

# The Hubble constant $H_0$ is not constant, but proportional to the density of free electrons

Herbert Weidner<sup>A</sup>

**Abstract:** If electromagnetic radiation is transmitted from  $A$  to  $B$ , the total received amplitude is calculated from the sum of secondary waves of the Fresnel zones. Whenever the electromagnetic wave packet crosses a thin plasma, the free electrons are accelerated and therefore radiate undirected energy which is taken from the wave packet. In dense plasma, this frequency reduction has already been proven<sup>5</sup>. The wave packet does not change its direction, but its frequency will be reduced. The Hubble constant is replaced by  $H_0 = c \omega n_e$ . The correct relationship between distance and redshift is  $D = z/(\omega n_e)$ . The redshift is no scattering effect and does *not* depend on  $\omega$  and  $\lambda$ . The measured values of dispersion measure (radio astronomy) and redshift (optical astronomy) depend on each other:  $z = \omega \cdot DM$

Keywords: envelope, wave packet, secondary wave, redshift, unbound electrons, dispersion measure

## Introduction

J. J. Thomson assumed that the [scattering of light](#) by electrons is a linear process. Under the then possible measurement accuracy the wavelength remained constant. That's not quite right, because the electron is accelerated and therefore [radiates](#) energy. Strictly speaking, the term "scattering" is wrong because this implies a change in direction. A wave does not "collide" with a particle. If an electron is accelerated by linearly polarized light, it can not store energy but radiates like a dipole antenna. There is no preferred direction of emission and therefore no recoil. Afterwards, the electron is at rest again. The direction of light remains unchanged, but it loses a tiny amount of energy. When the light encounters many unbound electrons on its way from a great distance, the energy loss is obvious.

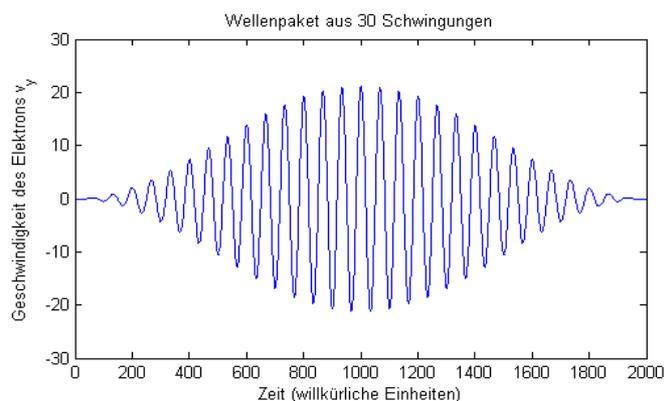
## Model of the envelope

In textbooks, an electromagnetic wave is usually described by the formula

$$E = E_{max} \cdot \cos(\omega t) \quad \text{with} \quad -\infty < t < \infty$$

without mentioning that this representation is valid only for infinitely high energy content. The energy of a real wave is always finite and therefore the wave must be limited in time, have a beginning and an end. The wave can not produce an infinite number of infinitely extended wave fronts, as is often assumed in order

to simplify the mathematical description. A meaningful discussion must be based on a wave packet of finite duration, whose envelope is continuous and outside a certain interval assumes the value zero. For lines in the optical spectral range, the exact shape of the envelope is unknown.



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A) 8. Mai 2014, email: [herbertweidner@gmx.de](mailto:herbertweidner@gmx.de)

There are many possible shapes, the following definition is used below: During the time period

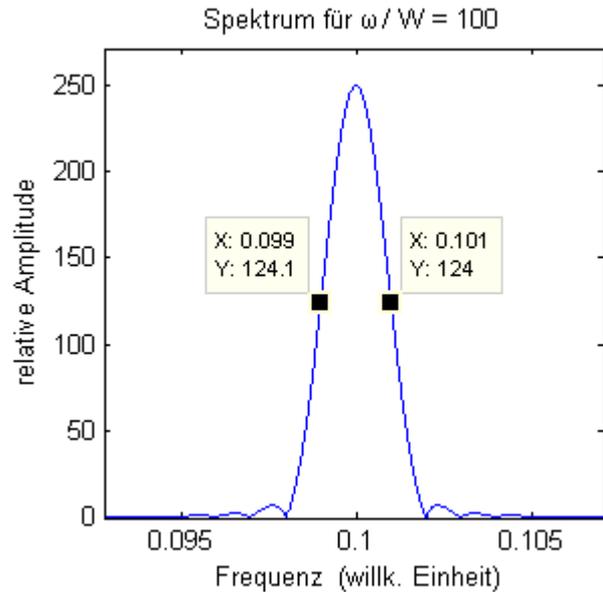
$0 \leq W \cdot t < 2\pi$ , the formula  $E = \frac{1 - \cos(Wt)}{2} \cdot E_{max} \cdot \cos(\omega t)$  describes the electric field strength.

