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Space-time		Line-element	Chapter
Egg geometry	ds^2	$= a^2[(\cos^2 \theta + 4 \sin^2 \theta)d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2]$	2
Ellipsoid	ds^2	$= adx^2 + bdy^2 + cdz^2$	2
Example: Four-dimensional space-time	ds^2	$= -(1 - Ar^2)^2 dt^2 + (1 - Ar^2)^2 dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$	2
A Fifth dimension	ds^2	$= -dx^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 + R^2 d\Omega^2$	2
Flat Minkowsky space-time	ds^2	$= -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$	2
Flat Minkowsky space-time in polar coordinates	ds^2	$= -dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi$	2, 10
Flat space-time in Eddington Finkelstein coordinates	ds^2	$= -dv^2 + 2dvdr + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi$	2
General four-dimensional diagonal metric	ds^2	$= g_{00}dx^0 dx^0 + g_{11}dx^1 dx^1 + g_{22}dx^2 dx^2 + g_{33}dx^3 dx^3$	2
Gödel metric	ds^2	$= \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \left((dt + e^x dz)^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} dz^2 \right)$	2,9
Homogenous closed universe	dS^2	$= \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^2} dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$	2
Kerr Spinning black hole	ds^2	$= \left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) dt^2 + \frac{4amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} dt d\phi - \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta} dr^2 - \Sigma d\theta^2 - \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$	2, 11
North pole	ds^2	$= \left(1 - \frac{y^2}{3a^2}\right) dx^2 + \frac{xy}{3a^2} dx dy + \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3a^2}\right) dy^2$	2
Peanut geometry	ds^2	$= a^2 d\theta^2 + a^2 f^2(\theta) d\phi^2 f(\theta)$	2
Rindler metric	ds^2	$= -X^2 dT^2 + dX^2$	2,3,4,7

Static Weak field	ds^2	$= -\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(x^i)}{c^2}\right)(cdt)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi(x^i)}{c^2}\right)(dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$	2
Three-dimensional flat space in polar coordinates	ds^2	$= dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$	2,7, 13
Two-dimensional flat space in polar coordinates	dS^2	$= dr^2 + r^2 d\phi^2$	2,5

2 The Metric tensor and Vector Transformations.

2.1 ^aProperties

$$g_{ab}g^{bc} = \delta_a^c$$

2.2 ^bThe Time-Signature of a Metric

A metric can have either positive or negative time-signature and we always have to be careful in which signature we are working because it affects various quantities.

2.2.1 ¹Negative Time-Signature

Minkowsky space:

$$ds^2 = \eta_{ab}dx^a dx^b$$

$$\eta_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Geodesics:

$$ds^2 < 0 \text{ geodesics are time-like}$$

$$ds^2 > 0 \text{ geodesics are space-like}$$

$$ds^2 = 0 \text{ null-vector}^2$$

Proper time:

$$d\tau^2 = -ds^2$$

$$\Rightarrow d\tau^2 > 0 \text{ geodesics are time-like}$$

$$d\tau^2 < 0 \text{ geodesics are space-like}$$

The four velocity is time-like

$$u \cdot u = -1$$

2.2.2 ^{3 4}Positive Time-Signature

Minkowsky space:

$$ds^2 = \eta_{ab}dx^a dx^b$$

¹ Often you will see that this is called *positive signature* because this refers to the sum of the diagonal

² About the null-vector I would like to quote Roger Penrose (Penrose, 2004, s. 414): "... unlike the case for a massive particle $\int ds$ is zero for a world line of a photon (so non-coincident point on the world-line can be 'zero distance' apart). This would also be true for any other particle that travels with the speed of light. The time 'experienced' by such a particle would always be zero, no matter how far it travels!"

³ Often you will see that this is called *negative signature* because this refers to the sum of the diagonal

⁴ About the positive time-signature I would like to quote Roger Penrose (Penrose, 2004, s. 413): "... $ds^2 = dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$ is more directly physical, because it is positive along the timelike curves that are the allowable worldliness of massive particles, the integral $\int ds$ being directly interpretable as the actual physical time measured by an ideal clock ..."

$$\eta_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Geodesics:

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 > 0 & \text{ geodesics are time-like} \\ ds^2 < 0 & \text{ geodesics are space-like} \\ ds^2 = 0 & \text{ null-vector} \end{aligned}$$

Proper time:

$$\begin{aligned} d\tau^2 &= ds^2 \\ \Rightarrow d\tau^2 > 0 & \text{ geodesics are time-like} \\ d\tau^2 < 0 & \text{ geodesics are space-like} \end{aligned}$$

The four velocity is time-like

$$u \cdot u = 1$$

⁵It is important to notice that in Special Relativity the sign convention and notation for time-like trajectories is

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

where τ can be interpreted as the local time-coordinate for the moving particle.

2.2.3 Change of sign

What happens to various quantities when a metric g_{ab} changes time-signature.

The metric tensor	g_{ab}	Changes sign
The line element	$ds^2 = g_{ab} dx^a dx^b$	Changes sign
Christoffel symbols	$\Gamma^a_{bc} = \frac{1}{2} g^{ad} \left(\frac{\partial g_{db}}{\partial x^c} + \frac{\partial g_{dc}}{\partial x^b} - \frac{\partial g_{bc}}{\partial x^d} \right)$	No change
	$\Gamma_{abc} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_a g_{bc} + \partial_b g_{ca} - \partial_c g_{ab})$	Changes sign
Riemann tensor	$R^a_{bcd} = \partial_c \Gamma^a_{bd} - \partial_d \Gamma^a_{bc} + \Gamma^e_{bd} \Gamma^a_{ec} - \Gamma^e_{bc} \Gamma^a_{ed}$	No change
	$R_{abcd} \equiv g_{ae} R^e_{bcd}$	Changes sign
Ricci tensor	$R_{ab} = R^c_{acb}$	No change
⁶ Ricci scalar	$R = g^{ab} R_{ab}$	Changes sign
Einstein tensor	$G_{ab} = R_{ab} - \frac{1}{2} g_{ab} R$	No change
Energy tensor	$8\pi G T_{ab} = G_{ab}$	No change
Cosmological constant, Λ	$G_{ab} = R_{ab} - \frac{1}{2} g_{ab} R + g_{ab} \Lambda$	Changes sign

2.3 The physical units of various quantities

Doing the theoretical calculations it is most convenient to work in geometrical units, i.e. $c = G = 1$. But what are the dimensions of the various quantities.

$$\begin{aligned} [g_{ab}] &= 1 \\ [\Gamma^a_{bc}] &= \left[\frac{\partial g_{ab}}{\partial x_i} \right] = \text{length}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

⁵ I recommend the video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cg2tOUE2F4> and it's Q&A

⁶ The Ricci scalar is also referred to as the curvature of the space, where $R > 0$ and $R < 0$ represents positive and negative curvature. But also here you have to be careful because the sign of R depends on the signature. Look at the cover of (Charles Misner, 2017) to see a list of sign conventions.

$$\begin{aligned}
 [R^a_{bcd}] &= [\Gamma^a_{bc}]^2 = \text{length}^{-2} \\
 [R_{ab}] &= [R^a_{bcd}] = \text{length}^{-2} \\
 [R] &= [R^a_{bcd}] = \text{length}^{-2} \\
 [G_{ab}] &= [R^a_{bcd}] = \text{length}^{-2} \\
 [\Lambda] &= [G_{ab}] = \text{length}^{-2} \\
 [T_{ab}] &= \text{energy} * \text{voloume}^{-1} \\
 &= \text{mass} * (\text{length} * \text{time}^{-1})^2 * \text{length}^{-3} = \text{mass} * \text{length}^{-1} * \text{time}^{-2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.4 The conversion factors between length and mass:

Recall

$$\begin{aligned}
 [G] &= m^3 kg^{-1} s^{-2} \\
 [c] &= ms^{-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 [\text{length}] &= [\text{mass}]^a [G]^b [c]^c \\
 \Rightarrow m &= (kg)^a (m^3 kg^{-1} s^{-2})^b (ms^{-1})^c = (kg)^{a-b} (m)^{3b+c} (s)^{-2b-c} \\
 \Rightarrow a - b &= 0 \\
 3b + c &= 1 \\
 -2b - c &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow a &= 1 \\
 b &= 1 \\
 c &= -2 \\
 \Rightarrow \text{length}(m) &= \frac{\text{mass}(kg)G}{c^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.5 The conversion factor between G_{ab} and T_{ab}

