

Updated

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3001

# 3. Newtonian Gravity & Physics & The Friedmann Equations

3.0a Historical Intro  $\Rightarrow$  followed by other intro - review - curious parade

Notes drawn from

The Friedmann equations for a(t) scale factor.

Liddle (2015) Wik

(i.e., the Friedmann equation plus the Friedmann equation)

of not of univ. expansion 1st order ODR nonlinear > exact add solution

Bondi (1960) see historical tidbits

governs the overall dynamics of the Observable universe

Carroll (2004)

provided General Relativity

Cole & Lucchin (2002) Weidner (1972)

(GR) is a correct theory

Lundeen (2002)

well a correct emergent theory since we believe it is the macroscopic limit of

quantum gravity - for which there is no established theory.

Because nonlinear in general solutions of Friedmann will not add to make a solution

$v = v_0 a$   $a_0 = 1$  convention  $t_0 = \frac{a}{\dot{a}}$  velocity value of expansion of univ. inverse time in  $\frac{km/s}{c}$

Lots of variations but all more complex none have singled useful for hold theories to develop their power

In fact, the Friedmann equations can be derived from Newtonian physics with plausible/natural ad hoc assumptions

assumptions {  $\Phi$  only ordinary matter is considered - Radiation & Cosmological constant constant Dark energy

However, one needs the GR perspective to understand that they include the

All kinds of mass-energy with enough natural assumptions

At universal level  $\Lambda$  and constant energy scale  $\Phi$  but differ in their microscopicity

constant or other some at  $\Lambda$  of background

# effects of the curvature of space $\rightarrow$ and radiation

Historically, the Friedmann equations as ~~was~~ first derived by Alexander Friedmann in 1922 in Russian (Wiki: Friedmann eqs) (1888-1977)

but he derived them in Russian

Georges Lemaitre derived ~~them~~ independently a bit later in the 1920s (Einstein himself increased the number of Friedmann)

the radiation is homogeneous

The Newtonian derivation came later remarkably by Milne & McCrea in 1934 (Bondi-75)

It's remarkable that a lot of progress in cosmology could have been made before GR (1915), but that didn't happen.

(~~Four~~ Three) main hold-ups

- 1) People seemed to believe the universe was static on average
  - Newton thought this
  - odd since the universe is

but people at that time didn't know, no radiation from the past difference 1950

not in thermodynamical equilibrium  $\rightarrow$  as manifested by Olbers' Paradox

- a dark night sky is inconsistent with an eternal unchanging static universe

if true in every direction you should see a star (homogeneous & isotropic too) (homework problem)

2) People didn't yet know there were ~~other~~ galaxies until 1924 when Hubble established that the Andromeda nebula was the Andromeda galaxy (Wilk Hubble) — so then all spiral nebulae were spiral galaxies and all elliptical nebulae too since they came clustered with spirals

Even the 7th Cr. Wren suggested before leaving astr. & physics for 'rubbish'

people had suspected this for a long time since the 18th century (Wilk galaxy)

In any case, it was hard to ~~getting~~ get an expanding universe idea without knowing galaxies and observing their redshifts which came along with Slipher ~~after~~ starting in 1912 (but very slowly)

3) Need GR idea of free-fall frame being the 'true' inertial frame

Of course a ~~vigorous~~ vigorous derivation of the Friedman equations must be from GR — but we leave that to another course — one on GR

A vigorous demonstration as to why the GR Friedman eqn ~~and~~ Newtonian analogs ~~are the same~~ should be the same is given by Wells (2014)

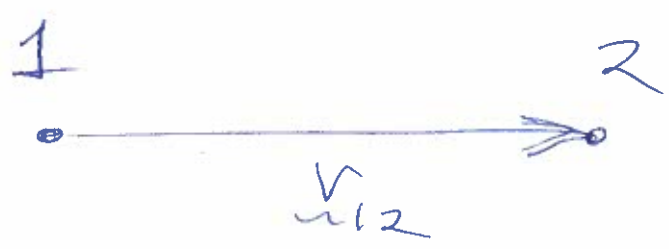
To become an expert in cosmology, you should study GR (not me, just a specialist in teaching in the classroom)

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But before we jump to the derivation, we do a review, here in a lot useful results - I felt I had to do these to know what is meant.

# 3.06 Newtonian Gravity, Gauss' Law & The Shell Theorem

## Newton's law of universal gravitation



$$\hat{r}_{12} = \frac{\vec{r}_{12}}{r_{12}}$$

$$\vec{F}_{12} = - \frac{G m_1 m_2}{r_{12}^2} \hat{r}_{12}$$

an ideal limit case

- formally it's for point masses

Newton never wrote it down like this. He used an obscure formalism in the Principia (1687) and a few year later Pierre Varignon translated Newton's results into Leibniz calculus

we recognize to us

formalism, but vector notation didn't come until the 19<sup>th</sup> century (with: Euclidean vector) <sup>later</sup>

We can derive Gauss' law now  
- nonrigorously <sup>from it</sup>

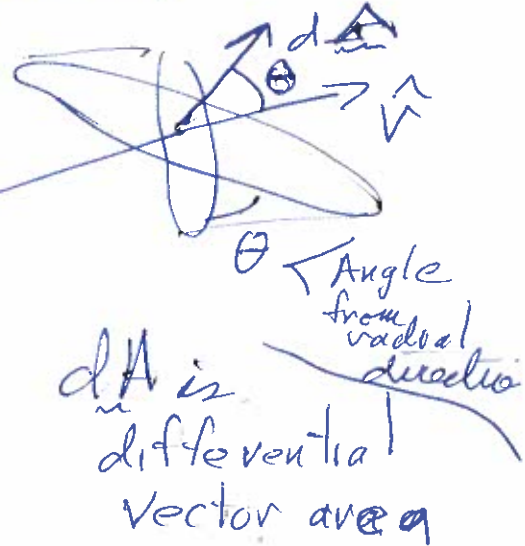
# Gauss' Law

3009

For a force field (force per unit generic charge) from a point source

Very special results due to inverse square-law nature

$f = \frac{Q}{r^2} \hat{r}$   
 Only field of the charge. There are fields source around!!



Consider

Now

$$dA_{\vec{r}} = dA \cos \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{A} &= \frac{Q \hat{r} \cdot d\vec{A}}{r^2} \\ &= Q \frac{dA \cos \theta}{r^2} \\ &= Q (\pm d\Omega) \end{aligned}$$

We are actually assuming a lot about 3-d Euclidean geometry here but geometry is another course

$\oint \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{A} = Q_i \pi$   
 one charge

$\oint \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{A} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0} \pi$

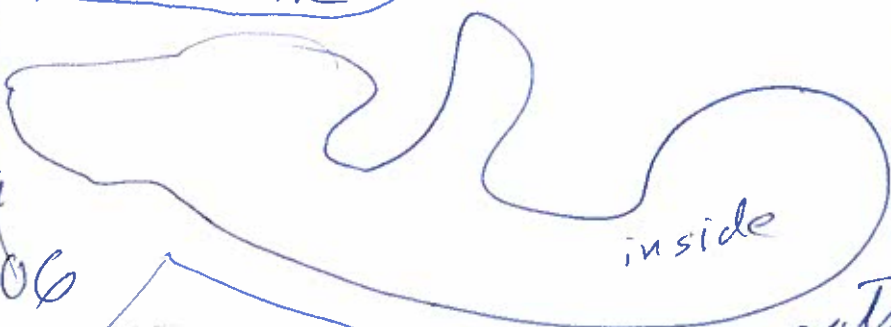
only for

$\oint \Omega$  because of cancellation

See p. 3006

+ for outward ( $\theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ ) radial  
 - for anti-radial ( $\theta > \frac{\pi}{2}$ )  
 Since  $d\Omega$  is conventionally always +ve

differential solid angle



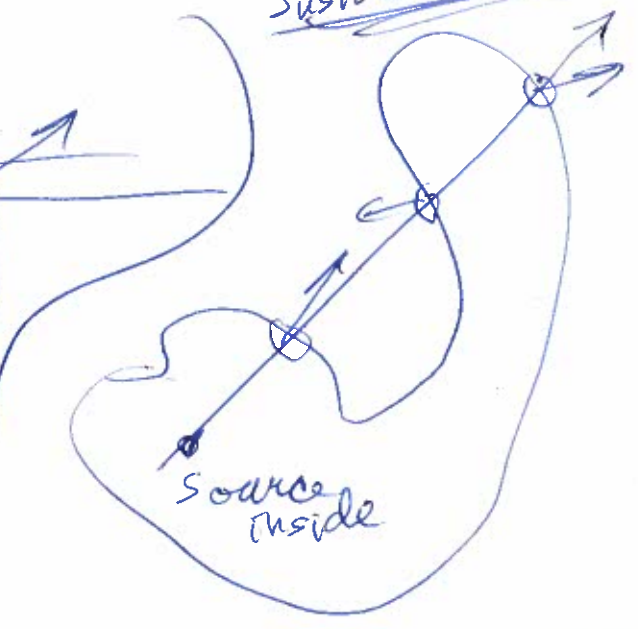
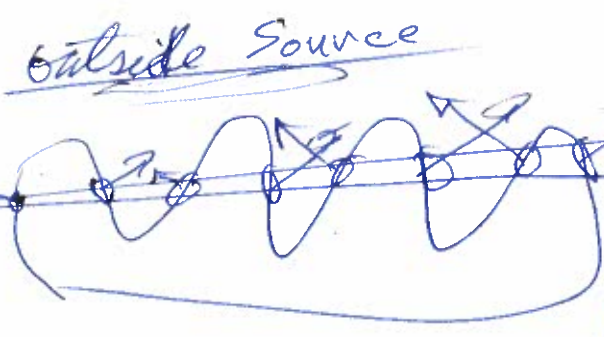
Consider now a closed surface. It has a definite inside and outside

A very special result dependent on the inverse-square law

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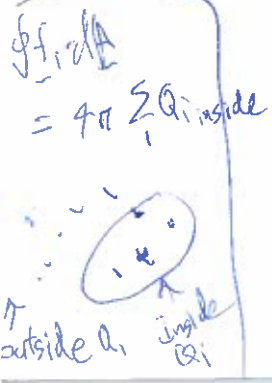
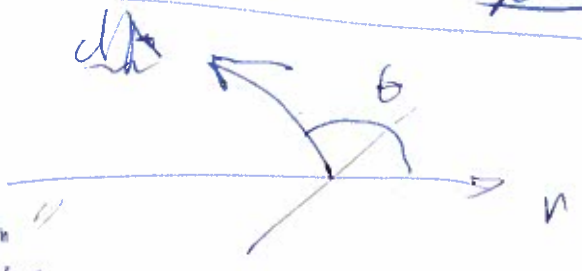
Question  
Is topology among other things, a way to get yes/no answers  
Just missing

Any radial cone from <sup>at inside</sup> surface must pass from <sup>either</sup> inside to outside or vice versa and must ultimately pass to the outside



"in" always -ve?  
"out" always +ve  
and so must all differentiated ~~cancel?~~ solid angle bits cancel?

