

LECTURE NOTES 15

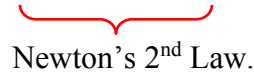
Electrodynamics and Relativity

In the macroscopic “everyday” world ($v \ll c$) that we are accustomed to living in, we know that the **classical** laws of mechanical physics obey Galileo’s notion (or principle) of **classical relativity**, as long as we are **always** in an **inertial reference frame** (i.e. a **non-accelerating** reference frame).

Newton’s **First Law of Motion** holds in an **inertial reference frame** (IRF):

“An object at rest remains at rest, and an object moving with (constant) speed v remains moving at (constant) speed v and in the same direction (i.e. $v = \text{constant}$ in an IRF), unless acted upon by a net/non-zero/unbalanced force” – but then, no longer in an IRF...

$$\Rightarrow \vec{F}_{net} = 0 \text{ in an IRF } (\vec{a} = 0), \quad \vec{F}_{net} \neq 0 = m\vec{a} \text{ in a non-IRF } (\vec{a} \neq 0)$$

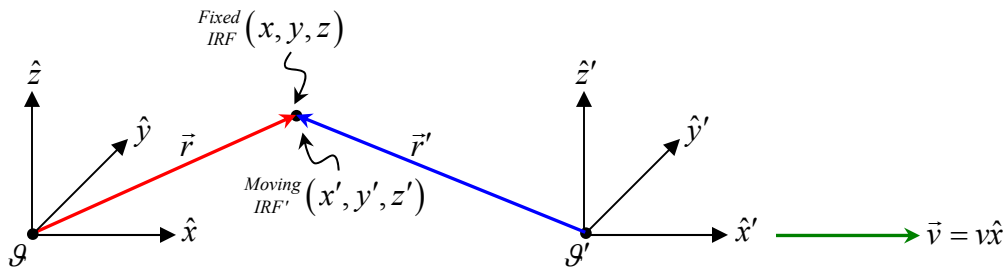


Newton’s 2nd Law.

In a **Galilean transformation between** two inertial reference frames, e.g. one **fixed** ($v = 0$) and one **moving** ($v' \neq 0$) along the \hat{x} -axis. The two reference frames coincide at time $t = 0$:

Fixed IRF:

Moving IRF':



Fixed IRF:

Moving IRF':

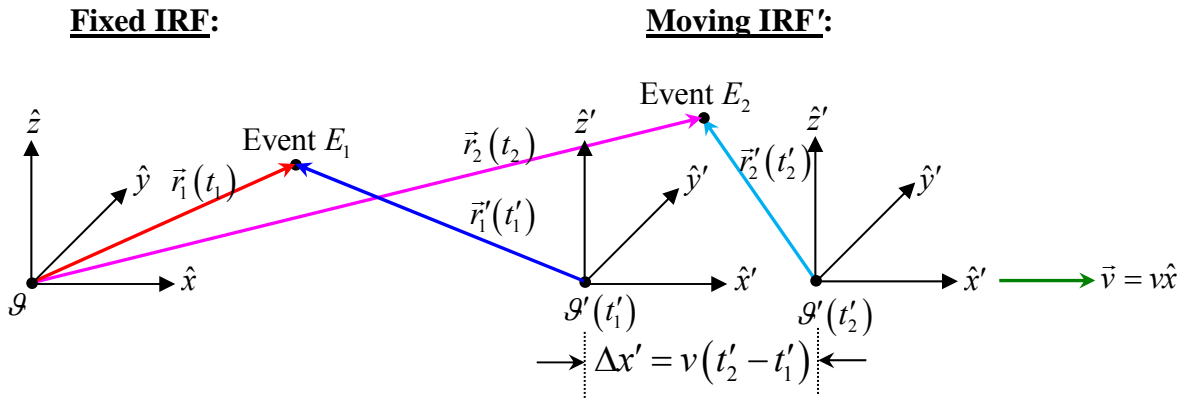
$$\vec{r} = x\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}$$

$$\vec{r}' = x'\hat{x}' + y'\hat{y}' + z'\hat{z}' = (x - vt)\hat{x} + y\hat{y} + z\hat{z}$$

$$\boxed{\hat{x}' \parallel \hat{x}}, \quad \boxed{\hat{y}' \parallel \hat{y}}, \quad \boxed{\hat{z}' \parallel \hat{z}}$$

$$\boxed{x' = x - vt}, \quad \boxed{y' = y}, \quad \boxed{z' = z} \quad \text{and:} \quad \boxed{t' \equiv t}$$

Two “events” E_1 and E_2 occurring in **classical** Galilean space-time:



Event E_1 occurs at: (\vec{r}_1, t_1)

Event E_1 occurs at: (\vec{r}'_1, t'_1)

Event E_2 occurs at: (\vec{r}_2, t_2)

Event E_2 occurs at: (\vec{r}'_2, t'_2)

In a **Galilean transformation**:

Separation distances (spatial intervals): $\Delta d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$ and

Time differences (temporal intervals): $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$

are the **same / identical** in **all** inertial reference frames, *i.e.* $\Delta d' = \Delta d$ and: $\Delta t' = \Delta t$.

Thus: $\Delta d' = \sqrt{(x'_2 - x'_1)^2 + (y'_2 - y'_1)^2 + (z'_2 - z'_1)^2} = \Delta d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$

And: $\Delta t' = t'_2 - t'_1 = \Delta t = t_2 - t_1$

No matter how fast an object is moving, in a **Galilean transformation**, **spatial separation distances** are **unchanged/constant** and the **rate of passage of time is also unchanged/constant**.

Note also that in **classical** Galilean physics \exists there exists **no** notion of an **absolute** IRF.

Does the **principle of relativity** also apply to **electrodynamics**? *i.e.* are the physical **laws** of E & M also **valid/same** in all **inertial reference frames**?

One might initially be tempted to say **no**, because *e.g.* a stationary/fixed charge in one IRF₁ has only a **static** electric field $\vec{E} = \text{constant}$ associated with it, whereas an observer in another IRF₂ moving at constant velocity, \vec{v} with respect to the first/fixed IRF₁ would see a magnetic field \vec{B} associated with the (moving) charge. $\Rightarrow EM$ theory pre-supposes \exists a **unique** IRF (stationary) from which/with respect to which all velocities should be measured.

However, **this** notion **is wrong/incorrect!**

Another example: Suppose we have a **static magnetic field** $\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{r})$ in (fixed) IRF₁ e.g. due to permanent bar magnet, $|\vec{B}(\vec{r})| \sim 1/r^3$ where r = observer distance from the bar magnet. An observer in a moving IRF₂ passing by the permanent magnet will observe a (time varying) **electric field** due to $\vec{E}(\vec{r}') = -\partial\vec{A}(\vec{r}')/\partial t$ in her/his IRF₂.

Another example: In a **fixed** IRF₁, move a circular conducting loop (of radius a) e.g. at a constant velocity from a $\vec{B} = 0$ region into a $\vec{B} \neq 0$ region. Get an induced EMF $\mathcal{E}_1^{IRF_1}(t) = -d\Phi_m(t)/dt$. However, in IRF₂ **of the loop** (i.e., imagine the observer is now sitting in the center of loop as the loop is moved from the $\vec{B} = 0$ region into the $\vec{B} \neq 0$ region), the observer in IRF₂ will “see” a time-varying magnetic field, which (by Faraday’s Law) creates an electric field which induces {precisely} the **same** EMF (voltage/potential difference around the loop): $\mathcal{E}_2^{IRF_2}(t') \equiv \mathcal{E}_1^{IRF_1}(t)$.

Physicists in Maxwell’s time (mid/late 1800’s → early 1900’s) grappled with the principle of relativity and electrodynamics – the consensus thinking at that time was that the \vec{E} and \vec{B} -fields were “strains” in an invisible, all-pervasive/all-permeating medium known as the **æther** (a “jelly-like” substance, which **also** simultaneously had to be ~ infinitely rigid {because the speed of light, $c = \sqrt{B/\rho} = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0\mu_0} = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s was already known to be very high at that time}. **Transverse** electromagnetic waves could **not** propagate without being **immersed** in such a “jelly-like” medium, or so they thought....

The “**absolute**” IRF, then, was the one in which the æther medium was at **rest**, i.e. the **rest** frame of the æther.

Michelson and Morley’s famous æther drift experiment carried out in the late 1880’s – to accurately measure the earth’s speed *w.r.t.* æther – was a **null** result!! They found that the speed of light c was the **same** in **all** directions. This situation was not resolved for ~ 20 years, despite many theoretical and experimental efforts. All kinds of (**crazy**) things were proposed theoretically and investigated experimentally.... (*n.b.* ~ 100 years from now, perhaps some of **today’s** current “theories” **may also** be viewed to be **just** as crazy ← **think** about this !!!)

It is certainly a credit to the genius and intellect of Albert Einstein, taking in all of what was then currently known theoretically and experimentally, to successfully develop his initial theory of **special** relativity (IRF’s only) and then later, to **general** relativity (including **non**-IRF’s).

