\hat{a}}\}$  becomes singular there. This singularity shows up in a vanishing  $g_{\hat{0}\hat{0}}(x^{\hat{1}} = -1/\kappa)$  for the spacetime metric, written in that coordinate system:

$$ds^2 = -(1 + \kappa x^{\hat{1}})^2 (dx^{\hat{0}})^2 + (dx^{\hat{1}})^2 + (dx^{\hat{2}})^2 + (dx^{\hat{3}})^2. \quad (24.70)$$

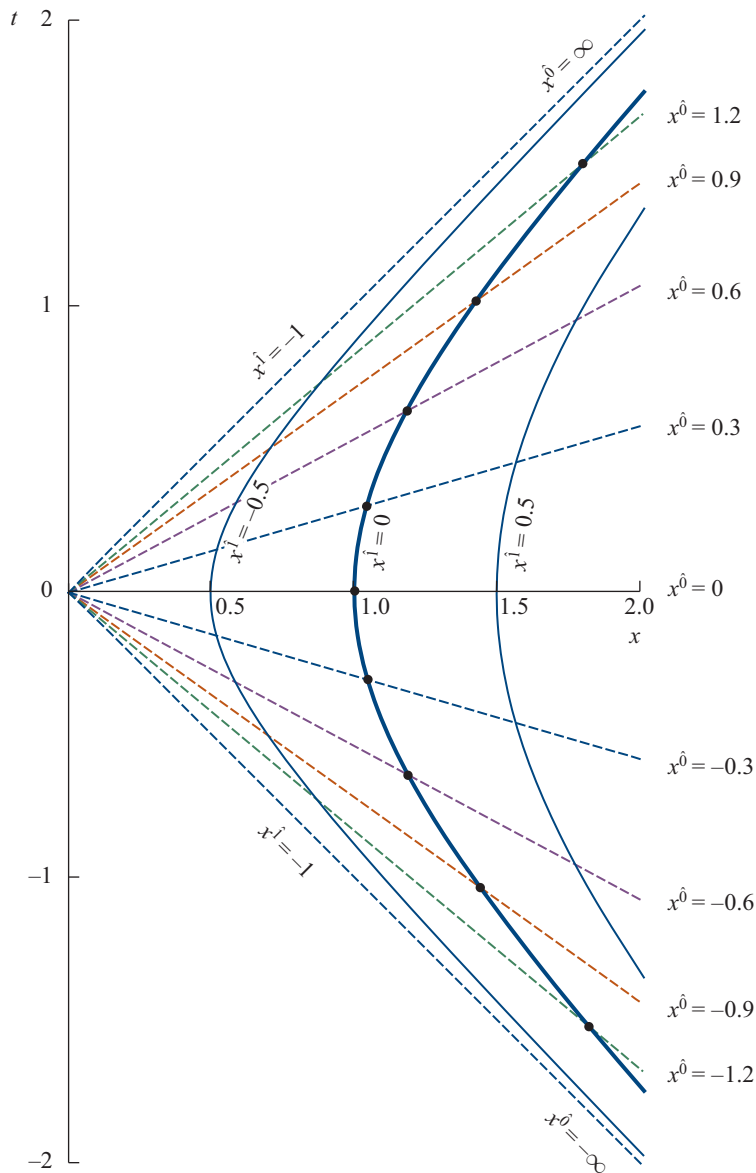
[Note that for  $|x^{\hat{1}}| \ll 1/\kappa$  this metric agrees with the general proper-reference-frame metric (24.60b).] From Fig. 24.7, it should be clear that this coordinate system can only cover smoothly one quadrant of Minkowski spacetime: the quadrant  $x > |t|$ .

transformation between inertial coordinates and uniformly accelerated coordinates

singularity of uniformly accelerated coordinates

spacetime metric in uniformly accelerated coordinates





**FIGURE 24.7** The proper reference frame of a uniformly accelerated observer. All lengths and times are measured in units of  $1/\kappa$ . We show only 2 dimensions of the reference frame—those in the 2-plane of the observer's curved world line.

#### 24.5.4 Rindler Coordinates for Minkowski Spacetime

24.5.4

The spacetime metric (24.70) in our observer's proper reference frame resembles the metric in the vicinity of a black hole, as expressed in coordinates of observers who accelerate so as to avoid falling into the hole. In preparation for discussing this in

Rindler coordinates

Chap. 26, we shift the origin of our proper-reference-frame coordinates to the singular point and rename them. Specifically, we introduce so-called *Rindler coordinates*:

$$t' = x^{\hat{0}}, \quad x' = x^{\hat{1}} + 1/\kappa, \quad y' = x^{\hat{2}}, \quad z' = x^{\hat{3}}. \quad (24.71)$$

It turns out (Ex. 24.15) that these coordinates are related to the Lorentz coordinates that we began with, in Eqs. (24.69), by

$$t = x' \sinh(\kappa t'), \quad x = x' \cosh(\kappa t'), \quad y = y', \quad z = z'. \quad (24.72)$$

The metric in this Rindler coordinate system, of course, is the same as (24.70) with displacement of the origin:

$$ds^2 = -(\kappa x')^2 dt'^2 + dx'^2 + dy'^2 + dz'^2. \quad (24.73)$$

spacetime metric in Rindler coordinates

The world lines of constant  $\{x', y', z'\}$  have uniform acceleration:  $\vec{a} = (1/x')\vec{e}_{x'}$ . Thus we can think of these coordinates as the reference frame of a family of uniformly accelerated observers, each of whom accelerates away from their *horizon*  $x' = 0$  with acceleration equal to  $1/(\text{her distance } x' \text{ above the horizon})$ . (We use the name “horizon” for  $x' = 0$ , because it represents the edge of the region of spacetime that these observers are able to observe.) The local 3-planes orthogonal to these observers’ world lines all mesh to form global 3-planes of constant  $t'$ . This is a major factor in making the metric (24.73) so simple.

horizon of Rindler coordinates

EXERCISES

**Exercise 24.15** *Derivation: Uniformly Accelerated Observer and Rindler Coordinates*  
In this exercise you will derive the various claims made in Secs. 24.5.3 and 24.5.4.

- Show that the parameter  $\tau$  along the world line (24.69) is proper time and that the 4-acceleration has magnitude  $|\vec{a}| = 1/\kappa$ .
- Show that the unit vectors  $\vec{e}_j$  introduced in Sec. 24.5.3 all obey the Fermi-Walker transport law (24.62) and therefore, by virtue of Eq. (24.61b), the proper reference frame built from them has vanishing rotation rate:  $\vec{\Omega} = 0$ .
- Show that the coordinates  $x^{\hat{2}}$  and  $x^{\hat{3}}$  introduced in Sec. 24.5.3 are equal to the  $y$  and  $z$  coordinates of the inertial frame used to define the observer’s world line [Eqs. (24.69)].
- Show that the proper-reference-frame coordinates constructed in Sec. 24.5.3 are related to the original  $\{t, x, y, z\}$  coordinates by

$$t = (x^{\hat{1}} + 1/\kappa) \sinh(\kappa x^{\hat{0}}), \quad x = (x^{\hat{1}} + 1/\kappa) \cosh(\kappa x^{\hat{0}}), \quad y = x^{\hat{2}}, \quad z = x^{\hat{3}}; \quad (24.74)$$

and from this, deduce the form (24.70) of the Minkowski spacetime metric in the observer’s proper reference frame.

