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DIRAC-GEODESICS AND THEIR HEAT FLOWS

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ABSTRACT. Dirac-geodesics are Dirac-harmonic maps from one dimensional domains. In this paper, we introduce the heat flow for Dirac-geodesics and establish its long-time existence and an asymptotic property of the global solution. We classify Dirac-geodesics on the standard 2-sphere $S^2(1)$ and the hyperbolic plane \mathbb{H}^2 , and derive existence results on topological spheres and hyperbolic surfaces. These solutions constitute new examples of coupled Dirac-harmonic maps (in the sense that the map part is not simply a harmonic map).

1. INTRODUCTION

Dirac-harmonic maps were introduced in^[4;5] as a geometric analytic model corresponding to the supersymmetric nonlinear σ -model of quantum field theory^[9;12].

Let us describe the geometric setting. Let (M, g) be a spin manifold with a fixed spin structure, and ΣM the spinor bundle over M , on which we chose a Hermitian metric $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. The Levi-Civita connection ∇ on ΣM is compatible with $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. Let (N, h) be a Riemannian manifold, Φ a map from M to N , and $\Phi^{-1}TN$ the pull-back bundle of TN by Φ . On the twisted bundle $\Sigma M \otimes \Phi^{-1}TN$ there is a metric (still denoted by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$) induced from the metrics on ΣM and $\Phi^{-1}TN$. There is a connection, still denoted by ∇ , on $\Sigma M \otimes \Phi^{-1}TN$ naturally induced from those on ΣM and $\Phi^{-1}TN$.

The *Dirac operator along the map* Φ is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \not{D}\Psi &:= e_i \cdot \nabla_{e_i} \Psi \\ &= \not{\partial} \psi^\alpha \otimes \theta_\alpha + e_i \cdot \psi^\alpha \otimes \nabla_{e_i} \theta_\alpha, \end{aligned}$$

where we write a cross-section Ψ of $\Sigma M \otimes \Phi^{-1}TN$ locally as $\Psi = \psi^\alpha \otimes \theta_\alpha$, $\{\psi^\alpha\}$ are local cross-sections of ΣM , and $\{\theta_\alpha\}$ are local cross-sections of $\Phi^{-1}TN$, $\{e_i\}$ is a local orthonormal basis on M , $\not{\partial} := e_i \cdot \nabla_{e_i}$ is the usual Dirac operator on M and “ \cdot ” stands for the Clifford multiplication by the vector field X on M . Here and in the sequel, we use the usual summation convention.

Consider the functional

$$L(\Phi, \Psi) = \frac{1}{2} \int_M (\|\mathrm{d}\Phi\|^2 + \langle \Psi, \not{D}\Psi \rangle).$$

The critical points (Φ, Ψ) have to satisfy in M° the following Euler-Lagrange equations for $L(\Phi, \Psi)$ (c.f.^[4]):

$$(1.1) \quad \begin{cases} \tau(\Phi) = \frac{1}{2} \langle \psi^\alpha, e_i \cdot \psi^\beta \rangle R^N(\theta_\alpha, \theta_\beta) \Phi_*(e_i) \equiv \mathcal{R}(\Phi, \Psi), \\ \not{D}\Psi = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $R^N(X, Y) := [\nabla_X, \nabla_Y] - \nabla_{[X, Y]}$, for $X, Y \in \Gamma(TN)$, stands for the curvature operator of N , and $\tau(\Phi)$ is the tension field of Φ . Solutions of (1.1) are called *Dirac-harmonic maps from M to N* . When M has nonempty boundary ∂M , then we need to impose appropriate boundary conditions for (Φ, Ψ) , see e.g.^[6;7;22].

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When the dimension of the domain manifold M is one, Dirac-harmonic maps are called *Dirac-geodesics*. The corresponding functional is of the form

$$(1.2) \quad L(\gamma, \Psi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_M \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 + \langle \Psi, \mathcal{D}\Psi \rangle \right),$$

where $\dot{\gamma}$ denotes the spatial derivative $d\gamma/ds$, M is an interval, say $[0, 1]$ in \mathbb{R}^1 .

In^[11], Isobe introduced a modified functional

$$L_F(\gamma, \Psi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_{S^1} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 + \langle \Psi, \mathcal{D}\Psi \rangle \right) - \int_{S^1} F(\gamma, \Psi),$$

where F is some suitable function. The critical points (γ, Ψ) are called *the nonlinear Dirac-geodesics*. Existence results were obtained in^[11] via an approach from critical point theory, under some conditions on the function $F > 0$ and assumptions on the metric of the target N .

Recently, Branding^[2;3] introduced the following regularized functional:

$$L_\varepsilon(\gamma, \Psi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_{S^1} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 + \langle \Psi, \mathcal{D}\Psi \rangle + \varepsilon |\mathcal{D}\Psi|^2 \right),$$

where $\varepsilon > 0$ is a parameter; critical points of it are called *regularized Dirac-geodesics*. He proved the global existence and convergence of the heat flow of closed regularized Dirac-geodesic when ε is large. However, the final existence of Dirac-geodesics cannot be obtained by removing the regularization, i.e., by letting $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

It is thus a natural question to define a suitable heat flow for Dirac-geodesics and study its global existence and asymptotic behavior. This is the main purpose of the present paper.

Let $\sigma : [0, 1] \rightarrow N$ be a smooth curve. For $\gamma : [0, 1] \times [0, T] \rightarrow N$ and $X(\cdot, t), Y(\cdot, t)$ vector fields along the curve $\gamma(\cdot, t)$, consider the system

$$(1.3) \quad \begin{cases} \gamma' = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \gamma + R(X, Y)\dot{\gamma}, & \text{on } (0, 1) \times (0, T), \\ \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} X = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1) \times [0, T), \\ \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} Y = 0, & \text{on } [0, 1) \times [0, T), \end{cases}$$

with initial-boundary value conditions

$$(1.4) \quad \begin{cases} \gamma(s, 0) = \sigma(s), & s \in (0, 1), \\ \gamma(0, t) = x_0, \quad \gamma(1, t) = y_0, & t \in [0, T), \\ X(0, t) = X_0, & t \in [0, T), \\ Y(0, t) = Y_0, & t \in [0, T), \end{cases}$$

where x_0, y_0 are two fixed points in N , $X_0, Y_0 \in T_{x_0}N$ are two fixed tangent vectors, γ' denotes the time derivative $\gamma' = \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial t}$.

The system (1.3) constitutes the heat flow for the Euler-Lagrange equation of the functional (1.2), see Lemma 2.1 in section 2. In fact, (1.3) can be viewed as a parabolic system with extra constraining equations satisfied by the field Ψ , which can be reduced to equations for two parallel vector fields X and Y along the underlying curve γ and hence can be easily solved. The fact that with this elliptic-parabolic system we get a better handle on the existence than other approaches seems to indicate that this is the right parabolic version of the Dirac-geodesic problem. Instead of trying to also turn the first-order Dirac equations for X and Y into parabolic equations, we rather treat them as first order constraints along the second order parabolic flow for γ . Thus, in particular, we can apply elliptic estimates for X and Y along the flow and thereby control the inhomogeneous term in the flow for γ .

The reason why we only consider the flow of Dirac-geodesics (γ, Ψ) defined on an interval $[0, 1]$ rather than on the circle S^1 is that, in general, one can not expect that the parallel vector fields X, Y can be defined on the whole S^1 . Nevertheless, γ could be a closed curve. For the heat flow of Dirac-harmonic maps from higher dimensional

manifolds with boundary, see^[6]. We will prove the following global existence result for the Dirac-geodesic heat flow:

Theorem 1.1. *Let N^n be a Riemannian manifold. Then there exists a unique solution of (1.3) and (1.4) for all $t \in [0, +\infty)$.*

Recall that for the usual geodesic heat flow, Ottarsson^[18] proved the long-time existence and uniqueness of a solution for smooth initial data, which has been recently extended by Lin and Wang^[17] to $W^{1,2}$ initial data. However, the convergence of the geodesic flow is unexpectedly subtle. Although it is proved in^[18] that there is a sequence $\{t_k\}$ with $t_k \rightarrow +\infty$ ($k \rightarrow +\infty$), such that $\gamma(t_k) \rightarrow \gamma_\infty$, the convergence of $\gamma(t)$ need not to be true in general, see the example of Topping (c.f. ^[8;23]). Choi and Parker^[8] proved the convergence of the geodesic heat flow for generic metrics, the so-called bumpy metrics on the target manifold N .