Einstein’s two **postulates** of **special relativity**:

- 1) **Principle of Relativity:** Laws of physics apply/are the **same** in **all** IRF’s
- 2) **Speed of light** $c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0\mu_0} = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s (in vacuum) \equiv **same** in **all** IRF’s for **all** observers, **regardless** of the motion (i.e. the speed) of the source.

Einstein’s 1st postulate elevates Galileo’s Principle of Relativity (for classical mechanics) to encompass **all** physics. $\Rightarrow \exists$ **NO** æther medium / \exists **NO absolute** IRF for which EM waves “need” to propagate in.

Einstein's 2nd postulate has {even more} "brain-numbing" consequences for "mere mortals":

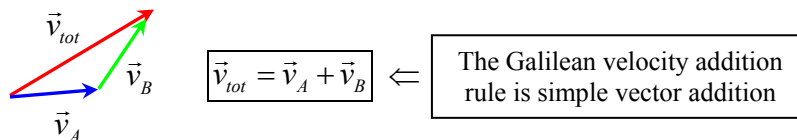
a.) **Spatial** intervals $\Delta d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$ vs. $\Delta d' = \sqrt{(x'_2 - x'_1)^2 + (y'_2 - y'_1)^2 + (z'_2 - z'_1)^2}$
 are **NOT** the same in **different** IRF's, i.e. $\Delta d \neq \Delta d'$!!!

b.) **Temporal** intervals $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$ vs. $\Delta t' = t'_2 - t'_1$ are **NOT** the same in **different** IRF's, i.e. $\Delta t \neq \Delta t'$!!!

In **special relativity**, **space and time** are treated on an **equal** footing with each other, and so what **is** conserved/preserved is the so-called **space-time interval**, as defined below:

$$I \equiv (\Delta d)^2 - (c\Delta t)^2 = I' \equiv (\Delta d')^2 - (c\Delta t')^2$$

In Galilean Relativity (Euclidean Space):



e.g. A man walking down corridor of train at 5 mph **relative** to the train, but the train is moving at 50 mph relative to the ground:

$$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{man}} = v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}} \text{ parallel or anti-parallel velocity vector addition:}$$

$$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{man}} = 50 \pm 5 \text{ mph} = \begin{cases} 45 \text{ mph (man walking to the back of the train)} \\ 55 \text{ mph (man walking to the front of the train)} \end{cases}$$

In **Galilean Relativity**, a beam of light emitted from a flashlight on a **moving** train will travel **faster** (or **slower**) than a beam of light emitted from a flashlight on the **ground**:

Flashlight on train :	$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{light}} = v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} + c$ $+\hat{x}$ direction	vs.	Flashlight on ground :	$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{light}} = +c$ $+\hat{x}$ direction
	$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{light}} = v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} - c$ $-\hat{x}$ direction			$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{light}} = -c$ $-\hat{x}$ direction

Einstein's 2nd Postulate of Special Relativity says this **doesn't** happen!

⇒ **The Correct Einsteinian / Special Relativity Velocity Addition Formula (1-Dimension) is:**

Man on Train Problem:	$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{man}} = \frac{v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{1 \pm \left(\frac{v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} \cdot v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{c^2} \right)}$	for parallel (+) and/or anti-parallel (-) velocity addition.
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n.b. If $v' \ll c$, then in **this** limit, we obtain the **Galilean Velocity Addition Rule** – everyday world !

If the **train** is moving at the speed of light (with respect to the **ground**) then: $v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} = c$, and:

$$v_{\text{ground}}^{\text{man}} = \frac{c \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{1 \pm \frac{c \cdot v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{c^2}} = \frac{(c \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}})}{\left(1 \pm \frac{v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{c}\right)} = \frac{c(c \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}})}{c\left(1 \pm \frac{v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{c}\right)} = \frac{c\left(\cancel{c \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}\right)}{\left(\cancel{c \pm v_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}\right)} = c \quad !!!$$

While Einstein was initially motivated by relativity issues concerning electrodynamics, relativity actually addresses the fundamental nature of **space-time** aspects of the universe in which we live – thereby encompassing **all** physics, **all** fundamental forces of nature!

As a consequence of this, the “speed of light”, c (in vacuum) is **not** just the maximum speed of EM waves /EM signals **{only}**, c is the maximum speed of **any/all** waves/signals and/or particles, irrespective of their nature – because this maximum speed of propagation is associated with the fundamental nature of **space-time** itself!

Thus, the **relativity** of **space-time** tells us that: $c = c_{EM} = c_{\text{grav}} = c_{\text{weak}} = c_{\text{strong}}$

i.e. the speed of “light” c is **independent** of/does **not** depend on the **type** of force!

However, in E&M, we **do** have the relation $c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0} = c_{EM}$ where ϵ_0 and μ_0 are **macroscopic** EM properties of the **vacuum** {“empty”, matter-free space}:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{C} = C/\ell &: \Rightarrow \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ (Farads/m)} &= \text{electric permittivity of free space/vacuum} \\ \mathcal{L} = L/\ell &: \Rightarrow \mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \text{ (Henry/m)} &= \text{magnetic permeability of free space/vacuum} \\ \text{And: } Z_0 &= \sqrt{\mu_0/\epsilon_0} = 120\pi \Omega \approx 377 \Omega &= \text{characterist impedance of free space/vacuum} \end{aligned}$$

The **macroscopic** EM parameters of free space, ϵ_0 and μ_0 **are** intimately related/connected to the **microscopic** QED properties of the vacuum – *i.e.* the electrically-charged, virtual, particle-antiparticle pairs: e^+e^- , $\mu^+\mu^-$, $\tau^+\tau^-$, $d\bar{d}$, $u\bar{u}$, $s\bar{s}$, $c\bar{c}$, $b\bar{b}$, $t\bar{t}$ and W^+W^- .

However, the virtual particle-antiparticle pairs of the vacuum **also** carry **weak** charges & **weak** moments (*all* spin-1/2 leptons & quarks, the spin-1 W^\pm , Z^0 bosons), **strong** charges & **strong** moments (*all* quark-antiquark pairs ($q\bar{q}$, $q = d, u, s, c, b, t$), and these particles also have **mass**.

Thus: **Q-Gravity:** **QWD:** **QCD:** **QED:**

$$c_{\text{grav}} = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_g \mu_g}, = c_{\text{weak}} = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_w \mu_w}, = c_{\text{strong}} = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_s \mu_s}, = c_{EM} = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0} = c$$

and: $Z_{\text{grav}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_g}{\epsilon_g}} = ??, Z_{\text{weak}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_w}{\epsilon_w}} = ??, Z_{\text{strong}} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_s}{\epsilon_s}} = ??, Z_o^{EM} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_o}{\mu_o}} = 120\pi \Omega$

\Rightarrow Implies **deep** connections between the four fundamental forces of nature (and the inter-relations between them – **unification?**) – **and** – **space-time!!!**

The Geometry of Relativity:

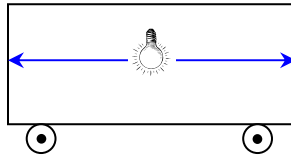
As mentioned earlier, Einstein’s postulates (*esp.* #2) have several striking, “non-everyday” consequences:

- a.) **Space** intervals Δd are **not** the same in all IRF’s \Rightarrow Lorentz contraction in (boosted) IRF’s
- b.) **Time** intervals Δt are **not** the same in all IRF’s \Rightarrow time dilation, and the relativity of simultaneity

In order to elucidate these phenomena, we consider a series of “gedanken” (thought) experiments:

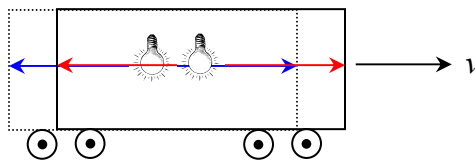
The Relativity of Simultaneity:

1st Gedanken Experiment: Consider *e.g.* a freight train moving at **constant** speed, v along a smooth, straight railroad track. In the center of one boxcar of the freight train is a light bulb, as shown in the figure below:

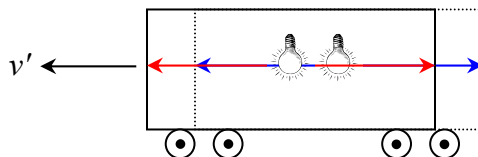


When the light bulb is switched on, light from the bulb spreads out in all directions / 4π steradians at the speed of light, c . Since the light bulb is **equidistant** from the two ends of the freight car, an **observer on the train** (*i.e.* in the IRF’ of the train) will find that the light reaches the front end of the freight car **simultaneously** with light reaching the back end of the freight car (consistent with our “everyday” world/Galilean experience) – these two “events” are **simultaneous** in **this** IRF’.

