

Carter-Penrose diagrams and black holes

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Seminar Structure

- 1 Penrose diagrams
 - Idea
 - Obtaining Penrose diagrams from Minkowski space
 - Example
- 2 Black holes
- 3 Penrose diagram for a Schwarzschild black hole

Idea

- Curved spacetime manifolds can be often approximated by manifolds with high degrees of symmetry
- It would be useful to be able to draw spacetimes diagrams that capture global properties and casual structure of sufficiently symmetric spacetimes
- We need to do a conformal transformation which brings entire manifold onto a compact region such that we can fit the spacetime on a piece of paper.

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Minkowski space

- The Minkowski metric in polar coordinates:

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2, \quad (1)$$

where $d\Omega^2 = d\Theta^2 + \sin^2\Theta d\Phi^2$ is a metric on a unit two-sphere.

$$-\infty < t < \infty, 0 \leq r < \infty. \quad (2)$$

- We need coordinates with finite ranges - at first switch to null coordinates:

$$u = t - r, v = t + r \quad (3)$$

with corresponding ranges given by:

$$-\infty < u < \infty, -\infty < v < \infty, u \leq v. \quad (4)$$

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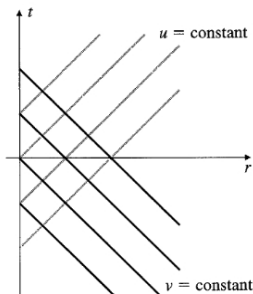
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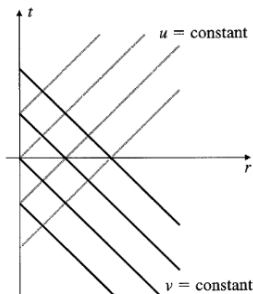


Null radial coordinates on Minkowski space.

Each point represents a 2-sphere of radius $r = \frac{1}{2}(v - u)$. The Minkowski metric in null coordinates is given by

$$ds^2 = -\frac{1}{2}(dudv + dvdu) + \frac{1}{4}(v - u)^2 d\Omega^2. \quad (5)$$

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calculating...

Using the arctangent we bring infinity into a finite coordinate value:

$$U = \arctan(u), \quad V = \arctan(v), \quad (6)$$

with ranges

$$-\pi/2 < U < \pi/2, \quad -\pi/2 < V < \pi/2, \quad U \leq V. \quad (7)$$

After easy calculations one gets that the metric given in (5) in this coordinates takes form:

$$ds^2 = \frac{1}{4 \cos^2 U \cos^2 V} \left[-2(dUdV + dVdU) + \sin^2(V - U)d\Omega^2 \right]. \quad (8)$$

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Transforming back to the timelike coordinate T and radial coordinate R :

$$T = U + V, R = V - U \quad (9)$$

with ranges

$$0 \leq R < \pi, |T| + R < \pi. \quad (10)$$

Now the metric is:

$$ds^2 = \omega^{-2}(T, R) (-dT^2 + dR^2 + \sin^2 R d\Omega^2). \quad (11)$$

where

$$\omega(T, R) = 2 \cos U \cos V = \cos T + \cos R. \quad (12)$$

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This describes the manifold $\mathbb{R} \times S^3$, where 3-sphere is maximally symmetric and static.

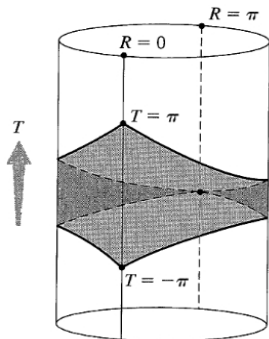
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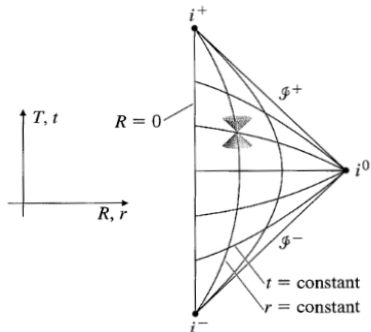
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Einstein static universe



The Einstein static universe, $\mathbf{R} \times S^3$, portrayed as a cylinder. The shaded region is conformally related to Minkowski space.

Conformal diagram of Minkowski space



The conformal diagram of Minkowski space. Light cones are at $\pm 45^\circ$ throughout the diagram.

...

