# A Self-Gravitational Upper Bound on Localized Energy, Including that of Virtual Particles and Quantum Fields, which Yields a Passable "Dark Energy" Density Estimate

#### Steven Kenneth Kauffmann\*

#### Abstract

The self-gravitational correction to a localized spherically-symmetric static energy distribution is obtained from energetically self-consistent upgraded Newtonian gravitational theory. The result is a gravitational redshift factor that is everywhere finite and positive, which both rules out gravitational horizons and implies that the self-gravitationally corrected static energy contained in a sphere of radius r is bounded by r times the fourth power of c divided by r. Even in the absence of spherical symmetry this energy bound still applies to within a factor of two, and it cuts off the mass deviation of any quantum virtual particle at about a Planck mass. Because quantum uncertainty makes the minimum possible energy of a quantum field infinite, such a field's self-gravitationally corrected energy attains the value of that field's containing radius r times the fourth power of r divided by r0. Roughly estimating any quantum field's containing radius r1 as r2 times the age of the universe yields a "dark energy" density of 1.7 joules per cubic kilometer. But if r1 is put to the Planck length appropriate to the birth of the universe, that energy density becomes the enormous Planck unit value, which could conceivably drive primordial "inflation". The density of "dark energy" decreases as the universe expands, but more slowly than the density of ordinary matter decreases. Such evolution suggests that "dark energy" has inhomogeneities, which may be "dark matter".

## Introduction: self-gravitational capping of net localized energy

Einstein's identification of mass as a form of energy and of energy as a source of gravitation has the basic, but regrettably little appreciated, consequence of capping the possible energy content of any localized region at a value which is proportional to  $(c^4/G)$  times that region's maximum linear dimension. A very rough heuristic picture of how this comes about can be gleaned from thinking about two equal idealized "point masses" of value m > 0 that are separated by a distance d > 0. Of course these two "point masses" will gravitationally attract each other with a vector force  $-(Gm^2\mathbf{d})/|\mathbf{d}|^3$ , where  $|\mathbf{d}| = d$ , which tends to reduce their separation. We can either impose a constraint to stop that from occurring, or, a bit more elegantly, kick the two particles into a gravitational mutual circular orbit which automatically maintains their desired relative separation d. The kinetic energy of such a circular orbit is half of the negative of its potential energy  $-(Gm^2)/d$  from the virial theorem [1], so that with the inclusion of the energy of the two masses the system's total energy comes to  $[2mc^2 - ((Gm^2)/(2d))]$ . As a function of the value m of those two equal "point masses", this total energy has a maximum value which occurs at  $m = 2(c^2/G)d$  and equals  $2(c^4/G)d$ . In view of the fact that we haven't made an allowance for the negative gravitational energy which arises as a consequence of the system's orbital kinetic energy, this result of  $2(c^4/G)d$  is actually an overestimate of the system's maximum possible net effective energy.

If we alternatively simply impose the separation d of the two particles as a static constraint, the system's total energy instead comes to,

$$E(m;d) = [2mc^2 - ((Gm^2)/d)], \tag{1a}$$

which as a function of m has a maximum value that occurs at  $m = (c^2/G)d$  and equals,

$$E_{\text{max}}(d) = (c^4/G)d. \tag{1b}$$

It is therefore apparent that in any case the self-gravitation of such a localized system indeed caps its net effective energy at a value which is proportional to  $(c^4/G)$  times its maximum linear dimension d. Now such an energy cap proportional to a system's maximum linear dimension implies that any "point" system must have zero energy! So our use of two equal nonzero "point masses" to construct the systems of the above examples isn't really physically self-consistent. The next section will therefore deal with nonsingularly distributed localized positive energy, albeit only for such localized positive energy distributions which are static and spherically symmetric; more general nonsingularly distributed static localized positive energy is

<sup>\*</sup> Retired, American Physical Society Senior Life Member, E-mail: SKKauffmann@gmail.com

taken up in a later section. The fact that nonzero point masses do not exist in relativistic gravity theory has been very strongly emphasized as well by Christoph Schiller in connection with his demonstration of the equivalence of his principle of maximum force to the Einstein equation in a context of general covariance [2].

#### Self-gravitational reduction of spherically-symmetric localized static energy

We denote an initially prescribed idealized (i.e., before its self-gravitational energy reduction) static spherically-symmetric nonsingular positive-energy density that is localized to a sphere of radius  $r_s$  as  $T_{G=0}(r)$ , where,  $T_{G=0}(r) > 0$  for  $r < r_s$  and  $T_{G=0}(r) = 0$  for  $r > r_s$ , while we denote the corresponding physically realistic self-gravitationally reduced effective energy density as  $T_G(r)$ . These two energy densities are related to each other through the dimensionless local negative Newtonian gravitational potential  $\phi(r)$  via  $T_G(r) = T_{G=0}(r)(1+\phi(r))$ . Furthermore, Newtonian gravitational theory is upgraded to being energetically self-consistent when  $\phi(r)$  follows from the physically realistic self-gravitationally reduced actually effective energy density  $T_G(r)$  via the Newtonian expression,

$$\phi(r) = \phi(|\mathbf{r}|) = -(G/c^4) \int_{|\mathbf{r}'| \le r_s} \frac{d^3 \mathbf{r}' T_G(|\mathbf{r}'|)}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} = -((4\pi G)/c^4) \int_0^{r_s} (r')^2 dr' T_G(r')/r_>, \tag{2a}$$

where  $r_{>}$  abbreviates  $\max(r, r')$ . It is actually more convenient to deal directly with the dimensionless local gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\psi(r) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (1+\phi(r))$  than with the local Newtonian gravitational potential  $\phi(r)$ . Transcribed in terms of  $\psi(r)$  and the initially prescribed idealized energy density  $T_{G=0}(r)$ , Eq. (2a) becomes,

$$\psi(r) = 1 - ((4\pi G)/c^4) \int_0^{r_s} (r')^2 dr' T_{G=0}(r') \psi(r')/r_>, \tag{2b}$$

which transparently manifests the fed back character of  $\psi(r)$ ; elementary Newtonian gravitational theory which is not energetically self-consistent is recovered when  $\psi(r')$  within the integrand on the right-hand side of Eq. (2b) is replaced by unity. We further note that since,

$$T_G(r) = T_{G=0}(r)\psi(r), \tag{2c}$$

Eq. (2b) is readily verified to imply that,

$$\psi(r) = 1 - (r_s/r)((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) \text{ when } r \ge r_s,$$
 (2d)

where  $E_G$  is of course the spherically-symmetric static energy distribution's self-gravitationally reduced effective total energy.

