

W.E. Baylis – Electrodynamics - Chapter 1 – Solutions to selected Problems

P 1.1

Galilean transformations relate frames moving at constant velocity with respect to one another when it is assumed there exists a universal time valid for all frames. Under Galilean transformations between frame A and another frame B in which A is moving with constant velocity $\mathbf{V}$, a velocity $\mathbf{v}_A$ seen in frame A is seen as $\mathbf{v}_B = \mathbf{v}_A + \mathbf{V}$ in frame B.

a) Show, assuming validity of Newton's second law and the Galilean transformation above of velocities, that forces are the same in frames A and B.

b) Use the result of part a) together with the Lorentz-force law $\mathbf{f} = q\mathbf{E} + q\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B}$ to derive the Galilean transformation law for electric and magnetic fields.

c) Consider a very long line of charge at rest in frame A and use Gauss's law to find the fields. Let λ be the charge per unit length along the line. Now consider the source as seen in frame B when the relative velocity $\mathbf{V}$ lies along the line of charge. Find the fields as seen in frame B. Are they consistent with the transformation law found in b) ?

Sol P 1.1

a)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}_A &= \frac{d}{dt} (m \cdot \mathbf{v}_A) \quad \text{mass invariant} \\ \mathbf{F}_B &= \frac{d}{dt} (m \cdot \mathbf{v}_B) = m \frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{v}_A + \mathbf{V}) = m \left(\frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{v}_A + \frac{d}{dt} \mathbf{V} \right) = \mathbf{F}_A \end{aligned}$$

- using universal time for any constant $\mathbf{V}$

b)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{f}_A &= q\mathbf{E}_A + q\mathbf{v}_A \times \mathbf{B}_A \quad (\text{charge } q \text{ in frame A}) \\ \mathbf{f}_B &= q\mathbf{E}_B + q(\mathbf{v}_A + \mathbf{V}) \times \mathbf{B}_B \quad (\text{charge } q \text{ in frame B}) \end{aligned}$$

if Galilean then $\mathbf{f}_A = \mathbf{f}_B$ for any constant velocity $\mathbf{V}$
 difference between frames A & B and for any velocities $\mathbf{v}_A$!

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{E}_A + \mathbf{v}_A \times \mathbf{B}_A \equiv \mathbf{E}_B + \mathbf{v}_A \times \mathbf{B}_B + \mathbf{V} \times \mathbf{B}_B$$

if $\mathbf{v}_A = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}_A = \mathbf{E}_B + \mathbf{V} \times \mathbf{B}_B$

if $\mathbf{V} = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{E}_A = \mathbf{E}_B \text{ \& } \mathbf{B}_A = \mathbf{B}_B \text{ for any } \mathbf{v}_A$

if $\mathbf{v}_A = 0$ (frame A at rest) then $\mathbf{E}_B$ field cannot be equal with $\mathbf{E}_A$.

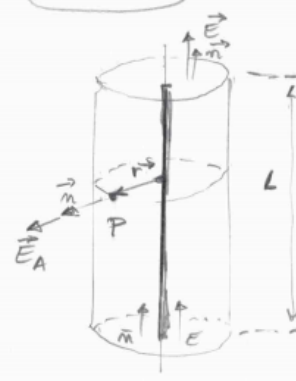
Example: The laboratory is the absolute reference. And the fields $\mathbf{E}_A$ & $\mathbf{B}_A$ are generated in the lab. The first probe A is fixed in the lab at a point x_0, y_0, z_0 ($\mathbf{v}_A = 0$). The second one is moving through x_0, y_0, z_0 with speed v_B . Either the probes measure different forces or the fields $\mathbf{E}_B, \mathbf{B}_B$ are different from $\mathbf{E}_A, \mathbf{B}_A$.

Notes 1.1

b) For the Lorentz force law in reference frame A: $\mathbf{f}_A = q\mathbf{E}_A + q\mathbf{v}_A \times \mathbf{B}_A$, the velocity $\mathbf{v}_A$ refers to the velocity of an idealized probe with charge q in the point A of the frame.

c) If the charge in the wire is at rest in frame A and frame B is moving along the wire with speed $|\mathbf{v}|$ then we have a current in the wire and thus a non null magnetic field $\mathbf{B}$.

Sol 1.1c



In a point P in the coordinates of the laboratory

$$\mathbf{f}_A^{(P)} = q\mathbf{E}_A^{(P)} + q\mathbf{v}_A^{(P)} \times \mathbf{B}_A^{(P)} \quad (\text{at rest})$$

Assuming charge is not moving!
Nothing in the frame A is moving!

We use 2 equations (Gauss)

$$\oint_{\text{surface}} \mathbf{E}_A \cdot \mathbf{n} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \iiint_{\text{volume}} \text{charge}$$

scalar product

and $\oint_{\text{curve}} \mathbf{B}_A \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \mu_0 I_A$

Since in frame A charge is not moving there is no current $I_A = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}_A = 0$ at point P

$\mathbf{E}_A$ is constant in the lateral surface of the cylinder and parallel to the normal to it. The upper and lower surfaces of the cylinder cancel each other $\mathbf{E}_A$ (from symmetry):

$$\underbrace{2\pi R L \cdot \mathbf{E}_A^{(P)}}_{\text{lateral surface}} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \underbrace{\lambda L}_{\text{total charge}}; \quad \mathbf{E}_A^{(P)} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R}$$

In frame B the electric field is the same $\mathbf{E}_B(r) = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 R}$



In the same point P (coordinates relative to a distant star) the 'charge' is moving relative to the frame B and creates a current $I_B = \frac{\lambda \Delta L}{\Delta t} = \lambda v$

$$\mathbf{B}_B(r) = \mu_0 \lambda v \neq 0$$

thus $\mathbf{f}_A^{(P)} \neq \mathbf{f}_B^{(P)}$!

The magnetic field of a wire is $B = \mu_0 I / (2\pi R)$. The current intensity: 1 Ampere = 1 Coulomb/ 1 sec. 1 Coulomb $\approx 6 \times 10^{18}$ electrons. How do the electrons generate the magnetic Field? It could be an electron gun (not a wire)! The 'signal' speed of electrons in a metallic wire is about the speed of light (See [electron speed](#)). Electrons might be bound – lower speed!

