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# **Diplomová práce**

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# **Pohyb klasické struny**

Diplomová práce

**Vojtěch Liška**




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# Abstrakt

V této bakalářské/diplomové/rigorózní práci se věnujeme ...

# Abstract

In this thesis we study ...





## ZADÁNÍ DIPLOMOVÉ PRÁCE

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A string moving in spacetime traces out a generalization of a geodesic: a surface of extremal area. In this diploma work we will study the equations that describe the classical motion of strings and membranes and find explicit solutions of classical strings in various spacetimes.

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# Poděkování

Na tomto místě bych chtěl(-a) poděkovat ...

# Prohlášení



Prohlašuji, že jsem svoji bakalářskou / diplomovou / rigorózní práci vypracoval(-  
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Brno 15. května 2019

.....  
Vojtěch Liška



# Contents

	<b>Preamble</b> .....	<b>1</b>
	<b>Kapitola 1. Classical string motion on general background</b> .....	<b>1</b>
	1.1 Motion of classical relativistic particle .....	1
	1.2 String action .....	2
	1.3 Equations of motion .....	3
	1.4 Boundary conditions .....	5
	<b>Kapitola 2. Flat spacetime</b> .....	<b>9</b>
	2.1 Equations of motion and parameterization .....	9
	2.2 Rest energy .....	11
	<b>Kapitola 3. Strings in expanding universe</b> .....	<b>13</b>
	3.1 Lagrange approach .....	14
	3.1.1 Lagrangian and potential .....	14
	3.1.2 Equations of motion and critical points .....	15
	3.2 Conservation of energy .....	20
	3.2.1 Domain of definition .....	20
	3.3 Results conclusion .....	22
	3.4 Check with general equations of motion .....	27
	<b>Kapitola 4. Gravitational wave background</b> .....	<b>29</b>
	4.1 Periodic gravitational wave .....	31
	4.2 Gaussian burst of gravitational wave .....	33
	<b>Conclusion</b> .....	<b>39</b>







# Preamble



In this thesis, we will study the motion of classical relativistic strings on various backgrounds.

In the first chapter, we will show the differences between the action principle for particles and for strings in general relativity. Furthermore, we will find a convenient form of equations of motion and the boundary conditions, that must be imposed on the string's endpoints.

In the second chapter, we will briefly show how the string behaves in flat space-time. We will also show how the choice of parameterization of such a string can help in solving its equations of motion.

In the third chapter, we will be studying a circular string in a constantly expanding universe. We will find a potential for static strings, which will indicate, that there are some critical points, for which the string has a very interesting behaviour. The equations of motion and the conservation of energy will help us find all trajectories in phase space and compare them to trajectories in flat space-time.




The fourth chapter will be concerning strings on plane gravitational wave background. First, we will find a suitable parameterization in which we can solve the equations of motion. Then we will choose two types of gravitational waves, namely periodic gravitational waves and a Gaussian burst of gravitational waves. In the former case we cannot interpret the results as easily as in the later case, where we have flat space-time before and after the burst of gravitational waves. In the former case, we will only look at the stability of solutions, which will hint towards some resonance of the string with the gravitational wave for specific frequencies. In the later case, we will compare the motion of the string before and after the burst of gravitational waves.







# Chapter 1

## Classical string motion on general background


In this chapter, we will develop some fundamental tools for acquiring the equations of motion of a classical relativistic strings. Let us first summarize the motion of a single classical relativistic particle. 


### 1.1 Motion of classical relativistic particle


 In classical relativistic mechanics, a particle moves along a curve in spacetime called a world-line. This curve can be parametrized in many ways, but the physics have to be reparameterization invariant. When we want to find this world-line, we usually use the action principle. The action of a world-line is proportional to its Lorentz invariant "proper length", which in turn is equal to the proper time associated with this world-line times the factor  $c = 1$ . The infinitesimal proper time  $d\lambda$  for a particle with mass takes the form 

  its Lorentz invariant "proper length", which in turn is equal to the proper time associated with this world-line times the factor  $c = 1$ . The infinitesimal proper time  $d\lambda$  for a particle with mass takes the form

$$-d\lambda^2 = ds^2 = g_{MN}(X) dX^M dX^N \quad (1.1)$$

where  $g_{MN}$  is the metric of the spacetime. 

Since the proper time has the units of time, we need an additional multiplicative factor to get the units of action, which is energy  $\times$  time. The energy of a static particle would be  $E = mc^2$ , but we put  $c = 1$ , therefore the multiplicative factor will be  $m$ . Also, since the proper time is always positive, we will add a  $-$  sign so that the action can have a minimal trajectory. This does not change anything from the mathematical point of view, but it is a convention in physics. The action of such a particle is then 

$$S = -m \int d\lambda = - \int \sqrt{-ds^2} \quad \text{} \quad (1.2)$$

If we choose a specific parameter  $\tau$

$$X^M = X^M(\tau),$$

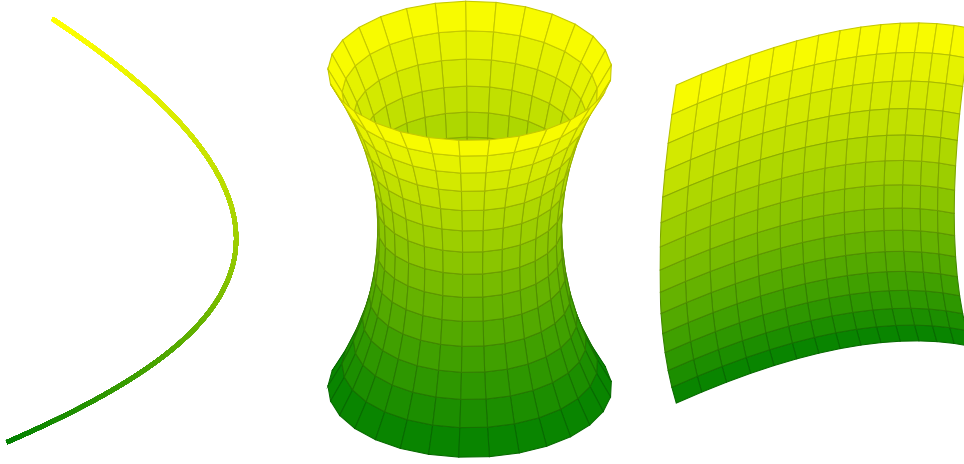



Figure 1.1: Trajectory of a particle (left) vs a closed string (middle) vs an open string (right).

we can express the action in the following form

$$S = -m \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} \sqrt{-g_{MN}(X)} \frac{dX^M}{d\tau} \frac{dX^N}{d\tau} d\tau. \quad (1.3)$$


From the variation of this action, we acquire the geodesic equations (equations of motion) for a particle in a space with metric  $g_{MN}$ .

## 1.2 String action

Let us now turn towards the classical relativistic strings and find the action associated with them. Just as a particle traces out a curve in spacetime called a world-line, a string traces out a two dimensional surface called a world-sheet. There can be two types of strings. A closed string that traces out a tube and an open string that traces out a strip. 

In the previous section, we found that the action of a particle is proportional to its Lorentz invariant “proper length”. In a similar way, we will define a Lorentz invariant “proper area” of a world-sheet. The action of a classical relativistic string, called the Nambu–Goto action, is proportional to this two dimensional proper area  $dA$ .

$$S = -T_0 \int dA, \quad (1.4)$$

where  $T_0$  is again a multiplication factor to get the units of action and has the meaning of tension of the string. 

In order to parameterize the world-sheet, we require two parameters  $\xi^1$  and  $\xi^2$ . The surface is described by the collection of functions

$$X^M = X^M(\xi^1, \xi^2). \quad (1.5)$$

Also, we will call the *target space* the space where the strings propagate. We can define an induced metric on the world-sheet as

$$\gamma_{\alpha\beta} = g_{MN} \frac{dX^M}{d\xi^\alpha} \frac{dX^N}{d\xi^\beta} = g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N. \quad (1.6)$$

The area element  $dA$  can be defined as a square root of the metric. Since we want this element to be expressed in terms of the tangent vectors to the world-sheet  $d\tau$  and  $d\sigma$ , we will use the induced metric.

$$dA = \sqrt{-\det \gamma} d\xi^1 d\xi^2. \quad (1.7)$$

We will name the parameters  $\xi^1 = \tau$  and  $\xi^2 = \sigma$ . Also, since the determinant of the induced metric is always negative, we can drop the absolute value and add a  $-$  sign and we will denote  $\det \gamma$  as  $\gamma$  written without indices. The Nambu-Gotto action of a classical string is then given by

$$\begin{aligned} S &= -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{-\gamma} = -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{\gamma_{\tau\sigma} \gamma_{\sigma\tau} - \gamma_{\tau\tau} \gamma_{\sigma\sigma}} \\ &= -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{(g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\sigma X^N)^2 - (g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\tau X^N) (g_{KL} \partial_\sigma X^K \partial_\sigma X^L)} \end{aligned} \quad (1.8)$$

### 1.3 Equations of motion

To get the equations of motion, we have to take the variation of this action and put it equal to zero. We could immediately insert a metric and choose a coordinate system in which we would get equations of motion after the variation. We will not do that, instead, we will further develop the  $\gamma$  notation and obtain a more convenient general form of equations of motion. The variation of this action takes the form:

$$\delta S = -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \delta \sqrt{-\gamma} = -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \frac{-\delta \gamma}{2\sqrt{-\gamma}} \quad (1.9)$$



Now to find out how the variation of a determinant looks like:

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta(\det \gamma) &= \delta \left( \frac{1}{n!} \varepsilon^{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n} \varepsilon^{\beta_1 \dots \beta_n} \gamma_{\alpha_1 \beta_1} \dots \gamma_{\alpha_n \beta_n} \right) \\
&= \left( \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \varepsilon^{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n} \varepsilon^{\beta_1 \dots \beta_n} \gamma_{\alpha_1 \beta_1} \dots \gamma_{\alpha_{i-1} \beta_{i-1}} \gamma_{\alpha_{i+1} \beta_{i+1}} \dots \gamma_{\alpha_n \beta_n} \right) \delta \gamma_{\alpha_i \beta_i} \\
&= \left( \frac{1}{n!} \varepsilon^{\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n} \varepsilon^{\beta_1 \dots \beta_n} \gamma_{\alpha_1 \beta_1} \dots \gamma_{\alpha_n \beta_n} \right) \gamma^{\alpha_i \beta_i} \delta \gamma_{\alpha_i \beta_i} \\
&= \det(\gamma) \gamma^{\alpha \beta} \delta \gamma_{\alpha \beta}
\end{aligned} \tag{1.10}$$

We can now rewrite the variation of the action as

$$\delta S = T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha \beta} \delta \gamma_{\alpha \beta}. \tag{1.11}$$

Using eq. (1.6) and the fact that the metric components  $g_{MN}$  depend only on  $\vec{X}$ , the variation of the induced metric  $\gamma_{\alpha \beta}$  takes the form:

$$\begin{aligned}
\delta \gamma_{\alpha \beta} &= \delta \left( g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N \right) = \frac{\partial g_{MN}}{\partial X^K} \delta X^K \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N \\
&\quad + g_{MN} \delta \left( \partial_\alpha X^M \right) \partial_\beta X^N + g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta \left( \partial_\beta X^N \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{1.12}$$

Because of the symmetry of both of the metrics  $g_{MN} = g_{NM}$ ,  $\gamma_{\alpha \beta} = \gamma_{\beta \alpha}$  we can show that the second and third terms are the same.

