

The Special Theory of Relativity explained to children

(from 7 to 107 years old)

Charles-Michel Marle

marle@math.jussieu.fr

Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Paris, France

Prologue

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This is the discussion I would like to have with her (or him).

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- Time and space seem to me very intuitive, and yet difficult to understand in deep . . .

Prologue (3)

— Many people feel the same. The true nature of Time and Space is mysterious. Without a deep knowledge of that true nature, we cannot do better than to use **mental pictures** of Space and Time. We should be ready to change these mental pictures if some experimental result shows that we were wrong.

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Let me now indicate how the mental pictures of Time and Space used by scientists have evolved, mainly from Newton to Einstein.

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Newton considered as possible to compare two time intervals, even when they were many centuries apart. In modern mathematical language, that property determines an **affine structure** on \mathcal{T} .

The absolute Time of Newton (2)

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Other important property of Time: it always flows from past to future. To take it into account, we endow \mathcal{T} with an **orientation**; it means that we consider the two directions (from past to future and from future to past) as not equivalent.

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For Newton, every object A of the physical world occupies, at each time t (element of \mathcal{T}) for which that object exists, a position A_t in Space \mathcal{E} . The motion of A is described by its successive positions A_t when t varies in \mathcal{T} .

Newton's Space-Time

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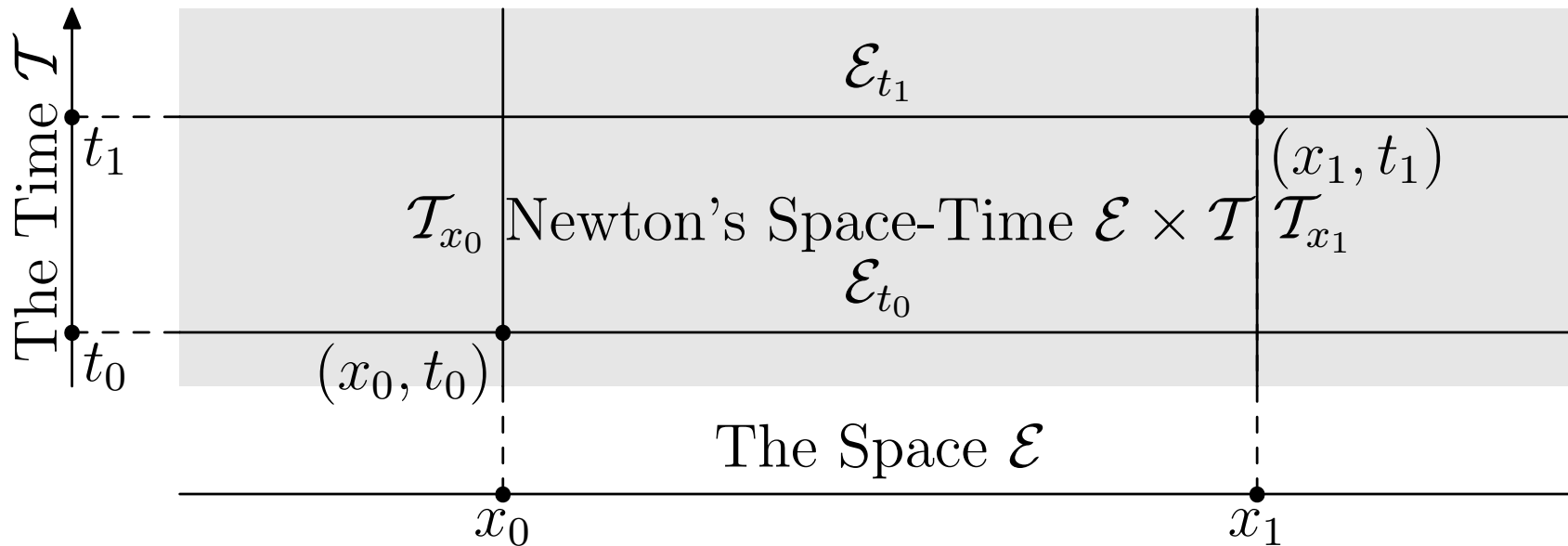
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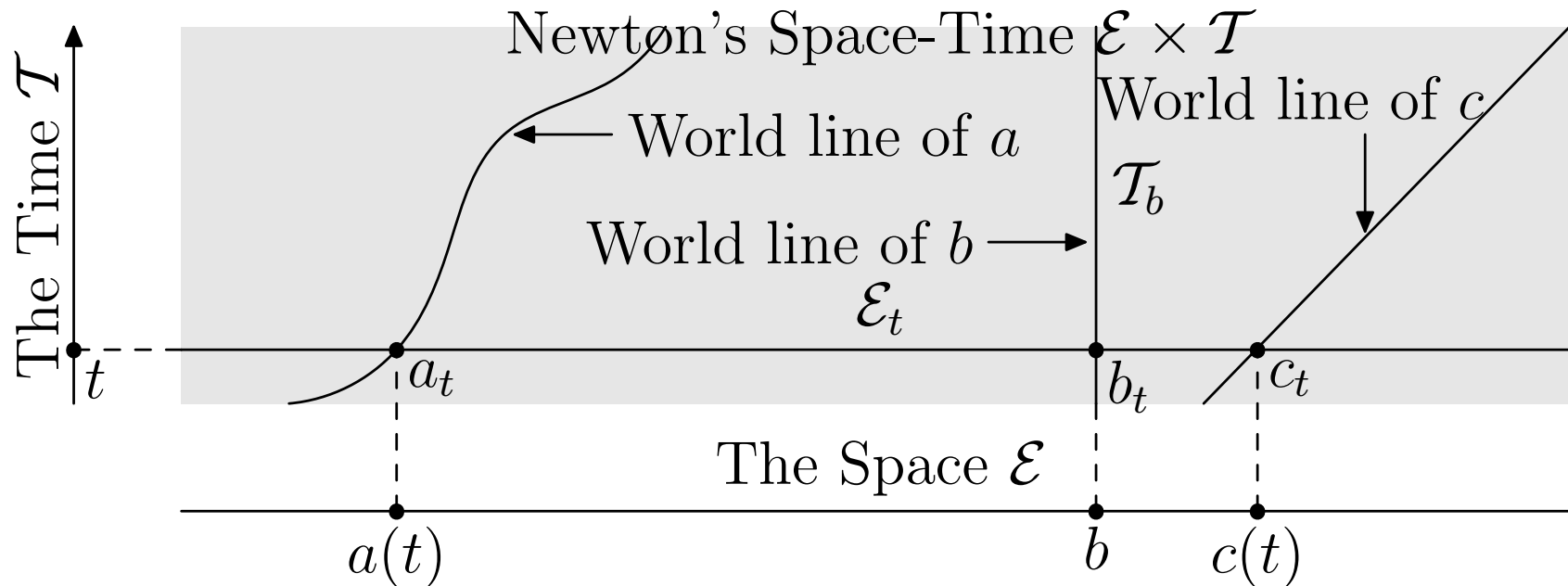


Newton's Space-Time (2)

Space-Time is very convenient to describe motions. For example, the motion of a material particle A is described by a line in $\mathcal{E} \times \mathcal{T}$, made by the events (A_t, t) , for all t in the interval of time during which A exists. That line is called the **world line** of A .

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Absolute rest and motion

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— Because nothing is at rest in the Universe! The Earth rotates around its axis and around the Sun, which rotates around the center of our Galaxy. And there are billions of galaxies in the Universe, each one moving with respect to any other one. For these reasons, Newton's concept of an absolute Space was criticized very early, notably by his contemporary, the great mathematician and philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1647–1716).

