

Thus, in the sense of the foregoing paragraph, we can refer to $\partial x^\mu / \partial \bar{x}^0$ as v^μ and to $(\partial x^\nu / \partial \bar{x}^0) R_{\mu\nu}$ as w_μ . Then (15.176) can be written as

$$(15.178) \quad -\tilde{R}_{00} = v^\mu w_\mu$$

where v^μ and w_μ are timelike, spacelike, or null together. It is clear from (15.178) that the covariant requirement that $R_{\alpha\beta}$ carry v_α into a vector w_α such that $v^\alpha w_\alpha \geq 0$ is equivalent to the requirement that \tilde{R}_{00} be negative-definite. This can be interpreted physically by saying that $-R_{\alpha\beta}$ must carry the *forward* light cone into itself and the *backward* light cone into itself. The negativeness of the component R_{00} is thereby guaranteed in a covariant way for any real coordinate system:

$$(15.179) \quad R_{00} \leq 0 \quad (\text{real coordinates})$$

One must be careful to include the above restriction to a real coordinate system. For instance, if one goes from real x^0 to imaginary \bar{x}^0 , then $\frac{\partial x^0}{\partial \bar{x}^0} \frac{\partial x^0}{\partial \bar{x}^0}$ is clearly negative, and the statement cannot be true.

The conditions (15.163), (15.165), and (15.179) were first obtained by Rainich in 1925, using somewhat different matrix methods than we have used. They are usually referred to as the *algebraic Rainich conditions*.

The Rainich conditions are purely algebraic, in the sense that they follow entirely from the form of the matrix $T_{\mu\nu}$ as constructed from the antisymmetric matrix $F_{\mu\nu}$ at a single world-point P . They do not involve the change in any quantities as one moves from world-point to world-point. We next need to take into account the fact that $F_{\mu\nu}$ obeys the Maxwell equations, which we now write in the form

$$(15.180) \quad F^{\mu\nu}{}_{||\nu} = 0 \quad *F^{\mu\nu}{}_{||\nu} = 0$$

At P the coordinates are locally geodesic, and therefore the Christoffel symbols vanish. This allows us to drop the distinction between covariant and ordinary derivatives of first order. Furthermore, since the metric tensor is the Kronecker $\delta_{\mu\nu}$, it is possible to ignore index position. Maxwell's equations at P then can be written as

$$(15.181) \quad F_{\mu\nu| \nu} = 0 \quad *F_{\mu\nu| \nu} = 0$$

where we have used the Einstein summation convention without regard for index position.

Our aim now is to study how Eqs. (15.181) reflect themselves in properties of the $T_{\mu\nu}$ and $R_{\mu\nu}$ tensors. Observe that, given the energy-

momentum tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$, we can obtain the generating tensor $F_{\mu\nu}$ only up to a parameter α according to (15.156). At every point x^ν the value of $\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2$ is determined by the energy-momentum tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$, while α may be chosen as a function of x^ν . Algebraically, this α field could be completely incoherent at different world-points. However, since $F_{\mu\nu}$ must satisfy Eq. (15.181), the α becomes a determined point function for which a differential system in terms of $T_{\mu\nu}$ or $R_{\mu\nu}$ can be given. The integrability condition on this system leads to a set of differential conditions on the tensor R , which was first discovered by Misner and Wheeler in 1957.

In order to derive the Misner-Wheeler equations we observe that, if the electromagnetic tensor is written

$$(15.182) \quad F_{\mu\nu} = (r \cosh \alpha) p_{\mu\nu} + (r \sinh \alpha) q_{\mu\nu}$$

as in (15.156), where $r = \sqrt{\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2}$, then its dual is

$$(15.183) \quad *F_{\mu\nu} = (r \cosh \alpha) q_{\mu\nu} + (r \sinh \alpha) p_{\mu\nu}$$

This follows from considering the effect of the $*$ operation on the simple forms

$$(15.184) \quad \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} iJ & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & iJ \end{pmatrix}$$

where the interchange of \tilde{p} and \tilde{q} under the $*$ operation is evident. But this operation is coordinate-invariant and must hold also in any system where p and q are gotten from \tilde{p} and \tilde{q} by an orthogonal transformation Q . The general result (15.183) is thereby assured.

The choice of our special coordinate system is arbitrary up to an orthogonal transformation. This allows us to assume without loss of generality that at P the matrices p and q are precisely \tilde{p} and \tilde{q} in (15.184); that is, $Q = I$. It follows, then, from (15.143) that the matrix

$$\Gamma_{\mu\nu} = c^2 T_{\mu\nu}$$

at P is

$$(15.185) \quad \tilde{\Gamma}_{\mu\nu} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -I \end{pmatrix} \quad r^2 = \lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2$$

The Maxwell equations (15.181) are, then, from (15.182) and (15.183),

$$(15.186a) \quad F_{\mu\nu|_\nu} = \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}(r \cosh \alpha)_{|\nu} + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}(r \sinh \alpha)_{|\nu} + (r \cosh \alpha)p_{\mu\nu|_\nu} \\ + (r \sinh \alpha)q_{\mu\nu|_\nu} = 0$$

$$(15.186b) \quad {}^*F_{\mu\nu|_\nu} = \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}(r \cosh \alpha)_{|\nu} + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}(r \sinh \alpha)_{|\nu} + (r \cosh \alpha)q_{\mu\nu|_\nu} \\ + (r \sinh \alpha)p_{\mu\nu|_\nu} = 0$$

(Clearly, if we differentiate the $p_{\mu\nu}$ and $q_{\mu\nu}$, we must drop the tilde.) To simplify this form of Maxwell's equations, we define at P local vectors Π_μ and K_μ and scalars A and B by

$$(15.187) \quad \Pi_\mu = p_{\mu\nu|_\nu} \quad K_\mu = q_{\mu\nu|_\nu} \quad A = r \cosh \alpha \quad B = r \sinh \alpha$$

Then (15.186) reads

$$(15.188a) \quad \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}A_{|\nu} + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}B_{|\nu} + A\Pi_\mu + BK_\mu = 0$$

$$(15.188b) \quad \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}A_{|\nu} + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}B_{|\nu} + AK_\mu + B\Pi_\mu = 0$$

Now we multiply (15.188a) by the matrix \tilde{p} and (15.188b) by \tilde{q} , add the two, and use (15.152) to obtain

$$(15.189) \quad A_{|\mu} + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu A + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu B + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu A + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu B = 0$$

Whence, by definition of A and B ,

$$(15.190) \quad A[\tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu + (\log r)_{|\mu}] + B[\tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu + \alpha_{|\mu}] = 0$$

Similarly, multiplying (15.188a) by \tilde{q} and (15.188b) by \tilde{p} and adding, we obtain

$$(15.191) \quad A[\tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu + \alpha_{|\mu}] + B[\tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu + (\log r)_{|\mu}] = 0$$

Equations (15.190) and (15.191) have the form $Ax + By = 0$ and $Bx + Ay = 0$. These equations have a nonzero solution for x and y only if the determinant of the coefficients, $A^2 - B^2$, is zero. Since, however, $A^2 - B^2 = \lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2 \neq 0$, the only solution is $x = y = 0$, so the coefficients of A and B in (15.190) and (15.191) are both zero. Thus we obtain the following differential conditions on α and r :

$$(15.192a) \quad \alpha_{|\mu} = -(\tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu)$$

$$(15.192b) \quad (\log r)_{|\mu} = -(\tilde{p}_{\mu\nu}\Pi_\nu + \tilde{q}_{\mu\nu}K_\nu)$$

