

On The Gravity

(the “Rainbow Particle” theory) v.2

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Abstract: This paper presents an unconventional view on the gravity force and the way it manifests in particle interactions via a newly-introduced particle; introduces the “energy density function” of this particle and the way it affects the surrounding particles by its physical field.

I

This paper assumes that the gravity is a force exhibited by a particle called “graviton”. While not universally accepted and not strictly defined to date, the name “graviton” is quite easy to associate with the gravity. In the long run, the definition of “graviton” may change while the association of the name “graviton” with the gravity won’t probably change ever.

In order to define what graviton is, it is necessary to make a certain axiomatic assumption: the energy level (in J) of a particle changes in an impulse manner, but not instantly. When the first given particle’s energy level increases, the energy is transferred to that particle from the second given particle. If the first particle’s energy level decreases, the energy is transferred to the second particle, or is radiated out. But right before coming into the full contact with the second particle and getting or losing the energy, the first particle is initially placed at a certain distance from the second particle, and thus the first particle has to “travel” this additional distance. This distance is called the “transient distance”.

In the simplest case, on a 2-dimensional plot, we can set the positions of these two given particles on the X axis symmetrically around $x=0$ (with $x=0$ position being in-between two particles), and put the cumulative energy level change of the first particle on the Y axis. We may use a suitable step function in the form of cumulative distribution function of the Gaussian distribution ($f_{ec}(x)=\Delta E/2*(1+\text{erf}(x/\sqrt{2*\sigma^2}))$) J (1) to approximate the first particle’s energy level change over the transient distance: it approaches zero at the initial position x_1 (e.g. $x_1=-2$) of the first particle, and approaches ΔE at the position x_2 (e.g. $x_2=2$) of the second particle (ΔE is the total energy level change of the first particle, σ depends on the transient distance). The farther the first particle has travelled from its initial position towards the second particle along the transient distance, the larger the cumulative energy level change of the first particle is.

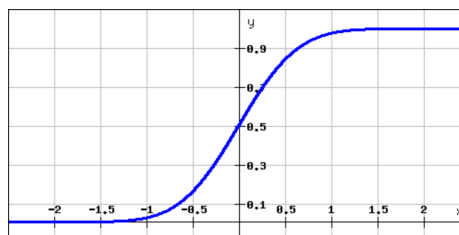


Figure 1: $y=f_{ec}(x)/\Delta E, \sigma=0.5$

The exact value of ΔE and the energy level change of the second particle depend on the states and interactions of and between the particles, and this is out of the scope of this paper. However, the energy level change of the second particle changes in a manner similar to the first particle, in a step function manner, and the paragraphs above can be formulated as if the second particle is getting the energy from the first particle, or is losing it.

The approach presented in this paper is similarly applicable to both kinetic and potential energy, and thus this approach does not make a clear distinction between the both: ΔE can be either kinetic energy level delta or potential energy level delta. The integration domain of the function (1) can be also chosen arbitrarily instead of the “meter” as used in this paper.

Such treatment of particle’s energy level change is quite different to the one commonly used in physics now: commonly it is assumed that particle’s energy level changes instantly and does not require introduction of any “transient distance” step function. In reality, it is reasonable to assume that the energy is transferred to or from the particle during some span of distance or time, not instantly.

II

The aforementioned step function (1) integrates the Gaussian probability density function ($f_{ed}(x)=\Delta E*\exp(-x^2/(2*\sigma^2)) / \text{sqrt}(\pi*2*\sigma^2)$) J/m (2). If mapped over the Y axis, the function (2) shows the magnitude of the first particle’s energy level change over the transient distance, with such magnitude being maximal at $x=0$, right in-between the initial positions of two particles. Such “energy level change over the transient distance” is vital to introduction of a new particle: the function (2), without the ΔE multiplier, can be viewed as representing the probability density function of a new particle. The function (2) itself is equivalent to the “energy density function” of this particle, although this concept may be somewhat new. In the essence, this new particle represents the energy which the first particle loses or gains, with this energy spread over an area of space between two particles. In other terms, the “energy density function” is the spectral convolution of the energy by the probability density function.