In^[15] Koh proved the global existence of the *magnetic geodesic heat flow*:

$$\gamma' = \nabla_\gamma \dot{\gamma} + Z(\gamma),$$

where $Z \in \text{Hom}(TM, TM)$ is the so-called *Lorenze force*, namely, $\Omega := h(\cdot, Z(\cdot))$ is a closed 2-form on the target (N, h) . Examples show that the convergence is also not true in general.

If N is the round 2-sphere $S^2(1)$ and $x_0, y_0 \in N$ with $d(x_0, y_0) = \pi$, then one can find initial-boundary data (σ, X_0, Y_0) such that the Dirac-geodesic flow (1.3) and (1.4) cannot converge to a Dirac-geodesic connecting x_0 and y_0 (see Theorem 3.3 and Remark 3.1). This means that in general one cannot expect the convergence of the global solution of the Dirac-geodesic heat flow (1.3) and (1.4).

A natural problem is then to study the asymptotic behavior of the above global solution. Notice that if N is a Riemann surface, then $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ for some constant c under the boundary conditions (see Remark 4.1), where X^b denotes the 1-form dual to the vector field X and ω is the volume form of N . This special property in the surface case is useful for estimating the kinetic energy, but it does not hold in general in higher dimensions. We will prove the following:

Theorem 1.2. *Let N^2 be a surface with negative Gauss curvature κ . If*

$$(1.5) \quad |c| < \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\kappa^2 + 4 \|\nabla \sqrt{-\kappa}\|^2} - \kappa},$$

then the kinetic energy density $k(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \|\gamma'\|^2$ decays exponentially, i.e.,

$$k(\gamma(s, t-1)) \leq C e^{(2c^2 \|\nabla \sqrt{-\kappa}\|^2 + 2\pi|c\kappa| - 2\pi^2)t} \int_0^1 k(\sigma) ds, \quad \forall t > 1,$$

where C is a positive constant dependent only on the geometry of N .

Remark 1.1. We note that it follows from (1.5) that

$$c^2 \|\nabla \sqrt{-\kappa}\|^2 + \pi|c\kappa| - \pi^2 < 0.$$

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: in section 2 we derive the Euler-Lagrange equations of the function L ; in section 3, we discuss Dirac-geodesics on surfaces and classify Dirac-geodesics on the standard 2-sphere $S^2(1)$ (Theorem 3.3) and the hyperbolic plane \mathbb{H}^2 (Theorem 3.5), and derive existence results on topological spheres (Theorem 3.4) and hyperbolic surfaces (Theorem 3.6). These solutions constitute new examples of nontrivially coupled Dirac-harmonic maps; see^[14] for an explicit example of coupled Dirac-harmonic map from surfaces and^[1;5] for constructions and existence of uncoupled Dirac-harmonic maps (in the sense that the map part is an ordinary harmonic map) from surfaces and high dimensional manifolds; in section 4, we prove the global existence of the Dirac-geodesic flow (Theorem 1.1) and the asymptotic property of the solution (Theorem 1.2).

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2. PRELIMINARIES

2.1. Spin bundle $\Sigma\mathbb{R}$. First, let us recall some basic notions from spin geometry. We refer to^[10;11;13;16] for additional references. Consider the real line \mathbb{R} with the standard metric and let $\frac{d}{dr}$ be the unit tangent vector. The Clifford bundle $\text{Cl}(\mathbb{R})$ is the quotient bundle

$$\text{Cl}(\mathbb{R}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \otimes^k \mathbb{R} / I(\mathbb{R})$$

where $I(\mathbb{R})$ is the bundle of ideals, i.e., the bundle whose fibre at $r \in \mathbb{R}$ is the two-sided $I(T_r\mathbb{R})$ in $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \otimes^k \mathbb{R}$ generated by elements $v \otimes v + \|v\|^2$ for $v \in T_r\mathbb{R}$. It is easy to check that $\text{Cl}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{C}$, i.e., a trivial bundle with fibre the complex line. Obviously, the principal SO-bundle $P_{\text{SO}}(\mathbb{R})$ of \mathbb{R} is just the real line \mathbb{R} , and the principal Spin-bundle of \mathbb{R} becomes to $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. By definition, a spin structure on \mathbb{R} is a lift of $P_{\text{SO}}(\mathbb{R})$ to $P_{\text{Spin}}(\mathbb{R})$. Thus, there are two spin structures on \mathbb{R} , the trivial one and the non-trivial one. However, these two spin structures are equivalent to each other.

Notice that $\text{Cl}_1 \cong \text{Cl}_2^0$ (the even parts of Cl_2) via the correspondence $\text{Cl}_1 \ni x = x^0 + x^1 \mapsto x^0 + e_2 \cdot x^1 \in \text{Cl}_2$, where x^0 and x^1 are the even parts and odd parts of x respectively. Identify \mathbb{R} as a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 via the canonical inclusion $\mathbb{R} \ni x \mapsto (x, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. It is well known that Cl_2 is isomorphic to the 2×2 -matrix algebra over \mathbb{C} via

$$1 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_1 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_2 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{-1} \\ \sqrt{-1} & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_1 \cdot e_2 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Introduce the spinor space $\Delta_2 := \mathbb{C}^2$ and the chiral operator $G := \sqrt{-1}e_1 \cdot e_2$, then Cl_2 acts on the spinor space.

Moreover, this chiral operator splits Δ_2 into \pm -eigenspaces Δ_2^{\pm} . It is easy to see that $\Delta_2^+ = \mathbb{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \sqrt{-1} \end{pmatrix} \cong \mathbb{C}$ and

$\Delta_2^- = \mathbb{C} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -\sqrt{-1} \end{pmatrix} \cong \mathbb{C}$. Thus, we get two representation spaces of Cl_1 , i.e., Δ_2^{\pm} , and in particular, of Spin_1 . Moreover,

as a representation of Spin_1 , Δ_2^{\pm} are equivalent to each other. This Δ_2^+ is the spinor space of Spin_1 and we write $\mathcal{S} = \Delta_2^+$. The associated bundle of $P_{\text{Spin}}(\mathbb{R})$ via the representation of Spin_1 is called the spinor bundle and is denoted by $\Sigma\mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{S}$. By this convention, we know that the Clifford product on spinors is given through

$\text{Cl}(\mathbb{R}) \ni \frac{d}{dr} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Since $\Delta_2^+ \cong \mathbb{C}$, this Clifford product is simply given by the complex multiplication by $\sqrt{-1}$.

The connection on the spinor bundle $\Sigma\mathbb{R}$ is the canonical lift of the Levi-Civita connection $\frac{d}{dr}$ on $T\mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$ to $\Sigma\mathbb{R} \cong \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{C}$. The Dirac operator then is $\not{D} = \sqrt{-1} \frac{d}{dr}$.