To produce a slow modulation, the pre-factor must satisfy the condition  $W \ll \omega$ . The wave packet described is shown in the picture above. Each modulation of a wave produces a certain amount of bandwidth, which can be measured. For example, the natural line width of the sodium D-line is about 10 MHz, and the wave packet generated lasts about  $10^7$  cycles, which corresponds to a length of 6 m. The limiting case  $W \rightarrow 0$  describes a constant-amplitude wave with infinite extent and is not discussed here.

Each modulation generates so-called sideband frequencies in the vicinity of  $\omega$ , their amplitudes decrease generally with increasing frequency separation. The sideband frequencies occupy a frequency range which is called natural line width. Numerical tests show that the exact shape of the envelope does not affect the results of this study if the shape is sufficiently smooth and contains no discontinuities. The FWHM bandwidth is  $\Delta\omega = 2W$  and the line width is

$$\Delta\lambda \approx \frac{4\pi W c}{\omega^2} = \frac{\lambda^2 W}{c\pi}$$

Hereinafter only waveforms are considered, which consist of at least 100 oscillations, so  $W \ll \omega$  is ensured. Those assumptions are true for most of the spectral lines.



Once a free, unpaired electron falls into the

sphere of influence of the wave packet, it is accelerated by the electric field component during the period  $0 \leq W \cdot t < 2\pi$ . Before and after the electron is at rest, the temperature of the plasma is unchanged. Because the wave packet moves with the speed of light, it has finite length, the

coherence length  $L \approx \frac{2\pi c}{W}$ . If the wave moves in the dispersion-free space, the coherence length

remains unchanged and there is no wave packet spreading. For virtually all spectral lines in the visible light region, the coherence length is shorter than 10 m and therefore the electron is affected

by the wave packet only for the duration of  $\Delta t = \frac{L}{c} \approx 33 \text{ ns}$ . For simplicity, it is assumed that

during this short period, the unbound electrons are not disturbed by impacts of other plasma particles and the positions of the positive ions of the plasma do not change perceptibly.

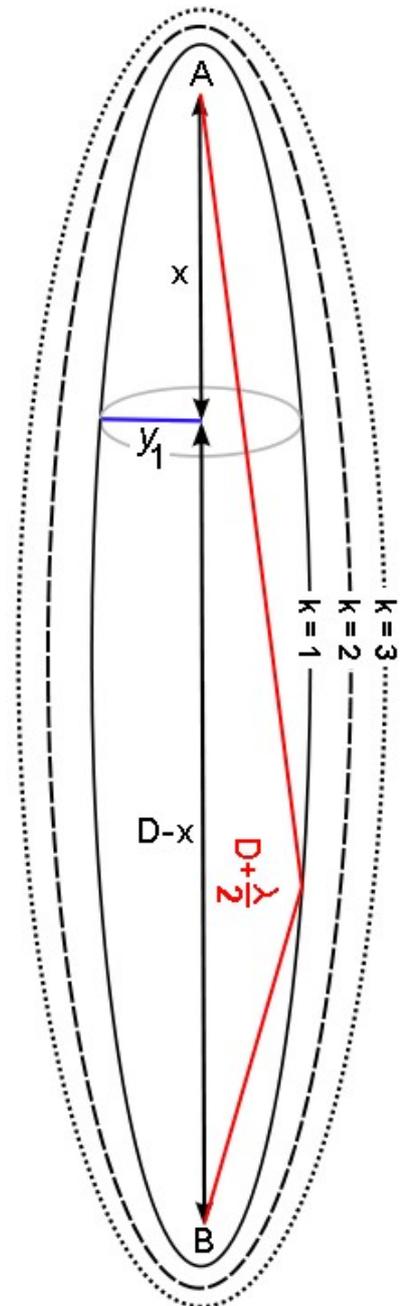
## The Fresnel zones

In radio-technical terms, the observation of astronomical objects is a point-to-point connection, whose transmission quality is also affected by objects far away from the line of sight. Fresnel had the idea that each light source generates spherical waves that make each space point to the starting point of a new elementary wave. Adding up these at the destination  $B$  with correct phases and amplitudes, we obtain the received amplitude. Depending on the location of the spatial point  $P$ , the total path  $A-P-B$  is always a detour compared to the shortest distance  $\overline{AB}=D$ . Depending on the length of the detour, the elementary wave starting at  $P$  leads to constructive or destructive interference at the receiving point  $B$ . To enable a mathematical description, the line of sight is enveloped by three-dimensional boundaries, which are defined by

$$\overline{AP} + \overline{PB} = D + \frac{k \cdot \lambda}{2} \quad \text{with } k \in 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

These boundaries are ellipsoids around the line of sight as a symmetry axis, with focal points  $A$  and  $B$ .