Always one more "out" than "in" and so one solid angle bit uncanceled aper



$\theta \in [0, 90^\circ]$  always an "out" and always positive  
 $\theta \in [90^\circ, 180^\circ]$  always an "in" and always negative

$\oint \vec{r}_i \cdot d\vec{A} = 4\pi \sum_i Q_i$  inside

Einstein's generic form  $\oint \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = \dots$  300  
Gauss' law (Wik) only field & cp G only by other fields integral form 300

Gravity

$$\mathbf{g}_i = - \frac{GM_i}{r_i^2} \hat{r}_i$$

gravitational field

$M_i$

point source  $i$

$\oint \mathbf{g} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = -GM$   
 Gravity always a -ve charge  
 So make minus explicit

No Einstein summation

$$\oint \mathbf{g} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = -G \sum_i M_i 4\pi$$

And mass is always re unlike electric charge

in total: Can have -ve contributions

$$= -4\pi GM_{\text{inside}}$$

minus because gravity always attractive

Coulomb force

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{kq_i}{r_i^2} \hat{r}_i$$

$k = \text{Coulomb constant} \approx 8.99 \times 10^{10} \text{ N m}^2/\text{C}^2$   
 (Wik)

Electric field

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{A} = k \sum_i q_i 4\pi$$

$$Q = kq$$

$$= 4\pi k q_{\text{inside}}$$

$$= \frac{q_{\text{inside}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

Vacuum Permittivity

Very special results due to special nature of inverse-square law / forces

We'll look at this case in a moment

For high symmetry cases, One

convergent evolution of physics

local Boltzmann grav + EM have the same reason Einstein saw his unified field theory approach was true but no. One needs the of hamilton mechanics + field theory, QFT idea

can use the integral Gauss' law to obtain solutions

- 1) spherical sym
- 2) cylindrical sym
- 3) planar sym

and that's all I think

3008

# Gauss' theorem

vector field

For differential form of Gauss' Law

(AKA divergence theorem)

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$$\int \nabla \cdot \underline{F} dV = \oint \underline{F} \cdot d\underline{A}$$

Proof Consider a sufficiently small volume to allow 1st order expansion to be accurate

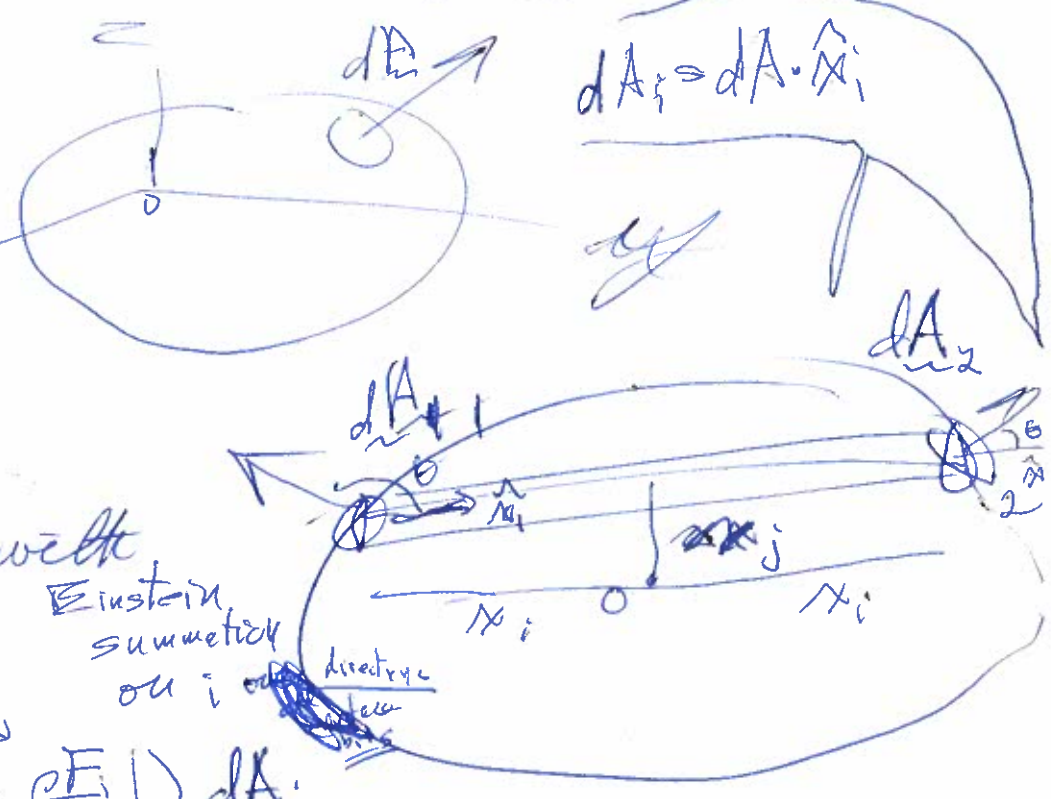
irregular shape  
~~WAA~~  
always n-out pairs

$$\oint \underline{F} \cdot d\underline{A}$$

$$= \oint F_i dA_i \quad \text{with Einstein summation on } i$$

Taylor expand

$$= \oint \left( F_{i0} + \kappa_j \frac{\partial F_i}{\partial \kappa_j} \right) dA_i$$



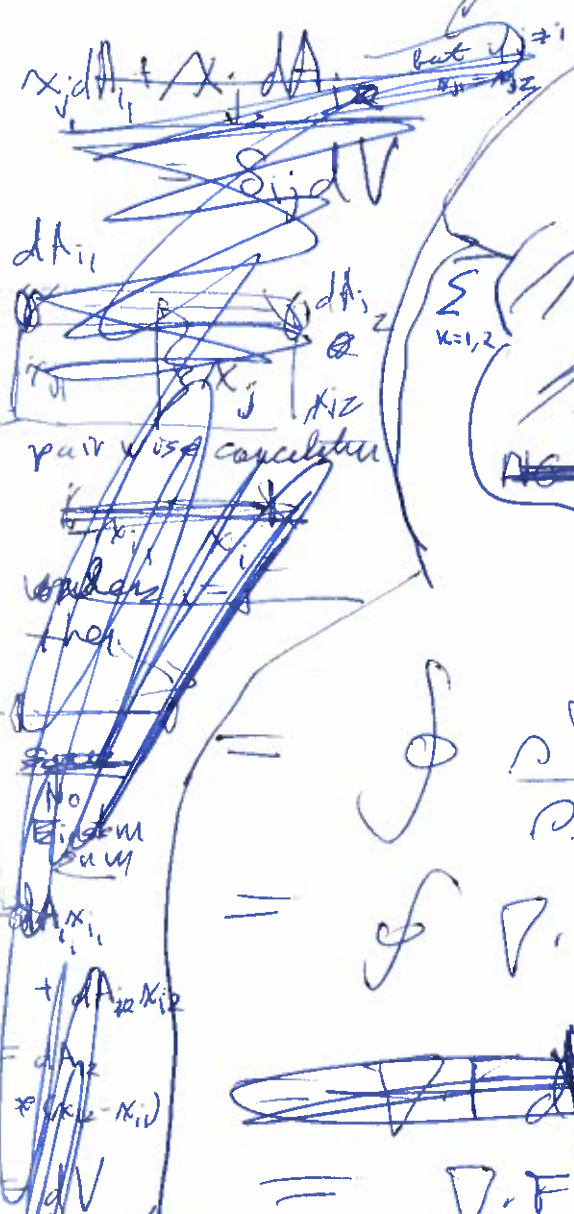
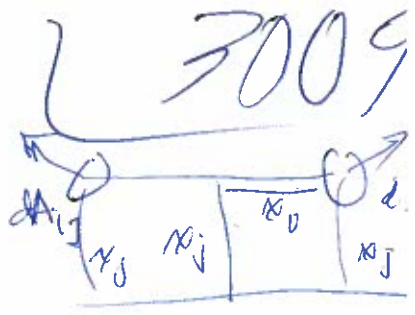
This term cancel pairwise  
- along and  $\kappa_i$  line  $dA_1 = -dA_2$   $F_{i0} \oint dA = 0$



This are constants over all small volume

$$= \oint \rho_j \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_j} dA_j$$

$$= \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_j} \oint \rho \chi_j dA_j$$



Cancel pairwise also if  $i \neq j$

$$\sum_{k=1,2} (\rho \chi_k dA_k) = \rho_j dV$$

$$dA_j \chi_{i1} + \chi_{i2} dA_{i2}$$

$$= |dA_{i2}| (\chi_{i2} - \chi_{i1})$$

But  $dA_{i1} \chi_j + dA_{i2} \chi_j = \chi_j (dA_{i2} - dA_{i1}) = \rho_j dV$

a volume element = tube-like

$$= \oint \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_i} dA_i$$

$$= \oint \rho \cdot F dV$$

$$= \nabla \cdot F V$$

for a sufficiently small volume

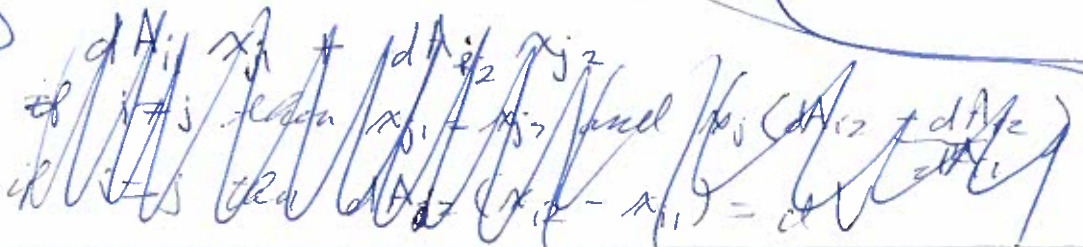
if  $\chi$  is constant in summation leads the issue

$$\sum_{ij} \rho \chi_j \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_j} dA_j$$

$$= \sum_i \rho \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_i} dV_i$$

$$= \left( \sum_i \frac{\rho F_i}{\rho \chi_i} \right) V$$

$$= \nabla \cdot F U$$

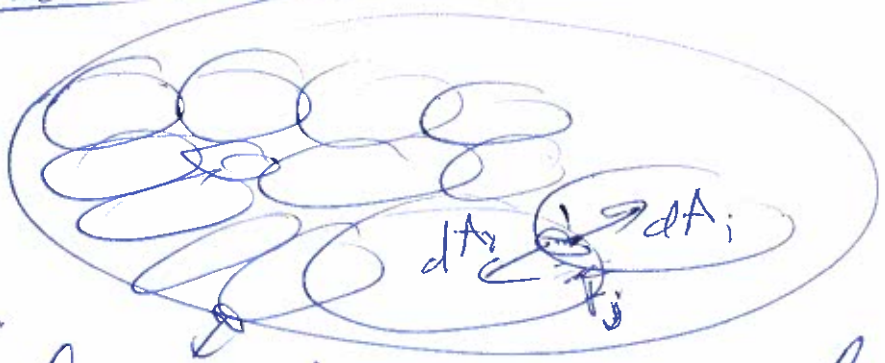


3010

# Finite Volume

if you're not

Just add but small volume.



the internal surfaces cancel pairwise

and only the outer surfaces contribute and you get Gauss' theorem QED.

all the rest cancel pairwise

$$\oint \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{A} = \int \nabla \cdot \vec{F} dV$$

## Gauss' Law Differential form



$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{A} = 4\pi \sum_{i \text{ inside}} Q_i$$

See proof p. 3005-3007

total field per unit charge

sum of inside internal charges generic

say there form a continuum

$$\sum_i Q_i = \int \rho dV$$

$\rho$  is a density

keep 3007

Point sources  
 $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{V} = 4\pi Q$   
 $\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{V} = \int \rho(\vec{r}) dV$   
 for consistency  
 $\rho = \text{Div } \vec{E}$   
 Delta symbol

$$\oint \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{A} = 4\pi \int \rho dV$$

u.s.c.g.  
 divergence  
 thru p. 3008  
~~...~~  
 Gauss' theorem  
 (p. 3008)

$$\oint \nabla \cdot \vec{f} dV = 4\pi \int \rho dV$$

but since the shape is general

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{f} = 4\pi \rho \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{General Gauss' law differential form} \end{array} \right.$$

