

AST1100 Lecture Notes

15 - 16: General Relativity: Basic principles

1 Schwarzschild geometry

The general theory of relativity may be summarized in one equation, the Einstein equation

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi T_{\mu\nu},$$

where $G_{\mu\nu}$ is the Einstein tensor and $T_{\mu\nu}$ is the stress-energy tensor (A tensor is a matrix with particular properties in the same way as a 4-vector is a vector with specific properties). This equation is not a part of this course as tensor mathematics and linear algebra, not required for taking this course, are needed to understand it. I present it here anyway as it illustrates the basic principle of general relativity: The stress-energy tensor on the right hand side contains the energy content of spacetime, the Einstein tensor on the left hand side specifies the geometry of spacetime. Thus, general relativity says that the energy content in spacetime specifies its geometry.

What do we mean by geometry of spacetime?: We have already seen two examples of such geometries, Euclidean geometry and Lorentz geometry. We have also seen that the geometry is specified by the spacetime interval (also called *line element*) Δs which tells us how distances are measured. Thus, by inserting the energy content as a function of spacetime coordinates on the right side, the left side gives us an expression for Δs , i.e. how to measure distances in spacetime in the presence of mass/energy. Thus, in the presence of a mass, for instance like the Earth, the geometry of spacetime is no longer Lorentz geometry and the laws of special relativity are no longer valid. This should be obvious: Special relativity tells us that a particle should follow a straight line in spacetime, i.e. a path with constant velocity. This is clearly not the case on Earth, objects do not keep a constant velocity, they accelerate with the gravitational acceleration.

You might object here: Special relativity says that a particle continues with constant velocity if it is not influenced by external forces, but here the

force of gravity is at play. The answer to this objection is given by a very important concept of general relativity: **Gravity is not a force**. What we experience as 'the force of gravity' is simply a result of the spacetime geometry in the vicinity of masses. The principle of maximal aging (go back and repeat it now!) tells us that a particle which is not influenced by external forces follows the longest path in spacetime, i.e. the path which gives the largest possible proper time. An object falls to the ground because the geometry of spacetime around a large mass like Earth is such, that when the object follows the path with the longest possible path length Δs , it falls to the ground. It does not continue in a straight line with constant velocity as it would in a spacetime with Lorentz geometry.

Few years after Einstein published the general theory of relativity, Karl Schwarzschild found a general solution to the Einstein equation for the geometry around an isolated spherically symmetric body. This is one of the very few analytic solutions to the Einstein equation that exists. Thus, the Schwarzschild solution is valid around a lonely star, planet or a black hole. The spacetime geometry resulting from this solution is called Schwarzschild geometry and is described by the Schwarzschild line element

$$\Delta s^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \Delta t^2 - \frac{\Delta r^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)} - r^2 \Delta \phi^2. \quad (1)$$

There are two things to note in this equation. First, we are using polar coordinates (r, ϕ) instead of Cartesian coordinates (x, y) . This is a natural choice for a situation with a well defined center. These are not three dimensional coordinates: Symmetry allows us to describe the geometry on **any** plane passing through the center of the central massive body. Given two events with spacetime distance Δs as well as the position of the central mass, we have three points in space which define a plane on which we define the polar coordinates. Thus, the r coordinate is a 'distance' from the center, we will later come back to how we measure this distance. The ϕ coordinate is the normal ϕ angle used in polar coordinates. The line element for Lorentz geometry in polar coordinates can similarly be written as

$$\Delta s^2 = \Delta t^2 - \Delta x^2 = \Delta t^2 - \Delta r^2 - r^2 \Delta \phi^2.$$

The second thing to note in the equation for the Schwarzschild line element is the term $1 + 2M/r$. Here M/r must be dimensionless since it

is added to a number. But we know that mass is measured in kilograms and distances in meters, so how can this term be dimensionless? Actually, there should have been a G/c^2 here, $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{m}^3/\text{kg}/\text{s}^2$ being the gravitational constant and $c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{m}/\text{s}$ being the speed of light. We have that

$$\frac{G}{c^2} = 7.42 \times 10^{-28} \text{m}/\text{kg}. \quad (2)$$

Since M/r has units kg/m , G/c^2 is clearly the constant which is missing here. We are now used to measure time intervals in units of meters. If we now decide to also measure mass in units of meters, equation (2) gives us a natural conversion factor

$$\frac{M_{\text{m}}}{M_{\text{kg}}} = \frac{G}{c^2},$$

where M_{m} is mass measured in meters and M_{kg} is mass measured in kg. Thus we have that

$$1 \text{kg} = 7.42 \times 10^{-28} \text{m}.$$

The equation gives us a conversion formula from kg to m. We see that measuring mass in meters equals setting $G/c^2 = 1$ everywhere in the formulas. This is equal to what happened when we decided to measure time in meters, we could set $c = 1$ everywhere. The reason for measuring mass in meters is pure laziness, it means that we don't need to write this factor all the time when doing calculations. Thus instead of writing $1 - 2M_{\text{kg}}G/(rc^2)$ we write $1 - 2M/r$ where M is now mass measured in meters. All the physics is captured in the last expression, we have just got rid of a constant. From now on, all masses will be measured in units of meters and when we have the final answer we convert to normal units by multiplying or dividing by the necessary factors of G/c^2 and c in order to obtain the units that we wish.

2 The inertial frame

In the lectures on special relativity we defined inertial frames, or free-float frames, to be frames which are not accelerated, frames moving with constant velocity on which no external forces are acting. We can give a more general definition in the following way: To test if the room where you are sitting at the moment is an inertial frame, take an object, leave it at rest with zero velocity. If the object stays at rest with zero velocity, you are in an inertial frame. If you give the object a velocity v and the object continues in a

straight line with velocity v , you are in an inertial frame. Clearly, a frame (a room) which is not accelerated on which no external forces work is an inertial frame according to this definition. But are there other examples? In general relativity we use the notion of a *local inertial frame*, i.e. limited regions of spacetime which are inertial frames. An example of such a local inertial frame is a space craft in orbit around the Earth. Another example is an elevator for which all cables have broken so that it is freely falling. All freely falling frames can be local inertial frames. How do we now that? If an astronaut in the orbiting space craft takes an object and leaves it with zero velocity, it stays with zero velocity. This is why the astronaut's experience weightlessness. If a person in a freely falling elevator takes an object and leaves it at rest, it stays at rest. Also the person in the elevator experiences weightlessness. Thus, they are both, within certain limits, in an inertial frame even though they are both accelerated. Note that an observer standing on the surface of Earth is in a local inertial frame for a very short period of time: If an observer on Earth leaves an object at rest, it will start falling, it will not stay at rest: An observer at the surface of Earth is not in a local inertial frame unless the time interval considered is so short that the effect of the gravitational acceleration is not measurable. The only thing that keeps the observer on the surface of the Earth from being in a local inertial frame is the ground which exerts an upward force on the observer. If suddenly a hole in the ground opens below him and he starts freely falling, he suddenly finds himself in an inertial frame with less strict time limits.

We now need to find out which limitations this inertial frame has. Local means that the inertial frame is limited in space and time, but we need to define these limits. In figure 1 we see two falling boxes, box A falling in the horizontal position, box B falling in the vertical position. Since the gravitational acceleration is directed towards the center of the Earth, two objects at rest at either side of box A will start moving towards the center of the box due to the direction of the acceleration. The shorter we make the box, the smaller this motion is. If we make the box so short that we cannot measure the horizontal motion of the objects, we say that the box is a local inertial frame. The same argument goes for time: If we wait long enough, we will eventually observe that the two objects have moved. The inertial frame is limited in time by the time it takes until the motion of the two objects can be measured. Similarly for box B: The object which is closer to the Earth will experience a stronger gravitational force than the object in the other end of the box. Thus, if the box is long enough, an observer in the box will observe

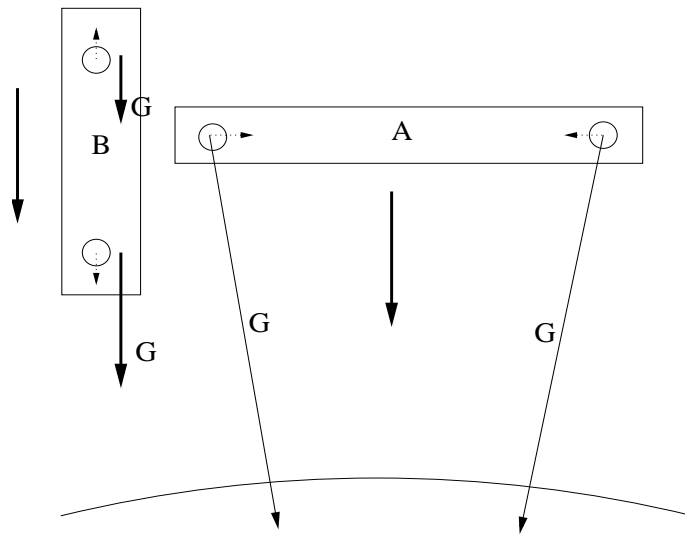


Figure 1: Two boxes in free fall: If they are large enough in either direction, the objects at rest inside the boxes will start moving. A local inertial frame needs to be small enough in space and time such that this motion cannot be measured.

the two objects to move away from each other. This is just the normal tidal forces: The gravitational attraction of the moon makes the oceans on either side of the Earth to move away from each other: we get high tides. But if the box is small enough, the difference in the gravitational acceleration is so small that the motion of the objects cannot be measured. Again, it is a question of time before a motion will be measured: The local inertial frame is limited in time. We have thus seen that a local inertial frame can be found if we define the frame so small in space and time that the gravitational acceleration within the frame (in space and time) is constant. In these frames, within the limited spatial extent and limited duration in time, an object which is left at rest will remain at rest in that frame. The stronger the gravitational field and the larger the variations in the gravitational field, the smaller in space and time we need to define our local inertial frame.

