

Lecture # 13 GEODESICS

Last time we studied Hamilton's equations on T^*M with

$$H = \frac{1}{2} p_\mu g^{\mu\nu} p_\nu$$

and found that $\frac{d}{dt} = \{H, \cdot\}_{PB} = \omega^{-1}(dH, d\cdot)$ ↖ Poisson Lie vector

implied

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}^\mu = g^{\mu\nu} p_\nu & \text{--- (1)} \\ \dot{p}_\mu = -\frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu g^{\rho\sigma} p_\rho p_\sigma & \text{--- (2)} \end{cases}$$

Assume $g^{\mu\nu}$ invertible with inverse $g_{\mu\nu}$

$$g_{\mu\nu} g^{\nu\rho} = \delta_\mu^\rho$$

Then (1) says $p_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\nu$, plugging into (2) yields

$$\frac{d}{dt} (g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\nu) + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu g^{\rho\sigma} g_{\rho\nu} \dot{x}^\nu g_{\sigma\kappa} \dot{x}^\kappa = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow g_{\mu\nu} \ddot{x}^\nu + \dot{x}^\rho \partial_\rho g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\nu + \frac{1}{2} \partial_\mu g^{\rho\sigma} g_{\rho\sigma} \dot{x}^\nu g_{\sigma\kappa} \dot{x}^\kappa = 0$$

But $\dot{M}^{-1} = -M^{-1} \dot{M} M^{-1}$ for matrices so

$$g_{\mu\nu} \ddot{x}^\nu + \dot{x}^\rho \dot{x}^\nu \partial_\rho g_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^\rho \dot{x}^\sigma \partial_\mu g_{\rho\sigma} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{x}^\mu + \dot{x}^\rho \dot{x}^\sigma [g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\rho g_{\sigma\nu} - \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} \partial_\nu g_{\rho\sigma}] = 0$$

Defining

$$\Gamma_{\rho\sigma}^\mu = \frac{1}{2} g^{\mu\nu} [\partial_\rho g_{\sigma\nu} + \partial_\sigma g_{\rho\nu} - \partial_\nu g_{\rho\sigma}]$$

"Christoffel Symbols"

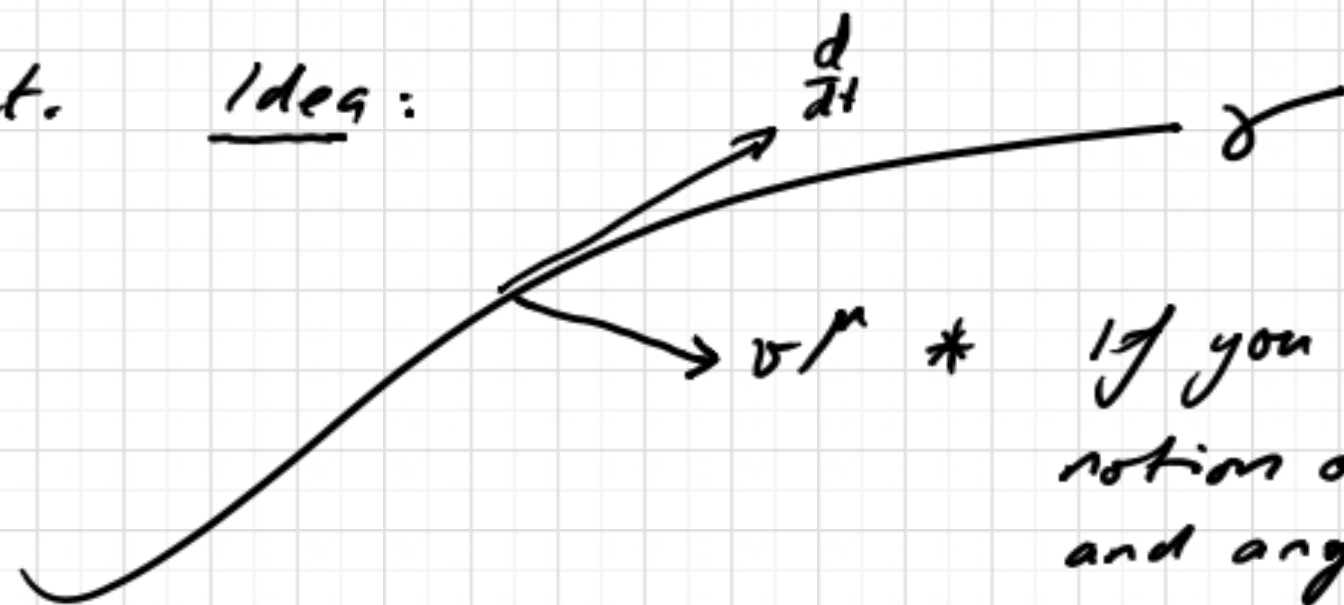
$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \dot{x}^\mu + \dot{x}^\rho \Gamma_{\rho\sigma}^\mu \dot{x}^\sigma = 0$$

