

# Introduction to Modern Physics

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# 1 Modern Physics

- Modern physics is a set of developments that emerged around 1900
- This led to the development of the Theory of Relativity and Quantum Theory
- Some theories of classical physics which helped develop modern physics, include:
  - Newton's law of mechanics, which describes interactions among microscopic particles
  - Maxwell's equations, which unify electricity and magnetism
  - The laws of thermodynamics
- In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, two theories emerged:
  - Special Theory of Relativity (1905) — Einstein
  - Quantum Theory (1900) — Planck
- Classical Relativity
  - A theory of relativity provides a mathematical basis for expressing physical laws in different frames of reference
  - The mathematical basis is called a transformation
  - Ex. Two observers,  $O$ , who is still, and  $O'$ , who is moving, are at rest in their own frames of reference (FOR). Relative velocity is defined as  $\vec{u}$ . For this course, an inertial FOR will be used, meaning Newton's law holds, where  $v = 0$ , or constant, unless  $\vec{F} \neq 0$ .  $O$  and  $O'$  observe the same event.
    - \* Four quantities describe this event for  $O$ :  $x, y, z, t$
    - \* For  $O'$ , these quantities are:  $x', y', z', t'$
    - \* Assuming postulate:  $t = t'$ 
      - Also, at  $t = 0$ , the two origins coincide
    - \* To find  $x'$  from  $x$ , this would become  $x' = x - ut$
    - \*  $y'$  and  $z'$  remain equal to  $y$  and  $z$ , respectively
    - \* This is defined as a Galilean Transformation
  - \* As velocity is the first derivative, this yields 
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} v_x = \frac{dx}{dt} \\ v_y = \frac{dy}{dt} \\ v_z = \frac{dz}{dt} \end{array} \right. \text{ and } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} v_{x'} = v_x - u \\ v_{y'} = v_y \\ v_{z'} = v_z \end{array} \right.$$

for  $O$  and  $O'$ , respectively
  - \* This means the acceleration components are all equal
- Consequences of classical relativity

- From Maxwell’s equations, it is concluded that light is an electromagnetic wave
  - \* Light travels in some medium, at speed  $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}} \approx 3 \times 10^8 \left[ \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$
  - \* A postulate from Maxwell is that there is a preferred frame of reference with “ether” at rest, in which the speed of light is precisely  $c$
  - \* Ether — An invisible, massless medium
- Michelson-Morley Experiment (1887)

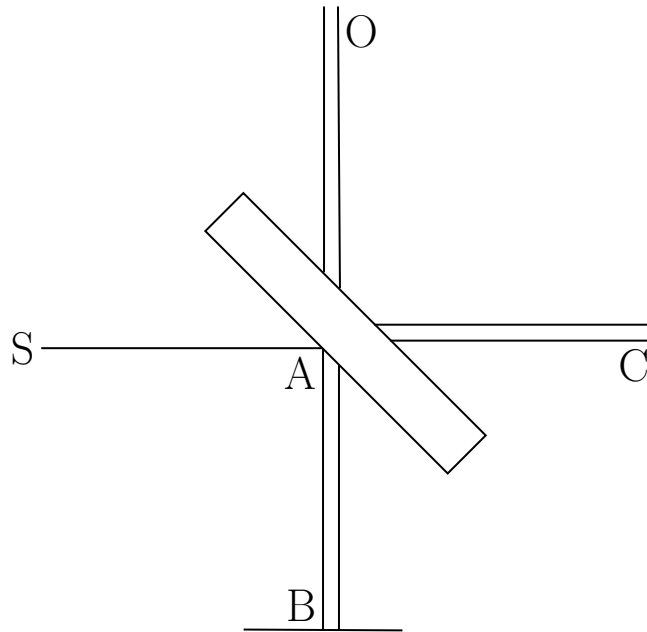


Figure 1: The Michelson-Morley Setup

- S is the source, O is an observer, and A, B, and C, are points along the path of light
- Generated a “fringe” pattern using light and mirrors
- Interference or “fringe” appears due to phase difference of light
  - \* Path difference:  $2|AB - AC|$
  - \* Light travels faster through a cross-stream pattern
- With the same setup shown, they then rotated the device  $90^\circ$ 
  - \* 2<sup>nd</sup> contribution then changes sign
  - \* Thus, phase difference changes
  - \* Number of fringes was measured