We have learned from special relativity that an inertial frame has Lorentz geometry. Within the local inertial frame, spacetime intervals are measured according to $\Delta s^2 = \Delta t^2 - \Delta x^2$ and the laws of special relativity are all valid within the limits of this frame. In general relativity, we can view spacetime around a massive object as being an infinite set of local inertial frames. When performing experiments within these limited frames, special relativity is all we need. When studying events taking place so far apart in space and time that they do not fit into one such local inertial frame, general relativity is needed. This is why only special relativity is needed for particle physicists making experiments in particle accelerators. The particle collisions take place in such a short time that the gravitational acceleration may be neglected: They take place in a local inertial frame.

We will now call spacetime where Lorentz geometry is valid for *flat spacetime*. This is because Lorentz geometry is similar to Euclidean geometry on a flat surface (except for a minus sign). We know that a curved surface, like the surface of the sphere, has spherical geometry not Euclidean geometry. In the same way, Schwarzschild geometry represents *curved spacetime*, the rules of Lorentz geometry are not valid and Schwarzschild geometry needs to be used. We say that the presence of matter curves spacetime. Far away from all massive bodies, spacetime is flat and special relativity is valid.

We can take the analogy even further: Since the surface of a sphere has spherical and not Euclidean geometry, the rules of Euclidean geometry may not be used. But if we focus on a very small part of the surface of a sphere, the surface looks almost flat and Euclidean geometry is a very good approximation. The surface of the Earth is curved and therefore has spherical

geometry, but since a house is very small compared to the full surface of the Earth, the surface of the Earth appears to us to have flat geometry within the house. We use Euclidean geometry when measuring the area of the house. The same is the case for the curved space: Since spacetime is curved around a massive object, we need to use Schwarzschild geometry. But if we only study events which are within a small area in spacetime, spacetime looks flat and Lorentz geometry is a good approximation.

3 Three observers

In the lectures on general relativity we will use three observers, *the far-away observer*, *the shell observer* and *the freely falling observer*. We will also assume that the central massive body is a black hole. A black hole is the simplest possible macroscopic object in universe: it can be described by three parameters, mass, angular momentum and charge. Any black holes which have the same values for these three parameters are identical in the same way as two electrons are identical. A black hole is a region in space where the gravitational acceleration is so high that not even light can escape from it. A black hole can arise for instance when a massive star is dying: A star is balanced by two forces, the forces of gravity (which we no longer call forces) trying to pull the star together and the gas/radiation pressure trying to make the star expand. When all fuel in the stellar core is exhausted, the forces of pressure are not strong enough to withstand the forces of gravity and the star collapses. No forces can stop the star from shrinking to an infinitely small point. The gravitational acceleration just outside this point is so large that even light that tries to escape will fall back. The escape velocity is larger than the speed of light. This is a black hole. Note that the Schwarzschild line element becomes singular at $r = 2M$. This radius is called the *Schwarzschild radius* or *the horizon*. This is the 'point of no return', any object (or light) which comes inside this horizon cannot get out. At any point before the horizon a spaceship with strong engines could still escape. But after it has entered, no information can be transferred out of the horizon.

The **far-away observer** is situated in a region far from the central black hole where spacetime is flat. He does not observe any events directly, but gets information about time and position of events from clocks situated everywhere around the black hole. **The shell observers** live on the surface

of shells constructed around the black hole. Also a spaceship which uses its engines to stay at rest at a fixed radius r could serve as a shell observer. The shell observers experience the gravitational attraction. When they leave an object at rest it falls to the surface of the shell.

There is one more observer which we already discussed in the previous section. This is the **freely falling observer**. The freely falling observer carries with him a wristwatch and registers the position and personal wristwatch time of events. The freely falling observer is living in a local inertial frame with flat spacetime. Thus for events taking place within short time intervals and short distances in space, the freely falling observer uses Lorentz geometry to make calculations.

4 The time and position coordinates for the three observers

Each of the observers have their own set of measures of time and space. The far away observer uses Schwarzschild coordinates (r, t) and shell observers use shell coordinates $(r_{\text{shell}}, t_{\text{shell}})$. For the freely falling observers, we will be viewing all events from the origin in his frame of reference (and we will therefore not need a position coordinate since it will always be zero) using his wristwatch time which will then always be the proper time τ . We will now discuss these different coordinate systems and how they are defined.

When the shell observer wants to measure his position r from the center of the black hole, he runs into problems: When he tries to lower a meter stick down to the center of the hole to measure r , the stick just disappears behind the horizon. He needs to find other means to measure his radial position. What he does is to measure the circumference of his shell. In Euclidean geometry, we know that the circumference of a circle is just $2\pi r$. So the shell observer measures the circumference of the shell and divides by 2π to obtain his coordinate r . In a non-Euclidean geometry, the radius measured this way does not correspond to the radius measured inwards. We **define** the *Schwarzschild coordinate* r in this way.

$$r = \frac{\text{circumference}}{2\pi}$$

The r in the expression for the Schwarzschild line element is the Schwarzschild coordinate r . Now the shell observers at shell r lower a stick to the shell

observers at shell r' . The length of the stick is Δr_{shell} . They compare this to the difference in Schwarzschild coordinate $r - r'$ and find that $\Delta r_{\text{shell}} \neq \Delta r = r - r'$. This is what we anticipated, in Euclidean geometry these need to be equal, in Schwarzschild geometry they are not. We have obtained a second way to measure the radial distances between shells using shell distances Δr_{shell} (note that since the absolute shell coordinate r_{shell} cannot be measured it is meaningless, only relative shell coordinate differences Δr_{shell} between shells can be measured (did you understand why?)).

We have obtained two different measures of radial distances,

- the Schwarzschild coordinate r defined by the circumference of the shell. The far-away observer uses Schwarzschild coordinates to measure distances.
- the shell distances Δr_{shell} found by physical measurements between shells. This is the distance which the shell observers can measure directly with meter sticks and is therefore the most natural measure for these observers.

What about time coordinates? Again we have two measures of time,

- The far-away observer uses *far-away time* t to measure time. This is the time t entering in the Schwarzschild line element. Far away time for an event is measured on a clock which has been synchronized with the clock of the far-away observer and which is located at the same location as the event (we will later describe how events can be timed which such clocks in practice).
- The shell observer uses local shell time t_{shell} : it is simply the wristwatch time of the shell observer, the time measured on a clock at rest at the specified shell. Note that shell observers at different shells may measure different times intervals Δt_{shell} and distances Δr_{shell} between two events depending on which shell they live on. Shell coordinates are local coordinates.

In order to relate time and space coordinates in the different frames we will now (as we did in special relativity) use the invariance of the space time interval (or line element) Δs . First we will find a relation between the more abstract far away-time t and the locally measurable shell time t_{shell} . The shell time is the wristwatch time, or proper time τ of the shell observers. We will

use two events A and B which are two ticks on the clock of a shell observer. The shell observers are at rest at shell r , so $\Delta r_{AB} = 0$ and $\Delta \phi_{AB} = 0$. Inserting this into the Schwarzschild line element (equation 1) using that $\Delta s_{AB} = \Delta \tau_{AB} = \Delta t_{\text{shell}}$ (the time period between A and B measured on shell clocks is by definition the same as the proper time period between A and B which we have learned is always equal to the invariant four dimensional line element between these events)

$$\Delta t_{\text{shell}} = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)} \Delta t. \quad (3)$$

(Are you sure you see how this expression comes about?) For shell observers outside the horizon ($r > 2M$), the local time goes slower by a factor $\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}$ with respect to the far-away time. We also see that the smaller the distance r from the center, the slower the shell clock with respect to the far-away time. Thus, the further down we live in a gravitational field, the slower the clocks run. This has consequences for people living on Earth: Our clocks tick slower than the clocks in satellites in orbit around Earth. At the end of this lecture, we will look closer at this fact.

