Uniform circular motion in General Relativity: Existence and extendibility of the trajectories

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Abstract

The notion of uniform circular motion in a general spacetime is introduced as a particular case of a planar motion. The initial value problem of the corresponding differential equation is analysed in detail. Geometrically, an observer which obeys a uniform circular motion is characterized as a Lorentzian helix. The completeness of its inextensible trajectories is studied in Generalized Robertson-Walker spacetimes and in a relevant family of pp-wave spacetimes. The results may be physically interpreted saying that, under reasonable assumptions, a uniformly circular observer lives forever in these spacetimes, providing the absence of the singularities defined by these timelike curves.

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1 Introduction

Uniform circular motion has been widely studied in Special Relativity (see, for instance, [8]). Relevant physical phenomena and paradoxes, usually related with the Thomas precession, have motivated its study, and its interest is still present (see, for instance [20] for an intuitive introduction). The usual approach consists in setting a family of inertial observers, one of them is considered 'the center'. Thus, an observer is said that describes a uniform circular motion with respect to the fixed 'center' if the trajectory measured by that family of inertial observers is circular and its angular velocity is constant for them. Others approaches have been done using suitable Frenet equations [10], [11].

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Specific motions which may be seen as very particular cases of uniform circular motions have been previously considered in relevant relativistic models with some rotational symmetry, as Schwarzschild, Reissner-Nordström and Kerr spacetimes [14, Ch. 25]. Each of these spacetimes has a remarkable family of observers with a similar role that the inertial observers in Minkowski spacetime. An observer that is placed on the surface of the star or the black hole (according the case) and at rest with respect to it, is considered the center of the circular trajectories. The uniform circular observer describes a circle with respect to the special fixed family of observers and the measured angular velocity is constant. The analysis of this kind of motions has a recognized physical and technological interest because they correspond to the orbits of some artificial satellites, planets or stars (see, for instance, [12]).

We are interested here in introducing a definition of uniform circular motion in a general spacetime, involving only the physical observable quantities measured by the proper observer. In order to determine the inherent kinematic state of an observer we will focus on its proper acceleration. In other words, we will give an 'intrinsic' definition of uniform circular motion, without considering an external family of distinguished observers for which the motion describes has a circular trajectory or not. Note, in addition, that the existence of such a family of observers is not guaranteed in a generic spacetime. Of course, our definition will agree with the standard notion in previously quoted cases.

Intuitively, an observer is able to detect its proper acceleration by using a giroscope or, more generally, an accelerometer. An accelerometer may be thought as a sphere in whose center there is a small ball which is supported from elastic radii to the sphere surface. If a free falling observer carries such an accelerometer, then it will notice that the small ball remains just at the center. Whereas the ball will be displaced if the observer obeys an accelerated motion. For instance, a uniform accelerated motion may be recognised from a constant displacement of the small ball [4]. This idea has the advantage that may be used independently if the spacetime is relativistic or not. Thus, it would be natural that if an observer checks that the small ball describes a plane uniform rotation, then it believes that it obeys a uniform circular motion.

The first challenge we have to face is to state a notion of 'planar' motion in an arbitraty spacetime. Classically, a motion is said to be planar when the projection of its space-time trajectory on the absolute Euclidean space is contained in a plane. Equivalently, its proper acceleration is contained in the same plane at any instant. This alternative notion may be extended to any spacetime. Obviously, as it happens in Classical Mechanics, a uniform circular motion should be a planar motion. The subtle problem in Relativity consists in to give sense to the sentence the same plane forever. This is well done making use of the Fermi-Walker connection of each observer (Definition 1).

Our procedure lies in the realm of modern Lorentzian geometry and, as far as we know, is new in our approach (compare with [11]). In order to do that, recall that a particle of mass m>0 in a spacetime $(M,\langle\,,\,\rangle)$ is a curve $\gamma:I\longrightarrow M$, such that its velocity γ' satisfies $\langle\gamma',\gamma'\rangle=-m^2$ and it is future pointing. A particle with m=1 is called an observer (see, for instance, [17]). The covariant derivative of γ' , $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}$, is its (proper) acceleration, which may be seen as a mathematical translation of the values measured by the accelerometer.

Assume the particle γ obeys a planar motion. In order to arrive to a suitable notion of uniform circular motion, we will require that the modulus of its acceleration remains

unchanged, i.e.,

$$\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2 = \text{constant.}$$

On the other hand, we need a connection along γ that permits to compare spatial directions at different instants of the life of γ , i.e., we need such a connection to compute how the proper acceleration of γ changes. In General Relativity this connection is known as the Fermi-Walker connection of γ (see Section 2 for more details). Thus, using the corresponding Fermi-Walker covariant derivative $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}$, if a particle obeys a uniform circular (UC) motion, it is also necessary,

$$\left|\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)\right|^2 = \text{constant},$$

i.e., the modulus of the change of its acceleration should be constant (Section 2). We will arrive to the main notion of Definition 3 collecting suitable the three previous conditions.

On the other hand, UC motions appear naturally in any spacetime, for instance they arise from a dynamical point of view. Considering an electrically charged particle with nonzero rest mass $(\gamma(t), m, q)$ in presence of an electromagnetic field F, then the dynamics of the particle is completely described by the well-known Lorentz force equation (see, for instance, [17, Def. 3.8.1]),

$$m \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} = q \widetilde{F}(\gamma'),$$

where \widetilde{F} is the (1,1)-tensor field metrically equivalent to the closed 2-form F. Now, let us consider in Minkowski spacetime \mathbb{L}^4 the particular electromagnetic field,

$$F = 2B_0 dx \wedge du$$
.

where $B_0 > 0$ is a constant and (t, x, y, z) are the standard coordinates of \mathbb{L}^4 . The family of inertial observers $\partial/\partial t$ measures a uniform magnetic field with modulus B_0 and pointing towards $\partial/\partial z$ (and zero electric field) for F. Now, the particle γ obeys a UC motion, and its trajectory is expressed as [17, Prop. 3.8.2],

$$\gamma(\tau) = p + \left(\sqrt{1 + R^2 w^2} m\tau, R\cos(wm\tau + \vartheta), R\sin(wm\tau + \vartheta), 0\right),$$

with $w = \frac{qB_0}{m} \in \mathbb{R}$, $p \in \mathbb{L}^4$, R > 0 and $\vartheta \in \mathbb{R}$, whenever the initial velocity of particle with respect to the family of inertial observers lies in the plane xy [17, p. 88].

