

8.962 Problem Set 7 Solutions

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1. Gravitomagnetism

In lecture and working in Lorentz gauge, we examined the linearized Einstein field equations for a static source,

$$\square \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu} \quad \rightarrow \quad \nabla^2 \bar{h}_{\mu\nu} = -16\pi G T_{\mu\nu}, \quad (1)$$

where ∇^2 is the ordinary Euclidean 3-space Laplacian operator. For a static, non-relativistic source, the only non-zero stress-energy component is (to sufficient accuracy for our purposes)

$$T_{00} = \rho. \quad (2)$$

Using this, we found

$$\bar{h}_{00} = -4\Phi \rightarrow h_{\mu\nu} = -2\Phi \text{diag}(1, 1, 1, 1), \quad (3)$$

where $\Phi = -GM/r$ is the Newtonian gravitational potential.

We will now modify this slightly by imagining that the source rotates, and thus is characterized by a spin angular momentum with spatial components S^i as well as a mass M .

(a) [7 pts] Consider the source to be spherically symmetric, with uniform density ρ and radius R . Take it to be rotating rigidly about the $x^3 \equiv z$ axis with constant angular velocity Ω . Working in a Lorentz frame that is at rest with respect to the center of mass of the source, work out all components of the stress energy tensor $T_{\mu\nu}$ to first order in Ω . (Assume ρ , R , and Ω are constant.) Indicate which components would change if you included terms to second order in Ω , but don't calculate those second order corrections. (You may neglect pressure terms throughout your calculation.)

Solution: Neglecting pressure, the stress energy tensor is

$$T_{\mu\nu} = \rho u_\mu u_\nu \quad (4)$$

where ρ is the rest density of the source's fluid. To first order in Ω , we thus have

$$T_{00} = \rho, \quad (5)$$

$$T_{0i} = \rho v_i = \rho v^i, \quad (6)$$

$$T_{ij} = 0. \quad (7)$$

Working in a Cartesian basis, $v^x = y\Omega$, $v^y = -x\Omega$, $v^z = 0$.

The components T_{00} and T_{ij} would be modified if $\mathcal{O}(\Omega^2)$ terms were kept.

(b) Solve for the Cartesian off-diagonal components h_{0x} , h_{0y} , h_{0z} . (Note that $h_{0i} = \bar{h}_{0i}$ since trace reversal has no effect on off-diagonal components.)

This is a moderately challenging calculation. The following tips should help:

- Recall that the formal solution to the Poisson-type equation for h_{0i} is

$$h_{0i}(\mathbf{x}) = 4G \int \frac{T_{0i}(\mathbf{x}')}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} d^3x' \quad (8)$$

where \mathbf{x} is the “field point”, the location of the point at which h_{0i} is to be evaluated, and \mathbf{x}' is the “source point”, a coordinate within the source over which the integral is taken. [Boldface quantities denote 3-vectors: $\mathbf{x} \doteq (x, y, z)$.]

- The following expansion for the factor $1/|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|$ is very useful:

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|} = \frac{1}{r} + \frac{x^j x^{j'}}{r^3} + \dots \quad (9)$$

You may assume this identity in your solution. Note also that a sum over j is implied here; we are allowed to be sloppy about the placement of indices since the spatial metric is δ_{ij} to leading order. [This identity is more often seen as an expansion in spherical harmonics; see, for example, J. D. Jackson, Sec. 3.6 (2nd edition). This form in terms of Cartesian coordinates is equivalent.]

- After you have set up your integral, convert the primed integration variable to spherical coordinates to do the integration:

$$x^{1'} = x' \rightarrow r' \sin \theta' \cos \phi' \quad (10)$$

$$x^{2'} = y' \rightarrow r' \sin \theta' \sin \phi' \quad (11)$$

$$x^{3'} = z' \rightarrow r' \cos \theta' \quad (12)$$

Your final metric components should be proportional to $\rho R^5/r^3$.

