

$$h_{\mu\nu}(\bar{x}^\lambda) = \frac{\partial x^\alpha}{\partial \bar{x}^\mu}(\bar{x}^\lambda) \frac{\partial x^\beta}{\partial \bar{x}^\nu}(\bar{x}^\lambda) g_{\alpha\beta}(x^\rho(\bar{x}^\lambda))$$

By asymptotically flat, we mean that

$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$ is H^s asymptotic to some given

comparison metric. In practice this means

$g_{\mu\nu}$ is asymptotic to a Schwarzschild

type metric $\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu}$, i.e. $g_{\mu\nu} - \tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} \in H^s$.

Here our comparison metric looks like

$$\tilde{g}_{\mu\nu} = \eta_{\mu\nu} + \frac{2m}{r} \delta_{\mu\nu}$$

with $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ is the usual Minkowski

metric and $m \geq 0$. (Of course a special case is just $m=0$.) The existence

theory then guarantees that these

asymptotic conditions will automatically

be maintained in time.

The symmetric tensor $G_{\mu\nu}$ has 10 independent components so the Einstein equations comprise 10 algebraically independent equations for the unknown metric

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{00} & x & x & x \\ & g_{11} & x & x \\ & & g_{22} & x \\ & & & g_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

with g having $4 + 3 + 2 + 1 = 10$

independent components as well. So it

seems that the Einstein eqns should

suffice to determine the $g_{\mu\nu}$ uniquely.

However that is not so.

Although algebraically independent, the

10 $G_{\mu\nu}$ equations are related by four

differential identities, the Bianchi identities

$$G_{\nu;\mu}^{\mu} = 0$$

which follow from

$$R_{\mu\kappa;\eta} - R_{\mu\eta;\kappa} + R_{\mu\eta;\nu}^{\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{Bianchi})$$

$$R_{;\eta} - R_{\eta;\mu}^{\mu} - R_{\eta;\nu}^{\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{contract})$$

$$(R_{\nu}^{\mu} - \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\mu}_{\nu} R)_{;\mu} = 0 \quad (\text{contract})$$

$$(R^{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} R)_{;\mu} \quad (\text{rewrite}) \quad]$$

Thus there are not 10 ~~algebraically~~ functionally independent equations, but only

$$10 - 4 = 6,$$

leaving 4 degrees of freedom in the

10 unknowns $g_{\mu\nu}$.

These degrees of freedom correspond to the fact that if $g_{\mu\nu}$ is a solution of Einstein's equations then so is $g'_{\mu\nu}$, where $g'_{\mu\nu}$ is determined by a general coordinate transformation $x \rightarrow x'$. (This is the reason for the way the "uniqueness" problem has been stated).

The failure of Einstein's equations to determine $g_{\mu\nu}$ uniquely is analogous with failure of Maxwell's eqns to determine the vector potential uniquely.

Recall Maxwell's eqn

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = - \text{curl } E$$

$$\frac{\partial D}{\partial t} = \text{curl } H - J$$

which in the linear case have

$$D = \epsilon E$$

$$B = \mu H$$

$$J = \sigma E$$

$$(E = \frac{1}{\epsilon} D)$$

$$(H = \frac{1}{\mu} B)$$

$$(J = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} D)$$

$$\nabla \cdot B = \nabla \cdot D = 0$$

Substitution of $\frac{1}{\epsilon} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \epsilon \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}$ ~~just~~ $H = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla \times \mathbf{B}$, $\mathbf{J} = \sigma \mathbf{E}$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = - \text{curl } \mathbf{E}$$

$$\epsilon \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\mu} \text{curl } \mathbf{B} - \sigma \mathbf{E}$$

$$\text{curl} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = - \text{curl } \mathbf{E} \\ \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\mu \epsilon} \text{curl } \mathbf{B} - \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \mathbf{E} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \text{curl } \mathbf{B} = - \text{curl } \text{curl } \mathbf{E}$$

$$\mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \text{curl } \mathbf{B} - \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \mathbf{E}$$

$$\mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} = - \text{curl } \text{curl } \mathbf{E} + \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \mathbf{E}$$

$$\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{E}$$

$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 0$

$$\boxed{\mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{E}}{\partial t^2} = \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} + \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \mathbf{E}}$$

which if curl were curl determine \mathbf{E} and hence \mathbf{J} and \mathbf{D} as well.

But what about B and H ?

