

# Special Relativity



Luis Anchordoqui

# V: Space-time



Luis Anchordoqui



# 4-dimensional space-time

An event in the 4-dimensional continuum space-time is a point with coordinates

$$x^0 = ct$$

$$x^1 = x$$

$$x^2 = y$$

$$x^3 = z$$

or equivalently  $x^\mu$  (with  $\mu = 0, 1, 2, 3$ )

## Recall the summation convention

Wherever there are repeated upper and lower indices summation is implied, e.g.

$$a_\mu b^\mu = \sum_{\mu=0}^3 a_\mu b^\mu$$



The metric of space-time is given by  $ds^2 = \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu$

$$\eta_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Inverse} \equiv \eta^{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hence the metric  $ds^2 = -(dx^0)^2 + (dx^1)^2 + (dx^2)^2 + (dx^3)^2$

This metric is unusual for a geometry in that it is not positive definite:

for **spacelike** displacements it is positive

and for **timelike** displacements it is negative

This metric is related to your proper time  $\tau$  by  $ds^2 = -c^2 d\tau^2$

Indices are raised and lowered with  $\eta_{\mu\nu}$ , e.g. if  $a_\mu$  is a vector then  $a_\mu = \eta_{\mu\nu} a^\nu$

This extends to tensors in space-time etc. Upper indices are referred to as contravariant and lower indices as covariant



# Representation of a Lorentz transformation

A Lorentz transformation preserves  $ds^2$

We represent a Lorentz transformation by

$$x'^{\mu} = \Lambda^{\mu}_{\nu} x^{\nu} \quad \eta_{\mu\nu} = \Lambda^{\sigma}_{\mu} \Lambda^{\tau}_{\nu} \eta_{\sigma\tau}$$

That is, a Lorentz transformation is the equivalent of an orthogonal matrix in the 4-dimensional space-time with indefinite metric

## Conditions

❖  $\det \Lambda = 1$  - rules out reflections ( $x \rightarrow -x$ )

❖  $\Lambda^0_0 > 0$  - isochronous

For the special case of a Lorentz transformation involving a boost along the x-axis

