

Geodesic equation

$$\frac{d^2 x^\alpha}{d\lambda^2} + \Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\alpha \frac{dx^\beta}{d\lambda} \frac{dx^\gamma}{d\lambda} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_{\beta\gamma}^\alpha &= \frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\delta} (g_{\beta\delta,\gamma} + g_{\gamma\delta,\beta} - g_{\beta\gamma,\delta}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\alpha\delta} (h_{\beta\delta,\gamma} + h_{\gamma\delta,\beta} - h_{\beta\gamma,\delta})\end{aligned}$$

If a light ray is moving only in the x - t plane, then

$$ds^2 = 0 = -dt^2 + (1+h_{11})dx^2$$

$$\text{For given } h_{\alpha\beta}, \quad \Gamma_{00}^\alpha = 0 \quad \therefore \frac{d^2 x^\alpha}{d\lambda^2} = 0$$

Mirrors and base do not move!

$$\text{Along } x\text{-arm, } \Delta t_1 = \sqrt{1+h_{11}} \cdot 2\Delta \text{ where } \Delta = 4 \text{ km}$$

$$y\text{-arm } \Delta t_2 = \sqrt{1-h_{11}} \cdot 2\Delta$$

$$\Delta t_1 - \Delta t_2 = 2\Delta h_{11}$$

Transverse Traceless (TT) gauge

A wave propagating in the $+z$ direction
can be described as $(t-z)$

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_{11}(t-z) & h_{12}(t-z) & 0 \\ 0 & h_{12}(t-z) & -h_{11}(t-z) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Satisfies wave equation $\square h_{\mu\nu} = 0$
- Satisfies Lorentz gauge $h^{\mu\nu}_{,\nu} = 0$
- Is traceless ($\eta^{\alpha\beta} h_{\alpha\beta} = 0$)
- Wave affects $x-y$ plane, transverse to direction of propagation z .

Solution represents ANY (linearized) gravitational wave. Thus gravitational radiation has **TWO** degrees of freedom.

PROOF omitted. Uses gauge freedom to reduce 10 independent quantities ($h_{\mu\nu}$) to 2.

Usually, to make clear that we are in TT gauge, we write

$$h^{\text{TT}}_{\mu\nu}$$

$$\text{Also use } h^{\text{TT}}_+ = h^{\text{TT}}_{11} = -h^{\text{TT}}_{22}; \quad h^{\text{TT}}_X = h^{\text{TT}}_{12}$$

beginning at rest. Both then remain at these coordinate positions, and the proper distance between them is

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta l &= \int |ds^2|^{1/2} = \int |g_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta|^{1/2} \\ &= \int_0^\epsilon |g_{xx}|^{1/2} dx \approx |g_{xx}(x=0)|^{1/2} \epsilon \\ &\approx [1 + \frac{1}{2} h_{xx}^{TT}(x=0)] \epsilon.\end{aligned}\quad (9.24)$$

Now, since h_{xx}^{TT} is not generally zero, the proper distance (as opposed to the coordinate distance) does change with time. This is an illustration of the difference between computing a coordinate-dependent number (the position of a particle) and a coordinate-independent number (the proper distance between two particles). The effect of the wave is unambiguously seen in the coordinate-independent number.

Another approach to the same question involves the equation of geodesic deviation, Eq. (6.87). Between the two particles set up the connecting vector ξ^α . It obeys the equation

$$\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} \xi^\alpha = R^\alpha_{\mu\nu\beta} U^\mu U^\nu \xi^\beta, \quad (9.25)$$

where $\tilde{U} = d\tilde{x}/d\tau$ is the four-velocity of the two particles. In these coordinates the components of $\tilde{U}$ are needed only to lowest (i.e. flat-space) order, since any corrections to U^α that depend on $h_{\mu\nu}$ will give terms second order in $h_{\mu\nu}$ in the above equation (because $R^\alpha_{\mu\nu\beta}$ is already first order in $h_{\mu\nu}$). Therefore $\tilde{U} \rightarrow (1, 0, 0, 0)$ and, initially, $\xi \rightarrow (0, \epsilon, 0, 0)$. Then, to first order in $h_{\mu\nu}$, Eq. (9.25) reduces to

$$\frac{d^2}{d\tau^2} \xi^\alpha = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^\alpha = \epsilon R^\alpha_{00x} = -\epsilon R^\alpha_{0x0}. \quad (9.26)$$