The structure of the conformal diagram allows us to subdivide conformal infinity into a few different regions:

i^+ = future timelike infinity ($T = \pi$, $R = 0$)

i^0 = spatial infinity ($T = 0$, $R = \pi$)

i^- = past timelike infinity ($T = -\pi$, $R = 0$)

\mathcal{I}^+ = future null infinity ($T = \pi - R$, $0 < R < \pi$)

\mathcal{I}^- = past null infinity ($T = -\pi + R$, $0 < R < \pi$)

Note that i^+ , i^0 , and i^- are actually points, since $R = 0$ and $R = \pi$ are the north and south poles of S^3 . Meanwhile \mathcal{I}^+ and \mathcal{I}^- are actually null surfaces, with the topology of $\times S^2$.

...

The conformal diagram for Minkowski spacetime contains a number of important features: radial null geodesics are at the $\pm 45^\circ$ in the diagram. All timelike geodesics begin at i^- and end at i^+ . All null geodesics begin at \mathcal{I}^- and end at \mathcal{I}^+ ; all spacelike geodesics both begin and end at i^0 . On the other hand, there can be non-geodesic timelike curves that end at null infinity (if they become “asymptotically null”).

Example

- When we put polar coordinates on space, the metric becomes:

$$ds^2 = -dt^2 + t^{2q} (dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2) \quad (14)$$

with $0 < q < 1$.

- Crucial difference between this metric and that of Minkowski space: singularity at $t = 0$ - it restricts the range of coordinates:

$$0 < t < \infty, 0 \leq r < \infty. \quad (15)$$

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Example

We choose new time coordinate η called conformal time, which satisfies:

$$dt^2 = t^{2q} d\eta^2 \quad (16)$$

with range same as of t :

$$0 < \eta < \infty. \quad (17)$$

This allows us to bring out the scale factor as an overall conformal factor times Minkowski:

$$ds^2 = [(1 - q)\eta]^{2q/(1-q)} (-d\eta^2 + dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2) \quad (18)$$

...

After the same sequence of coordinate transformations as previously, one gets (η, r) to (T, R) with ranges:

$$0 \leq R, 0 < T, T + R < \pi. \quad (19)$$

the metric (18) becomes:

$$ds^2 = \omega^{-2}(T, R) (-dT^2 + dR^2 + \sin^2 R d\Omega^2) \quad (20)$$

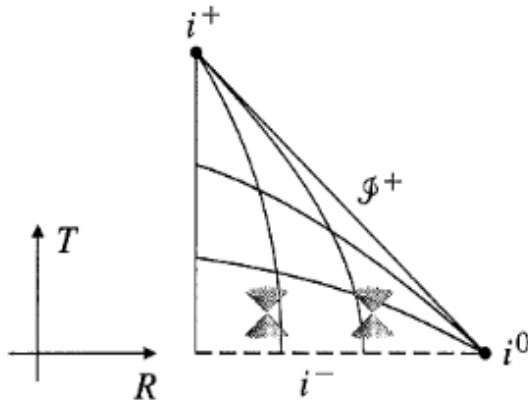


- Once again we expressed our metric as a conformal factor times that of the Einstein static universe.
- Difference between this case and that of flat spacetime: timelike coordinate ends at singularity $T = 0$



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Conformal diagram for a Robertson-Walker universe



More complicated spacetimes: black holes

- The conformal diagram gives us an idea of the casual structure of the spacetime, e.g. whether the past or future light cones of two specified points intersect.
- In Minkowski space this is always true for any two points. Curved spacetimes - more interesting.

More complicated spacetimes: black holes

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Very brief introduction

- Schwarzschild solution describes spherically symmetric vacuum spacetimes.
- Schwarzschild metric:

$$ds^2 = - \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r} \right) dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r} \right)^{-1} dr^2 + r^2 d\Omega^2 \quad (21)$$

- This is true for any spherically symmetric vacuum solution to Einstein's equations; M functions as a parameter. Note that as $M \rightarrow 0$ we recover Minkowski space, which is to be expected. Note also that the metric becomes progressively Minkowskian as we go to $r \rightarrow \infty$; this property is known as **asymptotic flatness**.