We look at

$$\begin{aligned}
 [G_{ab}] &= [c^i G^j T_{ab}] \\
 \Rightarrow \text{length}^{-2} &= (\text{length} * \text{time}^{-1})^i (\text{length}^3 * \text{mass}^{-1} * \text{time}^{-2})^j \text{mass} * \text{length}^{-1} * \text{time}^{-2} \\
 &= \text{length}^{i+3j-1} * \text{time}^{-i-2j-2} * \text{mass}^{-j+1} \\
 \Rightarrow j &= 1 \\
 i &= -4 \\
 \Rightarrow [G_{ab}] &= [c^{-4} G T_{ab}]
 \end{aligned}$$

2.6 A few remarks on geometry

2.6.1 Length in spacetime compared to Euclidian space.

In two-dimensional Euclidian space the distance between two events (x_1, x_2) and (x'_1, x'_2) is defined as

$$|x|^2 = (x'_1 - x_1)^2 + (x'_2 - x_2)^2$$

In a two-dimensional spacetime⁷ the distance between two events (x^t, x^1) and $(x^{t'}, x^{1'})$ is defined as

$$(\Delta s)^2 = -(x^{t'} - x^t)^2 + (x^{1'} - x^1)^2$$

We choose the three points (events)

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= (1, 7) \\
 B &= (4, 10) \\
 C &= (7, 7)
 \end{aligned}$$

And compare the distances between the events in the Euclidian and the two-dimensional spacetime respectively.

⁷ $\eta_{ab} = \begin{Bmatrix} -1 & \\ & 1 \end{Bmatrix}$

Euclidian		Two-dimensional spacetime		
$ AB ^2$	$= (4 - 1)^2 + (10 - 7)^2 = 18$	$(\Delta s_{AB})^2$	$= -(4 - 1)^2 + (10 - 7)^2 = 0$	Null-vector
$ AC ^2$	$= (7 - 1)^2 + (7 - 7)^2 = 36$	$(\Delta s_{AC})^2$	$= -(7 - 1)^2 + (7 - 7)^2 = -36$	Time-like
$ BC ^2$	$= (7 - 4)^2 + (7 - 10)^2 = 18$	$(\Delta s_{BC})^2$	$= -(7 - 4)^2 + (7 - 10)^2 = 0$	Null-vector

2.6.1.1 Change of signature

It is instructive to change the signature⁸ and copy the calculation i.e.

$$(\Delta s)^2 = (x^{t'} - x^t)^2 - (x^{1'} - x^1)^2$$

Euclidian		Two-dimensional spacetime		
$ AB ^2$	$= (4 - 1)^2 + (10 - 7)^2 = 18$	$(\Delta s_{AB})^2$	$= (4 - 1)^2 - (10 - 7)^2 = 0$	Null-vector
$ AC ^2$	$= (7 - 1)^2 + (7 - 7)^2 = 36$	$(\Delta s_{AC})^2$	$= (7 - 1)^2 - (7 - 7)^2 = 36$	Time-like
$ BC ^2$	$= (7 - 4)^2 + (7 - 10)^2 = 18$	$(\Delta s_{BC})^2$	$= (7 - 4)^2 - (7 - 10)^2 = 0$	Null-vector

And notice that

$$\begin{aligned} |AB| + |BC| &> |AC| \\ \Delta s_{AB} + \Delta s_{BC} &< \Delta s_{AC} \end{aligned}$$

So, if we imagine the point ABC is a triangle, the distance along AC is the shortest in the Euclidian space, as we would expect, but in the space-time it is not.

2.6.2 The circle

The circle in the Euclidian plane is described by

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 &= x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \\ x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

The analogy to the circle in the two-dimensional spacetime is

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 &= -t^2 + x^2 \\ t &= r \sinh \theta \\ x &= r \cosh \theta \end{aligned}$$

Introducing hyperbolical geometry

2.7 Flat Minkowski space-time: The space-time of special relativity

Flat Minkowski spacetime is the mathematical setting in which Einstein's special theory of relativity is most conveniently formulated. In Cartesian coordinates with $c = 1$ the line element is

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

and the metric

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 < 0: & \text{ time-like, inside the light cone} \\ ds &= 0: & \text{ null-vector, on the light cone} \\ ds^2 > 0: & \text{ space-like, outside the light cone} \end{aligned}$$

2.7.1 Flat Spacetime in Spherical polar coordinates

The spherical part of the metric can be transformed⁹ into spherical polar coordinates by

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \\ x &= r \sin \theta \cos \phi \\ y &= r \sin \theta \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

⁸ $\eta_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \\ & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

⁹ Notice: No mixing of space and time in this transformation

$$\begin{aligned}
 z &= r \cos \theta \\
 \Rightarrow dx &= \sin \theta \cos \phi dr + r \cos \theta \cos \phi d\theta - r \sin \theta \sin \phi d\phi \\
 dy &= \sin \theta \sin \phi dr + r \cos \theta \sin \phi d\theta + r \sin \theta \cos \phi d\phi \\
 dz &= \cos \theta dr - r \sin \theta d\theta \\
 \Rightarrow dx^2 &= (\sin \theta \cos \phi dr + r \cos \theta \cos \phi d\theta - r \sin \theta \sin \phi d\phi)^2 \\
 &= \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos^2 \phi drd\theta - 2r \sin^2 \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi drd\phi \\
 &\quad + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\theta^2 - 2r^2 \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi d\theta d\phi \\
 &\quad + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\phi^2 \\
 dy^2 &= (\sin \theta \sin \phi dr + r \cos \theta \sin \phi d\theta + r \sin \theta \cos \phi d\phi)^2 \\
 &= \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin^2 \phi drd\theta + 2r \sin^2 \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi drd\phi \\
 &\quad + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\theta^2 + 2r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \cos \phi \sin \phi d\theta d\phi \\
 &\quad + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\phi^2 \\
 dz^2 &= (\cos \theta dr - r \sin \theta d\theta)^2 = \cos^2 \theta dr^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta^2 - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta dr \\
 \Rightarrow ds^2 &= {}^{10} {}^{11} {}^{12} {}^{13} {}^{14} - dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \\
 g_{\mu\nu} &= \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.7.2 ⁸Lorentz Boosts – important features in special relativity

In this chapter we will look at an important transformation that mixes both space and time – Lorentz boosts. Lorentz boosts is a hyperbolic Lorentz transformation¹⁵, which mixes space and time.

We can connect the two systems (t, x, y, z) and (t', x', y', z') with the transformations

$$t' = t \cosh \theta - x \sinh \theta \tag{2.1.}$$

$$x' = -t \sinh \theta + x \cosh \theta \tag{2.2.}$$

$$y' = y \tag{2.3.}$$

$$z' = z \tag{2.4.}$$

Where the parameter θ is the hyperbolic angle which can vary from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$ and is related to the constant relative velocity (v) of the two systems. It can be found if we look at a particle at rest in $x' = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x' = -t \sinh \theta + x \cosh \theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{x}{t} = \frac{\sinh \theta}{\cosh \theta} = \tanh \theta$$

And θ can in this context be treated as a constant, some like to think of it as a rotation between the two systems.

