

The transformation from S' to S is found by reversing the sign of v . Altogether,

$$u' = \frac{u - v}{1 - uv/c^2} \quad \text{and} \quad u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad (37.30)$$

Equations 37.30 are the Lorentz velocity transformation equations.

NOTE ▶ It is important to distinguish carefully between v , which is the relative velocity between two reference frames, and u and u' , which are the velocities of an *object* as measured in the two different reference frames. ◀

EXAMPLE 37.10 A really fast bullet

A rocket flies past the earth at $0.90c$. As it goes by, the rocket fires a bullet in the forward direction at $0.95c$ with respect to the rocket. What is the bullet's speed with respect to the earth?

MODEL The rocket and the earth are inertial reference frames. Let the earth be frame S and the rocket be frame S' . The velocity of frame S' relative to frame S is $v = 0.90c$. The bullet's velocity in frame S' is $u' = 0.95c$.

SOLVE We can use the Lorentz velocity transformation to find

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} = \frac{0.95c + 0.90c}{1 + (0.95c)(0.90c)/c^2} = 0.997c$$

The bullet's speed with respect to the earth is 99.7% of the speed of light.

NOTE ▶ Many relativistic calculations are much easier when velocities are specified as a fraction of c . ◀

ASSESS In Newtonian mechanics, the Galilean transformation of velocity would give $u = 1.85c$. Now, despite the very high speed of the rocket and of the bullet with respect to the rocket, the bullet's speed with respect to the earth remains less than c . This is yet more evidence that objects cannot exceed the speed of light.

Suppose the rocket in Example 37.10 fired a laser beam in the forward direction as it traveled past the earth at velocity v . The laser beam would travel away from the rocket at speed $u' = c$ in the rocket's reference frame S' . What is the laser beam's speed in the earth's frame S ? According to the Lorentz velocity transformation, it must be

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} = \frac{c + v}{1 + cv/c^2} = \frac{c + v}{1 + v/c} = \frac{c + v}{(c + v)/c} = c \quad (37.31)$$

Light travels at speed c in both frame S and frame S' . This important consequence of the principle of relativity is “built into” the Lorentz transformations.

37.9 Relativistic Momentum

In Newtonian mechanics, the total momentum of a system is a conserved quantity. Further, as we've seen, the law of conservation of momentum, $P_i = P_f$, is true in all inertial reference frames *if* the particle velocities in different reference frames are related by the Galilean velocity transformations.

The difficulty, of course, is that the Galilean transformations are not consistent with the principle of relativity. It is a reasonable approximation when all velocities are very much less than c , but the Galilean transformations fail dramatically as velocities approach c . It's not hard to show that $P'_i \neq P'_f$ if the particle velocities in frame S' are related to the particle velocities in frame S by the Lorentz transformations.

There are two possibilities:

1. The so-called law of conservation of momentum is not really a law of physics. It is approximately true at low velocities but fails as velocities approach the speed of light.
2. The law of conservation of momentum really is a law of physics, but the expression $p = mu$ is not the correct way to calculate momentum when the particle velocity u becomes a significant fraction of c .

Momentum conservation is such a central and important feature of mechanics that it seems unlikely to fail in relativity.

The classical momentum, for one-dimensional motion, is $p = mu = m(\Delta x/\Delta t)$. Δt is the time to move distance Δx . That seemed clear enough within a Newtonian framework, but now we've learned that experimenters in different reference frames disagree about the amount of time needed. So whose Δt should we use?

One possibility is to use the time measured *by the particle*. This is the proper time $\Delta\tau$ because the particle is at rest in its own reference frame and needs only one clock. With this in mind, let's redefine the momentum of a particle of mass m moving with velocity $u = \Delta x/\Delta t$ to be

$$p = m \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta\tau} \quad (37.32)$$

We can relate this new expression for p to the familiar Newtonian expression by using the time-dilation result $\Delta\tau = (1 - u^2/c^2)^{1/2}\Delta t$ to relate the proper time interval measured by the particle to the more practical time interval Δt measured by experimenters in frame S. With this substitution, Equation 37.32 becomes

$$p = m \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta\tau} = m \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}\Delta t} = \frac{mu}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \quad (37.33)$$

You can see that Equation 37.33 reduces to the classical expression $p = mu$ when the particle's speed $u \ll c$. That is an important requirement, but whether this is the "correct" expression for p depends on whether the total momentum P is conserved when the velocities of a system of particles are transformed with the Lorentz velocity transformation equations. The proof is rather long and tedious, so we will assert, without actual proof, that the momentum defined in Equation 37.33 does, indeed, transform correctly. **The law of conservation of momentum is still valid in all inertial reference frames if the momentum of each particle is calculated with Equation 37.33.**

The factor that multiplies mu in Equation 37.33 looks much like the factor γ in the Lorentz transformation equations for x and t , but there's one very important difference. The v in the Lorentz transformation equations is the velocity of a *reference frame*. The u in Equation 37.33 is the velocity of a particle moving *in* a reference frame.

