

Geodesics in Linear Dilaton Spacetime

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Abstract

Here we derive the solutions to the geodesic equation for the linear dilaton metric.

1 Introduction

The linear dilaton metric can be written like this:

$$ds^2 = -y^2 dt^2 + dy^2 + y^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d-1} (dx^i)^2. \quad (1)$$

This metric can be express like a diagonal matrix:

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-y^2, 1, y^2, \dots, y^2). \quad (2)$$

The inverse metric:

$$g^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-y^{-2}, 1, y^{-2}, \dots, y^{-2}). \quad (3)$$

It's important to note that the metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ is independent of the coordinates $x^\mu \neq y$. Then, there are d Killing Vectors, one related to conserved energy:

$$K^\mu = (\partial_t)^\mu \quad (4)$$

and $d - 1$ related to conserved momentum in x^i direction:

$$R^\mu = (\partial_i)^\mu. \quad (5)$$

The conserved quantities will be:

$$E = -K_\mu \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} = y^2 \frac{dt}{d\lambda} \quad (6)$$

and

$$P^i = R_\mu \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} = y^2 \frac{dx^i}{d\lambda}. \quad (7)$$

For massless particles, E is the energy and P^i is the momentum in x^i direction, while for massive particles is the energy or momentum per unit of mass of the particle. The trajectory of a free particle will be such that it conserves this quantities.

The four-velocity of the particle obeys the normalization:

$$U^\mu U_\mu = -\epsilon, \quad (8)$$

where $\epsilon = 1$ for massive particles and $\epsilon = 0$ for massless particles. From the normalization condition:

$$-y^2 \left(\frac{dt}{d\lambda} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\lambda} \right)^2 + y^2 \sum_i \left(\frac{dx^i}{d\lambda} \right)^2 = -\epsilon. \quad (9)$$

Substituting the conserved quantities E and P^i :

$$\left(\frac{dy}{d\lambda} \right)^2 = -\epsilon + \frac{1}{y^2} \left[E^2 - \sum_i (P^i)^2 \right], \quad (10)$$

which is the geodesic equation for y . The conserved quantity in square brackets will be recurrent, so we will call it K^2 :

$$K^2 = E^2 - \sum_i (P^i)^2, \quad (11)$$

and the geodesic equation becomes:

$$\left(\frac{dy}{d\lambda} \right)^2 = -\epsilon + \frac{K^2}{y^2}. \quad (12)$$

2 Timelike Geodesics

A massive particle will follow a timelike path in spacetime where the normalization of the four-velocity is $\epsilon = 1$. Then, the geodesic equation for y is:

$$\frac{dy}{d\tau} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{K^2}{y^2} - 1}. \quad (13)$$

We put $\lambda = \tau$, being τ the proper time of the particle. The solution for this equation is:

$$\boxed{y(\tau) = \pm \sqrt{K^2 - \tau^2}}, \quad (14)$$

where $-K \leq \tau \leq K$. The trajectory of the particle depends on the sign of \dot{y} . If $\dot{y} > 0$, then the particle will describe a semicircle in negative side of y axis that starts and ends at $y = 0$. But, if $\dot{y} < 0$, the semicircle will be in positive side of y axis, starting and ending at $y = 0$. The fact that the geodesic is incomplete (ends in a finite proper time) is a reflection of the fact that the metric has a singularity at $y = 0$.

It's easy to find the parametric equations for t and x^i . We get the equations 6 and 7, and substitute the solution for y . We find the differential equations:

$$\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{E}{K^2 - \tau^2} \quad (15)$$

and

$$\frac{dx^i}{d\tau} = \frac{P^i}{K^2 - \tau^2}, \quad (16)$$

that have solutions:

$$t(\tau) = \frac{E}{K} \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{K} \right) \quad (17)$$

and

$$x^i(\tau) = \frac{P^i}{K} \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau}{K} \right). \quad (18)$$

The parametric equations are defined only for $-K \leq \tau \leq K$. For $\tau \rightarrow -K$, t and x^i tends to negative infinity. And, for $\tau \rightarrow K$, t and x^i tends to positive infinity.

