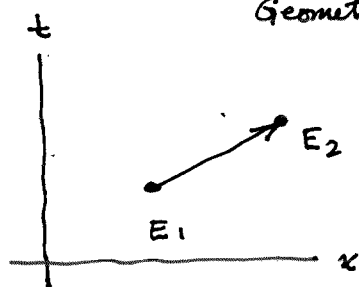


Geometry of space time ($c=1$).



4-vectors:

$$\underline{a} = (a^t, a^x, a^y, a^z)$$

↑ typographical notation

superscript posn 2/4/10
conventional

Archetypical example: displacement vector in S-T.

Vector vs. Components.
primed vs. unprimed frame:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a'^t &= \gamma(a^t - v a^x) \\ a'^x &= \gamma(a^x - v a^t) \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (c=1)$$

Notation for components:

$$\underline{a} = (a^0, a^1, a^2, a^3)$$

a^α ,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \alpha &= 0, 1, 2, 3 \\ i &= 1, 2, 3 \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$= (a^t, \vec{a})$$

$\vec{a}$ = 3-vector

$\underline{a}$ = 4-vector.

ch. 5.

$$= (a^t, a^i)$$

Invariant "square len"

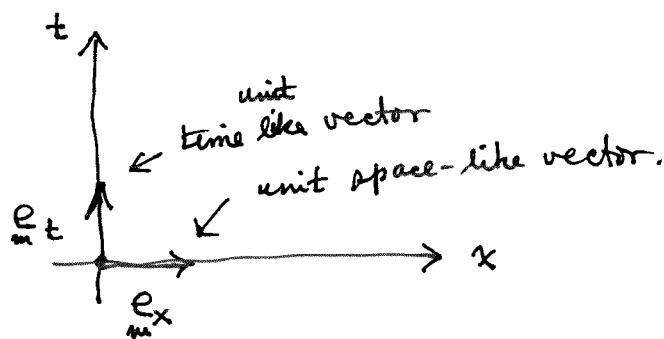
$$= -(a^t)^2 + (a^x)^2 + (a^y)^2 + (a^z)^2$$

$$= -(a'^t)^2 + (a'^x)^2 + (a'^y)^2 + (a'^z)^2$$

same in all frames.

$$\text{"Length"} = \sqrt{|\text{square len}|} \quad (\text{Hartle}).$$

Introduce unit vectors:



2/4/10 (2)

$$e_{mt} = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$e_{mx} = (0, 1, 0, 0)$$

$$e_{my} = (0, 0, 1, 0)$$

$$e_{mz} = (0, 0, 0, 1)$$

components of unit vectors of unprimed frame in the unprimed frame.

(But you could express those components in a different frame.)

Subscript position of indices on unit vectors is conventional.
 Superscript " " " " components of " "
 vectors
 e.g. a^t, a^x

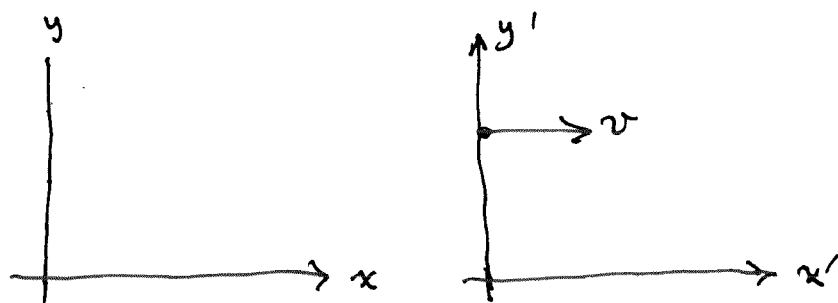
Then $a_m = \sum_{\alpha=0}^3 a^\alpha e_{m\alpha}$

↑ numbers.
 ↑ vectors

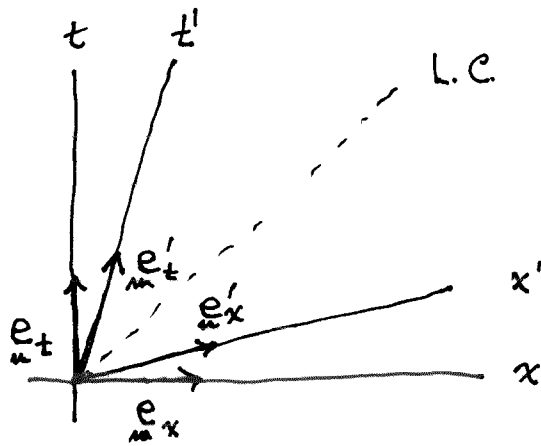
Einstein Summation Convention: Omit sum on repeated indices, sum implied. So e.g. we write

$$a_m = a^\alpha e_{m\alpha}$$

How do basis vectors transform? (From one frame to another).
 Consider the usual boost down x-axis:



(purely spatial picture)



Space-time picture

What is relation between $\underline{e}_t, \underline{e}_x$ and $\underline{e}'_t, \underline{e}'_x$?