We have now found a relation between time intervals measured on shell clocks and time intervals measured on clocks synchronized with far-away clocks. How is the relation between distances measured with Schwarzschild coordinates and distances measured directly by shell observers? We can measure the length of a stick as the spatial distance between two events taking place at the same time at either end of the stick (see figure 2). For events taking place within short time intervals and short spatial extensions, the shell observer sees flat spacetime and can therefore use Lorentz geometry: $\Delta s_{\text{shell}}^2 = \Delta t_{\text{shell}}^2 - \Delta r_{\text{shell}}^2$ (we assumed the events to take place at the same ϕ coordinate). The far-away observer always needs to use the Schwarzschild line element (equation 1) instead of the Lorentz line element. Using invariance of the line element we have for two events A and B ($\Delta s_{\text{shell}}(AB) = \Delta s(AB)$) taking place simultaneously on either side of the stick

$$\Delta t_{\text{shell}}^2 - \Delta r_{\text{shell}}^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \Delta t^2 - \frac{\Delta r^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)},$$

where we have set $\Delta \phi = 0$. Check that you understand how to arrive at this expression. Now, we measure the length Δr of a stick in the radial direction

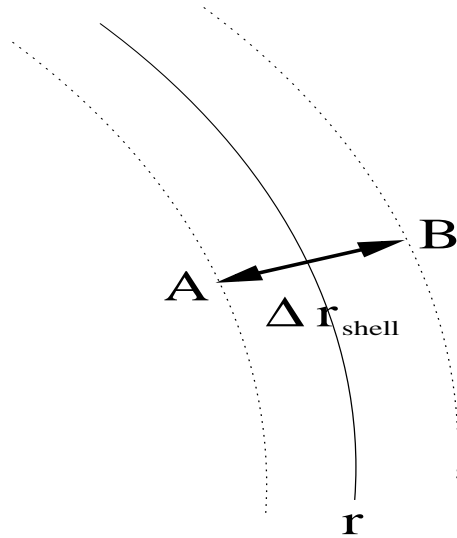


Figure 2: The shell observer at shell r measure the proper length of a stick by two simultaneous events A and B on either side of the stick.

by measuring the distance between the two simultaneous events A and B taking place at either end of the stick at spatial distance Δr . Since events which are simultaneous for shell observers at a given shell r also are simultaneous for the far-away observer (equation 3), $\Delta t_{\text{shell}} = \Delta t = 0$. Inserting this, we get

$$\Delta r_{\text{shell}} = \frac{\Delta r}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}}. \quad (4)$$

for short distances Δr close to the shell. Thus, radial distances measured by the shell observers, lowering meter sticks from one shell to the other is always larger than the radial distances found by taking the difference between the Schwarzschild coordinate distances.

There is a practical problem in all this: We said that the far-away time was measured by clocks located at the position of events (which can take place close to the central black hole) but which are synchronized with the far-away clocks. How can we synchronize clocks which are located deep in the gravitational field and which therefore run slower than the far-away clock? Let's imagine the clocks measuring far-away-time to be positioned at different shells around the black hole. The shell observers design the clocks such that

they run faster by a factor $\sqrt{1 - \frac{2M}{r}}$. To synchronize all these clocks, the far-away observer sends a light signal to all the other clocks at the moment when he sets his clock to $t = 0$. The shell observers know the distance from the far-away observer to the far-away-time clocks and thus know the time t it took for the light signal to reach their clock. They had thus already set the clock to this time t and made a mechanism such that it started to run at the moment when the light signal arrived. In this way, all far-away-time clocks situated at different positions around the black hole are synchronized. Another practical question: How does the far-away observer know the time and position of events. Each time an event happens close to one of the far-away-clocks close to the black hole, it sends a signal to the far-away observer telling the time and position this clock registered for the event. In this way, the far-away observer does not need to take into account the time it takes for the signal from the clock to arrive, the signal itself contains information with the correct far-away-time for the event recorded on the clock positioned at the same location where the event took place.

In the following we will describe events either as they are seen by the far-away observer using global Schwarzschild coordinates (r, t) , by the shell observer using local coordinates $(r_{\text{shell}}, t_{\text{shell}})$ or the freely falling observer also using local coordinates. Before proceeding, make a drawing of all these observers, their coordinates and the relation between these different coordinates.

5 The principle of maximum aging revisited

In the lectures on special relativity we learned that the principle of maximum aging tells objects in free float to move along paths in spacetime which give the longest possible wristwatch time τ which corresponds to the longest possible spacetime interval s . We also used that for Lorentz geometry, the longest (in terms of s or τ) path between two points is the straight line, i.e. the path with constant velocity. We never proved the latter result properly. We will do this now, first for Lorentz geometry and then we will use the same approach to find the result for Schwarzschild geometry.

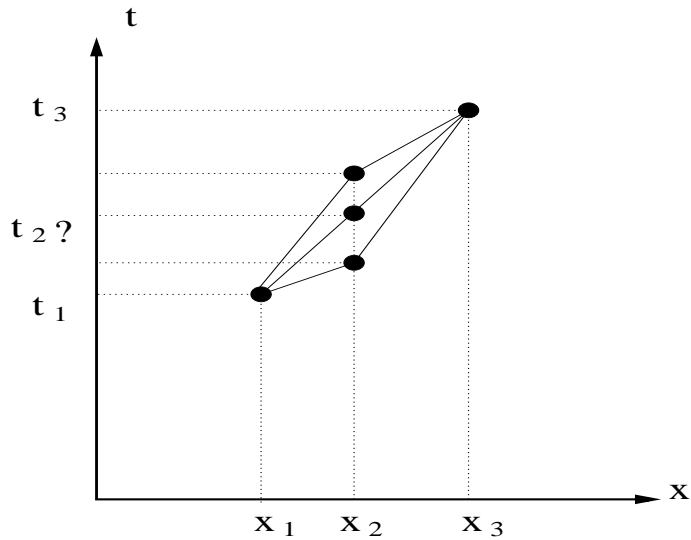


Figure 3: The motion of a particle in free float in Lorentz geometry. Points x_1, x_2, x_3 as well as the times t_1 and t_3 are fixed. For a particle at free float, at what time t_2 will it pass x_2 ? Which of the possible spacetime paths in the figure does the particle take? We use the principle of maximal aging to show that in Lorentz geometry, the particle follows the straight spacetime path.

5.1 Returning for a moment to special relativity: deducing Newton's first law

We will now show that the principle of maximum aging leads to Newton's first law when using Lorentz geometry.

Look at figure 3. We see the worldline of a particle going from position x_1 at time t_1 to position x_3 at time t_3 passing through position x_2 at time t_2 . Say that the points x_1, x_2 and x_3 are fixed and known positions. We also say that the total time interval t_{13} it takes the object to go from x_1 to x_3 is fixed and known. What we do not know is the time interval t_{12} it takes the particle to go from point x_1 to point x_2 . Remember that we do not know that the object will move with constant velocity, this is what we want to show. Thus we leave open the possibility that the particle will have a different speed between x_1 and x_2 than between x_2 and x_3 . The time t_2 can be at any possible point between t_1 and t_3 . In figure 3 we show some possible spacetime paths that the object could take. We now assume that

the distances x_{12} and x_{23} are very short, so short that the object can be assumed to move with constant velocity between these two points, i.e. that the object is in a local inertial frame between x_1 and x_2 and in a (possibly different) inertial frame between x_2 and x_3 . Therefore, the time intervals t_{12} and t_{23} to travel these two short paths also need to be short.

The total wristwatch time τ it takes the particle to move from x_1 to x_3 is

$$\tau_{13} = \tau_{12} + \tau_{23} = \sqrt{t_{12}^2 - x_{12}^2} + \sqrt{t_{23}^2 - x_{23}^2}, \quad (5)$$

where we used that $\Delta\tau = \Delta s = \sqrt{\Delta t^2 - \Delta x^2}$ for Lorentz geometry. According to the principle of maximal aging, we need to find the path, i.e. the t_{12} , which maximizes the total wristwatch time τ_{13} . We do this by setting the derivative of τ_{13} with respect to the free parameter t_{12} equal to zero, i.e. you look for the maximum point of the function $\tau_{13}(t_{12})$:

$$\frac{d\tau_{13}}{dt_{12}} = \frac{t_{12}}{\sqrt{t_{12}^2 - x_{12}^2}} + \frac{t_{23}}{\sqrt{t_{23}^2 - x_{23}^2}} \frac{dt_{23}}{dt_{12}}.$$

Since $t_{23} = t_{13} - t_{12}$ we have that $dt_{23}/dt_{12} = -1$ (remember that t_{13} is a fixed constant). Thus we have

$$\frac{t_{12}}{\sqrt{t_{12}^2 - x_{12}^2}} - \frac{t_{23}}{\sqrt{t_{23}^2 - x_{23}^2}} = 0$$

or written in terms of τ_{12} and τ_{23} we have

$$\frac{t_{12}}{\tau_{12}} = \frac{t_{23}}{\tau_{23}}.$$

Check that you understood every step in the deduction so far! This is only for three points x_1 , x_2 and x_3 along the worldline of a particle. If we continue to break up the worldline in small local inertial frames at points x_4 , x_5 , etc. we can do the same analysis between any three adjacent points along the curve. The result is that

$$\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \text{constant},$$

where I have written dt instead of t_{12} or t_{23} and $d\tau$ instead of τ_{12} or τ_{23} . Remember that we assumed these time interval to be very short. In this final expression we have taken the limit in which these time intervals are

infinitesimally short. We also remember (do you?) from special relativity that

$$\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = \gamma.$$

So the principle of maximal aging has given us that $\gamma = \text{constant}$ along a worldline. But γ only contains the velocity v of the object so it follows that $v = \text{constant}$. In Lorentz geometry, a free-float object will follow the spacetime path for which the velocity is constant. We can write this in a different way. In special relativity we had that

$$E = \gamma m$$

so we can write $\gamma = E/m$ from which follows that

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{m} = \text{constant}.$$

We have just deduced that energy is conserved, or more precisely energy per mass E/m is conserved. In the lectures on special relativity we learned that experiments tell us that the relativistic energy $E = \gamma m$ is conserved and not Newtonian energy. Here we found that the principle of maximal aging tells us that there is a quantity which is conserved along the motion of a particle. This quantity is the same as the quantity we call relativistic energy.