- The innermost, first Fresnel zone is enclosed by the envelope surface  $k = 1$ . All elementary waves arising inside interfere constructively in  $B$ , because the phase shift is between  $0$  and  $\pi$  (compared with the shortest path). In that zone the main part of the energy is transferred. If the reception of all other elementary waves is prevented by a suitable pinhole, the amplitude at  $B$  is doubled. In contrast, when only the reception from the first Fresnel zone is prevented, the received amplitude does not change.
- For all elementary waves from the second Fresnel zone between the interfaces  $k = 1$  and  $k = 2$ , the phase shift is between  $\pi$  and  $2\pi$  (compared to the shortest path). Because they tend to compensate the elementary waves from the first zone due to destructive interference, in a zone plate they are suppressed by an annulus.
- The third Fresnel zone between the interfaces  $k=2$  and  $k=3$  follows. The outgoing elementary waves from here have phase shifts between  $2\pi$  and  $3\pi$  and enhance the overall amplitude in  $B$  by constructive interference.
- The energy contributions from far outboard shells decrease slowly and the elementary waves of adjacent shells largely compensate in pairs.



If the Fresnel ellipsoids are cut at a distance  $x$  from the light source transversely to the axis of symmetry and are marked according to the phases (constructive or destructive), a central circle with surrounding concentric circular rings is obtained like a [Fresnel zone plate](#). In sufficient distance

from  $A$  and  $B$ , the radii of the respective limits are calculated to  $y_k = \frac{1}{D} \sqrt{k \lambda D x (D-x)}$  with

$k \in 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . When the light source emits radiation with a large coherence length, many Fresnel zones contribute to the total intensity at the receiving point  $B$ . The largest radius of every zone is located in the middle of the distance star-earth and has the value  $R_k = 0.5 \cdot \sqrt{k \lambda D}$ .

For remote objects enormous values result:

- if pulsar pulses are measured ( $f = 430$  MHz), the innermost zone has the diameter  $2 \cdot R_1(PSR B0531+21) = 6.9 \cdot 10^9 m$
- observing the nearest quasar with visible light, the diameter of the first Fresnel zone has about the same size  $2 \cdot R_1(3C273) = 3.6 \cdot 10^9 m$ .

In the laboratory, the size of the test setup is generally less than the coherence length  $L \approx \frac{2\pi c}{W}$  of the radiation, whereas the opposite is true with the optical instruments of astronomy. Here, the distance between  $A$  and  $B$  exceeds by far the coherence length of the measured electromagnetic waves, and therefore, only those (inner) Fresnel zone should be considered, whose detour  $k \cdot \lambda/2$  is smaller than the coherence length. Only  $k$  Fresnel zones contribute to the total energy at point  $B$ , with  $1 \leq k \leq \frac{2\omega}{W} = k_{max}$ . Elementary waves departing from further outward Fresnel zones arrive too late at the receiver and can not influence the amplitude at point  $B$ .

Although the diameters of the Fresnel zones still appear as large, the experience from the construction of optical devices enforces their consideration: Distant galaxies can not be mapped arbitrarily sharp because of the [Airy disk](#), which is generated from the opening of the telescope. If this is to be the sole cause of the blur, the aperture at *any* position of the remaining light path must be so large, that *everywhere* – even at half the galaxy distance – the [Fresnel number](#)  $F \gg 1$  is achieved. This is equivalent with the condition  $R_k^2(max) \gg D \lambda$  or  $k_{max} \gg 1$ . It is not enough to consider only the first Fresnel zone or even narrow down to the immediate vicinity of the line of sight. This would lead to very pronounced diffraction effects due to  $F \ll 1$ .