Solution: Taking advantage of the tips, we know that

$$h_{0i} = 4G\rho \left[\frac{1}{r} \int v^i(\mathbf{x}') d^3x' + \frac{x^j}{r^3} \int x^{j'} v^i(\mathbf{x}') d^3x' \right]. \quad (13)$$

You should be able to quickly convince yourself that the first term vanishes since $v^i(\mathbf{x}')$ is an odd function of \mathbf{x}' . Let us expand the second integral,

focusing on h_{0x} . Inserting $v^x = y'\Omega$ and expanding all the other terms, we find

$$h_{0x} = 4G\Omega\rho \left[\frac{x}{r^3} \int x'y' dx'dy'dz' + \frac{y}{r^3} \int (y')^2 dx'dy'dz' + \frac{z}{r^3} \int z'y' dx'dy'dz' \right]. \quad (14)$$

The first and third integrals vanish due to the oddness of their integrands. We rewrite the second integral in spherical coordinates, putting $y' = r' \sin \theta' \sin \phi'$, $dx'dy'dz' = (r')^2 dr' \sin \theta' d\theta' d\phi'$:

$$h_{0x} = \frac{4G\Omega\rho y}{r^3} \int_0^R dr' \int_0^\pi d\theta' \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi' (r')^4 (\sin \theta')^3 (\sin \phi')^2 \quad (15)$$

$$= \frac{16\pi G\Omega\rho y R^5}{15r^3}. \quad (16)$$

By a similar calculation, we find

$$h_{0y} = -\frac{16\pi G\Omega\rho x R^5}{15r^3}, \quad (17)$$

$$h_{0z} = 0. \quad (18)$$

(c) Using the identity $S^i = I\Omega^i$ where I is moment of inertia and Ω^i is the i th component of the angular velocity vector, rewrite your answer in terms of the angular momentum S^i .

Solution: First, note that the total mass of the source is $4\pi\rho R^3/3$, so our answers may be rewritten

$$h_{0x} = \frac{4G\Omega y M R^2}{5r^3}, \quad (19)$$

$$h_{0y} = -\frac{4G\Omega x M R^2}{5r^3}, \quad (20)$$

$$h_{0z} = 0. \quad (21)$$

Next, we use the fact that the moment of inertia of a rigidly rotating, uniform density sphere is $I = 2MR^2/5$:

$$h_{0x} = \frac{2GyS^z}{r^3}, \quad (22)$$

$$h_{0y} = -\frac{2GxS^z}{r^3}, \quad (23)$$

$$h_{0z} = 0. \quad (24)$$

We have used the fact that the angular velocity is along the z axis to put $S^z = I\Omega$.

Although we derived this result for a special situation (uniform density, spherical body, rigid rotation), the result we obtain in terms of S^i is completely general; see, for example, MTW Sec. 19.1.

(d) Converting to spherical coordinates, find h_{0r} , $h_{0\theta}$, $h_{0\phi}$.

Solution: Our transformation equation is

$$h_{0\bar{k}} = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial x^{\bar{k}}} h_{0i} \quad (25)$$

where $x^{\bar{k}} \doteq (r, \theta, \phi)$, $x^i \doteq (x, y, z)$. Taking the derivatives, we see that this equation is nicely written in the matrix form

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_{0r} \\ h_{0\theta} \\ h_{0\phi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \theta \cos \phi & \sin \theta \sin \phi & \cos \theta \\ r \cos \theta \cos \phi & r \cos \theta \sin \phi & -r \sin \theta \\ -r \sin \theta \sin \phi & r \sin \theta \cos \phi & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} h_{0x} \\ h_{0y} \\ h_{0z} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (26)$$

Inserting $h_{0x} = 2GS^z \sin \theta \sin \phi / r^2$, $h_{0y} = -2GS^z \sin \theta \cos \phi / r^2$, $h_{0z} = 0$, we find

$$h_{0r} = 0 \quad (27)$$

$$h_{0\theta} = 0 \quad (28)$$

$$h_{0\phi} = -\frac{2GS^z \sin^2 \theta}{r}. \quad (29)$$

2. Comparison of linearized GR and Maxwell's theory

Consider the line element

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\Phi)dt^2 + (1 - 2\Phi)(dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2) + 2\beta^i dx^i dt; \quad (30)$$

in other words, the usual weak field line element on the diagonal with $h_{0i} = \beta^i$. (To first order in deviations from flat spacetime, we also have $\beta^i = \delta^{ij}\beta_j = \beta_i$, and also $h^{0i} = -\beta^i$.)