Since

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = -\text{curl } E$$

$$\text{curl } H = J + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

If we know J and D we only know
curl H . and hence H is determined

up to a function $\nabla\phi$

$$\text{curl}(H + \nabla\phi) = J + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$\text{curl } H = J + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

since curl $\nabla\phi = 0$.

One way to specify H uniquely
has been provided by the condition

$$\nabla \cdot B = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot (\mu H) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla \cdot H = 0$$

So if we have 2 soln

$$\vec{H} = H + \nabla\phi$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{H} = \nabla \cdot H + \nabla^2\phi \Rightarrow \nabla^2\phi = 0$$

$\nabla^2 \phi = 0$ with appropriate boundary conditions will yield $\phi = 0$.

So the condition

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

was essentially to getting a unique solution to Maxwell's eqns. So $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ is a gauge condition in the language of physics.

In a similar way we will have to add additional conditions to Einstein's equations to get unique solutions.

This is done by choosing harmonic coordinates. This a coordinate

system x^α satisfying $\Gamma^\lambda = 0$

where $\Gamma^\lambda \equiv g^{\mu\nu} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = 0$.

Can we always choose a coordinate system for which $\Gamma^\lambda = 0$ holds? The answer is yes as is seen by the following argument.

Recall that the Christoffel symbols are defined by

$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\lambda} \left[\frac{\partial g_{\lambda\alpha}}{\partial x^{\beta}} + \frac{\partial g_{\lambda\beta}}{\partial x^{\alpha}} - \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^{\lambda}} \right]$$

In exercise (S. Weinberg, Gravitation and Cosmology, p162) shows that in new x' coordinates

$$\Gamma'^{\lambda} = \frac{\partial x'^{\lambda}}{\partial x^{\beta}} \Gamma^{\beta} - g'^{\rho\sigma} \frac{\partial^2 x^{\lambda}}{\partial x^{\beta} \partial x^{\sigma}}$$

Hence if Γ^{β} does not vanish we solve the second order PDE

$$g'^{\rho\sigma} \frac{\partial^2 x^{\lambda}}{\partial x^{\beta} \partial x^{\sigma}} = \frac{\partial x'^{\lambda}}{\partial x^{\beta}} \Gamma^{\beta}$$

which forces $\Gamma'^{\lambda} = 0$ in the new primed coordinates.

The harmonic coordinate condition

$$\Gamma^\lambda = 0$$

can be expressed of course as

$$0 = \Gamma^\lambda = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} g^{\lambda\kappa} \left\{ \frac{\partial g_{\kappa\mu}}{\partial x^\nu} + \frac{\partial g_{\kappa\nu}}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\kappa} \right\}$$

Recall

$$g^{\lambda\kappa} \frac{\partial g_{\kappa\mu}}{\partial x^\nu} = -g_{\kappa\mu} \frac{\partial g^{\lambda\kappa}}{\partial x^\nu}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\kappa} = g^{-1/2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\kappa} g^{1/2}$$

$$(g = \det g_{\mu\nu} - \det g_{\mu\nu})$$

This then gives

$$\Gamma^\lambda = -g^{-1/2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\kappa} (g^{1/2} g^{\lambda\kappa}) \quad \text{and so}$$

$$0 = \Gamma^\lambda = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\kappa} (\sqrt{g} g^{\lambda\kappa}) = 0$$

The invariant d'Alembertian (Laplace-Beltrami) ~~operator~~ is defined by

$$\square \phi \equiv g^{\lambda\kappa} \phi_{;\lambda};_{\kappa}$$

Using the fact the covariant derivative of a scalar S is just the ordinary derivative

$$S_{; \mu} = \frac{\partial S}{\partial x^\mu}$$

and

$$V^\mu_{; \mu} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} (\sqrt{g} V^\mu)$$

we see

$$\nabla^\mu \phi = (g^{\lambda\kappa} \phi_{; \lambda})_{; \kappa}$$

$$= \frac{g^{\lambda\kappa} \phi_{; \lambda\kappa}}{g^{\lambda\kappa}} +$$

$$= g^{\lambda\kappa} \phi_{; \lambda\kappa} + g^{\lambda\kappa}{}_{; \lambda\kappa} \phi_{; \lambda}$$

$$= g^{\lambda\kappa} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^\lambda \partial x^\kappa} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\lambda} (\sqrt{g} g^{\lambda\kappa}) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x^\lambda}$$

since ϕ is a scalar

$$+ \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\lambda} (\sqrt{g} g^{\lambda\kappa}) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x^\lambda}$$