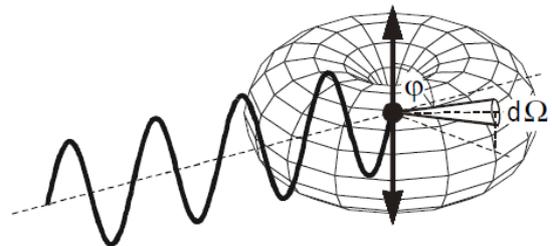
Any matter within the Fresnel zone influences the received signal at point  $B$ . This can lead to increase in energy when one hides unwanted [elementary waves](#) or to light phenomena in [unexpected places](#) or, as explained below, to a frequency reduction.

The volume of the inner  $k$  Fresnel zones is  $V_k = \frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{D}{2} R_k^2 = \frac{D^2 \lambda k \pi}{6} = \frac{k \pi^2 D^2 c}{3\omega}$  and is,

remarkably, not proportional to  $D^3$ , as one might expect. Even if the volume contains no stars, it is filled with the extremely thin, transparent plasma of intergalactic space (IGM). The estimated electron density depends very much on the model of the universe: Based on  $\Lambda$ CDM, the average density is estimated<sup>1</sup> to be  $n_e \approx 0.27/m^3$  or even lower, but measurements<sup>2</sup> in the cluster Abell 1835 yielded the much higher value  $n_e \approx 56,400/m^3$ . Inside a galaxy, probably values up to  $n_e \approx 10^5/m^3$  can be found<sup>3</sup>.

## Energy loss by accelerated electrons

Each unbound electron in the Fresnel zones is accelerated by the electric field of the wave packet and [emits](#) the received energy like a dipole antenna *omnidirectional* (torus-shaped radiation pattern) and immediately. Because (in case of linearly polarized light) the emission occurs preferably perpendicular to the direction of the oscillation of the electron, the emission is rotationally symmetrical, the electron experiences *no recoil*. The direction of the momentum of the wave packet remains unchanged and the image of a distant galaxy is not blurred by the energy loss.



This energy loss can only be explained by a combination of classical physics and quantum mechanics and is therefore described in detail:

1. Light is an [electromagnetic wave](#) and has electric and magnetic components, both perpendicular to the direction of the wave vector  $k$ . The electric component accelerates charges with the frequency of light. Free electrons are charged and are therefore accelerated transverse to  $k$ . Simply put: They oscillate sinusoidally with the frequency of light and a well defined direction around their rest position<sup>6</sup>. This requires no quantum mechanical oscillator, classical physics is sufficient.
2. Accelerated charges radiate energy non-directional (for non-relativistic velocities), preferably transverse to the direction of oscillation. The directivity pattern is a torus, rotationally symmetrical to the direction of oscillation. Therefore, there is nothing that could be called “recoil”. In this sense, the term “scattering” is misleading, because this term implies a collision of two particles, both changing their direction. The extended wave packet does not collide with tiny electron and it receives no transverse momentum.
3. Where does the emitted energy come from? Certainly not from the rest mass of the electron. In a collisionless thin plasma and before the arrival of the wave packet, the unbound electron was at rest, therefore, its kinetic energy can't be negative after the wave packet has passed. Hence, the energy of the electromagnetic wave is reduced. It is wrong to say that there is no energy loss. Then there would be no Thomson scattering with which, for example, the temperature of [electrons in plasmas](#) is determined.
4. With the low energy of visible light, it is ridiculous to claim that a bullet called photon hits the electron and is deflected by, for example, 120 degrees, although the electron remains at rest. The process has nothing to do with the [Compton effect](#), because the acceleration energy is much less than 0.001 eV.
5. In the range of radio waves, the energy of photons is even lower. It would be more ridiculous to assert, an antenna emits photons of energy  $4 \cdot 10^{-6} eV$  or less and these photons lose energy in a thin plasma. 46 years ago, Goldberg discovered, that electromagnetic waves actually lose energy in the plasma of the corona<sup>4</sup>, but no one was able to explain this phenomenon. Quantum mechanics provides no answer. Has the [hubble flow](#) caused this redshift of radio signals near the sun?
6. Now, one can debate whether the energy loss shows itself as lower amplitude or lower frequency. Because a free electron can *not* absorb energy (and store it for a while), the amplitude can be changed *only* by interference with another wave. The electron emits the “[secondary wave](#)” immediate, at a phase shift of  $\pi/2$  and at a much lower amplitude. Therefore, the amplitude change of the primary wave is negligible, the only possibility is a small phase shift of the wave packet (if the phase shift is zero, the amplitudes add or subtract). Waves and quanta are not mutually exclusive, they are complementary.
7. If the amplitude can't be lowered, the frequency must be reduced. There is no escape from the [conservation of energy](#).

