

Chapter 12.

Electrodynamics and Relativity

| | | |
|--------|--|-----|
| 12.1 | The Special Theory of Relativity | 477 |
| 12.1.1 | Einstein's Postulates | 477 |
| 12.1.2 | The Geometry of Relativity | 483 |
| 12.1.3 | The Lorentz Transformations | 493 |
| 12.1.4 | The Structure of Spacetime | 500 |
| 12.2 | Relativistic Mechanics | 507 |
| 12.2.1 | Proper Time and Proper Velocity | 507 |
| 12.2.2 | Relativistic Energy and Momentum | 509 |
| 12.2.3 | Relativistic Kinematics | 511 |
| 12.2.4 | Relativistic Dynamics | 516 |
| 12.3 | Relativistic Electrodynamics | 522 |
| 12.3.1 | Magnetism as a Relativistic Phenomenon | 522 |
| 12.3.2 | How the Fields Transform | 525 |
| 12.3.3 | The Field Tensor | 535 |
| 12.3.4 | Electrodynamics in Tensor Notation | 537 |
| 12.3.5 | Relativistic Potentials | 541 |

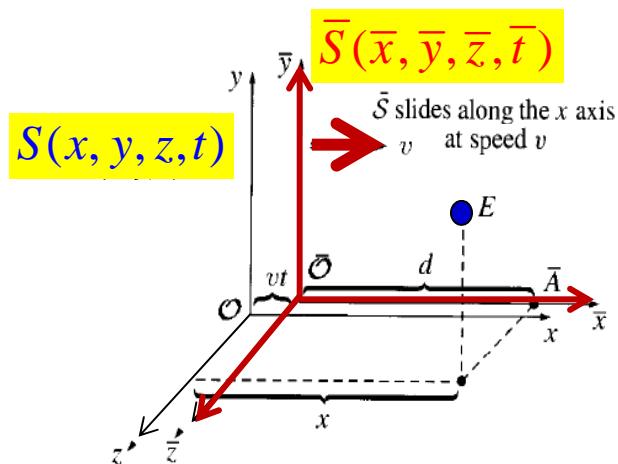
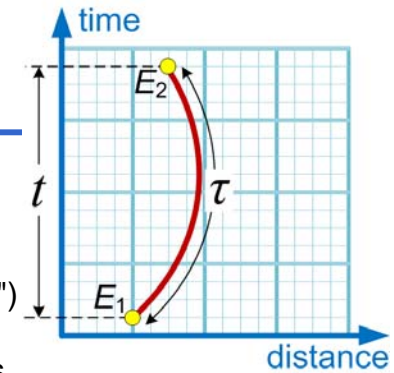
Does the principle of relativity apply to the laws of electrodynamics?

12.2 Relativistic Mechanics

12.2.1 Proper Time and Proper Velocity

proper time (τ): (The word suggests a mistranslation of the French *propre*, meaning "own.")

- The elapsed time between two events as measured by a clock that passes through both events.
- The proper time depends not only on the events but also on the motion of the clock between the events.



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(i)} \quad \bar{x} = \gamma(x - vt), \\ \text{(ii)} \quad \bar{y} = y, \\ \text{(iii)} \quad \bar{z} = z, \\ \text{(iv)} \quad \bar{t} = \gamma\left(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x\right) \end{array} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{(i')} \quad x = \gamma(\bar{x} + v\bar{t}), \\ \text{(ii')} \quad y = \bar{y}, \\ \text{(iii')} \quad z = \bar{z}, \\ \text{(iv')} \quad t = \gamma\left(\bar{t} + \frac{v}{c^2}\bar{x}\right). \end{array} \right\}$$

$$d\bar{t} = \gamma\left(1 - \frac{u}{c^2} \frac{dx}{dt}\right) dt = \gamma\left(1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}\right) dt = \frac{1}{\gamma} dt$$

$$dt = \gamma\left(1 - \frac{u}{c^2} \frac{d\bar{x}}{d\bar{t}}\right) d\bar{t} = \gamma\left(1 - \frac{u^2}{c^2}\right) d\bar{t} = \frac{1}{\gamma} d\bar{t}$$

$$d\tau = \sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2} dt$$

- In some cases τ may be a more relevant or useful quantity than t .
- For one thing, proper time is invariant, whereas "ordinary" time depends on the particular reference frame you have in mind.