The next step in our development is to calculate the vectors Π_μ and K_μ and to use the results to put (15.192a) into more interesting form. In order to do this we first have to find the derivatives of the matrices p and q . At the world-point P , the matrices p and q are precisely \tilde{p} and \tilde{q} . If we consider, however, the world-point $P(\epsilon, \mu)$, obtained by moving a small amount ϵ in the direction of the μ th coordinate axis, we shall have matrices $p^{(\mu)}$ and $q^{(\mu)}$, which differ from \tilde{p} and \tilde{q} by a small rotation in space-time corresponding to an orthogonal matrix $Q_{(\mu)}$. Let us represent $Q_{(\mu)}$ by a series

$$(15.193) \quad Q_{(\mu)} = I + \epsilon C_{(\mu)} + \epsilon^2 D_{(\mu)} + \dots$$

and use the orthogonality condition on $Q_{(\mu)}$, $Q_{(\mu)}^T Q_{(\mu)} = I$, to find that

$$(15.194) \quad I = I + \epsilon(C_{(\mu)} + C_{(\mu)}^T) + \dots$$

Equating powers of ϵ we get

$$(15.195) \quad C_{(\mu)}^T = -C_{(\mu)}$$

which is simply the well-known fact that infinitesimal rotations are generated by antisymmetric matrices. We therefore have

$$(15.196) \quad Q_{(\mu)}^T = Q_{(\mu)}^{-1} = I - \epsilon C_{(\mu)} + \dots$$

The above result will enable us to calculate the derivative of the matrix p , $p_{|\mu}$, at P . Using (15.193) and (15.196), we obtain $p^{(\mu)}$ at $P(\epsilon, \mu)$ as

$$(15.197) \quad p^{(\mu)} = Q_{(\mu)}^T \tilde{p} Q_{(\mu)} = \tilde{p} + \epsilon(\tilde{p} C_{(\mu)} - C_{(\mu)} \tilde{p}) + O(\epsilon^2)$$

The derivative of $p^{(\mu)}$ at P is thus easily obtained by writing

$$(15.198) \quad \frac{p^{(\mu)} - \tilde{p}}{\epsilon} = (\tilde{p} C_{(\mu)} - C_{(\mu)} \tilde{p}) + O(\epsilon)$$

and taking the limit as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$,

$$(15.199) \quad p_{|\mu} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{p^{(\mu)} - \tilde{p}}{\epsilon} = \tilde{p} C_{(\mu)} - C_{(\mu)} \tilde{p}$$

Let us write C_μ in terms of 2×2 matrices as

$$(15.200) \quad C_{(\mu)} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{(\mu)} & b_{(\mu)} \\ c_{(\mu)} & d_{(\mu)} \end{pmatrix}$$

where the antisymmetry of $C_{(\mu)}$ implies that $a_{(\mu)}^T = -a_{(\mu)}$, $d_{(\mu)}^T = -d_{(\mu)}$, and $b_{(\mu)}^T = -c_{(\mu)}$. Then (15.199) takes the simple form

$$(15.201) \quad p_{|\mu} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & Jb_{(\mu)} \\ -c_{(\mu)}J & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

In precisely the same manner we obtain the derivative of q at P :

$$(15.202) \quad q_{|\mu} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -b_{(\mu)}J \\ Jc_{(\mu)} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Later we shall need the derivative of $\Gamma_{\mu\nu} = c^2 T_{\mu\nu}$, so we shall obtain it now while it is most convenient; recall that Γ in terms of p and q is given by

$$(15.203) \quad \Gamma = \frac{1}{2}r^2(p^2 - q^2)$$

Using (15.194), (15.195), (15.201), and (15.203), we find that at P

$$(15.204) \quad \begin{aligned} \Gamma_{|\mu} &= 2\tilde{\Gamma}(\log r)_{|\mu} + r^2(\tilde{p}p_{|\mu} - \tilde{q}q_{|\mu}) \\ &= (\log r)_{|\mu}r^2 \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -I \end{pmatrix} + r^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_{(\mu)} \\ -c_{(\mu)} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

In the results (15.201) to (15.204), only the 2×2 matrices $b_{(\mu)}$ and $c_{(\mu)} = -b_{(\mu)}^T$ occur. Let us write these as

$$(15.205) \quad b_{(\mu)} = \begin{pmatrix} k_\mu & l_\mu \\ m_\mu & n_\mu \end{pmatrix} \quad c_{(\mu)} = -\begin{pmatrix} k_\mu & m_\mu \\ l_\mu & n_\mu \end{pmatrix}$$

Substituting these into (15.201) to (15.204), we obtain

$$(15.206a) \quad p_{|\mu} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & Jb_{(\mu)} \\ -c_{(\mu)}J & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 0 & 0 & m_\mu & n_\mu \\ 0 & 0 & -k_\mu & -l_\mu \\ \hline -m_\mu & k_\mu & 0 & 0 \\ -n_\mu & l_\mu & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$(15.206b) \quad q_{|\mu} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -b_{(\mu)}J \\ Jc_{(\mu)} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = i \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 0 & 0 & l_\mu & -k_\mu \\ 0 & 0 & n_\mu & -m_\mu \\ \hline -l_\mu & -n_\mu & 0 & 0 \\ k_\mu & m_\mu & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$(15.206c) \quad \Gamma_{|\mu} = (\log r)_{|\mu}r^2 \begin{pmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & -I \end{pmatrix} + r^2 \left(\begin{array}{cc|cc} 0 & 0 & k_\mu & l_\mu \\ 0 & 0 & m_\mu & n_\mu \\ \hline k_\mu & m_\mu & 0 & 0 \\ l_\mu & n_\mu & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

Thus we finally arrive at

$$(15.207a) \quad \Pi_\mu = p_{\mu\nu|\nu} = i \begin{pmatrix} m_3 + n_4 \\ -k_3 - l_4 \\ -m_1 + k_2 \\ -n_1 + l_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(15.207b) \quad K_\mu = q_{\mu\nu|\nu} = i \begin{pmatrix} l_3 - k_4 \\ n_3 - m_4 \\ -l_1 - n_2 \\ k_1 + m_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

We thus have achieved our goal of obtaining an explicit form for the vectors K_μ and Π_μ in terms of the elements of the generating matrix C_μ . Substitute now these terms (15.207) into (15.192a) to obtain

$$(15.208) \quad \alpha_{|\mu} = \begin{pmatrix} n_3 - m_4 \\ k_4 - l_3 \\ l_2 - n_1 \\ m_1 - k_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

One should note an extraordinary thing at this point: The vector $\alpha_{|\mu}$ is composed of the same components k_μ , l_μ , m_μ , and n_μ which occur in $\Gamma_{|\mu}$. This is a very important observation, and the only problem remaining before we obtain the final Wheeler-Misner condition is to express this correspondence in a covariant manner. With this goal in mind, let us compute the covariant vector

$$(15.209) \quad v_\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu}{}_{|\nu} \Gamma_\mu{}^\gamma}{\Gamma_{\rho\kappa} \Gamma^{\rho\kappa}}$$

in our special coordinate system at the world-point P . [Recall that, in Eq. (3.25a), we showed that $\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma}$ is a tensor.] Computation of the denominator is immediate from (15.172):

$$(15.210) \quad \tilde{\Gamma}_{\rho\kappa} \tilde{\Gamma}^{\rho\kappa} = \text{Tr}(\Gamma^2) = r^4$$

