

Allgemeine Relativitätstheorie: Übungen & Lösungen 1 – 3

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Some further reading

- L. Ryder, *General relativity*, Cambridge Univ. Press (2009)
- T.P. Cheng, *Relativity, Gravitation and Cosmology*, 2^e
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- S. Weinberg, *Gravitation and cosmology*, Wiley (1978)
- C.M. Will, *Confrontation between general relativity and experiments*,
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- C.M. Will, *... und Einstein hatte doch Recht/Les enfants d'Einstein*,
Springer (1986)

Serie 1

1. Zu dem Geschwindigkeitsvektor (Raumvektor=Dreivektor) \mathbf{v} gehört der **Vierervektor (quadri-vecteur)** $u = (u^0, \mathbf{u})$ der **Vierergeschwindigkeit (quadri-vitesse)**. Wie kann man folgende Ausdrücke beschreiben:

- 1 u^0 durch $v := |\mathbf{v}|$.
- 2 u^j mit $j = 1, 2, 3$ durch \mathbf{v} .
- 3 u^0 durch u^j
- 4 $d/d\tau$ (wobei τ die **Eigenzeit/temps propre** ist) durch d/dt und \mathbf{v}
- 5 v^j durch u^j , mit $j = 1, 2, 3$
- 6 $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ durch u^0

Lösung:

Man hat stets $\mathbf{u} = (u^0, \mathbf{u})$, wobei

$$u^0 = \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \gamma, \quad \mathbf{u} = \gamma \mathbf{v}, \quad \text{mit } \gamma = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2} \quad \text{und } c = 1 \text{ gesetzt.}$$

Um diesen Punkt einzusehen, beginne man mit $u^2 = -1 \Leftrightarrow -(u^0)^2 + (\mathbf{u})^2 = -1$.

Mit den Definitionen von oben gibt das $-\gamma^2 + \gamma^2 v^2 = -1$ und daraus dann schließlich $\gamma = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2}$.

(1) $u^0 = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2}$ wobei $v = |\mathbf{v}|$ Betrag der Dreiergeschwindigkeit

(2) $u^j = \gamma v^j = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2} v^j$ mit $j = 1, 2, 3$

(3) eine Viergeschwindigkeit erfüllt immer $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = -\gamma^2 + \gamma^2 v^2 = -1$.

Daraus $u^0 = (1 + (\mathbf{u})^2)^{1/2} = (1 + u^j u_j)^{1/2}$

(4) $\frac{d}{d\tau} = \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{d}{dt} = \gamma \frac{d}{dt} = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2} \frac{d}{dt}$

(5) $v^j = u^j / u^0 = u^j (1 + u^j u_j)^{-1/2}$

(6) $v = |\mathbf{v}| = (1 - (u^0)^2)^{1/2}$

2. Man betrachte zwei "**Lorentzboosts**", nämlich L_x in der x -Richtung und L_y in der y -Richtung. Wie lauten die Matrizen für die zusammengesetzten Lorentztransformationen $L_y L_x$ und $L_x L_y$? Vertauschen diese Lorentztransformationen?

Lösung:

Die Matrizen der Lorentztransformationen in x - und y -Richtung sind

$$L_x = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_x & \gamma_x v_x & & & & \\ \gamma_x v_x & \gamma_x & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & \\ & & & 1 & & \\ & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad L_y = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_y & 0 & \gamma_y v_y & & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & & & & & \\ \gamma_y v_y & 0 & \gamma_y & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

wobei $\gamma_x = (1 - v_x^2)^{-1/2}$ und $\gamma_y = (1 - v_y^2)^{-1/2}$.

Leere Plätze sind Null

Hintereinanderausführung der Lorentztransformation erfolgt durch
Matrixmultiplikation

$$\begin{aligned} L_x L_y &= \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_x & \gamma_x v_x & & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_x v_x & \gamma_x & & & & & & & & \\ & & 1 & & & & & & & \\ & & & 1 & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_y & 0 & \gamma_y v_y & & & & & & & \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_y v_y & 0 & \gamma_y & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_x \gamma_y & \gamma_x v_x & \gamma_x \gamma_y v_y & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_x \gamma_y v_x & \gamma_x & \gamma_x \gamma_y v_x v_y & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_y v_y & 0 & \gamma_y & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ L_y L_x &= \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_x \gamma_y & \gamma_y \gamma_x v_x & \gamma_y v_y & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_x v_x & \gamma_x & 0 & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \gamma_x \gamma_y v_y & \gamma_x \gamma_y v_x v_y & \gamma_y & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = (L_x L_y)^T \neq L_x L_y \end{aligned}$$



Lorentztransformationen in verschiedenen Raumrichtungen vertauschen nicht.

3. Sei u ein kontravarianter Vierervektor und v ein kovarianter Vierervektor. Zeigen Sie, daß das Skalarprodukt $u \cdot v = u^\mu v_\mu$ lorentzinvariant ist.

Lösung:

Für einen kontravariant transformierenden Vektor $u^\mu \mapsto u'^\mu = \Lambda_\nu^\mu u^\nu$

Für einen kovariant transformierenden Vektor $v_\mu = \eta_{\mu\nu} v^\nu$ reduziert man auf den kontravarianten Fall.

Das Skalarprodukt ist $u \cdot v = u^\mu v_\mu = u^\mu v^\nu \eta_{\mu\nu}$. Damit

$$\begin{aligned} u \cdot v \mapsto u' \cdot v' &= \eta_{\mu\nu} u'^\mu v'^\nu \\ &= \underbrace{\eta_{\mu\nu} \Lambda_\rho^\mu \Lambda_\sigma^\nu}_{=\eta_{\rho\sigma}} u^\rho v^\sigma \\ &= \eta_{\rho\sigma} u^\rho v^\sigma = u \cdot v \end{aligned}$$

Alternative: man kann direkt die Transformation von v_μ herleiten: $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\nu\mu}$

$$v_\mu \mapsto v'_\mu = \eta_{\mu\nu} v'^\nu = \eta_{\mu\nu} \Lambda_\rho^\nu v^\rho = \Lambda_\mu^\rho v_\rho$$

$$\Rightarrow u' \cdot v' = \eta_{\mu\nu} u'^\mu v'^\nu = \underbrace{\eta_{\mu\nu} \Lambda_\rho^\mu \Lambda_\sigma^\nu}_{=\eta_{\sigma\rho}} u^\rho v_\sigma = \eta_{\sigma\rho} u^\rho v_\sigma = u \cdot v$$

4. Zwei **Inertialsysteme (repères d'inertie)** bewegen sich mit den Dreiergeschwindigkeiten \mathbf{v}_1 und \mathbf{v}_2 . Zeigen Sie, daß der Betrag ihrer Relativgeschwindigkeit \mathbf{v} durch folgenden Ausdruck gegeben ist:

$$\mathbf{v}^2 = \frac{(\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2)^2 - (\mathbf{v}_1 \wedge \mathbf{v}_2)^2}{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2} \quad (1)$$

für die Germanophonen: $\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}$ bezeichnet das **Vektorprodukt (produit vectoriel)** der 3D Vektoren \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} ; in Deutschland üblicherweise geschrieben als $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$.

Es gilt $|\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b}| = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\sin \theta$, wobei θ der Winkel zwischen \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} ist. Ferner $\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} \perp \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}$

Lösung:

Seien \mathbf{u}_1 und \mathbf{u}_2 die Viergeschwindigkeiten in beiden Inertialsystemen.

Im System 1 hat man $\mathbf{u}_1 = (1, \mathbf{0})$, $\mathbf{u}_2 = (\gamma, \gamma \mathbf{v})$ mit $\gamma = (1 - v^2)^{-1/2}$

Dann gilt $\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 = -\gamma$ und dies ist lorentzinvariant.

In einem beliebigen *dritten* Inertialsystem hat man $\mathbf{u}_1 = (\gamma_1, \gamma_1 \mathbf{v}_1)$ und $\mathbf{u}_2 = (\gamma_2, \gamma_2 \mathbf{v}_2)$. Damit

$$(1 - v^2)^{-1/2} = \gamma \stackrel{!}{=} -\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2 = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 - \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2$$

und unterscheide zwischen den Skalarprodukten im Minkowskiraum und im 3D Raum !

