

More Gravitational Radiation

gr 1

Last lecture, we had expanded Einstein's equations in vacuum in fluctuations about flat space. We had identified the Ricci scalar and tensor via appropriate contractions:

$$R_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\sigma \partial_\nu h^\sigma_\mu + \partial_\sigma \partial_\mu h^\sigma_\nu - \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h - \square h_{\mu\nu}) = 0,$$

$$R = \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h^{\mu\nu} - \square h = 0,$$

as demanded by $R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} R = 0$. $h_{\mu\nu}$ is a symmetric, two-index tensor, and as such has (naively) 10 independent components. However, the vast majority of these components are unphysical or not allowed to propagate through time. The Ricci scalar, as a coordinate scalar, is invariant under coordinate transformations and as such there are corresponding transformations on $h_{\mu\nu}$ that can be performed that have no effect on the (physical) Ricci scalar. We had found that we could transform $h_{\mu\nu}$ as

$$h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu, \text{ and nothing changes.}$$

This is a gravitational gauge transformation and it is responsible for eliminating those fluctuations in the direction of momentum (longitudinal modes).

Because the gauge parameter ξ_μ is a four-component object, this reduces the numbers of degrees of freedom of $h_{\mu\nu}$ from 10 to $10 - 4 = 6$. But wait, there's more.

Let's consider individual components of $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$,

in particular when $\mu=0$. ($R_{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric in $\mu \leftrightarrow \nu$, so this is equivalent to $\nu=0$, too.) $R_{\mu\nu}=0$ is then

$$R_{0\nu}=0 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_0 \partial_\nu h^\sigma{}_\sigma + \partial_\sigma \partial_0 h^\sigma{}_\nu - \partial_0 \partial_\nu h - \square h_{0\nu} \right) = 0.$$

We are particularly interested in the $h_{0\nu}$ components of $h_{\mu\nu}$, so we focus on them. First, for the h_{00} component, its equation is:

$$-\partial_0 \partial_0 h_{00} - \partial_0^2 h_{00} - \partial_0^2 \frac{1}{2} (-h_{00} + h_{ii}) - (-\partial_0^2 + \partial_i^2) h_{00} = 0$$

Note that all temporal derivatives explicitly cancel. That is, the "equation of motion" for h_{00} is actually just a constraint equation and does not propagate.

Let's now evaluate the equations of motion for h_{0i} , where i is a spatial index. We find

$$R_{0i}=0 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_j \partial_i h^j{}_\sigma + \partial_0^2 h^\sigma{}_i + \partial_0^2 h_{0i} + \dots \right) = 0$$

The ellipses denote terms with purely spatial derivatives or terms that do not involve the h_{0i} components. Note that

$$\partial_0^2 h^\sigma{}_i = -\partial_0^2 h_{0i}, \text{ and so all temporal}$$

derivatives again cancel! So all components of $h_{\mu\nu}$ of the form $h_{0\nu}$ or $h_{\mu 0}$ are not allowed to propagate through time. Therefore, these four additional components do not propagate and so ~~are~~ have no physical consequences. So, out of our original 10 degrees of freedom of $h_{\mu\nu}$, 4 are

eliminated by gauge transformations and four are eliminated because they do not propagate. Apparently $h_{\mu\nu}$ has only two relevant, physical components. Intriguingly, this is the same number as we found for the photon of electromagnetism...

Let's now solve for these two components of $h_{\mu\nu}$ and interpret them accordingly. First, we need to identify what these two terms are. We know that $h_{\mu 0} = h_{0\mu} = 0$, and we can choose nice gauge parameters ξ_μ to isolate the two interesting components. As the book does, we work in transverse traceless gauge in which

$$h = \eta_{\mu\nu} h^{\mu\nu} = 0, \quad \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} = 0.$$

Under a gauge transformation, these become:

$$h \rightarrow h + 2\partial \cdot \xi \quad \text{and} \quad \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} \rightarrow \partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} + \square \xi^\nu + \partial^\nu \partial \cdot \xi.$$

So, for consistency of the gauge conditions, we must choose ξ_μ such that:

$$\partial \cdot \xi = \square \xi_\mu = 0.$$

This can be done, which we assume in the following.

As we do in E+M, let's look for plane-wave solutions of the equations of motion. Assuming transverse traceless gauge, $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ becomes:

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0 = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\sigma \partial_\nu h^\sigma_\mu + \partial_\sigma \partial_\mu h^\sigma_\nu - \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h - \square h_{\mu\nu}),$$

$$\text{or just that } \square h_{\mu\nu} = 0. \quad (*)$$

This is the wave equation or the Klein-Gordon equation. Let's choose our plane wave to propagate along the $+\hat{z}$ axis. Therefore, for some frequency ω and wave-number k , we can write

$$h_{\mu\nu} = C_{\mu\nu} e^{-i\omega t + ikz}, \text{ where } C_{\mu\nu} \text{ is a two-index}$$

~~object~~ tensor with constant values. Our wave equation is a linear equation, so we can consider general linear combinations of solutions weighted by a function with dependence on ω and k ; that is, we are just considering one Fourier mode of the solution, and one can use superposition to get the general result.

