

Application of Relativity in Astrophysics

I. Introduction to Special Relativity

1. Applications are central. Books:

Landau & Lifschitz II

Jackson

Rybicki & Lightman

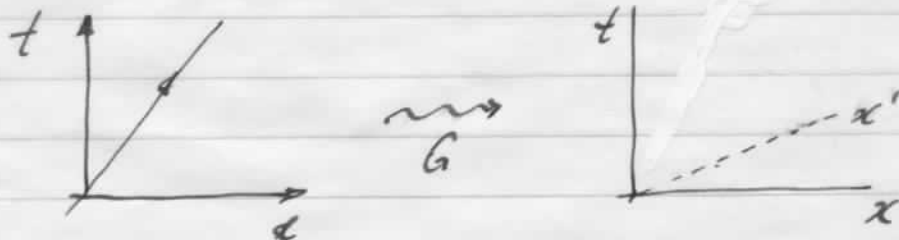
Shapiro & Teukolsky

Thorne, Price, & Macdonald

Feynman Lectures

2. The basics.

Classical mechanics: \vec{x} & t , Galilei invariance



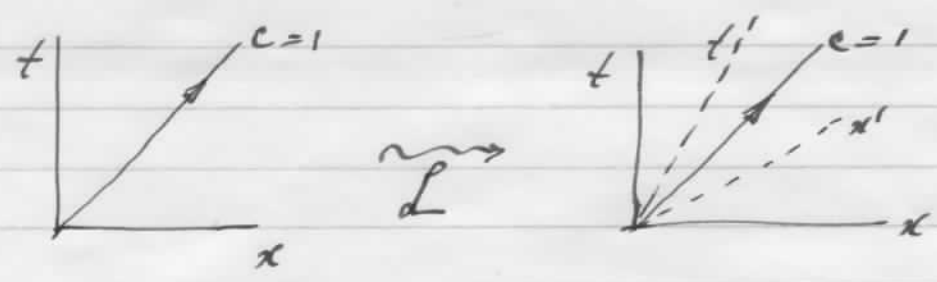
Fact: Michelson-Morley 1888

c is invariant

Choose $c \equiv 1$, then light rays are 45° diagonals in all xt -diagrams (light cone).

Therefore, $x = \pm ct$ must always bisect the xt' -axes. \rightarrow no Galilei invariance:

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To keep $x=ct$ a bisectrix, t must change too!

Because $[c] = [m/s]$, space & time must mix if you want to keep a velocity invariant.

The transformation L is like a rotation, except t and x rotate in opposite directions:

$$t' = \gamma(t - \beta x) \quad x' = \gamma(x - \beta t) \quad (1)$$

What are β and γ ? $(t', x') = L(t, x)$, so the norm of L must be unity:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \gamma & -\beta\gamma \\ -\beta\gamma & \gamma \end{vmatrix} = \gamma^2 - \beta^2\gamma^2 = 1 \rightarrow \gamma^2 = \frac{1}{1-\beta^2} \quad (2)$$

Lorentz trf

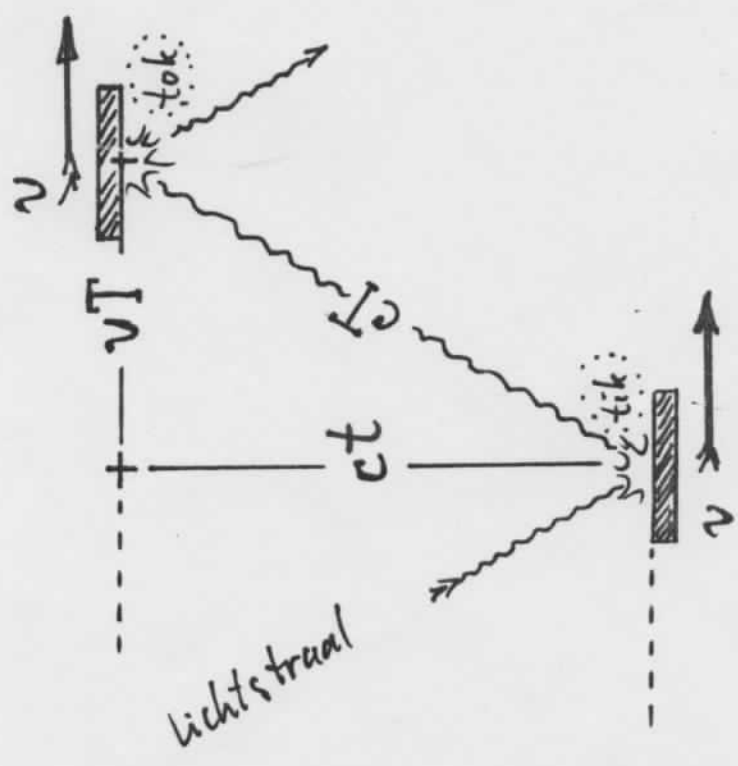
Correspondence with Galilei: small values of β give $\gamma^2 \approx 1$ and