Next observe that the numerator in (15.209) takes the simple form in our special coordinate system

$$(15.211) \quad \sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma = \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma_{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \tilde{\Gamma}_\mu^\gamma$$

which, from (15.206c), is

$$(15.212) \quad \sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma = \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \left[2\tilde{\Gamma}_{\beta\mu}(\log r)_{|\nu} + r^2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_{(\mu)} \\ -c_{(\mu)} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] \tilde{\Gamma}_\mu^\gamma$$

Note, however, that the Rainich condition (15.164) tells us that $\tilde{\Gamma}_{\beta\mu} \tilde{\Gamma}_\mu^\gamma$ is a multiple of the identity matrix; thus, since $\epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma}$ is antisymmetric in β and γ , the first term of (15.212) obviously vanishes and we are left with

$$(15.213) \quad \sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma = \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & b_{(\mu)} \\ -c_{(\mu)} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tilde{\Gamma}_\mu^\gamma r^2$$

Substituting now $\tilde{\Gamma}_\mu^\nu$ from (15.185) and $b_{(\mu)}$ and $c_{(\mu)}$ from (15.205) into this expression, we obtain

$$(15.214) \quad \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma = \frac{1}{2} r^4 \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -k_\nu & -l_\nu \\ 0 & 0 & -m_\nu & -n_\nu \\ k_\nu & m_\nu & 0 & 0 \\ l_\nu & n_\nu & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and hence, by a slightly tedious but elementary calculation,

$$(15.215) \quad v_\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma}{\Gamma_{\rho\kappa} \Gamma^{\rho\kappa}} = \begin{pmatrix} n_3 - m_4 \\ k_4 - l_3 \\ l_2 - n_1 \\ m_1 - k_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Comparing this with (15.208), we see that we have achieved our goal, for at P in our special coordinate system,

$$(15.216) \quad \alpha_{|\lambda} = v_\lambda \equiv \frac{\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} \Gamma^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} \Gamma_\mu^\gamma}{\Gamma_{\rho\kappa} \Gamma^{\rho\kappa}}$$

This, however, is written in tensor form and is thus true in general. In view of the simple relation (15.160) between the tensors $\Gamma^{\mu\nu}$ and $T^{\mu\nu}$, we may replace in this identity Γ by T . By use of the Einstein equations (15.2a), this may be put into a purely geometrical form:

$$(15.217) \quad \alpha_{|\lambda} = v_\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} R^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} R_\mu^\gamma}{R_{\rho\kappa} R^{\rho\kappa}}$$

which is our final result.

The basic equation of Wheeler and Misner follows immediately from (15.217), for the condition that (15.217) be integrable is

$$(15.218) \quad v_{\lambda|\tau} - v_{\tau|\lambda} = 0$$

This constitutes six additional differential conditions on $R_{\mu\nu}$ in order that it correspond to an electromagnetic field.

In conclusion, let us restate the conditions of Rainich, Wheeler, and Misner from (15.163), (15.165), (15.179), and (15.218):

$$(15.219a) \quad R_{\mu\nu} R^\nu_\alpha = \frac{1}{4} (R_{\tau\beta} R^{\tau\beta}) g_{\mu\alpha}$$

$$(15.219b) \quad R_{00} \leq 0 \quad (\text{in real coordinates})$$

$$(15.219c) \quad R^\mu_\mu = 0$$

$$(15.219d) \quad v_{\lambda|\tau} - v_{\tau|\lambda} = 0 \quad v_\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\lambda\nu\beta\gamma} R^{\beta\mu\parallel\nu} R_\mu^\gamma}{R_{\rho\kappa} R^{\rho\kappa}}$$

These four sets of conditions are the basis of Wheeler's "already unified" field theory. Note that, since (15.219a) and (15.219d) are quadratic in $R_{\mu\nu}$, only the inequality (15.219b) serves to determine the overall sign of $R_{\mu\nu}$.

Let us now take the following new point of view: Suppose we are given the system (15.219) to begin with and are asked to calculate $g_{\mu\nu}$. In order to simplify the problem we might introduce a fictitious new tensor $F_{\mu\nu}$ which satisfies Maxwell's equations and then define a symmetric tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$ as in (15.2a). Finally, we should set $R_{\mu\nu}$ proportional to $T_{\mu\nu}$

and try to solve the resulting system. All this is possible by virtue of (15.219). [Such a procedure would reproduce system (15.2) by retracing our steps in this section which led to (15.219).] This point of view makes it clear that one might wish to think of $F_{\mu\nu}$ as only a convenient mathematical construct.

The procedure described in the preceding paragraph is reminiscent of a standard artifice in two-dimensional potential theory. If we wish to solve Laplace's equation for the unknown $u(x,y)$,

$$(15.220) \quad \nabla^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

it is often very useful to introduce an auxiliary function $v(x,y)$ by the definition

$$(15.221) \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

That such a function exists follows from the differential equation (15.220) itself. It also follows that v satisfies Laplace's equation, $\nabla^2 v = 0$. Thus, instead of dealing with one second-order differential equation for u , we have achieved a reduction and splitting into the two first-order differential equations (15.221) at the price of introducing the fictitious unknown function $v(x,y)$. In almost all applications of Laplace's equation the function $v(x,y)$ has a simple and important physical interpretation. For example, in fluid dynamics, where u is the velocity potential of a flow, v will play the role of the stream function.

We may interpret the electromagnetic field in the already unified field theory in a way which is analogous to that of $v(x,y)$ in potential theory. Consider (15.219) as the basic system of equations for the $R_{\mu\nu}$ tensor. This entirely geometrical system is, unfortunately, very non-linear and difficult to handle mathematically. In order to solve it, introduce the $F_{\mu\nu}$ tensor as previously indicated. This splits the non-linear system (15.219) into a different set of equations (15.2) which are linear in $R_{\mu\nu}$ and not so difficult to solve. In Wheeler's viewpoint the simplification achieved by this reduction is so tremendous that for more than a century physicists have ascribed a physical reality to $F_{\mu\nu}$ and have assumed the existence of an electromagnetic field independent of the metric structure of space-time.

