

which implies :  $\boxed{\ddot{\xi}^i = \frac{1}{2} \ddot{h}_{ij}^{\text{TT}} \xi^j}$

like a force !!  
tidal.

This results in the same conclusion as before, written in a different coord.

## 5) Energy, Momentum of GW

We can extract this by looking at the energy-momentum tensor of GWs, using the quadratic action we wrote earlier:

From Noether's theorem we have

$$t^{\mu\nu} = - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial_\mu h_{\alpha\beta})} \partial^\nu h_{\alpha\beta} + \eta^{\mu\nu} \mathcal{L}$$

which conservation is ensured :  $\partial_\mu t^{\mu\nu} = 0$

This has two problems: 1) It is not symmetric in  $\mu\nu$  the canonical Noether current. This is true for any Noether current that we can add to it a term  $\partial_\sigma \Theta^{\sigma\mu\nu}$  with  $\Theta$  being anti-symmetric in  $\sigma \leftrightarrow \mu$ . Then this is conserved by itself  $\partial_\mu \partial_\sigma \Theta^{\sigma\mu\nu} = 0$ , and since this is a total derivative doesn't affect Conserved total energy and momentum.

One can show that in a Lorentz inv. theory we can always symmetrize the energy-momentum tensor by adding such terms.

Equivalently, we could put our action on some background metric  $\bar{g}_{\mu\nu}$  and  $\partial_\mu \rightarrow \bar{\partial}_\mu$ , then calculate  $t_{\mu\nu} \sim \frac{\delta S_{EH}}{\delta \bar{g}^{\mu\nu}} \Big|_{\bar{g}=\eta}$  to get a symmetric result.

An equivalent way of doing this is to start from full Einstein equations, and decompose the metric as

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + h_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{but not assume that } h \text{ is small for now, but goes to zero at infinity}$$

Then re-write the equation as follows:

$$G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)} = 8\pi G [T_{\mu\nu} + t_{\mu\nu}] \quad \text{with} \quad t_{\mu\nu} = -\frac{1}{8\pi G} [G_{\mu\nu} - G_{\mu\nu}^{(1)}]$$

linear in  $h \sim -\frac{1}{2} \square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} + \dots$  pseudo-tensor

Then  $t_{\mu\nu}$  will be the energy-momentum of gravity

For weak GW we can truncate @  $O(h^2)$

$$t_{\mu\nu} \simeq -\frac{1}{8\pi G} G_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} + \dots$$

higher order terms means that there is self-interaction.

and  $T_{\mu\nu} + t_{\mu\nu}$  will be the total energy-momentum tensor.

• Notice that by linearized Bianchi  $\partial_\mu G^{(1)\mu\nu} = 0$

and therefore  $\partial_\mu (T^{\mu\nu} + t^{\mu\nu}) = 0$

So we can define total energy-momentum of spacetime

$$P^\mu \equiv \int d^3x \underbrace{(T+t)^{\mu\nu}}_{\text{density of energy-momentum}}$$

$(T+t)^{\mu\nu}$  is the flux along  $\hat{x}^\nu$

Similar to QFT we can define total angular momentum :

$$M^{\mu\nu\lambda} \equiv (T+t)^{\mu\nu} x^\lambda - (T+t)^{\mu\lambda} x^\nu$$

then it is conserved :  $\partial_\mu M^{\mu\nu\lambda} = 0$ . The conserved charge

$J^{ij} = \int d^3x M^{0ij}$  is total angular momentum in  $(ij)$  plane and  $M^{kij}$  is its flux in  $\hat{x}^k$  direction.

2) This is not gauge invariant:  $h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu$

Technically this is easy to see, because we know that by going to the free-fall coord. system we can make  $h$  and  $\partial h$  vanish. And  $t_{\mu\nu} \sim (\partial h)^2$  so we can make it zero locally.

This is in contrast with EM that its  $T_{\mu\nu}$  after symmetrization is gauge invariant.

- It should be noted that if we are interested in the total energy, momentum, etc. the result will be invariant under coordinate transformations that vanish at infinity. So there are well-defined notions at least for asymptotically flat spacetime.

- For the case of GW, we can use averaging to define a well-defined notion of energy-momentum which is almost local.