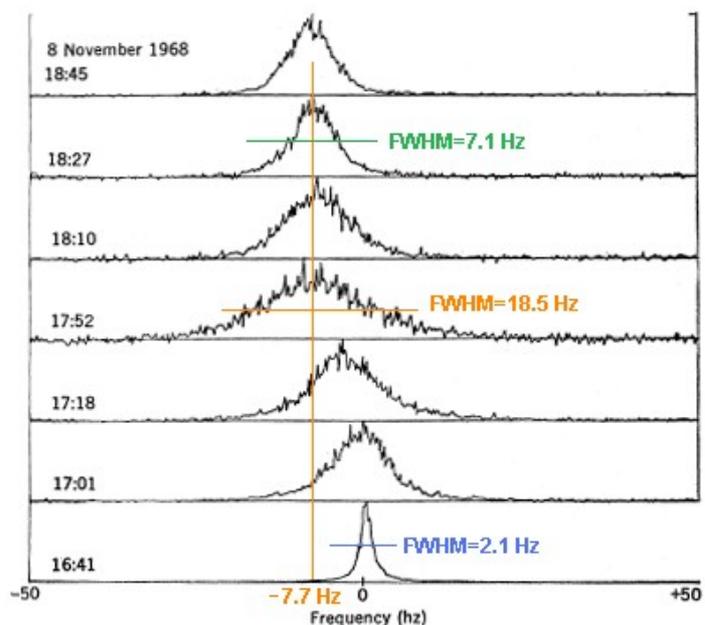


Fig. 3. Sample spectrograms taken on 8 November 1968, showing the effects of a solar event. Each spectrogram is the result of 15 minutes of averaging time.

If an electron is accelerated, it [radiates](#) energy. For kinetic energy, there is no known minimum amount of energy. Therefore, each unbound electron can take an arbitrarily small amount of energy (for example  $hf/100000$ ) from the wave packet passing by and radiate that amount immediately omnidirectional. Only a tiny fraction of that tiny amount is emitted (with a phase shift of  $\pi/2$ ) in the same direction as the wave packet moves and may be neglected. The wave packet loses this amount, its energy drops to  $hf_{after} = \frac{99999}{100000} hf_{before}$  and the frequency decreases slightly. This reduction is barely detectable with a single free electron. Since a dense plasma contains many electrons, the frequency reduction has already been proven<sup>5</sup>.

The gigantic Fresnel zones of astronomy contain much more free electrons than a small volume of plasma in the laboratory. Therefore, they can reduce the energy and the frequency of the wave packet much more. The reduction of frequency is gradual, while the wave packet moves from the light source  $A$  to the detection location  $B$  where the difference appears as redshift.

With comparatively very low frequencies of microwave transmissions, the energy  $hf$  of each wave packet is so small that even with low transmitting power, the Fresnel zones are completely filled with many overlapping wave packets. At high frequencies, particularly at low intensities, the few wave packets are separable, we discuss an isolated one on its way from  $A$  to  $B$ .

According to Planck's [radiation law](#), the surface of each black body emits only discrete energy quanta  $h \cdot f$  (At the end of the derivation it turns out that any other amount leads to the same result, it does not depend on  $h$ ). To calculate the total energy loss between  $A$  and  $B$ , which is caused by all electrons within the fresnel zones up to  $1 \leq k \leq k_{max}$ , it is assumed that a single wave packet with the initial energy  $h \cdot f$  leaves the source  $A$ . The radiation loss per electron depends on the energy density at the location of every electron. Since the energy density near  $x \approx D/2$  is considerably smaller than around  $A$  and  $B$ , the path of a wave packet is followed more accurately.

## Elementary estimate of the energy loss

For all astronomical problems,  $y_k \ll D$  is met. For simplicity, it is assumed that the wave packet is a circular cylinder having the thickness  $L$  (= coherence length) and the cross-sectional area

$F = \pi y_k^2(max)$ , flying with the speed of light in parallel to the line of sight through the Fresnel zones. Each cylinder has the volume  $V = LF = \frac{8\pi^3 c^2 x(D-x)}{DW^2}$  and contains  $n_e V$  unbound

electrons, the electron density is  $n_e$ . At low redshift it can be assumed for simplicity that the energy of the wave packet equals  $h \cdot f$  at any position between  $A$  and  $B$ . At high redshift, this is wrong, because there is a significant energy reduction along the way.