Das gibt $1 - v^2 = (\gamma_1 \gamma_2)^{-2} (1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^{-2}$. Auflösen nach v^2 ergibt

$$\begin{aligned} v^2 &= \frac{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2 - (1 - v_1^2)(1 - v_2^2)}{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2} \\ &= \frac{1 - 2\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + (\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2 - 1 + v_1^2 + v_2^2 - v_1^2 v_2^2}{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2} \\ &= \frac{(v_1^2 - 2\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 + v_2^2) + v_1^2 v_2^2 (\cos^2 \theta - 1)}{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2} = \frac{(\mathbf{v}_1 - \mathbf{v}_2)^2 - (\mathbf{v}_1 \wedge \mathbf{v}_2)^2}{(1 - \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

wie behauptet.

hier ist θ der Winkel zwischen \mathbf{v}_1 und \mathbf{v}_2 : $\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = v_1 v_2 \cos \theta$

5. Auf einer sehr langen geraden Schiene (die man sich entlang der x -Achse denken kann) rollt ein Zug mit der Geschwindigkeit v . In diesem Zug steht ein Tisch mit einer Modelleisenbahn, dessen Zug sich ebenfalls entlang der x -Achse bewegt und mit der Relativgeschwindigkeit v . Auf dem Modelleisenbahnzug rollt ein Miniaturmodell, mit Relativgeschwindigkeit v in Bezug auf den Modellzug, ebenfalls in der x -Richtung.

Wenn man sich diese Prozedur n -fach iteriert vorstellt, wie groß ist die Relativgeschwindigkeit v_n des n -ten Zuges? Was passiert im Grenzfall (limite) $n \rightarrow \infty$?

Wer will, kann an die Flöhe von Jonathan Swift (irischer Satiriker, 1667-1745) denken:

*So, naturalists observe, a flea
Hath smaller fleas that on him prey;
And these have smaller still to bite them;
And so proceed ad infinitum.
Thus every poet, in his kind,
Is bit by him that comes behind.*

Lösung:

Da alle Geschwindigkeiten parallel sind, genügt es, die Rapiditäten zu addieren: $v = \tanh \theta$. Damit

$$\theta_n = n\theta$$

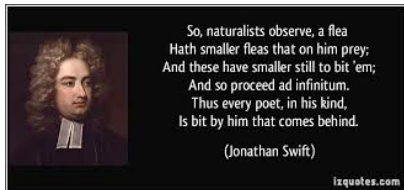
oder

$$\begin{aligned}v_n &= \tanh \theta_n = \tanh(n \operatorname{artanh} v) \\ &= \tanh \left(\ln \left(\frac{1+v}{1-v} \right)^{n/2} \right) = \frac{1 - [(1-v)/(1+v)]^n}{1 + [(1-v)/(1+v)]^n}\end{aligned}$$

wobei man verwendet: $\operatorname{artanh} x = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}$

und $\tanh x = \frac{1-e^{-2x}}{1+e^{-2x}}$.

Für $n \rightarrow \infty$ hat man $v_n \rightarrow 1 = c$.



Source: <https://www.quotemaster.org/Flea>

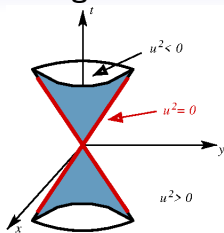
6. Das Minkowski'sche Skalarprodukt $u^2 = u \cdot u$ eines Vierervektors u mit sich selbst erlaubt folgende, relativistisch invariante Klassifizierung von Vierervektoren (mit der in der Vorlesung verwendeten Konvention $u^2 := -(u^0)^2 + (u^1)^2 + (u^2)^2 + (u^3)^2$):

$$\text{falls } \begin{cases} u^2 < 0 & u \text{ ist } \mathbf{zeitartig} \text{ (courbe de temps)} \\ u^2 = 0 & u \text{ ist } \mathbf{lichtartig} \text{ (courbe de lumière)} \\ u^2 > 0 & u \text{ ist } \mathbf{raumartig} \text{ (courbe d'espace)} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Für einen nicht raumartigen Vierervektor kann man ferner unterscheiden, in **zukunftsgerichtete** Vierervektoren mit $u^0 > 0$ und **vergangenheitsgerichtete** Vierervektoren mit $u^0 < 0$. Ist diese Einteilung lorentzinvariant ?

Anders gefragt, kann man eine Lorentztransformation finden, die für einen zeitartigen oder lichtartigen Vierervektor u es erlaubt, von $u^0 > 0$ nach $u'^0 < 0$ überzugehen ? Zeichnen Sie qualitativ einen Lichtkegel mit zukunftsgerichteten und vergangenheitsgerichteten Vierervektoren.

Lösung:



Der Lichtkegel in 1 + 2 Dimensionen dient zur Illustration.

Die Lorentztransformation für u^0 ist

$$u'^0 = \gamma(u^0 - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}) \quad (*)$$

? Falls \mathbf{u} zeitartig und $u^0 > 0$, gilt dann stets $u'^0 > 0$?

Falls \mathbf{u} zeitartig, dann hat man $(u^0)^2 - \mathbf{u}^2 > 0 \Rightarrow u^0 > |\mathbf{u}| \geq 0$.

Da die Relativgeschwindigkeit $|\mathbf{v}| \leq 1$ ($c = 1$), hat man (verwende die Cauchy-Schwarz Ungleichung im ersten Schritt)

$$|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leq |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \leq |\mathbf{u}| < u^0$$

und aus der Lorentztransformation folgt dann $u'^0 > 0$.

Analog kann man für \mathbf{u} lichtartig argumentieren: die Lorentztransformation (*) ändert nicht das Vorzeichen von u^0 .

7. Zeigen Sie, daß die Kurve

$$\begin{aligned} t &= \int d\lambda r & , & & x &= \int d\lambda r \cos \theta \cos \phi & , \\ y &= \int d\lambda r \cos \theta \sin \phi & , & & z &= \int d\lambda r \sin \theta \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

wobei $r = r(\lambda)$, $\theta = \theta(\lambda)$ und $\phi = \phi(\lambda)$ beliebige Funktionen sind, lichtartig ist. Im Englischen heißt eine solche Kurve auch

null curve.

Hinweis: man betrachte das infinitesimale Längenelement ds^2 .

Unter welchen Bedingungen wird diese Kurve eine **Geodäte/ligne géodésique**, d.h. in diesem Fall eine Gerade ?

Lösung:

Man berechnet die invariante Länge

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \\ &= (-r^2 + \underbrace{r^2 \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi + r^2 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi + r^2 \sin^2 \theta}_{=r^2 \cos^2 \theta}) d\lambda^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Die Kurve (3) ist **lichtartig**.

Um eine Geodäte, d.h.hier eine Gerade, zu bekommen, muß man haben:

- (i) $\frac{dz}{dt} = \sin^2 \theta \stackrel{!}{=} \text{cste.} \Rightarrow \theta = \text{cste.}$ und
 - (ii) $\frac{dx}{dt} = \cos^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi \stackrel{!}{=} \text{cste.} \Rightarrow \phi = \text{cste.}$
- aber keine Einschränkungen an $r = r(\lambda)$.

! wäre λ allerdings die Eigenzeit τ , dann müßt man auch fordern $\frac{dt}{d\tau} \stackrel{!}{=} \text{cste.}$, also $r = \text{cste.}$

8. Zeigen Sie, daß ein freies Elektron ein einzelnes Photon weder absorbieren noch emittieren kann.

Lösung:

Es genügt, die Unmöglichkeit in einer Richtung zu zeigen, also z.B. für die hypothetische Fusionsreaktion $\gamma + e^- \rightarrow e^-$.

Die Erhaltung von Energie-Impuls schreibt sich mit Hilfe der Viererimpulse

$$\mathbf{p}_\gamma + \mathbf{p}_e \stackrel{!}{=} \mathbf{p}'_e$$

Man bildet das Viererquadrat auf beiden Seiten

$$0 + 2\mathbf{p}_\gamma \cdot \mathbf{p}_e - m_e^2 = -m_e^2$$

was bedeutet, daß $\mathbf{p}_\gamma \cdot \mathbf{p}_e = 0$.

Im Ruhesystem des Elektrons hat man $\mathbf{p}_e = (m_e, \mathbf{0})$, $\mathbf{p}_\gamma = (E_\gamma, \mathbf{p}_\gamma)$, woraus folgt $m_e E_\gamma = 0$.

Die Photonenenergie für ein reelles Photon ist aber stets positiv, $E_\gamma > 0$.

Damit kann die angenommene Reaktion nicht existieren.

9.

