

8. General Relativity — Gravitational Waves

Historical ramblings ... ([arXiv:1609.09400](https://arxiv.org/abs/1609.09400) [physics.hist-ph])

1864 Maxwell predicts electromagnetic waves

1867 Hertz discovers electromagnetic waves

1915 Einstein publishes GR

1916 – 1937 pro and contra gravitational waves

1939 – 1945 second world war

1957 Meeting at Chapel Hill on General Relativity

- * with Gravitational Waves (GW) as one topic

- * Feynman gives the "sticky bead" argument, convincing that GWs are detectable

⇒ start of GW detection experiments

1983 initial LIGO project (Weiss, Thorne, Drever)

1988 NSF funds LIGO

1993 starting of VIRGO

2003 VIRGO completed

2010 beginning of aLIGO

2015 aLIGO: engineering test and detection of GW

8. General Relativity — Gravitational Waves

What is actually a "wave" ?

- "Why the Notion of Radiation is Non-Trivial" (arXiv:2201.11634 [gr-qc])
 - for EM we know, how a source $J^\mu(t', \vec{x}')$ generates the field $A^\mu(t, \vec{x})$:

$$A^\mu(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_V d^3x' \int_T dt' \frac{J^\mu(t', \vec{x}')}{||\vec{x} - \vec{x}'||} \delta(t' + ||\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|| - t) \quad (1)$$

* but not all changing fields are radiation example: eddy current break

- from a "wave" we usually require
 - it is periodic with a frequency ω
 - * and has the corresponding wavelength $\lambda = \frac{2\pi c}{\omega}$
 - it travels also far away from the source, which has a finite size d
 - * so we can write $r = ||\vec{x}|| \gg d$
 - the field of the wave drops like $\frac{1}{r}$ with the distance
- for the radiation zone we assume $d \ll \lambda \ll r$ (2)

8. General Relativity — Gravitational Waves

Rigorous treatment ([arXiv:2201.11634](https://arxiv.org/abs/2201.11634) [gr-qc])

- construct a conformal completion of spacetime
 - start with outgoing Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates ($u = t - r^*, r, \theta, \phi$)
 - * built from the tortoise coordinate $r^* = r + r_S \ln |r/r_S - 1|$ with $r_S = 2GM$ (3)
 - conformally rescale the line element with $\rho = \frac{1}{r}$ (to move $r = \infty$ to $\rho = 0$)
$$d\tilde{s}^2 = \rho^2(du^2 + 2dudr - r^2 d^2\Omega) = du^2 - 2dud\rho - d^2\Omega \quad (4)$$
- ⇒ the "boundary" at infinity is discussed as $\rho \rightarrow 0$
- use the Newman-Penrose Null Tetrad Formalism compare c04Riga-gr2.pdf
 - to formulate the limit $\rho \rightarrow 0$ in mathematical exact terms
 - * and to replace tensors by complex functions, i.e. Newman-Penrose scalars
 - apply the peeling theorem to identify the radiation
- for Penrose diagrams use additionally the rescaling $\tan(t \pm r) = \hat{t} \pm \hat{r} \quad (5)$
 - to draw the infinities on a finite sheet of paper ...

8. General Relativity — linearized gravity

Arguments for linearized gravity

- we experience gravity as weak (in terms of the GR description)
⇒ detection of GWs allows the weak-field description
- GWs travel to us through nearly empty space
⇒ propagation of GWs allows the weak-field description
- we will see: some production of GWs can be described in weak-field limit
- gravity with a perturbation series of the metric compare (3) of c04Riga-gr3.pdf
$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{with} \quad |h_{\mu\nu}| \ll 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_{\mu\nu} \text{ Minkovsky or FRW} \quad (6)$$

⇒ we need to linearize $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda$, $R_{\mu\nu\rho}^\lambda$, $R_{\mu\nu}$, R , and $G_{\mu\nu}$ in terms of $h_{\mu\nu}$
- gravity is a gauge theory: $x^\mu \rightarrow x^{\mu'} = x^\mu + \xi^\mu(x)$ (7)
 - $x^{\mu'}$ has to give the same physics as the original x^μ
 - ⇒ restrictions for the parametrisation of $h_{\mu\nu}$