Proper Time and Proper Velocity

Ordinary velocity (u) $\Rightarrow \mathbf{u} = \frac{d\mathbf{l}}{dt}$: distance measured on the ground, over time measured in the ground

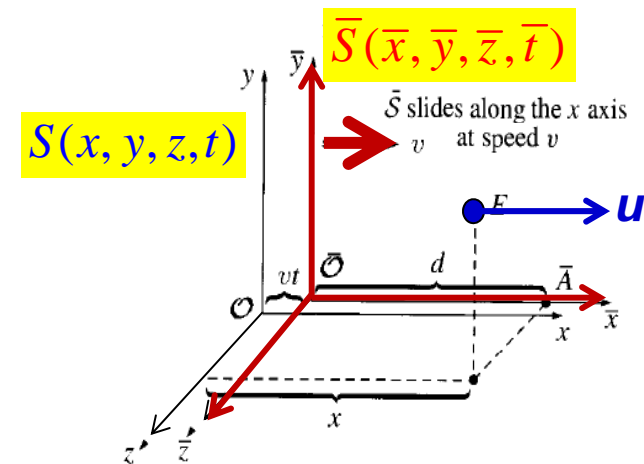
Proper velocity (η) $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\eta} \equiv \frac{d\mathbf{l}}{d\tau}$: distance (l) measured on S, over the proper time (hybrid combination)

$$d\tau = \sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2} dt$$

$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \mathbf{u}$: **proper velocity 4-vector (4-velocity)**

$$\rightarrow \eta^\mu \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau}$$

whose zeroth component is $\eta^0 = \frac{dx^0}{d\tau} = c \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$



Note: the particle velocities under Lorentz transformations

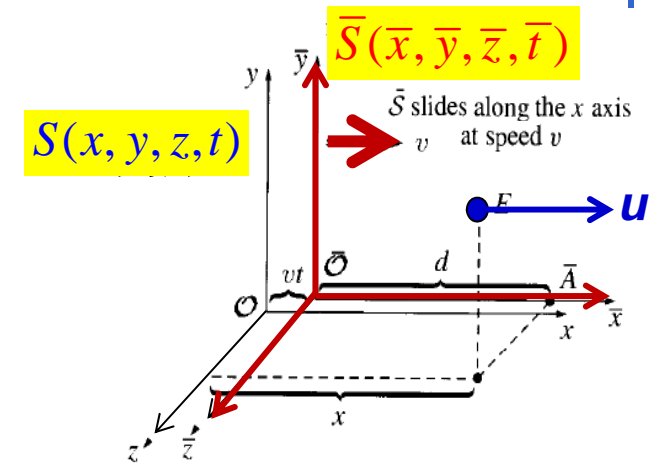
v : \bar{S} frame velocity with respect to S frame

$u = \frac{dx}{dt}$: velocity of the *particle* with respect to S frame

$\bar{u} = \frac{d\bar{x}}{d\bar{t}}$: velocity of the *particle* with respect to \bar{S} frame

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \bar{u}_x &= \frac{d\bar{x}}{d\bar{t}} = \frac{u_x - v}{(1 - vu_x/c^2)}, \\ \bar{u}_y &= \frac{d\bar{y}}{d\bar{t}} = \frac{u_y}{\gamma(1 - vu_x/c^2)}, \\ \bar{u}_z &= \frac{d\bar{z}}{d\bar{t}} = \frac{u_z}{\gamma(1 - vu_x/c^2)}. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

→ The transformation rule for *ordinary* velocities
→ It is extremely cumbersome!



$\eta = \frac{dl}{d\tau}$: proper velocity of the *particle*: $\eta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \mathbf{u}$ $\eta = \frac{dx}{d\bar{t}}$ $\bar{\eta} = \frac{d\bar{x}}{d\bar{t}}$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \bar{\eta}^0 &= \gamma(\eta^0 - \beta\eta^1), \\ \bar{\eta}^1 &= \gamma(\eta^1 - \beta\eta^0), \\ \bar{\eta}^2 &= \eta^2, \\ \bar{\eta}^3 &= \eta^3. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

→ Proper velocity has all enormous advantage over ordinary velocity:

→ it transforms simply, when you go from one inertial system to another.

