

In this notebook, I will propose a unified field Lagrange density to unify gravity and EM. Here is the list of topics to be covered:

- I: The Lagrange density itself
- II: Field equations
- III: Classical fields
- IV: Dynamic metrics
- V: New constant velocity solutions
- VI. The Stress–energy tensor
- VII: Quantization

Everything will be done using standard techniques in four dimensions.

I: The GEM Lagrange density

What is a Lagrange density? It is a scalar function that describes all the mass and energy interactions per unit volume, bar none. The complete description of all energy as it happens to be distributed per unit volume is why a Lagrange density is important. Once the Lagrange density is set, everything else follows, including things like the field equations, energy/momentum, and whether the proposal can be quantized. The logic of mathematical physics is unbending.

The core idea is to start with the classical Maxwell lagrange density, and generize it enough so that the Lagrangian can also describe gravity. Here is the Lagrange density that will be studied:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{1}{c} (J_q^\mu - J_m^\mu) A_\mu - \frac{1}{2 c^2} \nabla^\mu A^\nu \nabla_\mu A_\nu$$

where

\mathcal{L} = The Lagrange density

J_q^μ = electric charge contravariant 4 – current density

J_m^μ = mass charge contravariant 4 – current density

A_μ = gravity / EM covariant 4 – potential

$\nabla^\mu A^\nu$ = contravariant 4 – derivative of a contravariant 4 – potential

These are the units of the components of the Lagrange density.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{units} &= \left\{ J \rightarrow \frac{m^{1/2}}{L^{3/2} t}, V \rightarrow L^3, q \rightarrow \frac{m^{1/2} L^{3/2}}{t}, U \rightarrow \frac{L}{t}, Amu \rightarrow \frac{m^{1/2}}{L^{1/2}}, \right. \\ &\quad \left. Amunu \rightarrow \frac{m^{1/2}}{t L^{1/2}}, \sqrt{G} \rightarrow \frac{L^{3/2}}{m^{1/2} t}, G \rightarrow \frac{L^3}{m t^2}, c \rightarrow \frac{L}{t}, h \rightarrow \frac{m L^2}{t} \right\}; \end{aligned}$$

Evaluate the units of the Lagrange density: the mass and electric charge in motion, and the asymmetric field strength tensor. If you are unfamiliar with *Mathematica*, "/" indicates rules for substitution, so /. units means the unit rules will be used to substitute into the preceding expression. It is a way to check that all the parts of the Lagrange density have units of $\frac{m}{L^3}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{J Amu}{c} &/.\text{ units} \\ \frac{m}{L^3} \end{aligned}$$


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MatrixForm[BAve =  $\frac{B + \text{Transpose}[B]}{2}$ ]

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 8 & 4 \\ 1 & 8 & 11 & 14 \\ 8 & 4 & 14 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$


MatrixForm[BDev =  $\frac{B - \text{Transpose}[B]}{2}$ ]

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & 1 & -5 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 & -2 \\ 5 & -4 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$


B - (BAve + BDev)
{{0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0}}

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Isn't that cool? Taking a transpose of the first matrix is not going to change an average value. Taking a transpose of the deviations from average will flip all the signs, but no magnitudes. The average amount of change symmetric matrix takes the average values off the diagonal and the diagonal itself. The symmetric matrix represents ten of the sixteen terms of the asymmetric tensor. For the antisymmetric matrix, the diagonal is all zeroes, and represents the remaining six terms. The average value can be independent of the deviation from the average.

Now we can use new words to describe the symmetric field strength tensor and the antisymmetric tensor. The average amount of change in the 4-potential is $\nabla^\mu A^\nu + \nabla^\nu A^\mu$, which includes changes that occur due to a changing metric. How much the metric changes is involved in the gauge choice. The deviation from that average amount of change is the tensor $\partial^\mu A^\nu - \partial^\nu A^\mu$, which excludes any contribution by a changing metric. The complete covariant 4-derivative of a contravariant 4-potential field strength tensor is the average amount of change symmetric tensor plus the deviation from the average amount of change antisymmetric tensor.

In summary, the Lagrange density under study has two parts: a coupling term for electric and mass charge in motion in a potential, and the average amount of change and deviation from the average amount of change in a 4-potential field strength tensors.