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma^{\alpha \beta} g_{MN} \delta \left( \partial_\alpha X^M \right) \partial_\beta X^N &= \left| \begin{smallmatrix} \alpha \leftrightarrow \beta \\ M \leftrightarrow N \end{smallmatrix} \right| = \gamma^{\beta \alpha} g_{NM} \delta \left( \partial_\beta X^N \right) \partial_\alpha X^M \\
&= \gamma^{\alpha \beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta \left( \partial_\beta X^N \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{1.13}$$

Substituting eq. (1.12) into eq. (1.11) yields:

$$\delta S = -\frac{T_0}{2} \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha \beta} \left( \frac{\partial g_{MN}}{\partial X^K} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N \delta X^K + 2 g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta \delta X^N \right) \tag{1.14}$$

The second term needs to be integrated by parts if we want to factor out  $\delta X^K$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
&-T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha \beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta \left( \delta X^N \right) \\
&= -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \left[ \partial_\beta \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha \beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right) \right. \\
&\quad \left. - \partial_\beta \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha \alpha} g_{MN} \partial_\beta X^M \right) \delta X^N \right]
\end{aligned} \tag{1.15}$$

The first term is in a form of total derivative. This implies, that it needs to vanish at the boundary. For now, we will assume, that they do, but we will touch on this topic in more detail in section 1.4.

We will now focus our attention on the remaining terms and we arrive at a convenient form of the variation of action:

$$\delta S = -\frac{T_0}{2} \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \left[ \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} \partial_K g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N - 2\partial_\alpha \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} g_{KN} \partial_\beta X^N \right) \right] \delta X^K \quad (1.16)$$

This first variation of the action must be zero for any  $\delta X^K$  for a minimal trajectory. This implies, that the term in the inside of the square brackets in eq. (1.16) must be zero:

$$2 \partial_\alpha \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} g_{KN} \partial_\beta X^N \right) - \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} \frac{\partial g_{MN}}{\partial X^K} \partial_\alpha X^M \partial_\beta X^N = 0 \quad (1.17)$$

Together with the boundary conditions, these equations, that are the equivalent of Euler–Lagrange equations from classical mechanics, fully specify the motion of a classical relativistic string.

## 1.4 Boundary conditions

In this section, we will be interested in terms, that must vanish at the boundary. Specifically, it is the first term in eq. (1.15) that has to vanish.

$$-T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \partial_\beta \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right) = 0 \quad (1.18)$$

To better understand what this means, we will use Stokes' theorem. If we denote

$$\omega = \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \quad (1.19)$$

we can then take an outer derivative

$$d\omega = \partial_\beta \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\beta} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right) dy^\beta \quad (1.20)$$

where  $dy^\beta$  is a coordinate basis vector in the tangent space of the manifold over which we integrate. This manifold corresponds to our world-sheet. Using the Stokes' theorem

$$\int_V d\omega = \int_{\partial V} \omega, \quad (1.21)$$

we conclude, that if we have an integral over some part of a manifold, like the one in eq. (1.15), we can transform it to an integral over the boundary of this manifold. We can always choose  $\tau$  and  $\sigma$  to be perpendicular. When this is true, we can split the integral over the boundary into four integrals.

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{\partial V} \omega &= \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \left[ \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\sigma} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right]_{\sigma=0} \\
&+ \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \left[ \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\tau} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right]_{\tau=\tau_f} \\
&+ \int_{\tau_f}^{\tau_i} d\tau \left[ \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\sigma} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right]_{\sigma=\sigma_1} \\
&+ \int_{\sigma_1}^0 d\sigma \left[ \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\tau} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \delta X^N \right]_{\tau=\tau_i}
\end{aligned} \tag{1.22}$$

For easier manipulation, we will denote part of the inside of these integrals as:

$$\mathcal{P}_N^\tau = T_0 \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\tau} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M \tag{1.23}$$

$$\mathcal{P}_N^\sigma = T_0 \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\alpha\sigma} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^M, \tag{1.24}$$

where we added a constant  $T_0$  to remain consistent with following definitions. Also, we will restrict ourselves to variations with fixed endpoints in proper time, such that  $\delta X^M(\tau_i, \sigma) = \delta X^M(\tau_f, \sigma) = 0$ . This way, the second and fourth term do not contribute. In addition, for closed strings, all of these terms vanish, since the closed string has no boundary and is periodic in  $\sigma$ . Open strings then must satisfy

$$\int_{\partial V} \omega = - \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \left[ \mathcal{P}_N^\tau \delta X^N \right]_0^{\sigma_1} = 0. \tag{1.25}$$

These terms must vanish at every boundary  $\sigma_b \in \{0, \sigma_1\}$ . This can be ensured by either of the two terms in eq. (1.25) being equal to zero.

The first condition  $\mathcal{P}_N^\tau(\tau, \sigma_b) = 0$  is called the free endpoint boundary condition, because it does not impose any restriction to  $\delta X^N(\tau, \sigma_b)$ . The second term put to zero  $\delta X^M(\tau, \sigma_b) = 0$  is called the Dirichlet boundary condition. This means, that the string endpoints is fixed throughout the motion. This can also be expressed as  $\partial_\tau X^N(\tau, \sigma_b) = 0$ .



$$\text{Dirichlet boundary condition:} \quad \partial_\tau X^N(\tau, \sigma_b) = 0 \quad (1.26)$$

$$\text{free endpoint boundary condition:} \quad \mathcal{P}_N^\tau(\tau, \sigma_b) = 0 \quad (1.27)$$

$$(1.28)$$

Open strings have to satisfy at least one condition for every component  $N$ . We must be careful with the choice of boundary conditions. For example, we cannot choose a Dirichlet boundary condition for the time-like coordinate component.

For closed strings, the terms in eq. (1.25) always cancel out, because  $X^N(\tau, 0) = X^N(\tau, \sigma_1)$ .



# Chapter 2

## Flat spacetime

In this chapter, we will study the motion of strings in a four dimensional flat spacetime. This will help both in showing how the equations of motion (1.17) are used and finding a reference solution, with which we can compare results on different backgrounds. This chapter follows the approach in [?].

### 2.1 Equations of motion and parameterization

First, we will choose such a coordinate system, that  $X^0 = t$ ,  $X^1 = x$ ,  $X^2 = y$  and  $X^3 = z$ . In flat space-time, the metric is that of Minkowski

$$\hat{X} \cdot \hat{X} = g_{MN} X^M X^N = \begin{pmatrix} t & x & y & z \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \quad (2.1)$$

We will choose a static gauge, which means, that  $t = \tau$ . This greatly simplifies the derivatives

$$\partial_\tau X^M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dot{x} & \dot{y} & \dot{z} \end{pmatrix}^M \quad \partial_\sigma X^M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & x' & y' & z' \end{pmatrix}^M \quad (2.2)$$

where we denoted  $\partial_\tau x = \dot{x}$  and  $\partial_\sigma x = x'$ . Also, since we have the freedom of choice of the  $\sigma$  parametrization, we will want the lines of constant  $\sigma$  be perpendicular to lines of constant  $\tau$

$$g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\sigma X^N = 0 \quad (2.3)$$

Now we can use the equations of motion (1.17). First, we will calculate the  $\gamma_{\alpha\beta}$  from eq. (1.6).

$$\gamma_{\tau\tau} = g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\tau X^N = -1 + \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 \quad (2.4)$$

$$\gamma_{\tau\sigma} = \gamma_{\sigma\tau} = g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\sigma X^N = 0 \quad (2.5)$$

$$\gamma_{\sigma\sigma} = g_{MN} \partial_\sigma X^M \partial_\sigma X^N = x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 \quad (2.6)$$

From this, we can calculate the determinant  $\gamma$  and the inverse  $\gamma^{\alpha\beta}$

$$\gamma = \det \gamma = \gamma_{\tau\tau}\gamma_{\sigma\sigma} - \gamma_{\sigma\tau}\gamma_{\tau\sigma} = (-1 + \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2) (\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2) \quad (2.7)$$

$$\gamma^{\tau\tau} = (\gamma_{\tau\tau})^{-1} = \frac{1}{-1 + \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2} \quad (2.8)$$

$$\gamma^{\sigma\sigma} = (\gamma_{\sigma\sigma})^{-1} = \frac{1}{\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2} \quad (2.9)$$

now, we are ready to insert these calculations into the equations of motion (1.17). But first, let's simplify them a little bit.

$$\begin{aligned} & 2 \partial_\tau \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\tau\tau} g_{KN} \partial_\tau X^N \right) + 2 \partial_\sigma \left( \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\sigma\sigma} g_{KN} \partial_\sigma X^N \right) - \\ & - \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\tau\tau} \frac{\partial g_{MN}}{\partial X^K} \partial_\tau X^M \partial_\tau X^N - \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\sigma\sigma} \frac{\partial g_{MN}}{\partial X^K} \partial_\sigma X^M \partial_\sigma X^N = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

First, let's take a look at the term for  $K = 0$

$$2 \partial_\tau \left( \sqrt{\frac{\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2}{1 - \dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2 - \dot{z}^2}} \right) = 0 \quad (2.11)$$

The term in parentheses must be constant in  $\tau$ .

$$C(\sigma) = \sqrt{\frac{\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2}{1 - \dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2 - \dot{z}^2}} \quad (2.12)$$

This is convenient, because this constant only corresponds to a choice of  $\sigma$  parametrization. If we now write the rest of the equations of motion for  $K = i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & -2 \partial_\tau \left( \sqrt{\frac{\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2}{1 - \dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2 - \dot{z}^2}} \partial_\tau X^i \right) + 2 \partial_\sigma \left( \sqrt{\frac{1 - \dot{x}^2 - \dot{y}^2 - \dot{z}^2}{\dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2}} \partial_\sigma X^i \right) = \\ & -2 \partial_\tau \left( C(\sigma) \partial_\tau X^i \right) + 2 \partial_\sigma \left( \frac{1}{C(\sigma)} \partial_\sigma X^i \right) = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

We can now choose  $\sigma$  in such a way, that  $C(\sigma) = 1$ . This will result in the equations of motion taking the form of well known and expected wave equation

$$\partial_\sigma^2 X^i - \partial_\tau^2 X^i = 0 \quad (2.14)$$

We can also rewrite the  $\sigma$  parametrization condition into a more convenient form

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \dot{x}'^2 + \dot{y}'^2 + \dot{z}'^2 \right] &= - \left[ -1 + \dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2 \right] \\ \Downarrow \\ \gamma_{\sigma\sigma} &= -\gamma_{\tau\tau} \end{aligned} \quad (2.15)$$

The fact, that with this choice of parametrization, the equations of motion are in its simplest form makes sense. Since we just found out, that the  $\gamma$  matrix is in a diagonal form.

$$\gamma_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -\gamma_{\sigma\sigma} & 0 \\ 0 & \gamma_{\tau\tau} \end{pmatrix}_{\alpha\beta} \quad (2.16)$$

This is a very good method, not just in flat spacetime, that makes the equations of motion much easier to solve.

To find the motion of a relativistic string in flat spacetime, we need to solve four equations, which are collected here:

$$\text{equation of motion:} \quad \partial_\sigma^2 X^i - \partial_\tau^2 X^i = 0 \quad (2.17)$$

$$\text{parametrization condition:} \quad \gamma_{\sigma\sigma} = -\gamma_{\tau\tau} \quad (2.18)$$

$$\text{parametrization condition:} \quad \gamma_{\sigma\tau} = \gamma_{\tau\sigma} = 0 \quad (2.19)$$

$$\text{boundary condition:} \quad \partial_\sigma X^i \Big|_{\sigma=0} = \partial_\sigma X^i \Big|_{\sigma=\sigma_1} = 0 \quad (2.20)$$

## 2.2 Rest energy

We would like to find the rest energy  $m$  of the string. This is given by

$$m^2 = -p_M p^M, \quad (2.21)$$

where  $p_M$  is given by [?]

$$p_M = \int_0^{\sigma_1} \mathcal{P}_M^\tau d\sigma = T_0 \sqrt{-\gamma} \gamma^{\tau\alpha} g_{MN} \partial_\alpha X^N. \quad (2.22)$$

We can notice, that the inside of the integral is constant because of eq. (2.15). It then reduces to

$$p_M = - \int_0^{\sigma_1} T_0 g_{MN} \partial_\tau X^N d\sigma. \quad (2.23)$$

If we consider only closed strings, then all components  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  must be periodic in  $\sigma$  with periodicity  $\sigma_1$ . It is evident, that  $\partial_\tau X^i$  must have that same periodicity. This means, that the integral in eq. (2.23) is zero for all but one component and that is  $p_t$ , which is given by

$$p_t = T_0 \sigma_1. \quad (2.24)$$

The rest energy of the string is then

$$m = \sqrt{-p_t p^t} = T_0 \sigma_1. \quad (2.25)$$

We can revert this and say, that for a string with a given rest energy  $m$ , we can calculate the period  $\sigma_1$ .