There remains now one further problem in this approach to a unified field theory: How do we describe and explain charged matter, i.e., the sinks and sources of the field? The basic relations in (15.219) are valid only at places where the field is regular and no charge exists. Thus it

would appear necessary to admit singularities in the field as in Sec. 15.1. There is, however, one possibility of geometrizing away even the singularities. As mentioned above, the relations (15.219) lead back to Maxwell's equations, and these in turn lead to the concept of lines of force which can end only at singularities of the field. We need these singularities, therefore, to serve as sinks and sources for lines of force; more mathematically, we need singularities only in order to circumvent the uniqueness theorems on the solutions of partial-differential-equation systems, and thereby exclude the trivial solution of an empty and static world. Wheeler accomplishes this end without introducing singularities by endowing the world with an appropriate novel topology. Suppose, for example, that in first approximation the world is a sphere in four-space. One may deform the sphere by adding a handle between world-points P_1 and P_2 as shown in Fig. 15.2. Such a deformation gives the world the topological aspect of a four-dimensional beer stein. Lines of force could now be drawn on the original sphere which would disappear at P_1 by entering the handle and reissue at P_2 . Then P_1 would be a sink and P_2 a source, but no singularity would occur. In similar fashion,

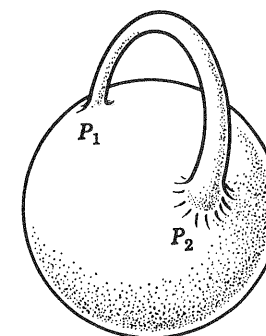


Fig. 13.2

many sources and sinks for the gravitational and electromagnetic fields could be created by an appropriate adjustment of the topology of the world.

Since the topology of a surface is part of its geometry, the field equations would determine the development of geometry and topology in time. That is, we could calculate how the sources and sinks move about in time, and therefore the motion of the particles represented by these sources and sinks would be a consequence of the field equations.

This is an imposing program for the geometrization of classical physics.

It is clear that the actual carrying out of this program will run into great mathematical difficulties, and one cannot yet say that the basic concepts have added anything to our understanding of the physical world. Such ideas may be considered, however, as good examples of the many possibilities hidden in the mathematical structure and geometric concepts which lie at the base of general relativity theory.

Exercises

15.1 An interesting interpretation of the Reissner-Nordstrom metric can be obtained. To see this consider the energy density of the electric field surrounding a point particle. Obtain the total mass-equivalent energy inside a sphere of radius r using the Einstein relation $E = mc^2$, and use Gauss' law to show that its gravitational potential falls off like r^{-2} . If this extra potential is added to the usual point-mass potential in the equation (4.142) for an approximate g_{00} , the result is identical with g_{00} in (15.21).

15.2 Show that for $(\epsilon/M)^2/\kappa < 1/4\pi$ the Reissner-Nordstrom metric has a spherical null surface or one-way membrane, as discussed in Sec. 7.8, while for $(\epsilon/M)^2/\kappa > 1/4\pi$ it does not. What of $(\epsilon/M)^2/\kappa = 1/4\pi$?

15.3 Calculate the Riemann tensor $R^\alpha_{\beta\gamma\eta}$ for the Reissner-Nordstrom metric and show that it is singular only at $r = 0$.

15.4 Study the geodesics in the Reissner-Nordstrom metric, in particular the radial null geodesics. How do the geodesics behave in the region of the null surfaces discussed above?

15.5 If $(\epsilon/M)^2/\kappa > 1/4\pi$, the singularity of the Reissner-Nordstrom metric at $r = 0$ is termed *naked* since it is not surrounded by a null surface. Show that light rays, or null geodesics, can pass from the neighborhood of this singularity to large values of r , for example, $r > 2m$, in a finite amount of coordinate time. Hence the region of the singularity is visible to an exterior observer, unlike the situation in the Schwarzschild case.

15.6 Show that the Reissner-Nordstrom metric can be put into the form $\eta_{\mu\nu} - 2ml_\mu l_\nu$ with $l^\mu l_\mu = 0$, as discussed in Chap. 7, by a transformation of the time coordinate (see Exercise 7.11).

15.7 Show that the self-dual Riemann tensor and the self-dual Weyl tensor are equal if $R = 0$ and it is not necessary that $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$. Thus the Petrov classification in the presence of the electromagnetic field can be made with the Riemann tensor, which is simpler than the Weyl tensor (see Exercise 10.8).

15.8 What is the Petrov type of a space-time with a Reissner-Nordstrom metric?

Problems

15.1 A solution of the Einstein-Maxwell equations has been found by Newman and collaborators (1965) that is the generalization of the Reissner-Nordstrom metric in the same sense that the Kerr metric is the generalization of the Schwarzschild metric. It represents the field of a spinning charged body. It is

$$ds^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2mr - e^2}{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta}\right) c^2 dt^2 - \frac{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta}{\Delta} dr^2 \\ - (r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta) d\theta^2 - \left(r^2 + a^2 + \frac{(2mr - e^2)a^2 \sin^2 \theta}{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta}\right) \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2 \\ - \frac{2a(2mr - e^2)}{r^2 + a^2 \cos^2 \theta} \sin^2 \theta d\varphi c dt$$

where $\Delta \equiv r^2 - 2mr + e^2 + a^2$. Show that this is indeed a solution of the Einstein-Maxwell equations.

15.2 Study the singularities and the existence of null surfaces in the Kerr-Newman metric introduced above.

15.3 What is the asymptotic magnetic field of the Kerr-Newman metric for large r ? What is the effective magnetic moment corresponding to this field? Show that the ratio of magnetic moment to angular momentum is ϵ/M ; this is twice the so-called "normal" value that one obtains classically for any distribution of material with a constant ratio of charge to mass density but is the same as the ratio obtained for an electron in Dirac's relativistic quantum theory.

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Index

- Absolute derivative, 95
- Absolute luminosity, 390
- Absolute space, 2
- Accuracy of experimental data in cosmology, 395
- Admissible coordinates, 17
- Advance in perihelion (*see* Perihelion precession)
- Affine character of law, 44
- Affine connections, 42, 45, 50
 - integrability of, 69, 157
 - symmetries of, 47, 48
 - variation of, 47, 358
 - in Weyl's geometry, 493
- Affine transformation, 50
- Affinely connected space, 50, 54
- Age of universe, 394
- Algebraic properties of Riemann tensor, 176
- Algebraic Rainich conditions, 522
- Algebraically special metric, 238
- Alpha (fine structure constant), 507
- Already unified field theory, 508, 529
- Analytic extension, 231
- Angles, measurement of, 200, 219
- Angular momentum in Kerr metric, 258, 270
- Antisymmetric tensors, 80
 - closed, exact, 87
- Antisymmetrization operation, 84
 - successive, 86
- Apparent forces, 2–5
- Apparent magnitude–red shift relation, 415–421, 454–457
- Approximation, linear, of field equations, 301
- Associated Weyl solutions, 311
- Astronomy:
 - distance in, 390
 - observations, 390–395, 416
- Atlas of maps of coordinates, 17
- Atomic oscillator, 125
- Axial symmetry, 443
 - of Kerr metric, 256
- Axial vectors, 81
- Base space, 290
- Base vector, unit, 33, 34
- Beer, A., 393
- Bending of light ray, 214
- Beta decay, inverse, 394, 477
- Bianchi identities, 156
 - contracted form, 170
- Bicharacteristics, 285
- Big-bang universe, 395, 433
- Binding energy, gravitational, 428, 475
- Binet formula, 204, 211
- Birkhoff's theorem, 195, 478, 481
- Black hole, 222, 231, 260, 481
- Blackbody radiation in space, 394, 429

Blamont, J. E., 143
 Body:
 field of charged, 486
 mass of, 195
 rotation of rigid, 10, 11
 Bohr radii, 507
 Bolyai, J., 407
 Bondi, H., 448
 Boundary of star, 479
 Boundary conditions, 289, 395
 Boyer and Lindquist, 256
 Brans-Dicke theory, 380
 Braut, J., 139
 Burbidge, E., 449