Reference frames

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- But without knowing what is at rest in the Universe, how Newton managed to study the motions of the planets?
- He used a **reference frame**. It means that he used a body R which remained approximately rigid during the motion he wanted to study, and he made as if that body was at rest. Then he could study the **relative motion** of any moving body A with respect to R .

Galilean (or inertial) frames

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That principle remains true for the **relative motion** of a free particle with respect to all reference frames determined by rigid bodies whose absolute motion is a translation at a constant velocity. These reference frames are the **Galilean frames**. No measurement founded on mechanical properties can distinguish the absolute frame from another Galilean frame.

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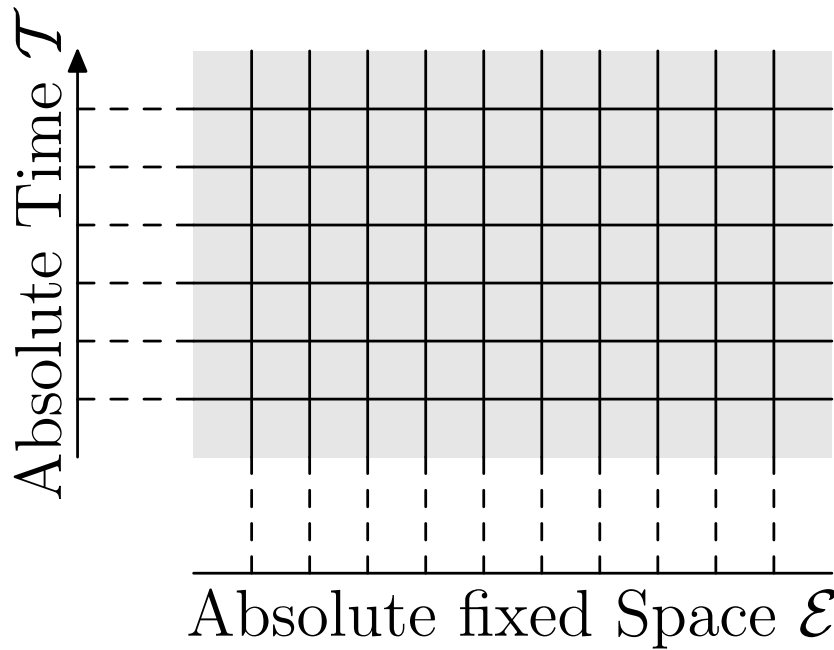
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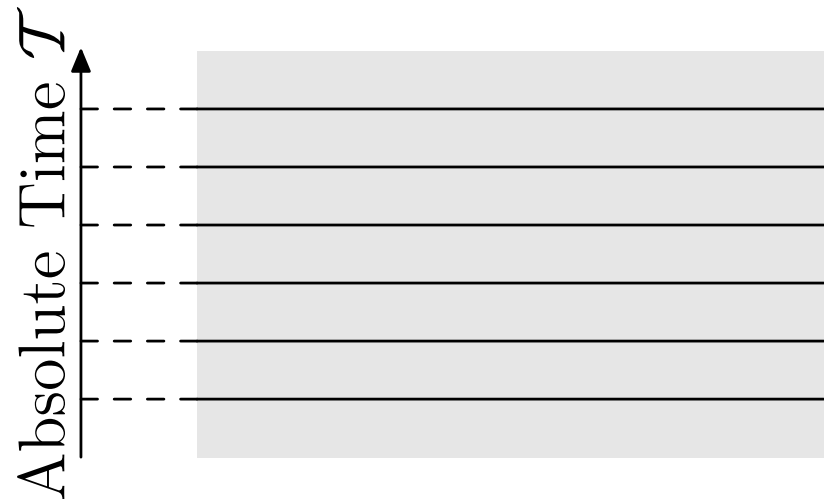
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Leibniz Space-Time, which will be denoted by \mathcal{U} (for Universe), is the disjoint union of all the Spaces at time $t \in \mathcal{E}_t$, for all $t \in \mathcal{T}$. So, according to Leibniz views, we still have a Space-Time, but no more an absolute space !

Leibniz Space-Time (2)



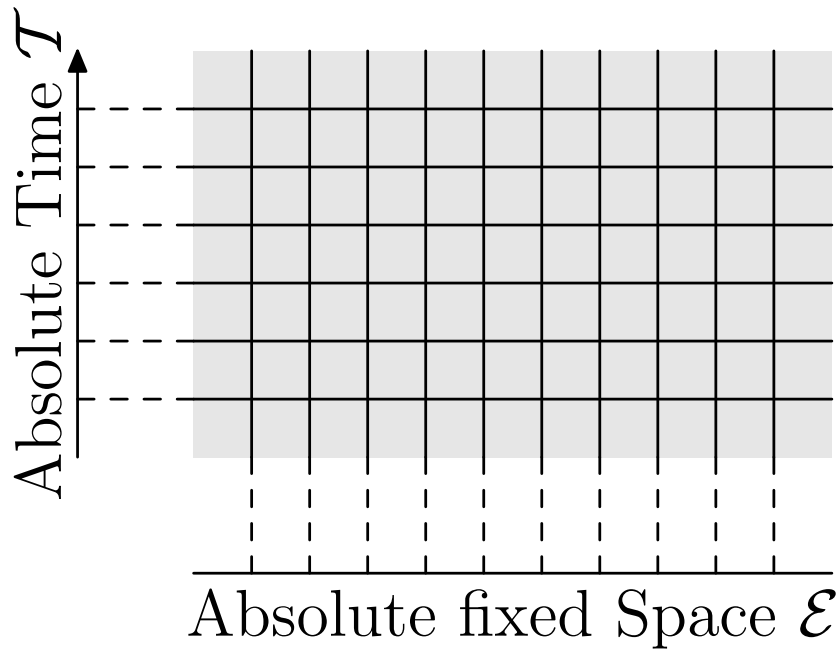
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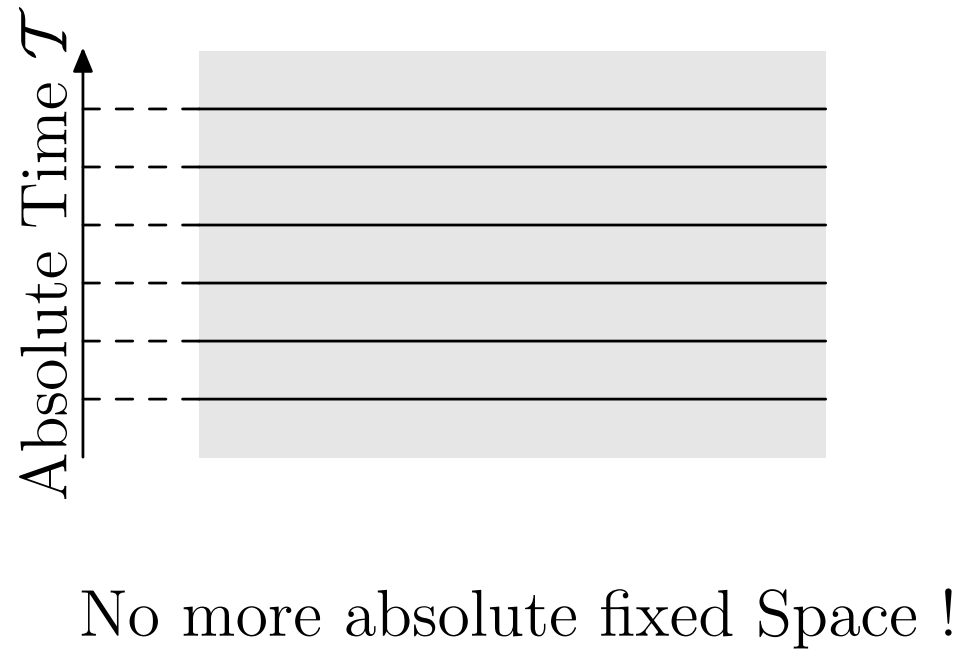
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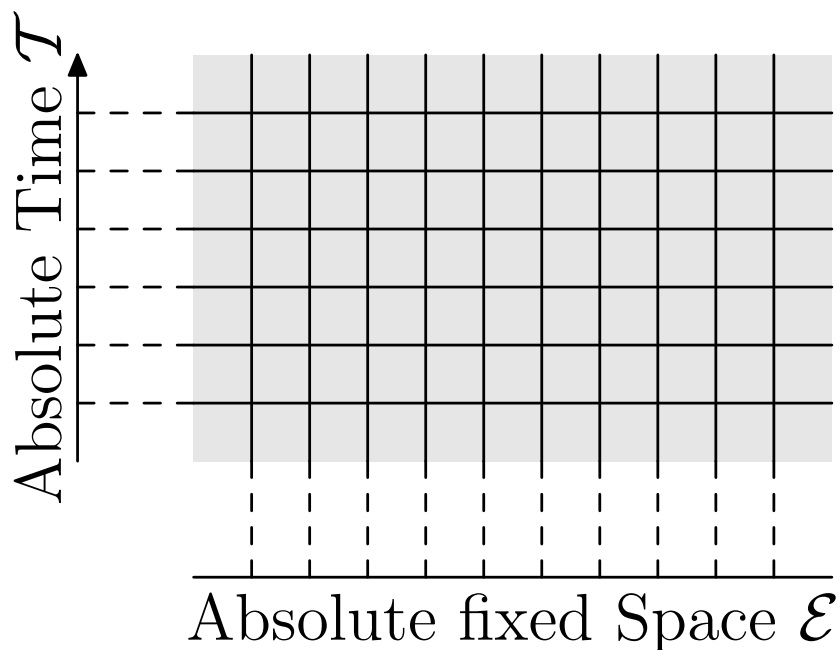
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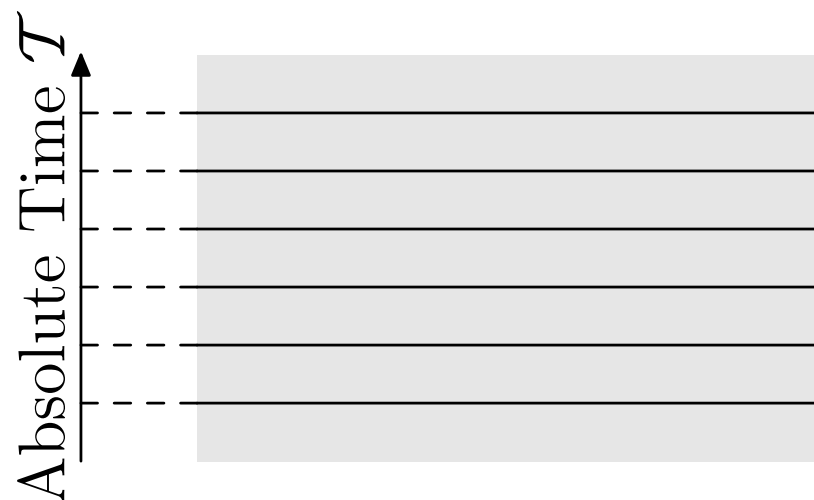
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— But how do you put together the Spaces at various times \mathcal{E}_t to make Leibniz Space-Time \mathcal{U} ? Are they stacked in an arbitrary way?