For a localized photon wave packet the dimensionless local gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\psi(r)$  is obviously also a local gravitational frequency reduction factor. Therefore its dimensionless inverse  $(1/\psi(r))$  is the local gravitational redshift or time-dilation factor. We thus are here implicitly dealing with the  $g_{00}(r)$  component of a metric tensor [3],

$$g_{00}(r) = (\psi(r))^2.$$
 (2e)

Since  $\psi(r)$  is based on the energetically self-consistent upgraded *Newtonian* gravitational potential  $\phi(r)$  of Eq. (2a), our *implicit* metric tensor that is alluded to in Eq. (2e) is expressed in "Newtonian" coordinates.

In order to understand the behavior of  $\psi(r)$  we now proceed to repeatedly differentiate Eq. (2b). To that end we explicitly express  $(1/r_{>})$  as  $\theta(r-r')/r+(1-\theta(r-r'))/r'$ , and thus obtain  $d(1/r_{>})/dr=-\theta(r-r')/r^{2}$ . Applying this result to Eq. (2b) yields,

$$d\psi(r)/dr = ((4\pi G)/(c^4 r^2)) \int_0^{\min(r,r_s)} (r')^2 dr' T_{G=0}(r') \psi(r'), \tag{2f}$$

Furthermore,  $d^2(1/r_>)/dr^2 = -\delta(r-r')/r^2 - (2/r)d(1/r_>)/dr$ , which applied to Eq. (2b) yields,

$$d^{2}\psi(r)/dr^{2} + (2/r)d\psi(r)/dr = \theta(r_{s} - r)((4\pi G)/c^{4})T_{G=0}(r)\psi(r).$$
(2g)

Eq. (2g) reveals that  $\psi(r)$  satisfies a zero-energy S-wave Schrödinger-equation analogue with a potential barrier produced by  $T_{G=0}(r) \geq 0$  in the region  $0 \leq r \leq r_s$  and empty space in the region  $r > r_s$ , where the solution  $\psi(r)$  is analytically represented by Eq. (2d). Given the fact of zero energy, the potential barrier resists penetration anywhere that it is positive, so for  $0 \leq r \leq r_s$  we would expect  $\psi(r)$  to approximately increase exponentially with increasing r.

This behavior is *indeed* manifested by the "within the barrier" S-wave WKB approximation,

$$\psi(r) \approx (r_0/r) \sinh\left(\int_0^r dr' [((4\pi G)/c^4)T_{G=0}(r')]^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \text{ for } 0 \le r \le r_s,$$

which is to be smoothly joined to Eq. (2d) at  $r = r_s$ , which would approximately determine both the positive constant  $r_0$  and also the self-gravitationally reduced effective total energy  $E_G$  that is needed to make Eq. (2d) definite. By thus utilizing the "within the barrier" WKB approximation together with Eq. (2d) we obtain a cobbled-together picture of the behavior of  $\psi(r)$ , namely an increasing positive function of r for all  $r \geq 0$  which smoothly rises from its minimum positive value at r = 0 toward its asymptotic value of unity as  $r \to \infty$ .

By enlisting the help of Eq. (2f) we can reaffirm this picture of  $\psi(r)$  without utilizing the WKB approximation. Eq. (2f) relates the local  $r \to 0+$  behaviour of  $d\psi(r)/dr$  to  $\psi(r=0)$  as follows,

$$d\psi(r)/dr \sim ((4\pi G)/(3c^4))rT_{G=0}(r=0)\psi(r=0), \tag{3a}$$

which implies that as  $r \to 0+$ ,

$$\psi(r) \sim [1 + ((2\pi G)/(3c^4))r^2 T_{G=0}(r=0)]\psi(r=0).$$
 (3b)

Assuming that  $T_{G=0}(r=0) > 0$ , we see from Eq. (3b) that if  $\psi(r=0) < 0$ , then  $\psi(r)$  will initially decrease from that negative value, which makes the Eq. (2f) expression for  $d\psi(r)/dr$  negative, the upshot being a negative  $\psi(r)$  that keeps on decreasing. If  $\psi(r=0) = 0$  we see from Eq. (3b) that the first and second derivatives of  $\psi(r)$  at r=0 also vanish. Therefore, given the linear homogeneous second-order differential Eq. (2g),  $\psi(r)$  vanishes identically all the way to  $r=r_s$ , which behaviour can't be smoothly joined there to the  $\psi(r)$  form given by Eq. (2d). Therefore, the  $r\to\infty$  asymptotic value of +1 for  $\psi(r)$  that Eq. (2d) requires is compatible only with a positive value for  $\psi(r=0)$ , from which Eq. (2f) tells us  $\psi(r)$  keeps on increasing. In cases that  $T_{G=0}(r=0)$  vanishes, very similar arguments regarding the positive and increasing nature of  $\psi(r)$  apply for all values of r larger than that r-value beyond which  $T_{G=0}(r)$  first takes on positive values, with  $\psi(r)$  being a positive constant for r-values smaller than that.