P 1.2

Show that the force between two charges, each of one Coulomb separated by one kilometre, is equivalent to the weight of about one ton.

Sol P1.2

$$F = \frac{qQ}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \quad \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = 8.9 \cdot 10^9 \text{ N m}^2 \text{ C}^{-2}$$

$$F = 1 \text{ C} \cdot 1 \text{ C} \cdot 8.9 \cdot 10^9 \frac{\text{N m}^2}{\text{C}^2} \cdot \frac{1}{10^{2+3} \text{ m}^2}$$

$$\approx 8.9 \cdot 10^3 \text{ N}$$

weight of a ton in gravitational field $g = 9.8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2}$
 is $m \cdot g = 10^3 \text{ kg} \cdot 9.8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2} \approx 9.8 \cdot 10^3 \text{ N}$

P 1.3

A joule is $1 \text{ kg m}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$ and 1 erg is $1 \text{ g cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-2}$.

a) How many ergs are there in one joule?

b) Since one erg is 1 statvolt statcoulomb and one joule is 1 volt C, use part a) to find the number of volts in a statvolt.

Sol P1.3

a)

$$1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ N} \cdot 1 \text{ m} \quad (\text{definition } E = F \cdot \text{distance})$$

$$= 1 \text{ kg} \frac{1 \text{ m}}{1 \text{ s}^2} \cdot 1 \text{ m} = 1 \text{ kg} \frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{s}^2}$$

$$1 \text{ J} = 1000 \text{ g} \cdot 100^2 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-2} = 10^{3+4} \text{ erg}$$

b)

$$1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ V} \cdot \text{C}$$

$$1 \text{ V} \cdot \text{C} = 10^7 \text{ erg} = 10^7 \text{ statvolt} \cdot \text{statcoul}$$

but $1 \text{ C} = c \cdot \text{statcoul}$ $\uparrow$ speed of light $= 3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ statcoul}$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \text{ V} \cdot 3 \cdot 10^9 \text{ statcoul} = 10^7 \text{ statvolt} \cdot \text{statcoul}$$

$$\Rightarrow 3 \cdot 10^2 \text{ V} = 1 \text{ statvolt}$$

P 1.4

Prove that any vector in the $\{e_1, e_2\}$ plane anticommutes with the unit bivector $e_1 e_2$, whereas any vector perpendicular to the plane commutes with this bivector.

(Sol 1.4)

$$a) \quad v \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad v \in \{e_1, e_2\} \Rightarrow e_1, e_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$v = \alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2 \quad \alpha^1, \alpha^2 \in \mathbb{R} \quad 1, 2 \text{ indices}$$

$$e_1, e_2 \text{ base} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} e_1^2 = 1, e_2^2 = 1 & \text{type space} \\ \text{or} \\ e_1^2 = -1, e_2^2 = 1 & \text{type time} \end{cases} \quad \& \quad e_1 e_2 = -e_2 e_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} e_1 e_2 (\alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2) &= -\alpha^1 e_2 + \alpha^2 e_1 \\ (\alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2) e_1 e_2 &= \alpha^1 e_2 - \alpha^2 e_1 \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad e_1 e_2 v = -v e_1 e_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \overbrace{e_1 e_2}^{-1} (\alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2) &= \alpha^1 e_2 + \alpha^2 e_1 \\ (\alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2) e_1 e_2 &= -\alpha^1 e_2 - \alpha^2 e_1 \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad e_1 e_2 v = -v e_1 e_2$$

regardless if e_1, e_2 are of type space or time

b) by definition $w \perp v$ if $wv = -vw$
(where v, w are vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$)

In this case $v = \alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2 \quad \alpha^1, \alpha^2 \in \mathbb{R} \quad 1, 2 \text{ indices}$
 $\Rightarrow e_1 \perp w \quad \& \quad e_2 \perp w \Rightarrow e_1 w = -w e_1 \quad \& \quad e_2 w = -w e_2$

$$e_1 e_2 w = e_1 (e_2 w) = -e_1 w e_2 = -(e_1 w) e_2 = w e_1 e_2$$

Note that for $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^3$ there is just one direction that is $\perp$ to $\{v_1, v_2\}$.

For $v, w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have many directions $\perp$ to $\{v_1, v_2\}$.

For example $v_4 \perp \{v_1, v_2\}; v_5 \perp \{v_1, v_2\} \dots$

P 1.5

A corner cube is constructed by placing reflecting coatings on the interior surfaces of the three planes and meet at the corner of the cube (the other half of the cube is removed). Use the Pauli algebra to show that any ray of light incident on the corner of the cube and bouncing on all three surfaces will be inverted, that is emerges in the precise direction from which it came.

Sol 1.5 Pauli algebra elements are the bivectors: $\{e_1e_2, e_2e_3, e_3e_1\}$ ($e_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$ $i=1,2,3$)
 since $(e_1e_2)(e_2e_3) = +e_3e_1$ & $(e_1e_2)(e_1e_2) = -e_1e_1e_2e_2 = -1$
 $(e_2e_3)(e_3e_1) = -e_1e_2$ & $(e_2e_3)(e_2e_3) = -1$
 $(e_3e_1)(e_1e_2) = -e_2e_3$ & $(e_3e_1)(e_3e_1) = -1$

Let r be a vector in $\mathbb{R}^3$ then we show that $(e_1e_2)r(e_1e_2)$ is the reflection of r in the plane $\{e_1, e_2\}$
 In $\mathbb{R}^3$ the vector r can be decomposed in 2 parts: one $r_{||}$ that is in the plane $\{e_1, e_2\}$ and one that is perpendicular to it $r_{\perp}$. Thus $r = r_{\perp} + r_{||}$ and $r_{||} = \alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2$

$(e_1e_2)r_{||}(e_1e_2) = (e_1e_2)(\alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2)(e_1e_2) = \alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2 = r_{||}$
 since $r_{\perp}$ must be perpendicular to any vector in $\{e_1, e_2\}$
 $\Rightarrow r_{\perp} \perp e_1$ & $r_{\perp} \perp e_2 \Rightarrow r_{\perp} e_1 = -e_1 r_{\perp}$ & $r_{\perp} e_2 = -e_2 r_{\perp}$
 $(e_1e_2)r_{\perp}(e_1e_2) = -e_1e_2r_{\perp}e_2e_1 = +e_1r_{\perp}e_1 = -r_{\perp}$: a reflection



similar for (e_2e_3) & (e_3e_1)
 $r' = (e_1e_2)r(e_1e_2)$ is a reflection on $\{e_1, e_2\}$

In the cube corner the reflection is applied on all 3 planes
 eg. $(e_3e_1)(e_2e_3)(e_1e_2 r e_1e_2)(e_2e_3)(e_3e_1) =$ ← regardless of the order!!!

