

Motion of particles and light rays in the neighborhood of a spherical mass

The Schwarzschild metric

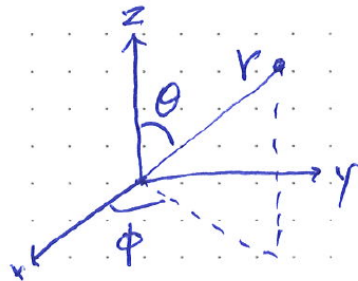
For empty space in the neighborhood of a spherical mass, the invariant distance between two events is

$$c^2(d\tau)^2 = \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}\right) (c dt)^2 - \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}\right)^{-1} (dr)^2 - r^2(d\theta)^2 - r^2 \sin^2\theta (d\phi)^2$$

($d\tau$ = proper time for time like separations)

We're using these coordinates: $\{t, r, \theta, \phi\}$

(polar coordinates for the 3D space at a constant time)



$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \sin\theta \cos\phi \\y &= r \sin\theta \sin\phi \\z &= r \cos\theta\end{aligned}$$

We're interested in the trajectory for 4D spacetime.

Compare Minkowski space (mass $M = 0$)

$$c^2(d\tau)^2 = c^2(dt)^2 - (dx)^2 - (dy)^2 - (dz)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}dx &= dr \sin\theta \cos\phi + r \cos\theta d\theta \cos\phi - r \sin\theta \sin\phi d\phi \\dy &= dr \sin\theta \sin\phi + r \cos\theta d\theta \sin\phi + r \sin\theta \cos\phi d\phi \\dz &= dr \cos\theta - r \sin\theta d\theta\end{aligned}$$

$$c^2(d\tau)^2 = c^2(dt)^2 - (dr)^2 - r^2(d\theta)^2 - r^2 \sin^2\theta (d\phi)^2$$

The Schwarzschild metric tensor

$$c^2(d\tau)^2 = -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$$

i.e., $x^0 = ct$; $x^1 = r$; $x^2 = \theta$; $x^3 = \phi$.

$$g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{array}{c|cccc} & \cancel{t} & r & \theta & \phi \\ \hline \cancel{t} & -\Sigma(r) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ r & 0 & 1/\Sigma(r) & 0 & 0 \\ \theta & 0 & 0 & r^2 & 0 \\ \phi & 0 & 0 & 0 & r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{array}$$

$$\Sigma(r) = 1 - 2GM/c^2 r$$

A particle moves on a geodesic; i.e., on a curve Γ such that $\delta\tau = 0$ for any change of Γ .

A light ray (wave packet or photon) travels on a null geodesic; i.e., a geodesic with $\tau = 0$.

Now we could use the geodesic equation,

$$\frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} = -\Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau}$$

but then we would need to calculate the Christoffel symbols

$$\Gamma^\mu_{\alpha\beta} \quad \{ \mu, \alpha, \beta = t, r, \theta, \phi \}$$

Instead, it's easier to go back to first principles. Require $\delta\tau = 0$ where

$$c^2 \tau(r) = \int_0^1 \sqrt{-g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\sigma} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\sigma}} d\sigma$$

$\Rightarrow$ the Euler-Lagrange equations

$$d/d\sigma (\partial L / \partial \xi') - \partial L / \partial \xi = 0$$

for all 4 independent variations $\delta\xi = \delta t, \delta r, \delta\theta, \delta\phi$.

Euler-Lagrange equations

$$d/d\sigma (\partial L / \partial \dot{\xi}) - \partial L / \partial \xi = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad \xi = t, r, \theta, \phi;$$

$$\text{with} \quad L = (-g_{\mu\nu} \dot{x}^\mu \dot{x}^\nu)^{1/2}$$

{ $\dot{x}^\mu$ means $dx^\mu / d\sigma$ }

Note:

$$c d\tau = \sqrt{-g_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\mu}{d\sigma} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\sigma}} d\sigma$$
$$\sqrt{-g_{\dot{x}\dot{x}}} = c d\tau / d\sigma$$

Case of δt (or, δx^0 where $x^0 = ct$)

$$0 = \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}^0} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial x^0}$$
$$= \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (-g_{\dot{x}\dot{x}})^{-1/2} (-g_{00}) 2 \frac{dx^0}{d\sigma} \right\} - 0$$
$$= \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left\{ \Sigma(r) \frac{dt}{d\tau} \right\} \quad \underline{g_{00} = -\Sigma(r)}$$

Result $\Sigma(r) \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \alpha, \text{ a constant. } \textcircled{1}$

This constant of the motion is related to **energy**; the metric is invariant with respect to translations in time.

Case of $\delta\phi$

$$0 = \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\phi}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \phi}$$
$$= \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (-g_{\dot{x}\dot{x}})^{-1/2} (-g_{\phi\phi}) 2 \frac{d\phi}{d\sigma} \right\} - 0$$
$$= \frac{d}{d\sigma} \left\{ -r^2 \sin^2(\theta) \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} \right\} \quad \underline{g_{\phi\phi} = r^2 \sin^2\theta}$$

Result $r^2 \sin^2\theta \frac{d\phi}{d\tau} = \lambda, \text{ a constant. } \textcircled{2}$

This constant of the motion is related to **angular momentum**; the metric is invariant with respect to translations in ϕ .