Having thereby shown that,

$$1 \ge \psi(r) > 0 \text{ for all } r \ge 0, \tag{4a}$$

we note that this inequality holds in particular at  $r = r_s$ , which from Eq. (2d) implies that,

$$0 \le ((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) < 1. \tag{4b}$$

Finally, if one increases  $T_{G=0}(r)$ , it is apparent from Eq. (2b) that the positive increasing function  $\psi(r)$  responds by decreasing in the interval  $0 \le r \le r_s$ . From Eq. (2b) one sees that the average value of  $\psi(r)$  in the interval  $0 \le r \le r_s$  times roughly  $[1 + ((GE_{G=0})/(c^4r_s))]$  is equal to unity. Therefore multiplying  $E_{G=0}$  by the dimensionless factor  $N \ge 1$  roughly divides the average value of  $\psi(r)$  in the interval  $0 \le r \le r_s$  by the factor  $[1 + N((GE_{G=0})/(c^4r_s))]/[1 + ((GE_{G=0})/(c^4r_s))]$ .

In any event, taking  $E_{G=0} \to \infty$  produces an impenetrable barrier in the interval  $0 \le r \le r_s$ , which implies that,

$$\psi(r) \to 0 \text{ for } 0 \le r \le r_s \text{ when } E_{G=0} \to \infty.$$
 (4c)

For  $r = r_s$ , Eq. (4c) together with Eq. (2d) imply that,

$$((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) \to 1 \text{ when } E_{G=0} \to \infty.$$
 (4d)

The inequality  $\psi(r) > 0$  of Eq. (4a) rules out gravitational horizons—which occur where the gravitational redshift factor  $(1/\psi(r))$  is locally infinite—regardless of the strength of the nonnegative  $T_{G=0}(r)$ . However, Eq. (4c) tells us that the positive finite gravitational local redshift factor  $(1/\psi(r))$  can certainly be made arbitrarily large. These dual aspects of the behavior of the gravitational local redshift factor are related to the fact that Eq. (2b) feeds back that factor's inverse  $\psi(r)$ .

The issue of whether gravitational horizons can ever be physically realized in General Relativity was fundamentally settled in the negative by Christoph Schiller in the course of his demonstration that his principle of the unattainable least upper bound of  $(c^4/(4G))$  on force magnitudes is, against a backdrop of general covariance, equivalent to the Einstein equation [2].

With regard to Schiller's principle vis-à-vis the inequalities given by our Eqs. (4a) and (4b), we note that the Newtonian gravitational force magnitude between two identical localized spherically-symmetric static systems, each with radius  $r_s$  and self-gravitationally reduced effective total energy  $E_G$  is equal to, when they just touch,  $G(E_G)^2/[c^4(2r_s)^2]$ . Requiring this to be less than Schiller's unattainable least upper bound  $(c^4/(4G))$  also yields our key Eq. (4b) inequality  $((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) < 1$  that reflects the nonexistence of a gravitational horizon at  $r = r_s$ .

Although Schiller's principle rules out physical realization of gravitational horizons, the fact that physical systems can come arbitrarily close to attaining horizons (which is explicitly noted above in the paragraph below Eqs. (4c) and (4d)) actually plays a crucial role in the demonstration that Schiller presents [2].

The key inequality  $((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) < 1$  of Eq. (4b) also implies that if a localized static, spherically symmetric energy distribution is shrunk to a point, i.e., if its radius  $r_s$  is taken to zero, then that sphere's effective energy  $E_G$  is as well forced to zero. Therefore nonzero effective static point energies indeed don't exist, as noted in the introductory section of this paper—Schiller stresses that appreciation of that fact is crucial to proper understanding of General Relativity [2].

From Eq. (2d) we see that in the empty-space Schwarzschild region  $r > r_s$  our "Newtonian"  $g_{00}(r)$  of Eq. (2e) has the value  $(1 - ((GE_G)/(c^4r)))^2$ . Since the well-known "isotropic" Schwarzschild metric tensor [4] has  $g_{00}(\rho) = (1 - ((GE_G)/(2c^4\rho)))^2/(1 + ((GE_G)/(2c^4\rho)))^2$ , it can be readily verified that the "isotropic" Schwarzschild metric tensor is mapped into our "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor by the simple coordinate transformation  $\rho(r) = r - (GE_G)/(2c^4)$ . Applying that transformation to the full "isotropic" Schwarzschild metric tensor explicitly yields our full "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor,

$$ds^{2} = (1 - ((GE_{G})/(c^{4}r)))^{2}(cdt)^{2} - (1 - ((GE_{G})/(2c^{4}r)))^{-4}dr^{2} - (1 - ((GE_{G})/(2c^{4}r)))^{-2}((rd\theta)^{2} + (r\sin\theta d\phi)^{2}),$$
(5)

which has the empty-space region of validity  $r > r_s$ . Since  $((GE_G)/(c^4r_s)) < 1$  from Eq. (4b), it follows that in this "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor's empty-space region of validity  $r > r_s$ ,  $((GE_G)/(c^4r)) < 1$ . That inequality makes it manifest that within its region of validity the Eq. (5) "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor has no horizon nor any other unphysical anomaly.

Of course the reason that no horizon occurs is that the self-gravitational capping of localized energy which is inherent to Eq. (4b) always locates the putative horizon of this "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor in a region that is not in fact in empty space; i.e., that is outside of the empty-space region of validity of the "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor.

That the putative horizon always "occurs" in a non-empty-space region where the "Newtonian" Schwarz-schild metric tensor is inherently invalid is indeed fortunate, because at its  $r = (GE_G)/c^4$  putative horizon the Eq. (5) "Newtonian" Schwarzschild metric tensor has bizarre (3 + 0) dimensions, which violates the metric-tensor signature theorem [5]!

