CHAPTER 37

Relativity

37.1 SIMULTANEITY AND TIME DILATION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.1.1 Identify the two postulates of (special) relativity and the type of frames to which they apply.

37.1.2 Identify the speed of light as the ultimate speed and give its approximate value.

37.1.3 Explain how the space and time coordinates of an event can be measured with a three-dimensional array of clocks and measuring rods and how that eliminates the need of a signal's travel time to an observer.

37.1.4 Identify that the relativity of space and time has to do with transferring measurements *between* two inertial frames with relative motion but we still use classical kinematics and Newtonian mechanics within a frame.

37.1.5 Identify that for reference frames with relative motion, simultaneous events in one of the frames will generally not be simultaneous in the other frame.

37.1.6 Explain what is meant by the entanglement of the spatial and temporal separations between two events.

37.1.7 Identify the conditions in which a temporal separation of two events is a proper time.

37.1.8 Identify that if the temporal separation of two events is a proper time as measured in one frame, that separation is greater (dilated) as measured in another frame.

37.1.9 Apply the relationship between proper time Δt_0, dilated time Δt, and the relative speed v between two frames.

37.1.10 Apply the relationships between the relative speed v, the speed parameter β, and the Lorentz factor γ.

Key Ideas

- Einstein's special theory of relativity is based on two postulates: (1) The laws of physics are the same for observers in all inertial reference frames. (2) The speed of light in vacuum has the same value c in all directions and in all inertial reference frames.
- Three space coordinates and one time coordinate specify an event. One task of special relativity is to relate these coordinates as assigned by two observers who are in uniform motion with respect to each other.
- If two observers are in relative motion, they generally will not agree as to whether two events are simultaneous.
- If two successive events occur at the same place in an inertial reference frame, the time interval Δt_0 between them, measured on a single clock where they occur, is the proper time between them. Observers in frames moving relative to that frame will always measure a *larger* value Δt for the time interval, an effect known as time dilation.
- If the relative speed between the two frames is v, then

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \gamma\,\Delta t_0,$$

where $\beta = v/c$ is the speed parameter and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ is the Lorentz factor.

What Is Physics?

One principal subject of physics is **relativity,** the field of study that measures events (things that happen): where and when they happen, and by how much any two events are separated in space and in time. In addition, relativity has to do with transforming such measurements (and also measurements of energy and momentum) between reference frames that move relative to each other. (Hence the name *relativity*.)

Transformations and moving reference frames, such as those we discussed in Modules 4.6 and 4.7, were well understood and quite routine to physicists in 1905. Then Albert Einstein (Fig. 37.1.1) published his **special theory of relativity.** The adjective *special* means that the theory deals only with **inertial reference frames,** which are frames in which Newton's laws are valid. (Einstein's *general theory of relativity* treats the more challenging situation in which reference frames can undergo gravitational acceleration; in this chapter the term *relativity* implies only inertial reference frames.)


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Figure 37.1.1 Einstein posing for a photograph as fame began to accumulate.

Starting with two deceivingly simple postulates, Einstein stunned the scientific world by showing that the old ideas about relativity were wrong, even though everyone was so accustomed to them that they seemed to be unquestionable common sense. This supposed common sense, however, was derived only from experience with things that move rather slowly. Einstein's relativity, which turns out to be correct for all physically possible speeds, predicted many effects that were, at first study, bizarre because no one had ever experienced them.

Entangled. In particular, Einstein demonstrated that space and time are entangled; that is, the time between two events depends on how far apart they occur, and vice versa. Also, the entanglement is different for observers who move relative to each other. One result is that time does not pass at a fixed rate, as if it were ticked off with mechanical regularity on some master grandfather clock that controls the universe. Rather, that rate is adjustable: Relative motion can change the rate at which time passes. Prior to 1905, no one but a few daydreamers would have thought that. Now, engineers and scientists take it for granted because their experience with special relativity has reshaped their common sense. For example, any engineer involved with the Global Positioning System of the NAVSTAR satellites must routinely use relativity (both special relativity and general relativity) to determine the rate at which time passes on the satellites because that rate differs from the rate on Earth's surface. If the engineers failed to take relativity into account, GPS would become almost useless in less than one day.

Special relativity has the reputation of being difficult. It is not difficult mathematically, at least not here. However, it is difficult in that we must be very careful about *who* measures *what* about an event and just *how* that measurement is made—and it can be difficult because it can contradict routine experience.

The Postulates

We now examine the two postulates of relativity, on which Einstein's theory is based:

> 1. **The Relativity Postulate:** The laws of physics are the same for observers in all inertial reference frames. No one frame is preferred over any other.

Galileo assumed that the laws of *mechanics* were the same in all inertial reference frames. Einstein extended that idea to include *all* the laws of physics, especially those of electromagnetism and optics. This postulate does *not* say that the measured values of all physical quantities are the same for all inertial observers; most are not the same. It is the *laws of physics,* which relate these measurements to one another, that are the same.

> 2. **The Speed of Light Postulate:** The speed of light in vacuum has the same value c in all directions and in all inertial reference frames.

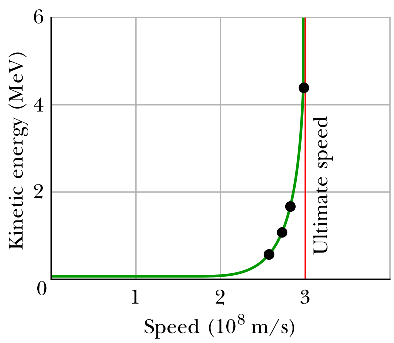


Figure 37.1.2 The dots show measured values of the kinetic energy of an electron plotted against its measured speed. No matter how much energy is given to an electron (or to any other particle having mass), its speed can never equal or exceed the ultimate limiting speed c. (The plotted curve through the dots shows the predictions of Einstein's special theory of relativity.)

We can also phrase this postulate to say that there is in nature an *ultimate speed c,* the same in all directions and in all inertial reference frames. Light happens to travel at this ultimate speed. However, no entity that carries energy or information can exceed this limit. Moreover, no particle that has mass can actually reach speed c, no matter how much or for how long that particle is accelerated. (Alas, the faster-than-light warp drive used in many science fiction stories appears to be impossible.)

Both postulates have been exhaustively tested, and no exceptions have ever been found.

The Ultimate Speed

The existence of a limit to the speed of accelerated electrons was shown in a 1964 experiment by W. Bertozzi, who accelerated electrons to various measured speeds and—by an independent method—measured their kinetic energies. He found that as the force on a very fast electron is increased, the electron's measured kinetic energy increases toward very large values but its speed does not increase appreciably (Fig. 37.1.2). Electrons have been accelerated in laboratories to at least 0.999 999 999 95 times the speed of light but—close though it may be—that speed is still less than the ultimate speed c.

This ultimate speed has been defined to be exactly

$$c = 299\,792\,458 \text{ m/s}. \tag{37.1.1}$$

Caution: So far in this book we have (appropriately) approximated c as 3.0×10^8 m/s, but in this chapter we shall often use the exact value. You might want to store the exact value in your calculator's memory (if it is not there already), to be called up when needed.

Testing the Speed of Light Postulate

If the speed of light is the same in all inertial reference frames, then the speed of light emitted by a source moving relative to, say, a laboratory should be the same as the speed of light that is emitted by a source at rest in the laboratory. This claim has been tested directly, in an experiment of high precision. The "light source" was the *neutral pion* (symbol π^0), an unstable, short-lived particle that can be produced by collisions in a particle accelerator. It decays (transforms) into two gamma rays by the process

$$\pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma. \tag{37.1.2}$$

Gamma rays are part of the electromagnetic spectrum (at very high frequencies) and so obey the speed of light postulate, just as visible light does. (In this chapter we shall use the term light for any type of electromagnetic wave, visible or not.)

In 1964, physicists at CERN, the European particle-physics laboratory near Geneva, generated a beam of pions moving at a speed of $0.99975c$ with respect to the laboratory. The experimenters then measured the speed of the gamma rays emitted from these very rapidly moving sources. They found that the speed of the light emitted by the pions was the same as it would be if the pions were at rest in the laboratory, namely c.

Measuring an Event

An **event** is something that happens, and every event can be assigned three space coordinates and one time coordinate. Among many possible events are (1) the turning on or off of a tiny lightbulb, (2) the collision of two particles, (3) the passage of a pulse of light through a specified point, (4) an explosion, and (5) the sweeping of the hand of a clock past a marker on the rim of the clock. A certain observer, fixed in a certain inertial reference frame, might, for example, assign to an event A the coordinates given in Table 37.1.1. Because space and time are entangled with each other in relativity, we can describe these coordinates collectively as *spacetime* coordinates. The coordinate system itself is part of the reference frame of the observer.

Table 37.1.1 Record of Event A

Coordinate	Value
x	3.58 m
y	1.29 m
z	0 m
t	34.5 s

A given event may be recorded by any number of observers, each in a different inertial reference frame. In general, different observers will assign different spacetime coordinates to the same event. Note that an event does not "belong" to any particular inertial reference frame. An event is just something that happens, and anyone in any reference frame may detect it and assign spacetime coordinates to it.

Travel Times. Making such an assignment can be complicated by a practical problem. For example, suppose a balloon bursts 1 km to your right while a firecracker pops 2 km to your left, both at 9:00 A.M. However, you do not detect either event precisely at 9:00 A.M. because at that instant light from the events has not yet reached you. Because light from the firecracker pop has farther to go, it arrives at your eyes later than does light from the balloon burst, and thus the pop will seem to have occurred later than the burst. To sort out the actual times and to assign 9:00 A.M. as the happening time for both events, you must calculate the travel times of the light and then subtract these times from the arrival times.

This procedure can be very messy in more challenging situations, and we need an easier procedure that automatically eliminates any concern about the travel time from an event to an observer. To set up such a procedure, we shall construct an imaginary array of measuring rods and clocks throughout the observer's inertial frame (the array moves rigidly with the observer). This construction may seem contrived, but it spares us much confusion and calculation and allows us to find the coordinates, as follows.

1. **The Space Coordinates.** We imagine the observer's coordinate system fitted with a close-packed, three-dimensional array of measuring rods, one set of rods parallel to each of the three coordinate axes. These rods provide a way to determine coordinates along the axes. Thus, if the event is, say, the turning on of a small lightbulb, the observer, in order to locate the position of the event, need only read the three space coordinates at the bulb's location.

2. **The Time Coordinate.** For the time coordinate, we imagine that every point of intersection in the array of measuring rods includes a tiny clock, which the observer can read because the clock is illuminated by the light generated by the event. Figure 37.1.3 suggests one plane in the "jungle gym" of clocks and measuring rods we have described.

   The array of clocks must be synchronized properly. It is not enough to assemble a set of identical clocks, set them all to the same time, and then move them to their assigned positions. We do not know, for example, whether moving the clocks will change their rates. (Actually, it will.) We must put the clocks in place and *then* synchronize them.

   If we had a method of transmitting signals at infinite speed, synchronization would be a simple matter. However, no known signal has this property. We therefore choose light (any part of the electromagnetic spectrum) to send out our synchronizing signals because, in vacuum, light travels at the greatest possible speed, the limiting speed c.

   Here is one of many ways in which an observer might synchronize an array of clocks using light signals: The observer enlists the help of a great number of temporary helpers, one for each clock. The observer then stands at a point selected as the origin and sends out a pulse of light when the origin clock reads $t = 0$. When the light pulse reaches the location of a helper, that helper sets the clock there to read $t = r/c$, where r is the distance between the helper and the origin. The clocks are then synchronized.

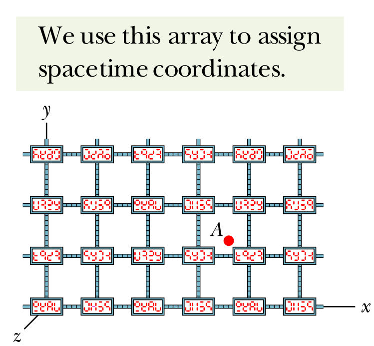


Figure 37.1.3 One section of a three-dimensional array of clocks and measuring rods by which an observer can assign spacetime coordinates to an event, such as a flash of light at point A. The event's space coordinates are approximately $x = 3.6$ rod lengths, $y = 1.3$ rod lengths, and $z = 0$. The time coordinate is whatever time appears on the clock closest to A at the instant of the flash.

3. **The Spacetime Coordinates.** The observer can now assign spacetime coordinates to an event by simply recording the time on the clock nearest the event and the position as measured on the nearest measuring rods. If there are two events, the observer computes their separation in time as the difference in the times on clocks near each and their separation in space from the differences in coordinates on rods near each. We thus avoid the practical problem of calculating the travel times of the signals to the observer from the events.

The Relativity of Simultaneity

Suppose that one observer (Sam) notes that two independent events (event Red and event Blue) occur at the same time. Suppose also that another observer (Sally), who is moving at a constant velocity $\vec{v}$ with respect to Sam, also records these same two events. Will Sally also find that they occur at the same time?

The answer is that in general she will not:

> If two observers are in relative motion, they will not, in general, agree as to whether two events are simultaneous. If one observer finds them to be simultaneous, the other generally will not.

We cannot say that one observer is right and the other wrong. Their observations are equally valid, and there is no reason to favor one over the other.

The realization that two contradictory statements about the same natural events can be correct is a seemingly strange outcome of Einstein's theory. However, in Chapter 17 we saw another way in which motion can affect measurement without balking at the contradictory results: In the Doppler effect, the frequency an observer measures for a sound wave depends on the relative motion of observer and source. Thus, two observers moving relative to each other can measure different frequencies for the same wave, and both measurements are correct.

We conclude the following:

> Simultaneity is not an absolute concept but rather a relative one, depending on the motion of the observer.

If the relative speed of the observers is very much less than the speed of light, then measured departures from simultaneity are so small that they are not noticeable. Such is the case for all our experiences of daily living; that is why the relativity of simultaneity is unfamiliar.

A Closer Look at Simultaneity

Let us clarify the relativity of simultaneity with an example based on the postulates of relativity, no clocks or measuring rods being directly involved. Figure 37.1.4 shows two long spaceships (the SS *Sally* and the SS *Sam*), which can serve as inertial reference frames for observers Sally and Sam. The two observers are stationed at the midpoints of their ships. The ships are separating along a common x axis, the relative velocity of *Sally* with respect to *Sam* being $\vec{v}$. Figure 37.1.4*a* shows the ships with the two observer stations momentarily aligned opposite each other.

Two large meteorites strike the ships, one setting off a red flare (event Red) and the other a blue flare (event Blue), not necessarily simultaneously. Each event leaves a permanent mark on each ship, at positions RR' and BB'.

Let us suppose that the expanding wavefronts from the two events happen to reach Sam at the same time, as Fig. 37.1.4*b* shows. Let us further suppose that,

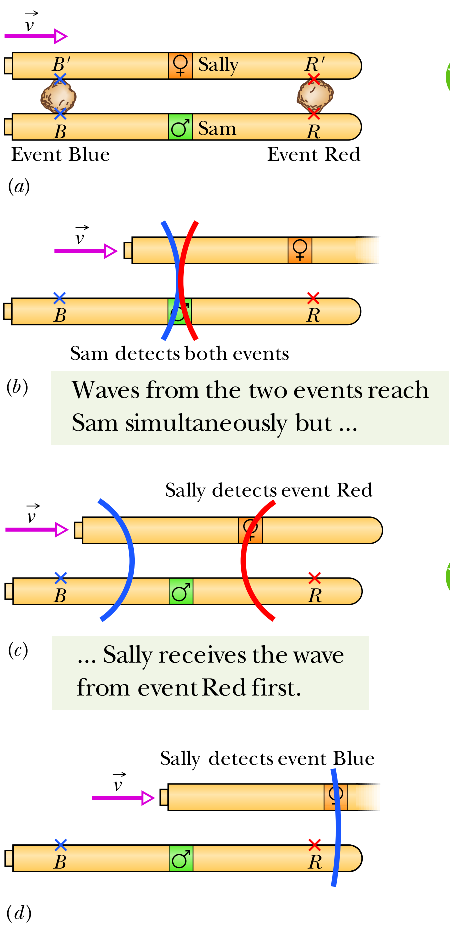


Figure 37.1.4 The spaceships of Sally and Sam and the occurrences of events from Sam's view. Sally's ship moves rightward with velocity $\vec{v}$. (*a*) Event Red occurs at positions RR' and event Blue occurs at positions BB'; each event sends out a wave of light. (*b*) Sam simultaneously detects the waves from event Red and event Blue. (*c*) Sally detects the wave from event Red. (*d*) Sally detects the wave from event Blue.

after the episode, Sam finds, by measuring the marks on his spaceship, that he was indeed stationed exactly halfway between the markers B and R on his ship when the two events occurred. He will say:

Sam Light from event Red and light from event Blue reached me at the same time. From the marks on my spaceship, I find that I was standing halfway between the two sources. Therefore, event Red and event Blue were simultaneous events.

As study of Fig. 37.1.4 shows, Sally and the expanding wavefront from event Red are moving *toward* each other, while she and the expanding wavefront from event Blue are moving in the *same direction.* Thus, the wavefront from event Red will reach Sally *before* the wavefront from event Blue does. She will say:

Sally Light from event Red reached me before light from event Blue did. From the marks on my spaceship, I found that I too was standing halfway between the two sources. Therefore, the events were not simultaneous; event Red occurred first, followed by event Blue.

These reports do not agree. Nevertheless, *both* observers are correct.

Note carefully that there is only one wavefront expanding from the site of each event and that *this wavefront travels with the same speed c in both reference frames,* exactly as the speed of light postulate requires.

It *might* have happened that the meteorites struck the ships in such a way that the two hits appeared to Sally to be simultaneous. If that had been the case, then Sam would have declared them not to be simultaneous.

The Relativity of Time

If observers who move relative to each other measure the time interval (or *temporal separation*) between two events, they generally will find different results. Why? Because the spatial separation of the events can affect the time intervals measured by the observers.

The time interval between two events depends on how far apart they occur in both space and time; that is, their spatial and temporal separations are entangled.

In this module we discuss this entanglement by means of an example; however, the example is restricted in a crucial way: *To one of two observers, the two events occur at the same location.* We shall not get to more general examples until Module 37.3.

Figure 37.1.5*a* shows the basics of an experiment Sally conducts while she and her equipment—a light source, a mirror, and a clock—ride in a train moving with constant velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to a station. A pulse of light leaves the light source B (event 1), travels vertically upward, is reflected vertically downward by the mirror, and then is detected back at the source (event 2). Sally measures a certain time interval Δt_0 between the two events, related to the distance D from source to mirror by

$$\Delta t_0 = \frac{2D}{c} \quad \text{(Sally)}. \tag{37.1.3}$$

The two events occur at the same location in Sally's reference frame, and she needs only one clock C at that location to measure the time interval. Clock C is shown twice in Fig. 37.1.5*a*, at the beginning and end of the interval.

