

Physics 407-09
Assignment 6

1) Show that the vectors K_1^A and K_2^A with components

$$K_1^t = K_1^r = 0 \tag{1}$$

$$K_1^\theta = \cos(\phi) \tag{2}$$

$$K_1^\phi = -\sin(\phi) \cot(\theta) \tag{3}$$

and

$$K_2^t = K_2^r = 0 \tag{4}$$

$$K_2^\theta = \sin(\phi) \tag{5}$$

$$K_2^\phi = \cos(\phi) \cot(\theta) \tag{6}$$

are Killing vectors of the two dimensional metric

$$ds^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2$$

————— (Of course the Killing vectors are actually two dimensional, so there actually are no t or r components.)

The equation for a Killing vector is

$$K^k \partial_k g_{ij} + g_{kj} \partial_i K^k + g_{ik} \partial_j K^k \tag{7}$$

(using the summation convention) Thus

$$K^\theta \partial_\theta g_{ij} + g_{\theta j} \partial_i K^\theta + g_{\phi j} \partial_i K^\phi + g_{i\theta} \partial_j K^\theta + g_{i\phi} \partial_j K^\phi \tag{8}$$

Now, the only derivatives of K are with respect to θ or ϕ , and the only terms in g which are dependent on θ or ϕ is $g_{\phi\phi}$.

Also g is diagonal. The only terms which are nonzero are where i, j are θ, ϕ . (The first term is non=zero only if i, j are both ϕ . the second is always zero. Thus, the

$$\theta\theta \tag{9}$$

$$2g_{\theta\theta} \partial_\theta K^\theta = 0 \tag{10}$$

$$\theta\phi \tag{11}$$

$$g_{\phi\phi} \partial_\theta K^\phi + g_{\theta\theta} \partial_\phi K^\theta \tag{12}$$

$$\phi\phi \tag{13}$$

$$K^\theta \partial_\theta g_{\phi\phi} + 2g_{\phi\phi} \partial_\phi K^\phi \tag{14}$$

Each of these is zero.

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Show that the Lie derivative of K_1^A by K_2^A is the third rotational Killing vector whose ϕ component is 1 and others are zero.

$$(\mathcal{L}_{K_1} K_2)^i = K_1^\theta \partial_\theta K_2^i + K_1^\phi \partial_\phi K_2^i - K_2^\theta \partial_\theta K_1^i + K_2^\phi \partial_\phi K_1^i \quad (15)$$

The components are

$$\theta \quad (16)$$

$$K_1^\theta \partial_\theta K_2^\theta + K_1^\phi \partial_\phi K_2^\theta - K_2^\theta \partial_\theta K_1^\theta - K_2^\phi \partial_\phi K_1^\theta \quad (17)$$

$$= K_1^\phi \partial_\phi K_2^\theta - K_2^\phi \partial_\phi K_1^\theta = 0 \quad (18)$$

$$\phi \quad (19)$$

$$K_1^\theta \partial_\theta K_2^\phi + K_1^\phi \partial_\phi K_2^\phi - K_2^\theta \partial_\theta K_1^\phi - K_2^\phi \partial_\phi K_1^\phi \quad (20)$$

$$= \cos(\phi) \left(\cos(\phi) \frac{-1}{\sin^2(\theta)} + (-\sin(\phi)) \cot^2(\theta) (-\sin(\phi)) \right) \quad (21)$$

$$-\sin(\phi) (-\sin(\phi)) \frac{-1}{\sin^2(\theta)} + \cos^2(\phi) \cot^2(\theta) = -1 \quad (22)$$

2.a) Find the radial geodesic equations for light emitted from $r=0$ at $t = t_1$ and absorbed at $r = R$ at time $t = t_2$ in the standard t, r, θ, ϕ coordinates for the homogeneous and isotropic cosmological spacetimes.

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2 (dr^2 + r^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin^2(\theta)^2 d\phi^2))$$

Assume $\theta = \pi/2$. Given a divergence $\delta\phi$ in two light rays from the source, what is the spatial distance between them at $t = t_2$ and $r = R$. Assume that the light is emitted uniformly from the star at $r = 0$, $t = t_1$, how does the intensity of the light drop off as a function of R ? (If N photons per second are emitted uniformly in direction from the star at time t_1 how many of them will cross a unit area in unit time at $t = t_2$ and $r = R$?)

$$-2 \frac{d}{ds} (a^2 r^2 \sin^2(\theta) \frac{d\phi}{ds}) = 0 \quad (23)$$

$$-2 \frac{d}{ds} (a^2 r^2 \frac{d\theta}{ds}) + 2a^2 r^2 \sin(\theta) \cos(\theta) \left(\frac{d\phi}{ds} \right)^2 = 0 \quad (24)$$

$$-2 \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{1}{1 - kr^2} \frac{dr}{ds} + 2a^2 r \left(\frac{d\theta^2}{ds} + \sin^2(\theta) \frac{d\phi^2}{ds} \right) \right) = 0 \quad (25)$$

$$2 \frac{d^2 t}{ds^2} + 2a \frac{da}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{1 - kr^2} \frac{dr^2}{ds} + r^2 \frac{d\theta^2}{ds} + r^2 \sin^2(\theta)^2 \frac{d\phi^2}{ds} \right) \quad (26)$$

The first equation gives

$$\frac{d\phi}{ds} = \frac{l}{a^2 r^2} \quad (27)$$

Substituting into the second one, multiplying by $a^2 r^2$, and defining defining $\lambda = \frac{ds}{a^2 r^2}$ we have