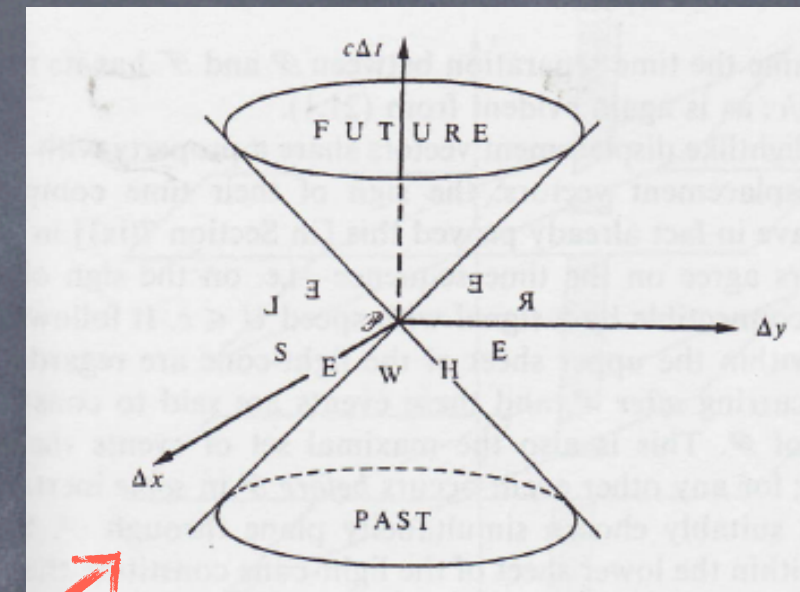
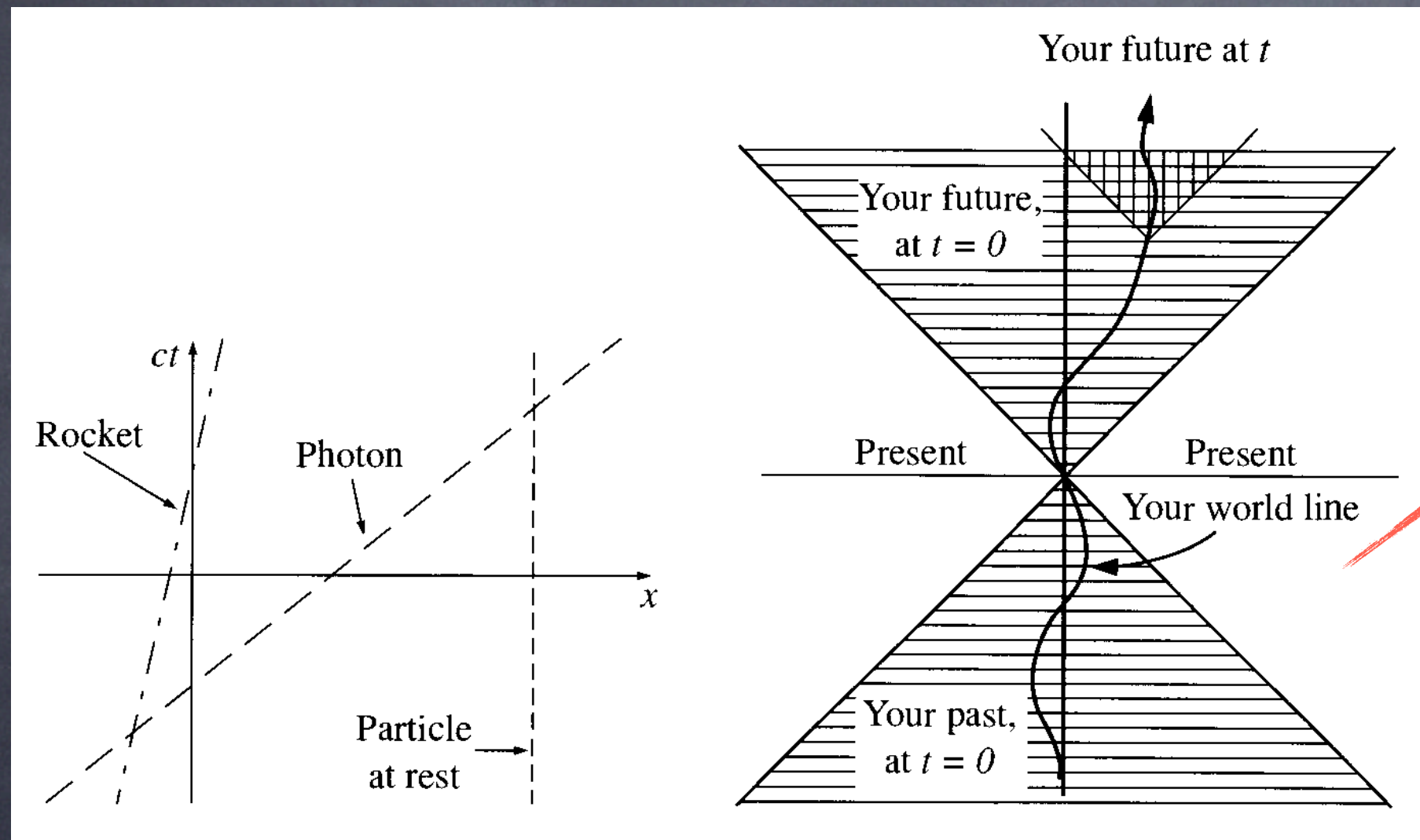
$$\Lambda^{\mu}_{\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma & 0 & 0 \\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Space-time diagrams

## Minkowski-Diagrams (and world lines)

Time-like component ( $ct$ ) is vertical position, space is horizontal and velocity is reciprocal of slope



By Living (=making decisions) we permanently narrow the accessibility of our future. The motion through space-time is called a world line. You see that in order to go to the past, you need to reach infinite velocity (rather than only light velocity) and this is really impossible



# Relativistic Kinematics and Space-Time

Having introduced the idea of 4-vectors, let's now turn to their use for describing the motion of a particle in space-time terms.

A particle follows a timelike world line through spacetime. This curve can be specified by giving three spatial coordinates  $x^i$  as a function of time in a particular inertial frame. However, the 4-dimensional way of describing a worldline is to give all 4 coordinates of the particle  $x^\alpha$  as a single-valued function of a parameter that varies along the worldline.