$$x' \approx x - \beta t \quad (3)$$

Therefore, $\beta =$ relative velocity of (t', x') and (t, x)

$$\beta = v/c \quad (4)$$

"Rotation" in (1): $\gamma = \cosh z$; $\gamma\beta = \sinh z$; $\beta = \tanh z$
 $z =$ rapidity



$$c^2 T^2 = c^2 t^2 + v^2 T^2$$

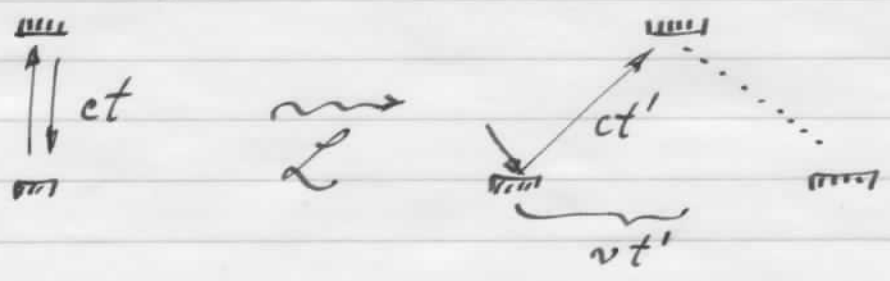
$$(c^2 - v^2) T^2 = c^2 t^2$$

$$T^2 = \frac{c^2 t^2}{c^2 - v^2}$$

$$T = \frac{t}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

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Mixing of space & time: the Lorentz clock.



$$c^2 t'^2 = c^2 t^2 + v^2 t'^2 \Rightarrow t'^2 = t^2 + \beta^2 t'^2$$

$$t' = \gamma t \tag{4^a}$$

time dilatation

Exercise: Lorentz-Fitzgerald contraction

$$x' = x / \gamma \tag{4^b}$$

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If \mathcal{L} is a pseudo-rotation, it has an invariant.
This is given by

$$t^2 - x^2 = \text{constant} \quad (5)$$

Lorentz invariant. Verify explicitly. Space and Time mix.

Notice peculiar inner product:

$$x^\mu x_\mu = x^0 x_0 - x^i x_i = t^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2 \quad (6)$$

$\begin{array}{c} \downarrow \\ 0 \dots 3 \end{array}$
 $\quad \quad \quad \downarrow$
 $\begin{array}{c} 1 \dots 3 \end{array}$
 $\quad \quad \quad + - - -$
 $\quad \quad \quad \text{convention}$

Note: only one opposite sign; one Time coordinate,
else subspaces like

$$t^2 + \lambda^2 - x^2 - y^2 \quad (7)$$

circle: closed timelike curves; causality!
There is only one time.

|| Everything comes in fours, and inner product $+ - - -$. ||
Mixing of 0 -component with i -components.

This is what makes relativity counter-intuitive!

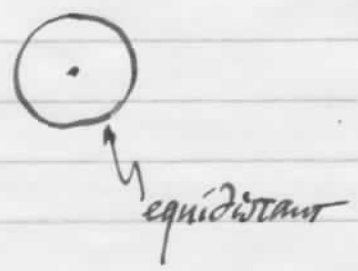
For example, circles:

$$x^\mu x_\mu = \text{constant} \quad (\text{definition!}) \quad (8)$$

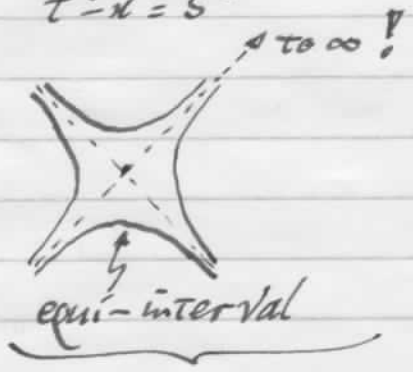
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"Distance" $\sqrt{x^{\mu}x_{\mu}}$ is called interval.