- (e) Show that, when converted to Rindler coordinates by moving the spatial origin, the coordinate transformation (24.74) becomes (24.72), and the metric (24.70) becomes (24.73).
- (f) Show that observers at rest in the Rindler coordinate system (i.e., who move along world lines of constant  $\{x', y', z'\}$ ) have 4-acceleration  $\vec{a} = (1/x')\vec{e}_{x'}$ .

**Exercise 24.16** *Example: Gravitational Redshift*

Inside a laboratory on Earth's surface the effects of spacetime curvature are so small that current technology cannot measure them. Therefore, experiments performed in the laboratory can be analyzed using special relativity. (This fact is embodied in Einstein's equivalence principle; end of Sec. 25.2.)

- (a) Explain why the spacetime metric in the proper reference frame of the laboratory's floor has the form

$$ds^2 = (1 + 2gz)(dx^{\hat{0}})^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2, \quad (24.75)$$

plus terms due to the slow rotation of the laboratory walls, which we neglect in this exercise. Here  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity measured on the floor.

- (b) An electromagnetic wave is emitted from the floor, where it is measured to have wavelength  $\lambda_o$ , and is received at the ceiling. Using the metric (24.75), show that, as measured in the proper reference frame of an observer on the ceiling, the received wave has wavelength  $\lambda_r = \lambda_o(1 + gh)$ , where  $h$  is the height of the ceiling above the floor (i.e., the light is *gravitationally redshifted* by  $\Delta\lambda/\lambda_o = gh$ ). [Hint: Show that all crests of the wave must travel along world lines that have the same shape,  $z = F(x^{\hat{0}} - x_e^{\hat{0}})$ , where  $F$  is some function, and  $x_e^{\hat{0}}$  is the coordinate time at which the crest is emitted from the floor. You can compute the shape function  $F$  if you wish, but it is not needed to derive the gravitational redshift; only its universality is needed.]

The first high-precision experiments to test this prediction were by Robert Pound and his student Glen Rebka and postdoc Joseph Snider, in a tower at Harvard University in the 1950s and 1960s. They achieved 1% accuracy. We discuss this gravitational redshift in Sec. 27.2.1.

**Exercise 24.17** *Example: Rigidly Rotating Disk*

Consider a thin disk with radius  $R$  at  $z = 0$  in a Lorentz reference frame. The disk rotates rigidly with angular velocity  $\Omega$ . In the early years of special relativity there was much confusion over the geometry of the disk: In the inertial frame it has physical radius (proper distance from center to edge)  $R$  and physical circumference  $C = 2\pi R$ . But Lorentz contraction dictates that, as measured on the disk, the circumference should be  $\sqrt{1 - v^2} C$  (with  $v = \Omega R$ ), and the physical radius,  $R$ , should be unchanged. This seemed weird. How could an obviously flat disk in flat spacetime have a curved,

non-Euclidean geometry, with physical circumference divided by physical radius smaller than  $2\pi$ ? In this exercise you will explore this issue.

- (a) Consider a family of observers who ride on the edge of the disk. Construct a circular curve, orthogonal to their world lines, that travels around the disk (at  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = R$ ). This curve can be thought of as lying in a 3-surface of constant time  $x^{\hat{0}}$  of the observers' proper reference frames. Show that it spirals upward in a Lorentz-frame spacetime diagram, so it cannot close on itself after traveling around the disk. Thus the 3-planes, orthogonal to the observers' world lines at the edge of the disk, cannot mesh globally to form global 3-planes (by contrast with the case of the uniformly accelerated observers in Sec. 24.5.4 and Ex. 24.15).
- (b) Next, consider a 2-dimensional family of observers who ride on the surface of the rotating disk. Show that at each radius  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \text{const}$ , the constant-radius curve that is orthogonal to their world lines spirals upward in spacetime with a different slope. Show this means that even locally, the 3-planes orthogonal to each of their world lines cannot mesh to form larger 3-planes—thus there does not reside in spacetime any 3-surface orthogonal to these observers' world lines. There is no 3-surface that has the claimed non-Euclidean geometry.

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### Bibliographic Note

For a very readable presentation of most of this chapter's material, from much the same point of view, see Hartle (2003, Chap. 20). For an equally elementary introduction from a somewhat different viewpoint, see Schutz (2009, Chaps. 1–4). A far more detailed and somewhat more sophisticated introduction, largely but not entirely from our viewpoint, will be found in Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler (1973, Chaps. 1–6). More sophisticated treatments from rather different viewpoints than ours are given in Wald (1984, Chaps. 1, 2, and Sec. 3.1), and Carroll (2004, Chaps. 1, 2). A treasure trove of exercises on this material, with solutions, is in Lightman et al. (1975, Chaps. 6–8). See also the bibliography for Chap. 2.

For a detailed and sophisticated discussion of accelerated observers and the measurements they make, see Gourgoulhon (2013).

## NAME INDEX

---

Page numbers for entries in boxes are followed by “b,” those for epigraphs at the beginning of a chapter by “e,” those for figures by “f,” and those for notes by “n.”

- Adelberger, Eric, 1300  
Albrecht, Andreas, 1432n
- Bertotti, Bruno, 1249  
Birkhoff, George, 1250  
Bondi, Hermann, 1398, 1445n  
Braginsky, Vladimir Borisovich, 1300  
Burke, William, 1333
- Carter, Brandon, 1278, 1291  
Christodoulou, Demetrios, 1284  
Ciufolini, Ignazio, 1309
- DeWitt, Bryce, 1341  
Dicke, Robert, 1300  
Dirac, Paul, 1429n
- Eddington, Arthur, 1268  
Einstein, Albert, 1151, 1191e, 1192, 1193, 1194, 1195, 1197, 1221, 1222, 1228, 1233, 1239, 1242, 1259, 1299, 1302, 1305, 1311, 1319, 1366, 1382, 1382n, 1444, 1453, 1454, 1463, 1465  
Eötvös, Roland von, 1300  
Everitt, Francis, 1309
- Faraday, Michael, 1433n  
Fierz, Marcus, 1319, 1320  
Finkelstein, David, 1268  
Friedmann, Alexander, 1371n, 1377
- Galileo Galilei, 1300  
Guth, Alan, 1432n
- Hafele, Josef, 1482  
Harrison, Edward R., 1410n  
Hawking, Stephen, 1273, 1278, 1284, 1286, 1287n  
Hipparchus of Nicaea, 1219n  
Hubble, Edwin, 1374n  
Hulse, Russell, 1310
- Isaacson, Richard, 1320, 1320n, 1321
- Kapitsa, Pyotr, 1429n  
Kazanas, Demosthenes, 1432n  
Keating, Richard, 1482  
Kerr, Roy, 1278  
Killing, Wilhelm, 1205n  
Kruskal, Martin, 1276
- Landau, Lev Davidovich, 1299e  
Lemaître, Georges, 1371n, 1374n, 1445n  
Lense, Josef, 1233  
Lifshitz, Evgeny Mikhailovich, 1268, 1299e  
Linde, Andrei, 1432n  
Lorentz, Hendrik, 1453n, 1500
- Maxwell, James Clerk, 1159, 1433n  
Michell, John, 1241e  
Minkowski, Hermann, 1192, 1449e, 1500
- Newton, Isaac, 1151, 1444, 1453  
Noether, Emmy, 1434n
- Oort, Jan, 1380n  
Oppenheimer, J. Robert, 1258, 1260, 1264, 1268

