

Einstein's postulates

Relativity: review

Doppler shift

Hubble constant

Special relativity: two frames with velocity difference (general relativity deals with large acceleration differences). Postulates:

- 1 The laws of physics are the same in all inertial reference frames.
- 2 The speed of light in free space has the same value $c = 1/\sqrt{\mu_0\epsilon_0}$ in all inertial reference frames.

If the only way we can compare measurements between two different frames is by signals traveling at the speed of light, we need to modify frame transformations.

Lorentz transformation

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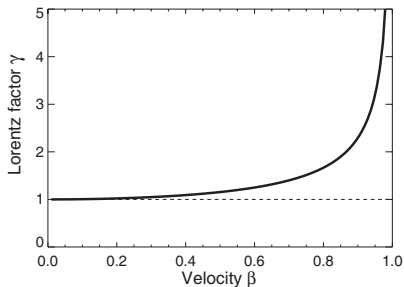
Net transformation between coordinate systems is

$$x_2 = \gamma(x_1 - vt_1) \quad (1)$$

$$y_2 = y_1 \quad \text{and} \quad z_2 = z_1 \quad (2)$$

$$t_2 = \gamma \left(t_1 - \frac{\beta}{c} x_1 \right) \quad (3)$$

$$\text{with } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta \equiv v/c. \quad (4)$$



Consequences

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- Clocks in other frames appear to us to run slow. Time dilation: $t' = \gamma t_0$.
- Meter sticks in other frames appear to us to be shorter. Length contraction: $\ell' = \ell_0/\gamma$.
- Velocity transformations:

$$v_{2,x} = \frac{v_{1,x} - v}{1 - \frac{v v_{1,x}}{c^2}} \quad (5)$$

$$v_{2,y} = \frac{v_{1,y}}{\gamma \left[1 - \frac{v v_{1,x}}{c^2} \right]} \quad (6)$$

$$v_{2,z} = \frac{v_{1,z}}{\gamma \left[1 - \frac{v v_{1,x}}{c^2} \right]} \quad (7)$$

Classical Doppler shift

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Doppler shift

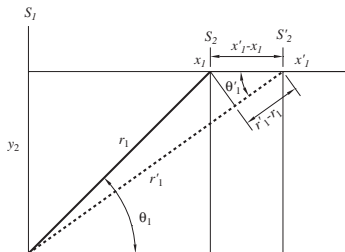
Hubble constant

Consider a source emitting sound at a frequency ν_0 . The sound travels in a medium at a velocity c . If source is moving at a velocity v relative to the medium such that $\beta = v/c$, the frequency observed by an observer at rest relative to medium is

$$\nu' = \nu_0 \left(\frac{1}{1 + \beta \cos \theta} \right) \quad (8)$$

Relativistic Doppler shift I

- Observer at rest in S_1 . Source in frame S_2 at speed v in \hat{x} direction.
- Emitter is stationary in frame S_2 , so $x'_2 = x_2$ and we can set both to zero.
- All agree on $y_1 = y'_1 = y_2$.
- “Crests” of the electric field are emitted in frame S_2 at the times t_2 and t'_2 , giving a period of $T_2 = t'_2 - t_2 = 1/\nu_2$.
- In frame S_1 , the electric field crests are emitted at $t_1 = \gamma t_2$ and $t'_1 = \gamma t'_2$.



Relativistic Doppler shift II

- Observer in S_1 also has to wait for crests to reach observation point. This adds in time delays of r_1/c and r'_1/c , respectively.
- Time difference between crests as perceived by observer in S_1 is thus

$$T_1 = (t'_1 - t_1) + \left(\frac{r'_1}{c} - \frac{r_1}{c}\right) = \gamma(t'_2 - t_2) + \frac{r'_1 - r_1}{c} \quad (9)$$

or

$$T_1 = \gamma T_2 + (r'_1 - r_1)/c. \quad (10)$$

- From Eq. 1, position shift perceived by stationary observer in S_1 is

$$x'_1 - x_1 = \gamma \left((x'_2 - x_2) + v(t'_2 - t_2) \right) = \gamma v T_2 \quad (11)$$

since $x'_2 = x_2 = 0$.