Next we check if ds^2 is conserved

We need

$$dt' = \cosh \theta dt - \sinh \theta dx$$

¹⁰ $= \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos^2 \phi drd\theta - 2r \sin^2 \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi drd\phi + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\theta^2 - 2r^2 \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi d\theta d\phi + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\phi^2 + \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin^2 \phi drd\theta + 2r \sin^2 \theta \sin \phi \cos \phi drd\phi + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\theta^2 + 2r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \cos \phi \sin \phi d\theta d\phi + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\phi^2 + \cos^2 \theta dr^2 - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta drd\theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta^2 =$

¹¹ $= \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos^2 \phi drd\theta + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\phi^2 + \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi dr^2 + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin^2 \phi drd\theta + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi d\phi^2 + \cos^2 \theta dr^2 - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta drd\theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta^2 =$

¹² $= (\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \theta)dr^2 + (2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \cos^2 \phi - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta + 2r \sin \theta \cos \theta \sin^2 \phi)drd\theta + (r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi + r^2 \sin^2 \theta)d\theta^2 + (r^2 \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi)d\phi^2 =$

¹³ $= (\sin^2 \theta (\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) + \cos^2 \theta)dr^2 + (2r \sin \theta \cos \theta (\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta)drd\theta + r^2(\cos^2 \theta (\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) + \sin^2 \theta)d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta (\sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \phi)d\phi^2 =$

¹⁴ $= (\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta)dr^2 + (2r \sin \theta \cos \theta - 2r \cos \theta \sin \theta)drd\theta + r^2(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 =$

¹⁵ Remember that a Lorentz transformation conserves the line element ds^2

$$\begin{aligned}
 dx' &= -\sinh \theta dt + \cosh \theta dx \\
 dy' &= dy \\
 dz' &= dz \\
 dt'^2 &= {}^{16} \cosh^2 \theta dt^2 + \sinh^2 \theta dx^2 - 2 \cosh \theta \sinh \theta dt dx \\
 dx'^2 &= {}^{17} \sinh^2 \theta dt^2 + \cosh^2 \theta dx^2 - 2 \cosh \theta \sinh \theta dt dx \\
 dy'^2 &= dy^2 \\
 dz'^2 &= dz^2 \\
 ds'^2 &= -dt'^2 + dx'^2 + dy'^2 + dz'^2 \\
 &= {}^{18} -(\cosh^2 \theta - \sinh^2 \theta) dt^2 + (\cosh^2 \theta - \sinh^2 \theta) dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \\
 &= -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Finally we rewrite eq. (2.1.), eq. (2.2.), eq. (2.3.) and eq. (2.4.) in the more familiar form, choosing

$$\gamma = {}^{19} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = {}^{20} \cosh \theta$$

$$t' = \gamma(t - vx) = \cosh \theta \left(t - \frac{\sinh \theta}{\cosh \theta} x \right) = t \cosh \theta - x \sinh \theta \quad (2.1.)$$

$$x' = \gamma(x - vt) = \cosh \theta \left(x - \frac{\sinh \theta}{\cosh \theta} t \right) = -t \sinh \theta + x \cosh \theta \quad (2.2.)$$

$$y' = y \quad (2.3.)$$

$$z' = z \quad (2.4.)$$

So by requiring two things: 1) ds^2 has to be conserved, 2) Mixing of space and time, we get the well-known transformation equations in special relativity.

2.8 ^hThe Rindler Space-time

Yet another realization of flat space-time in two dimensions is the line element

$$ds^2 = -X^2 dT^2 + dX^2$$

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{Bmatrix} -X^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{Bmatrix}$$

This can be found from the coordinate transformation

$$\begin{aligned}
 t &= X \sinh(T) \\
 x &= X \cosh(T) \\
 \Rightarrow dt &= X \cosh(T) dT + \sinh(T) dX \\
 dx &= X \sinh(T) dT + \cosh(T) dX \\
 \Rightarrow ds^2 &= -dt^2 + dx^2 = -(\sinh(T) dX + X \cosh(T) dT)^2 + (\cosh(T) dX + X \sinh(T) dT)^2 \\
 &= {}^{21} (\cosh^2(T) - \sinh^2(T)) dX^2 - X^2 (\cosh^2(T) - \sinh^2(T)) dT^2 = dX^2 - X^2 dT^2
 \end{aligned}$$

2.8.1 How to find the coordinate transformation – the Jacobian matrix

The coordinate transformation can be written in terms of the Jacobian matrix

¹⁶ $= (\cosh \theta dt - \sinh \theta dx)^2 =$

¹⁷ $= (-\sinh \theta dt + \cosh \theta dx)^2 =$

¹⁸ $= -(\cosh^2 \theta dt^2 + \sinh^2 \theta dx^2 - 2 \cosh \theta \sinh \theta dt dx) + \sinh^2 \theta dt^2 + \cosh^2 \theta dx^2 - 2 \cosh \theta \sinh \theta dt dx + dy^2 + dz^2 =$

¹⁹ Actually it is $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$ but we choose to work in a frame where $c = 1$

²⁰ $1 - v^2 = 1 - \tanh^2 \theta = 1 - \left(\frac{\sinh \theta}{\cosh \theta} \right)^2 = 1 - \frac{\cosh^2 \theta - 1}{\cosh^2 \theta} = \frac{1}{\cosh^2 \theta}$

²¹ $= -\sinh^2(T) dX^2 - X^2 \cosh^2(T) dT^2 - 2X \sinh(T) \cosh(T) dX dT + \cosh^2(T) dX^2 + X^2 \sinh^2(T) dT^2 + 2X \cosh(T) \sinh(T) dX dT =$

$$\begin{Bmatrix} dt \\ dx \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial t}{\partial T} & \frac{\partial t}{\partial X} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial T} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \end{pmatrix} \begin{Bmatrix} dT \\ dX \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow dt = \frac{\partial t}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial t}{\partial X} dX$$

$$dx = \frac{\partial x}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} dX$$

$$\Rightarrow dt^2 = \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial t}{\partial X} dX \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial T} \right)^2 dT^2 + \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial X} \right)^2 dX^2 + 2 \frac{\partial t}{\partial T} \frac{\partial t}{\partial X} dT dX$$

$$dx^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} dX \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial T} \right)^2 dT^2 + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \right)^2 dX^2 + 2 \frac{\partial x}{\partial T} \frac{\partial x}{\partial X} dT dX$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow ds^2 &= -dt^2 + dx^2 \\ &= \left(\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial T} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial T} \right)^2 \right) dT^2 + \left(\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial X} \right)^2 \right) dX^2 \\ &= -X^2 dT^2 + dX^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow -X^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial T} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial T} \right)^2 \tag{2.5}$$

$$1 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial X} \right)^2 \tag{2.6}$$

If you look at eq. (2.6.) the solution is obviously hyperbolic i.e.

$$\Rightarrow t = X \sinh(T)$$

$$x = X \cosh(T)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow -X^2 &= \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial T} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial T} \right)^2 = (X \sinh(T))^2 - (X \cosh(T))^2 = -X^2 (\cosh^2(T) - \sinh^2(T)) \\ &= -X^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$1 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial X} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial t}{\partial X} \right)^2 = \cosh^2(T) - \sinh^2(T) = 1$$

2.9 Other realizations of the flat space-time

2.9.1 ²²Coordinate transformations

The following line element corresponds to flat space-time

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

with the metric tensor

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find a coordinate transformation that puts the line element in the usual flat space-time form

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

We want to find the matrix, $\Lambda_{ab}^{a'b'}$ that transforms $g_{a'b'}$ into g_{ab}

$$g_{ab} = \Lambda_{ab}^{a'b'} g_{a'b'}$$

We have

$$\Lambda_{ab}^{a'b'} = \Lambda_{ab}^{a'b'} g_{a'b'} g^{a'b'} = g_{ab} g^{a'b'} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

²² Notice: Mixing of space and time in this transformation

$$= {}^{23} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} t &= t' - x' \\ x &= t' \\ y &= y' \\ z &= z' \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} dt &= dt' - dx' \\ dx &= dt' \\ dy &= dy' \\ dz &= dz' \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = -dt^2 + 2dxdt + dy^2 + dz^2 = -(dt' - dx')^2 + 2(dt')(dt' - dx') + dy'^2 + dz'^2$$

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

$$= {}^{24} -dx'^2 + dt'^2 + dy'^2 + dz'^2$$

2.9.2 The Penrose Diagram for Flat Space-time

A Penrose diagram is a method to map the infinite coordinates such as t , with the range $-\infty < t < +\infty$, and r , with the range $0 < r < +\infty$, into to coordinates with finite ranges.

Begin with the flat space-time line element in spherical polar coordinates

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

and replace t and r by the coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} u &= t - r & v &= t + r \\ t &= \frac{1}{2}(u + v) & r &= \frac{1}{2}(u - v) \\ dt &= \frac{1}{2}(du + dv) & dr &= \frac{1}{2}(du - dv) \end{aligned}$$

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

$$= -\left(\frac{1}{2}(du + dv)\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}(du - dv)\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}(u - v)\right)^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

$$= -dudv + \frac{1}{4}(u - v)^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

The (u, v) axes are rotated with respect to the (t, r) axes by 45° . Radial light rays travel on lines of either constant u or constant v . Remember radial light rays has constant θ and ϕ and $ds^2 = 0$, which leaves us with $dudv = 0$.