$= e_3e_1e_2e_3e_1e_2r = e_3e_1e_3e_1r = -r$ thus reverses sign.

Alternative solution using Hestenes's approach in $\mathbb{R}^n$

If a, r are vectors then $-ara$ is the reflection of r in the plane perpendicular to a



In the case of the cube we have 3 normal vectors $e_1, e_2, e_3 \Rightarrow$

$r' = (-1)^3 e_1(e_2(e_3 r e_3)e_2)e_1$ and $r = \alpha^1 e_1 + \alpha^2 e_2 + \alpha^3 e_3$

since $(-1)e_1e_2e_3\alpha^1e_3e_2e_1 = -\alpha^1e_1$ & similar for e_2, e_3

it results $r' = -r$ (regardless of order of reflections)

$e_2e_3e_1e_1e_3e_2 = -e_1 \dots$

P 1.6

Show that paravector involutions defined by spatial reversal ($p_0 + \mathbf{p} \rightarrow p_0 - \mathbf{p}$), and by complex conjugation ($p^\mu e_\mu \rightarrow p^\mu {}^* e_\mu$), when applied to products, do require a reversal in the order of multiplications.

Sol 1.6

a) let $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^n$ pure vectors we will show that $\overline{pq} = \bar{q}\bar{p}$

$$p = \sum_i \alpha_i e_i \quad q = \sum_j \beta_j e_j \quad e_i, e_j \text{ orthonormal base, no scalars}$$

$$\overline{pq} = (\sum_i \alpha_i e_i)(\sum_j \beta_j e_j) = \sum_k \alpha_k \beta_k + \sum_{\substack{i, j \\ i < j}} (\alpha_i \beta_j - \alpha_j \beta_i) e_i e_j$$

$$= \sum_k \alpha_k \beta_k - \sum_{i < j} (\alpha_i \beta_j - \alpha_j \beta_i) e_i e_j$$

$$q p = (\sum_j \beta_j e_j)(\sum_i \alpha_i e_i) = (\sum_j \beta_j e_j)(\sum_i \alpha_i e_i) =$$

$$= \sum_k \alpha_k \beta_k + \sum_{i < j} (\alpha_i \beta_j - \alpha_j \beta_i) e_j e_i = \overline{pq}$$

for the paravectors:

$$p = p_0 + \mathbf{p} \quad q = q_0 + \mathbf{q}$$

$$\overline{pq} = \overline{(p_0 + \mathbf{p})(q_0 + \mathbf{q})} = \overline{p_0 q_0 + q_0 \mathbf{p} + p_0 \mathbf{q} + \mathbf{p} \mathbf{q}} = p_0 q_0 - q_0 \mathbf{p} - p_0 \mathbf{q} + \overline{\mathbf{p} \mathbf{q}}$$

$$\overline{q p} = \overline{(q_0 + \mathbf{q})(p_0 + \mathbf{p})} = \overline{q_0 p_0 - q_0 \mathbf{p} - p_0 \mathbf{q} + \mathbf{q} \mathbf{p}} = p_0 q_0 - q_0 \mathbf{p} - p_0 \mathbf{q} + \overline{\mathbf{q} \mathbf{p}}$$

b) $p = \sum_\mu p_\mu e_\mu \quad p^\dagger = \sum_\mu p_\mu^* e_\mu$ where $*$ is complex conjugate

$$q = \sum_\lambda q_\lambda e_\lambda \quad q^\dagger = \sum_\lambda q_\lambda^* e_\lambda$$

$$(pq)^\dagger = \left(\sum_\mu \sum_\lambda p_\mu q_\lambda e_\mu e_\lambda \right)^\dagger = \sum_\mu \sum_\lambda (p_\mu q_\lambda)^* e_\mu e_\lambda$$

$$q^\dagger p^\dagger = \left(\sum_\lambda q_\lambda^* e_\lambda \right) \left(\sum_\mu p_\mu^* e_\mu \right) = \sum_\mu \sum_\lambda (p_\mu q_\lambda)^* e_\lambda e_\mu \quad !?$$

Let's use $\mathbb{R}^2$

$$(p_1 e_1 + p_2 e_2)(q_1 e_1 + q_2 e_2) = (p_1 q_1 + p_2 q_2) + (p_1 q_2 - p_2 q_1) e_1 e_2$$

$$(q_1^* e_1 + q_2^* e_2)(p_1^* e_1 + p_2^* e_2) = p_1^* q_1^* + p_2^* q_2^* + (q_1^* p_2^* - p_1^* q_2^*) e_1 e_2$$

P 1.7

Prove explicitly that the canonical element $e_1 e_2 e_3$ in the Pauli algebra squares to -1 and that it commutes with all the elements of the algebra. Extend the result to n-dimensional Euclidian space by calculating the square of the canonical element and determining its commutator with vectors in the more general case.

Sol 1.7 in Pauli algebra $j = e_1 e_2 e_3$ $e_1 = \sigma_1, e_2 = \sigma_2, e_3 = \sigma_3$
 $i=1,2,3, e_i$ orthonormal base in $\mathbb{R}^3$; elements of algebra $e_1, e_2, e_3, e_1 e_2, e_2 e_3, e_3 e_1$

$$j^2 = (e_1 e_2 e_3)(e_1 e_2 e_3) = \underbrace{e_1 e_2 e_3 e_1}_{= e_2 e_3} e_2 e_3 = e_2 e_3 e_2 e_3 = -1$$

$$j e_1 = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_1 = e_2 e_3; j e_2 = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_2 = -e_1 e_3; j e_3 = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_3 = e_1 e_2$$

$$j(e_1 e_2) = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_1 e_2 = e_1 e_2 (e_1 e_2 e_3) = e_1 e_2 j$$

$$j(e_2 e_3) = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_2 e_3 = e_2 e_3 (e_1 e_2 e_3) = e_2 e_3 j$$

