

Geodesics as distance minimizing curves

Let (M, g) be a Riemannian manifold and $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow M$ be a piecewise \mathcal{C}^1 curve, that is γ is continuous and there exists a division $a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m = b$ such that $\gamma|_{[t_i, t_{i+1}]}$ is \mathcal{C}^1 for every $i = 0, \dots, m-1$.

The length of γ is defined as

$$L(\gamma) = \int_a^b \|\gamma'(t)\|_{g(\gamma(t))} dt \quad \text{where} \quad \|\gamma'(t)\|_{g(\gamma(t))} = \sqrt{g_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))}.$$

The length of γ does not depend on parametrization, that is if $\phi: [a', b'] \rightarrow [a, b]$ is \mathcal{C}^1 with $\phi(a') = a$, $\phi(b') = b$ and $\phi' > 0$, then $L(\gamma) = L(\gamma \circ \phi)$.

Given two points $A, B \in M$, it is a natural question to find a curve $\gamma_0: [a, b] \rightarrow M$ such that

(DM1) $\gamma_0(a) = A$, $\gamma_0(b) = B$
 (DM2) $L(\gamma_0) = d(A, B)$

where

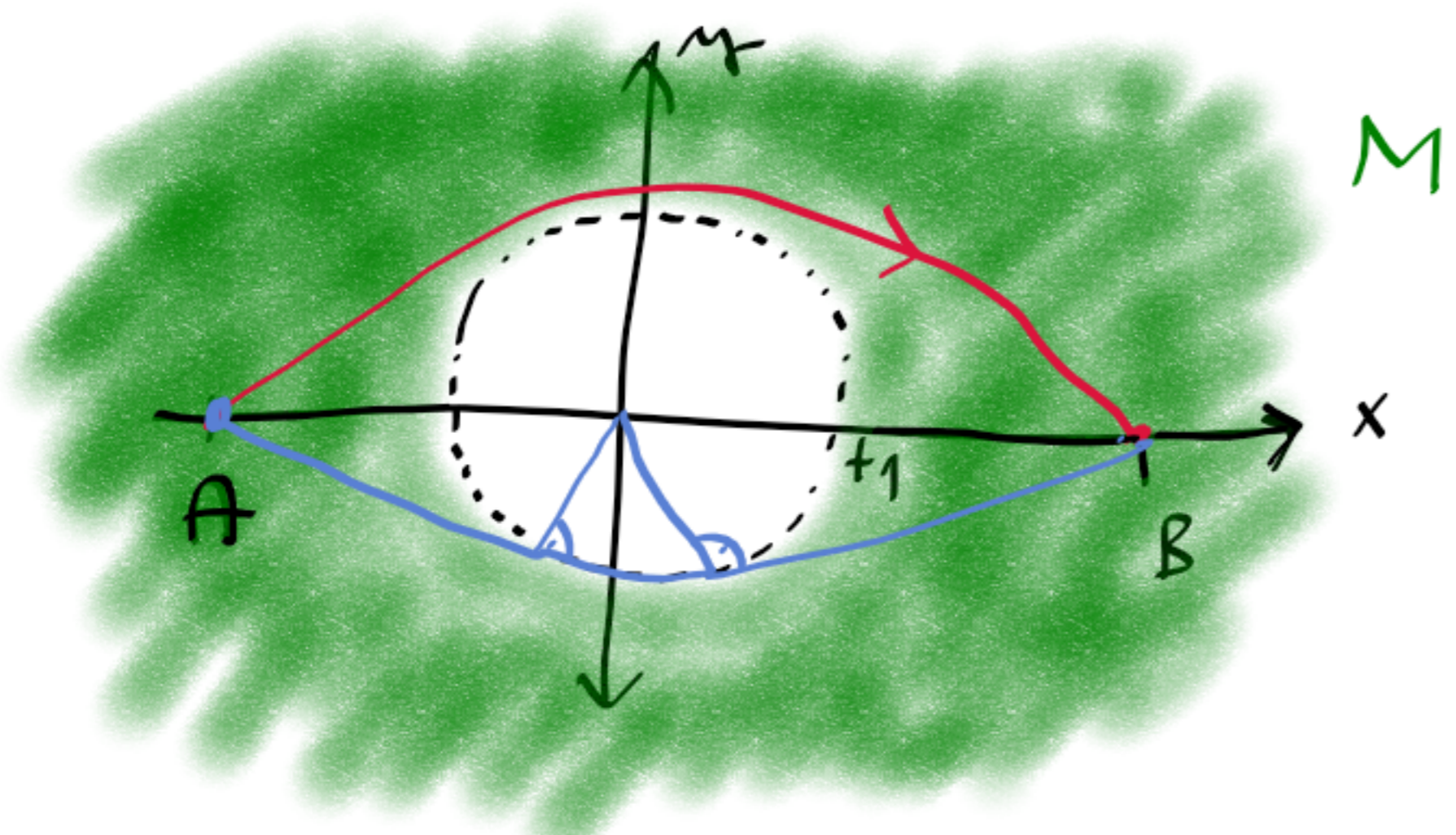
$$d(A, B) := \inf \{ L(\gamma) \mid \gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow M \text{ is piecewise } \mathcal{C}^1, a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \gamma(a) = A, \gamma(b) = B \}$$

