

## **Absolute/Relative Motion and the Speed of Light, Electromagnetism, Inertia and Universal Speed Limit $c$ - an Alternative Interpretation and Theoretical Framework**

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### **Abstract**

According to Apparent Source Theory (AST) proposed in this paper, the center of the spherical wave fronts *moves* with the apparent source. The velocity of light emitted by a source in absolute motion is constant  $c$  relative to the apparent source. For absolutely co-moving source and observer, the position (distance and direction) of the source apparently changes relative to the observer; the effect of absolute motion is to change the path length, and not the speed and wavelength, of light. Physically (intuitively) this means that the group velocity (magnitude and direction) of light varies *relative to the (real) source*, due to absolute motion of the source. This implies different group velocities of light in different directions *relative to the source*, transverse velocity components and bending light rays in lateral directions, and aberration of light for co-moving source and observer. Unconventionally, in some cases, this also means that the measured group velocity of light varies along its path. Such behavior of light results from light being a dual phenomenon: local and non-local. AST is a modified emission theory, a fusion between emission theory and absolute motion theory, with the real source replaced by an apparent source to account for absolute velocity of the source. In the Sagnac experiment, the source appears farther away than its physical distance when looking in the backward direction and closer than its actual/physical distance in the forward direction. Physically this means that the velocity of light is  $c + V$  in the backward direction and  $c - V$  in the forward direction, *relative to the source*, hence a fringe shift at the detector. In the case of the Michelson-Morley experiment, an apparent change in the position of the light source relative to an observer does not create a fringe shift, for the same reason that an actual (physical) change of the source position doesn't create any significant fringe shift. This is unlike the Sagnac interferometer, which will form a fringe shift if the position of the source was changed physically (mirror positions changed accordingly), instead of rotating the apparatus. The group velocity of light *relative to the source* moving with absolute velocity  $V_{\text{abs}}$  is  $c - V_{\text{abs}}$  in the forward direction and  $c + V_{\text{abs}}$  in the backward direction. Therefore, the velocity of light relative to a stationary observer will be:  $(c - V_{\text{abs}}) + V_{\text{abs}} = c$  and  $(c + V_{\text{abs}}) - V_{\text{abs}} = c$ . This is why the group velocity of light has been found to be independent of source velocity in moving source experiments; the (group) velocity of light changes *relative to the source* in such a way that it will not be affected by source velocity. The (group) velocity of light depends on the observer (absolute) velocity and on mirror velocity. The reason why GPS works accurately in the ECI frame is discussed. The *phase* velocity of light is always constant  $c$ , independent of source or observer velocity. This paper explains why absolute velocity does not affect characteristic wavelengths of atoms, why Doppler effect depends only on relative velocity, why Ives-Stilwell experiments are not affected by Earth's absolute velocity. Einstein's thought experiment ('chasing a beam of light') is interpreted as follows. For an observer moving away at (near) the speed of light from a light source that is at absolute rest, the *group* will be 'frozen' but the *phases* will still go past the observer at the speed of light, with a wavelength of  $\lambda' = e\lambda$ , where  $e$  is Euler's constant. A new theory: 'Exponential Law of Doppler effect of Light' is proposed to explain the Ives-Stilwell experiment,

according to which  $\lambda' = \lambda e^{v/c}$  and  $f' = f e^{-v/c}$ . Transverse Doppler effect doesn't exist. A strange behavior of light is revealed that can explain the Argo starlight refraction and aberration experiments. The Trouton-Noble Paradox is a glaring evidence disproving relativity and supporting absolute motion. Absolute velocity is defined to be relative to *the observer*, where 'observer' is any massive object. It is proposed that the *absolute* velocity of an object is the resultant of its mass weighed velocities *relative* to all massive objects in the universe. The ether doesn't exist, but absolute motion does. The speed of light is the universal limit on all absolute and relative velocities of *physical objects* in the universe. This is not due to Special Relativity, but is proposed to be due to *non-linear law of electromagnetic radiation power and radiation reaction*. As the *absolute* velocity of a body approaches the speed of light, any further acceleration will result in or require increasingly infinite amounts of radiation power and radiation reaction. Mass (inertia) itself may be just radiation reaction. A neutral object/particle also radiates electromagnetic energy and develop radiation reaction during acceleration but, unlike radiation from charged particles, radiations of opposite charges 'cancel' each other and just become *inaccessible*, not destroyed. The ever confusing problem of electric field of uniformly moving charges is solved. The 'speed' of electrostatic and gravitational fields is shown to have *dual* nature: finite (light speed) and infinite, from a new interpretation of astronomical observations and laboratory experiments according to AST. The force of gravity is shown to be just a difference between electrostatic attraction and repulsion forces. For absolutely co-moving, accelerating charge and observer, the position of the charge changes apparently, as seen by the observer, and physically resulting in bending lines of force, creating *transverse* component electric field and this is the cause of radiation during acceleration.