Relativistic Doppler shift III

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Doppler shift

Hubble constant

- Now $c = \lambda/T$, so $vT_2 = (v/c)\lambda_2 = \beta\lambda_2$. Therefore to frame S_1 the source appears to move by $\gamma\beta\lambda_2$. As we shall see in Eq. 15 the wavelength observed in S_1 is approximately $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2/\gamma$, so even a very relativistic source ($\beta \rightarrow 1$) appears to move only by a wavelength λ . For a distant observer, $\theta'_1 \simeq \theta_1$.
- Radial distance difference $r'_1 - r_1$ is then

$$r'_1 - r_1 = (x'_1 - x_1) \cos \theta'_1 \simeq \gamma v T_2 \cos \theta_1. \quad (12)$$

- Now use Eq. 12 in Eq. 10 to give

$$T_1 = \gamma T_2 + (r'_1 - r_1)/c = \gamma T_2 + \gamma \beta T_2 \cos \theta_1 = \gamma T_2 [1 + \beta \cos \theta_1]. \quad (13)$$

Relativistic Doppler shift IV

- Take reciprocal to get the frequency:

$$\nu_1 = \frac{\nu_2}{\gamma[1 + \beta \cos \theta_1]} \quad \text{or} \quad \nu' = \frac{\nu_0}{\gamma(1 + \beta \cos \theta)} \quad (14)$$

- Also since $\lambda = cT$, we have

$$\lambda_1 = \gamma \lambda_2 [1 + \beta \cos \theta_1] \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda' = \lambda_0 \gamma (1 + \beta \cos \theta) \quad (15)$$

or a red-shift in wavelength ($\theta = 0$ corresponds to receding).

- These are the general results for the relativistic Doppler shift. Recall again that the classical Doppler shift (Eq. 8) for an observer at rest with respect to the medium, and a moving source, goes like

$$\nu' = \frac{\nu_0}{1 + \beta \cos \theta}$$

so the difference is a factor of γ . In a vacuum, there's no medium and one can't distinguish the case from the source stationary in the medium or the emitter stationary in the medium.

Relativistic Doppler shift V

- Again, we have

Relativistic:

$$\nu' = \frac{\nu_0}{\gamma(1 + \beta \cos \theta)}$$

Classical, observer stationary in medium: $\nu' = \frac{\nu_0}{1 + \beta \cos \theta}$

As you can see, the relativistic and classical cases differ by a factor of γ , and of course as $\beta \rightarrow 0$ then $\gamma \rightarrow 1$ so the **correspondence principle** is again demonstrated!

- As an example of how the relativistic and classical Doppler shifts differ, consider the case when $\theta = \pi/2$. In the classical Doppler shift, there is no shift; the relativistic result is

$$\nu'_{\text{source perpendicular}} = \frac{\nu_0}{\gamma}.$$

Relativistic Doppler shift VI

- When the source is moving straight towards the observer, we have $\theta_1 = \pi$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \nu'_{\text{source directly towards}} &= \frac{\nu_0}{\gamma(1 - \beta)} & (16) \\ &= \nu_0 \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \simeq \nu_0(1 + \beta) \text{ for } \beta \ll 1 \end{aligned}$$

- When the source is moving straight away from the observer, we have $\theta_1 = 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \nu'_{\text{source directly away}} &= \frac{\nu_0}{\gamma(1 + \beta)} & (17) \\ &= \nu_0 \sqrt{\frac{1 - \beta}{1 + \beta}} \simeq \nu_0(1 - \beta) \text{ for } \beta \ll 1 \end{aligned}$$

Relativistic Doppler joke

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Attributed to [Andrzej Kudlicki](#):

Question: What's the easiest way to observe Doppler's effect optically (not acoustically) in one's everyday life?

Answer: Go out in the evening and look at the cars. Their lights are white or yellow when they approach, but they are red when they are moving away of you.

Hubble constant

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- From measuring the relativistic Doppler redshift of common spectroscopic lines (like the hydrogen wavelengths we will learn about when we get to quantum mechanics) we can measure the recessional velocity of a distant star.
- If we think the star is like our sun, we can estimate the distance by comparing the light we receive relative to what we get from the sun.
- Eq. 17 lets you find the velocity from the frequency shift. Edwin Hubble in 1929, summarizing estimates of galaxy redshifts versus distance:

The results establish a roughly linear relation between velocities and distances among nebulae for which velocities have been previously published, and the relation appears to dominate the distribution of velocities.

Hubble's figure

Hubble's original paper is [here](#). Assuming $v = H_0x$, Hubble estimated $H_0 \simeq 500$ km/sec per megaparsec.

