Physics 226

University of the Philippines - Diliman

Instructor: Dr. Ian Vega

Physics 226 - Lecture Notes

Lemuel Gavin Saret SN: 2015-01971

1 Week 1: September 23, 2021

We start with the Schwarzschild black hole system with coordinates, (t, r, θ, ϕ) , and metric given by

$$ds^{2} = -\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)dt^{2} + \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{-1}dr^{2} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2},\tag{1..1}$$

with $d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$. This is a solution because it is a unique spherically symmetric solution to the vacuum Einstein equation.

Einstein equation: $G_{ab} = 8\pi T_{ab}$

Vacuum Einstein equation: $G_{ab} = R_{ab} = 0$ (No source/matter field)

Consider the system given in Fig. ??,

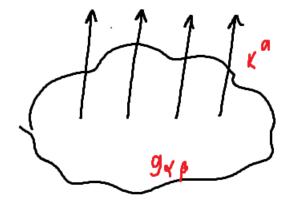


Figure 1: Star system described by the g_{ab} metric and a surrounding $g_{schwarz}$ metric. We match these two metrics similar to the methods in boundary value problems.

Definition: Static - A special case of stationary spacetimes.

Definition: Stationary A spacetime is stationary if it admits a time-like, hypersurface, killing vector k^a such that $g_{ab}k^ak^b < 0$ with metric signature (-, +, +, +).

Suppose we have a manifold



We have the Killing's equation $\mathcal{L}_k g = 0 \iff \nabla_{(a} k_{b)} = 0$, where \mathcal{L}_k is Lie derivative. We define the symmetrization and antisymmetrization symbol

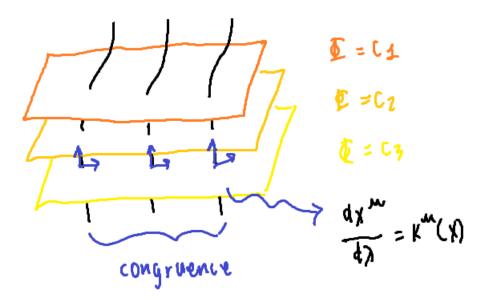
$$\nabla_{(a}k_{b)} = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla_{a}k_{b} + \nabla_{b}k_{a}) = 0 \tag{1..2}$$

$$\nabla_{[a}k_{b]} = \frac{1}{2}(\nabla_a k_b - \nabla_b k_a) = 0 \tag{1..3}$$

Definition: Hypersurface orthogonal There exists a scalar function Φ and f. If we can write the normal/dual vector k_a in the form of

$$k_a = -f\nabla_a \phi, \tag{1..4}$$

where $\nabla_a \Phi = (\partial_a \Phi) dx^a$, then there exists hypersurface $\Phi(x^\mu) = \text{constant}$.



where $x^{\mu}(\lambda)$ is $(t(\lambda), x(\lambda), \theta(\lambda), \phi(\lambda))$. The requirement for orthogonality $g_{ab}k^at^b = 0$ where we say that $k \perp t$.

Consider a hypersurface

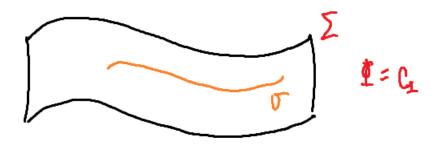


Figure 2: Hypersurface Σ with $\sigma = x^{\mu}(s)$, where s is a parameter along the curve.

Since the curves are found in σ , we have $\frac{d\Phi}{ds}$.

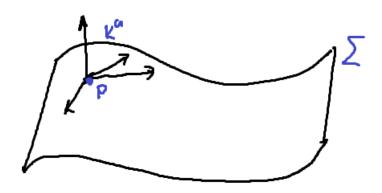
$$\frac{d\Phi}{ds} = \frac{d\Phi(x^{\mu}(s))}{ds} = \Phi_{,\mu} \frac{dx\mu}{ds} = \Phi_{,\mu} t^{\mu} = 0$$
 (1..5)

where $\Phi_{,\mu}$ = gradient and t^{μ} = arbitrary tangent vector on σ . Since $k_{\mu} = -f\Phi_{,\mu}$ from our discussion on the definition of hypersurface orthogonal, then

$$k_{\mu}t^{\mu} = 0 \tag{1..6}$$

How do we prove the inverse? How do we show that $k_{\mu}=-f\Phi$ when we know that $k_{\mu}t^{\mu}$?