- Notice that taking an average to calculate the energy is what typically we do for waves:

Example :  $\phi(t, z) = A \cos(\omega(t-z))$

then the energy of the wave is

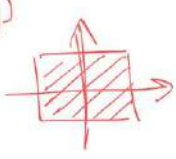
$$\frac{1}{2}(\dot{\phi}^2 + (\partial_z \phi)^2) = A^2 \omega^2 \sin^2(\omega(t-z))$$

but what we care about is the average over a cycle

$$E = \left\langle \frac{1}{2} \dot{\phi}^2 + \frac{1}{2} (\partial_z \phi)^2 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T dt A^2 \omega^2 \sin^2(\omega(t-z)) = \frac{1}{2} A^2 \omega^2$$

or similarly with an spatial average.

- Therefore we define the EMT of GW as

$$t_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{8\pi G} \langle G_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} \rangle \quad \rightarrow \quad \int dy \underbrace{W(x-y)}_{\text{window function}} G_{\mu\nu}(y)$$


where we assume the average is over a few cycles.  
Notice that this is a coarse-grained definition.

What convolving with a Window function does, is to focus on the "low-frequency" components of the

expressions : For GW this is what contributes to the background.

Averaging has the advantage that we can do integrations by parts (up to small corrections).

After a long calculation in TT gauge we obtain

$$t_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{32\pi G} \langle \partial_\mu h_{\alpha\beta}^{\text{TT}} \partial_\nu h^{\text{TT}\alpha\beta} \rangle$$

this is far  
outside  
of matter  
such that  
we can go  
to TT.

• Notice that it is conserved on the  
equation of motion:

$$\partial_\mu t^{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{32\pi G} \langle \underbrace{\square h}_{=0} \partial^\nu h + \underbrace{\partial^\mu h \partial_\mu \partial^\nu h}_{=0 \text{ after int. by part}} \rangle = 0$$

And it is gauge invariant:  $h_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} + \partial_\mu \xi_\nu + \partial_\nu \xi_\mu$

$$t_{\mu\nu} \rightarrow t_{\mu\nu} + \frac{2}{32\pi G} \langle \partial_\mu h_{\alpha\beta} (\partial_\nu \partial^\alpha \xi^\beta + \partial_\nu \partial^\beta \xi^\alpha) \rangle$$

after by part and  
use harmonic condition  
 $\partial_\alpha h^{\alpha\beta} = 0$

$$= t_{\mu\nu}$$

• For the plane wave solution

$$h_{\mu\nu} = \epsilon_{\mu\nu} e^{ik \cdot x} + cc \rightarrow \partial_\mu h_{\alpha\beta} = ik_\mu \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} e^{ik \cdot x} + cc$$



$$\Rightarrow \boxed{t_{\mu\nu} = \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{16\pi G} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} \epsilon^{\alpha\beta*}}$$

terms like  $e^{2ikx}$  will drop out.

for a wave moving along  $z$  direction:  $\epsilon_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} h_+ & h_x \\ h_x & -h_+ \end{bmatrix}$

then:  $t_{\mu\nu} = \frac{k_\mu k_\nu}{8\pi G} (|h_+|^2 + |h_x|^2)$  with  $k_\mu = (-k, 0, 0, k)$

Notice that we can now rotate the coordinates and the form is true for generic  $k_\mu$ .

## ⑥ Emission of GW

So far we have only discussed the homogeneous wave equation. Now we consider a source term:

$$\square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \quad \text{with} \quad \partial_\alpha \bar{h}^{\alpha\mu} = 0$$

Using the Green function of the scalar wave equation

$$\square_x G_{\text{ret}}(x-x') = \delta^4(x-x') \quad \text{with} \quad t < t' \rightarrow G_{\text{ret}}(x-x') = 0$$

We have: 
$$G_{\text{ret}}(x-x') = \frac{-1}{4\pi |\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|} \delta((t-t') - |\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|) \theta(t-t')$$

usual damping  $1/r$ 
propagation with speed of light
retardation

Then the solution is

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(x) = 4G \int d^3x' \frac{T_{\mu\nu}(t - |\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|, \vec{x}')}{|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|}$$

Coulomb law with retarded time.