Gravity

Coulomb's law

See p. 3007

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{g} = -4\pi G \rho_{\text{mass}}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 4\pi k \rho_{\text{charge}}$$

For point charge

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{g} = \begin{cases} 0 \\ \text{except for } \delta \text{ function at the origin} \end{cases}$$

See p. 3006 Bottom

$\int \nabla \cdot \vec{g} dV = -4\pi G M$   
 $\int \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{A}$   
 recover Point gravity law  
 See p. 3007

~~Mass distribution~~  
~~...~~  
~~...~~

$$= \frac{\rho_{\text{charge}}}{\epsilon_0}$$

(WIK (Gauss law))

See p. 3012 for general statement

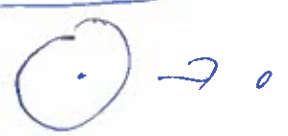
~~Shell Theorem~~

Shell Theorem: Gravity Case

are corollaries

a, b, c are 3 perspectives

a) A spherically symmetric body acts as if all mass were concentrated at a point: i.e., it acts like a point mass at the center of symmetry



3012

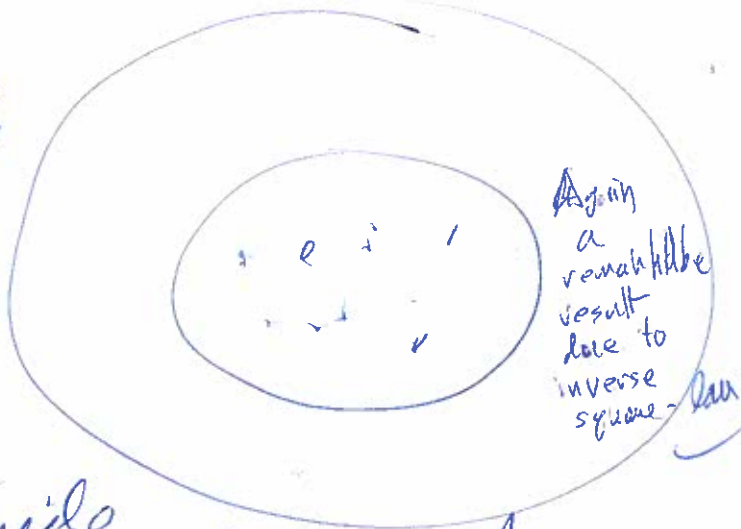
b)

1) General statement  
Given a spherically symmetric distribution

at  $r$ , only that interior if we vary concentric at center

55  
return  
at  
0  
only  
2  
my  
the  
hence  
1 m, is  
intended

A spherically symmetric shell exerts no force on a body inside no matter where inside



Again a remarkable result due to inverse square law

(b) is really a corollary of (a)

Proof from

Gauss' law for gravity, integral form

Note  $g$  is not the total gravitational field, just the field of the mass considered

$g$  &  $dA$  point opposite

$$\oint g \cdot dA = -4\pi G M_{\text{enclosed}}$$

which is held in spherical symmetry somehow  $\rightarrow$  it does not have to be static

could extend to here

spherically symmetric distribution

Gaussian surface

By symmetry

$g$  must be radial and have equal magnitude at  $r = |r|$

$$\oint g \cdot dA = g(r) \cdot 4\pi r^2 = -4\pi G M_{\text{enclosed}}$$

That minus sign

means  $\vec{g}$  and  $d\vec{A}$  point in opposite directions:  $\vec{g} \cdot d\vec{A} < 0$

$$-g(r) 4\pi r^2 = -4\pi G M_{\text{enclosed}}$$

minus signs cancel out

$$g = \frac{GM_{\text{enclosed}}}{r^2}$$

$$g(r) = -\frac{GM_{\text{enclosed}}}{r^2}$$

so nothing which is  $g(r)$ ,  $M$  both are + they could be

Which proves part (a)

Note: since if  $M_{\text{enclosed}} = 0$ ,  $g(r) = 0$  or in cavity

$$g(r' < r) = 0$$

~~$$g(r' < r) = 0$$~~

if there is no mass for  $r' < r$

as long as they maintain spherical symmetry the shell theorem

~~Which proves part (b)~~

QED. Shell theorem. (see p. 3012 (c), or follow from (c)) (3010-3011)

~~Do two spherically symmetric masses intersect right point masses if they do NOT touch~~

~~Yes they think they are not quite obvious and need a proof~~

The analogous GR theorem Birkhoff's theory is the same - Motion that does not break spherical symmetry changes nothing [see p. 305]

-Dirichlet's theorem is almost enough to show why Newtonian derivation of FE works (subtle points wells 2014)

Note: Mincho Mextee could be moving - pulsing - anything

# 3014 a) Proof

Note the internal forces on 2 cancel out by 3rd law  
 $F_{net 2} = m_2 a_2$   
 But  $F_{12}$  contributes to  $F_{net 2}$  and  
~~is by 2nd law~~  
 maybe more involved.



Newton had to work really hard to prove this and the shell thm using his klutzy formalism

But he needed these proofs in order to solve solar system motions tractable (i.e., celestial mechanics)

- $\rightarrow$  Exact solution for the 2-body system
- $\rightarrow$  his early perturbation theory for general solar system motions

# About Spherically symmetric bodies [30]

- a) The shell theorem is only the gravity field of the spherically symmetric body.  
There can be other grav. fields around, of course
- b) Ideally the spherically symmetric body is that by magic.
- c) Real spherically symmetric ~~astro~~-bodies are only approximately that and are held that way by a combination of self-gravity and pressure force, centrifugal force, solid body force, tidal force of other gravitating bodies etc. cause perturbations.

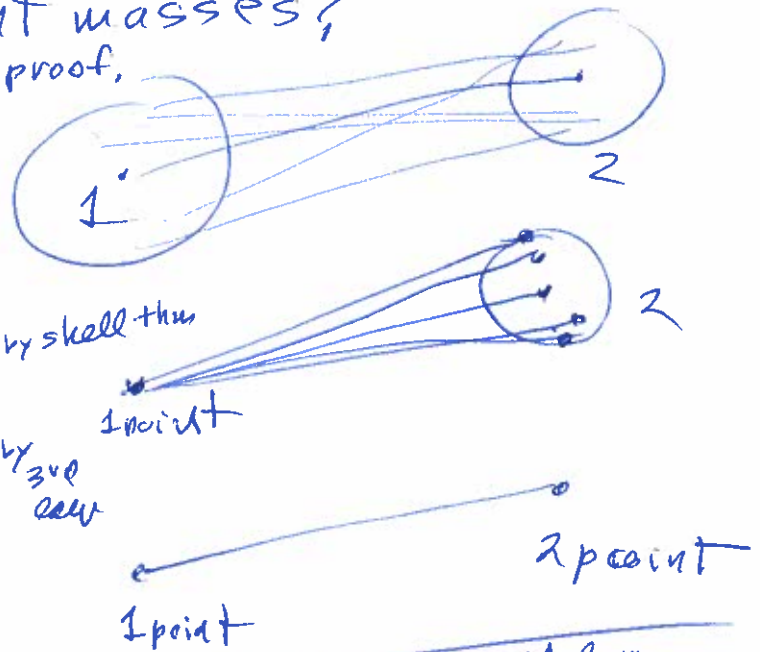
d) Do spherically-symmetric bodies interact as point masses?

Yes, but need a proof.

Proof by shell thm

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{F}_{1,2} &= \vec{F}_{1\text{point},2} \\
 &= -\vec{F}_{2,1\text{point}} \quad \downarrow \text{by 3rd law} \\
 &= -\vec{F}_{2\text{point},1\text{point}} \quad \downarrow \text{by shell thm} \\
 &= \vec{F}_{1\text{point},2\text{point}} \quad \downarrow \text{by 3rd law}
 \end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.



So the force of 1 on 2 is exactly the force of 1 point on 2 point.

Note the 3rd law holds explicitly for gravity.

3017c

But does this fact mean that body 2 responds to body 1 as if it were a point mass?

Body 2 center of mass does since

$$F_{\text{net external on 2}} = m_2 a_{\text{cm2}}$$

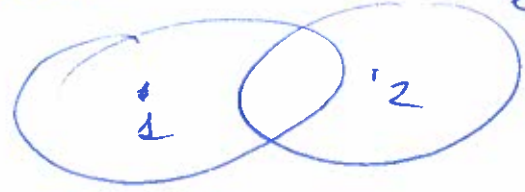
is Newton's 2nd law for finite bodies

and the center of mass of a spherically symmetric body is at the center.

So that completes the proof.

~~Note we assume the bodies don't interact except through gravity and so no non-point effects like~~

We assume the bodies don't penetrate each other



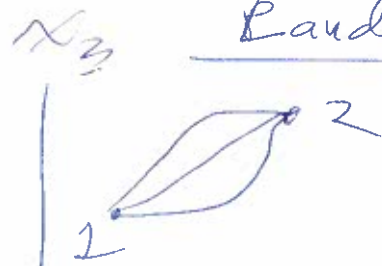
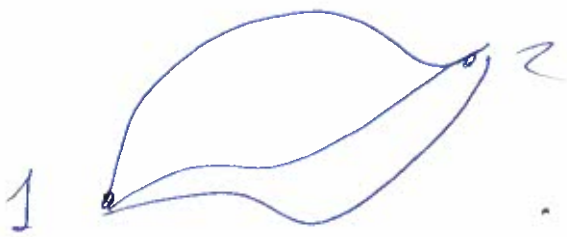
They can't be point-like for gravity in this case.



# Potential Theory

3015

Landscape



Say  $W_{12} = \int_1^2 \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}$

is path independent for ~~the~~ space or some subspace

Then we are free to define a potential energy.

$$PE = U$$

by  $U_{12} = -W_{12} = - \int_1^2 \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}$

$$dU = - \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s} = - F_i dx_i$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i} dx_i = - F_i dx_i$$

using Einstein summation

$$F_i = - \frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}$$

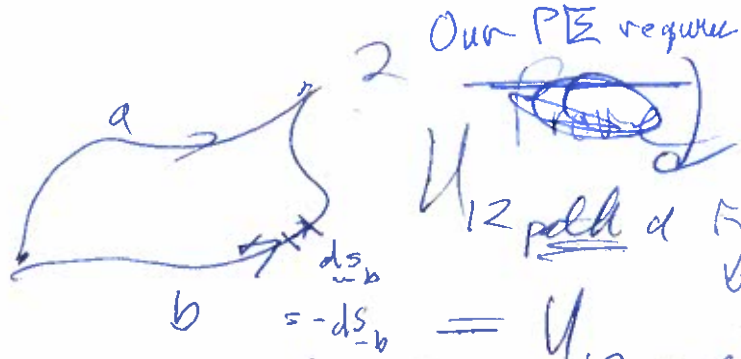
$$\vec{F} = - \nabla U$$

actually I like these element forms best and think ~~we~~ we should use them all the time and teach them first to students

The minus sign needed to make mechanical energy conserved.