Many parameters are possible, but a natural one is the proper time that gives the spacetime distance  $\tau$  along the world line measured both positively and negatively from some arbitrary starting point

A world line is then described by the equations

$$x^\alpha = x^\alpha(\tau)$$



# 4-velocity

The 4-velocity is the four vector  $\mathbf{U}$  whose components  $U^\alpha$  are the derivatives of the position along the world line with respect to the proper time parameter

$$U^\alpha = \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau}$$

The 4-velocity  $\mathbf{U}$  is thus tangent to the world line at each point because a displacement is given by  $\Delta x^\alpha = u^\alpha \Delta \tau$

The four components of the 4-velocity can be expressed in terms of the 3-velocity  $\Rightarrow \vec{u} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{dt}$

$$\vec{U} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{d\tau}$$

now replace  $d\tau \Rightarrow$

$$\vec{U} = \frac{d\vec{l}}{\underbrace{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}} dt}_{d\tau}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}} \vec{u}$$

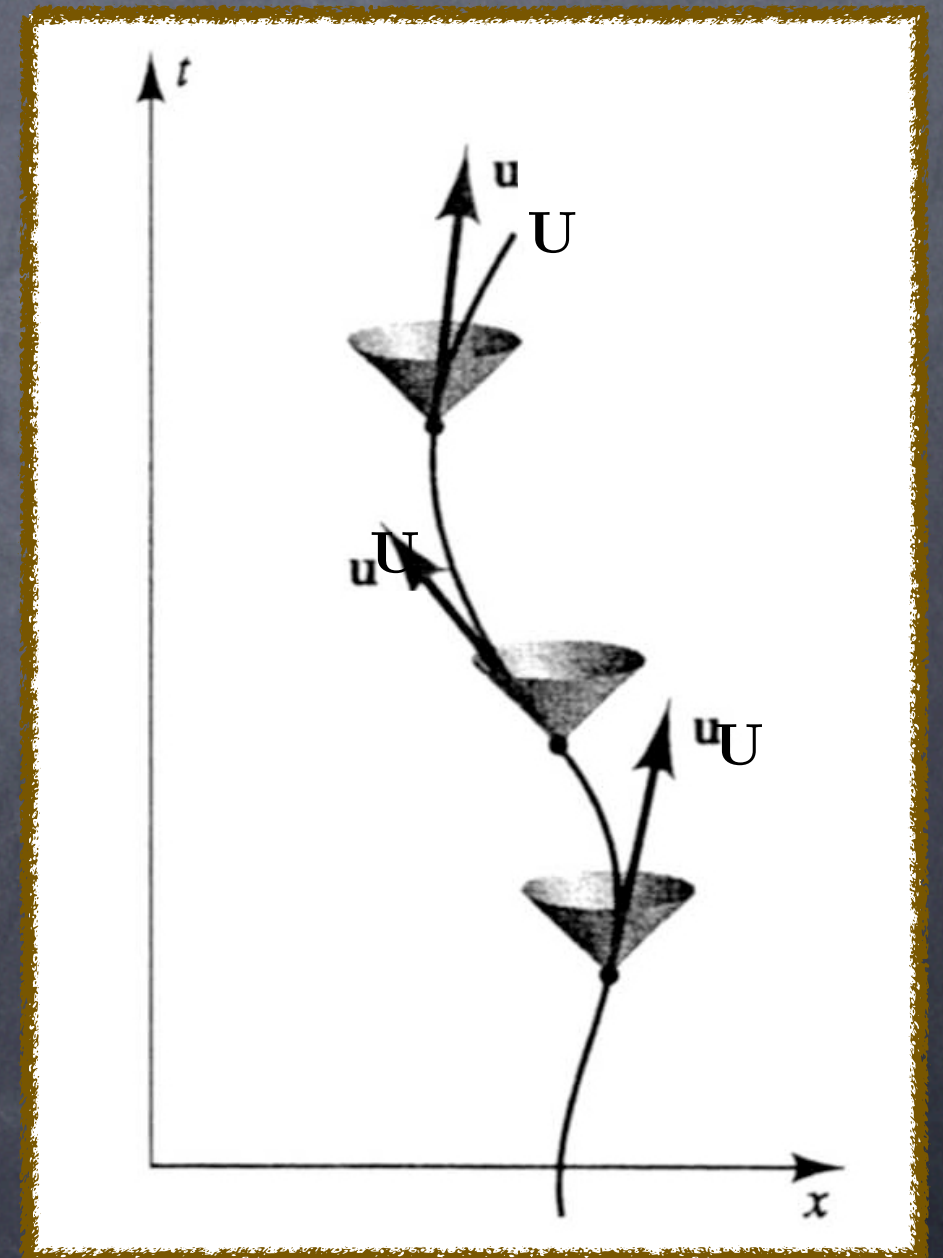


What is the 0<sup>th</sup> component for this 4-vector  
(the 0<sup>th</sup> component for the displacement 4-vector was  $ct$ ):

$$\frac{dx^0}{d\tau} = U^0 = c \frac{dt}{d\tau} = c \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}} dt} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}}$$

Therefore:  $U \equiv U^\alpha = (\gamma c, \gamma \vec{u})$

The 4-velocity  $U(\tau)$  at any point along a particle's worldline is the unit timelike tangent 4-vector at that point.  
It lies inside the light cone of that point.





An immediate consequence of this result is that

$$\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{U} = \eta_{\alpha\beta} \frac{dx^\alpha}{d\tau} \frac{dx^\beta}{d\tau} = -c^2$$

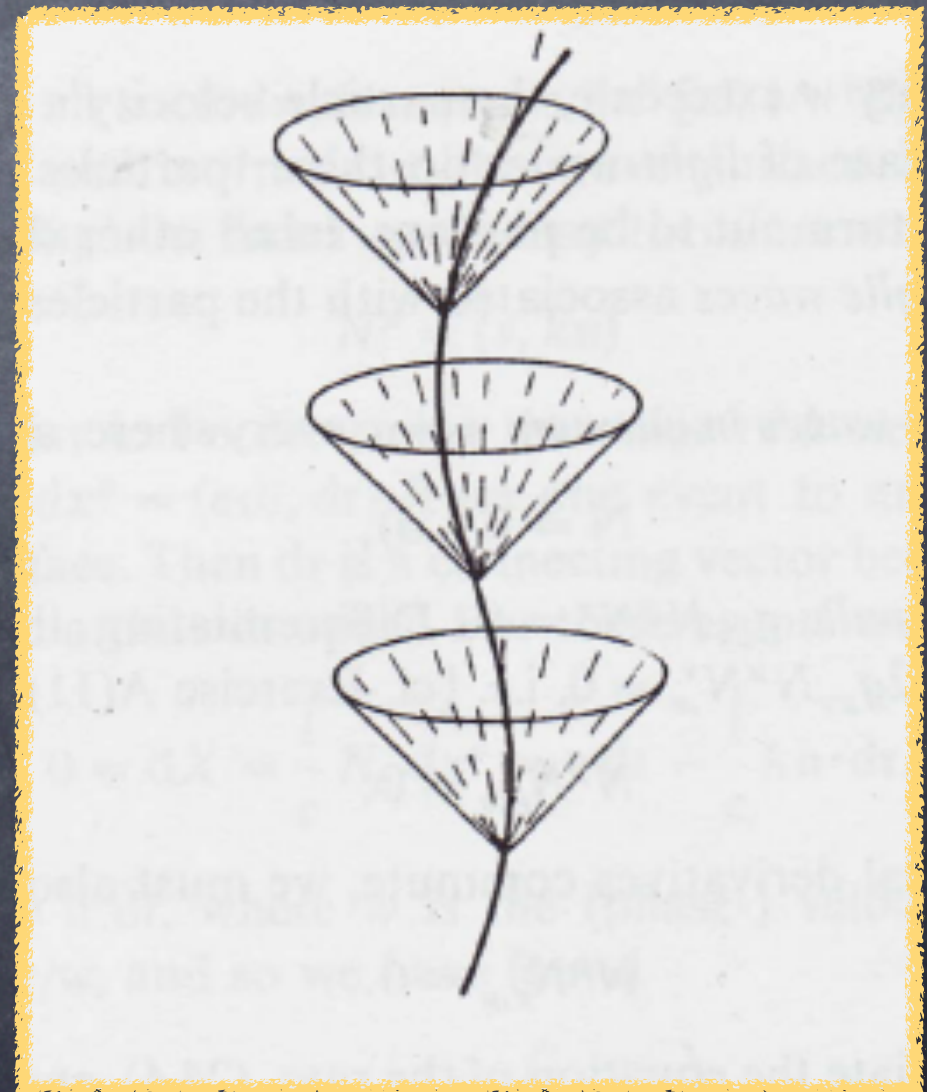
so that the 4-velocity is always a time-like 4-vector whose Lorentz transformation is given by