- ① Im Prozeß der **Comptonstreuung (diffusion de Compton)** trifft ein Photon mit der Wellenlänge λ auf ein ruhendes Elektron der Masse m_e und wird unter einem **Streuwinkel (angle de diffusion)** θ und der Wellenlänge λ' wieder ausgesandt. Zeigen Sie, daß gilt (h ist die Planck'sche Konstante)

$$\lambda' - \lambda = \frac{h}{m_e} (1 - \cos \theta) \quad (4)$$

- ② Man spricht vom **inversen Comptoneffekt (effet de Compton inverse)** wenn ein Photon von einem geladenen Teilchen mit einer sehr großen Geschwindigkeit $|\mathbf{v}| \lesssim c = 1$ gestreut wird. Welche Energie kann ein geladenes Teilchen der Masse m und der Energie $E \gg m$ (gemessen im **Laborsystem/repère d'inertie de laboratoire**) bei frontaler Kollision mit einem Photon der Frequenz ν (und $h\nu \gg m$) maximal auf das Photon übertragen ?

- 3 Das Universum ist von einem kalten Gas von Photonen mit der Temperatur von 3[K] erfüllt. Protonen der intergalaktischen **kosmischen Strahlung** (**rayonnement cosmique** inter-galactique) können Energien bis zu 10^{20} [eV] haben. Wieviel Energie kann ein Proton der Energie 10^{20} [eV] auf eines der kalten Photonen übertragen ?

Lösung:



Ein Photon γ trifft auf ein ruhendes Elektron e . Nach dem **elastischen Stoß (collision élastique)** fliegen beide davon. Das Photon hat dabei in Bezug auf die Einfallsrichtung (**Streuachse - l'axe d'incidence**) den Winkel θ .

(1) Die Energie-Impuls-Erhaltung, vor und nach dem Stoß, wird durch die Viererimpulse ausgedrückt

$$\mathbf{p}_\gamma + \mathbf{p}_e = \mathbf{p}'_e + \mathbf{p}'_\gamma$$

verwende $\mathbf{p}_\gamma^2 = 0$ und $\mathbf{p}_e^2 = -m_e^2$, mit Einheiten so daß $c = 1$

$$(\mathbf{p}_\gamma + \mathbf{p}_e - \mathbf{p}'_\gamma)^2 = (\mathbf{p}'_e)^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{-m_e^2 + 2\mathbf{p}_e \cdot \mathbf{p}_\gamma - 2\mathbf{p}_e \cdot \mathbf{p}'_\gamma - 2\mathbf{p}_\gamma \cdot \mathbf{p}'_\gamma = -m_e^2} \quad (*)$$

Im Laborsystem (Elektron ruht vor dem Stoß): $\mathbf{p}_e = (m_e, \mathbf{0})$, $\mathbf{p}_\gamma = \left(\frac{h}{\lambda}, \frac{h}{\lambda} \mathbf{e}_{\text{ein}}\right)$,
 $\mathbf{p}'_\gamma = \left(\frac{h}{\lambda'}, \frac{h}{\lambda'} \mathbf{e}_{\text{aus}}\right)$ mit $\mathbf{e}_{\text{ein,aus}}$: Richtung des Photons vor/nach dem Stoß

$$(*) \Rightarrow -\frac{m_e h}{\lambda} + \frac{m_e h}{\lambda'} - \left(-\frac{h^2}{\lambda \lambda'} + \frac{h^2}{\lambda \lambda'} \cos \theta\right) = 0 \text{ und Vereinfachen liefert dann (4).}$$

(2) Verwende erneut (*), in der Form $\mathbf{p}_\gamma \cdot \mathbf{p}'_\gamma = \mathbf{p}_e \cdot (\mathbf{p}_\gamma - \mathbf{p}'_\gamma)$. Maximaler Energietransfer tritt auf bei Rückstreuung, als Streuwinkel $\theta = 180^\circ$. Allgemein $\mathbf{p} = (E, \mathbf{p})$ und für ein Photon $E_\gamma = |\mathbf{p}_\gamma|$. Damit hat man

$$-E_\gamma E_{\gamma'} + \mathbf{p}_\gamma \cdot \mathbf{p}'_\gamma = -E(E_\gamma - E_{\gamma'}) + \mathbf{p} \cdot (\mathbf{p}_\gamma - \mathbf{p}'_\gamma)$$

Rückstreuung heißt $\mathbf{p}_\gamma = -\mathbf{p}'_\gamma$. Daher

$$2E_\gamma E_{\gamma'} = E(E_\gamma - E_{\gamma'}) - |\mathbf{p}|(E_\gamma + E_{\gamma'})$$

Damit $E_{\gamma'} = \frac{E_\gamma(E + |\mathbf{p}|)}{2E_\gamma + E - |\mathbf{p}|} \simeq \frac{E}{1 + m_e^2/(4EE_\gamma)}$

denn für $E \gg m$ hat man $|\mathbf{p}| = (E^2 - m^2)^{1/2} = E(1 - m^2/E^2)^{1/2} \simeq E - m^2/(2E) + \dots$

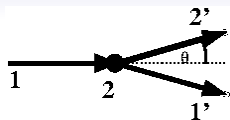
(3) Für Photonentemperatur $\approx 3[\text{K}]$ hat man $E_\gamma \sim k_B T \simeq 3 \cdot 10^{-4}[\text{eV}]$. Ein Proton hat eine Masse $m_p = 938[\text{MeV}]$ und $E_p \simeq 10^{20}[\text{eV}]$. Damit, aus Teil (2), wo jetzt das Proton den Platz des Elektrons einnimmt: $E_{\gamma'} \simeq 10^{19}[\text{eV}]$

☞ **äußerst hochenergetische γ -Strahlung !**

10. Ein Teilchen der Masse m und der kinetischen Energie T_0 kollidiert elastisch (d.h. *ohne* Produktion weiterer Teilchen !) mit einem ruhenden Teilchen gleicher Masse und werde unter dem Winkel θ gestreut. Wie groß ist seine kinetische Energie T' nach der Kollision ?

Lösung:

Energie-Impuls-Erhaltung $p_1 + p_2 \stackrel{!}{=} p'_1 + p'_2$



Eliminiere p'_2 . Daher $(p_1 + p_2 - p'_1)^2 = (p'_2)^2 = -m^2$ und weiter

$$-3m^2 + 2p_1 \cdot p_2 - 2p_1 \cdot p'_1 - 2p'_1 \cdot p_2 = -m^2$$

Ruhesystem des Teilchens 2, mit $E = m + T_0$ und $E' = m + T'$:

$$p_1 = (E, \mathbf{P}) \quad , \quad p_2 = (m, \mathbf{0}) \quad , \quad p'_1 = (E', \mathbf{P}')$$

Verwende auch $\mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{P}' = PP' \cos \theta$ und $P := |\mathbf{P}|$. Dann

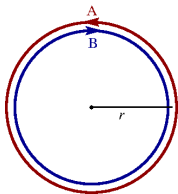
$$\begin{aligned} & -m^2 - Em + E'(E + m) - PP' \cos \theta = 0 \\ \Rightarrow & \sqrt{(E^2 - m^2)(E'^2 - m^2)} \cos \theta = (E' - m)(E + m) \\ \Rightarrow & (E - m)(E' + m) \cos^2 \theta = (E' - m)(E + m) \\ \Rightarrow & T_0(T' + 2m) \cos^2 \theta = T'(T_0 + 2m) \end{aligned}$$

und damit schließlich $T' = \frac{2mT_0 \cos^2 \theta}{2m + T_0 \sin^2 \theta}$.

11. Zwei Ringe mit gleichem Radius drehen sich mit betragsmäßig gleichen, aber entgegengesetzt orientierten, Winkelgeschwindigkeiten $\pm\omega$ um ein gemeinsames Zentrum. Auf jedem Ring sitzt ein Beobachter (A bzw. B), und beide sind mit einer guten Uhr exakt gleicher Fabrikation ausgestattet. Sie synchronisieren ihre Uhren in einem der Momente, wo sie aneinander vorbeifliegen.

In dem Augenblick der Passage bemerkt Beobachter B, daß die Uhr von A langsamer geht als seine eigene. Er erwartet daher, daß beim nächsten Treffen seine Uhr weiter vorgeschritten sein sollte. Andererseits macht Beobachter A die analoge Feststellung. Was passiert in der Realität ? Wie verträgt sich das mit den Beobachtungen von A und von B ?

Lösung:



Aus Symmetriegründen:
beide Uhren geben die gleiche Zeit.

Rotationsachse $\parallel \boldsymbol{\omega} \perp \mathbf{e}_x, \mathbf{e}_y$

Für die Rechnung, betrachte die Eigenzeit eines Beobachters in Ruhe im Zentrum der Ringe.