II: Field equations

What does one do with a Lagrange density? It cannot be measured directly. Instead, by taking certain derivatives, things which are physically observable are found. In this section the field equations are derived. Field equations are used to describe the motion and distribution of particles in a volume of spacetime.

How does one generate field equations? Apply the Euler–Lagrange equation to a Lagrange density. It is that formulaic.

It would be better to understand how the Euler–Lagrange equation works its magic. Here is a sketch. Consider what would happen if the Lagrange density were integrated over a volume and time in curved spacetime:

$$S = \int \mathcal{L} \sqrt{-\det g} \, dV \, dt$$

The action is the integral of all the mass and energy interactions per unit volume over a volume and time. If \mathcal{L} is varied, but the value of the integral did not change over arbitrary times, then both a symmetry of the action and a conserved quantity has been found.

If the Lagrange density depends only on the potential A^ν and the field strength tensor $\nabla_\mu A^\nu$ because everything else is known up to a diffeomorphism, the variation of the action \mathcal{S} will always be zero if:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial A^\nu} = \nabla^\mu \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\nabla^\mu A^\nu)} \right)$$

This is the Euler–Lagrange equation.

To get *Mathematica* to do this 19th century math requires that a few things get defined:

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covariantvec[A_] := {A[[1]], -A[[2]], -A[[3]], -A[[4]]}
contraD[A_] :=
  
$$\begin{pmatrix} D[A[[1]]], t & D[A[[2]]], t & D[A[[3]]], t & D[A[[4]]], t \\ -c D[A[[1]]], x & -c D[A[[2]]], x & -c D[A[[3]]], x & -c D[A[[4]]], x \\ -c D[A[[1]]], y & -c D[A[[2]]], y & -c D[A[[3]]], y & -c D[A[[4]]], y \\ -c D[A[[1]]], z & -c D[A[[2]]], z & -c D[A[[3]]], z & -c D[A[[4]]], z \end{pmatrix}$$

coD[A_] :=
  
$$\begin{pmatrix} D[A[[1]]], t & D[A[[2]]], t & D[A[[3]]], t & D[A[[4]]], t \\ c D[A[[1]]], x & c D[A[[2]]], x & c D[A[[3]]], x & c D[A[[4]]], x \\ c D[A[[1]]], y & c D[A[[2]]], y & c D[A[[3]]], y & c D[A[[4]]], y \\ c D[A[[1]]], z & c D[A[[2]]], z & c D[A[[3]]], z & c D[A[[4]]], z \end{pmatrix}$$

contraDvu[A_] :=
  
$$\begin{pmatrix} D[A[[1]]], t & -c D[A[[1]]], x & -c D[A[[1]]], y & -c D[A[[1]]], z \\ D[A[[2]]], t & -c D[A[[2]]], x & -c D[A[[2]]], y & -c D[A[[2]]], z \\ D[A[[3]]], t & -c D[A[[3]]], x & -c D[A[[3]]], y & -c D[A[[3]]], z \\ D[A[[4]]], t & -c D[A[[4]]], x & -c D[A[[4]]], y & -c D[A[[4]]], z \end{pmatrix}$$

coDvu[A_] :=
  
$$\begin{pmatrix} D[A[[1]]], t & c D[A[[1]]], x & c D[A[[1]]], y & c D[A[[1]]], z \\ D[A[[2]]], t & c D[A[[2]]], x & c D[A[[2]]], y & c D[A[[2]]], z \\ D[A[[3]]], t & c D[A[[3]]], x & c D[A[[3]]], y & c D[A[[3]]], z \\ D[A[[4]]], t & c D[A[[4]]], x & c D[A[[4]]], y & c D[A[[4]]], z \end{pmatrix}$$

symmetricD[A_] := contraD[A] + contraDvu[A]
antisymmetricD[A_] := contraD[A] - contraDvu[A]
contractMM[A_, B_] := Sum[A[[i, j]] B[[i, j]], {i, 1, 4}, {j, 1, 4}]

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Define the gravity/EM potential, and the current densities for electric and mass charges:

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A = {\phi[t, x, y, z], Ax[t, x, y, z], Ay[t, x, y, z], Az[t, x, y, z]};
J_q = {\rho_q, J_{qx}, J_{qy}, J_{qz}};
J_m = {\rho_m, J_{mx}, J_{my}, J_{mz}};