Pythagoras
 $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$



Minkowski
 $t^2 - x^2 = s^2$



light "cone" { This is the shape of a local patch
Etch this in your brain!

Everything comes in fours : $4^0 = 1$ scalar
4 vector (or 2-spinor)
16 tensor

Interval is a Lorentz scalar. Coordinates are a Lorentz vector (t, x, y, z) . Electromagnetic field is a Lorentz tensor but vector potential is L-vector or 4-vector.

Phase is a Lorentz scalar (counting only) :

$$e^{-i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)} = e^{-ik^{\mu}x_{\mu}} \tag{9}$$

Inner product again! Suggests 4-vector (ω, \vec{k}) .

$$\omega^2 - k^2 = \text{const} \tag{10}$$

dispersion relation
+ De Broglie: Klein-Gordon & Dirac eqs

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Suggests from classical e.m. for light:

$$\omega^2 = k^2 \rightarrow \omega = k \quad \text{"massless"} \quad (11)$$

Likewise, three-momentum cannot be Lorentz invariant but must be extended:

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v} \quad \text{classical (NB: } c=1) \quad (12)$$

Test a 4-vector (ψ, \vec{p}) under Lorentz transformation. If initially no momentum, then $(\psi, 0)$; now transform to a small velocity β . Then

$$\psi' = \gamma\psi; \quad p' = -\beta\gamma\psi \approx -\beta\psi \quad (13)$$

At small β , the momentum must be $-m_0\beta$, so that $\psi_0 \approx m_0$. Lorentz invariance requires

$$\psi_0^2 - p_0^2 \approx m_0^2 \rightarrow \psi_0 \approx \sqrt{m_0^2 + p_0^2} \quad (14)$$

For small v , we get $p_0 \approx m_0 v$ and

$$\psi_0 \approx m_0 \sqrt{1+v^2} \approx m_0 + \frac{1}{2}m_0 v^2 \quad (15)$$

The fourth component ($\equiv p^0$) is energy

$$p^\mu = (E, \vec{p}) \quad (16)$$

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Lorentz invariance:

$$E^2 - p^2 = \text{const.} \equiv m_0^2 \quad (17)$$

Momentum and energy mix, just like space and time mix!

The interval is invariant \rightarrow the rest mass is invariant

The origin of mass: depends on how m_0 propagates \rightarrow
the propagation determines m !
cf. origin of m in high-energy physics

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m_0 \vec{\beta}; \quad E = \gamma m_0 \quad (18)$$

(or $E = \gamma m_0 c^2$ if $c=1$ units)

$$E = m_0 \text{ if } \beta=1 \quad (=mc^2)$$

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A bit more systematic kinematics, now! Start with the 4-coordinate vector (t, \vec{x}) . By analogy with the 3-velocity $\vec{v} \equiv d\vec{x}/dt$ we should like to get a velocity. But dt is not a Lorentz invariant!

Only $t^2 - x^2$ is. Or, in infinitesimal form,

$$dt^2 - dx^2 = ds^2 \quad (19)$$

Now $dx/dt \equiv v$, so that

notation: $dt^2 \neq 2t dt$ etc. ∇
but $(dt)^2$

$$ds^2 = (1 - v^2) dt^2 \equiv \frac{1}{\gamma_v^2} dt^2; \quad \gamma_v \equiv (1 - v^2)^{-1/2} \quad (20)$$

Therefore we define the (invariant!) proper time by

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$$d\tau \equiv \frac{1}{\gamma_v} dt \quad (21)$$

Then we can define the four-velocity u^μ as

$$u^\mu \equiv \frac{dx^\mu}{d\tau} \Rightarrow \quad (22)$$

$$u^0 = \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \gamma_v \quad (23)$$

$$u^i = \frac{dx^i}{d\tau} = \frac{dt}{d\tau} \frac{dx^i}{dt} = \gamma_v \vec{v} \quad (24)$$

Prove that 4-accel. \perp 4-veloc.
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To get to 3-velocities: Jackson § 11.4