• Derivation of Green function:

$$(-\partial_t^2 + \vec{\nabla}^2) G(x) = \delta^4(x)$$

$$\hookrightarrow -p^2 G(p) = 1$$

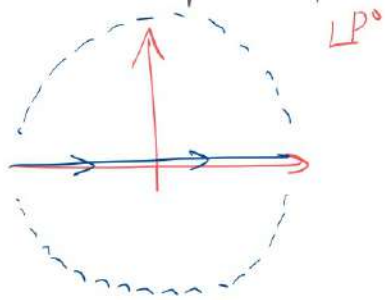
$$\begin{cases} G(x) = \int \frac{d^4p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{ip \cdot x} G(p) \\ G(p) = \int d^4x e^{-ip \cdot x} G(x) \end{cases}$$

$p \cdot x$



$$G(x) = \int \frac{d^4 p}{(2\pi)^4} e^{i p \cdot x} \frac{1}{p^0^2 - \vec{p}^2} = \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i \vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dp^0}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i p^0 t}}{p^0^2 - \vec{p}^2}$$

For the temporal part we can use Cauchy theorem:



there is an ambiguity for the location of the poles  $\frac{1}{p^0^2 - \vec{p}^2}$ :  $p^0 = \pm |\vec{p}|$  since they are on the integration contour: we remove this

ambiguity by adding a small imaginary part  $\pm i\epsilon$  (similar to Feynman  $i\epsilon$ )

How to decide the sign? We demand that for  $t < 0$

the integral vanishes: retarded Green function

It is easy to see that the correct prescription is  $\frac{1}{(p^0 + i\epsilon)^2 - \vec{p}^2}$

so both poles are in the lower half plane.

For  $t > 0$  we must close the contour in LHP

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dp^0}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i p^0 t}}{(p^0 + i\epsilon)^2 - \vec{p}^2} = \overset{\text{clockwise}}{\uparrow} \frac{-2\pi i}{2\pi} \left[ \frac{e^{-i |\vec{p}| t}}{2 |\vec{p}|} + \frac{e^{i |\vec{p}| t}}{-2 |\vec{p}|} \right] \quad t > 0$$

$$\rightarrow G(x) = \frac{1}{2i} \int \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{e^{i \vec{p} \cdot \vec{x}}}{|\vec{p}|} (e^{-i |\vec{p}| t} - e^{i |\vec{p}| t}) \theta(t)$$

$$\overset{\text{integrated over angle}}{=} \frac{1}{2i} \int_0^\infty \frac{d|\vec{p}|}{(2\pi)^2} \frac{1}{i|\vec{x}|} (e^{i |\vec{p}| |\vec{x}|} - e^{-i |\vec{p}| |\vec{x}|}) (e^{-i |\vec{p}| t} - e^{i |\vec{p}| t}) \theta(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{-G(t)}{4\pi |\vec{x}|} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d|\vec{p}|}{2\pi} (e^{i|\vec{p}||\vec{x}|} - e^{-i|\vec{p}||\vec{x}|}) (e^{-i|\vec{p}|t} - e^{i|\vec{p}|t}) \\
&= \frac{-G(t)}{4\pi |\vec{x}|} [\delta(t - |\vec{x}|) - \cancel{\delta(t + |\vec{x}|)}] \\
&= \boxed{\frac{-G(t) \delta(t - |\vec{x}|)}{4\pi |\vec{x}|}}
\end{aligned}$$

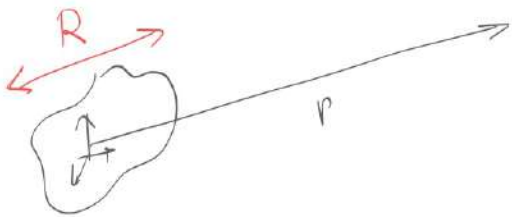
• The expression for  $h_{\mu\nu}$  is conceptually nice, but is difficult to calculate in most generality.

• Typically sources are localized and we are looking at GW very far from them:

$$|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'| \simeq r - \underbrace{\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{n}}_{|\vec{x}'|} + \dots$$

$$\hat{n} = \frac{\vec{x}}{r}$$

↑  
direction of looking



$$\boxed{r \gg R}$$

notice that is not an approximation on the source: just a choice of the location.

• There is another scale in the problem which is the time scale of the variation of the source. This is relevant since we have two appearance of  $|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|$ .

• It is much easier to see this if we go to time Fourier space for the source

$$T_{\mu\nu}(t, \vec{x}) = \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} e^{-i\omega t} T_{\mu\nu}(\omega, \vec{x})$$

Then the solution can be written as :

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(t, \vec{x}) = 4G \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} d^3x' \frac{e^{-i\omega(t - |\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|)}}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|} T_{\mu\nu}(\omega, \vec{x}')$$

Then we can imagine two regimes :

1- Near Zone

$R \ll r \ll \omega^{-1}$   $\rightarrow$

typical  $\omega_s$  of the source.

then inside the integrand corrections of  $\frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|}$  will be  $(\frac{x'}{r})$

but from the exponential  $\sim \omega x \sim \omega R \ll \frac{R}{r} \sim \frac{x'}{r}$