$$j(e_3 e_1) = e_1 e_2 e_3 e_3 e_1 = -e_1 e_2 (e_3 e_1 e_2) = -e_1 e_2 j$$

for $\mathbb{R}^n$
 $j = e_1 e_2 \dots e_n$ $j^2 = e_1 e_2 \dots e_n e_1 e_2 \dots e_n$ j : pseudoscalar
 $(n-1)$ inversions $+ (n-2) + \dots + 1$ total = $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ inversions
 $j^2 = (-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}$
 $\Rightarrow j^2 = \begin{cases} (-1) & n=2, 6, 10, \dots \\ (-1) & n=3, 7, \dots \\ (+1) & n=4, 8, \dots \\ (+1) & n=5, 9, \dots \end{cases}$ if $e_k^2 = 1$ for $\forall k$

for a commutator $a: ja = aj$
if $a = e_k$ is a basis item $(e_1 e_2 \dots e_{k-1} e_k e_{k+1} \dots e_n) e_k = (-1)^{n-1} e_k (e_1 \dots e_n)$
 $(-1)^{k-1}$

if a is a bivector $(e_1 e_2 \dots e_n) e_k e_m = (-1)^{2(n-1)} e_k e_m (e_1 e_2 \dots e_n)$

for a p-vector $ja = (-1)^{p(n-1)} a j$ n odd $ja = aj$
for n even depends on the "arity" of the p .

P 1.8

Use equations $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a})/2 + (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a})/2$ and $\mathbf{a} \wedge \mathbf{b} = i \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$ to show that the product of two unit spatial vectors is a rotational element: $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \exp(i \theta)$ where $i \theta$ is a vector representing the plane containing $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$, and θ is the angle that rotates $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ into $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$.

(Sol 1.8)

$\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ unit spatial vectors $\Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{a}}^2 = 1$ & $\hat{\mathbf{b}}^2 = 1$
and since i is defined here as $i = e_1 e_2 e_3$
we assume $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ & $\hat{\mathbf{b}} \in \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}^2 = 1 \Rightarrow |\hat{\mathbf{a}}| = 1 ; \hat{\mathbf{b}}^2 = 1 \Rightarrow |\hat{\mathbf{b}}| = 1$$

$$i^2 = (e_1 e_2 e_3)(e_1 e_2 e_3) = e_2 e_3 e_2 e_3 = -1$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \underbrace{(\hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}})}_{\text{symmetric}} + \underbrace{(\hat{\mathbf{a}} \wedge \hat{\mathbf{b}})}_{\text{antisymmetric (axial vector!)}}$$

$$(\hat{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = |\hat{\mathbf{a}}||\hat{\mathbf{b}}|\cos\theta \quad (\hat{\mathbf{a}} \wedge \hat{\mathbf{b}}) = i \hat{\mathbf{a}} \times \hat{\mathbf{b}} = i |\hat{\mathbf{a}}||\hat{\mathbf{b}}| \sin\theta$$

where θ is the angle from $\hat{\mathbf{a}}$ into $\hat{\mathbf{b}}$
The new base is $\{1, e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ and the result
is a complex paravector $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \cos\theta + i \sin\theta$

$$\text{since } e_1 \times e_2 = e_3 \text{ and } (e_1 e_2 e_3) e_1 e_2 = e_3,$$

$$e_2 \times e_3 = e_1 \text{ and } (e_1 e_2 e_3) e_2 e_3 = e_1$$

$$e_3 \times e_1 = e_2 \text{ and } (e_1 e_2 e_3) e_3 e_1 = e_2$$

and $\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ is a paravector in any base e_1, e_2, e_3

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} = \alpha_1 e_1 + \alpha_2 e_2 + \alpha_3 e_3 \quad \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \beta_1 e_1 + \beta_2 e_2 + \beta_3 e_3$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \underbrace{(\alpha_1 \beta_1 + \alpha_2 \beta_2 + \alpha_3 \beta_3)}_{\text{scalar}} + \underbrace{(\alpha_1 \beta_2 - \alpha_2 \beta_1)}_{i e_3} e_1 e_2 + \underbrace{(\alpha_2 \beta_3 - \alpha_3 \beta_2)}_{i e_1} e_2 e_3 + \underbrace{(\alpha_3 \beta_1 - \alpha_1 \beta_3)}_{i e_2} e_3 e_1$$

P 1.9

Noncommuting rotations. Consider the rotation elements $R_1 = \exp(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 \pi/2)$ and $R_2 = \exp(\mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \pi/2)$, which can be used in transformations of the form $\mathbf{R} \mathbf{v} \mathbf{R}^{-1}$ to rotate vectors by 180° in the $\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_3\}$ plane and the $\{\mathbf{e}_3, \mathbf{e}_1\}$ plane, respectively.

a) Prove explicitly that $R_1 R_2 = -R_2 R_1$, and that this product represents a 180° rotation in the $\{\mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1\}$ plane.

b) Show that the element $\exp(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 \pi/2 + \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \pi/2)$ also represents a rotation, but that both the magnitude and the plane of rotation are distinct from those of $R_1 R_2$ and $R_2 R_1$.

Sol 1.9

$$a) \quad R_1 = \exp(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 \frac{\pi}{2}) = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 = \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3$$

$$R_2 = \exp(\mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \frac{\pi}{2}) = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1$$

$$R_1 R_2 = (\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3)(\mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1) = \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1 = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1 = \exp(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1 \frac{\pi}{2})$$

$$R_2 R_1 = (\mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1)(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3) = \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 = \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 = -\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1 = -R_1 R_2$$

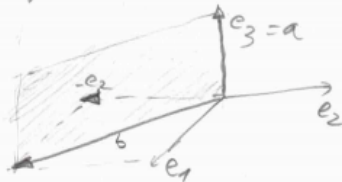
$$b) \quad \exp(\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 \frac{\pi}{2} + \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1 \frac{\pi}{2}) =$$

$$= \exp((\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_3 + \mathbf{e}_3 \mathbf{e}_1) \frac{\pi}{2}) =$$

$$= \exp(\underbrace{\mathbf{e}_3}_{\mathbf{a}} (\underbrace{\mathbf{e}_1 - \mathbf{e}_2}_{\mathbf{b}}) \frac{\pi}{2})$$

$$\|\mathbf{a}\| = 1 \quad \|\mathbf{b}\| = \|(\mathbf{e}_1 - \mathbf{e}_2)(\mathbf{e}_1 - \mathbf{e}_2)\| = \|\mathbf{e}_1^2 + \mathbf{e}_2^2\| = \|\mathbf{2}\| = \sqrt{2}$$