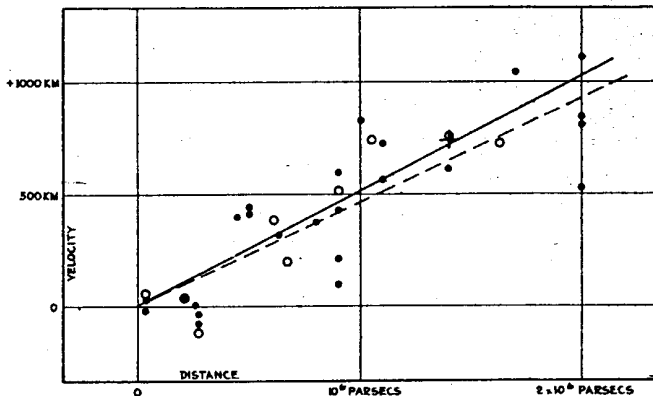


FIGURE 1

Note: 1 parsec=distance to an object which has a parallax of one arc second as viewed from Earth six months apart=3.261 light years= 3.086×10^{16} meters.

Hubble constant II

Relativity: review

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Hubble constant

- Hubble's value of $H_0 \simeq 500$ km/sec/MPC was way off from modern estimates of about 72 km/sec/MPC. One paper that discusses the history of H_0 estimates is [here](#).
- What does it mean? Since $v = \Delta x / \Delta t$ and $v = H_0 x$, we should think of $1/H_0$ as a time, in which case 70 km/sec/Mpc works out to 14 billion years.

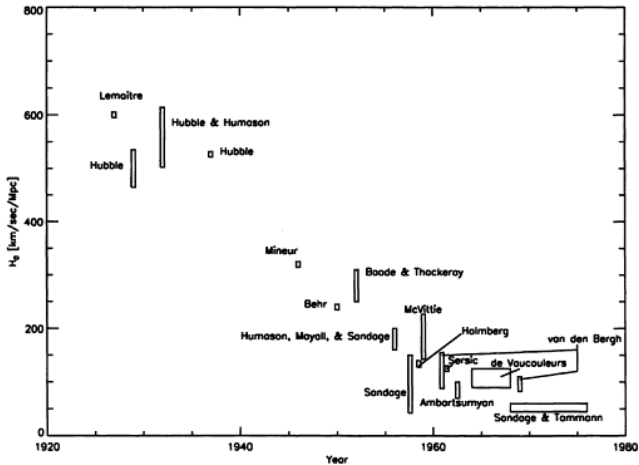
Hubble constant: improving estimates

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Here's the plot of how the measurements have been refined over time; this is from the [same paper as before](#):



Is Hubble's constant constant?

- Has the expansion rate of the universe been constant over time?
- Strategy: use Type Ia supernovæ as “standard candles” since their total radiation power should reach a fairly well defined peak.
- From measuring the amount of light we observe from such a “standard candle” we can calculate its distance.
- Problem: in a typical galaxy ($\sim 10^{11}$ stars) there may only be two or three type Ia supernovae in a thousand years!
- Supernovae that could be seen by the naked eye or even by binoculars: the most recent was in 1987, and the next most recent was 400 years before!
- How can we get many data points?



Supernova SN1987a, after and (from archived telescope images) before. At the time, it was thought rather silly and optimistic to label the first (and of course only) supernova of the year with “a”...

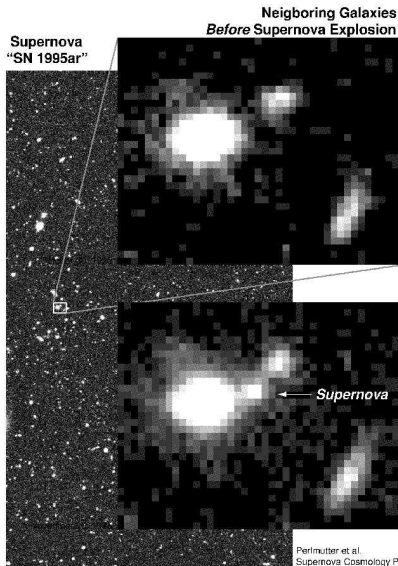
Hunting for supernovae

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- Take lots of pictures of dark regions in the sky, and save them.
- Take pictures of the same regions a week or two later. Use a computer to hunt for differences.
- Now in a few years you can get data on ~ 100 supernovae!



Is Hubble's constant constant? Maybe not!

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See article by Saul Perlmutter, *Physics Today*, April 2003, p. 53 (you can get it [here](#)).

