

Lorentz transformation.

Two inertial frames S and S' , with S' moving at uniform velocity \vec{v} (the frame in which Newton's first law is obeyed) with respect to S . Suppose also the velocity is in the common x & x' axis, and the two frames coincide (i.e., at $t=t'=0$, $x=x'=0$, $y=y'=0$, $z=z'=0$).

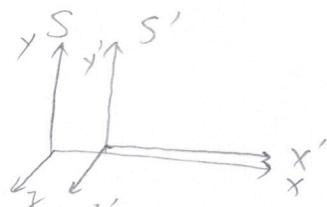
Then an event occurs at (x, y, z) and time t in S occurs in S' having

$$x' = \gamma(x - vt)$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z$$

$$t' = \gamma(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x) \stackrel{c=1}{=} \gamma(t - vx),$$



(note, x and x' axis actually overlap).

$$\text{where } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$$

The inverse transformation (i.e., from S' to S) is (just solve x & t in the above equations)

$$x = \gamma(x' + vt')$$

$$y = y'$$

$$z = z'$$

$$t = \gamma(t' + vx')$$

Four consequences:

1 同时的相对性 (the relativity of simultaneity)

If two events occurs at the same time in S , but at different locations, then they do not occur at the same time in S' .

That is, for two event A & B having $t_A = t_B$ but $x_A \neq x_B$ in frame S , then in S' frame

$$\left. \begin{aligned} t'_A &= \gamma(t_A - vx_A) \\ t'_B &= \gamma(t_B - vx_B) \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow t'_A - t'_B = \gamma v(x_B - x_A) \neq 0.$$

2. Lorentz contraction (尺缩)

Suppose a stick lies on the x' axis, at rest in S' , say, one end is at the origin $x' = 0$ and the other end is at L' (so its length in S' frame is L'). What is its length as measured in S ?

(implies we need to measure the two ends at the same time in S)

$$\text{Since } \Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v\Delta t') \quad (\text{put it in})$$

$$\Delta t = \gamma(\Delta t' + v\Delta x') = 0 \Rightarrow \Delta t' = -v\Delta x'$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v(-v\Delta x'))$$

$$= \gamma \Delta x' (1-v^2)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta x'}{\gamma}$$

$$= \frac{L'}{\gamma} \leq L'$$

$$(\text{note that } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} \geq 1)$$

Note that y and z directions do not suffer Lorentz contraction.

3. Time dilation (时间膨胀)

→ 运动的钟走得很慢。

Suppose a clock is at rest in S' frame and it measures a period T' , then how long is this period as measured in S?

$$\Delta t = \gamma(\Delta t' + v \frac{\Delta x'}{c})$$

Since at rest in S'.

$$= \gamma T'$$

$$\geq T'$$

4. Velocity addition:

Suppose a particle P is moving in the x & x' direction at speed u' with respect to S' , then what is its speed, u , with respect to S?

$$dx = \gamma(dx' + vdt')$$

$$dt = \gamma(dt' + vdx')$$

$$\Rightarrow u = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dx' + vdt'}{dt' + vdx'} = \frac{u' + v}{1 + vu'}$$

Notice that if $u' = c = 1$, then $u = \frac{1+v}{1+v} = 1 = c$.
that is, speed of light is the same in all inertial frames.

Write the above formula in another way:

$$v_{ps} = v_{ps'} + v_{s's}$$

Galilean velocity addition rule

$$v_{Ac} = \frac{v_{Ab} + v_{Bc}}{1 + v_{Ab}v_{Bc}/c^2}$$

Einstein's correction

Four-vectors

Now introduce position-time four vector x^μ

$$x^0 = ct = t, \quad x^1 = x, \quad x^2 = y, \quad x^3 = z.$$

So. Lorentz transformation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} x'^0 &= \gamma(x^0 - \beta x^1) = \gamma(x^0 - vx^1), \text{ note } \beta = \frac{v}{c} = v \\ x'^1 &= \gamma(x^1 - vx^0) \\ x'^2 &= x^2 \\ x'^3 &= x^3. \end{aligned}$$

Or just write $x'^\mu = \sum_{\nu=0}^3 \Lambda^\mu{}_\nu x^\nu, (\mu=0, 1, 2, 3)$

where the coefficients $\Lambda^\mu{}_\nu$ are the elements of a matrix Λ .

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\gamma v & 0 & 0 \\ -\gamma v & \gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Introduce Einstein's summation convention to avoid writing \sum .

$$x^\mu = \Lambda^\mu{}_\nu x^\nu = \Lambda^\mu{}_\alpha x^\alpha$$

dummy indices, whatever can be used

Invariant.

When go from S to S' frame, there is a particular combination remains the same:

$$I = (x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2 = (x'^0)^2 - (x'^1)^2 - (x'^2)^2 - (x'^3)^2.$$

(Similarly, the quantity $r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ is invariant under rotation)

check for the pure Lorentz transformation above

$$(x'^0)^2 = \gamma^2 (x^0 - vx^1)^2 = \gamma^2 [(x^0)^2 + v^2(x^1)^2 - 2vx^0x^1]$$

$$(x'^1)^2 = \gamma^2 (x^1 - vx^0)^2 = \gamma^2 [(x^1)^2 + v^2(x^0)^2 - 2vx^1x^0]$$

$$\Rightarrow (x'^0)^2 - (x'^1)^2 - (x'^2)^2 - (x'^3)^2$$

$$= \gamma^2 [(x^0)^2 + v^2(x^1)^2 - (x^1)^2 - v^2(x^0)^2] - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2$$

$$= (x^0)^2 \gamma^2 (1-v^2) - (x^1)^2 \gamma^2 (1-v^2) - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2$$

$$= (x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2 \quad \checkmark$$

Then how to write the $I = (x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2$ shorter?

Introduce metric $g_{\mu\nu}$ to help

$$g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(i.e., $g_{00} = -g_{11} = -g_{22} = -g_{33} = 1$, $g_{\mu\nu} = 0$ for $\mu \neq \nu$)

(Caution: some books use opposite signs).