## Chapter 3

### Strings in expanding universe

In this chapter, we will discuss the motion of a classical string in expanding universe. First, we assume that the universe is of the form of the Friedmann-Lemaître-Robertson-Walker (FLRW) metric

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2 \left[ \frac{dr^2}{1 - kr^2} + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right], \quad (3.1)$$

This metric describes a homogeneous, isotropic and expanding universe with the “scaling” of spatial coordinates  $a(t)$ . The constant  $k \in \{-1, 0, +1\}$  represents the curvature of the space, but we will consider  $k = 0$ . When we solve the Einstein’s field equations, we get

$$\left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 + \frac{kc^2}{a^2} = \frac{8\pi G}{3} \rho \quad (3.2)$$

$$2\frac{\ddot{a}}{a} + \left( \frac{\dot{a}}{a} \right)^2 + \frac{kc^2}{a^2} = -\frac{8\pi G}{c^2} P, \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\rho$  is the total energy density,  $P$  is pressure and  $G$  is Newton’s gravitational constant. Also, we will introduce the Hubble parameter of expansion of the universe as  $H = \dot{a}/a$ . The standard course of action would now be to consider contributions to the energy density  $\rho$  and pressure  $P$  from different sources, for example dust, radiation, cosmological constant. A chosen proportion of representation of these types of energy to the energy density and pressure would give us the evolution of this Hubble parameter  $H$ .

However, in our case, we will consider the Hubble parameter  $H$  to be constant. Currently, the latest measurement of the Hubble constant by the Fermi-LAT is  $H = 68.0 \pm 4.2 \text{ kms}^{-1} \text{ Mpc}^{-1}$ . If the Hubble parameter is constant, then the metric in eq. (3.1) becomes

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + e^{2Ht} \left[ dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\phi^2) \right]. \quad (3.4)$$

For the motion of strings in this space, we will restrict ourselves to closed strings, that are always circular. The metric in cylindrical coordinates then takes the form

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + e^{2Ht} (dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + dz^2) \quad (3.5)$$

A natural parameterization for a circular string is  $\theta = \sigma$ , while  $r$  does not depend on  $\sigma$ , so  $r = r(\tau)$ . Also, because of the circularity of the string, we can rotate and translate the coordinate system such that  $z = 0$ . For the  $\tau$  parameterization, we will choose the static gauge  $t = \tau$ . The vector of the string coordinates in the target space then takes the form

$$X^M = (t = \tau, \quad r(\tau), \quad \theta = \sigma, \quad 0). \quad (3.6)$$

The derivatives with respect to the world-sheet parameters are given by

$$\partial_\tau X^M = (1, \quad \dot{r}, \quad 0, \quad 0) \quad (3.7)$$

$$\partial_\sigma X^M = (0, \quad 0, \quad 1, \quad 0) \quad (3.8)$$

Since we have already chosen our parameterization, we will first calculate the action and use the Euler-Lagrange equations. This might look like too much simplification compared to the derivation in section 1.3, but we will show that we can do this in section 3.4.

## 3.1 Lagrange approach

### 3.1.1 Lagrangian and potential

First, we insert eqs. (3.6) to (3.8) into eq. (1.8)

$$\begin{aligned} S &= -T_0 \int_{\tau_i}^{\tau_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \sqrt{-(-1 + \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}) (r^2 e^{2Ht})} \\ &= -T_0 \int_{t_i}^{t_f} d\tau \int_0^{\sigma_1} d\sigma \left( |r e^{Ht}| \sqrt{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (3.9)$$

Since the Lagrangian density, the term within the integral, does not depend on  $\sigma$ , we can integrate over it and receive only a factor of  $2\pi$ . Moreover, we will perform a change of coordinates  $R = r e^{Ht}$  to simplify. The action then becomes

$$S = -2\pi T_0 \int_{t_i}^{t_f} d\tau |R| \sqrt{1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2}. \quad (3.10)$$

Just from this Lagrangian we can extract a lot of information about the solution. We can, for example, look at strings with constant  $R$  and find a corresponding potential  $V(R)$  from the Lagrangian [?]



$$L(t, R, \dot{R}) = -2\pi T_0 |R| \sqrt{1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2} \quad (3.11)$$

$$\Downarrow \quad V(t, R) = -L(t, R, 0)$$

$$V(R) = 2\pi T_0 |R| \sqrt{1 - (HR)^2}. \quad (3.12)$$

This potential for static strings is plotted in fig. 3.1.

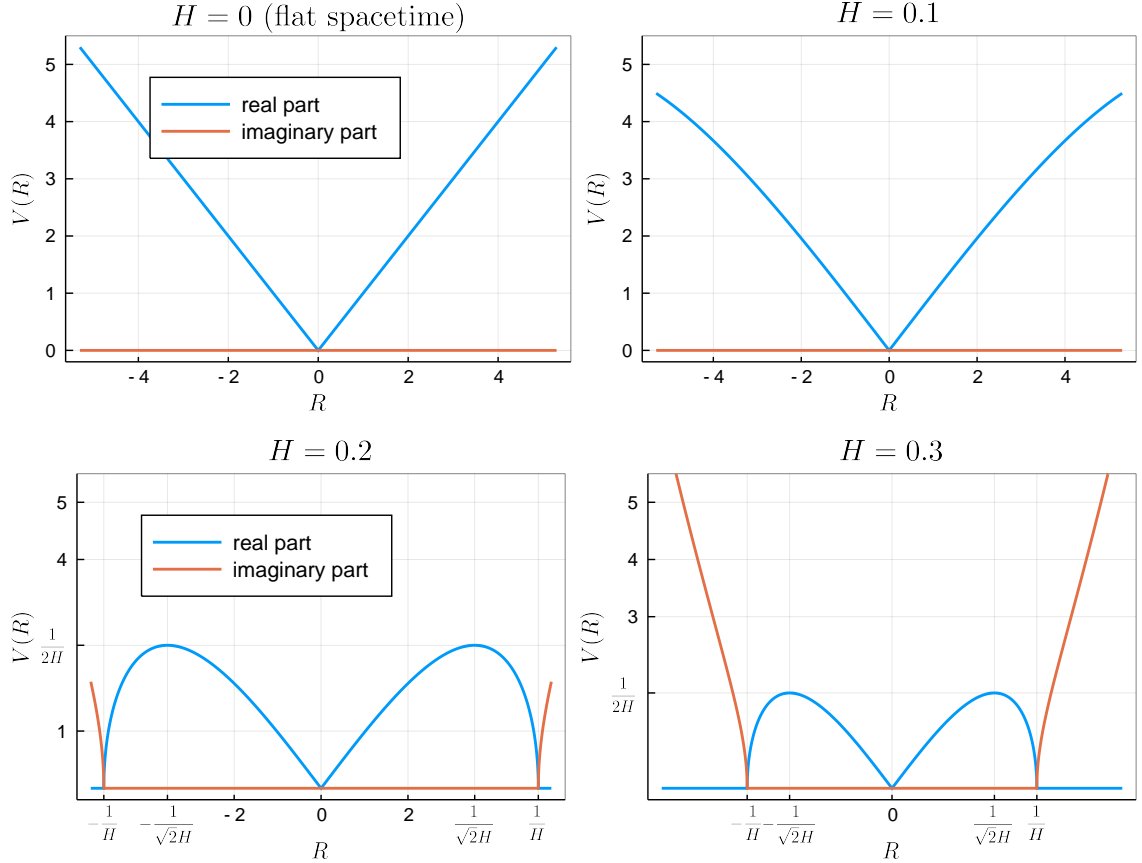


Figure 3.1: Potential for static strings.

We can immediately see, that the potential is well defined only for  $R \leq 1/H$  and that there is a potential well with minimum at  $R = 0$  and maximum at  $R = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}H$ . This hints towards the fact, that every string, that goes through the point  $\dot{R} = 0$ ,  $|R| < 1/\sqrt{2}H$  will have a closed trajectory in phase space. On the other hand, strings that pass through the point  $(\dot{R} = 0, 1/\sqrt{2}H < |R| < 1/H)$  expand infinitely, or until they break.

### 3.1.2 Equations of motion and critical points

A more complex analysis requires us to solve the equations of motion. The variation of action (3.10) gives the same result as in classical mechanics, so we can use the Euler-Lagrange equations.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{R}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial R} = 0 \quad (3.13)$$

After some calculations, we will get the equations of motion in this form:

$$\frac{R\ddot{R} - \dot{R}^2 + 1 + 3HR(\dot{R} - HR) - 2HR(\dot{R} - HR)^3}{[1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2]^{3/2}} = 0 \quad (3.14)$$

We will split this differential equation of second order into two differential equations of first order by denoting  $S = \dot{R}$ . This leads to a system of differential equations in the form:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{S} &= \frac{S^2 - 1 - 3HR(S - HR) + 2HR(S - HR)^3}{R} \\ \dot{R} &= S \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

We already mentioned, that there are two interesting points in the in the potential, namely  $S = 0$  with  $R = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}H$  or  $R = \pm 1/H$ . The former corresponds to a maximum of the potential, so this should be an unstable node, but we cannot say much about the latter just from potential. However if we look at the equations of motion, these points can be studied in more detail.

Let us first take a look at the first one  $R = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}H$ . Since the equations are symmetric around the origin, we can drop the  $\pm$  and the results will apply to both points. When we insert the values of  $S$  and  $R$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{S} &= \left[ -1 - \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} \left( -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) + \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^3 \right] \sqrt{2}H = \left[ -1 + \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right] \sqrt{2}H = 0 \\ \dot{R} &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (3.16)$$

This is a critical point in phase space, because the velocity vector field is zero at this point. For further study, we will linearize eq. (3.15) in the neighbourhood of this point with  $\delta S$  and  $\delta R$  being the distance from this point. We arrive at a linear system of differential equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta \dot{S} \\ \delta \dot{R} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \delta S \\ \delta R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta S \\ \delta R \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3.17)$$

where  $A$  is a matrix.

If we calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$ , we can arrive at one of three cases which each corresponds to a different type of critical point: There are three types of critical points depending on the eigenvalues:

- Both eigenvalues are positive  $\implies$  unstable (repulsive) node – all velocity vectors point away from the critical point

- Both eigenvalues are negative  $\implies$  stable (attractive) node – all velocity vectors point towards the critical point
- Eigenvalues are of opposite sign  $\implies$  saddle – eigenvectors divide regions of similar flow of velocity vector field

In the case of the critical point at  $R = 1/\sqrt{2}H$ , we will first expand eq. (3.15) in the neighbourhood such that  $R = 1/\sqrt{2}H + \delta R$ ,  $S = 0 + \delta S$  and then consider only the terms of the first order in both  $\delta R$  and  $\delta S$  to be of significance. After some calculations we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta\dot{S} &= \frac{\delta S^2 - 1 - 3\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + H\delta R\right)\left(\delta S - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - H\delta R\right) + 2\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + H\delta R\right)\left(\delta S - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - H\delta R\right)^3}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}H} + \delta R} \\ &= 2H^2\delta R + \mathcal{O}(\delta S^2, \delta R^2, \delta S\delta R) \\ \delta\dot{R} &= \delta S.\end{aligned}\tag{3.18}$$

Rewritten into matrix equation, we get

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta\dot{S} \\ \delta\dot{R} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2H^2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta S \\ \delta R \end{pmatrix}.\tag{3.19}$$

From the characteristic equation, we arrive at the eigenvalues  $\lambda$ :

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 2H^2 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 2H^2 = 0, \quad \lambda_{1,2} = \pm\sqrt{2}H.\tag{3.20}$$

The eigenvalues are of opposite sign, so this means, that we are looking at a saddle point. Finding the eigenvectors will help us understand the flow of the vector field around the saddle point. Eigenvectors correspond to the direction, in which the velocity has the same direction as the distance vector from the saddle point. So strings that are displaced from the critical point in the direction of the eigenvector will move steadily in that direction either inwards or outwards, depending on the associated eigenvalue.

