

Andy's science scratch pad

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1 Introduction

This document is a place to write up little bits on science.

Some notation:

\mathbf{i} is the unit vector from left to right. \mathbf{j} is the unit vector upwards. \mathbf{k} is the unit vector pointed out of the page toward the reader.

$\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$ is the Lorentz factor.

2 Electromagnetic force between two point charges at rest relative to each other

Scenario 1: There are two point charges a and b both with charge q at rest relative to each other at a distance r apart (see Figure 1). They are at rest relative to us. In this case they both experience a force directly away from the other due to electric repulsion. There is no magnetic force, as both charges are at rest so there are no magnetic fields.

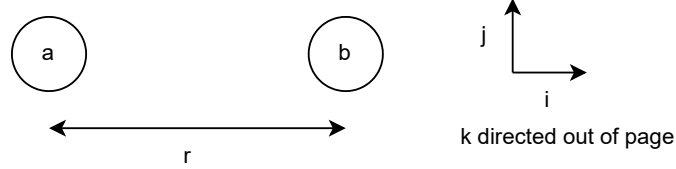


Figure 1: Two point charges at rest

Scenario 2: The same as scenario 1, but both charges are moving with constant velocity v in the upwards direction (see Figure 2). Since they are moving they create magnetic fields.

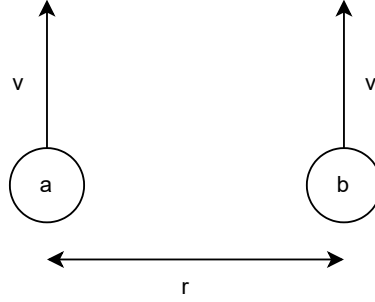


Figure 2: Two point charges moving at same constant velocity

Questions:

- What is the net force on charge b in each scenario?
- Is it the same in both scenarios, or different?
- Why?

2.1 Scenario 1: Both charges at rest

As mentioned before, there is no current or motion of any charges in this scenario, so no magnetic fields. The electric repulsion force on charge b is easily calculated from Coulomb's Law [5]. Charge b is to the right of charge a , so the direction of the force is \mathbf{i} , away from charge a .

$$\mathbf{E}_1 = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \mathbf{i} \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{B}_1 = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\mathbf{F}_1 = q(\mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}_1) = q\mathbf{E}_1 \quad (3)$$

2.2 Scenario 2: Both charges with equal and constant velocity upwards

2.2.1 Scenario 2 calculated by electromagnetic field equations from Griffiths

The Wikipedia page on the Biot-Savart Law [6] has a subsection titled “Point charge at constant velocity” that says:

the Biot–Savart law applies only to steady currents and a point charge moving in space does not constitute a steady current

I will thus use the equations in that section to calculate the electric and magnetic fields here. The relevant parts of the Wikipedia page are copied below.

In the case of a point charged particle q moving at a constant velocity \mathbf{v} , Maxwell's equations give the following expression for the electric field and magnetic field:

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1 - \beta^2}{(1 - \beta^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{3/2}} \frac{\hat{\mathbf{r}}'}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2} \quad (4)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{c^2} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E} \quad (5)$$

where:

- $\hat{\mathbf{r}}'$ is the unit vector pointing from the current (non-retarded) position of the particle to the point at which the field is being measured,
- $\beta = v/c$ is the speed in units of c , and
- θ is the angle between \mathbf{v} and $\hat{\mathbf{r}}'$.

The equations above appear to be identical to equations (10.75) and (10.76) in Griffiths [3]. Griffiths comments on the formula for the electric field:

Notice that \mathbf{E} points along the line from the *present* position of the particle. This is an extraordinary coincidence, since the “message” came from the retarded position. Because of the $\sin^2 \theta$ in the denominator, the field of a fast-moving charge is flattened out like a pancake in the direction perpendicular to the motion (Fig. 10.10). In the forward and backward directions \mathbf{E} is reduced by a factor $(1 - v^2/c^2)$ relative to the field of a charge at rest; in the perpendicular direction it is *enhanced* by a factor $1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$.

Calculation: To get the force on charge b , we first calculate the \mathbf{E} and \mathbf{B} fields at the position of charge b .

Charge b is directly to the right of charge a , so $\hat{\mathbf{r}}' = \mathbf{i}$ and $\theta = 90^\circ$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}_2 &= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1 - \beta^2}{(1 - \beta^2 \sin^2 \theta)^{3/2}} \frac{\hat{\mathbf{r}}'}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2} & \hat{\mathbf{r}}' = \mathbf{i}, |\mathbf{r}'| = r, \theta = 90^\circ, \text{ simplify fraction} \\ &= \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{(1 - \beta^2)^{1/2}} \frac{\mathbf{i}}{r^2} & \text{part of this is } \gamma, \text{ by (1) the rest is } \mathbf{E}_1 \\ &= \gamma \mathbf{E}_1 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Note that \mathbf{E}_2 being γ times larger than \mathbf{E}_1 is consistent with the comment from Griffiths above: “in the perpendicular direction it (\mathbf{E}) is *enhanced* by a factor $1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$ ”.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}_2 &= q(\mathbf{E}_2 + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}_2) & \text{replace } \mathbf{B}_2 \text{ with (5)} \\ &= q(\mathbf{E}_2 + \mathbf{v} \times (\frac{1}{c^2} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}_2)) & \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}_2 = -vE_2 \mathbf{k} \\ &= q(\mathbf{E}_2 - \frac{vE_2}{c^2} \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{k}) & \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{k} = v\mathbf{i} \\ &= q(\mathbf{E}_2 - \frac{v^2 E_2}{c^2} \mathbf{i}) \\ &= q(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}) \mathbf{E}_2 \\ &= \frac{q\mathbf{E}_2}{\gamma^2} & \text{by (6) } \mathbf{E}_2 = \gamma \mathbf{E}_1 \\ &= \frac{q\mathbf{E}_1}{\gamma} & \text{by (3) } \mathbf{F}_1 = q\mathbf{E}_1 \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{F}_1}{\gamma} \end{aligned}$$

Thus \mathbf{F}_2 differs from \mathbf{F}_1 by a factor of γ .

TODO: Why?

I do not know how to check the answer below, but it appears that three of the answers to an on-line question similar to mine [4] say that the Lorentz force formula $\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$ is *not* invariant in all inertial frames, but perhaps a slightly modified version of that formula is invariant between different inertial frames. I quote one such answer below:

Just for completeness if permitted: Following Section 3.1 from the book “Gravitation” of Misner, Thorne, and Wheeler the truly (at all speeds) frame independent force is $\frac{dP}{d\tau} = \gamma(E + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$ (in fact this is only the spacial component of the four force). τ is proper time and γ the well-known Lorentz Factor. – Kurt G. Aug 28, 2021

2.2.2 Scenario 2 calculated by Heaviside-Feynman formula

The Wikipedia page on Jefimenko’s Equations [7] has a subsection titled “Heaviside-Feynman formula” that gives equations for the electric and magnetic field at a point due to a single moving point charge.

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{-q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{\mathbf{e}_{r'}}{r'^2} + \frac{r'}{c} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\mathbf{e}_{r'}}{r'^2} \right) + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \mathbf{e}_{r'} \right] \quad (7)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{e}_{r'} \times \frac{\mathbf{E}}{c} \quad (8)$$

Here $\mathbf{e}_{r'}$ is a unit vector pointing from the observer to the charge and r' is the distance between observer and charge. Since the electromagnetic field propagates at the speed of light, both of these quantities are evaluated at the retarded time $t - r'/c$.

I believe “observer” above means “the position for which we are calculating E and B fields”.

Assume here that the point charges are kept at distance r apart from each other, always horizontally, e.g. because they are connected by a stiff insulating rod. This simplifies our job of calculating E , because then $\mathbf{e}_{r'}$ and r' are unchanging over time, and their derivatives are thus 0.

We want to calculate r' as the vector from the position of charge b to the position where charge a was when it emitted an electric field propagated at speed c to b . See Figure 3.

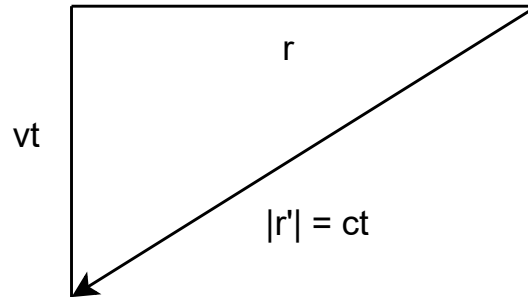


Figure 3: The retarded position of charge a from charge b

Solve for t using Pythagorean theorem since r and v are known constants:

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 + (vt)^2 &= (ct)^2 \\ t^2(c^2 - v^2) &= r^2 \\ t^2 &= \frac{r^2}{c^2 - v^2} \\ t &= \frac{r}{\sqrt{c^2 - v^2}} \\ &= \frac{r}{c\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \\ &= \gamma r/c \end{aligned}$$

This gives us $r' = ct = \gamma r$, and $\mathbf{e}_{r'}$ is:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{e}_{r'} &= \frac{-r\mathbf{i} - (\gamma r v/c)\mathbf{j}}{\gamma r} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\gamma}\mathbf{i} - \frac{v}{c}\mathbf{j}\end{aligned}$$

Plugging in this value for $\mathbf{e}_{r'}$ into Equation (7) gives:

$$\mathbf{E}_3 = \frac{q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left[\frac{\frac{1}{\gamma}\mathbf{i} + \frac{v}{c}\mathbf{j}}{\gamma^2 r^2} \right]$$

Note that \mathbf{E}_3 is parallel to $\mathbf{e}_{r'}$, thus \mathbf{B}_3 from Equation (8) is 0. This gives the force on charge b as:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{F}_3 &= q(\mathbf{E}_3 + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}_3) \\ &= q\mathbf{E}_3\end{aligned}$$

The direction of \mathbf{F}_3 is different than \mathbf{F}_1 and \mathbf{F}_2 . Below is the relative magnitude of \mathbf{E}_3 to \mathbf{E}_1 :

$$\begin{aligned}E_3 &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} E_1 \\ F_3 &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} F_1\end{aligned}$$

TODO: It seems *very* odd to me that $\mathbf{B}_3 = 0$.

After Feynman explains what the retarded direction and distance \mathbf{r}' is, he says [1]:

That would be easy enough to understand, too, but it is also wrong. The whole thing is much more complicated.

Unfortunately there are no footnotes or citation to explain what he meant by this.

3 Simple time scenarios in special relativity and Lorentz Ether Theory

Definitions of some terms:

$$\beta = v/c \quad \text{the relativistic velocity, or velocity ratio} \quad (9)$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \quad \text{the Lorentz factor} \quad (10)$$

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad \text{the Doppler factor} \quad (11)$$

Later in this article we typically write a subscript after v , β , γ , and D to indicate the entity that has the relevant velocity v . The context should make it clear in what inertial frame that velocity v applies.

