Gold from Black Holes

UCLA physicists have proposed new theories for how the universe's first black holes might have formed and the role they might play in the production of heavy elements such as gold, platinum and uranium. [17]

A long-standing but unproven assumption about the X-ray spectra of black holes in space has been contradicted by hands-on experiments performed at Sandia National Laboratories' Z machine. [16]

New data from NASA's Chandra X-ray Observatory and other telescopes has revealed details about this giant black hole, located some 145 million light years from Earth. [15]

A team of researchers from around the world is getting ready to create what might be the first image of a black hole. [14]

"There seems to be a mysterious link between the amount of dark matter a galaxy holds and the size of its central black hole, even though the two operate on vastly different scales," said Akos Bogdan of the Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics (CfA). [13]

If dark matter comes in both matter and antimatter varieties, it might accumulate inside dense stars to create black holes. [12]

For a long time, there were two main theories related to how our universe would end. These were the Big Freeze and the Big Crunch. In short, the Big Crunch claimed that the universe would eventually stop expanding and collapse in on itself. This collapse would result in...well...a big crunch (for lack of a better term). Think "the Big Bang", except just the opposite. That's essentially what the Big Crunch is. On the other hand, the Big Freeze claimed that the universe would continue expanding forever, until the cosmos becomes a frozen wasteland. This theory asserts that stars will get farther and farther apart, burn out, and (since there are no more stars bring born) the universe will grown entirely cold and eternally black. [11]

Newly published research reveals that dark matter is being swallowed up by dark energy, offering novel insight into the nature of dark matter and dark energy and what the future of our Universe might be. [10]

The gravitational force attracting the matter, causing concentration of the matter in a small space and leaving much space with low matter concentration: dark matter and energy.

There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

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Author: George Rajna

Physicists propose new theories of black holes from the very early universe

UCLA physicists have proposed new theories for how the universe's first black holes might have formed and the role they might play in the production of heavy elements such as gold, platinum and uranium.

Two papers on their work were published in the journal Physical Review Letters.

A long-standing question in astrophysics is whether the universe's very first black holes came into existence less than a second after the Big Bang or whether they formed only millions of years later during the deaths of the earliest stars.

Alexander Kusenko, a UCLA professor of physics, and Eric Cotner, a UCLA graduate student, developed a compellingly simple new theory suggesting that black holes could have formed very shortly after the Big Bang, long before stars began to shine. Astronomers have previously suggested that these so-called primordial black holes could account for all or some of the universe's mysterious dark matter and that they might have seeded the formation of supermassive black holes that exist at the centers of galaxies. The new theory proposes that primordial black holes might help create many of the heavier elements found in nature.

The researchers began by considering that a uniform field of energy pervaded the universe shortly after the Big Bang. Scientists expect that such fields existed in the distant past. After the universe rapidly expanded, this energy field would have separated into clumps. Gravity would cause these clumps to attract one another and merge together. The UCLA researchers proposed that some small fraction of these growing clumps became dense enough to become black holes.

Their hypothesis is fairly generic, Kusenko said, and it doesn't rely on what he called the "unlikely coincidences" that underpin other theories explaining primordial black holes.

The paper suggests that it's possible to search for these primordial black holes using astronomical observations. One method involves measuring the very tiny changes in a star's brightness that result from the gravitational effects of a primordial black hole passing between Earth and that star. Earlier this year, U.S. and Japanese astronomers published a paper on their discovery of one star in a nearby galaxy that brightened and dimmed precisely as if a primordial black hole was passing in front of it.

In a separate study, Kusenko, Volodymyr Takhistov, a UCLA postdoctoral researcher, and George Fuller, a professor at UC San Diego, proposed that primordial black holes might play an important role in the formation of heavy elements such as gold, silver, platinum and uranium, which could be ongoing in our galaxy and others.

The origin of those heavy elements has long been a mystery to researchers.

"Scientists know that these heavy elements exist, but they're not sure where these elements are being formed," Kusenko said. "This has been really embarrassing."

The UCLA research suggests that a primordial black hole occasionally collides with a neutron star—the city-sized, spinning remnant of a star that remains after some supernova explosions—and sinks into its depths.

When that happens, Kusenko said, the primordial black hole consumes the neutron star from the inside, a process that takes about 10,000 years. As the neutron star shrinks, it spins even faster, eventually causing small fragments to detach and fly off. Those fragments of neutron-rich material may be the sites in which neutrons fuse into heavier and heavier elements, Kusenko said.

However, the probability of a neutron star capturing a black hole is rather low, said Kusenko, which is consistent with observations of only some galaxies being enriched in heavy elements. The theory that primordial black holes collide with neutron stars to create heavy elements also explains the observed lack of neutron stars in the center of the Milky Way galaxy, a long-standing mystery in astrophysics.

This winter, Kusenko and his colleagues will collaborate with scientists at Princeton University on computer simulations of the heavy elements produced by a neutron star-black hole interaction. By comparing the results of those simulations with observations of heavy elements in nearby galaxies, the researchers hope to determine whether primordial black holes are indeed responsible for Earth's gold, platinum and uranium. [17]

Black hole models contradicted by hands-on tests at Sandia's Z machine

A long-standing but unproven assumption about the X-ray spectra of black holes in space has been contradicted by hands-on experiments performed at Sandia National Laboratories' Z machine.

Z, the most energetic laboratory X-ray source on Earth, can duplicate the X-rays surrounding black holes that otherwise can be watched only from a great distance and then theorized about.

"Of course, emission directly from black holes cannot be observed," said Sandia researcher and lead author Guillaume Loisel, lead author for a paper on the experimental results, published in August in Physical Review Letters. "We see emission from surrounding matter just before it is consumed by the black hole. This surrounding matter is forced into the shape of a disk, called an accretion disk."