Make a further transformation of u and v to new coordinates u' and v' .

$$\begin{aligned} u' &= \tan^{-1} u & v' &= \tan^{-1} v \\ u &= \tan u' & v &= \tan v' \\ du &= (1 + \tan^2 u') du' & dv &= (1 + \tan^2 v') dv' \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = -dudv + \frac{1}{4}((u - v))^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

$$= -(1 + \tan^2 u')(1 + \tan^2 v') du' dv' + \frac{1}{4}((\tan u' - \tan v'))^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)$$

Map these coordinates into a (t', r') diagram, where

$$u' = \tan^{-1} u = t' - r' \quad v' = \tan^{-1} v = t' + r'$$

²³ Notice: The transformation matrix is not necessarily symmetric.

²⁴ We check: $g_{ab} = \Lambda_{ab}^{a'b'} g_{a'b'}$ = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Because $\tan^{-1} x$ lies between $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $+\frac{\pi}{2}$ the ranges for (u', v') and (t', r') are finite. This is another example of how the infinite coordinates (t, r) is mapped into a finite region.

2.10 Local inertial frames

A local inertial frame is defined by the conditions

$$\begin{aligned} g'_{\alpha\beta}(x'_P) &= \eta_{\alpha\beta} \\ \left. \frac{\partial g'_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x'^{\gamma}} \right|_{x=x_P} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

This means that if you have a system described by a metric $g_{\alpha\beta}$ it can locally in a point P be transformed into the flat space-time metric $\eta_{\alpha\beta}$. Furthermore the first derivatives of the transformed metric vanish. This is best illustrated by an example.

2.10.1 The metric of a Sphere at the North Pole.

The line element of the geometry of a sphere with radius a is

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

At the north pole $\theta = 0$, and the metric doesn't look like the metric of a flat plane at all. Can we find a coordinate transformation so that

$$\begin{aligned} dS^2 &= dx^2 + dy^2 \\ g_{ij} &= \begin{Bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{Bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

^mThe Riemann normal coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a\theta \cos \phi \\ y &= a\theta \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

At the north pole both x and y are zero.

Next we calculate

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + y^2 &= (a\theta \cos \phi)^2 + (a\theta \sin \phi)^2 = a^2\theta^2(\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) = a^2\theta^2 \\ \Rightarrow \theta &= \frac{1}{a}\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{y}{x} &= \frac{a\theta \sin \phi}{a\theta \cos \phi} = \tan \phi \\ \Rightarrow \phi &= \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) \end{aligned}$$

The differentials

$$\begin{aligned} d\theta &= d\left(\frac{1}{a}\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}\right) = \frac{1}{a} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} (2xdx + 2ydy) \\ &= \frac{1}{a} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} (xdx + ydy) \\ d(\tan \phi) &= d\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) \\ \Rightarrow (1 + \tan^2 \phi)d\phi &= \frac{1}{x} dy - \frac{y}{x^2} dx \\ \Rightarrow \left(1 + \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2\right)d\phi &= \frac{1}{x} dy - \frac{y}{x^2} dx \\ \Rightarrow (x^2 + y^2)d\phi &= xdy - ydx \\ \Rightarrow d\phi &= \frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2 + y^2} \end{aligned}$$

The line element

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= a^2 \left(\left(\frac{1}{a\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} (xdx + ydy) \right)^2 + \sin^2 \theta \left(\frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2+y^2} \right)^2 \right) \\
 &= {}^{25} {}^{26} \left(\frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2} + \frac{y^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right) \right) dx^2 \\
 &\quad + \left(\frac{y^2}{x^2+y^2} + \frac{x^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right) \right) dy^2 \\
 &\quad + 2 \left(\frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} - \frac{xy}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right) \right) dx dy
 \end{aligned}$$

The metric tensor

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_{xx} &= \frac{x^2}{x^2+y^2} + \frac{y^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right) \\
 g_{yy} &= \frac{y^2}{x^2+y^2} + \frac{x^2}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right) \\
 g_{xy} &= g_{yx} = \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} - \frac{xy}{(x^2+y^2)^2} a^2 \sin^2 \left(\frac{1}{a} \sqrt{x^2+y^2} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

If we evaluate these around the north pole where x and y are small²⁷

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_{xx} &= 1 - \frac{y^2}{3a^2} \\
 g_{yy} &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{3a^2} \\
 g_{xy} &= g_{yx} = \frac{xy}{3a^2} \\
 \Rightarrow ds^2 &= \left(1 - \frac{y^2}{3a^2} \right) dx^2 + 2 \frac{xy}{3a^2} dx dy + \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3a^2} \right) dy^2
 \end{aligned}$$

At the north pole i.e. $(x, y) = (0, 0)$

$$g_{\alpha\beta}((x, y) = (0, 0)) = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\gamma} \right|_{(x,y)=(0,0)} = 0$$

We have proved that the sphere is locally flat at the North Pole. Of course, this is true for any set of coordinates on the sphere, because it is simply a matter of rotation.

$${}^{25} = \frac{1}{x^2+y^2} (x^2 dx^2 + y^2 dy^2 + 2xy dx dy) + \left(\frac{a \sin \theta}{x^2+y^2} \right)^2 (x^2 dy^2 + y^2 dx^2 - 2xy dx dy) =$$

$${}^{26} = \frac{1}{x^2+y^2} \left(\left(x^2 + \frac{a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{x^2+y^2} y^2 \right) dx^2 + \left(y^2 + \frac{a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{x^2+y^2} x^2 \right) dy^2 + 2xy \left(1 - \frac{a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{x^2+y^2} \right) dx dy \right) =$$

²⁷ Use wxMaxima <http://maxima.sourceforge.net/> to evaluate the Taylor polynomials to second order:

$$g_{xx}(x,y) := x^2/(x^2+y^2)+a^2*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*y^2/(x^2+y^2)^2;$$

$$g_{yy}(x,y) := y^2/(x^2+y^2)+a^2*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*x^2/(x^2+y^2)^2;$$

$$g_{xy}(x,y) := x*y/(x^2+y^2)-a^2*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*\sin(1/a*\sqrt{x^2+y^2})*x*y/(x^2+y^2)^2;$$

$$\text{taylor}(g_{xx}(x,y),[x,y],[0,0],[2,2]);$$

$$\text{taylor}(g_{yy}(x,y),[x,y],[0,0],[2,2]);$$

$$\text{taylor}(g_{xy}(x,y),[x,y],[0,0],[2,2]);$$

$$g_{xx}(x,y)=1-y^2/(3*a^2)+...$$

$$g_{yy}(x,y)=1-x^2/(3*a^2)+...$$

$$g_{xy}(x,y)=(y*x)/(3*a^2)+...$$

2.11 "Static Weak Field Metric

The line element is predicted by general relativity for small curvatures produced by time-independent weak sources, and it is a good approximation to the curved spacetime geometry produced by the Sun.

$$ds^2 = -\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2}\right)(cdt)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2}\right)(dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)$$

$\Phi(x^i)$ is a function of position satisfying the Newtonian field equation^o $\nabla^2\Phi(\vec{x}) = 4\pi G\mu(\vec{x})$ and assumed to vanish at infinity. For example outside Earth $\Phi(r) = -\frac{GM_{\oplus}}{r}$.