Well, if $\underline{a}$ is any vector, then

$$a^t = \gamma (a'^t + v a'^x)$$

$$a^x = \gamma (a'^x + v a'^t)$$

But let $\underline{a} = \underline{e}'_t$; so $\underline{a}'_t = 1, \underline{a}'_x = 0$.

then $a^t = \gamma, a^x = \gamma v$, so

$$\underline{a} = \underline{e}'_t = \gamma \underline{e}_t + \gamma v \underline{e}_x$$

Similarly, let $\underline{a} = \underline{e}'_x$ so $a'^t = 0, a'^x = 1$. Then we find

$$\underline{e}'_x = \gamma v \underline{e}_t + \gamma \underline{e}_x$$

In summary:

$$\begin{cases} \underline{e}'_t = \gamma (\underline{e}_t + v \underline{e}_x) \\ \underline{e}'_x = \gamma (v \underline{e}_t + \underline{e}_x) \end{cases}$$

Compare to transf. law for components of a vector:

$$\begin{cases} a'^t = \gamma (a^t - v a^x) \\ a'^x = \gamma (-v a^t + a^x) \end{cases}$$

different matrix. $\rightarrow$ usual Lorentz transf.

3. Scalar products of ⁴⁻vectors.

Define $\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b} = -(a^t)(b^t) + (a^x)(b^x) + (a^y)(b^y) + (a^z)(b^z).$

Then ^{invariant} square len of $a_n = a_n \cdot a_n$.

Is the scalar product of 2 different vectors also invariant?

$$(\underbrace{a}_{\uparrow} + \underbrace{b}_{\uparrow})^2 = \underbrace{a \cdot a}_{\uparrow} + 2 \underbrace{a \cdot b}_{\uparrow} + \underbrace{b \cdot b}_{\uparrow}$$

all invariant

must also be invariant.

A: Yes.

Now expand in terms of unit vectors.

$$a = a^\alpha e_{\alpha} \quad (\text{implied sums on } \alpha, \beta).$$

$$\underline{b} = b^\beta \underline{e}_\beta$$

$$a_n \cdot b_m = a^\alpha b^\beta (e_{m\alpha} \cdot e_{n\beta}).$$

what are $\underline{e}_\alpha \cdot \underline{e}_\beta$?

just work them out:

$$e_{m\alpha} \cdot e_{m\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \eta_{\alpha\beta}$$

Defines metric tensor $\eta_{\alpha\beta}$.

This has same form in all Lorentz (inertial) frames, i.e.

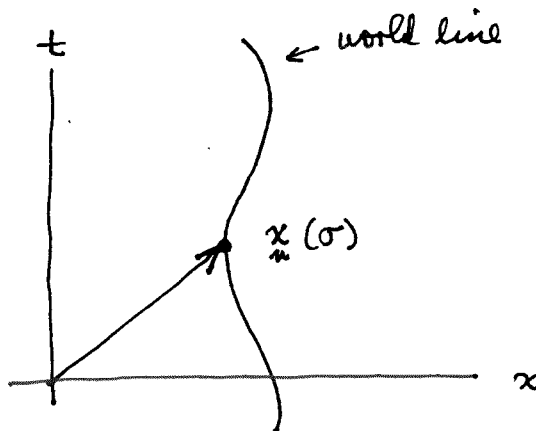
$$\underline{e}'_\alpha \cdot \underline{e}'_\beta = \eta_{\alpha\beta} = \underline{e}_\alpha \cdot \underline{e}_\beta.$$

Then scalar product becomes

$$\boxed{a \cdot b = a^\alpha b^\beta \eta_{\alpha\beta} = a'^\alpha b'^\beta \eta_{\alpha\beta}} \quad (\text{any Lorentz frame})$$

4. Principle of relativity requires that laws of physics have same form in all inertial frames. We accomplish this by expressing the laws of physics in terms of 4-vectors and their scalar products, i.e. geometrically using the Minkowski geometry of spacetime.