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}H & 2H^2 \\ 1 & \sqrt{2}H \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2}H \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\tag{3.21}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -\sqrt{2}H & 2H^2 \\ 1 & -\sqrt{2}H \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2}H \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\tag{3.22}$$

The eigenvectors and the flow of the velocity vector field are depicted in fig. 3.2.

We will now focus our attention on the second critical point at  $S = 0$ ,  $R = \pm 1/H$ . When we again look at the velocity vector field directly at this point, we get

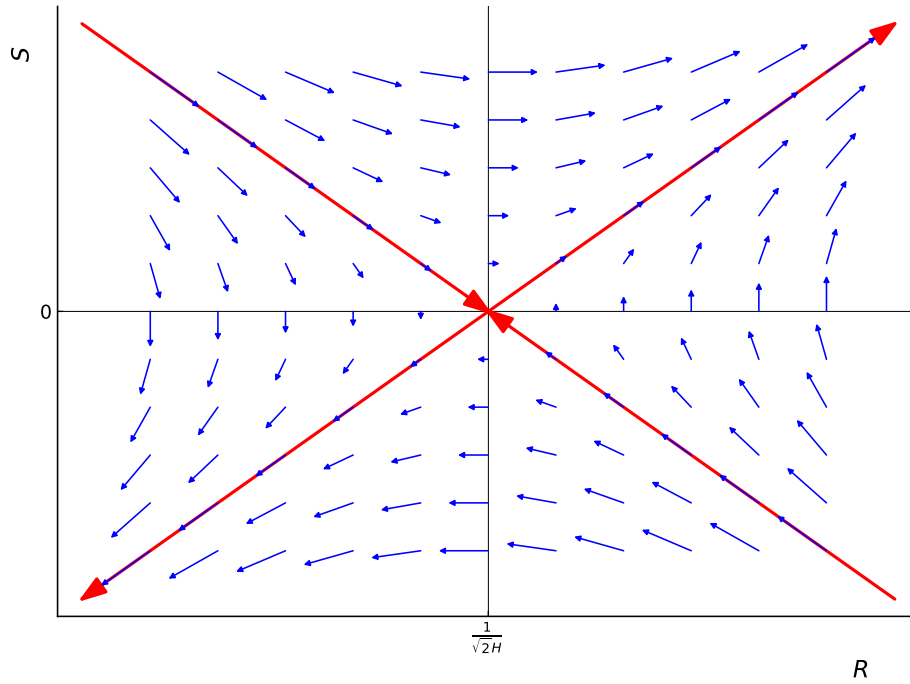


Figure 3.2: Eigenvectors (red) and flow of the velocity vector field (blue) around a saddle point.

$$\dot{S} = \frac{-1 - 3(-1) + 2(-1)^3}{\frac{1}{H}} = (3 - 1 - 2)H = 0 \quad (3.23)$$

We see, that this is another critical point and we will proceed with the same method to determine the type of this critical point. Substituting into similar coordinates in the neighbourhood of the point  $S = \delta S$ ,  $R = 1/H + \delta R$  and taking only the terms up to first order in  $\delta S$  and  $\delta R$ , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \dot{S} &= \frac{\delta S^2 - 1 - 3(1 + H\delta R)(\delta S - 1 - H\delta R) + 2(1 + H\delta R)(\delta S - 1 - H\delta R)^3}{\frac{1}{H} + \delta R} \\ &= 3H\delta S - 2H^2\delta R + \mathcal{O}(\delta S^2, \delta R^2, \delta S\delta R) \\ \delta \dot{R} &= \delta S. \end{aligned} \quad (3.24)$$

In matrix notation, we arrive at:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta \dot{S} \\ \delta \dot{R} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3H & -2H^2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \delta S \\ \delta R \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.25)$$

Solving the characteristic equation for eigenvalues  $\lambda$  then gives us:

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} 3H - \lambda & -2H^2 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda^2 - 3H\lambda + 2H^2, \quad \lambda_{1,2} = \frac{3H \pm H}{2} \quad (3.26)$$

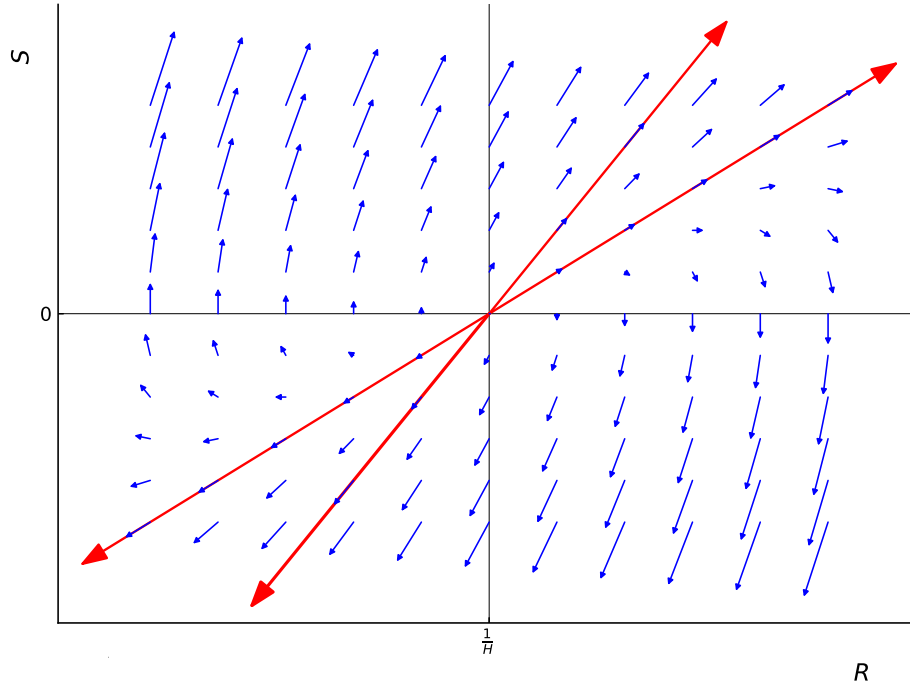


Figure 3.3: Eigenvectors (red) and flow of the velocity vector field (blue) around the unstable (repulsive) point.

From this, we can conclude, that we found a repulsive point, because both eigenvalues are positive. All velocity vectors in this vector field aim out of this critical point as it is depicted in fig. 3.3. Eigenvectors can, again, tell us more about the flow of the velocity vector field

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2H & -2H^2 \\ 1 & -H \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} H \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (3.27)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} H & -2H^2 \\ 1 & -2H \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \implies v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2H \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (3.28)$$

Now, we would like to find explicit solutions. This gets a little tricky, because we cannot solve these equations analytically, so we will proceed with finding numerical solutions. However, as it turns out, most trajectories pass through the axis  $R = 0$ . But at this point, the eq. (3.15) contain a singularity

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow 0} \dot{S} = \lim_{R \rightarrow 0} \frac{S^2 - 1}{R} = \lim_{R \rightarrow 0} \frac{(S - 1)(S + 1)}{R} \begin{cases} \pm\infty, & S \neq \pm 1 \\ 0, & S = \pm 1 \end{cases}. \quad (3.29)$$

In other words,  $\dot{S}$  does not diverge only if  $S$  goes to  $\pm 1$  faster, than  $R$  goes to 0. If a string passes through the  $R = 0$  axis, it must do so at the speed of light  $S = \pm 1$ . As it turns out, this happens to be the case for every trajectory.

From this, however, arises another problem with this set of equations of motion. Even when  $\dot{S}$  does not diverge, the numerical accuracy around this point has to

be very high and almost unreachable for standard numerical solvers. We will therefore try to find a different approach in which this singularity disappears and allows us to solve the equations with better numerical precision.

## 3.2 Conservation of energy

As we can see in eq. (3.11), the Lagrangian does not depend explicitly on time  $t$ . This means, that the Hamiltonian and therefore the energy is conserved. We will denote the Hamiltonian as  $\mathcal{E}$  to prevent ambiguity. Also, we will not perform the full Legendre transformation, but we will express the Hamiltonian in terms of  $\dot{R}$  and  $R$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}(t, R, \dot{R}) &= 2\pi T_0 E(t, R, \dot{R}) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{R}} \dot{R} - L(t, R, \dot{R}) = \\ 2\pi T_0 |R| &\left[ \frac{\dot{R}^2 + \dot{R}HR}{\sqrt{1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2}} + \sqrt{1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2} \right] = 2\pi T_0 |R| \frac{1 + \dot{R}HR - H^2 R^2}{\sqrt{1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2}}\end{aligned}\quad (3.30)$$

where we used  $\mathcal{E} = 2\pi T_0 E$  to get a more convenient form. As we already mentioned both the Lagrangian and Hamiltonian do not depend explicitly on time  $t$ , and therefore, the total energy  $\mathcal{E}$  is conserved  $E = \text{const}$ . Furthermore, we will express  $\dot{R}$  as a function of  $R$ ,  $H$  and  $E$ . First, we square eq. (3.30) and then solve the quadratic equation for  $\dot{R}$

$$S = \dot{R}(R, H, E) = \frac{\sqrt{E^2 + H^2 R^4 - R^2} \left( HR \sqrt{E^2 + H^2 R^4 - R^2} \pm E \right)}{E^2 + H^2 R^4} \quad (3.31)$$

where we denoted  $S = \dot{R}$  as in previous section. This is much nicer function compared to eq. (3.15). First of all, it is a first order differential equation. Second, there is no singularity at  $R = 0$ , and third, the critical points remain (as they should).

### 3.2.1 Domain of definition

Because of the square root in eq. (3.31) and we do not want to expand our solutions to the complex plane, we can expect some conditions to arise for the domain of definition. These will, of course arise from the condition that

$$E^2 + H^2 R^4 - R^2 \geq 0. \quad (3.32)$$

For a fixed and positive  $H$  and  $E$ , we are going to look when this expression is satisfied. First, we look for the roots in  $R$ .

$$R^2 = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4E^2 H^2}}{2H^2} \quad (3.33)$$

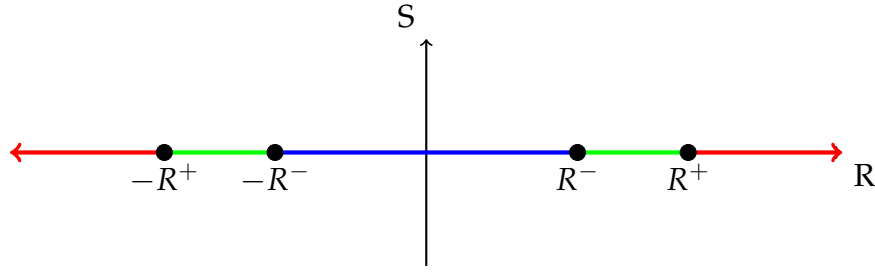


Figure 3.4: Regions on  $R$  axis, that are split by the roots of eq. (3.32).