is called the distance of A and B . Now if $\varepsilon > 0$, then it can be shown that there is a \mathcal{C}^1 curve $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow M$ such that $d(A, B) < L(\gamma) < d(A, B) + \varepsilon$. Hence,

$$d(A, B) := \inf \{ L(\gamma) \mid \gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow M \text{ is } \mathcal{C}^1, a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \gamma(a) = A, \gamma(b) = B \}$$

Definition If (DM1) and (DM2) hold, we say that γ_0 is a distance minimizing curve (between A and B).

Example However, note that a distance minimizing curve need not exist. Consider for example $M = \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|x\| \leq 1\}$ and $A = (-2, 0)$ and $B = (2, 0)$. Now it is easy to see that



there is no distance minimizing curve in M connecting A, B even though the distance of A, B is equal to the length of the blue curve.

We will now show that distance minimizing curves are geodesics for the Levi-Civita connection of g .

Crash course in Calculus of Variations

Let \tilde{U} be open subset of \mathbb{R}^m ; $\tilde{A}, \tilde{B} \in \tilde{U}$ be fixed and $X \equiv X_{\tilde{A}, \tilde{B}} := \{ \tilde{\gamma}: [a, b] \rightarrow \tilde{U} \mid \tilde{\gamma}(a) = \tilde{A}, \tilde{\gamma}(b) = \tilde{B}, \tilde{\gamma} \text{ is } \mathcal{C}^1 \}$.

Now X is a metric space with metric $d(\tilde{\gamma}_0, \tilde{\gamma}_1) = \|\tilde{\gamma}_0 - \tilde{\gamma}_1\|$, $\tilde{\gamma}_0, \tilde{\gamma}_1 \in X$,

where

$$\|\tilde{\gamma}\| = \sup_{t \in [a, b]} (\|\tilde{\gamma}(t)\| + \|\tilde{\gamma}'(t)\|).$$

Now $U_\varepsilon(\tilde{\gamma}_0) := \{ \tilde{\gamma} \in X : d(\tilde{\gamma}_0, \tilde{\gamma}) < \varepsilon \}$ is the open ball of radius $\varepsilon > 0$ centered at $\tilde{\gamma}_0 \in X$. The collection of all such ball is a basis for the metric topology on X .

Now let $L: T\tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function, so that

$$\mathcal{J}: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathcal{J}(\tilde{\gamma}) = \int_a^b L(\tilde{\gamma}(t), \tilde{\gamma}'(t)) dt$$

is a continuous functional on X . Here we view $T\tilde{U} = \tilde{U} \times \mathbb{R}^m$ and denote by $x_1, \dots, x_m, p_1, \dots, p_m$ the standard coordinates.