However, an **observer on the ground**, watching the train go by with the light bulb turned on will **not** see these two “events” as being simultaneous. From his/her perspective, he/she sees the train moving forward, and therefore in this observer’s IRF, since the beam of light heading towards the **back** of the freight car has a shorter distance to travel than the beam of light heading towards the **front** of the freight car, the observer on the **ground** will see the light hit the **back** of the freight car **before** the light hits the **front** of the freight car, as shown in the figure below:



Another, 3rd observer on an express train (*e.g.* moving much faster than the **freight** train and moving in the **same** direction) “sees” the freight train from his/her IRF” as “**going backwards**”, hence would “see” the light from the light bulb hit the **front** of the freight car **before** the light hits the **back** of the freight car, as shown in the figure below:

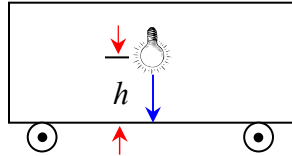


\Rightarrow Two “events” that are simultaneous in one IRF are **not** in general simultaneous in **other** IRF’s *n.b.* If c was *e.g.* 100 m/s (and not $3 \times 10^8\text{ m/s}$), we **all** would have noticed/realized this, long ago...

Time Dilation:

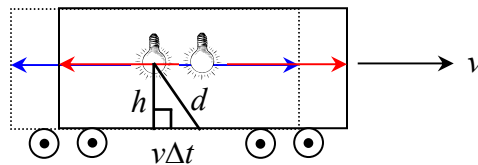
2nd Gedanken Experiment: How long of a time interval does it take for light to go from the light bulb e.g. to the floor of the freight car?

a.) To an observer on the train (i.e. in the rest frame/IRF' of the train), he/she sees:



$$\boxed{h = c\Delta t'}$$
 where h = height of light bulb above the floor of the train, thus: $\boxed{\Delta t' = h/c}$

b.) To a stationary observer on the ground in the “laboratory” IRF, he/she sees:



$$\boxed{v\Delta t} = \text{horizontal distance that the train moves in time interval } \Delta t \text{ in the } \underline{\text{lab}} \text{ IRF.}$$

Light from the ground observer's perspective (in lab IRF) travels a distance d to reach the floor:

$$\boxed{d = \sqrt{h^2 + (v\Delta t)^2}}, \text{ which takes a time interval (in } \underline{\text{lab}} \text{ IRF): } \boxed{\Delta t = \frac{d}{c} = \frac{\sqrt{h^2 + (v\Delta t)^2}}{c} > \Delta t' = \frac{h}{c}}$$

for the light to hit the floor of freight car, from the ground observer's perspective (in lab IRF).

\Rightarrow **Moving** clocks run **slow** \Rightarrow **time dilation** !!!

$$\text{Solve for the } \underline{\text{lab}} \text{ IRF time interval } \Delta t: \boxed{(c\Delta t)^2 = d^2 = h^2 + (v\Delta t)^2} \Rightarrow \boxed{(c^2 - v^2)\Delta t^2 = h^2}$$

$$\text{Thus: } \boxed{\Delta t = \frac{h}{\sqrt{c^2 - v^2}} = \frac{h/c}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}} = \frac{h/c}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} = \gamma h/c}$$
 where: $\boxed{\beta \equiv v/c}$ and: $\boxed{\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}}$

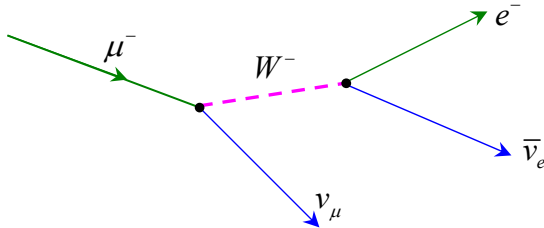
$$\text{But: } \boxed{\Delta t' = h/c} \therefore \boxed{\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} = \gamma \Delta t'}$$
 or: $\boxed{\Delta t' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta t}$ where: $\boxed{1 \leq \gamma \leq \infty}$
 \uparrow \uparrow
 $\boxed{\beta = 0}$ $\boxed{\beta = 1}$

$$\text{Thus: } \boxed{\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t' \geq \Delta t'}$$

Time Dilation (continued):
Griffiths Example 12.1:

A muon (μ^\pm) is an unstable particle and has a mean lifetime of $\tau'_\mu \approx 2.2 \mu\text{s}$ in its **rest frame** IRF'.

Muons $\left. \begin{array}{l} \mu^+ \rightarrow e^+ \nu_e \bar{\nu}_\mu \\ \mu^- \rightarrow e^- \bar{\nu}_e \nu_\mu \end{array} \right\}$ decay via the charged weak interaction (mediated via the W^\pm boson):



The muon is a heavier “cousin” of the electron – it has a rest mass of

$$m_\mu \approx 105.66 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

$$(m_e = 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2)$$

$$(1 \text{ MeV}/c^2 = 10^6 \text{ eV}/c^2)$$

If a muon is traveling at $3/5$ of the speed of light in the **laboratory** (i.e. the ground) **reference frame**, then what is the mean lifetime of muon as observed in the **lab reference frame** {IRF}?

From above: $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$ \Rightarrow $\tau_\mu = \gamma \tau'_\mu$ where: $\tau'_\mu \approx 2.2 \mu\text{s}$. What is the Lorentz factor γ_μ ?

$$\beta_\mu = \frac{v}{c} = \frac{3}{5} \quad \text{and:} \quad \gamma_\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta_\mu^2}}$$

$$\therefore \gamma_\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (3/5)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (9/25)}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{16/25}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(4/5)^2}} = \frac{5}{4} \quad (\geq 1)$$

$$\therefore \tau_\mu = \gamma_\mu \tau'_\mu = \frac{5}{4} \tau'_\mu \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \tau_\mu = \frac{5}{4} \times 2.2 \mu\text{s} = 2.75 \mu\text{s} \quad \text{in the } \mathbf{lab} \text{ frame \{IRF\}.}$$

At Fermilab, beams of muons e.g. with momentum of $p_\mu = 211.32 \text{ GeV}/c$ ($1 \text{ GeV} = 10^9 \text{ eV}$) can easily be produced. What is the mean lifetime of **these** muons, as observed in the **lab frame**?

Again: $\tau_\mu = \gamma_\mu \tau'_\mu$, and the **relativistic** momentum of the muon in the **lab** IRF is:

$$p_\mu c = \gamma_\mu \beta_\mu m_\mu c^2 = 211.32 \text{ GeV}$$

$$\therefore \gamma_\mu \beta_\mu = \frac{p_\mu c}{m_\mu c^2} = \frac{211.32 \text{ GeV}}{105.66 \text{ MeV}} = 2.0 \times 1000 = 2000$$

Thus: $\gamma_\mu \beta_\mu = \frac{\beta_\mu}{\sqrt{1 - \beta_\mu^2}} = 2000$ or: $\frac{\beta_\mu^2}{1 - \beta_\mu^2} = (2000)^2$

$$\text{Solve for } \beta_\mu: \quad \beta_\mu^2 = (2000)^2 (1 - \beta_\mu^2) = (2000)^2 - (2000)^2 \beta_\mu^2 \Rightarrow \left\{ (2000)^2 + 1 \right\} \beta_\mu^2 = (2000)^2$$

$$\text{Thus: } \boxed{\beta_\mu^2 = \frac{(2000)^2}{(2000)^2 + 1}} \Rightarrow \boxed{\beta_\mu = \sqrt{\frac{(2000)^2}{(2000)^2 + 1}}} \text{ or: } \boxed{\beta_\mu = \underbrace{0.999999}_{6 \text{ nines}} = \frac{v_\mu}{c}} \Rightarrow \boxed{v_\mu = 0.999999875c}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\gamma_\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta_\mu^2}} \approx \gamma_\mu \beta_\mu = 2000 \text{ !!!}}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\tau_\mu = \gamma_\mu \tau'_\mu = 2000 \times 2.2 \mu\text{s} = 4.4 \text{ ms} = 0.0044 \text{ sec}} \text{ in the } \underline{\text{lab}} \text{ IRF !!!}$$

The ratio $\tau_\mu / \tau'_\mu = \gamma_\mu = 2000 \Rightarrow$ a muon with lab momentum $p_\mu = 211.32 \text{ GeV}/c$ lives on average 2000× longer in the lab frame {IRF} than in its own rest frame {IRF} !!!

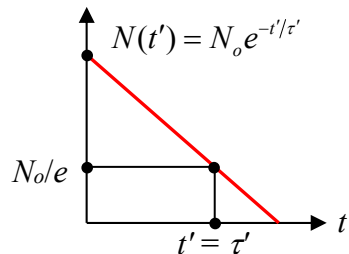
The “proper” decay length of an unstable particle (such as the muon) is defined as: $\boxed{\ell' \equiv c\tau'}$, where τ' = mean lifetime {a.k.a. “proper” lifetime} of the particle in its own rest frame {IRF}.

n.b. In the particle’s own rest frame {IRF}, the particle is at rest, so it has no decay length!