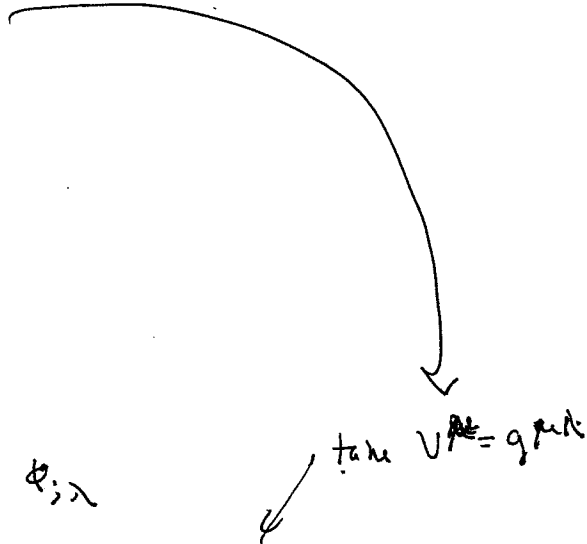
Since d is scalar

$$= g^{\lambda\kappa} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^\lambda \partial x^\kappa} - \Gamma^{\lambda\kappa}{}_{\lambda\kappa} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x^\lambda}$$

Hence if x'^{λ} satisfies the equation that change $x \rightarrow x'$ when $\Gamma'^{\lambda}{}_{\lambda\lambda} = 0$

we see

$$\nabla^\mu x'^{\lambda} = 0$$



i.e. the "harmonic coordinates" satisfy the wave equation

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 0$$

in each component, i.e. each component is a "harmonic" function.

Now the "Harmonic Coordinates" condition

$$\Gamma^\lambda \equiv g^{\mu\nu} \Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = 0$$

$\lambda=0,1,2,3$
4 equations

gives 4 additional equations

which when added to 6 fundamentally

independent equations from the Einstein

equations gives 10 eqns for

10 unknowns.

(247)

Even more is true. If the
"harmonic coordinates" conditions are to play the
same role of $\nabla \cdot B = 0$ in Maxwell's
equations they need to be preserved under the
evolution given by the Einstein equations. This
is true and was discovered by

Y. Fournès-Bruhat in (Theorem d'existence
pour certains systèmes d'équations aux
dérivées partielles non linéaires,
Acta Math 88 141-225 (1952))

Specifically we know that if
initial data is consistent with
the Einstein vacuum equations

$$G_{\mu\nu}(\omega, \pi^i) = 0$$

(we need this since not all the ~~initial~~ Einstein equations are evolutionary) and consistent with

$$\dot{\Gamma}^{\mu} = 0 \quad \text{at } t=0$$

then

$$\Gamma^{\mu} = 0$$

for $t > 0$.

↳ The requirement that $G^0_{\mu}(0, x^i) = 0$

is called the constraint conditions

and these time independent conditions

are also propagated for $t > 0$] These

results are summarized in the following

lemma (Lemma 3.2 of Fischer and Marsden)

Lemma Let $(\overset{\circ}{g}, \overset{\circ}{k}) \in (\mathcal{A}^s, \mathcal{K}^{s-1})$

and suppose $s > \frac{3}{2} + 2$. Assume

$$\overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^\mu(x^i) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \overset{\circ}{C}_{\mu\nu}(x^i) = 0 \quad (\text{the}$$

superscript \circ over Γ and C refer

to the fact that $\overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^\mu$ and $\overset{\circ}{C}_{\mu\nu}$ are

computed from the initial data $(\overset{\circ}{g}, \overset{\circ}{k})$)

Let $g_{\mu\nu}$ be an H^s space time

satisfying

$$g_{\mu\nu}(0, x^i) = \overset{\circ}{g}_{\mu\nu}(0, x^i)$$

$$\frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t}(0, x^i) = \overset{\circ}{k}_{\mu\nu}(0, x^i)$$

and

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0 \quad (\text{in harmonic coordinates})$$

Then the harmonic coordinate

condition

$$\overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^\mu(t, x^i) = 0 \quad \text{for } t > 0.$$

The Sobolev spaces H^s , K^s
 are just the usual Sobolev space with the
 asymptotically flat conditions (see p23 of the
 Fischer and Marsden paper)

Now we can state the main Theorem of
 Fischer and Marsden.