The plane of rotation is $\mathbf{e}_3 \perp (\mathbf{e}_1 - \mathbf{e}_2)$



P 1.11

Projectors. Let $P = (1+n)/2$ where n is a real unit vector. The element P is called a projector. ($\bar{P}$ is the conjugate $(1-n)/2$). Prove the properties:

- $P^2 = P = P^*$ (idempotent, real)
- $P\bar{P} = \bar{P}P = 0$ (null, self-orthogonal)
- $P + \bar{P} = 1$ (complete)

Which of these properties are incompatible with division algebra (all non zero element is invertible)?

Sol 1.11

$$n \in \mathbb{R}^k \quad n^2 = 1 \quad \Delta \quad P = \frac{1}{2}(1+n) \quad \bar{P} = \frac{1}{2}(1-n)$$

- $$P^2 = \frac{1}{2}(1+n) \frac{1}{2}(1+n) = \frac{1}{4}(1+2n+n^2) = \frac{1}{4}2(1+n) = P$$

(idempotent) $\Rightarrow P^2 = P$
- $$\bar{P} = \frac{1}{2}(1-n)$$

$$P\bar{P} = \frac{1}{2}(1+n) \frac{1}{2}(1-n) = \frac{1}{4}(1-n^2) = 0$$

$$\bar{P}P = \frac{1}{2}(1-n) \frac{1}{2}(1+n) = \frac{1}{4}(1-n^2) = 0$$

(selforthogonal)
- $$P + \bar{P} = \frac{1}{2}(1+n) + \frac{1}{2}(1-n) = \frac{1}{2}2 = 1$$

(complete)

Both P and $\bar{P}$ are divisors of 0 from b) selforthogonal

P 1.12

Spectral decomposition. Let $x = x^0 + \mathbf{x}$ be a real paravector.

a) Find the projector P of the form $(1+\mathbf{n})/2$; $\mathbf{n}^2=1$ such that $x = \lambda_+ P + \lambda_- P$; where λ_+, λ_- are scalars.

b) Find the 'eigenvalues' λ_+, λ_- .

c) From the properties next show that any power x^n of x can be written: $x^n = \lambda_+^n P + \lambda_-^n P$;

d) Let $f(x)$ be an analytic function of its argument, with a series expansion in powers x^n . Prove the relation: $f(x) = f(\lambda_+)P + f(\lambda_-)P$. (This relation can be used to define even non-analytical functions of paravectors)

Sol 1.12

a) $x_0 + \mathbf{x} = \lambda_+ (1+\mathbf{n})/2 + \lambda_- (1-\mathbf{n})/2$

$$= \frac{(\lambda_+ + \lambda_-)}{2} + \frac{(\lambda_+ - \lambda_-)}{2} \mathbf{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow x_0 = (\lambda_+ + \lambda_-)/2 ; \mathbf{n} = \frac{2\mathbf{x}}{(\lambda_+ - \lambda_-)} ; \mathbf{n}^2 = \frac{4x^2}{(\lambda_+ - \lambda_-)^2} = 1$$

b) $\begin{cases} x_0 = (\lambda_+ + \lambda_-)/2 \\ 4x^2 = (\lambda_+^2 - 2\lambda_+ \lambda_- + \lambda_-^2) \end{cases} \Rightarrow 4x_0^2 = \lambda_+^2 + 2\lambda_+ \lambda_- + \lambda_-^2$

$$\Rightarrow 4(x_0^2 - x^2) = 4\lambda_+ \lambda_-$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_+ + \lambda_- = 2x_0 \\ \lambda_+ \lambda_- = x_0^2 - x^2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_+ = x_0 + \sqrt{x^2} \\ \lambda_- = x_0 - \sqrt{x^2} \end{cases} \quad (\sqrt{x^2} = \|\mathbf{x}\|)$$

$$P = \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\right)/2 ; x_0 + \mathbf{x} = (x_0 + \|\mathbf{x}\|) \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\right)/2 + (x_0 - \|\mathbf{x}\|) \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\right)/2$$

$$\bar{P} = \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}\right)/2$$

c) $(x_0 + \mathbf{x})^2 = (x_0 + \mathbf{x})(x_0 + \mathbf{x}) = (\lambda_+ P + \lambda_- \bar{P})(\lambda_+ P + \lambda_- \bar{P}) =$

$$= \lambda_+^2 P^2 + \lambda_+ \lambda_- P \bar{P} + \lambda_+ \lambda_- \bar{P} P + \lambda_-^2 \bar{P}^2 =$$

$$= \lambda_+^2 P + \lambda_-^2 \bar{P}$$

$$(x_0 + \mathbf{x})^n = (x_0 + \mathbf{x})^{n-1} (x_0 + \mathbf{x}) = (\lambda_+^{n-1} P + \lambda_-^{n-1} \bar{P})(\lambda_+ P + \lambda_- \bar{P}) =$$

$$= \lambda_+^n P + \lambda_-^n \bar{P}$$

d) $f(x) = \sum_i \alpha_i x^i$ is paravector $\Rightarrow x = x_0 + \mathbf{x} = \lambda_+ P + \lambda_- \bar{P}$

$$f(x) = \sum_i \alpha_i (\lambda_+ P + \lambda_- \bar{P})^i = \sum_i \alpha_i (\lambda_+^i P + \lambda_-^i \bar{P}) = f(\lambda_+) P + f(\lambda_-) \bar{P}$$