Consider now how these same two events are measured by Sam, who is standing on the station platform as the train passes. Because the equipment moves

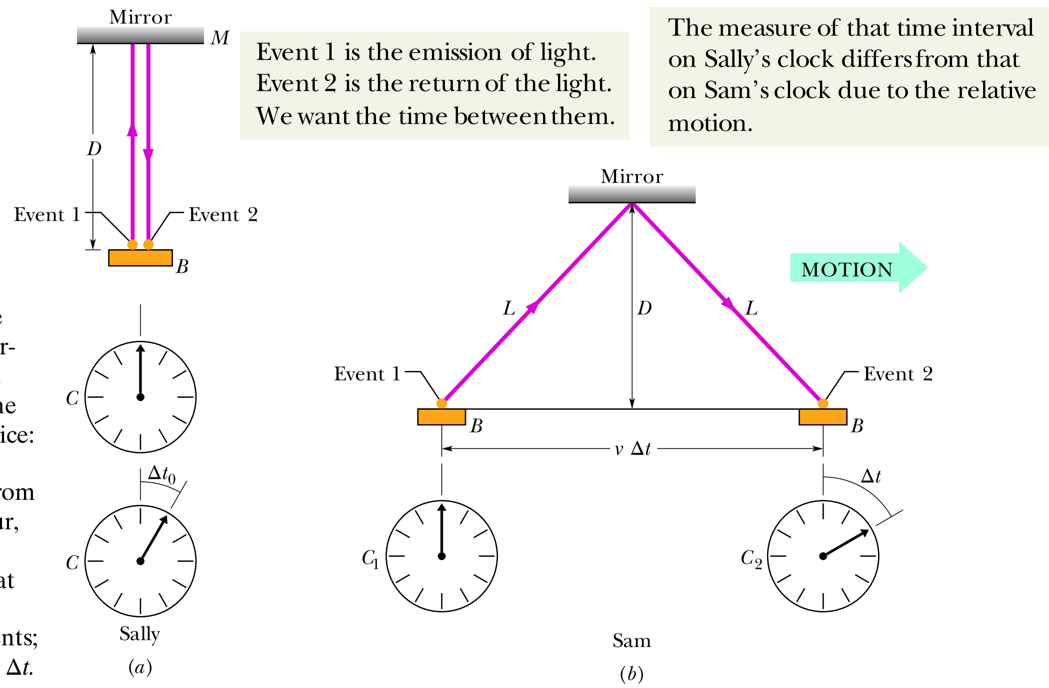


Figure 37.1.5 (*a*) Sally, on the train, measures the time interval Δt_0 between events 1 and 2 using a single clock C on the train. That clock is shown twice: first for event 1 and then for event 2. (*b*) Sam, watching from the station as the events occur, requires two synchronized clocks, C_1 at event 1 and C_2 at event 2, to measure the time interval between the two events; his measured time interval is Δt.

with the train during the travel time of the light, Sam sees the path of the light as shown in Fig. 37.1.5*b*. For him, the two events occur at different places in his reference frame, and so to measure the time interval between events, Sam must use *two* synchronized clocks, C_1 and C_2, one at each event. According to Einstein's speed of light postulate, the light travels at the same speed c for Sam as for Sally. Now, however, the light travels distance $2L$ between events 1 and 2. The time interval measured by Sam between the two events is

$$\Delta t = \frac{2L}{c} \quad \text{(Sam)}, \tag{37.1.4}$$

in which

$$L = \sqrt{(\tfrac{1}{2}v\,\Delta t)^2 + D^2}. \tag{37.1.5}$$

From Eq. 37.1.3, we can write this as

$$L = \sqrt{(\tfrac{1}{2}v\,\Delta t)^2 + (\tfrac{1}{2}c\,\Delta t_0)^2}. \tag{37.1.6}$$

If we eliminate L between Eqs. 37.1.4 and 37.1.6 and solve for Δt, we find

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}}. \tag{37.1.7}$$

Equation 37.1.7 tells us how Sam's measured interval Δt between the events compares with Sally's interval Δt_0. Because v must be less than c, the denominator in Eq. 37.1.7 must be less than unity. Thus, Δt must be greater than Δt_0: Sam measures a *greater* time interval between the two events than does Sally. Sam and Sally have measured the time interval between the *same* two events, but the relative motion between Sam and Sally made their measurements *different.* We conclude that relative motion can change the *rate* at which time passes between two events; the key to this effect is the fact that the speed of light is the same for both observers.

We distinguish between the measurements of Sam and Sally in this way:

When two events occur at the same location in an inertial reference frame, the time interval between them, measured in that frame, is called the **proper time interval** or the **proper time.** Measurements of the same time interval from any other inertial reference frame are always greater.

Thus, Sally measures a proper time interval, and Sam measures a greater time interval. (The term *proper* is unfortunate in that it implies that any other measurement is improper or nonreal. That is just not so.) The amount by which a measured time interval is greater than the corresponding proper time interval is called **time dilation.** (To dilate is to expand or stretch; here the time interval is expanded or stretched.)

Often the dimensionless ratio v/c in Eq. 37.1.7 is replaced with β, called the **speed parameter,** and the dimensionless inverse square root in Eq. 37.1.7 is often replaced with γ, called the **Lorentz factor:**

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}}. \qquad (37.1.8)$$

With these replacements, we can rewrite Eq. 37.1.7 as

$$\Delta t = \gamma\, \Delta t_0 \quad \text{(time dilation)}. \qquad (37.1.9)$$

As the speed parameter goes to 1.0 (as the speed approaches c), the Lorentz factor approaches infinity.

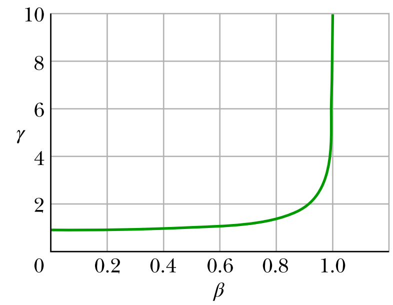


Figure 37.1.6 A plot of the Lorentz factor γ as a function of the speed parameter β (= v/c).

The speed parameter β is always less than unity, and, provided v is not zero, γ is always greater than unity. However, the difference between γ and 1 is not significant unless $v > 0.1c$. Thus, in general, "old relativity" works well enough for $v < 0.1c$, but we must use special relativity for greater values of v. As shown in Fig. 37.1.6, γ increases rapidly in magnitude as β approaches 1 (as v approaches c). Therefore, the greater the relative speed between Sally and Sam is, the greater will be the time interval measured by Sam, until at a great enough speed, the interval takes "forever."

You might wonder what Sally says about Sam's having measured a greater time interval than she did. His measurement comes as no surprise to her, because to her, he failed to synchronize his clocks C_1 and C_2 in spite of his insistence that he did. Recall that observers in relative motion generally do not agree about simultaneity. Here, Sam insists that his two clocks simultaneously read the same time when event 1 occurred. To Sally, however, Sam's clock C_2 was erroneously set ahead during the synchronization process. Thus, when Sam read the time of event 2 on it, to Sally he was reading off a time that was too large, and that is why the time interval he measured between the two events was greater than the interval she measured.

Two Tests of Time Dilation

1. **Microscopic Clocks.** Subatomic particles called *muons* are unstable; that is, when a muon is produced, it lasts for only a short time before it *decays* (transforms into particles of other types). The *lifetime* of a muon is the time interval between its production (event 1) and its decay (event 2). When muons are stationary and their lifetimes are measured with stationary clocks (say, in a laboratory), their average lifetime is 2.200 μs. This is a proper time interval because, for each muon, events 1 and 2 occur at the same location in the reference frame of the muon—namely, at the muon itself. We can represent this proper time interval with Δt_0; moreover, we can call the reference frame in which it is measured the *rest frame* of the muon.

   If, instead, the muons are moving, say, through a laboratory, then measurements of their lifetimes made with the laboratory clocks should yield a greater average lifetime (a dilated average lifetime). To check this conclusion, measurements were made of the average lifetime of muons moving with a speed of 0.9994c relative to laboratory clocks. From Eq. 37.1.8, with $\beta = 0.9994$, the Lorentz factor for this speed is

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(0.9994)^2}} = 28.87.$$

Equation 37.1.9 then yields, for the average dilated lifetime,

$$\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0 = (28.87)(2.200\,\mu s) = 63.51\,\mu s.$$

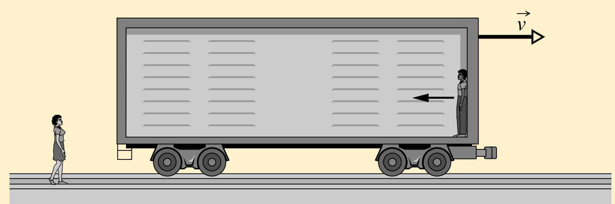
The actual measured value matched this result within experimental error.

2. **Macroscopic Clocks.** In October 1971, Joseph Hafele and Richard Keating carried out what must have been a grueling experiment. They flew four portable atomic clocks twice around the world on commercial airlines, once in each direction. Their purpose was "to test Einstein's theory of relativity with macroscopic clocks." As we have just seen, the time dilation predictions of Einstein's theory have been confirmed on a microscopic scale, but there is great comfort in seeing a confirmation made with an actual clock. Such macroscopic measurements became possible only because of the very high precision of modern atomic clocks. Hafele and Keating verified the predictions of the theory to within 10%. (Einstein's *general* theory of relativity, which predicts that the rate at which time passes on a clock is influenced by the gravitational force on the clock, also plays a role in this experiment.)

   A few years later, physicists at the University of Maryland flew an atomic clock round and round over Chesapeake Bay for flights lasting 15 h and succeeded in checking the time dilation prediction to better than 1%. Today, when atomic clocks are transported from one place to another for calibration or other purposes, the time dilation caused by their motion is always taken into account.

Checkpoint 37.1.1

Standing beside railroad tracks, we are suddenly startled by a relativistic boxcar traveling past us as shown in the figure. Inside, a well-equipped hobo fires a laser pulse from the front of the boxcar to its rear. (a) Is our measurement of the speed of the pulse greater than, less than, or the same as that measured by the hobo? (b) Is his measurement of the flight time of the pulse a proper time? (c) Are his measurement and our measurement of the flight time related by Eq. 37.1.9?



Sample Problem 37.1.1 Time dilation for a space traveler who returns to Earth

Your starship passes Earth with a relative speed of 0.9990*c*. After traveling 10.0 y (your time), you stop at lookout post LP13, turn, and then travel back to Earth with the same relative speed. The trip back takes another 10.0 y (your time). How long does the round trip take according to measurements made on Earth? (Neglect any effects due to the accelerations involved with stopping, turning, and getting back up to speed.)

KEY IDEAS

We begin by analyzing the outward trip:

1. This problem involves measurements made from two (inertial) reference frames, one attached to Earth and the other (your reference frame) attached to your ship.
2. The outward trip involves two events: the start of the trip at Earth and the end of the trip at LP13.
3. Your measurement of 10.0 y for the outward trip is the proper time Δt_0 between those two events, because the events occur at the same location in your reference frame—namely, on your ship.
4. The Earth-frame measurement of the time interval Δt for the outward trip must be greater than Δt_0, according to Eq. 37.1.9 ($\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0$) for time dilation.

Calculations: Using Eq. 37.1.8 to substitute for γ in Eq. 37.1.9, we find

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{10.0\text{ y}}{\sqrt{1-(0.9990c/c)^2}} = (22.37)(10.0\text{ y}) = 224\text{ y}.$$

On the return trip, we have the same situation and the same data. Thus, the round trip requires 20 y of your time but

$$\Delta t_{\text{total}} = (2)(224\text{ y}) = 448\text{ y} \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

of Earth time. In other words, you have aged 20 y while the Earth has aged 448 y. Although you cannot travel into the past (as far as we know), you can travel into the future of, say, Earth, by using high-speed relative motion to adjust the rate at which time passes.

Sample Problem 37.1.2 Time dilation and travel distance for a relativistic particle

The elementary particle known as the *positive kaon* (K^+) is unstable in that it can *decay* (transform) into other particles. Although the decay occurs randomly, we find that, on average, a positive kaon has a lifetime of 0.1237 μs when stationary—that is, when the lifetime is measured in the rest frame of the kaon. If a positive kaon has a speed of $0.990c$ relative to a laboratory reference frame when the kaon is produced, how far can it travel in that frame during its lifetime according to *classical physics* (which is a reasonable approximation for speeds much less than c) and according to special relativity (which is correct for all physically possible speeds)?

KEY IDEAS

1. We have two (inertial) reference frames, one attached to the kaon and the other attached to the laboratory.
2. This problem also involves two events: the start of the kaon's travel (when the kaon is produced) and the end of that travel (at the end of the kaon's lifetime).
3. The distance traveled by the kaon between those two events is related to its speed v and the time interval for the travel by

$$v = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \qquad (37.1.10)$$

With these ideas in mind, let us solve for the distance first with classical physics and then with special relativity.

Classical physics: In classical physics we would find the same distance and time interval (in Eq. 37.1.10) whether we measured them from the kaon frame or from the laboratory frame. Thus, we need not be careful about the frame in which the measurements are made. To find the kaon's travel distance d_{cp} according to classical physics, we first rewrite Eq. 37.1.10 as

$$d_{\text{cp}} = v\,\Delta t, \qquad (37.1.11)$$

where Δt is the time interval between the two events in either frame. Then, substituting $0.990c$ for v and 0.1237 μs for Δt in Eq. 37.1.11, we find

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\text{cp}} &= (0.990c)\,\Delta t \\ &= (0.990)(299\,792\,458\text{ m/s})(0.1237 \times 10^{-6}\text{ s}) \\ &= 36.7\text{ m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This is how far the kaon would travel if classical physics were correct at speeds close to c.

Special relativity: In special relativity we must be very careful that both the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37.1.10 are measured in the *same* reference frame—especially when the speed is close to c, as here. Thus, to find the actual travel distance d_{sr} of the kaon *as measured from the laboratory frame* and according to special relativity, we rewrite Eq. 37.1.10 as

$$d_{\text{sr}} = v\,\Delta t, \qquad (37.1.12)$$

where Δt is the time interval between the two events *as measured from the laboratory frame.*

Before we can evaluate d_{sr} in Eq. 37.1.12, we must find Δt. The 0.1237 μs time interval is a proper time because the two events occur at the same location in the kaon frame—namely, at the kaon itself. Therefore, let Δt_0 represent this proper time interval. Then we can use Eq. 37.1.9 ($\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0$) for time dilation to find the time interval Δt as measured from the laboratory frame. Using Eq. 37.1.8 to substitute for γ in Eq. 37.1.9 leads to

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{0.1237 \times 10^{-6}\text{ s}}{\sqrt{1-(0.990c/c)^2}} = 8.769 \times 10^{-7}\text{ s}.$$

This is about seven times longer than the kaon's proper lifetime. That is, the kaon's lifetime is about seven times longer in the laboratory frame than in its own frame—the kaon's lifetime is dilated. We can now evaluate Eq. 37.1.12 for the travel distance d_{sr} in the laboratory frame as

$$\begin{aligned} d_{\text{sr}} &= v\,\Delta t = (0.990c)\,\Delta t \\ &= (0.990)(299\,792\,458\text{ m/s})(8.769 \times 10^{-7}\text{ s}) \\ &= 260\text{ m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This is about seven times d_{cp}. Experiments like the one outlined here, which verify special relativity, became routine in physics laboratories decades ago. The engineering design and the construction of any scientific or medical facility that employs high-speed particles must take relativity into account.

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37.2 THE RELATIVITY OF LENGTH

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.2.1 Identify that because spatial and temporal separations are entangled, measurements of the lengths of objects may be different in two frames with relative motion.

37.2.2 Identify the condition in which a measured length is a proper length.

37.2.3 Identify that if a length is a proper length as measured in one frame, the length is less (contracted) as measured in another frame that is in relative motion *parallel* to the length.

37.2.4 Apply the relationship between contracted length L, proper length L_0, and the relative speed v between two frames.

Key Ideas

- The length L_0 of an object measured by an observer in an inertial reference frame in which the object is at rest is called its proper length. Observers in frames moving relative to that frame and parallel to that length will always measure a shorter length, an effect known as length contraction.
- If the relative speed between frames is v, the contracted length L and the proper length L_0 are related by

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma},$$

where $\beta = v/c$ is the speed parameter and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ is the Lorentz factor.

The Relativity of Length

If you want to measure the length of a rod that is at rest with respect to you, you can—at your leisure—note the positions of its end points on a long stationary scale and subtract one reading from the other. If the rod is moving, however, you must note the positions of the end points *simultaneously* (in your reference frame) or your measurement cannot be called a length. Figure 37.2.1 suggests the difficulty of trying to measure the length of a moving penguin by locating its front and back at different times. Because simultaneity is relative and it enters into length measurements, length should also be a relative quantity. It is.

Let L_0 be the length of a rod that you measure when the rod is stationary (meaning you and it are in the same reference frame, the rod's rest frame). If, instead, there is relative motion at speed v between you and the rod *along the length of the rod,* then with simultaneous measurements you obtain a length L given by

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction).} \tag{37.2.1}$$

Because the Lorentz factor γ is always greater than unity if there is relative motion, L is less than L_0. The relative motion causes a *length contraction,* and L is called a *contracted length.* A greater speed v results in a greater contraction.

The length L_0 of an object measured in the rest frame of the object is its **proper length** or **rest length.** Measurements of the length from any reference frame that is in relative motion *parallel* to that length are always less than the proper length.

Be careful: Length contraction occurs only along the direction of relative motion. Also, the length that is measured does not have to be that of an object like a rod or a circle. Instead, it can be the length (or distance) between two objects in the same rest frame—for example, the Sun and a nearby star (which are, at least approximately, at rest relative to each other).

Does a moving object *really* shrink? Reality is based on observations and measurements; if the results are always consistent and if no error can be determined, then what is observed and measured is real. In that sense, the object really does shrink. However, a more precise statement is that the object *is really measured* to shrink—motion affects that measurement and thus reality.

When you measure a contracted length for, say, a rod, what does an observer moving with the rod say of your measurement? To that observer, you did not locate the two ends of the rod simultaneously. (Recall that observers in motion relative to each other do not agree about simultaneity.) To the observer, you first located the rod's front end and then, slightly later, its rear end, and that is why you measured a length that is less than the proper length.