## Interacting quantum particles that have forbidden energy or mass

Because of its wave character, a quantum particle which interacts with a potential can penetrate a short distance into a region where the potential's value exceeds the particle's energy—such penetration is forbidden to classical particles. In such a region the quantum particle's kinetic energy and momentum squared effectively assume *negative* values, and its penetration length  $\lambda$  into that energetically forbidden region can be roughly described as,

$$\lambda \approx \hbar/(-p_{\text{off}}^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}.\tag{6a}$$

Since for a nonrelativistic interacting particle,

$$E = p^2/(2m) + V,$$
 (6b)

we can rewrite Eq. (6a) as,

$$\lambda \approx \hbar/(2m(V-E))^{\frac{1}{2}},\tag{6c}$$

and the energetically forbidden region corresponds to V > E. If V should vary significantly from the edge of the forbidden region to the depth  $\lambda$ , Eq. (6c) will need to be regarded as an approximate *implicit relationship* which actually needs to be *solved* for  $\lambda$ . That implicit relationship is set up by reexpressing V as a function of the distance from the edge of the forbidden region, and the resulting new independent variable is then identified as  $\lambda$ .

A highly energetic interacting quantum particle can similarly deviate from the natural rest mass which it has when it is free, and thus enter a region of forbidden rest mass. Just as there is an effective length limit for quantum particle penetration into a region of forbidden energy, so there is an effective proper time limit, i.e., lifetime, for quantum particle penetration into a region of forbidden rest mass, namely,

$$\tau \approx \hbar/(\Delta_m c^2),$$
 (7a)

where  $\Delta_m$  is the rest-mass deviation experienced by an energetic interacting quantum particle and  $\tau$  is the lifetime of that deviant-mass state. Given its limited lifetime, such a deviant-mass virtual particle is as well limited in space to a spherical region of radius  $R \approx c\tau$ ,

$$R \approx c\tau \approx \hbar/(\Delta_m c)$$
. (7b)

Given that radius R of Eq. (7b), Eq. (4b) then yields a self-gravitational approximate upper bound on the total energy E of this deviant-mass particle,

$$E \approx (c^4/G)R \approx c^3 \hbar/(G\Delta_m).$$
 (7c)

Since  $\Delta_m c^2$  cannot exceed the deviant-mass particle's total energy E, it follows from Eq. (7c) that,

$$\Delta_m c^2 \stackrel{\sim}{<} c^3 \hbar / (G \Delta_m). \tag{7d}$$

Therefore,

$$(\Delta_m)^2 \stackrel{\sim}{\sim} \hbar c/G,\tag{7e}$$

which implies that,

$$\Delta_m \stackrel{\sim}{<} (\hbar c/G)^{\frac{1}{2}},\tag{7f}$$

namely that  $\Delta_m$  is approximately bounded by the *Planck mass*  $(\hbar c/G)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

This approximate Planck-mass upper bound on the mass deviation of any interacting quantum virtual particle universally cuts off the *ultraviolet divergences* which bedevil quantum particle scattering amplitude calculations.

# Self-gravitational reduction of the infinite energies of quantum fields

A noninteracting field (e.g., the source-free electromagnetic field) always decomposes into an infinite number of independent simple harmonic oscillators whose frequency spectrum has no upper bound. Upon quantization, each such oscillator has a minimum positive energy (i.e., quantum ground state energy) which is equal to its frequency times  $\hbar/2$ : that minimum energy is quantum theoretically inviolable, being completely mandated by the quantum uncertainty principle. The fact that there are an infinite number of such simple harmonic oscillators with an unbounded frequency spectrum implies that the corresponding quantum field always has infinite energy. If the field is set up in a bounded region, then its quantum counterpart has not only infinite energy, but necessarily infinite average energy density as well.

Therefore for quantum fields the uncertainty principle baldly confronts us with an unphysical nightmare, yet without this selfsame uncertainty principle likewise mandating a definite minimum energy, Rutherford's nuclear atom can't be sustained.

The last apparent hope for the beleaguered theorist in this harrowing circumstance lies with the self-gravitational reduction of an initially infinite energy,  $E_{G=0} \to \infty$ , which is contained in a spherical region of radius  $r_s$ , namely the situation described by Eq. (4d). A grace note is that the self-gravitationally reduced energy result for that situation is both finite and simple,

$$E_G = (c^4/G)r_s. (8a)$$

Of course it makes no difference whatsoever how many or what types of quantum fields are contained in that spherical region of radius  $r_s$ ; any infinite initial energy contained in that region produces the result of Eq. (8a).

The total self-gravitationally reduced energy of quantum fields, which is what Eq. (8a) is supposed to describe, isn't directly measurable. However, by making use of the fields' containing radius  $r_s$ , we can obtain from Eq. (8a) their self-gravitationally reduced averaged energy density  $\bar{\rho}$ ,

$$\bar{\rho} = (3c^4/(4\pi G r_s^2)).$$
 (8b)

It now remains to puzzle out what conceivable physics could produce the quantum fields' containing radius  $r_s$ . It is, of course, apparent that no material substance can serve to contain the arbitrarily high frequencies which such fields are able to muster. The universe' cosmological redshift, however, in principle ought to defang any frequency, and indeed appears to serve as the "containment" for what we can possibly hope to survey. Therefore a not altogether implausible crude estimate of the quantum fields' "containing radius"  $r_s$  ought to be given by the age of the universe [6] times the speed of light, which comes to about  $1.3 \times 10^{26}$  meters. Putting that value of  $r_s$  into Eq. (8b) yields about  $1.7 \times 10^{-9}$  joules per cubic meter (i.e.,  $1.7 \times 10^{-8}$  ergs per cubic centimeter or 1.7 joules per cubic kilometer) as a crude estimate of the universe' average "dark energy" density. This is in fact of the same order of magnitude as what is yielded by observations [7, 8].