- Pauli, Wolfgang, 1319, 1320  
Penrose, Roger, 1273, 1283  
Penzias, Arno, 1364  
Planck, Max, 1153e  
Pound, Robert, 1189  
Pretorius, Frans, 1341
- Roberts, Morton S., 1380n  
Robertson, Howard P., 1371n  
Robinson, David, 1278  
Robinson, Ivor, 1249  
Rubin, Vera, 1380n
- Sakharov, Andrei Dmitrievich, 1443n  
Sato, Katsuhiko, 1432n  
Schwarzschild, Karl, 1242, 1259, 1273, 1433n  
Shapiro, Irwin, 1308  
Slipher, Vesto, 1374n  
Smarr, Larry, 1341  
Snyder, Hartland, 1264, 1268
- Starobinsky, Alexei Alexandrovich, 1432n  
Steinhardt, Paul, 1432n  
Sunyaev, Rashid, 1430  
Szekeres, George, 1276
- Taylor, Joseph, 1310  
Teukolsky, Saul, 1341  
Thirring, Hans, 1233  
Tolman, Richard Chace, 1258, 1445n
- Volkoff, George, 1258, 1264
- Walker, Arthur Geoffrey, 1371n  
Weinberg, Steven, 1153, 1193  
Wheeler, John Archibald, 1293, 1344b, 1500  
Whitehurst, R. N., 1380n  
Wilson, Robert, 1364
- Zeldovich, Yakov Borisovich, 1410n, 1430, 1445n  
Zwicky, Fritz, 1380

## SUBJECT INDEX

Second and third level entries are not ordered alphabetically. Instead, the most important or general entries come first, followed by less important or less general ones, with specific applications last.

Page numbers for entries in boxes are followed by “b,” those for epigraphs at the beginning of a chapter by “e,” those for figures by “f,” for notes by “n,” and for tables by “t.”

- 3+1 split
  - of spacetime into space plus time, 1158, 1472
  - of electromagnetic field tensor, 1484–1486
  - of stress-energy tensor, 1494–1496
  - of 4-momentum conservation, 1472, 1497–1500
- 4-acceleration related to acceleration that is felt, 1182, 1481
- 4-force
  - as a geometric object, 1463
  - orthogonal to 4-velocity, 1464
- 4-momentum
  - as a geometric object, 1462
  - components in Lorentz frame: energy and momentum, 1470–1471
  - and affine parameter, 1463
  - related to 4-velocity, 1462
  - related to quantum wave vector, 1462
  - related to stress-energy tensor, 1494–1496
- 4-momentum conservation (energy-momentum conservation)
  - 3+1 split: energy and momentum conservation, 1472, 1497–1500
  - expressed in terms of stress-energy tensor, 1496–1497
  - global, for asymptotically flat system, 1237–1238
  - global version fails in generic curved spacetime, 1177, 1218
  - for particles, 1463, 1464f, 1472
  - for perfect fluid, 1498–1499
  - for electromagnetic field and charged matter, 1500
- 4-momentum density, 1494
- 4-vector. *See* vector in spacetime
- 4-velocity
  - as a geometric object, 1461
  - 3+1 split: components in Lorentz frame, 1470
- aberration of photon propagation direction, 1305
- absorption of radiation, 1394–1397
- accelerated observer
  - proper reference frame of, 1180–1186, 1181f, 1200, 1254, 1274
  - uniformly, 1186–1189, 1187f
- acceleration of universe, 1382, 1398–1401, 1444, 1445n
- accretion disk around spinning black hole
  - thin, 1287–1289
  - thick, 1289–1290
- accretion of gas onto neutron star or black hole, 1266, 1282–1283
- acoustic horizon radius,  $\chi_A$ , 1375
  - ultrarelativistic,  $\chi_R$ , 1375, 1403–1404
- acoustic peaks, in CMB anisotropy spectrum, 1413, 1419f, 1421
- action principle for geodesic equation, 1203, 1205–1206, 1357
- active galactic nuclei, 1379
- affine parameter, 1178b, 1200, 1203, 1206, 1208, 1247, 1303, 1307, 1423, 1462–1463
- Aichelberg-Sexl ultraboost metric of a light-speed particle, 1231
- Andromeda galaxy, 1365f

- angular momentum
  - of a Kerr black hole, 1278, 1282–1283, 1285–1286, 1342.  
*See also* frame dragging by spinning bodies
  - of a relativistic, spinning body, 1218, 1220, 1232–1234, 1237–1238, 1328
  - in accretion disks, 1287–1292
  - carried by gravitational waves, 1332–1333, 1335, 1338, 1345
- angular momentum conservation, relativistic
  - global, for asymptotically flat system, 1237–1238
  - for geodesic orbits around a black hole, 1274, 1303
- angular-diameter distance,  $d_A$ , 1374, 1378, 1398–1400, 1427
- anthropic principle, 1439–1440, 1446
- asymptotic rest frame, 1237, 1246–1248
  - local, 1328, 1331, 1332, 1339–1340
- asymptotically flat system in general relativity, 1194, 1238, 1238n
  - imprint of mass and angular momentum on exterior metric, 1232–1233, 1238
  - conservation laws for mass and angular momentum, 1237–1238, 1332, 1338
- B-modes, of CMB polarization, 1420, 1428, 1439
- baryogenesis, 1442–1443
- baryons in universe
  - origin of: baryogenesis, 1442–1443
  - evolution of, 1407–1408, 1410–1414
  - observations today, 1379
- basis vectors in spacetime
  - dual sets of, 1161
  - coordinate, 1162–1163, 1167
  - orthonormal (Lorentz), 1157, 1466
    - Lorentz transformation of, 1475–1477
  - nonorthonormal, 1160–1163
    - transformation between, 1164
- Bianchi identities, 1223–1224
  - in Maxwell-like form, 1235b, 1318b
- big rip, 1446
- binary black holes, 1341–1342, 1342f, 1343f, 1344b–1345b
- binary pulsars
  - Hulse-Taylor: B1913+16, 1310
  - J0337+715, 1301
  - J0737+3039, 1303, 1309, 1310
  - J1614–2230, 1309
  - observation of gravitational radiation reaction in, 1310–1311
  - tests of general relativity in, 1301, 1303, 1311
- binary star system. *See also* binary pulsars
  - gravitational waves from, 1335–1341
- Birkhoff's theorem, 1250–1251, 1264
- black holes. *See also* horizon, black-hole event; Kerr metric; Schwarzschild metric
  - nonspinning, Schwarzschild, 1272–1276. *See also* Schwarzschild metric
  - geodesic orbits around, 1274–1276, 1275f
  - spinning, Kerr, 1277–1293. *See also* Kerr metric
  - laws of black-hole mechanics and thermodynamics, 1284–1287
  - entropy of, 1287
  - irreducible mass of, 1284
  - rotational energy and its extraction, 1282–1287, 1291–1293
  - evolution of, 1282–1287
  - Hawking radiation from, 1286–1287
  - accretion of gas onto, 1282–1283, 1287–1290
  - binary, 1341–1342, 1342f, 1343f, 1344b–1345b
  - collisions of and their gravitational waves, 1341–1342, 1342f, 1343f, 1344b–1345b
  - in the universe, 1379–1380, 1397
- Blandford-Znajek process, 1285, 1291–1293
- Boltzmann transport equation
  - solution via Monte Carlo methods, 1415–1418, 1428
- boost, Lorentz, 1476–1477
- Cartesian coordinates
  - local, on curved surface, 1198
- charge density
  - as time component of charge-current 4-vector, 1486
- charge-current 4-vector
  - geometric definition, 1490
  - components: charge and current density, 1490
  - local (differential) conservation law for, 1491
  - global (integral) conservation law for, 1491, 1491f
    - evaluation in a Lorentz frame, 1493
    - relation to nonrelativistic conservation of charge, 1493
- chemical reactions, including nuclear and particle nucleosynthesis in nuclear age of early universe, 1387–1392
  - recombination in early universe, 1393–1396
  - annihilation of dark-matter particles, 1440–1442
- Christoffel symbols, 1172
- chronology protection, 1481
- circular polar coordinates, 1163, 1163f, 1165, 1173. *See also* cylindrical coordinates
- cylindrical coordinates
- climate change, 1440n
- clocks, ideal, 1154n, 1451, 1451n, 1461
- closure relation, in plasma kinetic theory, 1409
- coarse graining, 1443
- commutation coefficients, 1171, 1215