Next, the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 several mathematical preliminaries are introduced to arrive to the notion of UC observer (Definition 3). Section 3 is devoted to expose how a UC observer can be seen as a Lorentzian helix in a general spacetime (Equation 3.1). The corresponding differential system and the associated initial value problem are analysed in detail in Section 4. Later, we use this result to characterize each UC observer as a solution of a fourth-order differential equation (Proposition 19). A representation of any UC observer is given in Section 5. Section 6 is dedicated to characterize geometrically UC observers as the projections on the spacetime of the integral curves of a certain vector field G defined on a suitable fiber bundle over the spacetime (Lemma 6.1). Using G, the completeness of inextensible UC motions is analysed in the search of geometric assumptions which assure

that inextensible UC observers do not disappear in a finite proper time. This technique is applied to spacetime which admit a certain timelike symmetry. In fact, we obtain that any UC observer in a Generalized Robertson-Walker spacetime can be extended whenever its worldline lies in a compact subset of the spacetime (Theorem 6.4). Finally, in Section 7, we prove the completeness of inextensible UC observers in an important class of pp-wave spacetimes. In this case we make use of a different and more analytical approach (Theorem 7.3). In both cases, the absence of singularities of this kind is found.

2 The notion of uniform circular motion

Consider a spacetime M, i.e., an $n(\geq 2)$ -dimensional manifold endowed with a time orientable Lorentzian metric \langle , \rangle which we agree to have signature (-,+,...,+), and with a fixed time orientation. Points of M as called events and an observer in M is a (smooth) curve $\gamma:I\longrightarrow M$, I an open interval of \mathbb{R} $(0 \in I)$, such that $\langle \gamma'(t), \gamma'(t) \rangle = -1$ and $\gamma'(t)$ lies in the future time cone in $T_{\gamma(t)}M$ for all $t \in I$. In brief, $\gamma'(t)$ is a future pointing unit timelike vector for any proper time t of γ .

At each event $\gamma(t)$, the tangent space $T_{\gamma(t)}M$ linearly splits as

$$T_{\gamma(t)}M = T_t \oplus R_t,$$

where $T_t := \operatorname{Span}\{\gamma'(t)\}$ and $R_t := T_t^{\perp}$. Clearly, T_t is a negative definite line in $T_{\gamma(t)}M$ and R_t is a spacelike hyperplane of $T_{\gamma(t)}M$. For n=4, the 3-dimensional subspace R_t may be interpreted as the instantaneous physical space observed by γ at the instant t of its clock. Consequently, vectors in R_t represent observable quantities for γ at t. Note that the acceleration vector field $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}$ satisfies $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t) \in R_t$, for any t. In fact, it is observed by γ whereas the velocity vector field γ' is not observable by γ .

In order γ compares $v_1 \in R_{t_1}$ with $v_2 \in R_{t_2}$, for $t_1 < t_2$ and $|v_1| = |v_2|$, it could use the parallel transport defined by the Levi-Civita covariant derivative along γ ,

$$P_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}: T_{\gamma(t_1)}M \longrightarrow T_{\gamma(t_2)}M.$$

However, this linear isometry does not satisfy $P_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}(R_{t_1}) = R_{t_2}$, in general. This is a serious inconvenience. To avoid it, the observer can use a more subtle mathematical tool. In fact, recall that γ possesses a (private) connection, called its Fermi-Walker connection, which is defined as follows [17, p. 51]. Consider the Levi-Civita connection ∇ associated to the Lorentzian metric of spacetime. It induces a connection along each $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ such that the corresponding covariant derivative is the usual covariant derivative of vector fields $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$, namely, $\frac{DY}{dt}(t) = \nabla_{\gamma'(t)}\widetilde{Y}$, where \widetilde{Y} is a local extension of Y on an open neighbourhood of each event experimented by $\gamma(t)$ in M.

For $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$, denote by Y_t^T , Y_t^R the orthogonal projections of Y_t on T_t and R_t , respectively, i.e.,

$$Y_t^T = -\langle Y_t, \gamma'(t) \rangle \gamma'(t)$$
 and $Y_t^R = Y_t - Y_t^T$.

Clearly, we have $Y^T, Y^R \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$. According to [17, Prop. 2.2.1] the Fermi-Walker connection of γ is the unique connection $\widehat{\nabla}$ along γ which satisfies

$$\widehat{\nabla}_X Y = \left(\nabla_X Y^T\right)^T + \left(\nabla_X Y^R\right)^R,$$

for any $X \in \mathfrak{X}(I)$ and $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$, being ∇ the induced connection on γ from the Levi-Civita connection of M.

Now denote by \widehat{D}/dt the covariant derivative corresponding to $\widehat{\nabla}$. Then, it is not difficult to prove the following relationship with the Levi-Civita covariant derivative [17, Prop. 2.2.2],

$$\frac{\widehat{D}Y}{dt} = \frac{DY}{dt} + \langle \gamma', Y \rangle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} - \left\langle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}, Y \right\rangle \gamma', \tag{1}$$

for any $Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$. Clearly, we have $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} = \frac{D}{dt}$ if and only if γ is a geodesic, i.e., the observer is free falling.

In addition, the following Leibnitz type rule holds,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\langle X, Y \rangle = \left\langle \frac{\widehat{D}X}{dt}, Y \right\rangle + \left\langle X, \frac{\widehat{D}Y}{dt} \right\rangle, \tag{2}$$

for any $X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$.

Associated to the Fermi-Walker covariant derivative along γ there exists a parallel transport

$$\widehat{P}_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}: T_{\gamma(t_1)}M \longrightarrow T_{\gamma(t_2)}M,$$

which is a linear isometry and satisfies

$$\widehat{P}_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}(R_{t_1}) = R_{t_2}.$$

Therefore, given $v_1 \in R_{t_1}$ and $v_2 \in R_{t_2}$, with $t_1 < t_2$ and $|v_1| = |v_2|$, the observer γ may consider $\hat{P}_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}(v_1)$ instead of v_1 , with the advantage that $\hat{P}_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}(v_1)$ may be compared with v_2 (see also [14, Sec. 6.5]).

Now we introduce the crucial concept of 'planar motion' to make precise when an observer considers that it is moving along a plane. Intuitively, an observer will say that its motion is planar when the small ball of its accelerometer moves along a constant plane. In the mathematical translation of this intuitive idea, the main difficulty lies in what is the meaning of a 'constant plane' relative to the observer. For this purpose we will use the Fermi-Walker connection exposed above.

Definition 1 An observer $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ obeys a planar motion if for some $t_0 \in I$, there exists an observable plane $\Pi_{t_0} \subset R_{t_0} \subset T_{\gamma(t_0)}M$, such that

$$\widehat{P}_{t,t_0}^{\gamma} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t) \right) \in \Pi_{t_0} \tag{3}$$

for any $t \in I$.

Intuitively, $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}$ corresponds to the displacement of the small ball of the accelerometer, and $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right)$ may be seen as the velocity of the ball. Whenever both vectors are linearly independent, both directions define the observable 2-plane Π_{to} .