Now, it is a simple matter to use Eq. (8.25) to show that, in the TT gauge,

$$\left. \begin{aligned}R^x_{0x0} &= R_{x0x0} = -\frac{1}{2} h_{xx,00}, \\ R^y_{0x0} &= R_{y0x0} = -\frac{1}{2} h_{xy,00}, \\ R^y_{0y0} &= R_{y0y0} = -\frac{1}{2} h_{yy,00} = -R^x_{0x0},\end{aligned} \right\} \quad (9.27)$$

and all other independent components vanish. This means that two particles initially separated in the x direction have a separation vector which obeys

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^x = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{TT}, \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^y = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{TT}, \quad (9.28a)$$

which is clearly consistent with Eq. (9.24). Similarly, two particles initially

separated by ϵ in the y direction obey

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^y &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{yy}^{TT} = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xx}^{TT}, \\ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \xi^x &= \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h_{xy}^{TT}.\end{aligned}\quad (9.28b)$$

Polarization of gravitational waves. These equations help us describe the polarization of the wave. Consider a ring of particles initially at rest in the x - y plane, as in Fig. 9.1(a). Suppose a wave has $h_{xx}^{TT} \neq 0$, $h_{xy}^{TT} = 0$. Then the particles will be moved (in terms of proper distance relative to the one in the center) in the way shown in Fig. 9.1(b), first in (say), then

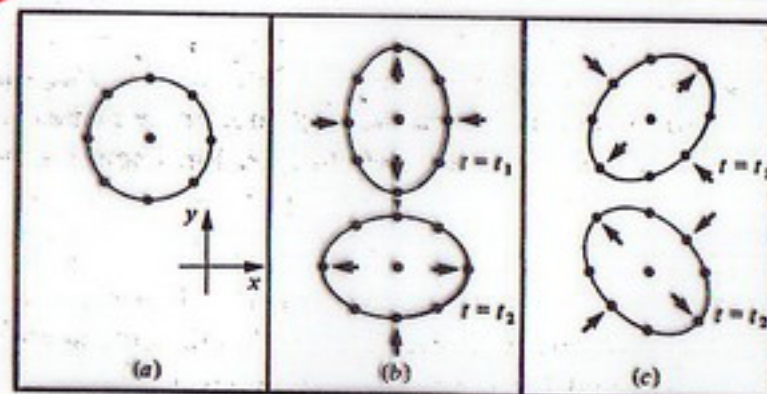


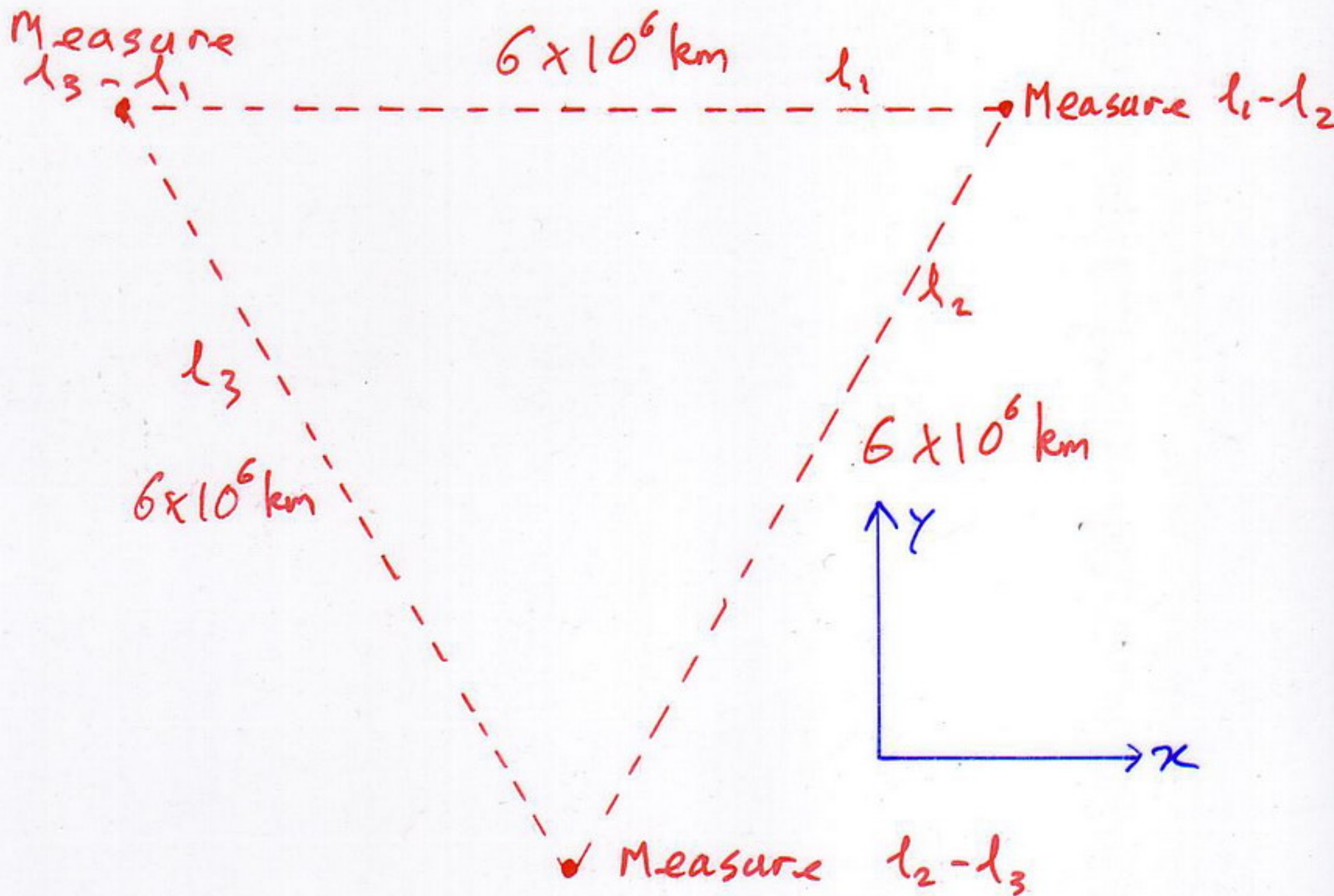
Fig. 9.1 (a) A circle of free particles before a wave travelling in the z direction reaches them. (b) Distortions of the circle produced by a wave with the '+' polarization. The two pictures represent the same wave at phases separated by 180° . Particles are positioned according to their proper distances from one another. (c) As (b) for the 'x' polarization.