- commutator
  - of two vector fields, 1167–1169, 1172, 1209, 1214n
- comoving coordinates, in cosmology, 1370
- component manipulation rules
  - in spacetime with orthonormal basis, 1466–1469
  - in spacetime with arbitrary basis, 1161–1165
- components of vectors and tensors. *See under* vector in spacetime; tensor in spacetime
- Compton scattering, 1388, 1392–1393, 1428–1430
- conformally related metrics, 1159–1160
- congruence of light rays, 1423–1424
- connection coefficients
  - for an arbitrary basis, 1171–1173
- conservation laws
  - differential and integral, in spacetime, 1491
  - related to symmetries, 1203–1205
- contraction of tensors
  - formal definition, 1460
  - component representation, 1468
- convergence of light rays, 1424
- coordinate independence. *See* principle of relativity
- Copernican principle, 1366
- Coriolis acceleration, 1185
- correlation functions
  - applications of
    - cosmological density fluctuations, 1414
    - distortion of galaxy images due to weak lensing, 1424–1427
    - angular anisotropy of cosmic microwave background, 1417–1420
- cosmic dawn, 1421–1422
- cosmic microwave background (CMB)
  - evolution of in universe
    - before recombination, 1384–1387, 1407–1408
    - during and since recombination, 1415–1422
    - redshifting as universe expands, 1373
  - observed properties today, 1381, 1419f
    - isotropy of, 1364
    - map of, by Planck, 1365f
  - frequency spectrum of, today
    - Sunyaev-Zeldovich effect on, 1428–1430
  - anisotropies of, today
    - predicted spectrum, 1419f
    - acoustic peaks, 1413, 1419f, 1421
  - polarization of, today, 1416, 1417, 1420, 1428
    - E-mode, 1419f, 1420, 1428
    - B-mode, 1420, 1428, 1439
- cosmic shear tensor, 1424, 1427
- cosmic strings, 1357, 1432n
- cosmic variance, 1411n, 1421
- cosmological constant
  - observational evidence for, 1382–1383
  - history of ideas about, 1382n, 1444–1445, 1445n
  - as energy density and negative pressure, 1282–1283, 1445
  - as a property of the vacuum, 1445
  - as a “situational” phenomenon, 1446
  - as an emergent phenomenon, 1445
- cosmology, standard, 1383
- critical density for universe, 1377
- current density
  - as spatial part of charge-current 4-vector, 1486
- current moments, gravitational, 1328–1332
- curvature coupling in physical laws, 1219–1221
- curve, 1154–1155, 1461
- cyclic symmetry, 1214n
- cylindrical coordinates
  - coordinate basis for, 1163, 1163f
- d’Alembertian (wave operator), 1191, 1434, 1483
- dark energy, 1363, 1444, 1446. *See also* cosmological constant
- dark matter
  - observational evidence for, 1380–1381
  - physical nature of, 1440–1442
  - searches for dark-matter particles, 1442
  - evolution of, in early universe, 1406–1407, 1411f
- de Broglie waves, 1456b
- de Sitter universe or expansion, 1398, 1400, 1432, 1437
- deceleration function  $q(t)$  for the universe, 1374, 1378
  - value today, 1382
- deflection of starlight, gravitational, 1304–1307. *See also* gravitational lensing
- density fractions,  $\Omega_k$ , for cosmology, 1377–1378
- derivatives of scalars, vectors, and tensors
  - directional derivatives, 1167, 1169, 1482
  - gradients, 1170–1171, 1173, 1482–1483
- deuterium formation in early universe, 1389–1392
- differential forms, 1490
  - one-forms used for 3-volumes and integration, 1489n
  - and Stokes’ theorem, 1490
- Dirac equation, 1456b
- directional derivative, 1167, 1169, 1482
- distortion of images, 1424
- distribution function
  - evolution of. *See* Boltzmann transport equation
- divergence, 1483
- domain walls, 1432n
- Doppler shift, 1474
- E-modes, of CMB polarization, 1419f, 1420, 1428
- eikonal approximation. *See* geometric optics

- Einstein curvature tensor, 1223
  - contracted Bianchi identity for, 1223
  - components in specific metrics
    - static, spherical metric, 1258
    - linearized metric, 1228
  - Robertson-Walker metric for universe, 1371–1372
  - perturbations of Robertson-Walker metric, 1401–1402
- Einstein field equation, 1223, 1224
  - derivation of, 1221–1223
  - Newtonian limit of, 1223, 1226–1227
  - linearized, 1229
  - cosmological perturbations of, 1402
  - solutions of, for specific systems. *See under* spacetime metrics for specific systems
- Einstein summation convention, 1467
- Einstein–de Sitter universe, 1378, 1398, 1399f
- electric charge. *See* charge density
- electromagnetic field. *See also* electromagnetic waves; Maxwell’s equations
  - electromagnetic field tensor, 1464, 1465, 1484
  - electric and magnetic fields, 1484
    - as 4–vectors living in observer’s slice of simultaneity, 1484–1485, 1485f
  - 4–vector potential, 1486–1487
    - scalar and 3–vector potentials, 1487
- electromagnetic waves
  - vacuum wave equation for vector potential, 1219–1220, 1487
  - in curved spacetime: curvature coupling, 1219–1220
- embedding diagram, 1261–1263, 1276–1277, 1321f
- energy conservation, relativistic
  - differential, 1176, 1497
  - integral (global) in flat spacetime, 1496, 1498
  - global, in curved, asymptotically flat spacetime, 1237–1238
  - global, in generic curved spacetime: fails!, 1177, 1218
- energy density, relativistic
  - as component of stress-energy tensor, 1495
- energy flux, relativistic
  - as component of stress-energy tensor, 1495
- energy, relativistic, 1470
  - as inner product of 4-momentum and observer’s 4-velocity, 1472–1473
  - for zero-rest-mass particle, 1472
  - kinetic, 1471
- Eötvös experiment, 1300
- equivalence principle
  - weak, 1300–1301
  - Einstein’s, 1196, 1217
    - delicacies of, 1218–1221
    - used to lift laws of physics into curved spacetime, 1217–1218
- ergosphere of black hole, 1283–1284
- eschatology of universe, 1400–1401
- event, 1452
- expansion rate of universe,  $H(t)$ , 1374
- factor ordering in correspondence principle, 1219–1220
- Fermat’s principle
  - for general relativistic light rays, 1306–1307. *See also* gravitational lensing
- Fermi-Walker transport, 1184
- Fokker-Planck equation
  - for photon propagation through intergalactic gas (Sunyaev-Zel’dovich effect), 1428–1430
- frame dragging by spinning bodies, 1233–1236, 1279–1282, 1295b–1296b, 1342
- frame-drag field, 1235b–1236b
- frame-drag vortex lines, 1235b–1236b
  - around a linearized, spinning particle, 1236b
  - around a Kerr black hole, 1295b–1296b
  - around colliding black holes, 1344b–1345b
  - in a gravitational wave, 1318b, 1345b
- free-fall motion and geodesics, 1200–1203
- Friedmann equations for expansion of the universe, 1376–1377
- fundamental observers (FOs), in cosmology, 1366–1367
- galaxies
  - observed properties of, 1364, 1365f, 1412–1413
  - distortion of images by gravitational lensing, 1424–1427
  - spatial distribution of, 1364
    - power spectrum for, 1412–1415, 1414f
  - formation of in early universe, 1401–1406
  - dark matter in, 1364, 1365f, 1381
  - mergers of, 1413
- galaxy clusters
  - dark matter in, 1380–1381
  - hot gas in, and Sunyaev-Zel’dovich effect, 1428–1430
  - merging, image of, 1365f
- gauge transformations and choices
  - in linearized theory of gravity, 1228–1229, 1312
  - in cosmological perturbations, 1401n
- Gauss’s theorem in spacetime, 1490
- general relativity, 1191–1224
  - some history of, 1191–1193
  - linearized approximation to, 1227–1231
  - Newtonian limit of, 1225–1227
  - experimental tests of, 1299–1311
- geodesic deviation, equation of, 1210
  - for light rays, 1423
  - on surface of a sphere, 1217