The results suggest revisions are needed to models previously used to interpret emissions from matter just before it is consumed by black holes, and also the related rate of growth of mass within the black holes. A black hole is a region of outer space from which no material and no radiation (that is, X-rays, visible light, and so on) can escape because the gravitational field of the black hole is so intense.

"Our research suggests it will be necessary to rework many scientific papers published over the last 20 years," Loisel said. "Our results challenge models used to infer how fast black holes swallow matter from their companion star. We are optimistic that astrophysicists will implement whatever changes are found to be needed."

Most researchers agree a great way to learn about black holes is to use satellite-based instruments to collect X-ray spectra, said Sandia co-author Jim Bailey. "The catch is that the plasmas that emit the X-rays are exotic, and models used to interpret their spectra have never been tested in the laboratory till now," he said.

NASA astrophysicist Tim Kallman, one of the co-authors, said, "The Sandia experiment is exciting because it's the closest anyone has ever come to creating an environment that's a re-creation of what's going on near a black hole."

Theory leaves reality behind

The divergence between theory and reality began 20 years ago, when physicists declared that certain ionization stages of iron (or ions) were present in a black hole's accretion disk—the matter surrounding a black hole—even when no spectral lines indicated their existence. The complicated theoretical explanation was that under a black hole's immense gravity and intense radiation, highly energized iron electrons did not drop back to lower energy states by emitting photons—the common quantum explanation of why energized materials emit light. Instead, the electrons were liberated from their atoms and slunk off as lone wolves in relative darkness. The general process is known as Auger decay, after the French physicist who discovered it in the early 20th century. The absence of photons in the black-hole case is termed Auger destruction, or more formally, the Resonant Auger Destruction assumption.

However, Z researchers, by duplicating X-ray energies surrounding black holes and applying them to a dime-size film of silicon at the proper densities, showed that if no photons appear, then the generating element simply isn't there. Silicon is an abundant element in the universe and experiences the Auger effect more frequently than iron. Therefore, if Resonant Auger Destruction happens in iron then it should happen in silicon too.

"If Resonant Auger Destruction is a factor, it should have happened in our experiment because we had the same conditions, the same column density, the same temperature," said Loisel. "Our results

show that if the photons aren't there, the ions must be not there either."That deceptively simple finding, after five years of experiments, calls into question the many astrophysical papers based on the Resonant Auger Destruction assumption.

The Z experiment mimicked the conditions found in accretion disks surrounding black holes, which have densities many orders of magnitude lower than Earth's atmosphere.

"Even though black holes are extremely compact objects, their accretion disks—the large plasmas in space that surround them—are relatively diffuse," said Loisel. "On Z, we expanded silicon 50,000 times. It's very low density, five orders of magnitude lower than solid silicon."

This is an artist's depiction of the black hole named Cygnus X-1, formed when the large blue star beside it collapsed into the smaller, extremely dense matter. (Image courtesy of NASA) Click on the thumbnail for a high-resolution image.

The spectra's tale

The reason accurate theories of a black hole's size and properties are difficult to come by is the lack of first-hand observations. Black holes were mentioned in Albert Einstein's general relativity theory a century ago but at first were considered a purely mathematical concept. Later, astronomers observed the altered movements of stars on gravitational tethers as they circled their black hole, or most recently, gravity-wave signals, also predicted by Einstein, from the collisions of those black holes. But most of these remarkable entities are relatively small—about 1/10 the distance from the Earth to the Sun—and many thousands of light years away. Their relatively tiny sizes at immense distances make it impossible to image them with the best of NASA's billion-dollar telescopes.

What's observable are the spectra released by elements in the black hole's accretion disk, which then feeds material into the black hole. "There's lots of information in spectra. They can have many shapes," said NASA's Kallman. "Incandescent light bulb spectra are boring, they have peaks in the yellow part of their spectra. The black holes are more interesting, with bumps and wiggles in different parts of the spectra. If you can interpret those bumps and wiggles, you know how much gas, how hot, how ionized and to what extent, and how many different elements are present in the accretion disk."

Said Loisel: "If we could go to the black hole and take a scoop of the accretion disk and analyze it in the lab, that would be the most useful way to know what the accretion disk is made of. But since we cannot do that, we try to provide tested data for astrophysical models."

While Loisel is ready to say R.I.P. to the Resonant Auger Destruction assumption, he still is aware the implications of higher black hole mass consumption, in this case of the absent iron, is only one of several possibilities.

"Another implication could be that lines from the highly charged iron ions are present, but the lines have been misidentified so far. This is because black holes shift spectral lines tremendously due to the fact that photons have a hard time escaping the intense gravitation field," he said.

There are now models being constructed elsewhere for accretion-powered objects that don't employ the Resonant Auger Destruction approximation. "These models are necessarily complicated,

and therefore it is even more important to test their assumptions with laboratory experiments," Loisel said. [16]

The arrhythmic beating of a black hole heart

At the center of the Centaurus galaxy cluster, there is a large elliptical galaxy called NGC 4696. Deeper still, there is a supermassive black hole buried within the core of this galaxy.

New data from NASA's Chandra X-ray Observatory and other telescopes has revealed details about this giant black hole, located some 145 million light years from Earth. Although the black hole itself is undetected, astronomers are learning about the impact it has on the galaxy it inhabits and the larger cluster around it.

In some ways, this black hole resembles a beating heart that pumps blood outward into the body via the arteries. Likewise, a black hole can inject material and energy into its host galaxy and beyond.