$$\bar{U}^0 = \gamma(U^0 - \beta U^1)$$

$$\bar{U}^1 = \gamma(U^1 - \beta U^0)$$

$$\bar{U}^2 = U^2$$

$$\bar{U}^3 = U^3$$





If you change from a system  $S$  to  $S$ -bar, that moves with  $v$  relative to  $S$  along a common  $x$ -axis, only the velocities along the  $x$ -axis are affected, the velocity components in the  $y$  and  $z$  directions are not affected.

Let us first write down the transformation rules for the  $dx^\mu$  (the components of the displacement)

$$\frac{d\bar{x}^0}{d\tau} = \gamma \left( \frac{dx^0}{d\tau} - \beta \frac{dx^1}{d\tau} \right)$$

$$\frac{d\bar{x}^1}{d\tau} = \gamma \left( \frac{dx^1}{d\tau} - \beta \frac{dx^0}{d\tau} \right)$$

$$\frac{d\bar{x}^2}{d\tau} = \frac{dx^2}{d\tau}$$

$$\frac{d\bar{x}^3}{d\tau} = \frac{dx^3}{d\tau}$$

$$d\bar{x}^0 = \gamma(dx^0 - \beta dx^1)$$

$$d\bar{x}^1 = \gamma(dx^1 - \beta dx^0)$$

$$d\bar{x}^2 = dx^2$$

$$d\bar{x}^3 = dx^3$$

since proper time is invariant  
(your own clock goes the same, it does not matter whether you are in  $S$  or  $S$ -bar)


$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - V^2/c^2}}$$



## 4-acceleration

The relation between the 4-acceleration  $\mathbf{A} = \frac{d^2 x^\mu}{d\tau^2} = \frac{d\mathbf{U}}{d\tau}$  and the 3-acceleration  $\mathbf{a} = \frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2}$  is more complicated

$$\mathbf{A} = \frac{d\mathbf{U}}{d\tau} = \gamma \frac{d\mathbf{U}}{dt} = \gamma \frac{d}{dt}(\gamma c, \gamma \mathbf{u}) = \gamma \left( \frac{d\gamma}{dt} c, \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \mathbf{u} + \gamma \mathbf{a} \right)$$

  
 $\gamma = \gamma(u)$

But in the instantaneous rest frame of the particle ( $u = 0$ )

this expression simplifies to  $\mathbf{A} = (0, \mathbf{a})$

since the derivative of  $\gamma$  contains a factor  $u$

Thus  $\mathbf{A} = 0$  if and only if the proper acceleration  $\alpha$  

magnitude of the three-acceleration in the rest frame vanishes



Similarly

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{A} = \alpha^2$$

$$\mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$$

$\mathbf{U}$  and  $\mathbf{A}$  have analogues not only in classical kinematics, namely  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{a}$ , but also in the differential geometry of curves:

They are the analogues (with respect to the particle's worldline) of the unit tangent vector  $dx^i/dl$

and principal normal vector  $d^2x^i/dl^2$  of a space curve  $x^i = x^i(l)$

Thus,  $\alpha$  is a measure of the curvature of the worldline (because we have taken  $\tau$  rather than  $l$  as the parameter, the actual curvature of the worldline is  $\alpha/c^2$ )


$$\mathbf{A}^2 = \gamma^2 \left[ (\dot{\gamma} \mathbf{u} + \gamma \mathbf{a})^2 - \dot{\gamma}^2 c^2 \right]$$