We can now write

$$I = \sum_{\mu=0}^3 \sum_{\nu=0}^3 g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu = g_{\mu\nu} x^\mu x^\nu.$$

Note that $g_{\mu\nu} = g_{\nu\mu}$. (symmetric tensor).

Define χ_μ now

$$\chi_\mu \equiv g_{\mu\nu} \chi^\nu.$$

We call the upper index guy, χ^μ , contravariant four-vector, and the lower index guy, χ_μ , covariant four-vector.

$$\text{So } I = \chi_\mu \chi^\mu = \chi^\mu \chi_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} \chi^\mu \chi^\nu.$$

(note that in GR, $g_{\mu\nu}$ is more general, and our $g_{\mu\nu}$ here is written as $P_{\mu\nu}$ in GR. But let's don't worry about it, since we will only work in flat spacetime in QFTI.)

Define arbitrary contravariant four-vector and covariant four-vector

A four-component object that transforms in the same way as χ^μ does when go from one inertial frame to another,

$$a^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu a^\nu$$

and for each a^μ we have a covariant four-vector.

$$a_\mu = g_{\mu\nu} a^\nu.$$

Introduce the inverse of $g_{\mu\nu}$, i.e., $g^{\mu\nu}$.

$$g^{\mu\nu} g_{\nu\lambda} = \delta^\mu_\lambda \rightarrow \text{called Kronecker symbol.}$$

$$g^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \delta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now we can get invariants... from a contravariant and a covariant vectors.
 ↳ (i.e., the same value in any inertial frame)

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{a^\mu b_\mu} &= a_{\mu b}{}^\mu = g_{\mu\nu} a^\mu b^\nu = g^{\mu\nu} a_{\mu b_\nu} = \delta^\mu_\nu a^\nu b_\mu \\ &= a^0 b^0 - a^1 b^1 - a^2 b^2 - a^3 b^3 \end{aligned}$$

$a^\mu a_\mu$ is invariant, too

$b^\mu b_\mu$ is invariant, too.

We call it the "scalar product" of a and b . (it is simply the analog to the dot product of two three-vectors),

$$a \cdot b \equiv a_{\mu b}{}^\mu.$$

Usually we write

$$a \cdot b = a^0 b^0 - \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$$

(note: the dot product of two three-vector is just
 $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a^1 b^1 + a^2 b^2 + a^3 b^3$)

In particular,

$$a^2 \equiv a \cdot a = (a^0)^2 - \vec{a}^2 = a^0 a^0 - a^1 a^1 - a^2 a^2 - a^3 a^3$$

Note: if $a^2 > 0$, a^μ is called timelike (e.g., $a^\mu = (t, 0, 0, 0)$)

if $a^2 < 0$, a^μ is called spacelike (e.g., $a^\mu = (0, x, 0, 0)$)

if $a^2 = 0$, a^μ is called lightlike (e.g., $a^\mu = (t, x=ct, 0, 0)$)

Now define tensors

e.g., ① a second-rank tensor, $S^{\mu\nu}$, carries two indices, so has $4^2 = 16$ components, and transforms with two factors of Λ :

$$S'^{\mu\nu} = \Lambda_k^{\mu} \Lambda_{\sigma}^{\nu} S^{\sigma\kappa}$$

② a third-rank tensor, $t^{\mu\nu\rho}$, has $4^3 = 64$ components, and transforms as

$$t'^{\mu\nu\rho} = \Lambda_k^{\mu} \Lambda_{\sigma}^{\nu} \Lambda_{\tau}^{\rho} t^{\sigma\tau\sigma}$$

③ Covariant tensors and mixed tensors can be obtained by lowering indices by $g_{\mu\nu}$, e.g.

$$S^{\mu}_{\nu} = g_{\nu\lambda} S^{\mu\lambda}, \quad S_{\mu\nu} = g_{\mu\lambda} g_{\nu\gamma} S^{\lambda\gamma}$$

④ A vector is a tensor of rank one;
a scalar (i.e., invariant) is a tensor of rank zero.

⑤ 張量與數相乘是同類張量, e.g., $p^{\mu} = m \eta^{\mu}$.

兩個張量相乘得新張量, e.g., $a^{\mu} b^{\nu}$ is a second rank tensor.

⑥ Contraction of a $(n+z)$ rank tensor to get a n rank tensor,
by summing like upper and lower indices.

e.g. S^{μ}_{μ} is a scalar;

$t^{\mu\nu}_{\nu}$ is a vector;

$\alpha_{\mu} t^{\mu\nu}$ is a second-rank tensor..

Energy & Momentum

Introduce proper time $d\tau$. (也叫四维间隔)

$$d\tau^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 = dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$$

(note $dt^2 \equiv (dt)(dt)$, $dx^2 \equiv (dx)(dx)$, just infinitesimal change of $l \equiv \tau^2 \equiv (x^0)^2 - (x^1)^2 - (x^2)^2 - (x^3)^2$)

The proper time is the time measured by the watch moving together with the object. Therefore in the object's rest frame S' ,

$$d\tau = dt'$$

The velocity of the object respect to frame S is

$$\vec{v} = \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} \quad (\text{or simply, } v = \frac{dx}{dt} \text{ if moving along } x\text{-direction})$$

But, a transformation of \vec{v} involves transformation in both \vec{x} and t ,

so introduce proper velocity, $\eta^\mu = \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau}$, so only need to worry about transformation for x^μ (τ is invariant).

From $x = \gamma(x' + vt')$ or just call it "four-velocity".

$$y = y'$$

$$z = z'$$

$$t = \gamma(t' + vx')$$

and use $dx' = 0, dy' = 0, dz' = 0, dt' = d\tau$

↑ (since the object is at rest in S' frame)

$$\Rightarrow dx = \gamma v d\tau$$

$$dt = \gamma d\tau$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \eta^\mu &= \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} = \left(\frac{dx^0}{d\tau}, \frac{d\vec{x}}{d\tau} \right) = (\gamma, \gamma \vec{v}) = \gamma(1, \vec{v}) \\ &= \gamma(1, v_x, v_y, v_z) = \gamma(1, v', v^2, v^3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta^\mu \eta_\mu = \eta^\mu g_{\mu\nu} \eta^\nu = \gamma(1, v_x, v_y, v_z) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -v_x & -v_y & -v_z \\ -v_x & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -v_y & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -v_z & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & v_x & v_y & v_z \\ v_x & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ v_y & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ v_z & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \gamma^2 (1 - v_x^2 - v_y^2 - v_z^2) = 1 = c^2.$$

(yes, $\eta^\mu \eta_\mu$ is invariant, as expected).