## 1. Introduction

The notions, theories, experiments and phenomena on the absolute or relative nature of motion and space, the nature and speed of light, the phenomenon of electromagnetic radiation and the nature of static fields are numerous, puzzling, divergent and have been the source of centuries of confusions. The resolution of the many associated contradictions and puzzles has remained a daunting task to this date. Despite all claimed successes and advance of modern physics, physics remains to be still vague even at its fundamental, elementary levels. Many 'elementary' problems remain unsolved. For example, what is the 'speed' of static fields? What is gravity? How is electromagnetic radiation created? The problem of the speed of light is still a puzzle. Electromagnetism remains to be (one of) the most puzzling area of physics.

The principle of relativity, introduced by Galileo, is known to be one of the most cherished ideas in physics. The principle of relativity states that the laws of physics are the same in all inertial reference frames. It presumes that no experiment exists that can detect absolute motion.

The notion of absolute space/ absolute motion was also intuitive and existed since Newton, but its real meaning remained obscure. The absolute reference frame remained incomprehensible: relative to what is absolute motion determined?

The fundamental nature of light was another centuries old puzzle. Newton proposed the corpuscular theory of light. Huygens proposed the wave theory of light. Several experiments were carried out to test the two views: wave theory and emission theory. These include the Bradley stellar aberration experiment, the Argo star light refraction and aberration experiments, the Fizeau experiment and Young's double slit experiment. The results of these experiments

were puzzling because in some cases light behaved as a wave and in other cases as corpuscles. For example, while Bradley's stellar aberration can be explained by corpuscular (emission) theory, and difficult to understand in terms of wave theory, it was found out that the angle of aberration didn't vary for different stars and also did not show any variation with time, that would be expected due to Earth's orbital motion, implying wave theory. In the Argo and Airy star light experiments, a telescope filled with optical media ( glass, water ) was used to observe star light aberration. A change in angle of aberration was expected as compared to the angle of aberration observed by air filled telescope, due to index of refraction of glass and water, but no such change was observed. This was explained by Fresnel's ether drag formula, adding another version of ether theory, but further complicating the problem. The interference pattern in Young's double slit experiment implied the wave nature of light. The particle nature of light was also discovered later near the beginning of the twentieth century, with the photoelectric effect and other quantum phenomena.

In 1868 Maxwell developed equations which predicted that the speed of light is a constant  $c$ . Perhaps the most important confirmation of Maxwell's equations is its prediction of the speed of light, which was confirmed by experiments, such as the A. Michelson rotating mirror experiment. Maxwell's equations were one of the greatest discoveries in physics. However, Maxwell's equation's or their interpretation may still be incomplete. They were originally formulated with the assumption of the ether. Another problem is the lack of radiation reaction in the solution to Maxwell's equations, for uniformly accelerating charge. Also Maxwell's equations do not predict the photon (light quanta ). The light speed problem is seen as the interpretation of the constant  $c$  in Maxwell's equations.

In 1887, Michelson and Morley (MM) set out to experimentally detect the absolute velocity of the Earth relative to the ether. The experiment failed to detect the expected fringe shift. This was the final blow to the long prevailing ether hypothesis and was the remarkable beginning of a century of puzzlement to come. Actually, the fringe shift in MM experiment was not null, but a much smaller fringe shift was observed. Since the observed fringe shift was much smaller than expected, that was interpreted as null. The light speed puzzle was thus born: relative to what is the speed of light constant  $c$  ? The non-existence of the ether conflicted with the belief that light was a wave, that was proved by the Young's double slit experiment.

The notion of absolute motion was thus abandoned in favor of relativity, both due to conceptual problems and the failed MM experiment. The ether hypothesis was not conceptually compelling in the first place. Failure to comprehend and detect absolute motion thus became the argument against its validity. The words ether and absolute space/absolute motion were always (wrongly) used synonymously. This paper proposes a new interpretation of absolute motion and the non-existence of the ether.