Theorem (Existence). Let $s \geq 4$ ($s > 3.5$ if not
 an integer). Let $(g^0_{\mu\nu}, \dot{g}^0_{\mu\nu}) \in \mathcal{L}^s \times \mathcal{K}^{s-1}$.

Then there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ and a unique H^s
 asymptotically flat Lorentz metric $g^L(t, x^i)$

$t \in I = (-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ such that $t \mapsto g^L(t, \cdot) \in \mathcal{L}^s$

is C^0 , is C^1 into \mathcal{L}^{s-1} , $g^L|_{t=0, x^i} = \dot{g}^0(x^i)$,

$\frac{\partial g^L}{\partial t}(0, x^i) = \dot{K}(x^i)$ and

$R_{\mu\nu} = 0$ (in harmonic coordinates)

The solution depends continuously on the initial data in $\mathbb{R}^s \times \mathbb{R}^{s-1}$ and moreover, for T fixed,

$|T| < \epsilon$, the solution is a C^∞ function of the initial data. If the initial data is C^∞ , so is the solution.

Case A, If the Cauchy data satisfy

$\overset{\circ}{C}_{\mu=0} = 0, \overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^M = 0$ Then $g_{\mu\nu}$ so obtained satisfies

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0$$

Case B, If the Cauchy data satisfy only

only $\overset{\circ}{C}_{\mu=0} = 0$ there exists an H^{s+1}

coordinate transformation f such that

$\overset{\circ}{g} = (f^{-1})^* \overset{\circ}{g}$ has Cauchy data

satisfying $\overset{\circ}{C}_{\mu=0} = 0, \overset{\circ}{\Gamma}^M = 0$. Hence we

get an H^s solution $g = f^* \overset{\circ}{g}$ on $R_{\mu\nu} = 0$

(* denote pull back map, p24 of Fischer and Marsden)

Our main interest in these notes are not the technical details but to see how the Einstein equations can be put in symmetric hyperbolic form.

To see how this is done we need a few computational identities.

(i)

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu}^{(h)} + \frac{1}{2} \left(g_{\mu\nu} \frac{\partial \Gamma^\alpha}{\partial x^\nu} + g_{\nu\alpha} \frac{\partial \Gamma^\alpha}{\partial x^\mu} \right)$$

where

$$(ii) \quad R_{\mu\nu}^{(h)} = -\frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\alpha \partial x^\beta} + H_{\mu\nu} \left(g^{\alpha\beta}, \frac{\partial g^{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\lambda} \right)$$

and

(iii)

$$H_{\mu\nu} \left(g^{\alpha\beta}, \frac{\partial g^{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\lambda} \right) = g^{\alpha\beta} g_{\beta\alpha} \Gamma_{\mu\beta}^\rho \Gamma_{\nu\alpha}^\sigma + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial g^{\alpha\mu}}{\partial x^\alpha} \Gamma^\alpha + g_{\mu\lambda} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\lambda g^{\alpha\gamma} g^{\beta\delta} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x^\mu} + g_{\mu\lambda} \Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^\lambda g^{\alpha\gamma} g^{\beta\delta} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x^\nu} \right)$$

Thus (u) represents the Ricci curvature
in harmonic coordinates and (19)

shows that if we are in harmonic
coordinates when $\Gamma^\alpha = 0$ then

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R_{\mu\nu}^{(h)}$$

Note also that $H_{\mu\nu}$ is a homogeneous

quadratic in $\frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\alpha}$ and is rational

in $g_{\mu\nu}$ with nonzero denominator

$\det(g_{\mu\nu})$.

The principal part of the Einstein
vacuum system in harmonic coordinates is

the operator

$$-\frac{1}{2} g^{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^\alpha \partial x^\beta}$$

operates the same way on each component of $g_{\mu\nu}$

so that the highest order terms are

completely uncoupled. Such systems are

said to be weakly coupled and a

particular case of the strictly hyperbolic

systems of Leray (J. Leray, Lectures on

hyperbolic equations with variable coefficients,

Princeton, N.J. Institute for Advanced

Study (1952)) From Leray's theorem

for strictly hyperbolic second order

systems as improved by Dionne

(E. Dionne, Sur les problèmes de

Cauchy bien posés. J. d'Analyse Math.

Jerusalem, 10 1-90 (1962/63)

Y. Choquet-Bruhat (Espaces-temps

euclidiens généraux, choc gravitationnel,

Ann. Inst. H. Poincaré 8 327-338 (1968) ;

Solution C^∞ d'équations hyperboliques

non-linéaires, C. R. Acad Sci

Paris 272, 386-388 (1971).