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{d\lambda^2} - \frac{l^2 \cos(\theta)}{\sin(\theta)^3} = 0 \quad (28)$$

or multiplying by $\frac{d\theta}{d\lambda}$ (29)

$$\frac{d\theta^2}{d\lambda} + \frac{l^2}{\sin(\theta)^2} = L^2 \quad (30)$$

or (31)

$$r^2 a^2 \frac{d\theta^2}{ds} = \frac{L^2}{a^2 r^2} - \frac{l^2}{a^2 r^2 \sin(\theta)^2} \quad (32)$$

In the same way, substituting the above into the r equation, and choosing $\mu = \int \frac{dt}{a^2}$ as the independent variable, we finally get

$$\frac{a^2}{1 - kr^2} \frac{dr^2}{ds} + \frac{L^2}{a^2 r^2} = K^2 \quad (33)$$

where K is a constant. We note that in order that r go to zero, we must have $L=0$, or the second term on the left will always dominate and be larger than K^2 before r gets to 0.

If we choose $L=0$, then the equation for the null geodesic is

$$0 = \frac{dt^2}{ds} - \frac{a^2}{1 - kr^2} dr^2 \quad (34)$$

or (35)

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - kr^2}}{a} \quad (36)$$

or (37)

$$\int_0^R \frac{dr}{1 - kr^2} = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{a(t)} \quad (38)$$

where t_1 is the time the light ray leaves from $r = 0$ and t_2 when it arrives at $r = R$.

If we assume another null ray leaves at $t_1 + \Delta t$ where Δt is very small, and arrives at $t_2 + \delta t$, then we have

$$\int_0^R \frac{dr}{1 - kr^2} = \int_{t_1 + \Delta t}^{t_2 + \delta t} \frac{dt}{a(t)} \quad (39)$$

Keeping only to lowest order in Δt and δt we finally get

$$\frac{\delta t}{a(t_2)} - \frac{\Delta t}{a(t_1)} = 0 \quad (40)$$

or

$$\text{deltat} = \frac{a(t_2)}{a(t_1)} \Delta t \quad (41)$$

This is the cosmological redshift.

If we assume that a particle leaves from $r=0$ at angles θ, ϕ those angles remain constant. Thus if there are N particles within some solid angle, there will be N particles always within that solid angle. The area designated by that solid angle with angles $\delta\theta, \delta\phi$ will be the proper distances corresponding to those angles— namely

$$\Delta A = (ar\delta\theta)(ar \sin(\theta)\delta\phi) \quad (42)$$

. Ie, the surface density of those particles will be $N/\Delta A$ Since $\delta\theta, \delta\phi, \theta$ all remain constant, the density scales as $\frac{1}{a(t)r}$. If the density at a unit distance from the source is ρ_1 (ie $a(t_1)r = 1$, then the density at the observation point R at time t_2 is $\frac{\rho_1}{(a(t_2)R)^2}$. Note that this is not just the distance from the star squared if the spatial metric is not flat, since the spatial distance is $a(t) \int_0^R \frac{dr}{1-kr^2}$

b) Show that the curve $r=0$ is a timelike geodesic.

From a) $L=K=0$ is a valid geodesic. But these imply that Θ, ϕ, r are all constants is a geodesic. Since only $\frac{dt}{ds}$ is non-zero, the length squared of the tangent vector is negative (ie it is a timelike geodesic).

3. Consider a flat, dust filled universe, for which $a(t) = a_0 t^{2/3}$. Write the metric in terms of the area coordinate R defined so that the angular part of the metric is $R^2(d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2)$, and t , the normal cosmological time.

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a(t)^2(dr^2 + r^2 d\theta^2 + r^2 \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2)$$

The circumference of the circle at $r, \theta = \pi/2$, is $2\pi a(t)r$. Choosing $R = a(t)r$, or $\frac{r=R}{a(t)}$ we get

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + a^2 \left(d\left(\frac{R}{a}\right)^2 + R^2 d\theta^2 + R^2 \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2 \right) \quad (43)$$

$$= -dt^2 + a^2 \left(\left(\frac{dR}{a} - R \frac{\dot{a}}{a^2} dt\right)^2 + R^2 \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2 \right) \quad (44)$$

$$= -(1 - H^2 R^2) dt^2 - 2HR dR dt + dR^2 + R^2 (d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2) \quad (45)$$

where $H = H(t) = \frac{d \ln(a(t))}{dt}$ If $a = a_0 t^{2/3}$, then $H = \frac{2}{3t}$.

As an interesting aside, if $a = a_0 e^{Ht}$, with H a constant, we can define a new t coordinate by

$$ds^2 = -(1 - H^2 R^2) (dt^2 + 2 \frac{HR}{1 - H^2 R^2} dt dR) + dR^2 \quad (46)$$

$$+R^2(d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2) \tag{47}$$

$$= -(1 - H^2 R^2) \left(dt + \frac{HR}{1 - H^2 R^2} dR \right)^2 + \left(1 + \frac{H^2 R^2}{1 - H^2 R^2} \right) dR^2 \tag{48}$$

$$+R^2(d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2) \tag{49}$$

Defining $\tau = t - \int \frac{HR}{1 - H^2 R^2} dR$, we finally have

$$ds^2 = -(1 - H^2 R^2) d\tau^2 + \frac{1}{1 - H^2 R^2} dR^2 + R^2(d\theta^2 + \sin(\theta)^2 d\phi^2) \tag{50}$$

Note that this has the same form as the Schwarzschild metric, with a singularity at $R = \frac{1}{H}$. This metric (with H constant) is DeSitter spacetime and the singular surface is the cosmological horizon. Note again that this horizon is a coordinate singularity.