To account for the null result of the MM experiment, Lorentz proposed the Lorentz contraction hypothesis in which motion relative to the ether would result in length contraction in the direction of motion. Lorentz's hypothesis was later disproved by the Kennedy-Thorndike experiment. The speed of light is variable relative to the observer in the Lorentz hypothesis. Einstein discarded the ether altogether and formulated the Special Relativity Theory (SRT) in which lengths contract due to relative motion, not due to motion relative to the ether. Not only

lengths contract but time is also dilated, so that the speed of light is constant in all inertial reference frames, for all observers. SRT is based on Lorentz transformations. Einstein explicitly announced the emptiness of space. SRT is derived from its two postulates: the principle of relativity and the constancy of the speed of light. Both of its two postulates are perceived as firm foundations of the theory. Einstein's thought experiment (chasing a beam of light) is particularly beautiful and compelling. SRT is the mainstream theory today, claimed to be one of the most experimentally tested theories in physics.

SRT predicts the outcome of *some* experiments with apparent accuracy, such as the Ives- Stilwell experiment and the 'time dilation' for cosmic ray muons. These are 'impossible' for conventional theories. But SRT unambiguously fails on a number of other experiments, such as the Silvertooth experiment. SRT is also counter intuitive, illogical and a source of many paradoxes, such as the Twin Paradox and the less known Trouton-Noble paradox. Even though SRT is accepted by the wider scientific community, many prominent scientists discarded it. A significant 'anti relativity' community exists today, arguing against the validity of SRT and proposing alternative theories.

The ether theory and emission theory existed along with SRT with their own minority proponents. Both have decisively failed on a number of experiments. For example, emission theory is the most natural explanation for the MMX null result. Prior to SRT, Einstein himself considered it seriously before abandoning it due to its 'complications'. The scientist who pursued the emission hypothesis most aggressively was Waltz Ritz who had his own version of emission theory. However, emission theories were disproved by moving source experiments and the de Sitter binary star argument. Emission theory also was not compatible with Maxwell's equations [18], which proved to be correct by predicting the speed of light. The ether hypothesis agreed with moving source experiments and the Sagnac effect, but it failed to explain the MM null result. These theories are currently outside the mainstream physics. The emission theory, particularly, has already been almost completely abandoned.

Numerous experiments related to the speed of light have been performed for decades and centuries. Several experiments were done before the advent of SRT, many more were performed to confirm or disprove SRT. The one truth about all these experiments is that they have all defied any natural and logical explanation within a single, existing theoretical framework. Despite all claims, there is no single theory of the speed of light to this date that can explain all or most of these experiments. No single model of the speed of light exists to this date that does not fail on a number of basic experiments.

Listed below are many of the experiments and observations related to the speed of light:

- conventional Michelson-Morley experiments, including the Miller experiments
- modern Michelson-Morley experiments
- the Kennedy-Thorndike experiment
- the Sagnac experiment and the Michelson-Gale experiment
- the Silvertooth experiment
- the Marinov experiment
- the Roland De Witte's experiment

- A. Michelson and Q. Majorana moving mirror and moving source experiments
- the Roamer experiment
- the de Sitter's binary star experiment
- the Venus planet radar range data anomaly (Bryan G. Wallace )
- lunar laser ranging experiment
- terrestrial light speed measuring experiments, such as the A. Michelson rotating mirror exp't
- the Rosa and Dorsey experiment
- Bradely stellar aberration experiment
- the Trouton-Noble experiment
- the Fizeau, the Argo, the Airy, the Hoek experiments and Fresnel's drag coefficient
- the 'positron annihilation in flight' experiment
- 'time dilation' experiments: the Hafele-Keating, GPS, cosmic ray muon experiments
- the Ives-Stilwell experiment ( transverse Doppler effect), and the fast ion beam experiment
- the Mossbauer rotor experiment
- relativistic 'mass increase' of the electron
- limiting light speed experiments
- bending of starlight near the sun
- Mercury perihelion advance
- Pioneer anomaly
- CMBR frequency anisotropy
- cosmological red shift and cosmological acceleration

There are also relatively recent crucial experiments that may shed light on the ever confusing subject of 'speed' of electrostatic fields, according to this paper:

- Measuring Propagation Speed of Coulomb's Field, A. Calcaterra, et al [4]
- Astronomical experiment to determine the direction of Sun's gravitational pull on Earth[5].

The mainstream physics community considers many of these experiments as evidences of relativity (SRT and GRT), some experiments are ignored or considered 'invalid' simply b/c they are in disagreement with relativity, such as the Silvertooth experiment, and a few as anomalous.

Despite all claimed evidences, the fate of the principle of relativity still depends on whether or not someone will be able discover an experiment that can detect absolute motion. If a single experiment detects absolute motion, then Einstein's relativity would be invalidated in its current form.