12.2.2 Relativistic Energy and Momentum

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \mathbf{u}$$

Relativistic Momentum:

$$\mathbf{p} \equiv m\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \longrightarrow p^\mu \equiv m\eta^\mu \quad (m: \text{rest mass})$$

$$m_{\text{rel}} \equiv \frac{m}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \quad : \text{Einstein called } \mathbf{relativistic mass}$$

➔ **Relativistic momentum is conserved!**

(Prove: Prob. 12.29)

The conservation law of momentum would be inconsistent with the principle of relativity if we were to define momentum as $m\mathbf{u}$.

Problem 12.2: In inertial frame S , particle A (mass m_A , velocity \mathbf{u}_A) hits particle B (mass m_B , velocity \mathbf{u}_B).

In the course of the collision some mass rubs off A and onto B ,

and we are left with particles C (mass m_C , velocity \mathbf{u}_C) and D (mass m_D , velocity \mathbf{u}_D).

(a) Prove that momentum is also conserved in inertial frame \bar{S} , which moves with velocity \mathbf{v} relative to S .

If we use Galileo's velocity addition rule of $\mathbf{v}_{AC} = \mathbf{v}_{AB} + \mathbf{v}_{BC}$

Assuming mass is conserved, $(m_A + m_B) = (m_C + m_D)$, it follows that momentum is conserved.

$$m_A \mathbf{u}_A + m_B \mathbf{u}_B = m_C \mathbf{u}_C + m_D \mathbf{u}_D; \quad \mathbf{u}_i = \bar{\mathbf{u}}_i + \mathbf{v}.$$

$$m_A(\bar{\mathbf{u}}_A + \mathbf{v}) + m_B(\bar{\mathbf{u}}_B + \mathbf{v}) = m_C(\bar{\mathbf{u}}_C + \mathbf{v}) + m_D(\bar{\mathbf{u}}_D + \mathbf{v})$$

$$m_A \bar{\mathbf{u}}_A + m_B \bar{\mathbf{u}}_B + (m_A + m_B)\mathbf{v} = m_C \bar{\mathbf{u}}_C + m_D \bar{\mathbf{u}}_D + (m_C + m_D)\mathbf{v}$$

Assuming *mass* is conserved, $(m_A + m_B) = (m_C + m_D)$,

$$m_A \bar{\mathbf{u}}_A + m_B \bar{\mathbf{u}}_B = m_C \bar{\mathbf{u}}_C + m_D \bar{\mathbf{u}}_D, \text{ so momentum is conserved in } \bar{S}.$$

Relativistic Momentum conservation

$$\mathbf{p} \equiv m\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$$

(Prob. 12.29)

(a) The conservation law of momentum would be inconsistent with the principle of relativity if we were to define momentum as $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{u}$, but with the (correct) Einstein velocity addition rule.

$$v_{AC} = \frac{v_{AB} + v_{BC}}{1 + (v_{AB}v_{BC}/c^2)}$$

$$(a) \quad m_A u_A + m_B u_B = m_C u_C + m_D u_D; \quad u_i = \frac{\bar{u}_i + v}{1 + (\bar{u}_i v/c^2)}.$$

$$m_A \frac{\bar{u}_A + v}{1 + (\bar{u}_A v/c^2)} + m_B \frac{\bar{u}_B + v}{1 + (\bar{u}_B v/c^2)} = m_C \frac{\bar{u}_C + v}{1 + (\bar{u}_C v/c^2)} + m_D \frac{\bar{u}_D + v}{1 + (\bar{u}_D v/c^2)}.$$

This time, because the denominators are all different, we *cannot* conclude that $m_A \bar{u}_A + m_B \bar{u}_B = m_C \bar{u}_C + m_D \bar{u}_D$.