5. Suppose we have an accelerated particle. Let σ be an arbitrary parameter of its world line, which can be represented by a 4-vector $\underline{x} = \underline{x}(\sigma)$.



$$\begin{aligned} \underline{x} &= (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) \\ &= (t, x, y, z). \end{aligned}$$

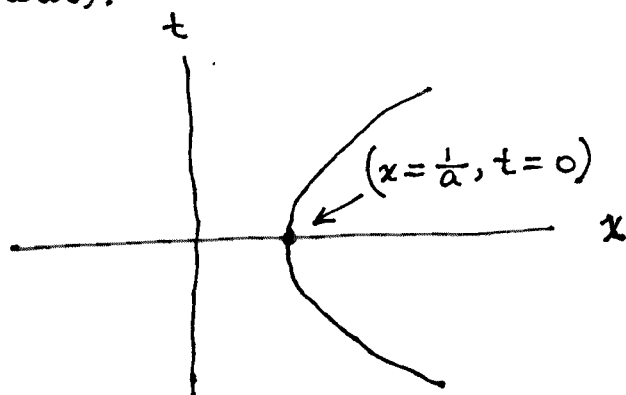
The parameter σ can be anything convenient. Sometimes proper time τ is the most convenient.

An example: let

$$x(\sigma) = \frac{1}{a} \cosh \sigma$$

$$t(\sigma) = \frac{1}{a} \sinh \sigma.$$

($a = a$ parameter). Plot world line. it is an hyperbola.

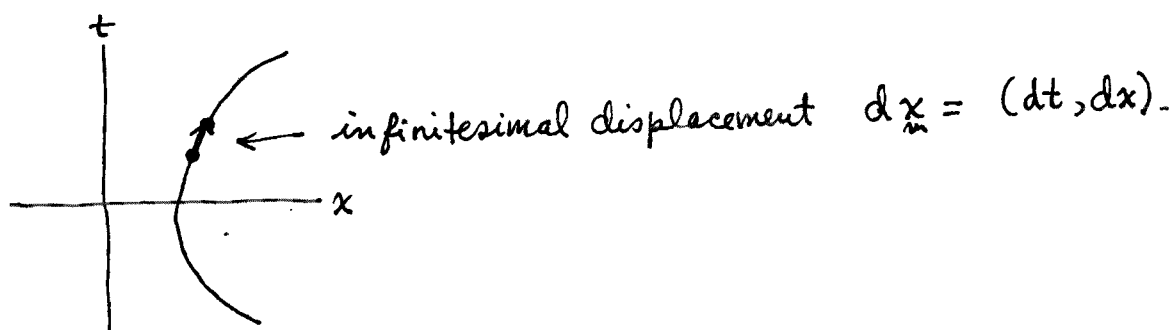


We can eliminate σ to get an equation of the world line:

$$x^2 - t^2 = \frac{1}{a^2} (\cosh^2 \sigma - \sinh^2 \sigma) = \frac{1}{a^2}.$$

std-form of hyperbola

what about proper time? Consider 2 close points on world line



Then

$$dx = \frac{1}{a} \sinh \sigma d\sigma$$

$$dt = \frac{1}{a} \cosh \sigma d\sigma$$

$$d\tau^2 = dt^2 - dx^2 = \frac{1}{a^2} (\cosh^2 \sigma - \sinh^2 \sigma) d\sigma^2 = \frac{d\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

so $d\sigma = a d\tau$, $\sigma = a\tau$ if we assume $\sigma = 0$ @ $\tau = 0$.

elim. σ in favor of τ and
so we can parameterize world line in terms of τ :

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x &= \frac{1}{a} \cosh a\tau \\ t &= \frac{1}{a} \sinh a\tau \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Then $\left. \begin{aligned} \frac{dx}{d\tau} &= \sinh a\tau \\ \frac{dt}{d\tau} &= \cosh a\tau \end{aligned} \right\} \leftarrow \text{These are components of the world velocity of the particle.}$

6. World velocity

Generally, define

$$\underline{u} = \frac{d\underline{x}}{d\tau}$$

$d\underline{x}$ is a 4 -vector, because it is a displacement in S - T . And

$\underline{u}$ is a 4 -vector because $d\tau$ is invariant.

