# Relativistic Dynamics, Part 1

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## 1 Relativity Foundations

Recall that for two observers in inertial frames traveling at a relative speed v, the relativistic "boost" factor is denoted

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}.$$

We define the proper time  $t_0$  or  $\tau$  between two events to be the time between the events as measured in a frame where the events occur in the same place. Then, t, the time interval observed in an inertial frame moving at relative speed v, is characterized by

$$t = \gamma t_0 = \gamma \tau$$
.

Similarly, we define the proper length  $x_0$  to be the length between two points as measured in a frame where the endpoints are measured simultaneously. Then, x, the length observed in an inertial frame moving at relative speed v, is characterized by

$$x = \frac{1}{\gamma}x_0.$$

Lengths perpendicular to the direction of motion are unchanged. Note that these relations mean that we have an invariant, which we will denote s, which is the same in all frames.

$$s = -(ct)^2 + x^2.$$

Since the speed of light scales times to lengths universally, we will typically use ct instead of t in order to match units.

#### 2 Momentum

Consider a frame of reference E, in which 2 particles of mass m collide at the origin (0,0). A fast particle travels at a relativistic speed from the point (x,y), y very small compared to x and a slow particle at a Newtonian speed from (0,-y). We time these two particles to collide such that the slow particle rebounds at its original speed in the opposite direction.

Consider another frame of reference R moving in the x direction with the same x-velocity as the fast particle. Then, symmetry dictates that the proper time between the release of the fast particle and the collision,  $\tau_R$ , equals the proper time between the release of the slow particle and the collision,  $\tau_E$ . However, the proper time  $\tau_E$  is nearly the measurement of the same time in E,  $t_E$ . So,

$$\begin{split} m\frac{y}{\tau_E} &= m\frac{y}{\tau_R} \\ m\frac{y}{t_E} &= m\frac{y}{\tau_R} \end{split}$$

But the left side is simply the momentum of the slow particle, meaning the right side must be the momentum of the fast particle. Generalizing,

$$\vec{p} = m \frac{d\vec{r}}{d\tau} = \gamma m \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}.$$

Note: This derivation is just one of many possible. See Exercise 1 for another derivation.

### 3 Four-Vectors

The concepts of relativity mandate that we not only consider space but *space-time*, a consideration that requires 4-vectors. As the name implies, a 4-vector is a vector in four dimensions; 3 space, one time. Conventionally, the index is a superscript, for reasons that will be explained later. We define the *contravariant* space-time displacement vector  $x^{\mu}$  for displacement  $(\Delta t; \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z)$  as

$$x^0 = c\Delta t;$$
  $x^1 = \Delta x, x^2 = \Delta y, x^3 = \Delta z.$ 

In order to preserve the invariant  $(ct)^2 - x^2$ , we define the covariant space-time displacement vector  $x_{\mu}$  identically to  $x^{\mu}$  except that  $x_0 = -x^0$ . Using index notation, we can now define the scalar product of two vectors a, b as  $a^{\mu}b_{\mu}$ . Just as the dot product is invariant under rotation, the scalar product is invariant from any frame; i.e. under Lorentz transformation.

#### 4 Four-Momentum

We have now established the basics to treat 4-momentum, p. In Newtonian mechanics, we simply apply the operator  $m\frac{d}{dt}$  to the reference frame. However, this application essentially assumes the universality of time, which relativity has overthrown. The only "preference" that relativity leaves us is the co-moving frame and the proper time. So we define the 4-momentum p as

$$p^{\mu} = m \frac{dx^{\mu}}{d\tau}.$$

Note that this takes us back immediately to the momentum found in Section 2. Furthermore, it gives us a relativistic expression for the energy,

$$p^0 = m \frac{d}{d\tau} ct = \gamma mc.$$

Scaling this back to traditional energy units gives the more well-known

$$E = \gamma mc^2$$
.

Also,  $p^{\mu}p_{\mu}$  is invariant; in fact, it comes out to be  $(mc)^2$ . To link it back to usual ideas of momentum and energy as more separate entities,  $E^2 - p^2c^2 = m^2c^4$ .

Four-momentum is physically important because it is *conserved in all collisions*. We will analyze this in Part 2 to solve relativistic collision problems as well as discover strange properties of mass, which will be invariant but not conserved.