Example Let $\varphi: \tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a chart on the smooth manifold M with Riemannian metric g . Put $\tilde{U} = \varphi(U)$. Assume that

$$\tilde{g}_x = ((\varphi^{-1})^* g)|_x = \sum_{i,j=1}^m g_{ij}(x) dx_i \otimes dx_j$$

so that $g_{ij}(x)$ are smooth functions on U . If $A, B \in U$ and $\gamma: [a, b] \rightarrow M$ is a curve as above with $\gamma(a) = A$, $\gamma(b) = B$ whose image is contained in U , then we put $\tilde{\gamma} = \varphi \circ \gamma$ and $\tilde{A} = \varphi(A)$, $\tilde{B} = \varphi(B)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} L(\tilde{\gamma}) &= \int_a^b \sqrt{\tilde{g}_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)}(\tilde{\gamma}'(t), \tilde{\gamma}'(t))} dt = \int_a^b \sqrt{((\varphi^{-1})^* g)_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)}(\tilde{\gamma}'(t), \tilde{\gamma}'(t))} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{g_{\varphi^{-1}(\tilde{\gamma}(t))}((T_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} \varphi^{-1})(\tilde{\gamma}'(t)), (T_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} \varphi^{-1})(\tilde{\gamma}'(t)))} dt \\ &= \int_a^b \sqrt{g_{\gamma(t)}(\gamma'(t), \gamma'(t))} dt = L(\gamma), \end{aligned}$$

since

$$\begin{aligned} (T_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} \varphi^{-1})(\tilde{\gamma}'(t)) &= (T_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} \varphi^{-1})(\varphi \circ \gamma)'(t) \\ &= (T_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} \varphi^{-1}) \circ (T_{\gamma(t)} \varphi)(\gamma'(t)) = \\ &= (T_{\gamma(t)} \varphi^{-1} \circ \varphi)(\gamma'(t)) = \gamma'(t). \end{aligned}$$

Now we can use \tilde{g} to define $L: T\tilde{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$L(x, v) = \|v\|_x := \sqrt{\tilde{g}_x(v, v)}, \quad x \in \tilde{U}, v \in T_x \tilde{U}.$$

The associated functional \mathcal{J} on X is the length of $\tilde{\gamma}$, indeed

$$\mathcal{J}(\tilde{\gamma}) = \int_a^b L(\tilde{\gamma}'(t), \tilde{\gamma}'(t)) dt = \int_a^b \|\tilde{\gamma}'(t)\|_{\tilde{\gamma}(t)} dt = L(\tilde{\gamma}).$$

We are interested in finding local minima of \mathcal{J} , a curve $\tilde{\gamma}_0 \in X$ is a local minimum or minimizer of \mathcal{J} if there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ so that for every $\tilde{\gamma} \in U_\varepsilon(\tilde{\gamma}_0)$ we have $\mathcal{J}(\tilde{\gamma}) \geq \mathcal{J}(\tilde{\gamma}_0)$.

Theorem (Euler-Lagrange equations)

Let $\tilde{\gamma}: [a, b] \rightarrow \tilde{U}$ be a local minimizer of \mathcal{J} on X with L as above. Then $\tilde{\gamma}(t) = (\tilde{\gamma}_1(t), \dots, \tilde{\gamma}_m(t))$ solves the system of ODE's

$$(E-L) \quad \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_k} (\tilde{y}(t), \tilde{y}'(t)) \right) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_k} (\tilde{y}(t), \tilde{y}'(t)), \quad k=1, \dots, m.$$

(These are so-called Euler-Lagrange equations.)

