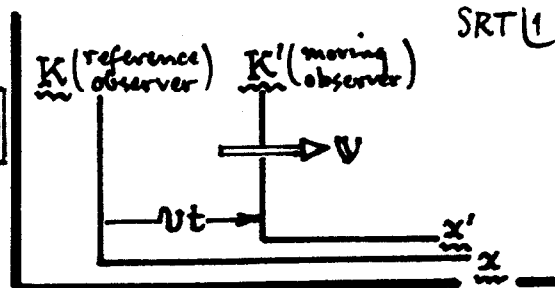


Trouble with the Galilean Transformation.

Special Relativity
SRT

[Ref. Jkⁿ Ch. 11]

Postulates and Lorentz Transformation.



1) By 1905, A. Einstein had pondered the following dilemma for observers in uniform relative motion at velocity $v = \text{const} \dots$

A. Newtonian mechanics was invariant under a Galilean Transfⁿ: $x' = x - vt$, $t' = t$.

(i.e. if $F = dp/dt$ in K , then -- under Galilean Transfⁿ -- $F' = dp'/dt'$ in K').

B. Maxwell's E & M theory was not invariant under the same Galilean Transfⁿ, e.g.

$$\text{if } \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right)^2 \right\} \psi = 0 \leftarrow \text{wave eqn for a light pulse in frame } K;$$

and, $K \rightarrow K'$ under a Galilean Transfⁿ: $x \rightarrow x' = x - vt$, $t \rightarrow t' = t$;

$$\text{then } \left\{ \left[1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right] \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x'} \right)^2 + \frac{2v}{c^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x' \partial t'} \right) - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t'} \right)^2 \right\} \psi' = 0 \leftarrow \text{wave eqn for "same" light pulse in frame } K'. \quad (1)$$

Evidently, light appears to behave differently in the relatively moving frames.

If you adopt the point-of-view that physics should operate the same way everywhere in the universe (same physics here as in Andromeda galaxy), the dilemma was that mechanics and E & M could not both be right, since they transform from K to K' in different ways under a GT (Galilean Transformation). There were 3 alternatives:

1. E & M was wrong. A correct version would be invariant under a GT, just as mechanics.

2. GT & mechanics were OK, but E & M did not show a proper GT because it was valid in only one preferred frame, viz. $v = 0$ (i.e. "ether frame", ^W "lightspeed $\equiv c$ ").

3. Mechanics and the GT were wrong. The correct $K \rightarrow K'$ transfⁿ would preserve form-invariance for both E & M and a corrected version of mechanics.

→ Einstein thought alternative #3 was the most sensible, since ~ nobody believed #1 (that E & M could be wrong), and no expt. had verified #2 (that "ether" existed).

2) To implement alternative #3 above, Einstein adopted two postulates:

- ① The laws of physics are of the same form in all inertial frames. [¶] (2)
- ② The speed of light, c , is a universal const, independent of motion between source & observer.

From these two (reasonable) postulates comes all of Special Relativity Theory.

REMARKS

- Postulate ① is "just" a claim that the laws of physics are valid everywhere in the universe (!), so attempts to verify the postulates have focussed on checking ② -- i.e. trying to find a situation where lightspeed c depends on source-observer motion.
- Checks on ② started with the Michelson-Morley expt (1887), an attempt to detect $\Delta c/c$ due to earth's motion through the "luminiferous aether", and such checks continue to the present day -- with sophisticated expts involving Mössbauer Ef-
fect [Jk² pp. 508-512] and observations on high-energy ($\sim 6 \text{ GeV}$) gamma rays. On a lab scale, one finds: $|\Delta c/c| \sim (0 \pm 1) \times 10^{-4}$, due to source-observer motion.
- Lightspeed would not be a universal const, and postulate ② would be wrong, if c were frequency-dependent (relatively moving observers see different frequencies because of Doppler shifts; they would then claim to have measured different c 's). The most sensitive limits on $\Delta c/c$ come from data on possible frequency-dependence of c .

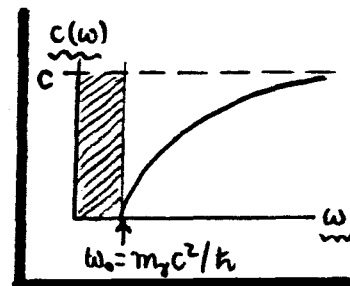
MEASUREMENT of PHOTON MASS: m_γ

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{photon} \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{energy: } E = \hbar \omega \\ \text{mom: } p = \hbar k \\ \text{mass: } m_\gamma \neq 0 \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right\} \parallel \begin{array}{l} E^2 = (pc)^2 + (m_\gamma c^2)^2 \Rightarrow \omega = c \sqrt{k^2 + \mu^2}, \mu = \frac{m_\gamma c}{\hbar} \end{array} \quad (3)$$

The energy transport velocity for this photon is the group velocity:

$$\rightarrow v_g = \partial \omega / \partial k = c k / \sqrt{k^2 + \mu^2} = c(\omega) \int_{\text{lightspeed}}^{\text{detected}} \text{i.e., } \boxed{c(\omega) = c \left[1 - \left(\frac{\omega_0}{\omega} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}} \int \omega_0 = \mu c. \quad (4)$$

¶ "Inertial frames" are coordinate systems in uniform (relative) translational motion, w/ Newton I holds.