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— But how do you put together the Spaces at various times \mathcal{E}_t to make Leibniz Space-Time \mathcal{U} ? Are they stacked in an arbitrary way?

— Of course no! The way in which they are stacked is not arbitrary, it is determined by the principle of inertia.

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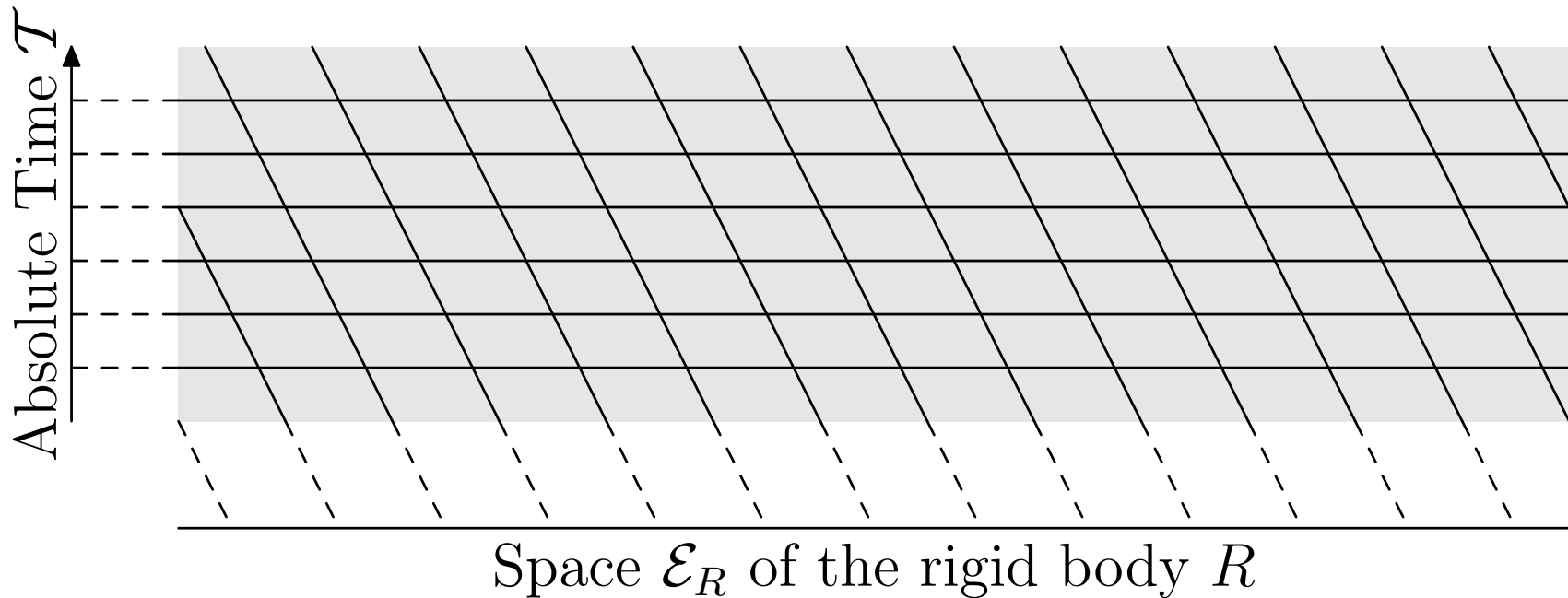
So formulated, the principle of inertia **determines** the affine structure of \mathcal{U} . A physical law, the **principle of inertia**, is so embedded in the geometry of Leibniz Space-Time \mathcal{U} !

Leibniz Space-Time (4)

By using a reference frame, one can split Leibniz Space-Time into a product of two factors: a space \mathcal{E}_R , fixed with respect to that frame, and the absolute Time \mathcal{T} .