8. General Relativity — gauging linearized gravity

parametrizing metric and gauge transformations

we distinguish between time (index 0) and space (indices i, j, k, \dots)

- for simplicity we assume Cartesian space coordinates (x, y, z)
 - with the space metric δ_{jk} , allowing simple raising and lowering
- then we write the metric as the line element: $d^2s = g_{\mu\nu}dx^\mu dx^\nu$
we keep $a^2(t)$ for generality: we can always set $a(t) = a_0$ for Minkovsky space.

$$d^2s = a^2(t)[(1 + 2A)dt^2 - 2B_i dt dx^i - (\delta_{jk} + h_{jk})dx^j dx^k] \quad (8)$$

with A , $B_i = \partial_i B + \hat{B}_i$ and h_{jk} as perturbations

- that can be decomposed into S(calar)-V(ector)-T(ensor) parts
... which stay among themselves in first order perturbation theory

$$\frac{1}{2}h_{jk} = C\delta_{jk} + (\partial_j \partial_k - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{jk} \vec{\partial}^2)E + \frac{1}{2}(\partial_j \hat{E}_k + \partial_k \hat{E}_j) + \hat{E}_{jk} \quad (9)$$

- vectors and tensors are transverse: $\partial^j \hat{B}_j = \partial^j \hat{E}_j = \partial^j \hat{E}_{jk} = \partial^k \hat{E}_{jk} = 0$ (10)

- and the tensor is traceless: $\delta^{jk} \hat{E}_{jk} = 0$ (11)

8. General Relativity — gauging linearized gravity

parametrizing metric and gauge transformations

- the perturbations A , B , C , E , \hat{B}_i , \hat{E}_i , and \hat{E}_{jk} change under the transformation eq.(7) $x^\mu \rightarrow x^{\mu'} = x^\mu + \xi^\mu(x)$
- but the Bardeen variables do not:

$$\begin{aligned}\Psi &= A + \frac{\dot{a}}{a}(B - \frac{d}{dt}E) + \frac{d}{dt}(B - \frac{d}{dt}E) \\ -\Phi &= C + \frac{\dot{a}}{a}(B - \frac{d}{dt}E) - \frac{1}{3}\vec{\partial}^2 E\end{aligned}\quad \hat{\Phi}_i = -(\hat{B}_i - \frac{d}{dt}\hat{E}_i) \quad \hat{E}_{jk} \quad (12)$$

— they are gauge invariant

* and have 2 scalar, 2 vector, and 2 tensor degrees of freedom (d.o.f.)

* the four gauge transformations eq.(7) remove 4 d.o.f.s from the 10 of the symmetric $h_{\mu\nu}$

- one can always choose a gauge that the local metric is given by

$$d^2s = a^2(t)[(1 + 2\Psi)dt^2 - 2\hat{\Phi}_i dt dx^i - (1 - 2\Phi)d\vec{x}^2 - 2\hat{E}_{jk}dx^j dx^k] \quad (13)$$

— so
$$h_{00} = 2\Psi, \quad h_{0i} = h_{i0} = -2\hat{\Phi}_i, \quad h_{jk} = 2\Phi\delta_{jk} - 2\hat{E}_{jk} \quad (14)$$

* and
$$\partial^\mu h_{\mu 0} = \partial^0 h_{00} + \partial^i h_{i0} = 2\partial^0 \Psi - 2\partial^i \hat{\Phi}_i = 2\partial_0 \Psi \quad (15)$$

$$\partial^\mu h_{\mu k} = \partial^0 h_{0k} + \partial^i h_{ik} = -2\partial^0 \hat{\Phi}_k + 2\partial^i \Phi \delta_{ik} - 2\partial^i \hat{E}_{ik} = -2\partial_0 \hat{\Phi}_k + 2\partial_k \Phi \quad (16)$$

8. General Relativity — linearised Einstein equations

linearised Christoffel symbols $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\lambda\rho}(\partial_{\mu}g_{\nu\rho} + \partial_{\nu}g_{\mu\rho} - \partial_{\rho}g_{\mu\nu})$ (17)

