

LECTURE 11

11.1

- I. Fermi-Walker coordinates due to an accelerated frame
- II. Coordinates of a uniformly accelerated frame.
- III. Polar coordinates vs. pseudo-polar coordinates.

[MTW Sect. 6.6]

I. Curvilinear Coordinates Induced by a Uniformly Accelerated Frame.

11.2

The basis vectors F-W transported along a given world line give rise to a natural local curvilinear coordinate system. The coordinate lines are required to be tangent to the four respective F-W basis vectors emanating from the point event moving along the world line. Their construction is condensed into the following

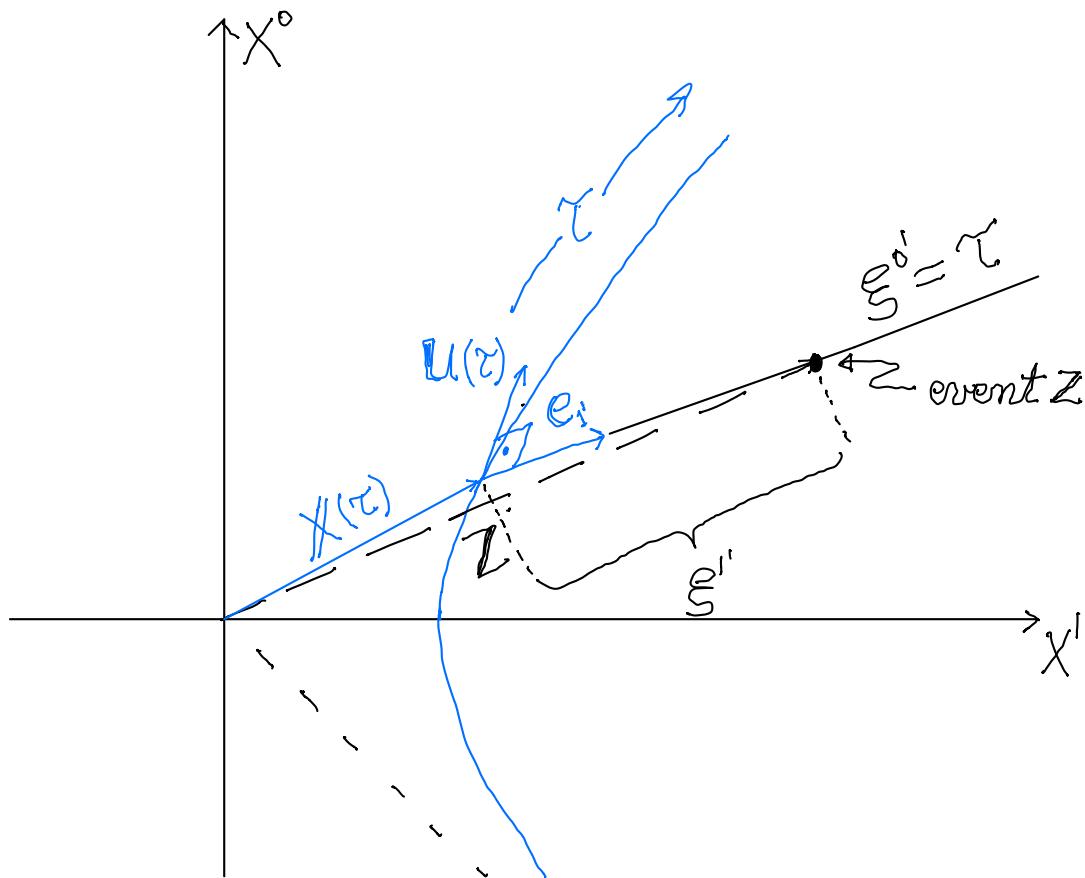


Figure 10.1: An event

$$Z = e_0 z^0 + e_1 z^1 + e_2 z^2 + e_3 z^3$$

in the neighborhood of the spacetime trajectory

$$\tilde{X}(t) = e_0 x^0(t) + e_1 x^1(t) + e_2 x^2(t) + e_3 x^3(t)$$

(11.3)

of an accelerated observer O has Fermi-Walker coordinates $(\xi^0, \xi^1, \xi^2, \xi^3)$.

They are related to Z 's rectilinear coordinates $\{z^0, z^1, z^2, z^3\}$ by the condition

$$Z = e_1 \xi^1 + e_2 \xi^2 + e_3 \xi^3 + X(\tau).$$

Definition ("Fermi-Walker coordinates")

(i) Let $X(\tau)$ be the world line of the given observer O .