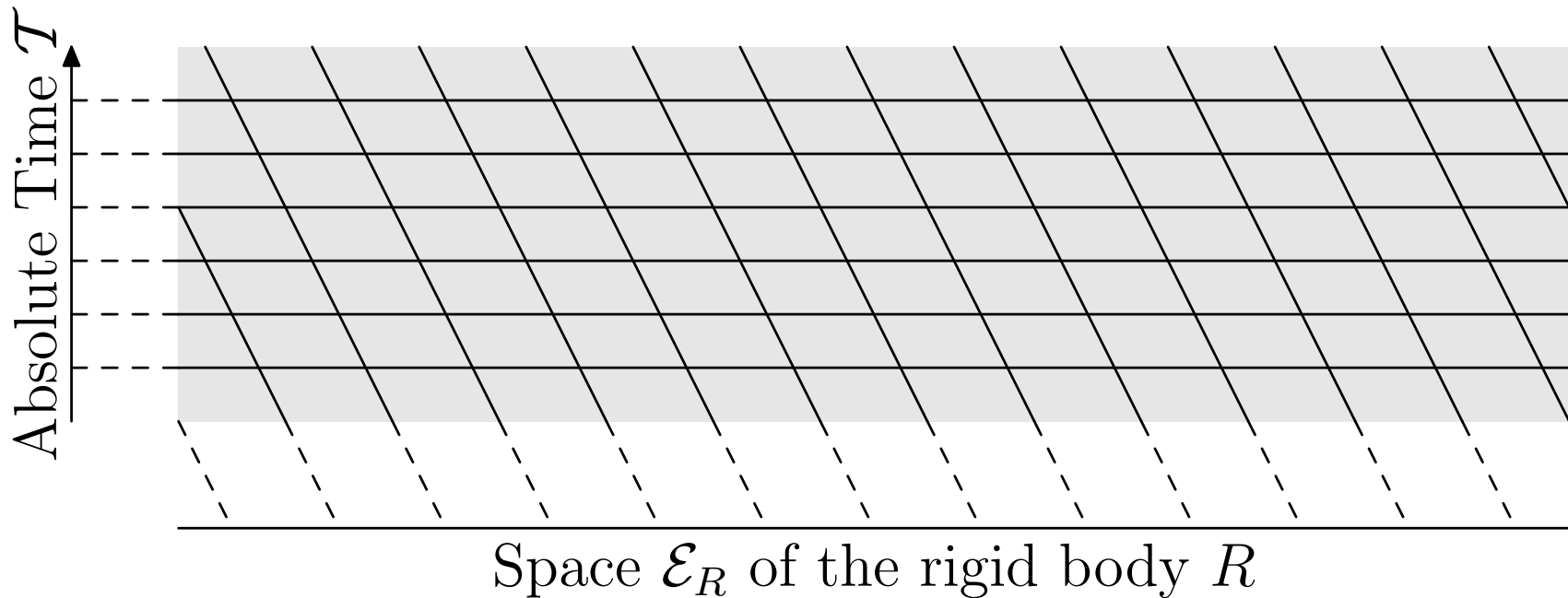
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But of course, the space \mathcal{E}_R depends on the choice of the reference frame \mathcal{R} .

Light and Electromagnetism

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According to the theory built by the great Scotch physicist James Clerk Maxwell (1831–1879), electromagnetic phenomena propagate in vacuum as waves, with the same velocity in all directions, independently of the motion of the source of these phenomena. Maxwell soon understood that light was an electromagnetic wave, and lots of experimental results confirmed his views.

The luminiferous ether

In Leibniz Space-Time (as well as in Newton's Space-Time) **relative velocities behave additively**. In that setting, it is with respect to **at most one particular reference frame** that light can propagate with the same velocity in all directions. Physicists introduced a new hypothesis: electromagnetic waves were considered as vibrations of an hypothetical, very subtle, but highly rigid medium called the **luminiferous ether**. They thought that it was with respect to the ether's reference frame that light propagates at the same velocity in all directions. This amounts to come back to Newton's absolute Space identified with the ether. There were even physicists who introduced additional complications, by assuming that the ether, partially drawn by the motion of moving bodies, could deform with time!

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These results remained not understood until 1905, despite many attempts.

No more absolute Time!

Einstein was the first ^a to understand that Michelson and Morley experiments could be explained by a deep change of the properties attributed to Space and Time. In 1905, his idea appeared as truly revolutionary. But now it may appear as rather natural, if we think along the following lines:

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When we dropped Newton's Space-Time in favour of Leibniz Space-Time, we recognized that there is no absolute Space, but that Space depends on the choice of a reference frame. **Maybe Time too is no more absolute than Space, and depends on the choice of a reference frame!**

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Light cones

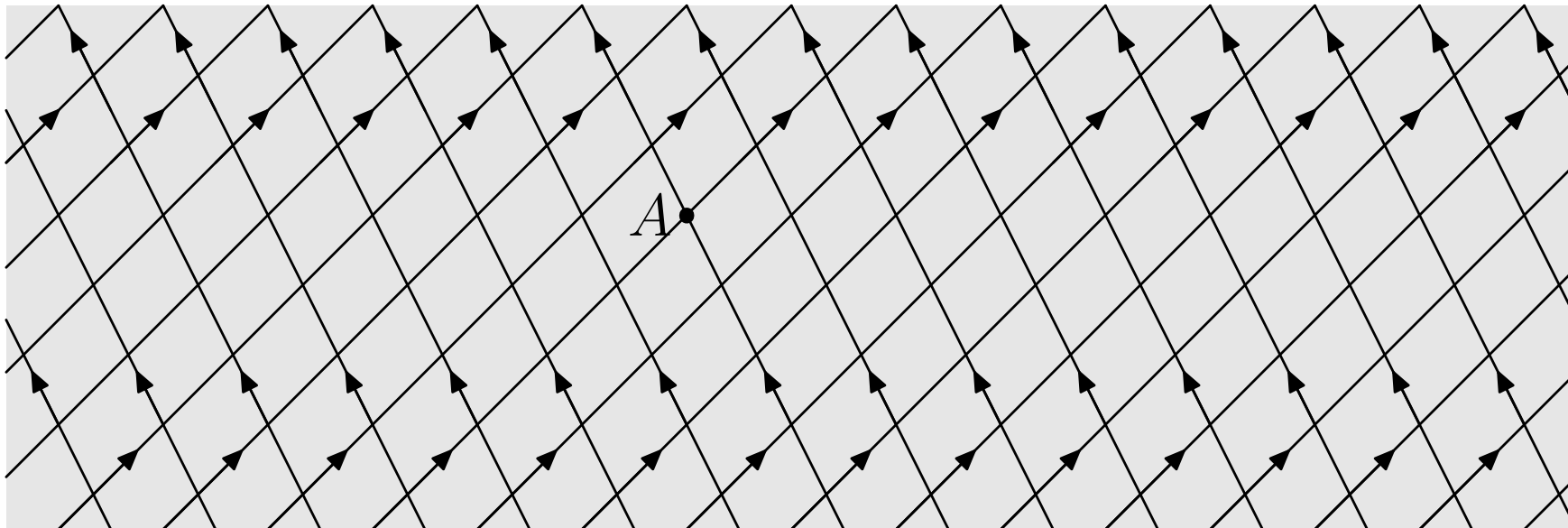
Let us call **light lines** the straight lines in \mathcal{M} which are possible world lines of light signals.