- up to first order in the perturbations $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{[0]\lambda} + \hat{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda}$

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{[0]\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}a^{-2}\eta^{\lambda\rho}(\partial_{\mu}a^2\eta_{\nu\rho} + \partial_{\nu}a^2\eta_{\mu\rho} - \partial_{\rho}a^2\eta_{\mu\nu}) \quad (18)$$

- with the only nonvanishing $\Gamma_{00}^{[0]0} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}$ and $\Gamma_{jk}^{[0]0} = \frac{\dot{a}}{a}\delta_{jk}$ (19)

- * which are zero for Minkovsky space background

- at first order we get more non-vanishing pieces ...

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2a^2}h^{\lambda\rho}(\partial_{\mu}a^2\eta_{\nu\rho} + \partial_{\nu}a^2\eta_{\mu\rho} - \partial_{\rho}a^2\eta_{\mu\nu}) + \frac{1}{2a^2}\eta^{\lambda\rho}(\partial_{\mu}a^2h_{\nu\rho} + \partial_{\nu}a^2h_{\mu\rho} - \partial_{\rho}a^2h_{\mu\nu}) \quad (20)$$

- for a result we have to specify the decomposition of the perturbation $h_{\mu\nu}$

- * and split the sums over μ into 0 and i

- for detection and local propagation of GWs, we can set a constant

- then $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = \hat{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu}^{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}\eta^{\lambda\rho}(\partial_{\mu}h_{\nu\rho} + \partial_{\nu}h_{\mu\rho} - \partial_{\rho}h_{\mu\nu})$ (21)

- * $h_{\mu\nu}$ here is the general one from eq.(6)

- * the linearised approach allows a general solution, that is simpler to write with this general $h_{\mu\nu}$

8. General Relativity — linearised Einstein equations

linearised Ricci tensor $R_{\mu\nu} = R^{[0]}_{\mu\nu} + \hat{R}_{\mu\nu} = R^{[0]\lambda}_{\mu\lambda\nu} + \hat{R}^\lambda_{\mu\lambda\nu}$ (22)

- gives at zero order the background curvature

$$\begin{aligned} R^\lambda_{\mu\lambda\nu} &= \partial_\lambda \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\nu\mu} - \partial_\nu \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\lambda\mu} - \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\nu\kappa} \Gamma^{[0]\kappa}_{\lambda\mu} + \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\lambda\kappa} \Gamma^{[0]\kappa}_{\nu\mu} \\ &= \partial_0 \Gamma^{[0]0}_{\nu\mu} - \partial_\nu \Gamma^{[0]0}_{0\mu} - \Gamma^{[0]0}_{\nu 0} \Gamma^{[0]0}_{0\mu} + \Gamma^{[0]0}_{00} \Gamma^{[0]0}_{\nu\mu} \\ &= \delta_{\mu(\nu \neq 0)} \left[\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\dot{a}}{a} + \left(\frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 \right] \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

- and to first order

$$\hat{R}^\lambda_{\mu\lambda\nu} = \partial_\lambda \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\nu\mu} - \partial_\nu \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\lambda\mu} - \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\nu\kappa} \hat{\Gamma}^\kappa_{\lambda\mu} - \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\nu\kappa} \Gamma^{[0]\kappa}_{\lambda\mu} + \Gamma^{[0]\lambda}_{\lambda\kappa} \hat{\Gamma}^\kappa_{\nu\mu} + \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\lambda\kappa} \Gamma^{[0]\kappa}_{\nu\mu} \quad (24)$$

- for $a = a_0$ we get $R_{\mu\nu} = \hat{R}_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\lambda \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\nu\mu} - \partial_\nu \hat{\Gamma}^\lambda_{\lambda\mu}$ (25)

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \partial^\rho h_{\nu\rho} + \partial_\nu \partial^\rho h_{\mu\rho} - \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h_{\mu\nu} - \partial_\nu \partial_\mu h)$$

— where $h = \eta^{\lambda\rho} h_{\lambda\rho}$ is the "trace" of $h_{\mu\nu}$

- the Ricci scalar $R = \eta^{\mu\nu} R_{\mu\nu} = (\partial^\lambda \partial^\rho h_{\lambda\rho} - \partial_\lambda \partial^\lambda h)$ (26)