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Now we can define all the terms in the GEM Lagrangian:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{Expand} \left[\left(\text{LGEM} = -\text{covariantvec}[J_q - J_m] . A / c - \right. \right. \\
& \quad \left. \left. \text{Expand} \left[\frac{\text{contractMM}[\text{contraD}[A], \text{coD}[\text{covariant}[A]]]}{2c^2} \right] \right) / . \right. \\
& \quad \left. \left. \{\phi[t, x, y, z] \rightarrow \phi, Ax[t, x, y, z] \rightarrow Ax, Ay[t, x, y, z] \rightarrow Ay, Az[t, x, y, z] \rightarrow Az\} \right] \right] \\
& - \frac{Ax J_{mx}}{c} - \frac{Ay J_{my}}{c} - \frac{Az J_{mz}}{c} + \frac{Ax J_{qx}}{c} + \frac{Ay J_{qy}}{c} + \frac{Az J_{qz}}{c} + \frac{\phi \rho_m}{c} - \frac{\phi \rho_q}{c} - \\
& \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \\
& \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right)^2 - \\
& \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right)^2 - \\
& \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \\
& \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right)^2
\end{aligned}$$

Define functions to apply the Euler–Lagrange equations to a Lagrange density. The function potentialD takes the derivative of a Lagrange density with respect to the potential. The function fieldD takes a second derivative with respect to the field of a Lagrange density. [Notation is needed so the output looks intelligible to people.]

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{potentialD}[L_] := & \text{Simplify}[\{D[L, \phi[t, x, y, z]], \\
& D[L, Ax[t, x, y, z]], D[L, Ay[t, x, y, z]], D[L, Az[t, x, y, z]]\}] ; \\
\text{fieldD}[L_] := & \text{Simplify}[\{D[D[L, \phi^{(1,0,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], t] + D[D[L, \phi^{(0,1,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], x] + \\
& D[D[L, \phi^{(0,0,1,0)}[t, x, y, z]], y] + D[D[L, \phi^{(0,0,0,1)}[t, x, y, z]], z], \\
& D[D[L, Ax^{(1,0,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], t] + D[D[L, Ax^{(0,1,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], x] + \\
& D[D[L, Ax^{(0,0,1,0)}[t, x, y, z]], y] + D[D[L, Ax^{(0,0,0,1)}[t, x, y, z]], z], \\
& D[D[L, Ay^{(1,0,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], t] + D[D[L, Ay^{(0,1,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], x] + \\
& D[D[L, Ay^{(0,0,1,0)}[t, x, y, z]], y] + D[D[L, Ay^{(0,0,0,1)}[t, x, y, z]], z], \\
& D[D[L, Az^{(1,0,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], t] + D[D[L, Az^{(0,1,0,0)}[t, x, y, z]], x] + \\
& D[D[L, Az^{(0,0,1,0)}[t, x, y, z]], y] + D[D[L, Az^{(0,0,0,1)}[t, x, y, z]], z]\}]
\end{aligned}$$

Apply to the GEM Lagrange density:

III: Classical fields

The long name "EField" for E must be used since E means 2.718... to Mathematica. Define the five classical fields that constitute the asymmetric tensor $\nabla^\mu A^\nu$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Efield} = & \{-D[Ax[t, x, y, z], t] - c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], x], \\
 & -D[Ay[t, x, y, z], t] - c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], y], \\
 & -D[Az[t, x, y, z], t] - c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], z]\} \\
 e = & \{D[Ax[t, x, y, z], t] - c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], x], D[Ay[t, x, y, z], t] - \\
 & c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], y], D[Az[t, x, y, z], t] - c D[\phi[t, x, y, z], z]\} \\
 B = & c \text{Curl}[\{Ax[t, x, y, z], Ay[t, x, y, z], Az[t, x, y, z]\}] \\
 b = & -c \{D[Ay[t, x, y, z], z] + D[Az[t, x, y, z], y], +D[Ax[t, x, y, z], z] + \\
 & D[Az[t, x, y, z], x], D[Ax[t, x, y, z], y] + D[Ay[t, x, y, z], x]\} \\
 g = & \{D[\phi[t, x, y, z], t], -c D[Ax[t, x, y, z], x], \\
 & -c D[Ay[t, x, y, z], y], -c D[Az[t, x, y, z], z]\} \\
 \left\{ -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right) - \frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t}, \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right) - \frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t}, \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right) - \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right\} \\
 \left\{ -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t}, \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t}, \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t} \right\} \\
 \left\{ c \left(- \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right) + \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right), \right. \\
 \left. c \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right), \right. \\
 \left. c \left(- \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right) \right\} \\
 \left\{ -c \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right), \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right), \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right) \right\} \\
 \left\{ \frac{\partial \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t}, -c \left(\frac{\partial Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x} \right), \right. \\
 \left. -c \left(\frac{\partial Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y} \right), -c \left(\frac{\partial Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z} \right) \right\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Write out the antisymmetric (E + B), symmetric (e + b + g), and a symmetric tensors (all) in terms of the individual components.