2.2. Dirac-geodesics on Riemannian manifolds. Let N be a Riemannian manifold, and $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow N$ be a curve and $\Psi \in \Gamma(\Sigma[0, 1] \otimes \gamma^{-1}TN)$ be a spinor along the curve γ . We identify the spinor Ψ as a complex vector field along the curve γ and introduce $\Psi = X + \sqrt{-1}Y$ where X, Y are two vector fields along the curve γ . By (1.1), the Dirac-harmonic map (γ, Ψ) satisfies the following system

$$(2.1) \quad \begin{cases} \tau(\gamma) = \mathcal{R}(\gamma, \Psi), \\ \not{D}\Psi = 0. \end{cases}$$

Lemma 2.1. (2.1) is equivalent to the following system

$$(2.2) \quad \begin{cases} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}\dot{\gamma} + R(X, Y)\dot{\gamma} = 0, \\ \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}X = 0, \\ \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}Y = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $\dot{\gamma}$ denotes the tangent vector field of γ .

Proof. Choose a local orthonormal frame fields $\{e_i\}$ of N and denote the unit tangent vector field over $[0, 1]$ by ∂_t , then a direct computation implies that

$$\begin{aligned}\tau(\gamma) - \mathcal{R}(\gamma, \Psi) &= \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \langle \Psi^i, \partial_t \cdot \Psi^j \rangle R(e_i, e_j) \dot{\gamma} = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} - \frac{1}{2} \langle \Psi^i, \sqrt{-1} \Psi^j \rangle R(e_i, e_j) \dot{\gamma} \\ &= \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} + \frac{\sqrt{-1}}{2} \Psi^i \bar{\Psi}^j R(e_i, e_j) \dot{\gamma} \\ &= \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} + \frac{\sqrt{-1}}{2} (X^i + \sqrt{-1} Y^i)(X^j - \sqrt{-1} Y^j) R(e_i, e_j) \dot{\gamma} \\ &= \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} + \frac{\sqrt{-1}}{2} ((X^i X^j + Y^i Y^j) + \sqrt{-1} (Y^i X^j - X^i Y^j)) R(e_i, e_j) \dot{\gamma} \\ &= \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} + R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma},\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\mathcal{D}\Psi = \partial_t \cdot \nabla_{\partial_t} \Psi = \sqrt{-1} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} (X + \sqrt{-1} Y) = \sqrt{-1} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} X - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} Y.$$

□

Definition 2.1. A Dirac-harmonic map (γ, X, Y) as in (2.2) is called a *Dirac-geodesic on N* . We say that (γ, X, Y) is closed if γ is closed.

Remark 2.1. By a ‘‘closed’’ Dirac-geodesic, we mean that the curve is closed, but the spinor need not close up on S^1 . On the other hand, it is also interesting to consider closed Dirac-geodesics defined on S^1 , which can be equipped with two different spin structures.

Lemma 2.2. *If (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic, then $\|\dot{\gamma}\|, \|X\|, \|Y\|, \langle X, Y \rangle$ are all constant along γ .*

Proof. Since X and Y are parallel vector fields along the curve γ , it follows that $\|X\|, \|Y\|$ and $\langle X, Y \rangle$ are all constant. On the other hand,

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 = \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = -\langle R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 0,$$

which implies that $\|\dot{\gamma}\|$ is a constant. □

Remark 2.2. Suppose $(\tilde{\gamma}, \tilde{X}, \tilde{Y})$ is a Dirac-geodesic defined in $(0, 1)$ with $\|\dot{\tilde{\gamma}}\| = \varepsilon^{-1} > 0$. Define $\gamma(t) = \tilde{\gamma}(\varepsilon t)$ and $\Psi(t) = \theta \sqrt{\varepsilon} \tilde{\Psi}(\varepsilon t)$ where $\theta \in \mathbb{C}$ is a constant with $\|\theta\| = 1$, then (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic with unit-speed defined in $[0, \varepsilon]$.

Suppose $\sigma : [0, 1] \rightarrow N$ is a C^1 -curve so that $\sigma([0, 1])$ is bounded in N , then there exists an open neighborhood N' of $\sigma([0, 1])$ with compact closure so that N' can be (smoothly) isometrically embedded into some Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^q . If necessary, by choosing a smaller neighborhood, we may assume that there is a bounded tubular neighborhood \tilde{N} of N' in \mathbb{R}^q . Let $\pi : \tilde{N} \rightarrow N'$ be the nearest point projection denoted by $\pi = (\pi^1, \pi^2, \dots, \pi^q) = (\pi^A)_{1 \leq A \leq q}$. By choosing an even smaller N' , we may assume that π can be extended smoothly to the whole \mathbb{R}^q so that each π^A is compactly supported. Hence, in particular, $\pi^A, \pi^A_B = \frac{\partial \pi^A}{\partial Z^B}, \pi^A_{BC} = \frac{\partial^2 \pi^A}{\partial Z^B \partial Z^C}, \pi^A_{BCD} = \frac{\partial^3 \pi^A}{\partial Z^B \partial Z^C \partial Z^D}$, etc. are bounded, where $Z = (Z^A)$ are standard coordinates of \mathbb{R}^q . Notice that $d\pi_{N'}$ is an orthogonal projection.

The functional L can be written as

$$L(\gamma, X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\int_0^1 (\dot{\gamma}^A)^2 + \dot{X}^A Y^A - X^A \dot{Y}^A \right).$$

Next, we want to derive the Euler-Lagrange equations of L . For any smooth map $\eta : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$ and any smooth real functions ξ^A, ζ^A on $(0, 1)$, we consider the variation

$$\gamma_t = \pi(\gamma + t\eta), \quad X_t^A = \pi^A_N(\gamma_t)(X^B + t\xi^B), \quad Y_t^A = \pi^A_B(\gamma_t)(Y^B + t\zeta^B).$$

It is easy to check that

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma_0 &= \gamma, & X_0 &= X, & Y_0 &= Y, \\ \frac{\partial \gamma_t^A}{\partial t} \Big|_{t=0} &= \pi^A_B(\gamma) \eta^B,\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\left. \frac{\partial X_l^A}{\partial t} \right|_{t=0} = \pi_B^A(\gamma) \xi^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) X^B \eta^D, \quad \left. \frac{\partial Y_l^A}{\partial t} \right|_{t=0} = \pi_B^A(\gamma) \zeta^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) Y^B \eta^D.$$

Moreover, if $\gamma \subset N$ and X, Y are two vector fields on N along the curve γ , then

$$v_B^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B = 0, \quad v_B^A(\gamma) X^B = 0, \quad v_B^A(\gamma) Y^B = 0,$$

where $v_B^A := \delta_B^A - \pi_B^A$. The following relationship will be used later:

$$\pi_B^A(\gamma) \pi_C^B(\gamma) = \pi_C^A(\gamma), \quad \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) = \pi_{CB}^A(\gamma), \quad \pi_B^A(\gamma) = \pi_A^B(\gamma), \quad \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^C = \pi_{AC}^B \dot{\gamma}^C.$$

Theorem 2.3. *Using the above notations, the Euler-Lagrange equations for L become*

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{\gamma}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C + (\pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C Y^D X^E - \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E) \dot{\gamma}^F = 0, \\ \dot{X}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B X^C = 0, \\ \dot{Y}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C = 0. \end{cases}$$

Remark 2.3. Denote

$$\Omega_B^A := (\pi_C^A(\gamma) \pi_{BD}^C(\gamma) - \pi_{CD}^A(\gamma) \pi_B^C(\gamma)) \dot{\gamma}^D, \quad R_{GDE}^A := \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_F^G \pi_{EF}^C - \pi_B^G \pi_{BD}^C \pi_F^A \pi_{EF}^C,$$

then the Euler-Lagrange equations for L can be rewritten as

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{\gamma}^A + \Omega_B^A \dot{\gamma}^B - R_{BCD}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B X^C Y^D = 0, \\ \dot{X}^A + \Omega_B^A X^B = 0, \\ \dot{Y}^A + \Omega_B^A Y^B = 0. \end{cases}$$

Moreover, $\Omega_B^A = -\Omega_A^B$.