We can sort this into two cases. The first is, that we have  $E > 1/2H$ , then there is no real value of  $R$ , for which the expression in eq. (3.32) is equal to zero. That means, that for such values of  $E$ , this condition is either always or never satisfied. Inserting any value larger than this, for example  $E = 1/H > 1/2H$  and  $R = 1/H$ , we get

$$\frac{1}{H^2} + \frac{1}{H^2} - \frac{1}{H^2} = \frac{1}{H^2} > 0$$

This is great, because for every  $R \in \mathbb{R}$ , this condition is satisfied. In other words, the string can have any radius  $R$  from the interval  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ . On the other hand, if we look at energies  $E < 1/2H$ , we get two roots for  $R^2$  and four roots for  $R$ . This splits  $R$  into five regions that are separated by the roots of eq. (3.33). These regions are depicted in fig. 3.4, where we denote

$$\begin{aligned} R^+ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4E^2H^2}}{2H^2}} \\ R^- &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4E^2H^2}}{2H^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (3.34)$$

Each of these regions must be examined separately, but we can still see the symmetry around  $R = 0$ , so we will only need to examine three of them. We can group the intervals  $R \in [-\infty, -R^+]$  and  $R \in [R^+, \infty]$  as is shown in fig. 3.4 as the red segments and, also, the intervals  $R \in [-R^+, -R^-]$  and  $R \in [R^-, R^+]$ , which are the green segments. To find out, where the condition eq. (3.32) is satisfied, we need to evaluate it in that region. Let us start with the red interval  $R \in [R^+, \infty]$ :

$$R = \frac{2}{H} > R^+ \implies E^2 + \frac{16}{H^2} - \frac{4}{H^2} = E^2 + \frac{12}{H^2} > 0 \quad (3.35)$$

In this region, strings with any energy can exist. If we do the same with the green interval  $R \in [R^-, R^+]$ :

$$R^+ > R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}H} > R^- \implies E^2 + \frac{1}{4H^2} - \frac{1}{2H^2} = E^2 - \frac{1}{4H^2} < 0 \quad (3.36)$$

The last inequality follows from the fact, that we are considering only  $E < 1/2H$ . Strings with such energy cannot exist in the green intervals. The final interval is the blue interval  $R \in [-R^-, R^-]$ :

$$R^- > R = 0 > -R^- \implies E^2 > 0 \quad (3.37)$$

This is, again, a region, where strings with all energies can exist.

In conclusion, we have two types of strings. First, we have strings with energy  $E > 1/2H$  that have the domain of definition all of  $R \in \mathbb{R}$ . Second, strings with energy  $E < 1/2H$  have limitations. They can only exist in the red and blue regions depicted in fig. 3.4. We avoided the strings with energy exactly  $E = 1/2H$  for which the green regions vanish. This is not unexpected, because this string goes through the point  $S = 0$ ,  $R = 1/\sqrt{2}H$ , which is a saddle, as we learned in section 3.1.2. All this can also be interpreted physically from the potential in fig. 3.1. There, we have a potential well centered around  $R = 0$  with maximum at  $R = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}H$  and the corresponding value  $V = 1/2H$ . This implies, that strings with energy lower than the maximum of this potential ( $E < 1/2H$ ) are stuck inside this potential well and therefore follow closed trajectories. On the other hand if this string finds itself already outside of the potential well, it will expand to infinity. The strings that have energy above the potential barrier ( $E > 1/2H$ ) can move over and therefore will never have closed solutions.

### 3.3 Results conclusion

This brings us to the conclusion where we will present the phase space plots of the numerical solutions. First, we start with closed trajectories depicted in fig. 3.5. These can happen only for strings with  $E < 1/2H$  and they are also the most likely to be observed. This is the case because of the fact, that our universe's expansion rate  $H$  is relatively small, and we would need strings with very high energies to overcome the potential well. Strings that are not of cosmological magnitude therefore do experience little change. In fig. 3.10, we show the explicit time dependence of radius  $R$  on time, which was acquired by numerical integration of eq. (3.31). If we compare it to the flat spacetime, where it is a sin function, we can confirm, that for smaller energies, the expansion of space has little effect, but with increasing energy, the trajectory gets both more deformed and has increased frequency.

On the other hand, the existence of the expansion of the universe can have some unforeseen consequences. It is surprising, that even with a really small expansion rate, there can exist a string with much larger radius than its counterpart stuck in closed trajectory. In fact, even a string with  $E = 0$  can have very large radius. This is due to the repulsive node in  $R = 1/H$ , where a string with any energy can be created and then expand to infinity. This is shown in fig. 3.6.

This brings us to the special case, where  $E = 1/2H$ . This is depicted as the purple line in fig. 3.7. It would seem, that when this string arrives at  $R = 1/\sqrt{2}H$ , it can decide whether to continue to the closed trajectory part or expand to infinity.



However this dilemma solves itself, because it would take the string an infinite amount of proper time to reach this saddle point.

The last case are strings with  $E > 1/2H$ , which is depicted in fig. 3.8. These strings can start as static strings at  $R = 1/H$ , which is an unstable node. If these strings are then shifted by a small amount, they either start to shrink, reach a minimal radius and then expand, or they expand to infinity right away.

All these solutions are constrained by the black lines and fill the whole of this space. For comparison, we add solutions in flat spacetime, that are depicted in fig. 3.9.

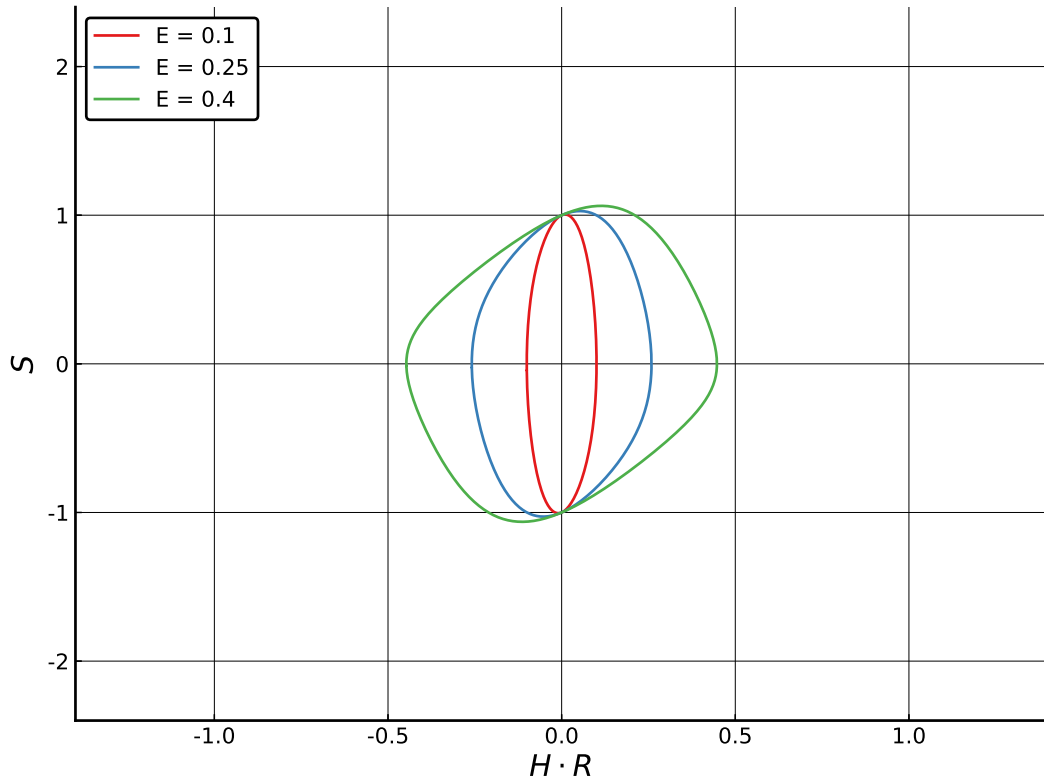


Figure 3.5: Closed trajectories in de Sitter space for  $E < 1/2H$ .

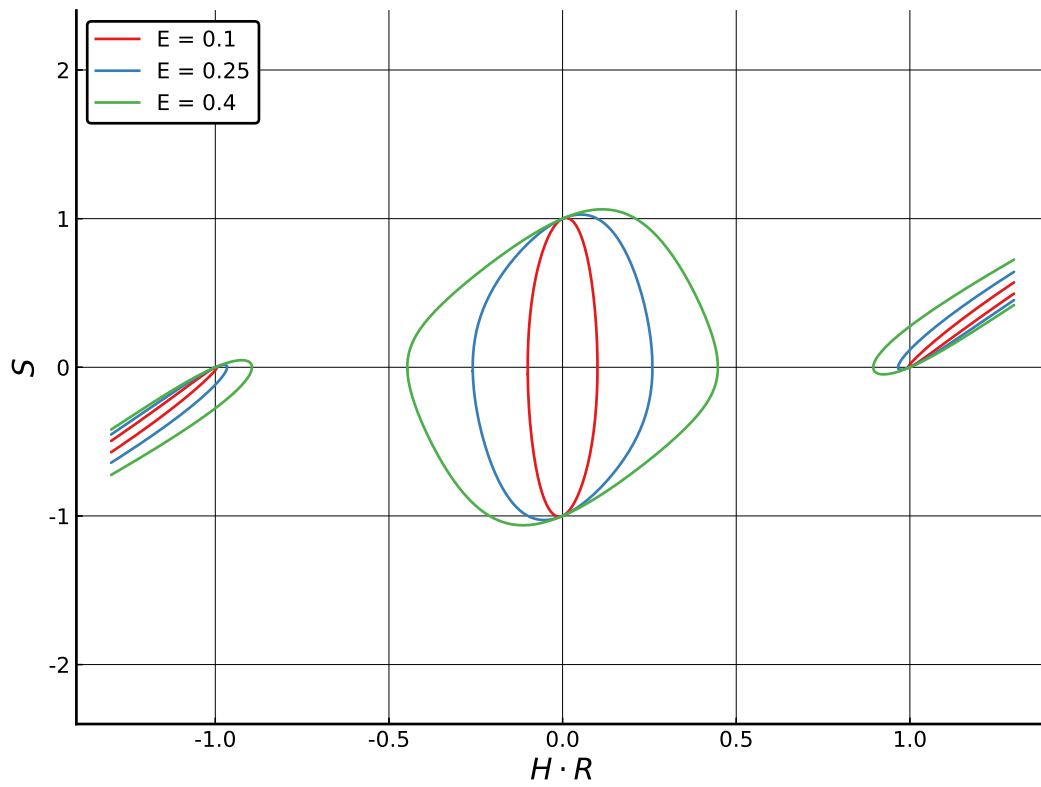


Figure 3.6: All trajectories in de Sitter space for  $E < 1/2H$ .

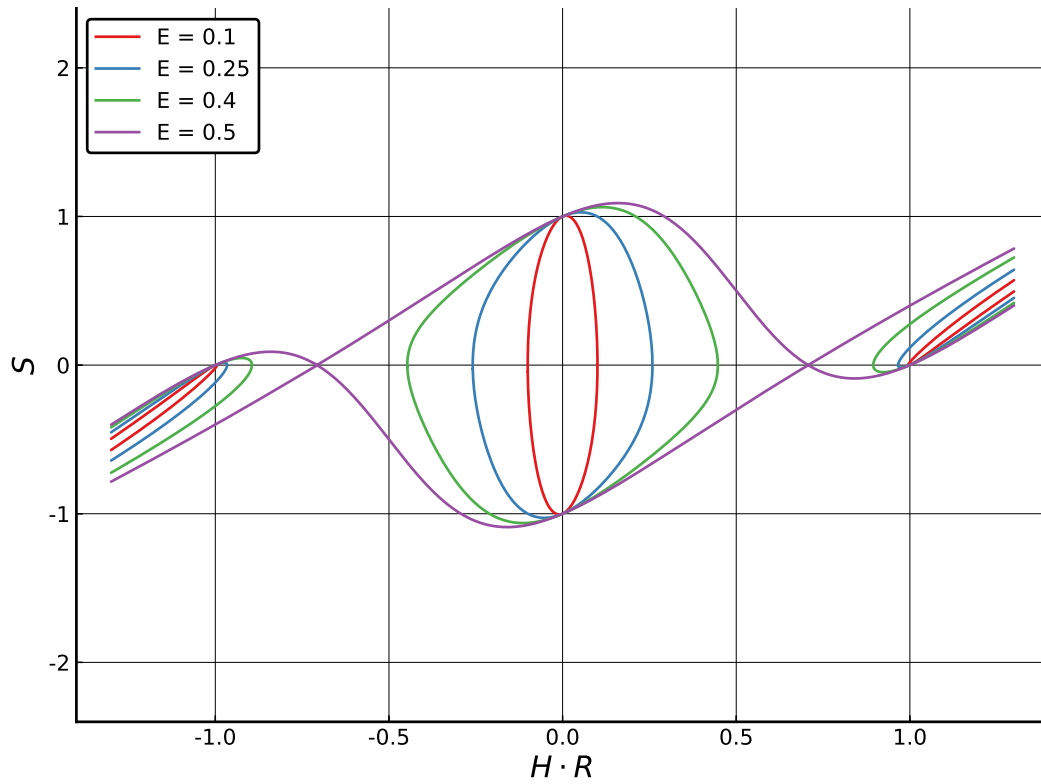


Figure 3.7: All trajectories in de Sitter space for  $E \leq 1/2H$ .