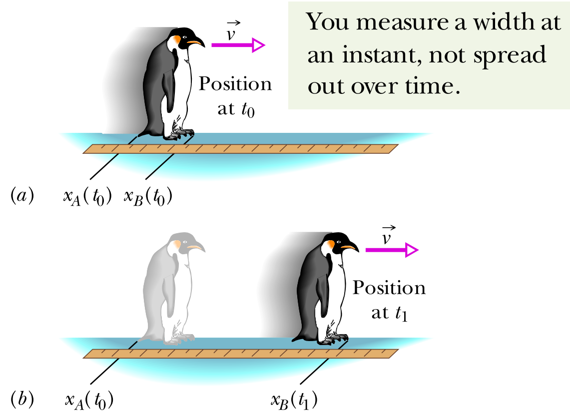


Figure 37.2.1 If you want to measure the front-to-back length of a penguin while it is moving, you must mark the positions of its front and back simultaneously (in your reference frame), as in (*a*), rather than at different times, as in (*b*).

Proof of Eq. 37.2.1

Length contraction is a direct consequence of time dilation. Consider once more our two observers. This time, both Sally, seated on a train moving through a station, and Sam, again on the station platform, want to measure the length of the platform. Sam, using a tape measure, finds the length to be L_0, a proper length because the platform is at rest with respect to him. Sam also notes that Sally, on the train, moves through this length in a time $\Delta t = L_0/v$, where v is the speed of the train; that is,

$$L_0 = v\ \Delta t \quad \text{(Sam)}. \tag{37.2.2}$$

This time interval Δt is not a proper time interval because the two events that define it (Sally passes the back of the platform and Sally passes the front of the platform) occur at two different places, and therefore Sam must use two synchronized clocks to measure the time interval Δt.

For Sally, however, the platform is moving past her. She finds that the two events measured by Sam occur *at the same place* in her reference frame. She can time them with a single stationary clock, and so the interval Δt_0 that she measures is a proper time interval. To her, the length L of the platform is given by

$$L = v\ \Delta t_0 \quad \text{(Sally)}. \tag{37.2.3}$$

If we divide Eq. 37.2.3 by Eq. 37.2.2 and apply Eq. 37.1.9, the time dilation equation, we have

$$\frac{L}{L_0} = \frac{v\ \Delta t_0}{v\ \Delta t} = \frac{1}{\gamma},$$

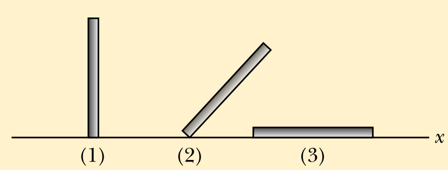
or

$$L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma}, \tag{37.2.4}$$

which is Eq. 37.2.1, the length contraction equation.

Checkpoint 37.2.1

The figure shows three rods of equal lengths that are stationary on an x axis that runs the length of a spaceship. The spaceship then passes us while moving parallel to the x axis at nearly light speed. (a) Rank the rods according to their lengths as we would measure them, greatest first. (b) When rod 2 was initially stationary, it made an angle of θ_0 with the x axis. With the rod in motion, is our measure of the rod's angle more than θ_0, less than θ_0, or still θ_0?



Sample Problem 37.2.1 Time dilation and length contraction as seen from each frame

In Fig. 37.2.2, Sally (at point A) and Sam's spaceship (of proper length $L_0 = 230$ m) pass each other with constant relative speed v. Sally measures a time interval of 3.57 μs for the ship to pass her (from the passage of point B in Fig. 37.2.2*a* to the passage of point C in Fig. 37.2.2*b*). In terms of c, what is the relative speed v between Sally and the ship?

KEY IDEAS

Let's assume that speed v is near c. Then:

1. This problem involves measurements made from two (inertial) reference frames, one attached to Sally and the other attached to Sam and his spaceship.
2. This problem also involves two events: The first is the passage of point B past Sally (Fig. 37.2.2*a*) and the second is the passage of point C past her (Fig. 37.2.2*b*).
3. From either reference frame, the other reference frame passes at speed v and moves a certain distance in the time interval between the two events:

$$v = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \tag{37.2.5}$$

Because speed v is assumed to be near the speed of light, we must be careful that the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37.2.5 are measured in the *same* reference frame.

Calculations: We are free to use either frame for the measurements. Because we know that the time interval Δt between the two events measured from Sally's frame is 3.57 μs, let us also use the distance L between the two events measured from her frame. Equation 37.2.5 then becomes

$$v = \frac{L}{\Delta t}. \tag{37.2.6}$$

We do not know L, but we can relate it to the given L_0: The distance between the two events as measured from Sam's frame is the ship's proper length L_0. Thus, the distance L measured from Sally's frame must be less than L_0, as given by Eq. 37.2.1 ($L = L_0/\gamma$) for length contraction. Substituting L_0/γ for L in Eq. 37.2.6 and then substituting Eq. 37.1.8 for γ, we find

$$v = \frac{L_0/\gamma}{\Delta t} = \frac{L_0\sqrt{(1 - v/c)^2}}{\Delta t}.$$

Solving this equation for v (notice that it is on the left and also buried in the Lorentz factor) leads us to

$$v = \frac{L_0 c}{\sqrt{(c\,\Delta t)^2 + L_0^2}}$$

$$= \frac{(230\text{ m})c}{\sqrt{(299\,792\,458\text{ m/s})^2(3.57\times10^{-6}\text{ s})^2 + (230\text{ m})^2}}$$

$$= 0.210c. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Note that only the relative motion of Sally and Sam matters here; whether either is stationary relative to, say, a space station is irrelevant. In Figs. 37.2.2*a* and *b* we took Sally to be stationary, but we could instead have taken the ship to be stationary, with Sally moving to the left past it. Event 1 is again when Sally and point B are aligned (Fig. 37.2.2*c*), and event 2 is again when Sally and point C are aligned (Fig. 37.2.2*d*). However, we are now using Sam's measurements. So the length between the two events in *his* frame is the proper length L_0 of the ship and the time interval between them is not Sally's measurement Δt but a dilated time interval $\gamma\,\Delta t$.

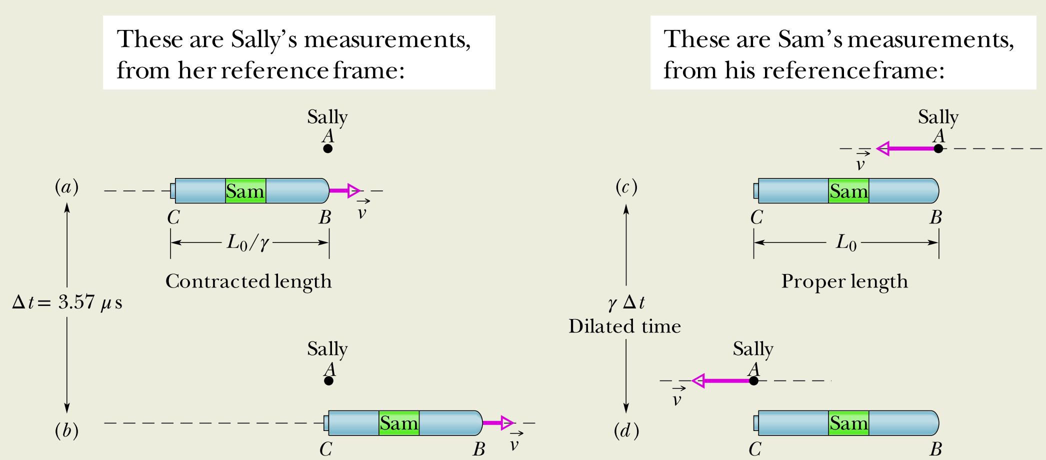


Figure 37.2.2 (a)–(b) Event 1 occurs when point B passes Sally (at point A) and event 2 occurs when point C passes her. (c)–(d) Event 1 occurs when Sally passes point B and event 2 occurs when she passes point C.

Substituting Sam's measurements into Eq. 37.2.5, we have

$$v = \frac{L_0}{\gamma\,\Delta t},$$

which is exactly what we found using Sally's measurements. Thus, we get the same result of $v = 0.210c$ with either set of measurements, *but we must be careful not to mix the measurements from the two frames.*

Sample Problem 37.2.2 Time dilation and length contraction in outrunning a supernova

Caught by surprise near a supernova, you race away from the explosion in your spaceship, hoping to outrun the high-speed material ejected toward you. Your Lorentz factor γ relative to the inertial reference frame of the local stars is 22.4.

(a) To reach a safe distance, you figure you need to cover 9.00×10^{16} m as measured in the reference frame of the local stars. How long will the flight take, as measured in that frame?

KEY IDEAS

From Chapter 2, for constant speed, we know that

$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \tag{37.2.7}$$

From Fig. 37.1.6, we see that because your Lorentz factor γ relative to the stars is 22.4 (large), your relative speed v is almost c—so close that we can approximate it as c. Then for speed $v \approx c$, we must be careful that the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37.2.7 are measured in the *same* reference frame.

Calculations: The given distance (9.00×10^{16} m) for the length of your travel path is measured in the reference frame of the stars, and the requested time interval Δt is to be measured in that same frame. Thus, we can write

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to stars}\end{pmatrix} = \frac{\text{distance relative to stars}}{c}.$$

Then substituting the given distance, we find that

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to stars}\end{pmatrix} = \frac{9.00 \times 10^{16}\ \text{m}}{299\ 792\ 458\ \text{m/s}}$$
$$= 3.00 \times 10^{8}\ \text{s} = 9.51\ \text{y}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) How long does that trip take according to you (in your reference frame)?

KEY IDEAS

1. We now want the time interval measured in a different reference frame—namely, yours. Thus, we need to transform the data given in the reference frame of the stars to your frame.
2. The given path length of 9.00×10^{16} m, measured in the reference frame of the stars, is a proper length L_0, because the two ends of the path are at rest in that frame. As observed from your reference frame, the stars' reference frame and those two ends of the path race past you at a relative speed of $v \approx c$.
3. You measure a contracted length L_0/γ for the path, not the proper length L_0.

Calculations: We can now rewrite Eq. 37.2.7 as

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to you}\end{pmatrix} = \frac{\text{distance relative to you}}{c} = \frac{L_0/\gamma}{c}.$$

Substituting known data, we find

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to you}\end{pmatrix} = \frac{(9.00 \times 10^{16}\ \text{m})/22.4}{299\ 792\ 458\ \text{m/s}}$$
$$= 1.340 \times 10^{7}\ \text{s} = 0.425\ \text{y}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

In part (a) we found that the flight takes 9.51 y in the reference frame of the stars. However, here we find that it takes only 0.425 y in your frame, due to the relative motion and the resulting contracted length of the path.

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37.3 THE LORENTZ TRANSFORMATION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.3.1 For frames with relative motion, apply the Galilean transformation to transform an event's position from one frame to the other.

37.3.2 Identify that a Galilean transformation is approximately correct for slow relative speeds but the Lorentz transformations are the correct transformations for any physically possible speed.

37.3.3 Apply the Lorentz transformations for the spatial and temporal separations of two events as measured in two frames with a relative speed v.

37.3.4 From the Lorentz transformations, derive the equations for time dilation and length contraction.

37.3.5 From the Lorentz transformations show that if two events are simultaneous but spatially separated in one frame, they cannot be simultaneous in another frame with relative motion.

Key Idea

- The Lorentz transformation equations relate the spacetime coordinates of a single event as seen by observers in two inertial frames, S and S', where S' is moving relative to S with velocity v in the positive x and x' direction. The four coordinates are related by

$$x' = \gamma(x - vt),$$
$$y' = y,$$
$$z' = z,$$
$$t' = \gamma(t - vx/c^2).$$

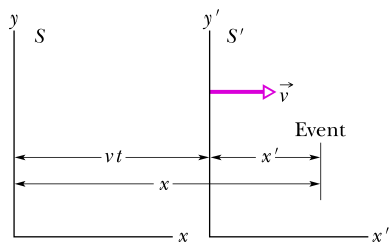


Figure 37.3.1 Two inertial reference frames: Frame S' has velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to frame S.

The Lorentz Transformation

Figure 37.3.1 shows inertial reference frame S' moving with speed v relative to frame S, in the common positive direction of their horizontal axes (marked x and x'). An observer in S reports spacetime coordinates x, y, z, t for an event, and an observer in S' reports x', y', z', t' for the same event. How are these sets of numbers related? We claim at once (although it requires proof) that the y and z coordinates, which are perpendicular to the motion, are not affected by the motion; that is, $y = y'$ and $z = z'$. Our interest then reduces to the relation between x and x' and that between t and t'.

The Galilean Transformation Equations

Prior to Einstein's publication of his special theory of relativity, the four coordinates of interest were assumed to be related by the *Galilean transformation equations:*

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= x - vt \\ t' &= t \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Galilean transformation equations; approximately valid at low speeds).} \tag{37.3.1}$$

(These equations are written with the assumption that $t = t' = 0$ when the origins of S and S' coincide.) You can verify the first equation with Fig. 37.3.1. The second equation effectively claims that time passes at the same rate for observers in both reference frames. That would have been so obviously true to a scientist prior to Einstein that it would not even have been mentioned. When speed v is small compared to c, Eqs. 37.3.1 generally work well.

The Lorentz Transformation Equations

Equations 37.3.1 work well when speed v is small compared to c, but they are actually incorrect for any speed and are very wrong when v is greater than about $0.10c$. The equations that are correct for any physically possible speed are called the **Lorentz transformation equations*** (or simply the Lorentz transformations). We can derive them from the postulates of relativity, but here we shall instead first examine them and then justify them by showing them to be consistent with

*You may wonder why we do not call these the *Einstein transformation equations* (and why not the *Einstein factor* for γ). H. A. Lorentz actually derived these equations before Einstein did, but as the great Dutch physicist graciously conceded, he did not take the further bold step of interpreting these equations as describing the true nature of space and time. It is this interpretation, first made by Einstein, that is at the heart of relativity.

our results for simultaneity, time dilation, and length contraction. Assuming that $t = t' = 0$ when the origins of S and S' coincide in Fig. 37.3.1 (event 1), then the spatial and temporal coordinates of any other event are given by

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= \gamma(x - vt), \\ y' &= y, \\ z' &= z, \\ t' &= \gamma(t - vx/c^2) \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{array}{l}\text{(Lorentz transformation equations;} \\ \text{valid at all physically possible speeds).}\end{array} \qquad (37.3.2)$$

Note that the spatial values x and the temporal values t are bound together in the first and last equations. This entanglement of space and time was a prime message of Einstein's theory, a message that was long rejected by many of his contemporaries.

It is a formal requirement of relativistic equations that they should reduce to familiar classical equations if we let c approach infinity. That is, if the speed of light were infinitely great, *all* finite speeds would be "low" and classical equations would never fail. If we let $c \to \infty$ in Eqs. 37.3.2, $\gamma \to 1$ and these equations reduce—as we expect—to the Galilean equations (Eqs. 37.3.1). You should check this.

Equations 37.3.2 are written in a form that is useful if we are given x and t and wish to find x' and t'. We may wish to go the other way, however. In that case we simply solve Eqs. 37.3.2 for x and t, obtaining

$$x = \gamma(x' + vt') \quad \text{and} \quad t = \gamma(t' + vx'/c^2). \qquad (37.3.3)$$

Comparison shows that, starting from either Eqs. 37.3.2 or Eqs. 37.3.3, you can find the other set by interchanging primed and unprimed quantities and reversing the sign of the relative velocity v. (For example, if the S' frame has a positive velocity relative to an observer in the S frame as in Fig. 37.3.1, then the S frame has a *negative* velocity relative to an observer in the S' frame.)

Equations 37.3.2 relate the coordinates of a second event when the first event is the passing of the origins of S and S' at $t = t' = 0$. However, in general we do not want to restrict the first event to being such a passage. So, let's rewrite the Lorentz transformations in terms of any pair of events 1 and 2, with spatial and temporal separations

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta t = t_2 - t_1,$$

as measured by an observer in S, and

$$\Delta x' = x'_2 - x'_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta t' = t'_2 - t'_1,$$

as measured by an observer in S'. Table 37.3.1 displays the Lorentz equations in difference form, suitable for analyzing pairs of events. The equations in the table were derived by simply substituting differences (such as Δx and $\Delta x'$) for the four variables in Eqs. 37.3.2 and 37.3.3.

Be careful: When substituting values for these differences, you must be consistent and not mix the values for the first event with those for the second event. Also, if, say, Δx is a negative quantity, you must be certain to include the minus sign in a substitution.

Table 37.3.1 The Lorentz Transformation Equations for Pairs of Events

1. $\Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t')$	1′. $\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t)$
2. $\Delta t = \gamma(\Delta t' + v\,\Delta x'/c^2)$	2′. $\Delta t' = \gamma(\Delta t - v\,\Delta x/c^2)$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

Frame S' moves at velocity v relative to frame S.

Checkpoint 37.3.1

In Fig. 37.3.1, frame S' has velocity $0.90c$ relative to frame S. An observer in frame S' measures two events as occurring at the following spacetime coordinates: event Yellow at (5.0 m, 20 ns) and event Green at (−2.0 m, 45 ns). An observer in frame S wants to find the temporal separation $\Delta t_{GY} = t_G - t_Y$ between the events. (a) Which equation in Table 37.3.1 should be used? (b) Should $+0.90c$ or $-0.90c$ be substituted for v in the parentheses on the equation's right side and in the Lorentz factor γ? What value should be substituted into the (c) first and (d) second term in the parentheses?

Some Consequences of the Lorentz Equations

Here we use the equations of Table 37.3.1 to affirm some of the conclusions that we reached earlier by arguments based directly on the postulates.

Simultaneity

Consider Eq. 2 of Table 37.3.1,

$$\Delta t = \gamma\left(\Delta t' + \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2}\right). \tag{37.3.4}$$

If two events occur at different places in reference frame S' of Fig. 37.3.1, then $\Delta x'$ in this equation is not zero. It follows that even if the events are simultaneous in S' (thus $\Delta t' = 0$), they will not be simultaneous in frame S. (This is in accord with our conclusion in Module 37.1.) The time interval between the events in S will be

$$\Delta t = \gamma \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2} \quad \text{(simultaneous events in } S'\text{)}.$$

Thus, the spatial separation $\Delta x'$ guarantees a temporal separation Δt.

Time Dilation

Suppose now that two events occur at the same place in S' (thus $\Delta x' = 0$) but at different times (thus $\Delta t' \neq 0$). Equation 37.3.4 then reduces to

$$\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t' \quad \text{(events in same place in } S'\text{)}. \tag{37.3.5}$$

This confirms time dilation between frames S and S'. Moreover, because the two events occur at the same place in S', the time interval $\Delta t'$ between them can be measured with a single clock, located at that place. Under these conditions, the measured interval is a proper time interval, and we can label it Δt_0 as we have previously labeled proper times. Thus, with that label Eq. 37.3.5 becomes

$$\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0 \quad \text{(time dilation)},$$

which is exactly Eq. 37.1.9, the time dilation equation. Thus, time dilation is a special case of the more general Lorentz equations.