In addition to the ability of Eq. (8b) to yield a passable crude estimate of the current universe' average "dark energy" density, its systematics also seem fascinating. If we project it all the way back to the universe' birth, when  $r_s$  was presumbably of the order of magnitude of the Planck length  $(G\hbar/c^3)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ , then  $\bar{\rho}$  approaches of order unity in Planck units of energy density, which is roughly 120 orders of magnitude greater than its value for the current universe.

Theorists who did not attempt to actually model the physics which produces self-gravitational energy correction have favored this particular enormous value of "dark energy" density because of their adoption of a physically-blinkered "universal fix" for infinite results, namely the replacement of any such infinity by one Planck unit of the appropriate dimensions [8]. Neither physical modeling of self-gravitational energy correction nor observations have much overlap with such undiscriminating replacement of the quantum energy-density infinity by its Planck-unit value, but it is still fascinating to consider that enormous Planck unit of "dark energy" density as being relevant to the early universe, as that would apparently provide an automatic mechanism for the heretofore puzzling "inflation" of that early universe.

Finally, Eq. (8b) suggests that the average "dark energy" density ought to decrease toward zero as the universe continues its expansion. This brings to mind the not infrequently expressed theorist preference for exactly vanishing "dark energy" density over its observed value [8], which while immensely smaller than the Planck unit of energy density, nonetheless absolutely fails to vanish. In fact, completely to the contrary, it dominates the net average energy density of our universe [7]. We see that Eq. (8b) apparently caters for all tastes in average "dark energy" density, whether those tastes gravitate toward the enormous Planck unit of energy density, zero energy density, or anything in between, including a passable rendition of the observed average "dark energy" density which actually obtains at the current stage of evolution of our universe. It is to be cautioned, however, that while Eq. (8b) indeed has average "dark energy" density decreasing toward zero as the universe continues to expand, the average density of normal matter would be expected to decrease at a faster rate, so that "dark energy" relative dominance would continue to grow.

#### Must self-gravitation be quantized to correct quantum energy infinities?

Gravity, like electromagnetism, is a gauge theory, and the issues surrounding its quantization formally parallel those issues in electromagnetism. In both cases there are dynamical, nondynamical and redundant fields present, and the dynamical fields in both cases are two in number and describe transverse radiation. Only these two dynamical radiation fields are subject to quantization.

What remains after the two transverse dynamical radiation fields are accounted for splits evenly into nondynamical and redundant fields, *neither* of which, of course, are subject to quantization. The four-potential of electromagnetism yields one redundant field and one nondynamical field of Coulombic character. The symmetric metric tensor of gravity yeilds four redundant fields and four nondynamical ones. One of the nondynamical fields very roughly corresponds to Newtonian gravity with roughly an energy-density source, while the other three merely round out a relativistic four-vector representation, and therefore have roughly a momentum-flux source.

If we look back at the previous parts of this article, it is clear that the self-gravitational corrections which are of overarching importance can all be profitably pondered in a quasi-static or outright static framework. The basic ingredients for self-gravitational corrections tend to be *Newtonian*, albeit an energetically self-consistent form of gravitational Newtonianism.

Gravitational radiation doesn't physically enter into self-gravitational correction, so gravity quantization cannot be an issue in such correction, any more than electromagnetic quantization can be an issue in electrostatics. Gravitostatics is merely more subtle than electrostatics because of its energetic self-consistency.

#### Self-gravitational reduction of arbitrary smooth localized static energy

In the second section of this article we showed that any spherically-symmetric static nonsingular positive

energy distribution of radius  $r_s$  has, after self-gravitational reduction, a cap on its total effective energy  $E_G$  that is given by Eq. (4b), namely  $E_G < (c^4/G)r_s$ .

We now extend our study of the self-gravitational energy-reduction process begun in the second section to any specified static energy density  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$  which is nonnegative, smooth and globally integrable, i.e.,

$$T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}) \ge 0, \tag{9a}$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{r}} \left( T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}) \right)$$
 is continuous, (9b)

and.

$$\int T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}')d^3\mathbf{r}' < \infty. \tag{9c}$$

Here we specifically refrain from making the assumption of the second section of this article that  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$  possesses spherical symmetry, nor do we assume that it possesses any other particular symmetry.

Now if it were the case that we actually had in hand the self-gravitational correction  $T_G(\mathbf{r})$  of the specified static energy density  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$ , we could calculate the negative Newtonian gravitational work done to bring the infinitesimal original static energy  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r}$  from infinity to its position at  $\mathbf{r}$  while subject to the static gravitational field that is provided by  $T_G(\mathbf{r})$ , which yields the result  $-(G/c^4)\int d^3\mathbf{r}'T_G(\mathbf{r}')|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|^{-1}T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r}$ . However, because the static gravitational interaction inherently occurs between pairs of infinitesimal energies, we must take care to avoid double-counting, so we assign only half of this negative gravitational work correction to the infinitesimal static energy located at  $\mathbf{r}$ , and thus obtain,

$$T_G(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r} = \left[1 - \frac{1}{2}(G/c^4) \int d^3\mathbf{r}' T_G(\mathbf{r}') |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^{-1}\right] T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r}. \tag{10a}$$

From Eq. (10a) we see that the dimensionless local gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$  that satisfies,

$$T_G(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r} = \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})d^3\mathbf{r},\tag{10b}$$

is given by,

$$\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} 1 - \frac{1}{2} (G/c^4) \int |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^{-1} T_G(\mathbf{r}') d^3 \mathbf{r}'. \tag{10c}$$