- and the Einstein tensor $G_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \eta_{\mu\nu} R$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\partial_\mu \partial^\rho h_{\nu\rho} + \partial_\nu \partial^\rho h_{\mu\rho} - \partial_\rho \partial^\rho h_{\mu\nu} - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial^\lambda \partial^\rho h_{\lambda\rho} - \partial_\nu \partial_\mu h + \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\lambda \partial^\lambda h) \quad (27)$$

8. General Relativity — linearised Einstein equations

simplifying the Einstein tensor

- using a **trace-reversed** perturbation $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} := h_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}\eta_{\mu\nu}h$ (28)

⇒ the trace term in $G_{\mu\nu}$ disappears

- choosing additionally the *Lorentz gauge* $\partial^\mu \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (29)

⇒ most terms in $G_{\mu\nu}$ vanish: $G_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_\rho\partial^\rho\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} =: -\frac{1}{2}\square\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}$ (30)

⇒ **Einstein equations become simple wave equations** in vacuum:

$$G_{\mu\nu} = 8\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \Rightarrow \square\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \stackrel{\text{in vacuum}}{=} 0 \quad (31)$$

— with the simple solution $\bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = \int d^3k C_{\mu\nu}(\vec{k}) e^{i(\omega t - \vec{k}\cdot\vec{x})}$ (32)

* the Lorentz gauge leads to transversity: $k^\mu C_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (33)

- comparing to the Bardeen variables, eqs.(12) and (13):
 - only the **transverse-traceless** \hat{E}_{ik} survives the Lorentz condition

⇒ **transverse-traceless gauge** $h_{jk}^{\text{TT}} = 2\hat{E}_{jk}$ (34)

The transverse-traceless gauge

The transverse-traceless gauge: $k^\mu C_{\mu\nu} = 0$ $C^\mu{}_\mu = 0$ $C_{\mu 0} = C_{0\mu} = 0$
 $\partial^\mu h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} = 0$ $\eta^{\mu\nu} h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}} = 0$ $h_{\mu 0}^{\text{TT}} = h_{0\mu}^{\text{TT}} = 0$

For a wave propagating in the z direction: $k^\mu = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega)$

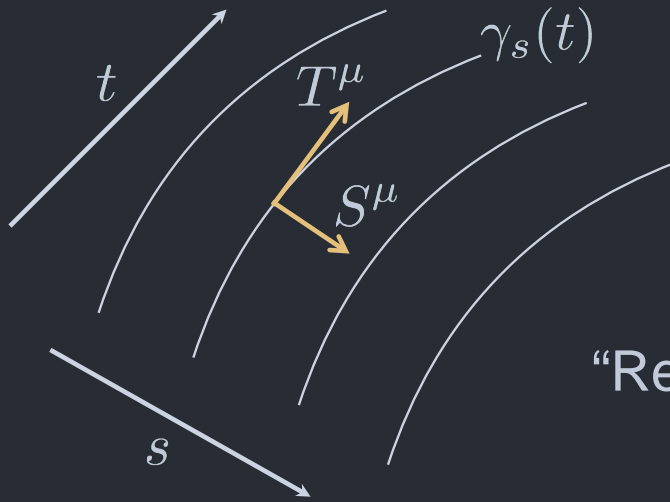
$$h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}(z, t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_\times & 0 \\ 0 & h_\times & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{i\omega(z-t)}$$

Consider a particle initially at rest: $U^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$

$$\frac{dU^\mu}{d\tau} + \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^\mu U^\nu U^\lambda = 0 \implies \text{initially, } \left. \frac{dU^\mu}{d\tau} \right|_{\tau=0} = -\Gamma_{00}^\mu = 0 \implies \text{zero acceleration}$$

TT gauge coordinates stay attached to particles

Geodesic deviation



Tangent vector: $T^\mu = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial t}$

Deviation vector: $S^\mu = \frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial s}$

“Relative velocity of geodesics”: $V^\mu = (\nabla_T S)^\mu = T^\nu \nabla_\nu S^\mu$