Several experiments have been performed throughout the last century that detected absolute motion. The null result of the Michelson-Morley experiment is the main evidence claimed to support SRT. Actually it is known that it was not a null result but a small fringe shift was observed. The Miller experiments are well known to have detected small, systematic fringe shifts.

Modern Michelson-Morley experiments, which use microwave and optical cavity resonators, showed NULL results, unlike conventional MM experiments; no absolute motion has been detected. This paper discloses a fundamental flaw in both the conventional and modern MM experiments.

The Sagnac and the Michelson-Gale experiments detected absolute motion as early as 1913 and 1925, respectively. These experiments have always been controversial because proponents of relativity argue that rotational motion is involved. But a 'linear' Sagnac effect has also been demonstrated by Ruyong Wang et al.

The Marinov (1976), the Silvertooth (1986) and the Roland De Witte (1992) experiments detected absolute translational velocity. Since no rotation is involved in these experiments, there can be no excuse for their rejection by the scientific community.

The Silvertooth experiment (1986) was particularly mind blowing, as the direction (towards Leo) and velocity (378 Km/s) reported was subsequently confirmed by the NASA COBE satellite from CMBR frequency anisotropy measurement. The detected change in 'wavelength' was correlated with sidereal time. The Silvertooth experiment conclusively disproved SRT. The Silvertooth experiment was a deadly blow to relativity but the mainstream physics community managed to forget about it.

But there is also the Venus planet radar range anomaly (Bryan G. Wallace's) which supports the emission (ballistic) theory.

SRT has also been shown to be logically flawed by so many authors, and was rejected by many scientists, including Ernest Rutherford, Nicolas Tesla, Lorentz and many others.

As its second postulate, SRT assumes that the speed of light is the same for all observers. However, there is no direct, non-controversial evidence for this postulate. We had to rely only on Einstein's (beautiful) thought experiment: 'chasing a beam of light'. For example, one possible experiment could have been for an observer moving towards or away from a stationary light source and looking for a change in *wavelength* (implied by Einstein's light postulate?). However, according to this paper the fast ion beam experiment may be as a confirmation of change in wavelength with observer velocity. Also, the Argo and Airy star light refraction experiments confirm the constancy of phase velocity, according to this paper.

On the other hand, the speed of light has been measured for centuries with increasing accuracy, from astronomical observations and terrestrial experiments, such as the Albert Michelson rotating mirror experiment. Apparently no variation has been observed in different experiments implying that the measured speed of light does not depend on the orientation of the measuring apparatus relative to the earth's orbital or absolute velocity. A related problem is the issue of one way and two way speed of light and clock synchronization.

Thus the principle of relativity and the absolute notion both seem to have supporting evidences and the absolute notion has never been truly ruled out as often claimed in SRT. All the three well known theories of light namely, Einstein's light postulate, emission theory and the absolute space (ether) theory, seem to have their own supporting evidences.

One may wonder then why relativity theory persists as a mainstream theory, despite increasing pool of experimental and logical evidences against it. One reason is the apparent success of SRT

in predicting the results of some experiments, such as the Ives-Stillwell experiment, the Hafele Keating experiment and the GPS corrections (both controversial) , mass increase of relativistic electrons, cosmic ray muon 'time dilation' and limiting light speed experiments. It is absolutely impossible to explain these experiments conventionally.

One perplexing aspect of SRT is its prediction of mass increase with velocity and the universal speed limit, which is the speed of light. These have been confirmed by accelerating electrons and beta particles with very high voltages and the velocity of the particles has always been just less than the speed of light and also violated the predictions of classical physics. The limiting light speed has also been confirmed by time of flight method [14,15]. For a dissident of Einstein's relativity, this is a conundrum. This is because, if we assert that the speed of the particles has no relation to the speed of light, or if we assume that some of the particles could exceed the speed of light, why then do the velocities of *most* of these particles always build up near the speed of light? Velocity dependent Coulomb's law is one appealing explanation but it fails because the speed of cosmic ray muons has also been proven to confirm to the light speed limit by time of flight method[15]. Moreover, the energy of electrons accelerated to near light speed has been shown to continue to increase as the accelerating voltage is increased[14]. Also in the experiment[4] the reported agreement between experiment and prediction suggests that charge observer relative velocity will not affect the observed electric field of the charge.

