

7 Relativistic Velocity and Acceleration

Non-relativistic mechanics uses $\mathbf{x}(t) = x_i(t)$ to describe trajectory. This is not a candidate for a relativistic treatment as the dependent variable, \mathbf{x} , is a function of the independent variable t , but these should be on a more even footing in relativity. x^μ is more natural – but how may a worldline be labeled, i.e. a sequence of “events” x_1^μ, x_2^μ, \dots describing where/when a particle was?

Proper Time as a Parameter and its use in defining the relativistic velocity

The time as measured in the particle’s rest frame is invariant under Lorentz transformations: the **proper time** τ . Since τ is a Lorentz invariant it allows an observer-independent label for the worldline, $x^\mu(\tau)$.

To obtain the velocity, note the **infinitesimal** invariant interval:

$$\begin{aligned} (ds)^2 &= -c^2 d\tau^2 = -c^2 dt^2 + d\mathbf{x}^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \left(\frac{d\tau}{dt} \right)^2 &= 1 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} \right)^2 \\ &= 1 - (v/c)^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \frac{dt}{d\tau} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}} \\ &= \gamma(v) . \end{aligned}$$

which is the expression of **time dilation** ($dt \gg d\tau$ as $v \rightarrow c$).

The 4-Velocity

Now note:

$$\dot{x}^\mu \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} = \left(c \frac{dt}{d\tau}, \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{d\tau} \right) \quad (7.1)$$

This transforms the same way as x^μ under Lorentz transformations (as τ is invariant), i.e.:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dx'^\mu}{d\tau} &= \Lambda^\mu_\nu \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \dot{x}'^\mu &= \Lambda^\mu_\nu \dot{x}^\nu \end{aligned}$$

i.e. \dot{x}^μ are the components of a **four-vector**. \dot{x}^μ measures “rate of change” of particle along worldline. This is the natural generalisation of velocity – called the **4-velocity**.

What is the relation to 3-velocity, $d\mathbf{x}/dt = \mathbf{v}$?

$$\begin{aligned} u^\mu &= \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} = \left(c \frac{dt}{d\tau}, \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{d\tau} \right) = \left(\frac{dx^0}{d\tau}, \frac{dx^i}{d\tau} \right) \\ &= \left(c \frac{dt}{d\tau}, \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt} \right) \\ &= c \frac{dt}{d\tau} \left(1, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \right) \\ &= c \gamma(v) \left(1, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \right) \quad (7.2) \\ \Rightarrow \quad u^\mu &= \gamma(c, \mathbf{v}) = (\gamma c, \gamma \mathbf{v}) . \quad (7.3) \end{aligned}$$

Notice the **very important distinction** between the spatial components of u^μ , $\mathbf{u} = \gamma(v)\mathbf{v}$, and the three-velocity \mathbf{v} .

7.1 The 4-Acceleration

(Note: $\dot{\cdot}$ on non-invariant or non-4-vector objects denotes d/dt ; $\dot{\cdot}$ on invariant or 4-vector quantities denotes $d/d\tau$.)

The **4-acceleration** is naturally defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^\mu &= \frac{d^2x^\mu}{d\tau^2} = \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{d}{dt} \left(c \frac{dt}{d\tau}, \frac{dx}{d\tau} \right) \\ &= \gamma \frac{d}{dt} \gamma(c, \mathbf{v}) \quad (\text{using } \gamma = dt/d\tau) \\ &= \gamma \left(c \frac{d\gamma}{dt}, \frac{d\gamma}{dt} \mathbf{v} + \gamma \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} \right) \\ \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^\mu &= \gamma(c\dot{\gamma}, \dot{\gamma}\mathbf{v} + \gamma\mathbf{a}) .\end{aligned}\tag{7.4}$$

Properties of the 4-Acceleration

Note:

$$\dot{\gamma} = \frac{d}{dt}(1 - (v/c)^2)^{-1/2} \tag{7.5}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2}(1 - (v/c)^2)^{-3/2} \cdot (-2) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{v}}}{c^2} \tag{7.6}$$

$$= \gamma(v)^3 \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{v}}}{c^2} . \tag{7.7}$$

So in the rest frame of the particle, Σ^0 :

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\gamma} &\propto \mathbf{v} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{v}} = 0 \quad \text{as } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^\mu &= (0, \mathbf{a}) .\end{aligned}$$

Observations:

- (i) No paradox: we can have $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{a} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
- (ii) In general, $\alpha^i \neq \lambda a^i$, i.e. the spatial components of α are **not** parallel to \mathbf{a} .

Invariants of 4-Velocity and 4-Acceleration

We may form the invariant of the 4-velocity

$$u^\mu u_\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \frac{dx_\mu}{d\tau} = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \eta_{\mu\nu} \frac{dx^\nu}{d\tau} . \tag{7.8}$$

But:

$$-c^2 d\tau^2 = dx^\mu \eta_{\mu\nu} dx^\nu \tag{7.9}$$

So by comparison (i.e. divide by $d\tau^2$):

$$u^\mu u_\mu = -c^2 \tag{7.10}$$

i.e. $u^\mu u_\mu$ is **timelike**, appropriately for a massive particle.