Length Contraction

Consider Eq. 1′ of Table 37.3.1,

$$\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t). \tag{37.3.6}$$

If a rod lies parallel to the x and x' axes of Fig. 37.3.1 and is at rest in reference frame S', an observer in S' can measure its length at leisure. One way to do so is by subtracting the coordinates of the end points of the rod. The value of $\Delta x'$ that is obtained will be the proper length L_0 of the rod because the measurements are made in a frame where the rod is at rest.

Suppose the rod is moving in frame S. This means that Δx can be identified as the length L of the rod in frame S only if the coordinates of the rod's end points are measured *simultaneously*—that is, if $\Delta t = 0$. If we put $\Delta x' = L_0$, $\Delta x = L$, and $\Delta t = 0$ in Eq. 37.3.6, we find

$$L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction)}, \tag{37.3.7}$$

which is exactly Eq. 37.2.1, the length contraction equation. Thus, length contraction is a special case of the more general Lorentz equations.

Sample Problem 37.3.1 Lorentz transformations and reversing the sequence of events

An Earth starship has been sent to check an Earth outpost on the planet P1407, whose moon houses a battle group of the often hostile Reptulians. As the ship follows a straight-line course first past the planet and then past the moon, it detects a high-energy microwave burst at the Reptulian moon base and then, 1.10 s later, an explosion at the Earth outpost, which is 4.00×10^8 m from the Reptulian base as measured from the ship's reference frame. The Reptulians have obviously attacked the Earth outpost, and so the starship begins to prepare for a confrontation with them.

(a) The speed of the ship relative to the planet and its moon is $0.980c$. What are the distance and time interval between the burst and the explosion as measured in the planet–moon frame (and thus according to the occupants of the stations)?

KEY IDEAS

1. This problem involves measurements made from two reference frames, the planet–moon frame and the starship frame.
2. We have two events: the burst and the explosion.
3. We need to transform the given data as measured in the starship frame to the corresponding data as measured in the planet–moon frame.

Starship frame: Before we get to the transformation, we need to carefully choose our notation. We begin with a sketch of the situation as shown in Fig. 37.3.2. There, we have chosen the ship's frame S to be stationary and the planet–moon frame S' to be moving with positive velocity (rightward). (This is an arbitrary choice; we could, instead, have chosen the planet–moon frame to be stationary. Then we would redraw $\vec{v}$ in Fig. 37.3.2 as being attached to the S frame and indicating leftward motion; v would then be a negative quantity. The results would be the same.) Let subscripts e and b represent the explosion and burst, respectively. Then the given data, all in the unprimed (starship) reference frame, are

$$\Delta x = x_e - x_b = +4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$$

and

$$\Delta t = t_e - t_b = +1.10 \text{ s}.$$

The relative motion alters the time intervals between events and maybe even their sequence.

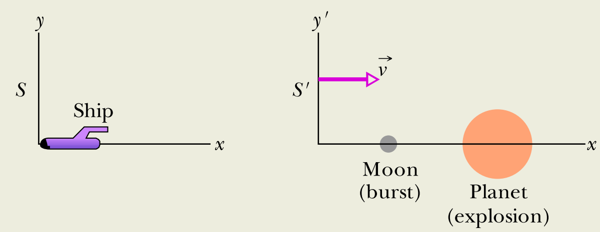


Figure 37.3.2 A planet and its moon in reference frame S' move rightward with speed v relative to a starship in reference frame S.

Here, Δx is a positive quantity because in Fig. 37.3.2, the coordinate x_e for the explosion is greater than the coordinate x_b for the burst; Δt is also a positive quantity because the time t_e of the explosion is greater (later) than the time t_b of the burst.

Planet–moon frame: We seek $\Delta x'$ and $\Delta t'$, which we shall get by transforming the given S-frame data to the planet–moon frame S'. Because we are considering a pair of events, we choose transformation equations from Table 37.3.1—namely, Eqs. 1′ and 2′:

$$\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t) \tag{37.3.8}$$

and

$$\Delta t' = \gamma\left(\Delta t - \frac{v\,\Delta x}{c^2}\right). \tag{37.3.9}$$

Here, $v = +0.980c$ and the Lorentz factor is

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(+0.980c/c)^2}} = 5.0252.$$

Equation 37.3.8 then becomes

$$\Delta x' = (5.0252)[4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m} - (+0.980c)(1.10 \text{ s})]$$
$$= 3.86 \times 10^8 \text{ m}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

and Eq. 37.3.9 becomes

$$\Delta t' = (5.0252)\left[(1.10 \text{ s}) - \frac{(+0.980c)(4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m})}{c^2}\right]$$
$$= -1.04 \text{ s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) What is the meaning of the minus sign in the value for $\Delta t'$?

Reasoning: We must be consistent with the notation we set up in part (a). Recall how we originally defined the time interval between burst and explosion: $\Delta t = t_e - t_b = +1.10$ s. To be consistent with that choice of notation, our definition of $\Delta t'$ must be $t'_e - t'_b$; thus, we have found that

$$\Delta t' = t'_e - t'_b = -1.04 \text{ s}.$$

The minus sign here tells us that $t'_b > t'_e$; that is, in the planet–moon reference frame, the burst occurred 1.04 s *after* the explosion, not 1.10 s *before* the explosion as detected in the ship frame.

(c) Did the burst cause the explosion, or vice versa?

KEY IDEA

The sequence of events measured in the planet–moon reference frame is the reverse of that measured in the ship frame. In either situation, if there is a causal relationship between the two events, information must travel from the location of one event to the location of the other to cause it.

Checking the speed: Let us check the required speed of the information. In the ship frame, this speed is

$$v_{\text{info}} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m}}{1.10 \text{ s}} = 3.64 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s},$$

but that speed is impossible because it exceeds c. In the planet–moon frame, the speed comes out to be 3.70×10^8 m/s, also impossible. Therefore, neither event could possibly have caused the other event; that is, they are *unrelated* events. Thus, the starship should stand down and not confront the Reptulians.

WileyPLUS Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

37.4 THE RELATIVITY OF VELOCITIES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.4.1 With a sketch, explain the arrangement in which a particle's velocity is to be measured relative to two frames that have relative motion.

37.4.2 Apply the relationship for a relativistic velocity transformation between two frames with relative motion.

Key Idea

- When a particle is moving with speed u' in the positive x' direction in an inertial reference frame S' that itself is moving with speed v parallel to the x direction of a second inertial frame S, the speed u of the particle as measured in S is

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity)}.$$

The Relativity of Velocities

Here we wish to use the Lorentz transformation equations to compare the velocities that two observers in different inertial reference frames S and S' would measure for the same moving particle. Let S' move with velocity v relative to S.

Suppose that the particle, moving with constant velocity parallel to the x and x' axes in Fig. 37.4.1, sends out two signals as it moves. Each observer measures the space interval and the time interval between these two events. These four measurements are related by Eqs. 1 and 2 of Table 37.3.1,

$$\Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t')$$

and

$$\Delta t = \gamma\left(\Delta t' + \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2}\right).$$

If we divide the first of these equations by the second, we find

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t'}{\Delta t' + v\,\Delta x'/c^2}.$$

Dividing the numerator and denominator of the right side by $\Delta t'$, we find

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x'/\Delta t' + v}{1 + v(\Delta x'/\Delta t')/c^2}.$$

However, in the differential limit, $\Delta x/\Delta t$ is u, the velocity of the particle as measured in S, and $\Delta x'/\Delta t'$ is u', the velocity of the particle as measured in S'. Then we have, finally,

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity transformation)} \qquad (37.4.1)$$

as the relativistic velocity transformation equation. (*Caution:* Be careful to substitute the correct signs for the velocities.) Equation 37.4.1 reduces to the classical, or Galilean, velocity transformation equation,

$$u = u' + v \quad \text{(classical velocity transformation)}, \qquad (37.4.2)$$

when we apply the formal test of letting $c \to \infty$. In other words, Eq. 37.4.1 is correct for all physically possible speeds, but Eq. 37.4.2 is approximately correct for speeds much less than c.

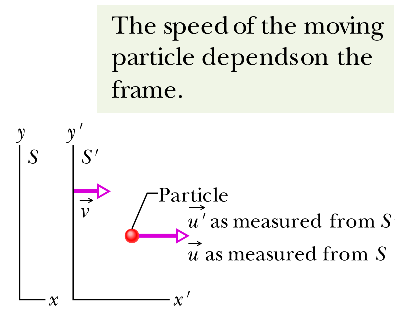
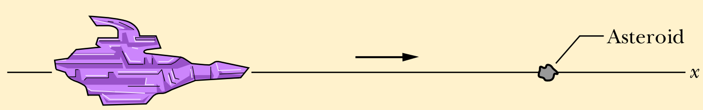


Figure 37.4.1 Reference frame S' moves with velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to frame S. A particle has velocity $\vec{u}'$ relative to reference frame S' and velocity $\vec{u}$ relative to reference frame S.

Checkpoint 37.4.1

The figure shows a starship and an asteroid that move along an x axis. We also move along that axis in a scout ship. In four situations, the velocity of the starship relative to us and the velocity of the asteroid relative to the starship are, in that order: (a) $+0.4c$, $+0.4c$; (b) $+0.5c$, $+0.3c$; (c) $+0.9c$, $-0.1c$; (d) $+0.3c$, $+0.5c$. Rank the situations according to the magnitude of the velocity of the asteroid relative to us, greatest first.



37.5 DOPPLER EFFECT FOR LIGHT

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.5.1 Identify that the frequency of light as measured in a frame attached to the light source (the rest frame) is the proper frequency.

37.5.2 For source–detector separations increasing and decreasing, identify whether the detected frequency is shifted up or down from the proper frequency, identify that the shift increases with an increase in relative speed, and apply the terms blue shift and red shift.

37.5.3 Identify radial speed.

37.5.4 For source–detector separations increasing and decreasing, apply the relationships between proper frequency f_0, detected frequency f, and radial speed v.

37.5.5 Convert between equations for frequency shift and wavelength shift.

37.5.6 When a radial speed is much less than light speed, apply the approximation relating wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$, proper wavelength λ_0, and radial speed v.

37.5.7 Identify that for light (not sound) there is a shift in the frequency even when the velocity of the source is perpendicular to the line between the source and the detector, an effect due to time dilation.

37.5.8 Apply the relationship for the transverse Doppler effect by relating detected frequency f, proper frequency f_0, and relative speed v.

Key Ideas

- When a light source and a light detector move relative to each other, the wavelength of the light as measured in the rest frame of the source is the proper wavelength λ_0. The detected wavelength λ is either longer (a red shift) or shorter (a blue shift) depending on whether the source–detector separation is increasing or decreasing.
- When the separation is increasing, the wavelengths are related by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)},$$

where $\beta = v/c$ and v is the relative radial speed (along a line through the source and detector). If the separation is decreasing, the signs in front of the β symbols are reversed.

- For speeds much less than c, the magnitude of the Doppler wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0$ is approximately related to v by

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0} c \quad (v \ll c).$$

- If the relative motion of the light source is perpendicular to a line through the source and detector, the detected frequency f is related to the proper frequency f_0 by

$$f = f_0 \sqrt{1-\beta^2}.$$

This transverse Doppler effect is due to time dilation.

Doppler Effect for Light

In Module 17.7 we discussed the Doppler effect (a shift in detected frequency) for sound waves, finding that the effect depends on the source and detector velocities relative to the air. That is not the situation with light waves, which require no medium (they can even travel through vacuum). The Doppler effect for light waves depends on only the relative velocity $\vec{v}$ between source and detector, as measured from the reference frame of either. Let f_0 represent the **proper frequency** of the source—that is, the frequency that is measured by an observer in the rest frame of the source. Let f represent the frequency detected by an observer moving with velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to that rest frame. Then, when the direction of $\vec{v}$ is directly away from the source,

$$f = f_0 \sqrt{\frac{1-\beta}{1+\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}, \tag{37.5.1}$$

where $\beta = v/c$.

Because measurements involving light are usually done in wavelengths rather than frequencies, let's rewrite Eq. 37.5.1 by replacing f with c/λ and f_0 with c/λ_0, where λ is the measured wavelength and λ_0 is the **proper wavelength** (the wavelength associated with f_0). After canceling c from both sides, we then have

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}. \tag{37.5.2}$$

When the direction of $\vec{v}$ is directly toward the source, we must change the signs in front of the β symbols in Eqs. 37.5.1 and 37.5.2.

For an increasing separation, we can see from Eq. 37.5.2 (with an addition in the numerator and a subtraction in the denominator) that the measured wavelength is greater than the proper wavelength. Such a Doppler shift is described as being a *red shift,* where *red* does not mean the measured wavelength is red or even visible. The term merely serves as a memory device because red is at the *long*-wavelength end of the visible spectrum. Thus λ is longer than λ_0. Similarly, for a decreasing separation, λ is shorter than λ_0, and the Doppler shift is described as being a *blue shift*.

Low-Speed Doppler Effect

For low speeds ($\beta \ll 1$), Eq. 37.5.1 can be expanded in a power series in β and approximated as

$$f = f_0(1 - \beta + \tfrac{1}{2}\beta^2) \quad \text{(source and detector separating, } \beta \ll 1\text{).} \tag{37.5.3}$$

The corresponding low-speed equation for the Doppler effect with sound waves (or any waves except light waves) has the same first two terms but a different coefficient in the third term. Thus, the relativistic effect for low-speed light sources and detectors shows up only with the β^2 term.

A police radar unit employs the Doppler effect with microwaves to measure the speed v of a car. A source in the radar unit emits a microwave beam at a certain (proper) frequency f_0 along the road. A car that is moving toward the unit intercepts that beam but at a frequency that is shifted upward by the Doppler effect due to the car's motion toward the radar unit. The car reflects the beam back toward the radar unit. Because the car is moving toward the radar unit, the detector in the unit intercepts a reflected beam that is further shifted up in frequency. The unit compares that detected frequency with f_0 and computes the speed v of the car.

Astronomical Doppler Effect

In astronomical observations of stars, galaxies, and other sources of light, we can determine how fast the sources are moving, either directly away from us or directly toward us, by measuring the *Doppler shift* of the light that reaches us. If a certain star were at rest relative to us, we would detect light from it with a certain proper frequency f_0. However, if the star is moving either directly away from us or directly toward us, the light we detect has a frequency f that is shifted from f_0 by the Doppler effect. This Doppler shift is due only to the *radial* motion of the star (its motion directly toward us or away from us), and the speed we can determine by measuring this Doppler shift is only the *radial speed* v of the star—that is, only the radial component of the star's velocity relative to us.

Suppose a star (or any other light source) moves away from us with a radial speed v that is low enough (β is small enough) for us to neglect the β^2 term in Eq. 37.5.3. Then we have

$$f = f_0(1 - \beta). \tag{37.5.4}$$

Because astronomical measurements involving light are usually done in wavelengths rather than frequencies, let's rewrite Eq. 37.5.4 as

$$\frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{c}{\lambda_0}(1 - \beta),$$

or

$$\lambda = \lambda_0(1 - \beta)^{-1}.$$

Because we assume β is small, we can expand $(1 - \beta)^{-1}$ in a power series. Doing so and retaining only the first power of β, we have

$$\lambda = \lambda_0(1 + \beta),$$

or

$$\beta = \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0}. \tag{37.5.5}$$

Replacing β with v/c and $\lambda - \lambda_0$ with $|\Delta\lambda|$ leads to

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0}c \quad \text{(radial speed of light source, } v \ll c\text{).} \tag{37.5.6}$$

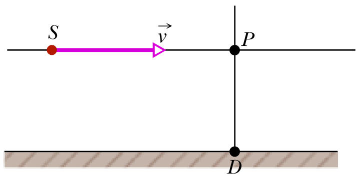
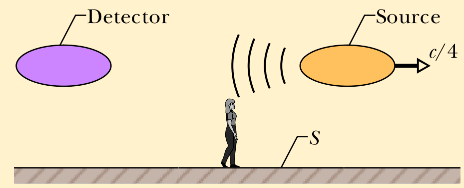


Figure 37.5.1 A light source S travels with velocity $\vec{v}$ past a detector at D. The special theory of relativity predicts a transverse Doppler effect as the source passes through point P, where the direction of travel is perpendicular to the line extending through D. Classical theory predicts no such effect.

The difference $\Delta\lambda$ is the *wavelength Doppler shift* of the light source. We enclose it with an absolute sign so that we always have a magnitude of the shift. Equation 37.5.6 is an approximation that can be applied whether the light source is moving toward or away from us but only when $v \ll c$.

Checkpoint 37.5.1

The figure shows a source that emits light of proper frequency f_0 while moving directly toward the right with speed $c/4$ as measured from reference frame S. The figure also shows a light detector, which measures a frequency $f > f_0$ for the emitted light. (a) Is the detector moving toward the left or the right? (b) Is the speed of the detector as measured from reference frame S more than $c/4$, less than $c/4$, or equal to $c/4$?



Transverse Doppler Effect

So far, we have discussed the Doppler effect, here and in Chapter 17, only for situations in which the source and the detector move either directly toward or directly away from each other. Figure 37.5.1 shows a different arrangement, in which a source S moves past a detector D. When S reaches point P, the velocity of S is perpendicular to the line joining P and D, and at that instant S is moving neither toward nor away from D. If the source is emitting sound waves of frequency f_0, D detects that frequency (with no Doppler effect) when it intercepts the waves that were emitted at point P. However, if the source is emitting light waves, there is still a Doppler effect, called the **transverse Doppler effect.** In this situation, the detected frequency of the light emitted when the source is at point P is

$$f = f_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \quad \text{(transverse Doppler effect)}. \tag{37.5.7}$$

For low speeds ($\beta \ll 1$), Eq. 37.5.7 can be expanded in a power series in β and approximated as

$$f = f_0(1 - \tfrac{1}{2}\beta^2) \quad \text{(low speeds)}. \tag{37.5.8}$$

Here the first term is what we would expect for sound waves, and again the relativistic effect for low-speed light sources and detectors appears with the β^2 term.

In principle, a police radar unit can determine the speed of a car even when the path of the radar beam is perpendicular (transverse) to the path of the car. However, Eq. 37.5.8 tells us that because β is small even for a fast car, the relativistic term $\beta^2/2$ in the transverse Doppler effect is extremely small. Thus, $f \approx f_0$ and the radar unit computes a speed of zero.

The transverse Doppler effect is really another test of time dilation. If we rewrite Eq. 37.5.7 in terms of the period T of oscillation of the emitted light wave instead of the frequency, we have, because $T = 1/f$,

$$T = \frac{T_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \gamma T_0, \tag{37.5.9}$$

in which T_0 $(= 1/f_0)$ is the **proper period** of the source. As comparison with Eq. 37.1.9 shows, Eq. 37.5.9 is simply the time dilation formula.