We will use these definitions in scenarios where $-c < v < c$. Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}-1 &\leq \beta < 1 \\ \gamma &\geq 1 && \gamma \text{ increases as } |\beta| \text{ does} \\ \lim_{\beta \rightarrow 1} \gamma &= +\infty \\ \lim_{\beta \rightarrow -1} \gamma &= +\infty \\ D &= \gamma(1 + \beta) > 0 && D \text{ increases as } \beta \text{ does}\end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

3.1 Special Relativity Scenario 1: Two entities moving relative to each other at constant velocity

A is at rest. B is moving at constant velocity v_B relative to A , either directly away from A , or directly towards A . $v_B > 0$ means B moves away from A . $v_B < 0$ means B moves towards A .

3.1.1 B sends periodic pulses to A

B uses his local clock to time the sending of light pulses to A , sending pulses once every time interval T . At what period does A receive the pulses?

Define $q_A(n)$ to be the time on A 's clock when the n -th pulse is transmitted by B , and $q_B(n)$ to be the time on B 's clock when it transmits the n -th pulse.

$q_B(n) = nT$ by the setup of the experiment.

By the assumptions of special relativity, A deduces that B 's clock is running γ_B times slower than A 's clock. Note: A cannot directly observe B 's clock, as it is too far away. From this A also deduces:

$$q_A(n) = \gamma_B nT + \Delta \quad (13)$$

Δ is the time that A reads on his clock when B reads 0 on his clock. The value of Δ is irrelevant to the final result we seek.

B 's distance from A at A 's time t_A is $x_B(t_A) = I_B + v_B t_A$. $I_B > 0$ is B 's initial distance from A at $t_A = 0$. The value of I_B is also irrelevant to the final result we seek, as long as it is large enough that $x_B(t_A) > 0$ remains true while B emits all of the pulses we consider (two pulses is enough).

Also by the assumptions of special relativity, A deduces that B 's pulse signal will propagate at the one-way speed c . The pulse will thus take time $x_B(q_A(n))/c$ to propagate to A .

A 's clock thus shows time $r_A(n) = q_A(n) + x_B(q_A(n))/c$ when the n -th pulse arrives at A . With a little algebra:

$$\begin{aligned} r_A(n) &= q_A(n) + x_B(q_A(n))/c && \text{definition of } r_A(n) \\ &= q_A(n) + (I_B + v_B q_A(n))/c && \text{substitute equation for } x_B \\ &= (1 + v_B/c)q_A(n) + I_B/c && \text{rearrangement by algebra} \\ &= (1 + \beta_B)(\gamma_B nT + \Delta) + I_B/c && \text{Defn. (9) and Eqn. (13)} \\ &= (1 + \beta_B)\gamma_B nT + ((1 + \beta_B)\Delta + I_B/c) && \text{algebra to collect all terms independent of } n \text{ at the end} \end{aligned}$$

The time that A measures on his clock between two consecutive received pulses is:

$$\begin{aligned} r_A(n+1) - r_A(n) &= (1 + \beta_B)\gamma_B T && \text{by calculation of } r_A(n) \text{ above} \\ &= D_B T && \text{Eqn. (12)} \end{aligned}$$

The pulses arrive at A with a period of $D_B T$ measured on A 's clock.

Suppose that A knows somehow the period T that B uses as its period for transmitting pulses, e.g. because they agreed and arranged this beforehand. Then A can measure the period between received pulses on his clock and divide it by T to calculate D_B . By Corollary 1 in Appendix A.3, A can calculate from D_B the one value of β_B in the range $(-1, 1)$ that corresponds to it, and v_B in the range $(-c, +c)$.

Note 1: There is *nothing* in this derivation that relies upon prior knowledge of the Doppler factor, or under what conditions it is applicable. That expression arose in the process of calculating the answer, using only the assumptions that light moves isotropically at speed c in A 's frame, and that A can deduce that B 's clock is running γ_B times slower than A 's clock.

3.1.2 A sends periodic pulses to B

Now A uses his local clock to time the sending of light pulses to B , sending pulses once every time interval T . At what period does B receive the pulses?

While we could switch perspectives to B 's inertial frame, we will not. Instead, we are going to do all of the calculations in A 's inertial frame.

The definitions of Section 3 remain the same here, but note that the values of $q_A(n)$ and $q_B(n)$ here are *different* than those in Section 3.1.1.

Define $q_A(n) = nT$ to be the time on A 's clock when it transmits its n -th pulse.

At all times t_A , B is a distance $x_B(t_A) = I_B + v_B t_A$ away from A . As in the previous section, $I_B > 0$ is any value large enough that $x_B(t_A)$ remains positive while A emits all of the pulses we consider.

A assumes by special relativity that its pulse propagates with one-way speed c to B . The pulse's position at time $t_A \geq q_A(n)$ is $c(t_A - q_A(n))$.

On A 's clock, A deduces that its n -th pulse catches up to B at a time $r_A(n)$ that satisfies the equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
x_B(r_A(n)) &= c(r_A(n) - q_A(n)) && B's \text{ position equals light pulse's position} \\
I_B + v_B r_A(n) &= c(r_A(n) - nT) && \text{substitute for defs. of } x_B \text{ and } q_A(n) \quad (14) \\
I_B/c + (v_B/c)r_A(n) &= r_A(n) - nT && \text{divide by } c \\
nT + I_B/c &= (1 - v_B/c)r_A(n) && \text{a little more algebra} \\
r_A(n) &= \frac{nT}{1 - v_B/c} + \frac{I_B}{c - v_B} && \text{divide by } (1 - v_B/c) \\
r_A(n) &= \frac{nT}{1 - \beta_B} + \frac{I_B}{c - v_B} && \text{Defn.(9)} \quad (15)
\end{aligned}$$

By the assumptions of special relativity, A deduces that B 's clock is running γ_B times slower than A 's clock. Thus B 's time when receiving the n -th pulse is the following, where Δ is the time that B reads on his clock when A reads 0 on his clock (as in the previous section, the value of Δ is irrelevant in our final answer):

$$\begin{aligned}
r_B(n) &= r_A(n)/\gamma_B + \Delta && B's \text{ clock slower by factor } \gamma_B \\
&= \frac{nT}{\gamma_B(1 - \beta_B)} + \left(\frac{I_B}{\gamma_B(c - v_B)} + \Delta\right) && \text{Eqn. (15), move things independent of } n \text{ to end}
\end{aligned}$$

The time that B measures on his clock between two consecutive received pulses is:

$$\begin{aligned}
r_B(n+1) - r_B(n) &= \frac{T}{\gamma_B(1 - \beta_B)} && \text{by calculation of } r_B(n) \text{ above} \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{1 - \beta_B^2}}{1 - \beta_B} T && \text{Defn. (10)} \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta_B}{1 - \beta_B}} T && \text{a little algebra} \\
&= D_B T && \text{Defn. (11)}
\end{aligned}$$

B will observe pulses arriving with period $D_B T$ according to B 's clock.

While this formula for the period between received pulses is very similar to the one in the previous section, note that both the sending and receiving period are being measured on different clocks than there.

As in the previous section, if B somehow knows T , he can measure the interval between receive pulses, divide it by T to calculate D_B , then use that to calculate β_B and v_B .

3.1.3 Relationship to Lorentz Ether Theory

Note in Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2, that except for algebra and the definitions of symbols from Section 3, the only assumptions we used from special relativity were:

- The one-way speed of light is c in all directions in A 's inertial frame.
- In A 's frame, B 's clock runs at a slower rate, by a factor of $1/\gamma_B$, relative to A 's clock.

By Lorentz Ether Theory, suppose that somehow we know that A is at rest relative to the ether, then:

- The one-way speed of light is c in all directions relative to the ether, and thus also relative to A .
- B is moving at velocity v_B relative to the ether, and thus B 's clock physically runs at a slower rate, $1/\gamma_B$ times as fast as the true time. A 's clock runs at the full rate of true time, the same as any other clocks at rest relative to the ether.

TODO: Find a way to explain the following better.

I had heard from a not-yet-in-depth learning about special relativity that when A and B are moving at constant velocity towards or away from each other, that A observed that B 's clock ran slower by a

factor of γ , and B observed that A 's clock ran slower by a factor of γ . (Note: I do not claim that those are fully precise statements, but there is definitely a sense in which special relativity does say something similar to this.)

In A 's frame observing B 's clock run slower, that seems perfectly consistent with Lorentz Ether Theory's statement that if A is at rest relative to the ether, and B moves at constant velocity v_B relative to the ether, that B experiences duration dilation, i.e. its clock physically runs slower than A 's by a factor of γ_B . In this situation A 's clock runs at full speed, i.e. γ_B times *faster* than B 's.

But what about Lorentz Ether Theory's position on the converse statement? That is, from B 's point of view, does B observe A 's clock running γ_B times slower? If so, how can that possibly make sense?

I now believe that the answer is that the statements in special relativity can be made a bit more precise by saying something like this: Because A is following special relativity's assumptions, i.e. in A 's frame the speed of light propagates isotropically at constant speed c , therefore A can deduce that any clocks moving at constant speed v directly towards or away from A run γ times slower, and make further calculations from that deduction.

A does not actually *observe* such clocks directly over any appreciable interval of time, so they are always, or almost always, so far away that A cannot make *any* direct observations of how fast such clocks are running. By "direct" observations I mean "with light propagation delay very close to 0 between A and the entity being observed".

Suppose in some future context of knowledge that not only is Lorentz Ether Theory proven, but in such a way that we know how to measure our speed relative to the ether.

Then, in the scenario described, we would know that A 's clock is running at full speed, and light propagates isotropically at constant speed c relative to the ether, and thus also relative to A .

Everyone with this knowledge would be able to deduce that B 's clock is running γ times slower than full speed. Also, that A 's clock is running γ times *faster* than B 's clock (and that all of A 's local physical processes are proceeding γ times faster than similar local physical processes of B).

Further, light does *not* propagate at the same speed in all directions relative to B . It does so only with respect to the ether.

We could also prove that if one chose to make calculations using special relativity's assumptions in B 's frame, one would get the same answers to these calculations that you do when using Lorentz Ether Theory.

A hint of corroboration can be seen in the Wikipedia page on time dilation, which says in the introduction [11]:

The dilation compares "wristwatch" clock readings between events measured in different inertial frames and is not observed by visual comparison of clocks across moving frames.

It seems that any statement similar to:

- A observes B 's clock running slower than their own.

could be said in much more detail as either of the following:

- In accordance with special relativity's time synchronization convention that light propagates in A 's inertial frame isotropically with speed c , A deduces that B 's clock runs slower than A 's.
- A deduces, using the postulate that light moves isotropically at speed c , that B 's clock runs slower, and can then make further consistent calculations based on this deduction.

And you can swap A and B in that statement. Without defining new precise terminology, a shorter precise statement would perhaps be:

- According to SR, in A 's inertial frame we deduce that B 's clock runs slower.