Lorentz trf. without rotation = Lorentz boost

$$x' = \gamma(x - \beta t) \quad ; \quad t' = \gamma(t - \beta x) \quad (25)$$

$$v' = \frac{dx'}{dt'} = \frac{dx - \beta dt}{dt - \beta dx} = \frac{v - \beta}{1 - v\beta} \quad (26)$$

Velocity addition in one coordinate direction

$$"u+v" = \frac{u+v}{1+uv} \quad \left\| \begin{array}{l} \text{max velocity} = 1 \text{ ! proof, NOT experiment} \\ \text{retardation} \rightarrow \text{radiation} \end{array} \right. \quad (27)$$

Now acceleration! If you already move with speed u and you get a little bump δu , then

$$\begin{aligned} "u+\delta u" &= \frac{u+\delta u}{1+u\delta u} \approx (u+\delta u)(1-u\delta u) \approx u+\delta u - u^2\delta u \\ &= u + \frac{1}{\gamma_u^2} \delta u \quad (28) \end{aligned}$$

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As seen in an external frame, then, u increases by the amount $\gamma_u^{-2} \delta u$. In the ^{rest} frame of the moving body, the velocity goes from zero to δu in a time $\delta t'$; this is the acceleration A' experienced by the body, so that

$$\frac{du}{dt'} = \gamma_u^{-2} A' \quad (29)$$

or, because $dt' = \gamma_u dt$ at a fixed spatial point x ,

$$\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{A'}{\gamma_u^3} = (1-u^2)^{3/2} A' \quad (30)$$

Exercise: the "twin effect" for $A' = \text{one gee!}$

$$\int (1-u^2)^{-3/2} du = u(1-u^2)^{-1/2} = A't \quad (31)$$

$$u = \frac{A't}{\sqrt{1+A'^2 t^2}} = \frac{dx}{dt} \quad \text{if } u=0 @ t=0 \quad (32)$$

$$x = \sqrt{1+A'^2 t^2} - 1 \quad \text{if } x=0 @ t=0 \quad (33)$$

$$dt' = \gamma_u dt; \quad \gamma_u = (1+A'^2 t^2)^{1/2} \quad (34)$$

$$t' = \log(A't + \sqrt{1+A'^2 t^2}) \quad (35)$$

Is $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} u = 1$ above a radiating surface?

If $\frac{A'}{m} = 9.5 \text{ m s}^{-2}$, then $t=1 \hat{=} \text{one year}$, $x=1 \hat{=} \text{one lightyear}$.

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Velocity addition in general 3D (Jackson p. 523):
 if velocity is \vec{u}' in system K' which moves with $\vec{\beta}$ with respect to K , then in K one observes a velocity \vec{u} according to

$$\left. \begin{aligned} dt &= \gamma (dt' + \vec{\beta} \cdot d\vec{x}') \\ d\vec{x} &= \gamma (d\vec{x}' + \vec{\beta} dt') \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (36)$$

$$\vec{u} = \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = \frac{d\vec{x}' + \vec{\beta} dt'}{dt' + \vec{\beta} \cdot d\vec{x}'} = \frac{\vec{u}' + \vec{\beta}}{1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{u}'} \quad (37)$$

Split into components parallel & perpendicular to $\vec{\beta}$, this gives

$$u_{\parallel} \equiv \vec{u} \cdot \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta} = \frac{\vec{u}' \cdot \vec{\beta} / \beta + \beta}{1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{u}'} = \frac{u'_{\parallel} + \beta}{1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{u}'} \quad (38)$$

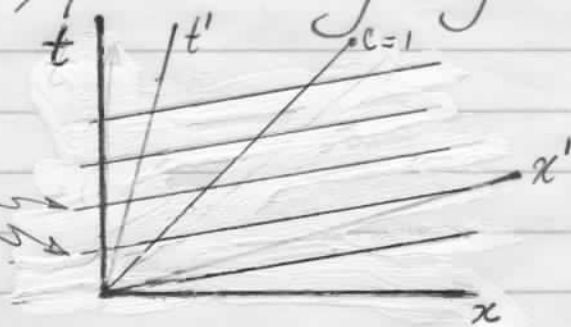
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}_{\perp} &= \vec{u} - u_{\parallel} \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta} = \vec{u} - \left(\frac{\vec{u}' \cdot \vec{\beta}}{\beta} \right) \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta} = \frac{\vec{u}' + \vec{\beta} - u'_{\parallel} \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta} - \vec{\beta}}{1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{u}'} \\ &= \frac{\vec{u}' - (u'_{\parallel} \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta}) \frac{\vec{\beta}}{\beta}}{\gamma (1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{u}')} \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