 Canonical form of matrix, 42
 Cartan, E., 344
 Cauchy data, 276
 Cauchy problem, 275-298
 Causal development of physical system, 276
 Cayley-Hamilton theorem, 508
 Centrifugal forces, 2, 3, 130
 Centrifugal potential, 137
 Cepheid stars, 390
 Chandrasekhar limit, 476
 Characteristic hypersurface, 108, 263, 284
 Charge density, 106
 Charged mass point, 485
 Christoffel symbols:
 contracted, 76
 of first kind, 52
 in mechanics, 52
 of second kind, 52
 Chronometric hypothesis, 125
 Classical electrodynamics, 105
 Classical limit of field equations, 174, 195, 345
 Clock paradox, 125
 Closed antisymmetric tensor, 87-90
 Cold catalyzed matter, 461
 Collapse, gravitational, 461, 477, 478
 Commutation law of covariant differentiation, 75

Co-moving coordinate system, 266, 401, 408, 441, 478
 Compass of inertia, 448
 Compatibility conditions (on Cauchy data), 280, 283
 Complete integral, 112
 Components of electromagnetic tensor, 114
 Conditions:
 of consistency (Cauchy problem), 280, 283
 of integrability (*see* Integrability of affine connections)
 Configuration space, 52
 Conformal gauge transformation, 495
 Conformal line element, 197
 Conformal transformation, 495
 Congruence transformation, 165
 Connections (*see* Affine connections)
 Conservation:
 of charge, 107, 118, 119
 of energy, 333
 equation (differential), 106, 333
 of four-current, 114
 of four-momentum, 356
 laws: in general theory of relativity, 338, 354-375
 integral, 356
 of momentum, 334
 Consistency conditions (Cauchy problem), 280, 283
 Constant:
 cosmological, 394, 396, 431
 of field equations, 347
 fine-structure, 507
 gravitational, 329
 Hubble's, 392
 Planck's, 449, 507
 Continuity equation, 333
 Contracted Riemann tensor, 169, 175
 Contraction of tensors, 28
 Contragradient relationship, 36, 37
 Contravariant components, 33
 Contravariant relationship, 35
 Convection current, 107, 339
 Convention, index, 107

Coordinate density, 428
 Coordinate maps, 17
 Coordinate neighborhoods, 17, 166, 391
 Coordinate time and physical time, 192
 Coordinate time intervals and proper time intervals, 124
 Coordinate transformations, 17
 Coordinates:
 admissible, 17
 Gaussian, 61, 63, 401, 412, 450
 geodesic, 49
 imaginary (of Minkowski), 305
 isotropic, 196
 Copernicus, N., 1
 Coriolis forces, 2, 3, 120, 130, 258
 Cosmic astronomy, 389-395
 Cosmic frame of reference, 408
 Cosmological constant, 394, 396, 431, 437
 Cosmological metric, 395
 Cosmological models, 425-457
 Cosmological postulate (perfect), 448
 Cosmological red-shift, 392
 Cosmological theory, 389
 Covariance of law, definition of, 145, 146
 Covariance principle, 117, 145
 Covariant components of vector, 33
 Covariant derivative, 68, 71
 Covariant differentiation, 67-75
 commutation law for, 75
 Cramer's rule, 508
 Creation of matter, 449, 453
 Curl, 82
 Current:
 convection, 107, 339
 four-, electric, 113
 three-, electric, 107
 Current density, 106, 500
 Curvature invariant (Riemann scalar), 170, 223
 in electromagnetic field, 519
 in Gödel-type space-time, 440
 in Robertson-Walker metric, 410

Curvature tensor (*see* Riemann tensor)
 Curves(s):
 normal and curvature, 97
 transport along, 97

 d'Alembertian operator, 310
 Deceleration parameter, 415, 421
 Deflection of light, 214-219
 Degenerate metric, 238
 Degenerate space, 238
 Delta, Kronecker, 20
 Density:
 coordinate, 428
 electric charge, 106
 of energy (relativistic), 332
 in universe, 393, 432
 proper, 331
 Derivative:
 absolute, 95, 172
 covariant, 67-75
 de Sitter universe, 436, 450
 Dicke, R. H., 5, 139, 209, 395
 (*See also* Brans-Dicke theory)
 Differential forms, exterior, 82
 Differential identities (*see* Bianchi identities)
 Differentiation, absolute and covariant (*see* Derivative)
 Dimensions of constants, 396, 428
 Discontinuity across characteristic surfaces, 108
 Distance:
 astronomical, 390
 energy, 391
 luminosity, 390
 marker, 390
 pseudo- (in affine space), 54
 Distinguished surfaces in Kerr solution, 260-266
 Divergence, 75
 of energy-momentum tensor, 343
 geometric interpretation of, 77
 of Ricci tensor, 170
 Doppler effect (*see* Red shift)