P 1.13

Rotating frame. Let $\mathbf{r}$ be a time dependent position in a frame rotating at an angular velocity $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ about an axis through the origin $\mathbf{r}=0$. The same position in the stationary frame is given by

$$\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

where $\mathbf{R} = \exp(-i\boldsymbol{\omega} t/2)$. [Note that $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is usually treated as a vector pointing along the axis of rotation. This is satisfactory in three-dimensional space, where there exists a unique axis for any rotation, but in spaces of higher dimensions, one should instead represent the angular velocity by a bivector in the plane of rotation. In three dimensions, the bivector is $i\boldsymbol{\omega}$.] Take the derivatives with respect to time t to relate the velocity and acceleration of the stationary frame to the position, velocity and acceleration in the rotating frame. In particular, prove:

$$\ddot{\mathbf{r}}' = \mathbf{R} [\ddot{\mathbf{r}} + 2 \boldsymbol{\omega} \times \dot{\mathbf{r}} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (\boldsymbol{\omega} \times \mathbf{r})] \mathbf{R}^{-1}$$

(two solutions on the next 2 pages)

Sol 1.13a

In general, for 2 vectors a, b we have $a \wedge b = \frac{ab - ba}{2}$. We consider now $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^3$ (and $\mathcal{E}_3$ algebra) where $a \wedge b = i a \times b$; $i^2 = -1$. The rules for derivative of multiplication are the same: $(\dot{f}g) = \dot{f}g + f\dot{g}$ for any functions of time; where f, g can be multivector function of time.

Formally we have $\dot{R} = (\exp(\frac{i\omega t}{2})) = -\frac{i\omega}{2} R$ where i is the pseudoscalar that commutes with any vector w . We can also use the bivector of the plane of rotation as an equivalent:

$R = \cos \frac{\omega t}{2} + \sin \frac{\omega t}{2} e_1 e_2$; $R^{-1} = \cos(\frac{\omega t}{2}) + \sin(\frac{\omega t}{2}) e_1 e_2$; where e_1, e_2 is an orthonormal base of the plane of rotation and ω is a constant scalar (the angular speed)

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{R} &= \frac{\omega}{2} (-\sin \frac{\omega t}{2} + \cos \frac{\omega t}{2} e_1 e_2) = \\ &= \frac{\omega}{2} e_1 e_2 (\cos \frac{\omega t}{2} + \sin \frac{\omega t}{2} e_1 e_2) = \frac{\omega}{2} e_1 e_2 R \end{aligned}$$

since $e_1 e_2 e_1 e_2 = -1$

By definition $\frac{\omega}{2} e_1 e_2 = -\frac{i\omega}{2} \in \mathbb{C}$. And $\dot{R}^{-1} = \frac{i\omega}{2} R^{-1}$

(an abuse of notation for ω)

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{r}' &= (\dot{R} r R^{-1}) = \dot{R} r R^{-1} + R \dot{r} R^{-1} + R r \dot{R}^{-1} = -\frac{i\omega}{2} R r R^{-1} + R \dot{r} R^{-1} + R r \frac{i\omega}{2} R^{-1} \\ &= R [\dot{r} + \frac{-i\omega r + r i\omega}{2}] R^{-1} = R [\dot{r} + \omega \times r] R^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

since $r \wedge i\omega = \omega \times r$ (!)

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{r}' &= \dot{R} [\dot{r} + \omega \times r] R^{-1} + R [\ddot{r} + \omega \times \dot{r}] R^{-1} + R [\dot{r} + \omega \times r] \dot{R}^{-1} = \\ &= -\frac{i\omega}{2} R [\dot{r} + \omega \times r] R^{-1} + R [\ddot{r} + \omega \times \dot{r}] R^{-1} + R [\dot{r} + \omega \times r] \frac{i\omega}{2} R^{-1} \\ &= R \left[\underbrace{-\frac{i\omega}{2} \dot{r} + \dot{r} \frac{i\omega}{2}}_{\omega \times \dot{r}} + \underbrace{-\frac{i\omega}{2} (\omega \times r) + (\omega \times r) \frac{i\omega}{2}}_{\omega \times (\omega \times r)} + \ddot{r} + \omega \times r \right] R^{-1} \\ &= R [\omega \times \dot{r} + \omega \times (\omega \times r) + \ddot{r} + \omega \times r] R^{-1} = R [\ddot{r} + 2\omega \times r + \omega \times (\omega \times r)] R^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Sol 1.3b

We will use the isomorphism between $\mathcal{C}_3$ on $\mathbb{R}$ and the space of paravectors with coeffs in $\mathbb{C}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{matrix} \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R} & \in \mathbb{R} \\ 5 + \sum_{k=1}^3 \alpha_k e_k & + \beta_3 e_1 e_2 + \beta_1 e_2 e_3 + \beta_2 e_3 e_1 + \mu e_1 e_2 e_3 \end{matrix} \longleftrightarrow \\ & \begin{matrix} \in \mathbb{C} & \in \mathbb{C} \\ (5 + i\mu) + \sum_{k=1}^3 (\alpha_k + i\beta_k) e_k \end{matrix} \end{aligned}$$

The cross (a vectorial) product $\times$ is defined as having distributivity property and for each pair of orthonormal base elements of the Paravectors $\mathcal{P}$ over $\mathbb{C}$

$$e_1 \times e_2 = e_3, \quad e_2 \times e_3 = e_1, \quad e_3 \times e_1 = e_2; \quad e_i \times e_j = -e_j \times e_i$$

and distributivity $a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$ $a, b, c \in \mathcal{P}$

It is easy to see that if $a = \sum_{k=1}^3 \alpha_k e_k$ and $b = \sum_{k=1}^3 \beta_k e_k$ $a, b \in \mathcal{C}_3$

that $a \wedge (b+c) = a \wedge b + a \wedge c$ and $\alpha(a \wedge b) = (\alpha a) \wedge b = a \wedge (\alpha b)$

and any property of $\wedge$ applied to e_k, e_m will appear on the general vectors composed of the basis.

$$\text{Thus } e_1 \wedge e_2 = \frac{e_1 e_2 - e_2 e_1}{2} = e_1 e_2 \longleftrightarrow i e_3 = i(e_1 \times e_2)$$