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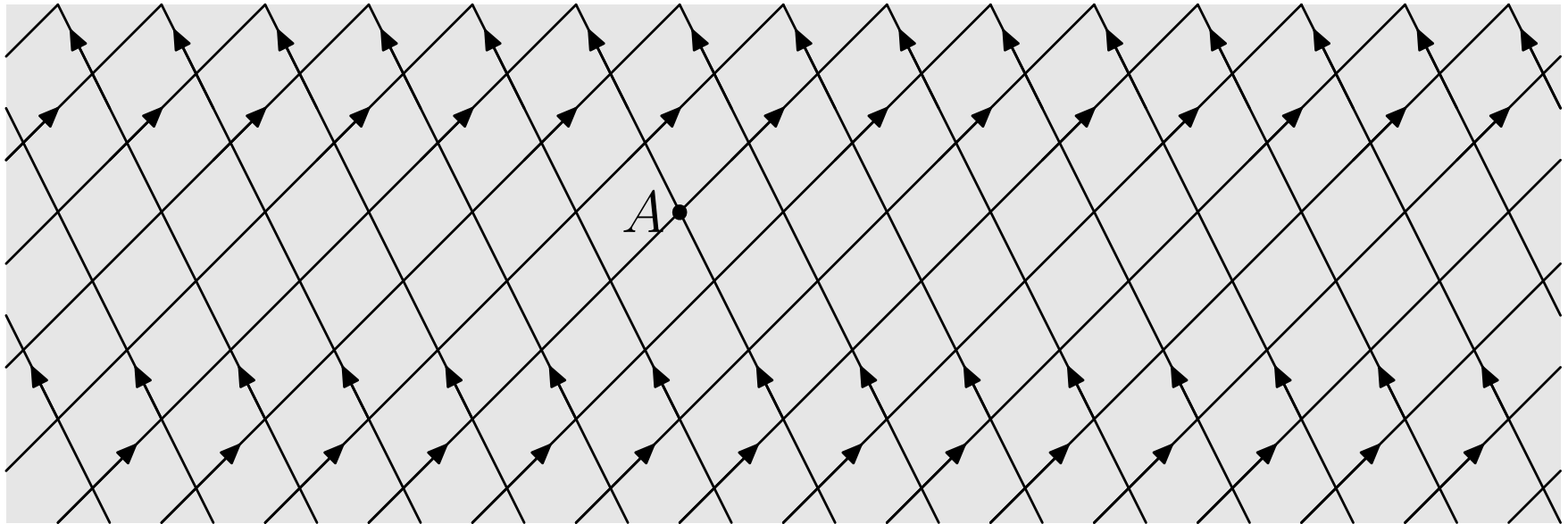
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Given an event $A \in \mathcal{M}$, the light lines through A make a 3-dimensional cone, the **light cone with apex A** ; the two layers of that cone are called **the past half-cone** and **the future half-cone** with apex A .

Light cones, time-like and space-like lines

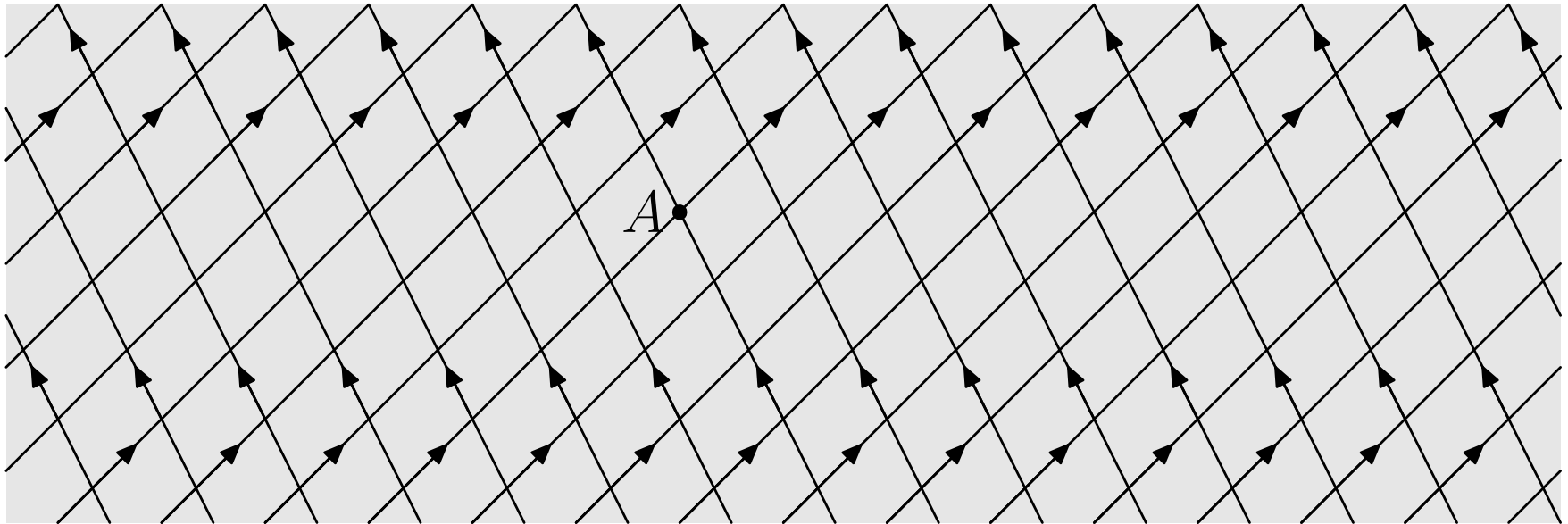


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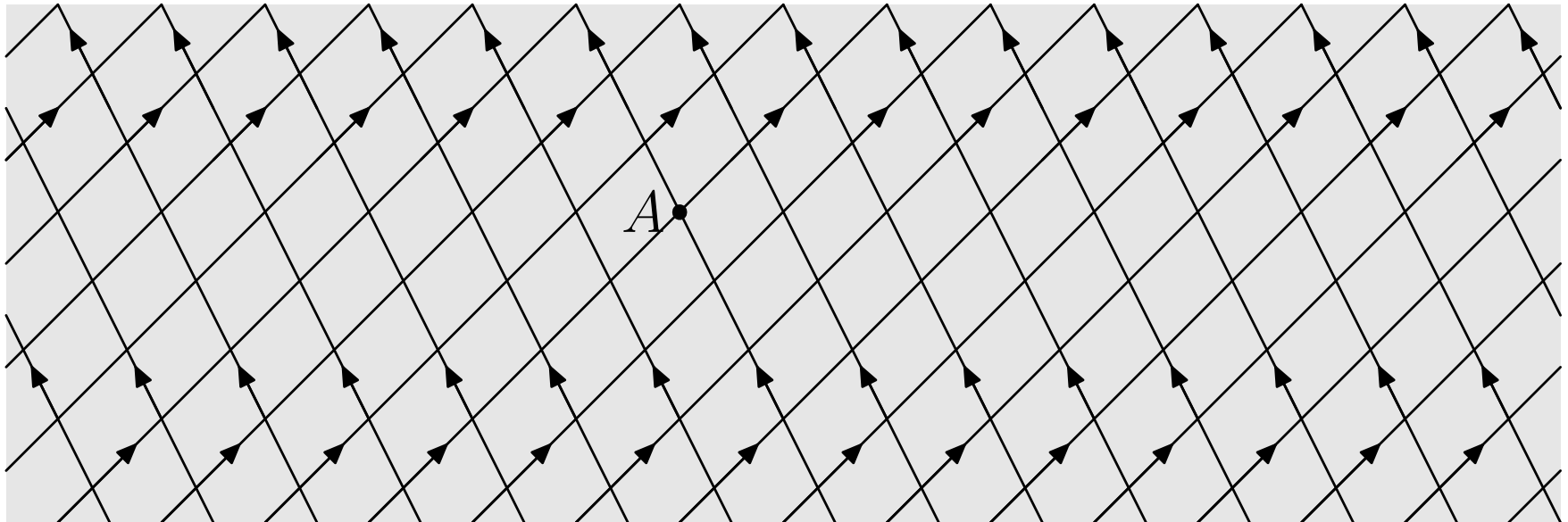
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Only directions of **time-like straight lines** determine a Galilean frame.