“Relative acceleration of geodesics”: $A^\mu = (\nabla_T V)^\mu$

Geodesic deviation equation:

$$A^\mu = \frac{D^2}{dt^2} S^\mu = R^\mu{}_{\nu\rho\sigma} T^\nu T^\rho S^\sigma$$

$$\frac{D}{d\lambda} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} \nabla_\mu$$

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Effect of gravitational waves on test particles

For nearby particles we have

$$\frac{D^2}{dt^2} S^\mu = R^\mu{}_{\nu\rho\sigma} U^\nu U^\rho S^\sigma$$

we use a single vector field for velocities of both particles

particles are moving slowly,
so we use “universal” time

separation between the particles

In the zeroth order in the perturbation, $U^\mu = (1, 0, 0, 0)$

Hence, $\frac{D^2}{dt^2} = \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} \nabla_\mu \frac{dx^\nu}{dt} \nabla_\nu = \nabla_0 \nabla_0 = \partial_0 \partial_0$ since, in TT gauge, $\Gamma^\mu_{0\nu} = 0$

The only required components are $R^\mu{}_{00\sigma} = \frac{1}{2} \partial_0 \partial_0 h^{\text{TT}\mu}{}_\sigma$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^\mu = \frac{1}{2} S^\sigma \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h^{\text{TT}\mu}{}_\sigma$$

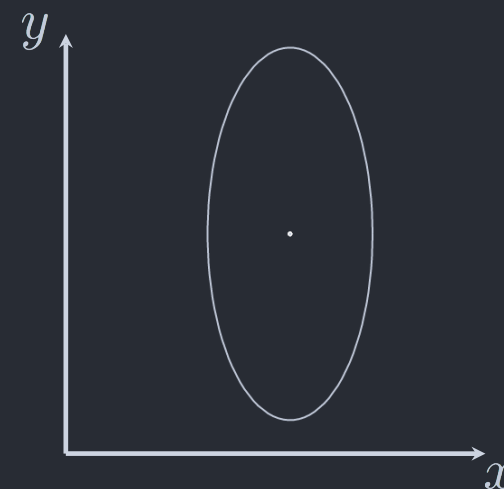
Polarisation of gravitational waves

For a wave propagating in the z direction: $k^\mu = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega)$

$$h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}(z, t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_\times & 0 \\ 0 & h_\times & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{i\omega(z-t)}$$

“Plus” polarisation:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^\mu = \frac{1}{2} S^\sigma \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h^{\text{TT}\mu}_\sigma$$



Let $h_\times = 0$:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^x = \frac{1}{2} S^x h_+ \omega^2 e^{i\omega(z-t)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad S^x = S^x(0) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} h_+ e^{i\omega(z-t)} + \mathcal{O}(h_+^2) \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^y = -\frac{1}{2} S^y h_+ \omega^2 e^{i\omega(z-t)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad S^y = S^y(0) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} h_+ e^{i\omega(z-t)} + \mathcal{O}(h_+^2) \right)$$

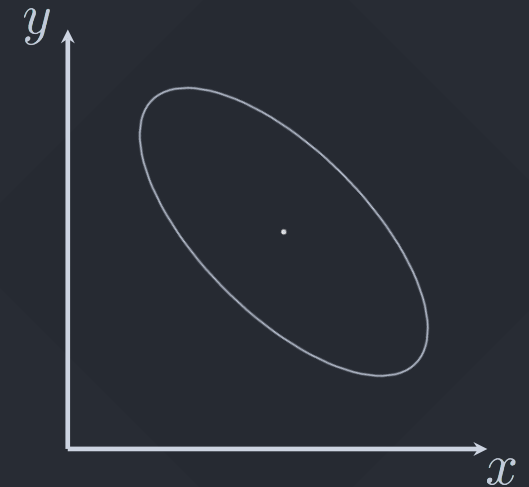
Polarisation of gravitational waves

For a wave propagating in the z direction: $k^\mu = (\omega, 0, 0, \omega)$

$$h_{\mu\nu}^{\text{TT}}(z, t) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & h_+ & h_\times & 0 \\ 0 & h_\times & -h_+ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{i\omega(z-t)}$$