3016

Note



1

$$U_{12a} = -U_{21b}$$

$$U_{12a} + U_{21b} = 0$$

$$U_{12a} + U_{21b} = U_{12a} - U_{12a} = 0$$

2

$$\Delta U_{\text{closed path}} = 0 \text{ QED}$$

The reverse proof (converse) is easily proven too

Our PE requires  $U_{12}$  path a by hypothesis of PE theory

$$= - \int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s}_b$$

$$= + \int_b^a \mathbf{F} \cdot (-d\mathbf{s}_b)$$

and add reverse path (-b) flipping  $-d\mathbf{s}_b \rightarrow d\mathbf{s}_{(-b)}$  flip the limit too

So  $U_{12} + U_{21} = 0$

For gravity with a spherically symmetric mass distribution (outside of it)

$$\mathbf{g} = - \frac{GM}{r^2} \hat{r}$$

See p. 301  
 $0 \cdot \mathbf{g} = 4\pi R^2$

By Clairvoyance

$$V = - \frac{GM}{r}$$



Potential is not potential energy, in GM we call potential energy? potential by convention

with  $V(\infty) = 0$  by usual convention

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \frac{1}{r^2} \left( \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 \mathbf{g}) + r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} (\sin\theta \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}}{\partial \theta}) + r^2 \sin\theta \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}}{\partial \phi} \right) \text{ (Art 104)}$$

$$= \frac{2\mathbf{g}}{r} + 2\mathbf{g} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r} = 0 = 0$$

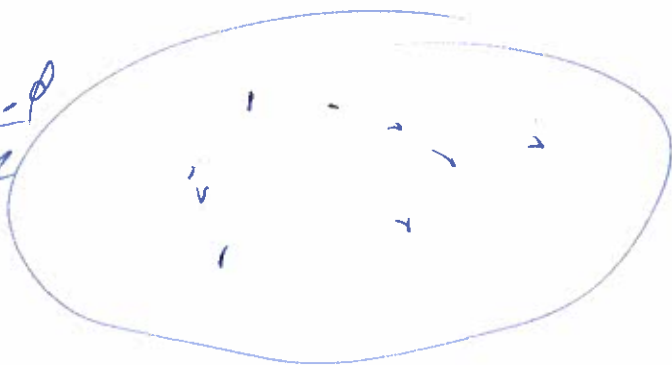
except  $v=0$  delta function. (p. 301)

# Zero-Point PE (3017)

In PE theory alone, you never need to define a zero-point PE. However for a localized set of sources (i.e., they can be put in a finite closed surface)

Not loc cause not be  $U(\infty) = 0$

Localized sources



$U(\infty) = 0$   
is conventional

## What is PE anyway?

For abstract PE theory, PE is just itself.

What else is there that is interacting? Gravity is a special case, it turns out

However for real forces (except gravity!!), I believe the answer is

field energy (except gravity)

What else can it be? I wonder  $\vec{B} \rightarrow$  gravit. shows semi-el

Let's consider Electromagnetism first

$$\Sigma \text{ density} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{2\mu_0} B^2$$

energy density

(Wik: energy density)

Local energy so much at ea

Not contributions to  $E+B$  but  $E^2 + B^2 = E^2$   
 $E_1 + E_2 = E$

see p. 3020

We can sort of prove this

E. Redshift proves it!

3018)

Someone has derived this — with the ambiguity what about point sources?

— point charges  $\rightarrow$  electrons, quarks

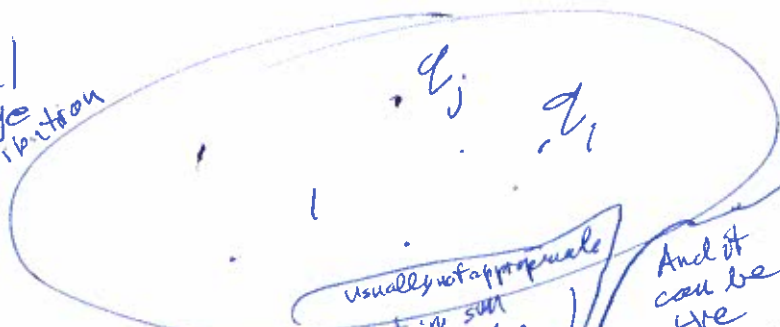
— point magnetic dipoles  $\rightarrow$  electrons etc.

somebody in field theory has dealt with this.

*(make by force how you never realize it's what it really is)*

Let's <sup>Derive the  $E^2$  part.</sup> consider electrostatics with charge smeared out into a continuum  $\rightarrow$  as we usually do for macroscopic treatments. (Wiki Electrostatics)

local charge distribution



$$U = \sum_{i < j} \frac{k q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} \frac{k q_i q_j}{r_{ij}}$$

Note the  $U$  is now here just an absolute so far

*usually not appropriate*

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i q_i \phi_i$$

No exist in sum over particles

And it can be +ve or -ve like the unlike -ve

to correct for double counting

electric potential due to all other charges.

continuous limit of point charges

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho(\underline{r}) \phi(\underline{r}) dV$$

Integral over all space for localization of distribution

But also -ve potential energy  $\rightarrow$  we are counting all PE in assembly of the charge distribution

Now recall p. 3011

(3019)

and Gauss' law differential form.

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} = \rho / \epsilon_0$$

Note: ~~the~~  
 ~~$\underline{E}$  total~~  
not just  
a ~~constant~~

and note

$$\nabla \cdot \underline{g} = -\nabla_n G_{P_{max}} \text{ (p. 3011)}$$

(with  
Einstein  
summation)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\underline{E}_i \phi) = \frac{\partial \underline{E}_i}{\partial x_i} \phi + \underline{E}_i \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_i}$$

$$= (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) \phi + \underline{E} \cdot \nabla \phi$$

$\nabla \cdot \underline{E} \phi$

$$\text{So } (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) \phi = \nabla \cdot (\underline{E} \phi) - \underline{E} \cdot \nabla \phi$$

$$\therefore U = \frac{1}{2} \int (\rho \phi) dV = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int (\nabla \cdot \underline{E}) \phi dV$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int [\nabla \cdot (\underline{E} \phi) - \underline{E} \cdot \nabla \phi] dV$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int \underline{E} \phi \cdot d\underline{A} + \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int \underline{E} \cdot \underline{E} dV = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int \underline{E}^2 dV$$

Always  
positive  
due to  
we  
sweeping  
out  
of charge  
- which  
we  
assume  
is a valid  
macroscopic  
limit  
of ~~theory~~  
locality

by Gauss'  
theorem  
p. 3008

this  
term  
must  
be +ve

using  $\underline{E} = -\nabla \phi$

From potential  
energy  
theorem

We assume a localized  
set of charges and just set  
the enclosing surface to  $\infty$ .

$$\underline{E} \phi \sim \frac{1}{r^2} \cdot \frac{1}{r} \sim \frac{1}{r^3}$$

$\underline{E} \phi \rightarrow 0$  at infinity  $\Rightarrow$  a reasonable  
assumption

of ~~theory~~ with point charges - which all  
of classical EM verifies /  $\nabla \cdot \underline{E} \phi$  may do it by  
normalization - because we get us  
mother of

3020 So

10 distributions  
 $U_2$

$U_1 + U_2$   
 $U_{total}$   
 we not  
 untidy  
 between  
 interaction

$E^2$   
 $U_{total}$   
 $U_{total}$   
 $U_{total}$

$$U = 0 + \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} E^2 dV$$

$$U = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} E^2 dV$$

seems absolutely reasonable to define it and it is right in classical EM.

$$E_{density} = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} E^2$$

For E and B fields it might

But can we do this for gravity?  
 $U_g = - \int \frac{1}{2} \rho g^2 dV$   
 Always -ve  
 Just want to integrate stuff  
 The answer is No

So this seems concrete PE is field energy in this case

3018  
 continuous  
 at ob  
 hedges

Oddity this formula says  $U \geq 0$  always but we do have  $\Delta U < 0$

Just there relative U  
 Not total of their self fields  
 +ve energy



close to them  $|E| \rightarrow \infty$   
 But lets just omit the infinity region  
 Then as we bring them together  $U(r \rightarrow \infty) > U(r \text{ finite} > r \text{ close})$   
 So  $\Delta U < 0$   
 But how to deal with infinity  
 But  $\Delta U$ 's can be -ve.

since like activity like in gravit  
 $\Delta U < 0$   
 Yes + No  
 It would work in class calc.  
 But they do the  
 $E = mc^2$   
 no grav energy so local  
 be not a ha  
 ut  
 for

How you define  $V_{\text{coul}}$  to cut out the infinities might be tricky.



However, I think just smear charge out to be continuous at the macro scale as we often do works.



In any case, we seldom calculate  $\Delta V$  from fields ~~but from~~ integrated over all space, but by some ~~other~~ line integral

$\text{Ⓜ} \rightarrow \text{Ⓜ}^2$   $U_{\text{coul}} = - \int_V q \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = -W_{\text{done}}$

which is easier and avoids infinities and also adding the energy of assembling

What About Gravity?

Gravitational FE?

Let's consider the classical limit first where Gravity is Newtonian and is an inverse-square law like the Coulomb force

the continuous have what in  $E$  but we may not want to mix the do with  $V^2$  capacitors  $E = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon V^2$

3022

and where we define gravitational field  $g(\vec{r})$ :

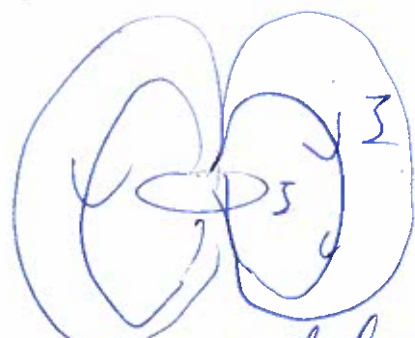
~~$\vec{F} = m \vec{g}(\vec{r})$~~

$U_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \int B^2 dV$   
Sept. 3026

I don't know of similar ~~formula~~ derivation for B-fields, but probably exists.

Certainly potential energy for B-fields can be defined in some cases: e.g.,

a)  $U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}$  the PE of a magnetic dipole.



current loop



intrinsic like an electron

(With Magnetic dipole)

(Wiki: PE: Magnetic PE)

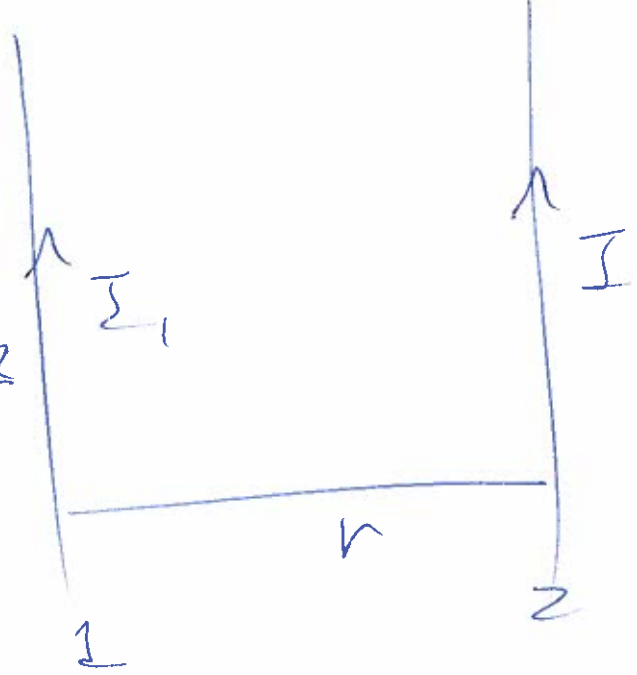


<sup>omit</sup> b) Ampère's force law

3023

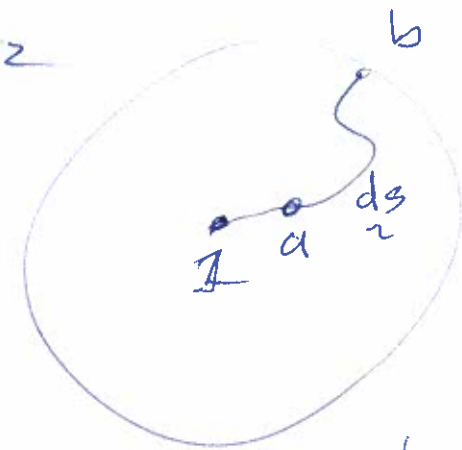
omit (?)