Proof can be found in any textbook on calculus of variations. \square

Example (continued) If $\mathcal{L}(x,v) = \sqrt{\tilde{g}_x(v,v)}$ with $x \in \tilde{U}$, $v \in T_x \tilde{U}$, then we may write

$$\mathcal{L}(x_1, \dots, x_m, p_1, \dots, p_m) = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j=1}^m g_{ij}(x) p_i p_j}$$

and so the Euler-Lagrange equations are:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_k} (\tilde{y}(t), \tilde{y}'(t)) \right) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_k} (\tilde{y}(t), \tilde{y}'(t)), \quad i=1, \dots, m$$

where

$$(EL)' \quad \begin{cases} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial p_k}(x,p) = \left(2 \sum_{j=1}^m g_{kj}(x) p_j \right) / \sqrt{\sum_{i,j=1}^m g_{ij}(x) p_i p_j} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x_k}(x,p) = \left(\sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(x) p_i p_j \right) / \sqrt{\sum_{i,j=1}^m g_{ij}(x) p_i p_j} \end{cases}$$

However these equations are difficult to solve. Rather than trying to solve them let us go back to the beginning.

Now if \tilde{y} is a distance minimizing curve between $\tilde{A}, \tilde{B} \in \tilde{U}$, then without loss of generality we may assume that $\tilde{y}' \neq 0$ on $[a,b]$. Then we may reparametrize \tilde{y} by arc length, that is, we may find

$$\phi: [a', b'] \rightarrow [a, b]$$

such that $\|(\tilde{y} \circ \phi)'(t)\|_{\tilde{y} \circ \phi(t)} = 1$ for every $t \in [a', b']$. Hence we may without loss of generality assume that $\|\tilde{y}'(t)\|_{\tilde{y}(t)}$ is constant on $[a, b]$.

Lemma A curve $\tilde{y}: [a, b] \rightarrow \tilde{U}$ is

(MoL) a local (global) minimum of \mathcal{L} on X and $\|\tilde{y}'_0(t)\|$ is constant on $[a, b]$

(MoE) iff it is a local (global) minimum of the functional $E(\tilde{y}) = \int_a^b \|\tilde{y}'_0(t)\|^2 dt$

Remark E is called the energy functional as it is closely related to the kinetic energy of a moving particle with mass m .

Proof of Lemma: By Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,

$$L(\tilde{y})^2 = \left(\int_a^b \|\tilde{y}'(t)\|_{\tilde{y}(t)} \cdot 1 dt \right)^2 \leq \int_a^b \|\tilde{y}'(t)\|_{\tilde{y}(t)}^2 dt \int_a^b 1 dt = (b-a) E(\tilde{y}).$$

Moreover, $=$ holds iff $\|\tilde{y}'(t)\|^2$ is proportional to the constant function 1 on $[a, b]$.

Hence, if \tilde{y}_0 is a minimum of L then we may without loss of generality assume that $\|\tilde{y}'_0(t)\|^2$ is constant. But then for any $\tilde{y} \in X$ we have

$$(b-a) E(\tilde{y}_0) = L(\tilde{y}_0)^2 \leq L(\tilde{y})^2 \leq (b-a) E(\tilde{y}).$$

This shows equivalence of (MoL) and (MoE). \square

Hence, we can now consider the Euler-Lagrange equations for L .

These are

$$2 \frac{d}{dt} \left(\sum_{j=1}^m g_{kj}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_j'(t) \right) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t), \quad k=1, \dots, m.$$

Now if we differentiate with respect to t on the left hand side we get

$$2 \sum_{j=1}^m g_{kj}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_j''(t) + 2 \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) =$$

$$= \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t), \quad k=1, \dots, m.$$

$$2 \sum_{j=1}^m g_{kj}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_j''(t) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m \left[\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) - 2 \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) \right]$$

$$= \sum_{i,j=1}^m \left[\left(\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k} - 2 \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i} \right) (\tilde{y}(t)) \right] \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t)$$

Now let $(g^{kl}(x))_{k,l=1, \dots, m}$ be the inverse matrix to $(g_{ij}(x))_{i,j=1, \dots, m}$ so that $\sum_{k=1}^m g^{ki}(x) g_{kj}(x) = \delta_{ij}$. Then we have

$$2 \tilde{y}_k''(t) = 2 \sum_{k,i,j=1}^m g^{lk}(\tilde{y}(t)) g_{kj}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_j''(t)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j,k=1}^m g^{lk}(\tilde{y}(t)) \left(\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k} - 2 \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i} \right) (\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) = (*)$$

$$\left| \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i' \tilde{y}_j'(t) = \sum_{j,i=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{ki}}{\partial x_j}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_j' \tilde{y}_i'(t) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial g_{ki}}{\partial x_j}(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i' \tilde{y}_j'(t) \right|$$

$$(*) = \sum_{i,j=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^m \left[g^{lk} \left(\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x_k} - \frac{\partial g_{kj}}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial g_{ki}}{\partial x_j} \right) (\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) \right]$$

$$= - \sum_{i,j=1}^m 2 \Gamma_{ij}^l(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) \quad (\text{by LC}).$$