Proof: Suppose that $k_a t^a = 0$ for all tangent vectors t^a to Σ



Note: $t^a = \text{vector}, t_a = \text{one form}$

Consider a point p in Σ , there exists 3 independent tangent vectors $t_{(i)}^a$; i = 1, 2, 3 that

are orthogonal to k^a . From these we can write down 3 conditions

$$t_{(i)}^a k_a = 0, \quad t_{(i)}^\mu k_\mu = 0 \quad \text{(component form)},$$
 (1..7)

which results to us having 3 linear equations but 4 unknowns from the 4 components of $k_{\mu} = (k_0, k_1, k_2, k_3)$. Since we cant solve for these 4 unknowns with only 3 equations we rescale k_{μ} in such a way that that we can factor out k_0 to decrease the number of unknowns to 3

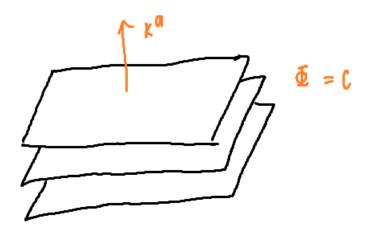
$$k_{\mu} = k_0(1, k_i). \tag{1..8}$$

Now we verify that $k_{\mu}t^{\mu}_{(i)} = 0$ is a solution to these equations. However we can also express $t^{\mu}_{(i)}\Phi_{,\mu} = 0$. Now since we know these 2 equations solves the same set of equations then we know that k_{μ} should be proportional to $\Phi_{,\mu}$. We then conclude that

$$k_a = -f\nabla_a \Phi \tag{1..9}$$

for some factor f.

Coordinates for a static spacetime



Choose x^0 such that k^a corresponds to $\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0}$. x^0 needs to be the parameter that changes as we move along the integral curve. Meanwhile, $\{x^i\}$ is tangent to Σ and labels the integral curves that we are studying.

We can then get the component of the metric

$$g_{00} = g(\partial_0, \partial_0) < 0$$
 (because time-like curve) (1..10)

and

$$g_{0i} = g(\partial_0, \partial_i) = g_{ab} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_0}\right)^a \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}\right)^b = 0$$
 (1..11)

Therefore, we can choose a line element with coordinates that follow the following equation

$$ds^{2} = g_{00}(x^{\mu})(dx^{0})^{2} + g_{ij}(x^{\mu})dx^{i}dx^{j} = g_{\mu\nu}dx^{\mu}dx^{\nu}$$
(1..12)

2 Week 2: September 28 and September 30, 2021

In choosing $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)^a = K$, the components of the killing flow is K = (1, 0, 0, 0).

Note: We can also set $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda}\right)^a = K$, which will lead to our killing flow to admit the following components: $((\partial \lambda/\partial t)^{-1}, 0, 0, 0)$.

How does this choice help us?

We have,

$$g_{00} = g(\partial_0, \partial_0) \neq 0 \tag{2..1}$$

$$g_{ij} = g(\partial_i, \partial_j) \tag{2..2}$$

$$g_{0i} = g(\partial_0, \partial_i) = 0 \tag{2..3}$$

We can then evaluate the Lie derivative of a (0,2) tensor

$$\mathcal{L}_{k}g = 0 = k^{\mu}\partial_{\mu}g_{\alpha\beta} + g_{\alpha\beta}k^{\mu}_{,\beta} + g_{\mu\beta}k^{\mu}_{,\alpha}. \tag{2..4}$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial g_{\alpha\beta}}{\partial t} = 0 \tag{2..5}$$

and conclude that the metric components don't necessarily depend on time.

Note: $\mathcal{L}_k g = 0$ (static)

Our metric then simplify into

$$ds^{2} = g_{00}(x^{i})dt^{2} + g_{ij}(x^{k})dx^{i}dx^{j}, (2..6)$$

which is our general ansatz for static spacetimes.

Aside from beign stationary, the Schwarzschild metric is also under spatial symmetry. We will write

$$x^i = r, \theta, \phi. \tag{2..7}$$

This allows our metric to be written in this form

$$ds^{2} = A(r)dt^{2} + B(r)dr^{2} + C(r)d\Omega^{2}$$
(2..8)

where $d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin\theta d\phi^2$.