Now define momentum in relativity.

$$P^\mu = m \eta^\mu.$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{P}^\mu = m \eta^\mu = m \gamma = \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = \frac{mc}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$$

$$\vec{P} = m \gamma \vec{v} = \frac{m \vec{v}}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$$

Define energy as $E \equiv \gamma mc^2 = m\gamma$, then

$$\frac{P^\mu}{\downarrow} = \left(\frac{E}{c}, P_x, P_y, P_z \right) = (E, \vec{P})$$

called four-momentum

$$\text{so } P_\mu P^\mu = E^2 - |\vec{P}|^2 = (m\gamma)^2 - (m\gamma)^2 |\vec{v}|^2 = m^2.$$

(yes, $P_\mu P^\mu$ is invariant, as expected)

Now we can try Taylor expand E in the non-relativistic regime ($v \ll c$)

$$E = m\gamma = m(1-v^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = m \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}v^2 + O(v^4) \right)$$

$$= \underbrace{m}_{\text{rest energy.}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}mv^2}_{\text{kinetic energy.}} + O(v^4)$$

For massless particle, $m=0$, $v=c$, $E = |\vec{P}|/c$, and therefore $P^\mu P_\mu = 0$.

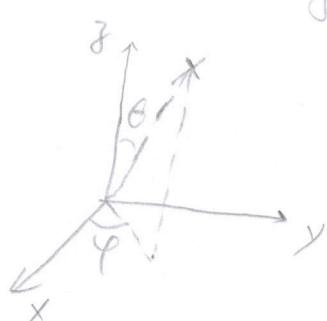
The energy and momentum of the massless particle is determined by its frequency E/λ , not mass (anyway) or velocity (c anyway).

So for a massless particle

$$P^\mu = \omega (1, \sin\theta\cos\varphi, \sin\theta\sin\varphi, \cos\theta)$$

$$(\text{since } (\sin\theta\cos\varphi)^2 + (\sin\theta\sin\varphi)^2 + (\cos\theta)^2 = 1)$$

that is, the massless particle moving in a direction described by polar angle θ and azimuthal angle φ , with the speed $= c = 1$,



Example to use momentum vector.

A pion at rest decays into a muon plus a neutrino (assume massless). What is the speed of muon in the rest frame of pion?

Method 1. In the rest frame of pion.

$$E_\pi = m_\pi$$

$$E_\mu = (m_\mu^2 + |\vec{P}_\mu|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$E_\nu = |\vec{P}_\nu| = |\vec{P}_\mu|$$

Use Conservation of energy (i.e., the 0-component of four-momentum conservation $P_\pi^0 = P_\mu^0 + P_\nu^0$)

$$P_\pi^0 = P_\mu^0 + P_\nu^0, \text{ that is, } E_\pi = E_\mu + E_\nu$$

$$\Rightarrow m_\pi = (m_\mu^2 + |\vec{P}_\mu|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} + |\vec{P}_\mu|$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{P}_\mu| = \frac{m_\pi^2 - m_\mu^2}{2m_\pi}$$

$$\text{and } E_\mu = (m_\mu^2 + |\vec{P}_\mu|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2}{2m_\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{v}_\mu| = \frac{|\vec{P}_\mu|}{E_\mu} = \frac{m_\pi^2 - m_\mu^2}{m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2} = \frac{139.57^2 - 105.66^2}{139.57^2 + 105.66^2} = 0.27$$

(note: $p^0 = (P^0, \vec{p}) = m\gamma(1, \vec{v})$)

$$\Rightarrow v^i = \frac{p^i}{p^0} = \frac{p^i}{E}, \text{ i.e., } \vec{v} = \frac{\vec{p}}{E}$$

Find the 
masses etc. of a particle in
pdg.lbl.gov.

Method 2.

$$P_\pi^\alpha = P_\mu^\alpha + P_\nu^\alpha \quad , \text{ or} \quad P_\nu^\alpha = P_\pi^\alpha - P_\mu^\alpha$$

↓

$$P_\nu^2 = (P_\pi - P_\mu)^2 \quad (\text{dot product})$$

$$0 = m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2 - 2P_\pi \cdot P_\mu$$

(Note that $P_\nu^2 = m_\nu^2 = 0$)

Note that $P_\pi \cdot P_\mu$ is an invariant and can be while in pion rest frame, $P_\pi \cdot P_\mu = m_\pi \cdot E_\mu$. evaluated in any reference frame and the result is the same.

(a bit explanation: $P_\pi \cdot P_\mu = P_\pi^0 P_\mu^0 - P_\pi^1 P_\mu^1 - P_\pi^2 P_\mu^2 - P_\pi^3 P_\mu^3$

since $= m_\pi E_\mu$

$P_\pi^\alpha = (m_\pi, 0, 0, 0) = m_\pi \gamma_\pi(1, v_\pi^1, v_\pi^2, v_\pi^3)$

$\stackrel{=}{\uparrow} m_\pi(1, 0, 0, 0)$

Since $\gamma_\pi = 1, v_\pi^{1,2,3} = 0$.

$$0 = m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2 - 2m_\pi E_\mu \Rightarrow E_\mu = \frac{m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2}{2m_\pi}$$

Since $P_\mu^\alpha = P_\pi^\alpha - P_\nu^\alpha$, then

$$P_\nu^2 = (P_\pi - P_\nu)^2 \Rightarrow m_\nu^2 = m_\pi^2 + 0 - 2m_\pi E_\nu \\ = m_\pi^2 - 2m_\pi |\vec{P}_\nu| = m_\pi^2 - 2m_\pi |\vec{P}_\mu|$$