- Dual:
 of electromagnetic tensor, 115, 116
 of skew-symmetric tensor, 93, 94
- Dual tensor, 92, 93
- Dummy indices, 21
- Duncómbé, R. H., 213
- Dust ball, gravitational collapse of, 478
- Dust-filled universe, 432, 434
- Dynamics:
 classical, 57
 of particle (*see* Geodesic motion hypothesis)
- Eddington, A. S., 4, 485
- Eddington's form of the Schwarzschild solution, 237, 251
- Effective potentials in Schwarzschild and Kerr geometries, 266–271
- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of antisymmetric tensor, 510, 519
- Einstein, A., 3, 4, 47, 137, 169, 305, 344, 352, 431, 486
- Einstein equations (*see* Field equations)
- Einstein-Maxwell equations, 486
- Einstein tensor, 344, 361
- Einstein's "elevator," 3, 175
- Electric charge density, 106
- Electric current density, 106, 500
- Electrodynamics, classical, 105
- Electromagnetic energy density, 342
- Electromagnetic energy tensor, 338
- Electromagnetic equations of motion, 340
- Electromagnetic field equations, 105, 106
 and gauge transformations, 119, 501
 physical significance of, 530
- Electromagnetic field tensor, 106, 114
 tensor potential of, 116
- Electromagnetism:
 in general relativity, 485
 in Weyl's theory, 500
- Electron gas, degenerate, 476
- Element:
 of area, 418
 of volume, 332
- Energy:
 balance in cosmic evolution, 427
 conservation of, 333, 356, 365
 density (relativistic), 330, 332, 338
 in universe, 393, 432
 distance in astronomy, 392, 419
 flux, 418
 in Kerr field, 266
 pseudo-tensor of, 365, 371
 relativistic, of a mass point, 332
 in Schwarzschild field, 266, 375
- Energy momentum:
 divergence of, 343
 of dust cloud, 331
 of electromagnetism, 338
 eigenvalues and eigenvectors of, 519
 in field equations, 330, 343, 425
 in finite volume, 371
 four-vector, 355, 365
 of gravitational field, 354–366
 of perfect fluid, 335, 337, 425
 tensor, 330, 337
- Entropy in cosmic evolution, 427
- Eötvös, J., 5
- Equation:
 canonical or Hamiltonian, 287–289
 conservation, 106, 333
 d'Alembertian, 310
 Euler-Lagrange, 56, 60, 129
 field, 145
 geodesic deviation, 172–174
 Killing, 312
 Lagrange, 52, 53, 59
 Laplace, 146, 168, 293, 306, 329, 530
 Maxwell, 105, 106, 114, 338
 Poisson, 146, 329, 338
 of state, 427, 456, 462, 476
 wave, 312, 318
- Equations of motion, 120, 126–130
 of charged particle, 340
 of continuum, 130, 134
 in general relativity, 351–354
- Lorentz force, 340
 of point particle, 354
- Equivalence:
 of all points in three-space, 401
 of gravitational and inertial mass, 5
- Equivalence principle, 4, 5, 60, 120, 137, 138
- Ergosphere, 271
- Euclidean geometry, 9
 and integrability, 69, 157
- Euler equations, 334
- Euler-Lagrange equations, 56, 60, 129
 with electromagnetic terms, 377
 in general theory of relativity, 59, 189, 201
- Eulerian derivative, 334
- Event, 122
- Evolution of universe, time scale for, 394
- Exact antisymmetric tensors, 87–90
- Expansion of universe, 392, 395, 414
- Experimental data in cosmology, 390
- Experimental verifications of general theory of relativity, 199, 213, 214, 219
- Exploding models of universe, 433
- Exterior differential forms, 82
- Exterior multiplication, 83
- Exterior Schwarzschild (*see* Schwarzschild field)
- Extrinsic coordinate system, 48
- Fermat's principle, 221
- Fermi-Walker transport law, 98
- Fictitious forces, 60
- Field of charged mass point, 486
- Field equations:
 electromagnetic (*see* Maxwell's equations)
 gravitational, 145
 classical limit of, 174, 345
 with electromagnetic terms, 518
 and equations of motion, 351–354
 for free space, 167
 modified for steady-state model, 450
 for nonempty space, 344, 348
 and Robertson-Walker metric, 425
 structure of, 276
 linearized, 301
 structure of, 314
- Fine-structure constant, 507
- Finite universe, 396, 429
- Finlay-Freundlich, E., 143
- Finsler spaces, 10
- Fireball, primordial, 394
- First curvature and normal of curve or world-line, 97
- Fixed stars, 408
- Flat space-time, 331
- Flat spaces, 150, 162
- Flow derivative, 334
- Flux of energy, 418
- Fock, V. A., 109, 352
- Force:
 gravitational, 3
 included in $T^{\mu\nu}$, 334
 inertial, 3
 Lorentz, 340
- Form:
 bilinear, 35
 fundamental or metric, 31, 32
 multilinear, 35
- Four-velocity, 335, 340
- Four-vectors, 365
- Fourès-Bruhat, Y., 283
- Frame of reference, 408
- Free fall, 3, 175, 225
- Frenet-Serret formula, 97
- Friedman cosmological solution, 435, 479
- Fundamental form and tensor, 31, 32
- Galactic clusters, 426
- Gamow, G., 395
- Gauge invariance of Maxwell's equations, 119, 501
- Gauge transformations, 116, 495

Gauge vector field, 495
 Gauss, K., 7, 9, 58, 61
 theorem of, 77, 78
 Gaussian coordinates, 59, 61, 401, 412, 441, 450
 Gaussian parameters, 8
 General coordinate transformation, 17
 General covariance, principle of, 117, 145
 Geodesic, 5, 6, 98, 352
 formal form of equations of, 54
 null, 58, 214, 497
 special parameter on, 54
 Geodesic deviation, 172–176
 Geodesic equations of motion, 130–134, 354
 Geodesic motion hypothesis, 5, 126–128, 351
 Geometric interpretation of
 electromagnetic field, 501
 Geometric mass, 195, 466
 Geometrical optics, variational
 principles in, 221
 Geometrical units, 195, 428
 Geometrization of singularities in
 Wheeler's theory, 531
 Geometry:
 mechanistic interpretation of, 122
 physical interpretation of, 500, 530
 and physics, 1
 Global time-coordinate, 64, 400, 412
 Gödel solution, 412, 437–448
 Gold, T., 448
 Goldenberg, M., 210
 Gradient, 79
 Grassman, H., 83
 Gravitation, Newton's theory, 1
 Gravitational constant, 329, 347
 Gravitational field:
 with spherical symmetry, 305
 static, 290, 429–431
 weak, 301
 (See also Cosmological models;
 Riemann tensor;
 Robertson-Walker metric;
 Schwarzschild's solution)
 Gravitational force, 60
 Gravitational mass, 5

Gravitational perturbation, 289, 305
 Gravitational potential, 134, 332
 Gravitational spectral shift (*see* Red shift)
 Gravitational wave, 289, 317
 detection of, 326
 Greek and Latin indices convention, 107
 Green, formula of, 78
 Grommer, J., 352
 Group of motions, 100

 Hamiltonian equations, 287–289
 Hamilton's principle, 58
 Harmonic function, 307
 Helmholtz, H., 10, 16
 Hertzsprung-Russel diagram, 390
 Hidden symmetries, 98
 Hilbert, D., 279, 282
 Hill, H., 210
 Hlavaty, V., 485
 Homogeneous forms and symmetry
 character of tensors, 82
 Hopf, E., 294
 Hoyle, F., 419, 450
 Hubble distances, 392
 Hubble's constant, 392
 Hubble's law, 392, 415, 431, 454
 Hydrodynamics:
 classical, 333, 467
 relativistic, 462, 467
 Hydrogen atom in Weyl's theory, 506
 Hyperbolic metric, 61
 Hypersphere, 398, 409, 410, 432
 Hypothesis:
 geodesic, 5, 126–128, 351
 Riemannian, 15

 Icarus, 212, 213
 Idealized universe, 395
 Imaginary coordinate, 302
 Indefinite metric, 61
 Index convention, 107
 Inertial frame, 408
 Inertial mass, 5
 Infeld, L., 352

Infinite red shift, 223, 260, 265
 Initial value problem, 111, 276
 Inner product, 20
 Instability of static universe, 431
 Integrability of affine connections, 67, 157, 158
 Integrable space, 162
 Integral conservation laws:
 in general relativity, 354
 with pseudo-tensor, 365
 Interior Schwarzschild field (*see* Schwarzschild field)
 Internal equations of Maxwell, 106
 Interpretation of geometry,
 mechanistic, 122
 Intrinsic symmetries, 98
 Invariant:
 of curvature (*see* Curvature invariant)
 definition of, 18
 Isolated body, motion of, 354
 Isotropic coordinates, 196
 Isotropy, 186, 405, 407

 Jordan canonical form, 511

 Kepler problem, 199
 Kepler's third law, 206
 Kerr line element, 253
 Kerr solution, 237
 and rotation, 255–260
 Killing vector fields, 98, 312
 Kinetic theory of gases, 457
 Kretschmann, E., 146
 Kronecker delta, 20
 Kronecker tensor, 31
 Kruskal coordinates, 222

 Lagrange equations, 52, 53, 59
 Lagrange function, 287
 Lagrangian:
 for Brans-Dicke theory, 381
 for electromagnetic field, 377
 for gravitational field, 376
 Laplace equation and operator, 146, 168, 293, 306, 329, 530