37.6 MOMENTUM AND ENERGY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.6.1 Identify that the classical expressions for momentum and kinetic energy are approximately correct for slow speeds whereas the relativistic expressions are correct for any physically possible speed.

37.6.2 Apply the relationship between momentum, mass, and relative speed.

37.6.3 Identify that an object has a mass energy (or rest energy) associated with its mass.

37.6.4 Apply the relationships between total energy, rest energy, kinetic energy, momentum, mass, speed, the speed parameter, and the Lorentz factor.

37.6.5 Sketch a graph of kinetic energy versus the ratio v/c (of speed to light speed) for both classical and relativistic expressions of kinetic energy.

37.6.6 Apply the work–kinetic energy theorem to relate work by an applied force and the resulting change in kinetic energy.

37.6.7 For a reaction, apply the relationship between the Q value and the change in the mass energy.

37.6.8 For a reaction, identify the correlation between the algebraic sign of Q and whether energy is released or absorbed by the reaction.

Key Ideas

- The following definitions of linear momentum $\vec{p}$, kinetic energy K, and total energy E for a particle of mass m are valid at any physically possible speed:

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum)},$$
$$E = mc^2 + K = \gamma mc^2 \quad \text{(total energy)},$$
$$K = mc^2(\gamma - 1) \quad \text{(kinetic energy)}.$$

Here γ is the Lorentz factor for the particle's motion, and mc^2 is the *mass energy*, or *rest energy*, associated with the mass of the particle.

- These equations lead to the relationships

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2$$

and
$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2.$$

- When a system of particles undergoes a chemical or nuclear reaction, the Q of the reaction is the negative of the change in the system's total mass energy:

$$Q = M_i c^2 - M_f c^2 = -\Delta M\, c^2,$$

where M_i is the system's total mass before the reaction and M_f is its total mass after the reaction.

A New Look at Momentum

Suppose that a number of observers, each in a different inertial reference frame, watch an isolated collision between two particles. In classical mechanics, we have seen that—even though the observers measure different velocities for the colliding particles—they all find that the law of conservation of momentum holds. That is, they find that the total momentum of the system of particles after the collision is the same as it was before the collision.

How is this situation affected by relativity? We find that if we continue to define the momentum $\vec{p}$ of a particle as $m\vec{v}$, the product of its mass and its velocity, total momentum is *not* conserved for the observers in different inertial frames. So, we need to redefine momentum in order to save that conservation law.

Consider a particle moving with constant speed v in the positive direction of an x axis. Classically, its momentum has magnitude

$$p = mv = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad \text{(classical momentum)}, \tag{37.6.1}$$

in which Δx is the distance it travels in time Δt. To find a relativistic expression for momentum, we start with the new definition

$$p = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t_0}.$$

Here, as before, Δx is the distance traveled by a moving particle as viewed by an observer watching that particle. However, Δt_0 is the time required to travel that distance, measured not by the observer watching the moving particle but by an observer moving with the particle. The particle is at rest with respect to this second observer; thus that measured time is a proper time.

Using the time dilation formula, $\Delta t = \gamma\, \Delta t_0$ (Eq. 37.1.9), we can then write

$$p = m\,\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t_0} = m\,\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}\,\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = m\,\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}\,\gamma.$$

However, since $\Delta x/\Delta t$ is just the particle velocity v, we have

$$p = \gamma m v \quad \text{(momentum).} \tag{37.6.2}$$

Note that this differs from the classical definition of Eq. 37.6.1 only by the Lorentz factor γ. However, that difference is important: Unlike classical momentum, relativistic momentum approaches an infinite value as v approaches c.

We can generalize the definition of Eq. 37.6.2 to vector form as

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum).} \tag{37.6.3}$$

This equation gives the correct definition of momentum for all physically possible speeds. For a speed much less than c, it reduces to the classical definition of momentum ($\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$).

A New Look at Energy

Mass Energy

The science of chemistry was initially developed with the assumption that in chemical reactions, energy and mass are conserved separately. In 1905, Einstein showed that as a consequence of his theory of special relativity, mass can be considered to be another form of energy. Thus, the law of conservation of energy is really the law of conservation of mass–energy.

In a *chemical reaction* (a process in which atoms or molecules interact), the amount of mass that is transferred into other forms of energy (or vice versa) is such a tiny fraction of the total mass involved that there is no hope of measuring the mass change with even the best laboratory balances. Mass and energy truly *seem* to be separately conserved. However, in a *nuclear reaction* (in which nuclei or fundamental particles interact), the energy released is often about a million times greater than in a chemical reaction, and the change in mass can easily be measured.

An object's mass m and the equivalent energy E_0 are related by

$$E_0 = mc^2, \tag{37.6.4}$$

which, without the subscript 0, is the best-known science equation of all time. This energy that is associated with the mass of an object is called **mass energy** or **rest energy.** The second name suggests that E_0 is an energy that the object has even when it is at rest, simply because it has mass. (If you continue your study of physics beyond this book, you will see more refined discussions of the relation between mass and energy. You might even encounter disagreements about just what that relation is and means.)

Table 37.6.1 shows the (approximate) mass energy, or rest energy, of a few objects. The mass energy of, say, a U.S. penny is enormous; the equivalent amount of electrical energy would cost well over a million dollars. On the other hand, the entire annual U.S. electrical energy production corresponds to a mass of only a few hundred kilograms of matter (stones, burritos, or anything else).

Table 37.6.1 **The Energy Equivalents of a Few Objects**

Object	Mass (kg)	Energy Equivalent	
Electron	$\approx 9.11 \times 10^{-31}$	$\approx 8.19 \times 10^{-14}$ J	($\approx$ 511 keV)
Proton	$\approx 1.67 \times 10^{-27}$	$\approx 1.50 \times 10^{-10}$ J	($\approx$ 938 MeV)
Uranium atom	$\approx 3.95 \times 10^{-25}$	$\approx 3.55 \times 10^{-8}$ J	($\approx$ 225 GeV)
Dust particle	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-13}$	$\approx 1 \times 10^{4}$ J	($\approx$ 2 kcal)
U.S. penny	$\approx 3.1 \times 10^{-3}$	$\approx 2.8 \times 10^{14}$ J	($\approx$ 78 GW · h)

In practice, SI units are rarely used with Eq. 37.6.4 because they are too large to be convenient. Masses are usually measured in atomic mass units, where

$$1 \text{ u} = 1.660\,538\,86 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}, \tag{37.6.5}$$

and energies are usually measured in electron-volts or multiples of it, where

$$1 \text{ eV} = 1.602\,176\,462 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}. \tag{37.6.6}$$

In the units of Eqs. 37.6.5 and 37.6.6, the multiplying constant c^2 has the values

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 &= 9.314\,940\,13 \times 10^8 \text{ eV/u} = 9.314\,940\,13 \times 10^5 \text{ keV/u} \\ &= 931.494\,013 \text{ MeV/u}. \end{aligned} \tag{37.6.7}$$

Total Energy

Equation 37.6.4 gives, for any object, the mass energy E_0 that is associated with the object's mass m, regardless of whether the object is at rest or moving. If the object is moving, it has additional energy in the form of kinetic energy K. If we assume that the object's potential energy is zero, then its total energy E is the sum of its mass energy and its kinetic energy:

$$E = E_0 + K = mc^2 + K. \tag{37.6.8}$$

Although we shall not prove it, the total energy E can also be written as

$$E = \gamma mc^2, \tag{37.6.9}$$

where γ is the Lorentz factor for the object's motion.

Since Chapter 7, we have discussed many examples involving changes in the total energy of a particle or a system of particles. However, we did not include mass energy in the discussions because the changes in mass energy were either zero or small enough to be neglected. The law of conservation of total energy still applies when changes in mass energy are significant. Thus, regardless of what happens to the mass energy, the following statement from Module 8.5 is still true:

The total energy E of an *isolated system* cannot change.

For example, if the total mass energy of two interacting particles in an isolated system decreases, some other type of energy in the system must increase because the total energy cannot change.

***Q* Value.** In a system undergoing a chemical or nuclear reaction, a change in the total mass energy of the system due to the reaction is often given as a Q value. The Q value for a reaction is obtained from the relation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \text{system's initial} \\ \text{total mass energy} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{system's final} \\ \text{total mass energy} \end{pmatrix} + Q,$$

or

$$E_{0i} = E_{0f} + Q. \tag{37.6.10}$$

Using Eq. 37.6.4 ($E_0 = mc^2$), we can rewrite this in terms of the initial *total* mass M_i and the final *total* mass M_f as

$$M_i c^2 = M_f c^2 + Q,$$

or $$Q = M_i c^2 - M_f c^2 = -\Delta M c^2, \tag{37.6.11}$$

where the change in mass due to the reaction is $\Delta M = M_f - M_i$.

If a reaction results in the transfer of energy from mass energy to, say, kinetic energy of the reaction products, the system's total mass energy E_0 (and total mass M) decreases and Q is positive. If, instead, a reaction requires that energy be transferred to mass energy, the system's total mass energy E_0 (and its total mass M) increases and Q is negative.

For example, suppose two hydrogen nuclei undergo a *fusion reaction* in which they join together to form a single nucleus and release two particles:

$${}^1\mathrm{H} + {}^1\mathrm{H} \rightarrow {}^2\mathrm{H} + \mathrm{e}^+ + \nu,$$

where ^{2}H is another type of hydrogen nucleus (with a neutron in addition to the proton), e^+ is a positron, and ν is a neutrino. The total mass energy (and total mass) of the resultant single nucleus and two released particles is less than the total mass energy (and total mass) of the initial hydrogen nuclei. Thus, the Q of the fusion reaction is positive, and energy is said to be *released* (transferred from mass energy) by the reaction. This release is important to you because the fusion of hydrogen nuclei in the Sun is one part of the process that results in sunshine on Earth and makes life here possible.

Kinetic Energy

In Chapter 7 we defined the kinetic energy K of an object of mass m moving at speed v well below c to be

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2. \tag{37.6.12}$$

However, this classical equation is only an approximation that is good enough when the speed is well below the speed of light.

Let us now find an expression for kinetic energy that is correct for *all* physically possible speeds, including speeds close to c. Solving Eq. 37.6.8 for K and then substituting for E from Eq. 37.6.9 lead to

$$\begin{aligned} K &= E - mc^2 = \gamma mc^2 - mc^2 \\ &= mc^2(\gamma - 1) \qquad \text{(kinetic energy)}, \end{aligned} \tag{37.6.13}$$

where $\gamma \; (= 1/\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2})$ is the Lorentz factor for the object's motion.

As v/c approaches 1.0, the actual kinetic energy approaches infinity.

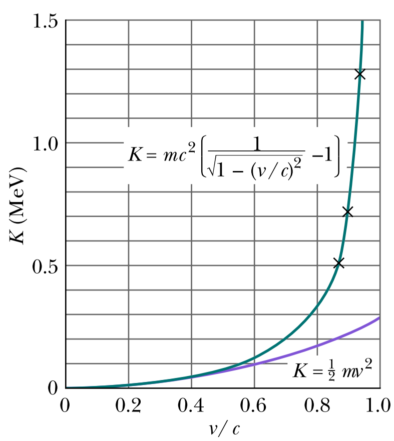


Figure 37.6.1 The relativistic (Eq. 37.6.13) and classical (Eq. 37.6.12) equations for the kinetic energy of an electron, plotted as a function of v/c, where v is the speed of the electron and c is the speed of light. Note that the two curves blend together at low speeds and diverge widely at high speeds. Experimental data (at the × marks) show that at high speeds the relativistic curve agrees with experiment but the classical curve does not.

Figure 37.6.1 shows plots of the kinetic energy of an electron as calculated with the correct definition (Eq. 37.6.13) and the classical approximation (Eq. 37.6.12), both as functions of v/c. Note that on the left side of the graph the two plots coincide; this is the part of the graph—at lower speeds—where we have calculated kinetic energies so far in this book. This part of the graph tells us that we have been justified in calculating kinetic energy with the classical expression of Eq. 37.6.12. However, on the right side of the graph—at speeds near c—the two plots differ significantly. As v/c approaches 1.0, the plot for the classical definition of kinetic energy increases only moderately while the plot for the correct definition of kinetic energy increases dramatically, approaching an infinite value as v/c approaches 1.0. Thus, when an object's speed v is near c, we *must* use Eq. 37.6.13 to calculate its kinetic energy.

Work. Figure 37.6.1 also tells us something about the work we must do on an object to increase its speed by, say, 1%. The required work W is equal to the resulting change ΔK in the object's kinetic energy. If the change is to occur on the low-speed, left side of Fig. 37.6.1, the required work might be modest. However, if the change is to occur on the high-speed, right side of Fig. 37.6.1, the required work could be enormous because the kinetic energy K increases so rapidly there with an increase in speed v. To increase an object's speed to c would require, in principle, an infinite amount of energy; thus, doing so is impossible.

The kinetic energies of electrons, protons, and other particles are often stated with the unit electron-volt or one of its multiples used as an adjective. For example, an electron with a kinetic energy of 20 MeV may be described as a 20 MeV electron.

Momentum and Kinetic Energy

In classical mechanics, the momentum p of a particle is mv and its kinetic energy K is $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. If we eliminate v between these two expressions, we find a direct relation between momentum and kinetic energy:

$$p^2 = 2Km \quad \text{(classical)}. \tag{37.6.14}$$

We can find a similar connection in relativity by eliminating v between the relativistic definition of momentum (Eq. 37.6.2) and the relativistic definition of kinetic energy (Eq. 37.6.13). Doing so leads, after some algebra, to

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2. \tag{37.6.15}$$

With the aid of Eq. 37.6.8, we can transform Eq. 37.6.15 into a relation between the momentum p and the total energy E of a particle:

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2. \tag{37.6.16}$$

The right triangle of Fig. 37.6.2 can help you keep these useful relations in mind. You can also show that, in that triangle,

$$\sin\theta = \beta \quad \text{and} \quad \cos\theta = 1/\gamma. \tag{37.6.17}$$

With Eq. 37.6.16 we can see that the product pc must have the same unit as energy E; thus, we can express the unit of momentum p as an energy unit divided by c, usually as MeV/c or GeV/c in fundamental particle physics.

This might help you to remember the relations.

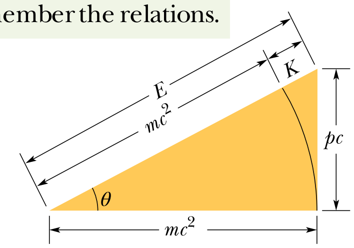


Figure 37.6.2 A useful memory diagram for the relativistic relations among the total energy E, the rest energy or mass energy mc^2, the kinetic energy K, and the momentum magnitude p.

Checkpoint 37.6.1

Are (a) the kinetic energy and (b) the total energy of a 1 GeV electron more than, less than, or equal to those of a 1 GeV proton?

Sample Problem 37.6.1 Energy and momentum of a relativistic electron

(a) What is the total energy E of a 2.53 MeV electron?

KEY IDEA

From Eq. 37.6.8, the total energy E is the sum of the electron's mass energy (or rest energy) mc^2 and its kinetic energy:

$$E = mc^2 + K. \tag{37.6.18}$$

Calculations: The adjective "2.53 MeV" in the problem statement means that the electron's kinetic energy is 2.53 MeV. To evaluate the electron's mass energy mc^2, we substitute the electron's mass m from Appendix B, obtaining

$$mc^2 = (9.109 \times 10^{-31}\ \text{kg})(299\ 792\ 458\ \text{m/s})^2$$
$$= 8.187 \times 10^{-14}\ \text{J}.$$

Then dividing this result by 1.602×10^{-13} J/MeV gives us 0.511 MeV as the electron's mass energy (confirming the value in Table 37.6.1). Equation 37.6.18 then yields

$$E = 0.511\ \text{MeV} + 2.53\ \text{MeV} = 3.04\ \text{MeV}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) What is the magnitude p of the electron's momentum, in the unit MeV/c? (Note that c is the symbol for the speed of light and not itself a unit.)

KEY IDEA

We can find p from the total energy E and the mass energy mc^2 via Eq. 37.6.16,

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2.$$

Calculations: Solving for pc gives us

$$pc = \sqrt{E^2 - (mc^2)^2}$$
$$= \sqrt{(3.04\ \text{MeV})^2 - (0.511\ \text{MeV})^2} = 3.00\ \text{MeV}.$$

Finally, dividing both sides by c we find

$$p = 3.00\ \text{MeV}/c. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Sample Problem 37.6.2 Energy and an astounding discrepancy in travel time

The most energetic proton ever detected in the cosmic rays coming to Earth from space had an astounding kinetic energy of 3.0×10^{20} eV (enough energy to warm a teaspoon of water by a few degrees).

(a) What were the proton's Lorentz factor γ and speed v (both relative to the ground-based detector)?

KEY IDEAS

(1) The proton's Lorentz factor γ relates its total energy E to its mass energy mc^2 via Eq. 37.6.9 ($E = \gamma mc^2$). (2) The proton's total energy is the sum of its mass energy mc^2 and its (given) kinetic energy K.

Calculations: Putting these ideas together we have

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{mc^2} = \frac{mc^2 + K}{mc^2} = 1 + \frac{K}{mc^2}. \qquad (37.6.19)$$

From Table 37.6.1, the proton's mass energy mc^2 is 938 MeV. Substituting this and the given kinetic energy into Eq. 37.6.19, we obtain

$$\gamma = 1 + \frac{3.0 \times 10^{20}\ \text{eV}}{938 \times 10^6\ \text{eV}}$$
$$= 3.198 \times 10^{11} \approx 3.2 \times 10^{11}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

This computed value for γ is so large that we cannot use the definition of γ (Eq. 37.1.8) to find v. Try it; your calculator will tell you that β is effectively equal to 1 and thus that v is effectively equal to c. Actually, v is almost c, but we want a more accurate answer, which we can obtain by first solving Eq. 37.1.8 for $1 - \beta$. To begin we write

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-\beta)(1+\beta)}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1-\beta)}},$$

where we have used the fact that β is so close to unity that $1 + \beta$ is very close to 2. (We can round off the sum of two very close numbers but not their difference.) The velocity we seek is contained in the $1 - \beta$ term. Solving for $1 - \beta$ then yields

$$1 - \beta = \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} = \frac{1}{(2)(3.198 \times 10^{11})^2}$$
$$= 4.9 \times 10^{-24} \approx 5 \times 10^{-24}.$$

Thus,
$$\beta = 1 - 5 \times 10^{-24}$$

and, since $v = \beta c$,

$$v \approx 0.999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,995c. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) Suppose that the proton travels along a diameter of the Milky Way Galaxy (9.8×10^4 ly). Approximately how long does the proton take to travel that diameter as measured from the common reference frame of Earth and the Galaxy?