Let's first determine the relationship between ω and k . The wave equation produces

$$\begin{aligned} \square h_{\mu\nu} = 0 &= C_{\mu\nu} (-\partial_t^2 + \partial_z^2) e^{-i\omega t + ikz} \\ &= C_{\mu\nu} (\omega^2 - k^2). \end{aligned}$$

That is, $k = \pm\omega$. As we assume that the propagation is along the $+\hat{z}$ axis, we choose the "+" root. Therefore, the momentum vector of this gravitational disturbance is

$$k = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega), \text{ which is null. We say}$$

therefore that gravitational radiation travels at the speed of light.

Next, let's see what the non-zero components of

$C_{\mu\nu}$ are. Of course, because $h = h_{\mu 0} = h_{0\mu} = 0$, those components of $C_{\mu\nu}$ are also 0. Additionally, by the transverse gauge condition

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu} &= 0 = C^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu e^{-i\omega t + i\omega z} \\ &= C^{0\nu}(-i\omega) + C^{3\nu}(i\omega),\end{aligned}$$

which implies that $C_{3\mu} = 0 = C_{\mu 3}$, as $C_{0\mu}$ is already 0. Therefore, $C_{\mu\nu}$ can be written as:

$$C_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_x & 0 \\ 0 & h_x & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\mu\nu}$$

We'll see why this notation is chosen shortly. This is also indeed a traceless tensor, because $h_+ - h_x = 0$. h_+ and h_x are the remaining two degrees of freedom. These two degrees of freedom are eerily similar to what we found for the photon, A_μ .

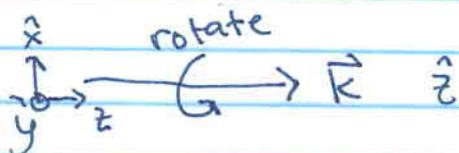
The last thing for today is to understand these two degrees of freedom a bit more. To set the stage, let's do all of this same exercise but for $E \leftrightarrow M$. We'll be quick because the steps are essentially the same. We set the direction of momentum along the $+z$ axis, work in Lorenz gauge, $\partial \cdot A = 0$, and the solutions we find is

$$A_\mu = \epsilon_\mu e^{-i\omega t + i\omega z}$$

ϵ_μ is called the polarization vector, and it only has two non-zero components that are transverse to the momentum:

$$\epsilon_\mu = (0, \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, 0)_\mu.$$

We would like to identify the spin of this object. I'll sketch out how to do this, but a complete analysis requires quantum mechanics, so take particle physics next semester! Consider the momentum vector: $k = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega)$. This is invariant under rotations about the \hat{z} axis:



So, this rotation cannot change any physical quantities; it must be a symmetry. However, this rotation mixes the \hat{x} and \hat{y} components, and so the polarization vector changes. How does it rotate?

The relevant parts of the polarization vector are (ϵ_1, ϵ_2) , a two-component vector. Under a rotation of the xy plane by an angle ϕ , this transforms to

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \\ \epsilon_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_1 \cos \phi - \epsilon_2 \sin \phi \\ \epsilon_1 \sin \phi + \epsilon_2 \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}$$

After a rotation by 2π , this vector goes back to itself. 2π is the smallest rotation of which the vector returns to itself. Because 2π

is the total angle of a circle, the polarization vector rotates " l " times in going around a circle. Thus we say it carries spin- l .

Now, let's do the same exercise for $C_{\mu\nu}$. The action of rotating in the xy plane requires two rotation matrices M , one for each index of C . If we call

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} h_+ & h_x \\ h_x & -h_+ \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then these matrices act to}$$

rotate C as ~~$C \rightarrow M C M^T$~~ $C \rightarrow M C M^T$. Doing the explicit multiplication, we find

$$\begin{aligned} C &\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & -\sin\phi \\ \sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_+ & h_x \\ h_x & -h_+ \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos\phi & \sin\phi \\ -\sin\phi & \cos\phi \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} h_+ \cos 2\phi - h_x \sin 2\phi & h_+ \sin 2\phi + h_x \cos 2\phi \\ h_+ \sin 2\phi + h_x \cos 2\phi & -h_+ \cos 2\phi + h_x \sin 2\phi \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

This clearly returns to itself after only a rotation of π . That is, rotating a gravitational wave around a full circle means that it has actually rotated twice. Thus, we call it a spin-2 object. Indeed, unlike electromagnetism, if you attempt to define a full interacting theory of a spin-2 particle, the unique result is the theory of general relativity.

So, how do we catch these waves? More next time...