2.11.1 "Rates of Emission and Reception

We look at a system where two light signals are emitted in a system A, described by a world line (ct, x_A) , with a proper time separation $\Delta\tau_A$. We want to predict: what is the proper time separation $\Delta\tau_B$ in a system B, described by a world line (ct, x_B) in a static weak field limit where $\frac{\Phi}{c^2} \ll 1$. This implies $dx = 0$, $\Phi(x^i) = \Phi(x_i, 0, 0) = \Phi_i$ and $d\tau^2 = -\frac{ds^2}{c^2}$. Also notice that because the metric is independent of the coordinate t , Δt is the same in both systems. This leads to

$$\begin{aligned} d\tau_i^2 &= \left(1 + \frac{2\Phi_i}{c^2}\right)(dt)^2 \\ \Rightarrow \Delta\tau_A &= \sqrt{\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi_A}{c^2}\right)} \Delta t \\ \Delta\tau_A &\sim^{28} \left(1 + \frac{\Phi_A}{c^2}\right) \Delta t \\ \Delta\tau_B &\sim \left(1 + \frac{\Phi_B}{c^2}\right) \Delta t \end{aligned}$$

Eliminating Δt we get

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\tau_B &= \frac{\left(1 + \frac{\Phi_B}{c^2}\right)}{\left(1 + \frac{\Phi_A}{c^2}\right)} \Delta\tau_A \sim^{29} \left(1 + \frac{\Phi_B}{c^2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{\Phi_A}{c^2}\right) \Delta\tau_A \\ \Delta\tau_B &\sim \left(1 + \frac{\Phi_B - \Phi_A}{c^2}\right) \Delta\tau_A \end{aligned}$$

which tells us the observed fact, that when the receiver B is at a higher gravitational potential than the emitter A, the signals will be received at a slower rate than they were emitted and vice versa.

2.11.2 "Newton's second equation:

Next we want to look at the motion of a particle in this weak field geometry and show how it leads to Newton's second equation.

^rWe use the Lagrange method of extremal path

First we find the proper time τ_{AB} between two points A and B.

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_{AB} &= \int_A^B d\tau = \int_A^B \left(-\frac{ds^2}{c^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \int_A^B \left(\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2}\right) dt^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2}\right) (dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

²⁸ $\sqrt{1+x} \sim 1 + \frac{1}{2}x$ if $x \ll 1$

²⁹ $\frac{1}{1+x} \sim 1 - x$ if $x \ll 1$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_A^B dt \left(\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} \right) - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} \right) \left(\left(\frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt} \right)^2 \right) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
 &= \int_A^B dt \left(\left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} \right) - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} \right) \vec{v}^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
 &= \int_A^B dt \left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} - \frac{\vec{v}^2}{c^2} + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})\vec{v}^2}{c^4} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \approx^{30} \int_A^B dt \left(1 + \frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} - \frac{\vec{v}^2}{c^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
 &\approx^{31} \int_A^B dt \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} - \frac{\vec{v}^2}{c^2} \right) \right) = \int_A^B dt \left(1 + \left(\frac{\Phi(\vec{x})}{c^2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\vec{v}^2}{c^2} \right) \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

The Lagrange is ($c = 1$)

$$L = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \vec{v}^2 + \Phi(\vec{x}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 + \Phi(\vec{x}))$$

The Lagrange equation

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^i} \right) + \frac{\partial L}{\partial x^i} &= 0 \\
 \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} &= \frac{\partial \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 + \Phi(\vec{x})) \right)}{\partial \dot{x}} = -\dot{x} \\
 \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) &= -\ddot{x} \\
 \frac{\partial L}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \vec{v}^2 + \Phi(\vec{x}) \right)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \Phi(\vec{x})}{\partial x}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow -(-\ddot{x}) + \frac{\partial \Phi(\vec{x})}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \vec{x}}{dt^2} = -\nabla \Phi(\vec{x})$$

Multiplying by m on both sides

$$m \frac{d^2 \vec{x}}{dt^2} = -m \nabla \Phi(\vec{x})$$

We recognize Newton's second equation

$$m \vec{a} = \vec{F}$$

We can interpret this as a particle of mass m moving along a geodesic in a spacetime created by a gravitational field $\Phi(\vec{x})$.

2.12 ⁵A Fifth Dimension?

This is maybe not that relevant in the GR context, but when I came across this curious “back on the envelope” calculation on how to use a some simple space-time calculation including a fifth dimension, I just had to present it here.

To describe the consequences of a fifth dimension we can use the familiar Minkowsky spacetime plus an extra spatial coordinate. We imagine the extra dimension as a small circle with angular coordinate Ω ($0 \leq \Omega \leq 2\pi$) and a fixed radius R

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 + R^2 d\Omega^2$$

³⁰ Emitting elements of higher order

³¹ $\sqrt{1+x} \sim 1 + \frac{1}{2}x$ if $x \ll 1$

$$g_{AB} = \left. \begin{array}{l} = g_{AB} dx^A dx^B \\ \left. \begin{array}{cccc} -1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \\ & & & & R^2 \end{array} \right\} \end{array} \right\}$$

To detect the fifth dimension we can imagine an electromagnetic wave with the five-dimensional wave vector k^A . This wave can be described by

$$\Phi_k(x) \propto \cos(k \cdot x)$$

Where

$$k^A = (k^t, \vec{k}, k^\Omega) = {}^{32}(\omega, \vec{k}, k^\Omega)$$

The wave form implies that the wave has to be periodic in Ω with period 2π i.e.

$$(k_\Omega \cdot x^\Omega) = g_{\Omega\Omega} k^\Omega x^\Omega$$

Now assuming that $x^\Omega = 2\pi$ we find

$$R^2 k^\Omega 2\pi = n \cdot 2\pi$$

$$\Rightarrow k^\Omega = \frac{n}{R^2}$$

As in the four-dimensional case we assume conservation of five-vector i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} k \cdot k &= g_{AB} k^A k^B = -\omega^2 + \vec{k}^2 + R^2 (k^\Omega)^2 = -\omega^2 + \vec{k}^2 + R^2 \left(\frac{n}{R^2}\right)^2 \\ &= -\omega^2 + \vec{k}^2 + \left(\frac{n}{R}\right)^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \omega^2 = \vec{k}^2 + \left(\frac{n}{R}\right)^2$$

If $n = 0$ we are back to the well-known four-dimensional case were

$$E = \hbar\omega = \hbar\vec{k}$$

In order to detect the fifth dimension we need an extra energy of minimum

$$E' \geq \frac{\hbar}{R}$$

If R is of the order of the Planck length^t:

$$l_{Pl} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar G}{c^3}} \approx 1.61 \cdot 10^{-35} m$$

With the corresponding Planck energy^u:

$$E_{Pl} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar c^5}{G}} \approx 1.22 \cdot 10^{19} GeV$$

We can see that the needed energy E' is much larger than any accelerator energy produced today³³, and we will not be able to detect these small extra dimensions with our current technology, should they exist.

2.13 Flat Space

Flat space in Cartesian coordinates

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

Flat space in polar coordinates

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

³² Remember the four-impulse: $p^\alpha = (E, \vec{p}) = (\hbar\omega, \hbar\vec{k}) \Rightarrow k^t = \omega$

³³ The LHC in CERN has reached 13 TeV in summer 2017 - <https://arstechnica.com/science/2017/05/the-lhc-is-starting-another-year-of-high-energy-physics/>

2.13.1 *How to find the coordinate transformation – the Jacobian matrix

The coordinate transformation can be written in terms of the Jacobian matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} dx \\ dy \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} dr \\ d\phi \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow dx = \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} d\phi$$

$$dy = \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} d\phi$$

$$\Rightarrow dx^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} d\phi \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \right)^2 dr^2 + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 d\phi^2 + 2 \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} dr d\phi$$

$$dy^2 = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} dr + \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} d\phi \right)^2 = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \right)^2 dr^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 d\phi^2 + 2 \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} dr d\phi$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow ds^2 &= dx^2 + dy^2 \\ &= \left(\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \right)^2 \right) dr^2 + \left(\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 \right) d\phi^2 + 2 \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \right) dr d\phi \\ &= dr^2 + r^2 d\phi^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \right)^2 \quad (2.7.)$$

$$r^2 = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 \quad (2.8.)$$

$$0 = \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} \frac{\partial x}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} \frac{\partial y}{\partial \phi} \quad (2.9.)$$

If you look at eq. (2.7.) the solution is obviously a trigonometric function i.e.

$$\Rightarrow x = r \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \phi$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = (\cos \phi)^2 + (\sin \phi)^2 = 1 \quad (2.7.)$$

$$r^2 = (-r \sin \phi)^2 + (r \cos \phi)^2 = r^2 \quad (2.8.)$$

$$0 = \cos \phi (-r \sin \phi) + \sin \phi r \cos \phi = 0 \quad (2.9.)$$

2.13.2 *Flat space with a singularity

Look at the line element of the two-dimensional plane in polar coordinates ($\theta = 0$)

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

and make the transformation, for some constant a

$$r = \frac{a^2}{r'}$$

$$\Rightarrow dr = d\left(\frac{a^2}{r'}\right) = -\frac{a^2}{r'^2} dr'$$

$$\Rightarrow dr^2 = \frac{a^4}{r'^4} dr'^2$$

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = \frac{a^4}{r'^4} dr'^2 + \left(\frac{a^2}{r'}\right)^2 d\phi^2 = \frac{a^4}{r'^4} (dr'^2 + r'^2 d\phi^2)$$

This line element blows up at $r' = 0$. Not because something physically interesting happens here, but simply because the coordinate transformation $r = \frac{a^2}{r'}$ has mapped all the points at $r \rightarrow \infty$ into $r' = 0$.