Parallel wires



$$\frac{F_{12}}{L} = \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{2\pi r}$$

\*  $\hat{r}$   
attractive for  $I_1, I_2 > 0$   
repulsive if  $I_1, I_2 < 0$



cross section

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta U &= \int_a^b \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2 \hat{r}}{r} \cdot d\vec{s} \\ &= \int_a^b \frac{\mu_0 I_1 I_2}{r} dr \\ &= \mu_0 I_1 I_2 \ln(r_b / r_a) \end{aligned}$$

~~Gravitational PE~~

~~$E = mc^2$~~

~~both E + M and probably nuclear fields~~

We'd say anyway

~~PE~~ ~~must~~ obey this law

So having PE means having mass  $\Rightarrow$  both it's inertial and gravitational effect

easiest to think of for electromagnetic radiation where there is no charge

$\Rightarrow$  spread out  $E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} E^2 + \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0} = mc^2$

3024

— and if there is a field energy density, then there is a mass energy density too.  $\Rightarrow$  a mass energy density.

For  $E = mc^2$  see Lawden p. 9 ~~note~~ (i) for "derivation"  $\rightarrow$  with physics micropostulates along the way.

Omit = done on p. 3029  $\rightarrow$  {so redundant and for all path

## Gravitational Potential Energy

For gravity in the classical limit, we do define a gravitational field  $\vec{g}$

and  $\vec{F}_{grav} = m \vec{g}$  is the gravitational force on mass  $m$ .

We can now repeat the derivation for  $U_E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{all\ space} E^2 dV$  (see p. 3018-3020)

for localized charges for the gravitational case mutatis mutandis

$E \rightarrow g$ ,  $\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \frac{1}{4\pi G}$  see p. 3011

$U_G \approx - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \int_{all\ space} g^2 dV$   $P_{grav} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{g^2}{4\pi G}$

to  
ALS  
smile  
in fact  
Hra e ni  
a sense  
derivation fine  
but can't call  
it a field

field here  $E=mc^2$  here  $\rightarrow$  field energy density doesn't gravitate.

Where does  $E = mc^2$  come from?

Recall Special Relativity is derived from 2 axioms

- 1) Relativity principle - all physical laws should have the same formulae in all inertial frames
- 2) Vacuum light speed is the maximum physical speed.  $\rightarrow$  invariant for all inertial frames

exact invariance free from acceleration  
Principle of equivalence

The derivation is physicsy with all kinds of micro axioms along the way: e.g., it is natural

Einstein was guided (1905) by the fact that the classical limit low relative velocity limit must be Newtonian physics

In trying to maintain conservation of mass and conservation of energy  $\rightarrow$  including PE & heat energy, we found it almost unavoidable or naturally

3026

to say  $E = mc^2$

which means that there must be rest mass-energy

$$E_0 = m_0 c^2$$

→ the energy just for existing at rest

~~Now as was well~~

→ at first this is just established for inertial mass for SR

but experimentally

$$M_{\text{inertial}} = M_{\text{grav}}$$

So it was "natural" to assume all Energy had a gravitational effect.

~~Of course when Einstein ~~was~~~~  
famously decided  $M_{\text{in}} = M_{\text{grav}}$  should be a principle

→ principle of equivalence (POE)  
one of the axioms of general relativity (GR)

axioms of GR

a) POE was one motivation for

Einstein to ~~publish~~ [3027]  
pursue GR

b) Another was the Newtonian gravitational field responds instantly everywhere to motion of

mass  
↳ He felt that had to be wrong since that violated the light-speed axiom

c) Actually another aspect must have turned up in his thinking. → A Paradox

The Electromagnetic field has energy → mass  
↳ gravitational mass

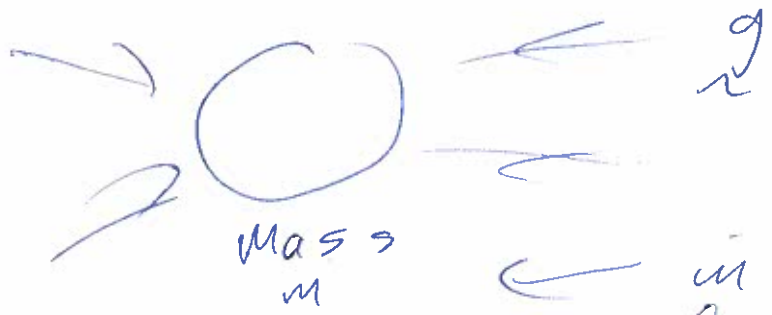
Except for these points  
- Leave to Quantum field theory

This OK — causes no problem.

But if the gravitational field has energy (i.e., gravitational potential energy) then the field itself ~~also~~ has mass-energy and its own

3028) gravitational field

↳ But this leads to a tricky situation?



in Newtonian gravity the mass creates the field.

— Maybe the field is the mass But it's <sup>negative</sup>

Squirrels chasing their tails situation <sup>SR-mixed-with</sup> From a Newtonian point of view <sup>see p3029</sup>

there may be no consistent approach. <sup>3020</sup>

But GR does give the consistent approach but with mysteries still (Carnoll-120)

But before going on to the GR bit let's see what gravity FE <sup>probably used in ~~any~~ sense.</sup> (Penrose 467-469)

R, gravitation, field & energy, if gravitating, 199, energy, nature of LHS of RHS of Einstein's field eqn

Not Newtonian, 3020, GR

# Gravitational Potential Energy (Yes) & Gravitational Field Energy (only could exist)

In classical limit  $g$  is the gravitational field and

$$\underline{F} = m \underline{g} \quad \text{under means vector}$$

And of course, we do use Grav. PE as for near Earth

$$U = mgy$$



throw ball

$$\Delta KE = W$$

work-energy theorem

derived from  $F=m$

and energy is conserved in these classical limit case

But where is that energy?

Well for E-field the PE is in the field or we derived p. 3018-3020

$$U_E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int E^2 dV$$

all space but localized in space

$$\rightarrow P_E = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} E^2$$

the field energy density and this is true.

Similarly  $P_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} B^2$

and I assume true for the Nuclear forces (strong & weak too)

mean  $E \rightarrow u$  the field has inert and grav effect too

But can we do this for gravit? mutatis mutandis

$$\epsilon_0 \rightarrow -\frac{1}{4\pi G} \quad (\text{p. 3011})$$

$$\underline{E} \rightarrow \underline{g}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{and same derivation } U_g = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \int_{\text{all space}} g^2 dV$$

switching out mass into or center distributed again implied,

530)  $U_g = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \int \rho^2 dV$  (perfectly correct account of grav. PE)

But ~~can we~~ localize  $\rho = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \rho^2$  } True? No

Can points in space have -ve mass?

as an energy density

The answer is no said Einstein  
In setting up GR, Einstein effectively had to dispense with the idea

which then implies it has a negative inertial & negative ~~mass~~ grav. mass }  
 (Not all contributions are negative  $\rightarrow$  so no way to make sum positive)  
 pockets of negative mass-energy } No!

can't say so much here and so much there, I can say maybe this spect of ~~energy~~ PE here, is aspect there - but that is a tricky job in GR, & maybe useless = unmeaningful

Grav PE being anywhere exactly.  
 it exists, but nonlocal  $\rightarrow$  no grav. field energy density can be defined fundamentally but you may do it as an approximation somewhere  
 in our classical way.

Too ~~ill~~ lucidale  
 Let's consider a binary pulsar case  $\rightarrow$  very strong gravity field close to

like donut  
 $m_1 c^2 = 9 \times 10^{32} \text{ kg}^2$   
 in tonson  
 Cornell-71  
 mass-energy of momentum  
 tells space-time how to curve and that tells mass-energy how to move under gravity not other forces



But close too you need GR in strong gravity and the only mass-energy in GR is  $m_1$  and  $m_2$

grav field far off  

$$g_{rr} = -G \frac{(m_1 + m_2 + \Delta M)}{r^2}$$
 this true in Newtonian classical limit

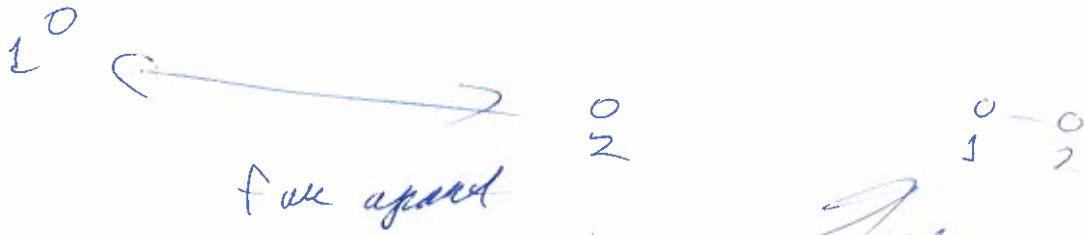
Einstein Field Equations (to anticipate - 4x4 tensor PE  $\rightarrow$  true at every point above GR level)  

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$
 (mass energy momentum tensor)  
 Geometry of Cosmology constant metric tensor  
 Not going to really do GR, talk around it



There is no grav. potential energy in it  
the mass in the  $T_{\mu\nu}$  tensor

Grav. PE is not in GF  
It can be superimposed  
as our classical way of understanding GR.



All the difference is in the LHS the geometry of space-time

close together - but rapidly held rigid and at rest.

Their contribution to the Net  $T_{\mu\nu}$  are unchanged (Poisson 967 - 969)

classical limit accn for GR effects that is val

What happens on the pulsars in spiral under GR effects  
(an unperturbed Newtonian 2-body system is perpetual, eternal, no inspiral)

Will  $\phi = -G \frac{(m_1 + m_2 + \Delta U)}{r^2}$  gets smaller,

equivalent calculation in a sense but GR justifies the first

GR classical/GR terms mass energy is lost due to increase  $|\Delta U|$

- But the GR calculation gives the same - field  $\phi$  but without any changes formal

So there is  $\Delta U$ , but in GR terms it can't be said there is so much here or there except when far enough

30306

away in far field  
that  
you can  
say it's  
localized relative to you.

$\frac{1}{2}$

Of course, where does the lost  
non-localized energy  
go?  $\Delta U$  decrease  
Killing increase

We say carried off by Grav. waves  
True but G waves

travel across the universe  
and make no contribution  
to the local  $T_{\mu\nu}$  as they  
travel  $\rightarrow$  unless they  
deposit some by scattering  
and not re-emitting  
 $\rightarrow$  in true empty space

$T_{\mu\nu} = 0$   
where the waves  
travel. (Penrose - 466  
caption  
- 467 last  
paragraph)

Do the Gr waves  
eventually deposit  
exactly the energy they  
carry off?