(ii) Let

$$\{e_{01}(\tau), e_{11}(\tau), e_{21}(\tau), e_{31}(\tau)\} \equiv \{e_{\alpha^1}(\tau); \alpha^1 = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$$

be a F-W transported tetrad of basis vectors,

i.e.

$$\frac{du^\mu}{d\tau} = (u^\nu \alpha^\mu - \alpha^\nu u^\mu) v_\nu \quad \text{for } v_\nu = \eta_{\nu\sigma} (e_{\alpha^1})^\sigma, \quad \alpha^1 = 0, 1, 2, 3.$$

Then, given an event Z , (ξ^1, ξ^2, ξ^3) are its spatial coordinates relative to O whenever

$$Z = \xi^1 e_{11} + \xi^2 e_{21} + \xi^3 e_{31} + X(\tau), \quad (11.1)$$

and its time coordinate ξ^0 is given by the requirement that

$$\xi^0 = \tau. \quad (11.2)$$

As recorded by an observer in an inertial frame, the coordinates of a typical event Z are

$$Z : \{z^0, z^1, z^2, z^3\}.$$

On the other hand, relative to an accelerated frame the coordinates of that event are

$$Z: \{\xi^1, \xi^2, \xi^3, \tau\}$$

Thus we have a 1-1 coordinate transformation,

$$\{z^0, z^1, z^2, z^3\} \longleftrightarrow \{\xi^1, \xi^2, \xi^3, \tau\}$$

II. Coordinate system for a uniformly accelerated frame.

- The given spacetime trajectory of the spatial origin of the spacial origin of the accelerated observer is

$$X(\tau) = \underbrace{g^{-1} \sinh g\tau}_{x^0(\tau)} e_0 + \underbrace{g^{-1} \cosh g\tau}_{x^1(\tau)} e_1 + \underbrace{0}_{x^2(\tau)} e_2 + \underbrace{0}_{x^3(\tau)} e_3$$

- There four solutions the F-W equation

$$\frac{d v^\mu}{d\tau} = (U^\mu \alpha - \alpha^\mu U^\nu) v_\nu; \quad v_\nu = \eta_{\nu\sigma} v^\sigma,$$

namely,

$$\{v^\mu\} = \{U^\mu\} = \{v_0^\mu\} = \{ \cosh g\tau, \sinh g\tau, 0, 0 \} \equiv \{e_0^\mu(\tau)\}$$

$$\{v^\mu\} = \left\{ \frac{\alpha^\mu}{g} \right\} = \{v_1^\mu\} = \{ \sinh g\tau, \cosh g\tau, 0, 0 \} \equiv \{e_1^\mu(\tau)\}$$

$$\{v^\mu\} = \{0, 0, 1, 0\} = \{v_2^\mu\} = \{0, 0, 1, 0\} \equiv \{e_2^\mu(\tau)\}$$

$$\{v^\mu\} = \{0, 0, 0, 1\} = \{v_3^\mu\} = \{0, 0, 0, 1\} \equiv \{e_3^\mu(\tau)\}$$

- The boxed equation (11.1) on page 11.3, when expressed relative to the Lab basis $\{e_0, e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} z^0 e_0 + z^1 e_1 + z^2 e_2 + z^3 e_3 &= X(\tau) + \xi^1 e_1 + \xi^2 e_2 + \xi^3 e_3 \\ &= g^{-1} \sinh g\tau e_0 + g^{-1} \cosh g\tau e_1 + \xi^1 (\sinh g\tau e_0 + \cosh g\tau e_1) + \xi^2 e_2 + \xi^3 e_3 \end{aligned}$$

11.5

Equating coefficients of the basis vectors, yields
 the coordinate transformation between the rectilinear
 coordinates for an inertial frame and the curvilinear coordinates
 for a linear uniformly accelerated frame

$$(z^0 \ z^1 \ z^2 \ z^3) \longleftrightarrow (t, \xi^1, \xi^2, \xi^3),$$

namely,

$e_0:$	$\bar{z}^0 = (\bar{g}^{-1} + \xi^{11}) \sinh g\tau \equiv \xi \sinh g\tau \}$
$e_1:$	$\bar{z}^1 = (\bar{g}^{-1} + \xi^{11}) \cosh g\tau \equiv \xi \cosh g\tau \} \quad 0 < \xi < \infty$
$e_2:$	$\bar{z}^2 = \xi^2$
$e_3:$	$\bar{z}^3 = \xi^3$

(11.3)