By examining the details of the X-ray data from Chandra, scientists have found evidence for repeated bursts of energetic particles in jets generated by the supermassive black hole at the center of NGC 4696. These bursts create vast cavities in the hot gas that fills the space between the galaxies in the cluster. The bursts also create shock waves, akin to sonic booms produced by high-speed airplanes, which travel tens of thousands of light years across the cluster.

This composite image contains X-ray data from Chandra (red) that reveals the hot gas in the cluster, and radio data from the NSF's Karl G. Jansky Very Large Array (blue) that shows high-energy particles produced by the black hole-powered jets. Visible light data from the Hubble Space Telescope (green) show galaxies in the cluster as well as galaxies and stars outside the cluster.

Astronomers employed special processing to the X-ray data (shown above) to emphasize nine cavities visible in the hot gas. These cavities are labeled A through I in an additional image, and the location of the black hole is labeled with a cross. The cavities that formed most recently are located nearest to the black hole, in particular the ones labeled A and B.

The researchers estimate that these black hole bursts, or "beats", have occurred every five to ten million years. Besides the vastly differing time scales, these beats also differ from typical human heartbeats in not occurring at particularly regular intervals.

A different type of processing of the X-ray data (shown above) reveals a sequence of curved and approximately equally spaced features in the hot gas. These may be caused by sound waves generated by the black hole's repeated bursts. In a galaxy cluster, the hot gas that fills the cluster enables sound waves—albeit at frequencies far too low for the human hear to detect—to propagate. (Note that both images showing the labeled cavities and this image are rotated slightly clockwise to the main composite.)

The features in the Centaurus Cluster are similar to the ripples seen in the Perseus cluster of galaxies. The pitch of the sound in Centaurus is extremely deep, corresponding to a discordant sound about 56 octaves below the notes near middle C. This corresponds to a slightly higher (by about one octave) pitch than the sound in Perseus. Alternative explanations for these curved features include the effects of turbulence or magnetic fields.

The black hole bursts also appear to have lifted up gas that has been enriched in elements generated in supernova explosions. The authors of the study of the Centaurus cluster created a map showing the density of elements heavier than hydrogen and helium. The brighter colors in the map show regions with the highest density of heavy elements and the darker colors show regions with a lower density of heavy elements. Therefore, regions with the highest density of heavy elements are located to the right of the black hole. A lower density of heavy elements near the black hole is consistent with the idea that enriched gas has been lifted out of the cluster's center by bursting activity associated with the black hole. The energy produced by the black hole is also able to prevent the huge reservoir of hot gas from cooling. This has prevented large numbers of stars from forming in the gas.

A paper describing these results was published in the March 21st 2016 issue of the Monthly Notices of the Royal Astronomical Society and is available online. The first author is Jeremy Sanders from the Max Planck Institute for Extraterrestrial Physics in Garching, Germany. [15]

Scientists readying to create first image of a black hole

A team of researchers from around the world is getting ready to create what might be the first image of a black hole. The project is the result of collaboration between teams manning radio receivers around the world and a team at MIT that will assemble the data from the other teams and hopefully create an image.

The project has been ongoing for approximately 20 years as project members have sought to piece together what has now become known as the Event Horizon Telescope (EHT). Each of the 12 participating radio receiving teams will use equipment that has been installed for the project to record data received at a wavelength of 230GHz during April 5 through the 14th. The data will be recorded onto hard drives which will all be sent to MIT Haystack Observatory in Massachusetts, where a team will stitch the data together using a technique called very long baseline array interferometry—in effect, creating the illusion of a single radio telescope as large as the Earth. The black hole they will all focus on is the one believed to be at the center of the Milky Way galaxy—Sagittarius A*.

A black hole cannot be photographed, of course, light cannot reflect or escape from it, thus, there would be none to capture. What the team is hoping to capture is the light that surrounds the black hole at its event horizon, just before it disappears.

Sagittarius A* is approximately 26,000 light-years from Earth and is believed to have a mass approximately four million times greater than the sun—it is also believed that its event horizon is approximately 12.4 million miles across. Despite its huge size, it would still be smaller than a pin prick against our night sky, hence the need for the array of radio telescopes.

The researchers believe the image that will be created will be based on a ring around a black blob, but because of the Doppler effect, it should look to us like a crescent. Processing at Haystack is expected to take many months, which means we should not expect to see an image released to the press until sometime in 2018. [17]

"Unsolved Link" --Between Dark Matter and Supermassive Black Holes

The research, released in February of 2015, was designed to address a controversy in the field. Previous observations had found a relationship between the mass of the central black hole and the total mass of stars in elliptical galaxies. However, more recent studies have suggested a tight correlation between the masses of the black hole and the galaxy's dark matter halo. It wasn't clear which relationship dominated.

In our universe, dark matter outweighs normal matter - the everyday stuff we see all around us - by a factor of 6 to 1. We know dark matter exists only from its gravitational effects. It holds together galaxies and galaxy clusters. Every galaxy is surrounded by a halo of dark matter that weighs as much as a trillion suns and extends for hundreds of thousands of light-years.

To investigate the link between dark matter halos and supermassive black holes, Bogdan and his colleague Andy Goulding (Princeton University) studied more than 3,000 elliptical galaxies. They used star motions as a tracer to weigh the galaxies' central black holes. X-ray measurements of hot gas surrounding the galaxies helped weigh the dark matter halo, because the more dark matter a galaxy has, the more hot gas it can hold onto.

They found a distinct relationship between the mass of the dark matter halo and the black hole mass - a relationship stronger than that between a black hole and the galaxy's stars alone.

This connection is likely to be related to how elliptical galaxies grow. An elliptical galaxy is formed when smaller galaxies merge, their stars and dark matter mingling and mixing together. Because the dark matter outweighs everything else, it molds the newly formed elliptical galaxy and guides the growth of the central black hole.