(b) Now do the same using the correct definition, $\mathbf{p} = m\boldsymbol{\eta}$.

$$(b) \quad m_A \eta_A + m_B \eta_B = m_C \eta_C + m_D \eta_D; \quad \eta_i = \gamma(\bar{\eta}_i + \beta \bar{\eta}_i^0). \quad (\text{The inverse Lorentz transformation.})$$

$$m_A \gamma(\bar{\eta}_A + \beta \bar{\eta}_A^0) + m_B \gamma(\bar{\eta}_B + \beta \bar{\eta}_B^0) = m_C \gamma(\bar{\eta}_C + \beta \bar{\eta}_C^0) + m_D \gamma(\bar{\eta}_D + \beta \bar{\eta}_D^0).$$

The gamma's cancel:

$$m_A \bar{\eta}_A + m_B \bar{\eta}_B + \beta(m_A \bar{\eta}_A^0 + m_B \bar{\eta}_B^0) = m_C \bar{\eta}_C + m_D \bar{\eta}_D + \beta(m_C \bar{\eta}_C^0 + m_D \bar{\eta}_D^0).$$

But $m_i \eta_i^0 = p_i^0 = E_i/c$, so if energy is conserved in \bar{S} ($\bar{E}_A + \bar{E}_B = \bar{E}_C + \bar{E}_D$),

$$m_A \bar{\eta}_A + m_B \bar{\eta}_B = m_C \bar{\eta}_C + m_D \bar{\eta}_D.$$

Relativistic Energy

Relativistic energy: $E \equiv \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$

→ Relativistic energy is conserved!

$E_{\text{rest}} \equiv mc^2$ → **Rest energy ($u = 0$)**

→ The relativistic energy is nonzero *even when the object is stationary!*

$$E_{\text{kin}} \equiv E - mc^2 = mc^2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} - 1 \right) = \frac{1}{2}mu^2 + \frac{3}{8}\frac{mu^4}{c^2} + \dots \quad \text{: kinetic energy}$$

Note: $p^0 = m\eta^0 = \frac{mc}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} = \frac{E}{c}$

The scalar product of p^μ with itself: $p^\mu p_\mu = -(p^0)^2 + (\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p}) = -m^2c^2$

→ $E^2 - p^2c^2 = m^2c^4$

This result is extremely useful, for it enables you to calculate E (if you know p), or p (knowing E), without ever having to determine the velocity.

Total relativistic energy and momentum are conserved.

Relativistic Momentum: $\mathbf{p} \equiv m\mathbf{u} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} = m_{rel}\mathbf{u}$

Relativistic energy: $E \equiv \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} = m_{rel}c^2$

$$E^2 - p^2c^2 = m^2c^4$$

Note the distinction between an **invariant** quantity (same value in all inertial systems) and a **conserved** quantity (same value before and after some process).

- **rest mass** is invariant, but not conserved;
- **energy** is conserved but not invariant;
- **electric charge** is both conserved *and* invariant;
- **velocity** is neither conserved *nor* invariant.

(Example 12.7)

Two lumps of clay, each of (rest) mass m , collide head-on at $(3/5)c$. They stick together. What is the mass (M) of the composite lump?



The energy of each lump: $\frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - (3/5)^2}} = \frac{5}{4}mc^2$

Conservation energy: $\frac{5}{4}mc^2 + \frac{5}{4}mc^2 = Mc^2$

$$M = \frac{5}{2}m.$$

M is greater than the sum of the initial masses!
Mass was not conserved.
Kinetic energy was converted into rest energy,
→ the mass increased.

12.2.3 Relativistic Kinematics

$$\mathbf{p} \equiv m\mathbf{u} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \quad E \equiv \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \quad \boxed{E^2 - p^2c^2 = m^2c^4}$$

For a massless particle ($m = 0$): photon

→ If $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{c}$,

→ then (zero) over (zero), leaving p and E indeterminate.

→ therefore, that a massless particle could carry energy and momentum at the speed of light.

→ $E = pc$

→ What distinguishes a photon with a *lot* of energy from one with very little?

“they just have the same mass (zero) and the same speed (c)!”

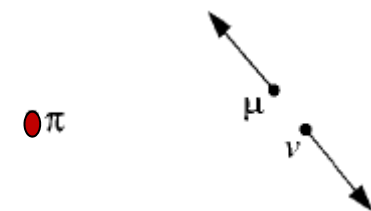
→ Relativity offers no answer to this question.