We can simplify this metric by setting

$$C(r) = R^2 \tag{2..9}$$

$$C'dr = 2RdR (2..10)$$

$$dr = \frac{2RdR}{C'} \tag{2..11}$$

therefore the metric is given by

 $ds^2 = F(R) + G(R)dR^2 + R^2d\Omega^2 \longrightarrow \text{standard form for static spherically symmetric metric}$ (2..12)

where the coefficients are defined as

$$F(R) = A(r(R)) \tag{2..13}$$

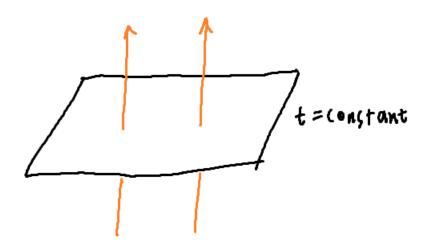
$$G(R) = \frac{4r^2}{(C')^2}B(r(R))$$
 (2..14)

Renaming the labels

$$ds^{2} = F(r)dt^{2} + G(r)dr^{2} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2}$$
(2..15)

We consider

$$K^{\alpha} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$
 and $\mathcal{L}_k g = 0$ (2..16)



Let us look at the t= constant, and $\theta,\phi=$ constant surface. In this case we would have $dl^2=G(r)dr^2$ or $l=\int G(r)dr$.

If we now t, r = constant surfaces, the line element along the surface would reduce to

$$ds^2 = r^2 d\Omega^2. (2..17)$$

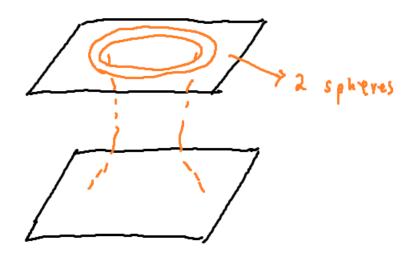
Just like in euclidean and schwarzschild space, the area would still be $A=4\pi r^2$. In fact,



this is true for all metrics that follow the form

$$ds^{2} = F(r)dt^{2} + G(r)dr^{2} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2}$$
(2..18)

where $r = \sqrt{\frac{A}{4\pi}}$ is the areal radius and is the geometric meaning of r.



Important: Geometry supplies the meaning of the coordinates. Going back to the schwarzschild metric

$$ds^{2} = -\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)dt^{2} + \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right)^{-1}dr^{2} + r^{2}d\Omega^{2}$$
(2..19)

where M is the schwarzschild mass.

Next consider the geodesics around schwarzschild

The angular frequency will depend on r

$$\left(\frac{d\phi}{dt}\right)^2 = \Omega^2 = \frac{M}{r^2}$$
 (Kepler's law) (2..20)

Remember, our metric becomes singular at r = 0, 2M. To check this if this is caused by a bad choice of coordinates, since metrics aren't measureable, we check the Riemann curvature or the 2nd derivative of the metric. We set $g = \eta$ and the Christoffel symbols as $\partial g = \Gamma = 0$. This is the principle of equivalence.

The non-zero components of the riemann tensors are

$$R_{rtr}^{t} = -\frac{2M}{r^3} \left(1 - \frac{2M}{r} \right)^{-1} \tag{2..21}$$

$$R_{\theta t\theta}^t = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} R_{\phi t\phi}^t = \frac{M}{r^5} \tag{2..22}$$

$$R_{\theta r\theta}^r = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} R_{\phi r\phi}^r = -\frac{M}{r^5} \tag{2..23}$$

$$R_{\phi\theta\phi}^{\theta} = \frac{2M}{r^5} \sin^2 \theta \tag{2..24}$$

We have 20 components of the riemann tensor but for the Schwarzschild case, only 4 of them are non-zero.

Curvature invariants: To avoid dependence on coordinates we look at scalars. But how do we find these scalars? We get the contractions/combining curvature components.