"In effect, the act of merging creates a gravitational blueprint that the galaxy, the stars and the black hole will follow in order to build themselves," explains Bogdan. The research relied on data from the Sloan Digital Sky Survey and the ROSAT X-ray satellite's all-sky survey.

The image at the top of the page is a composite image of data from NASA's Chandra X-ray Observatory (shown in purple) and Hubble Space Telescope (blue) of the giant elliptical galaxy, NGC 4649, located about 51 million light years from Earth. Although NGC 4649 contains one of the biggest black holes in the local Universe, there are no overt signs of its presence because the black hole is in a dormant state. The lack of a bright central point in either the X-ray or optical images shows that the supermassive black hole does not appear to be rapidly pulling in material towards its event horizon, nor generating copious amounts of light as it grows. Also, the very smooth appearance of the Chandra image shows that the hot gas producing the X-rays has not been disturbed recently by outbursts from a growing black hole.

So, the presence and mass of the black hole in NGC 4649, and other galaxies like it, has to be studied more indirectly by tracking its effects on stars and gas surrounding it. By applying a clever technique for the first time, scientists used Chandra data to measure a mass for the black hole of about 3.4 billion times that of the Sun. The new technique takes advantage of the gravitational influence the black hole has on the hot gas near the center of the galaxy. As gas slowly settles towards the black hole, it gets compressed and heated. This causes a peak in the temperature of the gas right near the

center of the galaxy. The more massive the black hole, the bigger the temperature peak detected by Chandra. [13]

Dark Matter Black Holes Could Be Destroying Stars at the Milky Way's Center

If dark matter comes in both matter and antimatter varieties, it might accumulate inside dense stars to create black holes Dark matter may have turned spinning stars into black holes near the center of our galaxy, researchers say. There, scientists expected to see plenty of the dense, rotating stars called pulsars, which are fairly common throughout the Milky Way. Despite numerous searches, however, only one has been found, giving rise to the so-called "missing pulsar problem." A possible explanation, according to a new study, is that dark matter has built up inside these stars, causing the pulsars to collapse into black holes. (These black holes would be smaller than the supermassive black hole that is thought to lurk at the very heart of the galaxy.)

The universe appears to be teeming with invisible dark matter, which can neither be seen nor touched, but nonetheless exerts a gravitational pull on regular matter.

Scientists have several ideas for what dark matter might be made of, but none have been proved. A leading option suggests that dark matter is composed of particles called weakly interacting massive particles (WIMPs), which are traditionally thought to be both matter and antimatter in one. The nature of antimatter is important for the story. When matter and antimatter meet they destroy one another in powerful explosions—so when two regular WIMPs collide, they would annihilate one another.

But it is also possible that dark matter comes in two varieties—matter and antimatter versions, just like regular matter. If this idea—called asymmetric dark matter—is true, then two dark matter particles would not destroy one another nor would two dark antimatter particles, but if one of each type met, the two would explode. In this scenario both types of dark matter should have been created in abundance during the big bang (just as both regular matter and regular antimatter are thought to have been created) but most of these particles would have destroyed one another, and those that that remain now would be just the small excess of one type that managed to avoid being annihilated.

If dark matter is asymmetric, it would behave differently from the vanilla version of WIMPs. For example, the dense centers of stars should gravitationally attract nearby dark matter. If dark matter is made of regular WIMPS, when two WIMPs meet at the center of a star they would destroy one another, because they are their own antimatter counterparts. But in the asymmetric dark matter picture, all the existing dark matter left today is made of just one of its two types—either matter or antimatter. If two of these like particles met, they would not annihilate, so dark matter would simply build up over time inside the star. Eventually, the star's core would become too heavy to support itself, thereby collapsing into a black hole. This is what may have happened to the pulsars at the Milky Way's center, according to a study published November 3 in Physical Review Letters.

The scenario is plausible, says Raymond Volkas, a physicist at the University of Melbourne who was not involved in the study, but the missing pulsar problem might easily turn out to have a mundane

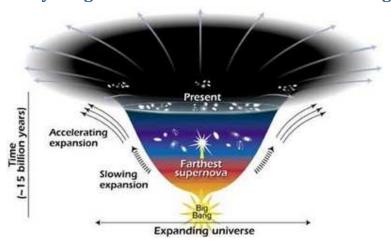
explanation through known stellar effects. "It would, of course, be exciting to have dramatic direct astrophysical evidence for asymmetric dark matter," Volkas says. "Before believing an asymmetric dark matter explanation, I would want to be convinced that no standard explanation is actually viable."

The authors of the study, Joseph Bramante of the University of Notre Dame and Tim Linden of the Kavli Institute for Cosmological Physics at the University of Chicago, agree that it is too early to jump to a dark matter conclusion. For example, Linden says, maybe radio observations of the galactic center are not as thorough as scientists have assumed and the missing pulsars will show up with better searches. It is also possible some quirk of star formation has limited the number of pulsars that formed at the galactic center.

The reason nearby pulsars would not be as affected by asymmetric dark matter is that dark matter, of any kind, should be densest at the cores of galaxies, where it should congregate under the force of its own gravity. And even there it should take dark matter a very long time to accumulate enough to destroy a pulsar because most dark particles pass right through stars without interacting. Only on the rare occasions when one flies extremely close to a regular particle can it collide, and then it will be caught there. In normal stars the regular particles at the cores are not dense enough to catch many dark matter ones. But in superdense pulsars they might accumulate enough to do damage. "Dark matter can't collect as densely or as quickly at the center of regular stars," Bramante says, "but in pulsars the dark matter would collect into about a two-meter ball. Then that ball collapses into a black hole and it sucks up the pulsar."