This static local gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$  is obviously the *inverse* of the corresponding gravitational time-dilation factor, and thus is equal to  $(g_{00}(\mathbf{r}))^{\frac{1}{2}}$  [3]. If we insert the instruction implicit in Eq. (10b) into the right-hand side of Eq. (10c), we obtain the following inhomogeneous linear integral equation for  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$ ,

$$\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} (G/c^4) \int |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^{-1} T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}') \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}') d^3 \mathbf{r}'. \tag{10d}$$

In light of Eq. (9c), we can deduce from Eq. (10d) that,

$$\lim_{|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty} \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) = 1. \tag{11a}$$

Furthermore, since the integral transform  $kernel - 1/(4\pi |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|)$  is the Green's function of the Laplacian operator  $\nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2$ , we in addition deduce from Eq. (10d) that,

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) = (2\pi G/c^4) T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}) \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}),$$

which is readily reexpressed as a zero-energy stationary-state nonrelativistic *Schrödinger equation* for the dimensionless wave function  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$ , namely,

$$\left(-\hbar^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 / (2m) + V(\mathbf{r})\right) \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) = 0, \tag{11b}$$

whose repulsive potential  $V(\mathbf{r})$  is defined as,

$$V(\mathbf{r}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left[ \pi \hbar^2 G / (mc^4) \right] T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}). \tag{11c}$$

Because of Eq. (9c) it is clear from Eq. (11c) that,

$$\lim_{|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty} V(\mathbf{r}) = 0, \tag{11d}$$

which, in turn, implies that the large- $|\mathbf{r}|$  limit of  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$  that is given by Eq. (11a) is consistent with the Eq. (11b) zero-energy Schrödinger equation.

Having established the connection of the Eq. (10d) gravitational integral equation to the Eq. (11b) zero-energy stationary-state Schrödinger equation, we now furthermore note that for stationary states of positive energy E > 0 this Schrödinger equation becomes,

$$\left(-\hbar^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 / (2m) + V(\mathbf{r})\right) \langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_E \rangle = E \langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_E \rangle. \tag{12a}$$

From Eq. (11d) we see that as  $|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty$ , Eq. (12a) becomes simply,

$$\left(-\hbar^2 \nabla_{\mathbf{r}}^2 / (2m)\right) \langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_E \rangle = E \langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_E \rangle, \tag{12b}$$

whose solutions include all the dimensionless plane waves  $e^{i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$  for which  $\mathbf{p}$  satisfies  $|\mathbf{p}|^2 = 2mE$ , as well, of course, as the linear combinations of these which comprise the the full set of angularly-modulated outgoing and ingoing free spherical waves which have this same scalar wave number  $k = (2mE)^{\frac{1}{2}}/\hbar$  [9]. Thus we see that Eq. (12a) has a massive inherent solution degeneracy. A useful resolution of this solution degeneracy can be achieved by reexpressing Eq. (12a) in an inhomogeneous linear form that can only be satisfied by the particular permissible  $|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty$  asymptotic behavior which properly accords with the design of a specified experiment.

That idea underlies the Lippmann-Schwinger inhomogeneous modification of Eq. (12a), which forces its wave function to behave as a specifically chosen single permitted plane wave  $e^{i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$  plus only outgoing angularly-modulated spherical waves in the asymptotic region  $|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty$  where Eq. (12a) is adequately described by Eq. (12b). If we denote as  $\langle \mathbf{r}|\psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+}\rangle$  the solution of Eq. (12a) which satisfies this particular permitted  $|\mathbf{r}| \to \infty$  asymptotic behavior, then the inhomogeneous Lippmann-Schwinger equation that uniquely describes  $\langle \mathbf{r}|\psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+}\rangle$  is [10],

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle = e^{i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r}/\hbar} - \langle \mathbf{r} | (-\hbar^2 \widehat{\nabla}^2 / (2m) - |\mathbf{p}|^2 / (2m) - i\epsilon)^{-1} \widehat{V} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle. \tag{13a}$$

From a static gravitational standpoint the relevant feature of the Eq. (13a) inhomogeneous Lippmann-Schwinger equation and its wave function  $\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{n}}^{+} \rangle$  is that,

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle \Big|_{\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{0}} = \mathcal{F}_{G}(\mathbf{r}),$$
 (13b)

as is seen from comparison of the  $\mathbf{p}=\mathbf{0}$  case of Eq. (13a) with Eq. (10d)—to make this comparison one must use Eq. (11c) to express  $V(\mathbf{r})$  as the appropriate constants times  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$ , and one must also use the fact that the integral transform kernel  $-1/(4\pi|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|)$  is the coordinate-representation inverse (i.e., Green's function) of the Hilbert-space "Laplacian" operator  $\widehat{\nabla^2} = -|\widehat{\mathbf{p}}|^2/\hbar^2$ , namely that,

$$\langle \mathbf{r}|(\widehat{\nabla^2})^{-1}|\mathbf{r}'\rangle = -1/\left(4\pi|\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}'|\right).$$

Note that the negative imaginary infinitesimal  $-i\epsilon$  which appears in Eq. (13a) is unnecessary when  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$ , which represents a purely static state of affairs that has no distinguishable outgoing versus ingoing spherical waves. Indeed the massive solution degeneracy of the stationary-state Schrödinger equation given by Eq. (12a) collapses when E = 0.

Given the Eq. (13b) close relationship of the local gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$  to the Lippmann-Schwinger wave function  $\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^+ \rangle$ , it would seem logical to apply well-known general solution methods for Lippmann-Schwinger equations to our gravitational Eq. (10d). Unfortunately, however, the only widely-applied fully general solution method for Lippmann-Schwinger equations is perturbational in character, and therefore is inherently subject to failure.