Is it possible that the principle of maximal aging can give us something more? We will now repeat the above calculations, but now we fix t_{12} , t_{23} and t_{13} . All times are fixed. We also fix x_1 and x_3 , but leave x_2 free. The situation is shown in figure 4. Now the question is 'which point x_2 will the object pass through?'. We need to take the derivative of expression (5) with respect to the small interval x_{12} which is a free parameter.

$$\frac{d\tau_{13}}{dx_{12}} = \frac{-x_{12}}{\sqrt{t_{12}^2 - x_{12}^2}} - \frac{x_{23}}{\sqrt{t_{12}^2 - x_{12}^2}} \frac{dx_{23}}{dx_{12}}.$$

Again $x_{23} = x_{13} - x_{12}$ so that $dx_{23}/dx_{12} = -1$ and we have

$$\frac{x_{12}}{\tau_{12}} = \frac{x_{23}}{\tau_{23}},$$

we have found another constant of motion

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} = \text{constant}$$

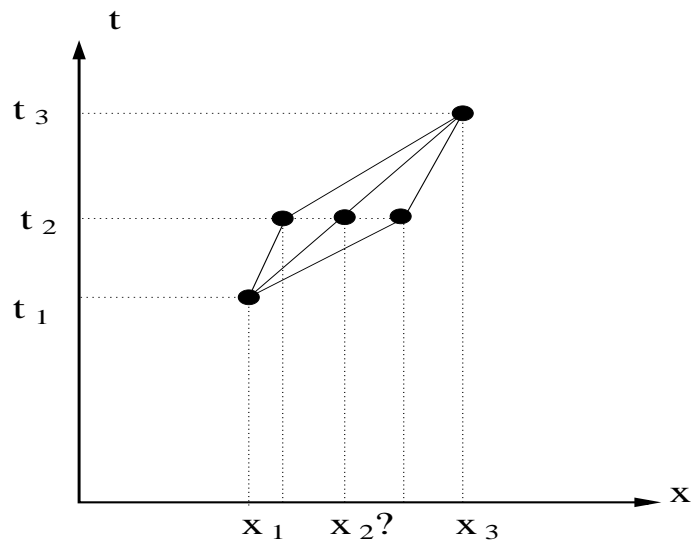


Figure 4: The motion of a particle in free float in Lorentz geometry. Points x_1 , x_3 as well as the times t_1 , t_2 and t_3 are fixed. For a particle in free float, which position x_2 will it pass at time t_2 ? Which of the possible spacetime paths in the figure does the particle take? We use the principle of maximal aging to show that in Lorentz geometry, the particle follows the straight spacetime path.

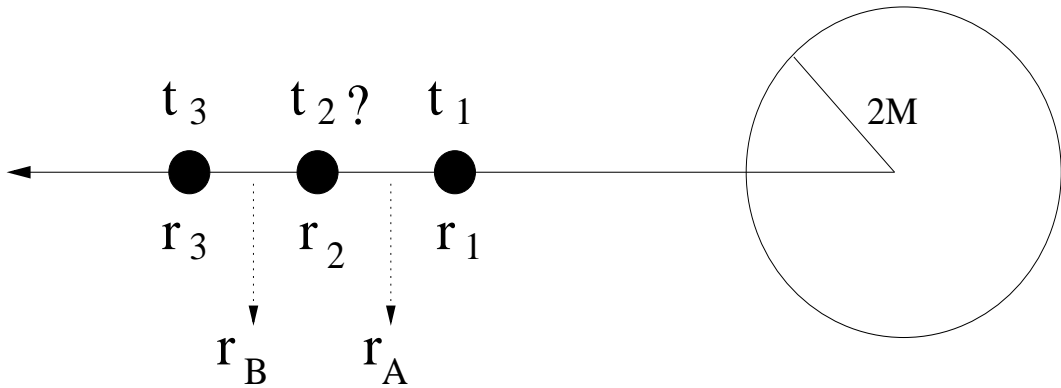


Figure 5: The motion of a particle in free float in Schwarzschild geometry. Points r_1 , r_2 , r_3 as well as the times t_1 and t_3 are fixed. For a particle in free float, at what time t_2 will it pass through r_2 ? We assume that the distances $r_2 - r_1$ and $r_3 - r_2$ are so small that we can assume the radial distance to be $r = r_A$ always in the former interval and $r = r_B$ always in the latter interval.

But we can write this as

$$\frac{dx}{d\tau} = \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{dt}{d\tau} = v\gamma.$$

We have that

$$v\gamma = \text{constant} = \frac{p}{m}.$$

(go through this deduction in detail yourself and make sure you understand every step). We remember that $p = m\gamma v$, so the principle of maximal aging has given us the law of momentum conservation, or actually the law of conservation of momentum per mass p/m . We have seen that the principle of maximal aging seems to be more fundamental than the principles of energy and momentum conservation. It is sufficient to assume the principle of maximal aging. From that we can deduce the expressions for energy and momentum and also that these need to be conserved quantities.

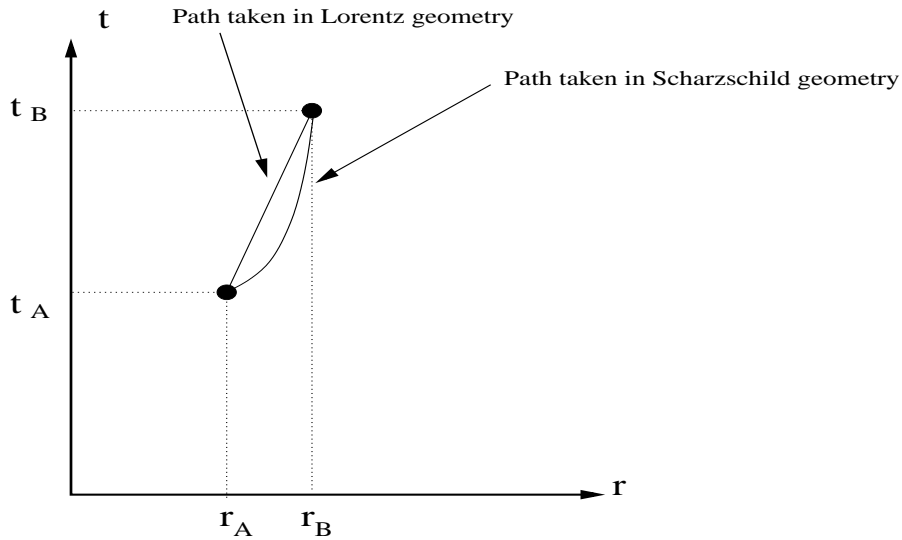


Figure 6: The motion of a particle in free float in Schwarzschild geometry. Which spacetime path will the particle take between points A and B?

5.2 Returning to general relativity: deducing and generalizing Newton's law of gravitation

Now, what about general relativity? We will see how the principle of maximal aging tells a particle to move in Schwarzschild spacetime. Look at figure 5. A particle travels from radius r_1 at time t_1 to radius r_3 at point t_3 passing through point r_2 at time t_2 . We fix r_1 , r_2 and r_3 . We also fix the start and end times t_1 and t_3 . We leave t_2 free. We will find at which time t_2 the particle passes through point r_2 . Again we write the total proper time for the object from r_1 to r_3 as (using the Schwarzschild line element, equation 1, for $\Delta\tau$)

$$\tau_{13} = \tau_{12} + \tau_{23} = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right) t_{12}^2 - \frac{r_{12}^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right)}} + \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right) t_{23}^2 - \frac{r_{23}^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right)}}$$

where r_A is the radius halfway between r_1 and r_2 . We assume that r_{12} is so small that we can use the radius r_A for the full interval. In the same way, r_B is the radius halfway between r_2 and r_3 which we count as valid for the full interval r_{23} . Following the procedure above, we will now maximize the total

proper time τ_{13} with respect to the free parameter t_{12} . We get

$$\frac{d\tau_{13}}{dt_{12}} = \frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right) t_{12}}{\tau_{12}} + \frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right) t_{23}}{\tau_{23}} \frac{dt_{23}}{dt_{12}}.$$

As above, $t_{23} = t_{13} - t_{12}$ giving $dt_{23}/dt_{12} = -1$. Thus we have that

$$\frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right) t_{12}}{\tau_{12}} = \frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right) t_{23}}{\tau_{23}}.$$