Mit Polarkoordinaten $-d\tau^2 = -dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2d\phi^2 + dz^2$

Für Beobachter **A**: $\phi_A = \omega t$, für Beobachter **B**: $\phi_B = -\omega t$. Damit

$$d\tau_A^2 = d\tau_B^2 = (1 - r^2\omega^2)dt^2$$

\Rightarrow Identität der Eigenzeitintervalle $d\tau_A = d\tau_B$ impliziert die Identität der Zeitintervalle beider Beobachter $dt_A = dt_B$.

Série 2

1. The invariant of Minkowski space reads, with the metric tensor $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$,

$$ds^2 = \eta_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta = \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} d\bar{x}^\mu d\bar{x}^\nu \quad (1)$$

where the coordinates \bar{x}^μ come from a coordinate transformation $x^\mu \mapsto \bar{x}^\mu$. Give the metric tensor $\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}$ in the new coordinates.

Solution:

it is enough to write out the respective derivatives (use the expansion $dx^\alpha = \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} d\bar{x}^\mu$)

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= \eta_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta \\ &= \eta_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} d\bar{x}^\mu \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu} d\bar{x}^\nu \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\eta_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu} \right)}_{=: \bar{g}_{\mu\nu}} d\bar{x}^\mu d\bar{x}^\nu \\ &= \bar{g}_{\mu\nu} d\bar{x}^\mu d\bar{x}^\nu \end{aligned}$$

and one can read off

$$\boxed{\bar{g}_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu}}$$

2. Consider the determinant of the metric tensors $g := \det g_{\mu\nu}$. Is it Lorentz-invariant ?

Solution:

The metric tensor transforms as follows

$$\bar{g}_{\mu\nu} = g_{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu} \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu}$$

and this can be viewed as a product of matrices. Taking the determinant

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{g} &:= \det(\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}) \\ &= \det(g_{\alpha\beta}) \det\left(\frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu}\right) \det\left(\frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu}\right) \\ &= g \left[\det\left(\frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu}\right) \right]^2\end{aligned}$$

For a general transformation $x \mapsto \bar{x}$, g is invariant if and only if $\det\left(\frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu}\right) = 1$.

For linear transformations, $\Lambda^\alpha_\nu = \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu}$ is a matrix with constant matrix elements. For a space rotation, $\det \Lambda = 1$ is well-known. For a Lorentz transformation (in x -direction)

$$\Lambda^\alpha_\nu = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & \gamma v & & \\ \gamma v & \gamma & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \theta & \sinh \theta & & \\ \sinh \theta & \cosh \theta & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det \Lambda = \begin{cases} \gamma^2 - \gamma^2 v^2 & = 1 \\ \cosh^2 \theta - \sinh^2 \theta & = 1 \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow g$ is Lorentz-invariant, but it is **not** invariant under general transformations.

3. Show that the invariant volume element of a four-dimensional space is given by

$$d^4V = (-g)^{1/2} d^4x = (-g)^{1/2} dt dx dy dz \quad (2)$$

where $g := \det g_{\mu\nu}$ is the determinant of the metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$.

Solution:

Under the transformation $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \bar{\mathbf{x}}$, the volume element is $d^4\mathbf{x} = \det\left(\frac{\partial\mathbf{x}}{\partial\bar{\mathbf{x}}}\right)d^4\bar{\mathbf{x}}$. One of the frames can be assumed to be Minkowski space with the metric tensor $\eta_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1, 1)$. From the previous exercise

$$-\bar{g} = -\det(\bar{g}_{\alpha\beta}) = -\det\left(\frac{\partial x^\mu}{\partial \bar{x}^\alpha} \frac{\partial x^\nu}{\partial \bar{x}^\beta} \eta_{\mu\nu}\right) = \left[\det\left(\frac{\partial\mathbf{x}}{\partial\bar{\mathbf{x}}}\right)\right]^2 (-\det\eta)$$

Hence $(-g)^{1/2} = \det\frac{\partial\mathbf{x}}{\partial\bar{\mathbf{x}}}$. In consequence

$$d^4\bar{V} := (-\bar{g})^{1/2}d^4\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \det\left(\frac{\partial\bar{\mathbf{x}}}{\partial\mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial\mathbf{x}}{\partial\bar{\mathbf{x}}}\right) (-g)^{1/2}d^4\mathbf{x} = d^4V$$

4. (a) Show that the *invariant* volume element of three-dimensional space, for an observer with the four-velocity u is given by

$$d^3V = (-g)^{1/2} u^0 d^3x \quad (3)$$

(b) Write down the *invariant* volume element of the contra-variant momentum d^4p in four-dimensional momentum space.

(c) Write down the *invariant* three-dimensional volume element in momentum space “*on the mass shell*”, that is with the constraint $\sqrt{-\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p}} = m$.

Solution:

(a) at rest, one has clearly $d^3V = dx dy dz$. One wants a scalar which to reduces to this at rest.

Start from d^4V , and introduce the component $u^0 = \frac{dt}{d\tau}$ of the four-velocity u , where τ is proper time.

$$d^4V = (-g)^{1/2} dt dx dy dz = (-g)^{1/2} dt dx dy dz \frac{u^0}{u^0} = (-g)^{1/2} u^0 d\tau dx dy dz$$

Since d^4V and $d\tau$ are scalars, $d^3V := (-g)^{1/2} u^0 dx dy dz$ must be scalar as well.

(b) The four-momentum $p = (P^0, \mathbf{P})$ transforms as a four-vector. The invariant volume element is

$$d^4p = (-g)^{1/2} dP^0 dP^x dP^y dP^z$$

(c) One has the extra constraint $(-\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p}) = m$. This gives the invariant 3D element

$$d^3 p = \int (-g)^{1/2} dP^0 dP^x dP^y dP^z \delta \left((-g_{\alpha\beta} P^\alpha P^\beta)^{1/2} - m \right)$$

From the theory of distributions (see e.g. Gelfand & Shilov, *Generalised Functions, Vol. 1*) one recalls the identity $\int dx \delta(f(x)) = \sum_{x_0} \frac{1}{|f'(x_0)|}$, where x_0 runs over all zeros of $f(x)$, that is $f(x_0) = 0$.

With the help of this, one eliminates the integration over P^0 and finds

$$\begin{aligned} d^3 p &= (-g)^{1/2} dP^x dP^y dP^z \left[-\frac{1}{2} (-g_{\alpha\beta} P^\alpha P^\beta)^{1/2} 2g_{t\alpha} P^\alpha \right]^{-1} \\ &= (-g)^{1/2} dP^x dP^y dP^z \left(\frac{m}{-P_0} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

In the rest frame, this reduces indeed to $d^3 p \rightarrow dP^x dP^y dP^z$, as expected.

5. Relativistic electrodynamics is described by the field tensor $F^{\mu\nu} = \partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu$ where A is the four-vector-potential. On a test body with electric charge q then acts the Lorentz force (frz. *force de Laplace* (sic !)), with four-momentum $p = mu$ and proper time τ

$$\frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} = qF^{\mu\nu} u_\nu \quad (5)$$

(a) Consider first the zeroth component (time component) $\mu = 0$ of the equation (5). Express it via the electric and magnetic fields \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} and show that

$$\frac{dp^0}{dt} = q\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{E} \quad (6)$$

(b) Write the equation for $d\mathbf{p}/dt$, expressed via \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} .

Hint: consider the space components of (5).

(c) A particle with electric charge q and mass m moves on a circle with radius R in an uniform magnetic field $\mathbf{B} = B\mathbf{e}_z$.

(i) Express B in terms of known quantities and the angular frequency ω .

(ii) In the rest system, why the magnetic field \mathbf{B} cannot furnish work on the particle? Was is the finding of an observer, who moves with the relative velocity $\beta\mathbf{e}_x$? Which velocity does he find, and in particular, which value of $u^{0'}$?

(iii) Determine $du^{0'}/d\tau$ and hence also $dp^{0'}/d\tau$. Why can the energy of the particle change, although the magnetic field \mathbf{B} does not furnish work?

Solution:

(a) set $\mu = 0$ in eq. (5): $\frac{dp^0}{d\tau} = qF^{0\nu}u_\nu = qE^i\gamma v_i$, with $i = 1, 2, 3$. Because of $d\tau = dt/\gamma$, this gives indeed eq. (6).

almost identical at the non-relativistic form, but p^0 also contains the rest energy.

