

Special Relativity, Mass, and Energy; $E = mc^2$

Masoud Asadi-Zeydabadi¹, Alberto Sadun¹ & Clyde Zaidins¹

¹ University of Colorado Denver, Department of Physics, Denver, CO, USA

Correspondence: Masoud Asadi-Zeydabadi, University of Colorado Denver, Department of Physics, Denver, CO, USA. E-mail: Masoud.Asadi-Zeydabadi@UCDenver.edu

Received: May 13, 2024

Accepted: June 7, 2024

Online Published: September 3, 2024

doi:10.5539/apr.v16n2p1

URL: <https://doi.org/10.5539/apr.v16n2p1>

Abstract

The purpose of this paper to provide a proof of $E = mc^2$ using a derivation completely consistent with Special Relativity. We base our proof on the calculation of the relativistic kinetic energy, K , and the invariance of the momentum 4-vector in Minkowski space. This proof provides a useful pedagogical method for teaching the momentum 4-vector through an excellent example to undergraduate physics students.

Keywords: $E = mc^2$, mass and energy, special relativity, the momentum 4-vector, Minkowski space

1. Introduction

A century of experiments has consistently shown that $E = mc^2$. Einstein predicted that relationship in 1905 (Einstein). However, a recent article (Rothman) pointed out that Einstein's proof was non-relativistic. We know that $E = mc^2$ and the purpose of this paper to provide a proof using a derivation completely consistent with Special Relativity (SR).

One of Albert Einstein's main goals when he formulated his theory of Special Relativity in 1905 was to consider what observers of an event would measure as seen from two different frames of reference. These frames, S and S' , would be moving relative to each other at a constant velocity, v . The two postulates that he used were that 1) The laws of physics are the same in both frames, and 2) The speed of light, c , would be measured to be the same value in both inertial frames.

The classical method of comparing observations in two different frames has had a long history and was treated by transforming coordinates between the two frames. The transformation technique that was used in the past was developed by Galileo and worked quite well as long as v was small compared to c . However, it did not work for Maxwell's theory of electricity and magnetism and was inconsistent with Einstein's postulates. Hendrik Lorentz had developed a transformation consistent with Maxwell's theory and the Lorentz transform is the heart of SR. It is consistent with all experimental tests, but its consequence is that space and time are not absolute. Furthermore, the concept of simultaneity is impossible between the two frames.

The history of the discovery of the mass and energy relationship, and the concept and the description of $E = mc^2$ had been discussed in numerous articles (Fadner), (Okun; 1989; 2005; 2008), (Hecht), (Riggs), (Wilson). The derivation of $E = mc^2$ using different methods has been investigated in many papers (Feigenbaum & Mermin), (Rohrlich), (D'Abramo), (Redzic). The history of discovery of the mass and energy relationship including pedagogical methods would be useful in education of the physics students. Here authors provide a method. This method is based on the calculation of the relativistic kinetic energy, K , and the invariance of the momentum 4-vector in Minkowski space. This would be useful for undergraduate physics students to learn and practice these topics through the use of this proof of $E = mc^2$ as an excellent example.

2. The Invariance of the Momentum 4-Vector in Minkowski Space

Many of the ideas of SR were also developed by Henri Poincaré and Lorentz. Hermann Minkowski (Minkowski; 1908; 1908-1909) took the basic work of Einstein, Lorentz, (Lorentz; 1899; 1904; 1916) and Poincaré (Poincaré) introduced the specific four-dimensional approach which is mathematically treated in the 4D Minkowski Spacetime. An event in one frame, S , has the vector coordinates, $\vec{R} = (ct, x, y, z)$. The Lorentz transformation calculates the coordinates in S' , $\vec{R}' = (ct', x', y', z')$. Note that there are several conventions for these

Minkowski spaces and this is our choice of convention. With this convention we can calculate $\vec{R} \cdot \vec{R}$ and $\vec{R}' \cdot \vec{R}'$ in Minkowski Space:

$$\vec{R} \cdot \vec{R} = (ct)^2 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2 \quad (1)$$

and

$$\vec{R}' \cdot \vec{R}' = (ct')^2 - x'^2 - y'^2 - z'^2. \quad (2)$$

A consequence of SR is that

$$\Delta\vec{R} \cdot \Delta\vec{R} = \Delta\vec{R}' \cdot \Delta\vec{R}'. \quad (3)$$

where $\Delta\vec{R}$ and $\Delta\vec{R}'$ are intervals in S and S' frames. In other words, $\Delta\vec{R} \cdot \Delta\vec{R}$ remains the same value as viewed by any two frames, S and S' . If $\Delta\vec{R} \cdot \Delta\vec{R} > 0$ the interval between two events is time-like. If $\Delta\vec{R} \cdot \Delta\vec{R} = 0$ then the interval between two events is light-like. And if $\Delta\vec{R} \cdot \Delta\vec{R} < 0$ the interval between two events is space-like.

The following two dimensionless parameters are very helpful when doing calculations in SR.