As direct consequence of the definition, using the equality

$$\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) (t_0) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left[\widehat{P}_{t_0 + \varepsilon, t_0}^{\gamma} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} (t_0 + \varepsilon) \right) - \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} (t_0) \right],$$

gives that the vector $\frac{D}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) (t_0)$ is also in Π_{t_0} . Indeed, if γ is not in an unchanged direction motion at a neighbourhood of the instant t_0 , in the terminology of [5], then the plane Π_{t_0} is generated by the proper acceleration of the observer and the variation which it measures, i.e.,

$$\Pi_{t_0} = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \frac{D\gamma}{dt}(t_0), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) (t_0) \right\}.$$

In this case, we may define the following family of 2-planes along γ

$$\Pi_{t} := \operatorname{span} \left\{ \widehat{P}_{t_{0},t}^{\gamma} \left(\frac{D\gamma}{dt}(t_{0}) \right), \, \widehat{P}_{t_{0},t}^{\gamma} \left(\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma}{dt} \right)(t_{0}) \right) \right\} \subset R_{t_{0}}.$$
(4)

Observe that this family of planes is Fermi-Walker parallel in the sense of the following definition.

Definition 2 Given an observer $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ in the spacetime M, a family of planes along γ , $\{\Pi_t\}_{t\in I}$, is said to be Fermi-Walker parallel if for any $t_1, t_2 \in I$ and for any vector $v \in \Pi_{t_1}$, the following relation holds

$$\widehat{P}_{t_1,t_2}^{\gamma}(v) \in \Pi_{t_2} .$$

In addition, the previous family of planes (4) satisfies the following property.

Lemma 2.1 For any $t, t_1 \in I$, we have

$$\widehat{P}_{t,t_1}^{\gamma}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t)\right) \in \Pi_{t_1}$$
.

Proof. Taking the inverse mapping of $\widehat{P}_{t,t_0}^{\gamma}$ in (3), we have that there exist $a,b\in\mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\frac{D\gamma}{dt}(t) = a\,\widehat{P}_{t_0,t}^{\gamma}\left(\frac{D\gamma}{dt}(t_0)\right) + b\,\widehat{P}_{t_0,t}^{\gamma}\left(\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma}{dt}\right)(t_0)\right).$$

Now, the desired relation follows by taking $\widehat{P}_{t,t_1}^{\gamma}$ in both members of the previous equality.

It should be pointing out that the family $\{\Pi_t\}_{t\in I}$ satisfies the previous property, but it is not unique in general (a generically planar motion may be a free falling motion from some instant). However, if the observer γ is not an unchanged direction observer [5], i.e., if $\left\{\frac{D\gamma}{dt}(t), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma}{dt}\right)(t)\right\}$ are linearly independent for any $t\in I$, then the only family of 2-planes satisfying Lemma 2.1 is $\{\Pi_t\}_{t\in I}$.

Now we will introduce a uniform circular (UC) motion as a very particular case of planar motion. Intuitively, a UC observer will see that the small ball of its accelerometer is rotating with constant angular velocity, describing a circular trajectory. Hence, the velocity of the ball for the observer, $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right)$, will have a constant modulus. Motivated by these intuitive ideas, we are in a position to give an accurately definition.

Definition 3 An observer $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ which satisfies a planar motion is said to obey a UC motion if

$$\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2 = a^2$$
 and $\left|\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)\right|^2 = a^2w^2$, (5)

where the constants a, w satisfy a, w > 0 and a < w.

Here a is de modulus of the acceleration, and w corresponds to the angular velocity that the observer perceives. Therefore, motivated from the classical relation between the radius R, the angular velocity w and the centripetal acceleration a on a circular motion,

$$a = w^2 R$$
.

a UC observer will measure a uniform rotation with frequency $\frac{w}{2\pi}$ and 'radius' equal to $R := a/w^2$. We emphasize that this quantity R does not represent a real observable distance in general. It is only the radius of the trajectory which the UC observer assumes, using the classical intuition, from the evolution of its acceleration. The assumption a < w is imposed to exclude other different kind of motions, as we will discuss it at the end of Section 5.

Remark 2.2 Note that if a = 0 is permited, we would recover the definition of a free falling observer. Moreover, when a > 0, if w = 0 is permited, we would obtain the definition of a uniform accelerated observer [4]. Observe that, in this case, the trajectory measured by the observer may be thought with infinite 'radius', i.e., the observer obeys a rectilinear motion [5].

Naturally, in order to determine a UC observer trajectory, it is necessary to know the initial observable 2-plane, the initial spin sense and the initial values of the position, 4-velocity and proper acceleration. In an $n \geq 3$ -dimensional spacetime, the initial 2-plane can be determined by means of n-3 observable directions $u_4, \dots, u_n \in \gamma'(0)^{\perp}$, orthogonal to the initial acceleration $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0)$. So, the vector $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0)$ will point towards the unique observable direction which is orthogonal to $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0)$ and u_4, \dots, u_n . From equation (5), the modulus of the vector $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0)$ is also known, and it is equal to aw. However, the initial spin sense is needed to determine the sense of that vector.

The initial plane Π_0 is given by

$$\Pi_0 = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) (0) \right\}.$$

We consider the following unit vectors, related with the initial values of the problem,

$$u_1 = \gamma'(0), \quad u_2 = \frac{1}{a} \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0), \quad u_3 = \frac{1}{aw} \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0),$$

and consider the following Fermi-Walker parallel vector fields along γ ,

$$e_4(t), \cdots, e_n(t)$$

satisfying the initial conditions $e_i(0) = u_i$, for each $4 \le i \le n$. Now, the family of Fermi-Walker parallel planes (4), corresponding to the UC observer γ is given by

$$\Pi_t = \text{span}\{\widehat{P}_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_2), \, \widehat{P}_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_3)\} = \left(\text{span}\{\widehat{P}_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_1), e_4(t), \cdots, e_n(t)\}\right)^{\perp} \subset R_t.$$

Remark 2.3 Note that, in the physically relevant case n = 4, we have

$$e_4(t) = \frac{1}{a^2 w} \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \times \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right),$$

where \times denotes the natural cross product defined in R_t .

From the previous discussion we can state the following initial value equations for a UC observer with 'frequency' $\frac{w}{2\pi}$ and 'radius' $R = \frac{a}{w^2}$, which is expressed as

$$\langle \gamma', \gamma' \rangle = -1, \tag{6}$$

$$\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2 = a^2,\tag{7}$$

$$\left|\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)\right|^2 = a^2w^2,\tag{8}$$

$$\frac{\widehat{D}e_i}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 4 \le i \le n, \tag{9}$$

$$\left\langle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}, e_i \right\rangle = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 4 \le i \le n,$$
 (10)

under the initial conditions

$$\gamma(0) = p, \quad \gamma'(0) = u_1, \quad \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0) = a u_2, \quad \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0) = aw u_3, \tag{11}$$

$$e_i(0) = u_i \quad \text{for} \quad 4 \le i \le n,$$

where, p is an event in the n-dimensional spacetime M.