(b) this is worked out directly

$$\frac{dp^i}{d\tau} = \gamma \frac{dp^i}{dt} = qF^{i\nu}u_\nu = qF^{i0}u_0 + qF^{ij}u_j = q\gamma E^i + q\gamma\epsilon^{ijk}B_k v_j$$

which is indeed the Lorentz force $\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \wedge \mathbf{B})$.

(c) (i) from the Lorentz force $\omega|\mathbf{p}| = \left|\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt}\right| = q|\mathbf{v}||\mathbf{B}|$. Then

$$B = |\mathbf{B}| = \frac{\omega|\mathbf{p}|}{q|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{m\omega}{q\sqrt{1-v^2}} = \frac{m\omega}{q\sqrt{1-\omega^2 R^2}} \quad (\text{having set } c = 1).$$

(ii) in (6), the change of the energy p^0 does not depend on B , hence $p^0 = \text{cste.}$ **No work** is neither furnished, nor gained.

In the frame of the laboratory, the components of the four-velocity are

$$u^0 = (1 - \omega^2 R^2)^{-1/2}, \quad u^x = \frac{\omega y}{\sqrt{1 - \omega^2 R^2}}, \quad u^y = -\frac{\omega x}{\sqrt{1 - \omega^2 R^2}}$$

On the other hand, for an observer with relative velocity $\beta \mathbf{e}_x$, one finds from a Lorentz transformation

$$u'^0 = \gamma(u^0 - \beta u^x) = \gamma(1 - \beta \omega y)(1 - \omega^2 R^2)^{-1/2}, \quad \gamma = (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2} \quad (*)$$

(iii) we have $\frac{dp'^0}{d\tau} = m \frac{du'^0}{d\tau} = -\frac{m\omega\gamma\beta u^y}{\sqrt{1-\omega^2 R^2}} \neq 0$.

No contradiction, since the electric/magnetic fields transform as follows

$$\begin{aligned} E'^y &= F'^{02} = \Lambda_\mu^0 \Lambda_\nu^2 F^{\mu\nu} \\ &= \Lambda_0^0 \Lambda_\nu^2 F^{0\nu} + \Lambda_1^0 \Lambda_\nu^2 F^{1\nu} = \Lambda_0^0 \Lambda_2^2 F^{02} + \Lambda_1^0 \Lambda_2^2 F^{12} \\ &= \gamma \cdot 1 \cdot E^y + (-\gamma\beta) \cdot 1 \cdot B^z \end{aligned}$$

The electric field \mathbf{E} does not at all transform as a vector.

If $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}$, one has $E'^y = -\gamma\beta B^z$. From (5), one expects

$$\frac{dp'^0}{d\tau} = qE'^y u'^y = -\frac{m\omega\gamma\beta u^y}{\sqrt{1-\omega^2 R^2}} = -\frac{m\omega\gamma\beta u^y}{\sqrt{1-\omega^2 R^2}}$$

in perfect agreement with (*) above.

The electric field created by Lorentz-transforming the magnetic field \mathbf{B} furnishes the work.

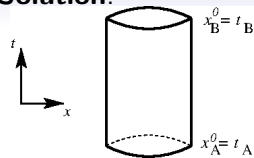
6. A vector field $J^\alpha(\mathbf{x})$ satisfies the continuity equation (conservation law) $\partial_\alpha J^\alpha = 0$ and for large distances $r = |\mathbf{r}| \rightarrow \infty$ it falls off faster than r^{-2} .

(a) Show that $Q := \int d^3x J^0$ is constant in time.

(b) Show that Q is a Lorentz scalar, that is $\int d^3x J^0 = \int d^3x' J^{0'}$.

Therefore, Q is called the **conserved charge** of the conserved four-current J^α .

Solution:



(a) take a domain Ω bounded in time by x_A^0 below and x_B^0 above and with spatial sides far from the origin

using Gauss's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_{\Omega} d^4V \partial_{\alpha} J^{\alpha} = \int_{\Omega} dt \partial_{\alpha} J^{\alpha} dx dy dz \\ &= \int_{t_A}^{t_B} J^{\alpha} d^3\Sigma^{\alpha} + \int_{t_B} J^{\alpha} d^3\Sigma^{\alpha} \\ &= \int_{t_B} J^0 dx dy dz - \int_{t_A} J^0 dx dy dz = Q(t_B) - Q(t_A) \end{aligned}$$

$d\Sigma^{\alpha}$ is the surface element, oriented *normal* to the surface

- for the only surface here in finite distances, in time-direction

(b) write the charge as $Q = \int d^4x J^{\alpha} \partial_{\alpha} \Theta(n_{\beta} x^{\beta})$, where $n_0 = 1$,

$n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = 0$ and $\Theta(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } u \leq 0 \end{cases}$. To see this, note that Q only contains

Lorentz-invariant quantities. It is enough to check it at rest.

$$Q = \int d^4x J^0 \partial_{x^0} \Theta(n_\beta x^\beta) = \int d^4x J^0(x) \delta(x^0) = \int d^3x J^0(0, \mathbf{x}) = Q(0)$$

that is $Q = Q(t) = Q(0)$ is time-independent.

Under a Lorentz transform $Q \mapsto Q' = \int d^4x J^\alpha \partial_\alpha \Theta(n'_\beta x'^\beta)$, with $n'_\beta = \Lambda_\beta^\gamma n_\gamma$.
Hence

$$Q' - Q = \int d^4x \partial_\alpha \left(J^\alpha(x) (\Theta(n'_\beta x'^\beta) - \Theta(n_\beta x^\beta)) \right)$$

Since one knows that (i) $J^\alpha(x) \rightarrow 0$ if $|\mathbf{x}| \rightarrow \infty$ fast enough and (ii) $\Theta(n'_\beta x'^\beta) - \Theta(n_\beta x^\beta) \rightarrow 0$ if $|t| \rightarrow \infty$, one can again apply Gauss's theorem in $4D$ and express $Q' - Q$ as surface integrals.

This implies $Q' - Q = 0$, hence Q is scalar.

7. Show that the two-dimensional space with the metric

$$ds^2 = dv^2 - v^2 du^2 \quad (7)$$

is identical to the flat two-dimensional Minkowski-space with the metric $ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2$.

Hint: find a coordinate transformation $t = t(v, u)$ and $x = x(v, u)$ which sends the Minkowski metric into the metric (7).

Also show that for a non-accelerated particle the contra-variant component p_u of the 'four-momentum' p is constant. Is this also true for the component p_v ?

Solution:

one might use the analogy with polar coordinates as inspiration

make the ansatz $t = v \sinh u$, $x = v \cosh u$, hence $x^2 - t^2 = v^2$ and $x/t = \coth u$.

$$dt = dv \sinh u + du v \cosh u$$

$$dx = dv \cosh u + du v \sinh u$$

and furthermore $ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 = dv^2 - v^2 du^2$. Inverting the above infinitesimal transformation gives

$dv = dx \cosh u - dt \sinh u$ and $du = v^{-1}(dt \cosh u - dx \sinh u)$. Next,

$$p_u = g_{uu} p^u = -mv^2 \frac{du}{d\tau} = -mv \cosh u \frac{dt}{d\tau} + mv \sinh u \frac{dx}{d\tau} = -mx \frac{dt}{d\tau} + mt \frac{dx}{d\tau}$$

Non-accelerated particle: $x(t) = x_0 + \frac{dx}{dt} t$, $\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \text{cste.}$, $\frac{dx}{d\tau} = \text{cste.}$. Hence

$p_u = -m \frac{dt}{d\tau} x_0 = \text{cste.}$, as claimed.

Since $-m^2 = p \cdot p = g^{vv} (p_v)^2 + g^{uu} (p_u)^2 = (p_v)^2 - \frac{1}{v^2} (p_u)^2 \Rightarrow p_v \neq \text{cste.}$.

8. Show that the metric of the surface of the three-dimensional sphere S^3 embedded into $4D$ euclidean space reads:

$$ds^2 = R^2 [d\alpha^2 + \sin^2 \alpha (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2)] \quad (8)$$

(R is the constant radius of the sphere)

Hint: how would you formulate $4D$ spherical coordinates ?

Solution:

a sphere S^3 with radius R is given by $x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2 = R^2$. Then introduce the coordinates

$$x_4 = R \cos \alpha$$

$$x_3 = R \sin \alpha \cos \theta$$

$$x_2 = R \sin \alpha \sin \theta \cos \phi$$

$$x_1 = R \sin \alpha \sin \theta \sin \phi$$

In cartesian coordinates, the metric is $ds^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 + dx_4^2$ and reproducing (8) is straightforward.

start with $dx_4 = -R \sin \alpha d\alpha$ etc.