If this scenario is right, one consequence would be that pulsars should live longer the farther away they are from the dark matter—dense galactic center. At the far reaches of the Milky Way, for example, pulsars might live to ripe old ages; near the core, however, pulsars would be created and then quickly destroyed before they could age. "Nothing astrophysical predicts a very strong relation between the age of a pulsar and its distance from the center of a galaxy," Linden says. "You would really see a stunning effect if this scenario held." It is also possible, although perhaps not probable, that astronomers could observe a pulsar collapse into a black hole, verifying the theory. But once the black hole is created, it would be near impossible to detect: As dark matter and black holes are each unobservable, black holes made of dark matter would be doubly invisible. [12]

Everything You Need to Know About Dark Energy



For a long time, there were two main theories related to how our universe would end. These were the Big Freeze and the Big Crunch. In short, the Big Crunch claimed that the universe would eventually stop expanding and collapse in on itself. This collapse would result in...well...a big crunch (for lack of a better term). Think "the Big Bang", except just the opposite. That's essentially what the Big Crunch is. On the other hand, the Big Freeze claimed that the universe would continue expanding forever, until the cosmos becomes a frozen wasteland. This theory asserts that stars will get farther and farther apart, burn out, and (since there are no more stars bring born) the universe will grown entirely cold and eternally black.

Now, we know that the expansion of the universe is not slowing. In fact, expansion is increasing. Edwin Hubble discovered that the farther an object was away from us the faster it was receding from us. In simplest terms, this means that the universe is indeed expanding, and this (in turn) means that the universe will likely end as a frozen, static wasteland. However, this can all change there is a reversal of dark energy's current expansion effect. Sound confusing? To clear things up, let's take a closer look at what dark energy is.

How We Discovered That The Universe Is Expanding:

The accelerating expansion of the universe was discovered when astronomers were doing research on type 1a supernova events. These stellar explosions play a pivotal role in discerning the distance between two celestial objects because all type 1a supernova explosions are remarkably similar in brightness. So if we know how bright a star should be, we can compare the apparent luminosity with the intrinsic luminosity, and we get a reliable figure for how far any given object is from us. To get a better idea of how these work, think about headlights. For the most part, car headlights all have the same luminosity. So if one car's headlights are only 1/4 as bright as another car's, then one car is twice as far away as the other.

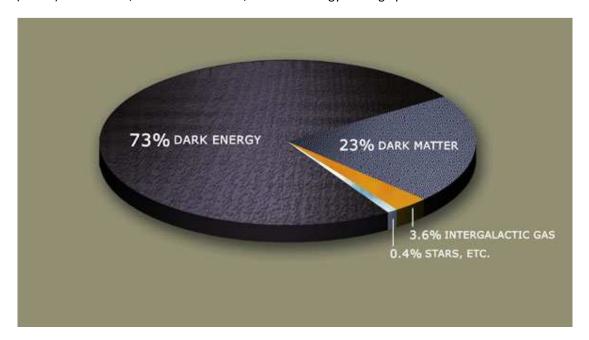
Incidentally, along with helping us make these key determinations about the locations of objects in the universe, these supernova explosions also gave us a sneak preview of one of the strangest observations ever made about the universe. To measure the approximate distance of an object, like a star, and how that distance has changed, astronomers analyze the spectrum of light emitted. Scientists were able to tell that the universe is increasing in expansion because, as the light waves make the incredibly long journey to Earth—billions of light-years away—the universe continues to

expand. And as it expands, it stretches the light waves through a process called "redshifting" (the "red" is because the longest wavelength for light is in the red portion of the electromagnetic spectrum). The more redshifted this light is, the faster the expansion is going. Many years of painstaking observations (made by many different astronomers) have confirmed that this expansion is still ongoing and increasing because (as previously mentioned) the farther away an object is, the more redshifted it is, and (thus) the faster it is moving away from us.

How Do We Know That Dark Energy Is Real?

The existence of dark energy is required, in some form or another, to reconcile the measured geometry of space with the total amount of matter in the universe. This is because of the largely successful Planck satellite and Wilkenson Microwave Anisotropy Probe (WMAP) observations. The satellite's observations of the cosmic microwave background radiation (CMB) indicate that the universe is geometrically flat, or pretty close to it.

All of the matter that we believe exists (based on scientific data and inferences) combines to make up just about 30% of the total critical density of the observed universe. If it were geometrically flat, like the distribution suggests from the CMB, critical density of energy and matter should equal 100%. WMAP's seven year sky survey, and the more sophisticated Planck Satellite 2 year survey, both are very strong evidence of a flat universe. Current measurements from Planck put baryonic matter (atoms) at about 4%, dark matter at 23%, and dark energy making up the remainder at 73%.



What's more, an experiment called Wiggle Z galaxy sky survey in 2011 further supported the dark energy hypothesis by its observations of large scale structures of the universe (such as galaxies, quasars, galaxy clusters, etc). After observing more than 200,000 galaxies (by looking at their redshift and measuring the baryonic acoustic oscillations), the survey quantitatively put the age of when the universe started increasing its acceleration at a timeline of 7 billion years. After this time in the universe, the expansion started to speed up.

How Does Dark Energy Work?

According to Occam's razor (which proposes that the hypothesis with the fewest amount of assumptions is the correct one), the scientific community has favored Einstein's cosmological constant. Or in other words, the vacuum energy density of empty space, imbued with the same negative pressure value everywhere, eventually adds up with itself to speed up and suffuse the universe with more empty space, accelerating the entire process. This would kind of be similar to the energy pressure when talking about the "Casimir effect," which is caused by virtual particles in so-called "empty space", which is actually full of virtual particles coming in and out of existence.