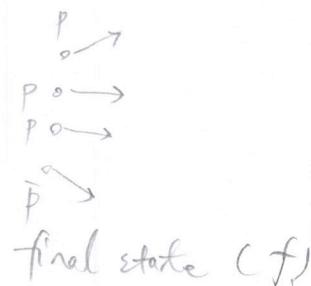
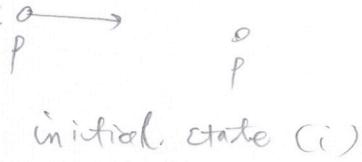
$$\Rightarrow |\vec{P}_\mu| = \frac{m_\pi^2 - m_\nu^2}{2m_\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\vec{v}_\mu| = \frac{|\vec{P}_\mu|}{E_\mu} = \frac{m_\pi^2 - m_\nu^2}{m_\pi^2 + m_\nu^2}$$

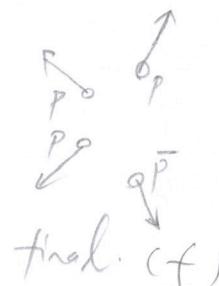
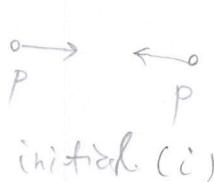
Example 2.

In the lab frame, a high energy proton hit a proton at rest, and the process is $p + p \rightarrow p + p + p + \bar{p}$. What is the threshold energy for this reaction (i.e., the minimum energy of the incident proton in the lab frame)?

in lab frame:



in center of momentum frame
(CM)



In the lab frame, the total four-momentum is

$$P_{i,\text{lab}}^{\mu} = (E + m, |\vec{p}|, 0, 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow P_i^2 = P_{i,\text{lab}}^{\mu} P_{i,\text{lab}}^{\mu} = (E + m)^2 - |\vec{p}|^2 = E^2 - |\vec{p}|^2 + 2mE + m^2 = 2m^2 + 2mE$$

P_i^2 is an invariant, can be evaluated at any frame and the result is the same.

By energy-momentum conservation, $P_i^{\mu} = P_{f,\text{lab}}^{\mu}$

$$(\text{note: } P_{i,\text{lab}}^{\mu} \neq P_{f,\text{CM}}^{\mu})$$

Therefore $P_i^2 = P_f^2$, note that P_i^2 and P_f^2 can be evaluated at different frame, since they are both Lorentz invariants.

The most convenient frame to evaluate P_f^2 is in the CM frame, since all the space components are zero, that is, $P_{f,\text{CM}}^{\mu} = (P_{f,\text{CM}}^0, 0, 0, 0)$

$$\Rightarrow P_f^2 = P_{f,\text{CM}}^0 = P_i^2 = 2m^2 + 2mE$$

Therefore the minimum of $P_{f,\text{CM}}^0$ gives the minimum of E .

The minimum of $P_{\text{f}, \text{cm}}^0$ is $4m$ (i.e., all four final particles are at rest, no kinetic energy).

$$\Rightarrow E_{\text{min}} = \frac{(4m)^2 - 2m^2}{2m} = 7m.$$

Question

Is that always possible to find a Center of momentum frame?

Suppose in an arbitrary frame,

$$E_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i \gamma_i m_i, \vec{P}_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i \gamma_i m_i \vec{v}_i$$

Note that for massless particle i , $\gamma_i m_i$ should be understood as $\lambda v_i = \hbar \omega_i = \omega_i$, and $|\vec{v}_i| = 1$.

Now make a Lorentz transformation along the direction of \vec{P}_{tot}

$$|\vec{P}'_{\text{tot}}| = \gamma (|\vec{P}_{\text{tot}}| - \nu E_{\text{tot}})$$

(note that since P^μ is a vector, it has the same Lorentz transformation as x^μ)

require $|\vec{P}'_{\text{tot}}| = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \nu = \frac{|\vec{P}_{\text{tot}}|}{E_{\text{tot}}} = \frac{|\sum_i \gamma_i m_i \vec{v}_i|}{\sum_i \gamma_i m_i}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Using } |\sum_i \gamma_i m_i \vec{v}_i| &= \left[(\sum_i \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \cos \theta_i)^2 + (\sum_i \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \sin \theta_i \cos \phi_i)^2 \right. \\ &\quad \left. + (\sum_i \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \sin \theta_i \sin \phi_i)^2 \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left[\sum_i (\gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i|)^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \cos \theta_i \cos \theta_j \right. \\ &\quad + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \sin \theta_i \sin \theta_j \cos \phi_i \cos \phi_j \\ &\quad \left. + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \sin \theta_i \sin \theta_j \sin \phi_i \sin \phi_j \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left[\sum_i (\gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i|)^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \cos \theta_i \cos \theta_j \right. \\ &\quad + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \sin \theta_i \sin \theta_j \cos(\phi_i - \phi_j) \\ &\quad \left. + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i|^2 + 2 \sum_{i \neq j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| (\cos \theta_i \cos \theta_j + \sin \theta_i \sin \theta_j) \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \left[\sum_i (\gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i|)^2 + 2 \sum_{i < j} \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i| \gamma_j m_j |\vec{v}_j| \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \sum_i \gamma_i m_i |\vec{v}_i|$$

$$\leq \sum_i \gamma_i m_i$$

$$\Rightarrow v \leq 1$$

the " $=$ " is achieved only when all particles are massless and they move in the same direction; otherwise $v < 1$ and it means a CM frame can be found.