→ Quantum mechanics *does*, according to the Planck formula, $E = h\nu$

(Example 12.8) A pion at rest decays into a muon and a neutrino.

Find the energy of the outgoing muon,

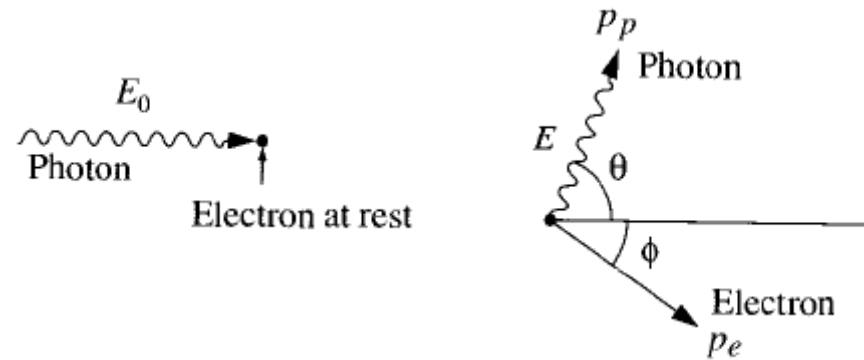
in terms of the two masses, m_π and m_μ (assume $m_\nu = 0$).



$$\begin{array}{ll} E_{\text{before}} = m_\pi c^2 & \Rightarrow E_\mu + E_\nu = m_\pi c^2 \\ E_{\text{after}} = E_\mu + E_\nu & \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{p}_{\text{before}} = 0 & \Rightarrow \mathbf{p}_\nu = -\mathbf{p}_\mu \\ \mathbf{p}_{\text{after}} = \mathbf{p}_\mu + \mathbf{p}_\nu & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{p}_\nu = -\mathbf{p}_\mu \\ E_\nu = |\mathbf{p}_\nu|c \\ |\mathbf{p}_\mu| = \sqrt{E_\mu^2 - m_\mu^2 c^4} / c \end{array} \Rightarrow E_\mu + \sqrt{E_\mu^2 - m_\mu^2 c^4} = m_\pi c^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{E_\mu = \frac{(m_\pi^2 + m_\mu^2)c^2}{2m_\pi}}$$

(Example 12.9) Compton scattering: $\lambda = \lambda_0 + \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos \theta)$



Conservation of momentum:

vertical $p_e \sin \phi = p_p \sin \theta \quad p_p = E/c \quad \longrightarrow \quad \sin \phi = \frac{E}{p_e c} \sin \theta$

horizontal $\frac{E_0}{c} = p_p \cos \theta + p_e \cos \phi = \frac{E}{c} \cos \theta + p_e \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{E}{p_e c} \sin \theta\right)^2}$

$$\longrightarrow p_e^2 c^2 = (E_0 - E \cos \theta)^2 + E^2 \sin^2 \theta = E_0^2 - 2E_0 E \cos \theta + E^2$$

Conservation of energy:

$$E_0 + mc^2 = E + E_e = E + \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + p_e^2 c^2} = E + \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + E_0^2 - 2E_0 E \cos \theta + E^2}$$

$$\longrightarrow E = \frac{1}{(1 - \cos \theta)/mc^2 + (1/E_0)} \longrightarrow E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \longrightarrow \boxed{\lambda = \lambda_0 + \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos \theta)}$$

(h/mc) is called the **Compton wavelength** of the electron

12.2.4 Relativistic Dynamics

Newton's first law is built into the principle of relativity.

Newton's second law: $\mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt}$ \longleftarrow $\mathbf{p} \equiv m\mathbf{u} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$

Newton's third law does *not*, in general, extend to the relativistic domain.