So we keep the exponent at leading order and expand  $\frac{1}{|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'|}$

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(x) = 4G \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} e^{-i\omega(t-r)} \sum_L \frac{\hat{n}^L}{r^{L+1}} \int d^3x' T_{\mu\nu}(\omega, \vec{x}') x'^L$$

$$= 4G \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{n}^L}{r^{l+1}} \int d^3x' T_{\mu\nu}(t-r, \vec{x}') x'^L$$

multipole expansion of electrostatic at retarded time.

multi-index notation :

$$\hat{n}^L = \hat{n}^{i_1} \hat{n}^{i_2} \dots \hat{n}^{i_l}$$

$$x'^L = x'^{i_1} \dots x'^{i_l}$$

## 2 - Far Zone (Wave Zone)

$$R \ll \omega^{-1} \ll r$$

We keep the denominator at leading order but go to higher orders in the numerator.

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(x) = 4G \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i\omega(t-r)}}{r} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-i\omega)^l}{l!} \hat{n}_L \int d^3x' T_{\mu\nu}(\omega, \vec{x}') x'^L$$

$$= \left[ \frac{4G}{r} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{n}_L}{l!} \int d^3x' \partial_t^l T_{\mu\nu}(t-r, \vec{x}') x'^L \right]$$

- Notice that in this expression we only expanded in powers of  $(\omega R)$  and kept  $\frac{R}{r} \ll \omega R$  and therefore in the exponent we set:  $\exp[-i\omega(t-|\vec{x}-\vec{x}'|)] \approx e^{-i\omega(t-r)} e^{-i\omega \vec{x}' \cdot \hat{n}}$
- Notice that all of these terms drop as  $1/r$  which is the character of the waves that carry energy from the source to infinity.
- An important assumption which was implicit:  $R \ll \omega_s^{-1}$   
We can interpret this more properly as

$$R \ll c \tau_s \rightarrow \left[ \frac{v}{c} \ll 1 \right]$$

time scale

This must be true for sources that move slowly  $\sim$  Non-relativistic systems

If the system is not slow, then we can still go very far such that  $R, \omega^{-1} \ll r$  and then expand the denominator to get a wave zone.

$$\bar{h}_{\mu\nu}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{r} \int d^3x' \left[ T_{\mu\nu}(t-r+\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{n}, \vec{x}') + \frac{\hat{x}' \cdot \hat{n}}{r} T_{\mu\nu}(t-r+\vec{x}' \cdot \hat{n}, \vec{x}') + \dots \right]$$

Notice that we have not expanded the argument of  $T_{\mu\nu}$  since time variation of the source could be large.

suppressed  
for large  $r$

- Since we are outside of the source (slow or not) we use the extra gauge to go to TT gauge. We can do this by a projection tensor:

$$\pi_{ij} \equiv \delta_{ij} - n_i n_j$$

projection orthogonal to  $n_i$   
 $\pi_i \pi_j = \pi$

$$\Lambda_{ij,kl} \equiv \pi_{ik} \pi_{jl} - \frac{1}{2} \pi_{ij} \pi_{kl}$$

projector, transverse to  $n_i$   
 $\Lambda \cdot \Lambda = \Lambda$  traceless in (ij) and (kl)

Therefore if we have a generic spatial tensor

$h_{ij}^{TT} = \Lambda_{ij,kl} h_{kl}$ , the resulting tensor will be trace-less and transverse with respect to  $n_i$ .



Since the expressions above are only a function of  $r$ :

$$\partial_i \bar{h} \propto \frac{x^i}{r} \partial_r \bar{h} \propto \hat{n}_i$$

Therefore in our projection tensor,  $\hat{n}_i$  will be the direction of looking!

So for generic sources we have TT gauge expression:

we drop the bar as it has no trace

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,kl}(\hat{n}) \int d^3x' T_{kl}(t-r+\vec{x}\cdot\hat{n}, \vec{x}')$$

OR for Slow sources:

$$h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,ab}(\hat{n}) \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{n}_L}{l!} \int d^3x' \partial_t^l T^{ab}(t-r, \vec{x}') \vec{x}'^L$$

• Notice the even before switching to TT gauge, it is enough to focus on spatial part  $T_{ij}$ . The rest will be fixed by Lorentz gauge conditions:

$$\partial_\alpha \bar{h}^{\alpha\mu} = 0 \rightarrow -i\omega \bar{h}^{0\mu} + \partial_i \bar{h}^{i\mu} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \bar{h}^{0i} = \frac{1}{i\omega} \partial_j \bar{h}^{ji} \quad \bar{h}^{00} = -\frac{1}{\omega^2} \partial_i \partial_j \bar{h}^{ij}$$

Then we can take the Fourier transform back.