Formally (a bit more tensor algebra)

For coordinate transformation $dx^\mu \rightarrow dx^{\mu'} = \Lambda^\mu_\nu dx^\nu$.

its inverse transformation is $dx^{\mu'} \rightarrow dx^\mu = \bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\nu dx^\nu'$.
(note that the prime ' is for x' , not for μ' , and the two coordinate systems are $x' = (t, x, y, z)$ and $x^\mu' = (t', x', y', z')$)

From $dx^{\mu'} = \Lambda^\mu_\nu dx^\nu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu \bar{\Lambda}^\nu_\alpha dx^\alpha'$

$$\Rightarrow \Lambda^\mu_\nu \bar{\Lambda}^\nu_\alpha = \delta^\mu_\alpha$$

From $dx^\mu = \bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\nu dx^{\nu'} = \bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\nu \Lambda^\nu_\beta dx^\beta$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\nu \Lambda^\nu_\beta = \delta^\mu_\beta$$

That is, $\bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\lambda \Lambda^\lambda_\nu = \Lambda^\mu_\lambda \bar{\Lambda}^\lambda_\nu = \delta^\mu_\nu$.

where $\delta^\mu_\nu = \begin{cases} 1, & \mu = \nu \\ 0, & \mu \neq \nu \end{cases}$

Therefore, without introducing $g_{\mu\nu}$, we can still define arbitrary covariant vector:

If the coordinate transformation is $dx^\mu = \Lambda^\mu_\nu dx^\nu$.

and the inverse transformation is $dx^{\mu'} = \bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\nu dx^\nu'$

where $\bar{\Lambda}^\mu_\lambda \Lambda^\lambda_\nu = \Lambda^\mu_\lambda \bar{\Lambda}^\lambda_\nu = \delta^\mu_\nu$.

then we call A^μ a contravariant vector if it transform as

$$A^\mu \rightarrow A^{\mu'} = \Lambda^\mu_\nu A^\nu \quad (\text{i.e., the same as } x^\mu)$$

and we call A_μ a covariant vector if it transform as

$$A_\mu \rightarrow A_{\mu'} = \bar{\Lambda}^\nu_\mu A_\nu$$

note that $A^\mu A_\mu = A_\mu A^{\mu'} = \Lambda^\mu_\lambda A^\lambda \bar{\Lambda}^\beta_\mu A_\beta = \delta^\mu_\beta A^\beta A_\beta = A^\mu A_\mu$

That is, $A^\mu A_\mu$ is an invariant under coordinate transformation.

Higher rank tensor can be defined as, e.g.,

$$A^{\mu\nu}{}_{\lambda} \rightarrow A^{\mu\nu}{}_{\lambda}{}' = \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\alpha} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\beta} \delta^{\alpha\beta} \Lambda^{\lambda}{}_{\tau}, A^{\mu\nu}{}_{\tau}$$

Show that Kronecker symbol is a rank two mixed tensor.

Since $\Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\tau} \delta^{\lambda\beta} = \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\tau} = \delta^{\mu}{}_{\tau}$

while in all coordinate systems the Kronecker is the same,

that is, $\delta^{\mu}{}_{\tau}{}' = \delta^{\mu}{}_{\tau}$

$$\Rightarrow \delta^{\mu}{}_{\tau}{}' = \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\tau} \delta^{\lambda\beta}$$

which means Kronecker symbol is a rank two mixed tensor.

Since $ds^2 = dt^2$ is an invariant under coordinate transformation, i.e.,

$$ds^2 = dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 = dt'^2 - dx'^2 - dy'^2 - dz'^2$$

then $g_{\mu\nu}$ is a rank two covariant tensor

$$= g'_{\mu\nu} dx'^{\mu} dx'^{\nu}$$

Proof:

$$g'_{\mu\nu} dx'^{\mu} dx'^{\nu} = g'_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\beta} dx^{\lambda} dx^{\beta}$$

$$= g_{\lambda\beta} dx^{\lambda} dx^{\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow g'_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\beta} = g_{\lambda\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow g'_{\mu\nu} \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\lambda} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\lambda}{}_{\kappa} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\gamma} = g_{\lambda\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\lambda}{}_{\kappa} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\gamma}$$

$$\Rightarrow g'_{\kappa\gamma} = g_{\lambda\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\lambda}{}_{\kappa} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\gamma} \quad \checkmark$$

The inverse of $g_{\mu\nu}$, which satisfies $g^{\mu\lambda} g_{\lambda\nu} = \delta^{\mu}{}_{\nu}$ is a rank two contravariant tensor.

Proof: $g'^{\mu\lambda} g'_{\lambda\nu} = \delta^{\mu}{}_{\nu}$

$$= g'^{\mu\lambda} g_{\alpha\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\alpha}{}_{\lambda} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\nu}$$

times $\Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\kappa}$
on both sides $\Rightarrow g'^{\mu\lambda} g_{\alpha\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\alpha}{}_{\lambda} \bar{\Lambda}^{\beta}{}_{\nu} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\kappa} = \delta^{\mu}{}_{\nu} \Lambda^{\nu}{}_{\kappa} = \Lambda^{\mu}{}_{\kappa}$

$$= g'^{\mu\lambda} g_{\alpha\beta} \bar{\Lambda}^{\alpha}{}_{\lambda} \delta^{\beta}{}_{\kappa} = g'^{\mu\lambda} g_{\alpha\kappa} \bar{\Lambda}^{\alpha}{}_{\lambda}$$

times g^{KF} on both sides

$$\Rightarrow g'^{\mu} \gamma g_{\alpha K} \bar{\lambda}^{\alpha} \gamma g^{KF} = N^M_K g^{KF}$$

$$= g'^{\mu} \gamma \bar{\lambda}^F \gamma$$

times $\bar{\lambda}^F \gamma$ on both sides

$$\Rightarrow g'^{\mu} \gamma \bar{\lambda}^F \gamma \bar{\lambda}^F \gamma = N^M_K g^{KF} \bar{\lambda}^F \gamma$$

$$= g'^{\mu \alpha} \checkmark$$

Since Kronecker Symbol is a unit matrix, it is OK to write it as δ^M_ν , or $\delta^{\mu\nu}$, or $\delta_{\mu\nu}$, or g^M_ν .