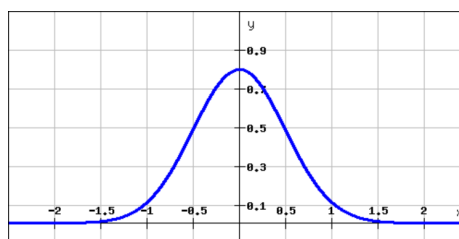


Figure 2: $y=f_{ed}(x)/\Delta E, \sigma=0.5$

This new particle is what this paper presents as graviton. The graviton is a particle which may be detected directly: it may manifest itself as a real physical particle with its specific energy spectrum. In cases when the energy of this particle is fully contained within a certain particle-interaction system, the graviton is treated as a virtual particle. In a free-standing formulation in 3-dimensional space, the “energy density function” of graviton is equal to:

$E_{gf}(x, y, z) = \Delta E \cdot A \cdot \exp(-((x-x_0)^2/(2 \cdot \sigma_x^2) + (y-y_0)^2/(2 \cdot \sigma_y^2) + (z-z_0)^2/(2 \cdot \sigma_z^2))) \text{ J/m}^3$ (3). Where point (x_0, y_0, z_0) is the center of graviton in space; ΔE – graviton’s energy (particle’s gained or lost energy); A – coefficient of energy proportionality; $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$ are coefficients of spatial proportionality, collectively they define the energy density symmetry, and may not be equal to each other, leading to an anisotropy and non-symmetry of the gravity force which can be hypothesized. In the simplest case, when the gravity force is isotropic, the “energy density function” of graviton is equal to:

$E_g(x, y, z) = \Delta E \cdot A \cdot \exp(-((x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2 + (z-z_0)^2)/B) \text{ J/m}^3$ (4). Where B is the coefficient of spatial proportionality.

III

Various energy transfers between particles, their acceleration and deceleration included, can be mediated via gravitons. In most cases this will be redundant due to a high locality of energy transfers between particles, but in some cases such mediation is a requirement. It is known that in a particle accelerator a particle that quickly reduces its velocity in an electromagnetic (EM) field produces EM radiation known as Bremsstrahlung – a braking radiation. Bremsstrahlung is such case when a graviton is involved.

In order to validly equate graviton’s EM spectrum to a measurable Bremsstrahlung spectrum, it is important to note that the Fourier transform energy spectrum of (1) on the log scale falls by $\log(0.5) \approx -0.6931$ per doubling of the frequency (or “per octave”), fig.3, and is non-zero though not infinite on the linear energy spectrum scale, at zero frequency. Bremsstrahlung exhibits a similar spectrum near zero frequency, and so the Fourier transform of (1) can be used as a model of Bremsstrahlung EM spectrum up to a certain cutoff frequency (e.g. X-ray frequency). In simple terms, this means that the lower part of graviton’s energy spectrum has the energy spectrum of Bremsstrahlung from zero to up to X-ray frequency. The higher part of graviton’s energy spectrum is the spectral convolution of X-ray energy by graviton’s probability density function.

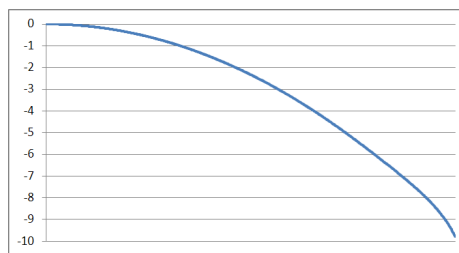


Figure 3: Normalized **log** energy spectrum of graviton near zero frequency (equals 0 at zero frequency). This figure only shows the approximate slope on a linear frequency scale (horizontal axis).