*We can show that that the distance between $r' = 0$ and a point with any finite value of r' is infinite, which corresponds to the distance between some finite value of r and $r \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\int dS = \int_0^{r'} \sqrt{\frac{a^4}{r'^4} (dr'^2 + r'^2 d\phi^2)} = a^2 \int_0^{r'} dr' \sqrt{\frac{1}{r'^4} \left(1 + r'^2 \left(\frac{d\phi}{dr'}\right)^2\right)} = {}^{34}a^2 \int_0^{r'} \frac{1}{r'^2} dr'$$

$$= \left[-\frac{a^2}{r'} \right]_0^{r'} \rightarrow \infty$$

2.13.3 Three-dimensional flat space in spherical coordinates and vector transformation

The line element

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

The metric tensor

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & r^2 & \\ & & r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

If

$$X^a = \left(r, \frac{1}{r \sin \theta}, \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} \right)$$

$$X_a = g_{ab} X^a$$

$$\Rightarrow X_r = g_{rr} X^r = (1)(r) = r$$

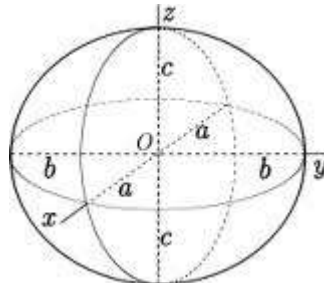
$$X_\theta = g_{\theta\theta} X^\theta = (r^2) \left(\frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \right) = \frac{r}{\sin \theta}$$

$$X_\phi = g_{\phi\phi} X^\phi = (r^2 \sin^2 \theta) \left(\frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} \right) = r^2 \tan^2 \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow X^a = \left(r, \frac{r}{\sin \theta}, r^2 \tan^2 \theta \right)$$

2.14 The line-element and metric of an ellipsoid

The line-element of an ellipsoid in Cartesian coordinates



$$ds^2 = adx^2 + bdy^2 + cdz^2$$

We use the parameterization

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

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

$$z = \cos \theta$$

With $0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$ in the xy -plane and $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ where the z -axis corresponds to $\theta = 0$.

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

$$dy = b(\sin \phi \cos \theta d\theta + \cos \phi \sin \theta d\phi)$$

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

$$dx^2 = a^2(\cos \phi \cos \theta d\theta - \sin \phi \sin \theta d\phi)^2$$

$$= a^2[\cos^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \phi \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 - 2 \cos \phi \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \theta d\theta d\phi]$$

$$dy^2 = b^2[\sin^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta d\theta^2 + \cos^2 \phi \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 + 2 \sin \phi \cos \theta \cos \phi \sin \theta d\theta d\phi]$$

$$dz^2 = c^2 \sin^2 \theta d\theta^2$$

³⁴ $\frac{d\phi}{dr'} = 0$

Collecting the results in terms of $d\theta^2$, $d\phi^2$ and $d\theta d\phi$ we get the line element

$$ds^2 = [\cos^2 \theta (a^2 \cos^2 \phi + b^2 \sin^2 \phi) + c^2 \sin^2 \theta] d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta (a^2 \sin^2 \phi + b^2 \cos^2 \phi) d\phi^2 + 2(b^2 - a^2)(\cos \phi \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \theta) d\theta d\phi$$

and the metric tensor

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta (a^2 \cos^2 \phi + b^2 \sin^2 \phi) + c^2 \sin^2 \theta & (b^2 - a^2)(\cos \phi \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \theta) \\ (b^2 - a^2)(\cos \phi \cos \theta \sin \phi \sin \theta) & \sin^2 \theta (a^2 \sin^2 \phi + b^2 \cos^2 \phi) \end{pmatrix}$$

As a curious observation, you can now calculate the line-element and metric tensor of an idealized egg.

For an idealized egg we can choose $a = b = \frac{1}{2}c$

$$\Rightarrow ds^2 = a^2 [(\cos^2 \theta + 4 \sin^2 \theta) d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2]$$

$$g_{ab} = a^2 \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta + 4 \sin^2 \theta & 0 \\ 0 & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

2.15 Length, Area, Volume and Four-Volume for Diagonal Metrics

For a diagonal metric of the type

$$ds^2 = g_{00} dx^0 dx^0 + g_{11} dx^1 dx^1 + g_{22} dx^2 dx^2 + g_{33} dx^3 dx^3$$

you can define proper length elements in the various coordinates as

$$dl^1 = \sqrt{g_{11}} dx^1$$

$$dl^2 = \sqrt{g_{22}} dx^2$$

$$dl^3 = \sqrt{g_{33}} dx^3$$

The area element

$$dA = dl^1 dl^2 = \sqrt{g_{11} g_{22}} dx^1 dx^2$$

Notice, that it is not always the g_{11} and g_{22} that are involved in the calculation of the area. As we shall see below it can also be the g_{22} and g_{33}

The three-volume element

$$dV = dl^1 dl^2 dl^3 = \sqrt{g_{11} g_{22} g_{33}} dx^1 dx^2 dx^3$$

The four-volume element

$$dv = \sqrt{-g_{00} g_{11} g_{22} g_{33}} dx^0 dx^1 dx^2 dx^3$$

In the case of a non-diagonal metric the four-volume element is

$$dv = \sqrt{-g} d^4x$$

where g is the determinant of the matrix $g_{\alpha\beta}$

2.15.1 Area and Volume Elements of a Sphere

The line element of flat space-time in polar coordinates

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

The proper length elements

$$dl^1 = dr$$

$$dl^2 = r d\theta$$

$$dl^3 = r \sin \theta d\phi$$

The area element

$$dA = dl^2 dl^3 = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

The area

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int dA = \int \int r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = r^2 \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 2\pi r^2 [-\cos \theta]_0^\pi \\ &= 2\pi r^2 (-(-1) - 1) = 4\pi r^2 \end{aligned}$$

The three-volume element

$$dV = dl^1 dl^2 dl^3 = dr dA = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

The three-volume

$$\mathcal{V} = \int d\mathcal{V} = \int \int \int r^2 \sin \theta \, dr d\theta d\phi = \int \int r^2 dr dA = 4\pi \int_0^r r^2 dr = 4\pi \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_0^r = \frac{4\pi}{3} r^3$$

Collection the results

$$A = 4\pi r^2$$

$$\mathcal{V} = \frac{4\pi}{3} r^3$$

We recognize the familiar values.