Note 1: $X^\mu = (t, x, y, z) = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$

$$X_\mu = (t, -x, -y, -z) = (x^0, -x^1, -x^2, -x^3)$$
$$= (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$$

i.e., $x^0 = x_0, x^i = -x_i$, similarly, $p^0 = p_0, p^i = -p_i$

Note 2: $\partial_\mu \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial X^\mu} = (\partial_0, \vec{\nabla}) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{x}} \right)$

$$\partial^\mu \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial X_\mu} = (\partial_0, -\vec{\nabla})$$

d'Alembert $\square \equiv \partial^2 \equiv \partial_\mu \partial^\mu = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x^0} \right)^2 - \vec{\nabla}^2$

(a bit more Lorentz transformation)

Lorentz Symmetry

Warm up. — write coordinate transformation using matrix.

$$x^\mu = (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) = (ct, x, y, z) \stackrel{c=1}{=} (t, x, y, z) \\ = (t, \vec{x}) = (x^0, \vec{x})$$

Usually, Greek indices take on the value 0, 1, 2, 3;

Latin indices $i, j, \dots, - - - 1, 2, 3$, for space components.

ν is Transformation of coordinate system from $\{x^\mu\}$ to $\{x'^\mu\}$.

dummy index

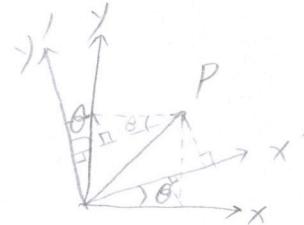
$$x'^\mu = a^\mu_\nu x^\nu = a^0_0 x^0 + a^0_1 x^1 + a^0_2 x^2 + a^0_3 x^3$$

(Einstein summation convention: when an index variable appear twice in a single term and is not otherwise defined, it implies summation of that term over all the values of the index.)

Example 1. Space Rotation.

a rotation of coordinate system about the \hat{z} axis by a positive angle θ in the counterclockwise direction where $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$

$$a^\mu_\nu = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\Rightarrow x'^0 = x^0$$

$$x'^1 = x^1 \cos\theta + x^2 \sin\theta$$

$$x'^2 = -x^1 \sin\theta + x^2 \cos\theta$$

$$x'^3 = x^3$$

Example 2. Pure Lorentz transformation

relates two coordinate systems differ only by a uniform relative motion of velocity v

$$a^\mu_\nu = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh\omega & -\sinh\omega & 0 & 0 \\ -\sinh\omega & \cosh\omega & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow x'^0 = \cosh\omega (x^0 - v x^1) = \gamma(x^0 - v x^1)$$

$$x'^1 = \cosh\omega (-x^0 \tanh\omega + x^1) = \gamma(-v x^0 + x^1)$$

$$x'^2 = x^2$$

$$x'^3 = x^3$$

where $-\infty < \omega < +\infty$, $\cosh \omega = \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$, $\tanh \omega = v$

Note that the two coordinate systems satisfy

$$(x', y', z') = (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) \text{ at } t = t' = 0.$$

(Meaning: an event happens at (t, x, y, z) happens at (t', x', y', z')
 → an event happens at $(t=0, x=0, y=0, z=0)$ happens at $(t'=0, x'=0, y'=0, z'=0)$)

Note: the benefit to use hyperbolic functions
 compared to directly use v and $V = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}}$

If there is three reference frame A&B&C, suppose B moves relative to A by a constant velocity v_1 , and C moves relative to B by a constant velocity v_2 , and suppose v_1 & v_2 are both along x -direction and the origins of A&B&C coincide at $t = t' = t'' = 0$.

Then for an event at (t, x) in A, will have (t', x') in B and (t'', x'') in C satisfying (no need to worry y and z directions)

$$\begin{pmatrix} t' \\ x' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \omega_1 & -\sinh \omega_1 \\ -\sinh \omega_1 & \cosh \omega_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \begin{pmatrix} t'' \\ x'' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \omega_2 & -\sinh \omega_2 \\ -\sinh \omega_2 & \cosh \omega_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t' \\ x' \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore } \begin{pmatrix} t'' \\ x'' \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \omega_2 & -\sinh \omega_2 \\ -\sinh \omega_2 & \cosh \omega_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \omega_1 & -\sinh \omega_1 \\ -\sinh \omega_1 & \cosh \omega_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \cosh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) & -\sinh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) \\ -\sinh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) & \cosh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

That is, frame C moving with velocity $\tanh(\omega_1 + \omega_2)$ relative to frame A

where $\tanh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) = \frac{\tanh \omega_1 + \tanh \omega_2}{1 + \tanh \omega_1 \tanh \omega_2}$

$$\begin{aligned} (\text{note: } \cosh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) &= \cosh \omega_1 \cosh \omega_2 + \sinh \omega_1 \sinh \omega_2 \\ \sinh(\omega_1 + \omega_2) &= \sinh \omega_1 \cosh \omega_2 + \cosh \omega_1 \sinh \omega_2) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, use hyperbolic functions make it easier for velocity add up.

The above velocity add up can be derived alternatively:

Consider an object move with velocity v_2 in B frame, and B frame move relative to A frame with velocity v_1 , then what is the velocity the object relative to A?

$$\text{use } t' = \gamma(t - v_1 x)$$

$$x' = \gamma(-v_1 t + x)$$

$$\Rightarrow v_2 = \frac{dx'}{dt} = \frac{\gamma(-v_1 dt + dx)}{\gamma(dt - v_1 dx)} = \frac{-v_1 + \frac{dx}{dt}}{1 - v_1 \frac{dx}{dt}}$$

$$\Rightarrow v_2 - v_2 v_1 \frac{dx}{dt} = -v_1 + \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{v_2 + v_1}{1 + v_1 v_2}$$

✓

end warm up

Lorentz transformation

Lorentz transformations leave invariant the proper time interval dt (or, write it as ds)

means it is the same in any inertial reference frame 时空间的可维间隔

$$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2 \stackrel{c=1}{=} dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$$

$$ds^2 = \underbrace{g_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu dx^\nu}_{\text{度规 (metric)}}$$

$$g_{00} = 1, \quad g_{11} = g_{22} = g_{33} = -1, \quad g_{\mu\nu} = 0 \text{ for } \mu \neq \nu.$$

in matrix form: $g_{\mu\nu} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Lorentz transformation (from GR section 2.1 by Weinberg).