# The struggle to transcend the perturbational Born trap

If we bring the second term on the right-hand side of the Eq. (13a) Lippmann-Schwinger equation to its left-hand side, we obtain,

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{r} | (\widehat{K} - E_{\mathbf{p}} - i\epsilon)^{-1} \widehat{V} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle = e^{i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r}/\hbar},$$
 (14a)

where  $\widehat{K} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (-\hbar^2 \widehat{\nabla^2}/(2m))$  is the kinetic energy operator and  $E_{\mathbf{p}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (|\mathbf{p}|^2/(2m))$  is the kinetic energy c-number scalar that corresponds to the c-number momentum vector  $\mathbf{p}$ . Taking  $\langle \mathbf{r} | \mathbf{p} \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} e^{i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r}/\hbar}$ , the formal solution of Eq. (14a) is,

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{+} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{r} | [1 + (\widehat{K} - E_{\mathbf{p}} - i\epsilon)^{-1} \widehat{V}]^{-1} | \mathbf{p} \rangle.$$
 (14b)

The only way forward at this point would seem to be expansion of the inverse of the operator in square brackets in the well-known Born geometric perturbation series, which involves successive *powers* with alternating signs of the particular operator,

 $\widehat{X} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\widehat{K} - E_{\mathbf{p}} - i\epsilon)^{-1} \widehat{V},$ 

acting on the momentum eigenstate  $|\mathbf{p}\rangle$  [11]. If the operator  $\widehat{X}$  dominates the identity on the momentum eigenstate  $|\mathbf{p}\rangle$ , it is not unlikely that the Born geometric series diverges. One might suppose that in such instances one could simply recast the Born geometric expansion to be in powers of the inverse of  $\widehat{X}$ , since one is formally free to choose either the expansion  $[1+\widehat{X}]^{-1}=1-\widehat{X}+\widehat{X}^2-\cdots$  or the expansion  $[1+\widehat{X}]^{-1}=\widehat{X}^{-1}[1+\widehat{X}^{-1}]^{-1}=\widehat{X}^{-1}-(\widehat{X}^{-1})^2+(\widehat{X}^{-1})^3-\cdots$ . Most unfortunately, however, since  $\widehat{X}^{-1}=\widehat{V}^{-1}\left(\widehat{K}-E_{\mathbf{p}}\right)$ ,

the operator  $\hat{X}^{-1}$  vanishes altogether when applied to the momentum eigenstate  $|\mathbf{p}\rangle$ . This unanticipated abrupt setback is a stark warning that hidden snares beset Born-style geometric perturbation expansions for the Lippmann-Schwinger equation.

For the  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$  case of the Lippmann-Schwinger equation that applies to static gravitation, we are, of course, particularly interested in arbitrarily large energy densities  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$ , and therefore in arbitrarily strong operators  $\hat{V}$  and  $\hat{X}$ . Thus it is clear that we need to entirely abjure Born-style geometric perturbation expansion, but how could that conceivably be accomplished in practice? The only possibility is through exploration of nonstandard manipulations of the Lippmann-Schwinger equation.

Returning to Eq. (14a) we now deliberately shun the elegant and natural factorization of the operator  $[1+\widehat{X}]$  on its left-hand side, which can only lead us down the primrose path to the Born geometric perturbation series, and instead opt to forcibly factor that side into two mere functions of the vector coordinate  $\mathbf{r}$ , the first of which is still  $\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^+ \rangle$  because we aim for a result which is at least akin to Eq. (14b), but the second of which is repulsively inelegant, being merely the product of  $(\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^+ \rangle)^{-1}$  with the original left-hand side of Eq. (14a). There is in fact "method" in that gross ugliness, however, because we can now actually arithmetically divide the plane wave  $e^{i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$  on the right-hand side of Eq. (14a) by that gauche second factor without resorting to any kind of perturbation expansion. A very heavy price has been paid in the coin of gross inelegance, but the goal of no perturbation expansion whatsoever has been achieved. To be sure, the almost childish manipulations just described haven't extracted any final result from Eq. (14a), what they have produced is only a basis for refinement through iteration. It is readily seen, however, that the iteration process is devoid of perturbational characteristics; it instead resembles a continued fraction.

The iteration formula we have just extracted from Eq. (14a) is explicitly,

$$\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(n+1)+} \rangle = e^{i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r}/\hbar} / [1 + (\langle \mathbf{r} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(n)+} \rangle)^{-1} \langle \mathbf{r} | (\widehat{K} - E_{\mathbf{p}} - i\epsilon)^{-1} \widehat{V} | \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(n)+} \rangle], \tag{14c}$$

for  $n=0,1,2,\ldots$ , where, of course,  $\langle \mathbf{r}|\psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(0)+}\rangle=e^{i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar}$ . Therefore  $(\langle \mathbf{r}|\psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(0)+}\rangle)^{-1}$  is obviously well-defined, and the form of Eq. (14c) makes it apparent that for  $n=1,2,\ldots$ ,  $(\langle \mathbf{r}|\psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{(n)+}\rangle)^{-1}$  is well-defined as well. That the iteration formula of Eq. (14c) does not have perturbational characteristics, but rather those of a continued fraction is also manifest.

Finally, on inserting  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$  into Eq. (14c) we obtain the iteration formula for the gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$ , which is,

$$\mathcal{F}_{G}^{(n+1)}(\mathbf{r}) = 1/[1 + \frac{1}{2}(G/c^{4})(\mathcal{F}_{G}^{(n)}(\mathbf{r}))^{-1} \int |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^{-1} T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}') \mathcal{F}_{G}^{(n)}(\mathbf{r}') d^{3}\mathbf{r}'],$$
(15a)

for n = 0, 1, 2, ..., where, of course,  $\mathcal{F}_{G}^{(0)}(\mathbf{r}) = 1$ .