- geodesic equation
    - geometric form, 1201–1202
    - in coordinate system, 1203
    - conserved rest mass, 1202
    - super-hamiltonian for, 1206, 1357
    - action principles for
      - stationary proper time, 1203, 1205–1206
      - super-Hamiltonian, 1357
    - conserved quantities associated with symmetries, 1203–1205
  - geodetic precession, 1290–1291, 1309–1310
  - geometric object, 1453
  - geometric optics, 1174. *See also* Fermat's principle
    - for gravitational waves, 1320–1324, 1338–1341
  - geometrized units, 1157, 1224
    - numerical values of quantities in, 1225t
  - geomrodynamics, 1344b–1345b
  - global positioning system, 1301–1302
  - global warming, 1440n
  - gradient operator, 1170–1171, 1173, 1482–1483
  - gravitation theories
    - general relativity, 1191–1224
    - relativistic scalar theory, 1194–1195, 1465
  - gravitational fields of relativistic systems. *See* spacetime metrics for specific systems
  - gravitational lensing, 1305–1307, 1422–1427. *See also*
    - deflection of starlight, gravitational refractive index models for
      - derivation of, 1305–1307
    - Fermat's principle for, 1306–1307
    - lensing of gravitational waves, 1323–1324
    - weak lensing, 1422–1427
  - gravitational waves, 1321f. *See also* gravitons
    - speed of, same as light, 1457b
    - stress-energy tensor of, 1324–1326
    - energy and momentum carried by, 1324–1326
    - generation of, 1327–1345
      - multipole-moment expansion, 1328–1329
      - quadrupole-moment formalism, 1330–1335
      - radiation reaction in source, 1333, 1338
      - numerical relativity simulations, 1341–1342
      - energy, momentum, and angular momentum emitted, 1332, 1334–1335
      - mean occupation number of modes, 1326–1327
  - propagation through flat spacetime, 1229, 1311–1320
    - $h_+$  and  $h_{\times}$ , 1315–1316
    - behavior under rotations and boosts, 1317, 1319
    - TT gauge, 1312–1315
    - projecting out TT-gauge field, 1314b
    - Riemann tensor and tidal fields, 1312–1313
    - deformations, stretches and squeezes, 1315–1317
    - tidal tendex and frame-drag vortex lines for, 1318b
  - propagation through curved spacetime (geometric optics), 1320–1327, 1338–1341
    - same propagation phenomena as electromagnetic waves, 1323
    - gravitational lensing of, 1323–1324
  - penetrating power, 1311
  - frequency bands for: ELF, VLF, LF, and HF, 1345–1347
  - sources of
    - human arm waving, 1333
    - linear oscillator, 1338
    - binary star systems, 1335–1342
    - binary pulsars in elliptical orbits, 1342–1345
    - binary black holes, 1341–1342, 1342f, 1343f, 1344b–1345b
    - stochastic background from binary black holes, 1356–1358
    - cosmic strings, 1357
  - detection of, 1345–1357
    - gravitational wave interferometers, 1347–1355. *See also* laser interferometer gravitational wave detector
    - pulsar timing arrays, 1355–1357
- gravitons
  - speed of, same as light, 1319, 1457b
  - spin and rest mass, 1319–1320
- gravity probe A, 1301
- gravity probe B, 1309
- gyroscope, propagation of spin
  - in absence of tidal gravity
    - parallel transport if freely falling, 1218–1219
    - Fermi-Walker transport if accelerated, 1184
  - precession due to tidal gravity (curvature coupling), 1219–1221
- gyroscopes
  - inertial-guidance, 1182
  - used to construct reference frames, 1156, 1180–1182, 1195, 1451
  - precession of due to frame-dragging by spinning body, 1232–1236, 1279, 1296b, 1309, 1318
- Hamilton's equations
  - for particle motion in curved spacetime, 1206, 1275, 1291
- hamiltonian, constructed from lagrangian, 1433
- hamiltonian for particle motion in curved spacetime. *See also* geodesic equation
  - super-hamiltonian, 1206, 1357
- Hawking radiation
  - from black holes, 1286–1287
  - from cosmological horizon, 1437
- helium formation in early universe, 1387–1392
- homogeneity of the universe, 1364–1366