SRT's successes have been effectively used as cover for its failures. On the other hand, it was the null result of the Michelson-Morley experiment that invoked the 'length contraction', 'time dilation' speculations. Even though Einstein was said to be unaware of the MM experiment when he formulated SRT, the 'length contraction' or length and time transformations were already proposed before him by Lorentz -Fitzgerald, which was meant to explain the Michelson Morley null result. What Einstein did was to give a new interpretation, by eliminating the ether. So it can be said that the whole relativity theory was based on the MM experiment null result. Therefore, if a more intuitive and logical alternative explanation for MM experiment is found, then Einstein's theory of relativity should be invalidated, irrespective of any other experiments claimed to support it.

The Ives-Stilwell experiment may be more credible because Herbert Ives himself was a dissident of Einstein's relativity. Other evidences of relativity, such as GPS correction, muon 'time dilation', Hafele Keating experiment, however, are still controversial. For example, Van Flandern argued that relativity corrections are not actually used in GPS. Some authors also argue that circular logic is involved in the muon 'time dilation' experiment because the velocity of the particle is determined from its energy using the relativistic equation. Many of the experiments claimed as evidence of SRT are reported to have confirmed SRT to within such and such accuracy, 'to within 1%' , 'such parts in a billion' etc. , even in cases where the experiments are controversial. This is intended to suppress challenges against Einstein's relativity and to discourage alternative ideas. How can a wrong theory be confirmed with such precision ?!

The main reason for the persistence of SRT, however, is that no alternative theory exists that can explain all conventional and 'relativistic' experiments. For example, Silvertooth himself could not provide a clear theoretical explanation of his experiment and this became an excuse for the mainstream physics community to ignore an experimental fact. Many scientists and authors have

proved the logical invalidity of SRT, but no competing, successful alternative theory has ever come out to this date. The biggest challenge is not in pointing out the numerous logical flaws in SRT, but in finding an alternative competing explanation.

Therefore, we are in no shortage of experimental and logical evidences against relativity today. What is lacking is a theoretical framework that can explain the many experimental and observational facts that have accumulated for decades and centuries. For example, no theory exists today that can satisfactorily explain *all* of the following experiments: the Michelson-Morley experiment, the Sagnac effect, moving source experiments and moving mirror experiments and the Silvertooth experiment.

Naturally, I started by searching for an idea that can reconcile the MM experiment and the Sagnac effect. No theory of the speed of light is valid at least if it cannot explain both these experiments with the same treatment. All known existing theories ( SRT, ether theory, emission theory) fail at least on one of these experiments. SRT proponents simply choose to ignore the Sagnac effect or they apply a different treatment to it.

After a considerable effort and puzzlement over years, I came across the seed of idea that can reconcile the MM experiment and Sagnac effect and developed this insight into the Apparent Source Theory (AST). AST can also explain moving source and moving mirror experiments, moving observer experiments, the Miller experiments, the Silvertooth experiment, the Marinov experiment, the Roland De Witte experiment, the Bryan G. Wallace experiment, the Michelson rotating mirror light speed experiment, within a single theoretical framework. AST discloses the mystery behind the 'null' result of the MM experiments and why the Miller experiment detected a small fringe shift. It reveals the fallacy in modern and conventional Michelson-Morley experiments. It shows why the velocity of light is independent of source velocity and why it should depend on observer and mirror velocity. Apparent Source Theory (AST ) is a model of the speed of light that can successfully explain many apparently contradicting experiments.

This paper builds on my previous paper [13 ] and attempts to develop a coherent theoretical framework of existing theories and notions, experimental evidences and observations related to the speed of light. A new theoretical framework is proposed in which the notion of absolute space/ absolute motion, emission theory and Einstein's light postulate, are seamlessly, naturally fused into a single theoretical framework, with features of each theory left out that do not fit into the new model. Ether theory and emission theory are wrong in their current form and no length contraction time dilation of SRT exists. All existing known notions and theories of motion and the speed of light ( absolute / relative, emission theory, absolute (ether) notion, Einstein's light postulate) play a crucial role in the new theoretical framework. Some existing aspects of Special Relativity, relativistic mass increase and universal light speed limit, are also adopted with a new interpretation and profound implications.



## 2. Absolutely co-moving source and observer

In this section we discuss experiments with co-moving source and observer.

### 2.1 Apparent Source Theory ( AST)

The idea that reconciles the Sagnac effect and the Michelson-Morley experiment is as follows:

*for co-moving light source and observer, the effect of absolute velocity is to create a change in path length, and not the speed, of light.*

Another way of stating this is:

*for co-moving light source and observer, the effect of absolute velocity is to create an apparent change in the position ( distance and direction) of the light source relative to the observer/detector.*

This can be seen as a fusion of ether ( or classical absolute space) theory and emission theory. It is very helpful to see it as modified emission theory.