Note that (10) automatically implies that

$$\left\langle \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) (t), e_i(t) \right\rangle = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad 4 \le i \le n, \quad t \in I.$$

The local existence and uniqueness of this initial problem is not yet guaranteed because it is not possible write it in the normal form (therefore the classical Picard-Lindeloff Theorem can not be applied). On the other hand, the initial condition are imposed to the third derivative, in spite of the system is of third order. However, in Section 4 we will prove that system (6)-(11) has a unique inextensible solution.

3 UC motion as a Lorentzian helix

In this section we analyse the UC motion from a more geometric viewpoint. First, we proceed to find the Frenet equations of each UC observer.

Let $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ be a UC observer with angular velocity w and radius $R = \frac{a}{w^2}$. We define the following three vector fields along γ , which are orthonormal from equations (2) and (5),

$$e_1(t) = \gamma'(t),$$

$$e_2(t) = \frac{1}{a} \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t),$$

$$e_3(t) = \frac{1}{aw} \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(t).$$

Let $\{u_4, \dots, u_n\}$ be n-3 orthonormal vectors in $T_{\gamma(0)}M$, such that,

$$\{e_1(0), e_2(0), e_3(0), u_4, \dots, u_n\}$$

is an orthogonal basis of $T_{\gamma(0)}M$. Consider the Fermi-Walker parallel vector fields along γ starting at u_i ,

$$e_i(t) = \widehat{P}_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_i), \quad \text{for} \quad 4 \le i \le n.$$

Since a UC motion is a planar motion, the 2-plane Π_t is orthogonal to the subspace generated by $\{\widehat{P}_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_i)\}_{1\leq i\leq n}$. So vector fields $\{e_j(t)\}_{1\leq j\leq n}$ are orthonormal at every instant $t\in I$.

Now, we are in a position to obtain the Frenet equations. A direct computation give us

$$\frac{De_1}{dt} = a \, e_2.$$

On the other hand,

$$\frac{De_2}{dt} = \frac{1}{a} \left[\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) + a^2 \gamma' \right] = a e_1 + w e_3.$$

Taking into account that γ is a UC observer, we obtain

$$\left\langle \frac{De_3}{dt}, e_1 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{aw} \left\langle \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) \right), \gamma' \right\rangle = 0,$$

and

$$\left\langle \frac{De_3}{dt}\,,e_2\right\rangle = \frac{1}{a^2w}\left[\frac{d}{dt}\langle\frac{\hat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma^{\,\prime}}{dt}\right)\,,\frac{D\gamma^{\,\prime}}{dt}\rangle - \left|\frac{\hat{D}}{dt}\left(\frac{D\gamma^{\,\prime}}{dt}\right)\right|^2\right] = -w.$$

Hence, we get

$$\frac{De_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{aw} \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) \right) = -w e_2.$$

Finally, for $4 \le i \le n$,

$$\frac{De_i}{dt} = \frac{\widehat{D}e_i}{dt} - \langle \gamma', e_i \rangle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} + \langle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}, e_i \rangle \gamma' = 0.$$

Summarizing, the Frenet equations corresponding to a UC observer are

$$\frac{De_1}{dt} = a e_2, (12)$$

$$\frac{De_2}{dt} = ae_1 + we_3,$$

$$\frac{De_3}{dt} = -we_2,$$

$$De_i \qquad (13)$$

$$\frac{De_3}{dt} = -w e_2, \tag{14}$$

$$\frac{De_i}{dt} = 0 \qquad \text{for } 4 \le i \le n. \tag{15}$$

Therefore, Frenet equations gives that a UC observer is a Lorentzian helix, i.e., a unit timelike curve with constant curvature and torsion, and vanishing higher order curvatures identically zero (see, for instance, [13]).

Conversely, assume Frenet system of equations (12) – (15) holds true for γ with the initial conditions (11). Note that no information is obtained from (12). On the other hand, Equation (13) can be written as

$$\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D \gamma'}{dt} \right) = \frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} - a^2 \gamma'.$$

The relation between Fermi-Walker and Levi-Civita covariant derivatives given in (1), allows us conclude

$$\left(\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2 - a^2\right)\gamma' = \left\langle\gamma', \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right\rangle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}.$$

Multiplying this expression by $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}$ we get,

$$|\gamma'|^2 = -1$$
 and $\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2 = a^2$,

which are the first two equations on the system (6)-(10). On the other hand, from (14) we obtain the fourth-order equation,

$$\frac{D}{dt} \left[\frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} + (w^2 - a^2) \gamma' \right] = 0.$$

Since we know that $\langle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}, \gamma' \rangle = 0$, from second Frenet equation, we conclude that $\left| \frac{D}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) \right|^2$ is constant along γ . Now, from initial conditions (11), we get the second equation of (5).

Finally, directly from definition of e(t), we deduce equations (9). As a consequence,

$$0 = \frac{\widehat{D}e_i}{dt} = \langle e_i, \gamma' \rangle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} - \langle \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} e_i \rangle \gamma',$$

and we obtain equations (10).

The previous arguments gives rise to the following result.

Proposition 3.1 An observer $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ is a UC observer, with angular velocity w and radius $R = \frac{a}{w^2}$, if and only if γ is a unit timelike Lorentzian helix, i.e., a curve with constant curvature a and torsion w, while the rest of higher order curvatures are identically zero.

Remark 3.2 We note that, if the spacetime has constant sectional curvature, the reduction of codimension Erbacher Theorem (see [6]) implies that the UC observers are contained in a 3-dimensional totally geodesic Lorentzian submanifold.

4 The associated Cauchy problem

Observe that Frenet equations (12)-(15) constitute a fourth order differential system for γ . The associated initial value problem is

$$\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) = \frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} - a^2 \gamma', \tag{16}$$

$$\frac{D}{dt} \left[\frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} + (w^2 - a^2) \gamma' \right] = 0, \tag{17}$$

$$\gamma(0) = p, \quad \gamma'(0) = u_1, \quad \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0) = a u_2, \quad \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0) = aw u_3, \tag{18}$$

where $u_1, u_2, u_3 \in T_pM$ are orthogonal vectors satisfying $|u_1|^2 = -1$ and $|u_2|^2 = |u_3|^2 = 1$.

Since there are two different equations the existence and uniqueness of this problem is not immediate. Now, we are going to prove that this initial problem is equivalent to the following one, which clearly has a unique inextensible solution.

$$\frac{D}{dt} \left[\frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} + \langle \gamma', \frac{D \gamma'}{dt} \rangle \frac{D \gamma'}{dt} + \left(w^2 - \left| \frac{D \gamma'}{dt} \right|^2 \right) \gamma' \right] = 0, \tag{19}$$

$$\gamma(0) = p, \quad \gamma'(0) = u_1, \quad \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0) = a u_2, \quad \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0) = aw u_3, \tag{20}$$

where $u_1, u_2, u_3 \in T_pM$ satisfy the above conditions.