The Problem With Dark Energy:

Called "the worst prediction in all of physics," cosmologists predict that this value for the cosmological constant should be 10^ -120 Planck units. According to dark energy equation, the parameter value for w (for pressure and density) must equal -1. But according to the latest findings from Pan-STARRS (short for Panoramic Survey Telescope and Rapid Response System), this value is in fact -1.186. Pan-STARRS derived this value from combining the data it obtained with the observational data from Planck satellite (which measured these very specific type 1a supernovas, 150 of them between 2009 and 2011, to be exact).

"If w has this value, it means that the simplest model to explain dark energy is not true," says Armin Rest of the Space Telescope Science Institute (STScI) in Baltimore. Armin Rest is the lead author of the Pan-STARRS team reporting these results to the astrophysics Web site arXiv (actual link to the paper) on October 22, 2013.

The Significance:

What exactly does the discrepancy in the value in the cosmological constant mean for our understanding of dark energy? At first glace, the community can dismiss these results as experimental uncertainty errors. It is a well accepted idea that telescope calibration, supernova physics, and galactic properties are large sources of uncertainties. This can throw off the cosmological constant value. Several astronomers have immediately spoken up, denying the validity of the results. Julien Guy of University Pierre and Marie Curie in Paris say the Pan-STARRS researchers may have underestimated their systematic error by ignoring a source of uncertainty from supernova light-curve models. They have been in contact with the team, who are looking into that very issue, and others are combing over the meticulous work on the Pan-STARRS team to see if they can find any holes in the study.

Despite this, these results were very thorough and made by an experienced team, and work is already on its way to rule out any uncertainties. Not only that, but this is third sky survey to now produce experimental results that have dependencies for the pressure and density value of w being equal to 1, and it is starting to draw attention from cosmologists everywhere. In the next year or two, this result will be definitive, or it will be ruled out and disappear, with the cosmological constant continue being supported.

Well, if the cosmological constant model is wrong, we have to look at alternatives. That is the beauty of science, it does not care what we wish to be true: if something disagrees with observations, it's wrong. Plain and simple. [11]

The Big Bang

The Big Bang caused acceleration created radial currents of the matter, and since the matter is composed of negative and positive charges, these currents are creating magnetic field and attracting forces between the parallel moving electric currents. This is the gravitational force experienced by the matter, and also the mass is result of the electromagnetic forces between the charged particles. The positive and negative charged currents attracts each other or by the magnetic forces or by the much stronger electrostatic forces!?

The gravitational force attracting the matter, causing concentration of the matter in a small space and leaving much space with low matter concentration: dark matter and energy.

There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

Study Reveals Indications That Dark Matter is Being Erased by Dark Energy

Researchers in Portsmouth and Rome have found hints that dark matter, the cosmic scaffolding on which our Universe is built, is being slowly erased, swallowed up by dark energy.

The findings appear in the journal Physical Review Letters, published by the American Physical Society. In the journal cosmologists at the Universities of Portsmouth and Rome, argue that the latest astronomical data favors a dark energy that grows as it interacts with dark matter, and this appears to be slowing the growth of structure in the cosmos.

"Dark matter provides a framework for structures to grow in the Universe. The galaxies we see are built on that scaffolding and what we are seeing here, in these findings, suggests that dark matter is evaporating, slowing that growth of structure."

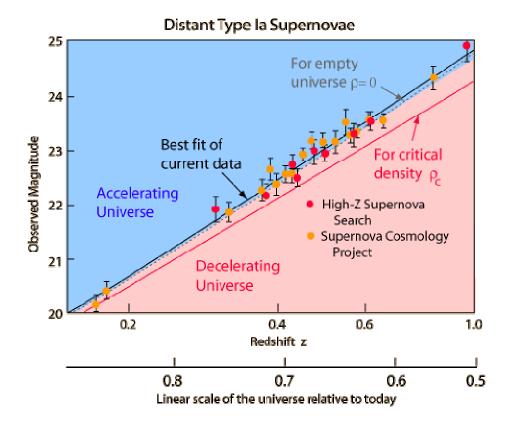
Cosmology underwent a paradigm shift in 1998 when researchers announced that the rate at which the Universe was expanding was accelerating. The idea of a constant dark energy throughout spacetime (the "cosmological constant") became the standard model of cosmology, but now the Portsmouth and Rome researchers believe they have found a better description, including energy transfer between dark energy and dark matter. [10]

Evidence for an accelerating universe

One of the observational foundations for the big bang model of cosmology was the observed expansion of the universe. [9] Measurement of the expansion rate is a critical part of the study, and it has been found that the expansion rate is very nearly "flat". That is, the universe is very close to the critical density, above which it would slow down and collapse inward toward a future "big

crunch". One of the great challenges of astronomy and astrophysics is distance measurement over the vast distances of the universe. Since the 1990s it has become apparent that type Ia supernovae offer a unique opportunity for the consistent measurement of distance out to perhaps 1000 Mpc. Measurement at these great distances provided the first data to suggest that the expansion rate of the universe is actually accelerating. That acceleration implies an energy density that acts in opposition to gravity which would cause the expansion to accelerate. This is an energy density which we have not directly detected observationally and it has been given the name "dark energy".

The type Ia supernova evidence for an accelerated universe has been discussed by Perlmutter and the diagram below follows his illustration in Physics Today.



The data summarized in the illustration above involve the measurement of the redshifts of the distant supernovae. The observed magnitudes are plotted against the redshift parameter z. Note that there are a number of Type 1a supernovae around z=.6, which with a Hubble constant of 71 km/s/mpc is a distance of about 5 billion light years.