3.2 Special Relativity Scenario 2: Three entities, two of them moving at constant velocity

A is at rest. B is moving at constant velocity v_B relative to A , which is away from A if $v_B > 0$, or towards A if $v_B < 0$. C is moving at constant velocity v_C relative to A , with same sign conventions as B 's velocity.

For B sending periodic pulses to A or vice versa, everything in Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 applies without change. For C sending periodic pulses to A or vice versa, everything in Section 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 applies, except replace B subscripts with C subscripts, i.e. use v_C , γ_C , β_C , and D_C .

So it is only pulses between B and C that might present something new here.

Our calculations in the following sections for pulse signals between B and C assume that throughout the entire duration of sending and receiving the pulses of interest, either:

- B 's position according to its x coordinate is always less than C 's x coordinate, or
- B 's position according to its x coordinate is always greater than C 's x coordinate, or

If that condition is ever violated because B crosses paths with C , the results presented here are no longer applicable after that occurs. We use I_B and I_C to represent their initial distances from A , and require that these positions, combined with their velocities, will ensure this.

3.2.1 B sends periodic pulses to C

B uses his local clock to time the sending of light pulses to C , sending pulses once every time interval T , according to B 's clock. At what period does C receive the pulses?

To make the calculations as easily applicable to Lorentz Ether Theory as possible, all calculations will be done in A 's inertial frame.

Define $q_A(n)$ and $q_B(n)$ the same way as they were in Section 3.1.1. As explained there, when A makes the assumptions according to special relativity theory:

$$\begin{aligned} q_B(n) &= nT && \text{by the setup of the experiment} \\ t_A &= \gamma_B t_B + \Delta_B && B\text{'s clock runs } \gamma_B \text{ times slower than } A\text{'s} \\ q_A(n) &= \gamma_B nT + \Delta_B && (16) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} t_A &= \gamma_C t_C + \Delta_C && C\text{'s clock runs } \gamma_C \text{ times slower than } A\text{'s} \\ t_C &= t_A / \gamma_C - \Delta_C / \gamma_C && \text{equivalent to previous equation, but solved for } t_C \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

$$x_B(t_A) = I_B + v_B t_A \quad \text{relationship of } B\text{'s position and time, in } A\text{'s frame} \quad (18)$$

$$x_C(t_A) = I_C + v_C t_A \quad \text{relationship of } C\text{'s position and time, in } A\text{'s frame} \quad (19)$$

Also by special relativity assumptions, A considers the pulse to travel from B to C at constant speed c . The n -th pulse is emitted at time $q_A(n)$ in A 's frame, so its position as a function of A 's time t_A is given by $l_A(n, t_A)$ below. Note that d is 1 if C 's x coordinate is greater than B 's, and thus the pulse of interest is moving in the increasing x direction. Otherwise d is -1.

$$\begin{aligned} l_A(n, t_A) &= \text{position of } B \text{ when emitted} \\ &+ \text{distance traveled after emission} \\ &= x_B(q_A(n)) + d(t_A - q_A(n))c && \text{for any time } t_A \geq q_A(n) \\ &= I_B + v_B q_A(n) + d(t_A - q_A(n))c && \text{substitute Eqn. (18)} \\ &= (v_B - dc)q_A(n) + d t_A + I_B && \text{algebra} \\ &= (v_B - dc)\gamma_B nT + d t_A + ((v_B - c)\Delta_B + I_B) && \text{substitute Eqn. (16)} \\ &= (v_B - dc)\gamma_B nT + d t_A + Z && Z \text{ is constants, independent of } n \text{ and } t_A \end{aligned}$$

To find A 's time $r_A(n)$ when C receives the pulse, solve for the time that makes the pulse position the same as C 's position:

$$\begin{aligned} x_C(r_A(n)) &= l_A(n, r_A(n)) \\ I_C + v_C r_A(n) &= (v_B - dc)\gamma_B nT + d r_A(n) + Z && \text{substitute Eqn. (19)} \\ (v_C - dc)r_A(n) &= (v_B - dc)\gamma_B nT + (Z - I_C) && \text{algebra} \\ r_A(n) &= \frac{v_B - dc}{v_C - dc}\gamma_B nT + \frac{Z - I_C}{v_C - c} && \text{divide by } v_C - dc \\ r_A(n) &= \frac{d - \beta_B}{d - \beta_C}\gamma_B nT + \frac{Z - I_C}{v_C - c} && \text{defn. of } \beta_B, \beta_C \\ r_A(n) &= \frac{d - \beta_B}{d - \beta_C}\gamma_B nT + Y && Y \text{ is a constant, independent of } n \end{aligned}$$

According to A and its special relativity assumptions, C 's clock runs slower, at a rate $1/\gamma_C$ times that of A 's clock. So C 's time $r_C(n)$ to receive the n -th pulse sent by B is:

$$\begin{aligned} r_C(n) &= \frac{1}{\gamma_C} r_A(n) - \Delta_C / \gamma_C \\ &= \frac{\gamma_B}{\gamma_C} \left(\frac{d - \beta_B}{d - \beta_C} \right) nT + \frac{Y - \Delta_C}{\gamma_C} \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eqn. (17)}$$

The time that B measures on his clock between two consecutive received pulses is:

$$\begin{aligned} r_C(n+1) - r_C(n) &= \frac{\gamma_B}{\gamma_C} \left(\frac{d - \beta_B}{d - \beta_C} \right) T \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_C^2}{1 - \beta_B^2}} \left(\frac{d - \beta_B}{d - \beta_C} \right) T \end{aligned} \quad \text{Defn. (10)}$$

From here there are two slightly different cases, depending on the value of d . First let us finish the problem for the case of $d = 1$, when C is at a greater x coordinate than B :

$$\begin{aligned} r_C(n+1) - r_C(n) &= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta_C}{1 - \beta_C}} \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_B}{1 + \beta_B}} T && \text{algebra} \\ &= (D_C/D_B)T && \text{defn. of } D_B, D_C \end{aligned}$$

Now for the case $d = -1$, when C is at a lesser x coordinate than B :

$$\begin{aligned} r_C(n+1) - r_C(n) &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_C^2}{1 - \beta_B^2}} \left(\frac{-1 - \beta_B}{-1 - \beta_C} \right) T \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_C^2}{1 - \beta_B^2}} \left(\frac{1 + \beta_B}{1 + \beta_C} \right) T && \text{algebra} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_C}{1 + \beta_C}} \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta_B}{1 - \beta_B}} T && \text{algebra} \\ &= (D_B/D_C)T && \text{defn. of } D_B, D_C \end{aligned}$$

So when B sends pulses with period T according to B 's clock, and C is at a greater x coordinate than B , C receives from B pulses with period $(D_C/D_B)T$ on C 's clock. If C is at a lesser x coordinate than B , C receives pulses with period $(D_B/D_C)T$ on C 's clock.

Since $D > 0$ and it increases with β (see Appendix A.3), and thus also with v , (D_C/D_B) is greater than 1 if $v_C > v_B$, otherwise less than 1, and (D_B/D_C) is greater than 1 if $v_C < v_B$.

	$v_C < v_B$	$v_C > v_B$
C is at greater x coordinate than B	C and B getting closer. $(D_C/D_B) < 1$	C and B getting further. $(D_C/D_B) > 1$
C is at lesser x coordinate than B	C and B getting further. $(D_B/D_C) > 1$	C and B getting closer. $(D_B/D_C) < 1$

All of these cases are a bit annoying. It is good to note that as long as you use the one of D_C/D_B and D_B/D_C that is greater than 1 if B and C are moving away relative to each other, and the one that is less than 1 if B and C are getting closer over time, you will get the right answer.

Aside: If you are curious, the answer provided by ChatGPT for solving this problem can be found in Appendix B.1.

Near the end of Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2, we noted that if the receiver knew somehow the period T that the sender is sending pulses, the receiver could calculate a D value that enabled the receiver to determine what the velocity of B is.

In the current scenario, the receiver C , if it knows T , can measure the time interval between pulses it receives, divide by T , and calculate (D_C/D_B) .

Thus, with the measurement of the interval between received pulses, given any two of T , v_A , and v_B , C can calculate the other one of those (and given values for two of those quantities, there is only one

value possible for the remaining one). But from the measurement of the interval between received pulses and T , that is not enough information for C to calculate either one of v_B or v_C .

However, it *can* do the following. Define $D_r = (D_C/D_B)$. From Corollary 3 in Appendix A.3, we know that if $\beta_r = \beta_C \ominus \beta_B$ for some β_C, β_B values in the range $(-1, +1)$, then $D_r = D_C/D_B$.

TODO: I am fairly certain it is straightforward to prove the converse: If in this scenario C calculates the value of D_r , then calculates $\beta_r = (D_r^2 - 1)/(D_r^2 + 1)$, then the only possible pairs of values β_C, β_B that could have given this measurement are those satisfying $\beta_r = \beta_C \ominus \beta_B$. There are an unlimited number of such pairs of values.

This strongly suggests that the receiver can calculate the *relative* velocity between B and C , at least in some sense. I am not sure yet how to explain that further.

Also note that if we follow Lorentz Ether Theory, but we have no knowledge of how to determine our motion relative to the ether, these results show that the receiver can, with knowledge of the sender's period T , still calculate this kind of relative velocity described, which is interesting.

3.2.2 C sends periodic pulses to B

The derivation is nearly identical to that in Section 3.2.1. Here we only mention a few equations along the way that have noticeable differences.

The formula $l_A(n, t_A)$ for the position of the n -th pulse emitted by C at A 's time t_A is given below. Here we use the same choice of $d = 1$ if C 's x coordinate is greater than B , otherwise $d = -1$.

$$l_A(n, t_A) = (v_C + dc)\gamma_C nT - dct_A + Z' \quad (20)$$

A 's time when B receives the n -th pulse $r_A(n)$ is:

$$r_A(n) = \frac{d + \beta_C}{d + \beta_B} \gamma_C nT + Y' \quad (21)$$

and B 's time when it receives the n -th pulse from C is:

$$r_B(n) = \frac{1}{\gamma_B} r_A(n) + (\text{constants independent of } n)$$

and finally:

$$\begin{aligned} r_B(n+1) - r_B(n) &= (D_C/D_B)T && \text{for case of } d = 1 \\ r_B(n+1) - r_B(n) &= (D_B/D_C)T && \text{for case of } d = -1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus B , after measuring the interval between received pulses, if it knows T somehow and can calculate the correct one of (D_C/D_B) and (D_B/D_C) , can also calculate the same kind of relative velocity between B and C as described at the end of the previous section.

TODO: It would be nice to generalize the analysis of Scenario 2 so that B and C are moving with (nearly) arbitrary 2-d velocities relative to A (i.e. relative to the ether). They should still be moving directly towards each other, or directly away from each other. They are moving directly towards each other, from their perspectives, if in A 's frame their starting positions and velocities are such that their positions become the same at some point in the future. After the time when they meet, they are then moving directly away from each other.

3.3 Summary of results in this section

Here is a summary of what we have shown so far.