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Very brief introduction

One way of understanding a geometry is to explore its causal structure, as defined by the light cones. We therefore consider radial null curves, those for which θ and ϕ are constant and $ds^2 = 0$:

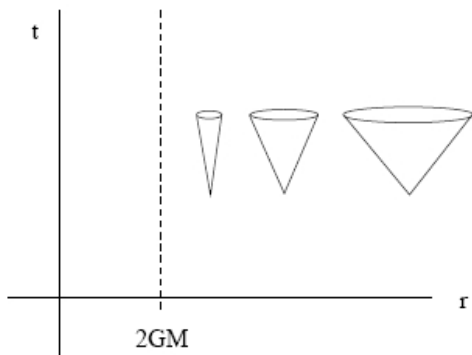
$$ds^2 = 0 = - \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right) dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right)^{-1} dr^2, \quad (22)$$

from which we see that

$$\frac{dt}{dr} = \pm \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{r}\right)^{-1} \quad (23)$$

This measures the slope of the light cones on a spacetime diagram of the t - r plane. For large r the slope is ± 1 , as it would be in flat space, while as we approach $r = 2GM$ we get $dt/dr \rightarrow \pm\infty$, and the light cones 'close up'

Very brief introduction



A light ray which approaches $r = 2GM$ never seems to get there, at least in this coordinate system; instead it seems to asymptote to this radius.

Very brief introduction

The problem with our current coordinates is that $dt/dr \rightarrow \infty$ along radial null geodesics which approach $r = 2GM$; progress in the r direction becomes slower and slower with respect to the coordinate time t . We suspect that our coordinates may not have been good for the entire manifold .

Fixing $r = 2GM$: Eddington-Finkelstein coordinates

- By changing coordinate t to the new one \tilde{u} , which has the nice property that if we decrease r along a radial curve null curve $\tilde{u} = \text{constant}$, we go right through the event horizon $r = 2GM$ without any problems.
- The region $r \leq 2GM$ is now included in our spacetime, since physical particles can easily reach there and pass through.
- Still, there are other directions in which we can extend our manifold.

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Kruskal coordinates

$$ds^2 = \frac{32G^3M^3}{r} e^{-r/2GM} (-dv^2 + du^2) + r^2 d\Omega^2 \quad (24)$$

where r is defined implicitly from

$$(u^2 - v^2) = \left(\frac{r}{2GM} - 1 \right) e^{r/2GM} \quad (25)$$

Penrose diagram for a Schwarzschild black hole

We start with the null version of the Kruskal coordinates, in which the metric takes the form

$$ds^2 = -\frac{16G^3M^3}{r}e^{-r/2GM}(du'dv' + dv'du') + r^2d\Omega^2, \quad (26)$$

where r is defined implicitly via

$$u'v' = \left(\frac{r}{2GM} - 1\right)e^{r/2GM}. \quad (27)$$

Penrose diagram for a Schwarzschild black hole

Then essentially the same transformation as was used in flat spacetime suffices to bring infinity into finite coordinate values:

$$u'' = \arctan\left(\frac{u'}{\sqrt{2GM}}\right), \quad v'' = \arctan\left(\frac{v'}{\sqrt{2GM}}\right), \quad (28)$$

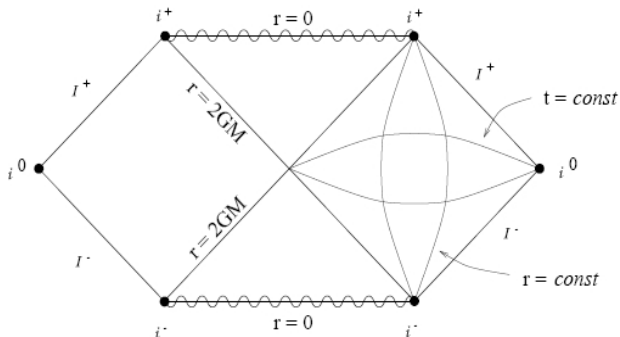
with ranges

$$-\pi/2 < u'' < +\pi/2, \quad -\pi/2 < v'' < +\pi/2, \quad -\pi < u'' + v'' < \pi. \quad (29)$$

Penrose diagram for a Schwarzschild black hole

The (u'', v'') part of the metric (that is, at constant angular coordinates) is now conformally related to Minkowski space. In the new coordinates the singularities at $r = 0$ are straight lines that stretch from timelike infinity in one asymptotic region to timelike infinity in the other.

Penrose diagram for a Schwarzschild black hole



The Penrose diagram for the maximally extended Schwarzschild solution

References

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Thanks for listening

