

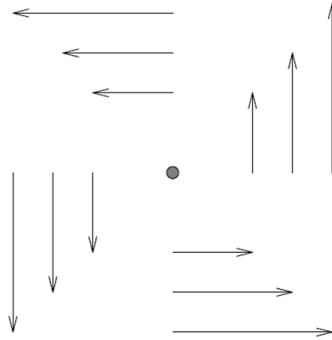
Lecture 15. 05.03.2018

Example 4.1.12. The acceleration of a velocity field representing rigid rotation

The velocity field is

$$\vec{v} = r\omega\vec{e}_\theta = \omega\vec{e}_\theta$$

Note that the co-ordinate component of the velocity is not equal to the physical velocity component. *The physical velocity components are those in an orthonormal basis.*



We shall calculate the acceleration field,  $\vec{a} = \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$ . Using the chain rule of differentiation we get

$$\vec{a} = \frac{\partial\vec{v}}{\partial x^\mu} \frac{dx^\mu}{dt} = v^\mu \frac{\partial\vec{v}}{\partial x^\mu}$$

Since the only non-vanishing velocity component is  $v^\theta = \omega$  we get

$$\vec{a} = \omega \frac{\partial\vec{v}}{\partial\theta}$$

This gives

$$\vec{a} = \omega \frac{\partial(\omega\vec{e}_\theta)}{\partial\theta} = \omega^2 \frac{\partial\vec{e}_\theta}{\partial\theta}$$

We have found earlier that

$$\vec{e}_r = \cos\theta\vec{e}_x + \sin\theta\vec{e}_y, \quad \vec{e}_\theta = -r\sin\theta\vec{e}_x + r\cos\theta\vec{e}_y.$$

Differentiation gives

$$\frac{\partial\vec{e}_\theta}{\partial\theta} = -r\cos\theta\vec{e}_x - r\sin\theta\vec{e}_y = -r\vec{e}_r = -r\vec{e}_r.$$

Hence the acceleration is

$$\vec{a} = -r\omega^2\vec{e}_r.$$

This is the centripetal acceleration for circular motion.

Letting  $\{x^i\} = x, y$  be Cartesian coordinates with orthonormal basis vectors we shall here use the formula

$$\Gamma_{\alpha\beta}^{\mu} = \frac{\partial x^{\mu}}{\partial x^{\hat{\nu}}} \frac{\partial^2 x^{\hat{\nu}}}{\partial x^{\alpha} \partial x^{\beta}}$$

to calculate the Christoffel symbols in a polar co-ordinate system, with  $\{x^i\} = r, \theta$ .

**Example 4.2.1 (The Christoffel symbols in plane polar coordinates)**

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \arctan \frac{y}{x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} &= \cos \theta, & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} &= -r \sin \theta & \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} &= \frac{x}{r} = \cos \theta, & \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} &= \sin \theta \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} &= \sin \theta, & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} &= r \cos \theta & \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} &= -\frac{\sin \theta}{r}, & \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} &= \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{\theta\theta}^r &= \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial \theta^2} \\ &= \cos \theta (-r \cos \theta) + \sin \theta (-r \sin \theta) \\ &= -r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = -r \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{r\theta}^{\theta} = \Gamma_{\theta r}^{\theta} &= \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 x}{\partial \theta \partial r} + \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial \theta \partial r} \\ &= -\frac{\sin \theta}{r} (-\sin \theta) + \frac{\cos \theta}{r} (\cos \theta) \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \end{aligned}$$

## Parallel transport

The geometrical interpretation of the covariant derivative was given by Levi-Civita.

Consider a curve  $S$  in any (eg. curved) space. It is parameterized by  $\lambda$ , ie.  $x^\mu = x^\mu(\lambda)$ .  $\lambda$  is invariant and chosen to be the curve length.

The tangent vector field of the curve is  $\vec{u} = (dx^\mu/d\lambda)\vec{e}_\mu$ . The curve passes through a vector field  $\vec{A}$ . The covariant directional derivative of the vector field along the curve is defined as:

$$\nabla_{\vec{u}}\vec{A} = \frac{d\vec{A}}{d\lambda} \equiv A^\mu{}_{;\nu} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\lambda} \vec{e}_\mu = A^\mu{}_{;\nu} u^\nu \vec{e}_\mu \quad (4.27)$$

The vectors in the vector field are said to be connected by parallel transport along the curve if

$$A^\mu{}_{;\nu} u^\nu = 0$$

### Definition 4.3.1 (Geodesic curves)

A geodesic curve is defined in such a way that, the vectors of the tangent vector field of the curve is connected by parallel transport.

This definition says that geodesic curves are 'as straight as possible'.