We find that

$$\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \text{constant}, \quad (6)$$

where again we have taken the limit where t_{12} , t_{23} , τ_{12} and τ_{13} are so small that they can be expressed as infinitesimally small periods of time dt and $d\tau$. In the case with Lorentz geometry we used this constant of motion to find that the velocity had to be constant along the worldline of a freely floating particle. Now we want to investigate how this constant of motion tells us how a freely floating particle moves in Schwarzschild spacetime. First we need to find an expression for $dt/d\tau$. In special relativity we related this to the velocity of the particle using $dt/d\tau = \gamma$, but this was deduced using the line element of Lorentz geometry. Here we want to relate this to the local velocity that a shell observer at a given radius observes. The locally measured shell velocity as an object passes by a given shell is given by

$$v_{\text{shell}} = \frac{dr_{\text{shell}}}{dt_{\text{shell}}}$$

We now use equation 3 (the equation connecting far-away-time and shell time, remember?) to write the constant of motion (equation 6) as

$$\begin{aligned} \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{-1/2} dt_{\text{shell}}}{d\tau} &= \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} \frac{dt_{\text{shell}}}{d\tau} \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} \gamma_{\text{shell}} = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v_{\text{shell}}^2}} = \text{constant}. \end{aligned}$$

In the last transition we used the fact that the shell observer lives in a local inertial frame for a very short time. The shell observer makes the velocity measurement so fast that the gravitational acceleration could not be noticed

and he could use special relativity assuming flat spacetime. So using his local time t_{shell} , the relation $dt_{\text{shell}}/d\tau = \gamma_{\text{shell}}$ from special relativity is valid. We have thus found a constant of motion:

$$\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v_{\text{shell}}^2}} = \text{constant}.$$

Consider a particle moving from radius r_A to a higher radius r_B (see figure 6). This time, the distance between points A and B does not need to be small. As the object moves past shell r_A , the shell observers at this shell measure the local velocity v_A . As the object moves past shell r_B , the shell observers at this shell measure the local velocity v_B . Equating this constant of motion at the two positions A and B we find

$$\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v_A^2}} = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v_B^2}}.$$

Squaring and reorganizing we find

$$(1 - v_B^2) \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right) = (1 - v_A^2) \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right).$$

We already see from this equation that if $r_B > r_A$ then $v_B < v_A$ (check!). Thus if the object is moving away from the central mass, the velocity is decreasing. If we have $r_B < r_A$ we see that the opposite is true: If the object is moving towards the central mass, the velocity is increasing. So the principle of maximum aging applied in Schwarzschild geometry gives a very different result than in Lorentz geometry. In Lorentz geometry we found that the velocity of a freely floating particle is constant. In Schwarzschild spacetime we find that the freely floating particle accelerates towards the central mass: If it moved outward it slows down, if it moved inwards it accelerates. This is just what we normally consider the 'force of gravity'. We see that here we have not included any forces at all: We have just said that the central mass curves spacetime giving it Schwarzschild geometry. By applying the principle of maximal aging, that an object moving through spacetime takes the path with longest possible wristwatch time τ , we found that the object needs to take a path in spacetime such that it accelerates towards the central mass. We see how geometry of spacetime gives rise to the 'force of gravity'. But in general relativity we do not need to introduce a force, we just need one simple principle: The principle of maximal aging.

We will now check if the acceleration we obtain in the limit of large radius r and low velocities v_{shell} is equal to the Newtonian expression. We now call the constant of motion K giving

$$\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{1}{1 - v_{\text{shell}}^2} = K.$$

Reorganizing this we have

$$v_{\text{shell}} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{K} \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)} \quad (7)$$

We want to find the acceleration

$$g_{\text{shell}} = \frac{dv_{\text{shell}}}{dt_{\text{shell}}}$$

that a shell observer measures. Taking the derivative of equation 7 we get (check!)

$$\frac{dv_{\text{shell}}}{dt_{\text{shell}}} = \frac{1}{2v_{\text{shell}}} \frac{2M}{K} \left(-\frac{1}{r^2}\right) \frac{dr}{dt_{\text{shell}}}.$$

Using equation 4 and that $v_{\text{shell}} = dr_{\text{shell}}/dt_{\text{shell}}$ we obtain

$$g_{\text{shell}} \propto \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{M}{r^2}}$$

Newton's law of gravitation is not valid close to the Schwarzschild horizon, so to take the Newtonian limit we need to consider this expressions for $r \gg 2M$. In this limit the expression reduces to

$$g_{\text{shell}} \propto \frac{M}{r^2},$$

exactly the Newtonian expression for the gravitational acceleration. We find that far away from the Schwarzschild radius, general relativity reduces to Newton's law of gravitation. We can now return to figure 6 and look at the path marked Schwarzschild path. This is the spacetime path between A and B that a freely floating object needs to take in order to get the longest proper time τ . Looking at the slope of this path, we see that the object changes velocity during its trip from A to B. This is in sharp contrast to the results from special relativity with Lorentz geometry where the path which

gives longest possible proper time is the straight line with constant velocity.

We will now return to our constant of motion

$$\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v_{\text{shell}}^2}} = \text{constant} \quad (8)$$

In special relativity we found that a constant of motion which we obtain in the same manner was just the energy per mass. We will now go to the Newtonian limit to see if the same is the case for Schwarzschild spacetime. We will use two Taylor expansions,

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1 - x} &\approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}x + \dots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} &\approx 1 + \frac{1}{2}x^2, \end{aligned}$$

both taken in the limit of $x \ll 1$. In the Newtonian limit we have that $2M/r \ll 1$ and $v \ll 1$. Applying this to equation (8) we have

$$\left(1 - \frac{M}{r}\right) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}v^2\right) \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2}v^2 - \frac{M}{r} = \text{constant}$$

In the last expression we used that since both $2M/r$ and v are very small, the product of these small quantities is even smaller than the remaining terms and could therefore be omitted. Compare this to the Newtonian expression for the energy of a particle in a gravitational field

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{Mm}{r}.$$

We see again that the constant of motion was just energy per mass E/m where the expression now tells us how the gravitational potential looks like (have you noticed this: you have actually derived why the form of the Newtonian gravitational potential is the way it is). Note the additional term in the relativistic expression which is just the rest energy m . Again the principle of maximal aging has given us that energy is conserved and it has given us the relativistic expression for energy in a gravitational field

$$\frac{E}{m} = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{dt}{d\tau}.$$

We also found that this expression for the energy equals the Newtonian expression for distances far from the Schwarzschild radius.

In the exercises you will use the principle of maximum aging to find that angular momentum per mass is conserved in Schwarzschild spacetime and that the expression for angular momentum per mass in Schwarzschild spacetime is

$$\frac{L}{m} = r^2 \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} = \gamma_{\text{shell}} r v_\phi = \text{constant}.$$

6 Freely falling

Armed with the expression for the conserved energy and angular momentum we will now start to look at motion around the black hole. First, we will leave an object at rest at a large distance from the central mass. We leave the object with velocity zero $v = 0$ at a distance so large that we can let $r \rightarrow \infty$. The energy per mass of the particle is then only the rest energy of the particle, $E = m$.

$$\frac{E}{m} = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \frac{dt}{d\tau} = 1$$

From this we have

$$d\tau = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) dt.$$

Remember from the previous deduction that the proper time τ here refers to time measured on the wristwatch attached to the falling object. Inserting this into the Schwarzschild line element (equation 1) we obtain (remember $ds = d\tau$ always!)

$$d\tau^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^2 dt^2 - \frac{dr^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}$$

The object starts falling radially inwards towards the central mass. We want to find the velocity of the falling object at a given radius r . Reorganizing the previous equation we have (check!)

$$\left(\frac{dr}{dt}\right)^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^2 \frac{2M}{r}.$$

To obtain the velocity $v = dr/dt$, we need to take the square root on both sides. This leaves a positive and a negative solution. Since this object is

falling in the negative r direction, we choose the negative solution

$$v = - \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \sqrt{\frac{2M}{r}}. \quad (9)$$

At large distance $r \rightarrow \infty$ the velocity goes to zero as expected. What happens when the object approaches the black hole? For large distances the factor $\sqrt{2M/r}$ is dominating. This factor increases with decreasing r , so the velocity increases just as expected. When we approach the Schwarzschild radius, the first factor $\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)$ starts dominating as the last factor now goes to one. In this case, the velocity is decreasing when r is decreasing. At the horizon the velocity reaches exactly zero. What we see is plotted in figure 7. When the object starts falling the velocity increases until a point where it starts decreasing. At the horizon the object stops. This result was obtained using Schwarzschild coordinates. Thus, this is the result that the far-away observer sees. This means that if we let a spaceship fall into a black hole, we, as far-away observers, would see the spaceship stopping at the horizon and it would stay there for ever. Remember also that time is going slower closer to the horizon,

$$\Delta t_{\text{shell}} = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)} \Delta t$$

At the horizon $r \rightarrow 2M$, we observe that time stops. Thus, looking at the spaceship we would observe the persons in the spaceship to freeze at the horizon. Everything stops. In the exercises you will show that light from a central mass is red shifted. Thus we will also see a strongly redshifted light from the spaceship. Using the expression from the exercises you will see that light arriving from the horizon is infinitely red shifted. Thus you will not see any light from the horizon. You will only see the spaceship just before it reaches the horizon and then only as radio waves with a large wavelength (see problem 1).