The Principle of Special Relativity states that the laws of nature are invariant under a particular group of space-time coordinate transformations called Lorentz Transformations.

Definition of Lorentz transformation

$$x'^\alpha = \Lambda^\alpha_\beta x^\beta + a^\alpha$$

Note that $\Lambda^\alpha_\beta = \frac{\partial x'^\alpha}{\partial x^\beta}$

where a^α and Λ^α_β are constants, and Λ^α_β satisfy the conditions

$$\Lambda^\alpha_\gamma \Lambda^\beta_\delta \eta_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\gamma\delta}$$

where $\eta_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{cases} 1, & \alpha = \beta = 0 \\ -1, & \alpha = \beta = 1, 2, 3 \\ 0, & \alpha \neq \beta \end{cases}$

Lorentz transformations leave proper time invariant

Proof: $d\tau^2 \equiv \eta_{\alpha\beta} dx^\alpha dx^\beta = dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$

Since $x'^\alpha = \Lambda^\alpha_\beta x^\beta + a^\alpha$,

then $dx'^\alpha = \Lambda^\alpha_\beta dx^\beta$

$$\Rightarrow d\tau'^2 = \eta'_{\alpha\beta} dx'^\alpha dx'^\beta = \eta'_{\alpha\beta} \Lambda^\alpha_\gamma \Lambda^\beta_\delta dx^\gamma dx^\delta$$

since
 $\eta'_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\alpha\beta}$ \Rightarrow $\eta'_{\alpha\beta} \Lambda^\alpha_\gamma \Lambda^\beta_\delta dx^\gamma dx^\delta$
use $\Lambda^\alpha_\gamma \Lambda^\beta_\delta \eta_{\alpha\beta} = \eta_{\gamma\delta}$ \Rightarrow $\eta_{\gamma\delta} dx^\gamma dx^\delta$
 $= \eta_{\gamma\delta} dx^\gamma dx^\delta$

$$= dt^2.$$

Done.

In particular, this means that the speed of light is the same in all inertial systems. (if the speed of light is $|\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt}| = 1$ in x frame, then $d\tau = 0$, then $d\tau' = 0$, then $|\frac{d\vec{x}'}{dt'}| = 1$)

The set of all Lorentz transformations $x'^\alpha = \Lambda^\alpha_\beta x^\beta + a^\alpha$ form a group called the inhomogeneous Lorentz group, or the Poincaré group.

The subset with $a^\alpha = 0$ is called the homogeneous Lorentz group.

Both the inhomogeneous Lorentz group and homogeneous Lorentz group have subgroups called the proper inhomogeneous and homogeneous Lorentz group, defined by imposing

$$\Lambda^0_0 > 1, \quad \text{Det } \Lambda = +1.$$

Note:

- ① $\underbrace{\Lambda^\alpha_\beta \Lambda^\beta_\gamma \gamma_{\alpha\gamma}}_{\text{written in matrix form}} = \gamma_{\alpha\alpha} \Rightarrow (\Lambda^0_0)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^3 (\Lambda^i_0)^2 = 1$
- ② \downarrow $(\Lambda^0_0)^2 = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^3 (\Lambda^i_0)^2 \geq 1$
- ③ The identity matrix $\Lambda^\alpha_\beta = \delta^\alpha_\beta$ satisfy $\Lambda^0_0 = 1$ and $\text{Det } \Lambda = +1$

$\Lambda^T \gamma \Lambda = \gamma \Rightarrow \text{Det}(\Lambda^T \gamma \Lambda) = \text{Det}(\gamma)$

\Downarrow

$\text{Det}(\Lambda^T) \text{Det}(\gamma) \text{Det}(\Lambda) = \text{Det}(\gamma)$

\Downarrow

$(\text{Det}(\Lambda))^2 \text{Det}(\gamma) = \text{Det}(\gamma)$

\Downarrow

$(\text{Det}(\Lambda))^2 = 1$

The proper homogeneous Lorentz group has a subgroup which is the rotation group: $\Lambda^i_j = R_{ij}$, $\Lambda^0_0 = \Lambda^i_i = 1$, $\Lambda^0_\alpha = 0$ where R_{ij} is a unimodular orthogonal matrix satisfying $\text{Det } R = 1$ and $R^T R = 1$.

For example, rotation about z -axis counterclockwise by φ .

$$\begin{pmatrix} t' \\ x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \varphi & \sin \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & -\sin \varphi & \cos \varphi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}.$$

Derive a pure Lorentz boost in arbitrary direction.

Solution:

In class we gave the expression for a Lorentz boost in x -direction, which is

$$t' = \gamma(t - vx)$$

$$x' = \gamma(-vt + x)$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z.$$

Since x -direction is of no special, the above expression can be understood as the change is in the boost direction only.

We can decompose the three-vector \vec{x} as

$$\vec{x} = \vec{x}_{||} + \vec{x}_{\perp}$$

where $\vec{x}_{||}$ is in the direction of boost \vec{v} , and \vec{x}_{\perp} is in the direction orthogonal to the boost direction \vec{v} .

$$\Rightarrow t' = \gamma(t - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{x}_{||}) = \gamma(t - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{x}) = \gamma(t - v' x')$$

$$\text{where } \gamma = (1 - |\vec{v}|^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= [1 - (v^1)^2 - (v^2)^2 - (v^3)^2]^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\vec{x}'_{||} = \gamma(-\vec{v} t + \vec{x}_{||})$$

$$\vec{x}'_{\perp} = \vec{x}_{\perp}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{x}' = \vec{x}'_{||} + \vec{x}'_{\perp} = \gamma(-\vec{v} t + \vec{x}_{||}) + \vec{x}_{\perp}$$

$$= \gamma(-\vec{v} t + \vec{x}_{||}) + \vec{x} - \vec{x}_{||}$$

$$= \vec{x} + (\gamma - 1) \vec{x}_{||} - \gamma \vec{v} t$$

$$\text{Since } \vec{x}_{||} = \vec{v} \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|^2}$$