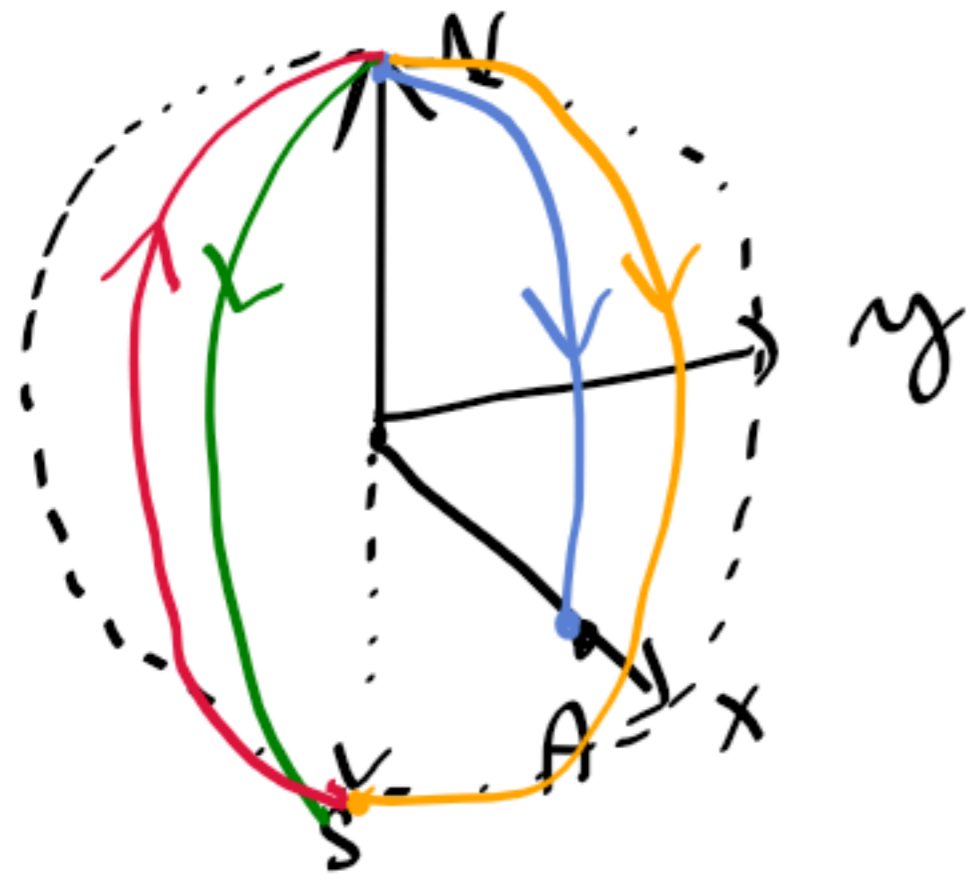
Which is the geodesic equation (GE) for the Levi-Civita connection of g

$$\tilde{y}_k''(t) + \sum_{i,j=1}^m \Gamma_{ij}^k(\tilde{y}(t)) \tilde{y}_i'(t) \tilde{y}_j'(t) = 0, \quad k=1, \dots, m.$$

Example (Geodesics on sphere S^2 - continued)

We have seen in previous week that great circles are geodesics for the Levi-Civita connection of g_{S^2} (parametrized with constant velocity). Thus parts of great circles are distance minimizing curves on S^2 . So for example the distance between $N=(0,0,1)$ and $S=(0,0,-1)$ is π and any meridian is a shortest curves between N and S . Thus there are infinitely many shortest curves connecting N and S . On the other hand,

There is a unique distance minimizing curve between N and $A = (1, 0, 0)$ (blue curve) and the distance between N and A is the length $\frac{\pi}{2}$ of this curve.