► Focusing on non-relativistic sources, it is possible to re-write the expressions in a more suggestive way:

$$h_{ij}^{\text{TT}}(t, \vec{x}) = \frac{4G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,kl}(\hat{n}) \left[ S_{(t-r)}^{kl} + \hat{n}_a \dot{S}_{(t-r)}^{kl,a} + \dots \right]$$

in which

$$S_{(t)}^{ij} \equiv \int d^3x' T^{ij}(t, \vec{x}')$$

$$S_{(t)}^{ijk} \equiv \int d^3x' T^{ij}(t, \vec{x}') x'^k, \text{ etc.}$$

moments of the stress tensor  
spatial part of  $T^{\mu\nu}$

- We can define moments of  $T^{00}$  and  $T^{0i}$

$$M = \int d^3x T^{00} \quad M^i = \int d^3x T^{00} x^i \quad M^{ij} = \int d^3x T^{00} x^i x^j \text{ etc.}$$

$$P^i = \int d^3x T^{0i} \quad P^{ij} = \int d^3x T^{0i} x^j \text{ etc.}$$

These are related by energy-momentum conservation:

•  $\dot{M} = 0$ ,  $\dot{P}^i = 0$  standard argument.

$$\dot{M} = \int d^3x \partial_t T^{00} = - \int d^3x \partial_i T^{i0} = 0$$

$$\dot{P}^i = \int d^3x \partial_t T^{0i} = - \int d^3x \partial_j T^{ji} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\vec{M}}^i &= \int d^3x \partial_t T^{0i} x^i = - \int d^3x \partial_j T^{ij} x^i \\ &= \int d^3x T^{i0} = P^i \end{aligned}$$

$\nwarrow$   
 $\partial_t(MR^i)$

again standard.  
Center of mass  
moves with  
total momentum.

$$\dot{P}^{ij} = \int d^3x \partial_t T^{0i} x^j = - \int d^3x \partial_k T^{ki} x^j = \int d^3x T^{ij} = \boxed{S^{ij}}$$

$$\dot{M}^{ij} \equiv \dot{I}^{ij} = \int d^3x \partial_t T^{00} x^i x^j = - \int d^3x \partial_k T^{k0} x^i x^j = \boxed{P^{ij} + P^{ji}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{S^{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \ddot{I}^{ij}} \quad \int d^3x T^{00} x^i x^j$$

$\nwarrow$   
 $\int d^3x T^{ij}$

HW: show that

$$\ddot{S}^{ij,k} = \frac{1}{2} \ddot{M}^{ijk} + \frac{1}{3} (\ddot{P}^{i,jk} + \ddot{P}^{j,ik} - 2\ddot{P}^{k,ij})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Rightarrow h_{ij}^{TT}(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{2G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,kl}(\hat{n}) \ddot{I}^{kl}(t-r) + \dots \\
&= \frac{2G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,kl}(\hat{n}) \ddot{Q}^{kl}(t-r) \quad \text{symmetric not traceless} \\
&= \boxed{\frac{2G}{r} \ddot{Q}_{ij}^{TT}(t-r) + \dots} \quad \text{I}^{kl} = Q^{kl} + \frac{1}{3} \delta^{kl} I \quad \text{traceless}
\end{aligned}$$

This is known as quadrupole formula.

• We can explicitly construct the expression for  $h_+$  and  $h_x$  as follows:

1. First we take  $\hat{n} = \hat{z} \rightarrow \pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{ij,kl} A^{kl} &= \left( \pi_{ik} \pi_{jl} - \frac{1}{2} \pi_{ij} \pi_{kl} \right) A^{kl} \\
&= \pi \cdot A \cdot \pi - \frac{1}{2} \pi \operatorname{tr}(\pi \cdot A) \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} (A_{11} - A_{22})/2 & A_{12} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Then for  $\hat{n} = \hat{z}$  :

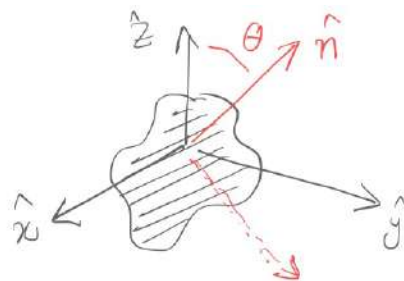
$$\boxed{
\begin{aligned}
h_+(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{G}{r} (\ddot{Q}_{11} - \ddot{Q}_{22})(t-r) \\
h_x(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{2G}{r} \ddot{Q}_{12}(t-r)
\end{aligned}
}$$