What do the shell observers living at shells close to the horizon see? Using formulas (3) and (4) we can find the local velocity $v_{\text{shell}} = dr_{\text{shell}}/dt_{\text{shell}}$ as observed by the shell observers when the spaceship passes by the shell. We get

$$v_{\text{shell}} = \frac{dr_{\text{shell}}}{dt_{\text{shell}}} = \frac{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{-1/2} dr}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{1/2} dt} = \frac{v}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)} = -\sqrt{\frac{2M}{r}},$$

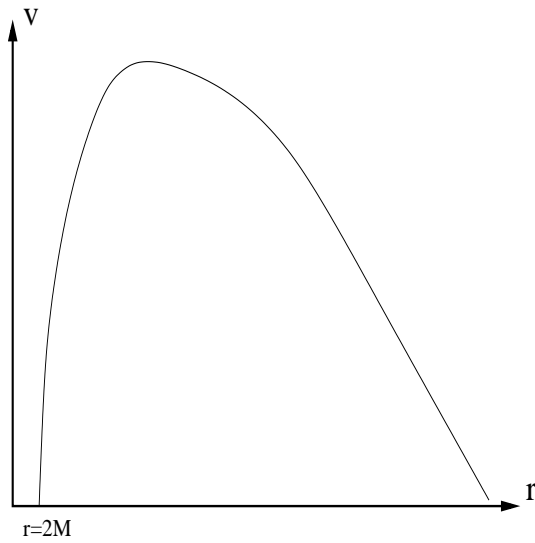


Figure 7: Schematic plot of the variation of velocity as a function of radial distance from the center for an object falling in from a huge distance.

where the expression (9) for the far-away velocity v was used. Shell observers closer and closer to the horizon will always observe a larger and larger local velocity. The shell observers on the shell just above the horizon $r = 2M$ sees that $v_{\text{shell}} \rightarrow -1$, that the velocity of the object approaches the speed of light as the spaceship approaches the horizon. We have seen a huge difference in results: The far-away observer sees that the object falls to rest at the horizon, the local observer close to the horizon sees the object approaching the speed of light. Already from special relativity we are used to the fact that observers in different frames measure different numbers, but this is a really extreme example. What do the freely falling observers in the spaceship see? For the freely falling observers nothing particular at all happens when they pass the horizon. The freely falling observers are always moving from one local inertial frame to the other, but nothing special happens at $r = 2M$.

What velocity do local observers measure beyond the horizon? Do they measure a velocity larger than the velocity of light? In a coming lecture we will look a little bit more at motion beyond the horizon, but here we will

look briefly at the Schwarzschild line element to see if we get some hints.

$$\Delta\tau^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \Delta t^2 - \frac{\Delta r^2}{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}$$

Exactly at the horizon, the line element is singular. This is not a physical singularity, but what we call a *coordinate singularity*. By changing coordinate system, this singularity will go away and one can calculate Δs at the horizon without problems. One may understand this easier by looking at the analogy with the sphere: If a function on the sphere contains the expression $1/\theta$ (where θ is the polar angle being zero at the north pole) it will become singular on the north pole. By changing the coordinate system by defining the north pole at some other point on the sphere, the point of the previous north pole will not be singular. In this case the function in itself is not singular on the point of the previous north pole, it is the coordinate system which makes the expression singular at this point.

We will now take a look at this line element when $r < 2M$. In this case we can write it as

$$\Delta\tau^2 = \frac{\Delta r^2}{\left|1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right|} - \left|1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right| \Delta t^2$$

Looking at the sign, the space and time coordinates interchange their roles. This does not directly mean that space and time interchange their roles, but space does attain one feature which we normally associate with time: An inevitable forward motion. In the same way as we always move forward in time, an observer inside the horizon will always move forwards towards the center. No matter how strong engines you have, you cannot stop this motion: you cannot be at rest inside the horizon, always moving forwards towards destruction at the center exactly as we always move forward in time. A consequence of this is that no shell observers can exist inside the horizon. You cannot construct a shell at rest, everything will always be moving. Inside the horizon we cannot measure a local shell velocity, so even if the shell velocity approaches the speed of light at the horizon it does not necessarily mean that we will have a local velocity larger than speed of light inside the horizon. More about this later.

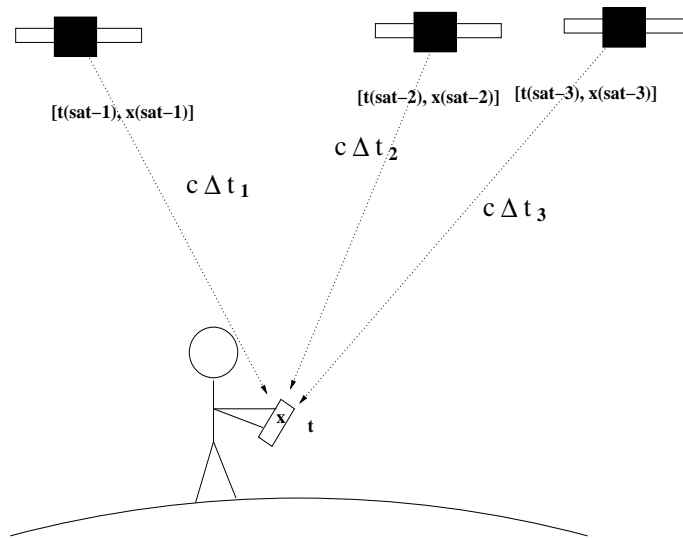


Figure 8: The GPS system

7 An example: GPS, Global Positioning System

We have seen that general relativity becomes important for large masses and for distances close to the Schwarzschild radius $r \rightarrow 2M$. The question now is when we need to take into account general relativistic effects. Clearly this depends on the accuracy required for a given calculation. We will now see one example where general relativity is important in everyday life. The Global Positioning System (GPS) is used by a large number of people, from hikers in the mountain trying to find their position on the map to airplanes navigating with GPS in order to land even in dense fog. GPS is based on 24 satellites orbiting the Earth with a period of 12 hours at an altitude of about 20 000 kilometers. Each satellite sends a stream of signals, each signal containing information about their position \vec{x}_{sat} of the satellite at the time t_{sat} when the signal was sent. Your GPS receiver receives signals from three satellites (actually from four in order to increase the precision of the internal clock in your GPS receiver, but if your GPS receiver has an extremely accurate clock, only three satellites are strictly necessary: We will for simplicity use three satellites and assume that your GPS receiver contains an atomic clock in

this illustration). The situation is illustrated in figure 8. Your GPS receiver contains a very accurate clock showing the time t when you receive the signal. This gives your GPS receiver three equations with the three coordinates of your position \vec{x} as the three unknowns,

$$\begin{aligned} |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_{\text{sat1}}| &= c(t - t_{\text{sat1}}) \equiv c\Delta t_1, \\ |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_{\text{sat2}}| &= c(t - t_{\text{sat2}}) \equiv c\Delta t_2, \\ |\vec{x} - \vec{x}_{\text{sat3}}| &= c(t - t_{\text{sat3}}) \equiv c\Delta t_3. \end{aligned}$$

The GPS receiver receives the time t_{sat} when a signal was emitted from the satellite. Knowing that the signal travels with light speed c and reading off the time of reception of the signal on the internal clock of the GPS receiver, the receiver can calculate the distance $c\Delta t$ that the signal has traveled. This distance is equal to the difference between your position \vec{x} and the position \vec{x}_{sat} of the satellite when the signal was emitted. Solving the three equations above, the GPS receiver solves for your position $\vec{x} = (x, y, z)$ normally expressed in terms of longitude, latitude and altitude. (Note that if a fourth equation were added using a signal from a fourth satellite, another unknown could be allowed: This is how the precision of your GPS clock is increased: your time t is solved from the four set of equations. Here we will assume that your GPS receiver has an atomic clock)

If we assume a simplified one dimensional case, i.e. that you only have a one dimensional position x , the solution would be

$$x = c\Delta t \pm x_{\text{sat}}.$$

We see that the precision of your calculated position x depends on the precision with which we can calculate the time difference $\Delta t = t - t_{\text{sat}}$. The signals move with velocity of 300 000 kilometers per second. If there is an inaccuracy of the order $1\mu\text{s} = 10^{-6}\text{s}$, one microsecond, the inaccuracy in the calculated position would be of the order $3 \times 10^8\text{m/s} \times 10^{-6}\text{s} = 300\text{m}$. An inaccuracy of one microsecond corresponds to an inaccuracy of 300 meters in the position calculated by GPS. In such a case GPS would be useless for many of its applications and more seriously, the airplane missing the tarmac with 300 meters would crash!

We know that due to special relativity, the clocks in the satellite and the clocks on Earth (in your GPS receiver) run at different paces because of the relative motions of the satellites with respect to you. We also know

from general relativity that the clocks in the satellite run at a different pace than your clock because of difference in distance from the center of attraction (center of Earth). If the clocks in the satellites and the clocks in the GPS receivers were synchronized at the moment when the satellites were launched into orbit, the question is how long time does it take until the relativistic effects make the Earth and satellite clocks showing so different times that GPS has become useless. Relativistic effects are usually small so one could expect that it would take maybe thousands of years. If this were the case, we wouldn't need to worry. But remember that we require a precision better than $1\mu\text{s}$ here. This could make relativistic effects important. Let's check.