Upper half-plane model of hyperbolic geometry

Let $\mathbb{H}^+ := \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid y > 0 \}$. On \mathbb{H}^+ consider Riemannian metric $g_{\mathbb{H}^+} = \frac{1}{y^2} (dx \otimes dx + dy \otimes dy)$ or in matrix notation

$$\frac{1}{y^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad g_{xx} = \frac{1}{y^2} = g_{yy}, \quad g_{xy} = g_{yx} = 0.$$

The inverse matrix is $y^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and so $g^{xx} = g^{yy} = y^2, \quad g^{xy} = g^{yx} = 0.$

The Christoffel symbols are

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma_{xx}^x &= 0, \quad \Gamma_{xx}^y = \frac{1}{2} g^{yy} \left(2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x} g_{xy} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{yy} \right) + \frac{1}{2} g^{yx} (\dots) = \frac{1}{2} y^2 \left(\frac{2}{y^3} \right) = \frac{1}{y} \\ \Gamma_{yx}^x &= \Gamma_{xy}^x = \frac{1}{2} g^{xx} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} g_{yx} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{xx} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} g_{xy} \right) + \frac{1}{2} g^{xy} (\dots) = \frac{1}{2} y^2 (-2) y^{-3} = -\frac{1}{y} \\ \Gamma_{xy}^y &= \frac{1}{2} g^{yy} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} g_{yy} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{xy} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{xy} \right) + \frac{1}{2} g^{yx} (\dots) = 0 = \Gamma_{yx}^y \\ \Gamma_{yy}^y &= \frac{1}{2} g^{yy} \left(2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{yy} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} g_{yy} \right) + \frac{1}{2} g^{yx} (\dots) = \frac{1}{2} y^2 \left(\frac{-2}{y^3} \right) = -\frac{1}{y} \end{aligned}$$

The geodesic equations are

$$x'' - 2 \frac{1}{y} y' x' = 0, \quad y'' + \frac{1}{y} (x')^2 - \frac{1}{y} (y')^2 = 0$$

for unknown functions $x = x(t), y = y(t)$. This is a pair of non-linear ODE's of second order.

It is clear that if $x' = 0$, then we get

$$0 = \frac{1}{y} (y'' - \frac{1}{y} (y')^2) = \frac{y''}{y} - \frac{y'^2}{y^2} = \left(\frac{y'}{y} \right)' \Rightarrow \frac{y'}{y} = c \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$$

$y(t) = c_1 e^{ct}, t \in \mathbb{R}$ is a solution.

Next let us assume that $x' \neq 0$. Then t is a function of x and thus we can also think of y as a function of x . Hence

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{y'}{x'} \right) = \frac{y'' x' - x'' y'}{(x')^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x'}$$

chain rule

$$= \frac{1}{(x')^3} \left(x' \left(\frac{y'}{y} - \frac{x'}{y} \right) - y' \frac{2y' x'}{y} \right) = -\frac{1}{(x')^2} \frac{1}{y} (y'^2 + x'^2)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{y} \left(1 + \left(\frac{y'}{x'} \right)^2 \right) = -\frac{1}{y} \left(1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right).$$