“Cross” polarisation:

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} S^\mu = \frac{1}{2} S^\sigma \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} h^{\text{TT}\mu}_\sigma$$



Let $h_+ = 0$:

$$S^x = S^x(0) + \frac{1}{2} h_\times e^{i\omega(z-t)} S^y(0) + \mathcal{O}(h_\times^2)$$

$$S^y = S^y(0) + \frac{1}{2} h_\times e^{i\omega(z-t)} S^x(0) + \mathcal{O}(h_\times^2)$$

Wave is invariant under rotation by 180° around the direction of propagation

\implies gravitons should have spin 2

$(360^\circ/180^\circ = 2)$

Energy flux

To discuss energy, we have to include the second order:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} + h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} + \dots$$

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} + R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{lin}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}) + R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{lin}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}) + R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{quad}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}) + \dots$$

The Einstein equation in vacuum $R_{\mu\nu} + \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu\nu} = 0$ or $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ gives:

zeroth order: $R_{\mu\nu}^{(0)} = 0$

first order: $R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{lin}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}) = 0$ (allows us to determine $h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}$)

second order: $R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{lin}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)}) - \frac{1}{2}R^{\text{lin}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(2)})\eta_{\mu\nu} + \underbrace{R_{\mu\nu}^{\text{quad}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}) - \frac{1}{2}R^{\text{quad}}(h_{\mu\nu}^{(1)})\eta_{\mu\nu}}_{\equiv -8\pi G t_{\mu\nu}} = 0$

Calculation of the energy–momentum tensor yields

$$t_{\mu\nu} \equiv \frac{1}{32\pi G} \left\langle (\partial_\mu h_{ij}^{\text{TT}})(\partial_\nu h_{\text{TT}}^{ij}) \right\rangle$$

$\langle \dots \rangle$ — averaging over many wavelengths

and the energy flux is $f = t_{00}$
(in conventional units, $f = ct_{00}$)

Quadrupole moment tensor

General solution of the wave equation $\square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu}$:

$$\bar{h}_{ij}(t, \mathbf{x}) = 4G \int \frac{T_{ij}(t - |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|, \mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} d\mathbf{x}'$$

In the limit $r \gg \delta r$, $\lambda \gg \delta r$ we have $\bar{h}_{ij}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{4G}{r} \int T_{ij}(t - r, \mathbf{x}') d\mathbf{x}'$
distance to source wavelength source dimensions

Using $\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = 0$, one may show that $\int T_{ij} d\mathbf{x}' = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \int T_{00} x_i x_j d\mathbf{x}'$

Employing the Newtonian approximation $T_{00}(t - r, \mathbf{x}') = \rho(t - r, \mathbf{x}')$
we define the quadrupole moment

$$I_{ij}(t - r) = \int \rho(t - r, \mathbf{x}') x_i x_j d\mathbf{x}'$$

The perturbation is then

$$\bar{h}_{ij}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{2G}{r} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} I_{ij}(t - r)$$

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Energy loss due to radiation

$$f = \frac{1}{32\pi G} \left\langle (\partial_0 h_{ij}^{\text{TT}})(\partial_0 h_{\text{TT}}^{ij}) \right\rangle$$

We are interested in the radiation power $\frac{dE}{dt} = \int_{S_\infty^2} f r^2 d\Omega$

We have $\bar{h}_{ij}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{2G}{r} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} I_{ij}(t - r)$

One may show that $h_{ij}^{\text{TT}}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \bar{h}_{ij}^{\text{TT}}(t, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{2G}{r} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} I_{ij}^{\text{TT}}(t - r) = \frac{2G}{r} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} J_{ij}^{\text{TT}}(t - r)$

with reduced quadrupole moment $J_{ij} = I_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} \delta_{ij} \delta^{kl} I_{kl}$