We reiterate the goal here is
to use first order symmetric hyperbolic
theory and not the second order
Leray theory.

(13)

To set the first order system we first

define $k_{\mu\nu}$ as

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t} = k_{\mu\nu}}$$

(definition of $k_{\mu\nu}$)

Then differentiate to get

$$\frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t \partial x^i} = \frac{\partial k_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^i}$$

(equality of cross
partials)

and then contract

$$\boxed{g^{ij} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t \partial x^i} = g^{ij} \frac{\partial k_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^i}}$$

(since g^{ij} is nonsingular the contracted

and previous non contracted version are equivalent)

Now lets write out

$$R_{\mu\nu}^{(2)} = 0$$

separating the time derivatives from the space derivatives.

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2} g^{00} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t^2} - g^{0j} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t \partial x^j} - \frac{1}{2} g^{ij} \frac{\partial^2 g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^i \partial x^j} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu} (g_{\alpha\beta}, \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\gamma})$$

~

$$0 = -\frac{1}{2} g^{00} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t} - g^{0j} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^j} - \frac{1}{2} g^{ij} \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu,i}}{\partial x^j} + \Gamma_{\mu\nu} (g_{\alpha\beta}, \frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial x^\gamma}, K_{\alpha\beta})$$

↑ where the
t derivative
is the $K_{\alpha\beta}$
term)

~

$$-\frac{1}{2} g^{00} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t} = 2g^{0j} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^j} + g^{ij} \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu,i}}{\partial x^j} - 2\Gamma_{\mu\nu}$$

Let's put the boxed equation in a list

$$\frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t} = K_{\mu\nu}$$

$$g^{ij} \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu,i}}{\partial t} = g^{ij} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^i}$$

$$-g^{00} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial t} = 2g^{0i} \frac{\partial K_{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^i} + g^{ij} \frac{\partial g_{\mu\nu,i}}{\partial x^j} - 2\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^0$$

which are 50 equations for the 50 unknowns.

$$g_{\mu\nu}, \quad g_{\mu\nu,i}, \quad K_{\mu\nu}$$

We express this system in the form

$$A^0(V) \frac{\partial V}{\partial t} = A^i(V) \frac{\partial V}{\partial x^i} + B(V)$$

with

$$A^\circ (g_{\mu\nu}, g_{\mu\nu; \alpha}, \kappa_{\mu\nu}) =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} I^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} \\ 0^{10} & g^{11} I^{10} & g^{12} I^{10} & g^{13} I^{10} & 0^{10} \\ 0^{10} & g^{12} I^{10} & g^{22} I^{10} & g^{23} I^{10} & 0^{10} \\ 0^{10} & g^{13} I^{10} & g^{23} I^{10} & g^{33} I^{10} & 0^{10} \\ 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & -g^{00} I^{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^c (g_{\mu\nu}, g_{\mu\nu,i}, k_{\mu\nu}) =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} \\ 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & g^{ij} I^{10} \\ 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & g^{j2} I^{10} \\ 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & 0^{10} & g^{j3} I^{10} \\ 0^{10} & g^{ij} I^{10} & g^{j2} I^{10} & g^{j3} I^{10} & 2g^{j0} I^{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

where 0^{10} is the 10 by 10 zero matrix

and I^{10} is the 10 by 10 identity matrix

$$B(g_{\mu\nu}, g_{\mu\nu,i}, k_{\mu\nu}) = \begin{bmatrix} k_{\mu\nu} \\ 0^{30} \\ -2 \#_{\mu\nu} (g_{\mu\nu}, g_{\mu\nu,i}, k_{\mu\nu}) \end{bmatrix}$$

and 0^{30} is the 30 component zero vector.

Since $g_{00} < 0$, g_{ij} is positive definite,

we see A^0 is positive definite and

A^0, A^j are symmetric. Thus the system

is symmetric hyperbolic and the

Fischer - Marsden existence theorem

applies giving a unique solution $g_{\mu\nu}$ in H^s

satisfying $R_{\mu\nu}^{(4)} = 0$. Furthermore

from our Lemma if the initial data

satisfies $\check{C}_\mu = 0, \check{\Gamma}^K = 0$ then

$\Gamma^K = 0$ and Case A is proven.

We refer the reader to the

Fischer and Marsden paper for Case B.