- In the scenario of Section 3.1 where A is at rest, and B is moving at velocity v_B relative to A in A 's frame (negative for velocity towards A , positive for velocity away from A):
 - When B sends pulse signals every time period T according to B 's clock, A measures received pulses every time period $D_B T$ according to A 's clock.
 - When A sends pulse signals every time period T according to A 's clock, B measures received pulses every time period $D_B T$ according to B 's clock.

- In the scenario of Section 3.2 where A is at rest, B and C are moving at velocity v_B and v_C relative to A in A 's frame (same sign conventions as above), and the position of C is always “to the right” of B during the scenario:
 - When B sends pulse signals every time period T according to B 's clock, C measures received pulses every time period $(D_C/D_B)T$ according to C 's clock.
 - When C sends pulse signals every time period T according to C 's clock, B measures received pulses every time period $(D_C/D_B)T$ according to B 's clock.

The table below is another way to summarize the results of Scenario 1. All formulas for periods have been simplified by using $T = 1$, i.e. you can multiply them all by T to get the original answer derived earlier. It also shows how much the previous period is multiplied by to get the next period in the sequence of steps from the sender to the receiver.

	Period measured locally on A 's clock	multiply by factor	Period deduced by A , on A 's clock, at B 's location	multiply by factor	Period measured locally on B 's clock
$A \rightarrow B$	1	$\rightarrow \frac{1}{1-\beta_B}$	$\rightarrow \frac{1}{1-\beta_B}$	$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\gamma_B}$	D_B
$A \leftarrow B$	D_B	$\leftarrow (1+\beta_B)$	$\leftarrow \gamma_B$	$\leftarrow \gamma_B$	1

And the table below is another way to summarize the results of Scenario 2:

	Period measured locally on B 's clock	multiply by factor	Period deduced by A , on A 's clock, at B 's location	multiply by factor	Period deduced by A , on A 's clock, at C 's location	multiply by factor	Period measured locally on C 's clock
$B \rightarrow C$	1	$\rightarrow \gamma_B$	$\rightarrow \gamma_B$	$\rightarrow \frac{1-\beta_B}{1-\beta_C}$	$\rightarrow \frac{1-\beta_B}{1-\beta_C} \gamma_B$	$\rightarrow \frac{1}{\gamma_C}$	(D_C/D_B)
$B \leftarrow C$	(D_C/D_B)	$\leftarrow \frac{1}{\gamma_B}$	$\leftarrow \frac{1+\beta_C}{1+\beta_B} \gamma_C$	$\leftarrow \frac{1+\beta_C}{1+\beta_B}$	$\leftarrow \gamma_C$	$\leftarrow \gamma_C$	1

In every scenarios, all calculations of movement of B , C , and pulse signals were done in A 's frame. Only in the first or last steps did we do any time conversions between clocks running at different rates. Thus both special relativity and Lorentz Ether Theory predict the same measurements.

The equations for the received time intervals all contain one or more factors of D that are relativistic Doppler factors. These arose naturally out of the calculations, not from any prior knowledge of Doppler factors. The velocities involved in these Doppler factors are strongly related to the relative velocity of the sender and the receiver.

If we adopt Lorentz Ether Theory, but remain ignorant of how to measure our velocity relative to the ether, Scenario 2's results strongly suggest a proper understanding of relative velocity.

4 Simple length contraction scenarios in special relativity and Lorentz Ether Theory

4.1 Special Relativity Scenario 3: Two rods moving towards each other at constant velocity

In this scenario (see Figure 4), there are two rods R and S with the same rest length L . They are parallel to each other, and both lie along a common straight line, initially at some distance apart. We will say R is to the right of S for the purposes of drawing and discussing events of interest.

There is a person A at rest relative to R , at a distance $D \gg L$ from the R 's center, at a direction U perpendicular to R 's length. Rod S is moving left to right with velocity v ($0 < v < c$) relative to R . There is another person B at rest relative to S at a distance D from S 's center, in the same direction U from S 's center.

There are 3 events of interest, shown in Figure 5:

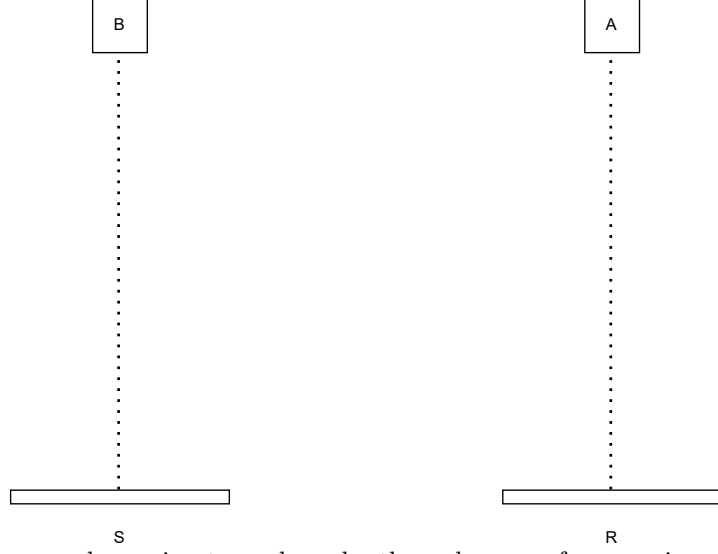


Figure 4: Two collinear rods moving towards each other, observers far away in perpendicular direction

- Event 1: The left end of R meets the right end of S .
- Event 2: The left end of R meets the left end of S .
- Event 3: The right end of R meets the right end of S .

In the figure, the location of each event is shown by a small circle on the appropriate end of R .

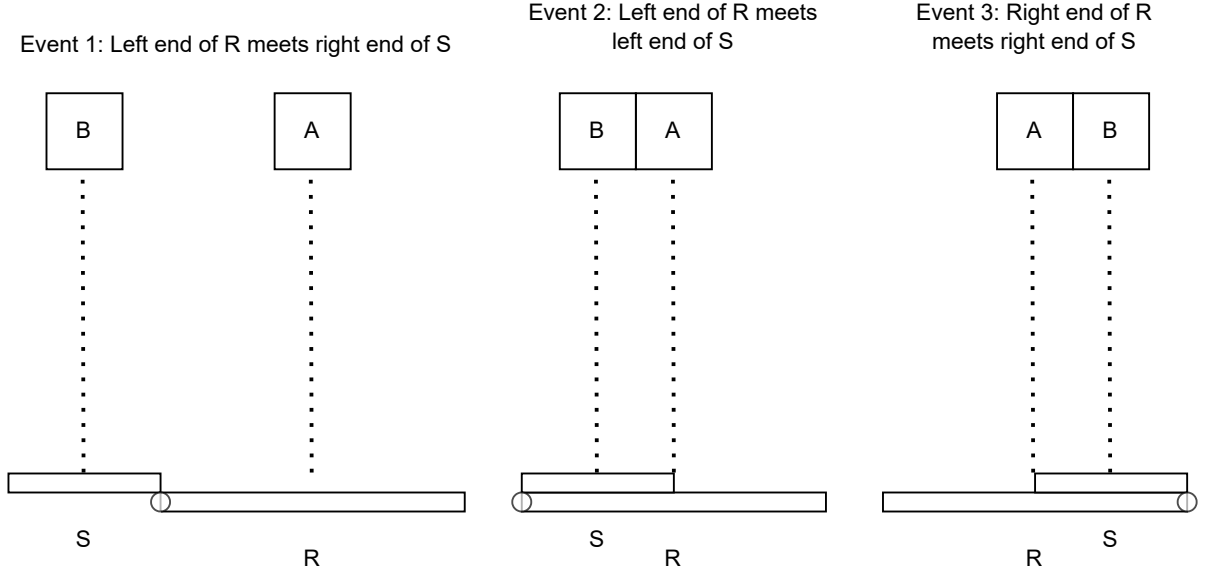


Figure 5: Events of interest for Scenario 3

Each of these events causes a light pulse to be emitted from the left or right end of rod R , when the event is detected locally by some devices built into the rods at each end.

The figure shows the order of events as observed by A in A 's frame. The figure shows the moving rod S contracts in length by a large factor, to emphasize this. We assume that the pulses can be distinguished by A in some way, e.g. by relative intensity, frequency, and/or duration.

I have read that according to special relativity, because $D \gg L$, the propagation time of the pulses from their sending points to A should be effectively equal, and thus the relative order that A receives the pulses is the same order that they are sent, and also the difference in their arrival times should be equal to the difference in their sending times.

In A 's frame, the sending times of the pulses are as follows. (Detail: These equations can use v instead of $|v|$ because we are assuming $v > 0$.)

$$\begin{aligned} q_{1,A} &= 0 && \text{for convenience as a starting time} \\ q_{2,A} &= \frac{L/\gamma}{v} && \text{distance moved by } S \text{ since Event 1 is its contracted length} \\ q_{3,A} &= \frac{L}{v} && \text{distance moved by } S \text{ since Event 1 is } R\text{'s rest length} \end{aligned}$$

Let $r_{1,A}, r_{2,A}, r_{3,A}$ be the times that A measures for receiving the 3 pulses.

$$\begin{aligned} r_{2,A} - r_{1,A} &= \frac{L}{\gamma v} && \text{equal to } q_{2,A} - q_{1,A} \\ r_{3,A} - r_{1,A} &= \frac{L}{v} && \text{equal to } q_{3,A} - q_{1,A} \end{aligned}$$

According to special relativity, if we calculate in B 's frame the interval between B receiving the pulses, we find that Event 3's pulse reaches B *before* Event 2's pulse, because in B 's frame, S is its full rest length L , and R is contracted in length. So the sequence of events is the “mirror image” of Figure 5.

$$\begin{aligned} q_{1,B} &= 0 && \text{see Note 1 below} \\ q_{2,B} &= \frac{L}{v} && \text{distance moved by } R \text{ since Event 1 is } S\text{'s rest length} \\ q_{3,B} &= \frac{L/\gamma}{v} && \text{distance moved by } R \text{ since Event 1 is its contracted length} \\ r_{2,B} - r_{1,B} &= \frac{L}{v} && \text{equal to } q_{2,B} - q_{1,B} \\ r_{3,B} - r_{1,B} &= \frac{L}{\gamma v} && \text{equal to } q_{3,B} - q_{1,B} \end{aligned}$$

Note 1: This is just a convenient starting time, with no attempt to quantify any relationship between this and $q_{1,A}$.

Events 1 and 2 are timelike separated, because they are at the same location, and one occurs earlier than the other.

Events 1 and 3 are timelike separated, because an object with mass traveling at speed faster than v relative to A , but less than c , in the same direction as S 's velocity can move from event 1 to the place where event 2 occurs, before event 2 occurs.