9. Hyperboloide haben die folgende Parameterdarstellung im dreidimensionalen Raum \mathbb{R}^3

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \sqrt{s^2 + d} \cos \varphi \\ b \sqrt{s^2 + d} \sin \varphi \\ c s \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{so da\ss} \quad \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^2 = d$$

wobei a, b, c Konstante sind und $d = \pm 1$. F\u00fcr $d = +1$ hat man ein **einschaliges Hyperboloid (hyperbolo\u00efde \u00e0 une nappe)** H_1 und f\u00fcr $d = -1$ ein **zweischaliges Hyperboloid (hyperbolo\u00efde \u00e0 deux nappes)** H_2 .

F\u00fcr ein **einschaliges Hyperboloid** kann man w\u00e4hlen $s = \sinh \xi$ und f\u00fcr ein **zweischaliges Hyperboloid** $s = \cosh \xi$.

Geben Sie die Parameterdarstellung in beiden F\u00e4llen an und ebenfalls, welche geometrische Bedingung diese beiden Fl\u00e4chen erf\u00fcllen. Wie kann man diese geometrisch veranschaulichen? Wie lautet die Metrik $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 - dz^2$ (f\u00fcr $a = b = c$) und insbesondere der metrische Tensor in beiden F\u00e4llen?

Solution:

(a) einschaliges Hyperboloid $d = +1$: setzt man $s = \sinh \xi$, so findet man

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} a \cosh \xi \cos \varphi \\ b \cosh \xi \sin \varphi \\ c \sinh \xi \end{pmatrix}, \text{ was die Oberfläche } \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^2 = 1 \text{ parametrisiert.}$$

Es ist äquivalent, $a = b = c$ zu setzen und als Oberfläche zu nehmen

$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = a^2$. Die Parametrisierung verifiziert diese Oberfläche, weil

$$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = a^2(\cosh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi + \cosh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi - \sinh^2 \xi) = a^2(\cosh^2 \xi - \sinh^2 \xi) = a^2$$

Damit wird die Metrik

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx^2 + dy^2 - dz^2 \\ &= (a \sinh \xi \cos \varphi d\xi - a \cosh \xi \sin \varphi d\varphi)^2 + (a \sinh \xi \cos \varphi d\xi + a \cosh \xi \cos \varphi d\varphi)^2 - (a \cosh \xi d\xi)^2 \\ &= (a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi d\xi^2 - 2a^2 \cosh \xi \sinh \xi \cos \varphi \sin \varphi d\xi d\varphi + a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi d\varphi^2) \\ &\quad + (a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi d\xi^2 + 2a^2 \cosh \xi \sinh \xi \cos \varphi \sin \varphi d\xi d\varphi + a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi d\varphi^2) - a^2 \cosh^2 \xi d\xi^2 \\ &= a^2 \sinh^2 \xi d\xi^2 + a^2 \cosh^2 \xi d\varphi^2 - a^2 \cosh^2 \xi d\xi^2 \\ &= a^2(-d\xi^2 + \cosh^2 \xi d\varphi^2) \end{aligned}$$

Mit der Notation $(x^1, x^2) = (\xi, \varphi)$ hat man $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$ mit dem metrischen

$$\text{Tensor } g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -a^2 & 0 \\ 0 & a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \end{pmatrix}.$$

(b) zweischaliges Hyperboloid $d = -1$: setzt man $s = \cosh \xi$, so findet man

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} a \sinh \xi \cos \varphi \\ b \sinh \xi \sin \varphi \\ \pm c \cosh \xi \end{pmatrix}, \text{ was die Oberfläche } \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{z}{c}\right)^2 = -1$$

parametrisiert. Es ist äquivalent, $a = b = c$ zu setzen und als Oberfläche zu nehmen $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = -a^2$. Die Parametrisierung verifiziert diese Oberfläche, weil

$$x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = a^2(\sinh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi + \sinh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi - \cosh^2 \xi) = a^2(-\cosh^2 \xi + \sinh^2 \xi) = -a^2$$

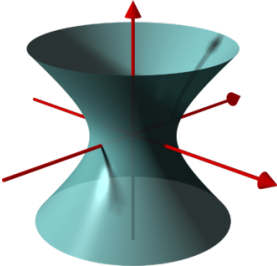
Damit wird die Metrik

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= dx^2 + dy^2 - dz^2 \\ &= (a \cosh \xi \cos \varphi d\xi - a \sinh \xi \sin \varphi d\varphi)^2 + (a \cosh \xi \cos \varphi d\xi + a \sinh \xi \cos \varphi d\varphi)^2 - (a \sinh \xi d\xi)^2 \\ &= (a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi d\xi^2 - 2a^2 \cosh \xi \sinh \xi \cos \varphi \sin \varphi d\xi d\varphi + a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi d\varphi^2) \\ &\quad + (a^2 \cosh^2 \xi \sin^2 \varphi d\xi^2 + 2a^2 \cosh \xi \sinh \xi \cos \varphi \sin \varphi d\xi d\varphi + a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \cos^2 \varphi d\varphi^2) - a^2 \sinh^2 \xi d\xi^2 \\ &= a^2 \cosh^2 \xi d\xi^2 + a^2 \sinh^2 \xi d\varphi^2 - a^2 \sinh^2 \xi d\xi^2 \\ &= a^2(d\xi^2 + \sinh^2 \xi d\varphi^2) \end{aligned}$$

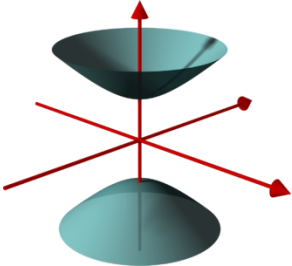
Mit der Notation $(x^1, x^2) = (\xi, \varphi)$ hat man $ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$ mit dem metrischen

$$\text{Tensor } g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & 0 \\ 0 & a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \end{pmatrix}.$$

eine geometrische Vorstellung ergibt sich aus den Abbildungen:



einschalig/ une nappe



zweischalig/ deux nappes

Physikalische Deutung: falls man die (ausgezeichnete) z-Richtung als Zeitachse in einem Zeit-Raum-Diagramm interpretiert, so ist das zweischalige Hyperboloid eine Illustration des Lichtkegels der Viererimpulses eines massiven Teilchens.

Bildquelle: <https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hyperboloid>

10. (a) In euclidean spaces the angle θ between two vectors \mathbf{U} and \mathbf{V} can be found from the scalar product, since $\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{V}}{|\mathbf{U}| |\mathbf{V}|}$. Consider more general spaces, with a metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$. How to define the angle between two vectors in such a case ?

(b) Consider **conformal transformations** $x^\mu \mapsto \bar{x}^\mu$, for which the metric tensor transforms as follows, by definition

$$g_{\alpha\beta} \mapsto f(\mathbf{x})g_{\alpha\beta} \quad (9)$$

where $f = f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x^\mu)$ is an arbitrary (differentiable) function. Show that conformal transformations keep all angles invariant. How do light-like curves transform ?

Solution:

(a) the cosine θ between two vectors is *defined* as

$$\cos \theta := \frac{\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{V}}{|\mathbf{U}| |\mathbf{V}|} = \frac{g_{\mu\nu} U^\mu V^\nu}{(g_{\mu\nu} U^\mu U^\nu g_{\alpha\beta} V^\alpha V^\beta)^{1/2}}$$

(b) under a conformal transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto \bar{\mathbf{x}}$ one has

$$\cos \theta \mapsto \cos \bar{\theta} = \frac{f(\mathbf{x}) g_{\mu\nu} U^\mu V^\nu}{(f(\mathbf{x}) g_{\mu\nu} U^\mu U^\nu f(\mathbf{x}) g_{\alpha\beta} V^\alpha V^\beta)^{1/2}} = \cos \theta$$

invariance of angles under conformal transformations

* light-like curves maintain this property, since

$$0 = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu \mapsto f(\mathbf{x}) g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu = 0 = \bar{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \bar{\mathbf{x}}$$

11. Consider the metric

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 - \left(\frac{3}{13}dx + \frac{4}{13}dy + \frac{12}{13}dz \right)^2 \quad (10)$$

Is this really a three-dimensional space? Try to find new coordinates ζ, η such that $ds^2 = d\zeta^2 + d\eta^2$.

Solution:

Criterion: 3D space iff $d^3V = g^{1/2} dx dy dz \neq 0$.