If vectors in a vector field  $\vec{A}(\lambda)$  are connected by parallel transport by a displacement along a vector  $\vec{u}$ , we have  $A^\mu{}_{;\nu} u^\nu = 0$ . For geodesic curves, we then have:

$$u^\mu{}_{;\nu} u^\nu = 0 \quad (4.30)$$

which is the *geodesic equation*.

$$(u^\mu{}_{;\nu} + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\nu} u^\alpha) u^\nu = 0 \quad (4.31)$$

Then we are using that  $\frac{d}{d\lambda} \equiv \frac{dx^\nu}{d\lambda} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu} = u^\nu \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\nu}$  :

$$\frac{du^\mu}{d\lambda} = u^\nu \frac{\partial u^\mu}{\partial x^\nu} = u^\nu u^\mu{}_{;\nu} \quad (4.32)$$

The geodesic equation can also be written as:

$$\frac{du^\mu}{d\lambda} + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\nu} u^\alpha u^\nu = 0 \quad (4.33)$$

Usual notation:  $\dot{\phantom{x}} = \frac{d}{d\lambda}$

$$u^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda} = \dot{x}^\mu \quad (4.34)$$

$$\boxed{\ddot{x}^\mu + \Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\nu} \dot{x}^\alpha \dot{x}^\nu = 0} \quad (4.35)$$

## 4.4 The covariant Euler-Lagrange equations

Geodesic curves can also be defined as curves with an extremal distance between two points. Let a particle have a world-line (in space-time) between two points (events)  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . Let the curves be described by an invariant parameter  $\lambda$  (proper time  $\tau$  is used for particles with a rest mass).

### The covariant Euler-Lagrange equations

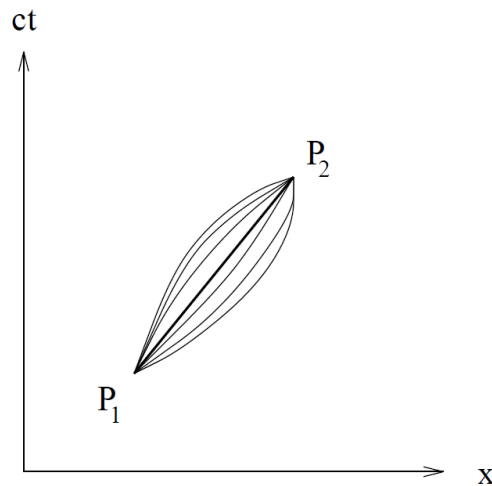


Figure 4.2: Different world-lines connecting  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  in a Minkowski diagram

The Lagrange-function is a function of coordinates and their derivatives,

$$L = L(x^\mu, \dot{x}^\mu), \quad \dot{x}^\mu \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\lambda}. \quad (4.36)$$

(Note: if  $\lambda = \tau$  then  $\dot{x}^\mu$  are the 4-velocity components)

The action-integral is  $S = \int L(x^\mu, \dot{x}^\mu) d\lambda$ . The principle of extremal action (Hamiltons-principle): The world-line of a particle is determined by the condition that  $S$  shall be extremal for all infinitesimal variations of curves which keep  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  rigid, ie.

$$\delta \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} L(x^\mu, \dot{x}^\mu) d\lambda = 0, \quad (4.37)$$

where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the parameter-values at  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . For all the variations the following condition applies:

$$\delta x^\mu(\lambda_1) = \delta x^\mu(\lambda_2) = 0 \quad (4.38)$$

We write Eq. (4.37) as

$$\delta \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} L d\lambda = \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial x^\mu} \delta x^\mu + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \delta \dot{x}^\mu \right] d\lambda \quad (4.39)$$

Partial integration of the last term

$$\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \delta \dot{x}^\mu d\lambda = \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \delta x^\mu \right]_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} - \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \frac{d}{d\lambda} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \right) \delta x^\mu d\lambda \quad (4.40)$$

Due to the conditions  $\delta x^\mu(\lambda_1) = \delta x^\mu(\lambda_2) = 0$  the first term becomes zero. Then we have :

$$\delta S = \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{d}{d\lambda} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \right) \right] \delta x^\mu d\lambda \quad (4.41)$$

The world-line the particle follows is determined by the condition  $\delta S = 0$  for any variation  $\delta x^\mu$ . Hence, the world-line of the particle must be given by

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial L}{\partial x^\mu} - \frac{d}{d\lambda} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^\mu} \right) = 0} \quad (4.42)$$

These are the covariant **Euler-Lagrange** equations.

We shall later show that it is a consequence of Einstein's field equations that free particles (i.e. particles acted upon only by gravity in Newtonian terms) follow geodesics curves in spacetime.

A free particle in space-time (curved space-time includes gravitation) has the Lagrange function

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}_\mu \dot{x}^\mu = \frac{1}{2} g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu \quad (4.45)$$

An integral of the Lagrange-equations is obtained readily from the 4-velocity identity:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_\mu \dot{x}^\mu = -c^2 & \text{for a particle with rest-mass} \\ \dot{x}_\mu \dot{x}^\mu = 0 & \text{for light} \end{cases} \quad (4.46)$$

The line-element is:

$$ds^2 = g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu = g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu d\lambda^2 = 2L d\lambda^2 . \quad (4.47)$$

Thus the Lagrange function of a free particle is obtained from the line-element.