2.15.2 ^{*}The dimensions of a peanut

The line-element of a peanut geometry is

$$ds^2 = a^2 d\theta^2 + a^2 f^2(\theta) d\phi^2 \quad f(\theta) = \sin \theta \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \sin^2 \theta \right)$$

$$dl^1 = a d\theta$$

$$dl^2 = a f(\theta) d\phi$$

The distance from pole to pole ($\phi = 0$)

$$d = \int dl^1 = \int_0^\pi a d\theta = a\pi$$

The circumference at a constant angle θ

$$C = \int dl^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} a f(\theta) d\phi = a f(\theta) \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 2\pi a f(\theta) = 2\pi a \sin \theta \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \sin^2 \theta \right)$$

At the center or equator $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$C = 2\pi a \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \sin^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right) = 2\pi a \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} a$$

The area of a peanut

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int \int dl^1 dl^2 = a^2 \int_0^\pi f(\theta) d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 2\pi a^2 \int_0^\pi \sin \theta \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \sin^2 \theta \right) d\theta \\ &= 2\pi a^2 \int_0^\pi \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} (1 - \cos^2 \theta) \right) \sin \theta d\theta = -2\pi a^2 \int_1^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} (1 - x^2) \right) dx \\ &= -\frac{\pi}{2} a^2 \int_1^{-1} (1 + 3x^2) dx = -\frac{\pi}{2} a^2 [x + x^3]_1^{-1} = -\frac{\pi}{2} a^2 (-1 - 1 - 1 - 1) = 2\pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

2.15.3 ^âThe dimensions of an egg

The line-element

$$ds^2 = a^2 [(\cos^2 \theta + 4 \sin^2 \theta) d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2]$$

The circumference of the egg at constant θ

$$C(\theta) = \int_0^{2\pi} a \sin \theta d\phi = 2\pi a \sin \theta$$

The distance from pole to pole

$$d_{\text{pole-to-pole}} = \int_0^\pi a \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta + 4 \sin^2 \theta} d\theta = a \int_0^\pi \sqrt{1 + 3 \sin^2 \theta} d\theta = 4,84a = 0,77 * 2\pi a$$

The ratio of the biggest circle around the axis to the pole-to-pole distance is

$$\frac{C(\theta = \frac{\pi}{2})}{d_{\text{pole-to-pole}}} = \frac{2\pi a}{0,77 * 2\pi a} = 1,3$$

The surface area of an egg

$$A = a^2 \int_0^\pi \sin \theta \sqrt{1 + 3 \sin^2 \theta} d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 3,41 * 2\pi a^2$$

2.15.4 Distance, Area, Volume and four-volume of a metric

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= -(1 - Ar^2)^2 dt^2 + (1 - Ar^2)^2 dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2 \\ \Rightarrow dl^0 &= (1 - Ar^2) dt \\ dl^1 &= (1 - Ar^2) dr \\ dl^2 &= r d\theta \\ dl^3 &= r \sin \theta d\phi \end{aligned}$$

The proper distance along a radial line from the center $r = 0$ to a coordinate radius $r = R$

$$l = \int dl^1 = \int_0^R (1 - Ar^2) dr = \left[r - \frac{1}{3} Ar^3 \right]_0^R = R \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} AR^2 \right)$$

The area of a sphere of coordinate radius $r = R$

$$A = \int \int dl^2 dl^3 = R^2 \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi R^2$$

The three-volume of a sphere of coordinate radius $r = R$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{V} &= \int \int \int dl^1 dl^2 dl^3 = \int_0^R r^2 (1 - Ar^2) dr \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 - \frac{1}{5} Ar^5 \right]_0^R \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \left(1 - \frac{3}{5} AR^2 \right) \end{aligned}$$

The four-volume of a four-dimensional tube bounded by a sphere of coordinate radius R and two $t = \text{constant}$ planes separated by a time T

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \int \int \int \int dl^0 dl^1 dl^2 dl^3 = \int_0^T dt \int_0^R r^2 (1 - Ar^2)^2 dr \int_0^\pi \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \\ &= 4\pi T \int_0^R r^2 (1 + A^2 r^4 - 2Ar^2) dr = 4\pi T \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 + \frac{A^2}{7} r^7 - \frac{2A}{5} r^5 \right]_0^R \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{3} TR^3 \left(1 - \frac{6A}{5} R^2 + \frac{3A^2}{7} R^4 \right) \end{aligned}$$

2.15.5 Distance, Area and Volume in the Curved Space of a Constant Density Spherical Star or a Homogenous Closed Universe

The spherical line element is (a is a constant related to the density of matter)

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

The proper length elements

$$\begin{aligned} dl^1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^2}} dr \\ dl^2 &= r d\theta \\ dl^3 &= r \sin \theta d\phi \end{aligned}$$

The circumference around equator where $r = R$ and $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$C = \int dl^3 = \int_0^{2\pi} r \sin \theta d\phi = 2\pi R$$

The distance from the center ($r = 0$) to surface ($r = R$) along a line where $\theta = \text{const.}$ and $\phi = \text{const.}$

$$S = \int dl^1 = \int_0^R \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^2}} dr = \int_0^R \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 - r^2}} dr = {}^{35} a \left[\sin^{-1} \frac{r}{a} \right]_0^R = a \sin^{-1} \frac{R}{a}$$

³⁵ (Spiegel, 1990) (14.237) $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a}$

The area of the two-surface at $r = R$

$$A = \int dA = \int dl^2 \int dl^3 = R^2 \int_0^\pi \sin \theta \, d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi R^2$$

The volume inside $r = R$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{V} &= \int d\mathcal{V} = \int \int \int dl^1 dl^2 dl^3 = \int_0^R \frac{r^2}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r}{a}\right)^2}} dr \int_0^\pi \sin \theta \, d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = 4\pi a \int_0^R \frac{r^2}{\sqrt{a^2 - r^2}} dr \\ &= {}^{36}4\pi a \left[\frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{r}{a} \right) - \frac{r}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - r^2} \right]_0^R = 4\pi a^3 \left[\frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{r}{a} \right) - \frac{r}{2a} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{r}{a} \right)^2} \right]_0^R \\ &= 4\pi a^3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right) - \frac{R}{2a} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^2} \right) \\ &= {}^{37} {}^{38} {}^{39}4\pi a^3 \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{R}{a} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^3 - \frac{R}{a} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^2 \right) \right) = 4\pi a^3 \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^3 \right) \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \end{aligned}$$

Collecting the results:

The circumference around equator where $r = R$ and $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$C = 2\pi R$$

The distance from the center ($r = 0$) to surface ($r = R$) along a line where $\theta = \text{const.}$ and $\phi = \text{const.}$

$$S = a \sin^{-1} \frac{R}{a}$$

The area of the two-surface at $r = R$

$$A = 4\pi R^2$$

The volume inside $r = R$ is

$$\mathcal{V} = 4\pi a^3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{R}{a} \right) - \frac{R}{2a} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{R}{a} \right)^2} \right)$$

2.16 ^{aa} Inverting a metric tensor.

2.16.1 Inverting a Diagonal tensor.

$$g_{ab} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} g_{00} & & \\ & g_{11} & \\ & & g_{22} \\ & & & g_{33} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$|g_{ab}| = g_{00}g_{11}g_{22}g_{33}$$

³⁶ (Spiegel, 1990) (14.239) $\int \frac{x^2 dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = -\frac{x\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a}$

³⁷ (Spiegel, 1990) (20.27) $\sin^{-1} x = x + \frac{1}{2} \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4} \frac{x^5}{5} + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6} \frac{x^7}{7} \dots$

³⁸ (Spiegel, 1990) (20.12) $\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 4}x^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6}x^3 \dots$

³⁹ if $\frac{R}{a} \ll 1$

$$\Rightarrow g^{ab} = \frac{1}{|g_{ab}|} \begin{pmatrix} g_{11}g_{22}g_{33} & & & \\ & g_{00}g_{22}g_{33} & & \\ & & g_{00}g_{11}g_{33} & \\ & & & g_{00}g_{11}g_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{g_{00}} & & & \\ & \frac{1}{g_{11}} & & \\ & & \frac{1}{g_{22}} & \\ & & & \frac{1}{g_{33}} \end{pmatrix}$$

2.16.2 Inverting a non-diagonal two-dimensional tensor.

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|g_{ab}| = g_{11}g_{22} - g_{12}g_{21}$$

$$\Rightarrow g^{ab} = \frac{1}{|g_{ab}|} \begin{pmatrix} g_{22} & -g_{12} \\ -g_{21} & g_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

2.16.2.1 ^{bb}Example

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|g_{ab}| = -x^2 - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow g^{ab} = \frac{-1}{x^2 + 1} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & x^2 \end{pmatrix} = {}^{40} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} & \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} \\ \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} & -x^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

2.16.3 Inverting a non-diagonal four-dimensional tensor.

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{00} & & & g_{03} \\ & g_{11} & & \\ & & g_{22} & \\ g_{30} & & & g_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow g^{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{g_{33}}{g_{00}g_{33} - g_{03}g_{30}} & & & -\frac{g_{03}}{g_{00}g_{33} - g_{03}g_{30}} \\ & \frac{1}{g_{11}} & & \\ & & \frac{1}{g_{22}} & \\ -\frac{g_{30}}{g_{00}g_{33} - g_{03}g_{30}} & & & \frac{g_{00}}{g_{00}g_{33} - g_{03}g_{30}} \end{pmatrix}$$