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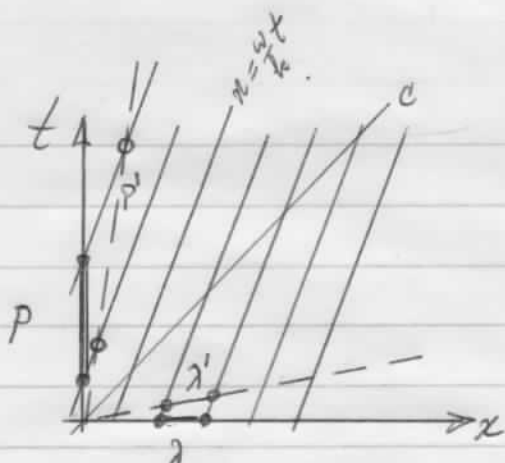
More 4-vectors: back to (g). Wave vector via phase as Lorentz scalar; phase = counting only!

stationary phase $\omega t = kx$
 phase velocity $v = \frac{\omega t}{k}$

wave crest



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space & time mix

Period & wavelength mix

 (ω, \mathbf{k}) wave 4-vector

$$\begin{aligned} \omega' &= \gamma(\omega - \beta k_x) \\ k_x' &= \gamma(k_x - \beta\omega) \\ k_y' &= k_y; \quad k_z' = k_z \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

$$\begin{aligned} k'^2 &= k_x'^2 + k_y'^2 + k_z'^2 = \gamma^2(k_x - \beta\omega)^2 - k_x^2 + k^2 \\ &= \gamma^2\beta^2 k_x^2 - \gamma^2\beta\omega k_x + \gamma^2\beta^2\omega^2 + k^2 \\ &= \gamma^2\beta^2 k_x^2 - \gamma^2\beta\omega k_x + \gamma^2 k^2 \end{aligned}$$

Using the direction of the wave:

$$\cos \theta \equiv k_x / k \quad (41)$$

we get $k = \omega$ dispersion!

$$\omega' = \gamma(\omega - \beta k \cos \theta) = \gamma\omega(1 - \beta \cos \theta) \quad (42)$$

Doppler

If $\theta = 0$, classical Doppler

$$\omega' = \omega \gamma(1 - \beta) = \omega (1 - \beta^2)^{-1/2} (1 - \beta) = \omega \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta}{1 + \beta}} \quad (43)$$

Frequency & direction mix!

$$\cos \theta' = k_x' / k' = \frac{\gamma(k_x - \beta \omega)}{\omega'} = \frac{\omega}{\omega'} \gamma (\cos \theta - \beta)$$

↑
dispersion

Using (43), this produces

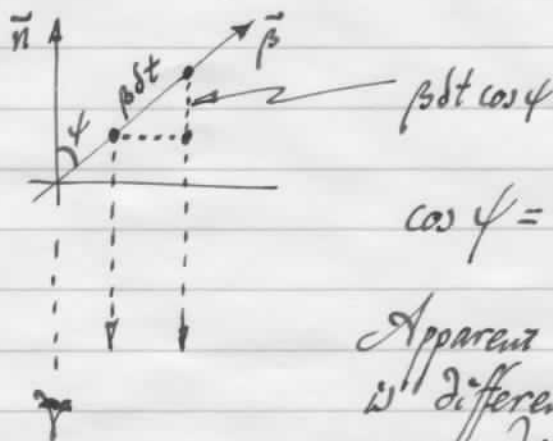
$$\cos \theta' = \frac{\cos \theta - \beta}{1 - \beta \cos \theta} \quad (44)$$

Aberration; check $\theta = 0$, $\theta = \pi$.