Thus, the proper decay length $\boxed{\ell' \equiv c\tau'}$ has no meaning for a particle at rest in its own rest frame.

The decay time distribution in the unstable particle’s rest frame IRF' is: $\boxed{N(t') = N_o e^{-t'/\tau'}}$ where $N_o = \#$ of particles at $t = 0$.

Semi-log plot of $N(t')$ vs. t'



For a muon with mean/proper lifetime $\boxed{\tau'_\mu \approx 2.2 \mu\text{s}}$ the “proper” decay length of the muon is:

$$\boxed{\ell'_\mu \equiv c\tau'_\mu = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} \times 2.2 \mu\text{s} = 6.6 \times 10^2 \text{ m} = 660 \text{ meters}}$$

Since $\boxed{\tau = \gamma\tau'}$, the decay time distribution of an unstable particle to an observer in the lab IRF is:

$$\boxed{N(t) = N_o e^{-t/\tau} = N_o e^{-t/\gamma\tau'}}$$

At the end of these lecture notes (see p.23), we show that the corresponding decay length for an unstable particle views by an observer in lab IRF is: $\boxed{\ell = \gamma\beta\ell' = \gamma\beta c\tau'}$. Note that when $\boxed{v \rightarrow 0}$, $\boxed{\beta = v/c \rightarrow 0}$, $\boxed{\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - \beta^2} \rightarrow 1}$ and thus: $\boxed{\ell = \gamma\beta\ell' = \gamma\beta c\tau' \rightarrow 0}$ {as it should}.

Thus at Fermilab, for a beam of muons with $p_\mu = 211.32 \text{ GeV}/c$, they will travel a mean distance of: $\boxed{\ell_\mu = \gamma_\mu \beta_\mu \ell'_\mu = \gamma_\mu \beta_\mu c\tau'_\mu = 2000 \ell'_\mu = 2000 \times 660 \text{ m} = 13.2 \text{ km}}$ before the beam of muons decay to $1/e = 0.368$ of their initial number, as seen in the lab frame.

⇒ Explains why FNAL has **lots** of shielding to “range out” (*i.e.* absorb) the muons **after** passing through the HEP experiments that are using them for studies.

n.b. Since $\ell = \gamma\beta\ell' = \gamma\beta c\tau'$, then $\ell = \ell' = c\tau'$ occurs when $\gamma\beta = 1$ and thus $\ell = \ell' = c\tau'$ is the distance a beam of unstable particles travel in the lab frame before their # falls to $1/e = 0.368$ their initial #, traveling with $\gamma\beta = 1$.

Note further that since: $pc = \gamma\beta mc^2$ we also see that: $\gamma\beta = 1$ corresponds to: $\gamma\beta = pc/mc^2 = 1$.

Griffiths Example 12.2 The Twin Paradox: Time Travel Into The Future Is Possible!!!

A pair of identical twins celebrate their **21st** birthday by saying goodbye to each other. One is a medical doctor, the other, an astronaut. The astronaut blasts off in a rocket ship at a {constant} speed of $v = \beta c = \frac{12}{13}c$ and heads out towards α -centauri. After 5 years on **her** watch, she turns around and heads back to earth at the same {constant} speed to rejoin her **twin sister** doctor, who **stayed at home on earth**.

How old is each twin at their reunion?

The **traveling astronaut twin** has aged $5 + 5 = 10$ years in **her own** IRF' in making this round trip, and thus she arrives back home on her **31st** birthday.

However, **viewed from her twin sister's earth-bound** “IRF”, the **astronaut's** clock has been running **slower** by a factor of:

$$\gamma = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t'} = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = 1/\sqrt{1-(\frac{12}{13})^2} = 1/\sqrt{(\frac{169-144}{169})^2} = \frac{13}{5} = 2.6$$

Hence, the **elapsed** time for the **astronaut twin** to make the round trip, as **viewed from the earth's** “IRF” is therefore:

$$\Delta t = \gamma\Delta t' = \frac{13}{5} \times 10 = \frac{130}{5} = 26 \text{ years}$$

Thus, the astronaut's **earth-bound twin sister** (the doctor, who **stayed** on earth) is now herself $21 + 26 = \mathbf{47}$ years old, *i.e.* the **earth-bound doctor twin** is celebrating her **47th** birthday.

⇒ Thus, the **earth-bound doctor twin** is $47 - 31 = \mathbf{16}$ years **older** than her **astronaut twin**!!!

The **paradox** associated with **this** situation arises when it is viewed from the **astronaut twin's** IRF – from **her** perspective, the **astronaut twin** sees the **earth** fly off away from her at $v = \beta c = \frac{12}{13}c$, then turn around after 5 years, and come back toward her at the same speed.

Thus, from the **astronaut twin's** perspective, **she** is at rest and her **doctor twin** is the one who is in **motion** – so shouldn't it be that the **doctor twin** is **younger?** (*i.e.* $< \mathbf{31}$ years old)?

This paradox **is** resolved by consideration of **which** of the two twins **actually experienced accelerations** during the experiment. If both twins had stayed on earth, neglecting the earth's rotation and gravity, then they both would have experienced/undergone **no** accelerations.

However, the **astronaut twin** **does** experience **accelerations/decelerations** while on her rocket ship trip to α -centauri and back – **she** has to **go out**: accelerating from $0 \rightarrow \frac{12}{13}c$, then decelerating $\frac{12}{13}c \rightarrow 0$, then **come back**: accelerating $0 \rightarrow \frac{12}{13}c$, then decelerating $\frac{12}{13}c \rightarrow 0$.

Thus, the **traveling astronaut twin** is **not** in an IRF at **all** times during her trip, while her earth-bound sister **is** in an “IRF” (neglecting earth’s rotation and gravity) at **all** times.

The **astronaut twin** **cannot** claim to be an observer/in an IRF at **all** times, **because** of the **accelerations/decelerations** she experiences on her journey towards α -centauri and back to earth.

See/work Griffiths problem 12.16 on how to analyze this problem correctly from astronaut twin’s perspective.

An Actual Twin Paradox Experiment:

A twin paradox experiment was carried out in the early 1970’s using very high-precision cesium beam atomic clocks. Four commercial aircraft were flown around the world twice, two going **east**, and two going **west**. The atomic clocks were compared before and after each journey with identical {stationary} atomic clocks at the U.S. Naval Observatory.

Making allowances for the **earth’s rotation** (*n.b.* we’re actually living in a **non**-IRF!!!) and the **gravitational red shift** (due to the earth’s gravitational field – a general relativistic effect!), the **average** observed *vs.* calculated time differences of the aircraft-based clock *vs.* the ground-based clock, in nanoseconds was:

Eastward Trip: $\Delta t_E^{obs} = -59 \pm 10 \text{ ns (observed)}$ vs. $\Delta t_E^{pred} = -40 \pm 23 \text{ ns (predicted)}$

Westward Trip: $\Delta t_W^{obs} = +273 \pm 7 \text{ ns (observed)}$ vs. $\Delta t_W^{pred} = +275 \pm 21 \text{ ns (predicted)}$

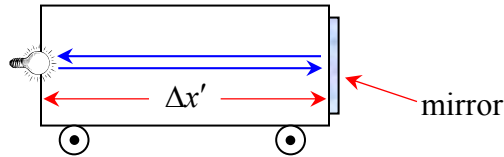
The kinematic effect of **special** relativity is \approx comparable to that associated with the **general** relativistic effect.

⇒ **Moral of the story: Always** fly **eastward** – you will live {**hundreds** of nanoseconds} **longer** !!!

See/read J.C. Hafele and R.E. Keating, Science 177, p.166-168 (1972) for further details.

Lorentz Contraction:

3rd Gedanken Experiment: In the IRF' of the freight train's boxcar, set up the boxcar such that the light bulb is at one end of the boxcar, a mirror at the other end, such that light signal can be sent down and back, as shown in the figure below:



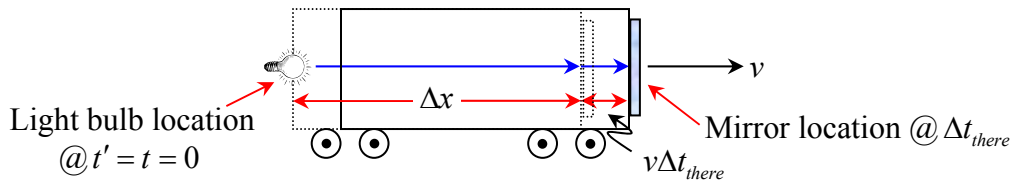
In the IRF' of the freight train's boxcar, how long does it take the light signal to complete a round trip?