2.16.4 ^{cc}Example: The Gödel Metric tensor.

$$g_{ab} = \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & e^x \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ e^x & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2}e^{2x} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$g_{00}g_{33} - g_{03}g_{30} = \frac{1}{2}e^{2x} - e^{2x} = -\frac{1}{2}e^{2x}$$

⁴⁰ Checking: $\begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{x^2+1} & \frac{1}{x^2+1} \\ \frac{1}{x^2+1} & -x^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 \frac{1}{x^2+1} + \frac{1}{x^2+1} & x^2 \frac{1}{x^2+1} + \frac{-x^2}{x^2+1} \\ \frac{1}{x^2+1} - \frac{1}{x^2+1} & \frac{1}{x^2+1} + (-1) \frac{-x^2}{x^2+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\Rightarrow g^{ab} = {}_{41}2\omega^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 2e^{-x} \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2e^{-x} & 0 & 0 & -2e^{-2x} \end{pmatrix}$$

2.16.5 ^{4d}The inverse metric of the Kerr Spinning Black Hole

The Kerr metric of a spinning black hole with mass m and angular momentum S .

$$ds^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) dt^2 + \frac{4amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} dt d\phi - \frac{\Sigma}{\Delta} dr^2 - \Sigma d\theta^2 - \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2$$

$$\Delta = r^2 - 2mr + a^2$$

$$\Sigma = r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta = r^2 + a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 \theta = \Delta + 2mr - a^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

$$a = \frac{S}{m}$$

The metric tensor

$$g_{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} \left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) & & & \frac{2amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} \\ & -\frac{\Sigma}{\Delta} & & \\ & & -\Sigma & \\ \frac{2amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} & & & -\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

with the inverse

$$g^{ab} = \begin{pmatrix} g^{tt} & & & g^{t\phi} \\ & -\frac{\Delta}{\Sigma} & & \\ & & -\frac{1}{\Sigma} & \\ g^{\phi t} & & & g^{\phi\phi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\Sigma\Delta} ((r^2 + a^2)^2 - \Delta a^2 \sin^2 \theta) & & & \frac{2amr}{\Sigma\Delta} \\ & \frac{\Delta}{\Sigma} & & \\ & & -\frac{1}{\Sigma} & \\ \frac{2amr}{\Sigma\Delta} & & & -\frac{(\Delta - a^2 \sin^2 \theta)}{\Sigma\Delta \sin^2 \theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

where we can calculate $g^{tt}, g^{t\phi}, g^{\phi\phi}$ from the inverse⁴²

$$g^{ab} = \frac{1}{g_{tt}g_{\phi\phi} - (g_{\phi t})^2} \begin{pmatrix} g_{\phi\phi} & -g_{t\phi} \\ -g_{\phi t} & g_{tt} \end{pmatrix}$$

$${}^{41} \text{Checking: } \frac{1}{2\omega^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & e^x \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ e^x & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2}e^{2x} \end{pmatrix} 2\omega^2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 2e^{-x} \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 2e^{-x} & 0 & 0 & -2e^{-2x} \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 + e^x 2e^{-x} & 0 & 0 & 2e^{-x} + e^x(-2e^{-2x}) \\ 0 & (-1)(-1) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (-1)(-1) & 0 \\ e^x(-1) + \frac{1}{2}e^{2x} 2e^{-x} & 0 & 0 & e^x 2e^{-x} + \frac{1}{2}e^{2x}(-2e^{-2x}) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$${}^{42} \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$$

First we calculate the common factor

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{g_{tt}g_{\phi\phi} - (g_{\phi t})^2} &= \left(-\left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) \sin^2 \theta - \left(\frac{2amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right)^2 \right)^{-1} \\
 &= \left(-\left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) - \left(\frac{2amr}{\Sigma}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= {}^{43} \left(-\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} (r^2 + a^2) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= \left(-\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} a^2 \sin^2 \theta\right) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} (r^2 + a^2) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= {}^{44} \left(-(r^2 + a^2) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} (r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= \left(-(r^2 + a^2) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} \Sigma \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} = (-r^2 + a^2 + 2mr)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we can calculate the inverse metric

$$\begin{aligned}
 g^{tt} &= \frac{g_{\phi\phi}}{g_{tt}g_{\phi\phi} - (g_{\phi t})^2} = -\frac{g_{\phi\phi}}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} = -\frac{-\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) \sin^2 \theta}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Delta} \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} \right) = \frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta} (\Sigma(r^2 + a^2) + 2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta} ((r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta)(r^2 + a^2) + (r^2 + a^2 - \Delta)a^2 \sin^2 \theta) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta} ((r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta)(r^2 + a^2) + (r^2 + a^2)a^2(1 - \cos^2 \theta) - \Delta a^2 \sin^2 \theta) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta} ((r^2 + a^2)^2 - \Delta a^2 \sin^2 \theta) \\
 g^{t\phi} &= -\frac{g_{t\phi}}{g_{tt}g_{\phi\phi} - (g_{\phi t})^2} = \frac{g_{t\phi}}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} = \frac{1}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} \frac{2amr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma} = \frac{2amr}{\Sigma \Delta} \\
 g^{\phi\phi} &= \frac{g_{tt}}{g_{tt}g_{\phi\phi} - (g_{\phi t})^2} = -\frac{g_{tt}}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} = -\frac{1}{\Delta \sin^2 \theta} \left(1 - \frac{2mr}{\Sigma}\right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta \sin^2 \theta} (\Sigma - 2mr) = -\frac{1}{\Sigma \Delta \sin^2 \theta} (\Delta + 2mr - a^2 \sin^2 \theta - 2mr) \\
 &= -\frac{(\Delta - a^2 \sin^2 \theta)}{\Sigma \Delta \sin^2 \theta}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.17 ^{ee}Conformal space-time

Two metrics are conformally related if

$$g'_{ab} = f^2(x)g_{ab}$$

A metric is conformally flat if

$$g_{ab} = f^2(x)\eta_{ab}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 {}^{43} &= \left(-\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2a^2mr \sin^2 \theta}{\Sigma}\right) - \left(\frac{2amr}{\Sigma}\right)^2 \sin^2 \theta \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} = \\
 {}^{44} &= \left(-\left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} a^2 \sin^2 \theta\right) + \frac{2mr}{\Sigma} (r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta + a^2 \sin^2 \theta) \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} =
 \end{aligned}$$

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- ^a (d'Inverno, 1992, p. 82)
- ^b (McMahon, 2006, s. 36)
- ^c (Hartle, 2003, s. 57)
- ^d (Hartle, 2003, s. 58)
- ^e (McMahon, 2006, s. 186)
- ^f (Hartle, 2003, s. 135)
- ^g (Hartle, 2003) pp 66-68
- ^h (McMahon, 2006, s. 84), (Hartle, 2003, s. 143, 165, 184), (Kay, 1988, s. 126)
- ⁱ (Hartle, 2003, s. 164)
- ^j (Hartle, 2003, s. 137)
- ^k (Hartle, 2003, s. 140)
- ^l (Hartle, 2003, s. 141)
- ^m (Hartle, 2003, s. 181)
- ⁿ (Hartle, 2003, s. 126), (Ellis, 1973, p. 118)
- ^o (Hartle, 2003) eq. (3.18)
- ^p (Hartle, 2003, s. 127)
- ^q (Hartle, 2003, s. 128)
- ^r (Hartle, 2003, s. 44)
- ^s (Hartle, 2003, s. 157)
- ^t https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Planck_length
- ^u https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Planck_energy
- ^v (Kay, 1988, s. 126)
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- ^æ (Hartle, 2003, s. 147)
- ^ø (Hartle, 2003, s. 166)
- ^å (Hartle, 2003, s. 29)
- ^{aa} (McMahon, 2006, s. 37)
- ^{bb} (McMahon, 2006, s. 39)
- ^{cc} (McMahon, 2006, s. 326)
- ^{dd} (McMahon, 2006, s. 246)
- ^{ee} (McMahon, 2006, s. 90)