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} \quad (4)$$

and

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}. \quad (5)$$

The expression for β in terms of γ :

$$\beta = \frac{\sqrt{\gamma^2-1}}{\gamma} \quad (6)$$

The values of β are $0 \leq \beta < 1$.

Equation (4) yields $v = \beta c$. When β is near 0, the velocity is then considered to be non-relativistic and calculations can be done using the methods of Galileo and Newton. As β closely approaches 1 the regime becomes highly relativistic and there are approximations that simplify calculations. For intermediate values of β one must use the full-blown relativistic equations. For all objects or particles with mass, β can never reach the value of 1. Particle velocities can approach arbitrarily close to c but not reach it because the relativistic momentum and kinetic energy would have to increase without limit.

The values of γ are $\gamma \geq 1$. If $\gamma = 1$ the object or particle is at rest ($\beta = 0$). The larger the value of γ the closer the velocity is to c , and γ can increase without bound. An example of the use of γ besides its use in the Lorentz transformation, is the apparent increase of particle masses when the particle is in motion. This increase was experimentally observed with electrons prior to Einstein's 1905 paper (Thomson), (Kaufmann; 1901a; 1901b; 1902a; 1902b). For example, the particle of mass, m , is at rest in frame S' which is moving with velocity, v , relative to frame S . The mass measured in S' will be m since the particle is at rest in its own frame. An observer in frame S will measure this same particle to have a mass equal to γm . It is clear that the increase in mass will affect the momentum and kinetic energy of a particle with relativistic velocity.

3. Using Relativistic Kinetic Energy and the Invariance of the Momentum 4-Vector in Minkowski Space for the Proof of $E = mc^2$

Einstein's 1905 proof started with special relativity then at the end, he used the Newtonian limit and he did not include this effect (Einstein). Our proof does include the effect of special relativity. We base our proof on the calculation of the relativistic kinetic energy, K , and the invariance of the momentum 4-vector in Minkowski space.

The coordinate system can be chosen so that the relative velocities lie along the x -axis and only a single space dimension is necessary to do calculations. In this case we can find the momentum observed in frame S when a particle of mass, m , is at rest in S' . (One often refers to m as the "rest mass"). S' is moving at a velocity, v , along the positive x -axis relative to S . In this case the linear momentum is given by

$$p = \gamma m v = \gamma m c \beta = m c \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}. \quad (7)$$

Deriving the kinetic energy, K , is not as simple as the derivation for the momentum. We start with the principle that the work done on a particle is equal to its change in kinetic energy. If we look at the rate of change in the kinetic energy which is equal to the power provided, we have

$$\frac{dK}{dt} = \vec{F} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}. \quad (8)$$

This can be rewritten as

$$dK = c\vec{\beta} \cdot d\vec{p} = (mc^2\beta) d(\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}) = mc^2\beta \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1}} d\gamma. \quad (9)$$

Substituting β from (6) into (9) we get that

$$dK = mc^2 d\gamma. \quad (10)$$

Integrating this very simple equation, we get

$$K = \gamma mc^2 + \text{constant}. \quad (11)$$

We know that $K = 0$ when $\gamma = 1$. Thus the integration constant is:

$$\text{constant} = -mc^2 \quad (12)$$

and

$$K = (\gamma - 1)mc^2. \quad (13)$$

The following, therefore, is a proof of $E = mc^2$ that is fully relativistic.

The total energy, E , is the sum of the kinetic energy, K , plus some energy present when the particle is at rest. This energy might even be zero. Let's call this rest energy Q .

Then

$$E = K + Q. \quad (14)$$

In the rest frame of the particle the momentum 4-vector,

$$\vec{p} = \left(\frac{Q}{c}, 0, 0, 0\right), \quad (15)$$

and

$$\vec{p} \cdot \vec{p} = \left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2. \quad (16)$$

Thus, the value of $\vec{p} \cdot \vec{p} = \left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2$ in all frames because of the invariance of the momentum 4-vector.

For the frame where the particle has a momentum, p_x , in the x -direction and a total energy, $E = K + Q$, the momentum 4-vector,

$$p = \left(\frac{E}{c}, p_x, 0, 0\right), \quad (17)$$

and

$$\vec{p} \cdot \vec{p} = \left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2 - p_x^2 = \left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2. \quad (18)$$

Use equation (13), $K = (\gamma - 1)mc^2$, in equation (14) to calculate

$$\left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2 = \frac{(K+Q)^2}{c^2} = (\gamma mc - mc + \frac{Q}{c})^2 = (\gamma^2 - 2\gamma + 1)m^2 c^2 + 2(\gamma - 1)mQ + \left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2. \quad (19)$$

Next using equation (7), $p_x = \gamma\beta mc = \sqrt{\gamma^2 - 1} mc$, we obtain

$$p_x^2 = (\gamma^2 - 1)m^2 c^2. \quad (20)$$

Now equations (18), (19) and (20) yield

$$\left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{Q}{c}\right)^2 + 2(\gamma - 1)(mQ - m^2c^2). \quad (21)$$

This yields the equation

$$2(\gamma - 1)(mQ - m^2c^2) = 0. \quad (22)$$

The solution to this equation is

$$Q = mc^2. \quad (23)$$

The rest energy is the rest mass energy, $E = mc^2$. This result has been achieved by using SR with no non-relativistic approximations needed.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, we present a proof of $E = mc^2$ using a derivation fully consistent with Special Relativity. Our proof is based on the calculation of relativistic kinetic energy and the invariance of the momentum 4-vector in Minkowski space. This approach offers a valuable pedagogical method for teaching the concept of the momentum 4-vector, serving as an excellent example for undergraduate physics students.