Proof of Remark 2.3. First, we check that $\Omega_B^A = -\Omega_A^B$.

$$\Omega_B^A = (\pi_C^A \pi_{BD}^C - \pi_{CD}^A \pi_B^C) \dot{\gamma}^D = \pi_C^A \pi_{CD}^B \dot{\gamma}^D - \pi_{AD}^C \dot{\gamma}^D \pi_C^B = -(\pi_C^B \pi_{AD}^C - \pi_{CD}^B \pi_A^C) \dot{\gamma}^D =: -\Omega_A^B.$$

Second,

$$\Omega_B^A \dot{\gamma}^B = (\pi_C^A \pi_{BD}^C - \pi_{CD}^A \pi_B^C) \dot{\gamma}^D \dot{\gamma}^B = \pi_C^A \pi_{BD}^C \dot{\gamma}^D \dot{\gamma}^B - \pi_{CD}^A \pi_B^C \dot{\gamma}^D \dot{\gamma}^B = -\pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C.$$

Here we have used $\pi_C^A(\gamma) \pi_{BD}^C(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^D \dot{\gamma}^B = 0$. To see this identity, we begin with the identity $\pi_B^A(\gamma) \pi_C^B(\gamma) = \pi_C^A(\gamma)$, then

$$\pi_{BD}^A \pi_C^B \dot{\gamma}^D + \pi_B^A \pi_{CD}^B \dot{\gamma}^D = \pi_{CD}^A \dot{\gamma}^D.$$

Hence, multiplying both sides by $\dot{\gamma}^C$, we get that

$$\pi_C^A(\gamma) \pi_{BD}^C(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^D \dot{\gamma}^B = 0.$$

Third, notice that $\pi_B^A(\gamma) X^B = X^A$, we have

$$\pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^C X^B + \pi_B^A \dot{X}^B = \dot{X}^A,$$

then multiplying both sides by $\pi_A^D(\gamma)$, we get that $\pi_B^A(\gamma) \pi_{CD}^B(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^C X^D = 0$. By a similar computation,

$$\Omega_B^A X^B = -\pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B X^C, \quad \Omega_B^A Y^B = -\pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C.$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} R_{GDE}^A \dot{\gamma}^G X^D Y^E &= (\pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_F^G \pi_{EF}^C - \pi_B^G \pi_{BD}^C \pi_F^A \pi_{EF}^C) \dot{\gamma}^G X^D Y^E = \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \dot{\gamma}^F \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E - \dot{\gamma}^B \pi_{BD}^C \pi_F^A \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E \\ &= (\pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E - \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C Y^D X^E) \dot{\gamma}^F. \end{aligned}$$

□

Proof of Theorem 2.3. Suppose η, ξ, ζ has compact support in $(0, 1)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\left. \frac{dL(\gamma_t, X_t, Y_t)}{dt} \right|_{t=0} &= \int_0^1 \dot{\gamma}'^A \dot{\gamma}^A + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (\dot{X}'^A Y^A + \dot{X}^A Y'^A) - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (X'^A \dot{Y}^A + X^A \dot{Y}'^A) \\
&= \int_0^1 \frac{\partial (\pi_B^A \eta^B)}{\partial s} \dot{\gamma}^A + \int_0^1 \frac{\partial (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \xi^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) X^B \eta^D)}{\partial s} Y^A \\
&\quad \int_0^1 \dot{X}^A (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \zeta^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) Y^B \eta^D) - \frac{1}{2} (X'^A Y^A + X^A Y'^A) \Big|_0^1 \\
&= \int_0^1 (\pi_B^A \dot{\eta}^B + \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^C \eta^B) \dot{\gamma}^A - \int_0^1 (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \xi^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) X^B \eta^D) \dot{Y}^A \\
&\quad \int_0^1 \dot{X}^A (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \zeta^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) Y^B \eta^D) \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2} (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \xi^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) X^B \eta^D) Y^A \Big|_0^1 \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{2} (\pi_B^A(\gamma) \zeta^B + \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \pi_D^C(\gamma) Y^B \eta^D) X^A \Big|_0^1 \\
&= - \int_0^1 (\ddot{\gamma}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C + (\pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C Y^D X^E - \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E) \dot{\gamma}^F) \eta^A \\
&\quad + \int_0^1 (\pi_{BC}^D \pi_A^C Y^B (\dot{X}^D - \pi_{EF}^D \dot{\gamma}^E X^F) - \pi_{BC}^D \pi_A^C X^B (\dot{Y}^D - \pi_{EF}^D \dot{\gamma}^E Y^F)) \eta^A \\
&\quad + \int_0^1 (\dot{X}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B X^C) \zeta^A - \int_0^1 (\dot{Y}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C) \xi^A \\
&\quad + \left(\dot{\gamma}^A \eta^A + \frac{1}{2} Y^A \xi^A - \frac{1}{2} X^A \zeta^A \right) \Big|_0^1 \\
&= - \int_0^1 (\ddot{\gamma}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C + (\pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C Y^D X^E - \pi_B^A \pi_{BD}^C \pi_{EF}^C X^D Y^E) \dot{\gamma}^F) \eta^A \\
&\quad + \int_0^1 (\pi_{BC}^D \pi_A^C Y^B (\dot{X}^D - \pi_{EF}^D \dot{\gamma}^E X^F) - \pi_{BC}^D \pi_A^C X^B (\dot{Y}^D - \pi_{EF}^D \dot{\gamma}^E Y^F)) \eta^A \\
&\quad + \int_0^1 (\dot{X}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B X^C) \zeta^A - \int_0^1 (\dot{Y}^A - \pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C) \xi^A.
\end{aligned}$$

□

3. DIRAC-GEODESICS ON SURFACES

Assume $\dim N = 2$, i.e., N is a surface. Put $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$, where ω is the volume form of N and c is a function of t (see Lemma 2.2). Let J_x be the rotation by $\pi/2$ in $T_x N$ measured with the metric and the orientation chosen on N .

Lemma 3.1. (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic on a surface N if and only if

$$\begin{cases} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} = c\kappa(\gamma) J_\gamma(\dot{\gamma}), \\ \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} X = \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} Y = 0, \end{cases}$$

where c is a constant such that $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ and κ is the Gauss curvature of N .

Proof. The proof follows easily from the following identity:

$$R(X, Y)\dot{\gamma} = R(X \wedge Y)\dot{\gamma} = R(c\omega_\gamma)\dot{\gamma} = -c\kappa(\gamma)J_\gamma(\dot{\gamma}).$$

□

Recall that a curve γ satisfying $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}\dot{\gamma} = c\kappa(\gamma)J_{\gamma}(\dot{\gamma})$ is called a ($c\kappa$ -)magnetic geodesic and models the motion of a charge in a magnetic field with magnetic form $c\kappa\omega$. Therefore, each Dirac-geodesic on a surface can be viewed as a $c\kappa$ -magnetic geodesic coupled with two parallel tangent vector fields along the magnetic geodesic.

According to Remark 2.2, we can choose an orthonormal basis $e_1 = \dot{\gamma}, e_2$ along the curve γ . Denote

$$(3.1) \quad X(t) = a(\cos(f(t))e_1 + \sin(f(t))e_2),$$

$$(3.2) \quad Y(t) = b(\cos(f(t) + \theta)e_1 + \sin(f(t) + \theta)e_2),$$

where $a, b > 0$ and θ are three constants, and $f, g \in C^1[0, \varepsilon]$.

The following theorem gives a geometric description of Dirac-geodesics.

Theorem 3.2. *Let γ be a unit-speed curve with geodesic curvature κ_g on a surface M , a, b, θ constants with $a, b \geq 0$. If κ is the Gauss curvature of M , then (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic if and only if*

$$\kappa_g = kab \sin \theta, \quad \dot{f} = -kab \sin \theta,$$

where X, Y are given by the formulae (3.1) and (3.2).