Using the results above, we find that the motion in the $x-t$ plane will be a straight line just like in flat space:

$$x^i = \frac{P^i}{E} t. \quad (19)$$

We see that the motion in the $x-t$ plane is not bounded, unlike motion in the $y-t$ plane that obeys:

$$y = \pm K \operatorname{sech} \left(\frac{K}{E} t \right). \quad (20)$$

When $t \rightarrow \infty$ or $t \rightarrow -\infty$, $y \rightarrow 0$. The particle that starts on the positive side of the y axis will stay on that side forever, and the same goes for the particle that starts on the negative side of the y axis. The two regions, $y > 0$ and $y < 0$ are separate regions and a particle following a geodesic path cannot cross $y = 0$ from one side to the other.

3 Null Geodesics

A massless particle will follow a null geodesic where $\epsilon = 0$. The equation 12 becomes:

$$\frac{dy}{d\lambda} = \pm \frac{K}{y}, \quad (21)$$

that has the solution:

$$y(\lambda) = \sqrt{\pm 2K\lambda}. \quad (22)$$

For a particle going forward ($\dot{y} > 0$), $\lambda \geq 0$, the particle starts in $y = 0$ and goes to negative or positive infinity. But, for a particle going inward ($\dot{y} < 0$), $\lambda \leq 0$, and the particle goes to $y = 0$ when $\lambda = 0$.

Using the equations 6 and 7, we can find the other parametric equations, which are solutions to the differential equations:

$$\frac{dt}{d\lambda} = \frac{E}{y^2} = \pm \frac{E}{2K\lambda} \quad (23)$$

and

$$\frac{dx^i}{d\lambda} = \frac{P^i}{y^2} = \pm \frac{P^i}{2K\lambda}. \quad (24)$$

We have the solutions:

$$t(\lambda) = \frac{E}{2K} \ln \lambda, \text{ for } \lambda > 0 \quad (25)$$

$$t(\lambda) = \frac{-E}{2K} \ln (-\lambda), \text{ for } \lambda < 0 \quad (26)$$

and

$$x^i(\lambda) = \frac{P^i}{2K} \ln \lambda, \text{ for } \lambda > 0 \quad (27)$$

$$x^i(\lambda) = \frac{-P^i}{2K} \ln (-\lambda), \text{ for } \lambda < 0 \quad (28)$$

The motion in the $x - t$ plane:

$$x^i = \left(\frac{P^i}{E} \right) t. \quad (29)$$

The motion in $y - t$ plane:

$$y = \sqrt{2K} e^{\pm \frac{K}{E} t}, \quad (30)$$

where the positive sign is for $\lambda > 0$ and the negative sign for $\lambda < 0$.

4 Geodesic Distance

For a timelike geodesic, the spacetime distance between two points in a geodesic is $\Delta\tau = \tau_2 - \tau_1$. The idea is write an expression to $\Delta\tau$ using $t_1, t_2, y_1, y_2, x_1^i$ and x_2^i . First, note that

$$\Delta t^2 - \sum_i (\Delta x^i)^2 = \left[\tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_2}{K} \right) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_1}{K} \right) \right]^2. \quad (31)$$

Using the logarithmic definition of arctanh, we can prove that

$$\tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_2}{K} \right) - \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{\tau_1}{K} \right) = \tanh^{-1} \left(\frac{K \Delta\tau}{K^2 - \tau_2 \tau_1} \right). \quad (32)$$

Thus,

$$\frac{K \Delta\tau}{K^2 - \tau_2 \tau_1} = \tanh \left(\sqrt{\Delta t^2 - \sum_i (\Delta x^i)^2} \right). \quad (33)$$