Contrast with usual 3 -velocity $\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$. This cannot be the spatial part of a 4 -vector because, while $d\vec{x}$ is the spatial part of the 4 -vector $\underline{x}$, dt is not invariant. Therefore we expect the world velocity to be more useful in relativity than the ordinary 3 -velocity.

But there is a relation between $\underline{u}$ and $\vec{v}$.

Consider

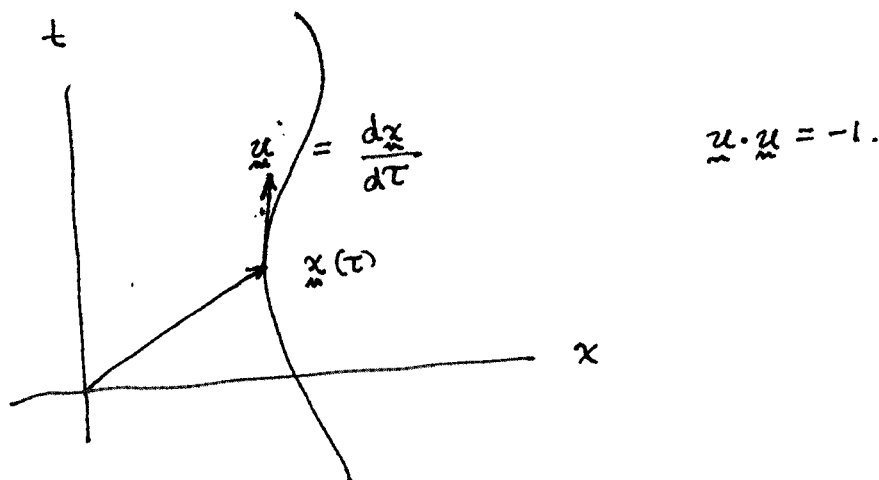
$$\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = \frac{d\underline{x} \cdot d\underline{x}}{d\tau^2} = \frac{-dt^2 + dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2}{d\tau^2} = - \frac{d\tau^2}{d\tau^2} = -1$$

Thus

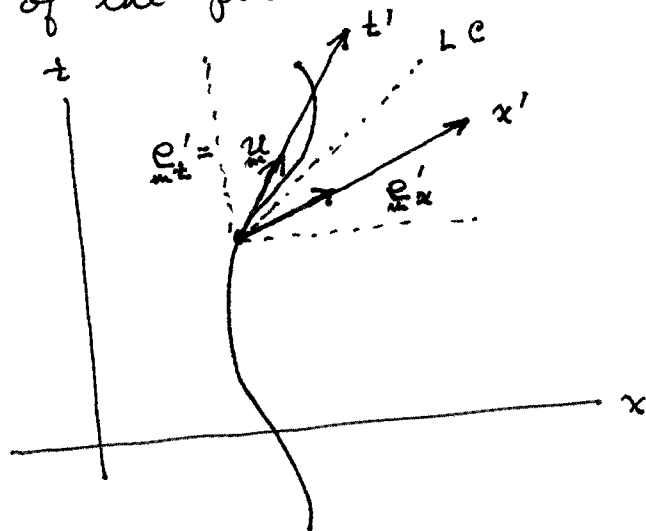
$$\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = -1$$

The world velocity is a unit time-like vector,

tangent to the world line:



In fact, $\underline{u}$ is the unit vector along the t' -axis of a frame in which the particle is instantaneously at rest (the "rest frame" of the particle)



Since $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = -\left(\frac{dt}{d\tau}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau}\right)^2 = -1,$

i.e., $d\tau^2 = dt^2 - |d\vec{x}|^2$, we have (divide by dt^2)

$$\left(\frac{d\tau}{dt}\right)^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}\right)^2 = 1 - v^2 = \frac{1}{\gamma^2},$$

or $\boxed{\frac{dt}{d\tau} = \gamma}$.

We knew this already, it is the time dilation, $d\tau = \frac{dt}{\gamma}$.

As for the spatial part of $\underline{u}$,

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} = \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = \gamma \vec{v}.$$

Thus

$$\underline{u} = (u^0, \vec{u}) = (\gamma, \gamma \vec{v})$$

Expresses world velocity in terms of ordinary velocity.

7. World acceleration

Similarly, we can go on and define the world acceleration:

$$\underline{a} = \frac{d\underline{u}}{d\tau} = \frac{d^2 \underline{x}}{d\tau^2}.$$

The world acceleration $\underline{a}$ can be expressed in terms of the ordinary 3-velocity $\vec{v}$ and 3-acceleration $\frac{d\vec{v}}{dt}$, but the expressions start to get messy.