out, as the wave oscillates and h_{xx}^{TT} changes sign. If, instead, the wave had $h_{xy}^{TT} \neq 0$ but $h_{xx}^{TT} = h_{yy}^{TT} = 0$, then the picture would distort as in Fig. 9.1(c). Since h_{xy}^{TT} and h_{xx}^{TT} are independent, (b) and (c) provide a pictorial representation for two different linear polarizations. Notice that the two states are simply rotated 45° relative to one another. This contrasts with the two polarization states of an electromagnetic wave, which are 90° to each other. As Exer. 15, § 9.6, shows, this pattern of polarization is due to the fact that gravity is represented by the second-rank symmetric tensor $h_{\mu\nu}$ (By contrast, electromagnetism is represented by the vector potential A^μ of Exer. 11, § 8.6.)

An exact plane wave. Although all waves that we can expect to detect on Earth are so weak that linearized theory ought to describe them very

LISA

3 satellites arranged in equilateral Δ of side 6×10^6 km moving along // geodesics connected by lasers



$$l_2 - l_3 \rightarrow h_{xy}^{TT} = h_x^{TT}$$

$$l_3 - l_1 \rightarrow h_{xx}^{TT} (= -h_{yy}^{TT}) = h_+^{TT}$$

$$l_1 - l_2 \rightarrow \text{consistency check}$$

(In practice, use all 3 measurements and find least squares best fit for h_{xx} , h_{xy} + error estimate)

Generation of gravitational waves:

Quadrupole formula

Start with

$$\square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi T_{\mu\nu} \quad (\text{in Lorentz gauge})$$

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(t, x^i) = 4 \int_V \frac{T_{\mu\nu}(t-R, y^i)}{R} d^3y$$

$$\text{with } R = |x^i - y^i|$$

For $|x^i| = r \gg |y^i|$

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(t, x^i) = \frac{4}{r} \int_V T_{\mu\nu}(t-r, y^i) d^3y$$

$$\text{Use } T^{\mu\nu}_{, \nu} = 0$$

$$T^{\mu\nu} = 0 \text{ on } S = \partial V \text{ so that}$$

$$\int_V T^{\mu k}_{, k} f + T^{\mu k} f_{, k} d^3y = \int_V (T^{\mu k} f)_{, k} d^3y = \oint_S T^{\mu k} f n_k dS = 0$$

where f is any scalar or tensor

$$\bar{h}_{ij}(t, x^i) = \frac{2}{r} I_{ij, 00}(t-r)$$

$$\text{where } I_{ij} = \int_V \rho x_i x_j dV$$

Translation to TT gauge

Define $\bar{I}_{jk} = I_{jk} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{jk} I^m_m$