For an observer at **rest** on the train/in the train's IRF', the round-trip time is $\Delta t' = \Delta t'_{there} + \Delta t'_{back}$:

$$\Delta t' = \Delta t'_{there} + \Delta t'_{back} = \frac{\Delta x'}{c} + \frac{\Delta x'}{c} = 2 \frac{\Delta x'}{c}$$

For a **stationary** observer on the **ground**/in the ground IRF, the round-trip time is $\Delta t = \Delta t_{there} + \Delta t_{back}$:

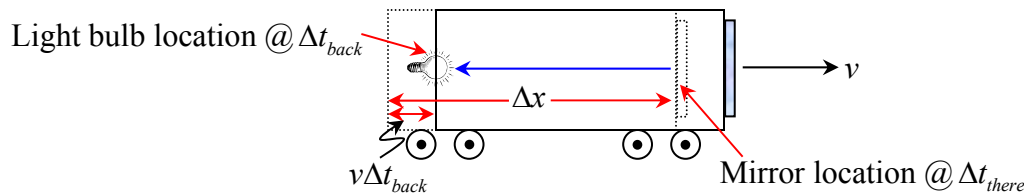
a.) The time interval required for the light signal to travel from the light bulb to the mirror = Δt_{there} :



$$\Delta t_{there} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} + \frac{v\Delta t_{there}}{c} = \frac{\Delta x + v\Delta t_{there}}{c} \quad n.b. \quad \Delta x \neq \Delta x' \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta t \neq \Delta t' \quad !!!$$

Solve for Δt_{there} : $\Delta t_{there} - \frac{v}{c} \Delta t_{there} = \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) \Delta t_{there} = (1 - \beta) \Delta t_{there} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} \quad \therefore \quad \Delta t_{there} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} \frac{1}{(1 - \beta)}$

b.) The time required for the light signal to travel from the mirror back to the light bulb = Δt_{back} :



$$\Delta t_{back} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} - \frac{v\Delta t_{back}}{c} = \frac{\Delta x - v\Delta t_{back}}{c}$$

Solve for Δt_{back} : $\Delta t_{back} + \frac{v}{c} \Delta t_{back} = \left(1 + \frac{v}{c}\right) \Delta t_{back} = (1 + \beta) \Delta t_{back} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} \quad \therefore \quad \Delta t_{back} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} \frac{1}{(1 + \beta)}$

∴ For a stationary observer on the ground/in the ground IRF, the round-trip time is:

$$\Delta t = \Delta t_{there} + \Delta t_{back} = \frac{\Delta x}{c} \frac{1}{(1-\beta)} + \frac{\Delta x}{c} \frac{1}{(1+\beta)} = \left[\frac{1}{(1-\beta)} + \frac{1}{(1+\beta)} \right] \frac{\Delta x}{c}$$

$$= \left[\frac{(1+\beta) + (1-\beta)}{(1-\beta)(1+\beta)} \right] \frac{\Delta x}{c} = \left[\frac{1 + \cancel{\beta} + 1 - \cancel{\beta}}{(1-\beta^2)} \right] \frac{\Delta x}{c}$$

$$= 2 \frac{1}{(1-\beta^2)} \frac{\Delta x}{c} = 2\gamma^2 \frac{\Delta x}{c}$$

with: $\beta \equiv \frac{v}{c}$
 $\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$

Round trip time as seen by an observer on ground/in the **ground** IRF: $\Delta t = 2\gamma^2 \left(\frac{\Delta x}{c} \right)$

Round trip time as seen by an observer on the train/in the **train** IRF': $\Delta t' = 2 \left(\frac{\Delta x'}{c} \right)$

But the time dilation formula is: $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$ or: $\Delta t' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta t$

↑ on ground
↑ on train
↑ on train
↑ on ground

Since: $\Delta t = 2\gamma^2 \left(\frac{\Delta x}{c} \right)$ = Round trip time as seen by observer on the **ground**.

And: $\Delta t' = 2 \left(\frac{\Delta x'}{c} \right)$ = Round trip time as seen by observer on the **train**, and $\Delta x \neq \Delta x'$

And: $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$ = Time dilation formula. Thus: $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t' = 2\gamma^2 \left(\frac{\Delta x}{c} \right)$ or: $\Delta t' = 2\gamma \left(\frac{\Delta x}{c} \right)$

But we also have: $\Delta t' = 2 \left(\frac{\Delta x'}{c} \right)$. Equating the two $\Delta t'$ expressions: $2 \left(\frac{\Delta x'}{c} \right) = 2\gamma \left(\frac{\Delta x}{c} \right)$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x' = \gamma \Delta x \quad \text{or:} \quad \Delta x = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta x'$$

↑ on train
↑ on ground
↑ on ground
↑ on train

$$\Delta t' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta t \quad \text{or:} \quad \Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$$

↓ on train
↓ on ground
↓ on ground
↓ on train

Therefore, for a stationary observer on the ground/in the ground IRF:

Lorentz Contraction: A **moving** meter stick is **shortened**: $\Delta x = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta x'$ n.b. **only** along the direction of motion !!!

Time Dilation: A **moving** clock runs **slow**: $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$

Where Δx , Δt = length and time interval in the rest frame of meter stick and clock. = **ground** IRF {**here**}

However, for an observer in the rest frame $\{\text{IRF}'\}$ of the railroad car – his/her meter sticks are contracted by the same Lorentz factor γ , so all of his/her spatial measurements that he/she makes in the rest frame of the box car will come out the same as if the box car were at rest (with respect to the ground) !!!

The spatial $H \times W \times L$ dimensions of the box car cannot change/be different moving vs. at rest!

From the observer's perspective/IRF' on the train, it's the objects on the ground that are shortened!

How is it possible that both observers (A on the train, B on the ground) could be correct??

They both are !!! Huh???

We simply need to examine the details of the process whereby a length is actually measured.

In order to measure the length of a board at rest (*w.r.t.* the measurer/observer), one simply lays a ruler down along it and measures it – *i.e.* record the readings of the ruler at each end of the board and subtract them: $\Delta x = x_2 - x_1$

However, if the board is moving, then one must read/measure the locations of the ends of the board at the same instant of time (in the measurer/observer's reference frame).

⇒ Due to the simultaneity of relativity, two observers (in two different IRF's) will disagree on what constitutes the “same instant of time” !!!

When the person on the ground measures the length of a moving box car, he/she reads the position of the two ends of the boxcar at the same instant of time in his/her IRF.

When the person on the train watches the person on the ground making this measurement, the train observer see the ground person reading the front-end of the box car first, and the rear-end of the box car second – *i.e.* the observer on the train sees these ground-based measurements take place at different times/non-simultaneously !!!

Both observers measure lengths in their own/respective IRF's correctly and each discover the other's meter stick to be shortened !!!

⇒ There is no inconsistency in this from the perspective of special relativity – it is {simply} a feature of special relativity !!!

Griffiths Example 12.3: The Barn & Ladder Paradox – Another Gedanken Experiment:

n.b. \exists no direct experimental macroscopic confirmation of Lorentz contraction !!!
 (unlike time dilation – which has been experimentally verified).

The technology doesn't yet exist to accelerate macroscopic objects to relativistic speeds, $v \approx c$.

A farmer has a ladder that is too long to store in his barn.

The farmer figures that if he gets *e.g.* his daughter (who run much faster than the farmer) to move the ladder into barn at a high enough speed, the ladder would Lorentz-contract, and thus the fast-moving ladder would then fit into barn!

The farmer would then slam the barn door shut at instant the whole ladder fits into the barn.

However, the farmer's daughter pointed out to him that from her moving reference frame {IRF'}, the barn would Lorentz contract, not the ladder!! \Rightarrow Thus, from her perspective (*i.e.* her IRF) the problem of fitting the ladder into barn would be aggravated by running relativistically fast into the barn with the ladder !!!

Who's right??? Will the ladder fit or won't it???

Again, they're both correct!!!

The statement: "the ladder is in the barn" means that all parts of the ladder (including both ends) are inside the barn at the same instant of time. \Leftarrow This a condition that depends on the observer – *i.e.* his/her IRF.

There are two relevant "events" in ladder – barn problem:

- a.) The back end of the ladder makes it in the door of barn.
- b.) The front end of the ladder hits far wall of barn.

The farmer, at rest in the barn's IRF, sees a.) occur before b.) !!!

The daughter, at rest in the ladder's IRF', sees b.) occur before a.) !!!

Contradiction??? No !!!

Just due to a difference in the simultaneity of "event" times due to two different IRF's!!!

The Nature of Lorentz Contraction:

A moving object is shortened **only along** (i.e. **parallel**) to its **direction of motion/velocity vector**.

Spatial dimensions **transverse/perpendicular** to the direction of motion/velocity vector are **not** contracted/**not** affected.

A Gedanken Experiment for Lorentz-Noncontraction in the Transverse Direction(s):

Is the **height** of a railroad boxcar {running along straight, horizontal railroad track} the **same** in all IRF's???

Build a tall wall along the side of the railroad tracks. Bring up the railroad car and stop it at the wall and mark its height h on the wall, e.g. using **blue** paint. Now back off the train, get a running relativistic start and use e.g. **red** paint to mark the height of the train boxcar on the wall as the train flies past the wall.