For any vector v^μ call

$$\frac{\nabla v^\mu}{dt} \equiv \dot{v}^\mu + \dot{x}^\rho \Gamma_{\rho\sigma}^\mu v^\sigma$$

The equation $\frac{Dv^\mu}{dt} = 0$ is called parallel

transport. Idea:

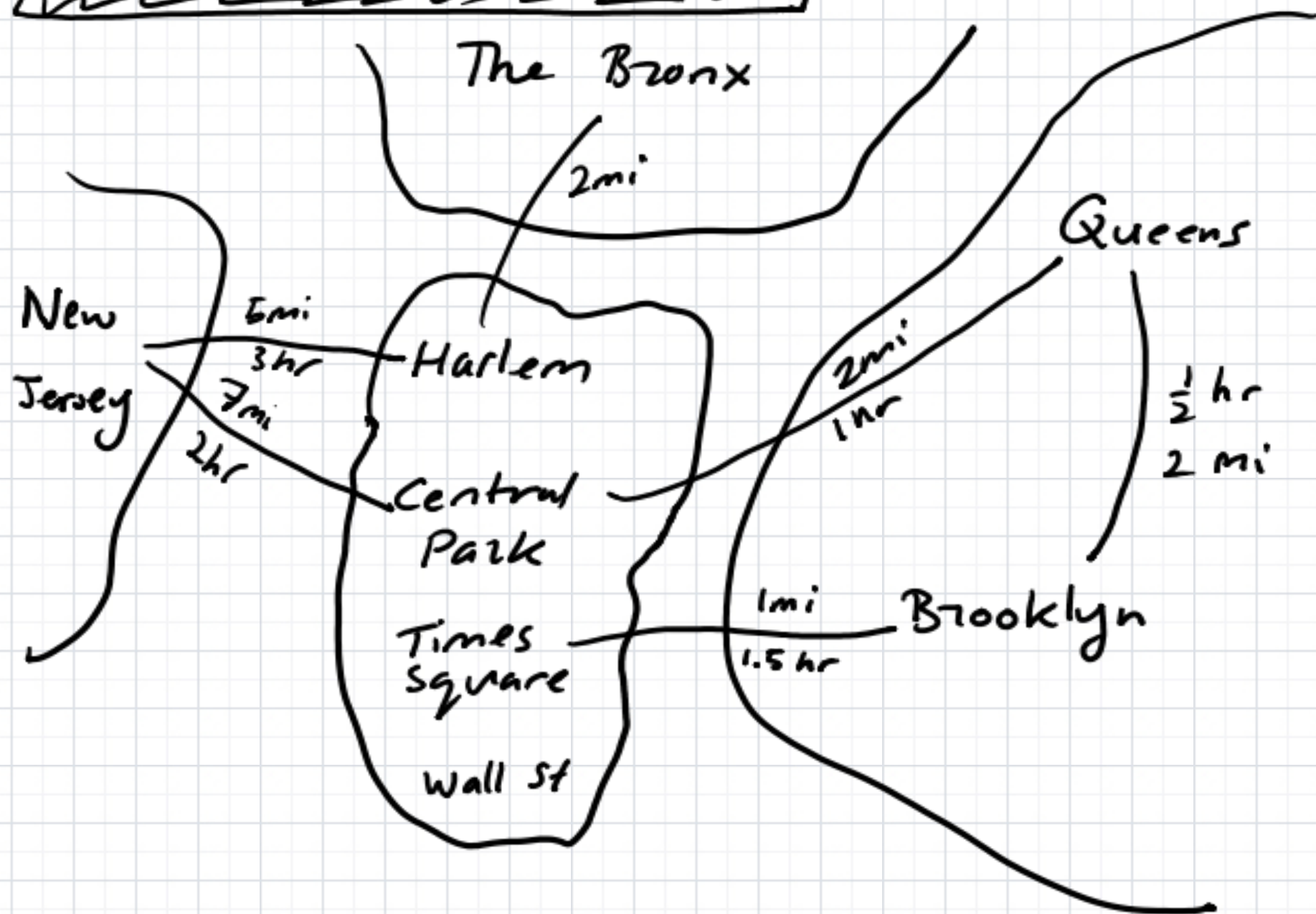


* If you have a notion of lengths and angles between vectors, it corresponds to holding the length and direction of v^μ constant along the path γ .