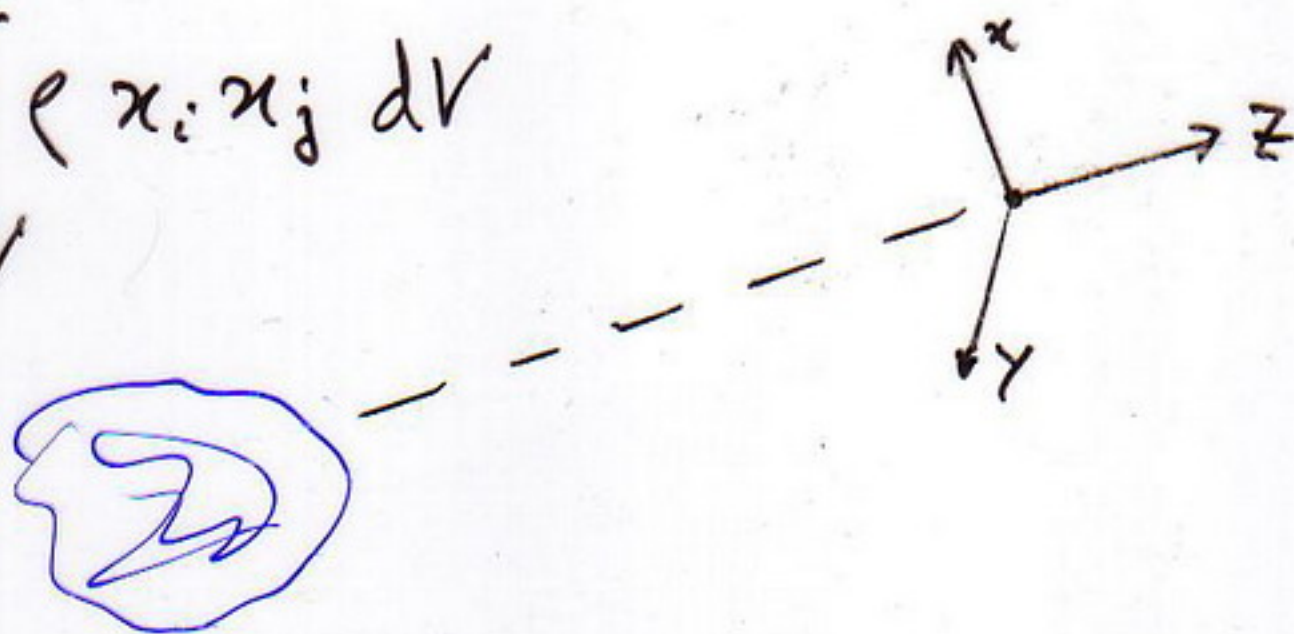
(Trace-free, or reduced, quadrupole moment tensor)

$$h_{xx}^{TT} = -h_{yy}^{TT} = \frac{1}{r} \left[I_{xx,00}(t-r) - I_{yy,00}(t-r) \right]$$

$$h_{xy}^{TT} = \frac{2}{r} I_{xy,00}(t-r)$$

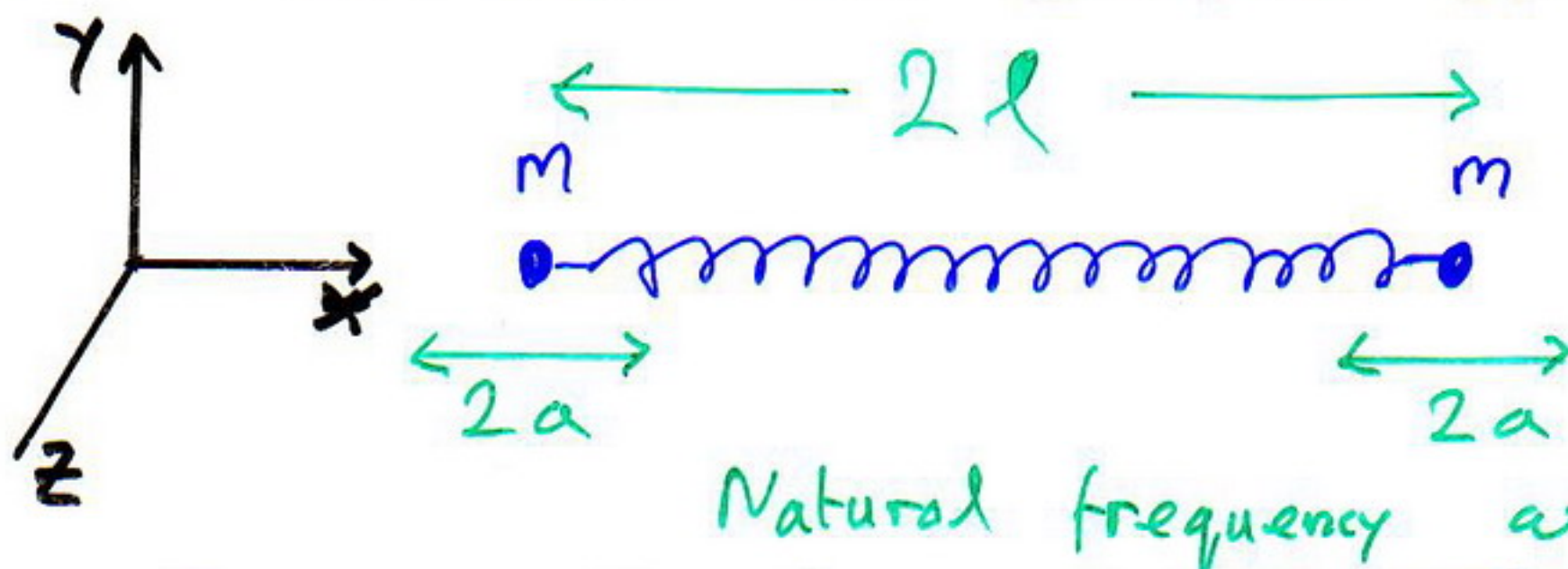
Of course, this is useful only if we are looking at the radiation on the z -axis.