Since  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}) \geq 0$  from Eq. (9a),  $T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r})$  is smooth from Eq. (9b), and  $\int T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}')d^3\mathbf{r}' < \infty$  from Eq. (9c), it is clear from Eq. (15a) that,

if 
$$1 \ge \mathcal{F}_G^{(n)}(\mathbf{r}) > 0$$
, then  $1 \ge \mathcal{F}_G^{(n+1)}(\mathbf{r}) > 0$ . (15b)

Therefore we can conclude that,

$$1 \ge \mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) > 0. \tag{15c}$$

From Eqs. (9a), (10b) and (15c) we can deduce that,

$$0 \le T_G(\mathbf{r}) \le T_{G=0}(\mathbf{r}). \tag{15d}$$

From Eq. (10c) and the fact that the gravitational energy-reduction factor  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r})$  satisfies  $\mathcal{F}_G(\mathbf{r}) > 0$  we can deduce that,

$$2(c^4/G) > \int |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|^{-1} T_G(\mathbf{r}') d^3 \mathbf{r}' = \int |\mathbf{r}''|^{-1} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r}'') d^3 \mathbf{r}'',$$

where  $\mathbf{r}'' \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mathbf{r}' - \mathbf{r})$ . Furthermore, we have that,

$$\int |\mathbf{r}''|^{-1} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r}'') d^3 \mathbf{r}'' \ge \int_{|\mathbf{r}''| \le R} |\mathbf{r}''|^{-1} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r}'') d^3 \mathbf{r}'' \ge R^{-1} \int_{|\mathbf{r}''| \le R} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r}'') d^3 \mathbf{r}''.$$

Therefore from the two foregoing lines of displayed integral inequalities we can conclude that,

$$(c^4/G)(2R) > \int_{|\mathbf{r}''| \le R} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r}'') d^3 \mathbf{r}'', \tag{15e}$$

namely that the self-gravitationally corrected static energy contained in any sphere cannot exceed the diameter of that sphere times  $(c^4/G)$ . Note that this result is completely independent of any assumption concerning symmetry properties of the energy distribution, and that it is in agreement with the extremely nonspherical result for two discrete particles which is given by Eq. (1b). Therefore it is likely to be overly conservative in practice. A more practical energy upper-bound estimate can be obtained by simply averaging the maximum possible and minimum possible values of  $|\mathbf{r}''|$  that occur when integrating over the sphere of radius R, which yields R/2, and therefore the "rough" bound,

$$(e^4/G)R \approx \int_{|\mathbf{r''}| \leq R} T_G(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{r''}) d^3 \mathbf{r''},$$

which is in line with the result of Eq. (4b), for which spherical symmetry was assumed.

No doubt the most interesting aspect of what has just been presented here is the unfastening of the shackles of the perturbational Born-expansion paradigm for a class of equation systems that incorporate linear operators. A superior iteration method has been developed by deliberately shunning an attractive natural relationship that involves those linear operators in favor of concocting a clumsy artificial relationship that involves only function values. The point of proceeding in this way is that purely arithmetic operations with function values require no approximations, whereas even quite elementary-looking operations involving operators may not be practically feasible without making use of potentially disastrous perturbation expansions. Indeed function manipulations can, on the contrary, be directed toward the goal of achieving iteration schemes that have continued fraction rather than perturbational character.

## Conclusion

We have constructed a spherically-symmetric Newtonian gravitostatic model with energy feedback that yields a simple and apparently very useful upper bound on the amount of self-gravitationally corrected energy which can be contained in a spherical region. That bound is  $(c^4/G)$  times the radius  $r_s$  of the sphere, a relationship which, inter alia, implies that the Schwarzschild radius never lies in free space, making the Schwarzschild singularity physically unrealizable. We have, moreover, been able to extend this Newtownian gravitostatic model to nonsymmetric energy distributions by means of an interesting nonperturbational continued-fraction iteration-solution method. That extension turns out to yield qualitatively the same upper bound (i.e., to within a factor of two) on the amount of self-gravitationally corrected static energy which can be contained in a spherical region.

Such a  $(c^4/G)$  times radius upper bound on a sphere's contained energy cuts off the mass deviation of an interacting quantum virtual particle at approximately the Planck mass, which in principle does away with the ultraviolet divergences that bedevil quantum particle scattering amplitude calculations.

The  $(c^4/G)$  times radius bound on a sphere's contained energy ought to be attained for contained quantum fields, which have infinite energy before self-gravitational correction, due to the combination of their unbounded frequency spectra and the quantum uncertainty principle. But only the universe itself, with its cosmological redshift, is actually capable of "containing" the arbitrarily high frequencies of a quantum field. Roughly estimating the radius of the universe as its age times the speed of light, and then dividing the  $(c^4/G)$  times this radius by the corresponding spherical volume that has this radius, yields a rough averaged "dark energy" density estimate of about 1.7 joules per cubic kilometer, which is of the same order of magnitude as observational data. The same formula suggests that the early universe might have had an immensely greater "dark energy" density, perhaps as much as a Planck unit of energy density, which would be roughly 120 orders of magnitude times its present value. It is interesting that this seems to provide an automatic mechanism for the inflation of the early universe. The formula also suggests that the "dark energy" density will be decreasing toward zero as the universe expands, but that it won't decrease as rapidly as the density of ordinary matter will, which will increase the relative dominance of dark energy.

Finally, there seems to be no reason why the presently evolved "dark energy" density should not share the small inhomogeneities which are so typical of the rest of the universe, such as the small peaks in the cosmic microwave background, and the galaxies, groups, filaments and voids in the distribution of luminous matter. If "dark energy" indeed has inhomogeneities, then might not those inhomogeneities themselves be the thing we call "dark matter"? In spite of all the gravitational evidence for "dark matter", there is apparently no observationally-known non-gravitational signal whatsoever for it. It would be a relief if something so elusive ultimately turned out to not have an independent existence.

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