The requirement $\frac{D\dot{x}^\mu}{dt} = 0$ means that the tangent vector $\dot{x}^\mu$ to γ has a constant length and direction.

Hence γ generalizes a straight line and is called a geodesic (notice that holding the length constant is not necessary here.)

Riemannian Geometry



We often want to measure distances on a manifold.

For a given manifold there are many ways to do this

A table listing distances b/w any pair of points would be cumbersome $\rightarrow$ want local definition.

Idea: Introduce a metric at every point $P \in M$ that measures lengths and angles b/w tangent vectors.

Compute distances along paths by integrating the length of the tangent vector $\dot{\gamma}$ along the path.

Definition: A Riemannian manifold (M, g) is a differentiable manifold equipped with a (2) tensor field g , called the metric tensor, which satisfies

(i) g is symmetric:

$$\forall X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}M, \quad g(X, Y) = g(Y, X)$$

(ii) g is differentiable

(iii) g is non degenerate:

$$\forall P \in M$$

$$g_P : \odot^2 T_P M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ satisfies } g(X_P, Y_P) = 0$$

$$\forall X_P \in T_P M \text{ iff } Y_P = 0.$$

We call a Riemannian manifold (a Riemannian structure) proper if g is also positive definite.

$$\text{i.e. } g_p(X_p, X_p) > 0 \quad \forall \quad X_p \in T_p M, \quad p \in M, \quad X_p \neq 0$$

Otherwise we say (M, g) is pseudo/semi Riemannian.

The tensor g is often called the line element and in coordinates written

$$\begin{aligned} g = ds^2 &= g_{ij} dx^i \otimes dx^j & g_{ij} &= g_{ji} \\ &= g_{ij} dx^i \odot dx^j \\ &= g_{ij} dx^i dx^j \end{aligned}$$

Some famous metrics

$\mathbb{R}^2$ $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2$ standard metric on the plane

$\mathbb{H}$ $ds^2 = \frac{dx^2 + dy^2}{y^2}$ Lobachevskii's non-Euclidean geometry on upper $\frac{1}{2}$ plane $y > 0$ (sometimes called Poincaré disc or 2-dimensional hyperbolic space).

dS_4 $ds^2 = -dt^2 + e^{2Mt} d\vec{x}^2$ de Sitter space (our universe).

S^2 $d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2$ standard metric on the sphere

$ds^2 = -\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2$ Schwarzschild black hole

$\mathbb{R}^{3,1}$ $ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2$ Flat "Minkowski" spacetime.

The metric tensor g gives $T_p M$ an inner product

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \odot^2 T_p M \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

via

$$(\nu, \omega) = g_p(\nu, \omega), \text{ when } (M, g) \text{ is } \underline{\text{proper}}.$$

In turn $\|\nu\| = \sqrt{g_p(\nu, \nu)}$ is a norm.

Since $g_{ij} = g_p(e_i, e_j)$, the components of g in some basis $\{e_i\}$ for $T_p M$, is a symmetric, non-degenerate, positive matrix the norm & inner product properties follow trivially.

In fact, at a point P , we can always find a basis for any metric g where
 $(g_{ij}) = \text{diag}(\pm 1, \pm 1, \dots, \pm 1).$

The signature of g is the number of plus and minus signs, for example, $\mathbb{R}^{3,1}$ is $(-, +, +, +)$.

For the pseudo-Riemannian case, can still define $\|v\|^2 = g_p(v, v)$ and call $v \in T_p M$

- (i) timelike $\|v\|^2 < 0$ "real particles"
- (ii) null/lightlike/isotropic $\|v\|^2 = 0$ "light"
- (iii) spacelike $\|v\|^2 > 0$ "tachyons"