Contraction of Ricci:
$$R^{\mu\nu}R_{\mu\nu} = 0$$
 (2..25)

Contraction of Riemann:
$$R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}R^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta} = \frac{48M^2}{R^6} = K_1$$
 (2..26)

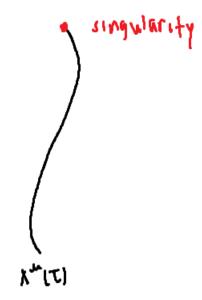
$$\epsilon_{\mu\nu}\rho^{\sigma}R^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta}R_{\rho\sigma\alpha\beta}$$
 (2..27)

$$R^{\mu\nu\alpha\beta;\sigma}R_{\mu\nu\alpha\beta;\sigma} \tag{2..28}$$

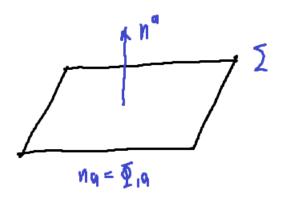
Let us look at the Kretschmann scalar, $K_1 = \frac{48M^2}{R^6}$, which is completely independent of coordinates. Notice that it is now not singular at r = 2M. From our curvature invariant computation we see that the "singularity" at r = 2M is just an apparent/coordinate singularity while the r = 0 singularity is a curvature singularity.

Definition: Singularity - "belong to the manifold", reachable, geodesics can reach the offending point at finite affine parameter (geodesic completeness).

If the range of λ spans the entire $(-\infty, \infty)$ then the geodesics is complete. If any of your geodesics are incomplete then we have a singularity.



Definition: Hypersurfaces - Consider a hypersurface Σ , $\Phi(x^{\mu}) = 0$, let $p \in \Sigma$ and n^a be perpedicular to Σ at p.



Any t^a (tangent vector) is perpendicular to n^a $x^{\alpha}(\lambda)t^{\alpha}=\frac{dx^{\alpha}}{d\lambda}$ and $n_{\alpha}t^{\alpha}=\frac{d\Phi}{d\lambda}=0$. Go to a local inertial frame at p. We have the local minkowski spacetime to be

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dx^i dx_i. (2..29)$$

Rotate the spatial axis so that it only has one spatial coordiate such as

$$n_a = (n^0, n^1, 0, 0),$$
 (2..30)

where the tangent vector has coordinates

$$t^{a} = (t^{0}, t^{1}, t^{2}, t^{3}). (2..31)$$

Therefore,

$$n_a t^a = -n^0 t^0 + n^1 t^1 = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{t^0}{t^1} = \frac{n^1}{n^0}$$
 (2..32)

We can rewrite

$$t^{a} = \left(t^{1} \frac{n^{1}}{n^{0}}, t^{1}, t^{2}, t^{3}\right) = \frac{t^{1}}{n^{0}}(n^{1}, n^{0}, a, b).$$
(2..33)

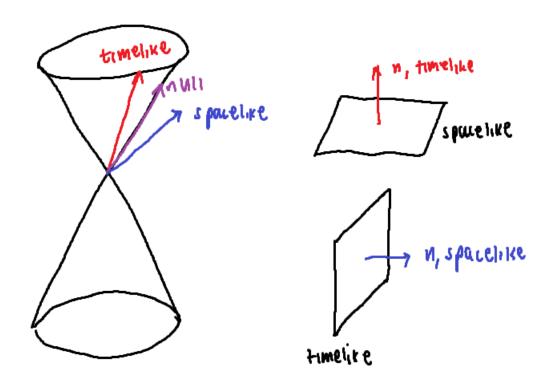
Therefore, the tangent vector can be rewritten as

$$t^{a} = \Lambda(n^{1}, n^{0}, a, b) \tag{2..34}$$

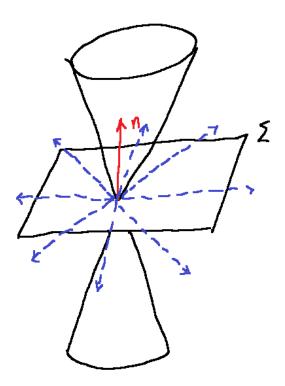
while the normal vector normal to Σ can be rewritten as

$$n_a = (n_0, n_1, 0, 0) (2..35)$$

Definition: Σ_p is spacelike, timelike, or null at p depending on the normal n. If n^a is timelike, then Σ is spacelike at p. If n^a is spacelike, then Σ is timelike at p. Lastly, if n^a is null, then Σ is null at p.