The key idea is that there is no ether. With the ether hypothesis, light was assumed to be *only* a local phenomenon. This is the blunder that led to a confusion of more than a century. Michelson and Morley conceived their experiment based on this mistake. They treated light as ordinary, material waves, such as the sound wave. The Michelson-Morley experiment was designed to detect something that never existed: the ether. It disproved the ether, but was not capable of detecting absolute motion. This paper discloses the distinction between the two.

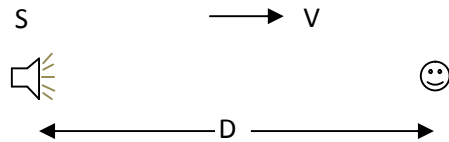
The null result of MM experiment should not have been a big surprise because the ether hypothesis itself was not anything more than a hypothesis. It never developed into the status of a theory. It could be invalidated conceptually, without any experiment. Any speculation should be subjected to a thorough conceptual test even before doing a physical experiment.

One simple argument against the ether would be as follows. The ether is assumed to have no interaction with matter. It exists and flows freely in material objects. Light was thought to be a wave of the ether, analogous to water waves being waves of water. In this case, therefore, light also should be able to pass through any physical object as light itself is just vibration of the ether. So we would be able to see objects behind opaque walls. And this is absurd. Since the ether does not interact with matter, then how would light even interact with our eyes ? The ether was redundant. No one knew what the ether was made of.

***Light is not only a local phenomenon. It is a dual phenomenon, both local and a non-local (action at a distance), simultaneously.***

The ether and absolute motion were always ( wrongly ) perceived to be the same. This paper shows that the ether does not exist but absolute motion does. This is possible with a new interpretation of absolute motion.

Let us first consider a sound source and a receiver, co-moving with velocity  $V$  relative to the air.



If the source and receiver are both at rest relative to air, i.e.  $V = 0$ , a sound pulse emitted by  $S$  will be received after a time delay of:

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c_s}$$

If the source and the receiver are co-moving relative to the air, we can analyze the experiment by assuming the source and the receiver to be at rest, with the air flowing to the left. Since the speed of sound relative to the air is  $c_s$ , the speed of sound relative to the receiver will be:

$$c_s - V$$

Now a sound pulse emitted by the source will be received by the receiver after a time delay of:

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c_s - V}$$

In this case, it takes longer for sound waves to catch up with the receiver. By noticing a change in  $t_d$ , the observer can know that he/she is moving relative to the air and can calculate his velocity relative to air from knowledge of  $D$  and  $t_d$ .

Now we consider light. Since the ether hypothesis was disproved by the null result of Michelson-Morley (MM) experiment, there is no medium for light transmission. Yet the existence of absolute motion has been confirmed by several other experiments, such as Sagnac, Silvertooth, Marinov, Roland De Witte experiments. Even the historical MM experiment result was not null and small, systematic fringe shifts were detected in the Miller experiments. But modern MM experiments are even more flawed than the conventional MM experiments and, fundamentally, cannot detect any absolute motion. All ether drift experiments disproved the ether but not absolute motion.

So the ether does not exist, but absolute motion does. How can we perceive absolute motion if no medium exists? We can understand absolute motion as follows.

Let us formulate a postulate:

For absolutely co-moving source and observer, it takes light emitted from the source a time delay  $t_d$  different from  $D/c$  to reach the observer. This means that the observer knows that he is in absolute motion by noticing a change ( increase or decrease) in time delay  $t_d$ . If absolute motion is valid, which has been proved experimentally, then light emitted by source will take more or less time than  $D/c$  to reach the observer, for absolutely co-moving source and observer.

For sound wave, the speed of sound relative to the receiver will be different from  $c_s$ , for source and receiver co-moving relative to air, where  $c_s$  is the speed of sound relative to air. Consider the problem in the reference frame of the sound source and the receiver, with the air flowing past them. So the time delay is known to be due to a change in the speed of sound relative to the receiver. Since there is no medium for light, there is no medium flowing past the observer and the light source, so the speed of light relative to the observer cannot be different from  $c$ , for absolutely co-moving source and observer. To assume that the speed of light will vary relative to the observer, for absolutely co-moving source and observer, would be inconsistent with the fact that there is no medium for light transmission. Therefore, for co-moving source and observer, the speed of light is always equal to  $c$  relative to the observer. Note, however, that the speed of light will *apparently* differ from  $c$  for co-moving source and observer, as will be seen later on. This apparent change in velocity of light occurs when we assume that light started from the physical source position, which is wrong. Physically the light always starts from its source and not from empty space, but light behaves *as if* it started from an apparent position of the source and this is the correct model that successfully explains many experiments.