If the **transverse** directions **are** Lorentz-contracted, an observer on the **ground** would predict the **red** line to be **lower** than the **blue** one, whereas an observer on the **train** would predict the **opposite** – i.e. the **red** line would be **higher** than the **blue** line. Which line is **lower**?

The principle of relativity says both observers/both IRF's are **equally** justified, but (here) both **cannot** be correct.

The answer: The red and blue lines **exactly** coincide \Rightarrow there is **no** Lorentz contraction (or expansion) in the **transverse** direction.

Lorentz contraction **only** occurs in the **longitudinal** direction/along the direction of motion!

Lorentz Transformations:

Any physical process consists of one or more “events”.

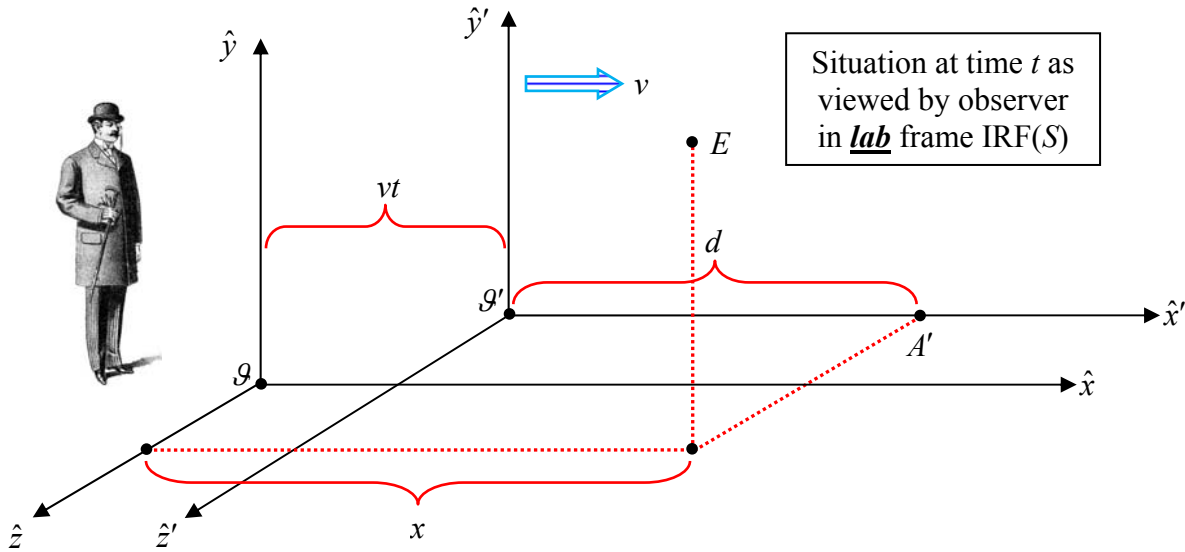
An “event” is something that occurs at a specific location (x, y, z) in space at a precise instant in time (t) , e.g. the explosion of a firecracker.

A **Lorentz Transformation** is the mathematical prescription for (properly) transforming the physics associated with an “event” as seen/observed in one IRF to another IRF.

e.g. Suppose we have {4-dimensional} **space-time** coordinates (x, y, z, t) in IRF(S) for an event, “E”, and we want to know the space-time coordinates (x', y', z', t') for the **same** event “E” in **another** IRF(S').

Suppose **moving** frame IRF(S') is moving at a velocity $\boxed{\vec{v} = v\hat{x}}$ **relative** to **lab** frame IRF(S). The axes of the two coordinate systems coincide at time $t = 0$, i.e. the instant when the two origins \mathcal{O} and \mathcal{O}' coincide, as shown in the figure below:

The Situation as Seen by an Observer in Lab Frame IRF(S) at Time t, for Event “E”:



At time t , the origin \mathcal{G}' (in IRF(S')) will be a distance vt from the origin \mathcal{G} (in IRF(S)).
 $\therefore \boxed{x = d + vt}$ where d = distance from A' to \mathcal{G}' at time t , when event “ E ” occurs, as measured/observed in **lab** IRF(S).

If we carry out a **Galilean** transformation from **lab** IRF(S) to **moving** IRF(S'):

$$\boxed{d = x' = x - vt} \leftarrow \text{no spatial contraction along direction of motion.}$$

$$\boxed{y' = y}$$

$$\boxed{z' = z}$$

$$\boxed{t' = t} \leftarrow \text{no time dilation.}$$

Where does the Galilean transformation **go wrong**? $\boxed{d = x'}$ {and $\boxed{t' = t}$ }.

d = distance from A' to \mathcal{G}' as measured in the **lab** frame IRF(S)
 x' = distance from A' to \mathcal{G}' as measured in **moving** frame IRF(S')

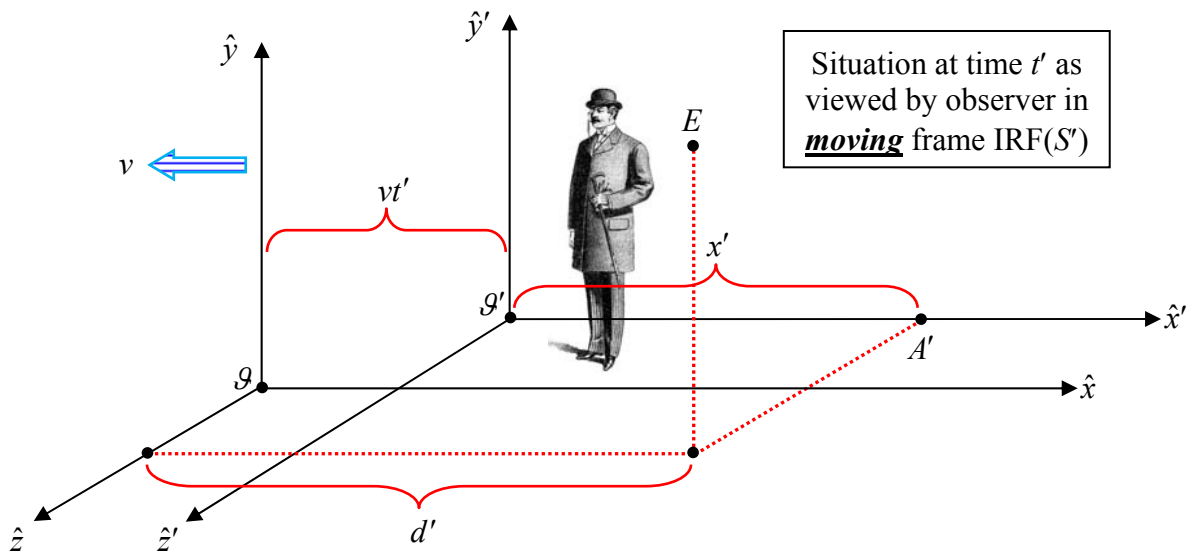
Factually: $\boxed{d \neq x'}$ (because of (special) relativity) !!!

Because A' and \mathcal{G}' are at **rest** in the **moving** IRF(S'), from the perspective of an observer in the **lab** frame IRF(S), x' is the “moving meter stick”, which appears **Lorentz-contracted** to an observer in the **lab** frame IRF(S).

Thus: $\boxed{d = \frac{1}{\gamma} x'}$ where: $\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$ and: $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$

Then: $\boxed{d = \frac{1}{\gamma} x' = x - vt}$ or: $\boxed{x' = \gamma(x - vt)}$

However, the **same** argument can be made from the perspective of an observer in the **moving** frame IRF(S'), as shown in the figure below:

The Situation as Seen by an Observer in Moving Frame IRF(S') at Time t', for Event "E":


If observers in IRF(S) and IRF(S') both start their clocks $t = t' = 0$ when the origins \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}' coincide, then at time t' in moving IRF(S'), origin \mathcal{G} will be a distance vt' from \mathcal{G}' and thus: $x' = d' - vt'$ where d' = the distance from A' to \mathcal{G} as measured in moving frame IRF(S') when event "E" occurs at time t' as measured in moving frame IRF(S').

The times t (in lab IRF(S)) and t' (in moving IRF(S')) represent the same physical instant for event "E", viewed/observed from/in these two IRF's, respectively.

x = distance from A' to \mathcal{G} as measured in the lab frame IRF(S) {drawing on previous page}.
 d' = distance from A' to \mathcal{G} as measured in moving frame IRF(S').

Because A' and \mathcal{G} are at rest in the lab frame IRF(S), then here x is the "moving meter stick" which appears Lorentz-contracted in the moving frame IRF(S').