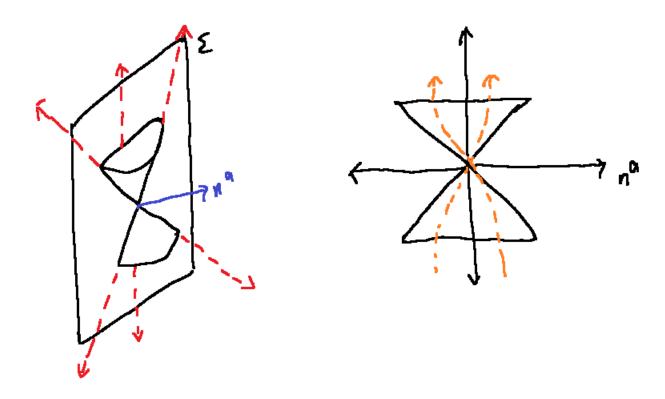


Cases: 1: $n^a n_a < 0$ (Σ is spacelike) then $t^a t_a = \Lambda^2 (-n_a n^a + (a^2 + b^2)\Phi) > 0$. We conclude that t^a is spacelike. Therefore, all curves passing through t must be spacelike on t.

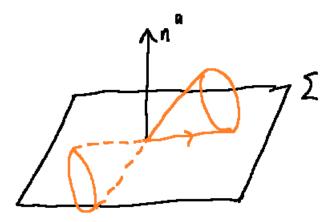


Therefore, if Σ is spacelike then Σ can be crossed in 1 direction by causal curves.

2: $n^a n_a > 0$ (Σ is timelike). If this is the case then t^a can be spacelike, timelike, or null. We conclude from the figure below that Σ can be crossed in both directions by causal curves.



3: $n^a n_a = 0$ Then $t^a t_a \ge 0$ where $t^a t_a = 0$ if a = 0, b = 0.



From the figure above we know that Σ can only crossed in 1 direction.

Let us then consider a constant-r hypersurface of schwarzschild

$$\Phi(x^{\alpha}) = r - \text{constant} = 0 \tag{2..36}$$

then

$$n_a n^a = g_{ab} n_a n_b = g^{rr} \left(\frac{d\Phi}{dr}\right)^2 = g^{rr} = 1 - \frac{2M}{r}$$
 (2..37)

Since

$$n_a = \Phi_{,a} = \left(0, \frac{d\Phi}{dr}, 0, 0\right)$$
 (2..38)

therefore when

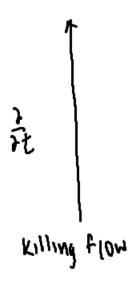
$$r > 2M$$
, Σ is timelike (2..39)

$$r = 2M$$
, Σ is null (2..40)

$$r < 2M$$
, Σ is spacelike $(2..41)$

Notice that the transition in the normal vector coincides with the transition of the killing vector from timelike to spacelike.

Consider the killing flow in the timelike direction



Killing vector: $k^a = (1, 0, 0, 0)$

$$k^a k_a = g_{ab} = k^a k^b = g^{tt} (2..42)$$

$$= -\left(1 - \frac{2M}{r}\right) \tag{2..43}$$

When r > 2M, $k^a k_a < 0$. Therefore k^a is timelike. Likewise, when r = 0, when r < 2M, $k^a k_a < 0$. Therefore, the r = 0 singularity is a singularity in time.

3 Week 3: October 5

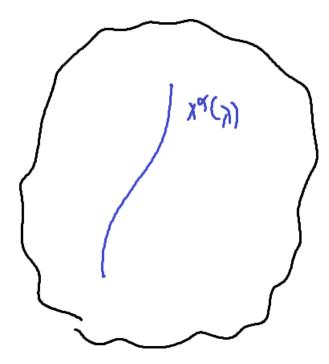
Singularities on Schwarzschild:

1. $r = 2M \longrightarrow$ null hypersurface

2. $r = 0 \longrightarrow \text{spacelike hypersurface or t=constant}$

Singularities \longrightarrow check curvature invariants

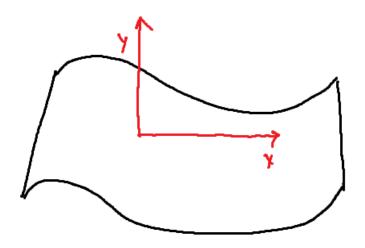
Geodesic completeness



Spacetime is geodesically incomplete if you find a geodesic where the geodesic stops at some fine λ .