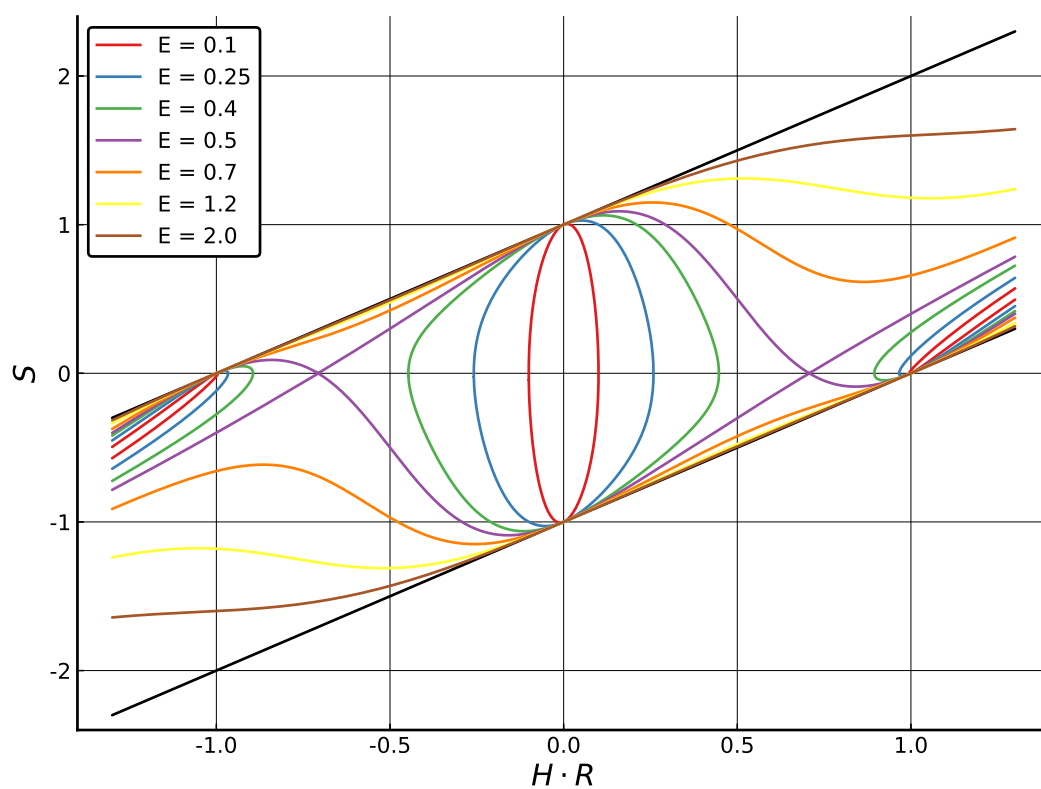


Figure 3.8: Trajectories for all energies  $E$  in de Sitter space.

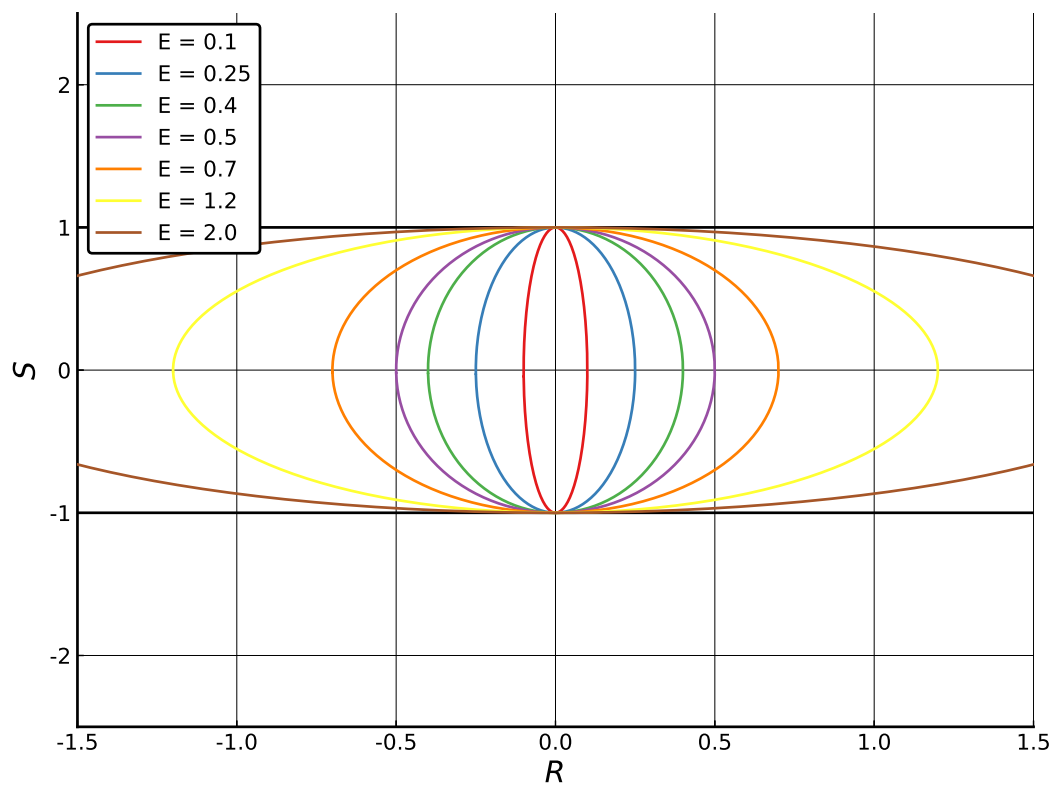


Figure 3.9: Trajectories for all energies  $E$  in flat space.

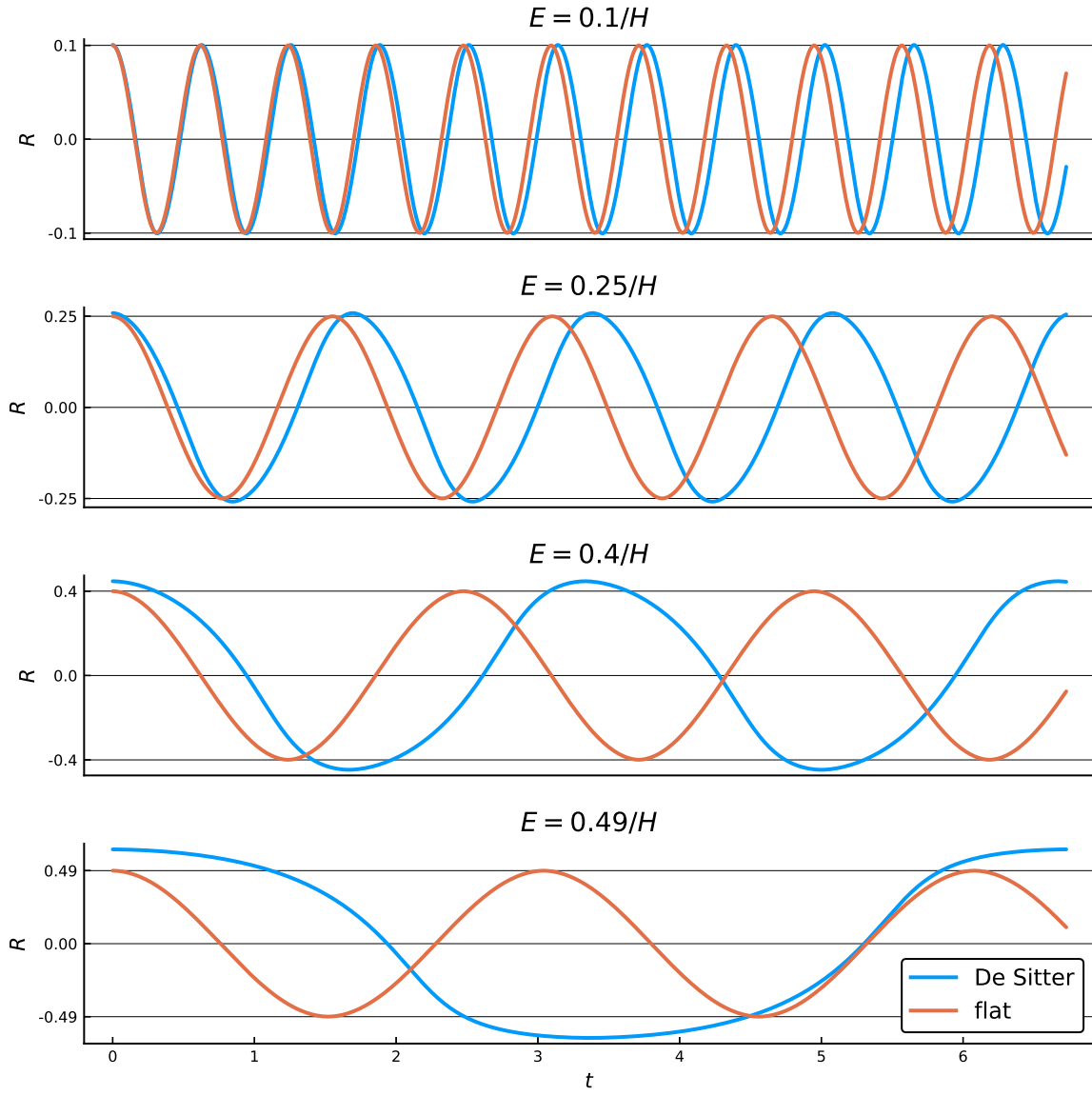


Figure 3.10: Explicit time evolution of closed strings with energies  $E < 1/2H$

### 3.4 Check with general equations of motion

In this chapter, we started with the Nambu-Goto action and immediately fixed the parameterization to  $t = \tau$  and  $\theta = \sigma$  and inserted a change of variables  $R = re^{Ht}$ . This way, we could extract more information about the system, specifically the potential and the Hamiltonian helped us find crucial features of this equation and allowed us to get around the bad numerical precision of solving eq. (3.15). However, in 1.3 we derived the equations of motion (1.17) for a general background where we get four equations instead of one. One might ask if the other three equations could add some restrictions to the system. For this reason, we will solve these equations with the same choice of parameterization. First, we will calculate the components of induced metric  $\gamma$  from eq. (1.6)

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_{\tau\tau} &= -1 + \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht} \\ \gamma_{\sigma\sigma} &= r^2 e^{2Ht} \\ \gamma_{\tau\sigma} &= \gamma_{\sigma\tau} = 0\end{aligned}\tag{3.38}$$

From (1.17), we obtain the equations of motion

$$t : \quad 2\partial_\tau \left( \sqrt{\frac{r^2 e^{2Ht}}{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}}} \right) + 2H\dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht} \sqrt{\frac{r^2 e^{2Ht}}{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}}} - 2Hr^2 e^{2Ht} \sqrt{\frac{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}}{r^2 e^{2Ht}}} = 0\tag{3.39}$$

$$r : \quad 2\partial_\tau \left( \dot{r} e^{2Ht} \sqrt{\frac{r^2 e^{2Ht}}{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}}} \right) - 2r e^{2Ht} \sqrt{\frac{1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht}}{r^2 e^{2Ht}}} = 0\tag{3.40}$$

$$\theta, z : \quad 0 = 0\tag{3.41}$$

As we can see, the equations of motion in  $\theta$  and  $z$  are trivial. First, we focus on solving the  $t$  equation (3.39). After some modification, we arrive at

$$\frac{r^2 \ddot{r} e^{4Ht} - r \dot{r}^3 e^{4Ht} + r \ddot{r} e^{2Ht} + 3Hr^2 \dot{r}^2 e^{4Ht} - 2Hr^2 \dot{r}^4 e^{6Ht}}{\sqrt{r^2 e^{2Ht}} (1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht})^{\frac{3}{2}}} = 0\tag{3.42}$$

If we now perform the change of variables  $R = re^{Ht}$  and simplify, we arrive at

$$\frac{R\ddot{R} - \dot{R}^2 + 1 + 3HR(\dot{R} - HR) - 2HR(\dot{R} - HR)^3}{[1 - (\dot{R} - HR)^2]^{\frac{3}{2}}} = 0,\tag{3.43}$$

which is the same as eq. (3.14). Lets look at the  $r$  equation (3.40):

$$\frac{r^2 \ddot{r} e^{4Ht} - r \dot{r}^3 e^{4Ht} + r \ddot{r} e^{2Ht} + 3Hr^2 \dot{r} e^{4Ht} - 2Hr^2 \dot{r}^3 e^{6Ht}}{\sqrt{r^2 e^{2Ht}} (1 - \dot{r}^2 e^{2Ht})^{\frac{3}{2}}} = 0.\tag{3.44}$$

It is the same as eq. (3.42). This means, that there really is only one equation of motion and it is the same as the one we used in section 3.1.2.