Reasoning: We just saw that this *ultrarelativistic* proton is traveling at a speed barely less than c. By the definition of light-year, light takes 1 y to travel a distance of 1 ly, and so light should take 9.8×10^4 y to travel 9.8×10^4 ly, and this proton should take almost the same time. Thus, from our Earth–Milky Way reference frame, the proton's trip takes

$$\Delta t = 9.8 \times 10^4\ \text{y}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(c) How long does the trip take as measured in the reference frame of the proton?

KEY IDEAS

1. This problem involves measurements made from two (inertial) reference frames: one is the Earth–Milky Way frame and the other is attached to the proton.
2. This problem also involves two events: The first is when the proton passes one end of the diameter along the Galaxy, and the second is when it passes the opposite end.
3. The time interval between those two events as measured in the proton's reference frame is the proper time interval Δt_0 because the events occur at the same location in that frame—namely, at the proton itself.
4. We can find the proper time interval Δt_0 from the time interval Δt measured in the Earth–Milky Way frame by using Eq. 37.1.9 ($\Delta t = \gamma\, \Delta t_0$) for time dilation. (Note that we can use that equation because one of the time measures *is* a proper time. However, we get the same relation if we use a Lorentz transformation.)

Calculation: Solving Eq. 37.1.9 for Δt_0 and substituting γ from (a) and Δt from (b), we find

$$\Delta t_0 = \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma} = \frac{9.8 \times 10^4\ \text{y}}{3.198 \times 10^{11}}$$
$$= 3.06 \times 10^{-7}\ \text{y} = 9.7\ \text{s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

In our frame, the trip takes 98 000 y. In the proton's frame, it takes 9.7 s! As promised at the start of this chapter, relative motion can alter the rate at which time passes, and we have here an extreme example.

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Review & Summary

The Postulates Einstein's **special theory of relativity** is based on two postulates:

1. The laws of physics are the same for observers in all inertial reference frames. No one frame is preferred over any other.
2. The speed of light in vacuum has the same value c in all directions and in all inertial reference frames.

The speed of light c in vacuum is an ultimate speed that cannot be exceeded by any entity carrying energy or information.

Coordinates of an Event Three space coordinates and one time coordinate specify an **event.** One task of special relativity is to relate these coordinates as assigned by two observers who are in uniform motion with respect to each other.

Simultaneous Events If two observers are in relative motion, they will not, in general, agree as to whether two events are simultaneous.

Time Dilation If two successive events occur at the same place in an inertial reference frame, the time interval Δt_0 between them, measured on a single clock where they occur, is the **proper time** between the events. *Observers in frames moving relative to that frame will measure a larger value for this interval.* For an observer moving with relative speed v, the measured time interval is

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \gamma\,\Delta t_0 \quad \text{(time dilation)}. \qquad (37.1.7 \text{ to } 37.1.9)$$

Here $\beta = v/c$ is the **speed parameter** and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ is the **Lorentz factor.** An important result of time dilation is that moving clocks run slow as measured by an observer at rest.

Length Contraction The length L_0 of an object measured by an observer in an inertial reference frame in which the object is at rest is called its **proper length.** *Observers in frames moving relative to that frame and parallel to that length will measure a shorter length.* For an observer moving with relative speed v, the measured length is

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction)}. \qquad (37.2.1)$$

The Lorentz Transformation The *Lorentz transformation* equations relate the spacetime coordinates of a single event as seen by observers in two inertial frames, S and S', where S' is moving relative to S with velocity v in the positive x and x' direction. The four coordinates are related by

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= \gamma(x - vt),\\ y' &= y,\\ z' &= z,\\ t' &= \gamma(t - vx/c^2). \end{aligned} \qquad (37.3.2)$$

Relativity of Velocities When a particle is moving with speed u' in the positive x' direction in an inertial reference frame S' that itself is moving with speed v parallel to the x direction of a second inertial frame S, the speed u of the particle as measured in S is

$$u = \frac{u'+v}{1+u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity)}. \qquad (37.4.1)$$

Relativistic Doppler Effect When a light source and a light detector move directly relative to each other, the wavelength of the light as measured in the rest frame of the source is the *proper wavelength* λ_0. The detected wavelength λ is either longer (a *red shift*) or shorter (a *blue shift*) depending on whether the source–detector separation is increasing or decreasing. When the separation is increasing, the wavelengths are related by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0\sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}, \qquad (37.5.2)$$

where $\beta = v/c$ and v is the relative radial speed (along a line connecting the source and detector). If the separation is decreasing, the signs in front of the β symbols are reversed. For speeds much less than c, the magnitude of the Doppler wavelength shift ($\Delta\lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0$) is approximately related to v by

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0}c \quad (v \ll c). \qquad (37.5.6)$$

Transverse Doppler Effect If the relative motion of the light source is perpendicular to a line joining the source and detector, the detected frequency f is related to the proper frequency f_0 by

$$f = f_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2}. \qquad (37.5.7)$$

Momentum and Energy The following definitions of linear momentum $\vec{p}$, kinetic energy K, and total energy E for a particle of mass m are valid at any physically possible speed:

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m\vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum)}, \qquad (37.6.3)$$

$$E = mc^2 + K = \gamma mc^2 \quad \text{(total energy)}, \qquad (37.6.8, 37.6.9)$$

$$K = mc^2(\gamma - 1) \quad \text{(kinetic energy)}. \qquad (37.6.13)$$

Here γ is the Lorentz factor for the particle's motion, and mc^2 is the *mass energy,* or *rest energy,* associated with the mass of the particle. These equations lead to the relationships

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2 \qquad (37.6.15)$$

and

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2. \qquad (37.6.16)$$

When a system of particles undergoes a chemical or nuclear reaction, the Q of the reaction is the negative of the change in the system's total mass energy:

$$Q = M_ic^2 - M_fc^2 = -\Delta M\,c^2, \qquad (37.6.11)$$

where M_i is the system's total mass before the reaction and M_f is its total mass after the reaction.

Questions

1 A rod is to move at constant speed v along the x axis of reference frame S, with the rod's length parallel to that axis. An observer in frame S is to measure the length L of the rod. Which of the curves in Fig. 37.1 best gives length L (vertical axis of the graph) versus speed parameter β?

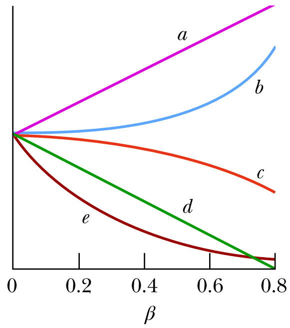

Figure 37.1 Questions 1 and 3.

2 Figure 37.2 shows a ship (attached to reference frame S') passing us (standing in reference frame S). A proton is fired at nearly the speed of light along the length of the ship, from the front to the rear. (a) Is the spatial separation $\Delta x'$ between the point at which the proton is fired and the point at which it hits the ship's rear wall a positive or negative quantity? (b) Is the temporal separation $\Delta t'$ between those events a positive or negative quantity?

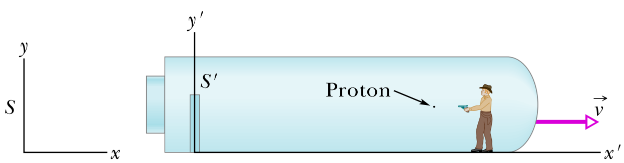

Figure 37.2 Question 2 and Problem 68.

3 Reference frame S' is to pass reference frame S at speed v along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37.3.1. An observer who rides along with frame S' is to count off 25 s on his wristwatch. The corresponding time interval Δt is to be measured by an observer in frame S. Which of the curves in Fig. 37.1 best gives Δt (vertical axis of the graph) versus speed parameter β?

4 Figure 37.3 shows two clocks in stationary frame S' (they are synchronized in that frame) and one clock in moving frame S. Clocks C_1 and C'_1 read zero when they pass each other. When clocks C_1 and C'_2 pass each other, (a) which clock has the smaller reading and (b) which clock measures a proper time?

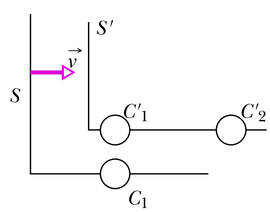

Figure 37.3 Question 4.

5 Figure 37.4 shows two clocks in stationary frame S (they are synchronized in that frame) and one clock in moving frame S'. Clocks C_1 and C'_1 read zero when they pass each other. When clocks C'_1 and C_2 pass each other, (a) which clock has the smaller reading and (b) which clock measures a proper time?

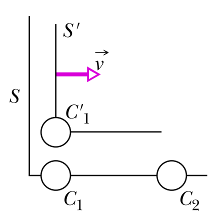

Figure 37.4 Question 5.

6 Sam leaves Venus in a spaceship headed to Mars and passes Sally, who is on Earth, with a relative speed of $0.5c$. (a) Each measures the Venus–Mars voyage time. Who measures a proper time: Sam, Sally, or neither? (b) On the way, Sam sends a pulse of light to Mars. Each measures the travel time of the pulse. Who measures a proper time: Sam, Sally, or neither?

7 The plane of clocks and measuring rods in Fig. 37.5 is like that in Fig. 37.1.3. The clocks along the x axis are separated (center to center) by 1 light-second, as are the clocks along the y axis, and all the clocks are synchronized via the procedure described in Module 37.1. When the initial synchronizing signal of $t = 0$ from the origin reaches (a) clock A, (b) clock B, and (c) clock C, what initial time is then set on those clocks? An event occurs at clock A when it reads 10 s. (d) How long does the signal of that event take to travel to an observer stationed at the origin? (e) What time does that observer assign to the event?

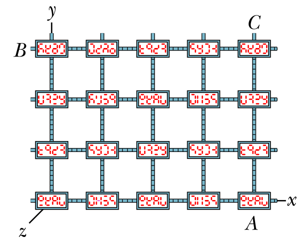

Figure 37.5 Question 7.

8 The rest energy and total energy, respectively, of three particles, expressed in terms of a basic amount A are (1) $A, 2A$; (2) $A, 3A$; (3) $3A, 4A$. Without written calculation, rank the particles according to their (a) mass, (b) kinetic energy, (c) Lorentz factor, and (d) speed, greatest first.

9 Figure 37.6 shows the triangle of Fig 37.6.2 for six particles; the slanted lines 2 and 4 have the same length. Rank the particles according to (a) mass, (b) momentum magnitude, and (c) Lorentz factor, greatest first. (d) Identify which two particles have the same total energy. (e) Rank the three lowest-mass particles according to kinetic energy, greatest first.

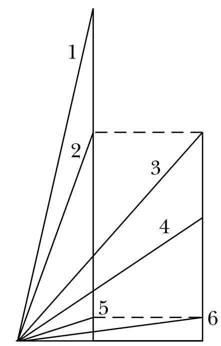

Figure 37.6 Question 9.

10 While on board a starship, you intercept signals from four shuttle craft that are moving either directly toward or directly away from you. The signals have the same proper frequency f_0. The speed and direction (both relative to you) of the shuttle craft are (a) $0.3c$ toward, (b) $0.6c$ toward, (c) $0.3c$ away, and (d) $0.6c$ away. Rank the shuttle craft according to the frequency you receive, greatest first.

11 Figure 37.7 shows one of four star cruisers that are in a race. As each cruiser passes the starting line, a shuttle craft leaves the cruiser and races toward the finish line. You, judging the race, are stationary relative to the starting and finish lines. The speeds v_c of the cruisers relative to you and the speeds v_s of the shuttle craft relative to their respective starships are, in that order, (1) $0.70c$, $0.40c$; (2) $0.40c$, $0.70c$; (3) $0.20c$, $0.90c$; (4) $0.50c$, $0.60c$. (a) Rank the shuttle craft according to their speeds relative to you, greatest first. (b) Rank the shuttle craft according to the distances their pilots measure from the starting line to the finish line, greatest first. (c) Each starship sends a signal to its shuttle craft at a certain frequency f_0 as measured on board the starship. Rank the shuttle craft according to the frequencies they detect, greatest first.

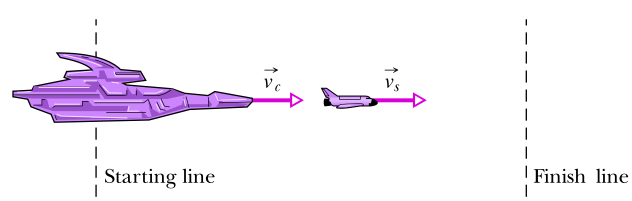

Figure 37.7 Question 11.

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS*
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
E Easy M Medium H Hard
FCP Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
CALC Requires calculus
BIO Biomedical application

Module 37.1 Simultaneity and Time Dilation

1 E The mean lifetime of stationary muons is measured to be 2.2000 μs. The mean lifetime of high-speed muons in a burst of cosmic rays observed from Earth is measured to be 16.000 μs. To five significant figures, what is the speed parameter β of these cosmic-ray muons relative to Earth?

2 E To eight significant figures, what is speed parameter β if the Lorentz factor γ is (a) 1.010 000 0, (b) 10.000 000, (c) 100.000 00, and (d) 1000.000 0?

3 M You wish to make a round trip from Earth in a spaceship, traveling at constant speed in a straight line for exactly 6 months (as you measure the time interval) and then returning at the same constant speed. You wish further, on your return, to find Earth as it will be exactly 1000 years in the future. (a) To eight significant figures, at what speed parameter β must you travel? (b) Does it matter whether you travel in a straight line on your journey?

4 M *(Come) back to the future.* Suppose that a father is 20.00 y older than his daughter. He wants to travel outward from Earth for 2.000 y and then back for another 2.000 y (both intervals as he measures them) such that he is then 20.00 y *younger* than his daughter. What constant speed parameter β (relative to Earth) is required?

5 M An unstable high-energy particle enters a detector and leaves a track of length 1.05 mm before it decays. Its speed relative to the detector was 0.992c. What is its proper lifetime? That is, how long would the particle have lasted before decay had it been at rest with respect to the detector?

6 M GO Reference frame S' is to pass reference frame S at speed v along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37.3.1. An observer who rides along with frame S' is to count off a certain time interval on his wristwatch. The corresponding time interval Δt is to be measured by an observer in frame S. Figure 37.8 gives Δt versus speed parameter β for a range of values for β. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta t_a = 14.0$ s. What is interval Δt if $v = 0.98c$?

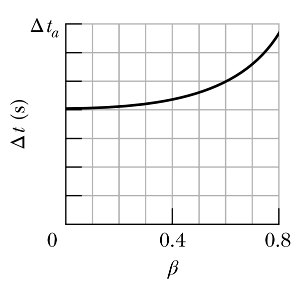

Figure 37.8 Problem 6.

7 M The premise of the *Planet of the Apes* movies and book is that hibernating astronauts travel far into Earth's future, to a time when human civilization has been replaced by an ape civilization. Considering only special relativity, determine how far into Earth's future the astronauts would travel if they slept for 120 y while traveling relative to Earth with a speed of 0.9990c, first outward from Earth and then back again.

Module 37.2 The Relativity of Length

8 E An electron of $\beta = 0.999\,987$ moves along the axis of an evacuated tube that has a length of 3.00 m as measured by a laboratory observer S at rest relative to the tube. An observer S' who is at rest relative to the electron, however, would see this tube moving with speed v $(= \beta c)$. What length would observer S' measure for the tube?

9 E SSM A spaceship of rest length 130 m races past a timing station at a speed of 0.740c. (a) What is the length of the spaceship as measured by the timing station? (b) What time interval will the station clock record between the passage of the front and back ends of the ship?

10 E A meter stick in frame S' makes an angle of 30° with the x' axis. If that frame moves parallel to the x axis of frame S with speed 0.90c relative to frame S, what is the length of the stick as measured from S?

11 E A rod lies parallel to the x axis of reference frame S, moving along this axis at a speed of 0.630c. Its rest length is 1.70 m. What will be its measured length in frame S?

12 M The length of a spaceship is measured to be exactly half its rest length. (a) To three significant figures, what is the speed parameter β of the spaceship relative to the observer's frame? (b) By what factor do the spaceship's clocks run slow relative to clocks in the observer's frame?

13 M GO A space traveler takes off from Earth and moves at speed 0.9900c toward the star Vega, which is 26.00 ly distant. How much time will have elapsed by Earth clocks (a) when the traveler reaches Vega and (b) when Earth observers receive word from the traveler that she has arrived? (c) How much older will Earth observers calculate the traveler to be (measured from her frame) when she reaches Vega than she was when she started the trip?

14 M GO A rod is to move at constant speed v along the x axis of reference frame S, with the rod's length parallel to that axis. An observer in frame S is to measure the length L of the rod. Figure 37.9 gives length L versus speed parameter β for a range of values for β. The vertical axis scale is set by $L_a = 1.00$ m. What is L if $v = 0.95c$?

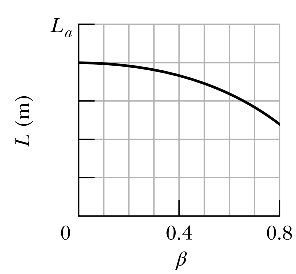

Figure 37.9 Problem 14.

15 M GO The center of our Milky Way Galaxy is about 23 000 ly away. (a) To eight significant figures, at what constant speed parameter would you need to travel exactly 23 000 ly (measured in the Galaxy frame) in exactly 30 y (measured in your frame)? (b) Measured in your frame and in light-years, what length of the Galaxy would pass by you during the trip?

Module 37.3 The Lorentz Transformation

16 E Observer S reports that an event occurred on the x axis of his reference frame at $x = 3.00 \times 10^8$ m at time $t = 2.50$ s. Observer S' and her frame are moving in the positive direction of the x axis at a speed of 0.400c. Further, $x = x' = 0$ at $t = t' = 0$. What are the (a) spatial and (b) temporal coordinate of the event according to S'? If S' were, instead, moving in the *negative* direction of the x axis, what would be the (c) spatial and (d) temporal coordinate of the event according to S'?

17 E SSM In Fig. 37.3.1, the origins of the two frames coincide at $t = t' = 0$ and the relative speed is $0.950c$. Two micrometeorites collide at coordinates $x = 100$ km and $t = 200\ \mu s$ according to an observer in frame S. What are the (a) spatial and (b) temporal coordinate of the collision according to an observer in frame S'?

18 E Inertial frame S' moves at a speed of $0.60c$ with respect to frame S (Fig. 37.3.1). Further, $x = x' = 0$ at $t = t' = 0$. Two events are recorded. In frame S, event 1 occurs at the origin at $t = 0$ and event 2 occurs on the x axis at $x = 3.0$ km at $t = 4.0\ \mu s$. According to observer S', what is the time of (a) event 1 and (b) event 2? (c) Do the two observers see the same sequence or the reverse?