Taking into account (1), it is clear that a solution of (16)-(18) is a solution of (19)-(20). For the converse, we only have to prove that $|\gamma'|^2$ and $\left|\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right|^2$ are constant along γ .

Denote by $x(t) := |\gamma'|^2$ and $y(t) := \left| \frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right|^2$. Then, the initial values are

$$x(0) = -1, \quad x'(0) = x''(0) = 0, \quad y(0) = a^2, \quad y'(0) = y''(0) = 0.$$
 (21)

Multiplying equation (19) by $\gamma^{\,\prime}$ and $\frac{D\gamma^{\,\prime}}{dt},$ we obtain respectively,

$$2x''' - \frac{1}{2}y'' + \left[4x'^2 + (w^2 - y)x\right] - \frac{1}{2}y' - 2w^2x' = 0,$$
(22)

and

$$\left| \frac{D^2 \gamma'}{dt^2} \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2} y'' + 2x''y - x'y' + w^2 y - y^2 = \frac{1}{2} y'' + f(x', y, y'), \tag{23}$$

where f(x', y, y') denotes the corresponding terms.

On the other hand, multiplying (19) by $\frac{D^2\gamma'}{dt^2}$ and using (23), we get

$$\frac{1}{4}y''' + \frac{1}{2}\left(f(x',y,y')\right)' - x''y' + x'y'' + \frac{1}{2}yy' + x'y'' + x'f(x',y,y') - \frac{w^2}{2}y' = 0.$$
 (24)

Equations (22) and (24), under the initial conditions (21), have a unique solution by the classical Picard-Lindeloff Theorem. Since x(t) = -1 and $y(t) = a^2$ satisfy this initial value problem, we get the announced conclusion.

Previous results are picked up in the following proposition.

Proposition 4.1 The three following assertions are equivalent

- (a) A curve γ in M is solution of (6)-(11).
- (b) A curve γ in M is solution of (16)-(18).
- (c) A curve γ in M is (the unique) solution of (19)-(20).

We can rewrite the equivalences as follows.

Corollary 4.2 There exists a unique inextensible UC observer in M for each initial data (11).

5 A representation of the solutions

At this point, we remark that although Definition 3 has a clear physical meaning, (based on how an observer obeying a uniform circular motion measures its proper acceleration), we expose in the result below another characterization of the UC observers, useful to obtain explicit solutions of the motion equation.

Proposition 5.1 Let M be an $n \geq 3$ -dimensional spacetime, $n \geq 3$, and let a, w be two positive constants, a < w. Let us consider $u_1, u_2, u_3 \in T_pM$ three orthogonal vectors such that $|u_1|^2 = -1$ and $|u_2|^2 = |u_3|^2 = 1$, and consider n - 3 vectors $\{u_4, \dots, u_n\} \subset T_pM$

completing the previous three ones to an orthonormal basis of T_pM . Then, the 4-velocity of the only UC observer γ satisfying the initial conditions (18) satisfies the expression

$$\gamma'(t) = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L(t) + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) M(t) + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) N(t) \right], \quad (25)$$

being L, M, N, three unit (Levi-Civita) parallel vector fields along γ satisfying

$$L(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} (wu_1 + au_3),$$

$$M(0) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} (au_1 + wu_3),$$

$$N(0) = u_2,$$

$$\langle L(0), u_i \rangle = \langle M(0), u_i \rangle = \langle N(0), u_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for } 4 \le i \le n.$$

Proof. First, we check that if γ verifies (25) then it is a solution of (6)-(10). From assumptions on L, M and N, a direct computation gives

$$\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t) = a\left(-\sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right)M(t) + \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right)N(t)\right).$$

Then, by using the orthogonality of M and N, equation (7) is automatically satisfied. Analogously, after easy computations we get

$$\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt} \right) = -\frac{a^2 w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L - \frac{aw^2}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left(\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) M + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) N \right),$$

and equation (8) holds. The equations (9) and (10) are satisfied because of assumptions on L, M and N and their initial relations with the vectors u_4, \dots, u_n . Moreover, the initial conditions are straightforward satisfied.

For the converse, we only must take into account the uniqueness of inextensible solutions of initial value problem (6)-(11).

Remark 5.2 By using the Levi-Civita parallel transport, we can express (25) as the following first order integro-differential equation,

$$\gamma'(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[w P_{0,t}^{\gamma}(v_1) + a \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) P_{0,t}^{\gamma}(v_2) + a \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) P_{0,t}^{\gamma}(u_2) \right],$$

$$|u_1|^2 = -1, \qquad |u_2|^2 = |u_3|^2 = 1, \qquad \langle u_1, u_2 \rangle = \langle u_1, u_3 \rangle = \langle u_2, u_3 \rangle = 0.$$
being $v_1 = \frac{wu_1 + au_3}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}$ and $v_2 = -\frac{au_1 + wu_3}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}.$

Note that expression (25) is only a representation of the solutions of (19). In fact, in order to compute the parallel vector fields L(t), M(t) and N(t) for t > 0, if is necessary to know the solution curve γ . However, formula (25) is interesting and it will be used in the analytical study of the completeness of inextensible trajectories given in Section 6.

Example 5.3 Consider the 3-dimensional Minkowski spacetime $M = \mathbb{L}^3$ endowed with the standard coordinate system (t, x, y). In this spacetime, every motion is obviously planar. A UC observer, with frequency $\frac{w}{2\pi}$ and 'radius' $\frac{a}{w^2}$, satisfying the initial conditions

$$\begin{split} \gamma(0) &= (0, \, \frac{a}{w^2 - a^2}, \, 0), \quad D\gamma'(0) = \big(\frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}, \, 0, \, \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}\big), \\ \frac{D\gamma'}{d\tau}(0) &= (0, \, -a, \, 0), \quad \frac{\widehat{D}}{d\tau} \Big(\frac{D\gamma'}{d\tau}\Big)(0) = \Big(\frac{a^2w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}, \, 0, \, \frac{aw^2}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}\Big), \end{split}$$

is given by the expression,

$$\gamma(\tau) = (t(\tau), x(\tau), y(\tau)),$$

where

$$t(\tau) = \frac{w\tau}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}, \quad x(\tau) = \frac{a}{w^2 - a^2} \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}\,\tau\right), \quad y(\tau) = \frac{a}{w^2 - a^2} \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}\right).$$

The physical interpretation may be as follows. The UC observer measures acceleration with constant modulus equal to a and angular velocity w. Thus, it induces that its radius is $R = \frac{a}{w^2}$. However, the family of inertial observers which measure an initial velocity of the UC observer equal to $\frac{a}{w}$, detect that it describes an uniform circular motion with acceleration a but with lower angular velocity, equal to $\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}$. The radius of the observed trajectory by these inertial observers is $\frac{a}{w^2 - a^2}$, which increases as w approximates to a.