$\uparrow$ see the isomorphism

$$e_2 \wedge e_3 = e_2 e_3 \longleftrightarrow i e_1 = i(e_2 \times e_3)$$

$$e_3 \wedge e_1 = e_3 e_1 \longleftrightarrow i e_2 = i(e_3 \times e_1)$$

and as a consequence $a \wedge b \longleftrightarrow i(a \times b)$

$$\mathcal{C}_3 \ni R = \cos(\frac{\Omega t}{2}) + \sin(\frac{\Omega t}{2}) e_1 e_2 \longleftrightarrow \exp(\frac{i \Omega t}{2}) \text{ where } \Omega \in \{e_1, e_2\} \in \mathcal{P} \text{ over } \mathbb{C}$$

$$\dot{R} = \frac{\Omega}{2} e_1 e_2 R \text{ } \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{rotation} \\ \text{plane} \end{matrix} \right\} \longleftrightarrow \frac{i \Omega}{2} R$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{R} &= (\dot{R} R^{-1}) = \dot{R} R^{-1} + R \dot{R}^{-1} + R R \dot{R}^{-1} = R \left[\frac{\Omega}{2} e_1 e_2 + \dot{R} - R \frac{\Omega e_1 e_2}{2} \right] R^{-1} = \\ &= R \left[\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2 R - R e_1 e_2) \right] R^{-1} = R \left[\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R \right] R^{-1} \longleftrightarrow R [\dot{R} + i \Omega \times R] R^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{R} &= R \left[\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2 R - R e_1 e_2) \right] R^{-1} = R \left[\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2 R - R e_1 e_2) \right] R^{-1} + \\ &\quad + R \left[\dot{R}^{-1} \right] R^{-1} = \\ &= R \left[\frac{\Omega}{2} e_1 e_2 (\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R) + \ddot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge \dot{R} + (\dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R) \frac{\Omega}{2} e_1 e_2 \right] R^{-1} \\ &= R \left[\ddot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2 \dot{R} - \dot{R} e_1 e_2) + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge \dot{R} + \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge (\frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R) - \frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R \frac{\Omega}{2} e_1 e_2 \right] R^{-1} \\ &\quad \underbrace{2 \Omega (e_1 e_2) \wedge \dot{R}}_{\sim 2i \Omega \times \dot{R}} \quad \underbrace{\frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge \left[\frac{\Omega}{2} (e_1 e_2) \wedge R \right]}_{\sim i \Omega \times (\Omega \times R)} \end{aligned}$$

P 1.14

Antisymmetric products. It is often convenient to consider antisymmetric (“outer”) products of the paravector basis elements e_μ , $\mu=0,1,2,3$ of $\mathcal{G}_3$ and their spatial reversals. Such products, indicated by $\wedge$ (...), are defined to change the sign under the interchange of any two indices, thus

$\wedge \langle \dots e_\mu \bar{e}_\nu \dots \rangle = - \wedge \langle \dots e_\nu \bar{e}_\mu \dots \rangle$. All permutation of the indices can be generated by successive applications of such interchanges. Prove that:

$$\wedge \langle e_\mu \bar{e}_\nu \rangle = \langle e_\mu \bar{e}_\nu \rangle_{\mathcal{V}} \text{ where } \mathcal{V} \text{ is the Vector part}$$

$$\wedge \langle e_\lambda \bar{e}_\mu e_\nu \rangle = \langle e_\lambda \bar{e}_\mu e_\nu \rangle_{\mathcal{I}} \text{ where } \mathcal{I} \text{ is the Imaginary part}$$

Show that if the basis elements are all spatial vectors $i \langle e_j e_k e_l \rangle = \epsilon_{jkl}$, the fully antisymmetric (levi-Cevita) symbol in three dimensions, defined by

$$\epsilon_{123} = \epsilon_{231} = \epsilon_{312} = -\epsilon_{213} = -\epsilon_{132} = -\epsilon_{321} = -1.$$

Also note, but do not prove (too tedious!) the relations:

and is the fully antisymmetric (Levi-Cevita) symbol in four dimensions with $\epsilon_{1230} = 1$.

(skipped the proof for now)

P 1.15

Golden ratio and five-pointed stars. Let R be an invertible rotation operator of the form $\exp(\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \theta) = \cos \theta + (\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2) \sin \theta$, with θ chosen such that $R^5 - 1 = 0$.

a) Factor the expression $R^5 - 1 = 0$ to show that unless R is identity, it must satisfy:

$$R^{-2} + R^{-1} + 1 + R + R^2 = 0$$

and solve this equation to obtain exact numerical expression for $\cos \theta$. There should be four distinct values of θ in the range $-\pi < \theta < \pi$ that satisfy the above expression.

b) Let $\mathbf{v}$ be any vector in the $\mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2$ plane and interpret the expression:

$$\mathbf{v}(R^{-2} + R^{-1} + 1 + R + R^2)$$

as stating the existence of a closed five-sided polygon. Sketch the polygon, showing the directions of the vectors that make up the sides, for each of the four allowed angles θ .

c) Prove that the ratio of the distance between nonadjacent vertices of the polygon to the length of a side is either the golden ratio g or its inverse, namely $g^{\pm 1} = 1/2(\sqrt{5} \pm 1)$.

Sol. 1.15

a) It's easy to show that $R \cdot R^m = R^m R$ with $\forall m \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $R^m = \cos(m\theta) + \mathbf{e}_1 \mathbf{e}_2 \sin(m\theta) \Rightarrow (R-1)(R^4 + R^3 + R^2 + R + 1) = R^5 - 1 = 0$
 $\Rightarrow$ since $R \neq 1$ $R^4 + R^3 + R^2 + R + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow$
 $R^{-2}(R^4 + R^3 + R^2 + R + 1) = 0 \Rightarrow R^2 + R + 1 + R^{-1} + R^{-2} = 0$
 Since both the scalar and the coef of the bivector must be zero $\Rightarrow \cos 2\theta + \cos \theta + 1 + \cos(-\theta) + \cos(-2\theta) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow 2\cos 2\theta + 2\cos \theta + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow 2(2x^2 - 1) + 2x + 1 = 0$
 where $x = \cos \theta$; with solutions $x_{1,2} = (-1 \pm \sqrt{5})/4$
 both solutions are valid $|x_{1,2}| < 1$. Since $\cos \theta = \cos(-\theta)$
 we have 4 solutions in the interval $(-\pi, \pi)$

b)