# Chapter 4

## Gravitational wave background

In this section, we will be investigating the effect of gravitational waves on classical strings. We will be working with the non-linear theory of gravitational waves, where the line element takes the form [?]

$$ds^2 = H(u, x, y) du^2 + 2 du dv + dx^2 + dy^2 \quad (4.1)$$

where we used coordinates  $u = (z - t) / \sqrt{2}$ ,  $v = (z + t) / \sqrt{2}$ . This corresponds to a gravitational wave moving in the direction of the  $z$  coordinate. Also,  $H$ , which fully specifies the gravitational wave, is a function of  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $u$ . We will now study the conditions on  $H$  so that this is a solution to the Einstein's vacuum field equation, which can be rewritten into

$$R_{\mu\nu} = 0, \quad (4.2)$$

where  $R_{\mu\nu}$  is Ricci curvature, which is defined as

$$R_{\mu\nu} = R^\rho_{\mu\rho\nu} = \partial_\rho \Gamma^\rho_{\mu\nu} - \partial_\nu \Gamma^\rho_{\mu\rho} + \Gamma^\rho_{\rho\lambda} \Gamma^\lambda_{\mu\nu} - \Gamma^\rho_{\lambda\nu} \Gamma^\lambda_{\mu\rho}, \quad (4.3)$$

where  $\Gamma^\rho_{\mu\nu}$  are Christoffel symbols defined as

$$\Gamma^\rho_{\mu\nu} = \frac{g^{\rho\sigma}}{2} \left( \partial_\nu g_{\sigma\mu} + \partial_\mu g_{\sigma\nu} - \partial_\sigma g_{\mu\nu} \right) \quad (4.4)$$

The only non-zero components are

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma^v_{uu} &= \frac{\partial_u H}{2} & \Gamma^x_{uu} &= -\frac{\partial_x H}{2} & \Gamma^y_{uu} &= -\frac{\partial_y H}{2} \\ \Gamma^v_{ux} &= \Gamma^v_{xu} = \frac{\partial_x H}{2} & \Gamma^v_{uy} &= \Gamma^v_{yu} = \frac{\partial_y H}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (4.5)$$

From this, we can calculate the components of the Ricci curvature, but, as it turns out, only one components is non-zero and that is

$$R_{uu} = -\frac{\partial_x^2 H + \partial_y^2 H}{2} \quad (4.6)$$

This has to be zero in order that this is a solution to the Einstein's vacuum field equation (4.2). The function  $H(x, y, u)$  must therefore be a solution to Laplace's equation

$$\partial_x^2 H + \partial_y^2 H = 0. \quad (4.7)$$

Now that we know what the metric is, we can focus on the motion of a string in this background. In order to get the equations of motion we will use the method described in chapter 1, specifically eq. (1.17). The first step is to choose a parameterization. We will choose it in such a way, that we get, in theory, the simplest equations or at least equations most similar to wave equations. This will be true if the induced metric has the form:

$$g_{MN}\partial_\alpha X\partial_\beta X = \gamma_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma_{\tau\tau} & 0 \\ 0 & -\gamma_{\tau\tau} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.8)$$

This can also be written as two conditions

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{\tau\sigma} &= \gamma_{\sigma\tau} = 0 \\ \gamma_{\tau\tau} &= -\gamma_{\sigma\sigma}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

The equations of motion from eq. (1.17) written in components then take the form

$$u : \quad \partial_\tau(H\partial_\tau u + \partial_\tau v) - \partial_\sigma(H\partial_\sigma u + \partial_\sigma v) - \frac{\partial_u H}{2} [(\partial_\tau u)^2 - (\partial_\sigma u)^2] = 0 \quad (4.10)$$

$$v : \quad \partial_\tau^2 u - \partial_\sigma^2 u = 0 \quad (4.11)$$

$$x : \quad \partial_\tau^2 x - \partial_\sigma^2 x - \frac{\partial_x H}{2} [(\partial_\tau u)^2 - (\partial_\sigma u)^2] = 0 \quad (4.12)$$

$$y : \quad \partial_\tau^2 y - \partial_\sigma^2 y - \frac{\partial_y H}{2} [(\partial_\tau u)^2 - (\partial_\sigma u)^2] = 0 \quad (4.13)$$

We will now choose a  $\tau$  parameterization in accordance with eq. (4.9). Since  $u(\tau, \sigma)$  obeys the d'Alembert equation, we can make a reparameterization [?, ?]

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma + \tau &\rightarrow \varphi_1(\sigma + \tau) \\ \sigma - \tau &\rightarrow \varphi_2(\sigma - \tau), \end{aligned} \quad (4.14)$$

such that

$$u = \lambda\tau, \quad (4.15)$$

where  $\lambda$  is constant. The equations of motion then reduce from four to just three equations



$$\partial_\tau^2 v - \partial_\sigma^2 v - \frac{\partial_\tau H}{2} \lambda = 0 \quad (4.16)$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 x - \partial_\sigma^2 x - \frac{\partial_x H}{2} \lambda^2 = 0 \quad (4.17)$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 y - \partial_\sigma^2 y - \frac{\partial_y H}{2} \lambda^2 = 0. \quad (4.18)$$

We now need to specify the function  $H(u, x, y)$ , which describes the gravitational wave. This function needs to satisfy eq. (4.7). The two most simple nontrivial solutions are

$$H = (x^2 - y^2)f(u) \quad (4.19)$$

$$H = xyf(u), \quad (4.20)$$

where  $f(u)$  is an arbitrary function of  $u$ . These correspond to basic polarizations of the gravitational wave. First, we will use the former polarization. The last thing we need is the function  $f(u)$  and we will analyze few choices of this function in the following sections.

## 4.1 Periodic gravitational wave

We will start with a simple cos function with frequency  $\omega$ . The function  $H$  then takes the form

$$H(u, x, y) = A(x^2 - y^2) \cos(\omega u) = A(x^2 - y^2) \cos(\omega \lambda \tau). \quad (4.21)$$

The equations of motion are given by eq. (1.17) are take the form **!MISTAKE IN V EQUATION - WILL CORRECT SOON!**

$$\partial_\tau^2 v - \partial_\sigma^2 v - A\omega\lambda^2(x^2 - y^2) \sin(\omega\lambda\tau) = 0$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 x - \partial_\sigma^2 x - A\lambda^2 x \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) = 0 \quad (4.22)$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 y - \partial_\sigma^2 y + A\lambda^2 y \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) = 0.$$

We will now focus on the equation for  $x$ . We can separate this partial differential equation of second order such that  $x(\tau, \sigma) = T(\tau) \cdot S(\sigma)$ . This leads to

$$T''(\tau)S(\sigma) - T(\tau)S''(\sigma) - T(\tau)S(\sigma)A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) = 0 \quad (4.23)$$

$\Downarrow$

$$\frac{T''}{T}(\tau) - \lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) = \frac{S''}{S}(\sigma). \quad (4.24)$$

Because both each side of this equation is a function of independent parameters, it can only be equal to a constant, that we will write as  $-k^2$

$$\partial_\tau^2 T = - \left( k^2 - A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \right) T \quad (4.25)$$

$$\partial_\sigma^2 S = -k^2 S. \quad (4.26)$$

The second eq. (4.26) is just a Helmholtz equation. Its solution for a given  $k$  can be expressed in the following way:

$$S_k(\sigma) = c_1 e^{ik\sigma} + c_2 e^{-ik\sigma}. \quad (4.27)$$

On the other hand, eq. (4.25) is similar to Mathieu equation, which has the form:

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} + [a - 2q \cos(2x)] y = 0. \quad (4.28)$$

Substituting  $x = \omega\lambda\tau/2$  gives us the canonical form of Mathieu's differential equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \left[ \left( \frac{2k}{\omega\lambda} \right)^2 - A \left( \frac{2}{\omega} \right)^2 \cos(2x) \right] T = 0, \quad (4.29)$$

where we can assign

$$a = \left( \frac{2k}{\omega\lambda} \right)^2 \quad (4.30)$$

$$q = \frac{2A}{\omega^2}. \quad (4.31)$$

The solutions of the Mathieu equation are described in detail in [?]. For us, the qualitative study will suffice. Figure 4.1 depicts the stability of solutions based on its parameters  $a$  and  $q$ . We can see, that if

$$\left( \frac{2k}{\omega\lambda} \right)^2 \approx n^2, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad (4.32)$$

the string becomes unstable even for small amplitudes  $A$ . Physically, this corresponds to some kind of resonance between the natural frequency of the string  $k$  (if there was no gravitational wave) and the frequency of the gravitational wave  $\omega$ . Also, if we fix the frequency  $\omega$ , the change of the amplitude  $A$  will correspond to horizontal lines in fig. 4.1. On the other hand, fixing the amplitude  $A$  to a specific value and letting the frequency  $\omega$  vary will results in lines, that intersect the origin with slope  $2k^2/(A\lambda^2)$ . Also, due to the inverse dependence on  $\omega^2$ , the higher the frequency, the closer to zero.

Numerical solutions of the equations of motion coincide with this analysis, but we can not find a good way to measure the energy the string in this background. We will therefore turn to the next section, where we hope to solve this problem with different profile of gravitational waves.

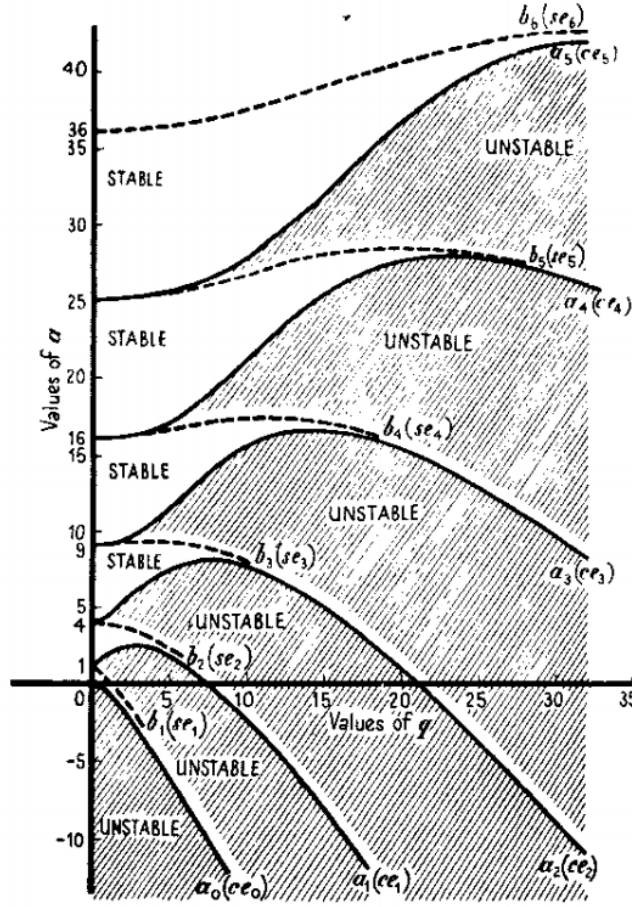


Figure 4.1: Stability of solutions to Mathieu equation (4.28) taken from [?].