(a) [10 pts] Show that the geodesic equation for a particle moving in this spacetime gives the following equation of motion to first order in the particle's velocity \mathbf{v} :

$$m \frac{d^2 \mathbf{x}}{dt^2} = m\mathbf{g} + m(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{H}). \quad (31)$$

Here, \mathbf{x} is a 3-vector representing the position of the particle, and

$$\mathbf{g} = -\nabla\Phi, \quad (32)$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla \times \boldsymbol{\beta}, \quad (33)$$

where ∇ represents the ordinary gradient operator in Euclidean 3-space.

Solution: The trick here is to gather terms at the right order in our linearized theory and at the right order in our non-relativistic limit. Let us introduce an order-counting parameter into our spacetime: We put

$$ds^2 = -(1 + 2\epsilon\Phi)dt^2 + (1 - 2\epsilon\Phi)(dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2) + 2\epsilon\beta^i dx^i dt . \quad (34)$$

We then want to keep quantities describing our spacetime to $O(\epsilon)$, and quantities describing our test particle to $O(v)$, where v is the test particle's typical speed.

Let us first write out the geodesic equation. We have

$$m \frac{d^2 x^i}{d\tau^2} + m\Gamma^i_{00} \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{dt}{d\tau} + 2m\Gamma^i_{0j} \frac{dx^j}{d\tau} \frac{dt}{d\tau} + O(v^2) = 0 , \quad (35)$$

or

$$m \frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} + m\Gamma^i_{00} + 2m\Gamma^i_{0j} \frac{dx^j}{dt} = 0 . \quad (36)$$

Using GRTool.nb, I find

$$\Gamma^i_{00} = \nabla_i \Phi + O(\epsilon^2) \quad (37)$$

$$= -\mathbf{g}_i , \quad (38)$$

and

$$\Gamma^x_{0x} = 0 , \quad (39)$$

$$\Gamma^x_{0y} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_y \beta^x - \partial_x \beta^y) , \quad (40)$$

$$\Gamma^x_{0z} = \frac{1}{2} (\partial_z \beta^x - \partial_x \beta^z) . \quad (41)$$

Defining

$$\mathbf{H} = \nabla \times \boldsymbol{\beta} , \quad (42)$$

the results Γ^x_{0j} can be written

$$\Gamma^x_{0j} = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{xjk} \mathbf{H}_k . \quad (43)$$

Working out the other components, we have more generally

$$\Gamma^i_{0j} = -\frac{1}{2} \epsilon_{ijk} \mathbf{H}_k . \quad (44)$$

Now, put all this together to build our equation of motion:

$$m \frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} = m\mathbf{g}_i + m\epsilon_{ijk} \frac{dx^j}{dt} \mathbf{H}_k , \quad (45)$$

or

$$m \frac{d^2 \mathbf{x}}{dt^2} = m \mathbf{g} + m \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{H} . \quad (46)$$

(b) [10 pts] Show that for stationary sources (i.e., no component of the stress energy tensor shows time variation) the Einstein field equations may be written

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = -4\pi G \rho , \quad (47)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = -16\pi G \mathbf{J} \quad (48)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{H} = 0 , \quad (49)$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{g} = 0 . \quad (50)$$

The current $\mathbf{J} = \rho \mathbf{v}$, where \mathbf{v} is the velocity of fluid flow in the source. (Note that the second two equations follow from the definitions of \mathbf{g} and \mathbf{H} , so the only labor is in working out the first two.)