2. Then for arbitrary  $\hat{n}$ , we just rotate  $Q_{ij}$  into a frame in which  $\hat{n} \rightarrow \hat{z}$

For example  $\hat{n} \sim (\theta, \varphi = \pi/2)$

We only require a rotation

around  $\hat{x}$ :



$$Q'_{ij} = R_{ik} R_{jl} Q_{kl}$$

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Q'_{11} = R_{1k} R_{1l} Q_{kl} = Q_{11}$$

$$Q'_{22} = R_{2k} R_{2l} Q_{kl} = \cos^2 \theta Q_{22} + \sin^2 \theta Q_{33} - 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta Q_{23}$$

$$Q'_{12} = R_{1k} R_{2l} Q_{kl} = \cos \theta Q_{12} - \sin \theta Q_{13}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( \begin{aligned} h_+ &= \frac{G}{r} [\ddot{Q}_{11} - \cos^2 \theta \ddot{Q}_{22} - \sin^2 \theta \ddot{Q}_{33} + \sin 2\theta \ddot{Q}_{23}] \\ h_x &= \frac{2G}{r} [\cos \theta \ddot{Q}_{12} - \sin \theta \ddot{Q}_{13}] \end{aligned} \right)$$

HW: work out the more general form.

- We can calculate the total radiated power, by looking at the total energy flux:

$$P = \oint d^2x \, n_i \dot{t}^{i0}$$

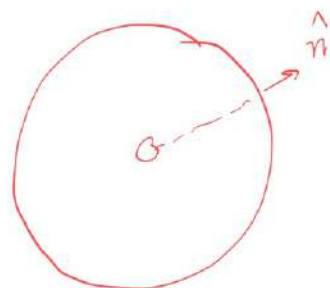
this is the total power loss:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE}{dt} &= \int d^3x \, \partial_t (t+T)^{00} \\ &= - \int d^3x \, \partial_i (t+T)^{i0} \\ &= - \oint d^2x \, n_i (t+T)^{i0} \end{aligned}$$

no matter  
at infinity.

Notice that the surface integral is not zero since the fields decay as  $(\frac{1}{r})^2$  which will be compensated by the growth of the surface  $\sim r^2$  and gives finite answer.

$$t^{i0} = \frac{1}{32\pi G} \langle \partial^i h_{ab}^{\text{TT}} \dot{h}_{ab}^{\text{TT}} \rangle$$



with  $h_{ij}^{\text{TT}} = \frac{2G}{r} \Lambda_{ij,kl} \ddot{Q}^{kl}(t-r)$ . time derivative is simple  
Spatial derivative only acts on  $Q$  in the end because  
OW creates more powers of  $\frac{1}{r^2}$  which vanishes

$$P = - \int d\Omega r^2 \frac{1}{32\pi G} \left(\frac{2G}{r}\right)^2 \langle \ddot{Q}_{ab}^{\text{TT}} \ddot{Q}^{\text{TT}ab}(t-r) \rangle$$

$$= -\frac{G}{8\pi} \int d\Omega \underbrace{\Lambda_{ij,kl} \Lambda^{ij}_{mn}}_{=\Lambda_{kl,mn}} \langle \ddot{Q}^{kl} \ddot{Q}^{mn} \rangle$$

doesn't depend on direction  
it only depends on  $(t-r)$

So the angular integral only cares about  $\Lambda$ :

$\int d\Omega \Lambda_{kl,mn}$  : this is a bunch of integrals

structure is fixed  
coeff is fixed by trace

$$\int d\Omega n_i n_j = \frac{4\pi}{3} \delta_{ij}$$

$$\int d\Omega n_i n_j n_k n_l = \frac{4\pi}{15} (\delta_{ij} \delta_{kl} + \dots)$$

$$\int d\Omega \Lambda_{kl,mn} = \frac{2\pi}{15} \left( 11 \delta_{km} \delta_{ln} - \underbrace{4 \delta_{kl} \delta_{mn} + \delta_{kn} \delta_{lm}}_{\substack{\text{no cont.} \\ Q \text{ is traceless}}} \right)$$

Plugging back we obtain:

$$P = -\frac{G}{5} \langle \ddot{Q}_{ij} \ddot{Q}^{ij} \rangle$$

total energy loss  
per unit time.