Thus: $d' = \frac{1}{\gamma} x$ where: $\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$ and: $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$

Then: $x' = d' - vt' = \frac{1}{\gamma} x - vt'$ or: $x = \gamma(x' + vt')$

Time Dilation:

We have: (1) $x' = \gamma(x - vt) = \gamma x - \gamma vt$
 (2) $x = \gamma(x' + vt') = \gamma x' + \gamma vt'$

Insert (1) into (2) and solve for t' in terms of t and x :

$$x = \gamma x' + \gamma vt' = \gamma(\gamma x - \gamma vt) + \gamma vt' = \gamma^2 x - \gamma^2 vt + \gamma vt'$$

Or: $\gamma vt' = \gamma^2 vt - \gamma^2 x + x = \gamma^2 vt - (\gamma^2 - 1)x \Leftarrow$ divide both sides by γv

$$t' = \gamma t - \frac{(\gamma^2 - 1)}{\gamma v} x \quad \Leftarrow \text{ multiply both sides by } c$$

$$ct' = \gamma ct - \frac{(\gamma^2 - 1)}{\gamma} \left(\frac{c}{v}\right) x = \gamma ct - \frac{(\gamma^2 - 1)}{\gamma\beta} x \quad \text{where: } \beta = \frac{v}{c} \quad \text{and: } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad \gamma^2 = \frac{1}{1 - \beta^2}$$

$$ct' = \gamma ct - \frac{\left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta^2} - 1\right)}{\gamma\beta} x = \gamma ct - \frac{\left(\frac{1}{1 - \beta^2} - \frac{1 - \beta^2}{1 - \beta^2}\right)}{\gamma\beta} x$$

$$ct' = \gamma ct - \frac{\left(\frac{1 - 1 + \beta^2}{1 - \beta^2}\right)}{\gamma\beta} x = \gamma ct - \frac{\left(\frac{\beta^2}{1 - \beta^2}\right)}{\gamma\beta} x = \gamma ct - \frac{\gamma^2 \beta^2}{\cancel{\gamma} \beta} x = \gamma ct - \gamma\beta x = \gamma(ct - \beta x)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{ct' = \gamma(ct - \beta x)}$$

Likewise, if we insert (2) into (1) and {instead} solve for t in terms of t' and x' , we obtain:

$$\boxed{ct = \gamma(ct' + \beta x')}$$

Thus, we now have all the ingredients needed for specifying our Lorentz transformation(s) to/from IRF(S) \Leftrightarrow IRF(S') along the $\hat{x} = \hat{x}'$ direction:

Lorentz Transformation from IRF(S) \rightarrow IRF(S'):

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= \gamma(x - \beta ct) & \vec{v} &= +v\hat{x} \text{ in IRF}(S) \\ y' &= y & \beta &= \frac{v}{c}, \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \\ z' &= z \\ ct' &= \gamma(ct - \beta x) \end{aligned}$$

Lorentz Transformation from IRF(S') \rightarrow IRF(S):

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \gamma(x' + \beta ct') & \vec{v} &= -v\hat{x}' \text{ in IRF}(S') \\ y &= y' & \beta &= \frac{v}{c}, \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \\ z &= z' \\ ct &= \gamma(ct' + \beta x') \end{aligned}$$

Griffiths Example 12.4: Simultaneity, Synchronization and Time Dilation

In **lab** frame IRF(S), suppose event “ A ” occurs at $x_A = 0, t_A = 0$ and event “ B ” occurs at $x_B = b, t_B = 0$.

The two events “ A ” and “ B ” **are** simultaneous in **lab** IRF(S), because both occur at $t_A = t_B = t = 0$.

The two events “ A ” and “ B ” occur at **different** space-points in **lab** frame IRF(S): $x_A = 0, x_B = b$.

Events “ A ” and “ B ” do **not** occur simultaneously in **moving** frame IRF(S') {moving with relative velocity $\beta\hat{x}$ w.r.t. **lab** frame}. The Lorentz transformation from **lab** IRF(S) to **moving** IRF(S') gives:

$$\begin{array}{l} x'_A = \gamma(x_A - \beta ct_A) = 0 \\ y'_A = y_A \\ z'_A = z_A \\ ct'_A = \gamma(ct_A - \beta x_A) = 0 \end{array} \quad \text{and:} \quad \begin{array}{l} x'_B = \gamma(x_B - \beta ct_B) = \gamma b \\ y'_B = y_B \\ z'_B = z_B \\ ct'_B = \gamma(ct_B - \beta x_B) = -\gamma\beta b \end{array}$$

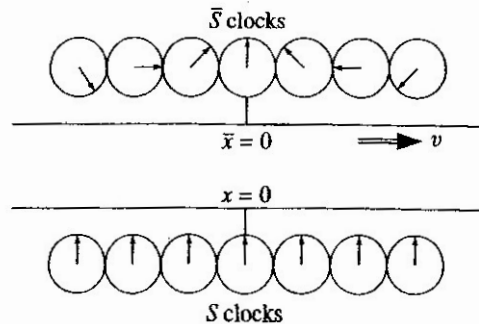
Thus, in IRF(S) {**lab** frame}: $x_A = 0, t_A = 0$ and: $x_B = b, t_B = 0$

Whereas in IRF(S') {**moving** frame}: $x'_A = 0, t'_A = 0$ but: $x'_B = \gamma b, t'_B = -\gamma\beta b/c$

Thus, we see that in the **moving** frame IRF(S'), event “ B ” occurs **before** event “ A ” !!!

n.b. Event “ A ” occurs at $t_A = 0$ and $t'_A = 0$ (**simultaneously**) in IRF(S) and IRF(S'), respectively, because the origins $\mathcal{G}(S)$ and $\mathcal{G}'(S')$ coincide (in **space**) at $t = t_A = t_B = 0$.

⇒ Clocks that are synchronized in one IRF(S) are **not** synchronized in another IRF(S'), as can be seen in the following figure:



Suppose that at time $t = 0$ an observer in **lab** frame IRF(S), examines **all** clocks in **moving** frame IRF(S'). He/she discovers that the clocks in **moving** frame IRF(S') all read **different** times, due to each of their seven different x -locations in **lab** frame IRF(S), and will vary/differ according to:

$$t' = \gamma\left(t - \beta\frac{x}{c}\right) = -\gamma\beta\left(\frac{x}{c}\right) \quad \left\{ \text{since } t = 0 \text{ in } \underline{\text{lab}} \text{ frame IRF}(S) \text{ for all seven } x\text{-points} \right\}$$

⇒ For $x < 0$, clocks to the **left** of the origin ($x' < 0$) in IRF(S') are increasingly **ahead** ($t' > 0$).

⇒ For $x > 0$, clocks to the **right** of the origin ($x' > 0$) in IRF(S') are increasingly **behind** ($t' < 0$).

⇒ Non-synchronization of clocks in **moving** frame IRF(S') follows directly from the Lorentz transformation from (the synchronized) **lab** frame IRF(S) → IRF(S').

n.b. From the viewpoint of an observer in **moving** frame IRF(S'), if his/her clocks are synchronized in IRF(S') (e.g. all $t' = 0$) then it will be the clocks in **lab** frame IRF(S) that are non-synchronized:

$$t = \gamma \left(t' + \beta \frac{x'}{c} \right) = +\gamma\beta \left(\frac{x'}{c} \right) \quad \{\text{since } t' = 0 \text{ in IRF}(S')\}$$

⇒ For $x' < 0$, clocks to the **left** of the origin ($x < 0$) in IRF(S) are increasingly **behind** ($t < 0$).

⇒ For $x' > 0$, clocks to the **right** of the origin ($x > 0$) in IRF(S) are increasingly **ahead** ($t > 0$).

If observer in **lab** frame IRF(S) focuses his/her attention on a **single** clock in **moving** IRF(S'), e.g. the clock located at $x' = a$ and watches it over a time interval Δt , how much time has elapsed on the **moving** clock? Here x' is **fixed** in **moving** IRF(S') and: $\Delta t \equiv t_2 - t_1$, $\Delta t' \equiv t'_2 - t'_1$.

Then: $t = \gamma \left(t' + \beta \frac{x'}{c} \right)$ $x' = a$ is **fixed** in **moving** frame IRF(S')

Thus: $t_2 = \gamma \left(t'_2 + \beta \frac{a}{c} \right)$

And: $t_1 = \gamma \left(t'_1 + \beta \frac{a}{c} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta t = t_2 - t_1 &= \gamma \left(t'_2 + \beta \left(\frac{a}{c} \right) \right) - \gamma \left(t'_1 + \beta \left(\frac{a}{c} \right) \right) \\ \therefore &= \cancel{\gamma t'_2} + \cancel{\gamma\beta \left(\frac{a}{c} \right)} - \cancel{\gamma t'_1} - \cancel{\gamma\beta \left(\frac{a}{c} \right)} = \gamma t'_2 - \gamma t'_1 \\ &= \gamma (t'_2 - t'_1) = \gamma \Delta t' \end{aligned}$$

⇒ $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$ or: $\Delta t' = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta t$

Time dilation formulae

Griffiths Example 12.5: Lorentz Contraction

Consider a stick moving with velocity $\vec{v} = +v\hat{x}$.