For  $z \ll 1$ , the mean energy density (energy / volume)  $U$  and the power density (power / area)  $S$  are valid for all the electrons in the cylinder (clearly overestimated!):

$$U_{overestimated} = \frac{hf}{V} = \frac{h\omega W^2 D}{16\pi^4 c^2 x(D-x)} = \frac{S_{overestimated}}{c}$$

Each unbound, accelerated electron takes from the wave packet as much energy as its scattering cross-section corresponds to<sup>6</sup>:

$$A_{overestimated} = \frac{q_e^4 \mu_0^2}{8m_e^2 W} S_{overestimated} = \frac{q_e^4 \mu_0^2 h\omega W D}{128 m_e^2 \pi^4 c x(D-x)}$$

If  $n_e$  has the same value everywhere, an integration along the entire path is very simple and supplies the total energy that all the electrons contained in the Fresnel zones take away from the wave packet and emit non-directional and mostly sideways:

$$A_{Fresnel}(\text{overestimated}) = \int_0^D n_e A_{\text{overestimated}} F dx = \frac{q_e^4 \mu_0^2 h \omega}{32 m_e^2 \pi^2} n_e \cdot D = h \cdot \Delta f (\text{overestimated})$$

Summary: The wave packet emitted by the source  $A$  accelerates very many electrons in the Fresnel zones, and thereby the wave packet loses energy. The receiver  $B$  measures a frequency reduction by  $\Delta f$ . Again: No unbound electron radiates energy asymmetrical and the wave packet does not change direction. There is no reason, why the coherence of the radiation from the source should be destroyed.

## Refined estimate of the energy loss

The above simple estimate ignores the form factor  $\frac{1 - \cos(Wt)}{2}$  of the envelope, which causes a gentle rise and fall of the electric field along the propagation direction of light. Therefore, the energy density near the border of the wave packet (the ends of the coherence length) is less than near the center of the wave packet and thus also the energy loss due to electron-oscillating.

The energy flux (or power density)  $S = \frac{E B}{\mu_0} = \frac{E_{\max} B_{\max} (1 - \cos(Wt))^2}{4 \mu_0}$  is not the same for all the electrons in the cylinder. Near the center of the wave packet, the power density is maximal, descending to zero near top and bottom. The average value of the weight function is

$$Q = \frac{1}{4L} \int_0^L \left(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi x}{L}\right)^2 dx = \frac{3}{8}$$

The average of the power density is

$$S_{\text{mean}} = Q \cdot S_{\text{overestimated}} = \frac{3 h \omega W^2 D}{128 \pi^4 c x (D-x)} \quad (\text{better estimated})$$

Furthermore it must be noted that every detour takes time. Compared with the elementary waves from the first Fresnel zone, the wavelets from the outer zones need more time to reach the detection point  $B$ . For wavelets arriving from the outmost zone  $k_{\max}$ , the overlap is zero. Because they arrive too late, the corresponding energy loss is not recognized at point  $B$ . The actual sum in the detection point  $B$  is 25% (computed with MATLAB).

$$A_{\text{mean}} = \frac{q_e^4 \mu_0^2}{8 m_e^2 W} \frac{S_{\text{mean}}}{4} = \frac{3 q_e^4 \mu_0^2 h \omega W D}{4096 m_e^2 \pi^4 c x (D-x)} \quad \text{and}$$

$$A_{Fresnel}(\text{mean}) = \int_0^D n_e A_{\text{mean}} F dx = \frac{3 q_e^4 \mu_0^2 h \omega}{1024 m_e^2 \pi^2} n_e \cdot D = h \cdot \Delta f$$

## The Energy loss is Redshift

If a wave packet with the initial energy  $h \cdot f$  leaves the source  $A$ , it reaches the destination  $B$  with a lower energy  $h \cdot (f - \Delta f)$ . The relation  $2\pi \Delta f = \Delta\omega$  allows the calculation of the [redshift](#)  $z$ .

$$z = \frac{\omega}{\omega - \Delta\omega} - 1 = \frac{1}{\frac{512 m_e^2 \pi}{3 q_e^4 \mu_0^2 n_e D} - 1}$$

Combining the constant factors  $w = \frac{3 q_e^4 \mu_0^2}{512 \pi m_e^2} = 2.33 \cdot 10^{-30} m^2$ , the result can be written more

compact:

$$D = \frac{z}{w n_e (z+1)} \approx \frac{z}{w n_e} \quad \text{with } z \ll 1$$

This relationship between redshift, density of free electrons and distance was established by classical electrodynamics and contains no arbitrary variable, which can be changed to obtain a desired result. No, that's not quite right: You may vary the number of Fresnel zones that are included in the calculation, because the envelope of the wave packet is not rectangular. And you may alter the envelope of the wave packet. Nevertheless, this formula satisfies some astronomical observations:

- $z$  does not depend on  $\omega$  and  $\lambda$
- $z$  does not depend on the coherence length or intensity of the wave packet
- at small distances ( $w n_e D \ll 1$ ),  $z$  is proportional to the distance  $D$

## The predictions

It is not always great art to invent a theory that "explains" well-known results. Good theories can be seen as to whether they predict at least one verifiable connection that was previously unknown.