We end this section discussing the condition a < w imposed in definition 3. A similar procedure to the above one arrives to the following representation of the solution of (19) whenever a > w holds.

$$\gamma'(t) = \frac{-w}{\sqrt{a^2 - w^2}} L(t) + \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 - w^2}} \left[\cosh\left(\sqrt{a^2 - w^2} t\right) M(t) + \sinh\left(\sqrt{a^2 - w^2} t\right) N(t) \right],$$

being $L, M, N \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$, unit (Levi-Civita) parallel vector fields satisfying

$$L(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - w^2}} (wu_1 + au_3),$$

$$M(0) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{a^2 - w^2}} (au_1 + wu_3),$$

$$N(0) = u_2,$$

$$\langle L(0), u_i \rangle = \langle M(0), u_i \rangle = \langle N(0), u_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for } 4 \le i \le n.$$

Observe that, for long values of proper time t, this motion approaches to a uniformly accelerated motion [5, Th.2.1].

Analogously, if a = w holds, we have

$$\gamma'(t) = \left(1 + \frac{a^2}{2}t^2\right)L(t) + \frac{a^2}{2}t^2M(t) + atN(t),$$

being $L, M, N \in \mathfrak{X}(\gamma)$ as before and now satisfying

$$L(0) = u_1,$$

$$M(0) = u_3/a^2,$$

$$N(0) = u_2/a,$$

$$\langle L(0), u_i \rangle = \langle M(0), u_i \rangle = \langle N(0), u_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for } 4 \le i \le n.$$

In this case, for long times, such a observer approaches to a lightlike trajectory in an accelerated way. In particular, in \mathbb{L}^3 , we have that $\gamma'(\tau) \approx \frac{a^2\tau^2}{2} (\partial_t + \partial_x)$ when τ is big enough, which is far to any possible circular motion.

Both cases show that is not possible a suitable relativistic definition of uniform circular motion with $a \ge w$.

6 Completeness of the inextensible UC trajectories in spacetimes with certain timelike symmetries

This section is devoted to the study of the completeness of the inextensible UC observers. First of all, we are going to relate the solutions of equation (19) with the integral curves of a certain vector field on a Stiefel type bundle on M (compare with [7, p. 6]).

Given a Lorentzian linear space E and $a, w \in \mathbb{R}$, w > a > 0, denote by $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(E)$ the (n,3)-Stiefel manifold over E, defined by

$$V_{n,3}^{a,w}(E) = \left\{ (v_1, v_2, v_3) \in E^3 : |v_1|^2 = -1, |v_2|^2 = a^2, |v_3|^2 = a^2 w^2, \langle v_i, v_j \rangle = 0, i \neq j \right\}.$$

The (n,3)-Stiefel bundle over the spacetime M is then defined as follows,

$$V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M) = \bigcup_{p \in M} \{p\} \times V_{n,3}^{a,w}(T_pM).$$

Now we construct a vector field $G \in \mathfrak{X}(V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M))$ which is the key tool in the study of completeness. Let (p, u_1, au_2, awu_3) be a point of $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$ and $f \in C^{\infty}(V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M))$. Let σ be the unique inextensible curve solution of (19) satisfying the initial conditions

$$\sigma(0) = p$$
, $\sigma'(0) = u_1$, $\frac{D\sigma'}{dt}(0) = au_2$, $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\sigma'}{dt})(0) = awu_3$.

We define

$$G_{(p,u_1,au_2,awu_3)}(f) := \frac{d}{dt}\Big|_{t=0} f\Big(\sigma(t),\sigma'(t),\frac{D\sigma'}{dt}(t),\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}\Big(\frac{D\sigma'}{dt}\Big)(t)\Big).$$

From results of Section 4, we have

$$\left(\sigma(t), \sigma'(t), \frac{D\sigma'}{dt}(t), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\sigma'}{dt})(t)\right) \in V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M),$$

and G is well defined.

The following result follows easily,

Lemma 6.1 There exists a unique vector field G on $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$ such that the curves $t \mapsto \left(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t), \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t), \frac{\hat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt})(t)\right)$ are the integral curves of G, for any solution γ of equation (19).

Once defined G, we will look for assumptions which assert its completeness.

Recall that an integral curve α of a vector field defined on some interval [0, b), $b < +\infty$, can be extended to b (as an integral curve) if and only if there exists a sequence $\{t_m\}_m$, $t_m \nearrow b$, such that $\{\alpha(t_m)\}_m$ converges (see for instance [15, Lemma 1.56]). The following technical result directly follows from this fact and Lemma 6.1.

Lemma 6.2 Let $\gamma:[0,b) \longrightarrow M$ be a solution of equation (19) with $0 < b < \infty$. The curve γ can be extended to b as a solution of (19) if and only if there exists a sequence $\left\{\gamma(t_m), \gamma'(t_m), \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t_m), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt})(t_m)\right\}_m$ which is convergent in $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$ when $t_m \to b$.

Although we know that $|\gamma'(t)|^2 = -1$, this is not enough to apply Lemma 6.2 even in the geometrically relevant case of M compact. The reason is similar to the possible geodesic incompleteness of a compact Lorentzian manifold (see for instance [15, Ex. 7.16],[18]).

However, it is relevant that if a compact Lorentzian manifold admits a timelike conformal vector field, then it must be geodesically complete [18]. Therefore, from a geometric viewpoint, it is natural to assume the existence of such infinitesimal conformal symmetry to deal with the extendibility of the solutions of (19)-(20).

Recall that a vector field K on M is called conformal if the Lie derivative of the metric with respect to K satisfies

$$L_K\langle , \rangle = 2h\langle , \rangle,$$
 (26)

for some $h \in C^{\infty}(M)$, equivalently, the local flows of K are conformal maps. In particular, if (26) holds with h = 0, K is called *Killing* vector field.

On the other hand, if a vector field K satisfies

$$\nabla_X K = hX$$
 for all $X \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$, (27)

then clearly we get (26). Moreover, for the 1-form K^b metrically equivalent to K, we have

$$dK^b(X,Y) = \langle \nabla_X K, Y \rangle - \langle \nabla_Y K, X \rangle = 0,$$

for all $X, Y \in \mathfrak{X}(M)$, i.e., K^b is closed. We will call to K which satisfies (27) a conformal and closed vector field. A Lorentzian manifold which admits a timelike conformal and closed vector field is locally a Generalized Robertson-Walker spacetime [3], [19].

The following result, inspired from [1, Lemma 9], will be decisive to assure that the image of the curve in $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$, associated to a UC observer γ , is contained in a compact subset.

Lemma 6.3 Let M be a spacetime and let Q be a unit timelike vector field. If $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ is a solution of (19)-(20) such that $\gamma(I)$ lies in a compact subset of M and $\langle Q, \gamma' \rangle$ is bounded on I, then the image of $t \longmapsto \left(\gamma(t), \gamma'(t), \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(t), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\sigma'}{dt})(t)\right)$ is contained in a compact subset of $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$.