Hence work out the determinant

$$d^3V = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 - \left(\frac{3}{13}\right)^2 & -\frac{3}{13} \frac{4}{13} & -\frac{12}{13} \frac{3}{13} \\ -\frac{3}{13} \frac{4}{13} & 1 - \left(\frac{4}{13}\right)^2 & -\frac{4}{13} \frac{12}{13} \\ -\frac{12}{13} \frac{3}{13} & -\frac{4}{13} \frac{12}{13} & 1 - \left(\frac{12}{13}\right)^2 \end{array} \right|^{1/2} dx dy dz = 0$$

\Rightarrow the space must be either 1D or 2D.

Since the metric does not depend explicitly on z , one can consider the projection into the xy -plane where

$$ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 - \left(\frac{3}{13} dx + \frac{4}{13} dy \right)^2$$

$$g = \det \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 - \left(\frac{3}{13}\right)^2 & -\frac{3}{13} \frac{4}{13} \\ -\frac{3}{13} \frac{4}{13} & 1 - \left(\frac{4}{13}\right)^2 \end{array} \right) = \frac{14336}{169^2} \neq 0$$

shows that this projection is indeed 2D. One can diagonalise $g_{\mu\nu}$ and find $ds^2 = d\zeta^2 + d\eta^2$, where

$$\zeta = \frac{12}{5} \left(\frac{3}{13} x + \frac{4}{13} y \right), \quad \eta = \frac{12}{5} \left(-\frac{4}{13} x + \frac{3}{13} y \right)$$

Série 3

1. The covariant derivatives of the metric tensor are defined as follows

$$\begin{aligned} g_{\mu\nu;\lambda} &:= g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} - g_{\sigma\nu}\Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^{\sigma} - g_{\mu\sigma}\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\sigma} \\ \text{with } \Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu} &= g^{\mu\rho}\Gamma_{\rho\nu\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho}(g_{\rho\nu,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\rho}) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where $\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu}$ denote the Christoffel symbols. Show that the metric tensor $g_{\mu\nu}$ always has a vanishing covariant derivative, that is

$$g_{\mu\nu;\lambda} = 0.$$

N.B.: *this **compatibility property** of the metric is characteristic for Einstein's theory of gravitation. In particular, such metrics are also compatible with flat spaces with a Minkowski metric tensor.*

Solution:

Begin with recalling from (1) the definition of $g_{\mu\nu;\lambda}$. For comparing the Christoffel symbols, it is useful to put all indices down-stairs

$$\Gamma_{\rho\nu\lambda} = \frac{1}{2}(g_{\rho\nu,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\rho})$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned}g_{\mu\nu;\lambda} &= g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} - \Gamma_{\nu\mu\lambda} - \Gamma_{\mu\nu\lambda} \\&= g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} - \frac{1}{2}(g_{\nu\mu,\lambda} + g_{\nu\lambda,\mu} - g_{\mu\lambda,\nu}) - \frac{1}{2}(g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} + g_{\mu\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\mu}) \\&= g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} - g_{\mu\nu,\lambda} = 0\end{aligned}$$

the symmetry $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$ has been frequently used

2. Show that for a *diagonal* metric with metric tensor

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag} (g_{00}, g_{11}, g_{22}, g_{33}) = \begin{pmatrix} g_{00} & & & \\ & g_{11} & & \\ & & g_{22} & \\ & & & g_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (2)$$

the Christoffel symbols have the following values:

$$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\nu\lambda} = 0 \quad ; \quad \Gamma^{\mu}_{\lambda\lambda} = -\frac{1}{2g_{\mu\mu}} \frac{\partial g_{\lambda\lambda}}{\partial x^{\mu}}$$
$$\Gamma^{\mu}_{\mu\lambda} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \ln \sqrt{|g_{\mu\mu}|} \quad ; \quad \Gamma^{\mu}_{\mu\mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} \ln \sqrt{|g_{\mu\mu}|} \quad (3)$$

Herein is always $\mu \neq \nu \neq \lambda \neq \mu$ and there is **no summation** over repeated indices !

Solution:

The Christoffel symbols are given by

$$\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho} (g_{\rho\nu,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\nu} - g_{\nu\lambda,\rho}) \quad (*)$$

(a) since g is diagonal, one must have $\rho = \mu$ in $(*)$. But since $\mu \neq \nu \neq \lambda \neq \mu$, none of the components $\Gamma_{\nu\lambda}^{\mu}$ is non-zero.

(b) if we set $\nu = \lambda$ in $(*)$, we find

$$\Gamma_{\lambda\lambda}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho} (g_{\rho\lambda,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\lambda} - g_{\lambda\lambda,\rho}) = -\frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho} g_{\lambda\lambda,\rho} = -\frac{1}{2}(g_{\mu\mu})^{-1} g_{\lambda\lambda,\mu}$$

(c) if we set $\nu = \mu$ in $(*)$, we find

$$\Gamma_{\mu\lambda}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2}g^{\mu\rho} (g_{\rho\mu,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\mu} - g_{\mu\lambda,\rho}) = \frac{1}{2}(g_{\mu\mu})^{-1} g_{\mu\mu,\lambda} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \ln(|g_{\mu\mu}|^{1/2})$$

(d) simply set $\mu = \lambda$ in (c) and obtain

$$\Gamma_{\mu\mu}^{\mu} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{\mu}} \ln(|g_{\mu\mu}|^{1/2})$$

3. Die **Pseudosphäre** P^2 hat die Metrik $ds^2 = a^2(d\xi^2 + \sinh^2 \xi d\varphi^2)$ eines Hyperboloides. Was ist die Form der geodätischen Kurven ?

The **pseudo-sphere** P^2 has the metric $ds^2 = a^2(d\xi^2 + \sinh^2 \xi d\varphi^2)$ of a hyperboloide. What is the form of the geodesic curves ?

Solution:

This is the metric of a two-sheeted hyperboloid H_2 , as seen in an earlier exercise. Label the coordinates as $(x^1, x^2) = (\xi, \varphi)$. The geodesics are obtained as solutions of the *geodesic equations*

$$\ddot{x}^\mu + \Gamma_{\kappa\lambda}^\mu \dot{x}^\kappa \dot{x}^\lambda = 0 \quad , \quad \Gamma_{\kappa\lambda}^\mu = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\rho} (g_{\rho\kappa,\lambda} + g_{\rho\lambda,\kappa} - g_{\kappa\lambda,\rho}) = \Gamma_{\lambda\kappa}^\mu$$

First one must find the non-vanishing Christoffel symbols. Since the metric is diagonal, one can use the technique explained in the previous exercise. Also, the non-zero elements of the inverse metric tensor are found, e.g. via $g^{11} = \frac{1}{g_{11}}$. The only non-vanishing Christoffel symbols are

$$\Gamma_{22}^1 = -\frac{1}{2} g^{11} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} g_{22} = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot (2 \sinh \xi \cosh \xi) = -\sinh \xi \cosh \xi$$

$$\Gamma_{21}^2 = \Gamma_{12}^2 = \frac{1}{2} g^{22} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} g_{22} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2 \sinh \xi \cosh \xi}{\sinh^2 \xi} = \coth \xi$$

Then the two geodesic equations read

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x}^1 + \Gamma_{22}^1 \dot{x}^2 \dot{x}^2 &= 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ddot{\xi} - \sinh \xi \cosh \xi \dot{\varphi}^2 = 0 \\ \ddot{x}^2 + 2\Gamma_{12}^2 \dot{x}^1 \dot{x}^2 &= 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ddot{\varphi} + 2 \coth \xi \dot{\xi} \dot{\varphi} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

If $\dot{\varphi} \neq 0$, the second of these gives

$$\frac{1}{\dot{\varphi}} \frac{d\dot{\varphi}}{d\sigma} + 2 \coth \xi \frac{d\xi}{d\sigma} = 0 \Rightarrow \ln \dot{\varphi} + 2 \ln(\sinh \xi) = \text{cste.} \Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{\varphi} \sinh^2 \xi = h = \text{cste}}$$

Rather than solving the last remaining geodesic equation, it is more simple to go back to the metric, if one chooses the parameter $\sigma \stackrel{!}{=} s$ as the arc length. From the metric

$$1 = a^2 \left(\frac{d\xi}{ds} \right)^2 + a^2 \sinh^2 \xi \left(\frac{d\varphi}{ds} \right)^2 = a^2 \left(\frac{d\xi}{ds} \right)^2 + \frac{a^2 h^2}{\sinh^2 \xi}$$

where the **conservation law** derived above (implicitly taking $\sigma = s$) was inserted. From this, the geodesic equations can be written as

$$\frac{d\xi}{ds} = \pm \frac{\sqrt{\sinh^2 \xi - a^2 h^2}}{a \sinh \xi}, \quad \frac{d\varphi}{ds} = \frac{h}{\sinh^2 \xi}$$