Proof. Suppose (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic, by Lemma 2.2, X, Y are of the form (3.1) and (3.2). By a direct computation, one gets that

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}\dot{\gamma} + R(X, Y)\dot{\gamma} &= \nabla_{e_1}e_1 + abR(\cos(f)e_1 + \sin(f)e_2, \cos(f + \theta)e_1 + \sin(f + \theta)e_2)e_1 \\ &= \langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle e_2 + ab(\cos(f)\sin(f + \theta) - \sin(f)\cos(f + \theta))R(e_1, e_2)e_1 \\ &= \langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle e_2 - ab\kappa \sin(\theta)e_2 \\ &= (\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle - ab\kappa \sin \theta) e_2, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}X &= -a\sin(f)\dot{f}e_1 + a\cos(f)\nabla_{e_1}e_1 + a\cos(f)\dot{f}e_2 + a\sin(f)\nabla_{e_1}e_2 \\ &= -a\sin(f)\dot{f}e_1 + a\cos(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle e_2 + a\cos(f)\dot{f}e_2 + a\sin(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_2, e_1 \rangle e_1 \\ &= -a\sin(f)\dot{f}e_1 + a\cos(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle e_2 + a\cos(f)\dot{f}e_2 - a\sin(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle e_1 \\ &= (-a\sin(f)\dot{f} - a\sin(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle) e_1 + (a\cos(f)\dot{f} + a\cos(f)\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle) e_2 \\ &= a(-\sin(f)e_1 + \cos(f)e_2)(\dot{f} + \langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}Y = b(-\sin(f + \theta)e_1 + \cos(f + \theta)e_2)(\dot{f} + \langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle).$$

Notice that $\langle \nabla_{e_1}e_1, e_2 \rangle$ is just the geodesic curvature κ_g of γ in M , and we finish the proof of the necessity. The sufficiency is obvious. \square

3.1. Dirac-geodesics on spheres. First, we consider the unit sphere $S^2(1)$ with the standard metric and let ω be the volume form.

Theorem 3.3 (Dirac-geodesic on the round 2-sphere). *Any Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) with non-constant γ on the round sphere $S^2(1)$ locally can be defined by*

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(s) &= \left(\sqrt{1 - \rho^2} \cos\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right), \sqrt{1 - \rho^2} \sin\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}}\right), \rho \right), \\ X(s) &= a\lambda \left(-\sin\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} - cs + c_0\right), \cos\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} - cs + c_0\right), 0 \right), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$Y(s) = b\lambda \left(-\sin\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} - cs + \theta + c_0\right), \cos\left(\frac{\lambda s}{\sqrt{1 - \rho^2}} - cs + \theta + c_0\right), 0 \right)$$

where $c = ab\lambda^2 \sin \theta$ and $a, b, \lambda, \theta, c_0$ are constants. Moreover, for $p, q \in S^2(1)$ and constants $c \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda > 0$, there is a Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) such that γ connects p, q with speed λ and the oriented area of $X + \sqrt{-1}Y$ is c if and only if the following condition is satisfied:

$$(3.3) \quad |c| \leq \lambda \cot\left(\frac{\text{dist}(p, q)}{2}\right).$$

Proof. Equip the sphere $S^2(1)$ with the standard metric, i.e., the pull-back of the metric in \mathbb{R}^3 . In this case, the Dirac-geodesic equation becomes

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{\gamma} + \lambda^2 \gamma = c\gamma \times \dot{\gamma}, \\ \dot{X} + \langle X, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \gamma = 0, \\ \dot{Y} + \langle Y, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \gamma = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $\lambda = \|\dot{\gamma}\|$ is a constant. First, we claim that γ is a planar curve and a circle with radius $\lambda/\sqrt{\lambda^2 + c^2}$ and centered at $\frac{c}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 + c^2}}(\gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma)$. In fact,

$$\gamma \times \ddot{\gamma} = c\gamma \times (\gamma \times \dot{\gamma}) = c(\langle \gamma, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \gamma - \langle \gamma, \gamma \rangle \dot{\gamma}) = -c\dot{\gamma},$$

which means that $\gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma$ is a constant since

$$\frac{d}{ds}(\gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma) = \gamma \times \ddot{\gamma} + c\dot{\gamma} = 0.$$

Moreover, the length of this vector is

$$\|\gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma\| = \sqrt{\lambda^2 + c^2}.$$

Suppose $\lambda \neq 0$, i.e., γ is not a constant. Then

$$\left\langle \gamma - \frac{c}{\lambda^2 + c^2}(\gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma), \gamma \times \dot{\gamma} + c\gamma \right\rangle = 0.$$

Thus we have proved the claim.

Now by Lemma 2.2, we have that

$$X = a(\dot{\gamma} \cos(f(s)) + \gamma \times \dot{\gamma} \sin(f(s))),$$

and

$$Y = b(\dot{\gamma} \cos(f(s) + \theta) + \gamma \times \dot{\gamma} \sin(f(s) + \theta)),$$

where a, b, θ are constants such that $c = ab\lambda^2 \sin \theta$. A direct computation implies that

$$0 = \dot{X} + \langle X, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \gamma = a(-\dot{\gamma} \sin(f) + \gamma \times \dot{\gamma} \cos(f))(\dot{f} + c),$$

and

$$0 = \dot{Y} + \langle Y, \dot{\gamma} \rangle \gamma = a(-\dot{\gamma} \sin(f + \theta) + \gamma \times \dot{\gamma} \cos(f + \theta))(\dot{f} + c)$$

which implies that $f = -cs + c_0$ for some constant c_0 .

For every constant c and two points $p, q \in S^2(1)$, one can check directly that there exists a Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) with $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ such that $p, q \in \gamma$ if and only if

$$\frac{|c|}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 + c^2}} \leq \cos\left(\frac{\text{dist}(p, q)}{2}\right),$$

i.e.,

$$|c| \leq \lambda \cot\left(\frac{\text{dist}(p, q)}{2}\right).$$

In fact, embedding S^2 into \mathbb{R}^3 . Suppose γ centered at C and let Q be the midpoint of p and q in \mathbb{R}^3 , then

$$|OC| \leq |OQ|.$$

This means

$$\frac{|c|}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 + c^2}} = |\rho| \leq \cos\left(\frac{\text{dist}(p, q)}{2}\right).$$

□

Remark 3.1. Notice that γ is just the parametrization of a circle up to orientation-preserving isometries and X, Y are two parallel vector fields along the curve γ .

The inequality (3.3) is exactly the fact the distance between p and q is less than the diameter of the the circle γ .

When the inequality (3.3) is strict, there exists only one shortest Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) connecting p, q with speed $\lambda = \|\dot{\gamma}\|$ and $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$. In the case of equality, there exist exactly two shortest Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) with speed λ and $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ connecting p, q unless $c = 0$. Of course, there exist infinitely many shortest geodesics connecting the north pole and the south pole.

Hence, if $\text{dist}(p, q) < \pi$, there always exist infinitely many constants λ such that (3.3) holds. In other words, there exists an infinite number of Dirac-geodesics (γ, X, Y) with $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ such that γ connects p, q . However, if $\text{dist}(p, q) = \pi$, then c must be zero and γ must be a geodesic.

Next, for topological spheres S^2 , Schneider (c.f. [20]), and Rosenberg-Schneider (c.f. [19]) proved the following existence theorems for closed magnetic geodesics (solutions of $\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}\gamma = h(\gamma)J_\gamma(\dot{\gamma})$) on S^2 .

Theorem A (c.f. [20], [19])

(1) Let h be a positive smooth function on S^2 , and $c > 0$ a constant. Suppose that one of the following three assumptions is satisfied: (i) $c(2\pi + (\sup \kappa^-) \text{Vol}(S^2)) \leq 4(\inf h) \text{inj}_{S^2}$, (ii) $\kappa > 0$ and $c\sqrt{\sup \kappa} \leq 2(\inf h)$, (iii) $\sup \kappa < 4 \inf \kappa$. Then there exist at least two simple closed magnetic geodesics γ such that $\|\dot{\gamma}\| = c$.