Important property of world accel. Take $\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = -1$ and apply $\frac{d}{d\tau}$:

$$\frac{d}{d\tau} (\underline{u} \cdot \underline{u}) = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{u} + \underline{u} \cdot \underline{a} = 2 \underline{u} \cdot \underline{a} = 0.$$

$$\underline{u} \cdot \underline{a} = 0$$

The world acceleration is Minkowski orthogonal to the world velocity. That means it is space-like, in fact, it is purely spatial in the rest frame of the particle.

Go back to our example:

$$\begin{array}{l|l|l} x = \frac{1}{a} \cosh a\tau & \frac{dx}{d\tau} = \sinh a\tau & \frac{d^2x}{d\tau^2} = a \cosh a\tau \\ t = \frac{1}{a} \sinh a\tau & \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \cosh a\tau & \frac{d^2t}{d\tau^2} = a \sinh a\tau. \end{array}$$

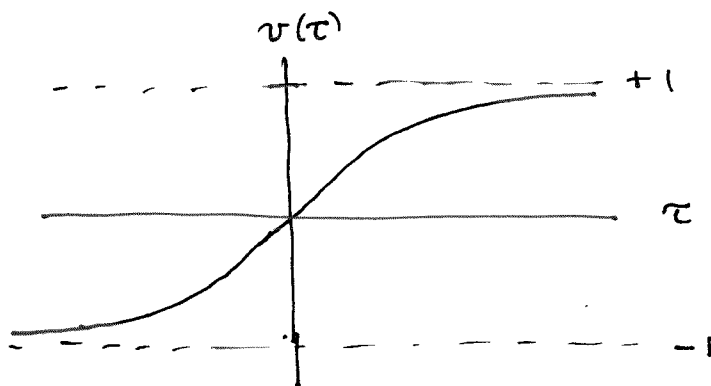
Notice, $\underline{a} \cdot \underline{a} = -a^2 \sinh^2 a\tau + a^2 \cosh^2 a\tau = a^2$.

The magnitude of the 4-acceleration is constant. Does this mean physically that the particle is uniformly accelerated? (Later).

Let's do at least this: Let's transform those vectors $\underline{u}, \underline{a}$ the rest frame of the particle.

Notice from above,

$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} = \text{velocity of particle} = \frac{\frac{dx}{d\tau}}{\frac{dt}{d\tau}} = \tanh a\tau.$$



$$\begin{array}{l} v \rightarrow \pm c \\ \text{as } \tau \rightarrow \pm \infty. \end{array}$$

also, $\gamma = \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \cosh a\tau$.

1st. transform $\underline{u}$ to rest frame.

$$u^t = \gamma, \quad u^x = \gamma v$$

⑪
2/4/10

$$u'^t = \gamma(u^t - v u^x) = \gamma(\gamma - \gamma v^2) = \gamma^2(1 - v^2) = 1$$

$$u'^x = \gamma(u^x - v u^t) = \gamma(\gamma v - \gamma v) = 0.$$

$u = (1, 0)$ in rest frame: it is e'_t as remarked above.

Now a :

$$a'^t = \gamma(a^t - v a^x) = \cosh a\tau (a \sinh a\tau - \tanh a\tau \cosh a\tau) = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} a'^x &= \gamma(a^x - v a^t) = \cosh a\tau (a \cosh a\tau - (\tanh a\tau)(a \sinh a\tau)) \\ &= a(\cosh^2 a\tau - \sinh^2 a\tau) = a. \end{aligned}$$

So, $a = (0, a)$ in rest frame.

Energy and Momentum

8. Mechanics in Special Relativity

We have generalized Newton's first law (free particles and inertial frame) to S.R. What changes is $t \neq t'$ and the constancy of speed of light (required if principle of relativity is combined with Maxwell's equations.)

Let's now look at energy and momentum in S.R. Recall in Newtonian mech,

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \quad (\text{kin. energy}).$$

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v} = m \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$$

2/4/10

Start with momentum. Seems unlikely that $m \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$ is the correct expr. for momentum in S.R., except at low velocities where $dt \approx d\tau$, because $\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$ cannot be part of a 4-vector. So we might guess that

$$\vec{p} = m \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} = m\gamma \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = m\gamma \vec{v}$$

is the correct expression for momentum in S.R. In fact, this is right. Two points.