Using  $\dot{\gamma} = \gamma^3 u \dot{u} / c^2$        $\mathbf{u}^2 = u^2$        $\mathbf{u} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{u}} = u \dot{u}$

$$\alpha^2 = \gamma^2 [\dot{\gamma}^2 u^2 + 2\gamma \dot{\gamma} u \dot{u} + \gamma^2 a^2 - \dot{\gamma}^2 c^2] = \gamma^6 u^2 \dot{u}^2 / c^2 + \gamma^4 a^2 = \gamma^6 [a^2 - c^{-2} (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{a})^2]$$



# Rectilinear motion with constant proper acceleration

We can integrate  $\frac{d}{dt}[\gamma(u)u]$  at once, choosing  $t = 0$  when  $u = 0$    
 $\alpha t = \gamma(u)u$

Squaring, solving for  $u$ , integrating once more and setting the constant of integration equal to zero, yields the following equation for the motion:  $x^2 - c^2t^2 = c^4/\alpha^2$

Thus, rectilinear motion with constant proper acceleration is called hyperbolic motion

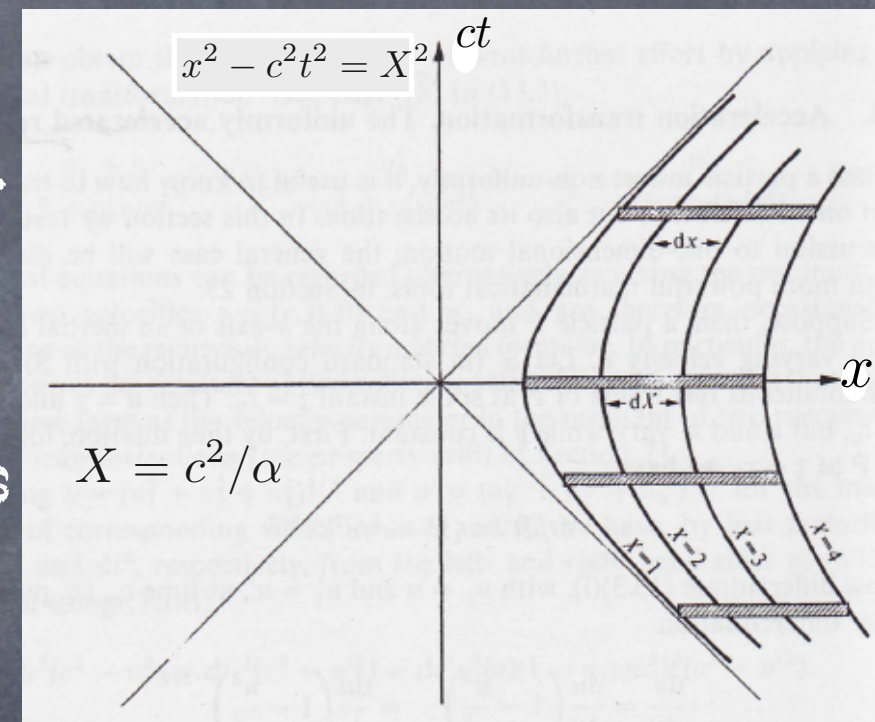
The corresponding classical calculation gives

$$x = \frac{1}{2}\alpha t^2 \text{ i.e. parabolic motion}$$

Note that  $\alpha = \infty$  implies  $x = \pm ct$

hence the proper acceleration of a photon can be taken to be infinite

Note also, that a photon emitted a distance  $c^2/\alpha$  behind the particle when the latter is momentarily at rest, cannot catch up with it (its graph is the asymptote to the particle's hyperbola)





# Uniformly accelerated rod

Consider next the equation

$$x^2 - c^2 t^2 = X^2 \quad \text{☺}$$

for a continuous range of positive values of the parameter  $X$ .  
For each fixed  $X$  it represents a particle moving with constant proper acceleration  $c^2/X$  in the  $x$ -direction.

Altogether it represents, a rigidly moving rod.

By the rigid motion of a body one understands a motion during which every small volume element of the body shrinks always in the direction of its motion in proportion to its instantaneous Lorentz factor relative to a given inertial frame.