Proof. Consider the 1-form Q^b metrically equivalent to Q and the auxiliary Riemannian metric $g_R := \langle , \rangle + 2 Q^b \otimes Q^b$. We have,

$$g_R(\gamma', \gamma') = \langle \gamma', \gamma' \rangle + 2 \langle Q, \gamma' \rangle^2,$$

which, by hypothesis, is bounded on I. Hence, there exists a constant c > 0 such that

$$\left(\gamma(I), \gamma'(I), \frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(I), \frac{\widehat{D}}{dt}(\frac{D\sigma'}{dt})(I)\right) \subset C,$$

$$C:=\big\{(p,u_1,au_2,awu_3)\in V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)\,:\,p\in C_1,\quad g_R(u_1,u_1)\leq c\big\},$$

where C_1 is a compact set on M such that $\gamma(I) \subset C_1$. Hence, C is a compact in $V_{n,3}^{a,w}(M)$.

Now, we are in a position to state the following completeness result (compare with [1, Th. 1] and [2, Th. 1]),

Theorem 6.4 Let M be a spacetime which admits a timelike conformal and closed vector field K. If $\operatorname{Inf}_M \sqrt{-\langle K, K \rangle} > 0$ then, each solution $\gamma: I \longrightarrow M$ of (19)-(20) such that $\gamma(I)$ lies in a compact subset of M can be extended.

Proof. Let I = [0, b), $0 < b < +\infty$, be the domain of a solution γ of equation (19)-(20). Multiplying γ' by the vector field K and making use of the representation (25, we obtain,

$$\langle K\,,\gamma^{\,\prime}\rangle = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2-a^2}}\langle K\,,L\rangle + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2-a^2}}\left[\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2-a^2}\,t\right)\langle K\,,M\rangle + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2-a^2}\,t\right)\langle K\,,N\rangle\right].$$

On the other hand, taking into account that L is Levi-Civita parallel and (27),

$$\frac{d}{dt}\langle K\,,L\rangle = \left\langle \frac{DK}{dt}\,,L\right\rangle = h\langle \gamma^{\,\prime}\,,L\rangle\,(h\circ\gamma) = -\frac{w(h\circ\gamma)}{\sqrt{w^2-a^2}}.$$

Analogously,

$$\frac{d}{dt}\langle K, M \rangle = \frac{a(h \circ \gamma)}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right),$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt}\langle K, N \rangle = \frac{a(h \circ \gamma)}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right).$$

Using now that $\gamma(I)$ is contained in a compact of M, the function $h \circ \gamma$ is bounded on I. Therefore, since I is assumed bounded, the functions $\langle K, L \rangle$, $\langle K, M \rangle$ and $\langle K, N \rangle$ are bounded on I and, as consequence, there exists a constant $c_1 > 0$ such that

$$|\langle K, \gamma' \rangle| < c_1. \tag{28}$$

Now, if we put $Q := \frac{K}{|K|}$, where $|K|^2 = -\langle K, K \rangle > 0$, then Q is a unit timelike vector field such that, by (28),

$$|\langle Q, \gamma' \rangle| \leq m c_1$$
 on I ,

where $m = \operatorname{Sup}_M |K|^{-1} < \infty$. The proof ends making use of Lemmas 6.2 and 6.3.

Remark 6.5 Note that the previous theorem implies the following result of mathematical interest: Let M be a compact spacetime which admits a timelike conformal and closed vector field K. Then, each inextensible solution of (19)-(20) must be complete. Note that the Lorentzian universal covering of M inherits the completeness of inextensible UC observers form the same fact on M.

7 Completeness of UC trajectories in a Plane Wave spacetime

In this section, we study the completeness of the inextensible UC trajectories with positive prescribed acceleration, but working in a more analytical way.

Let us consider a spacetime M admitting a global chart (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) . In these coordinates, we can write Equation (26) as follows

$$\gamma'_{k}(t) = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} L_{k}(t) + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[\cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{k}(t) + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{k}(t) \right],$$

$$L'_{k}(t) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{-\Gamma_{ij}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[w L_{i} L_{j} + a \cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) L_{i} M_{j} + a \sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) L_{i} N_{j} \right],$$

$$M'_{k}(t) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{-\Gamma_{ij}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[w M_{i} L_{j} + a \cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{i} M_{j} + a \sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{i} N_{j} \right], (29)$$

$$N'_{k}(t) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{-\Gamma_{ij}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[w N_{i} L_{j} + a \cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{i} M_{j} + a \sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{i} N_{j} \right],$$

$$\gamma_{k}(0) = p_{k}, L_{k}(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} (w u_{1k} + a u_{3k}), M_{k}(0) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} (a u_{1k} + w u_{3k}), N_{k}(0) = u_{2k}.$$

Here, u_{1k} , u_{2k} and u_{3k} are the coordinates of the vectors u_1 , u_2 and u_3 respectively, and satisfy

$$u_{1i} u_{1j} g_{ij}(0) = -1, \quad u_{2i} u_{2j} g_{ij}(0) = u_{2i} u_{2j} g_{ij}(0) = 1,$$

 $u_{1i} u_{2j} g_{ij}(0) = u_{1i} u_{3j} g_{ij}(0) = u_{2i} u_{3j} g_{ij}(0) = 0,$

being $g_{ij}(0)$ the coefficients of the metric at the point $\gamma(0)$ in these coordinates. Moreover, all the Christoffel symbols are evaluated on γ , i.e., $\Gamma_{ij}^k(t) := \Gamma_{ij}^k(\gamma_0(t), \dots, \gamma_n(t))$.

A (four dimensional) Plane Wave is a spacetime (M, g) which admits a Brinkmann coordinate system [9], i.e., a coordinate system in which the metric has the form

$$q = H(u, x, y)du^{2} + 2dudv + dx^{2} + dy^{2}$$

where H(u, x, y) is a quadratic function in the coordinates x and y with coefficients depending on u, that is,

$$H(u, x, y) = A(u)x^{2} + B(u)y^{2} + C(u)xy + D(u)x + E(u)y + F(u).$$
(30)

From now on, it is assumed that M admits a global Brinkmann coordinate system, which we will denote by (u, v, x, y). We also identify M with \mathbb{R}^4 .

In these coordinates, the Christoffel symbols of g are easily computed as follows

$$\Gamma_{i,j}^1 = 0$$
 for all $i, j = 1, \dots, 4$ (31)

$$\Gamma_{1,1}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial u}, \ \Gamma_{1,3}^2 = \Gamma_{3,1}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}, \ \Gamma_{1,4}^2 = \Gamma_{4,1}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial y}$$
(32)

$$\Gamma_{1,1}^3 = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}, \ \Gamma_{1,1}^4 = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial y}, \tag{33}$$

and the remaining symbols are zero.