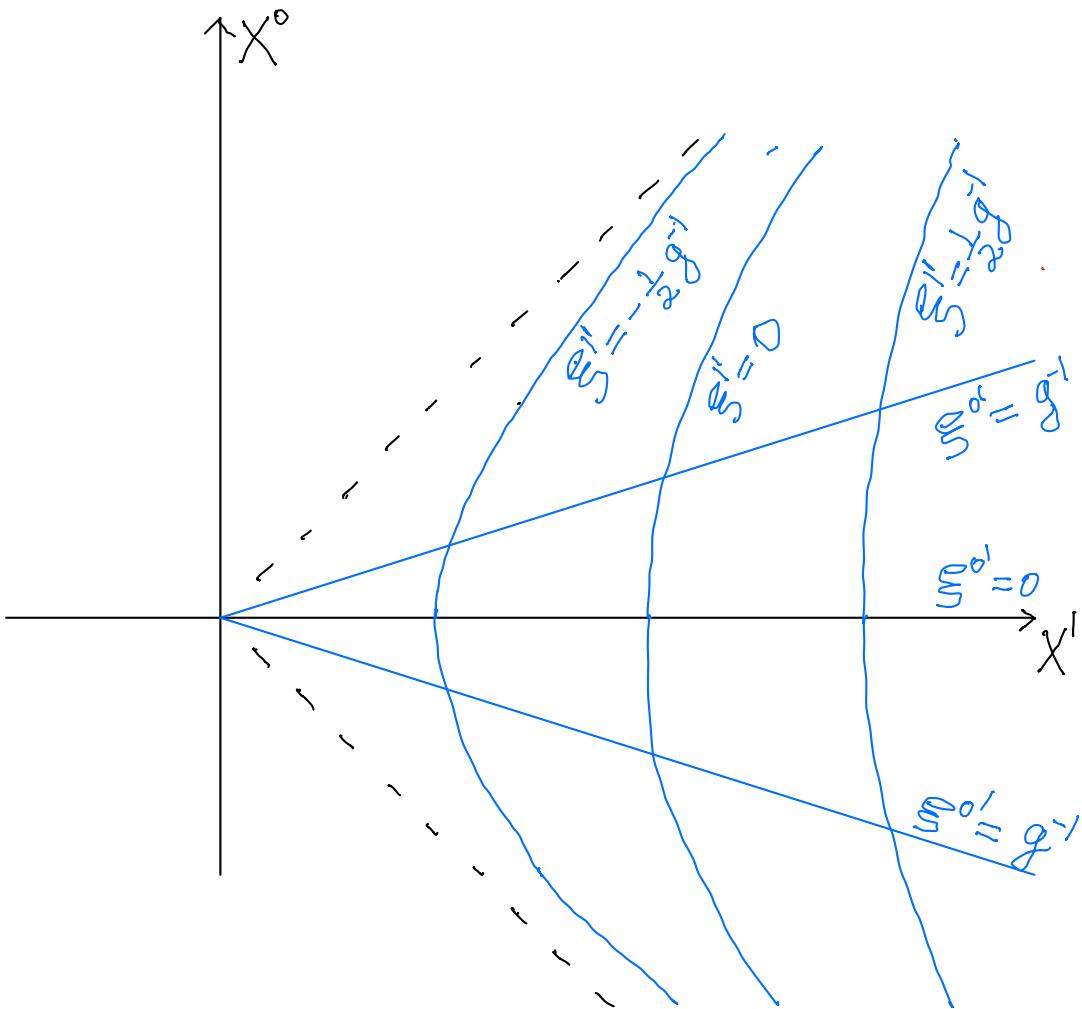


Figure 11.2: Fermi-Walker ("Rindler") coordinate system for a linear uniformly accelerated frame

$$x^0 = (\xi^1 + g^{-1}) \sinh g\tau \equiv \xi \sinh g\tau$$

$$x = (\xi^1 + g^{-1}) \cosh g\tau \equiv \xi \cosh g\tau$$

3. In light of coordinate transformation, Eq.(11.3) on page 11.5, the form of the squared invariant spacetime interval

$$(ds)^2 = -(dz^0)^2 + (dz^1)^2 + (dz^2)^2 + (dz^3)^2 \quad \begin{cases} \text{rectilinear} \\ \text{a.k.a. "Minkowski"} \\ \text{coordinates} \end{cases}$$

assumes the form

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= -(\xi^1 + g^{-1})^2 d\tau^2 + (d\xi^1)^2 + (d\xi^2)^2 + (d\xi^3)^2 \\ &= -\xi^2 d\tau^2 + (d\xi)^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 \quad \begin{cases} \text{"Rindler"} \\ \text{coordinates} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Comment.

The construction of these coordinates is based on the locus of events, world lines, which are spacetime hyperbolae,

$$(x^1)^2 - (x^0)^2 = \xi^2.$$

These world lines of constant local acceleration correspond to what in Euclidean space are concentric circles

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x^2 + y^2 = r^2 \\ \end{array} \right.$$

In Euclidean space these circles comprise the familiar polar coordinates,

relative to which the invariant distance has the form

$$\begin{aligned}(d\sigma)^2 &= (dx)^2 + (dy)^2 + dz^2 \\ &= r^2 d\theta^2 + dr^2 + dz^2\end{aligned}$$

11.7

Thus the (ξ, τ) coordinates are sometimes called "pseudo-polar" coordinates. However nowadays they are called Rindler coordinates, after Wolfgang Rindler who pointed out their utility and the fundamental role they play in spacetime physics.