Thus every small volume element preserves its dimensions in its own instantaneous rest frames, which shows that the definition is intrinsic, i.e. frame-independent.

We can find by implicit differentiation of ☺ the velocity  $u$  and the corresponding factor of a point moving so that  $X = \text{constant}$ :

$$u = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{c^2 t}{x}, \quad \gamma(u) = \frac{x}{X}$$

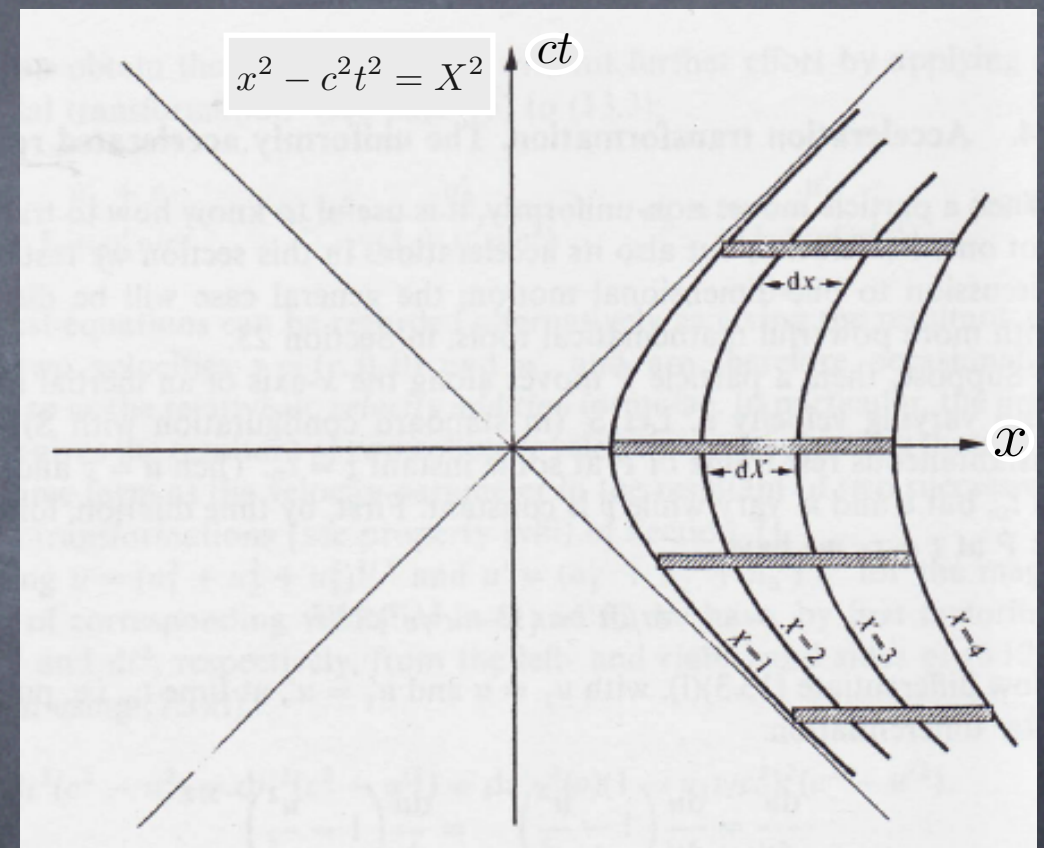


We can find by implicit differentiation of  $\odot$  the velocity  $u$  and the corresponding Lorentz factor of a point moving so that  $X = \text{constant}$ :

$$u = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{c^2 t}{x}, \quad \gamma(u) = \frac{x}{X}$$

Consider the motion of 2 points whose parameters  $X$  differ by  $dX$   
 ➔ at any fixed time  $t$  we have

$$dx = \frac{X dX}{x} = \frac{dX}{\gamma(u)}$$



At every instant  $t = \text{constant}$  the 2 points are separated by a coordinate distance  $dx$  inversely proportional to their Lorentz factor and consequently the element bounded by these points moves rigidly ➤  $dX$  is recognized as the proper length (Lorentz-Fitzgerald contraction shortens it)



# A simple accelerated worldline

A particle moves on the  $x$ -axis along a worldline described parametrically by (we adopt natural units where the  $c = 1$ )