Here is a selection:

- There is a simple relation between redshift and distance and the average density of free electrons (and some natural constants). This can be probably verified on laboratory scale and in the vicinity of the sun<sup>7 5</sup>.
- The Hubble "constant" is not constant and physically unfounded and therefore unsuitable as a scale factor for the distance  $D$ . The decisive factor is the density of unbound electrons in an astonishingly voluminous environment of the "line of sight".
- In [redshift surveys](#) striking jumps or plateaus of redshift are measured which have so far been interpreted as cosmic voids, walls and filaments. Maybe unusually strong or weak ionized gas clouds along the line of sight, which can not be directly observed, generate strong nonlinearities in the  $z$  – distance – relation and pretend distance jumps, if one assumes constant electron density. Therefore, the ideas of the large-scale [structure of the universe](#) should be fully revised.
- The mean density of free electrons is generated by the surrounding stars and is considerably higher in galaxies than outside. Therefore, it is not sufficient to only measure the redshift. The true distance also depends on the distance of the "line of sight" from galaxies or clusters of galaxies, because a portion of the Fresnel zones passes through areas with greatly enlarged electron density<sup>8</sup>.

- Objects with the same redshift can have very different *true distances* when the light passes through different degrees of ionized regions. Conversely, the redshift of objects of the same true distance, but different direction can be clearly distinguished from each other<sup>9</sup>.
- This could help to explain the puzzling "fingers of God" in the redshift space of galaxy clusters or the speculative [redshift quantization](#).
- The electron density of the ISM is calculated from the dispersion in pulsar timing<sup>10</sup>. The term *column density* used in this case must be discussed in more detail in view of the relatively large Fresnel zones. The naive idea that tiny photons fly like bullets along a line of sight (line-of-sight propagation) and are influenced only by the immediate vicinity, is diametrically opposed to the influenceability of a wave packet in the very voluminous Fresnel zones.
- Near the limb of the solar disk, the positions of the Fraunhofer lines are shifted toward the red end of the spectrum, compared with their positions at the center of the disk<sup>18</sup>. The long path of light through the chromosphere could cause this enigmatic redshift.

## Determination of the Hubble-“Constant“ $H_0$

All astronomical observations are based on measurements of electromagnetic waves, which contain no indication, from which distance they originate. Most information on [distances in astronomy](#) are estimates, because there are hardly methods to determine them exactly. The only physically sound and reliable measurement method [parallax](#) works only in our immediate vicinity to a [maximum](#) of 1600 light years, which is far less than the diameter of our galaxy. Up to this tiny distances, the Hubble constant (supposedly) affects no stars or galaxies. It only acts outside and in fact even with the next companions of our Galaxy, the Magellanic Clouds. Their distance<sup>11</sup> is not doubted and the latest measurements<sup>12</sup> of the redshift of the LMC with the Spitzer Space Telescope yield

$$H_0 \approx 74.3 \frac{km}{s \cdot Mpc} = 2.41 \cdot 10^{-18} \frac{1}{s} .$$

Astronomers believe that this value is universally suitable to determine distances more than 10,000 times as long using the formula  $c z = H_0 D$  . A check by competing methods is excluded. Remarkably, we achieve a completely different result for  $H_0$  with a much larger extragalactic object of our neighborhood, the Andromeda Galaxy, in which even the sign is wrong. As everywhere in science – you have to have a bit of tact to choose the "right" object to be measured so that the result does not deviate too much from the expected value.

The problem are those  $H_0$  -values containing estimated values of a cosmological model. All, for example, the  [\$\Lambda\$ CDM model](#), have arbitrary assumptions such as inflation and numerous "knobs" such as the "cosmological constant", with which almost any desired result can be adjusted without physical justification.