$$I_{ij} = \int_V \rho x_i x_j dV$$



Exercises

- ① Consider an harmonic oscillator



$$I_{xx} = m(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = \text{const.} + ma^2 \cos 2\omega t + 4mla \cos \omega t$$

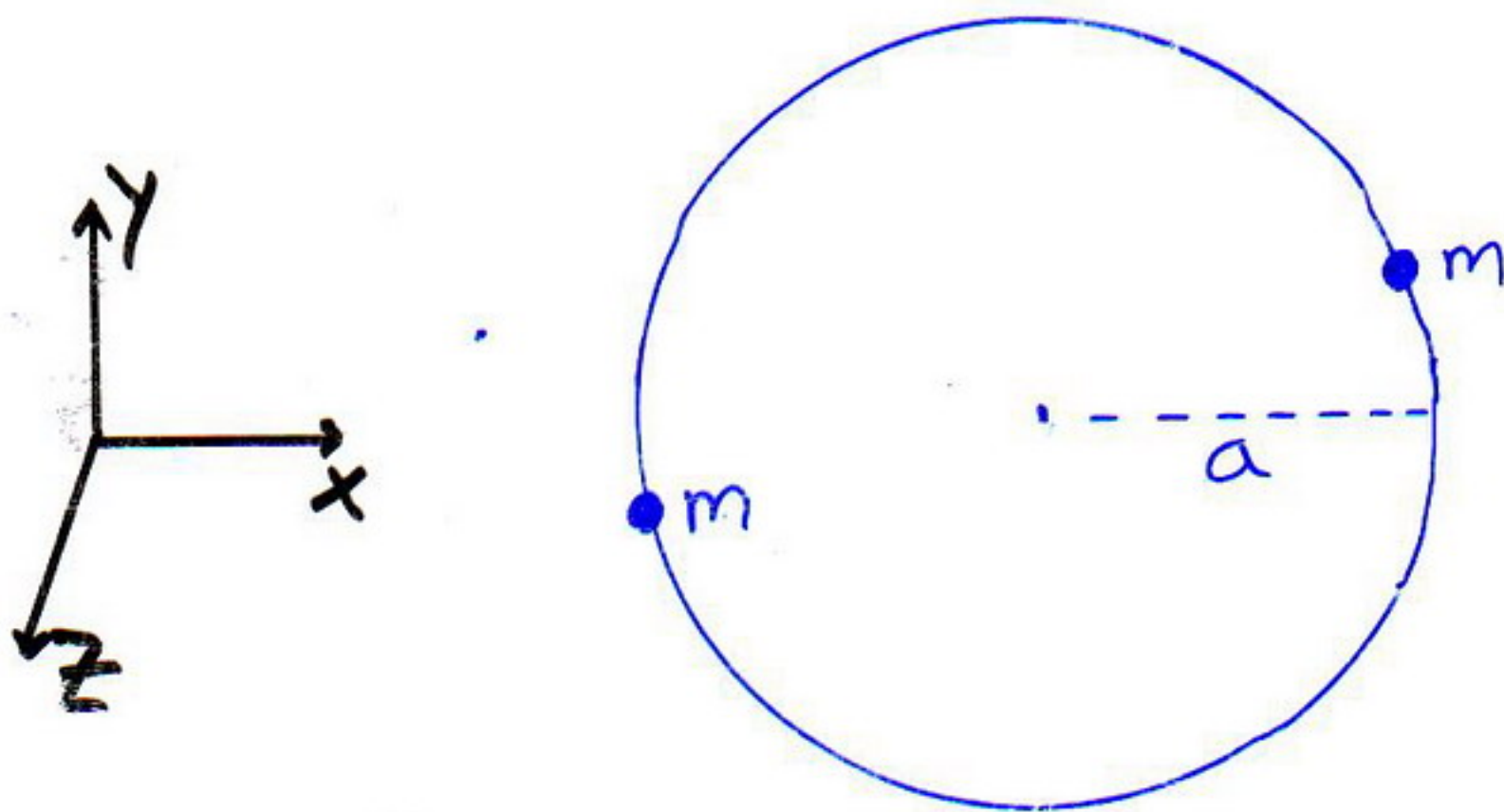
$$I_{xx} = \frac{2}{3} I_{zz}, \quad I_{yy} = I_{zz} = -\frac{1}{3} I_{xx}$$