(2) Suppose that S^2 has positive Gauss curvature. There exists a constant $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all smooth functions $h : S^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $0 < h \leq c\varepsilon$ for some constant c , there are two embedded distinct simple closed magnetic geodesics γ with $\|\dot{\gamma}\| = c$.

We have the following

Theorem 3.4. Suppose the sphere S^2 has positive Gauss curvature κ . Suppose one of the following four assumptions is satisfied: (1) $\pi \leq 2|c|(\inf \kappa) \text{inj}_{S^2}$; (2) $\sup \sqrt{\kappa} \leq 2|c| \inf \kappa$; (3) $\sup \kappa < 4 \inf \kappa$; (4) $|c|\kappa \leq \varepsilon$, where c is some constant and $\varepsilon > 0$ is a suitable constant. Then there are at least two simple closed unit-speed Dirac-geodesics (γ, X, Y) such that $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$ where ω is the volume form of S^2 .

Proof of Theorem 3.4. It is a direct consequence of the theorem mentioned above and Lemma 3.1. In fact, in our case, $h = c\kappa$ and the speed is one. Hence, our conditions become

- (1) $\pi \leq 2|c|(\inf \kappa) \text{inj}_{S^2}$,
- (2) $\sqrt{\sup \kappa} \leq 2|c| \inf \kappa$,
- (3) $\sup \kappa < 4 \inf \kappa$,
- (4) for small $\varepsilon > 0$, $|c|\kappa \leq \varepsilon$.

Hence there are at least two simple closed unit-speed curves γ satisfying

$$\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}}\gamma = ck(\gamma)J_\gamma(\dot{\gamma}).$$

For such a γ , choose some point $x \in \gamma$. Choose two vectors $X_0, Y_0 \in T_x S^2$ with

$$X_0 \wedge Y_0 = c\omega_x$$

Define X, Y to be the parallel vector fields along γ with $X(x) = X_0, Y(x) = Y_0$. Then according to our definition, (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic. Moreover, $X^b \wedge Y^b = c\omega_\gamma$. □

3.2. Dirac-geodesics on the hyperbolic plane. Let \mathbb{H}^2 be the standard hyperbolic plane with constant curvature -1 , that is, the upper half plane

$$\mathbb{H}^2 = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : y > 0\},$$

with the metric

$$ds^2 = \frac{1}{y^2} (dx^2 + dy^2).$$

Next we will derive the local representation of constant geodesic curvature curves in \mathbb{H}^2 . Let

$$\omega_1 = \frac{dx}{y}, \quad \omega_2 = \frac{dy}{y}, \quad e_1 = y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \quad e_2 = y \frac{\partial}{\partial y}.$$

Then a direct computation implies that

$$\omega_{12} = \frac{dx}{y}.$$

Let $\gamma(s) = (x(s), y(s))$ be a curve in \mathbb{H}^2 with geodesic curvature κ_g , then

$$\dot{\gamma} = \dot{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \dot{y} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} =: \xi^1 e_1 + \xi^2 e_2.$$

In other words,

$$\xi^1 = \frac{\dot{x}}{y}, \quad \xi^2 = \frac{\dot{y}}{y}.$$

Now according to the definition of geodesic curvature, we get

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\xi}^1 = (\xi^1 - \kappa_g \sqrt{(\xi^1)^2 + (\xi^2)^2}) \xi^2, \\ \dot{\xi}^2 = -(\xi^1 - \kappa_g \sqrt{(\xi^1)^2 + (\xi^2)^2}) \xi^1. \end{cases}$$

Then $(\xi^1)^2 + (\xi^2)^2$ is a constant. Without loss of generality, $(\xi^1)^2 + (\xi^2)^2 = 1$. Then

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\xi}^1 = (\xi^1 - \kappa_g) \xi^2, \\ \dot{\xi}^2 = -(\xi^1 - \kappa_g) \xi^1. \end{cases}$$

Suppose now κ_g is a constant, then

- (1) If $\xi^1 = \kappa_g$, then $\dot{\xi}^2 = 0$, i.e., either $y = y_0 > 0$ with $\kappa_g = \pm 1$ or $x = \frac{\kappa_g}{\sqrt{1-\kappa_g^2}} y + C$ with $|\kappa_g| < 1$.
- (2) If $\xi^1 \neq \kappa_g$, then from

$$\frac{d\xi^1}{\xi^1 - \kappa_g} = \xi^2 ds = \frac{dy}{y},$$

we get that $\xi^1 = \kappa_g + ay$ ($a \neq 0$). By the assumption $(\xi^1)^2 + (\xi^2)^2 = 1$, we have

$$(\kappa_g + ay)^2 + \left(\frac{\dot{y}}{y}\right)^2 = 1.$$

Therefore

$$ds = \frac{dy}{y \sqrt{1 - (\kappa_g + ay)^2}}.$$

Setting $\kappa_g + ay = \sin t$, we know that

$$ds = \frac{dt}{\sin t - \kappa_g}.$$

Hence

$$\xi^2 = \frac{\dot{y}}{y} = \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{ds} = \cos t.$$

Hence $\xi^1 = \sin t$. Then

$$x = -\frac{1}{a} \cos t + x_0.$$

Thus,

$$(x - x_0)^2 + \left(y + \frac{\kappa_g}{a}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{a^2}.$$

As a consequence, we have

Theorem 3.5. *In the hyperbolic plane \mathbb{H}^2 , there exists a contractible closed Dirac-geodesic (γ, X, Y) with speed one and $X^\flat \wedge Y^\flat = c\omega_\gamma$ for a constant c if and only if $|c| > 1$.*

□

Now suppose (M, g) is a hyperbolic surface with negative Gauss curvature κ . Let $B \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the open ball of radius 1 centered at $0 \in \mathbb{R}^2$. An immersion $\gamma \in C^1(\partial B, M)$ will be called *oriented Alexandrov embedded*, if there exists an immersion $F \in C^1(\bar{B}, M)$, such that $F|_{\partial B} = \gamma$ and F is orientation preserving in the sense that for all $x \in \partial B$ there holds

$$\langle DF_x(x), J_{\gamma(x)}(\dot{\gamma}(x)) \rangle > 0.$$

Matthias Schneider proved

Theorem B (c.f. [21]) *Let M be a closed oriented surface with negative Euler characteristic $\chi(M)$ and let h be a positive function. Assume that there exists a constant $h_0 > 0$ such that*

$$h \geq \sqrt{h_0} \text{ and } \kappa \geq -h_0.$$

Then for every positive constant $c \in (0, 1)$, there exists an oriented Alexandrov embedded closed magnetic geodesic and the number of such closed magnetic geodesics is at least $-\chi(M)$ provided they are all non-degenerate and $\|\dot{\gamma}\| = c$.

As a direct consequence of Lemma 3.1 and the above theorem, one can get the following

Theorem 3.6. *Let (M, g) be a closed oriented surface with negative Euler characteristic $\chi(M)$ and negative Gauss curvature κ . For every constant $c \neq 0$ with*

$$h_0 \geq |\kappa| \geq \frac{\sqrt{h_0}}{|c|},$$

where $h_0 > 0$ is some constant, there exist at least $-\chi(M)$ non-degenerate and oriented Alexandrov embedded closed unit speed Dirac-geodesics (γ, X, Y) with $X^\flat \wedge Y^\flat = c\omega_\gamma$.