This theory assumes that the X-ray energy emitted during Bremsstrahlung is a cascade effect of particle acceleration or deceleration, with the primary cause being the lower part of graviton’s energy spectrum. X-ray energy is the unabsorbed part of graviton’s energy which may be absent if X-ray energy was fully absorbed. The lower part of graviton’s energy spectrum produces a huge leveraging effect on the energy level of particles: while ΔE in equations (3) and (4) includes the full energy spectrum, the lower part of graviton’s energy spectrum may be only

a fraction of this full energy spectrum. Hence, in the general case ΔE can be represented as $\Delta E = \Delta E_l + \Delta E_h$, where ΔE_l is the lower part and ΔE_h is the higher part (including the X-ray frequencies) of graviton's energy spectrum (ΔE_h is calculated in the frequency domain). The "leverage ratio" $\Delta E_h / \Delta E_l$ (with ΔE_l being always a scalar value) depends on the specific particle interactions. Hypothetically, ΔE_h is oscillatory and equals to some sort of sinusoidal function on real or imaginary plane; at the same time it can be hypothesized that if ΔE_l is zero, equations (3) and (4) represent the "energy density function" of a photon. On the macroscopic scale, ΔE_h is usually equal to zero due to statistically-based absorption).

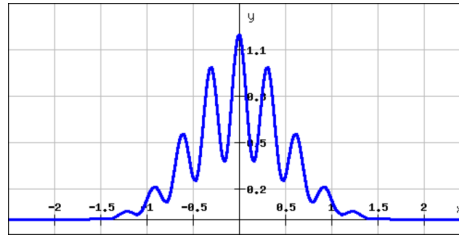


Figure 4: $y=f_{ed}(x)$, $\Delta E=1+\cos(x*20)*0.5$, $\sigma=0.5$

A free-form example of graviton's "energy density function" in the case of X-ray Bremsstrahlung.

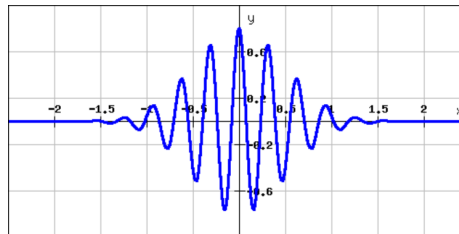


Figure 5: $y=f_{ed}(x)$, $\Delta E=\cos(x*20)$, $\sigma=0.5$

A free-form example of "energy density function" of a photon, $\Delta E_l=0$.

IV

A new important concept in relation to graviton and its energy at zero frequency is the induction of displacement in the surrounding particles. If we take some particle that oscillates around its parametric center in a sinusoidal manner, we can measure the frequency of such oscillation: it can be any value except zero. In the case of Fourier transform of (1) the estimated energy spectrum reaches zero frequency. Presence of energy at zero frequency is what puts graviton into a special position among particles. The energy at zero frequency induces displacement in the surrounding particles, in a progressive, non-oscillatory manner.

In the essence, such displacement function of graviton creates a physical (gravity) field around it. When some particle P with the given coordinates and the vector-energy E_p is put into this field, it begins to gain energy ($E_p' = E_p + \iiint E_g(x, y, z) * V_g(x, y, z) * D_p(x, y, z) dx dy dz * V_{gk}$) J (5) from this field; the triple integral's range includes the area surrounding the particle. $E_g(x, y, z)$ is the equation (3) or (4), or similar in sense. On the macroscopic scale, the vector field function $V_g(x, y, z)$ is equal to the unit vector pointing from (x, y, z) to the center of this field plus a proportional vector of angular momentum, but on the microscopic scale the function $V_g(x, y, z)$ is equal to scalar value 1 and may be omitted. The scalar function $D_p(x, y, z)$ is proportional to

particle's probability density function. The unit vector V_{gk} is the unit kinetic energy vector of the field.

The field performs work by displacing this particle P. Since the gain of energy by the particle in this field is a persistent, cumulative process, the field accelerates or decelerates the particle until all energy of the field was transferred to the particle. However, if ΔE in $E_g(x, y, z)$ includes only an oscillatory member, the net displacement of the particle will lean towards zero, and the energy of such oscillatory member may trigger particle's kinetic or potential energy level shift or simply go unabsorbed.