To convert to the TT gauge, we use the formula $J_{ij}^{\text{TT}} = \left(P_i^k P_j^l - \frac{1}{2} P_{ij} P^{kl} \right) J_{kl}$

with a projection tensor $P_{ij} = \delta_{ij} - n_i n_j$

unit vector along the direction of propagation 

Finally, the integral may be performed to yield $\frac{dE}{dt} = -\frac{G}{5} \left\langle \frac{d^3 J_{ij}}{dt^3} \frac{d^3 J^{ij}}{dt^3} \right\rangle$

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Hulse–Taylor binary pulsar — energy loss

Mass density of the system:

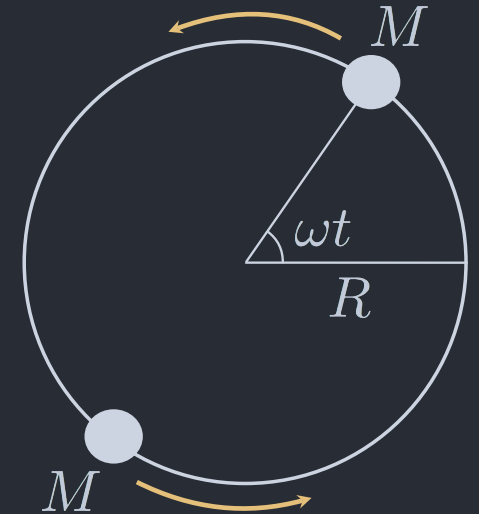
$$\rho(t, \mathbf{x}') = M\delta(x_3)\left(\delta(x_1 - R\cos\omega t)\delta(x_2 - R\sin\omega t) + \delta(x_1 + R\sin\omega t)\delta(x_2 + R\cos\omega t)\right)$$

Straightforward calculation of $I_{ij}(t-r) = \int \rho(t-r, \mathbf{x}')x_ix_j d\mathbf{x}'$

and then $J_{ij} = I_{ij} - \frac{1}{3}\delta_{ij}\delta^{kl}I_{kl}$

leads to the energy loss due to gravitational radiation

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = -\frac{G}{5} \left\langle \frac{d^3 J_{ij}}{dt^3} \frac{d^3 J^{ij}}{dt^3} \right\rangle = -\frac{128}{5} GM^2 R^4 \omega^6$$



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Hulse–Taylor binary pulsar — orbital decay

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = -\frac{G}{5} \left\langle \frac{d^3 J_{ij}}{dt^3} \frac{d^3 J^{ij}}{dt^3} \right\rangle = -\frac{128}{5} GM^2 R^4 \omega^6$$

Using the equation of motion $\frac{GM^2}{(2R)^2} = M \frac{v^2}{R}$

we get the energy as $E = -\frac{GM^2}{2R} + Mv^2 = -\frac{GM^2}{4R}$

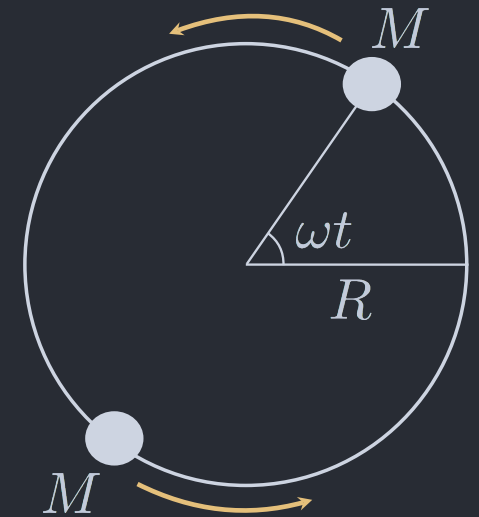
Expressing R in terms of the period T , $E = -M \left(\frac{G\pi M}{2} \right)^{2/3} T^{-2/3}$

Differentiating with respect to time and substituting the energy loss, we get the orbital decay

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = -\frac{48\pi}{5} \left(\frac{4\pi GM}{T} \right)^{5/3}$$

Taking into account that the masses are different and that the orbit is not circular, we find $\frac{dT}{dt} = -(2.40247 \pm 0.00002) \times 10^{-12} \text{ s/s}$