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_m &= \text{Expand} \left[\frac{c}{2} (\text{Div}[Efield] + \text{Div}[e]) + \frac{1}{c} D[g[[1]]] \right] /. \rho_q \rightarrow 0 /. \text{noEfield} /. \text{nopt} \\ -\rho_m &= -c^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z^2} \right) - c^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y^2} \right) - c^2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x^2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

If there is no divergence of the symmetric e field and m is zero, Gauss' law results.

$$\begin{aligned}(J_q - J_m)[[1]] &= \text{Simplify} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\text{Div}[Efield] + \text{Div}[e]) + \frac{D[g[[1]], t]}{c} \right] /. \rho_m \rightarrow 0 /. \\ \text{noe} \\ \rho_q &= -c \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z^2} \right) - \\ c \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y^2} \right) - c \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x^2} \right) + \frac{\frac{\partial^2 \phi[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t^2}}{c}\end{aligned}$$

Ampere's Law:

$$\begin{aligned}\{ (J_q - J_m)[[2]], (J_q - J_m)[[3]], (J_q - J_m)[[4]] \} &= \\ \text{Simplify} \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{D[-Efield, t]}{c} + \frac{D[e, t]}{c} + \text{Curl}[B] + \text{symcurl}[b] \right) + \text{grad3}[g] \right] \\ \{-J_{mx} + J_{qx}, -J_{my} + J_{qy}, -J_{mz} + J_{qz}\} &= \\ \left\{ -c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z^2} \right) - c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y^2} \right) - c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x^2} \right) + \right. \\ \left. \frac{\frac{\partial^2 Ax[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t^2}}{c}, -c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z^2} \right) - c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y^2} \right) - \right. \\ \left. c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x^2} \right) + \frac{\frac{\partial^2 Ay[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t^2}}{c}, -c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial z^2} \right) - \right. \\ \left. c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial y^2} \right) - c \left(\frac{\partial^2 Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial x^2} \right) + \frac{\frac{\partial^2 Az[t, x, y, z]}{\partial t^2}}{c} \right\}\end{aligned}$$

The homogeneous Maxwell equations

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Simplify}[\text{Div}[B]] \\ 0 \\ \text{Simplify}[\text{Curl}[Efield] + \frac{D[B, t]}{c}] \\ \{0, 0, 0\}\end{aligned}$$

There are no gravitational analogs to the homogeneous Maxwell equations.

■ IV: Dynamics Metrics

All of the equations written so far have been manifestly covariant, except for the static laws. This means that their form will not change no matter what metric is used. The equations will not change their form no matter how the metric changes throughout the spacetime manifold. The metric may or may not satisfy the Einstein field equations: either way, the field equations remain the same. Although it is natural to presume all the field equations were written with a flat Minkowski metric, technically that does not have to be the case.

In this section, I will show two different roads to a dynamic metric which is consistent with experimental tests of weak field gravity. The first approach looks at Gauss' law when the derivatives are treated as covariant derivatives. The second road to

the identical metric involves finding a solution to the wave equation, plugging that into a force law, and rearranging the result to look like a metric.