- ① Persuasive arguments can be made showing that this is right on the basis of Maxwell's eqn (E+M) + princ. of relativity. But Harte doesn't go into E+M.
- ② We don't need theory to find the correct expression for momentum in S.R, i.e. for particles with $v \rightarrow c$. We can do it experimentally, using conservation of momentum.

m
 $\equiv \square$
 $\uparrow$
 relativistic
 bullet
 $v \rightarrow c$

M
 massive
 block.

After collision block is moving with velocity $v \ll c$, so its momentum is $(M+m)v$. (The N.R. formula).

In this way we find $p(v)$ for the bullet, even when $v \rightarrow c$.

Let us accept that $\vec{p} = m\gamma\vec{v}$ is the correct expression for momentum
 $= m \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}$

in S.R. This is the spatial part of a 4-vector call it $\underline{p}_m$:

$$\underline{p}_m = (p^0, \vec{p})$$

We must have

$$p^0 = m \frac{dt}{d\tau} \quad \text{to make a 4-vector:}$$

$$\underline{p}_m = (p^0, \vec{p}) = \left(m \frac{dt}{d\tau}, m \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} \right) = \cancel{m \frac{d}{d\tau}}$$

or

$$\underline{p}_m = m \underline{u} \quad \boxed{\underline{p}_m = m \underline{u}}$$

Note,

$$\underline{p}_m = (m\gamma, m\gamma\vec{v}). \quad \text{Since } \underline{u} \cdot \underline{u} = -1, \text{ we have}$$

$$\boxed{\underline{p}_m \cdot \underline{p}_m = -m^2}$$

what is physical interp. of p^0 ? For small velocities

$$p^0 = m\gamma = \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = m \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}v^2 + \dots \right)$$

↙ restore c's.

$$= mc^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \dots$$

$$= (\text{rest mass-energy}) + (\text{N.R. kin. energy}) + \dots$$

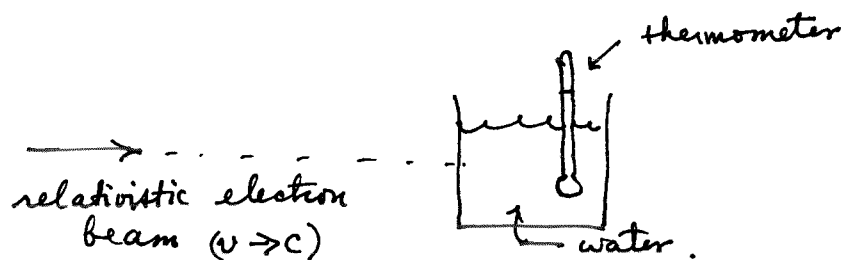
So we interpret

$$\boxed{p^0 = E = \text{total energy}}$$

↙ rest mass + kinetic.

2/4/10

Again, we don't need theory to find the relativistic expression for kinetic energy; we can do experiments.



Measure how much heat goes into the water, you'll get K.E. of electron beam.

We define .

$$\boxed{\text{kinetic energy} = E - mc^2 = mc^2 (\gamma - 1).}$$

9 Conservation of energy and momentum in collisions

9. Special case: Photons.

In relativistic expressions for energy and momentum,

$$E = \gamma mc^2$$

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$$

both $E, \vec{p} \rightarrow \infty$ as $v \rightarrow c$ (because $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$). This is for $m \neq 0$.

But because $v \rightarrow c$ (i.e. c), $|\vec{p}| \approx E$ when the particle is relativistic.

A photon is a kind of limit of this process in which $v \rightarrow c$ but $m \rightarrow 0$ in such a way that E remains finite. In the limit, $|\vec{p}|$ becomes equal to E . So for a photon we have

$$\underset{m}{p} = \begin{pmatrix} E \\ \vec{p} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad E = |\vec{p}|.$$

This means $\underline{p} \cdot \underline{p} = 0$, logical since $m=0$ and normally (for a massive particle) $\underline{p} \cdot \underline{p} = -m^2$. But for a photon we cannot say $\underline{p} = m\underline{u}$, since $\underline{u} = \frac{d\underline{x}}{d\tau}$ has no meaning for a photon. The reason is $d\tau=0$ along a light-like segment. So although $\underline{p}$ exists, $\underline{u}$ does not.

Another point: Proper time τ cannot be used to parameterize the world line of a photon.

10. Particle collisions.

Energy and momentum are conserved in particle collisions. These laws are unified into the conservation of 4-momentum in S.R.