- homogeneous spaces
  - 2-dimensional, 1367–1370
  - 3-dimensional, 1370, 1372
- horizon problem in cosmology, 1387, 1388f, 1431–1432
- horizon radius of universe,  $\chi_H$ , 1375
- horizon, black-hole event
  - nonrotating (Schwarzschild), 1272
    - formation of, in imploding star, 1273, 1273f
    - surface gravity of, 1274
  - rotating (Kerr), 1279–1280
    - generators of, 1280, 1281f, 1282
    - angular velocity of, 1280
    - surface gravity of, 1286
    - surface area of, 1284, 1285
- horizon, cosmological, 1375
  - horizon radius,  $\chi_H$ , 1375
  - horizon problem, 1387, 1388f, 1431–1432
    - and theory of inflation, 1437–1438
    - acoustic horizon and radius,  $\chi_A$ , 1375
- Hubble constant,  $H_0$ , 1374
  - measurements of, 1375
- Hubble law for expansion of universe, 1374
- Hubble Space Telescope
  - images from, 1365
- hydrostatic equilibrium
  - of spherical, relativistic star, 1258
- index gymnastics. *See* component manipulation rules
- index of refraction
  - for model of gravitational lensing, 1307
- induction zone, 1327f
- inertial (Lorentz) coordinates, 1157, 1453, 1466
- inertial-guidance system, 1182b
- inertial mass density (tensorial)
  - definition, 1499
  - for perfect fluid, 1499
- inertial reference frame. *See* Lorentz reference frame
- inflation, cosmological, 1431–1440
  - motivation for, 1431–1432
  - theory of, 1434–1438
    - particle production at end of, 1435, 1437
    - tests of, 1438–1439
- inflaton field, 1433
  - potential for, 1435, 1436f
  - energy density and pressure of, 1435
  - evolution of, 1435, 1436f, 1437
  - dissipation of, produces particles, 1437
- inner product
  - in spacetime, 1460, 1468
- instabilities in fluid flows. *See* fluid-flow instabilities
- integrals in Euclidean space
  - Gauss’s theorem, 1176
- integrals in spacetime, 1174–1176, 1487–1490
  - over 3-surface, 1175, 1489, 1492–1493
  - over 4-volume, 1175, 1487
    - Gauss’s theorem, 1490
  - not well defined in curved spacetime unless infinitesimal contributions are scalars, 1175
- interferometer, gravitational wave. *See* laser interferometer gravitational wave detector
- interferometric gravitational wave detector. *See* laser interferometer gravitational wave detector
- international pulsar timing array (IPTA), 1356
- interval
  - defined, 1159, 1457
  - invariance of, 1159–1160, 1457–1460
    - spacelike, timelike, and null (lightlike), 1457
- irreducible mass of black hole, 1284–1287
- isotropy of the universe, 1364–1366
- Jeans’ theorem, 1407
- jerk function  $j(t)$  for universe, 1374, 1378
  - value today, 1382
- Kepler’s laws, 1232–1233, 1247, 1304, 1335, 1344
- Kerr metric. *See also* black holes; horizon, black-hole event
  - in Boyer-Lindquist coordinates, 1277–1279
  - in (ingoing) Kerr coordinates, 1281–1282, 1281n
  - geodesic orbits in, 1291
  - dragging of inertial frames in, 1279, 1290–1291
  - precession of gyroscope in orbit around, 1290–1291
  - tidal tendex lines and frame-drag vortex lines in, 1295b–1296b
  - light-cone structure of, 1279–1282
    - event horizon of, 1280
      - Cauchy horizon of and its instability, 1282n
- Killing vector field, 1203–1205
- Kompaneets equation, 1429
- lagrangian methods for dynamics, 1433
  - lagrangian density
    - energy density and flux in terms of, 1434
    - for scalar field, 1434
    - for electrodynamics, 1433–1434
- laser interferometer gravitational wave detector
  - general relativistic analyses of
    - in proper reference frame of beam splitter, 1347–1349, 1352–1355
    - in TT gauge, 1347–1352
    - for more realistic interferometer, 1355
- Lense-Thirring precession, 1233, 1290–1291, 1309–1310

- Levi-Civita tensor in spacetime, 1174–1175, 1483
- light cones, 1155–1156, 1155f, 1159, 1186–1187, 1230, 1230f  
 near Schwarzschild black hole, 1264–1265, 1269, 1272  
 near Kerr black hole, 1279–1283
- LIGO (Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory). *See also* laser interferometer gravitational wave detector  
 discovery of gravitational waves, 1326, 1346  
 advanced LIGO detectors (interferometers), 1346–1347  
 signal processing for, 1341
- line element, 1163–1164, 1469
- linearized theory (approximation to general relativity), 1227–1231
- lithium formation in early universe, 1392
- local Lorentz reference frame and coordinates, 1195–1196, 1195f  
 connection coefficients in, 1199–1200  
 influence of spacetime curvature on, 1213  
 metric components in, 1196–1200  
 influence of spacetime curvature on, 1213  
 Riemann tensor components in, 1214  
 nonmeshing of neighboring frames in curved spacetime, 1197–1199, 1197f
- Lorentz contraction  
 of length, 1478–1479  
 of rest-mass density, 1493
- Lorentz coordinates, 1157, 1453, 1466
- Lorentz factor, 1470
- Lorentz force  
 in terms of electromagnetic field tensor, 1156, 1465, 1483  
 in terms of electric and magnetic fields, 1484  
 geometric derivation of, 1464–1465
- Lorentz group, 1476
- Lorentz reference frame, 1156–1157, 1451, 1451f. *See also* local Lorentz reference frame and coordinates  
 slice of simultaneity (3-space) in, 1470, 1471f
- Lorentz transformation, 1158, 1475–1477  
 boost, 1476, 1477f  
 rotation, 1477
- Lorenz gauge  
 electromagnetic, 1219–1220, 1487  
 gravitational, 1229–1230
- luminosity distance,  $d_L$ , 1375–1376
- Lyman alpha spectral line, 1373, 1393–1396
- magnetosphere  
 in binary pulsars, 1310
- Maple, 1172
- mass conservation, 1492
- mass density  
 rest-mass density, 1493
- mass moments, gravitational, 1328–1332
- mass-energy density, relativistic  
 as component of stress-energy tensor, 1495, 1497
- Mathematica, 1172
- Matlab, 1172
- Maxwell's equations  
 in terms of electromagnetic field tensor, 1485–1486  
 in terms of electric and magnetic fields, 1486
- Mercury, perihelion advance of, 1302–1304
- metric perturbation and trace-reversed metric perturbation, 1227–1228, 1311
- metric tensor in spacetime, 1155, 1460  
 geometric definition, 1155, 1460  
 components in orthonormal basis, 1157, 1467
- metrics for specific systems. *See* spacetime metrics for specific systems
- momentum, relativistic, 1471  
 relation to 4-momentum and observer, 1471, 1473  
 of a zero-rest-mass particle, 1472
- momentum conservation, relativistic  
 for particles, 1472  
 differential, 1176–1177, 1497  
 global, for asymptotically flat system, 1237–1238  
 global, fails in generic curved spacetime, 1177, 1218
- momentum density as component of stress-energy tensor, 1495
- monopoles, 1432n
- Monte Carlo methods  
 for radiative transfer, 1415–1419, 1428
- multipole moments  
 gravitational, 1232, 1328–1334  
 of CMB anisotropy, 1418, 1419f
- near zone, 1327f
- neutrinos  
 spin of, deduced from return angle, 1319–1320  
 in universe today, 1380t, 1382  
 in universe, evolution of, 1384, 1385f  
 temperature and number density compared to photons, 1385, 1385n  
 decoupling in early universe, 1384, 1385f, 1406n  
 thermodynamically isolated after decoupling, 1384  
 influence of rest mass, 1385n, 1410  
 free streaming through dark matter potentials, 1407–1409
- neutron stars. *See also* binary pulsars  
 equation of state, 1257  
 structures of, 1258–1260  
 upper limit on mass of, 1260
- neutrons in early universe, 1384, 1387–1392, 1390f