Authors' contributions

All authors contributed to the study and participated in drafting and revising this manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Funding

This research did not receive any funding.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Informed consent

Obtained.

Ethics approval

The Publication Ethics Committee of the Canadian Center of Science and Education.

The journal and publisher adhere to the Core Practices established by the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE).

Provenance and peer review

Not commissioned; externally double-blind peer reviewed.

Data sharing statement

No additional data are available.

Open access

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Copyrights

Copyright for this article is retained by the author(s), with first publication rights granted to the journal.

References

- D'Abramo, G. (2021). Mass-energy connection without special relativity. *European Journal of Physics*, 42. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1361-6404/abbca2>

- Einstein, A. (1905). Does the inertia of a body depend upon its energy content?. *Annalen der Physics*, 18, 639-641. <https://doi.org/10.1002/andp.19053231314>
- Fadner, W. L. (1988). Did Einstein really discover $E=mc^2$. *American Journal of Physics*, 56, 114. <https://doi.org/10.1119/1.15713>
- Feigenbaum, M. J., & Mermin, N. D. (1988). $E = mc^2$. *American Journal of Physics*, 56, 18. <https://doi.org/10.1119/1.15422>
- Hecht, E. (2009). Einstein on mass and energy. *American Journal of Physics*, 77, 799. <https://doi.org/10.1119/1.3160671>
- Kaufmann, W. (1901a). Die magnetische und elektrische Ablenkbarkeit der Bequerelstrahlen und die scheinbare Masse der Elektronen. *Göttinger Nachrichten*, (2), 143-168.
- Kaufmann, W. (1901b). Die Entwicklung des Elektronenbegriffs. *Physikalische Zeitschrift*, 3(1), 9-15.
- Kaufmann, W. (1902a). Die elektromagnetische Masse des Elektrons. *Physikalische Zeitschrift*, 4(1b), 54-56.
- Kaufmann, W. (1902b). Über die elektromagnetische Masse des Elektrons. *Göttinger Nachrichten*, (5), 291-296.
- Lorentz, H. A. (1899). Simplified Theory of Electrical and Optical Phenomena in Moving Systems. *Proceedings of the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 1, 427-442.
- Lorentz, H. A. (1904). Electromagnetic phenomena in a system moving with any velocity smaller than that of light. *Proceedings of the Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 6, 809-831.
- Lorentz, H. A. (1916). *The theory of electrons and its applications to the phenomena of light and radiant heat*. Leipzig & Berlin: B.G. Teubner. [1915].
- Minkowski, H. (1908-1909). Raum und Zeit [Space and Time]. *Physikalische Zeitschrift*, 10, 75-88.
- Minkowski, H. (1908). *Die Grundgleichungen für die elektromagnetischen Vorgänge in bewegten Körpern*. Nachrichten von der Königlich-Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Göttingen, pp. 53-111.
- Okun, L. B. (1989). The concept of mass (mass, energy, relativity). *Sov. Phys. Usp*, 32. <https://doi.org/10.1070/PU1989v032n07ABEH002739>
- Okun, L. B. (2005, October). Mass, energy and the meaning of relativity. *Physics World*. <https://doi.org/10.1088/2058-7058/18/10/29>
- Okun, L. B. (2008). The Einstein formula $E_0 = mc^2$. "Isn't Lord laughing. *Physics – Uspekhi*, 51, 513-527. <https://doi.org/10.1070/PU2008v051n05ABEH006538>
- Poincaré H. (1906). Sur la dynamique de l'électron. *Rendiconti del circolo matematico di Palermo*, 21, 129-176. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03013466>
- Redzic, D. V. (2005). Momentum conservation and Einstein's 1905 Gedankenexperiment. *European Journal of Physics*, 26. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0143-0807/26/6/006>
- Riggs, P. J. (2019). Comment on 'Relativity, potential energy, mass'. *European Journal of Physics*, 40. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1361-6404/aaf5e2>
- Rohrlich, F. (1990). An elementary derivation of $E=mc^2$. *American Journal of Physics*, 58, 348. <https://doi.org/10.1119/1.16168>
- Rothman, T. (2021). The Curse of $E=mc^2$. *American Scientist*, 109, 360-367.
- Thomson, J. J. (1881). On the Electric and Magnetic Effects produced by the Motion of Electrified Bodies. *Phil. Mag.* 11, 229. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14786448108627008>
- Wilson, W. (1936). The mass of a convected field and Einstein's Mass-Energy law. *Proceeding of the Physics Society*, 736. <https://doi.org/10.1088/0959-5309/48/5/306>