- * Appearance nontransverse
- * coll. beaming

Application: photon surfing '89 AeA 216, 294

Application: superluminal motion



$$\cos \psi = \hat{n} \cdot \hat{\beta} / \beta$$

Apparent transverse velocity is different, because a certain extra distance must be

covered by the light. Instead of taking a time δt , it takes δt plus the light travel distance $\beta \delta t \cos \psi$,

11a

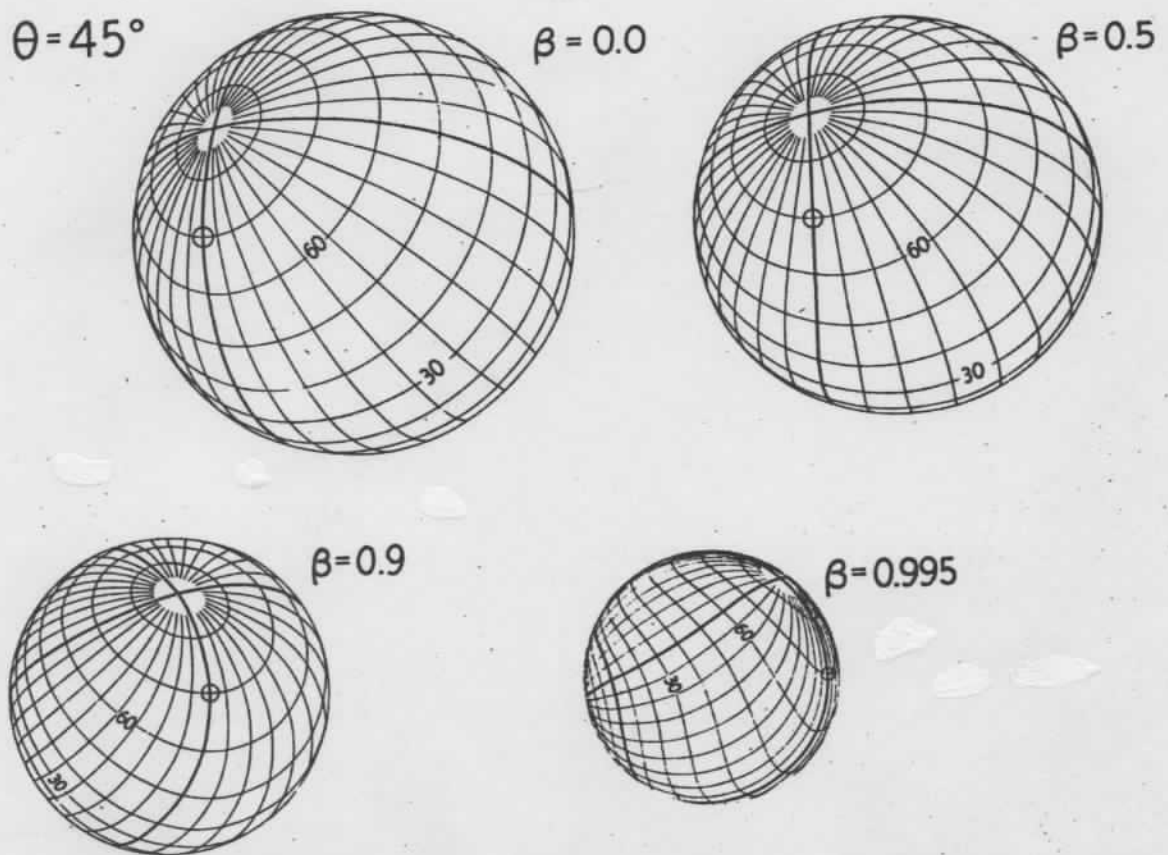


FIG. 4. Appearance of a sphere approaching an observer at various speeds β . The center of the sphere is moving along a line which is at a distance of one sphere diameter from the observer. As described in the text, the sphere is tilted by 70° to display the north pole. The direction from the point circled on the sphere to the observer makes an angle θ equal to 45° to the line of motion.