Equation

The cosmological constant Λ appears in Einstein's field equation [5] in the form of

$$R_{\mu\nu} - \frac{1}{2}R g_{\mu\nu} + \Lambda g_{\mu\nu} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4}T_{\mu\nu},$$

where R and g describe the structure of spacetime, T pertains to matter and energy affecting that structure, and G and G are conversion factors that arise from using traditional units of measurement.

When Λ is zero, this reduces to the original field equation of general relativity. When T is zero, the field equation describes empty space (the vacuum).

The cosmological constant has the same effect as an intrinsic energy density of the vacuum, $\rho_{\rm vac}$ (and an associated pressure). In this context it is commonly moved onto the right-hand side of the equation, and defined with a proportionality factor of 8π : $\Lambda = 8\pi\rho_{\rm vac}$, where unit conventions of general relativity are used (otherwise factors of G and C would also appear). It is common to quote values of energy density directly, though still using the name "cosmological constant".

A positive vacuum energy density resulting from a cosmological constant implies a negative pressure, and vice versa. If the energy density is positive, the associated negative pressure will drive an accelerated expansion of the universe, as observed. (See dark energy and cosmic inflation for details.)

Explanatory models

Models attempting to explain accelerating expansion include some form of dark energy, dark fluid or phantom energy. The most important property of dark energy is that it has negative pressure which is distributed relatively homogeneously in space. The simplest explanation for dark energy is that it is a cosmological constant or vacuum energy; this leads to the Lambda-CDM model, which is generally known as the Standard Model of Cosmology as of 2003-2013, since it is the simplest model in good agreement with a variety of recent observations.

Dark Matter and Energy

Dark matter is a type of matter hypothesized in astronomy and cosmology to account for a large part of the mass that appears to be missing from the universe. Dark matter cannot be seen directly with telescopes; evidently it neither emits nor absorbs light or other electromagnetic radiation at any significant level. It is otherwise hypothesized to simply be matter that is not reactant to light. Instead, the existence and properties of dark matter are inferred from its gravitational effects on visible matter, radiation, and the large-scale structure of the universe. According to the Planck mission team, and based on the standard model of cosmology, the total mass—energy of the known universe contains 4.9% ordinary matter, 26.8% dark matter and 68.3% dark energy. Thus, dark matter is estimated to constitute 84.5% of the total matter in the universe, while dark energy plus dark matter constitute 95.1% of the total content of the universe. [6]

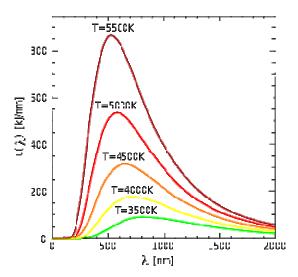
Cosmic microwave background

The cosmic microwave background (CMB) is the thermal radiation assumed to be left over from the "Big Bang" of cosmology. When the universe cooled enough, protons and electrons combined to form neutral atoms. These atoms could no longer absorb the thermal radiation, and so the universe became transparent instead of being an opaque fog. [7]

Thermal radiation

Thermal radiation is electromagnetic radiation generated by the thermal motion of charged particles in matter. All matter with a temperature greater than absolute zero emits thermal radiation. When the temperature of the body is greater than absolute zero, interatomic collisions

cause the kinetic energy of the atoms or molecules to change. This results in charge-acceleration and/or dipole oscillation which produces electromagnetic radiation, and the wide spectrum of radiation reflects the wide spectrum of energies and accelerations that occur even at a single temperature. [8]



Electromagnetic Field and Quantum Theory

Needless to say that the accelerating electrons of the steady stationary current are a simple demystification of the magnetic field, by creating a decreasing charge distribution along the wire, maintaining the decreasing U potential and creating the $\underline{\mathbf{A}}$ vector potential experienced by the electrons moving by $\underline{\mathbf{v}}$ velocity relative to the wire. This way it is easier to understand also the time dependent changes of the electric current and the electromagnetic waves as the resulting fields moving by c velocity.

It could be possible something very important law of the nature behind the self maintaining $\underline{\mathbf{E}}$ accelerating force by the accelerated electrons. The accelerated electrons created electromagnetic fields are so natural that they occur as electromagnetic waves traveling with velocity c. It shows that the electric charges are the result of the electromagnetic waves diffraction.

One of the most important conclusions is that the electric charges are moving in an accelerated way and even if their velocity is constant, they have an intrinsic acceleration anyway, the so called spin, since they need at least an intrinsic acceleration to make possible they movement.

The bridge between the classical and quantum theory is based on this intrinsic acceleration of the spin, explaining also the Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle. The particle – wave duality of the electric charges and the photon makes certain that they are both sides of the same thing. Basing the gravitational force on the accelerating Universe caused magnetic force and the Planck Distribution Law of the electromagnetic waves caused diffraction gives us the basis to build a Unified Theory of the physical interactions. [4]

Lorentz transformation of the Special Relativity

In the referential frame of the accelerating electrons the charge density lowering linearly because of the linearly growing way they takes every next time period. From the referential frame of the wire there is a parabolic charge density lowering.

The difference between these two referential frames, namely the referential frame of the wire and the referential frame of the moving electrons gives the relativistic effect. Important to say that the moving electrons presenting the time coordinate, since the electrons are taking linearly increasing way every next time period, and the wire presenting the geometric coordinate. The Lorentz transformations are based on moving light sources of the Michelson - Morley experiment giving a practical method to transform time and geometric coordinates without explaining the source of this mystery.