Solution: Using GRTool.nb (or a similar tool), work out the components of the Einstein tensor. To $O(\epsilon)$, we find

$$G_{00} = 2\nabla^2 \Phi = -2\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} \quad (51)$$

Using $T_{00} = 8\pi\rho$, we find

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = -4\pi G \rho . \quad (52)$$

We also find

$$G_{0i} = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \beta^i . \quad (53)$$

Actually, not quite: You only find this *if* you choose $\partial_i \beta^i = 0$. However, recall that the linearized Einstein equations were derived in Lorentz gauge, for which we chose $\partial_i \bar{h}^{ij} = 0$. For $j = 0$, this amounts to the requirement that $2\partial_t \Phi - \partial_i \beta^i = 0$. Since Φ is time-independent, this condition is true.

This lets us write this as

$$G_{0i} = -\frac{1}{2} (\nabla \times \nabla \times \boldsymbol{\beta})_i . \quad (54)$$

Using $T_{0i} = 8\pi\rho v_i$, we find

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{H} = -16\pi G \rho \mathbf{v} . \quad (55)$$

The other components equaling zero follows simply from vector identities applied to the definitions of \mathbf{H} and \mathbf{g} .

Note: In the course of doing this problem, some people were finding that they got equations with β^i on both the right-hand side and the left-hand

side of the equation. Terms such as this came about by unconsciously including terms that are non-linear in the metric in your analysis. For example, using the solution we have sketched here, β is of order $(G\rho)$. An equation which includes β on the right-hand side (acting as a source) could then be solved iteratively. The solution we have found here would be the leading order solution; it would act as a source for a correction of order $(G\rho)^2$.

Such an iterative scheme is in fact used quite a lot, and is known as the “post-Newtonian” approach to general relativity. Careful use of order-counting parameters (such as the ϵ used here) helps to keep things at consistent order in the calculation.

(c) [5 pts] These equations clearly bear a strong resemblance to Maxwell’s equations in the limit $\partial_t \mathbf{E} = \partial_t \mathbf{B} = 0$; the main differences are the reversed sign in both equations, and the extra factor of 4 (compared to Maxwell) in the curl equation. Can you give a simple explanation for these differences?

Solution: The sign difference occurs because two positive masses *attract* each other, instead of repelling as two positive charges would. In E&M, the opposite signs on these terms allow one to form a wave equation for \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} ; here the dynamical part of the Einstein equation is the ij -components.

The factor of 4 is related to the fact that our “potential” is a 2-index tensor rather than a 1-index vector; this in turn is fundamentally due to the fact that gravity is spin 2 while electromagnetism is spin-1.

3. [13 pts] Carroll: Chapter 7, Problem 1.

In this problem, Carroll asks us to vary a certain Lagrangian to construct the linearized Einstein tensor [Carroll Eq. (7.8)]. If you vary this Lagrangian in the “obvious” way, you will probably find that you get *almost* the correct Einstein tensor — you should get Eq. (7.8), but with the first two terms replaced with 2 times the first term. In other words, you don’t get the symmetrization on μ and ν that we should get.

What is going on here? The issue is that the Lagrangian doesn’t “know”, *a priori*, that the tensor $h_{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric. This has a strong impact on the second term of the Lagrangian — it should be symmetric with respect to exchange of the indices ρ and σ , but isn’t unless you somehow build in the knowledge we have of this symmetry.

There are two simple ways to address this:

a. Rewrite the Lagrangian to force this symmetrization:

$$(\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma})(\partial_\rho h^\mu{}_\sigma) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} [(\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma})(\partial_\rho h^\mu{}_\sigma) + (\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma})(\partial_\sigma h^\mu{}_\rho)] ; \quad (56)$$

b. Make sure that, in our variation, this symmetry is enforced. The way

I did this was to note that I should have

$$\frac{\delta(\partial_\mu h_{\rho\sigma})}{\delta(\partial_\gamma h_{\alpha\beta})} = \frac{\delta(\partial_\mu h_{\rho\sigma})}{\delta(\partial_\gamma h_{\beta\alpha})} \quad (57)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\delta(\partial_\mu h_{\rho\sigma})}{\delta(\partial_\gamma h_{\alpha\beta})} + \frac{\delta(\partial_\mu h_{\rho\sigma})}{\delta(\partial_\gamma h_{\beta\alpha})} \right] \quad (58)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [\delta^\gamma_\mu \delta^\alpha_\rho \delta^\beta_\sigma + \delta^\gamma_\mu \delta^\alpha_\sigma \delta^\beta_\rho] . \quad (59)$$

It shouldn't be too difficult to convince yourself that these methods are in fact equivalent.