Laplacian, 79
 Latin and Greek indices convention, 107
 Laue scalar, 345
 Leavitt, H. S., 390
 Leibnitz, G., 2, 3
 Lemaître, G., 431
 Length change in Weyl's geometry, 493
 Lense and Thirring, 237
 approximate solution for rotating sphere, 257
 Leverrier, U., 200
 Levi-Civita, T., 47, 352
 Lichnerowicz, A., 280, 289
 Light:
 deflection of, 214–219
 travel time of, 219
 travel in Kruskal coordinates, 231
 Light cone, 112, 262
 Limit of field equations (classical), 174, 175, 345
 Lindholm effect, 139
 Linearized field equations, 301
 structure of, 314
 Lobachewski, N. I., 407
 Localization of gravitational energy, 365
 Locally isotropic space, 401, 405
 Locally Lorentzian metric, 124
 London's hydrogen atom, 507
 Lorentz contraction, 124
 Lorentz dilation, 124
 Lorentz force, 340
 Lorentz group, 166
 Lorentz matrix, 78
 Lorentz metric tensor, 121, 302
 Lorentz transformation, 7
 Lowering of indices, 30
 Luminosity, distance, 390
 Luminosity-periodicity law of
 Cepheids, 390

 Mach, E., 3, 5, 380
 Mach's principle, 400, 407
 and Gödel solution, 437–448
 Magnitude of star, 416

- Manifold, 390
 Map of coordinates, 17
 Marker system, 17, 231, 390, 391
 Mass:
 defect in model star, 475
 density in universe, 393
 geometric, 195
 gravitational and inertial, 5
 proper, 331
 Mass-energy relation, 138, 475
 Mass point, field (*see* Schwarzschild's solution)
 Matrix:
 canonical form of, 42
 Lorentz, 78
 transposed, 36
 Matrix algebra, 508–517
 Matter:
 creation, 449, 453
 representation of, 330
 (*See also* Density; Energy; Mass; Tensor)
 Maupertuis, principle of, 6
 Maximum-minimum principle, 293, 295–298
 Maxwell's equations, 105, 338
 mathematical structure of, 109–113, 117, 118
 under scale change, 119, 501
 transformation to moving frame, 116
 Mechanics, classical, 52, 57
 Mechanistic interpretation of geometry, 122
 Mercury (*see* Perihelion precession)
 Metric:
 for fluid sphere, 472
 form, 10
 hyperbolic, 18
 Kerr, 253
 Robertson-Walker, 400–408, 416
 Schwarzschild, 194, 196, 198
 for spherical symmetry, 305
 (*See also* Cosmological models; Robertson-Walker metric; Schwarzschild's solution)
 static, 101, 186, 289
 tensor, 107, 121, 302
 nonsymmetric, 485
 Minkowski, H., 117
 Minkowski coordinates, 302
 Minkowski electromagnetic field tensor, 114, 453
 Misner, C. W., 486, 508, 518
 Model star, 468–475
 Model universe, 428–454
 Momentum:
 conservation of, 334, 356
 four-, 356
 three-, 334
 Momentum density, 338
 Mössbauer effect, 140
 Motion:
 of continuum, 130, 134
 in electromagnetic field, 340
 of galactic clusters (random), 426
 of point particle, 351, 445
 Motions, group of, 100
 Moving scales (*see* Weyl's theory)
 Mu meson (life-time), 123
 Nearly Lorentzian metric, 131
 Nebular red shift (*see* Red shift)
 Neighborhood, coordinate overlap in, 17, 166, 391
 Neutrino, 394, 457, 477
 Neutron star, 476
 Newton, I., 2, 3, 195, 200
 Newtonian mechanics, 1, 2
 Newtonian potential, 205
 approximate, 200
 Newtonian-type fields, 326
 Newton's equations of motion, 134
 Newton's pail, 2
 Newton's second law, 146, 335
 Nonlinearity of general theory of relativity, 275, 301, 352
 Nonstatic models of universe, 431–437
 Nordstrom, G., 491, 507
 Normals of curve (*see* Curve)
 Notation:
 for absolute derivative, 95
 for differentiation, 68

- for indices, 107
 Nuclear synthesis, 449, 461
 Null cone, 112
 Null geodesic, 58, 221, 497
 as bicharacteristics, 289
 and Fermat's principle, 221
 as gravitational ray, 289
 as world-line of photon, 214
 Null hypersurface, 261, 263
 Observation, astronomical, 390
 Observer, world-line of, 98
 Oke, J. G., 394
 Olbers paradox, 429
 One-body problem, 185
 One-way membrane, 261
 Oort, J. H., 393
 Operator:
 D'Alembertian, 310
 Laplace (*see* Laplace equation and operator)
 Optics, geometrical, 221
 Orbit equation in Kepler problem, 203, 204
 Orientation in space and in time, 61
 Overdetermination in Cauchy problem, 277
 Overlapping coordinates, 166, 391
 Palatini, A., 358
 Paradoxes, 429
 Parallel displacement of vectors, 50, 52, 214
 Particle, trajectory of (*see* Geodesic)
 Patterson, C. C., 394
 Penrose, R., 501
 Penzias and Wilson, 394
 Perfect fluid, energy tensor for, 335, 337
 Perihelion precession, 199, 200, 209, 213, 384
 classical explanations, 200, 209
 Period of atomic clock, 125
 Petrov classification, 176
 Petrov types, 181
 Photon (*see* Light; Null geodesic; Red shift)
 Physical area, 188
 Physical length, 187
 Physical optics (*see* Geometrical optics)
 Physical time, 125, 192
 Planck's constant, 428, 507
 Plane gravitational wave, 320
 Planetary motion, 199
 Planets, orbits of, 213
 Plebanski, R., 352
 Poisson's equation, 146, 329, 347
 Polar vectors, 81
 Pontecorvo, B., 394
 Potential (*see* Effective potentials; Gravitational potential; Newtonian potential)
 Pound, R. V., 140
 Poynting vector, 342
 Precession of perihelion of Mercury (*see* Perihelion precession)
 Pressure in cosmological models, 426
 neglect of, 427, 436
 Pressure stress tensor, 336
 Primordial fireball, 394
 Principal curvature of curve or world-line, 97
 Principal normal of curve or world-line, 97
 Principle:
 of covariance, 117, 145
 of equivalence (*see* Equivalence principle)
 of Fermat, 221
 of least action, 6
 variational, 376
 (*See also* Euler-Lagrange equations; Fermat's principle)
 Product, scalar, 20
 Propagation of vector (*see* Fermi-Walker transport law; Transplantation of vector)
 Proper density, 331
 Proper mass, 331
 Proper system, 122
 Proper time, 120

Proper time interval, 122, 123, 125
 Pseudo-Euclidean space, 42, 162, 312
 Pseudo-hypersphere, 412
 Pseudo-length in affine space, 54
 Pseudo-spherical space, 406, 432
 Pseudo-tensor, stress energy, 365
 Pulsars, 477

Quadratic form (*see* Metric;
 Riemannian geometry)
 Quanta of light, 138
 Quantum conditions and Weyl's
 theory, 507
 Quasi-linear differential equations, 147
 Quotient theorem, 29

Radar reflection, 213
 Radial marker, 196, 231, 443
 Radial pulsations, 195
 Radial symmetry, 185
 Radius of universe, 409, 410, 436
 Rainich, G. Y., 522
 Rainich-Wheeler-Misner relations,
 508, 518