It can be hypothesized that the calculation of dynamics of a particle under the influence of several overlapping gravity fields can be performed simply by summing vector-energy integrals of gravity fields at particle's position, as in equation (5), as separate terms. The non-linear effects usually attributed to the gravity force like redshift, lensing, time dilatation can be a result of the energy gain equation (5) and do not need any specific modeling.

On a macroscopic scale, the "energy density functions" (3) and (4) and the energy gain equation (5) must include additional multiplier members to scale up to the macroscopic numbers of particles, which is usually "mole" or "mass", but see below.

V

Note that the term "mass" was not mentioned throughout this paper. It is because "mass" may be a vague term as far as gravity fields are concerned: an atom we call "massive" gains energy during a free fall in a gravity field faster than a lighter atom (accelerations of both atoms are equal while the masses are different), but it can be hypothesized that in a free-standing case the heavier atom may not have a gravity field proportional to its free fall mass. Hence, the use of a known "mass" multiplier may be precise only in some cases as far as gravity fields are concerned. Unfortunately, today there may be no better alternative to "mass" since no universally-accepted gravity field measurement method exists yet. It is a hope of the author that this paper gives an idea for such measurement method.

VI

Given the overall description of the graviton above, it can be hypothesized that for an atom to have a gravity field its subatomic particles have to travel in mostly elliptical orbits, with the periods of deceleration and acceleration that lead to creation of gravitons. Thus, on subatomic level the gravity field is not constant and manifests itself as impulse trains that contribute to atomic decay (meaning fast-decaying atoms and plasmas may have a greater gravity field). EM radiation of pulsars, the double-star systems, may be an example of such graviton Bremsstrahlung impulse trains on a cosmic scale.

It can be also hypothesized that a particle with kinetic energy is actually "carried forward" by a leading graviton placed at a certain distance from particle's center, along its kinetic energy vector, with graviton's vector-energy equal to particle's kinetic vector-energy. In free space,

such “particle carried by a leading graviton” forms a dynamic kinetic system that exhibits no acceleration and no Bremsstrahlung radiation. In the essence, the kinetic energy of a particle can be represented as its additional gravity field that may interact with other particles via equation (5). This hypothesis leads to a hypothesis of “inertial drag effect” meaning that a particle with considerable kinetic energy drags a slower particle placed at a distance (note that the photon having its $\Delta E_i=0$ has zero kinetic energy in terms of this paper while its potential energy is “stored” as its frequency).

During the time when graviton lives, the energy that this graviton has can be absorbed by any third particle. This is what a macroscopic gravity field demonstrates. This macroscopic gravity field is a sum of graviton fields of particles of a macroscopic body. Any third particle that passes nearby this field absorbs the energy of gravitons of this macroscopic field.

Several particles that have a nearly equal kinetic vector-energies and that travel in space in a train formation, one after another along the same directional vector, tend to group with each other over time due to mutual energy loss and gain like via the equation (5). This explains why repetitive oceanic waves tend to form rogue waves (solitons), and why acoustic waves tend to form shock waves over time. A similar “particle train” method can be probably utilized to perform an energy-efficient, low-energy fusion.

If required, the equation (1) can be expressed via the Heaviside step function and the equation (2) can be expressed via the Dirac delta function (with its “a” parameter controlling the “transient distance”). Other similar in sense step and delta functions can be used for better approximations.

Graviton, having mostly a continuous spectrum can be called the “rainbow particle”.

This theory assumes that there is no space-time curvature exists and that gravity is not propagated as waves of changes of this space-time curvature. And so, the “gravitational radiation” must be reformulated to be just a lower part of the Bremsstrahlung radiation spectrum, again not involving any space-time curvature. It can be hypothesized that in order to detect gravity field changes it is necessary to precisely measure ambient energy spectrum around zero frequency, which requires electromagnetic equipment of a high precision. Any particle interactions that lead to an increased ambient energy spectrum around zero frequency can be hypothesized to be interacting with or via gravitons.