- nuclear reactions. *See* chemical reactions, including nuclear and particle
- nucleosynthesis, in nuclear age of early universe, 1387–1392
- number density
  - as time component of number-flux 4–vector, 1491–1492
- number flux
  - as spatial part of number-flux 4–vector, 1491–1492
- number-flux 4–vector
  - geometric definition, 1491–1492
  - components: number density and flux, 1491–1492
  - conservation laws for, 1491–1492
- observer in spacetime, 1453
- occupation number, mean
  - for astrophysical gravitational waves, 1326–1327
- ocean tides, 1212–1213
- optical depth, 1395
- pairs, electron-positron
  - annihilation of, in early universe, 1384, 1385f
- parallel transport
  - for 4–vectors in curved or flat spacetime, 1169
- particle conservation law
  - relativistic, 1492
- particle density. *See* number density
- particle kinetics
  - in flat spacetime
    - geometric form, 1154–1156, 1178b, 1461–1464
    - in index notation, 1469–1474
- Penrose process for black holes, 1283–1285
- perihelion and periastron advances due to general relativity, 1302–1304
- perturbations in expanding universe
  - origin of, 1437
  - initial spectrum of, 1410–1412
  - evolution of, 1401–1422
- photon, gravitational field of in linearized theory, 1231
- physical laws
  - geometric formulation of. *See* principle of relativity
- Planck energy, 1438
- Planck length, 1287, 1438, 1439
- Planck satellite, 1365f
- Planck time, 1438, 1439
- Planck units, 1438
- plasma electromagnetic waves
  - validity of fluid approximation for, 1392
- polarization of electromagnetic waves
  - for CMB radiation, 1415–1416, 1417, 1419f, 1420–1421, 1428, 1439
  - Stokes parameters for, 1420–1421
- polarization of gravitational waves, 1312–1313, 1316–1317
- post-Newtonian approximation to general relativity, 1303, 1310, 1341
- pressure
  - as component of stress-energy tensor, 1497
- primordial nucleosynthesis, 1387–1392
- principle of relativity, 1154, 1158–1159, 1454
  - in presence of gravity, 1196
- projection tensors
  - into Lorentz frame’s 3-space, 1473
  - for TT-gauge gravitational waves, 1314b
- proper reference frame of accelerated, rotating observer, 1180–1186, 1181f
  - metric in, 1183
  - geodesic equation in, 1185
  - for observer at rest inside a spherical, relativistic star, 1253–1254
- proper time, 1154, 1461
- PSR B1913+16 binary pulsar, 1310. *See also* binary pulsars
- pulsar. *See also* binary pulsars; neutron stars
  - timing arrays for gravitational wave detection, 1355–1357
- quasars, 1233, 1288, 1305, 1379, 1380, 1397, 1430
- quintessence, 1446
- radiation reaction, gravitational: predictions and observations
  - predictions of, 1333, 1335
  - measurements of, in binary pulsars, 1310
  - measurements of, in binary black holes, by LIGO, 1311
- radiation reaction, theory of
  - radiation-reaction potential, 1333, 1335
  - damping and energy conservation, 1335
- radiative processes
  - Thomson scattering, 1407–1408, 1415, 1416n, 1418, 1428
  - Compton scattering, 1388, 1392–1393, 1428–1430
- radiative transfer, Boltzmann transport analysis of
  - by Monte Carlo methods, 1415–1418, 1428
- radius of curvature of spacetime, 1213
- Rayleigh-Jeans spectrum, 1430
- recombination in early universe, 1392–1396
- redshift, cosmological, 1373
- redshift, gravitational
  - in proper reference frame of accelerated observer, 1189
  - from surface of spherical star, to infinity, 1251–1252
  - influence on GPS, 1301–1302
  - experimental tests of, 1301, 1482
- reionization of universe, 1386f, 1395f, 1397, 1418, 1431
- rest frame
  - momentary, 1461
  - local, 1497, 1498
  - asymptotic, 1237, 1246–1248

- local asymptotic, 1327f, 1328, 1331, 1332, 1339–1340
- rest mass, 1470–1471
  - global and local conservation laws for, 1492, 1494
- rest-mass density, relativistic, 1493
- rest-mass-flux 4-vector
  - geometric definition of, 1492
  - components: rest-mass density and flux, 1493
- Ricci (curvature) tensor, 1214–1215
- Riemann curvature tensor
  - definition, 1209
  - symmetries of, 1214
  - components of
    - in an arbitrary basis, 1215–1216
    - in local Lorentz frame, 1214
- Bianchi identity for, 1223
- decomposition into tidal and frame-drag fields, in vacuum, 1235b–1236b
- components in specific spacetimes or spaces
  - surface of a sphere, 1216
  - general linearized metric, 1227
  - Schwarzschild metric, 1244b, 1267
- Newtonian limit of, 1227
- magnitude of, 1213
- outside Newtonian, gravitating body, 1212–1213
- rigidly rotating disk, relativistic, 1189–1190
- Rindler approximation, 1273–1274
- Rindler coordinates
  - in flat spacetime, 1187–1189
  - near black-hole horizon, 1273–1274
- Robertson-Walker metric for a homogeneous, isotropic universe, 1371
  - coordinates for, 1370
  - derivation of, 1366–1372
  - Einstein tensor for, 1371–1372
  - perturbations of, and their evolution, 1401–1422
- rotating disk, relativistic, 1189–1190
- rotation matrix, 1477
- scale factor, in cosmology, 1370
  - as a function of time, 1387, 1388f, 1390f, 1399f, 1400f
- Schrödinger equation
  - propagation speed of waves, 1456b
- Schwarzschild metric, 1242. *See also* black holes; horizon,
  - black-hole event; stars; wormhole
  - uniqueness of: Birchoff's theorem, 1250
  - in Schwarzschild coordinates, 1242
    - bases, connection coefficients, and Riemann tensor, 1243b–1244b
    - Schwarzschild coordinate system and symmetries, 1244–1249
  - in isotropic coordinate system, 1251
  - in ingoing Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates, 1269
  - gravitational (horizon) radius of, 1250
  - Rindler approximation near horizon, 1273–1274
  - geodesic orbits in, 1247–1248, 1274–1276
  - Newtonian limit of, 1246
  - roles of
    - exterior metric of static star, 1250–1252
    - exterior metric of imploding star, 1264–1266, 1269
    - metric of nonspinning black hole, 1272–1276
    - metric of wormhole, 1276–1277
- Shapiro time delay, 1308–1309
- simultaneity in relativity
  - breakdown of, 1478
  - slices of, 1181f, 1293–1294, 1293f, 1297, 1470, 1485, 1485f
- singularity, spacetime
  - at center of Schwarzschild black hole, 1271–1272, 1273f
  - generic, inside all black holes, 1273, 1282n
  - for Schwarzschild wormhole, 1277
- slot-naming index notation, 1156, 1468–1469, 1482
- space telescope. *See* Hubble Space Telescope
- spacetime diagram, 1452–1453
  - for Lorentz boost, 1477–1479, 1477f
- spacetime metrics for specific systems. *See also* stars,
  - spherical in general relativity
    - for a spherical star, 1250, 1253, 1258–1260
    - for a moving particle, linearized, 1230–1231
    - for a photon: Aichelberg-Sexl ultraboost metric, 1231
    - for exterior of any weak-gravity stationary system, 1231–1234, 1236
      - conservation of mass and angular momentum: influence on, 1237–1238
      - reading off source's mass and angular momentum from exterior metric, 1232–1233
    - for exterior of any asymptotically flat, strong-gravity, stationary system, 1238
    - for gravitational waves in flat spacetime, 1311–1314
  - Schwarzschild metric for a spherical star, black hole, or wormhole, 1242. *See also* Schwarzschild metric
  - Robertson-Walker metric for a homogeneous, isotropic universe, 1371n, 1366–1372. *See also* Robertson-Walker metric for a homogeneous, isotropic universe
  - Bertotti-Robinson metric, for a homogeneous magnetic universe, 1249
- speed of light
  - constancy of, 1159, 1454
  - measuring without light, 1455b
  - contrasted with speeds of other waves, 1456b
- spherical triangle, 1372
- standard cosmology, 1383