Events 2 and 3 are spacelike separated, because it would require faster-than-light travel in A 's frame to move from the left end of R starting when event 2 occurs, to the right end of R by the time event 3 occurs. As one example, note that rod S in Figure 5 is drawn half the length of rod R , so $\gamma = 2$ in that figure. This magnitude of length contraction requires $v \approx 0.866c$. Something would need to travel the entire rest length of R in the time it takes S to move a distance $0.5L$, i.e. it would need to move twice as fast as S , or $1.732c$ to reach the right end of R before event 3 occurred.

Both in SR and LET, there are locations where an observer at rest relative to A will receive the pulses from event 2 before receiving the pulse from event 3. There are other locations where an observer receives the pulses in the opposite order. See the next section for many details on this.

4.1.1 Where do observers at rest in A 's frame receive event 2 or 3 pulse first?

For this section, assume either Special Relativity where rod R and observer A are motionless with respect to us, or Lorentz Ether Theory where they are motionless with respect to the ether. Thus in this section, light propagates in all directions with speed c . For SR, all times will be measured in R 's frame. For LET, all times are true times, as measured by clocks at rest relative to the ether. We will analyze more general situations later, if we can get a good understanding of this one.

In scenario 3, consider every location in the XY plane. A receiver at rest relative to rod R will receive the pulse from event 2 before the pulse from event 3 in many locations, e.g. at the location of event 2 at the left end of R . Similarly, there are many locations that will receive the event 3 pulse first, e.g. at the location of event 3 at the right end of R . There are also many locations that receive both pulses at the same time.

What is the shape of all such places?

Let R 's left end be placed at coordinates $(-L/2, 0)$ and its right end at $(L/2, 0)$. As discussed in the previous section, the sending times of pulses for events 1, 2, and 3 are as follows (we omit the A in the subscripts for brevity here);

$$\begin{aligned} q_1 &= 0 && \text{for convenience as a starting time} \\ q_2 &= \frac{L/\gamma}{v} && \text{distance moved by } S \text{ since Event 1 is its contracted length} \\ q_3 &= \frac{L}{v} && \text{distance moved by } S \text{ since Event 1 is } R\text{'s rest length} \end{aligned}$$

At an arbitrary location (x, y) , it receives the pulse from event 2 at time e_2 , and the pulse from event 3 at time e_3 , given by:

$$\begin{aligned} e_2 &= q_2 + d_l/c && d_l \text{ is distance between left end of } R \text{ and } (x, y) \\ e_3 &= q_3 + d_r/c && d_r \text{ is distance between right end of } R \text{ and } (x, y) \end{aligned}$$

For a location that receives pulse 3 time k later than receiving pulse 2 (or before if $k < 0$) the following equation must be true:

$$\begin{aligned} e_3 - e_2 &= k \\ (q_3 + \frac{d_r}{c}) - (q_2 + \frac{d_l}{c}) &= k && \text{defns. of } e_2, e_3 \\ d_r - d_l &= c(k - (q_3 - q_2)) && \text{algebra} \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

Below we derive equivalent formulas for $q_3 - q_2$:

$$\begin{aligned} q_3 - q_2 &= \frac{L}{v} - \frac{L}{\gamma v} && \text{defns. of } q_2, q_3 \\ &= \frac{L}{v} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) && \text{algebra} \\ &= \frac{L}{\beta c} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) && \text{replace } v \text{ with } \beta c \\ &= \frac{L}{\beta c} (1 - \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}) && \text{defn. of } \gamma \\ &= \frac{L}{\beta c} (1 - \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}) \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} && \text{multiply by a complicated-looking 1} \\ &= \left(\frac{L}{\beta c}\right) \frac{1 - (1 - \beta^2)}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} && \text{algebra} \\ &= \left(\frac{L}{c}\right) \frac{\beta}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} && \text{algebra} \end{aligned} \tag{24}$$

The funny multiplying by 1 step was done because the resulting formula below is easier to understand its behavior for values of β near 0:

$$\frac{\beta}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

When β approaches 0, this value approaches $0/2 = 0$. When β approaches 1, this value approaches $1/1 = 1$. It is straightforward to verify by calculating the derivative that this function is strictly increasing with β over the interval $(0, 1)$.

Substituting Equation (24) into Equation (22) gives:

$$\begin{aligned} d_r - d_l &= c \left(k - \left(\frac{L}{c} \right) \frac{\beta}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \right) \\ &= ck - \frac{L\beta}{1 + \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

If we restrict our attention to situations where L , β , and k are given constants, this equation is of the form $d_r - d_l$ equal to a constant. The shape of all such curves is a hyperbola [8].

Figure 6 shows the XY plane with x and y coordinates in units of light-seconds. $L = 1$ light-second, with rod R parallel to the x axis, centered at the origin. $\beta = 0.5$ for this figure. First consider the

$\beta = 0.50$ event 3 0.27 sec after 2; Curves where pulse 3 received k sec after 2

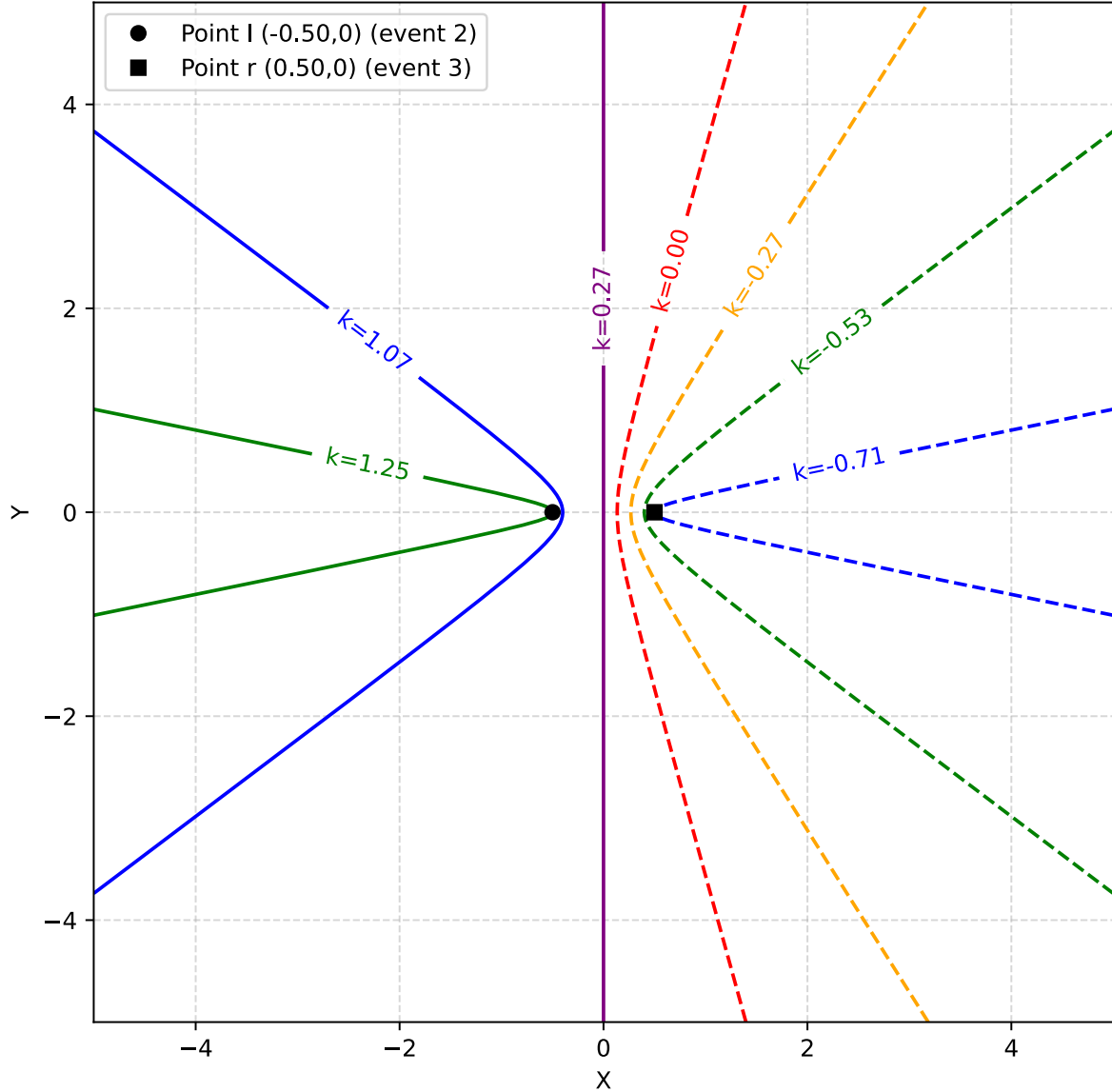


Figure 6: Locations with selected values of k for $\beta = 0.5$, $q_3 - q_2 = 0.27$ sec

line labeled $k = 0.27$ in the figure. This is the line where $k = q_3 - q_2$, so the pulse for event 3 arrives $k = 0.27$ sec after the pulse for event 2. This is exactly the difference in times between when the pulses are generated, so this line is all of the points equally distant in length from the two ends of rod R ; a vertical line along the y axis.

Next consider the curve labeled $k = 0$. These are all locations where the two pulses arrive simultaneously. Since pulse 2 is sent 0.27 sec earlier than pulse 3, all of these locations are 0.27 light-seconds further from the left end of R than from the right end.

The last curve we will give special attention to is the curve labeled $k = -0.27$. These are all locations where pulse 3 (emitted later), arrives 0.27 *earlier* than pulse 2 (emitted earlier), which is the relative order and separation in time that B receives the pulses according to SR.

For the line $y = D$ where A and B are located (far above the bounds of the figure), A is on the line $k = 0.27$ at coordinates $(0, D)$. But B is moving to the right at speed v , so even though it is near A when the pulses are emitted, B is a significant distance to the right of A when B receives the pulses. Is

it so far to the right that it is on the $k = -0.27$ line?

As we will show in the next section, B reaches far enough to the right that if you measure the difference in times that it receives the pulses, according to time in A 's frame, and then multiply that by $1/\gamma$ to account for B 's clock running slower than A 's clock, the result is -0.27 sec. And this correspondence is true for all β values, not only $\beta = 0.5$ used in Figure 6.

4.1.2 Difference in time of pulses arriving to B , calculated in A 's frame

We will make use of Lemma 4 from Appendix A.4 here.

For calculating when B receives the pulses from events 2 and 3, it is useful to know the location of B at any time where it is convenient to determine. At the time of event 1 ($q_1 = 0$) the right end of rod S is at the same x coordinate as the left end of rod R , $x = -L/2$. The center of rod S is thus half of S 's contracted length further to the left, at $x = -(L/2)(1 + 1/\gamma)$. B 's x coordinate is the same as the center of S at all times.