Its **rest** length as measured in the **moving** frame IRF(S') is: $\Delta x' \equiv x'_2 - x'_1$

An observer in **lab** frame IRF(S) wants to measure the length of this stick in his/her reference frame, e.g. at the same instant $t = 0$ in his/her IRF(S). Thus in **lab** IRF(S): $\Delta x \equiv x_2 - x_1$ at $t = 0$.

Then in **moving** IRF(S'):

$$\begin{aligned} x'_2 &= \gamma(x_2 - vt) = \gamma x_2 \\ x'_1 &= \gamma(x_1 - vt) = \gamma x_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \Delta x' = x'_2 - x'_1 = \gamma x_2 - \gamma x_1 = \gamma(x_2 - x_1) = \gamma \Delta x$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x' = \gamma \Delta x \quad \text{or:} \quad \Delta x = \frac{1}{\gamma} \Delta x'$$

Lorentz contraction formulae

Example: Show invariant interval(s) are invariant/independent of inertial reference frame:

For the most general case in space-time:

In **lab** frame IRF(S): Event 1 is at (x_1, t_1) , Event 2 is at (x_2, t_2) , corresponding to:

In **moving** frame IRF(S'): Event 1 is at (x'_1, t'_1) , Event 2 is at (x'_2, t'_2) .

Using the 1-D Lorentz transformations:

$$x'_1 = \gamma x_1 - \gamma \beta c t_1 \quad \text{and:} \quad x'_2 = \gamma x_2 - \gamma \beta c t_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta x' = (x'_2 - x'_1) = \gamma(x_2 - x_1) - \gamma \beta c(t_2 - t_1) = \gamma \Delta x - \gamma \beta c \Delta t$$

$$c t'_1 = \gamma c t_1 - \gamma \beta x_1 \quad \text{and:} \quad c t'_2 = \gamma c t_2 - \gamma \beta x_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c \Delta t' = c(t'_2 - t'_1) = \gamma c(t_2 - t_1) - \gamma \beta(x_2 - x_1) = \gamma c \Delta t - \gamma \beta \Delta x$$

Does the invariant interval $I' = I$???

$$\begin{aligned} I' &\equiv (\Delta x')^2 - (c \Delta t')^2 = \gamma^2 (\Delta x - \beta c \Delta t)^2 - \gamma^2 (c \Delta t - \beta \Delta x)^2 \\ &= \gamma^2 (\Delta x)^2 - 2\gamma^2 \beta (\Delta x c \Delta t) + \gamma^2 \beta^2 (c \Delta t)^2 - \gamma^2 (c \Delta t)^2 + 2\gamma^2 \beta (\Delta x c \Delta t) - \gamma^2 \beta^2 (\Delta x)^2 \\ &= \underbrace{\gamma^2 (1 - \beta^2)}_{=1} (\Delta x)^2 - \underbrace{\gamma^2 (1 - \beta^2)}_{=1} (c \Delta t)^2 \quad \text{but:} \quad \gamma^2 = 1/(1 - \beta^2) \\ &= (\Delta x)^2 - (c \Delta t)^2 \equiv I \quad \text{Yes!!!} \end{aligned}$$

Griffiths Example 12.6: Einstein's 1-D Velocity Addition Rule

 Suppose a particle moves a distance dx in a time dt in **lab** IRF(S).

n.b. IRF(S') is moving with velocity $\vec{v} = v\hat{x}$ relative to **lab** IRF(S)

 The speed of the particle as observed in **lab** frame IRF(S) is thus:

$$u = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

 However, viewed from the **moving** frame IRF(S'), the particle has moved a distance:

$$dx' = \gamma(dx - \beta cdt) \quad \text{in a time:} \quad dt' = \gamma\left(dt - \beta \frac{dx}{c}\right)$$

 Thus, the speed of the particle as observed in the **moving** frame IRF(S') is:

$$u' = \frac{dx'}{dt'} = \frac{\gamma(dx - \beta cdt)}{\gamma\left(dt - \beta \left(\frac{dx}{c}\right)\right)} = \frac{dx - \beta cdt}{dt - \beta \left(\frac{dx}{c}\right)} = \frac{\frac{dx}{dt} - \beta c}{1 - \left(\frac{\beta}{c}\right) \frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{u - \beta c}{1 - u \frac{\beta}{c}} = \frac{u - v}{1 - \frac{uv}{c^2}}$$

Einstein's 1-D Velocity Addition Rule for IRF(S') moving with velocity $\vec{v} = v\hat{x}$ relative to IRF(S):

$$u' = \frac{u - v}{1 - \frac{uv}{c^2}} \quad \text{or:} \quad \beta'_{u'} = \frac{\beta_u - \beta}{1 - \beta_u \beta} \quad \text{where:} \quad \beta = \frac{v}{c}, \quad \beta_u = \frac{u}{c}, \quad \beta'_{u'} = \frac{u'}{c}$$

 If the situation is **reversed** for the two IRF's, then the speed of the particle as observed in IRF(S) in terms of its speed as observed in IRF(S') is given by:

Einstein's 1-D Velocity Addition Rule for IRF(S) moving with velocity $\vec{v}' = -v\hat{x}$ relative to IRF(S'):

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + \frac{u'v}{c^2}} \quad \text{or:} \quad \beta_u = \frac{\beta'_{u'} + \beta}{1 + \beta'_{u'} \beta} \quad \text{where:} \quad \beta = \frac{v}{c}, \quad \beta_u = \frac{u}{c}, \quad \beta'_{u'} = \frac{u'}{c}$$

n.b. Compare e.g. this last 1-D velocity addition result to that originally given at top of p. 4 above – they are the same/identical for $\vec{v} = \pm v\hat{x}$:

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{ground}}^{\text{man}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} \pm \mathbf{v}_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{\left[1 \pm \left(\frac{\mathbf{v}_{\text{ground}}^{\text{train}} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\text{train}}^{\text{man}}}{c^2}\right)\right]}$$

Derivation of Lab Frame Decay Length and Decay Time Relations $\ell = \gamma\beta c\tau'$ **and** $\tau = \gamma\tau'$
for Unstable Relativistic Particles

An unstable particle (e.g. a muon) is at **rest** in the **moving** frame IRF(S'). An observer in IRF(S') sees this particle:

Created at the IRF(S') space-time coordinate:	$(x'_1, y'_1, z'_1, t'_1) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$	τ' = the decay time of the particle as measured in IRF(S')
Decay at the IRF(S') space-time coordinate:	$(x'_2, y'_2, z'_2, t'_2) = (0, 0, 0, \tau')$	

And: $\Delta x' \equiv x'_2 - x'_1 = 0$ and: $\Delta t' \equiv t'_2 - t'_1 = \tau'$. {n.b. the unstable particle is **not** moving in IRF(S').}

In the **lab** frame IRF(S), if the unstable particle has velocity **only** in the \hat{x} -direction, i.e. $\vec{v} = v\hat{x}$, then if the two reference frames IRF(S) and IRF(S') coincide at $t_1 = t'_1 = 0$, then viewed by an observer in the **lab** frame IRF(S), this particle is:

Created at the IRF(S) space-time coordinate:	$(x_1, y_1, z_1, t_1) = (0, 0, 0, 0)$	τ = the decay time and ℓ = decay length of the particle as measured in IRF(S)
Decays at the IRF(S) space-time coordinate:	$(x_2, y_2, z_2, t_2) = (\ell, 0, 0, \tau)$	

And: $\Delta x \equiv x_2 - x_1 = \ell$ and: $\Delta t \equiv t_2 - t_1 = \tau$.

Next, we need to use the Lorentz Transformation from IRF(S') \rightarrow IRF(S):

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \gamma(x' + \beta ct') & \vec{v} &= -v\hat{x} \text{ in IRF}(S') \\ y &= y' & \beta &= \frac{v}{c}, \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \\ z &= z' \\ ct &= \gamma(ct' + \beta x') \end{aligned}$$

Then:

$x_2 = \gamma(x'_2 + \beta ct'_2) = \gamma(0 + \beta c\tau') = \gamma\beta c\tau'$	and:	$ct_2 = \gamma(ct'_2 + \beta x'_2) = \gamma(c\tau' + \beta 0) = \gamma c\tau'$	or:	$t_2 = \gamma\tau'$
$x_1 = \gamma(x'_1 + \beta ct'_1) = \gamma(0 + \beta c0) = 0$	and:	$ct_1 = \gamma(ct'_1 + \beta x'_1) = \gamma(c0 + \beta 0) = 0$	or:	$t_1 = t'_1 = 0$

Thus, for an observer in the **lab** frame IRF(S): $\ell = \Delta x \equiv x_2 - x_1 = \gamma\beta c\tau'$ and: $\tau = \Delta t \equiv t_2 - t_1 = \gamma\tau'$.

\therefore The decay length and decay time of an unstable particle in the **lab** frame IRF(S) are respectively:

$\ell = \gamma\beta c\tau'$ and: $\tau = \gamma\tau'$, where τ' = the decay time of the particle in its own **rest** frame IRF(S').