## 4.2 Gaussian burst of gravitational wave

In this section, we will study, how a burst of gravitational waves affects the motion of a string in flat space-time. We will choose  $f(u)$  in eq. (4.19) to be a Gaussian burst of periodical gravitational wave:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(u, x, y) &= (x^2 - y^2) \cos(\omega u) \exp\left(-\frac{(u - u_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \\
 &= (x^2 - y^2) \cos(\omega \lambda \tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right)
 \end{aligned} \tag{4.33}$$

with frequency  $\omega$ , length at half maximum  $\rho$  and centered around proper time  $\tau_0$ .

The string is initially in a flat space, because  $H$  is almost zero. Then comes the burst of gravitational waves and, after some time, it fades away. During this time, it is not easy to identify what is a time-like coordinate and how the string really moves, but after the burst ends, the metric returns again to the form of flat space-time. This allows us to evaluate how the string changed its behaviour, specifically, to calculate the energy of the string before and after the gravitational wave burst hits it. We want to create a graph showing the amount of energy

transferred between the string and the gravitational wave burst and compare it with fig. 4.1.

Calculating the equations of motion from eq. (1.17) gives us

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_\tau^2 v - \partial_\sigma^2 v - A\lambda(x^2 - y^2) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \cdot \\ \cdot \left[ \omega\lambda \sin(\omega\lambda\tau) + \frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)}{\rho^2} \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \right] = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (4.34)$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 x - \partial_\sigma^2 x - A\lambda^2 x \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) = 0 \quad (4.35)$$

$$\partial_\tau^2 y - \partial_\sigma^2 y + A\lambda^2 y \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) = 0. \quad (4.36)$$

Since  $v$ ,  $x$  and  $y$  are  $\sigma_1$  periodic in  $\sigma$ , we can expand them into Fourier series

$$v(\sigma, \tau) = \sum_{k_v \in \mathbb{Z}} v_{k_v}(\tau) e^{2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} \quad v_{k_v}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \int_0^{\sigma_1} v(\sigma, \tau) e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} \quad (4.37)$$

$$x(\sigma, \tau) = \sum_{k_x \in \mathbb{Z}} x_{k_x}(\tau) e^{2\pi i k_x \sigma / \sigma_1} \quad x_{k_x}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \int_0^{\sigma_1} x(\sigma, \tau) e^{-2\pi i k_x \sigma / \sigma_1} \quad (4.38)$$

$$y(\sigma, \tau) = \sum_{k_y \in \mathbb{Z}} y_{k_y}(\tau) e^{2\pi i k_y \sigma / \sigma_1} \quad y_{k_y}(\tau) = \frac{1}{\sigma_1} \int_0^{\sigma_1} y(\sigma, \tau) e^{-2\pi i k_y \sigma / \sigma_1}. \quad (4.39)$$

The equations for  $x$  and  $y$  then take the form

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \partial_\tau^2 - \partial_\sigma^2 - A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \right] \sum_{k_x} x_{k_x} e^{2\pi i k_x \sigma / \sigma_1} \\ = \sum_{k_x} \left[ \partial_\tau^2 + k_x^2 - A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \right] x_{k_x} e^{2\pi i k_x \sigma / \sigma_1} = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (4.40)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ \partial_\tau^2 - \partial_\sigma^2 + A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \right] \sum_{k_y} y_{k_y} e^{2\pi i k_y \sigma / \sigma_1} \\ \sum_{k_y} \left[ \partial_\tau^2 + k_y^2 + A\lambda^2 \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \right] y_{k_y} e^{2\pi i k_y \sigma / \sigma_1} = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (4.41)$$

In order that this is equal to zero, every term in the sum must vanish. The equation for  $v$  is a little bit more complicated so for more clarity in the equations, we will denote

$$h(\tau) = A\lambda \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)^2}{2\rho^2}\right) \left[ \omega\lambda \sin(\omega\lambda\tau) + \frac{\lambda^2(\tau - \tau_0)}{\rho^2} \cos(\omega\lambda\tau) \right] \quad (4.42)$$

If we multiply the equation by  $e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1}$  and integrate over  $\sigma$ , we get

$$\int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} (\partial_\tau^2 - \partial_\sigma^2) v \, d\sigma = \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} (x^2 - y^2) h(\tau) \, d\sigma \quad (4.43)$$

We will modify each side of the equation independently. The left side can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} (\partial_\tau^2 - \partial_\sigma^2) \sum_{k'_v} v_{k'_v} e^{i k'_v \sigma} \, d\sigma &= \sum_{k'_v} \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{-2\pi i (k_v - k'_v) \sigma / \sigma_1} \, d\sigma (\partial_\tau^2 + k_v'^2) v_{k'_v} \\ &= \sum_{k'_v} \sigma_1 \delta_{k_v}^{k'_v} (\partial_\tau^2 + k_v'^2) v_{k'_v} = \sigma_1 (\partial_\tau^2 + k_v^2) v_{k_v} \end{aligned} \quad (4.44)$$

Now to simplify the right side of eq. (4.43)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{-2\pi i k_v \sigma / \sigma_1} \left( \sum_{k_x} \sum_{k'_x} x_{k_x} x_{k'_x} e^{2\pi i (k_x + k'_x) \sigma / \sigma_1} - \sum_{k_y} \sum_{k'_y} y_{k_y} y_{k'_y} e^{2\pi i (k_y + k'_y) \sigma / \sigma_1} \right) h(\tau) \, d\sigma \\ = \left( \sum_{k_x k'_x} x_{k_x} x_{k'_x} \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{2\pi i (k_x + k'_x - k_v) \sigma / \sigma_1} \, d\sigma - \sum_{k_y k'_y} y_{k_y} y_{k'_y} \int_0^{\sigma_1} e^{2\pi i (k_y + k'_y - k_v) \sigma / \sigma_1} \, d\sigma \right) h(\tau) \\ = \sigma_1 \left( \sum_{k_x k'_x} x_{k_x} x_{k'_x} \delta_{k_x - k_v}^{k'_x} - \sum_{k_y k'_y} y_{k_y} y_{k'_y} \delta_{k_y - k_v}^{k'_y} \right) h(\tau) \\ = \sigma_1 \left( \sum_{k_x} x_{k_x} x_{k_x - k_v} - \sum_{k_y} y_{k_y} y_{k_y - k_v} \right) h(\tau) \end{aligned} \quad (4.45)$$

Combining eq. (4.44) with eq. (4.45), we arrive at equations for  $v_{k_v}$

$$(\partial_\tau^2 + k_v^2) v_{k_v} = \left( \sum_{k_x} x_{k_x} x_{k_x - k_v} - \sum_{k_y} y_{k_y} y_{k_y - k_v} \right) h(\tau) \quad (4.46)$$

Equations (4.40), (4.41) and (4.46) together with eq. (4.15) describe the motion of the string affected by a burst gravitational waves. We can notice, that the equations for  $x_{k_x}$  (4.40) and  $y_{k_y}$  (4.41) depend only on the  $k_x$  or  $k_y$  modes respectively. Because of this, we can say, that every mode that is zero at the beginning will also be zero throughout the motion. However the  $k_v$ -th mode of  $v$  is affected by the modes of  $x$  and  $y$ .

We will study a string that is initially circular in the  $x, y$  plane. The components  $x_{k_x}$  and  $y_{k_y}$  are nonzero only for  $k_{x/y} = \pm 1$ , specifically

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= \frac{r_0}{2}, & x_{-1} &= \frac{r_0}{2} \\ y_1 &= \frac{r_0}{2i}, & y_{-1} &= -\frac{r_0}{2i}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.47)$$

Furthermore, we will set the  $k_v = 0$  mode to be  $v_0 = \varepsilon\tau$ . The contributions from the  $x$  and  $y$  modes will affect only  $k_v = \{-2, 0, 2\}$  modes. We want to look at a string that is initially in rest with respect to the observer and is in static gauge. This can be satisfied if

$$\partial_\tau t(\tau = 0) = \partial_\tau \frac{\sqrt{2}(u - v)}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}(\lambda - \varepsilon)}{2} = 1 \quad (4.48)$$

$$\partial_\tau z(\tau = 0) = \partial_\tau \frac{\sqrt{2}(u + v)}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}(\lambda + \varepsilon)}{2} = 0. \quad (4.49)$$

This gives us the initial parameterization of the string

$$\lambda = -\varepsilon = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}. \quad (4.50)$$

Now we can solve the eqs. (4.40), (4.41) and (4.46) numerically with these initial values. Since the behaviour of the strings varies a lot, will measure the rest energy of the string after its interaction with the burst of gravitational waves. This energy is given by eq. (2.21). After the gravitational wave burst has come to pass, the space-time is flat again. We can therefore make the same arguments as in section 2.2 and arrive at the fact, that the only contribution to the four-momenta will come from the 0-th modes. The only non-zero components of the four-momenta are given by

$$p_u = \int_0^{\sigma_1} \partial_\tau v \, d\sigma = \partial_\tau v \, \sigma_1 \quad (4.51)$$

$$p_v = \int_0^{\sigma_1} \partial_\tau u \, d\sigma = \lambda \sigma_1. \quad (4.52)$$

The rest energy of the string is then calculated as

$$m = \sigma_1 \sqrt{-2\lambda \partial_\tau v} \quad (4.53)$$

Figure 4.2: Energy received or taken away by a burst of gravitational waves based on its frequency and amplitude.

In fig. 4.2, we can see how much energy the string received based on the frequency and amplitude of the gravitational wave burst.





# Conclusion

In this thesis, our main goal was to study the motion of a classical relativistic string in a curved spacetime, specifically in a constantly expanding universe and in flat spacetime with gravitational wave background. Throughout the way, we also derived very useful tools for solving the equations of motion of a classical string in curved spacetime.

In the first chapter, we explained the difference of solving equations of motion for a particle vs solving them for a string. We have intuitively shown, how the action looks like and derived the equations of motion together with the boundary conditions.

In the second chapter, we briefly studied a classical string in flat spacetime. We have demonstrated how the choice of parameterization can simplify the equations of motion. Also, we have shown how to calculate the rest energy of a string, which is used in the fourth chapter.

In the third chapter, we took a look at circular strings in a constantly expanding universe. We have briefly described why the metric of an expanding universe has this form. Moreover, we used the action principle developed in the first chapter and derived the equations of motion. Because of the complicated nature of these equations, we resorted to different approaches, such as calculating a potential and using the conservation of energy. This allowed us to find all solutions and describe how the string is affected by this expansion of the universe.

In the final, fourth chapter, we studied relativistic strings in flat spacetime, but with gravitational wave background. First, we have shown that this form of the metric is a solution to the vacuum Einstein's equations and what it implies on its components. Second, with the right choice of parameterization, we arrived at equations of motion on periodic gravitational wave background. Furthermore, we have rewritten two of these equations into the form of Mathieu equation and discussed the regions of stability and instability of the solutions. Last, but not least, we looked at how the string is affected by a burst of gravitational waves. This allowed us to properly evaluate the effect of this burst on an initially circular string, specifically how its energy changed.