Time when B receives pulse from event 2 Note that this time is calculated in R 's frame. In the notation of Lemma 4:

$\mathbf{s} = (-L/2, 0)$	pulse sent from \mathbf{s} , location of event 2
$t_0 = \frac{L}{\gamma v}$	pulse sent at time t_0 , time of event 2
$\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r} = ((-L/2)(1 + 1/\gamma), D)$	$\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r}$ is location of B at time $t_1 = 0$
$\mathbf{r} = (x_0, y_0) = (-L/(2\gamma), D)$	subtract \mathbf{s} from previous line to get \mathbf{r}
$x_0' = x_0 + v(t_0 - t_1) = L/(2\gamma)$	a little algebra from the above
$r'^2 = x_0'^2 + y_0^2 = \frac{L^2}{4\gamma^2} + D^2$	

The result of Lemma 4 gives us the time (in R 's frame) when B receives the event 2 pulse:

$$e_2 = \frac{L}{\gamma v} + \frac{\frac{Lv}{2\gamma} + \sqrt{c^2(\frac{L^2}{4\gamma^2} + D^2) - v^2 D^2}}{c^2 - v^2} \quad (26)$$

Time when B receives pulse from event 3 This is very similar to the calculation for event 2. Again in the notation of Lemma 4:

$\mathbf{s} = (L/2, 0)$	pulse sent from \mathbf{s} , location of event 3
$t_0 = \frac{L}{v}$	pulse sent at time t_0 , time of event 3
$\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r} = ((-L/2)(1 + 1/\gamma), D)$	$\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r}$ is location of B at time $t_1 = 0$, same as above
$\mathbf{r} = (x_0, y_0) = (-L - L/(2\gamma), D)$	subtract \mathbf{s} from previous line to get \mathbf{r}
$x_0' = x_0 + v(t_0 - t_1) = -L/(2\gamma)$	a little algebra from the above
$r'^2 = x_0'^2 + y_0^2 = \frac{L^2}{4\gamma^2} + D^2$	

The result of Lemma 4 gives us the time (in R 's frame) when B receives the event 3 pulse:

$$e_3 = \frac{L}{v} + \frac{-\frac{Lv}{2\gamma} + \sqrt{c^2(\frac{L^2}{4\gamma^2} + D^2) - v^2 D^2}}{c^2 - v^2} \quad (27)$$

Relative time when B receives pulses from events 2 and 3 It is convenient that the subexpressions of Equations (26) and (27) under the radicals are equal, so they cancel out when we determine

$e_3 - e_2$, resulting in:

$$\begin{aligned}
e_3 - e_2 &= \frac{L}{v} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) + \frac{-\frac{Lv}{2\gamma} - \frac{Lv}{2\gamma}}{c^2 - v^2} \\
&= \frac{L}{v} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \frac{Lv}{\gamma(c^2 - v^2)} && \text{algebra} \\
&= \frac{L}{c} \left[\frac{1}{\beta} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \frac{\beta c^2}{\gamma(c^2 - v^2)} \right] && \text{replace } v \text{ with } \beta c \text{ and algebra} \\
&= \frac{L}{c} \left[\frac{1}{\beta} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \beta\gamma \right] && c^2/(c^2 - v^2) = \gamma^2, \text{ and a little algebra} \quad (28)
\end{aligned}$$

(29)

We want to show that when we convert this difference $e_3 - e_2$ into B 's slower-running clock, by multiplying by $1/\gamma$, we get the *negative* of $q_3 - q_2$, where $q_3 - q_2$ is the (positive) time that event 3's pulse is sent after event 2's pulse is sent, in A 's frame.

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\gamma}(e_3 - e_2) &= -(q_3 - q_2) && \text{what we want to show} \\
\frac{L}{c\gamma} \left[\frac{1}{\beta} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \beta\gamma \right] &= -\frac{L}{\beta c} \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) && \text{Eqns. (28) and (23)} \\
\left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) - \beta^2\gamma &= -\gamma \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) && \text{multiply both sides by } \gamma\beta c/L \\
\left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) + \gamma \left(1 - \frac{1}{\gamma}\right) &= \beta^2\gamma && \text{Add same expressions to both sides to rearrange terms} \\
\frac{(\gamma + 1)(\gamma - 1)}{\gamma} &= \beta^2\gamma && \text{algebra on left-hand side} \\
\frac{\gamma^2 - 1}{\gamma} &= \beta^2\gamma && \text{algebra on left-hand side} \\
1 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} &= \beta^2 && \text{divide both side by } \gamma, \text{ algebra} \\
1 - (1 - \beta^2) &= \beta^2 && \text{defn. of } \gamma. \text{ This is true!}
\end{aligned}$$

All multiplications, divisions, and cancellations avoided multiplying or dividing by 0. Therefore, since the final equation is true, so are all earlier ones, including the first that we wanted to prove.

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A Miscellaneous math facts

A.1 Math facts about relativistic velocity addition and subtraction in one dimension

All of the facts here are quite simple to validate. I write them out primarily as an aid to thinking about and remembering them, and they might also be useful to refer to from elsewhere in this document.

Note that this appendix is restricted to proofs of simple mathematical relationships about the definitions of one-dimensional relativistic velocity addition and subtraction formulas. This appendix makes no claims about the physical meaning of these operations.

I have read that relativistic velocity addition in 3 dimensions is not associative. TODO: If I add any discussion of 3-dimensional relativity examples to this document, it would be nice to give an example, perhaps in a separate appendix.

In one dimension, though, all velocities of subluminal entities can be represented by v such that $-c < v < c$, where negative velocities are in the opposite direction along the line than positive velocities.

These can also be represented as relativistic velocity $\beta = v/c$, i.e. a fraction of c . These are in the range $-1 < \beta < 1$.

I will use the notation $v \oplus w$ for relativistic velocity addition. While I will use the same symbol $\beta_v \oplus \beta_w$ for relativistic velocity addition of relativistic velocity values, one should be careful to note that the definition of the operator \oplus is slightly different for these two cases.

$$v \oplus w = \frac{v + w}{1 + \frac{vw}{c^2}} \quad (30)$$

$$v \ominus w = \frac{v - w}{1 - \frac{vw}{c^2}} \quad (31)$$

$$\beta_v \oplus \beta_w = \frac{\beta_v + \beta_w}{1 + \beta_v \beta_w} \quad (32)$$

$$\beta_v \ominus \beta_w = \frac{\beta_v - \beta_w}{1 - \beta_v \beta_w} \quad (33)$$

The proofs are only given for the relativistic velocity formulas (32) and (33). The proofs for equations (30) and (31) are nearly identical.

We will use the symbols a, b, c to represent arbitrary real values between -1 and 1, to avoid writing β with subscripts all over the place.

$$a \oplus b = b \oplus a \quad \text{addition is commutative} \quad (34)$$

$$(a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c) \quad \text{addition is associative (1-d only, not 3-d!)} \quad (35)$$

$$a \oplus 0 = 0 \oplus a = a \quad (36)$$

$$a \oplus (-b) = a \ominus b \quad (37)$$

$$a \ominus (-b) = a \oplus b \quad (38)$$

$$0 \ominus b = -b \quad (39)$$

$$a \ominus b = -(b \ominus a) \quad (40)$$

The following inequalities only hold if $0 < a < 1$ and $0 < b < 1$:

$$a \oplus b > a \quad (41)$$

$$a \oplus b > b \quad (42)$$

$$a \oplus b < a + b \quad (43)$$

The following inequality holds for all $-1 < a < 1$ and $-1 < b < 1$:

$$-1 < a \oplus b < 1 \quad (44)$$

The last one is only slightly different if we use velocity addition on normal velocities, i.e. velocities that are not relativistic velocities, where $-c < v < c$ and $-c < w < c$:

$$-c < v \oplus w < c \quad (45)$$

The inequalities all have examples where the two sides can be very nearly equal, such as these:

$$\begin{aligned} 0.1 \oplus 0.001 &\approx 0.100989901 > 0.1 \\ 0.1 \oplus 0.1 &\approx 0.198019802 < 0.1 + 0.1 \\ 0.99 \oplus 0.99 &\approx 0.999949498 < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Proving most of these is as simple as substituting the definition of $a \oplus b$ and $a \ominus b$, and a tiny amount of algebra.

Proving associativity (35) is only a little bit more algebra, but we will do the steps here:

$$\begin{aligned} (a \oplus b) \oplus c &= \frac{\frac{a+b}{1+ab} + c}{1 + \left(\frac{a+b}{1+ab}\right)c} && \text{use Defn. (32) twice} \\ &= \frac{(a+b) + c(1+ab)}{(1+ab) + (a+b)c} && \text{multiply numerator and denominator by } (1+ab) \\ &= \frac{a+b+c+abc}{1+ab+ac+bc} && \text{multiply out the terms} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly:

$$\begin{aligned} a \oplus (b \oplus c) &= \frac{a + \frac{b+c}{1+bc}}{1 + a\left(\frac{b+c}{1+bc}\right)} && \text{use Defn. (32) twice} \\ &= \frac{a(1+bc) + (b+c)}{(1+bc) + a(b+c)} && \text{multiply numerator and denominator by } (1+bc) \\ &= \frac{a+abc+b+c}{1+bc+ab+ac} && \text{multiply out the terms} \end{aligned}$$

The above two final results are easily seen to be equal.

The inequalities are also not difficult to prove, but we will write out their short proofs. Recall that these inequalities are true only for $0 < a < 1$ and $0 < b < 1$. Similar inequality hold if both a and b are negative.

For the proof of inequality (41), recall that we can multiply or divide both sides of an inequality by the same positive number, and the resulting inequality is true if and only if the original one was. The symbol \Leftrightarrow below means “if and only if”, i.e. the expression before is true if and only if the expression after is true.

$$\begin{aligned} a < \frac{a+b}{1+ab} &\Leftrightarrow a + a^2b < a + b && \text{multiply both sides by } 1+ab, \text{ which is positive} \\ &\Leftrightarrow a^2b < b && \text{subtract } a \text{ from both sides} \\ &\Leftrightarrow a^2 < 1 && \text{divide both sides by } b, \text{ which is positive} \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality is true because $a < 1$. The proof of inequality (42) is the same as above.

To prove $a \oplus b < a + b$ (inequality (43)):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a+b}{1+ab} < a+b &\Leftrightarrow a+b < (a+b)(1+ab) && \text{multiply both sides by } 1+ab, \text{ which is positive} \\ &\Leftrightarrow 1 < (1+ab) && \text{divide both sides by } a+b, \text{ which is positive} \\ &\Leftrightarrow 0 < ab && \text{subtract 1 from both sides} \end{aligned}$$

The final inequality is true because both a and b are positive.

Now to prove $a \oplus b < 1$ (part of inequality (44)), but recall now we are doing so for the more general case of all values $-1 < a < 1$ and $-1 < b < 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a+b}{1+ab} < 1 &\Leftrightarrow a+b < 1+ab && \text{multiply both sides by } 1+ab, \text{ which is positive} \\ &\Leftrightarrow b-ab < 1-a && \text{subtract } a+ab \text{ from both sides} \\ &\Leftrightarrow b(1-a) < 1-a && \text{algebra} \\ &\Leftrightarrow b < 1 && \text{divide both sides by } 1-a, \text{ which is positive} \end{aligned}$$

And the last inequality is true. Proving the part that

$$\begin{aligned} -1 < \frac{a+b}{1+ab} &\Leftrightarrow -(1+ab) < a+b && \text{multiply both sides by } 1+ab, \text{ which is positive} \\ &\Leftrightarrow -(1+a) < b+ab && \text{add } ab-a \text{ to both sides} \\ &\Leftrightarrow -(1+a) < b(1+a) && \text{algebra} \\ &\Leftrightarrow -1 < b && \text{divide both sides by } 1+a, \text{ which is positive} \end{aligned}$$

And the last inequality is true.