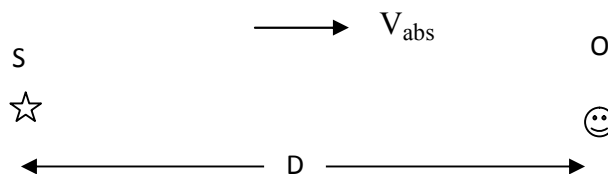
The key question is:

*But how can  $t_d$  be different from  $D/c$  if the speed of light is still equal to  $c$  relative to the observer, for absolutely co-moving source and observer ?*

The solution to this puzzle is that, for time delay  $t_d$  to be different from  $D/c$ , the distance between the light source and the observer should *apparently* differ from  $D$ .

*Thus, the effect of absolute motion for co-moving source and observer is to create an apparent change in the position ( distance and direction) of the light source relative to the observer.*

Imagine a light source S and an observer O, both at (absolute) rest, i.e.  $V_{\text{abs}} = 0$ .

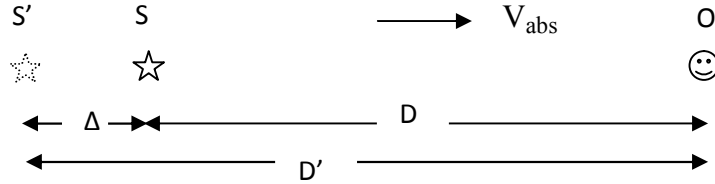


A light pulse emitted by S will be detected after a time delay of

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c}$$

This time delay is both the group and phase delay.

Now suppose that the light source and the observer are absolutely co-moving to the right.



The new interpretation proposed here is that the position of the source S changes apparently to S', *as seen by the observer, in the reference frame of the observer*. Once we make this interpretation, we can follow the classical (ether) way *just to make the calculations*, to determine the amount (Δ) by which the source position apparently changes. For example, when we say 'during the time that the source moves from S' to S, light moves from S' to O', we are not saying this in the conventional sense.

During the time ( $t_d$ ) that the source 'moves' from point S' to point S, the light pulse moves from point S' to point O, i.e. the time taken for the source to move from point S' to point S is equal to the time taken for the light pulse to move from point S' to point O.

$$\frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{D'}{c}$$

But

$$D + \Delta = D'$$

From the above two equations:

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

and

$$\Delta = D \frac{V_{abs}}{c - V_{abs}}$$

The effect of absolute motion is thus to create an apparent change of position of source relative to the observer, in this case, by amount Δ.

Once we have determined the apparent position of the source as seen by the co-moving observer, we can analyze the experiment either in the reference frame of the observer or in the absolute reference frame. Next we determine the time delay between emission and observation of light.

In the reference frame of the co-moving observer

1. The apparent source is at distance  $D'$  relative to the co-moving observer
2. The apparent source is at rest relative to the co-moving observer
3. The speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source

Therefore, a light pulse emitted by the source is detected at the observer after a time delay of:

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}}{c} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}}$$

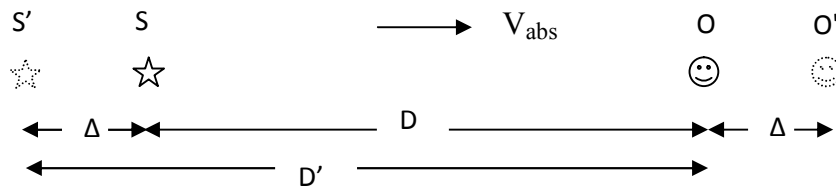
To the observer, the source  $S$  appears farther away than it physically is. For the observer, the center of the spherical wave fronts is always at  $S'$  and moves with it. We can see this as a modified emission theory, as a fusion of emission theory and ether ( absolute ) theory.

In the absolute reference frame

All light speed experiments should be analyzed in the co-moving observer's reference frame. The principle of analysis for any light speed experiment is this: *the time delay of light for an arbitrary observer at a given point relative to the source is equal to the time delay of light for a co-moving observer at that point.*

Therefore, analysis in the absolute reference frame is redundant. However, we present the analysis here in the hope to further illustrate AST.

Therefore, once we have replaced the real source  $S$  by an apparent source  $S'$ , *as seen by a co-moving observer*, we can also analyze the experiment in the absolute reference frame and should get the same time delay as above.