c) distance between 2 nonadjacent vertices:
 $\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R\|, \|\mathbf{v}R + \mathbf{v}R^2\|, \|\mathbf{v}R^2 + \mathbf{v}R^3\|, \|\mathbf{v}R^3 + \mathbf{v}R^4\|, \|\mathbf{v}R^4 + \mathbf{v}\|$
 we know that $\|R\| = 1$ (by definition & $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$)
 Using associativity $\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R\| = \|(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R)R\| = \|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R^2\| \dots$
 We are interested in the ratio $r = \frac{\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R\|}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$. We can rescale by
 imposing $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$ (using $\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$ for example); $\mathbf{v}$ in the $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\}$ plane
 $\mathbf{v} = \cos \alpha \mathbf{e}_1 + \sin \alpha \mathbf{e}_2 \Rightarrow \mathbf{v}R = \cos(\alpha + \theta) \mathbf{e}_1 + \sin(\alpha + \theta) \mathbf{e}_2 \Rightarrow$
 $r^2 = \|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}R\|^2 = \cos^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2(\alpha + \theta) + \sin^2(\alpha + \theta) + 2\cos \alpha \cos(\alpha + \theta) + 2\sin \alpha \sin(\alpha + \theta)$
 $= 2 + 2\cos 2\theta$ where θ is from a) above
 $= 2 + \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2} = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$
 $g^2 = \left(\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{5} \pm 1)\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4}(5 + 1 \pm 2\sqrt{5}) = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} r^2 = g^2 \Rightarrow r = g \end{array} \right\}$

P 1.16

Fibonacci sequence. Define a parameter γ by $\gamma = gP - g^{-1}P$, where P is the projector $P = 1/2(1 + \mathbf{n})$ (see problem 1.11) with $\mathbf{n}$ a real unit vector, and g is the golden ratio (see previous problem).

a) prove that γ is antiunimodular, i.e. that $\gamma \bar{\gamma} = -1$ and $\gamma \mathbf{n}$ is unimodular.

b) Find γ^2 and use it to show that $\gamma^{n+1} = \gamma^n + \gamma^{n-1}$

c) Demonstrate that any integer power γ^n of γ can be expressed in the form $\gamma^n = a_n \gamma + a_{n-1}$ where a_n is the n th member of the Fibonacci sequence defined iteratively by $a_0=0, a_1=1, a_{n+1} = a_n + a_{n-1}$.

d) From the definition of γ , prove that $\gamma^n = g^n P + (-1/g)^n \bar{P}$ and use the limit of this expression for large n to show that $\lim (n \rightarrow \infty) a_{n+1}/a_n = g$

Sol 1.16 a) γ is antiunimodular if $\gamma \bar{\gamma} = \bar{\gamma} \gamma = -1$

$$\gamma \bar{\gamma} = (gP - g^{-1}\bar{P})(g\bar{P} - g^{-1}P) = g^2 P \bar{P} - \cancel{P^2} - \bar{P}^2 + g^{-2} \bar{P} P = -(P + \bar{P}) = -1$$

since $\bar{P}P = P\bar{P} = 0$ and $P^2 = P, \bar{P}^2 = \bar{P}$ and $P + \bar{P} = 1$

$$(\gamma \mathbf{n})(\bar{\gamma} \mathbf{n}) = (\gamma \mathbf{n}) | \gamma \mathbf{n} | = (gP - g^{-1}\bar{P}) \mathbf{n} (g\bar{P} - g^{-1}P) \mathbf{n} =$$

since $\mathbf{n}$ is real

$$= (g \frac{1}{2}(1+\mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} - g^{-1} \frac{1}{2}(1-\mathbf{n})\mathbf{n}) (g \frac{1}{2}(1-\mathbf{n})\mathbf{n} - g^{-1} \frac{1}{2}(1+\mathbf{n})\mathbf{n}) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (g(n+1) - g^{-1}(n-1)) (g(n-1) - g^{-1}(n+1)) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (g^2(n^2-1) - (n^2-2n+1) - (n^2+2n+1) + g^{-2}(n^2-1)) = \frac{1}{2} (-4) = -1$$

b) g is the golden ratio $a/b = \frac{b-a}{a} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{g} = g - 1 \Rightarrow g^2 - g - 1 = 0$

$$\gamma^2 = (gP - g^{-1}\bar{P})(gP - g^{-1}\bar{P}) = g^2 P^2 - \cancel{P\bar{P}} - \cancel{\bar{P}P} + g^{-2} \bar{P}^2 = g^2 P^2 + g^{-2} \bar{P}^2$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} g^2 = 1+g \\ 1 = g^2 + g^{-1} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \gamma^2 = (1+g)P^2 + (1-g^{-1})\bar{P}^2 = P + \bar{P} + (gP - g^{-1}\bar{P}) = 1 + \gamma$$

$$\gamma^3 = \gamma \gamma^2 = \gamma(1+\gamma) = \gamma + \gamma^2$$

$$\gamma^4 = \gamma \gamma^3 = \gamma(\gamma + \gamma^2) = \gamma^2 + \gamma^3$$

induction

c) $\gamma^3 = \gamma \gamma^2 = \gamma + (1+\gamma) = 2\gamma + 1 = a_2 \gamma + a_1$

$$\gamma^4 = (a_3 \gamma + a_2) \gamma = a_3 \gamma^2 + a_2 \gamma = a_3(1+\gamma) + a_2 \gamma = (a_3 + a_2) \gamma + a_3$$

$\gamma^n = a_n \gamma + a_{n-1}$ assumed true for induction

$$\gamma^{n+1} = \gamma(a_n \gamma + a_{n-1}) = a_n \gamma^2 + \gamma a_{n-1} = a_n(1+\gamma) + \gamma a_{n-1} = a_n + a_{n+1}$$

and by definition

d) from b) $\gamma^2 = g^2 P^2 + g^{-2} \bar{P}^2; \gamma^3 = (gP - g^{-1}\bar{P})(g^2 P^2 + g^{-2} \bar{P}^2) =$

$$= g^3 P^3 - g^2 P \bar{P}^2 + g^{-1} P \bar{P}^2 - g \bar{P} P^2 = g^3 P + (-g^{-1})^3 \bar{P}$$

using induction $\gamma^n = g^n P + (-g^{-1})^n \bar{P}$

for $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ it is easier to use analysis: $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{a_n + a_{n-1}}{a_n} = 1 + \frac{a_{n-1}}{a_n}$

if limit exists and is $l \Rightarrow l = 1 + l^{-1}$ and by induction

$$1 < \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} < 2 \Rightarrow \text{use only positive solution of } l^2 - l - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow l = g$$