- the third law is incompatible with the relativity of simultaneity:
- If the two objects in question are separated in space, a moving observer will report the reaction force at different time, therefore, the third law is *violated*.

work-energy theorem: the net work done on a particle equals the increase in its kinetic energy

$$W \equiv \int \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \int \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{l}}{dt} dt = \int \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{u} dt$$
$$\frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \right) \cdot \mathbf{u} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{(1 - u^2/c^2)^{3/2}} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \right) = \frac{dE}{dt}$$

➡ $W = \int \frac{dE}{dt} dt = E_{\text{final}} - E_{\text{initial}}$

Relativistic Dynamics: *Newton's second law*

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \quad \mathbf{p} \equiv m\mathbf{v} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$$

Example 12.10 Motion under a constant force. A particle of mass m is subject to a constant force F . If it starts from rest at the origin, at time $t = 0$, find its position $x(t)$, as a function of time.

Classically, it is a parabola function $x(t) = (F/2m)t^2$.

In relativistic,

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = F \Rightarrow p = Ft + \text{constant.}$$

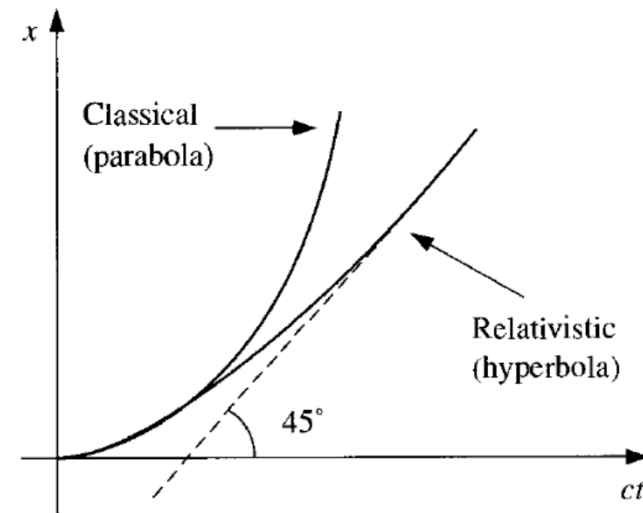
but since $p = 0$ at $t = 0$,

$$p = \frac{mu}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} = Ft$$

$$u = \frac{(F/m)t}{\sqrt{1 + (Ft/mc)^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= \frac{F}{m} \int_0^t \frac{t'}{\sqrt{1 + (Ft'/mc)^2}} dt' \\ &= \frac{mc^2}{F} \sqrt{1 + (Ft'/mc)^2} \Big|_0^t \\ &= \frac{mc^2}{F} \left[\sqrt{1 + (Ft/mc)^2} - 1 \right] \end{aligned}$$

→ hyperbolic motion



Relativistic Dynamics: *Newton's Third law*

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \quad \mathbf{p} \equiv m\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$$

The third law is incompatible with the relativity of simultaneity:

- If the two objects in question are *separated in space*, a moving observer will report the reaction force at different time, therefore, the third law is *violated*.
- Only in the case of contact interactions, where the two forces are applied at the *same physical point* (and in the trivial case where the forces are *constant*), can the third law be retained.

Consider the transformation of force \mathbf{F} between \mathbf{S} and \mathbf{S} -bar frames with velocity \mathbf{v} in \mathbf{x} :

Because \mathbf{F} is the derivative of (relativistic) momentum with respect to *ordinary* time,

$$\bar{F}_y = \frac{d\bar{p}_y}{d\bar{t}} \longrightarrow = \frac{dp_y}{\gamma dt - \frac{\gamma\beta}{c} dx} = \frac{dp_y/dt}{\gamma \left(1 - \frac{\beta}{c} \frac{dx}{dt}\right)} \longrightarrow \bar{F}_y = \frac{F_y}{\gamma(1 - \beta u_x/c)}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \bar{\eta}^0 &= \gamma(\eta^0 - \beta\eta^1), \\ \bar{\eta}^1 &= \gamma(\eta^1 - \beta\eta^0), \\ \bar{\eta}^2 &= \eta^2, \\ \bar{\eta}^3 &= \eta^3. \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} \text{(i) } \bar{x} &= \gamma(x - vt), \\ \text{(ii) } \bar{y} &= y, \\ \text{(iii) } \bar{z} &= z, \\ \text{(iv) } \bar{t} &= \gamma\left(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x\right) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly for the \mathbf{Z} component: $\longrightarrow \bar{F}_z = \frac{F_z}{\gamma(1 - \beta u_x/c)}$