Proof. Suppose (γ, X, Y) is a Dirac-geodesic with unit speed and $X^\flat \wedge Y^\flat = c\omega_\gamma$. Then $(\tilde{\gamma}(s) = \gamma(\lambda s), \tilde{X}(s) + \sqrt{-1}\tilde{Y}(s) = \sqrt{\lambda}X(\lambda s) + \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{\lambda}Y(\lambda s))$ is a Dirac-geodesic with speed λ and $\tilde{X} \wedge \tilde{Y} = c\lambda\omega_\gamma$. Since

$$h_0 \geq |\kappa| \geq \frac{\sqrt{h_0}}{|c|},$$

we have for $\lambda \in (0, 1)$

$$h_0 \geq |\kappa| \geq \frac{\sqrt{h_0}}{|c|\lambda}.$$

Then Theorem B tells us that there exist at least $-\chi(M)$ non-degenerated and oriented Alexandrov embedded closed magnetic curves with $h = c\lambda$. The rest of the proof is similar to Theorem 3.4. □

4. THE DIRAC-GEODESIC HEAT FLOW ON RIEMANNIAN MANIFOLDS

In this section, we will consider the Dirac-geodesic flow on Riemannian manifolds.

For $\gamma : [0, 1] \times [0, T) \rightarrow N$ and $X(\cdot, t), Y(\cdot, t)$ vector fields along the curve $\gamma(\cdot, t)$, we consider the following system

$$(4.1) \quad \begin{cases} \dot{\gamma}^A = \ddot{\gamma}^A + \Omega_B^A \dot{\gamma}^B - R_{BCD}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C X^D, & \text{on } (0, 1) \times (0, T), \\ \dot{X}^A + \Omega_B^A X^B = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1] \times [0, T), \\ \dot{Y}^A + \Omega_B^A Y^B = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1] \times [0, T), \end{cases}$$

satisfying the initial conditions

$$(4.2) \quad \begin{cases} \gamma(s, 0) = \sigma(s), & s \in (0, 1), \\ \gamma(0, t) = x_0, \quad \gamma(1, t) = y_0, & t \in [0, T), \\ X(0, t) = X_0, & t \in [0, T), \\ Y(0, t) = Y_0, & t \in [0, T), \end{cases}$$

where x_0 and y_0 are two fixed points, and X_0, Y_0 are two fixed vectors. We observe

Lemma 4.1. *Suppose the image of γ lies in N' , then the Dirac-geodesic heat flow (1.3) is equivalent to the system (4.1).*

Lemma 4.2. *Let (γ, X, Y) be a solution of the system (4.1) with the initial conditions (4.2) satisfying $\sigma \subset N'$ and $x_0, y_0 \in N'$, and $X_0 \in T_{x_0}N', Y_0 \in T_{y_0}N'$. If the image of γ lies in \tilde{N} , then $\gamma \subset N'$ and X, Y are vector fields of N' along the curve γ for every time $0 \leq t < T$.*

Proof. Denote $\rho(\gamma) = \pi(\gamma) - \gamma$, then a direct computation implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) \|\rho(\gamma)\|^2 &= \langle \rho' - \ddot{\rho}, \rho \rangle - \|\dot{\rho}\|^2 \\ &= \left\langle v_B^A(\gamma) \left(-\Omega_C^B \dot{\gamma}^C + R_{CDE}^B \dot{\gamma}^C Y^D X^E \right) - \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C, \rho^A(\gamma) \right\rangle - \left\| v_B^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B \right\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that if $\gamma \subset N'$, then

$$\left\langle v_B^A(\gamma) \left(-\Omega_C^B \dot{\gamma}^C + R_{CDE}^B \dot{\gamma}^C Y^D X^E \right) - \pi_{BC}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B \dot{\gamma}^C, \rho^A(\gamma) \right\rangle.$$

Hence by using the mean value theorem, we get that

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) \|\rho(\gamma)\|^2 \leq C \|\rho(\gamma)\|^2.$$

Thus, if $\sigma \subset N'$ and $x_0, y_0 \in N'$, then γ must be in N' according to the maximum principle.

On the other hand, if $\gamma \in N'$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{ds} \left(v_B^A(\gamma) X^B \right) &= -\pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^C X^B + v_B^A \dot{X}^B = -\pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B X^C + v_B^A \left(\pi_{DE}^B \pi_C^D - \pi_D^B \pi_{CE}^D \right) \dot{\gamma}^E X^C \\ &= -\pi_{BC}^A \dot{\gamma}^B X^C + \pi_{DE}^A \pi_C^D \dot{\gamma}^E X^C = -\pi_D^A \pi_{BC}^D \dot{\gamma}^B X^C. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover,

$$-\Omega_B^A v_C^B X^C = \left(\pi_{DE}^A \pi_B^D - \pi_D^A \pi_{BE}^D \right) \dot{\gamma}^E v_F^B X^F = -\pi_D^A \pi_{FE}^D \dot{\gamma}^E X^F.$$

Hence

$$\frac{d}{ds} \left(v_B^A(\gamma) X^B \right) + \Omega_B^A v_C^B X^C = 0.$$

Therefore, if $X_0 \in T_{x_0}N'$, then $v_B^A(\gamma(0))X^B(0) = 0$ for all A and we get that $v_B^A X = 0$ for all A . In other words, X is a vector field along the curve γ . Similarly, Y is a vector field of N' along the curve γ . \square

Now we can give the

Proof of Theorem 1.1. First, we shall use Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 to obtain short time existence.

Claim. A solution of the system (4.1) with the initial conditions (4.2) is equivalent to the following system of differential equations for a curve $\gamma : (0, 1) \times [0, T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$ given by

$$\dot{\gamma}^A = \dot{\gamma}^A + \Omega_B^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B - R_{BCD}^A(\gamma) \dot{\gamma}^B Y^C X^D$$

on $(0, 1) \times (0, T)$, satisfying the initial condition

$$\begin{cases} \gamma(s, 0) = \sigma(s), & s \in (0, 1), \\ \gamma(0, t) = x_0, \quad \gamma(1, t) = y_0, & t \in [0, T), \end{cases}$$

where X and Y are smooth vector-valued function of $(X_0, \gamma, \dot{\gamma})$ and $(Y_0, \gamma, \dot{\gamma})$ determined by

$$\begin{cases} \dot{X}^A + \Omega_B^A X^B = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1] \times [0, T), \\ X(0, t) = X_0, & t \in [0, T), \end{cases}$$

and

$$\begin{cases} \dot{Y}^A + \Omega_B^A Y^B = 0, & \text{on } (0, 1] \times [0, T), \\ Y(0, t) = Y_0, & t \in [0, T), \end{cases}$$

respectively.

Claim (Short time existence). A solution of the system (1.3) with the initial condition (1.4) exists at least on some short time interval $[0, t_0)$ for some $t_0 > 0$ according to Lemma 4.1 and Lemma 4.2. Moreover, the maximum time t_0 is characterized by the condition

$$\sup_{t < t_0} \|\dot{\gamma}(s, t)\| = \infty.$$

Second, we shall derive a differential equation for the energy density. As a consequence, the energy density grows at most exponentially, implying the long time existence.

Claim (long time existence). Define the energy density $e(\gamma)$ of γ by

$$e(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2,$$

then

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) e(\gamma) \leq \frac{\|X^b \wedge Y^b\|^2 \sup \|R\|^2}{2} e(\gamma).$$

Thus, a solution of (1.3) and (1.4) exists for all time.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) e(\gamma) &= \langle \nabla_{\gamma'} \dot{\gamma} - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle - \|\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}\|^2 = \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} (\gamma' - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}), \dot{\gamma} \rangle - \|\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}\|^2 \\ &= \langle R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma}, \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} \rangle - \|\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}\|^2 \leq \frac{\|X^b \wedge Y^b\|^2 \sup \|R\|^2}{2} e(\gamma). \end{aligned}$$

Notice that at the boundary $\partial[0, 1] \times [0, T)$,

$$\frac{\partial e(\gamma)}{\partial s} = \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = \langle \gamma' - R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = \langle \gamma', \dot{\gamma} \rangle = 0.$$

Hence,

$$e(\gamma) \leq \exp\left(\frac{\|X^b \wedge Y^b\|^2 \sup \|R\|^2}{2} t\right) \sup e(\sigma).$$

□

Finally, the uniqueness of this flow is obvious. □

To prove Theorem 1.2, we need some preliminary lemmas.