We start by the gravitational effect. We consider two shells, shell 1 is the surface of the Earth situated at radial distance $r_1 = 6000\text{km}$ (approximately, we are only looking for orders of magnitude here, not exact numbers). Shell 2 is the orbit of the satellites at radial distance $r_2 = 6000 + 20000\text{km}$. A time interval Δt_1 on the surface of the Earth is related to a time interval Δt of the far-away observer by (see equation 3)

$$\Delta t_1 = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_1}\right)} \Delta t.$$

Similarly, a time interval Δt_2 measured on the satellite clock is related to the far-away time Δt by

$$\Delta t_2 = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_2}\right)} \Delta t.$$

Dividing these two equations on each other we find that

$$\Delta t_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{2M}{r_1}}{1 - \frac{2M}{r_2}}} \Delta t_2.$$

This is the difference in clock pace between the satellite and Earth clocks taking into account only gravitational effects. We will first check the order of magnitude of these terms. What is the mass of the Earth measured in meters? We have

$$M_{\text{Earth}} = 6 \times 10^{24} \text{kg} = 6 \times 10^{24} \times (7.42 \times 10^{-28} \text{m}) = 0.0044 \text{m}.$$

(in case you have forgotten: go back and check how to go from kg to meters). So the term $2M/r$ is of the order 10^{-8} for Earth, very much smaller than 1.

Thus we can use Taylor expansions,

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{1-x} &\approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}x + \dots \\ 1/\sqrt{1-x} &\approx 1 + \frac{1}{2}x + \dots\end{aligned}$$

giving for $x = 2M/r$

$$\Delta t_1 = \Delta t_2 + \left(\frac{M}{r_2} - \frac{M}{r_1}\right)\Delta t_2,$$

where we have skipped terms of second order in small quantities (two x multiplied with each other) as these are much smaller than the terms of first order in x . We see that $\Delta t_1 < \Delta t_2$ as expected: Observers far away from the central mass see that clocks close to the central mass run slower. Observers far away from Earth will observe that it takes longer than one second on their wristwatch (Δt_2) for the clocks on Earth (Δt_1) to move one second forward.

Inserting numbers for r_1 and r_2 we obtain

$$\Delta t_1 \approx \Delta t_2 - 7 \times 10^{-10} \Delta t_2.$$

We see that after about one day $\Delta t_2 = 3600 \times 24\text{s}$, the satellite clocks are 60 microseconds ahead of the Earth clocks. This corresponds to uncertainties in position measurements of the order 20 kilometers. Thus, one day after launching the satellites, GPS would be useless unless relativistic effects are taken into account!

In order to be sure about this, we need to also look at special relativistic effects. Seen from Earth, satellite clocks (which send time signals read from their own clocks to Earth) go slower (since they are moving with respect to the observers on the surface of the Earth). We have

$$\Delta t_1^{\text{SR}} = \gamma \Delta t_2^{\text{SR}},$$

where SR stands for special relativity. In this case $\Delta t_1^{\text{SR}} > \Delta t_2^{\text{SR}}$ opposite of the general relativistic effect. We need to check whether this effect might be just large enough to cancel the general relativistic effect. From Kepler's 3rd law for the satellite we have (check that you can actually derive this),

$$\left(\frac{2\pi r_2}{v_{\phi 2}}\right)^2 = \frac{4\pi^2 r_2^3}{GM_{\text{Earth,kg}}}$$

(using conventional units) we find that the orbital speed of the satellite is $v_{\phi_2} = 1.3 \times 10^{-5}$ (dimensionless velocity). In addition an observer at the surface of the Earth moves with velocity (due to Earth's rotation)

$$v = \frac{2\pi r_1}{24\text{h}} = 0.5\text{km/s}$$

or $v_{\phi_1} = 1.5 \times 10^{-6}$ in dimensionless units. The velocity of the satellite relative to the observer on the ground is thus approximately $v_\phi = v_{\phi_1} + v_{\phi_2} \approx 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$ giving $\gamma \approx 1 + 10^{-10}$. In one day we find that the satellite clocks run about 10 microseconds slow (actually about 9, check that you agree), by far not enough to cancel the general relativistic effect. Both effects need to be taken into account in order to make GPS of any use at all, and in order to not make your airplane crash when landing in fog.

We have so far used approximate general and special relativistic expressions separately. Using the Schwarzschild line element we may take both effects into account simultaneously and obtain a more accurate expression. Writing first the line element (between two clock ticks) for the observer on the surface of the Earth, we have

$$\Delta\tau^2 = \Delta t_1^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_1}\right) \Delta t^2 - r_1^2 \Delta\phi_1^2,$$

where $\Delta r_1 = 0$ since the observer stays at the same radial distance. We can express this as

$$\left(\frac{\Delta t_1}{\Delta t}\right)^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_1}\right) - v_{\phi_1}^2,$$

where v_{ϕ_1} is the tangential velocity of the Earth observer, $v_\phi = r d\phi/dt$ (did you get this transition?). Using the same arguments, we get the same expression for the satellite

$$\left(\frac{\Delta t_2}{\Delta t}\right)^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_2}\right) - v_{\phi_2}^2,$$

where v_{ϕ_2} is the tangential velocity of the satellite. Dividing these two expressions on each other, we have

$$\left(\frac{\Delta t_1}{\Delta t_2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{2M}{r_1} - v_{\phi_1}^2}{1 - \frac{2M}{r_2} - v_{\phi_2}^2}}.$$

For low velocities and small $2M/r$ this expression reduces to the approximate expressions above. Note that we have not been very careful when measuring the tangential velocities: We did not specify tangential velocity with respect to which time, Earth time, Satellite time or far-away time. It turns out that taking into account these differences gives corrections to the correction which are so small that they can be ignored. We also did not specify whether the radial distances we used for Earth and the satellite were in Schwarzschild coordinates r or in shell distances r_{shell} . Also these differences are so small that they can be ignored in this case.

8 Exercise to be presented on the blackboard: Deriving the Schwarzschild line element.

The setting up Einstein's field equations for general relativity and solving them go beyond the scope of AST1100, but we can still make an argument for why the Schwarzschild line element is plausible as a description of the spacetime outside a spherical mass distribution. In the following you can assume that all gravitational fields are weak, and that all speeds are negligible compared to the speed of light in vacuum, c . We will consider a spherical mass distribution of total mass M (see figure 9). A point mass m is dropped infinitely far from M with zero speed initially.

- a) Show that the velocity of the point mass in position \vec{r} is given by

$$\vec{v} = -\sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}\vec{e}_r, \quad (10)$$

where \vec{e}_r is the unit vector in the direction of \vec{r} .

- b) Consider a free-float system attached to the point mass with coordinates $(t_{\text{FF}}, x_{\text{FF}}, y_{\text{FF}}, z_{\text{FF}}) = (t_{\text{FF}}, \vec{x}_{\text{FF}})$. Explain briefly why the line element in this system is

$$ds_{\text{FF}}^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + d\vec{x}_{\text{FF}}^2.$$

- c) Consider a rigid coordinate system fixed to the stars infinitely far from the mass distribution, (t_r, x_r, y_r, z_r) . Explain why the transformation

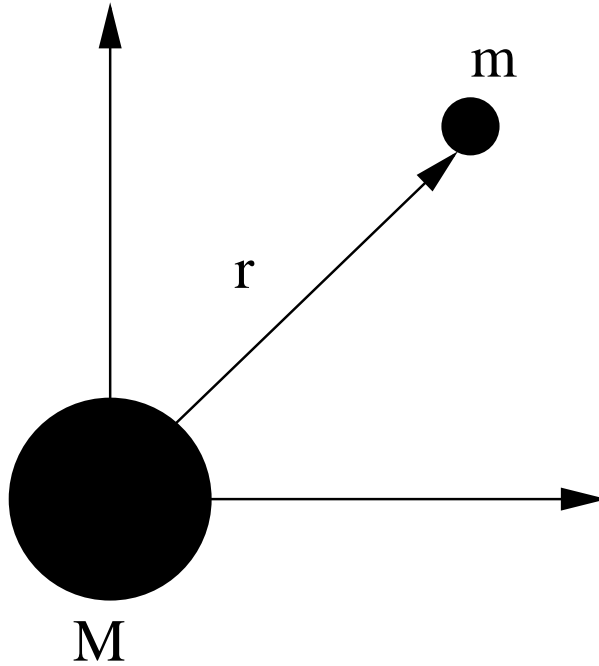


Figure 9: A sketch of the situation in this problem.

between this system and the free-float system in the previous point is given by

$$\begin{aligned} dt_{\text{FF}} &= dt_{\text{r}} \\ d\vec{x}_{\text{FF}} &= d\vec{x}_{\text{r}} = \vec{v}dt_{\text{r}}, \end{aligned}$$

where \vec{v} is given by equation (10).

d) Show that the line element in the rigid reference frame is given by

$$ds_{\text{r}}^2 = -\left(c^2 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right) dt_{\text{r}}^2 + 2\sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}} dr_{\text{r}} dt_{\text{r}} + d\vec{x}_{\text{r}}^2.$$

It can be shown that this line element is an *exact* solution of Einstein's field equations in the empty space outside the spherical mass distribution, expressed in the so-called Painlevé-Gullstrand coordinates. Adopting spherical

spatial coordinates and dropping subscripts we have

$$ds^2 = - \left(c^2 - \frac{2GM}{r} \right) dt^2 + 2\sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}} dr dt + dr^2 + r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2).$$

We can write this line element in a more familiar form by transforming to a new time coordinate, t_S :

$$t_S = t - \left[\frac{2r}{c} \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{rc^2}} - \frac{4GM}{c^3} \tanh^{-1} \left(\sqrt{\frac{2GM}{rc^2}} \right) \right] = t_S(t, r).$$

- e) Carry out the transformation of the line element. Do you recognize the result? (Hint: Use the fact that $dt_S = \frac{\partial t_S}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial t_S}{\partial r} dr$.)