We have found that

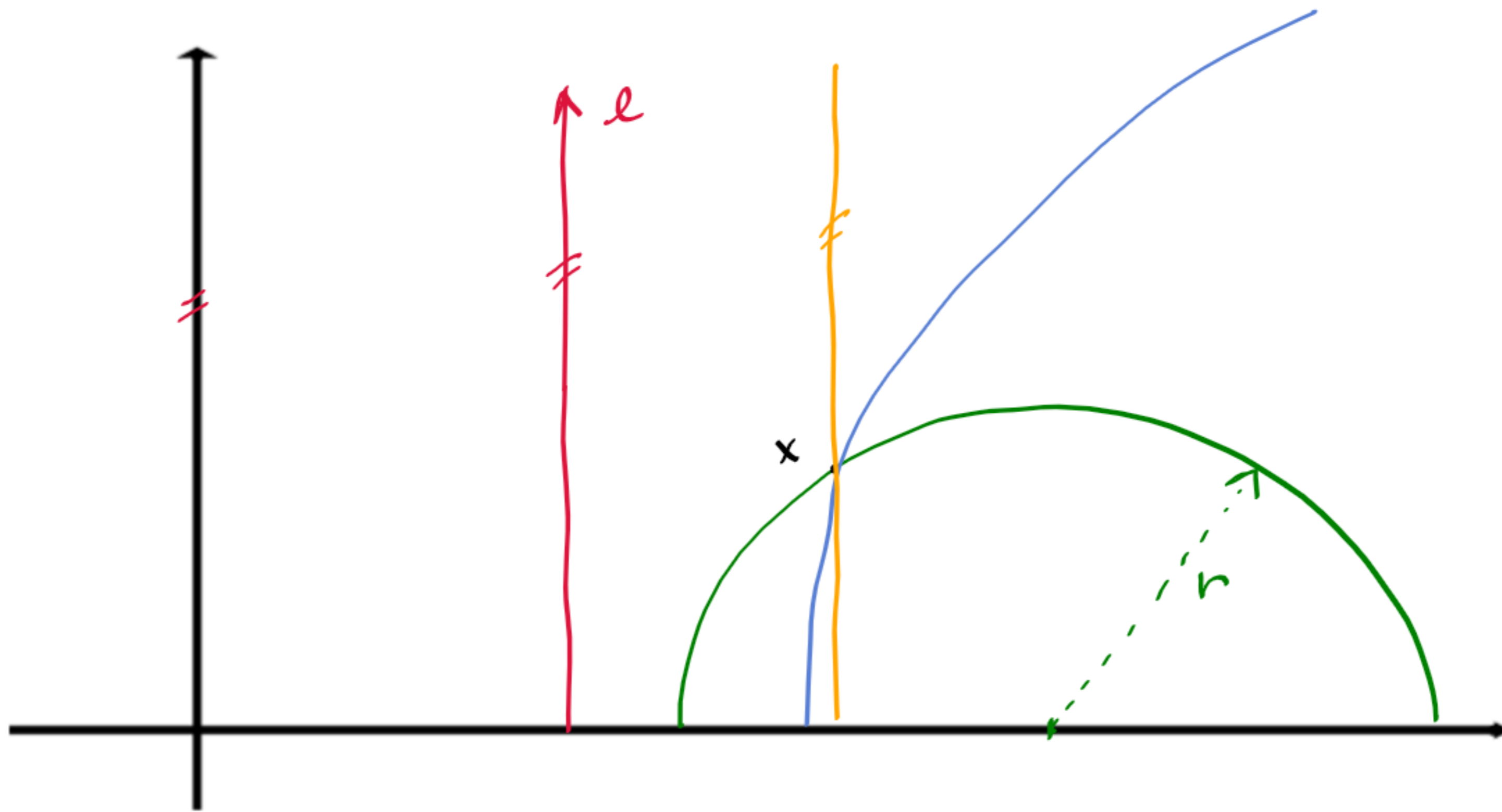
$$-1 = y \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 = \frac{d}{dx} \left(y \frac{dy}{dx} \right) \Rightarrow y \frac{dy}{dx} = -x + c, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y^2}{2} = -\frac{x^2}{2} + cx + d, \quad d \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow y^2 + x^2 - 2cx = d \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow$$

$$(x-c)^2 + y^2 = d + \frac{c^2}{4} = r^2 \geq 0.$$

We see that geodesics are either lines parallel to y -axis and upper half circles whose center lies at x -axis (with parametrization by constant velocity).