- stars. *See also* neutron stars
  - formation of first stars in early universe, 1397
  - observed properties of, 1379
  - spherical, in general relativity, 1250–1263
    - equations of stellar structure, 1258–1259
    - interior metric, 1253, 1258–1259
    - exterior spacetime metric: Schwarzschild, 1250
    - embedding diagram for, 1262–1263, 1263f
    - star with constant density, full structure, 1260
  - implosion to form black holes, 1264–1272
    - in Schwarzschild coordinates, 1264–1267, 1270–1271
    - in ingoing Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates, 1267–1271
- Stokes parameters for polarization of radiation, 1420–1421
- stress tensor
  - as spatial part of relativistic stress-energy tensor, 1495
- stress-energy tensor
  - geometric definition of, 1176, 1494
  - constructed from Lagrangian, 1434
  - components of, 1176, 1494–1495
  - symmetry of, 1495–1496
  - and 4-momentum conservation, 1176–1177, 1496–1497
  - for electromagnetic field
    - in terms of electromagnetic field tensor, 1498
    - in terms of electric and magnetic fields, 1500
    - in terms of vector potential, 1434
  - for perfect fluid, 1177, 1497
  - for point particle, 1178b, 1179
  - for viscous, heat-conducting fluid, 1179–1180
- Sunyaev-Zel'dovich effect, 1428–1430
- supernovae
  - observations of reveal acceleration of the universe, 1398, 1400
- supersymmetry, 1441
- symmetries and conservation laws, 1203–1205
- tangent space, 1160, 1165–1169, 1166f, 1175, 1218, 1253
- tangent vector, 1155, 1155f, 1165–1166, 1461
  - as directional derivative, 1167
- tensor in spacetime. *See also* component manipulation rules
  - definition and rank, 1460
  - bases for, 1467
  - components of, 1466–1469
    - contravariant, covariant, and mixed components, 1157–1158, 1161–1162, 1467
    - raising and lowering indices, 1165, 1467
  - algebra of
    - without coordinates or bases, 1460, 1473–1474
    - component representation in orthonormal basis, 1157–1158, 1466–1469
    - component representation in arbitrary basis, 1162–1165
  - tensor product, 1460
  - thermodynamics of black holes, 1286–1287
  - Thomson scattering of photons by electrons, 1407–1408, 1415, 1416n, 1418, 1428
  - tidal gravitational field
    - Newtonian, 1207–1208
    - relativistic, 1211–1212, 1235b–1236b
  - tidal gravity
    - Newtonian description, 1207–1208
    - relativistic description, 1208–1210
    - comparison of Newtonian and relativistic descriptions, 1210–1212, 1227
  - tidal tendex lines, 1235b–1236b
    - around a linearized, spinning particle, 1236b
    - around Kerr black hole, 1295b–1296b
    - around colliding black holes, 1344b–1345b
    - in a gravitational wave, 1318b, 1345b
  - time. *See also* clocks, ideal; simultaneity in relativity, slices of coordinate, of inertial frame, 1451–1452
    - proper, 1461
    - imaginary, 1466
    - in cosmology, 1370
    - in general relativity: many-fingered nature of, 1293–1294, 1297
  - time derivative
    - with respect to proper time, 1461, 1464
  - time dilation, 1478
    - observations of, 1482
  - time travel, 1479–1482
  - topological defects, 1432n
  - TOV equation of hydrostatic equilibrium, 1258, 1260
  - trace-reversed metric perturbation, 1228, 1311
  - transformation matrices, between bases, 1164
    - Lorentz, 1158, 1475–1477, 1477f
  - TT gauge, 1312–1315
  - twins paradox, 1479–1482
  - two-lengthscale expansion
    - for gravitational waves in curved spacetime, 1320–1321, 1321f
  - two-point correlation function, 1424–1426
    - for weak gravitational lensing, 1424–1426
  - universe, evolution of
    - expansion, kinematics of, 1373–1376
      - evolution of radiation and gas properties during, 1373–1375
    - expansion, dynamics of, 1376–1378
      - Friedman equations, 1376–1377



- graphical summaries of
  - entire life: distances as functions of scale factor, 1400f
  - entire life: energy densities of constituents, 1386f
  - particle age: temperatures and entropies of particle constituents, 1385f
  - nuclear age: reaction rates; nuclear and particle abundances, 1390f
  - plasma and atomic ages: ionization fraction and optical depths, 1395f
  - gravitational and cosmological ages: scale factor and deceleration function, 1399f
  - perturbations, evolution of, 1404f, 1405f, 1411f, 1414f
- formation of structure
  - origin of primordial perturbations, 1437–1440
  - perturbations, initial spectrum, 1410–1412
  - evolution of perturbations, 1401–1422
- seven ages
  - before the particle age, 1431–1440
  - particle age, before nucleosynthesis, 1384–1387
  - nuclear age, primordial nucleosynthesis, 1387–1392
  - plasma age, from matter dominance through recombination, 1393–1396
  - photon age, from nucleosynthesis to matter dominance, 1392–1393
  - atomic age, from recombination through reionization, 1397
  - gravitational age, from reionization to dark-energy influence, 1397–1400
  - cosmological age, the era of dark-energy influence, 1400–1401
  - galaxy formation, 1401–1415
- universe, observed properties of
  - isotropy and homogeneity, 1364–1366
  - spatial flatness, 1378
  - parameter values today, 1380t
  - age of, 1387
  - volume of, 1398
- constituents of
  - baryons, 1379. *See also* baryons in universe
  - neutrinos, 1382
  - photons: cosmic microwave background, 1381. *See also* cosmic microwave background
  - dark matter, 1380–1381. *See also* dark matter
  - dark energy or cosmological constant, 1382–1383, 1444–1447
  - galaxies. *See* galaxies
  - black holes, 1379–1380, 1397
  - acceleration of, 1382, 1398, 1400, 1444
  - spectral line formation, 1396
- vector
  - as arrow, 1166, 1452
  - as derivative of a point, 1165, 1461
  - as differential operator, 1167–1169
- vector in spacetime (4–vector)
  - contravariant and covariant components of, 1467
  - raising and lowering indices of, 1467
  - timelike, null, and spacelike, 1155–1156, 1459
- velocity
  - ordinary, in relativity, 1470, 1471f, 1473–1474. *See also* 4–velocity
- velocity potential for irrotational flow
  - in cosmological perturbations, 1403
- volume in spacetime, 1487–1489
  - 4–volume, 1487
  - vectorial 3–volume, 1488–1489, 1489f
    - positive and negative sides and senses, 1488
  - differential volume elements, 1489
- wave equations
  - for electromagnetic waves. *See* electromagnetic waves
  - for gravitational waves, 1312, 1322. *See also* gravitational waves
- wave zone, 1327f
- Weyl (curvature) tensor, 1215, 1216
- WIMPs, 1440–1441
- world line, 1155f, 1461, 1471f
- world tube, 1461n, 1480f, 1481
- wormhole, 1480–1481, 1480f
  - as time machine, 1481
  - Schwarzschild, 1276–1277
- zero point energy, 1437–1438, 1446