Consider a static, spherically symmetric, system in a vacuum. The Gauss-like law for this proposal is this:

$$\frac{1}{2} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{e}) = \nabla_\mu (\partial^\mu A^0 + \partial^0 A^\mu - 2 \Gamma_0^{\mu 0} A^\sigma) = 0$$

Choose a potential such that the derivative of the potential happens to be zero. This is effectively a choice of gauge so that the dynamic metric contains all the information about the mass and electric charges in the system. Under these conditions, calculate the divergence of the Christoffel symbol.

$$\nabla \Gamma_0^{\mu 0} A^\sigma = \frac{1}{2} \nabla g_{\sigma\beta} (g^{\beta i, 0} + g^{0\beta, i} - g^{i 0, \beta}) A^\sigma$$

The first term drops because the metric is static. The third term drops if the metric is diagonal. Beta must equal 0 for the metric to be non-zero.

Now we need to "guess" a metric that will solve this equation. The metric must reduce to the Minkowski metric for a small mass. It must solve a Poisson-like equation. So a metric with exponentials along the diagonal, with a $1/R$ in the potential, might work. Here is the exponential metric:

$$\text{metric} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{E} \frac{(\sqrt{G} q - GM)}{c^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\mathbf{E} \frac{2(-\sqrt{G} q - GM)}{c^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\mathbf{E} \frac{2(-\sqrt{G} q - GM)}{c^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\mathbf{E} \frac{2(-\sqrt{G} q - GM)}{c^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} \end{pmatrix};$$

$$g_{00} = \text{metric}[1, 1]$$

$$\mathbf{E} \frac{-GM + \sqrt{G} q}{c^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

This is a singular solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Simplify[} \\ -\frac{c^2}{2\sqrt{G}} \left(D\left[\frac{1}{g_{00}} D[g_{00}, x], x\right] + D\left[\frac{1}{g_{00}} D[g_{00}, y], y\right] + D\left[\frac{1}{g_{00}} D[g_{00}, z], z\right] \right) \\ 0 \end{aligned}$$

If instead, the gauge we had chosen a flat, Euclidean metric, then the equation for the mass charge density would have been a Poisson equation, $\rho_m = \nabla^2 \phi$, which has the singular charge/R solution.

As an added check, use a tensor notebook written by Mathew Headrick of MIT's Center for Theoretical Physics to confirm the calculation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{coord} = \{t, x, y, z\}; \\ \ll \text{diffgeo5.m} \\ \text{Sum[Simplify[D[Christoffel[[i, 1]][[1]], t] + D[Christoffel[[i, 1]][[2]], x] +} \\ \text{D[Christoffel[[i, 1]][[3]], y] + D[Christoffel[[i, 1]][[4]], z]], \{i, 4\}]} \\ 0 \end{aligned}$$

I like to confirm the result was not trivial (meaning all the components were not zero):

```
Table[Christoffel[[i, 1]][[1]], {i, 4}]
```

$$\left\{ 0, \frac{e^{\frac{GM+3\sqrt{G}q}{c^2(x^2+y^2+z^2)}} \sqrt{G} (\sqrt{G} M - q) x}{2 c^2 (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}, \right.$$

$$\left. \frac{e^{\frac{GM+3\sqrt{G}q}{c^2(x^2+y^2+z^2)}} \sqrt{G} (\sqrt{G} M - q) y}{2 c^2 (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}}, \frac{e^{\frac{GM+3\sqrt{G}q}{c^2(x^2+y^2+z^2)}} \sqrt{G} (\sqrt{G} M - q) z}{2 c^2 (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \right\}$$

[A personal note: I had first derived the exponential metric in the way outlined in the next part of this notebook. Then a mere four years later, realized that the divergence of the Christoffel symbol had to return the mass density. Having never calculated a Christoffel symbol for any metric, all of my work for four years was on the line, in an equation I did not know how to calculate! If it did not work out, then I would have to tell everyone this line of research was wrong. Needless to say, I was relieved when the result turned out correctly.]

The best known show-stopping problem with a rank one field equation originates from solutions to the 4D wave equation, $Jq^\mu - Jm^\mu = \square^2 A^\mu$. A class of solutions has the form of an inverse distance squared. To generate a force from such a potential, take the derivative. The resulting force law has an inverse distance cubed dependence, so this potential is obviously not physical. Newtonian gravity is not an inverse cube force law, never was, never will be.