$\rightarrow$  There is a GR proof that they do  
in a special case Bondi-Sachs  
But <sup>this</sup> not a general proof.

mass/energy conservation  
(Penrose 467-468)  
(Bondi generalized  
by Sachs)

In fact, GR does not  
guarantee ordinary conservation  
of energy as we'll discuss in a bit

[303]

— See p. 304 2 } And, in fact,  
in cosmology  
it ~~seems to~~ fails,  
But all is not lost,

Carnot-120  
energy-momentum  
conservation  
equation, holds  
at every point

→ as far as we  
can tell  
unless you  
say it is conserved  
in some ~~way~~  
~~to satisfy~~  
unspecified  
way to  
satisfy your  
physical  
intuition



Ex PE of  $\Rightarrow$  spherically symmetric mass distribution  $\rightarrow$  localize

So  $U \approx \frac{1}{2} \frac{GM^2}{R}$

$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{Gm_i m_j}{r_{ij}}$

characteristic size  $R$

Simulation to p. 301 & for stellar decay

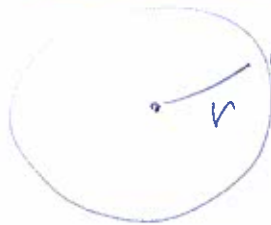
3031

crude estimate

one can drop the  $\frac{1}{2}$  as insignificant

Exact calculation for a uniform sphere  
 (a) by assembly, (b) from field energy

leave an exercise for student



a)

$$U = - \int_0^R \frac{3GM^2}{R} x^4 dx$$

$$= - \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

- so the crude estimate won't be bad.

$$dU = - \frac{GM(r)}{r} dm = - \frac{GM}{R} \frac{dm}{\pi}$$

$$dm(r) = \int_0^r \rho 4\pi r^2 dr$$

$$m(r) = M \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^3 = M x^3$$

$$dm = \frac{3M}{R^3} r^2 dr = 3M x^2 dx$$

uniform density

b) Now from the g-field. (Exercise for student)

using  $\rho$  field decay (p. 3029)  $g = - \frac{GM}{r^2}$  outside

~~$g = - \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}$  inside~~

$$U = - \int_R^\infty \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \frac{G^2 M^2}{r^4} 4\pi r^2 dr$$

$$= - \frac{1}{2} GM^2 \int_R^\infty \frac{dr}{r^2} = - \frac{1}{2} GM^2 \left(-\frac{1}{r}\right) \Big|_R^\infty = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

3032

# Inside from Shell theorem

But does it really mean so much PE is inside and so much outside.

I don't think so, we again be classical treatment; somehow generate to the R extend here I want more of.

$$g = - \frac{GM(r)}{r^2}$$

$$= - \frac{GM \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^3}{r^2}$$

$$= - \frac{GM}{R^2} r$$

Use p. 3029  
Planet

$$U_{\text{inside}} = - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} \int_0^R \frac{GM^2}{R^2} r^2 \cdot 4\pi R^2 dx$$

$$= - \frac{1}{2} \frac{GM^2}{R} \int_0^R x^2 dx$$

$$= - \frac{1}{2} \frac{GM^2}{R} \frac{1}{3}$$

This expression can only be true near classical limit I think.

So  $R \gg R_{\text{Sch}}$ .  
But how much far beyond mass loss occurs in collapse to Black hole?

Can't find answer now

$$U = U_{\text{outside}} + U_{\text{inside}}$$

$$= - \frac{GM^2}{R} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10} \right) = - \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$$

So we get the same answer.

What is the equivalent mass?

$$M_{\text{equiv}} = \frac{U}{c^2} = - \frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{Rc^2} = - \frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{R_{\text{Sch}}}{R} M$$

Recall Schwarzschild radius

$$0 = \frac{1}{2} v^2 - \frac{GM}{R}$$

Classical derivation

$$R_{\text{Sch}} = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$$

$$= - \frac{3}{10} \frac{R_{\text{Sch}}}{R} M$$

Mass  $\rightarrow \infty$   
 $R \rightarrow 0$

Nah.

Is this right? If you collapse Sun to BH magically does it mass decrease by  $-\frac{3}{10} M_{\odot}$ ? Seems so. Nah.

~~But~~ Not surprisingly, we find the mass equivalent  $M_{eq}$  only becomes comparable to the mass  $M$

Keplerian sun by solar mass BH and collapse sun to BH would not be a solar mass BH

Like Element Metric  
Einstein summation  
Covall -71  
g<sub>uv</sub> is metric tensor

if the sphere has radius of order the Schwarzschild radius  
But does this formula mean anything? I don't think so at  $R \rightarrow 0, M_{eq} \rightarrow \infty$

Let us Not let gravitate field grav

Gravitational Field Energy  
Omit in General relativity?

It's sort of a tricky subject.

Einstein Field Equations → which gives the curvature of spacetime and dynamics of mass-energy

4x4 Tensor of Differential Equations Features

$$G_{uv} + \Lambda g_{uv} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{uv}$$

9) Einstein tensor  
Wik GR: Einstein field equations  
- embodies curvature effects  
Wik: GR: Cosmology  
 $\Lambda$  is the cosmological constant  
Space-time - metric tensor  
for BS → Reubin

3034

It's local  $\rightarrow$  i.e., it applies at each point in spacetime  $\rightarrow$  above the quantum gravity level  $\rightarrow$  wherever

b) The left-hand side  $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{curvature of space-time} \\ \text{geometry} \end{array} \right\}$  that takes over at small scale,

It's a DE  $\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{determines} \\ \text{geometry} \end{array} \right)$

and the right-hand side is mass-energy and momentum ~~effect~~ effect.



~~The~~  $T_{\mu\nu}$  is the energy-momentum tensor.

In brief  $T_{\mu\nu}$  tells space-time how to ~~curvature~~ curve and then the curvature tells mass-energy how to move due to gravity.

The tensors correspond to  $4 \times 4$  matrices but



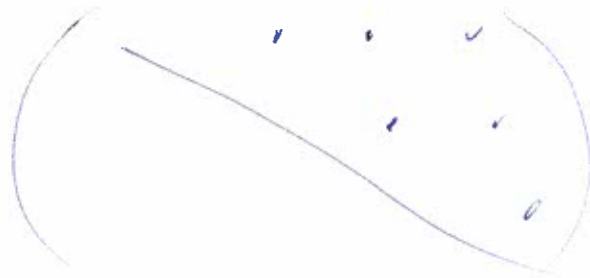
are symmetric

3035

and

$$4 + 3 + 2 + 1$$

$$= 10$$



independent partial differential eqn.

physical law  $\rightarrow$  what holds point-by-point eternally.

(WIK) Einstein field equations

4 ~~is~~ for 3 space

and 1 - time dimension of spacetime.

### d) Conservation of Mass-energy

and Perfect fluids

Follows from the demand

that

$$\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

with Einstein summation

Energy-Momentum Conservation Eq (Carroll-120) Carroll-156

in the form shown here

Covariant Differentiation (Carroll 97) Weinberg-46 105-16  
Relativistic kind of differentiation - !!

~~This~~ This conservation law is a much glorified form of

3036)

# of mass & momentum conservation

in the NR case the continuity equation for mass

Omit to bottom of p. 3037 
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{v} \rho) = 0$$

(Wik)

But

$$T_{\mu\nu}$$

includes fields <sup>energy</sup> too

so in except the gravity field

so it has forces included

except the gravity force.

(see Weinberg 45-46 & 360ff)

1  
2  
sub  
old  
with,  
2  
vibrational  
fermion  
of  
old  
ine  
with  
1/2 of  
old  
3036.

Weinberg p. 77-79 in that limit grav. field energy

aligned?

total

2  
sub  
high!  
not same

For a perfect fluid in the SR limit

$$T^{\mu\nu} = \rho u^{\mu} u^{\nu} + (p + \rho) u^{\mu} u^{\nu}$$

Weinberg -48

Right?

$$u^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

the SR metric tensor

Weinberg 26

Carroll-37-35 but hard to follow

If it was there'd be negative mass see p. 3630

Perfect fluid is used in

3037

several ways

a) a general way is a fluid that is isotropic if you are moving with a fluid element.

b) In cosmology: No turbulence, Weinberg - 47

~~In cosmology we use for more restricted~~ ~~no turbulence~~

Definition

WIK characterized only by rest frame mass density  $\rho = \rho_0 c^2$

and pressure  $P = P(\rho)$   
 $u^\mu u^\nu = \delta_{\mu\nu}$  EOS, no  $T$  or  $v$

$T_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & P & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P \end{pmatrix} = \text{diag}(\rho, P, P, P)$

In cosmology one often

uses parameter  $P = w \rho c^2$  (assumes  $c$  disappears  $\rho c^2 \rightarrow \rho$ )

WIK perfect fluid  
 Liddle - 12.3  
 This is for  $u^\mu$

$P = P(\rho)$  is general equation of state (EOS)

where  $w$  seems to have no special name EOS parameter?

$w = 0$  for "dust" = pressureless matter (1-40)

Temperature  $T$  (rest energy) just contributes to  $P$  for this perfect fluid.

Essential in Cos. Stars, galaxies, cosm. dust, gas  $\rightarrow$  even if it's sort of has pressure but not cosmically

3038

$w = 1/3$  for radiation  
 $\Rightarrow$  extreme relativistic stuff

$w = -1$   
for cosmological constant  $\equiv$  Dark Energy  
Li - 40  
Li - 105, 97

$w =$  a function of a scalar field viewed as a perfect fluid  
(Wiki: EOS cosmological)

Quintessence (Wiki: Quintessence) is a particular theory of dark energy to cause acceleration of the universe

and  $w$  can just be used as a free parameter in cosmology

$\Lambda$ CDM has  $w = -1$   
wCDM has  $w$  as a constant free parameter

$w = -1/3$   
of  $\dot{r} = ct$  universe  
 $\dot{a} = 0$   
Silvio Melia

### e) Conservation of Mass-Energy

energy-momentum conservation eqn  
(Carroll - 120)  
156  
in this form

$$\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{Carroll - 97, Verwey - 96, 105-107, 153, 156})$$

is what GR gives us for conservation of energy — that's it.

303

Perhaps conservation of energy applies only when an energy density can be specified but what if it can't?

There is no "integral" of the motion corresponding to energy (Carroll-170) in general

Recall the gravitation field energy is excluded from  ~~$T_{\mu\nu}$~~   $T_{\mu\nu}$

Where is it?

Well in a sense it Grav. field energy and the gravitational force is encoded in the Left-hand side of Einstein field equation

encoded then in curvature of spacetime

$$G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{\mu\nu}$$

(Wiki: Einstein field equation)

In developing GR Einstein was guided by the idea that since

$$\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

to give en-mo-conservation in a relativistic sense.

then 
$$\nabla^\mu (G_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu}) = 0$$

3040)

So he had to find the right tensor to determine the geometry of spacetime  $G_{\mu\nu}$

the Einstein (Vik. Einstein tensor)

The  $\Lambda g_{\mu\nu}$  was added on as an after thought for cosmology for reasons we'll discuss later

For damn good reasons, only terms that are linear in 2<sup>nd</sup> derivative of  $g_{\mu\nu}$

or quadratic in 1<sup>st</sup> derivatives of  $g_{\mu\nu}$  (?) can appear in  $G_{\mu\nu}$ .

Replaced by p. 3030-3030c

Penrose 464-469 pp. 467-469

Gravitational Field energy is non-local

As above, it is needed on the left-hand side of the Einstein field equations. on the carriage of spacetime

So you can't write down a density for it: e.g., for electromagnetic field

$\rho = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{4\pi G} g^2$  See in 3017  $\mathcal{E} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{1}{2} \mu_0 B^2$

In general but can't in Newtonian limit

3029

or  $\nabla^{\mu} T_{\mu\nu} = 0$  itself. [3091]

~~There is a theorem~~

Is energy-momentum conserved  
by GR?  $\rightarrow$  <sup>if not</sup> moment by moment  
at least in start to end of  
process.