A.2 Using hyperbolic trigonometric functions for relativistic velocity arithmetic in one dimension

Logarithms and exponential functions are well known for the following properties:

$$\begin{aligned} l &= \log_{10} x \\ x &= 10^x \\ l_3 = l_1 + l_2 &\Leftrightarrow x_3 = x_1 x_2 && + \text{ of logs corresponds to multiplication of numbers} \\ l_3 = l_1 - l_2 &\Leftrightarrow x_3 = x_1 / x_2 && - \text{ of logs corresponds to division of numbers} \\ l_3 = cl_1 &\Leftrightarrow x_3 = x_1^c && \text{multiplying log by constant corresponds to exponentiation of numbers} \\ l_3 = l_1/c &\Leftrightarrow x_3 = x_1^{1/c} && \text{dividing log by constant corresponds to taking } c\text{-th root of numbers} \end{aligned}$$

Hyperbolic functions [9] have a similar correspondence to relativistic velocities β and related quantities like the Lorentz factor γ .

$$\eta = \tanh^{-1} \beta \quad \text{calculate the } \textit{rapidity} \eta \text{ from relativistic velocity} \quad (46)$$

$$\beta = \tanh \eta \quad \text{get } \beta \text{ from rapidity} \quad (47)$$

$$\gamma = \cosh \eta \quad \text{get } \gamma \text{ from rapidity} \quad (48)$$

$$\beta\gamma = \sinh \eta \quad \text{get } \beta\gamma \text{ from rapidity} \quad (49)$$

$$\eta_3 = \eta_1 + \eta_2 \Leftrightarrow \beta_3 = \beta_1 \oplus \beta_2 \quad + \text{ of rapidity corresponds to relativistic velocity } \oplus \quad (50)$$

$$\eta_3 = \eta_1 - \eta_2 \Leftrightarrow \beta_3 = \beta_1 \ominus \beta_2 \quad - \text{ of rapidity corresponds to relativistic velocity } \ominus \quad (51)$$

Also:

- Multiplying a rapidity by a positive number n corresponds to repeatedly adding that relativistic velocity n times.
- Dividing a rapidity by a positive number n corresponds to finding a relativistic velocity β such that repeated velocity addition of β n times will give back the original relativistic velocity.

There are an abundance of identities involving hyperbolic functions, similar to the large variety of identities relating trigonometric functions. These identities can be useful for finding relationships between relativistic β and γ values.

Examples of a few hyperbolic function identities, but there are many more:

$$\sinh(-x) = -\sinh x \quad (52)$$

$$\cosh(-x) = \cosh x \quad (53)$$

$$\tanh(-x) = -\tanh x \quad (54)$$

$$\sinh(x \pm y) = \sinh x \cosh y \mp \cosh x \sinh y \quad (55)$$

$$\cosh(x \pm y) = \cosh x \cosh y \pm \sinh x \sinh y \quad (56)$$

$$\tanh(x \pm y) = \frac{\tanh x \pm \tanh y}{1 \pm \tanh x \tanh y} \quad (57)$$

$$\sinh x + \sinh y = 2 \sinh\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \cosh\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \quad (58)$$

$$\cosh x + \cosh y = 2 \cosh\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \cosh\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \quad (59)$$

A.3 Math facts about the Doppler factor

This appendix is restricted to proofs of mathematical relationships. It makes no claims about the physical meaning of the equations involved.

Define D as given by Definition (11), repeated here:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{Repeat of Defn. (11)}$$

Define it over the entire domain $-1 < \beta < 1$.

- D approaches 0 as β approaches -1.
- D approaches $+\infty$ as β approaches 1.
- D is an increasing function of β .

The last fact is straightforward to confirm by taking the derivative of D with respect to β , and confirming that it is positive for all β in the range $(-1, +1)$.

Corollary 1. *For any value of $D > 0$ that satisfies Definition (11), there is exactly one value of β , $-1 < \beta < 1$, that corresponds to that value of D . That value is $\beta = \frac{D^2-1}{D^2+1}$.*

Plugging the value $\frac{D^2-1}{D^2+1}$ into Definition (11) for β takes only a little algebra to simplify and show it is equal to D .

These two equations pop up only occasionally:

$$D = \gamma(1 + \beta) \quad (60)$$

$$D = \frac{1}{\gamma(1 - \beta)} \quad (61)$$

Simple algebra to confirm two of the identities above:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(1 + \beta) &= \frac{1 + \beta}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} && \text{Defn. of } \gamma \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{(1 + \beta)(1 + \beta)}}{\sqrt{(1 + \beta)(1 - \beta)}} && \text{algebra} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} && \text{algebra, cancelling factor of } \sqrt{1 + \beta} \\ &= D && \text{Defn. of } D \end{aligned}$$

And the second:

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\gamma(1-\beta)} &= \frac{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}{1-\beta} && \text{Defn. of } \gamma \\
&= \frac{\sqrt{(1+\beta)(1-\beta)}}{\sqrt{(1-\beta)(1-\beta)}} && \text{algebra} \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} && \text{algebra, cancelling factor of } \sqrt{1-\beta} \\
&= D && \text{Defn. of } D
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 2. Let β_u, β_v be any two values in the range $(-1, +1)$. Let $\beta_w = \beta_u \oplus \beta_v$, using the one-dimensional relativistic velocity addition formula for β values (Defn. (32)). Let D_u, D_v, D_w be calculated from $\beta_u, \beta_v, \beta_w$, respectively. Then $D_w = D_u D_v$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
D_w &= \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta_w}{1-\beta_w}} && \text{defn. of } D_w \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1+(\beta_v \oplus \beta_w)}{1-(\beta_v \oplus \beta_w)}} && \text{Defn. of } \beta_w \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1+\frac{\beta_v+\beta_w}{1+\beta_v\beta_w}}{1-\frac{\beta_v+\beta_w}{1+\beta_v\beta_w}}} && \text{Defn. (32) of Appendix A.1} \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{(1+\beta_v\beta_w) + (\beta_v + \beta_w)}{(1+\beta_v\beta_w) - (\beta_v + \beta_w)}} && \text{multiply numerator and denominator by } (1+\beta_v\beta_w) \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{(1+\beta_v)(1+\beta_w)}{(1-\beta_v)(1-\beta_w)}} && \text{algebra (factoring)} \\
&= \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta_v}{1-\beta_v}} \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta_w}{1-\beta_w}} && \text{algebra} \\
&= D_v D_w && \text{defn. of } D_v, D_w
\end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 3. Under the same conditions as Theorem 2, except $\beta_w = \beta_u \ominus \beta_v$, using the one-dimensional relativistic velocity subtraction formula for β values (Defn. (33)), $D_w = D_u/D_v$.

Proof. $\beta_w = \beta_u \ominus \beta_v = \beta_u \oplus (-\beta_v)$. Thus by the previous theorem, $D_w = D_u D_{-v}$, where D_{-v} is calculated from the definition for D with $-\beta_v$. It is straightforward to see from the definition of D that $D_{-v} = 1/D_v$, so $D_w = D_u/D_v$. □

Apparently these facts are well-known among those working with relativistic Doppler factors.

A.4 When a moving observer intersects with a spherically spreading pulse

Note: All calculations and results of lemmas in this appendix calculate a pulse receive time under the assumptions given, e.g. that the signal propagates at the same speed c in all directions. Thus the results apply in any inertial frame when assuming the postulates of SR, but note that the receive time is in the frame where the receiver is moving with velocity v , *not* the receiver's time dilated frame. In LET, these lemmas only apply in the frame that is at rest relative to the ether, and the times calculated are in that frame, not the pulse receiver's clock.

Lemma 4 below slightly generalizes Lemma 6, to enable you to choose one time t_0 for the pulse to be emitted, and a different time t_1 to correspond with a starting position for O .

Lemma 4. A spherically spreading “pulse” (e.g. a light pulse, or a brief sound wave) is emitted from a position $\mathbf{s} = (s_x, s_y)$ in the XY plane at time t_0 , propagating in all directions at speed c .

An observer O is moving at constant velocity v in the x direction (i.e. no motion in the y or z components) starting at position $\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r}$ at time t_1 , where $\mathbf{r} = (x_0, y_0)$.

If $|v| < c$, then there is exactly one time $t_r \geq t_0$ that O encounters the pulse signal, given by:

$$t_r = t_0 + \frac{vx_0' + \sqrt{c^2 r'^2 - v^2 y_0^2}}{c^2 - v^2} \quad (62)$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} x_0' &= x_0 + v(t_0 - t_1) \\ r'^2 &= x_0'^2 + y_0^2 \end{aligned}$$

t_0, t_1, v, x_0, y_0, c can be arbitrary real numbers subject to the restriction $|v| < c$. If you choose $t_1 > t_0$, it is assumed that O 's constant velocity movement extends back to t_0 or earlier, and O reaches the point $\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r}$ at time t_1 .

The position of O at time t for Lemma 4 is given by:

$$x_O(t) = s_x + x_0 + v(t - t_1), y_O(t) = s_y + y_0 \quad (63)$$

The proof of the above is to use the proof of Lemma 6 below, with x_0' in place of x_0 .

The result for an observer at rest very simple, but we mention it here anyway.

Corollary 5. A spherically spreading “pulse” (e.g. a light pulse, or a brief sound wave) is emitted from a position \mathbf{s} in the XY plane at time t_0 , propagating in all directions at speed c .

An observer O is at rest relative to where the pulse is emitted from, at position $\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{r} = (x_0, y_0)$.

The time $t_r \geq t_0$ that O encounters the pulse signal is given by:

$$t_r = t_0 + \frac{r}{c} = t_0 + \frac{\sqrt{x_0^2 + y_0^2}}{c} \quad (64)$$

t_0, x_0, y_0, c can be arbitrary real numbers subject to the restriction $c > 0$.

Lemma 6. Exactly the same scenario as described in Lemma 4, except that the initial position for observer O must be given at time $t_1 = t_0$, the same time that the pulse is emitted.

The observer encounters the pulse signal at time t_r given by:

$$t_r = t_0 + \frac{vx_0 + \sqrt{c^2 r^2 - v^2 y_0^2}}{c^2 - v^2} \quad (65)$$

t_0, v, x_0, y_0, c can be arbitrary real numbers subject to the restriction $|v| < c$.