$$\text{then } \vec{x}' = \vec{x} + (\gamma - 1) \frac{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|^2} \cdot \vec{v} - \gamma \vec{v} t$$

$$= \gamma \vec{v} t + \vec{x} + (\gamma - 1) \vec{v} \frac{v' x' + v^2 x^2 + v^3 x^3}{|\vec{v}|^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x'_0 \\ x'_1 \\ x'_2 \\ x'_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\gamma v' & -\gamma^2 v' & -\gamma^3 v' \\ -\gamma v' & 1 + \frac{(\gamma-1)v'^2}{v'^2} & \frac{(\gamma-1)v'v'^2}{v'^2} & (\gamma-1)\frac{v'v'^3}{v'^2} \\ -\gamma v'^2 & \frac{(\gamma-1)v'v'^2}{v'^2} & 1 + \frac{(\gamma-1)v'^2}{v'^2} & (\gamma-1)\frac{v^2v'^3}{v'^2} \\ -\gamma v'^3 & (\gamma-1)\frac{v'v'^3}{v'^2} & (\gamma-1)\frac{v^2v'^3}{v'^2} & 1 + (\gamma-1)\frac{v^3v'^2}{v'^2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

See Mathematica code "general pure Lorentz boost.nb" for a different method.

How to derive a Lorentz boost in x -direction.

Solution:

Suppose O' frame is moving with velocity v in the x -direction with respect to O , and the two frames overlap at $t=t'=0$.

[1] Consider a particle at rest in O , $dx = dy = dz = 0$.

$$\text{Using } dx'^{\alpha} = \Lambda^{\alpha}_{\beta} dx^{\beta}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} d=0, & dt' = \Lambda^0_0 dt \\ \alpha=1, & dx' = \Lambda^1_0 dt \\ \alpha=2, & dy' = \Lambda^2_0 dt \\ \alpha=3, & dz' = \Lambda^3_0 dt \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Since } -v = \frac{dx'}{dt'}, \quad \frac{dy'}{dt'} = 0, \quad \frac{dz'}{dt'} = 0$$

$$\text{then } \frac{\Lambda^1_0}{\Lambda^0_0} = -v, \quad \frac{\Lambda^2_0}{\Lambda^0_0} = 0, \quad \frac{\Lambda^3_0}{\Lambda^0_0} = 0 \quad \textcircled{B}$$

$$\text{Using } \Lambda^{\alpha}_{\beta} \Lambda^{\beta}_{\gamma} \gamma_{\alpha\gamma} = \gamma_{\alpha\alpha} \quad \underbrace{\Lambda^2_0 = 0, \Lambda^3_0 = 0}_{\downarrow}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{when } \gamma = \delta = 0, \quad (\Lambda^0_0)^2 - (\Lambda^1_0)^2 = 1 \quad \textcircled{C}$$

$$\textcircled{A} \oplus \textcircled{C} \Rightarrow (\Lambda^0_0)^2 - v^2 (\Lambda^1_0)^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \Lambda^0_0 = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-v^2}} = \gamma$$

$$\Lambda^1_0 = -v\gamma$$

but take "+" sign
for proper transformation.

[2] Consider a particle at rest in O' , $dx' = dy' = dz' = 0$, $dy = 0$, $dz = 0$

Using $dx'^\alpha = \Lambda^\alpha_{\beta} dx^\beta$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \alpha=0, & dt' = \Lambda^0_0 dt + \Lambda^0_1 dx \\ \alpha=1, & dx' = \Lambda^1_0 dt + \Lambda^1_1 dx \\ \alpha=2, & dy' = \Lambda^2_0 dt + \Lambda^2_1 dx \\ \alpha=3, & dz' = \Lambda^3_0 dt + \Lambda^3_1 dx \end{cases}$$

$$\text{since } \frac{dx}{dt} = v$$

$$\text{then } dt' = \gamma dt + \Lambda^0_1 v dt = (\gamma + \Lambda^0_1 v) dt$$

$$0 = \Lambda^0_0 + \Lambda^0_1 v \Rightarrow \Lambda^0_1 = \gamma$$

$$0 = \Lambda^2_0 + \Lambda^2_1 v \Rightarrow \Lambda^2_1 = 0$$

$$0 = \Lambda^3_0 + \Lambda^3_1 v \Rightarrow \Lambda^3_1 = 0$$

$$\text{using } \Lambda^2_0 \gamma \Lambda^1_0 \gamma = \gamma_{rs}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{when } \gamma \neq 1, (\Lambda^0_1)^2 - (\Lambda^1_1)^2 = -1 \Rightarrow (\Lambda^0_1)^2 - \gamma^2 = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \Lambda^0_1 = \pm (\gamma^2 - 1)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \pm \left(\frac{1 - \gamma^2}{1 + \gamma^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \pm v\gamma$$

$$\text{On the other hand } d\tau = dt' = (dt^2 - dx^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = dt (1 - v^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \gamma^{-1} dt$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma + \Lambda^0_1 v = \gamma^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Lambda^0_1 = \frac{\gamma^{-1} - \gamma}{v} = \frac{1 - \gamma^2}{\gamma v} = -\frac{1 - \gamma^2}{\gamma v} = -\gamma v$$

$$\text{By far, we have shown } \Lambda^0_0 = \gamma, \Lambda^0_1 = -\gamma v, \\ \Lambda^1_0 = -v\gamma, \Lambda^1_1 = \gamma \\ \Lambda^2_0 = \Lambda^3_0 = 0, \Lambda^2_1 = \Lambda^3_1 = 0$$

Since the moving is along the x -axis, it has nothing to do with y - and z -axis, then
 $\Lambda^0_2 = 0, \Lambda^0_3 = 0, \Lambda^1_2 = 0, \Lambda^1_3 = 0, \Lambda^2_2 = 1, \Lambda^2_3 = 0, \Lambda^3_2 = 0, \Lambda^3_3 = 1$

Therefore

$$\Lambda = \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & -\gamma v & 0 & 0 \\ -\gamma v & \gamma & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$