Since we *require the geometric form of the geodesic*, we are really looking for the **orbit**, which we seek in the form $\varphi = \varphi(\xi)$. Hence

$$\frac{d\varphi}{d\xi} = \frac{d\varphi}{ds} \frac{ds}{d\xi} = \pm \frac{h}{\sinh^2 \xi} \frac{a \sinh \xi}{\sqrt{\sinh^2 \xi - a^2 h^2}} = \pm \frac{d}{d\xi} \arccos \left(\frac{h}{\sqrt{1/a^2 + h^2}} \coth \xi \right)$$

the details of this integration will be spelled out below

This form of the orbit can be re-expressed as $\cos(\varphi - \varphi_0) - \frac{h}{\sqrt{1/a^2+h^2}} \coth \xi = 0$, which can be re-stated as $A \cos \varphi + B \sin \varphi + C \coth \xi = 0$ with known constants A, B, C . This can also be rephrased as

$$A \sinh \xi \cos \varphi + B \sinh \xi \sin \varphi + C \cosh \xi = 0$$

(*)

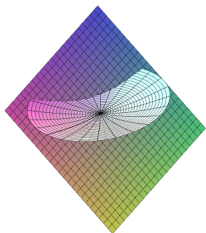
Equations of this kind arise from the intersection of a hyperboloid given by $x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = -a^2$, and a plane going through the origin which is described by $\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z = 0$.

Recall that a two-sheeted hyperboloid has the parametrisation

$$x = a \sinh \xi \cos \varphi, y = a \sinh \xi \sin \varphi \text{ and } z = \pm a \cosh \xi.$$

Inserting this into the equation for the plane produces an equation of the form (*).

The figure shows an example of such an intersection.



Mathematical remarks on the details of the integration:

want to integrate $\frac{d\varphi}{d\xi} = \pm \frac{ah}{\sinh^2 \xi} \frac{\sinh \xi}{\sqrt{\sinh^2 \xi - a^2 h^2}}$ (it is better **not** to cancel $\sinh \xi$)

$$\varphi - \varphi_0 = \pm ah \int \frac{d\xi}{\sinh^2 \xi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{a^2 h^2}{\sinh^2 \xi}}} \quad \text{notice } \frac{1}{\sinh^2 \xi} = \coth^2 \xi - 1$$

$$= \pm ah \int \frac{d\xi}{\sinh^2 \xi} \left[1 - a^2 h^2 (\coth^2 \xi - 1) \right]^{-1/2} \quad \text{notice } \frac{d \coth \xi}{d\xi} = -\frac{1}{\sinh^2 \xi}$$

$$= \pm ah \int \frac{d\xi}{\sinh^2 \xi} \left[1 + a^2 h^2 - a^2 h^2 \coth^2 \xi \right]^{-1/2} \quad \text{set } u = \coth \xi \Rightarrow du = -\frac{d\xi}{\sinh^2 \xi}$$

$$= \mp ah \int du \frac{1}{ah} \left[\frac{1 + a^2 h^2}{a^2 h^2} - u^2 \right]^{-1/2} \quad \text{set } u = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2 h^2} + 1} \cos \alpha \Rightarrow du = -\sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2 h^2} + 1} \sin \alpha d\alpha$$

$$= \pm \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2 h^2} + 1}}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2 h^2} + 1}} \int d\alpha \frac{\sin \alpha}{\sin \alpha} = \pm \alpha$$

$$= \pm \arccos \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2 h^2} + 1}} \coth \xi \right) = \pm \arccos \left(\frac{h}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{a^2} + h^2}} \coth \xi \right)$$


as claimed. **]**

4. In less than 4 dimensions, the Riemann tensor admits simple forms.

Write down simple explicit expressions for the Riemann tensor in $d = 1, 2, 3$ dimensions. How many independent components of the Riemann tensor do you find in each case ?

Hint: for $d < 4$ the Riemann tensor can be expressed uniquely through the Ricci scalar R and the Ricci tensor. Use the known symmetries of the Riemann tensor

$$R_{\mu\nu\lambda\sigma} = R_{\lambda\sigma\mu\nu} ; R_{\mu\nu\lambda\sigma} = -R_{\nu\mu\lambda\sigma} = -R_{\mu\nu\sigma\lambda} ; R_{\mu[\nu\lambda\sigma]} = 0 \quad (4)$$

 In empty space, the field equations of gravitation are $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$. What follows about gravitation in empty space in $d = 2$ or $d = 3$ dimensions ?

Solution:

(a) $d = 1$: the Riemann tensor has a single component $R_{1111} = 0$ because of the symmetries. ☞ all 1D spaces are flat.

(b) $d = 2$: the Riemann tensor has a single independent component. One can take into account the symmetries and write the Riemann tensor in the form

$$R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = (g_{\alpha\gamma}g_{\beta\delta} - g_{\alpha\delta}g_{\beta\gamma})r$$

with a scalar r .

Verifying the first three symmetries in (4) is obvious. For the last one, the *Bianchi identity*, consider

$$\begin{aligned} R_{\alpha[\beta\gamma\delta]} &:= \frac{1}{3}(R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} + R_{\alpha\gamma\beta\delta} + R_{\alpha\delta\beta\gamma}) \\ &= \frac{r}{3}(g_{\alpha\gamma}g_{\beta\delta} - g_{\alpha\delta}g_{\beta\gamma} + g_{\alpha\delta}g_{\beta\gamma} - g_{\alpha\beta}g_{\gamma\delta} + g_{\alpha\beta}g_{\gamma\delta} - g_{\alpha\gamma}g_{\delta\beta}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We now compute the Ricci scalar

$$R = R^{\alpha\beta}{}_{\alpha\beta} = (g^{\alpha}{}_{\alpha}g^{\beta}{}_{\beta} - g^{\alpha}{}_{\beta}g^{\beta}{}_{\alpha})r = (2 \cdot 2 - 2)r = 2r$$

so that we finally have

$$R_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta} = \frac{1}{2}(g_{\alpha\gamma}g_{\beta\delta} - g_{\alpha\delta}g_{\beta\gamma})R$$

(c) $d = 3$: The Riemann tensor has 6 independent components. Since in $3D$, the Ricci tensor $R_{\mu\nu} = R_{\nu\mu}$ has 6 independent components as well, one may try to express the Riemann tensor through the $R_{\mu\nu}$. First, the following ansatz takes the symmetries into account

$$R_{\mu\nu\lambda\sigma} = A(g_{\mu\lambda}R_{\nu\sigma} - g_{\nu\lambda}R_{\mu\sigma} - g_{\mu\sigma}R_{\nu\lambda} + g_{\nu\sigma}R_{\mu\lambda}) + B(g_{\mu\lambda}g_{\nu\sigma} - g_{\mu\sigma}g_{\nu\lambda})R$$

where the constants A, B are to be found. (the second line is the same as in $2D$)
By contraction, one obtains

$$\begin{aligned} R^\mu{}_{\nu\mu\sigma} &= R_{\nu\sigma} \\ &= A(3R_{\nu\sigma} - R_{\nu\sigma} - R_{\nu\sigma} + g_{\nu\sigma}R) + B(3g_{\nu\sigma} - g_{\nu\sigma})R \\ &= AR_{\nu\sigma} + g_{\nu\sigma}R(A + 2B) \end{aligned}$$

This gives $A = 1$ and $B = -\frac{1}{2}$.

for a check, contract once more: $R = AR(1 + 3) + BR2 \cdot 3 = (4 \cdot 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot 6)R = (4 - 3)R$.

* In empty space, the Ricci tensor vanishes $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (hence $R = 0$ as well). Therefore, the $2D/3D$ full Riemann tensor vanishes in empty space

\Rightarrow ! *no gravitational force in empty space for $d = 2$ or $d = 3$!*

☞ long-range gravitational forces across empty space need $d = 4$ time-space dimensions

5. In the rest frame of a perfect fluid with (proper) mass density ρ and pressure p the energy-momentum tensor has the form

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & p \end{pmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

Find the energy-momentum tensor for an element of the liquid with proper mass density ρ and proper pressure p , which moves with the four-velocity u .

Solution:

à venir . . . et je vous souhaite une bonne Fête de Noël et une Belle Nouvelle Année 2021 !