To leave one variable less, we will always substitute τ_2 by $\Delta\tau + \tau_1$. For simplicity, we can also do $a = \tanh \left(\sqrt{\Delta t^2 - \sum_i (\Delta x^i)^2} \right)$. Therefore, the expression above becomes

$$\frac{K \Delta\tau}{K^2 - \tau_1 \Delta\tau - \tau_1^2} = a, \quad (34)$$

where we have the variables K and τ_1 to be replaced by y_1 and y_2 . The square root in 14 will be a problem. But we can calculate two equations, which is exactly what we need to substitute the two variables. First, we calculate

$$y_1^2 - y_2^2 = \Delta\tau^2 + 2\tau_1 \Delta\tau. \quad (35)$$

Second, the equation

$$y_1^2 = K^2 - \tau_1^2. \quad (36)$$

From the first equation, we have

$$\tau_1 \Delta\tau = \frac{y_1^2 - y_2^2 - \Delta\tau^2}{2}. \quad (37)$$

And, from the second equation

$$K^2 = y_1^2 + \tau_1^2. \quad (38)$$

Substituting the first equation into the second, we find

$$K^2 = y_1^2 + \frac{(y_1^2 - y_2^2 - \Delta\tau^2)^2}{4\Delta\tau^2}. \quad (39)$$

Bringing back the equation 34, and replacing K and τ_1 by the expressions above

$$\sqrt{y_1^2 + \frac{(y_1^2 - y_2^2 - \Delta\tau^2)^2}{4\Delta\tau^2}} \Delta\tau = a \left(\frac{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + \Delta\tau^2}{2} \right). \quad (40)$$

Squaring both sides of the equation:

$$\left[y_1^2 + \frac{(y_1^2 - y_2^2 - \Delta\tau^2)^2}{4\Delta\tau^2} \right] \Delta\tau^2 = \frac{a^2}{4} (y_1^2 + y_2^2 + \Delta\tau^2)^2. \quad (41)$$

Developing this expression, we find a polynomial of fourth degree in $\Delta\tau$:

$$(1 - a^2)\Delta\tau^4 + 2[2y_1^2 - a^2(y_1^2 + y_2^2) - (y_1^2 - y_2^2)] \Delta\tau^2 + (y_1^2 - y_2^2)^2 - a^2(y_1^2 + y_2^2)^2 = 0. \quad (42)$$

We call the coefficients

$$A = 1 - a^2 = \text{sech}^2 z \quad (43)$$

$$B = 2[2y_1^2 - a^2(y_1^2 + y_2^2) - (y_1^2 - y_2^2)] = 2(y_1^2 + y_2^2) \text{sech}^2 z \quad (44)$$

$$C = (y_1^2 + y_2^2)^2 - a^2(y_1^2 + y_2^2)^2 = (y_1^2 - y_2^2)^2 - \tanh^2 z (y_1^2 + y_2^2), \quad (45)$$

where $z = \sqrt{\Delta t^2 - \sum_i (\Delta x^i)^2}$. Therefore, we must solve the following polynomial. We can find the roots of this polynomial by making the substitution $\chi = \Delta\tau^2$:

$$A\chi^2 + B\chi + C = 0, \quad (46)$$

has roots

$$\chi = \Delta\tau^2 = \frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}. \quad (47)$$

I.e.,

$$\Delta\tau = \sqrt{\frac{-B \pm \sqrt{B^2 - 4AC}}{2A}}. \quad (48)$$

Doing all the algebra, we find that:

$$\Delta\tau = \sqrt{\pm 2y_1y_2 \cosh z - y_1^2 - y_2^2}. \quad (49)$$

As we have seen, equation 14 describes a particle that never crosses $y = 0$. Therefore, y_1 and y_2 always have the same sign. For the geodesic distance $\Delta\tau$ to be a real number, then the sign of the term $2y_1y_2 \cosh z$ must be positive. So, the geodesic distance is

$$\Delta\tau = \sqrt{2y_1y_2 \cosh \left(\sqrt{\Delta t^2 - \sum_i (\Delta x^i)^2} \right) - y_1^2 - y_2^2}. \quad (50)$$

References

- [1] Carroll, Sean M. *Spacetime and geometry*. Cambridge University Press, 2019.