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— You said that a direction of straight line was enough to determine a Galilean frame. But how is that possible, since we no more have an absolute Time?

Isochronous subspaces

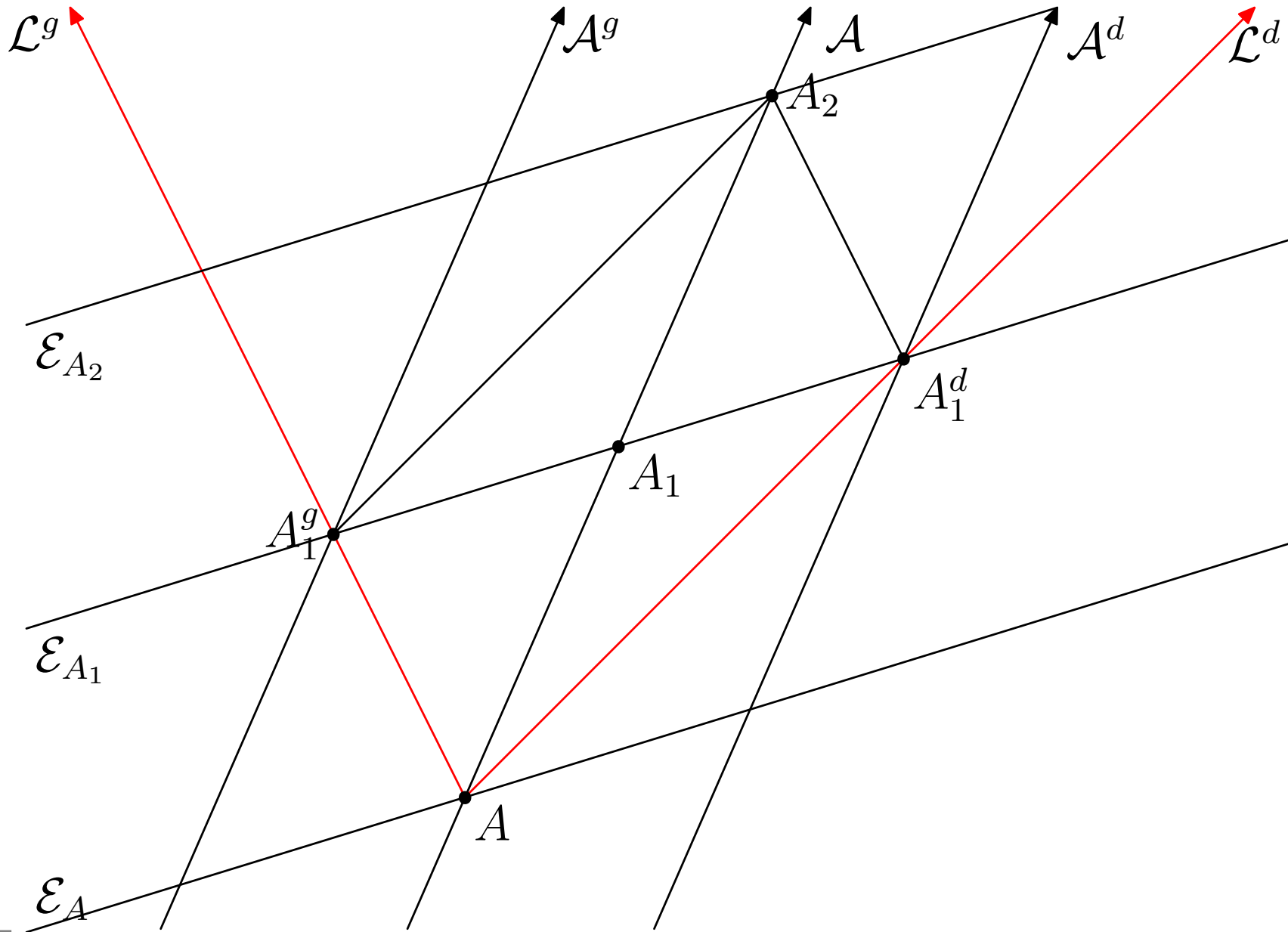
Let \mathcal{A} be a time-like straight line. We want to determine the **isochronous subspaces** for the Galilean frame determined by the direction of \mathcal{A} . They must be such that the length covered by a light signal, calculated in that reference frame, during a given time interval, also evaluated in that reference frame, **is the same in any two opposite directions.**

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In a schematic 2-dimensional Space-Time, the direction of isochronous subspaces is easily obtained as shown on the following picture, by using the theorem which says that the diagonals of a parallelogram meet at their middle point!

Isochronous subspaces (2)



Isochronous subspaces (3)

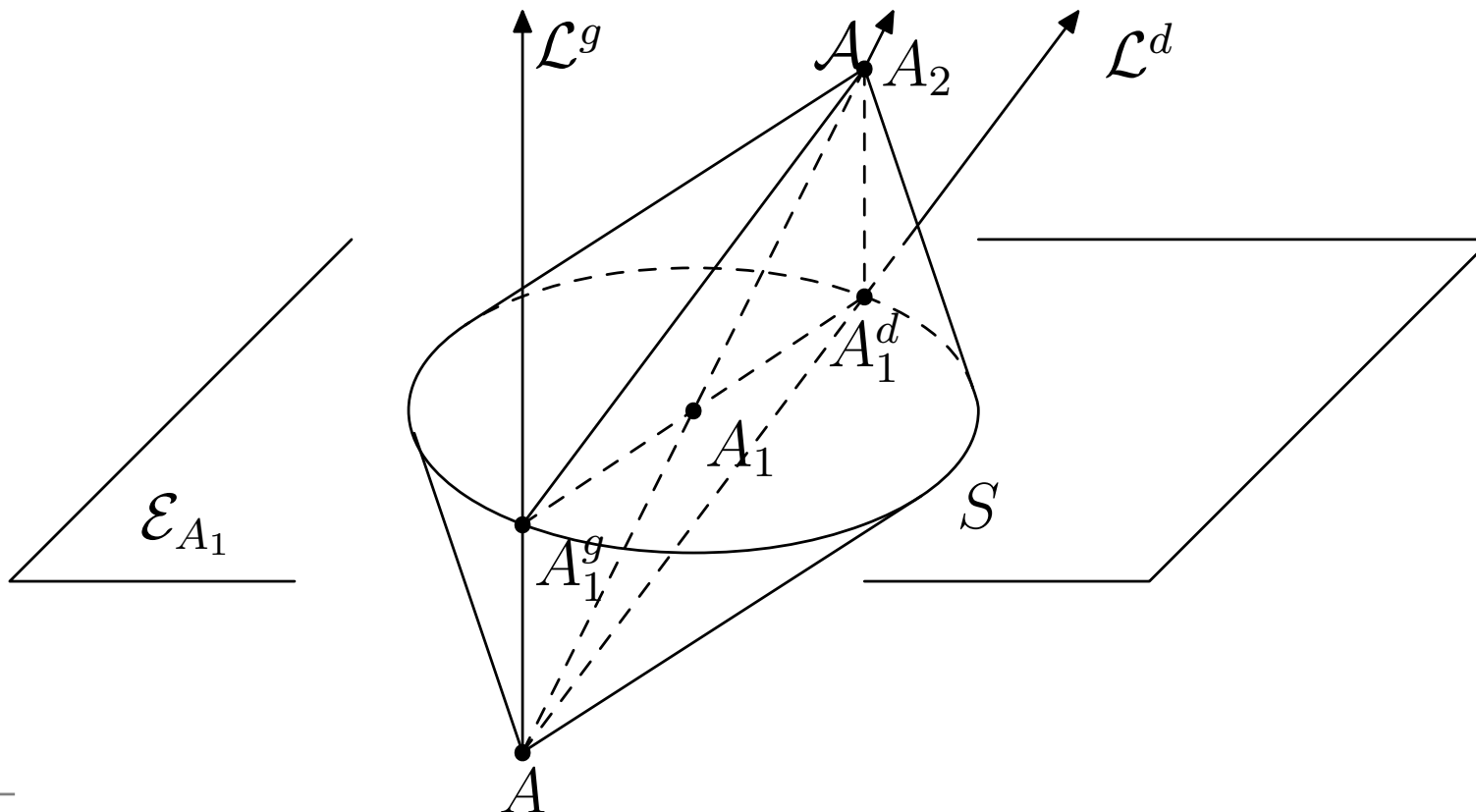
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Change of Galilean frame

- What happens if you change your Galilean frame?

