Time Dilation as a Real Effect

Muon detection experiment

Muons are elementary particles with the following properties:

- (1) Created in upper atmosphere at altitudes of about 9000 meters.
- (2) Average life span is $2 \times 10^{-6}s = 2ms$ (*note*: ms = "millisecond")
- (3) Typical speed is 0.998*c*

So we would expect that they could only travel at most

 $0.998c \times (2 \times 10^{-6}s) \approx 600m$

But they can be observed at ground level.

<u>*Why?*</u> In the rest frame of the Earth, the lifespan of a traveling muon experiences time dilation:

 $t = \gamma t'$ t = lifespan of muon with respect to Eartht' = lifespan of traveling muon

where the dilation factor γ is given by

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (0.998c)^2/c^2}} \approx 15$$

- <u>So</u>: In the Earth's reference frame, a typical muon lives on the average $(2 \times 15)ms = 30ms$.
- <u>*So*</u>: With respect to the Earth, a typical muon can travel $0.998c \times 30ms \approx 9000m$.
- <u>So</u>: Special relativity predicts we should be able to observe muons at ground level, and we do.

<u>Note</u>: In the traveling muon's reference frame, it is at rest and the Earth is rushing up to meet it at 0.998*c*. The distance between it and the Earth thus is shorter than 9000*m* by length contraction. With respect to the muon, this distance is 9000m/15 = 600m.



Pragmatics of Space Travel

Let's investigate how time dilation effects space travel.

First, note that the time dilation formula is *only* for inertial reference frames:



What about a rocket that accelerates away from the earth?



Here we use τ instead of t' just to indicate that the moving clock's worldline is curved. For such an *accelerating* clock, $t \neq \gamma \tau$.

<u>BUT:</u> We can look at very small (infinitesimal) *t*-intervals dt and τ -intervals $d\tau$. If they are small enough, they will be effectively "straight" and so be related by



To relate the *t*-time between events *A* and *P* to the τ -time between them, we now sum all the infinitesimal pieces *dt* that correspond to *d* τ pieces between *A* and *P*:

where $\gamma(\tau) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v(\tau)^2}{c^2}}}$ and $v(\tau)$ is $\frac{1}{\text{slope}}$ of the τ -clock's worldline at value τ .

We can now decide on the "shape" of the rocket's trajectory; *i.e.*, how much acceleration we want to give it. Let's accelerate it at constant acceleration $g = 9.8m/s^2$. This is the acceleration due to gravity on the Earth (so the astronaut will feel comfortable). So the velocity $v(\tau)$ of the rocket is changing at a constant rate. Note that, from the Earth's perspective, we can't simply add on the changes to $v(\tau)$ --we have to be careful about velocity composition. Given this care (see technical derivation on next page), the solution to the integral for t is:

$$t = \frac{c}{2g} \left(e^{g\tau/c} - e^{-g\tau/c} \right)$$

We can now use this formula to relate Earth time t to rocket time τ . To do this, we will make a simplifying approximation. First note that for large τ , the first exponential $e^{g\tau/c}$ dominates the second $e^{-g\tau/c}$ (which is just $1/e^{g\tau/c}$). In other words, as we increase τ , $e^{g\tau/c}$ gets larger and larger, while $e^{-g\tau/c}$ gets correspondingly smaller and smaller. So let's restrict ourselves to large values of τ (*i.e.*, very long rocket trips), thereby letting us drop the second exponential. Let's also use units in which time is measured in years, and distance in light-years (so c = 1, and, if you work it out, g = 1.03c/yr). Our formula for t is now:

$$t \approx \frac{e^{g\tau}}{2g}$$
 Earth time *t* versus rocket time τ , for large values of τ and $g = 1.03c/yr$

The formula for the *x*-coordinate of the Earth is the same (see technical derivation on next page for details). The *x*-coordinate gives the distance traveled by the rocket with respect to the Earth. Here are some sample values:

Rocket time τ	<u>Earth time <i>t</i></u>	Distance <i>x</i> of rocket from Earth
1 <i>yr</i>	1.18 yr	0.56 light-yr
5 <i>yr</i>	83.7 yr	82.7 light-yr
10 <i>yr</i>	14, 433 yr	14, 432 light-yr
25 yr	$7.4 imes 10^{10} yr$	$7.4 imes 10^{10}$ light-yr

<u>Technical derivation of formula for Earth time t</u>

The rocket's speed $v(\tau)$ is being constantly "boosted" by a fixed amount g. This boosting is not simply a matter of adding amounts onto $v(\tau)$ in a linear manner, so we shouldn't just set $v(\tau) = g\tau$. Recall that velocities cannot be simply added together. What can be added together is a quantity called the rapidity r that is related to the velocity v by:

$$v = c \tanh\left(\frac{r}{c}\right)$$

The hyperbolic tangent function tanh(x) ranges from -1 to +1. The formula thus guarantees that the velocity v can only vary from -c (when r = -c) to +c (when r = c). While velocities cannot be simply added together, rapidities can. If r' is the rapidity associated with the velocity v', then the combined rapidity r'' is the sum r'' = r + r', which follows from the identity

$$\tanh(x+y) = \frac{\tanh(x) + \tanh(y)}{1 + \tanh(x) \tanh(y)}$$

The upshot of this is that the rapidity r of the rocket is linearly increasing by the formula $r = g\tau$. Now note that, from the definition of r above, it follows that

$$\gamma = \cosh\left(\frac{r}{c}\right)$$

(You can get this from the identities tanh(x) = sinh(x)/cosh(x) and $cosh^2(x) - sinh^2(x) = 1$.) So our integral for *t* becomes

$$t = \int \cosh\left(\frac{g\tau}{c}\right) d\tau$$

And the solution to this integral is

$$t = \frac{c}{g} \sinh\left(\frac{g\tau}{c}\right) = \frac{c}{2g} \left(e^{g\tau/c} - e^{-g\tau/c}\right)$$

<u>Note</u>: The formula for the *x*-coordinate of the Earth can be obtained in a similar manner. (This gives the distance of the trip with respect to the Earth.) We know that $x = vt = \int v\gamma d\tau$. From the definition of the rapidity above, it can also be shown that $\gamma = (c/v)\sinh(r/c)$. So:

$$x = c \int \sinh\left(\frac{g\tau}{c}\right) d\tau = \frac{c^2}{g} \cosh\left(\frac{g\tau}{c}\right) = \frac{c^2}{2g} \left(e^{g\tau/c} + e^{-g\tau/c}\right)$$

For large values of τ , and in units in which c = 1, the formulas for t and x are the same (we can disregard the second exponential). When τ is small, t and x will differ.