19 E An experimenter arranges to trigger two flashbulbs simultaneously, producing a big flash located at the origin of his reference frame and a small flash at $x = 30.0$ km. An observer moving at a speed of $0.250c$ in the positive direction of x also views the flashes. (a) What is the time interval between them according to her? (b) Which flash does she say occurs first?

20 M GO As in Fig. 37.3.1, reference frame S' passes reference frame S with a certain velocity. Events 1 and 2 are to have a certain temporal separation $\Delta t'$ according to the S' observer. However, their spatial separation $\Delta x'$ according to that observer has not been set yet. Figure 37.10 gives their temporal separation Δt according to the S observer as a function of $\Delta x'$ for a range of $\Delta x'$ values. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta t_a = 6.00\ \mu s$. What is $\Delta t'$?

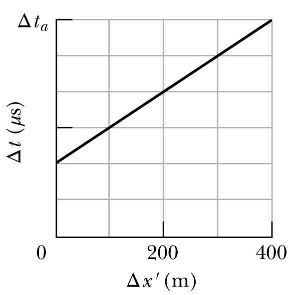

Figure 37.10 Problem 20.

21 M *Relativistic reversal of events.* Figures 37.11*a* and *b* show the (usual) situation in which a primed reference frame passes an unprimed reference frame, in the common positive direction of the x and x' axes, at a constant relative velocity of magnitude v. We are at rest in the unprimed frame; Bullwinkle, an astute student of relativity in spite of his cartoon upbringing, is at rest in the primed frame. The figures also indicate events A and B that occur at the following spacetime coordinates as measured in our unprimed frame and in Bullwinkle's primed frame:

Event	Unprimed	Primed
A	(x_A, t_A)	(x'_A, t'_A)
B	(x_B, t_B)	(x'_B, t'_B)

In our frame, event A occurs before event B, with temporal separation $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and spatial separation $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 400$ m. Let $\Delta t'$ be the temporal separation of the events according to Bullwinkle. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta t'$ in terms of the speed parameter β (= v/c) and the given data. Graph $\Delta t'$ versus β for the following two ranges of β:

(b) 0 to 0.01 (v is low, from 0 to $0.01c$)

(c) 0.1 to 1 (v is high, from $0.1c$ to the limit c)

(d) At what value of β is $\Delta t' = 0$? For what range of β is the sequence of events A and B according to Bullwinkle (e) the same as ours and (f) the reverse of ours? (g) Can event A cause event B, or vice versa? Explain.

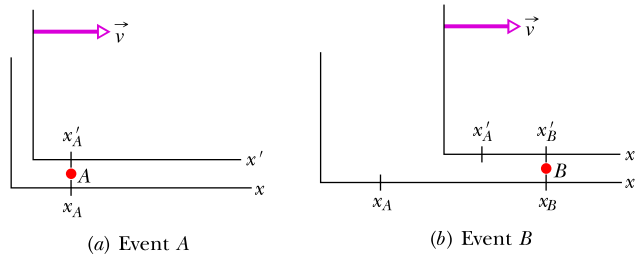

Figure 37.11 Problems 21, 22, 60, and 61.

22 M CALC For the passing reference frames in Fig. 37.11, events A and B occur at the following spacetime coordinates: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 400$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta x'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta x'$ versus β for two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta x'$ minimum, and (e) what is that minimum?

23 M A clock moves along an x axis at a speed of $0.600c$ and reads zero as it passes the origin of the axis. (a) Calculate the clock's Lorentz factor. (b) What time does the clock read as it passes $x = 180$ m?

24 M Bullwinkle in reference frame S' passes you in reference frame S along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37.3.1. He carries three meter sticks: meter stick 1 is parallel to the x' axis, meter stick 2 is parallel to the y' axis, and meter stick 3 is parallel to the z' axis. On his wristwatch he counts off 15.0 s, which takes 30.0 s according to you. Two events occur during his passage. According to you, event 1 occurs at $x_1 = 33.0$ m and $t_1 = 22.0$ ns, and event 2 occurs at $x_2 = 53.0$ m and $t_2 = 62.0$ ns. According to your measurements, what is the length of (a) meter stick 1, (b) meter stick 2, and (c) meter stick 3? According to Bullwinkle, what are (d) the spatial separation and (e) the temporal separation between events 1 and 2, and (f) which event occurs first?

25 M In Fig. 37.3.1, observer S detects two flashes of light. A big flash occurs at $x_1 = 1200$ m and, $5.00\ \mu s$ later, a small flash occurs at $x_2 = 480$ m. As detected by observer S', the two flashes occur at a single coordinate x'. (a) What is the speed parameter of S', and (b) is S' moving in the positive or negative direction of the x axis? To S', (c) which flash occurs first and (d) what is the time interval between the flashes?

26 M In Fig. 37.3.1, observer S detects two flashes of light. A big flash occurs at $x_1 = 1200$ m and, slightly later, a small flash occurs at $x_2 = 480$ m. The time interval between the flashes is $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$. What is the smallest value of Δt for which observer S' will determine that the two flashes occur at the same x' coordinate?

Module 37.4 The Relativity of Velocities

27 E SSM A particle moves along the x' axis of frame S' with velocity $0.40c$. Frame S' moves with velocity $0.60c$ with respect to frame S. What is the velocity of the particle with respect to frame S?

28 E In Fig. 37.4.1, frame S' moves relative to frame S with velocity $0.62c\hat{\text{i}}$ while a particle moves parallel to the common x and x' axes. An observer attached to frame S' measures the particle's velocity to be $0.47c\hat{\text{i}}$. In terms of c, what is the particle's velocity as measured by an observer attached to frame S according to the (a) relativistic and (b) classical velocity transformation? Suppose, instead, that the S' measure of the particle's velocity is $-0.47c\hat{\text{i}}$. What velocity does the observer in S now measure according to the (c) relativistic and (d) classical velocity transformation?

29 E Galaxy A is reported to be receding from us with a speed of $0.35c$. Galaxy B, located in precisely the opposite direction, is also found to be receding from us at this same speed. What multiple of c gives the recessional speed an observer on Galaxy A would find for (a) our galaxy and (b) Galaxy B?

30 E Stellar system Q_1 moves away from us at a speed of $0.800c$. Stellar system Q_2, which lies in the same direction in space but is closer to us, moves away from us at speed $0.400c$. What multiple of c gives the speed of Q_2 as measured by an observer in the reference frame of Q_1?

31 M SSM A spaceship whose rest length is 350 m has a speed of $0.82c$ with respect to a certain reference frame. A micrometeorite, also with a speed of $0.82c$ in this frame, passes the spaceship on an antiparallel track. How long does it take this object to pass the ship as measured on the ship?

32 M GO In Fig. 37.12*a*, particle P is to move parallel to the x and x' axes of reference frames S and S', at a certain velocity relative to frame S. Frame S' is to move parallel to the x axis of frame S at velocity v. Figure 37.12*b* gives the velocity u' of the particle relative to frame S' for a range of values for v. The vertical axis scale is set by $u'_a = 0.800c$. What value will u' have if (a) $v = 0.90c$ and (b) $v \to c$?

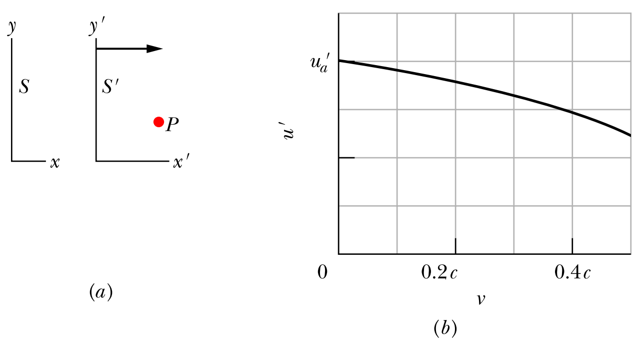

Figure 37.12 Problem 32.

33 M GO An armada of spaceships that is 1.00 ly long (as measured in its rest frame) moves with speed $0.800c$ relative to a ground station in frame S. A messenger travels from the rear of the armada to the front with a speed of $0.950c$ relative to S. How long does the trip take as measured (a) in the rest frame of the messenger, (b) in the rest frame of the armada, and (c) by an observer in the ground frame S?

Module 37.5 Doppler Effect for Light

34 E A sodium light source moves in a horizontal circle at a constant speed of $0.100c$ while emitting light at the proper wavelength of $\lambda_0 = 589.00$ nm. Wavelength λ is measured for that light by a detector fixed at the center of the circle. What is the wavelength shift $\lambda - \lambda_0$?

35 E SSM A spaceship, moving away from Earth at a speed of $0.900c$, reports back by transmitting at a frequency (measured in the spaceship frame) of 100 MHz. To what frequency must Earth receivers be tuned to receive the report?

36 E Certain wavelengths in the light from a galaxy in the constellation Virgo are observed to be 0.4% longer than the corresponding light from Earth sources. (a) What is the radial speed of this galaxy with respect to Earth? (b) Is the galaxy approaching or receding from Earth?

37 E Assuming that Eq. 37.5.6 holds, find how fast you would have to go through a red light to have it appear green. Take 620 nm as the wavelength of red light and 540 nm as the wavelength of green light.

38 E Figure 37.13 is a graph of intensity versus wavelength for light reaching Earth from galaxy NGC 7319, which is about 3×10^8 ly away. The most intense light is emitted by the oxygen in NGC 7319. In a laboratory that emission is at wavelength $\lambda = 513$ nm, but in the light from NGC 7319 it has been shifted to 525 nm due to the Doppler effect (all the emissions from NGC 7319 have been shifted). (a) What is the radial speed of NGC 7319 relative to Earth? (b) Is the relative motion toward or away from our planet?

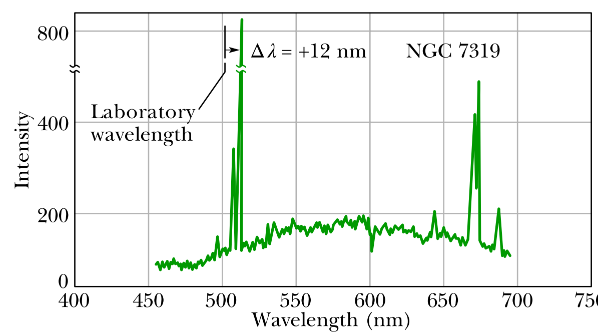

Figure 37.13 Problem 38.

39 M SSM A spaceship is moving away from Earth at speed $0.20c$. A source on the rear of the ship emits light at wavelength 450 nm according to someone on the ship. What (a) wavelength and (b) color (blue, green, yellow, or red) are detected by someone on Earth watching the ship?

Module 37.6 Momentum and Energy

40 E How much work must be done to increase the speed of an electron from rest to (a) $0.500c$, (b) $0.990c$, and (c) $0.9990c$?

41 E SSM The mass of an electron is $9.109\,381\,88 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. To six significant figures, find (a) γ and (b) β for an electron with kinetic energy $K = 100.000$ MeV.

42 E What is the minimum energy that is required to break a nucleus of ^{12}C (of mass 11.996 71 u) into three nuclei of ^{4}He (of mass 4.001 51 u each)?

43 E How much work must be done to increase the speed of an electron (a) from $0.18c$ to $0.19c$ and (b) from $0.98c$ to $0.99c$? Note that the speed increase is $0.01c$ in both cases.

44 E In the reaction $p + {}^{19}F \rightarrow \alpha + {}^{16}O$, the masses are

$$m(\text{p}) = 1.007825 \text{ u}, \qquad m(\alpha) = 4.002603 \text{ u},$$
$$m(\text{F}) = 18.998405 \text{ u}, \qquad m(\text{O}) = 15.994915 \text{ u}.$$

Calculate the Q of the reaction from these data.

45 M In a high-energy collision between a cosmic-ray particle and a particle near the top of Earth's atmosphere, 120 km above sea level, a pion is created. The pion has a total energy E of 1.35×10^5 MeV and is traveling vertically downward. In the pion's rest frame, the pion decays 35.0 ns after its creation. At what altitude above sea level, as measured from Earth's reference frame, does the decay occur? The rest energy of a pion is 139.6 MeV.

46 M (a) If m is a particle's mass, p is its momentum magnitude, and K is its kinetic energy, show that

$$m = \frac{(pc) - K^2}{2Kc^2}.$$

(b) For low particle speeds, show that the right side of the equation reduces to m. (c) If a particle has $K = 55.0$ MeV when $p = 121$ MeV/c, what is the ratio m/m_e of its mass to the electron mass?

47 M SSM A 5.00-grain aspirin tablet has a mass of 320 mg. For how many kilometers would the energy equivalent of this mass power an automobile? Assume 12.75 km/L and a heat of combustion of 3.65×10^7 J/L for the gasoline used in the automobile.

48 M GO The mass of a muon is 207 times the electron mass; the average lifetime of muons at rest is 2.20 μs. In a certain experiment, muons moving through a laboratory are measured to have an average lifetime of 6.90 μs. For the moving muons, what are (a) β, (b) K, and (c) p (in MeV/c)?

49 M GO As you read this page (on paper or monitor screen), a cosmic ray proton passes along the left–right width of the page with relative speed v and a total energy of 14.24 nJ. According to your measurements, that left–right width is 21.0 cm. (a) What is the width according to the proton's reference frame? How much time did the passage take according to (b) your frame and (c) the proton's frame?

50 M To four significant figures, find the following when the kinetic energy is 10.00 MeV: (a) γ and (b) β for an electron ($E_0 = 0.510998$ MeV), (c) γ and (d) β for a proton ($E_0 = 938.272$ MeV), and (e) γ and (f) β for an α particle ($E_0 = 3727.40$ MeV).

51 M What must be the momentum of a particle with mass m so that the total energy of the particle is 3.00 times its rest energy?

52 M Apply the binomial theorem (Appendix E) to the last part of Eq. 37.6.13 for the kinetic energy of a particle. (a) Retain the first two terms of the expansion to show the kinetic energy in the form

$$K = (\text{first term}) + (\text{second term}).$$

The first term is the classical expression for kinetic energy. The second term is the first-order correction to the classical expression. Assume the particle is an electron. If its speed v is $c/20$, what is the value of (b) the classical expression and (c) the first-order correction? If the electron's speed is $0.80c$, what is the value of (d) the classical expression and (e) the first-order correction? (f) At what speed parameter β does the first-order correction become 10% or greater of the classical expression?

53 M In Module 28.4, we showed that a particle of charge q and mass m will move in a circle of radius $r = mv/|q|B$ when its velocity $\vec{v}$ is perpendicular to a uniform magnetic field $\vec{B}$. We also found that the period T of the motion is independent of speed v. These two results are approximately correct if $v \ll c$. For relativistic speeds, we must use the correct equation for the radius:

$$r = \frac{p}{|q|B} = \frac{\gamma m v}{|q|B}.$$

(a) Using this equation and the definition of period ($T = 2\pi r/v$), find the correct expression for the period. (b) Is T independent of v? If a 10.0 MeV electron moves in a circular path in a uniform magnetic field of magnitude 2.20 T, what are (c) the radius according to Chapter 28, (d) the correct radius, (e) the period according to Chapter 28, and (f) the correct period?

54 M GO What is β for a particle with (a) $K = 2.00E_0$ and (b) $E = 2.00E_0$?

55 M A certain particle of mass m has momentum of magnitude mc. What are (a) β, (b) γ, and (c) the ratio K/E_0?

56 M (a) The energy released in the explosion of 1.00 mol of TNT is 3.40 MJ. The molar mass of TNT is 0.227 kg/mol. What weight of TNT is needed for an explosive release of 1.80×10^{14} J? (b) Can you carry that weight in a backpack, or is a truck or train required? (c) Suppose that in an explosion of a fission bomb, 0.080% of the fissionable mass is converted to released energy. What weight of fissionable material is needed for an explosive release of 1.80×10^{14} J? (d) Can you carry that weight in a backpack, or is a truck or train required?

57 M CALC Quasars are thought to be the nuclei of active galaxies in the early stages of their formation. A typical quasar radiates energy at the rate of 10^{41} W. At what rate is the mass of this quasar being reduced to supply this energy? Express your answer in solar mass units per year, where one solar mass unit (1 smu $= 2.0 \times 10^{30}$ kg) is the mass of our Sun.

58 M The mass of an electron is $9.109\,381\,88 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. To eight significant figures, find the following for the given electron kinetic energy: (a) γ and (b) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ keV, (c) γ and (d) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ MeV, and then (e) γ and (f) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ GeV.

59 H GO An alpha particle with kinetic energy 7.70 MeV collides with an ^{14}N nucleus at rest, and the two transform into an ^{17}O nucleus and a proton. The proton is emitted at 90° to the direction of the incident alpha particle and has a kinetic energy of 4.44 MeV. The masses of the various particles are alpha particle, 4.00260 u; ^{14}N, 14.00307 u; proton, 1.007825 u; and ^{17}O, 16.99914 u. In MeV, what are (a) the kinetic energy of the oxygen nucleus and (b) the Q of the reaction? (*Hint:* The speeds of the particles are much less than c.)

Additional Problems

60 *Temporal separation between two events.* Events A and B occur with the following spacetime coordinates in the reference frames of Fig. 37.11: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\,\mu$s and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 240$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta t'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta t'$ versus β for the following two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta t'$ minimum and (e) what is that minimum? (f) Can one of these events cause the other? Explain.

61 *Spatial separation between two events.* For the passing reference frames of Fig. 37.11, events A and B occur with the following spacetime coordinates: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 240$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta x'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta x'$ versus β for two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta x' = 0$?

62 GO In Fig. 37.14*a*, particle P is to move parallel to the x and x' axes of reference frames S and S', at a certain velocity relative to frame S. Frame S' is to move parallel to the x axis of frame S at velocity v. Figure 37.14*b* gives the velocity u' of the particle relative to frame S' for a range of values for v. The vertical axis scale is set by $u'_a = -0.800c$. What value will u' have if (a) $v = 0.80c$ and (b) $v \to c$?

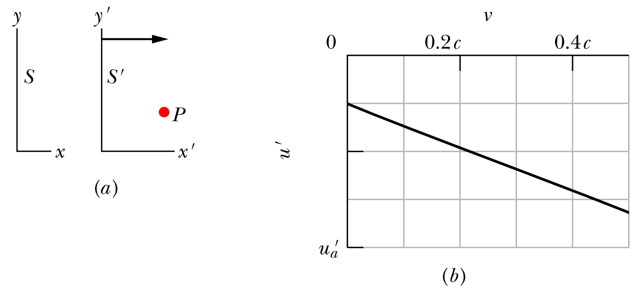

Figure 37.14 Problem 62.