Now, let us consider a UC observer $\gamma: I \to \mathbb{R}^4$ satisfying the initial conditions

$$\gamma(0) = p$$
, $\gamma'(0) = u_1$, $\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}(0) = a u_2$, $\frac{\widehat{D}}{dt} \left(\frac{D\gamma'}{dt}\right)(0) = aw u_3$,

with $p, u_1, u_2, u_3 \in \mathbb{R}^4$. Our final objective is to prove that such trajectory is extensible to the whole real line, i.e., that the maximal interval of definition of γ is $I = \mathbb{R}$.

By Proposition 5.1, we can write

$$\gamma'(t) = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L(t) + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[\cos \left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t \right) M(t) + \sin \left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t \right) N(t) \right]$$

where $L, M, N : I \to \mathbb{R}^4$ are solutions of system (29) with initial conditions

$$L(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}(wu_1 + au_3), \quad M(0) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}(au_1 + wu_3), \quad N(0) = u_2.$$

Writing in coordinates $L = (L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4)$, $M = (M_1, M_2, M_3, M_4)$, $N = (N_1, N_2, N_3, N_4)$, we have a simple but important fact.

Lemma 7.1 The first components of L, M, N are constant with value

$$L_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}(wu_{11} + au_{31}), M_1 = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}}(au_{11} + wu_{31}), N_1 = u_{21}$$

Proof. It follows trivially from (31) and (29) that $L'_1 = M'_1 = N'_1 = 0$, then L_1, M_1, N_1 are constants and equal to the respective initial condition.

A direct consequence of the latter lemma is that

$$\gamma_1'(t) = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L_1 + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) M_1 + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) N_1 \right]$$

and we have an explicit expression for $\gamma_1(t)$ as

$$\gamma_1(t) = p_1 + \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L_1 + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[M_1 \int_0^t \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) dt + N_1 \int_0^t \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) dt \right].$$
(34)

Lemma 7.2 As solutions of system (29), the functions L_3 , M_3 , N_3 , L_4 , M_4 , N_4 are extensible to the whole real line.

Proof. The equations from (29) for k = 3, 4 are

$$L'_{k}(t) = \frac{-\Gamma_{11}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[wL_{1}^{2} + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) L_{1} M_{1} + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) L_{1} N_{1} \right],$$

$$M'_{k}(t) = \frac{-\Gamma_{11}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[wM_{1}L_{1} + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{1}^{2} + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{1} N_{1} \right],$$

$$N'_{k}(t) = \frac{-\Gamma_{11}^{k}}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \left[wN_{1}L_{1} + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{1} M_{1} + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{1}^{2} \right].$$

The expressions between brackets are trigonometric functions. We define

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[wL_1^2 + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) L_1 M_1 + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) L_1 N_1 \right],$$

$$g(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[wM_1L_1 + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) M_1^2 + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) M_1 N_1 \right],$$

$$h(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[wN_1L_1 + a\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) N_1 M_1 + a\sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) N_1^2 \right].$$

Then, the previous system is written as

$$L'_{k}(t) = -f(t)\Gamma^{k}_{11}(\gamma(t)),$$

$$M'_{k}(t) = -g(t)\Gamma^{k}_{11}(\gamma(t)),$$

$$N'_{k}(t) = -h(t)\Gamma^{k}_{11}(\gamma(t)).$$
(35)

The key point is to analyse the particular form of the Christoffel symbols $\Gamma_{11}^k(\gamma(t))$, k=3,4. Considering that H is defined by (30), we have

$$\Gamma_{11}^{3}(\gamma) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}(\gamma(t)) = 2A(\gamma_1)\gamma_3 + C(\gamma_1)\gamma_4 + D(\gamma_1).$$

and

$$\Gamma_{11}^4(\gamma) = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial y}(\gamma(t)) = 2B(\gamma_1)\gamma_4 + C(\gamma_1)\gamma_3 + D(\gamma_1),$$

where $\gamma_1(t)$ is explicitly given by (34). Since

$$\gamma_k(t) = p_k + \int_0^t \left[\frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} L_k(s) + \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[\cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) M_k(s) + \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} t\right) N_k(s) \right] \right] ds,$$

then system (35) (with k = 3, 4) can be seen as an integro-differential system of six equations. To pass to a standard system of differential equations, we define the new variables

$$\mathcal{L}_k = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \int_0^t L_k(s) ds,$$

$$\mathcal{M}_k = \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \int_0^t \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} s\right) M_k(s) ds,$$

$$\mathcal{N}_k = \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \int_0^t \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2} s\right) N_k(s) ds,$$

for k = 3, 4. With the new variables,

$$\mathcal{L}'_{k}(t) = \frac{w}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} L_{k}(t),$$

$$\mathcal{M}'_{k}(t) = \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \cos\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) M_{k}(t),$$

$$\mathcal{N}'_{k}(t) = \frac{a}{\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}} \sin\left(\sqrt{w^{2} - a^{2}}t\right) N_{k}(t),$$
(36)

for k = 3, 4. Besides,

$$\gamma_k(t) = \mathcal{L}_k + \mathcal{M}_k + \mathcal{N}_k + p_k \qquad (k = 3, 4).$$

Remember that $\gamma_1(t)$ is known explicitly, see (34). Therefore, attending to the expression of the Christoffel symbols computed before, equations (35) are linear on the variables \mathcal{L}_k , \mathcal{M}_k , \mathcal{N}_k . Summing up, equations (35)-(36) compose a linear system of 12 equations on the involved variables L_k , M_k , N_k , \mathcal{L}_k , \mathcal{M}_k , \mathcal{N}_k (k = 3, 4). The basic theory of linear systems states that any solution of a linear is globally defined on the whole real line, closing the proof.

We end the manuscript with the following result.

Theorem 7.3 Every UC inextensible trajectory in a Plane Wave spacetime admitting a global Brinkmann chart is complete.

Proof. Up to now, we have proved that L_k , M_k , N_k with k = 1, 3, 4 are defined on the whole \mathbb{R} . To finish the proof, it remains to prove the completeness of $L_2(t)$, $M_2(t)$, $N_2(t)$. The equations (29) for L_2 is

$$L_2'(t) = \sum_{i,j} \frac{-\Gamma_{ij}^2}{\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}} \left[w L_i L_j + a \cos\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) L_i M_j + a \sin\left(\sqrt{w^2 - a^2}t\right) L_i N_j \right],$$

but note that $\Gamma_{ij}^2 = 0$ if i = 2 or j = 2, and moreover H does not depend on the second variable. This implies that the right-hand side part of the latter equation depends only on functions $L_k(t)$, $M_k(t)$, $N_k(t)$ (k=1,3,4), which we have proved that are globally defined, but not on L_2 , M_2 , N_2 . Thus, $L'_2(t)$ is defined for every t, and a simple integration leads to the conclusion. An analogous argument serves for $M_2(t)$, $N_2(t)$.

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