- \* The result: There was no observable change of fringe pattern — the movement of ether was mapped out to be a speed of  $u < 5 \left[ \frac{\text{km}}{\text{s}} \right]$
- \* This experiment was redone over the course of many years, most recently Herman et al. (2009), with  $u < 10^{-8} \left[ \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{s}} \right]$
- This indicates that  $c$  is a constant, in any inertial reference frame
- Einstein’s postulates for inertial relativity
  1. The principle of relativity — The physical laws are the same in all inertial reference frames
  2. The principle of the constancy of the speed of light — The speed of light in free space has the same value  $c$  in all inertial reference frames
  - The second postulate requires observers in all inertial reference frames to measure the same speed of  $c$  for the light beam
  - This explains the failure of Michelson & Morley
  - Now we can “dispose” of the ether hypothesis
  1. 1<sup>st</sup> postulate doesn’t allow a preferred frame of reference where ether stays at rest
  2. 2<sup>nd</sup> postulate doesn’t allow only a single frame of reference with light moving at speed  $c$

## 2 The Relativity of Time

- Time is relative
  - The time for light to hit a mirror and bounce back would be calculated by
 

$$\Delta t_0 = \frac{2L_0}{c}$$
  - If an observer were to watch a mirror moving at speed  $\vec{u}$ , as shown in figure 2, the light would appear to have a triangular path
  - This would mean that the time difference is scaled by  $\left( \sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}} \right)^{-1}$ , which
 

means

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}}$$
  - This phenomenon is known as time dilation, which means that time moves slower for an observer moving faster than another observer
 

$O$  measures a longer time than  $O'$  — this is a general result of special relativity — even the growth and aging of living systems is affected

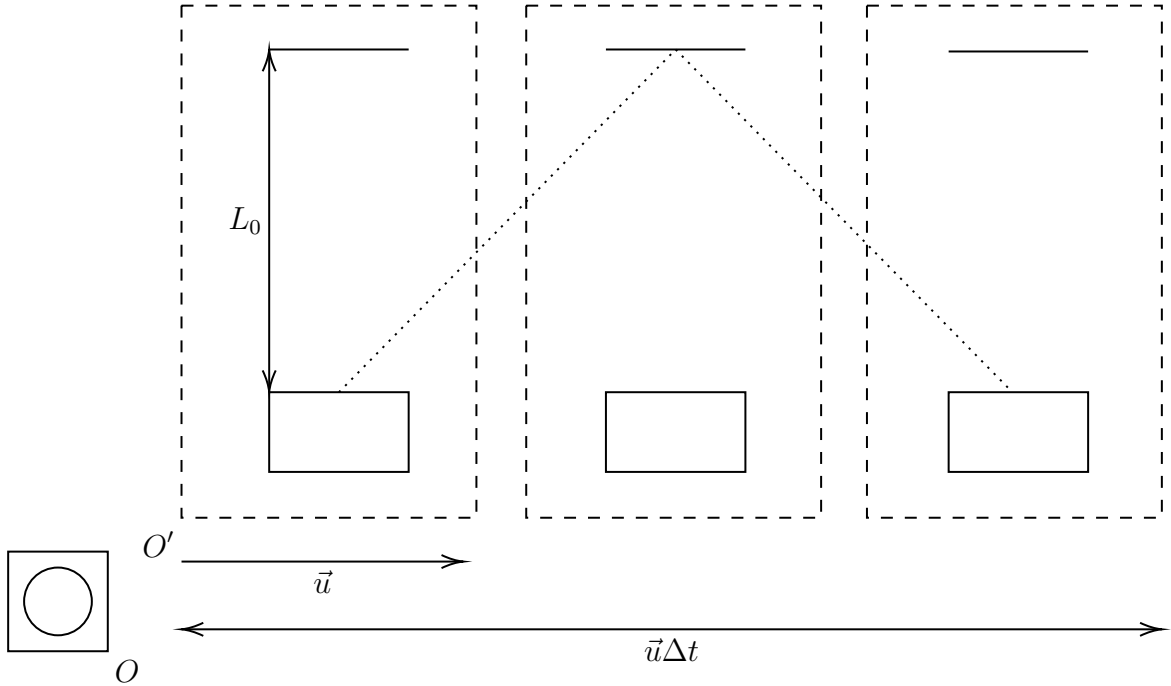


Figure 2:  $O$  observes the movement of  $O'$

- $\Delta t_0$  is known as the “proper time”, which is the time measured in the same reference frame as the motion
- $\Delta t$  is always longer than  $\Delta t_0$ , no matter what  $\vec{u}$  is
- This experiment is verified by  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{decaying elemental particles} \\ \text{atomic clocks} \end{array} \right.$
- Example: muon  $\rightarrow$  Muon is the combination of air and cosmic rays; it decays with  $t_0 = 2.2[\mu\text{s}]$
- The muon should decay significantly faster than it is able to reach Earth, and, thus, it shouldn't be measurable from the Earth's surface — but it still is; this is because the muon experiences time more slowly, slowing its decay in our frame of reference from Earth
  - \* Muons can not actually travel at the speed of light; the speed is closer to  $0.999978c$

### 3 The Relativity of Length

- Another consequence is that length is relative; the moving device is now timed sideways