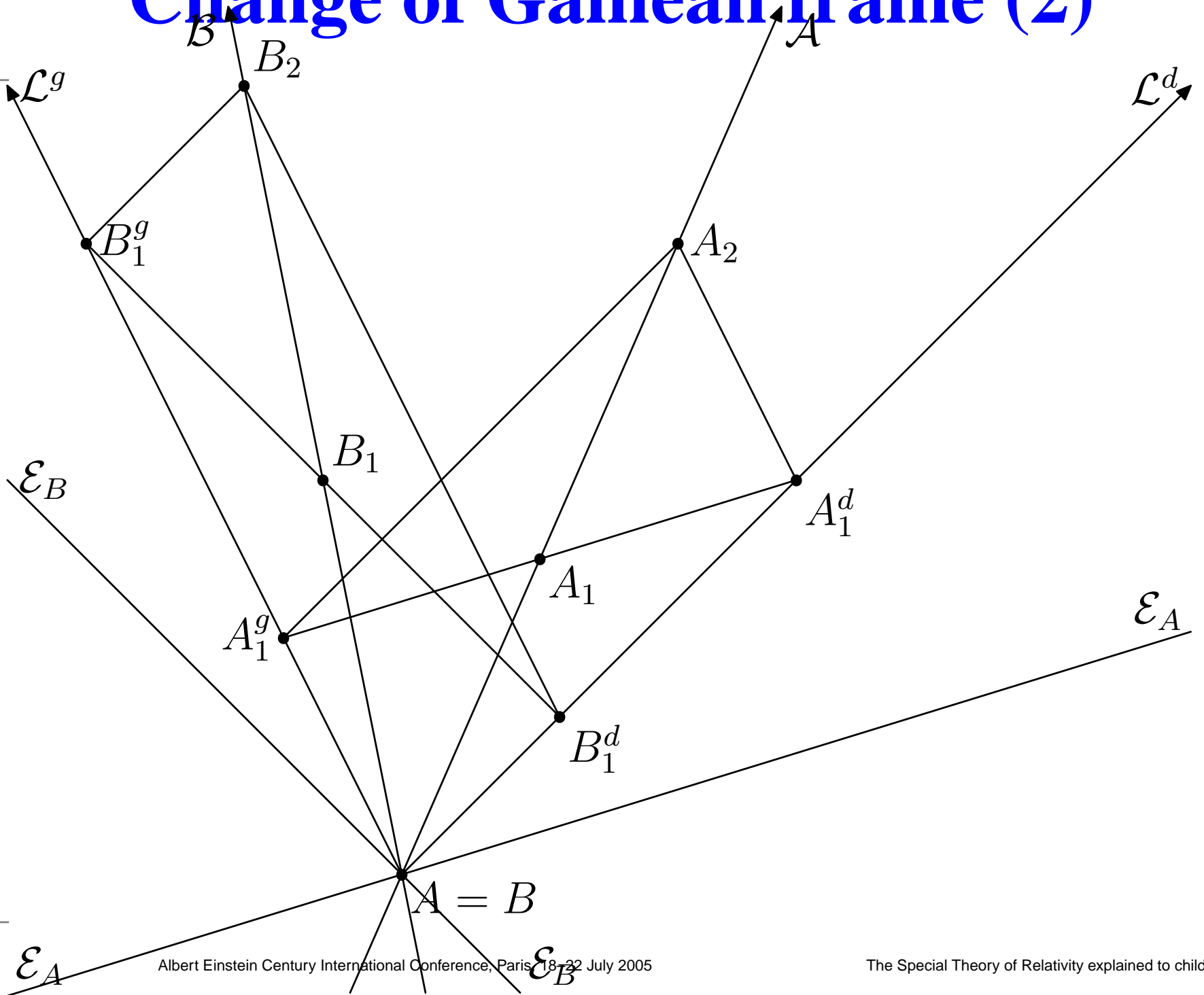
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- Of course, as for Galilean frames in Leibniz Space-Time, the direction of the (straight) world lines of points at rest with respect to the Galilean frame is changed. Moreover, contrary to what happened in Leibniz Space-Time, the direction isochronous subspaces is also changed! Therefore, the chronological order of two events can be different when it is appreciated in two different Galilean frames!

Change of Galilean frame (2)



Comparison of time intervals

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We need more, because by using identical clocks, time intervals measured in two different Galilean frames can be compared.