9 Problems

Problem 1 (2 - 3 hours) Imagine a shell observer at shell r is pointing a laser pen radially outwards from the central mass. The beam has wavelength λ . Here we will try to find the wavelength λ' observed by the far-away observer.

1. The frequency of the light emitted by the laser pen is $\nu = 1/\Delta t$. The frequency of the light received by the far-away observer is $\nu' = 1/\Delta t'$. Here Δt and $\Delta t'$ is the time interval between two peaks of electromagnetic waves. Show that the difference in time interval measured by the two observers is given by

$$\Delta t' = \frac{\Delta t}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}}.$$

Hint: Imagine that a clock situated at shell r ticks each time a peak of the electromagnetic wave passes.

2. Use this fact to show that the gravitational 'Doppler' formula, i.e. the formula which gives you the wavelength observed by the far-away observer for light emitted close to the central mass, is given by

$$\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{\lambda' - \lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)}} - 1$$

3. Show that for distances $r \gg 2M$ this can be written as

$$\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} = \frac{M}{r}$$

Hint: Taylor expansion.

4. We will now study what wavelength of light that an observer far away from the Sun will observe for the light with the wavelength $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 500\text{nm}$ emitted from the solar surface.
- (a) Find the mass of the Sun in meters.
 - (b) Find the ratio M/r for the surface of the Sun.
 - (c) Find the redshift $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$ measured by a far-away observer.
 - (d) Is the apparent color of the Sun changed due to the gravitational redshift?
 - (e) For light coming from far away and entering the gravitational field of the Earth, an opposite effect is taking place. The light is blue shifted. Find the ratio M/r for the surface of the Earth.
 - (f) Find the gravitational blue shift $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$ for light arriving at Earth. Does this change the apparent color of the Sun?
5. A quasar is one of the most powerful sources of energy in the universe. The quasars are thought to be powered by a so-called accretion disc: Hot gas circling and falling into a black hole. The gas reaches velocities close to the speed of light as it approaches the horizon, but since we only see the sum of the radiation coming from all sides of the black hole, we expect the Doppler effect due to the velocity of the gas to cancel out. Assume that we find evidence for an emission line at $\lambda = 2150\text{nm}$ in the radiation from a quasar. Assume also that we recognize this emission line to be a line which in the laboratory is measured to occur at $\lambda = 600\text{nm}$. Give some arguments explaining why this observation supports the hypothesis of quasars having a black hole in the center and find from which distance r (expressed in terms of the black hole mass M) from the center, the radiation is emerging. Assume that the Doppler effect due to the quasar's movement with respect to us has been subtracted.

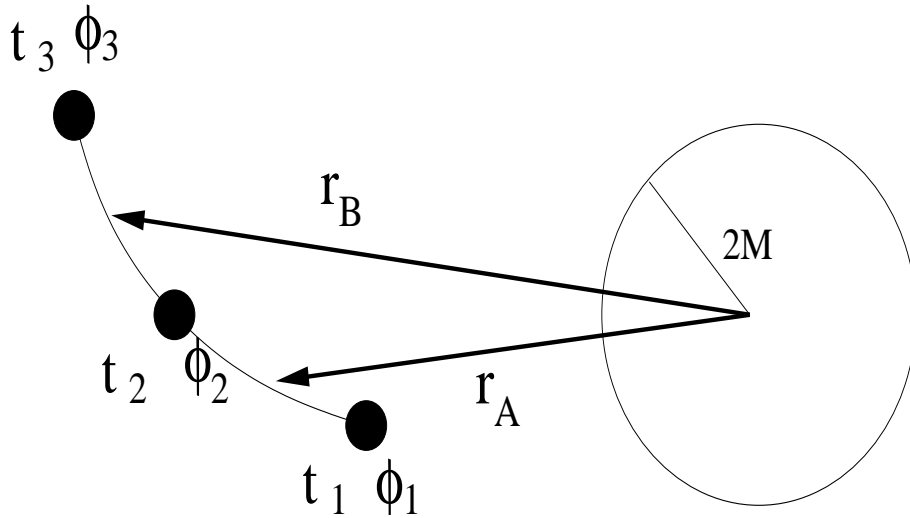


Figure 10:

6. Imagine you are a shell observer living at a shell at $r = 2.01M$ very close to the horizon of a black hole of mass M . Can you use optical telescopes to observe the stars around you? What kind of telescope do you need?

Problem 2 (30 min. - 1 hour) In this exercise we will use the principle of maximal aging to deduce the law of conservation of angular momentum in general relativity. In the text you have seen three examples of this kind of derivation and here we will follow exactly the same procedure. Before embarking on this exercise, please read the examples in the text carefully.

1. Use figure 10 in this exercise: We will study the motion of an object which passes through three points ϕ_1 , ϕ_2 and ϕ_3 at times t_1 , t_2 and t_3 . We fix t_1 , t_2 and t_3 as well as ϕ_1 and ϕ_3 . The free parameter here is ϕ_{12} , the angle between ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 . We assume that between ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 the radius is $r = r_A$ (we assume the distance between these two points to be so small that r is constant) and between ϕ_2 and ϕ_3 we have $r = r_B$ (see again figure 10). Use the Schwarzschild line element to show that the proper time interval from ϕ_1 to ϕ_3 can be written as

$$\Delta\tau_{13} = \tau_{12} + \tau_{23} = \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_A}\right) t_{12}^2 - r_A^2 \phi_{12}^2} + \sqrt{\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r_B}\right) t_{13}^2 - r_B^2 \phi_{13}^2}$$

2. Use the principle of maximal aging to show that

$$\frac{r_A^2 \phi_{12}}{\tau_{12}} = \frac{r_B^2 \phi_{23}}{\tau_{23}}$$

3. Show that

$$L = r^2 \frac{d\phi}{d\tau}$$

is a conserved quantity.

Problem 3 (1 - 2 hours) Assume that the crew on an airplane works on average 8 hours per day 365 days a year for 50 years. Assume that all this time, they are at a height of $\Delta r = 10$ km above the ground (assume the radius of the Earth to be $r = 6000$ km) moving at a velocity of $v_{\text{Airplane}} = 1000$ km/h with respect to the center of the Earth. We will here ignore the effect of acceleration during take-off and landing.

1. Show that proper time intervals $\Delta\tau$ for the crew at work can be written in terms of time intervals Δt_{Earth} measured on Earth clocks as

$$\frac{\Delta\tau}{\Delta t_{\text{Earth}}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{2M}{r+\Delta r} - v_{\text{Airplane}}^2}{1 - \frac{2M}{r} - v_{\text{Earth}}^2}},$$

where v_{Earth} is the velocity of a person on the Earth with respect to the center of the Earth.

2. This expression may give numerical problems when using very small numbers. For this reason we will try a Taylor expansion. Calculate M/r as well as the velocity v_{Airplane} and v_{Earth} (use Earth's rotation period) in dimensionless units. Are these so small that we can Taylor expand the expression above in terms of $2M/r$, v_{Airplane} and v_{Earth} ?
3. Show that the Taylor expansion of this expression, assuming that these three quantities are small, can be written as

$$\frac{\Delta\tau}{\Delta t_{\text{Earth}}} \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2}(v_{\text{Earth}}^2 - v_{\text{Airplane}}^2) + M \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r + \Delta r} \right).$$

hint: Taylor expand first in $x = -(\frac{2M}{r+\Delta r} + v_{\text{Airplane}}^2)$, then in $y = -(\frac{2M}{r} + v_{\text{Earth}}^2)$.

4. Use this expression to find how much shorter a crew member lives with respect to persons staying on Earth, taking into account only relativistic effects?
5. Would you now skip next year's vacation in the fear of getting old too fast?

Problem 4 (1 - 2 hours) Study carefully the chapter on GPS.

1. Use the information in that chapter to find how long time after the launch of the satellites the GPS system will be useless. Define useless to be when the uncertainty in the position measurements is of the order 1 kilometer.
2. Imagine that in the future when Mars has been terraformed (i.e. one has managed to grow plants there which produce oxygen and thus an atmosphere which we can breath) and a large part of the population of Earth has moved to Mars. It is finally decided to set up a GPS system on Mars in order to make it easier for the mountaineers boldly climbing the Olympus Mons (the highest mountain on Mars, 27 000 meters high) to find their position on the map. However, even with future high-tech, human errors are unavoidable and the people setting up the GPS forgot about relativistic corrections. In this exercise you will need to look up the mass, radius and orbital period of Mars. You also need to know that the GPS satellites have orbital periods of 12 hours (assume circular orbits).
 - (a) At what height above the surface are the satellites orbiting?
 - (b) How long after the launch of the satellites will the poor mountaineers get lost on Olympus Mons? (they are lost when they think they are 1 kilometer away from where they really are)