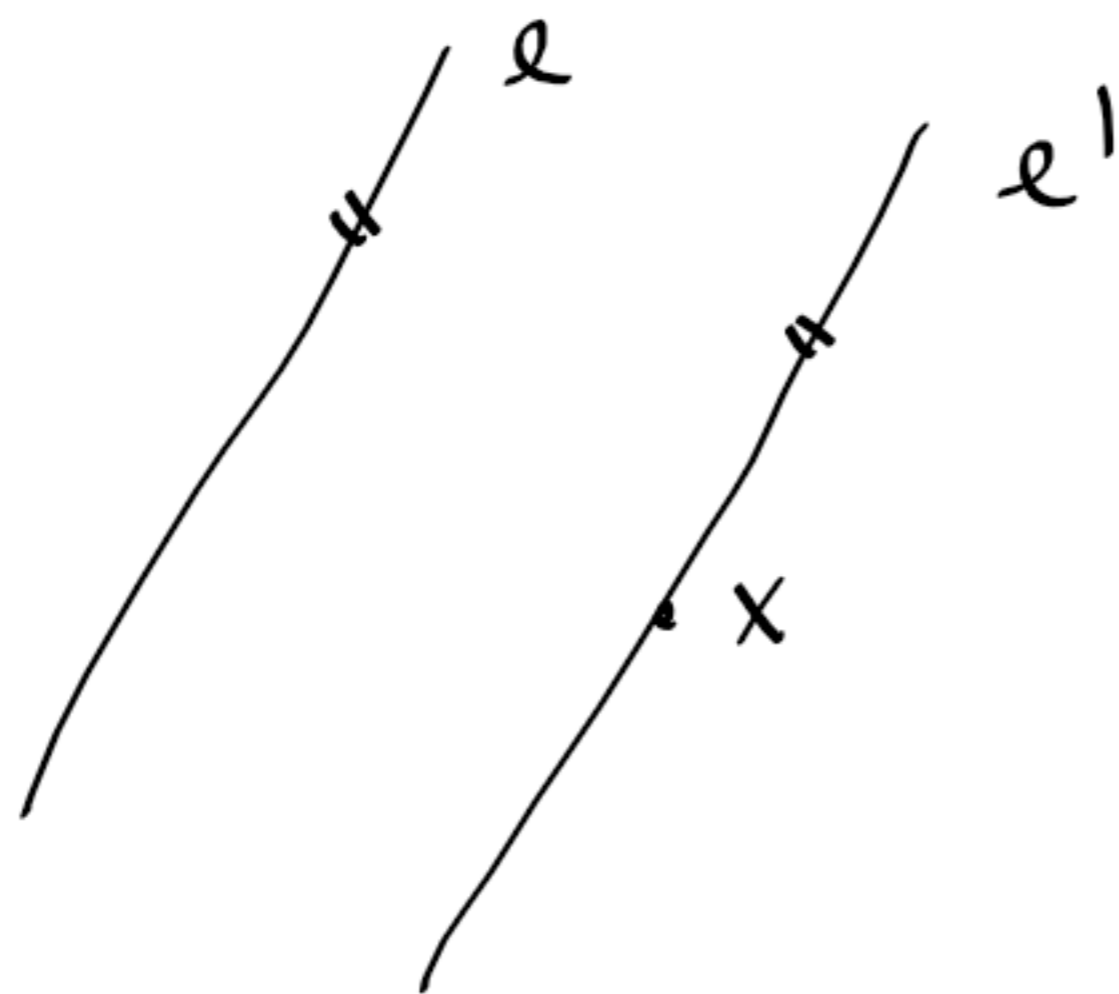
Pic. 1



Remark

This is a model of non-Euclidean geometry. In this geometry the first four Euclid axioms hold but the fifth postulate is violated:

"Given a line l and a point x with $x \notin l$, there is a unique parallel line l' to l such that $x \in l'$."



In the upper half-plane model, lines are geodesics and two geodesics are parallel if they do not intersect. If $x \in \mathbb{H}^+$ and l is a geodesic in \mathbb{H}^+ , there are infinitely many parallel lines to l which contain x . See Pic. 1.