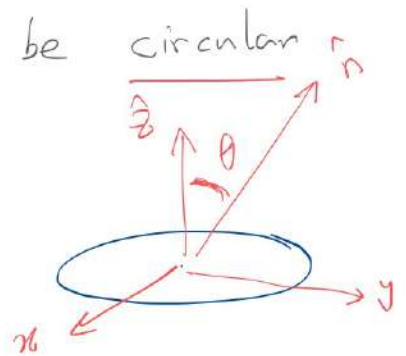


## ⑦ Hulse-Taylor binary

Consider a circular binary for simplicity. At this order we can take the dynamics to be Newtonian. [You can consider the force between them not to be gravitational for now!] The problem is reduced to a single particle of the reduced mass  $\mu \equiv \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$ , in an external potential given by the distance between them  $\vec{r} \equiv \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2$ . We take the orbit to be circular and in x-y plane:

$$x(t) = R \cos(\omega_s t)$$

$$y(t) = R \sin(\omega_s t)$$



$$I_{ij} = \int d^3x \delta(x - x(t)) \delta(y - y(t)) \delta(z) \mu x^i x^j$$

$$\rightarrow I_{13} = 0 \quad I_{11} = \mu R^2 \cos^2(\omega_s t) \quad I_{12} = \mu R^2 \cos(\omega_s t) \sin(\omega_s t)$$

$$I_{22} = \mu R^2 \sin^2(\omega_s t)$$

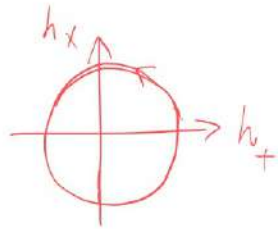
$$\rightarrow \ddot{I}_{11} = -\ddot{I}_{22} = 2\mu R^2 \omega_s^2 \cos(2\omega_s t) \quad \ddot{I}_{12} = 2\mu R^2 \omega_s^2 \sin(2\omega_s t)$$

Next we should rotate to the direction of propagation and make it traceless:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} h_+(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{4G\mu R^2 \omega_s^2}{r} \left( \frac{1 + \cos\theta}{2} \right) \cos(2\omega_s(t-r)) \\ h_x(t, \vec{x}) &= \frac{4G\mu R^2 \omega_s^2}{r} (\cos\theta) \sin(2\omega_s(t-r)) \end{aligned}}$$

- Notice that since the system is cylindrically symmetric, this is the result for generic  $\varphi$ .
- For a source frequency of  $\omega_s$ , GW frequency will be  $2\omega_s$ . This is because we are looking at quadrupole approximation  $x^2 \sim \cos(\omega_s t)^2 \sim \cos(2\omega_s t)$ .
- The amplitude of  $h_+$  and  $h_x$  depends on the direction of propagation:
  - E.g. for edge-on ( $\theta = \pi/2$ ):  $h_x = 0$  so it is linearly polarized. Notice that  $h_+ \neq 0$  for all  $\theta$ .
  - E.g. for head-on ( $\theta = 0$ ):  $h_+ = h_x$  with  $\pi/2$  phase difference. So it will be circularly

polarized

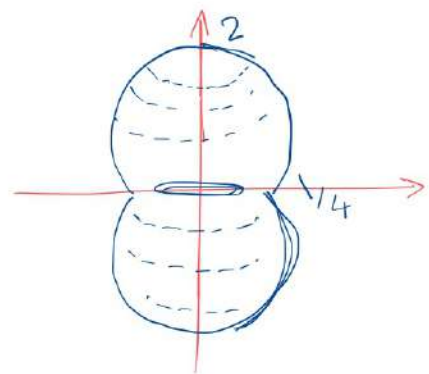


For other values of  $\theta$   
this will be elliptic polarization

- We can calculate the radiated power per angle :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dP}{d\Omega} &= r^2 t_{oi} n^i \\ &= \frac{r^2}{32\pi G} \langle |h_+|^2 + |h_x|^2 \rangle (2\omega_s)^2 \\ &= \frac{r^2}{32\pi G} \frac{(4G\mu^2 R^2 \omega_s^2)^2}{r^2} 4\omega_s^2 \left[ \left( \frac{1+\cos^2\theta}{2} \right)^2 + \cos^2\theta \right] \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= \left[ \frac{2G\mu^2 R^4 \omega_s^6}{\pi} \left[ \left( \frac{1+\cos^2\theta}{2} \right)^2 + \cos^2\theta \right] \right]\end{aligned}$$