Solution: Given the Lagrangian

$$2L \equiv (\partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu}) (\partial_\nu h) - (\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma}) (\partial_\rho h^\mu{}_\sigma) + \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma}) (\partial_\nu h_{\rho\sigma}) - \frac{1}{2} \eta^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\mu h) (\partial_\nu h) , \quad (60)$$

we can just grind through the variations.

A note about the hint: when varying Lagrangians, you need to be very careful about what your configuration space is. You are only allowed to make variations in your fields (or trajectories, or whatever) which *remain in configuration space*. For example, in one-dimensional mechanics problems you generally have a configuration space which consists of smooth paths between two points, so your variation must also be smooth to preserve this property. In our case, the field is a metric, so our configuration space is the space of possible metrics. This is the space of 4×4 , *symmetric* matrices, so our variation must be a 4×4 symmetric matrix, too.

Grinding away: we will need to discover the variations in $\partial_\mu h^{\nu\rho}$, $\partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu}$, and $\partial_\mu h$ when $h^{\mu\nu} \rightarrow h^{\mu\nu} + \delta h^{\mu\nu}$, with $\delta h^{\mu\nu} = \delta h^{(\mu\nu)}$. Since all these expressions are linear in $h^{\mu\nu}$, this is pretty straightforward:

$$\delta(\partial_\mu h^{\nu\rho}) = \partial_\mu \delta h^{\nu\rho} \quad (61)$$

$$\delta(\partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu}) = \partial_\mu \delta h^{\mu\nu} \quad (62)$$

$$\delta(\partial_\mu h) = \eta_{\nu\rho} \partial_\mu \delta h^{\nu\rho} . \quad (63)$$

Plugging in, and exploiting that the last two terms in the Lagrangian are symmetric in their h -dependence, we obtain

$$2\delta L = (\partial_\mu \delta h^{\mu\nu}) (\partial_\nu h) + (\partial_\mu h^{\mu\nu}) \eta_{\rho\sigma} (\partial_\nu \delta h^{\rho\sigma}) - (\partial_\mu \delta h^{\rho\sigma}) (\partial_\rho h^\mu{}_\sigma) - (\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma}) \eta_{\nu\sigma} (\partial_\rho \delta h^{\mu\nu}) + \eta^{\mu\nu} (\partial_\mu h^{\rho\sigma}) (\partial_\nu \delta h_{\rho\sigma}) - \eta^{\mu\nu} \eta_{\rho\sigma} (\partial_\mu \delta h^{\rho\sigma}) (\partial_\nu h) . \quad (64)$$

Now we will apply the generalized divergence theorem:

$$\int_V d^n x \partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu\dots} = \int_{\partial V} d^{n-1} x n_\mu T^{\mu\nu\dots} , \quad (65)$$

where n_μ is the normal to the boundary of the region of integration, V . On the boundary of our spacetime region, we require that the variation $\delta h^{\mu\nu} = 0$. So, for example, we have

$$\int_V d^4x (\partial_\mu \delta h^{\mu\nu}) (\partial_\nu h) = \int_V d^4x \partial_\mu (\delta h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu h) \quad (66)$$

$$- \int_V d^4x (\delta h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h) \quad (67)$$

$$= \int_{\partial V} d^3x n_\mu (\delta h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu h) \quad (68)$$

$$- \int_V d^4x (\delta h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h) \quad (69)$$

$$= - \int_V d^4x (\delta h^{\mu\nu} \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h) \quad (70)$$

when the action integral is applied. Transforming every term with a derivative this way, we obtain