Notice with Lorentz invariants we may always chose the frame to evaluate them. So for the acceleration, evaluate in the instantaneous rest frame of the particle:

$$\alpha^\mu \alpha_\mu = -0^2 + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = a^2 \geq 0 ,$$

so 4-acceleration is spacelike.

Orthogonality of 4-Velocity and 4-Acceleration

Note (as c^2 is constant):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\tau}(u^\mu u_\mu) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \dot{u}^\mu u_\mu + u^\mu \dot{u}_\mu &= 0 . \end{aligned}$$

But we know in general $A_\mu B^\mu = A^\mu B_\mu$. So:

$$\dot{u}^\mu u_\mu + u_\mu \dot{u}^\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \quad \alpha^\mu u_\mu = 0 \quad (7.11)$$

So α and u are “ \perp ” (orthogonal in the Minkowski sense). **Check** in Σ^0 : $u^\mu = (c, \mathbf{0})$, $\alpha^\mu = (0, \mathbf{a})$.
So: $u^\mu \alpha_\mu = c \cdot 0 + \mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 0$ (verified)

8 Equations of Motion

We need to seek a generalisation of Newton's 2nd law:

$$\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \mathbf{F} \quad (8.1)$$

Remember this was covariant under Galilean transformations (i.e. its **form** was the same).

The previous section suggests a generalisation of Eq. (8.1), where m_0 being the rest mass of the particle:

$$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow m_0 u^\mu = p^\mu \quad (8.2)$$

$$\mathbf{F} \rightarrow f^\mu \quad (8.2)$$

$$t \rightarrow \tau . \quad (8.3)$$

I.e. \mathbf{p} , \mathbf{F} become 4-vectors. We will take the non-relativistic limit to aid in understanding these four-vectors.

The 4-Momentum

Examine p^μ :

$$p^\mu = m_0 u^\mu = m_0 \gamma(v)(c, \mathbf{v}) \quad (8.4)$$

Does it reduce to sensible quantities as $(v/c) \rightarrow 0$?

Firstly the spatial components, p^i :

$$\begin{aligned} p^i &= m_0 u^i = m_0 \gamma(v) v^i \\ &\approx m_0 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{v}{c} \right)^2 \right) v^i \\ &\approx m_0 v^i + m_0 v^i \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{v}{c} \right)^2 \end{aligned} \quad (8.5)$$

So we find non-relativistic momentum as the limiting expression, with the first correction being cubic in the velocity. We interpret m_0 as '**rest mass**' or '**proper mass**', i.e. mass in rest frame of particle.

Then equation (8.4) implies the inertial mass, m , is velocity-dependent:

$$m = m_0 \gamma(v) \quad (8.6)$$

What about the time component, p^0 ? Let us identify its role by taking the non-relativistic limit

$$\begin{aligned} p^0 &= m_0 \gamma(v) c \\ &\approx m_0 \left(c + \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{c} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{c} \left(m_0 c^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_0 v^2 \right) , \end{aligned} \quad (8.7)$$

i.e. the sum of the rest mass energy and the non-relativistic kinetic energy. Thus it is natural to interpret:

$$p^0 = \frac{E}{c} \quad \text{with} \quad E = m_0 \gamma c^2 = mc^2 , \quad (8.8)$$

Einstein's famous relation. We have not shown that E contains potential energy, see later discussion.

Relativistic form of Newton's Second Law

Newton's second law has become:

$$\dot{p}^\mu = \frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} = f^\mu \quad (8.9)$$

In the non-relativistic case, if $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ then $\dot{\mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{0}$, so momentum is conserved.

Here:

$$\dot{p}^\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\tau} \left(\frac{E}{c}, m_0 \gamma \mathbf{v} \right) = 0 \quad (8.10)$$

expressing conservation of **both** E and “ \mathbf{p} ”.

Lorentz Invariant of 4-Momentum

What is the Lorentz invariant $p^\mu p_\mu$?

$$p^\mu p_\mu = m_0^2 u^\mu u_\mu = -m_0^2 c^2, \quad (8.11)$$

i.e. p^μ is timelike with a magnitude ‘momentum at speed of light’ squared. The use of Lorentz invariants in collisions between fast particles is powerful, especially combined with energy/momentum conservation.

Example: Linearly Accelerated Motion

Consider the case of **rectilinear** motion, constant 3-acceleration \mathbf{a} , where $\mathbf{a} = a\hat{x}$. We will use the standard configuration in changing reference frames.