$$h_{+}^{\text{TT}} = h_{xx}^{\text{TT}} = -h_{yy}^{\text{TT}} = \frac{ma}{r} \left(a e^{2i\omega(t-r)} + 4l e^{i\omega(t-r)} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{ma\omega^2}{r} \left(a e^{2i\omega(t-r)} + 4l e^{i\omega(t-r)} \right), \quad h_{xy}^{\text{TT}} = 0 = h_{xz}^{\text{TT}}$$

On x -axis, $h_{+}^{\text{TT}} = h_{\times}^{\text{TT}} = 0$

- ② Consider two equal mass stars in circular orbit around each other



$$I_{xx} = ma^2 (\cos^2 \omega t + (-\cos \omega t)^2) = 2ma^2 \cos^2 \omega t = ma^2 \cos 2\omega t + C_1$$

$$I_{yy} = -ma^2 \cos 2\omega t + C_2, \quad I_{xy} = ma^2 \sin 2\omega t$$

$$I'_{ij} = C_3, \quad \therefore I_{ij} = I'_{ij} + \text{const.}$$

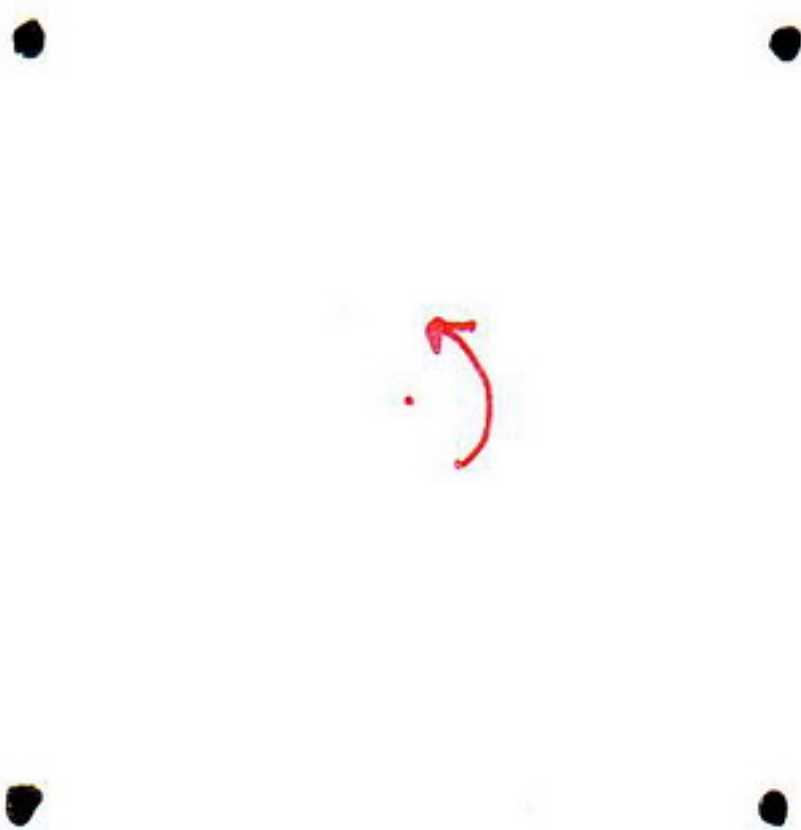
$$h_{+}^{\text{TT}} = -\frac{8ma^2\omega^2}{r} e^{2i\omega(t-r)}, \quad h_{\times}^{\text{TT}} = -\frac{8ima^2\omega^2}{r} e^{2i\omega(t-r)}$$

In the plane of the orbit (wave propagating in z -direction)

$$h_{tt}^{TT} = h_{yy}^{TT} = -h_{zz}^{TT} = \frac{1}{r} (\mathbb{I}_{yy,00} - \mathbb{I}_{zz,00}) = \frac{4ma^2\omega^2}{r} e^{2i\omega(t-r)}$$

$$h_{tx}^{TT} = h_{yz}^{TT} = 0$$

- ③ Four equal mass particles are located at the corners of a square, that rotates uniformly about an axis through its centre and normal to its plane.



$$I_{ij} = \text{constant} \rightarrow h_{tt}^{TT} = h_{xx}^{TT} = 0$$

For weak gravitational fields with slowly moving sources, the quadrupole formula leads to

$$L = \frac{1}{5} \langle \ddot{I}_{ij} \ddot{I}^{ij} \rangle$$

for the energy output (= mass loss) per unit time.