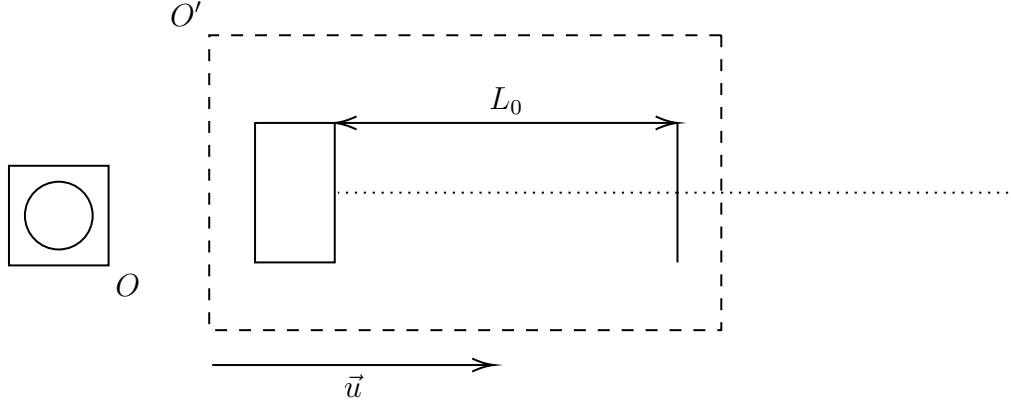


Figure 3: Length Becomes Relative

- The light is emitted when  $O'$  is at its starting position, and reaches the mirror at time  $\Delta t_1$ ; it travels back to the emitter in interval  $\Delta t_2$
- This results in a series of calculations:

$$c\Delta t_1 = L + u\Delta t_1 \Rightarrow \Delta t_1 = \frac{L}{c - u}$$

$$c\Delta t_2 = L - u\Delta t_2 \Rightarrow \Delta t_2 = \frac{L}{c + u}$$

$$\Delta t_{\text{total}} = \frac{L}{c - u} + \frac{L}{c + u} =$$

$$\frac{2Lc}{c^2 - u^2} \Rightarrow \frac{2L}{c} \frac{c^2}{c^2 - u^2}$$

- Finally, this yields

$$L = L_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}$$

- This effect is called “length contraction”
- $O'$  measures the proper length,  $L_0$ , because it is at rest with respect to the object
- Conclusion: An object in motion is measured to have a shorter length than at when it is at rest
- In the case of the muon, an observer on Earth experiences time dilation, while an observer following the muon experiences length contraction

- \* A time dilation in one reference frame (say,  $O$  on Earth), is equivalent to a length contraction in another reference frame (say,  $O'$  traveling with the muon)

## 4 The Doppler Effect

- Classical Doppler Effect

- An observer ( $O$ ) moving relative to a source ( $S$ ) of a (sound) wave detects a frequency ( $f'$ ) different from that emitted by the source ( $f$ )
- The difference experienced is given by the formula below, where  $v$  is the speed of the wave in a given medium,  $v_s$  is the speed of  $S$  relative to the medium, and  $v_o$  is the speed of the observer:

$$f' = f \frac{v \pm v_o}{v \mp v_s}$$

- The first option (addition in numerator and subtraction in denominator) occurs when  $O$  and  $S$  are moving toward each other; the second option (subtraction in the numerator and addition in the denominator) occurs when  $O$  and  $S$  are moving away from each other
- This means that the speed of  $O$  and  $S$  with respect to the medium determines the Doppler Effect; however, for light, no medium is necessary, meaning a theory for light is necessary, where only the relative motion between  $S$  and  $O$  matters
  - \* This led to the development of the Theory of Relativity
- Consider  $S$  at rest in the frame of reference of observer  $O$ . Observer  $O'$  moves relative to  $S$  at speed  $u$ .  $O$  observes  $S$  to emit  $N$  waves at frequency  $f$  in a time interval given by:

$$\Delta t_o = \frac{N}{f}$$

- In the reference frame of  $O'$ , the time interval is  $\Delta t'$  due to time dilation, and the wavelength becomes

$$\lambda' = \frac{c\Delta t' + u\Delta t'}{N} = \frac{(c+u)\Delta t'}{f\Delta t_o}$$

$$f' = \frac{c}{\lambda'} = \frac{f\Delta t_o}{\Delta t'} \frac{c}{c+u}$$



- Applying the formula for time dilation, the frequency in the reference frame of  $O'$  becomes:

$$f' = f \frac{\sqrt{1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}}}{1 + \frac{u}{c}} = f \frac{\sqrt{1 + \frac{u}{c}} \sqrt{1 - \frac{u}{c}}}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{u}{c}}} \\ = \boxed{f \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{u}{c}}{1 + \frac{u}{c}}}}$$

- This is known as the relativistic Doppler Effect<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>The sign of  $u$  changes if  $S$  and  $O'$  are moving toward each other