With this distinction in mind, let's define the quantity

$$\gamma_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} \quad (37.34)$$

where the subscript p indicates that this is γ for a particle, not for a reference frame. In frame S' , where the particle moves with velocity u' , the corresponding expression would be called γ'_p . With this definition of γ_p , the momentum of a particle is

$$p = \gamma_p mu \quad (37.35)$$

EXAMPLE 37.11 Momentum of a subatomic particle

Electrons in a particle accelerator reach a speed of $0.999c$ relative to the laboratory. One collision of an electron with a target produces a muon that moves forward with a speed of $0.95c$ relative to the laboratory. The muon mass is 1.90×10^{-28} kg. What is the muon's momentum in the laboratory frame and in the frame of the electron beam?

MODEL Let the laboratory be reference frame S. The reference frame S' of the electron beam (i.e., a reference frame in which the electrons are at rest) moves in the direction of the electrons at $v = 0.999c$. The muon velocity in frame S is $u = 0.95c$.

SOLVE γ_p for the muon in the laboratory reference frame is

$$\gamma_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 0.95^2}} = 3.20$$

Thus the muon's momentum in the laboratory is

$$p = \gamma_p mu = (3.20)(1.90 \times 10^{-28} \text{ kg})(0.95 \times 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) \\ = 1.73 \times 10^{-19} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s}$$

The momentum is a factor of 3.2 larger than the Newtonian momentum mu . To find the momentum in the electron-beam refer-

ence frame, we must first use the velocity transformation equation to find the muon's velocity in frame S' :

$$u' = \frac{u - v}{1 - uv/c^2} = \frac{0.95c - 0.999c}{1 - (0.95c)(0.999c)/c^2} = -0.962c$$

In the laboratory frame, the faster electrons are overtaking the slower muon. Hence the muon's velocity in the electron-beam frame is negative. γ'_p for the muon in frame S' is

$$\gamma'_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u'^2/c^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 0.962^2}} = 3.66$$

The muon's momentum in the electron-beam reference frame is

$$\begin{aligned} p' &= \gamma'_p m u' \\ &= (3.66)(1.90 \times 10^{-28} \text{ kg})(-0.962 \times 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) \\ &= -2.01 \times 10^{-19} \text{ kg m/s} \end{aligned}$$

ASSESS From the laboratory perspective, the muon moves only slightly slower than the electron beam. But it turns out that the muon moves faster with respect to the electrons, although in the opposite direction, than it does with respect to the laboratory.

The Cosmic Speed Limit

FIGURE 37.34a is a graph of momentum versus velocity. For a Newtonian particle, with $p = mu$, the momentum is directly proportional to the velocity. The relativistic expression for momentum agrees with the Newtonian value if $u \ll c$, but p approaches ∞ as $u \rightarrow c$.

The implications of this graph become clear when we relate momentum to force. Consider a particle subjected to a constant force, such as a rocket that never runs out of fuel. If F is constant, we can see from $F = dp/dt$ that the momentum is $p = Ft$. If Newtonian physics were correct, a particle would go faster and faster as its velocity $u = p/m = (F/m)t$ increased without limit. But the relativistic result, shown in **FIGURE 37.34b**, is that the particle's velocity asymptotically approaches the speed of light ($u \rightarrow c$) as p approaches ∞ . Relativity gives a very different outcome than Newtonian mechanics.

The speed c is a “cosmic speed limit” for material particles. A force cannot accelerate a particle to a speed higher than c because the particle's momentum becomes infinitely large as the speed approaches c . The amount of effort required for each additional increment of velocity becomes larger and larger until no amount of effort can raise the velocity any higher.

Actually, at a more fundamental level, c is a speed limit for *any* kind of **causal influence**. If I throw a rock and break a window, my throw is the *cause* of the breaking window and the rock is the *causal influence*. If I shoot a laser beam at a light detector that is wired to a firecracker, the light wave is the *causal influence* that leads to the explosion. A causal influence can be any kind of particle, wave, or information that travels from A to B and allows A to be the cause of B.

For two unrelated events—a firecracker explodes in Tokyo and a balloon bursts in Paris—the relativity of simultaneity tells us that they may be simultaneous in one reference frame but not in others. Or in one reference frame the firecracker may explode before the balloon bursts but in some other reference frame the balloon may burst first. These possibilities violate our commonsense view of time, but they're not in conflict with the principle of relativity.

For two causally related events—A *causes* B—it would be nonsense for an experimenter in any reference frame to find that B occurs before A. No experimenter in any reference frame, no matter how it is moving, will find that you are born before your mother is born. If A causes B, then it must be the case that $t_A < t_B$ in *all* reference frames.

Suppose there exists some kind of causal influence that *can* travel at speed $u > c$. **FIGURE 37.35** shows a reference frame S in which event A is at the origin ($x_A = 0$). The faster-than-light causal influence—perhaps some yet-to-be-discovered “z ray”—leaves A at $t_A = 0$ and travels to the point at which it will cause event B. It arrives at x_B at time $t_B = x_B/u$.

How do events A and B appear in a reference frame S' that travels at an ordinary speed $v < c$ relative to frame S ? We can use the Lorentz transformations to find out.