The \mathbf{x} component is even worse:

$$\bar{F}_x = \frac{d\bar{p}_x}{d\bar{t}} = \frac{\gamma dp_x - \gamma\beta dp^0}{\gamma dt - \frac{\gamma\beta}{c} dx} = \frac{\frac{dp_x}{dt} - \beta \frac{dp^0}{dt}}{1 - \frac{\beta}{c} \frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{F_x - \frac{\beta}{c} \left(\frac{dE}{dt}\right)}{1 - \beta u_x/c} \longrightarrow \bar{F}_x = \frac{F_x - \beta(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{F})/c}{1 - \beta u_x/c}$$

Relativistic Dynamics: *Newton's Third law*

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \quad \mathbf{p} \equiv m\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$$

The third law is incompatible with the relativity of simultaneity:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \bar{\eta}^0 &= \gamma(\eta^0 - \beta\eta^1), \\ \bar{\eta}^1 &= \gamma(\eta^1 - \beta\eta^0), \\ \bar{\eta}^2 &= \eta^2, \\ \bar{\eta}^3 &= \eta^3. \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} &\text{(i) } \bar{x} = \gamma(x - vt), \\ &\text{(ii) } \bar{y} = y, \\ &\text{(iii) } \bar{z} = z, \\ &\text{(iv) } \bar{t} = \gamma\left(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x\right) \end{aligned} \quad \bar{F}_x = \frac{F_x - \beta(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{F})/c}{1 - \beta u_x/c} \quad \bar{F}_y = \frac{F_y}{\gamma(1 - \beta u_x/c)} \quad \bar{F}_z = \frac{F_z}{\gamma(1 - \beta u_x/c)}$$

Only in one special case are these equations reasonably tractable:

If the particle is (instantaneously) at rest in S, for example, so that if $\mathbf{u} = 0$,

$$\bar{\mathbf{F}}_{\perp} = \frac{1}{\gamma} \mathbf{F}_{\perp}, \quad \bar{F}_{\parallel} = F_{\parallel} \quad \begin{aligned} &\rightarrow \text{the component of } F \text{ parallel to the motion of } S \text{ is unchanged,} \\ &\rightarrow \text{Perpendicular components are divided by } \gamma. \end{aligned}$$

We could avoid the bad transformation behavior of \mathbf{F} by introducing a "**proper**" force, analogous to proper velocity, which would be **the derivative of momentum with respect to proper time**:

→ Minkowski force: the derivative of momentum with respect to *proper* time:

$$K^{\mu} \equiv \frac{dp^{\mu}}{d\tau}$$

The spatial components $\rightarrow \quad \mathbf{K} = \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau}\right) \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \mathbf{F}$

The zeroth component $\rightarrow \quad K^0 = \frac{dp^0}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{c} \frac{dE}{d\tau}$

Minkowski force

$$K^\mu \equiv \frac{dp^\mu}{d\tau}$$

When we wish to generalize some classical force law, such as Lorentz's force, to the relativistic domain, the question arises: “Does the classical formula correspond to the *ordinary* force or to the Minkowski force?”

$$\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{B}) ? \quad \mathbf{F} = \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} \quad \mathbf{p} \equiv m\boldsymbol{\eta} = \frac{m\mathbf{u}}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{B}) ? \quad \mathbf{K} = \left(\frac{dt}{d\tau} \right) \frac{d\mathbf{p}}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \mathbf{F}$$

By defining the Field tensor: $F^{\mu\nu} = \begin{Bmatrix} 0 & E_x/c & E_y/c & E_z/c \\ -E_x/c & 0 & B_z & -B_y \\ -E_y/c & -B_z & 0 & B_x \\ -E_z/c & B_y & -B_x & 0 \end{Bmatrix}$

$$K^\mu = q\eta_\nu F^{\mu\nu}$$

$$\longrightarrow \mathbf{K} = \frac{q}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} [\mathbf{E} + (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{B})]$$

$$\longrightarrow \mathbf{F} = q[\mathbf{E} + (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{B})]$$