The position of O at time t for the lemma above is given by:

$$x_O(t) = s_x + x_0 + v(t - t_0), y_O(t) = s_y + y_0 \quad (66)$$

Lemma 6 is simply a slight generalization of Lemma 7, but with the light pulse starting point translated from the origin to \mathbf{s} , and the pulse being transmitted at a translated time t_0 instead of 0.

A.4.1 Proof for simplified case

Lemma 7. A spherically spreading “pulse” (e.g. a light pulse, or a brief sound wave) is emitted from the origin at time $t = 0$, propagating in all directions at speed c .

An observer O is moving at constant velocity v in the x direction (i.e. no motion in the y or z components) starting at position $\mathbf{r} = (x_0, y_0)$ at $t = 0$.

If $|v| < c$, then there is exactly one time t_r that O encounters the pulse signal, given by:

$$t_r = \frac{vx_0 + \sqrt{c^2 r^2 - v^2 y_0^2}}{c^2 - v^2} \quad (67)$$

v, x_0, y_0, c can be arbitrary real numbers subject to the restriction $|v| < c$.

Aside: In addition to the proof below, I have verified the equation above with a handful of sets of values for c, v, x_0, y_0 and verified that it gives a positive value of t_r such that the position of the observer at time t_r is distance ct_r from the origin.

Proof. Since O moves only in the XY plane, we need only concern ourselves with the circle of the wavefront in that plane, and when O intersects with it. The wavefront is spread along a circle with points (x, y) satisfying the equation:

$$x^2 + y^2 = c^2 t^2 \quad (68)$$

The position of observer O at time t is:

$$x_O(t) = x_0 + vt, y_O(t) = y_0 \quad (69)$$

O receives the pulse when its position satisfies Equation (68).

$$\begin{aligned} (x_0 + vt)^2 + y_0^2 &= c^2 t^2 \\ x_0^2 + 2x_0vt + v^2 t^2 + y_0^2 &= c^2 t^2 && \text{algebra} \\ (v^2 - c^2)t^2 + 2x_0vt + (x_0^2 + y_0^2) &= 0 && \text{collect like terms by powers of } t \end{aligned}$$

Use the quadratic equation, and let $r^2 = x_0^2 + y_0^2$ to reduce the number of symbols a bit. First evaluate the discriminant:

$$\begin{aligned} b^2 - 4ac &= (2x_0v)^2 - 4(v^2 - c^2)(x_0^2 + y_0^2) \\ &= 4x_0^2v^2 - 4v^2x_0^2 - 4v^2y_0^2 + 4c^2x_0^2 + 4c^2y_0^2 \\ &= 4[c^2(x_0^2 + y_0^2) - v^2y_0^2] \\ &= 4[c^2r^2 - v^2y_0^2] \end{aligned}$$

The full solutions to the equation are:

$$\begin{aligned} t_r &= \frac{-2vx_0 \pm \sqrt{4(c^2r^2 - v^2y_0^2)}}{2(v^2 - c^2)} \\ &= \frac{vx_0 \pm \sqrt{c^2r^2 - v^2y_0^2}}{c^2 - v^2} && \text{multiply numerator and denominator by } -1/2 \end{aligned}$$

We want only a positive solution, since that is after the pulse is emitted. $|v| < c$, so the denominator is positive. If vx_0 is negative, the only way to get a positive solution is to use the addition alternative among the two solutions.

$$t_r = \frac{vx_0 + \sqrt{c^2r^2 - v^2y_0^2}}{c^2 - v^2}$$

□

B Double-check results from ChatGPT

B.1 Scenario 2, B sends periodic pulses to C , double-check by ChatGPT

Since at the time of first performing the calculations in Section 3.2.1 I was still fairly new to such things, I wanted a way to double-check the results. I asked ChatGPT what the period would be that C would receive pulses from B and it gave an answer close to the following.

Note: I only asked it about the case where $v_C > v_B > 0$.

Calculate the velocity of B in C 's frame using relativistic velocity subtraction:

$$u' = \frac{v_B - v_C}{1 - \frac{v_B v_C}{c^2}} \quad (70)$$

$$\beta' = \frac{\beta_B - \beta_C}{1 - \beta_B \beta_C} \quad (71)$$

Since $v_B < v_C$, the numerator is negative. The denominator is positive. Thus $u' < 0$ and $\beta' < 0$. Thus in C 's frame, B is moving in the negative x direction, and C is at rest.

For receding motion:

$$T_{\text{observed}} = T_{\text{emitted}} \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad (72)$$

where:

$$\beta = \frac{|u'|}{c} = |\beta'| \quad (73)$$

Since $\beta' < 0$:

$$|\beta'| = -\beta' = \frac{\beta_C - \beta_B}{1 - \beta_B \beta_C} \quad (74)$$

From here on this is mostly just algebra:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{T_{\text{observed}}}{T_{\text{emitted}}} &= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{\beta_C - \beta_B}{1 - \beta_B \beta_C}}{1 - \frac{\beta_C - \beta_B}{1 - \beta_B \beta_C}}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta_C \beta_B + (\beta_C - \beta_B)}{1 - \beta_C \beta_B - (\beta_C - \beta_B)}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{(1 + \beta_C)(1 - \beta_B)}{(1 - \beta_C)(1 + \beta_B)}} \\ &= D_C / D_B \quad \text{defn. of } D_B, D_C \end{aligned}$$

This is the same result, calculated in a fairly different way, using the assumptions of special relativity, which ChatGPT is much better at answering questions about than it is any alternatives that are not special relativity.

B.2 Using the Doppler factor in special relativity in longitudinal scenarios

When authors write about relative motion between the source and receiver of a light signal, where the source and receiver are moving in a straight line at constant velocity directly towards or away from each other, some adopt the sign convention that $v > 0$ means they are moving towards each other, whereas others adopt the opposite convention where $v > 0$ means they are moving away from each other.

Regardless of the convention used, physically what happens is that when the sender and receiver are moving away from each other, for periodic pulse signals the period between them is larger at the receiver than the sender, due to a combination of time dilation at the sender as observed by the receiver (according to special relativity's conventions), and because each pulse or wave cycle takes longer to reach the receiver than the previous one. For sinusoidal signals, the frequency is smaller at the receiver and the wavelength is longer.

The opposite of all of these statements is true if the sender is moving towards the receiver. This is the best way to confirm what the correct velocity sign convention is for any formula using the Doppler factor.

Examples of authors using different velocity sign conventions include:

- Feynman Lectures, Volume I, Section 34-6 “The Doppler effect” [2]: $v > 0$ for source moving towards the receiver.
- Wikipedia page “The Relativistic Doppler effect” [10]: $v > 0$ for source moving away from the receiver.
- A conversation I had with ChatGPT in July 2025 (see Appendix B.2.3): $v > 0$ for source moving towards the receiver.

Since there seems to be no consensus on the sign convention used, in the rest of this document I will use the convention of $v > 0$ means the sender and receiver are moving away from each other.

B.2.1 Using the Doppler factor, according to the Feynman Lectures

In Section 34-6 “The Doppler effect” of the Feynman Lectures, Volume I [2], Feynman consistently uses the convention that $v > 0$ means that the sender and receiver are moving towards each other. Quotes include:

and at the same time the whole atom, the whole oscillator, is moving along in a direction toward the observer at velocity v .

Later:

Suppose, now, that the source is standing still and is emitting waves at frequency ω_0 , while the observer is moving with speed v toward the source.

Feynman derives the frequency observed by the receiver ω is related to the frequency transmitted by the sender ω_0 as:

$$\begin{aligned}\omega &= \frac{\omega_0 \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}{1 - v/c} && \text{Feynman Eqn. (34.12)} \\ &= \omega_0 \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \\ &= \omega_0 D\end{aligned}$$

If we replace ω (frequency of the receiver) with $1/T_r$ and ω_0 (frequency of the sender) with $1/T_s$, we get:

$$\frac{T_r}{T_s} = \frac{1}{D} \quad (75)$$

When the sender and receiver are moving away from each other, $v < 0$ by the velocity sign convention used by Feynman here. Thus $\beta < 0$, and $D < 1$. The ratio $1/D > 1$, indicating the receiver’s pulses are further apart than the sender’s.

B.2.2 Using the Doppler factor, according to Wikipedia

The Wikipedia page “The Relativistic Doppler effect” [10]. in its section “Summary of major results” gives its velocity sign convention as follows:

In the following table, it is assumed that for $\beta = v/c > 0$ the receiver r and the source s are moving away from each other

The expression f_s is used for the frequency as transmitted by the sender, and f_r is the frequency as measured by the receiver.

$$\frac{f_s}{f_r} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad (76)$$

Period T is $1/f$, so we can write the relationship between the sender and receiver’s period as:

$$\frac{T_r}{T_s} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} = D \quad (77)$$

When the sender and receiver are moving away from each other, $\beta > 0$ by the sign convention used in that Wikipedia article. Thus $D > 1$, indicating the receiver’s pulses are further apart than the sender’s.

B.2.3 Using the Doppler factor, according to ChatGPT

In a fairly long interaction with ChatGPT that I had regarding questions related to Special Relativity, I asked:

What are the rules for the beta value to use in the Doppler factor formula?

This section contains the answer I received, which is the same sign convention as used in the Feynman lectures mentioned earlier.

My goal is to compare these rules against the way I have used the formula for D elsewhere in this document, and do one of the following:

- update the document to make my use of D consistent with widely accepted rules for its use, or
- use a different symbol and name for the formula, perhaps calling mine a “modified Doppler factor”, and describe as clearly as possible the difference between them.

Here begins the ChatGPT answer to the question above.

Here is a clear, precise technical guide for choosing the correct β sign in the relativistic Doppler factor:

Doppler factor formula For longitudinal (collinear) motion, the relativistic Doppler factor is:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad (78)$$

where:

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} \quad (79)$$

The observed period:

$$T_{obs} = \frac{T_{emit}}{D} \quad (80)$$

and the observed frequency:

$$f_{obs} = D f_{emit} \quad (81)$$

Rule for β

$$\beta = \frac{v_{source, relativetoobserver}}{c} \quad (82)$$

where:

- $v_{source, relativetoobserver}$ is the velocity of the source measured in the observer’s frame,
- Positive if source is moving toward the observer,
- Negative if source is moving away from the observer.

Rule for interpreting the sign: If the source and observer are approaching each other, use:

$$\beta > 0 \quad (83)$$

leading to:

$$D > 1 \Rightarrow f_{obs} > f_{emit} \quad (84)$$

(blueshift, period decreases).

If the source and observer are receding from each other, use:

$$\beta < 0 \quad (85)$$

leading to:

$$D < 1 \Rightarrow f_{obs} < f_{emit} \quad (86)$$

(redshift, period increases).

How to determine β systematically:

1. Choose observer’s frame as the reference.
2. Compute source’s velocity in that frame.
3. If source moving toward observer: $\beta > 0$. If source moving away from observer: $\beta < 0$.
4. Plug into:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad (87)$$

It will automatically give you the correct Doppler shift direction (blueshift or redshift).