Consider a 2 dimensional spatial manifold

$$ds^{2} = \frac{1}{x^{2} + y^{2}}(dx^{2} + dy^{2})$$
(3..1)



We seem to have a singularity at (x,y)=(0,0). If we use the following coordinate

transform

$$x' = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2}$$
 and $y' = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$ (3..2)

which yields

$$ds^{2} = (dx')^{2} + (dy')^{2} \longrightarrow \text{flat space}$$
(3..3)

The singularities are pushed to $(x' = \infty, y' = \infty)$.

Geodesic completeness

- 1. coordinate invariant description of singularities
- 2. **Defn:** a spacetime is geodesically complete if every timelike or null geodesic $x^{\alpha}(\lambda)$ can be extended to arbitrary large values of the affine parameter

Curve γ from some interval $\subset \mathcal{R}$ mapping to some manifold. If the interval is the same as \mathcal{R} then we have a geodesically complete system.

If there exists at least 1 inextendible geodesic then the spacetime is geodesically incomplete and has a singularity where it isnt extendible.

For an affine parameter λ , we have an example

$$(x'(\lambda), y'(\lambda)) = (\lambda, 0) \longrightarrow \text{complete geodesic}$$
 (3..4)

Notice that when we rewrite the above equation in terms of $(x(\lambda), y(\lambda)) = (\frac{1}{\lambda}, 0)$, λ needs to approach infinity fo there to be a singularity.

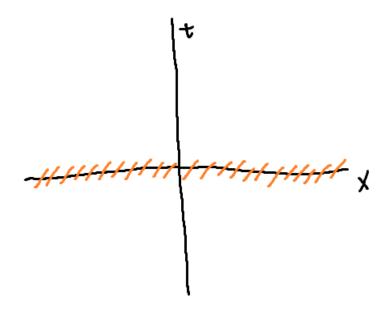
Consider another example

$$ds^2 = -\frac{1}{t^4}dt^2 + dx^2 \tag{3..5}$$

with where the range of t and x are $0 < t < \infty$ and $-\infty < x < \infty$. Notice that this system has a singularity at t = 0. We can make the transformation $t \longrightarrow t' = \frac{1}{t}$ and yield

$$ds^2 = -(dt')^2 + dx^2 (3..6)$$

which is just 2D minkowski.



Consider another example

$$ds^2 = -x^2 dt^2 + dx^2 (3..7)$$

where the range of t and x spans $-\infty < t < \infty$ while x spans $0 < x < \infty$. When x = 0 the determinant of $g_{\mu\nu}$ is zero.

Is this a real singularity/coordinate singularity? We can check that the riemann curvature is 0.

Is x=0 "reachable"? Consider $x^{\mu}(\tau)$ to be a timelike geodesic. We have a killing vector

$$k^{a} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)^{a} = (1,0) \tag{3..8}$$

The contraction between this and the 4-velocity is

$$g_{ab}k^ak^b = \text{constant} (3..9)$$

Let

$$-E = g_{ab}k^b u^b = -x^2 \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau}\right) \tag{3..10}$$

where $u^b = \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau}, \frac{dx}{d\tau}\right)$.

Therefore,

$$\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{E}{x^2} \tag{3..11}$$

We also have the constraint for timelike vector

$$g_{ab}u^a u^b = -1$$
 normalization condition (3..12)

$$-x^{2}\left(\frac{dt}{d\tau}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{dx}{d\tau}\right)^{2} = -1\tag{3..13}$$

We can then get

$$\left(\frac{dx}{d\tau}\right)^2 = \frac{E^2}{x^2} - 1 \longrightarrow \frac{dx}{d\tau} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{E^2}{x^2} - 1} \tag{3..14}$$

Let us choose the in-going one $\frac{dx}{d\tau} = -\sqrt{\frac{E^2}{x^2} - 1}$. Let $x(0) = x_0$.

$$\frac{d\tau}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{E^2}{x^2} - 1}}\tag{3..15}$$

$$\tau(x=0) - \tau(x_0) = -\int_{x_0}^0 \frac{x dx}{\sqrt{E^2 - x^2}}$$

$$\Delta \tau = E - \sqrt{E^2 - x_0^2}$$
(3..16)

$$\Delta \tau = E - \sqrt{E^2 - x_0^2} \tag{3..17}$$

There is a finite proper time that reaches x=0. Therefore, this system is geometrically incomplete since x = 0, which is a singularity, is reachable for some finite time.