The energy flux in a wave is the T^{03} component of

$$T_{\alpha\beta} = \langle \langle h_{\mu\nu,\alpha}^{\text{TT}} h^{\text{TT}\mu\nu}_{,\beta} \rangle \rangle$$

(assuming propagation in the z -direction)

Particle mass m in circular orbit around
Schwarzschild black hole mass M

$$\text{Orbit period } T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{M}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Energy } E &= m \left(1 - \frac{2M}{a}\right) \left(1 - \frac{3M}{a}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\sim m - \frac{Mm}{2a} \end{aligned}$$

A Schwarzschild black hole that experiences
a small perturbation will radiate with

$$h_{TT} \sim \frac{1}{r} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha_1 t}{M} + i \frac{\alpha_2 t}{M}\right)$$

The lowest mode has $\alpha_1 = 0.0889$,
 $\alpha_2 = 0.373$

Investigate the waveform produced by
the inspiral of a $10 M_\odot$ black hole
into a $10^6 M_\odot$ Schwarzschild black hole
starting at $a = 10 \times 10^6 M_\odot$

Suppose system is at 1 Mpc from detector

$10^6 M_\odot$ black hole moves so slowly about centre of mass that its contribution to I_{ij} is negligible.
So, values are $\frac{1}{2}$ those obtained in Ex. 2

$$I_{xx} = \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \cos 2\omega t + C_1, \quad I_{yy} = -\frac{1}{2} m a^2 \cos 2\omega t + C_2$$

$$I_{xy} = \frac{1}{2} m a^2 \sin 2\omega t + C_3$$

$$\rightarrow L = \frac{32}{5} \frac{m^2 M^3}{a^5} = \frac{32}{5} \times 10^{-15}$$

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3}{M}} = 2\pi \sqrt{10} \cdot 10^7 M_\odot$$

Conversions: $2 \times 10^5 M_\odot \approx 300000 \text{ km} \approx 1 \text{ s}$

so $T \approx 1000 \text{ s}$.

$$\text{Energy emitted per orbit} = LT = \frac{64\pi\sqrt{10}}{5} \times 10^8 \approx 1.27 \times 10^6 M_\odot$$

This energy can only come from orbital decay

$$\frac{dE}{da} \approx \frac{Mm}{2a^2} = 0.5 \times 10^{-7}$$

Thus, orbital decay per orbit is

$$\Delta a = \frac{1.27 \times 10^6}{0.5 \times 10^{-7}} \approx 25.4 M_\odot$$

For orbit to decay from $a = 10.5 \times 10^6 M_\odot$
to $9.5 \times 10^6 M_\odot$ requires $10^6 / 25.4$ orbits
 ≈ 40000 orbits taking $40000T = 4 \times 10^7 \text{ s}$
($\approx 1.3 \text{ years}$)

$$h_{+,x}^{TT} \sim \frac{4ma^2\omega^2}{r}$$

$$m = 10M_\odot \approx 15 \text{ km}, \quad r = 1 \text{ Mpc} \approx 3 \times 10^{19} \text{ km}$$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10} \cdot 10^7}$$

$$h_{+,x}^{TT} \sim 2 \times 10^{-18}$$

E has minimum at $a=6$

$a \leq 6$: No stable circular orbit

$a=6$ is ISCO (Innermost Stable Circular Orbit)

For $a < 6$, plunge towards black hole $10^6 M_\odot$.

Waveform is maximal, and need numerical relativity to calculate it.

Wave signal grows in amplitude, and frequency increases, until plunge and merger phase starts

N.B. - We have applied quadrupole formula outside its domain of applicability ($v, \phi \ll 1$), so these results are only approximate

After merger, apply theory of linear perturbations of a black hole.