It has been shown what conditions generate Newton's field equations, $Jm^0 = \nabla^2 A^0$. A potential that solves this equation has an inverse distance dependence, so the spatial derivative will be an inverse square, the correct form needed for a gravitational force law. Imagine that $\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial r^2}$ is an incredibly small, but non-zero number. There should be a smooth transition from the zero to non-zero situation, not a dramatic breakdown from inverse distance squared to an inverse cubed force law. Gravity is far weaker than the other three known forces. Spacetime is hardly curved at all by the mass charge around us. This suggests perturbation theory should be applied to the problem. Given the way the Earth has wobbled around the Sun for four billion years, that kind of motion suggests a simple harmonic oscillator of some sort. The potential must solve the field equations. The derivative of the potential must under classical conditions have a $\frac{M}{R^2}$ dependence. One possibility would involve a simple harmonic oscillator, with a spring constant related directly to the source mass ($k = \frac{GM}{c^2}$ has units of L), over a distance squared (units of L^2). If so, the derivative of the potential would have units of inverse distance. A dimensionless potential would have a spatial derivative with units of inverse distance. The hunt is on for a dimensionless perturbation that solves the field equations. A historical note: when people first worked with the 4D wave equation in the eighteen hundreds, they would not have considered the notion of geometric length for a mass, an idea that arose from general relativity.

Let's try and keep this as simple as possible, without being too simple. The idea is to study something a small step away from classical Newtonian gravitational physics – neutral, spherically symmetric, not rotating, a 1/R potential – with a modification to include a small contribution from time (translation: |R| >> |ct|, but ct is not zero). One such potential that solves the vacuum field equations is:

```
a1 = { \sqrt{G} h / c^2
      , 0, 0, 0 } ;

test[potential_] :=
Simplify[{D[potential[[1]], {t, 2}] - D[potential[[1]], {x, 2}] -
D[potential[[1]], {y, 2}] - D[potential[[1]], {z, 2}],
D[potential[[2]], {t, 2}] - D[potential[[2]], {x, 2}] -
D[potential[[2]], {y, 2}] - D[potential[[2]], {z, 2}],
D[potential[[3]], {t, 2}] - D[potential[[3]], {x, 2}] -
D[potential[[3]], {y, 2}] - D[potential[[3]], {z, 2}],
D[potential[[4]], {t, 2}] - D[potential[[4]], {x, 2}] -
D[potential[[4]], {y, 2}] - D[potential[[4]], {z, 2}]}]

test[a1]
{0, 0, 0, 0}
```


an important milestone: the exponential metric is not a solution to the Einstein field equations, but could be confirmed or rejected on experimental grounds.

■ V: Classical constant velocity solution

We first need to derive Newton's gravitational force law from this completely relativistic one.

$$\left\{ -\frac{c k m[\tau] U_0[\tau]}{\sigma^2}, \frac{c k m[\tau] U_R[\tau]}{\sigma^2} \right\} = \{ D[m[\tau] U_0[\tau], \tau], D[m[\tau] U_R[\tau], \tau] \}$$

$$\left\{ -\frac{c k m[\tau] U_0[\tau]}{\sigma^2}, \frac{c k m[\tau] U_R[\tau]}{\sigma^2} \right\} =$$

$$\{ U_0[\tau] m'[\tau] + m[\tau] U_0'[\tau], U_R[\tau] m'[\tau] + m[\tau] U_R'[\tau] \}$$

Newton's classical force law is conservative, so the first terms of the above equation are zero. Presume the change in mass term contributes nothing. The spring constant k becomes the gravitational length of the source mass. The distance sigma becomes R .

$$\text{conservativeForce} = \{ U_0[\tau] \rightarrow 0, U_0'[\tau] \rightarrow 0 \};$$

$$\text{noMassChange} = \{ m'[\tau] \rightarrow 0, m[\tau] \rightarrow m \};$$

$$\text{springIsSourceMass} = \{ k \rightarrow \frac{G M}{c^2} \};$$

$$\text{sigmaToR} = \{ \sigma \rightarrow R \};$$

$$\left\{ -\frac{c k m[\tau] U_0[\tau]}{\sigma^2}, \frac{c k m[\tau] U_R[\tau]}{\sigma^2} \right\} = \{ D[m[\tau] U_0[\tau], \tau], D[m[\tau] U_R[\tau], \tau] \} /.$$

$$\text{noMassChange} /. \text{conservativeForce} /. \text{springIsSourceMass} /. \text{sigmaToR}$$

$$\{ 0, \frac{G m M U_R[\tau]}{c R^2} \} = \{ 0, m U_R'[\tau] \}$$

We now need to break spacetime symmetry. We can no longer use a relativistic 4-velocity or 4-acceleration. The question is what is now the appropriate derivatives and directions for those derivatives? Newton's law describes a static force field, so the interval tau has the same magnitude as the absolute value of the distance, $|R|$.

