

Today

General Relativity

I last time

II Class vote

III The left hand side

IV What is geometry?

- I • We argued that we cannot treat gravity in the same way as $E \otimes m$ because mass-energy is not additive.

- II • Collecting all forms of mass-energy into a tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$ we guessed that

Einstein's equation should have the form

const. containing G_N

$$[?] = K T^{\mu\nu}$$

what does?

- Reminder our 4th hour will be the 8-9 pm with my office hours Th 9-10 pm and F 10-11am.

A remarkable coincidence

$$\hat{g} \hat{a} = -G \frac{M}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

Inertial mass = gravitational mass

⇒ Nothing about the body determines how it falls under gravity. So,

- III Vote on course topics.

Track 1 (T_1) Black Holes

Track 2 (T_2) Gravity and Waves

Track 3 (T_3) Cosmology

Results: $T_1: T_2: T_3:$

Day 2

Fri 3rd, 2016 P1/5

Grade: Att. 5%, HW 35%, Quiz 5%
In class 25%, Take home 30%

Travel
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III Einstein's answer to the last
question of Sec. I: gravity is
not a force at all, but a feature
of space and time.

The theory of curvature was
developed by Gauss and then
Riemann and is part of
Differential Geometry.

IV What is geometry?

Egyptian Surveyors measured the
land around the Nile. Became
the study of shape, size, position,
and the properties of space.

P2/5
Matter (stress-energy) curves
Space to time was small (test)
particles move on the shortest,
possible lines (geodesics) in
this curved spacetime.
(Generalization of Newton's 1st law)

Then

$$\boxed{? ? ?} = R T^{\alpha \beta}$$

some measure of curvature

Let's discuss two revolutions:

There exists more than
one geometry!

(Lobachevsky, Bolyai, Gauss)

The Egyptians treated Earth as
flat, making errors of order
 $\epsilon = \frac{1\text{cm}}{a} \approx \frac{1\text{cm}}{6,000\text{km}}$ for Earth
 $\epsilon \ll 1$ as it is quite natural
to treat Earth as flat.

Examples from 2D: In the usual Euclidean plane

$$\sum_{\text{Vertices of a triangle}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{interior} \\ \text{angle} \end{array} \right) = \pi$$

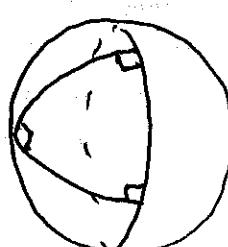
$$= \alpha + \beta + \gamma.$$

and

$$\frac{\text{Circum of circle}}{\text{radius}} = \frac{c}{r} = 2\pi$$

Consider instead the surface of a sphere. How do we even define a triangle?

For example,



$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\text{vertices}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{int.} \\ \text{ang.s} \end{array} \right) &= \frac{3\pi}{2} \\ &= \pi + \frac{1}{8} \left(4\pi \alpha^2 \right) / \alpha^2 = \frac{3\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Note: Easiest way to generate a great circle is to intersect a plane through the sphere's center with the sphere.

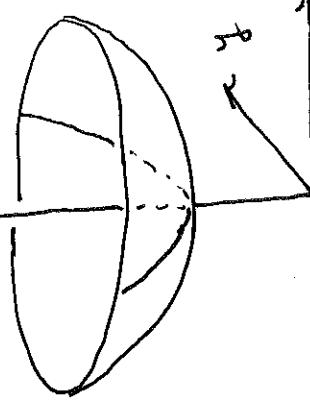
It is a figure consisting of three "straight as possible" sides. Here "straight as possible" is determined by shortest path joining the end points! These are called great circles.

Spherical triangles satisfy

$$\sum_{\text{vertices}} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{int.} \\ \text{angle} \end{array} \right) = \pi + \frac{\text{Area}}{\alpha^2}$$

Another example: Anticipating S.R.,

consider a space w/ coord. (ct, x, y) and the surface



$$\begin{aligned} - (ct)^2 + x^2 + y^2 - z^2 &= -1, \quad ct > 0 \\ \text{or } ct &= + \sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2 - z^2} \end{aligned}$$

This is called the upper sheet of the two-sheeted hyperboloid.

"Straight as possible" lines can again be generated by planes through the origin.

Hyperbolic triangles exist

$$\sum \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{int.} \\ \text{angs} \end{array} \right) = \pi - \frac{\text{Area}}{R^2}$$

↑
roots

Constant radius of curvature of the hyperboloid.

2nd Revolution (Riemann)

Characterize geometry locally and allow variation from point to point

Main approach: Specify inf. dist. between near pts.

$$dS = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}$$

would use integral and differential calculus to build up finite distances, angles, etc.

- Important insight: This allows one

These are just two examples — very special examples in fact, they both have constant curvature — others could include the surface of an egg, peanut, or foot ball.

Already you can probably see how limited our calculational techniques are.

to characterize a geometry intrinsically, that is, without viewing it "from the outside" as a surface in a higher dimensional space.

A surface's extrinsic geometry describes how it sits inside a larger space.

Ex: Euclidean plane. Coords. (x_1, y_1)

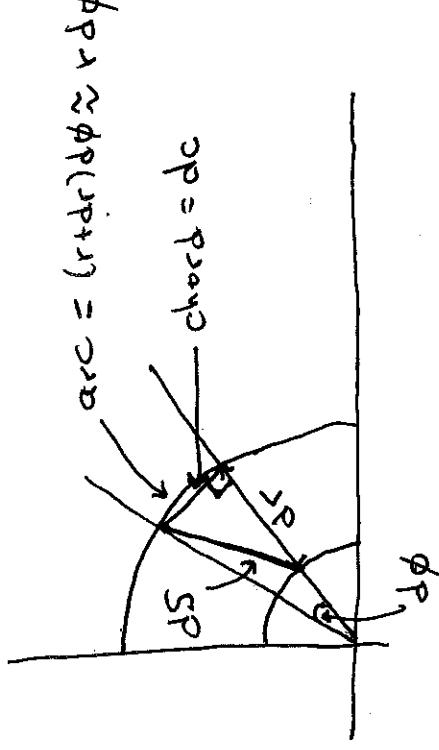
$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2$$

Convention: S^2 for 2D and 3D

Or in coords (r, ϕ)

So,

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



$$\begin{aligned} dS^2 &= dr^2 + dc^2 \\ dc &= 2(r+dr) \sin\left(\frac{d\phi}{2}\right) \\ &\approx 2r \frac{d\phi}{2} + O(dr d\phi, d\phi^2, \dots) \end{aligned}$$

An important check is that you get the same formula for $dS(r, \phi)$ by doing a coordinate transformation of $dS(x, y)$; this is good (!), we don't want our physical results to depend on our choice of coords.