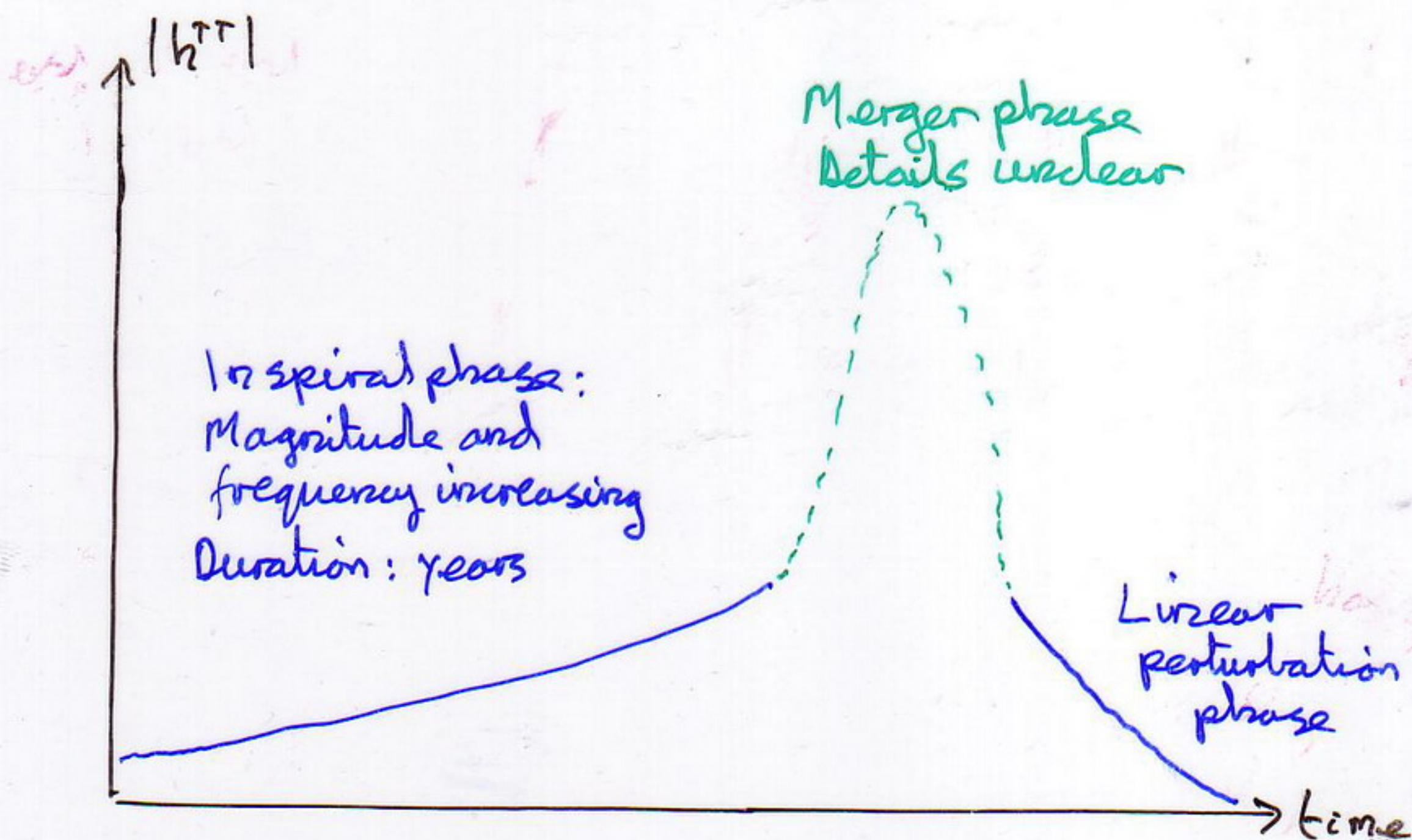
$$\text{Find } h_{+,x}^{\text{TT}} \sim \epsilon \frac{M}{r} \left(\exp(-\frac{\bar{\nu}_1}{M} t) \cdot \exp(i \frac{\bar{\nu}_2}{M} t) \right)$$

where $\epsilon = O(m/M)$

So waveform $\sim O(\frac{m}{r})$ with characteristic

decay time $\frac{M}{\bar{\nu}_1} \approx 1.1 \times 10^7 M_\odot \approx 55s$

period $\frac{2\pi M}{\bar{\nu}_2} \approx 16 \times 10^6 M_\odot \approx 80s$ or 0.012 Hz



Exercise

A gravitational wave detector consists of two arms at right angles in the x - y plane. Each arm is 4 km long, and the detector measures the time difference for a laser beam to travel along each arm and back. Assume that each end of an arm moves on a geodesic. Suppose a gravitational wave with $h_{11} = -h_{22} = \varepsilon \exp(i\omega(t-z))$ (other components zero) meets the detector. What will the detector record?