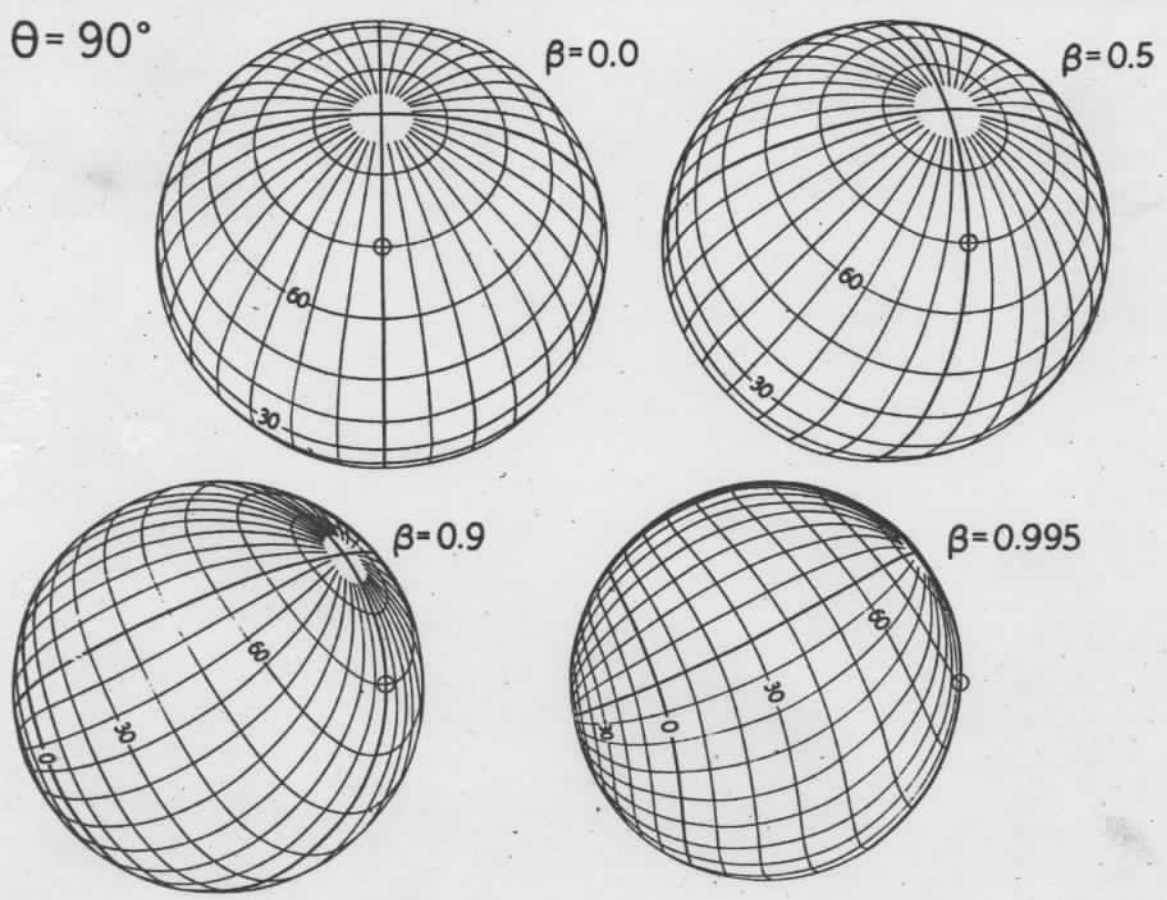


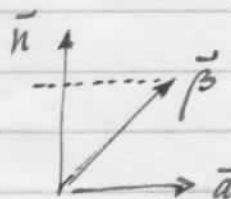
FIG. 5. Appearance of a sphere passing an observer. The conditions are as in Fig. 4 but the angle of observation θ is equal to 90° .

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So that the entire time is

$$\delta t + \beta \delta t \cos \psi = \delta t (1 + \beta (\frac{\vec{n} \cdot \vec{\beta}}{\beta})) = \delta t (1 + \vec{n} \cdot \vec{\beta}) \quad (45)$$

The transverse position vector is



$$\vec{a} = \vec{\beta} - (\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{n}) \vec{n} \quad (46)$$

The vector identity $(\vec{A} \times \vec{B}) \times \vec{C} = (\vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}) \vec{B} - (\vec{B} \cdot \vec{C}) \vec{A}$ gives

$$(\vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{n}) \vec{n} = (\vec{\beta} \times \vec{n}) \times \vec{n} - \vec{\beta} \quad (47)$$

so that $\vec{a} = \vec{n} \times (\vec{\beta} \times \vec{n}) \quad (48)$

and finally

$$\vec{\beta}_{\text{obs}} = \frac{\vec{n} \times (\vec{\beta} \times \vec{n})}{1 + \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{n}} \quad (49)$$

NB: Blandford & Königl, (79 ApJ 232, 34), use \vec{n} to be the vector from source to observer; so they get

$$\vec{\beta}_{\text{obs}} = \frac{\vec{n} \times (\vec{\beta} \times \vec{n})}{1 - \vec{\beta} \cdot \vec{n}} \quad (50)$$

Note that β_{obs} can approach infinity! In the denominator we recognise the Doppler & aberration factor $1 - \beta \cos \delta$.