It can't be proven generally  
(Penrose-467)

but it can in special cases.  
e.g. asymptotically flat systems

- remote from the  
quadratically mass energies  
one has flat space-time.

Then the Bondi-Sachs  
mass-energy conservation law  
can be proven from GR

e.g.  $\downarrow$

Binary  
Pulsar  
case

It gets  
damped somewhere

The energy-momentum  
carried by grav. waves  
equals the energy lost  
by some accounting  
of local Grav PE.





Space expands as  $a(t)$  (3043)

Bound systems do not expand but the space between them grows

Now  $\rho_{\text{matter}} \propto \frac{1}{a^3}$  can be argued (1-47) to conserve mass-energy

But  $\rho_{\text{radiation}} \propto \frac{1}{a^4}$  (1-92) where does the "radiation" energy go?

$\rightarrow$  I used to say it goes into the expansion of space, but what does that mean?

It is just gone from the description.  $\hookrightarrow$  cosmological constant or constant dark energy - equivalent to  $\rho(t)$  if not

And then there is the ~~cosmological~~ constant dark energy to account for the acceleration of the universe

$\rho_{\Lambda} = \rho_{DE} = \text{constant}$  in the simplest theory

in other words

~~It was~~  
~~no~~  
~~gravity~~  
It's gone as gravitating mass

emit  $\rightarrow$  absorb  
photon  
does photon loss due to redshift just become  $\rho_{DE}$  in general relativity sense?

3044

But this means as space expands it grows.

Maybe there is some ~~arg~~ way to save <sup>single</sup> conservation of energy but maybe not.

There's a theorem  $\rightarrow$  Noether's theorem which shows energy should be conserved under time invariance

$\rightarrow$  but an expanding universe doesn't have time

(Carroll-120) invariance ~~and so~~ ~~Noether~~ in any obvious way.

Carroll-120  
196

So what

GR gives us  $\nabla^\mu T_{\mu\nu} = 0$  as our energy-momentum conservation law

and ~~if so far~~ insofar as GR is true we may have to live with that.

Of course, we expect GR or whatever theory of gravity is the true macroscopic theory of gravity

Ordinary Energy conservation only in classical or SR limit

to emerge as the macroscopic limit of quantum gravity whatever that is. 309  
 → Maybe that will restore conservation of energy

# Shell Theorem

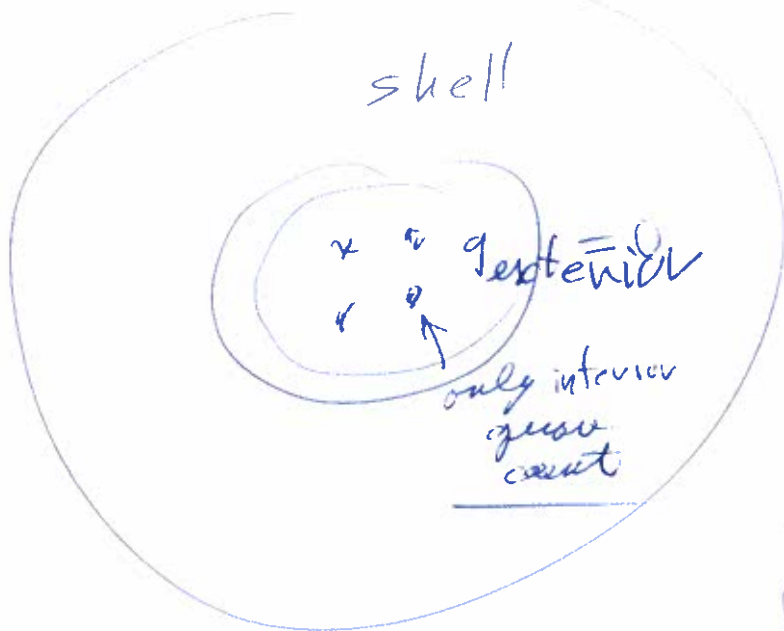
~~Birkhoff Theorem~~  
 sup. 305 for Birkhoff's theorem  
 With infinite

→ recall p. 3011-3014

- boundless space
- infinite of flat

One aspect is that a spherical shell

has no grav. effects on the cavity.



But what if the shell is infinite?

A consideration for Newtonian cosmology.

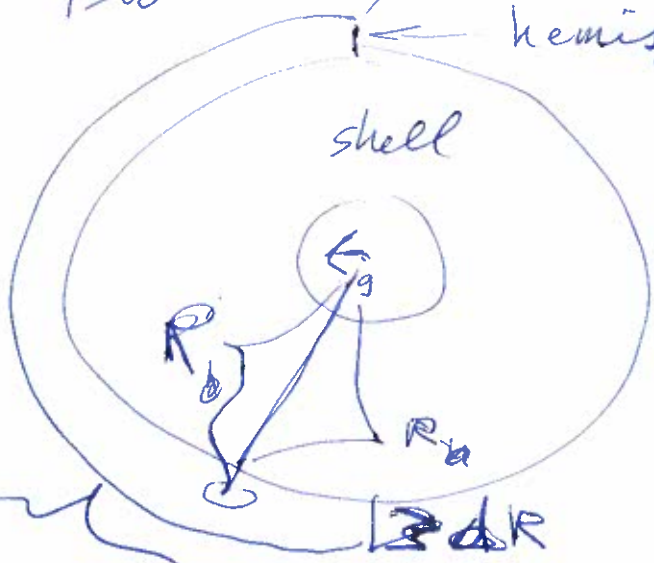


If one just extends the shell to infinity, it seems the shell theorem should still hold since it does

3046

for any step along the way.

But say we had hemisphere then



- the hemisphere will create a gravity field in the cavity.

- Now what if one increases shell and and the ~~hemisphere~~ hemisphere

$$M_h = 4\pi R^2 \rho$$

holding  $\rho$  fixed ~~holding  $R$  fixed~~

~~each layer of the shell grows as  $R_h^2$  in area which cancels the  $\frac{1}{R_h^2}$  decrease of Newtonian gravity.~~

So the  ~~$\int_{\text{hemisphere}} \frac{GM}{R^2} = \int_R^{R_h} \frac{GM}{R^2} 2\pi r^2 dr$~~

$$g_h \approx \frac{GM_h}{R^2} = \frac{G(4\pi R^2 \rho)}{R^2}$$

↑  
geometric factor  $\sim \frac{1}{2}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} G(4\pi \rho)$$

$$= \text{Constant}$$

In this case there ~~is~~ is always a net force in the cavity.

and that would be the  
limit as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ .

3097

So the limit of extending  
a ~~shell~~ <sup>shell</sup> around the spherical  
cavity to infinity depends  
on the ~~mass~~ ~~shell~~ shell's  
mass distribution even if  
an ~~area~~ going to infinity part  
of it is spherically symmetric.

Upshot there is no Newtonian  
physics solution to an  
infinite universe full of  
infinite mass without extra  
ad hoc hypotheses — ad hoc relative  
to Newtonian physics alone.

→ Which is what Milne & McCrea  
did in 1934 (p. 3002 & Bondi-7,  
Relative to GR their hypotheses  
are valid.

3048

However the most natural ad hoc hypothesis is that the Shell Theorem



extension to infinity is best.

However Newton himself

in unpublished work

gave up on finding

a static infinite

uniform density  
on average universe

(No - 376)

He was also aware of Olbers paradox  
- A static eternal ~~full universe~~ ~~should~~  
universe full of stars should  
have a sky star brightness.  
surface

It doesn't sound like he tried very hard, but one must always remember his math tools were ~~primitive~~ primitive

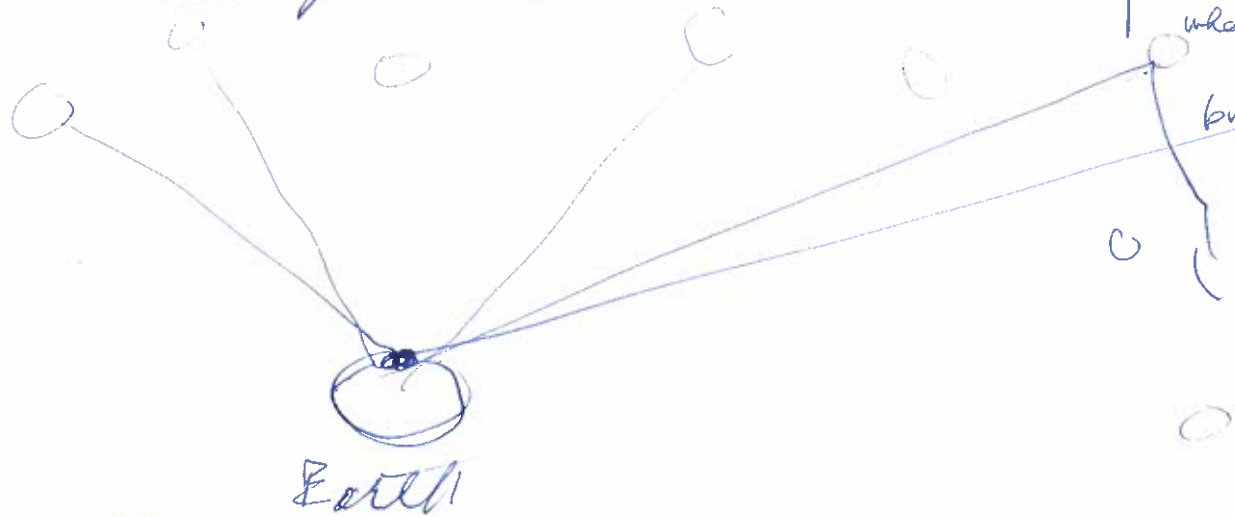
Thomas Digges & Kepler even earlier (WIK)

Edmund Halley in printing term discussed it before the Royal Society — in 1721 with 79 year old Newton presiding as president (No-377)

304°  
But he attributed it to anonymous  
Pursh Gray  
No-377

From a casual perspective, it is easy to understand.

Note Poe -  
Phenomenon  
me it doesn't  
seem it worried  
anyone much  
till 19th  
when Edgworth  
Poe 1848  
but Lord  
Kelvin  
1901  
first really  
found result  
anticipate  
by Poe



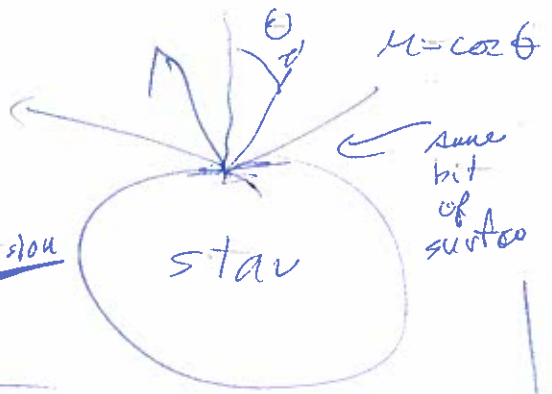
- In every direction, you observe a pencil beam of light from a star surface → all the photons coming your direction — so you are tired.  
In modern radiative transfer terms

$$I = \frac{E}{t_{in} * Area * freq * \underline{Solid Angle}}$$

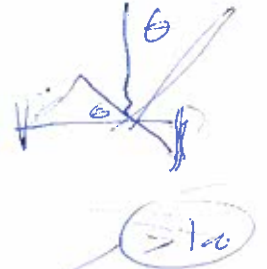
No spreading out in this picture — geometrical

3050

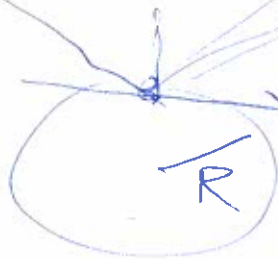
Assume  $\Sigma$  is isotropic on emission



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Flux from a surface of a star} &= \int_{2\pi} \Sigma \cos \theta d\Omega \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} \Sigma \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \Sigma \left[ \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= \pi \Sigma \end{aligned}$$



But receiver on Earth



different bits of surface - But by power

axial symmetry  
yes but stars may be at different distances and orientations

$$F = 2\pi \int \Sigma \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$= \pi \Sigma$$

irrespective one says, it makes no difference

Total input

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\text{Earth}} &= 4\pi R^2 F_{\text{int}} \\ &= 4\pi R^2 \frac{L_{\text{star}}}{4\pi R_{\text{star}}^2} \\ &= \left( \frac{R}{R_{\text{star}}} \right)^2 L_{\text{star}} \end{aligned}$$



# Birkhoff's Theorem

(305)

So Newtonian Physics is ambiguous for an infinite universe

↳ homogeneous & static or not.