This has an angular dependence :  
(like peanuts)



Total radiate power will be

$$P = \frac{32}{5} G\mu^2 R^4 \omega_s^5$$

$$\rightarrow \Delta E = P \left( \frac{2\pi}{\omega_s} \right) = \left( \frac{64\pi}{5} \right) G\mu^2 R^4 \omega_s^5$$

energy  
loss per  
cycle.

$$\frac{1}{2} \mu (\omega R)^2 \downarrow$$

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E_{kin}} = \left( \frac{128\pi}{5} \right) \frac{G\mu^2 R^2 \omega_s^3}{\left( \frac{G\mu}{R} \right) v^3}$$

- For Hydrogen atom

$$\mu \simeq m_e, \quad R \simeq a_B \sim \frac{1}{m_e \alpha}, \quad v \sim \alpha$$

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} \sim \alpha \left( \frac{\ell_P}{a_B} \right)^2 \sim 10^{-2} \left( \frac{10^{-35} \text{ cm}}{10^{-9} \text{ cm}} \right)^2 \sim 10^{-54} !$$

- For a Earth-Sun: Kepler's law:  $\omega_s^2 = \frac{GM}{R^3}$  total mass ( $m_1 + m_2$ )

$$m_1 \gg m_2 : \mu \sim m_2, \quad M \sim m_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta E}{E} &\sim O(100) \quad G m_2 R^2 \left( \frac{G m_1}{R^3} \right)^{3/2} \sim O(100) \left( \frac{G m_1}{R} \right)^{5/2} \left( \frac{m_2}{m_1} \right) \\ &\sim 10^2 \left( \frac{3 \text{ km}}{10^8 \text{ km}} \right)^{5/2} \left( \frac{10^{24} \text{ kg}}{10^{30} \text{ kg}} \right) \sim 10^{-22} ! \end{aligned}$$

- For the same masses  $m = m_1 = m_2$  :  $\omega_s^2 = \frac{2Gm}{R^3}$ ,  $\mu = m/2$

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} \sim 10^2 G \frac{m}{2} R^2 \left( \frac{2Gm}{R^3} \right)^{3/2} \sim 10^2 \left( \frac{Gm}{R} \right)^{5/2} \ll 1$$

Therefore the assumption of circular orbit, which is quasi-stationary is a good assumption.

In the end, for observations we must take into account these effects for data analysis.

- We calculate the rate the size of the binary shrinks:

$$E_{\text{bin}} = -\frac{Gm_1m_2}{2R}$$

$$P = -\frac{dE_{\text{bin}}}{dt}$$

$$-\frac{Gm_1m_2}{2R^2} \dot{R} = \frac{32}{5} G\mu^2 R^4 \omega_s^6 \Rightarrow \boxed{\dot{R} = -\frac{8}{5} \frac{(2GM)^3}{R^3} \left(\frac{\mu}{M}\right)}$$

time to collapse  $\tau \sim \frac{R_0^4}{(2GM)^3 (\mu/M)}$

- As the radius shrinks, the two bodies move around each other faster, and therefore the frequency of GW emitted increases.

$$2\dot{\omega}_s \omega_s = -\frac{3GM}{R^4} \dot{R} \quad \text{then we use Kepler: } R = \left(\frac{GM}{\omega_s^2}\right)^{1/3}$$

We obtain, re-writing in terms of  $\omega_{\text{GW}} = 2\omega_s$

$$\frac{\dot{\omega}_{\text{GW}}}{\omega_{\text{GW}}^2} = \left(\frac{2^{11/3}}{5}\right) (2GM_c)^{5/3} \omega_{\text{GW}}^{5/3}$$

where we have defined Chirp mass:  $M_c \equiv M^{2/5} \mu^{3/5} = \frac{(m_1 m_2)^{3/5}}{(m_1 + m_2)^{1/5}}$

We can integrate this equation to obtain  $\omega_{\text{GW}}(t) \left( \int_t^{t_{\text{col}}} \right) :$

$$\omega_{\text{GW}}(t) \simeq (2GM_c)^{-5/8} (t_{\text{col}} - t)^{-3/8}$$

This means that we can approximately look at the wave form :

$$h \sim \omega_{gw}^{2/3} \cos \left( - \int_t^{t_{col}} \omega_{gw}(t') dt' \right)$$

So we have ( $R_c \equiv 2GM_c$ )

$$h \sim \# [R_c(t_{col} - t)]^{-1/4} \cos \left( \# [R_c(t_{col} - t)]^{5/8} \right)$$