For a massive photon, the lightspeed $c(\omega)$ in Eq. (4) shows a low frequency cutoff; no photons can move at frequencies below:

$$\rightarrow \omega_0 = \frac{m_\gamma c^2}{h} = \frac{m_\gamma}{m_e} \left(\frac{c}{h/m_e c} \right) = \frac{m_\gamma}{m_e} \times 2\pi \times 1.24 \times 10^{20} \text{ Hz} \quad (5)$$

Here $m_e = 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2$ is the electron mass. In terms of wavelength, a massive photon cannot propagate at wavelengths above the limiting value:

$$\rightarrow \lambda_0 = 2\pi c/\omega_0 = 0.0243 (m_e/m_\gamma), \text{ \AA}; \lambda > \lambda_0 \text{ is forbidden.} \quad (6)$$

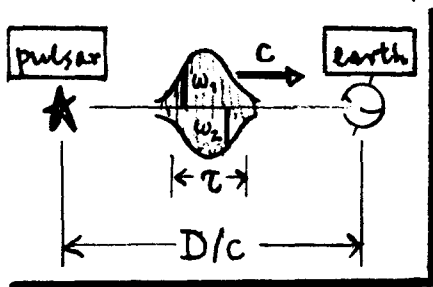
If we detect some long wavelength λ_{det} , then: $\frac{m_\gamma}{m_e} < \frac{0.0243 \text{ \AA}}{\lambda_{\text{det}}}$. We can certainly broadcast & detect radio-frequencies with $\lambda_{\text{det}} \sim 100 \text{ m}$; this gives $m_\gamma/m_e < 2.4 \times 10^{-14}$. One can also detect very low frequency EM resonances in the earth's ionosphere (which acts like a waveguide)... here $\lambda_{\text{det}} \sim \text{earth radius} \sim 6.37 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}$, corresponding to $m_\gamma/m_e < 3.8 \times 10^{-19}$. This last limit implies a cutoff @ $\omega_0 = 2\pi c/\lambda_0 \leq 2\pi \times 47 \text{ Hz}$.

What m_γ/m_e has to do with $\Delta c/c$ is seen by expanding Eq. (4) for $\omega \gg \omega_0$:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\Delta c}{c} = \frac{c - c(\omega)}{c} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\omega_0}{\omega} \right)^2; \text{ assume } \omega_0 \leq 2\pi \times 47 \text{ Hz}; \\ \text{so, } \begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} \omega/2\pi, \text{ Hz} & 10^3 & 10^6 & 10^9 & 10^{12} & 10^{15} \\ \hline \Delta c/c, \text{ max.} & 1.1 \times 10^{-3} & 1.1 \times 10^{-9} & 1.1 \times 10^{-15} & 1.1 \times 10^{-21} & 1.1 \times 10^{-27} \end{array} \end{array} \right\} \quad (7)$$

The best measured ratio is $m_\gamma/m_e < 4.3 \times 10^{-21}$ (from measurements on dipole character of earth's magnetic field -- see Jackson, p. 6); this drives the photon low-freq cutoff down to $\omega_0 \leq 2\pi \times 0.53 \text{ Hz}$, and -- as a consequence -- we have $\Delta c/c < 14 \text{ ppm}$ even at freqs $\omega = 2\pi \times 100 \text{ Hz}$.

→ There is no evidence of a detectable value of $\Delta c/c$ resulting from expts which effectively measure the photon mass m_γ . The notion of $m_\gamma \neq 0$ is the "easiest" way of producing a frequency-dependent lightspeed $c(\omega)$.

MEASUREMENT of PULSAR SIGNAL DURATION

A simple limit on $\Delta c/c$ is possible from the fact that pulsar signals arrive as coherent pulses with finite durations τ . The pulse must contain frequencies spread over a small range $\Delta\omega \sim 1/\tau$ (Fourier Theorem), and --

if c depends on ω -- there would be a small velocity spread Δc . If the pulsar lies at distance D from earth, then transit time is D/c , and

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{dispersion} \\ \text{in transit} \end{array} \right] \leq \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{observed} \\ \text{pulsewidth} \end{array} \right] \Rightarrow \Delta c \cdot \frac{D}{c} \leq c\tau, \text{ or } \boxed{\left| \frac{\Delta c}{c} \right| \leq \frac{\tau}{L}} \quad (8)$$

$L = D/c$ is the distance in light years. Data from pulsar in Crab Nebula;

$$L = 6000 \text{ l.y.}, \tau < 3 \text{ msec} \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{|\Delta c/c| < 1.6 \times 10^{-14}}}, @ \text{ freqs } \nu \approx 10 \text{ GHz.}$$

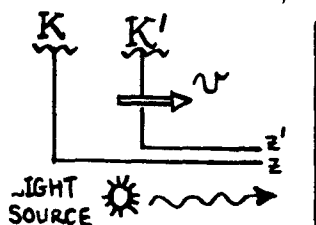
There seems no serious doubt that in fact $c = \text{universal constant}$, independent of the EM signal frequency, and of any relative motion between source & observer.

4. c has of course been measured in many expts[†]. Recent numerical values are:

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} c/(10^8 \text{ m/sec}) = 2.997 \ 9250 \ (\pm 0.3 \text{ ppm}) \leftarrow 1969 \text{ adjustment (NBS)} \\ = 2.997 \ 92458 \ (\text{EXACT}) \leftarrow 1986 \quad \cdot \quad (\text{NBS}) \end{array} \right] \quad (9)$$

The "exact" value of c is now used to define the standard of length.

5. The consequences of $c = \text{universal const}$ are immediate for two relatively moving observers K & K' . They will have to adjust their length & time scales so that...



$$c = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \Delta z / \Delta t, \text{ meas. by } K; \\ \Delta z' / \Delta t', \text{ meas. by } K'. \end{array} \right. \text{ both must measure } c = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta z'}{\Delta t'} \quad (10)$$

This does not work for GT: $\Delta z' = \Delta z - v \Delta t \Rightarrow c' = c - v$.

[†] Beginning with measurement by Oleaf Roemer (1675) on eclipses of Jupiter's moons. Roemer found $c = 2.3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/sec}$, within $\sim 25\%$ of current value.