GR rescues us with Birkhoff's Thm which among other things says given



spherically symmetric surrounding

- static or not
- finite or infinite

A key point for applying to an expanding universe

$$R_c \ll R$$

Gaussian curvature radius CL-12-13

leaves the cavity

flat Minkowski space

Weinberg - 338

- 474

so frames

that don't rotate

which in the  $\Lambda$ CDM model is infinite

- but we don't know if that model can be applied to infinity

~~or accelerate~~ relative to the surroundings and are in free-fall

are inertial frames (with inertial forces)

Weinberg - 474

free fall frames

With inertial force you can make an local frame of inertial frame

So as long as  $R_c$  is sufficiently small and the ~~motion~~ contents are in the classical limit and we can use Newtonian Physics (mostly not absolute space)

which does span velocity in inertial frame  $\rightarrow$   $c$  limit  $\rightarrow$  between mo/c

so they do not perturb the surround

3052

and remarkably we can derive the Friedmann equations  $\rightarrow$  ~~But really not~~

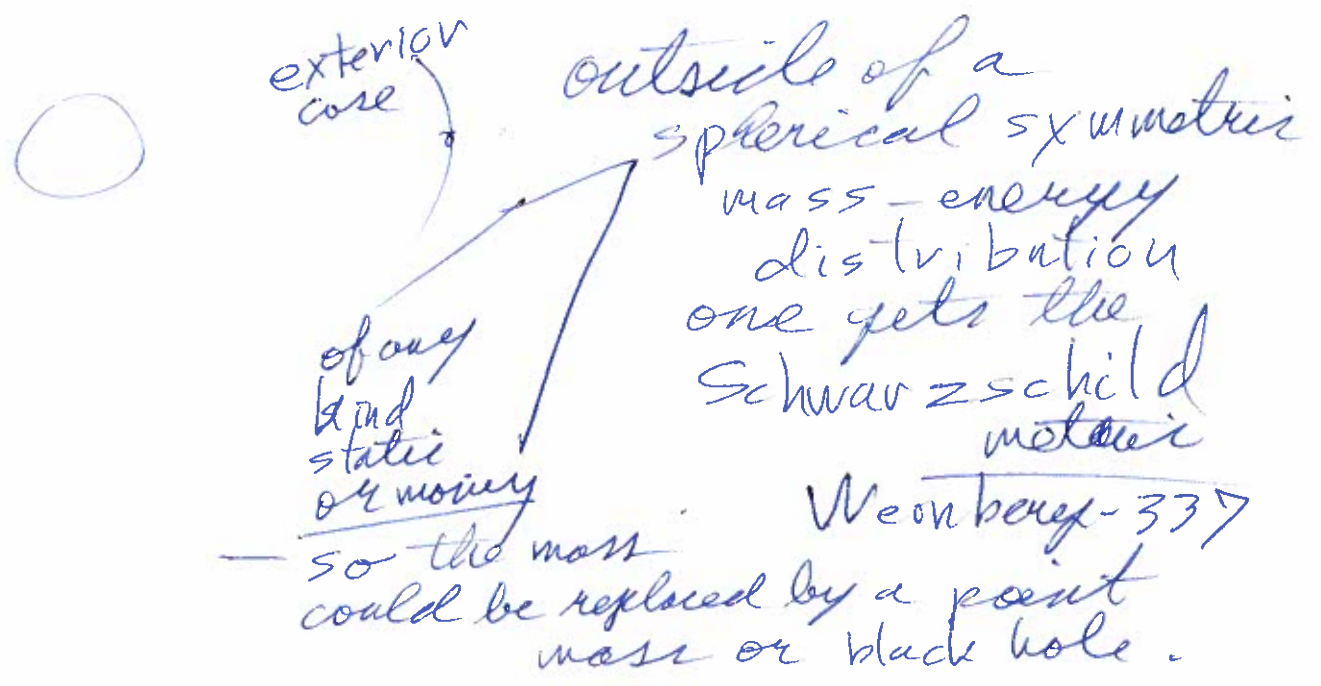
- Is this just a lucky accident? if you have radiation and  $\Lambda \neq 0$

- Wells (2014) shows that it should be so  $\rightarrow$  but it takes a lot of work - so we won't do that.

$\rightarrow$  Maybe even without Wells clean if it treats subtleties

$\downarrow$   
then yet another special hypothesis is needed arguably natural

By the way Birkhoff's theorem is analogous to the shell theorem in another respect



If you are far enough away 3063  
 away, you are in the  
 classical limit and Newtonian  
~~gravity~~ & dynamics physics applies.

Why does it not matter <sup>external</sup>  
 for cavity and the ~~other~~ <sup>case</sup>  
 that the <sup>spherically symmetric</sup>  
 mass-energy can be  
 moving.

→ I can't give a full answer.

↳ But no gravitational waves  
 to infinity can escape ~~a part~~  
 from inside a pulsing spherically-  
 symmetric mass-distribution  
 and so they can't affect the  
 spacetime geometry of the cavity  
 or exterior case.

Quit Discuss p. 3063 ff

in pure Newtonian physics

- in GR ~~between~~ <sup>only</sup> □ □  
~~only~~ <sup>one</sup> true inertial frames are <sup>also be</sup>  
 free fall frames <sup>space</sup>  
 → so it emerges that Newtonian physics <sup>inertial frame</sup>  
 does have velocities in <sup>in</sup> a local inertial <sup>in an local inertial</sup>  
 frame and between them <sup>more  $v < c$</sup>   
<sup>between them the  $v > c$</sup>   
<sup>can't do happen</sup>

3064

Inverse square law & linear force duality

Open on it but forgot to make a note of it.

other stuff

10

force - a

$\vec{E}$

out

obtain GR

then once laws allow some closed orbit

# Linear Force

$q$  is the point charge  
+ve repulsive  
-ve and you have the SHO force

$$\vec{F} = q r \hat{r}$$

Force field

This sort of turns up in cosmology because you can insert  $q$  in the Newtonian derivation of the cosmological constant effect.

But it may just be an ad hoc fudge. I don't know, but it's worth a bit of look at

i) First curious point (Wik)

Bertrand's theorem (19th century) shows

that only two central force laws give all bound orbits as closed.

a)  $\vec{F} = -\frac{k}{r^2} \hat{r}$  the well known

b)  $\vec{F} = -k r \hat{r}$  inverse-square law like gravity & Coulomb's law

$-k = q < 0$

the RHO force.

Open course any central force law give bound circular orbits

Hooke's law force

Radial harmonic oscillation RHO

Weird aspect

$r \propto |F|$  which means shouldn't let  $r \rightarrow \infty$  but we will anyway

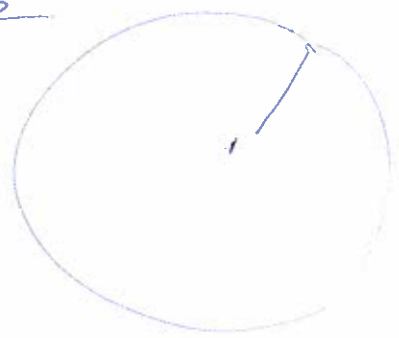
(3055)

Really  
ma for  
F=ma  
specifically  
for  
uniform  
circular  
motion

$$F_{\text{centrifugal}} = \frac{m v^2}{r}$$

$$F_{\text{central}}(r) = -\frac{m v^2}{r}$$

anything.



But (a) & (b) case

(with Børtnand's  
Thm: Reder  
Hansen  
or see  
RH)

elliptical  
orbits  
with ~~force~~  
source at  
one focus



also elliptical  
orbits  
but the  
force center  
at  
the geometrical  
center



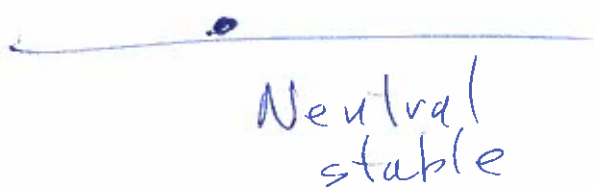
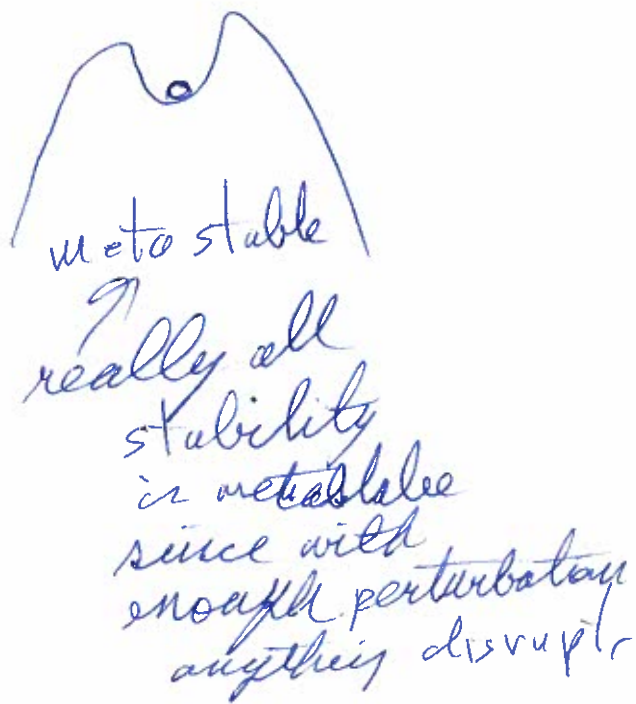
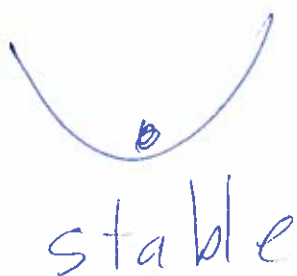
And showed  
that other  
central force  
laws that  
he looked at  
didn't

I recall that Newton  
when investigating  
central force laws in  
Book I of the Principia (1687)  
showed this - in his  
old-fashioned klutzy  
formalism

But it was beyond  
his techniques to prove there were only  
(a) & (b)

3056

Both kinds of orbit  
have neutral stability



the particle will  
be moved by perturbation displacement  
but won't go off to infinity

In a case of orbits, a perturbation  
<sup>(a) & (b)</sup> changes them but only "proportional"  
to the perturbation.

There was a paper I looked at  
once that discussed the  
deep meaning of odd symmetry between  
the inverse-square force &

NASA/ADS  
draws a blank too, I forgot to make a note of it, the RHO force, but