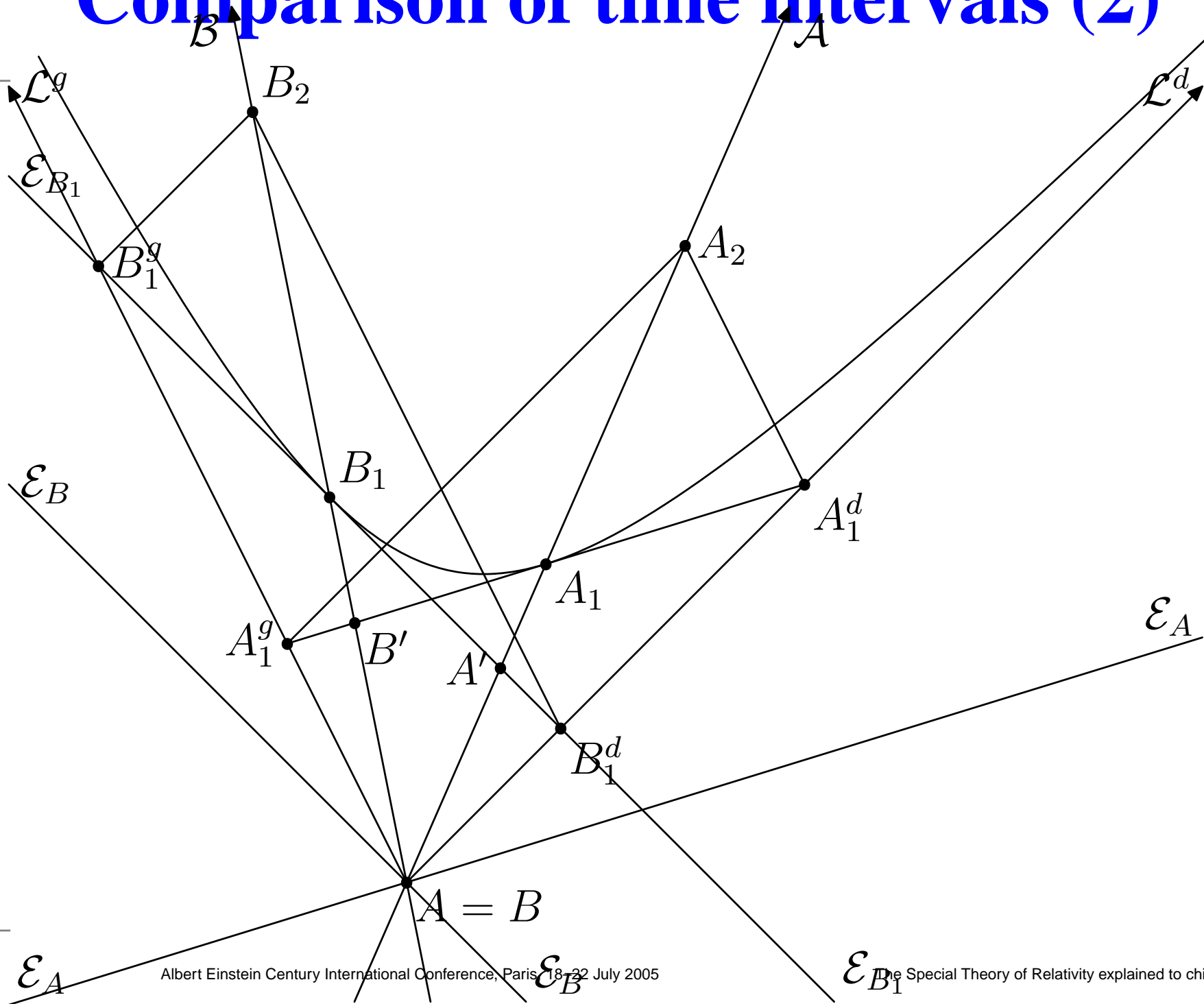
Comparison of time intervals

Up to now, we have compared the lengths of two straight line segments in \mathcal{M} only when they were supported by parallel straight lines. That was allowed by the **affine structure** of \mathcal{M} .

We need more, because by using identical clocks, time intervals measured in two different Galilean frames can be compared.

Two line segments AA_1 and AB_1 supported by two different time-like straight lines \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} are equal (when each one is measured in its own Galilean frame) **if and only if the events A_1 and B_1 lie on the same arc of hyperbola which has the light lines \mathcal{L}^d and \mathcal{L}^g as asymptotes.**

Comparison of time intervals (2)



Comparison of time intervals (3)

That follows from the equality, which says that the apparent dilation of times is the same for each Galilean frame with respect to the other,

$$\frac{A A_1}{A A'} = \frac{A B_1}{A B'} .$$

Comparison of lengths

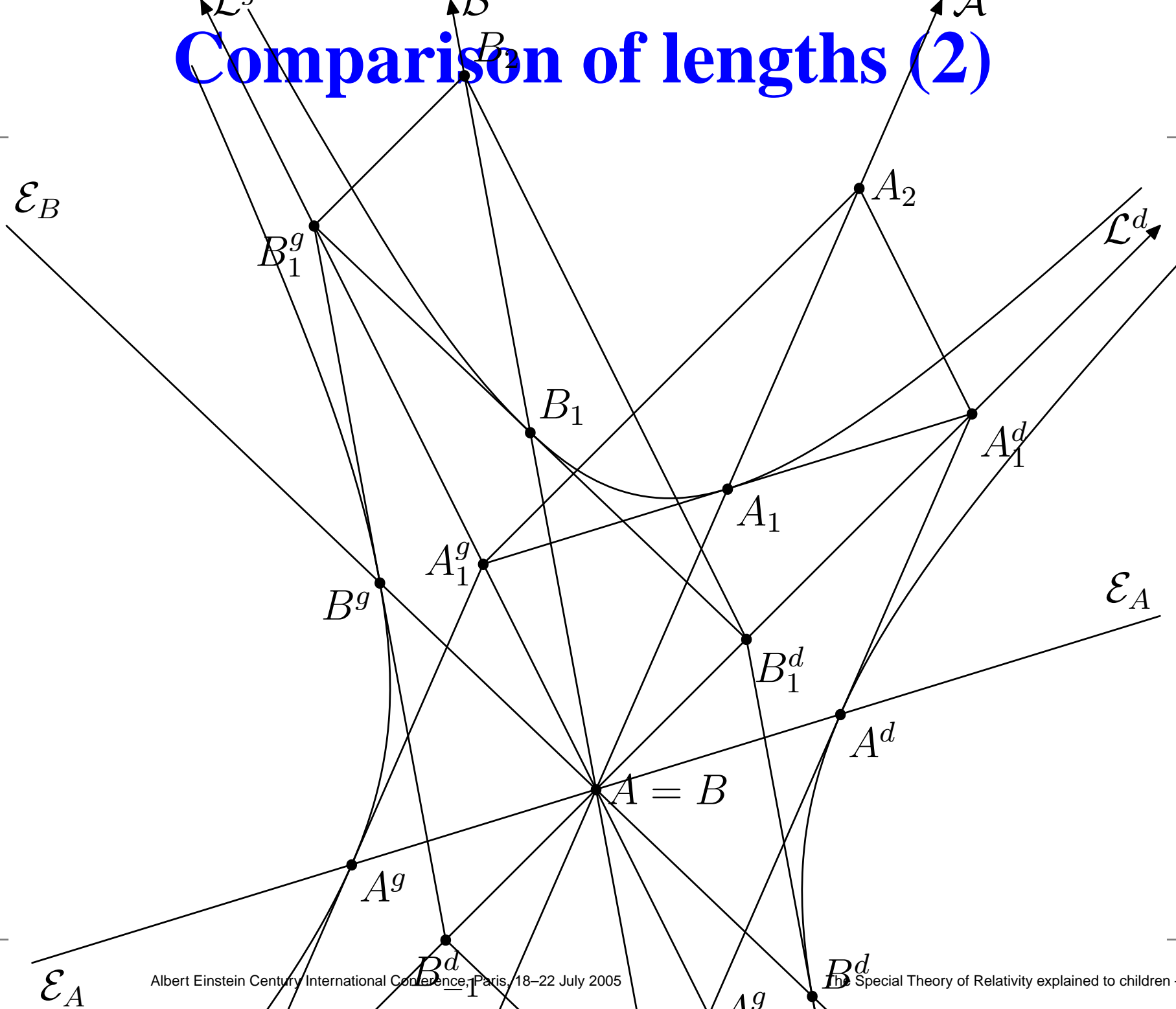
The comparison of lengths on two non-parallel space-like straight lines follows from the comparison of time intervals: the natural measure of a segment on a space-like straight line is the time taken by a light signal to cover that length, measured in a Galilean frame in which that segment lays in an isochronous subspace.

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The comparison of lengths on two non-parallel space-like straight lines follows from the comparison of time intervals: the natural measure of a segment on a space-like straight line is the time taken by a light signal to cover that length, measured in a Galilean frame in which that segment lays in an isochronous subspace.

Two line segments AA^d and AB^d supported by two space-like straight lines \mathcal{E}_A et \mathcal{E}_B , are of equal length **if and only if A^d and B^d lie on the same hyperboloid with the light cone of A as asymptotic cone.**

Comparison of lengths (2)



Conclusion

The comparison of time intervals and lengths presented above, founded on very simple geometric arguments, allows a very natural introduction of the pseudo-Euclidean metric of Minkowski's Space-Time. The construction of isochronous subspaces in two different Galilean frames leads to the formulas for Lorentz transformations with a minimum of calculations.

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The pictures above allow a very easy explanation of the apparent contraction of lengths and dilation of times associated to a change of Galilean frame.

Conclusion (2)

Given two events, with one in the future of the other, the straight line is the **longest time-like path** (when measured in proper time) which joins these two events. That property leads to a very simple explanation, without complicated calculations, of the (improperly called) paradox of Langevin's twins.

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By explaining that the affine structure of Space-Time should be questioned, by speaking about the gravity force and the equivalence principle, a smooth transition towards General Relativity, suitable from children 8 to 108 years old, seems possible.