In the instantaneous rest frame of the particle:

$$\alpha'^\mu = (0, a, 0, 0) \quad (8.12)$$

This is transformed from the lab frame, α^μ :

$$\alpha'^\mu = \bar{\Lambda}^\mu{}_\nu \alpha^\nu \quad (8.13)$$

In matrix form (omitting the untransformed y - and z -components):

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ a \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma \\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^0 \\ \alpha^1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{particle rest frame} \leftarrow \bar{\Lambda} \leftarrow \text{lab frame}). \quad (8.14)$$

Applying the inverse Lorentz transformation to both sides of Eq. (8.14):

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & +\beta\gamma \\ +\beta\gamma & \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ a \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^0 \\ \alpha^1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{lab frame}) \\ \begin{pmatrix} \beta\gamma a \\ \gamma a \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \alpha^0 \\ \alpha^1 \end{pmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

So $\alpha^1 = \gamma a$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du^1}{d\tau} &= \gamma \frac{du^1}{dt} = \gamma a = \alpha^1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \frac{du^1}{dt} &= a \\ \Rightarrow \quad u^1 &= at. \end{aligned}$$

(Note: a is constant. Assuming from rest in lab frame, $t = 0$.)

So:

$$\begin{aligned} u^1 &= \gamma \frac{dx^1}{dt} = at \\ \Rightarrow \quad \frac{v_x}{\sqrt{1 - (v_x/c)^2}} &= at \end{aligned}$$

Solve for v_x :

$$v_x = \frac{at}{\sqrt{1 + (at/c)^2}} \approx \begin{cases} at & \text{for } t \ll \frac{c}{a} \quad (\text{Newtonian}) \\ c & \text{for } t \gg \frac{c}{a} \quad (\text{Relativistic limit}) . \end{cases} \quad (8.15)$$

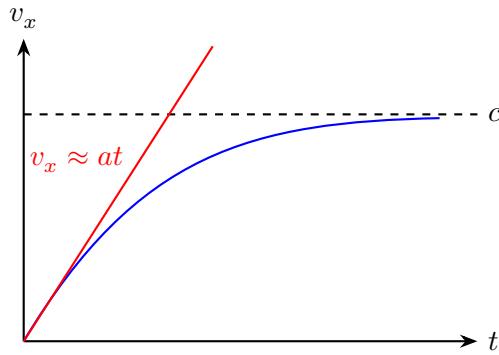


Figure 8.1: Velocity as a function of time for constant proper acceleration, showing the Newtonian limit at small t and asymptotic approach to c at large t .

We may also deduce:

$$\begin{aligned} x(T) &= \int_0^T dt v_x(t) \\ &= \int_0^T dt \frac{at}{\sqrt{1 + (at/c)^2}} \\ &= \frac{c^2}{a} \left[\sqrt{1 + (at/c)^2} \right]_0^T \\ &= \frac{c^2}{a} \left(\sqrt{1 + (aT/c)^2} - 1 \right) \quad (8.16) \end{aligned}$$

$$\approx \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} aT^2 & \text{for } T \ll \frac{c}{a} \quad (\text{Newtonian}) \\ cT & \text{for } T \gg \frac{c}{a} \quad (\text{Relativistic limit}) . \end{cases} \quad (8.17)$$

Exercise: Calculation using rapidity.

8.1 4-Force

We postulated that:

$$\frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} = f^\mu \Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\tau}(m_0 u^\mu) = f^\mu \quad (8.18)$$

Note: $dm_0/d\tau$ may not be zero. E.g.: (i) rockets (obviously); (ii) particles (e.g. “balls”) during collision, deformation implies potential energy and that adds to mass; (iii) More subtly, a body being heated in its rest frame.

Let us now examine the time and spatial components of f^μ

$$f^\mu = (f^0, f^i) = \left(\frac{d}{d\tau} \frac{E}{c}, \frac{d}{d\tau} \mathbf{p} \right) = \gamma \left(\frac{dE}{dt} \frac{1}{c}, \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \right) \quad (8.19)$$

where $\mathbf{p} = m_0 \gamma \mathbf{v}$.

So **power**, dE/dt , seems a natural ingredient in the time component of force. Note that:

$$f^i = \gamma \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \gamma \mathbf{F} \quad (8.20)$$

So unlike Newtonian mechanics, “ \mathbf{F} ” is not invariant under Lorentz transformations.

Rate of Doing Work

Note that $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{F}$ is power or rate of doing work (Newtonian).

So consider:

$$\begin{aligned} u_\mu f^\mu &= u_\mu \frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau} \\ &= \frac{1}{2m_0} \frac{d}{d\tau} (p_\mu p^\mu) \\ &= \frac{-1}{2m_0} \frac{d}{d\tau} (m_0 c)^2 \\ &= -\frac{dm_0}{d\tau} c^2 \end{aligned} \quad (8.21)$$

i.e. “4-version” is only non-zero if rest mass is changing with time. So:

$$u_\mu f^\mu = -\gamma^2 c \frac{dE}{dt} \cdot \frac{1}{c} + \gamma \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (8.22)$$

But $\mathbf{u} = \gamma \mathbf{v}$:

$$\Rightarrow u_\mu f^\mu = \gamma^2 \left\{ -\frac{dE}{dt} + \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{v} \right\} \quad (8.23)$$

So if $dm_0/d\tau = 0$ then $u_\mu f^\mu = 0$, and:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{F} \quad (8.24)$$

So apparently the Newtonian relation—BUT remember that $\mathbf{p} = m_0 \gamma \mathbf{v}$, so the relation between \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{a} is still Einsteinian.