$$2\delta L \sim - [\partial_\mu \partial_\nu h + \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha \partial_\beta h^{\alpha\beta} - 2\partial_\alpha \partial_\mu h^\alpha{}_\nu + \eta^{\alpha\beta} \partial_\alpha \partial_\beta h_{\mu\nu} - \eta^{\alpha\beta} \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha \partial_\beta h] \delta h^{\mu\nu}, \quad (71)$$

where the notation \sim means “is the same variation under the action integral”. We want to eliminate the $\delta h^{\mu\nu}$ using the fundamental theorem of variational calculus, but before we do, we must ensure that the object which is contracted with $\delta h^{\mu\nu}$ is symmetric. If it isn’t, we won’t be adhering to our rule about only generating variations which respect the configuration space once we remove the contraction, though the above expression, where the anti-symmetric part of the expression in brackets vanishes, is entirely correct.

In equation (71), the only anti-symmetric term is the one with the coefficient of 2. Re-writing that term symmetrically, we find that the action is stationary only when

$$\partial_\mu \partial_\alpha h^\alpha{}_\nu + \partial_\nu \partial_\alpha h^\alpha{}_\mu - \partial_\mu \partial_\nu h - \square h_{\mu\nu} - \eta_{\mu\nu} \partial_\alpha \partial_\beta h^{\alpha\beta} - \eta_{\mu\nu} \square h = 0, \quad (72)$$

but this is exactly Carroll’s expression for $G_{\mu\nu}$ (equation 7.8).

4. [12 pts] Carroll: Chapter 7, Problem 4.

Note: It’s easy to get tripped up in this problem by thinking of x^μ as the components of a vector. Doing so will make the problem far more complicated than it needs to be. The idea instead is to regard the index μ as labeling members of a set of scalar functions: Each coordinate is just some scalar function, and our goal is to show that “box” applied to the scalar x^μ is equivalent to Lorentz gauge in linearized theory. In practice, this means you should ignore the fact that x^μ has an index when you

expand the box operator. (As a notational mnemonic, you might want to replace x^μ with some scalar function f until you have expanded all the covariant derivatives into partials and connection coefficients.)

Solution: We are asked to show that the Lorenz gauge condition,

$$\partial_\mu \bar{h}_\nu^\mu = 0 \quad (73)$$

is equivalent to the harmonic gauge condition

$$\square x^\mu = g^{\rho\nu} \nabla_\rho \nabla_\nu x^\mu = 0 \quad (74)$$

in the linear limit. We will assume the harmonic gauge condition, and show that it implies the Lorenz gauge condition via a reversible argument.

The coordinate functions have particularly simple derivative:

$$\nabla_\nu x^\mu = \partial_\nu x^\mu = \delta_\nu^\mu, \quad (75)$$

where we are only viewing the lower index as a “tensorized” index; the upper index is just a set enumerator for $\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$. This has zero derivative, so

$$\nabla_\rho \delta_\nu^\mu = -\Gamma^\alpha_{\rho\nu} \delta_\alpha^\mu = -\Gamma^\mu_{\rho\nu} = 0. \quad (76)$$

Thus, harmonic gauge reduces to

$$\square x^\mu = 0 = -g^{\rho\nu} \Gamma^\mu_{\rho\nu}. \quad (77)$$

In the linear limit, this becomes

$$\square x^\mu = 0 = \eta^{\rho\nu} \eta^{\mu\kappa} [\partial_\rho h_{\kappa\nu} + \partial_\nu h_{\kappa\rho} - \partial_\kappa h_{\rho\nu}]. \quad (78)$$

Contracting on ρ and ν , we obtain

$$\square x^\mu = 0 = \eta^{\mu\kappa} [2\partial_\nu h^\nu{}_\kappa - \partial_\kappa h]. \quad (79)$$

Relabeling a few indices and contracting the η on the first term, we have

$$\square x^\mu = 0 = 2\partial_\nu h^{\nu\mu} - \partial_\nu \eta^{\nu\mu} h = 2\partial_\nu \bar{h}^{\nu\mu}, \quad (80)$$

which demonstrates that harmonic gauge is equivalent in the linear limit to Lorenz gauge.