Raising of indices, 31
 Random velocities:
 of clusters, 426
 in Kerr metric, 260
 Rank of tensor, 22
 Rate of clocks, 125
 Ray (*see* Light; Null geodesic)
 Rebka, G. A., 140
 Recession of galaxies, speed of, 392
 Red shift, 135–138, 392, 412–415, 454
 experimental tests of, 139
 Reissner, H., 491
 Relative motion, 174, 175, 325
 Relativistic mechanics, 120
 Relativity, special theory of, 7, 331,
 345
 Relativity principle of space, 2
 Ricci, G., 74
 Ricci tensor, 170, 193, 344, 357
 Riemann, G., 7, 10, 407, 429

Riemann scalar, 170
 Riemann tensor, 147, 149
 algebraic properties, 176
 Bianchi identities, 156, 170
 contracted forms, 169, 175
 for Gödel-type universe, 439
 for gravitational wave, 318
 symmetries of, 151, 155
 Riemannian geometry, justification of
 use of, 7–15
 Riemannian manifold, 17
 Robertson-Walker metric, 400–415
 Roddier, F., 139
 Rotating black hole, 260
 in cosmology, 381
 Rotation:
 covariant characterization of, 444
 of frame of reference, 120–124
 and Gödel universe, 443
 and Kerr metric, 237, 255–260
 of perihelion (*see* Perihelion
 precession)
 Rotational behavior of vector field,
 442

Sandage, A., 391, 419, 421
 Scalar, 18
 Scalar density, 91
 Scalar field, 18
 Scalar product, 20
 Scalar tensor theory of cosmology, 380
 Scale change:
 and Maxwell's equations, 119, 501
 and Weyl's geometry, 495
 Schrödinger, E., 47
 Schwarzschild field:
 energy of, 366, 375
 exterior, 185
 interior, 468–475
 Schwarzschild line element, 194, 198
 Schwarzschild radius, 195, 222, 436
 Schwarzschild singularity, 195, 223
 Schwarzschild's solution, 185
 with cosmological constant, 396–399
 in isotropic coordinates, 195

and Kerr's solution compared, 248,
 250
 Shapiro, I., 213
 Shift, red or spectral (*see* Red shift)
 Signature, 165
 Simultaneity, 124
 Singularities in electromagnetic field,
 530
 Singularity of Schwarzschild, 223
 Skew symmetric tensors (*see*
 Antisymmetric tensors)
 Smorodinsky, J., 394
 Solutions of field equations (*see* Field
 equations; Gödel solution;
 Model universe; Schwarzschild
 field)
 Source equations, 106
 Space:
 Euclidean, spherical,
 pseudospherical, 406
 flat, 150, 162, 331
 pseudo-Euclidean, 162
 Riemannian, 17
 Space-time diagram, 125
 flat, 331
 with group of motions, 98
 (*See also* Metric; Universe)
 Spatial isotropy in cosmology, 394
 Special relativity (*see* Relativity)
 Spectral shift (*see* Red shift)
 Spherical coordinates, 186
 Spherical harmonics, 210
 Spherical space, 406
 Spherically symmetric field, 185, 305
 (*See also* Cosmological models;
 Robertson-Walker metric;
 Schwarzschild's solution)
 Spinning body (*see* Rotation)
 Stability of star models, 476
 Standard clock, 125
 Star:
 boundary of, 479
 limit on mass of, 476, 477
 model, 468–475
 Static metric, 101, 186, 289
 Static solution in cosmology, 428–431

Static space-time manifold, 186, 289
 Stationary curve, 55, 56, 221
 Stationary metric, 101, 243
 Steady-state model of universe,
 448–454
 and Einstein equations, 449
 Stellar structure, 461
 Stress tensor, 336
 Strips, 285
 Summation convention, 20
 Sun's quadrupole moment, shape, 209
 Supergiant-blue stars, 391
 Surfaces:
 distinguished in Kerr metric, 260
 equidistant, 64
 of infinite redshift, 260
 Sylvester canonical form, 165
 Symmetric tensors, 80
 Symmetry:
 axial, 256
 hidden, 98
 of Riemann curvature tensor, 151,
 155
 spherical (*see* Spherically symmetric
 field)
 Symmetry character of tensors and
 homogeneous forms, 82
 Synge, J., 125

Tangent Euclidean space, 35
 Tangent vector, 96
 Tensor:
 analysis, 67
 associated, 30–32
 axiomatic definition of, 24
 covariant differentiation of (*see*
 Covariant differentiation)
 density, 90–92
 dual, 93–94
 electromagnetic, 114
 energy-momentum (*see* Energy
 momentum, tensor)
 field, 41
 intrinsic definition of, 21
 matter, 331

- metric or fundamental (*see* Metric)
- multiplication, 25
- outer product, 25
- potential, 88
- pseudo-, 365
- representations, 32
- transformation law, 23
- Tests of general relativity, 209, 214, 219
- Time:
 - dilation, 124
 - measurement of, 125
 - proper interval, 122, 123, 125
- Time-independent field, 305
- Tolman-Oppenheimer-Volkov equation, 462, 467
- Topology, 399, 531
- Trajectory:
 - of light ray, 214
(*See also* Null geodesic)
 - of particle, 351
- Transformation coefficients:
 - of contravariant vectors, 18
 - of covariant vectors, 19
- Transplantation of vector, 42, 44, 50
- Transport, 98
 - parallel, 50, 52, 214
- Twin paradox, 125
- Underdetermination in Cauchy problem, 277
- Unified theory (already), 508, 529
- Uniqueness problem, 289, 441
- Units, geometrical, 428
- Universe:
 - age of, 394
 - of de Sitter, 436, 450
 - expanding, 392
 - finite, 396
 - of Gödel type, 437-448
 - models of, 425-454
 - static, 429-431
- Unstability of static universe, 431
- Variation of connections, 358
- Variational principle, gauge-invariant:
 - in Maxwell's theory, 377
 - in theory of gravitation, 357, 366
 - in Weyl's theory, 501
 (*See also* Euler-Lagrange equations; Geodesic equations of motion)
- Variations, calculus of, 6, 188, 366
- Vector:
 - analysis, 67
 - associated, 34
 - axial, 81
 - base, 33, 34
 - contravariant, 18
 - covariant, 19
 - field on curve, 94
 - first curvature, 97
 - Killing, 98, 312
 - normal (to curve), 97
 - parallel displacement of, 52
 - potential, 378
 - tangent, 96
 - transplantation, 42, 44, 50, 492
 - axiomatic definition of Weyl, 48
 - transport along curve, 97
- Velocity:
 - of charge, 107
 - of light, 266
 - of recession (radial), 392
- Venus, 213
- Volume, element of, 332, 473
- Vulcan, 200, 210
- Wave:
 - equation, 312, 318
 - front, 108
 - gravitational, 289, 317
 - polarization of, 317, 326
- Wave-type field, 326
- Weak gravitational field, 301
- Weber, J., 326
- Weight:
 - of tensor, 499
 - of tensor density, 499

- Weyl, H., 48, 500
- Weyl's geometry, 491, 493
- Weyl's solutions to linearized equations, 309, 316
- Weyl's theory of electromagnetism, 500
 - and quantum conditions, 507
- Wheeler-Misner equation, 529
- White dwarf stars, 476
- World-line, 122
- World-point, 122
- World-tube, 355
- Zero geodesic lines (*see* Null geodesic)