## Some comparisons with known data

The comparison of the above approximation  $z = w n_e D$  for small distances with the Hubble formula  $c z = H_0 D$  yields  $c w n_e = H_0$  . If you use the currently accepted value of the Hubble “constant”, the calculation of the average electron density between our position and LMC yields

$$n_{Earth-LMC} = \frac{H_0}{c w} \approx \frac{3450}{m^3} .$$

This value is lower than the value  $17000/m^3$  that has been determined

by means of Pulsar timing within our galaxy<sup>17</sup>. Measurements in the cluster Abell 1835<sup>13</sup> yielded an even higher value  $n_e \approx 56,400/m^3$  .

The quasar 3C273 has the redshift 0.158. The combination of this value with the distance 2.44 billion light years (the Hubble formula delivers) gives a value of  $n_e = 2940/m^3$ . The average true density of free electrons along this distance is not known. Mathematically, this is an equation with two unknown variables: A greater electron density corresponds to a shorter distance, and vice versa. The solution of this problem will be interesting!

In contrast, cosmological models like the  $\Lambda$ CDM expect a much lower average electron density between  $0.0001/m^3$ <sup>14</sup> and  $0.27/m^3$ <sup>15</sup>. WMAP measurements confirm this value, if one uses the estimates of this model for calculation. Surely, that is no circular reasoning.

## Concluding Remarks

The derivation is based largely on classical physics. The assumption that the wave packet leaves the source with the initial energy  $h \cdot f$ , comes from quantum mechanics. However, the value of the auxiliary variable  $h$  does not appear in the result and does not affect the derivation. Any other value would yield the same result.

The essential basis of the derivation is the fact that the wave packet is both temporally and spatially limited. One can not expect a meaningful result from a formula like  $E = E_{max} \cdot \cos(\omega t)$ , which describes infinitely extended wave fronts that will last forever. However, the exact knowledge of the coherence length is not necessary, it does not affect the result of the formula.

For astronomers, an experimental confirmation of the formula  $z = w n_e D$  would be of paramount importance, even if an accurate analysis should show that the factor  $w = 2.33 \cdot 10^{-30} m^2$  must be corrected. Then astronomers would have two independent and accurate methods to measure the density of unbound electrons between the earth and pulsars:

- $z = w \int_0^D n_e ds$  provides a link between  $n_e$  and the redshift of spectral lines in the optical range or near the [hydrogen line](#), which come from the vicinity of the pulsar. It may also help to analyze distances of the [Lyman-alpha forest](#).
- Due to the free electron [plasma resonance](#), the arrival time of high frequency pulses (about 1 GHz) of a pulsar depends on the frequency<sup>16</sup>. The relationship between  $n_e$  and the *dispersion measure* DM, whose value is calculated from the [time difference](#), is

$$DM = \int_0^D n_e ds .$$

A comparison of the two formulas reveals that *dispersion measure* and *redshift* depend on each other in spite of different causes:  $z = w \cdot DM$ . In all previous DM measurements on pulsars in our galaxy, results to about 1000 pc/cm<sup>3</sup> were measured<sup>17</sup>. If one were to measure the DM of a pulsar in the LMC (eg, SNR 0538-69.1.), this should have a much lower value, because for LMC the values of  $H_0$  and redshift  $z_{LMC} = 1.24 \cdot 10^{-5}$  are quite accurately known.

By applying the competing methods, the spiral structure and mass distribution of our galaxy can be measured more exactly. Perhaps two other problems in our neighborhood can be solved: The unexplained Limb Redshift of the Fraunhofer Lines in the Solar Spectrum<sup>18</sup> and the redshift of the signals from Pioneer 6, when this satellite was nearly occulted by the Sun<sup>7</sup>.

It would be very instructive if someone could derive a similar formula as  $z = w n_e D$ , assuming, that light wavelength 600 nm or more) is transferred by tiny bullets (called photons), which collide with electrons and lose some of their energy. The corpuscular theory can not explain the [double-slit experiment](#) nor the [Poisson spot](#), not even the Fresnel zones. Also, the [HBT effect](#) was predicted by classical wave theory and can be explained far easier and better than with quantum mechanics, which originally failed<sup>19</sup>. Only years later an explanation was delivered.

To quote Hanbury Brown (1991, p. 121)<sup>20</sup>: “To me the most interesting thing about all this fuss was that so many physicists had failed to grasp how profoundly mysterious light really is, and were reluctant to accept the practical consequences of the fact that modern physics doesn’t claim to tell us what things are like ‘in themselves’ but only how they ‘behave’.[...] If our system was really going to work, one would have to imagine photons hanging about waiting for each other in space!”

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