Case of $\delta\theta$

$$0 = \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta}$$

$$= \frac{d}{dr} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} (-g\dot{x}\dot{x})^{-\frac{1}{2}} (-g_{\theta\theta})^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr} \right\} - \frac{1}{2} (-g\dot{x}\dot{x})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(-\frac{\partial g_{\theta\theta}}{\partial \theta} \right) \left(\frac{d\theta}{dr} \right)^2$$

$$0 = (-g\dot{x}\dot{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{d}{dr} \left\{ -r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr} \right\} + \frac{1}{2} (-g\dot{x}\dot{x})^{\frac{1}{2}} 2r^2 \sin\theta \cos\theta \left(\frac{d\theta}{dr} \right)^2$$

$$0 = \frac{d}{dr} \left(-r^2 \frac{d\theta}{dr} \right) + r^2 \sin\theta \cos\theta \left(\frac{d\theta}{dr} \right)^2$$

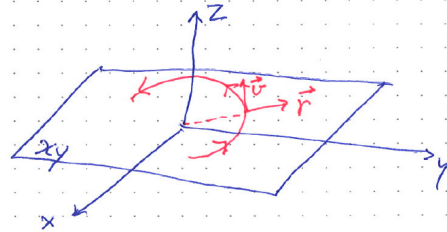
We have a solution for this equation.

$$\theta = \pi/2$$

Why?

The orbit will lie in a plane, because angular momentum is conserved. Choose the orbit plane to be the xy plane. All points in the xy plane have $\theta = \pi/2$.

(Newtonian: $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{mv} = mrv \sin(\theta(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{v})) \mathbf{e}_z$
 $\mathbf{L}$ is always parallel to the z-axis, so $\mathbf{r}$ and $\mathbf{v}$ are always in the xy plane.)



Now go back and put $\theta = \pi/2$ into the equations.

$$\Sigma(r) \frac{dt}{dr} = \alpha \quad (1)$$

$$r^2 \frac{d\phi}{dr} = \lambda \quad (2)$$

Case of δr

We don't need to derive the Euler-Lagrange equation for r ; instead, we can just use this:

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 (d\tau)^2 &= -g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu \quad \leftarrow \overline{g_{rr} = \frac{1}{\Sigma(r)}} \\ &= -g_{00} (c dt)^2 - g_{rr} (dr)^2 - g_{\theta\theta} (d\theta)^2 - g_{\phi\phi} (d\phi)^2 \\ &= \Sigma c^2 \left(\frac{d\tau}{\Sigma} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{\Sigma} (dr)^2 - r^2 (d\theta)^2 - r^2 \sin^2 \theta \left(\frac{d\phi}{r^2} \right)^2 \\ \theta &= \pi/2, \quad d\theta = 0 \\ &= \frac{\alpha^2}{\Sigma} c^2 (d\tau)^2 - \frac{(dr)^2}{\Sigma} - \frac{\lambda^2}{r^2} (d\tau)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Result

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\tau} \right)^2 = (\alpha^2 - \Sigma) c^2 - \frac{\lambda^2}{r^2} \Sigma \quad (3)$$

The orbit curve: what is $r(\phi)$?

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi} \right)^2 = \frac{(dr/d\tau)^2}{(d\phi/d\tau)^2} = \frac{(\alpha^2 - \Sigma) c^2 - \lambda^2 \Sigma / r^2}{(\lambda / r^2)^2}$$

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi} \right)^2 = \frac{r^4}{\lambda^2} \left\{ (\alpha^2 - \Sigma) c^2 - \frac{\lambda^2}{r^2} \Sigma \right\}$$

$$\overline{\Sigma(r) = 1 - \frac{2GM}{c^2 r}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{dr}{d\phi} \right)^2 &= \frac{(\alpha^2 - 1) c^2}{\lambda^2} r^4 + \frac{2GM}{\lambda^2} r^3 - r^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{2GM}{c^2} r \end{aligned}$$

Newtonian mechanics for planetary motion

Energy is conserved and angular momentum is conserved.

Newtonian Mechanics for planetary motion

Energy is conserved,

$$\frac{1}{2} m \dot{r}^2 + \frac{L^2}{2mr^2} - \frac{GMm}{r} = E = m\mathcal{E};$$

and angular momentum is conserved

$$mr^2 \frac{d\phi}{dt} = L = m\lambda.$$

So, we have

$$\dot{r}^2 = 2\mathcal{E} - \frac{\lambda^2}{r^2} + \frac{2GM}{r}$$

$$\text{and } \dot{\phi}^2 = \left(\frac{\lambda}{r^2}\right)^2.$$

Thus the orbit equation is

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi}\right)^2 = \frac{\dot{r}^2}{\dot{\phi}^2} = \frac{r^4}{\lambda^2} \left\{ 2\mathcal{E} - \frac{\lambda^2}{r^2} + \frac{2GM}{r} \right\}$$

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi}\right)^2 = \frac{2\mathcal{E}}{\lambda^2} r^4 - r^2 + \frac{2GM}{\lambda^2} r^3$$

Compare the orbit equation from Newtonian mechanics, to the orbit equation from General Relativity.

Compare the equation from G.R.:

Let $2\mathcal{E} = (\alpha^2 - 1)c^2$. Then for G.R.,

$$\left(\frac{dr}{d\phi}\right)^2 = \frac{2\mathcal{E}}{\lambda^2} r^4 + \frac{2GM}{\lambda^2} r^3 - r^2 + \frac{2GM}{c^2} r$$

For Newtonian Mechanics, the orbits are conic sections (hyperbola, parabola, or ellipse).
The relativity perturbation $= 2GM/c^2$.

Einstein's calculation of the precession of the perihelion of mercury, as a test of the theory of general relativity.

Next time: motion of light rays