Measured: $\frac{dT}{dt} = -(2.4086 \pm 0.0052) \times 10^{-12} \text{ s/s}$



The Gravitational Wave Spectrum

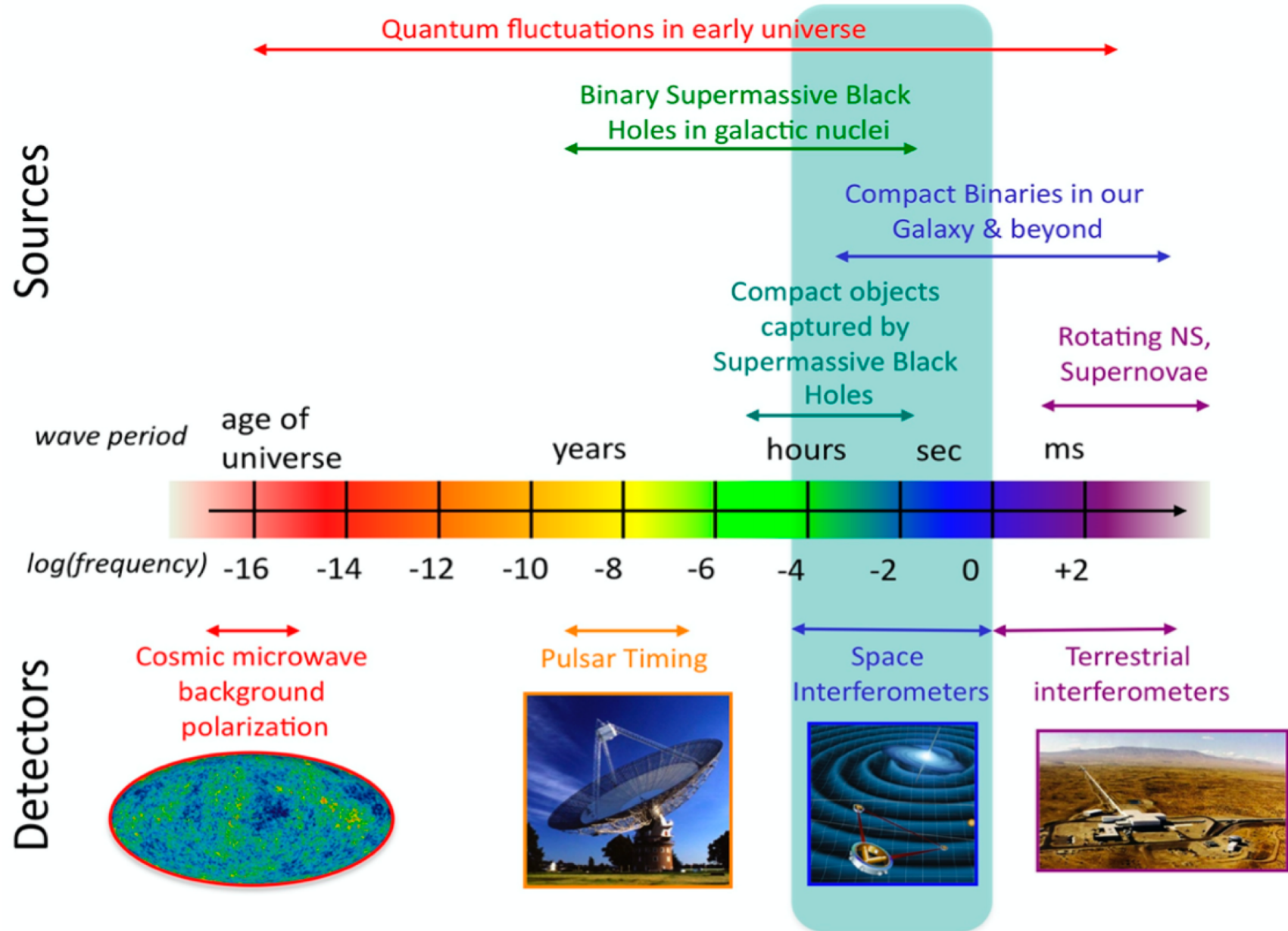


Figure 7. Gravitational wave spectrum showing wavelength and frequency along with some anticipated sources and the kind of detectors one might use. Figure credit: NASA Goddard Space Flight Center.