Lemma 4.3. *Let N^n be a Riemannian manifold, (γ, X, Y) be a global solution of (1.3) and (1.4). Then the energy of γ is a decreasing function of t , precisely,*

$$\frac{dE(\gamma)}{dt} = - \int_0^1 \|\gamma'\|^2.$$

Proof. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \langle \gamma', R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma} \rangle &= \int_0^1 \langle R(\gamma', \dot{\gamma}) X, Y \rangle = \int_0^1 \langle \nabla_{\gamma'} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} X - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\gamma'} X, Y \rangle \\ &= - \int_0^1 \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\gamma'} X, Y \rangle = - \langle \nabla_{\gamma'} X, Y \rangle|_0^1 + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla_{\gamma'} X, \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} Y \rangle = 0. \end{aligned}$$

As a consequence,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dE(\gamma)}{dt} &= \int_0^1 \langle \nabla_{\gamma'} \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma} \rangle = \int_0^1 \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \gamma', \dot{\gamma} \rangle = - \int_0^1 \langle \gamma', \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma} \rangle + \langle \gamma', \dot{\gamma} \rangle|_0^1 \\ &= - \int_0^1 \|\gamma'\|^2 + \int_0^1 \langle \gamma', R(X, Y) \dot{\gamma} \rangle = - \int_0^1 \|\gamma'\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

□

Based on this lemma, we know that γ is contained in some bounded subset of N . To see this, for every $s, s' \in (0, 1)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dist}(\gamma(s, t), \gamma(s', t)) &\leq \left| \int_s^{s'} \|\dot{\gamma}\| \right| \leq |s - s'|^{1/2} \left(\int_s^{s'} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2 \right)^{1/2} \leq |s - s'|^{1/2} (2E(\gamma))^{1/2} \\ &\leq |s - s'|^{1/2} (2E(\sigma))^{1/2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, there exists a sequence $\gamma(\cdot, t_i)$ such that $\gamma(\cdot, t_i)$ absolutely converges to a $C^{1/2}$ curve in C^α for $0 < \alpha < 1/2$ as $t_i \rightarrow \infty$.

The kinetic energy density of γ is defined by

$$k(\gamma) = \frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\gamma}\|^2.$$

Remark 4.1. If N is a surface, then there must be a constant c such that

$$R(X, Y)\dot{\gamma} = R(X \wedge Y)\dot{\gamma} = -c\kappa^N J_\gamma(\dot{\gamma}).$$

To see this, first we have $X \wedge Y = c(t)\omega^N(\gamma)$ since X and Y are parallel vector fields along the curve γ . Second, at the fixed point x_0 , we know that $c(t)$ does not change the value since X_0 and Y_0 are given.

Now we claim the following inequality

Lemma 4.4. *Assume that N is a Riemann surface with negative Gauss curvature κ , then for any $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$,*

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) k(\gamma) \leq \left(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-\kappa}\|^2 + \frac{c^2 \kappa^2}{2\varepsilon} \right) k(\gamma) - 2(1 - \varepsilon) \|\nabla \sqrt{k(\gamma)}\|^2.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) k(\gamma) &= \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}' - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}', \dot{\gamma}' \rangle - \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 \\ &= \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} (\dot{\gamma}' - \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} \dot{\gamma}'), \dot{\gamma}' \rangle - \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 + R(\dot{\gamma}', \dot{\gamma}', \dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma}') \\ &= \langle \nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} (R(X \wedge Y)\dot{\gamma}), \dot{\gamma}' \rangle - \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 + \kappa^N(\gamma) \|\dot{\gamma}' \wedge \dot{\gamma}'\|^2 \\ &= \langle (\nabla_{\dot{\gamma}} R)(X \wedge Y)\dot{\gamma} + R(X \wedge Y)\dot{\gamma}', \dot{\gamma}' \rangle - \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 + \kappa^N(\gamma) \|\dot{\gamma}' \wedge \dot{\gamma}'\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose now $\kappa^N < 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) k(\gamma) &\leq 2|c| \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-\kappa}\| \|\dot{\gamma}'\| \sqrt{-\kappa} \|\dot{\gamma}' \wedge \dot{\gamma}'\| - |c| \kappa \|\dot{\gamma}'\| \|\dot{\gamma}'\| - \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 + \kappa \|\dot{\gamma}' \wedge \dot{\gamma}'\|^2 \\ &\leq \left(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-\kappa}\|^2 + \frac{c^2 \kappa^2}{2\varepsilon} \right) k(\gamma) - (1 - \varepsilon) \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Noting that

$$\|\nabla k(\gamma)\|^2 = \langle \dot{\gamma}', \dot{\gamma}' \rangle^2 \leq 2 \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2 k(\gamma),$$

namely,

$$\|\nabla \sqrt{k(\gamma)}\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\gamma}'\|^2,$$

and substituting this into the above inequality, we get the desired conclusion. \square

We recall the Poincaré's inequality

$$\pi^2 \int_0^1 \|f\|^2 \leq \int_0^1 \|f'\|^2$$

for smooth functions f with $f(0) = f(1) = 0$. Now we can give the

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Denote

$$C = 2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \frac{c^2 \kappa^2}{2\varepsilon},$$

then we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\geq \frac{d}{dt} \int_0^1 e^{-Ct} k(\gamma) ds + 2(1-\varepsilon) \int_0^1 \left\| \nabla \sqrt{e^{-Ct/2} k(\gamma)} \right\|^2 ds \\ &\geq \frac{d}{dt} \int_0^1 e^{-Ct} k(\gamma) ds + 2(1-\varepsilon)\pi^2 \int_0^1 e^{-Ct} k(\gamma) ds. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(e^{(2(1-\varepsilon)\pi^2 - C)t} \int_0^1 k(\gamma) ds \right) \leq 0.$$

Therefore, if

$$2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \frac{c^2 \kappa^2}{2\varepsilon} < 2(1-\varepsilon)\pi^2$$

for some $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$, then the kinetic energy of γ decays exponentially. Obviously, $|c\kappa| < 2\pi$, hence we can choose

$$\varepsilon = \frac{|c\kappa|}{2\pi} \in (0, 1).$$

That is, if we make the assumption

$$c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \pi |c\kappa| < \pi^2,$$

or equivalently the assumption (1.5), then

$$(4.3) \quad \int_0^1 k(\gamma) ds \leq e^{(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + 2\pi |c\kappa| - 2\pi^2)t} \int_0^1 k(\sigma) ds.$$

Let $h(x, y, t)$ be the Dirichlet heat kernel of $[0, 1]$. Applying the differential inequality of $k(\gamma)$

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) k(\gamma) \leq \left(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \pi |c\kappa| \right) k(\gamma)$$

we get that

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \right) \left(e^{-(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \pi |c\kappa|)t} k(\gamma) \right) \leq 0.$$

For every $\tau > 1$, denote $F(s, t) = e^{-(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + \pi |c\kappa|)t} k(\gamma(s, t + \tau - 1))$, then

$$\begin{aligned} (4.4) \quad F(s, 1) &\leq \int_0^1 h(s, x, 1) F(x, 0) dx \\ &\leq \int_0^1 h(s, x, 1) k(\gamma(x, \tau - 1)) dx \\ &\leq C \int_0^1 k(\gamma(x, \tau - 1)) dx. \end{aligned}$$

With Lemma 4.3, and (4.3) and (4.4), we have

$$\begin{aligned} k(\gamma(s, \tau - 1)) &\leq C e^{2\pi^2 - 2\pi |c\kappa|} e^{(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + 2\pi |c\kappa| - 2\pi^2)\tau} \int_0^1 k(\sigma) ds \\ &\leq C e^{(2c^2 \|\nabla^N \sqrt{-k}\|^2 + 2\pi |c\kappa| - 2\pi^2)\tau} \int_0^1 k(\sigma) ds. \end{aligned}$$

□

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