$$\{ D[t[\tau], \tau], c D[R[\tau], \tau] \} /. \{ \tau \rightarrow R \}$$

$$\{ t'[\tau], c R'[\tau] \}$$

In classical physics, time is independent of space, so the gamma term here, $\frac{\partial t}{\partial R}$, is zero. The other term is a unit vector in the R direction. This says that change only happens along the direction of R , a reasonable statement.

$$\{ D[t[\tau], \tau], c^2 D[R[\tau], \{ \tau, 2 \}] \} /. \{ \tau \rightarrow R \} /. t'[\tau] \rightarrow 0$$

$$\{ 0, c^2 R''[R] \}$$

This acceleration still is not classical because it contains the constant c^2 . One way to eliminate it is to substitute $R/c \rightarrow t$. Do that twice, and in pops a minus sign, out go the c 's.

$$\{ D[t[\tau], \tau], c^2 D[R[\tau], \{ \tau, 2 \}] \} /. \{ \tau \rightarrow R \} /. t'[\tau] \rightarrow 0 /. R''[R] \rightarrow -\frac{1}{c^2} R''[t]$$

$$\{ 0, -R''[t] \}$$

This is the classical acceleration. Plug this substitutions into the relativistic force law:

$$\text{changeOnlyAlongRhat} = \{ U_R[\tau] \rightarrow c \tilde{R} \};$$

$$\text{velocity2dRdttau} = \{ U_R \rightarrow R'[\tau] \};$$

$$\text{dtau2t} = \{ R''[\tau] \rightarrow -R''[t] \};$$

$$\text{momentum[LGB]} \\ \left\{ -\frac{c \left(\frac{\partial A_z[t,x,y,z]}{\partial z} \right) + c \left(\frac{\partial A_y[t,x,y,z]}{\partial y} \right) + c \left(\frac{\partial A_x[t,x,y,z]}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial \phi[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \right. \\ \left. \frac{\frac{\partial \phi[t,x,y,z]}{\partial x}}{c} + \frac{\frac{\partial A_x[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \frac{\frac{\partial \phi[t,x,y,z]}{\partial y}}{c} + \frac{\frac{\partial A_y[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \frac{\frac{\partial \phi[t,x,y,z]}{\partial z}}{c} + \frac{\frac{\partial A_z[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2} \right\}$$

These field equations can be quantized, but run into a different technical problem. The field strength tensor is second rank and antisymmetric, so will be represented by a spin one field where like charges repel. The scalar mode of emission for a spin one field could have a negative energy density, and that makes no sense. An additional constraint is required to make the scalar and longitudinal spin 1 fields virtual.

Calculate the generalized 4-momentum of the GEM Lagrange density.

$$\text{momentum[LGEM]} \\ \left\{ -\frac{\frac{\partial \phi[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \frac{\frac{\partial A_x[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \frac{\frac{\partial A_y[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2}, \frac{\frac{\partial A_z[t,x,y,z]}{\partial t}}{c^2} \right\}$$

The GEM field equations do not have any zeros in the 4-momentum density, so it is possible to quantize the modes of emission.

The GEM field is NOT all a spin 1 field. The field strength tensor has two parts. The antisymmetric second rank field strength tensor will be represented by a spin 1 field for EM where like charges repel. The symmetric second rank field strength tensor will be represented by a spin 2 field for gravity where like charges attract. These modes of emission are scalar and longitudinal. The scalar mode of a spin 2 field will not have the negative energy density problem. We know that gravity has a classical longitudinal wave behavior. If one drills a hole through the center of the Earth, and creates a vacuum in that tunnel, a ball dropped in the tunnel will oscillate with a period of about an hour and a half. The direction the particle accelerates is the direction it is moving, so the wave is longitudinal. Should we ever detect the polarization of gravity waves, this unified field proposal predicts the modes will either be scalar or longitudinal, and not transverse as is predicted by general relativity. As such, the polarization of gravity waves is a clear way to confirm or reject this proposal.