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

where  $a$  is a constant with the dimension of inverse length

The parameter  $\sigma$  ranges from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$

For each value of  $\sigma$ , the parametric equations determine a point  $(t, x)$  in spacetime

(The  $y$ - and  $z$ - dimensions are unimportant for this example and will be suppressed in what follows)

As  $\sigma$  varies, the world line is swept out



# A simple accelerated worldline (cont'd)

The worldline is the hyperbola  $\Rightarrow x^2 - t^2 = a^{-2}$

It could alternatively specified by giving  $x(t) = (t^2 + a^{-2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$

but the parametric specification is more evenhanded between  $x$  and  $t$

The worldline is accelerated because is not straight

Proper time  $\tau$  along the worldline is related to  $\sigma \Rightarrow$

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

Fixing  $\tau$  to be zero when  $\sigma$  is zero,  $\tau = a^{-1} \sigma$ , and the worldline can be expressed with proper time as the parameter

$$t(\tau) = a^{-1} \sinh(a\tau) \qquad x(\tau) = a^{-1} \cosh(a\tau)$$



# 4-velocity of a simple worldline

The 4-velocity  $U$  of the worldline

$$U^0 \equiv dt/d\tau = \cosh(a\tau)$$

$$U^1 \equiv dx/d\tau = \sinh(a\tau)$$

This is correctly normalized

$$U \cdot U = -(U^0)^2 + (U^1)^2 = -\cosh^2(a\tau) + \sinh^2(a\tau) = -1$$

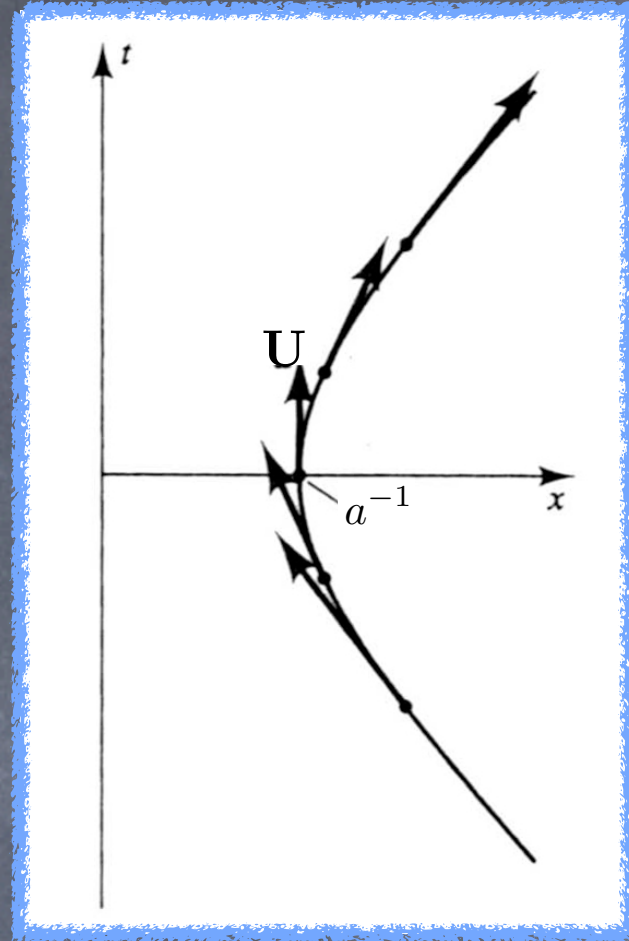
The particle's 3-velocity is

$$u^1 = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dx/d\tau}{dt/d\tau} = \tanh(a\tau)$$

This never exceeds the speed of light ( $|u^1| = 1$ )  
but approaches it at  $\tau = \pm\infty$



# A simple accelerated worldline (cont'd)



This spacetime diagram shows the worldline specified parametrically in terms of proper time  $\tau$

The points label values of  $a\tau$  from  $-1$  to  $1$  in steps of  $\frac{1}{2}$   
4-velocity vectors  $U$  are shown for these points at half size

The next values of  $a\tau$  of  $1.5$  and  $-1.5$  are off the graph

The points are equidistant along the curve in the geometry of spacetime and the 4-vectors are all of equal length