The real mystery is that the accelerating charges are maintaining the accelerating force with their charge distribution locally. The resolution of this mystery that the charges are simply the results of the diffraction patterns, that is the charges and the electric field are two sides of the same thing. Otherwise the charges could exceed the velocity of the electromagnetic field.

The increasing mass of the electric charges the result of the increasing inductive electric force acting against the accelerating force. The decreasing mass of the decreasing acceleration is the result of the inductive electric force acting against the decreasing force. This is the relativistic mass change explanation, especially importantly explaining the mass reduction in case of velocity decrease.

The Classical Relativistic effect

The moving charges are self maintain the electromagnetic field locally, causing their movement and this is the result of their acceleration under the force of this field.

In the classical physics the charges will distributed along the electric current so that the electric potential lowering along the current, by linearly increasing the way they take every next time period because this accelerated motion.

Electromagnetic inertia and Gravitational attraction

Since the magnetic induction creates a negative electric field as a result of the changing acceleration, it works as an electromagnetic inertia, causing an electromagnetic mass.

It looks clear that the growing acceleration results the relativistic growing mass - limited also with the velocity of the electromagnetic wave.

Since E = hv and $E = mc^2$, $m = hv/c^2$ that is the m depends only on the v frequency. It means that the mass of the proton and electron are electromagnetic and the result of the electromagnetic induction, caused by the changing acceleration of the spinning and moving charge! It could be that the m_o inertial mass is the result of the spin, since this is the only accelerating motion of the electric charge. Since the accelerating motion has different frequency for the electron in the atom and the

proton, they masses are different, also as the wavelengths on both sides of the diffraction pattern, giving equal intensity of radiation.

If the mass is electromagnetic, then the gravitation is also electromagnetic effect caused by the accelerating Universe! The same charges would attract each other if they are moving parallel by the magnetic effect.

The Planck distribution law explains the different frequencies of the proton and electron, giving equal intensity to different lambda wavelengths! Also since the particles are diffraction patterns they have some closeness to each other – can be seen as a gravitational force.

Electromagnetic inertia and mass

Electromagnetic Induction

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Relativistic change of mass

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The frequency dependence of mass

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Electron – Proton mass rate

The Planck distribution law explains the different frequencies of the proton and electron, giving equal intensity to different lambda wavelengths! Also since the particles are diffraction patterns they have some closeness to each other – can be seen as a gravitational force. [1]

There is an asymmetry between the mass of the electric charges, for example proton and electron, can understood by the asymmetrical Planck Distribution Law. This temperature dependent energy distribution is asymmetric around the maximum intensity, where the annihilation of matter and antimatter is a high probability event. The asymmetric sides are creating different frequencies of electromagnetic radiations being in the same intensity level and compensating each other. One of these compensating ratios is the electron – proton mass ratio. The lower energy side has no compensating intensity level, it is the dark energy and the corresponding matter is the dark matter.

Gravity from the point of view of quantum physics

The Gravitational force

The gravitational attractive force is basically a magnetic force.

The same electric charges can attract one another by the magnetic force if they are moving parallel in the same direction. Since the electrically neutral matter is composed of negative and positive charges they need 2 photons to mediate this attractive force, one per charges. The Bing Bang caused parallel moving of the matter gives this magnetic force, experienced as gravitational force.

Since graviton is a tensor field, it has spin = 2, could be 2 photons with spin = 1 together.

You can think about photons as virtual electron – positron pairs, obtaining the necessary virtual mass for gravity.

The mass as seen before a result of the diffraction, for example the proton – electron mass rate Mp=1840 Me. In order to move one of these diffraction maximum (electron or proton) we need to intervene into the diffraction pattern with a force appropriate to the intensity of this diffraction maximum, means its intensity or mass.

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The Graviton

In physics, the graviton is a hypothetical elementary particle that mediates the force of gravitation in the framework of quantum field theory. If it exists, the graviton is expected to be massless (because the gravitational force appears to have unlimited range) and must be a spin-2 boson. The spin follows from the fact that the source of gravitation is the stress-energy tensor, a second-rank tensor (compared to electromagnetism's spin-1 photon, the source of which is the four-current, a first-rank tensor). Additionally, it can be shown that any massless spin-2 field would give rise to a force indistinguishable from gravitation, because a massless spin-2 field must couple to (interact with) the stress-energy tensor in the same way that the gravitational field does. This result suggests that, if a massless spin-2 particle is discovered, it must be the graviton, so that the only experimental verification needed for the graviton may simply be the discovery of a massless spin-2 particle. [2]

Conclusions

If dark matter comes in both matter and antimatter varieties, it might accumulate inside dense stars to create black holes. It is also possible, although perhaps not probable, that astronomers could observe a pulsar collapse into a black hole, verifying the theory. But once the black hole is created, it would be near impossible to detect: As dark matter and black holes are each unobservable, black holes made of dark matter would be doubly invisible. [12]

For a long time, there were two main theories related to how our universe would end. These were the Big Freeze and the Big Crunch. In short, the Big Crunch claimed that the universe would eventually stop expanding and collapse in on itself. This collapse would result in...well...a big crunch (for lack of a better term). Think "the Big Bang", except just the opposite. That's essentially what the Big Crunch is. On the other hand, the Big Freeze claimed that the universe would continue expanding forever, until the cosmos becomes a frozen wasteland. This theory asserts that stars will get farther and farther apart, burn out, and (since there are no more stars bring born) the universe will grown entirely cold and eternally black. [11]

Newly published research reveals that dark matter is being swallowed up by dark energy, offering novel insight into the nature of dark matter and dark energy and what the future of our Universe might be. [10]

The changing temperature of the Universe will change the proportionality of the dark energy and the corresponding dark matter by the Planck Distribution Law, giving the base of this newly published research.

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