FIGURE 37.34 The speed of a particle cannot reach the speed of light.

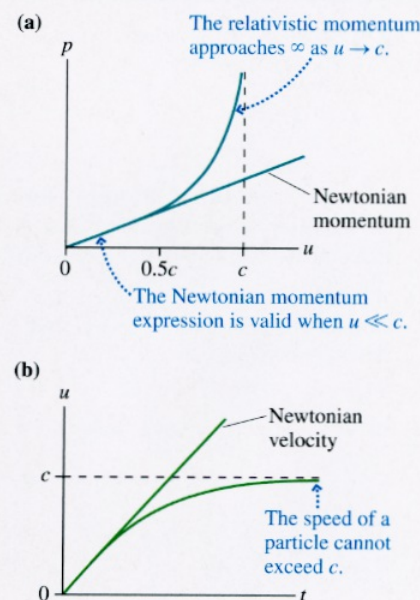
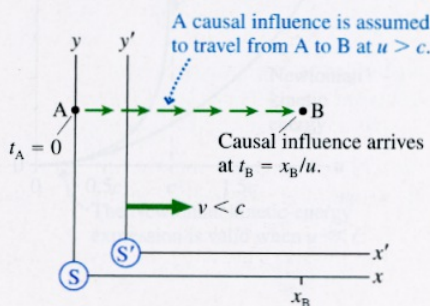


FIGURE 37.35 Assume that a causal influence can travel from A to B at a speed $u > c$.



Because $x_A = 0$ and $t_A = 0$, it's easy to see that $x'_A = 0$ and $t'_A = 0$. That is, the origins of S and S' overlap at the instant the causal influence leaves event A . More interesting is the time at which this influence reaches B in frame S' . The Lorentz time transformation for event B is

$$t'_B = \gamma \left(t_B - \frac{vx_B}{c^2} \right) = \gamma t_B \left(1 - \frac{v(x_B/t_B)}{c^2} \right) = \gamma t_B \left(1 - \frac{vu}{c^2} \right) \quad (37.36)$$

where we first factored out t_B , then made use of the fact that $u = x_B/t_B$ in frame S .

We're assuming $u > c$, so let $u = \alpha c$ where $\alpha > 1$ is a constant. Then $vu/c^2 = \alpha v/c$. Now follow the logic:

1. If $v > c/\alpha$, which is possible because $\alpha > 1$, then $vu/c^2 > 1$.
2. If $vu/c^2 > 1$, then the term $(1 - vu/c^2)$ is negative and $t'_B < 0$.
3. If $t'_B < 0$, then event B happens *before* event A in reference frame S' .

In other words, if a causal influence can travel faster than c , then there exist reference frames in which the effect happens before the cause. We know this can't happen, so our assumption $u > c$ must be wrong. **No causal influence of any kind—particle, wave, or yet-to-be-discovered z rays—can travel faster than c .**

The existence of a cosmic speed limit is one of the most interesting consequences of the theory of relativity. “Warp drive,” in which a spaceship suddenly leaps to faster-than-light velocities, is simply incompatible with the theory of relativity. Rapid travel to the stars will remain in the realm of science fiction unless future scientific discoveries find flaws in Einstein's theory and open the doors to yet-undreamed-of theories. While we can't say with certainty that a scientific theory will never be overturned, there is currently not even a hint of evidence that disagrees with the special theory of relativity.

37.10 Relativistic Energy

Energy is our final topic in this chapter on relativity. Space, time, velocity, and momentum are changed by relativity, so it seems inevitable that we'll need a new view of energy.

In Newtonian mechanics, a particle's kinetic energy $K = \frac{1}{2}mu^2$ can be written in terms of its momentum $p = mu$ as $K = p^2/2m$. This suggests that a relativistic expression for energy will likely involve both the square of p and the particle's mass. We also hope that energy will be conserved in relativity, so a reasonable starting point is with the one quantity we've found that is the same in all inertial reference frames: the spacetime interval s .

Let a particle of mass m move through distance Δx during a time interval Δt , as measured in reference frame S . The spacetime interval is

$$s^2 = c^2(\Delta t)^2 - (\Delta x)^2 = \text{invariant}$$

We can turn this into an expression involving momentum if we multiply by $(m/\Delta\tau)^2$, where $\Delta\tau$ is the proper time (i.e., the time measured by the particle). Doing so gives

$$(mc)^2 \left(\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta\tau} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{m\Delta x}{\Delta\tau} \right)^2 = (mc)^2 \left(\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta\tau} \right)^2 - p^2 = \text{invariant} \quad (37.37)$$

where we used $p = m(\Delta x/\Delta\tau)$ from Equation 37.32.

Now Δt , the time interval in frame S , is related to the proper time by the time-dilation result $\Delta t = \gamma_p \Delta\tau$. With this change, Equation 37.37 becomes

$$(\gamma_p mc)^2 - p^2 = \text{invariant}$$

Finally, for reasons that will be clear in a minute, we multiply by c^2 , to get

$$(\gamma_p mc^2)^2 - (pc)^2 = \text{invariant} \quad (37.38)$$