63 GO *Superluminal jets.* Figure 37.15*a* shows the path taken by a knot in a jet of ionized gas that has been expelled from a galaxy. The knot travels at constant velocity $\vec{v}$ at angle θ from the direction of Earth. The knot occasionally emits a burst of light, which is eventually detected on Earth. Two bursts are indicated in Fig. 37.15*a*, separated by time t as measured in a stationary frame near the bursts. The bursts are shown in Fig. 37.15*b* as if they were photographed on the same piece of film, first when light from burst 1 arrived on Earth and then later when light from burst 2 arrived. The apparent distance D_{app} traveled by the knot between the two bursts is the distance across an Earth-observer's view of the knot's path. The apparent time T_{app} between the bursts is the difference in the arrival times of the light from them. The apparent speed of the knot is then $V_{app} = D_{app}/T_{app}$. In terms of v, t, and θ, what are (a) D_{app} and (b) T_{app}? (c) Evaluate V_{app} for $v = 0.980c$ and $\theta = 30.0°$. When superluminal (faster than light) jets were first observed, they seemed to defy special relativity—at least until the correct geometry (Fig. 37.15*a*) was understood.

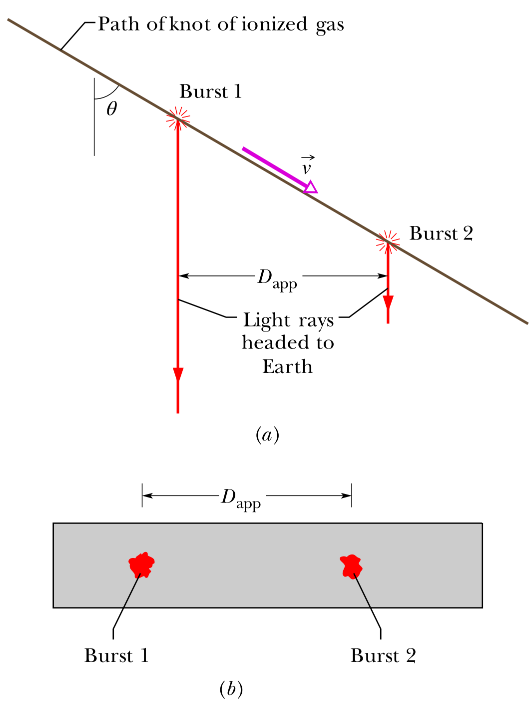

Figure 37.15 Problem 63.

64 GO Reference frame S' passes reference frame S with a certain velocity as in Fig. 37.3.1. Events 1 and 2 are to have a certain spatial separation $\Delta x'$ according to the S' observer. However, their temporal separation $\Delta t'$ according to that observer has not been set yet. Figure 37.16 gives their spatial separation Δx according to the S observer as a function of $\Delta t'$ for a range of $\Delta t'$ values. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta x_a = 10.0$ m. What is $\Delta x'$?

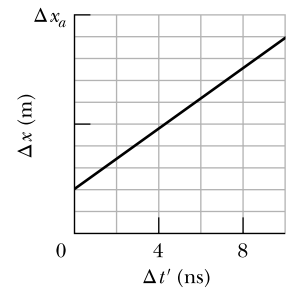

Figure 37.16 Problem 64.

65 *Another approach to velocity transformations.* In Fig. 37.17, reference frames B and C move past reference frame A in the common direction of their x axes. Represent the x components of the velocities of one frame relative to another with a two-letter subscript. For example, v_{AB} is the x component of the velocity of A relative to B. Similarly, represent the corresponding speed parameters with two-letter subscripts. For example, β_{AB} $(= v_{AB}/c)$ is the speed parameter corresponding to v_{AB}. (a) Show that

$$\beta_{AC} = \frac{\beta_{AB} + \beta_{BC}}{1 + \beta_{AB}\beta_{BC}}.$$

Let M_{AB} represent the ratio $(1 - \beta_{AB})/(1 + \beta_{AB})$, and let M_{BC} and M_{AC} represent similar ratios. (b) Show that the relation

$$M_{AC} = M_{AB}M_{BC}$$

is true by deriving the equation of part (a) from it.

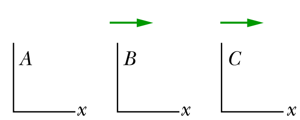

Figure 37.17 Problems 65, 66, and 67.

66 *Continuation of Problem 65.* Use the result of part (b) in Problem 65 for the motion along a single axis in the following situation. Frame A in Fig. 37.17 is attached to a particle that moves with velocity $+0.500c$ past frame B, which moves past frame C with a velocity of $+0.500c$. What are (a) M_{AC}, (b) β_{AC}, and (c) the velocity of the particle relative to frame C?

67 *Continuation of Problem 65.* Let reference frame C in Fig. 37.17 move past reference frame D (not shown). (a) Show that

$$M_{AD} = M_{AB}M_{BC}M_{CD}.$$

(b) Now put this general result to work: Three particles move parallel to a single axis on which an observer is stationed. Let plus and minus signs indicate the directions of motion along that axis. Particle A moves past particle B at $\beta_{AB} = +0.20$. Particle B moves past particle C at $\beta_{BC} = -0.40$. Particle C moves past observer D at $\beta_{CD} = +0.60$. What is the velocity of particle A relative to observer D? (The solution technique here is *much* faster than using Eq. 37.4.1.)

68 Figure 37.2 shows a ship (attached to reference frame S') passing us (standing in reference frame S) with velocity $\vec{v} = 0.950c\hat{i}$. A proton is fired at speed $0.980c$ relative to the ship from the front of the ship to the rear. The proper length of the ship is 760 m. What is the temporal separation between the time the proton is fired and the time it hits the rear wall of the ship according to (a) a passenger in the ship and (b) us? Suppose that, instead, the proton is fired from the rear to the front. What then is the temporal separation between the time it is fired and the time it hits the front wall according to (c) the passenger and (d) us?

69 *The car-in-the-garage problem.* Carman has just purchased the world's longest stretch limo, which has a proper length of $L_c = 30.5$ m. In Fig. 37.18*a*, it is shown parked in front of a garage with a proper length of $L_g = 6.00$ m. The garage has a front door (shown open) and a back door (shown closed). The limo is obviously longer than the garage. Still, Garageman, who owns the garage and knows something about relativistic length contraction, makes a bet with Carman that the limo can fit in the garage with both doors closed. Carman, who dropped his physics course before reaching special relativity, says such a thing, even in principle, is impossible.

To analyze Garageman's scheme, an x_c axis is attached to the limo, with $x_c = 0$ at the rear bumper, and an x_g axis is attached to the garage, with $x_g = 0$ at the (now open) front door. Then Carman is to drive the limo directly toward the front door at a velocity of $0.9980c$ (which is, of course, both technically and financially impossible). Carman is stationary in the x_c reference frame; Garageman is stationary in the x_g reference frame.

There are two events to consider. *Event 1:* When the rear bumper clears the front door, the front door is closed. Let the time of this event be zero to both Carman and Garageman: $t_{g1} = t_{c1} = 0$. The event occurs at $x_c = x_g = 0$. Figure 37.18*b* shows event 1 according to the x_g reference frame. *Event 2:* When the front bumper reaches the back door, that door opens. Figure 37.18*c* shows event 2 according to the x_g reference frame.

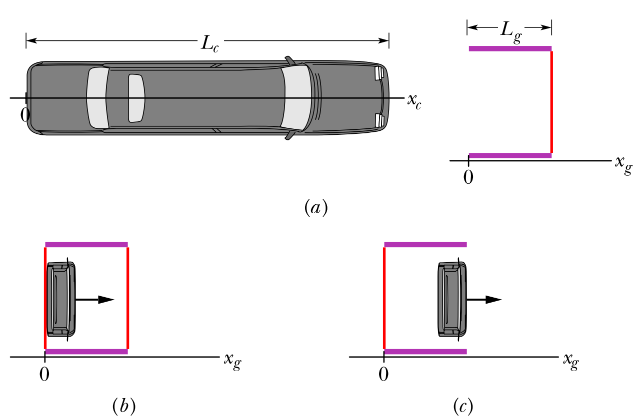

Figure 37.18 Problem 69.

According to Garageman, (a) what is the length of the limo, and what are the spacetime coordinates (b) x_{g2} and (c) t_{g2} of event 2? (d) For how long is the limo temporarily "trapped" inside the garage with both doors shut? Now consider the situation from the x_c reference frame, in which the garage comes racing past the limo at a velocity of $-0.9980c$. According to Carman, (e) what is the length of the passing garage, what are the spacetime coordinates (f) x_{c2} and (g) t_{c2} of event 2, (h) is the limo ever in the garage with both doors shut, and (i) which event occurs first? (j) Sketch events 1 and 2 as seen by Carman. (k) Are the events causally related; that is, does one of them cause the other? (l) Finally, who wins the bet?

70 An airplane has rest length 40.0 m and speed 630 m/s. To a ground observer, (a) by what fraction is its length contracted and (b) how long is needed for its clocks to be 1.00 μs slow?

71 SSM To circle Earth in low orbit, a satellite must have a speed of about 2.7×10^4 km/h. Suppose that two such satellites orbit Earth in opposite directions. (a) What is their relative speed as they pass, according to the classical Galilean velocity transformation equation? (b) What fractional error do you make in (a) by not using the (correct) relativistic transformation equation?

72 Find the speed parameter of a particle that takes 2.0 y longer than light to travel a distance of 6.0 ly.

73 SSM How much work is needed to accelerate a proton from a speed of $0.9850c$ to a speed of $0.9860c$?

74 A pion is created in the higher reaches of Earth's atmosphere when an incoming high-energy cosmic-ray particle collides with an atomic nucleus. A pion so formed descends toward Earth with a speed of $0.99c$. In a reference frame in which they are at rest, pions decay with an average life of 26 ns. As measured in a frame fixed with respect to Earth, how far (on the average) will such a pion move through the atmosphere before it decays?

75 SSM If we intercept an electron having total energy 1533 MeV that came from Vega, which is 26 ly from us, how far in light-years was the trip in the rest frame of the electron?

76 The total energy of a proton passing through a laboratory apparatus is 10.611 nJ. What is its speed parameter β? Use the proton mass given in Appendix B under "Best Value," not the commonly remembered rounded number.

77 A spaceship at rest in a certain reference frame S is given a speed increment of $0.50c$. Relative to its new rest frame, it is then given a further $0.50c$ increment. This process is continued until its speed with respect to its original frame S exceeds $0.999c$. How many increments does this process require?

78 In the red shift of radiation from a distant galaxy, a certain radiation, known to have a wavelength of 434 nm when observed in the laboratory, has a wavelength of 462 nm. (a) What is the radial speed of the galaxy relative to Earth? (b) Is the galaxy approaching or receding from Earth?

79 SSM What is the momentum in MeV/c of an electron with a kinetic energy of 2.00 MeV?

80 The radius of Earth is 6370 km, and its orbital speed about the Sun is 30 km/s. Suppose Earth moves past an observer at this speed. To the observer, by how much does Earth's diameter contract along the direction of motion?

81 A particle with mass m has speed $c/2$ relative to inertial frame S. The particle collides with an identical particle at rest relative to frame S. Relative to S, what is the speed of a frame S' in which the total momentum of these particles is zero? This frame is called the *center of momentum frame.*

82 An elementary particle produced in a laboratory experiment travels 0.230 mm through the lab at a relative speed of $0.960c$ before it decays (becomes another particle). (a) What is the proper lifetime of the particle? (b) What is the distance the particle travels as measured from its rest frame?

83 What are (a) K, (b) E, and (c) p (in GeV/c) for a proton moving at speed $0.990c$? What are (d) K, (e) E, and (f) p (in MeV/c) for an electron moving at speed $0.990c$?

84 A radar transmitter T is fixed to a reference frame S' that is moving to the right with speed v relative to reference frame S (Fig. 37.19). A mechanical timer (essentially a clock) in frame S', having a period τ_0 (measured in S'), causes transmitter T to emit timed radar pulses, which travel at the speed of light and are received by R, a receiver fixed in frame S. (a) What is the period τ of the timer as detected by observer A, who is fixed in frame S? (b) Show that at receiver R the time interval between pulses arriving from T is not τ or τ_0, but

$$\tau_R = \tau_0\sqrt{\frac{c+v}{c-v}}.$$

(c) Explain why receiver R and observer A, who are in the same reference frame, measure a different period for the transmitter. (*Hint:* A clock and a radar pulse are not the same thing.)

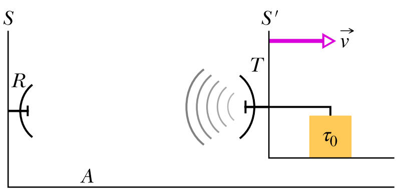

Figure 37.19 Problem 84.

85 One cosmic-ray particle approaches Earth along Earth's north–south axis with a speed of $0.80c$ toward the geographic north pole, and another approaches with a speed of $0.60c$ toward the geographic south pole (Fig. 37.20). What is the relative speed of approach of one particle with respect to the other?

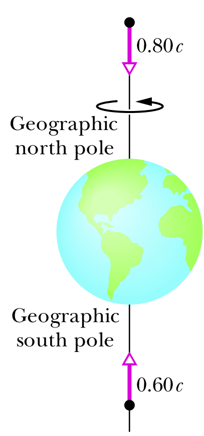

Figure 37.20 Problem 85.

86 (a) How much energy is released in the explosion of a fission bomb containing 3.0 kg of fissionable material? Assume that 0.10% of the mass is converted to released energy. (b) What mass of TNT would have to explode to provide the same energy release? Assume that each mole of TNT liberates 3.4 MJ of energy on exploding. The molecular mass of TNT is 0.227 kg/mol. (c) For the same mass of explosive, what is the ratio of the energy released in a nuclear explosion to that released in a TNT explosion?

87 (a) What potential difference would accelerate an electron to speed c according to classical physics? (b) With this potential difference, what speed would the electron actually attain?

88 A Foron cruiser moving directly toward a Reptulian scout ship fires a decoy toward the scout ship. Relative to the scout ship, the speed of the decoy is $0.980c$ and the speed of the Foron cruiser is $0.900c$. What is the speed of the decoy relative to the cruiser?

89 In Fig. 37.21, three spaceships are in a chase. Relative to an x axis in an inertial frame (say, Earth frame), their velocities are $v_A = 0.900c$, v_B, and $v_C = 0.800c$. (a) What value of v_B is required such that ships A and C approach ship B with the same speed relative to ship B, and (b) what is that relative speed?

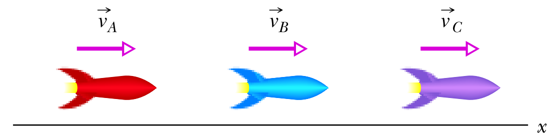

Figure 37.21 Problem 89.

90 Space cruisers A and B are moving parallel to the positive direction of an x axis. Cruiser A is faster, with a relative speed of $v = 0.900c$, and has a proper length of $L = 200$ m. According to the pilot of A, at the instant ($t = 0$) the tails of the cruisers are aligned, the noses are also. According to the pilot of B, how much later are the noses aligned?

91 In Fig. 37.22, two cruisers fly toward a space station. Relative to the station, cruiser A has speed $0.800c$. Relative to the station, what speed is required of cruiser B such that its pilot sees A and the station approach B at the same speed?

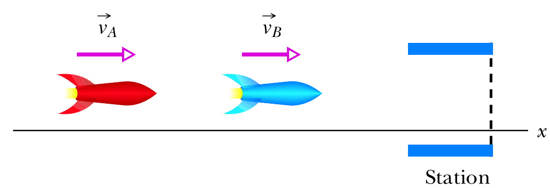

Figure 37.22 Problem 91.

92 A relativistic train of proper length 200 m approaches a tunnel of the same proper length, at a relative speed of $0.900c$. A paint bomb in the engine room is set to explode (and cover everyone with blue paint) when the *front* of the train passes the *far* end of the tunnel (event FF). However, when the *rear* car passes the *near* end of the tunnel (event RN), a device in that car is set to send a signal to the engine room to deactivate the bomb. *Train view:* (a) What is the tunnel length? (b) Which event occurs first, FF or RN? (c) What is the time between those events? (d) Does the paint bomb explode? *Tunnel view:* (e) What is the train length? (f) Which event occurs first? (g) What is the time between those events? (h) Does the paint bomb explode? If your answers to (d) and (h) differ, you need to explain the paradox, because either the engine room is covered with blue paint or not; you cannot have it both ways. If your answers are the same, you need to explain why.

93 *Police radar.* A police car equipped with a radar unit waits alongside a highway. The radar emits a beam of microwaves down the highway at frequency $f_0 = 24.125$ GHz (in the common K band used by police nationwide). When a vehicle travels toward the radar unit and through the beam, the microwaves reflect from the metal of the vehicle back to the radar unit. The unit can then determine the vehicle's speed from the beat frequency (see Module 17.6) between that incoming frequency and the emitted frequency. If the beat frequency is 5000 Hz, what is the vehicle's speed?

94 *Time is short.* You command a starship capable of traveling at nearly the speed of light. Beginning at Home Port in Fig. 37.23, you need to pick the route to Far Base that minimizes the travel time. The map gives the allowed routes as negotiated with the alien government governing the region, and each route between junction points is labeled with the Lorentz factor γ that must be used along the route. In the rest frame of the junctions, successive junctions are separated by distance L or $2L$. Do not consider the time required for acceleration as γ changes. (a) First, what length do you measure for a map distance of L when you travel with Lorentz factor γ? (b) What is your measure of the time required for that travel? (*Hint:* For any of the given Lorentz factors, the distance passes you at approximately the speed of light.) For the next questions, calculate travel times as multiples of L/c to four significant figures. (c) Starting at junction U, what should the next three junctions be to minimize the travel time, and how much is that time? (d) What should the next two junctions be to minimize the travel time, and how much is that time? (e) What next five junctions should you pass through to minimize the time and land on E (Far Base), and how much is that time? (f) What is the total travel time?

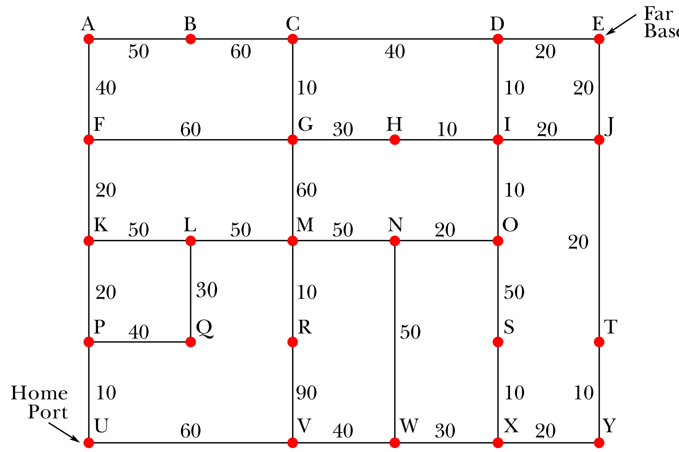

Figure 37.23 Problem 94.