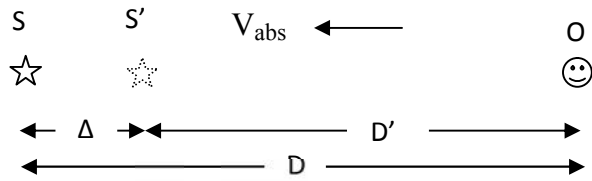


At  $t = 0$ , the apparent source emits light, and the observer is at  $O$ . After a time delay  $t_d$  the light catches up with the observer, at  $O'$ . Since the source and observer have the same velocity, the observer will move the same distance  $\Delta$  as the apparent shift of the light source. Light emitted at  $S'$  is detected at  $O'$ . Since the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source, it is equal to  $c + V_{abs}$  in the absolute reference frame. Note that this is only apparent ( an artifact ) and does not mean that the measured speed of light is  $c + V_{abs}$  in the absolute reference frame. The

measured ( physical ) speed of light is always equal to  $c$  in the absolute reference frame. The time  $t_d$  it takes light to travel from  $S'$  to  $O'$  is equal to the time it takes the observer to move from  $O$  to  $O'$ . Therefore,

$$t_d = \frac{D' + \Delta}{c + V_{abs}} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} + D \frac{V_{abs}}{c - V_{abs}}}{c + V_{abs}} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}}$$

In the same way, for absolute velocity directed to the left:



$$\frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{D'}{c} \quad \text{and} \quad D - \Delta = D'$$

From which

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

and

$$\Delta = D \frac{V_{abs}}{c + V_{abs}}$$

In this case, it appears to the observer that the source is nearer than it actually is by amount  $\Delta$ .

Once we have determined the apparent position of the source (  $S'$  ) as seen by the co-moving observer, we can determine the time delay  $t_d$  in the co-moving observer's reference frame or in the absolute reference frame.

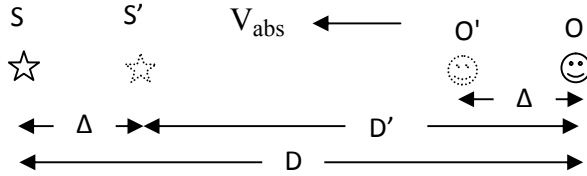
#### In the co-moving observer's reference frame

1. The apparent source is at distance  $D'$  relative to the co-moving observer
2. The apparent source is at rest relative to the co-moving observer
3. The speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source

Therefore, a light pulse emitted by the source is detected at the observer after a time delay of:

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}}{c} = \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}}$$

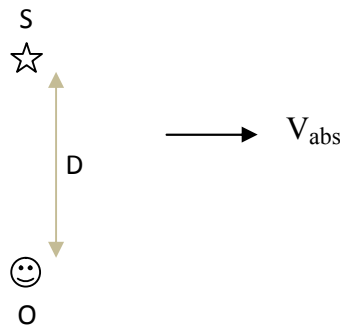
In the absolute reference frame



The time  $t_d$  it takes light to travel from S' to O' is equal to the time it takes the observer to move from O to O'.

$$t_d = \frac{D' - \Delta}{c - V_{abs}} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} - D \frac{V_{abs}}{c + V_{abs}}}{c - V_{abs}} = \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Now imagine a light source S and an observer O as shown below, with the relative position of S and O orthogonal to the direction of their common absolute velocity.

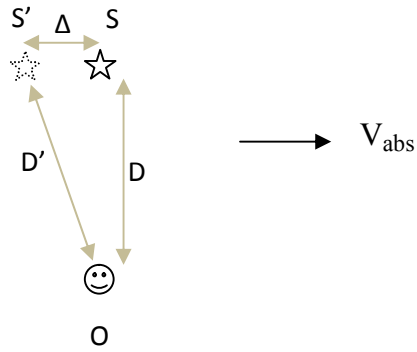


S and O are moving to the right with common absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ .

If  $V_{abs}$  is zero, a light pulse emitted from S will be received by O after a time delay  $t_d$

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c}$$

If  $V_{abs}$  is not zero, then the light source appears to have shifted to the left as seen by observer O.



In this case also, the effect of absolute velocity is to create an apparent change in the *position* of the source relative to the observer.

In the same way as explained previously,

$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}}$$

i.e. during the time interval that the light pulse goes from S' to O, the source goes from S' to S.

But,

$$D^2 + \Delta^2 = D'^2$$

From the above two equations

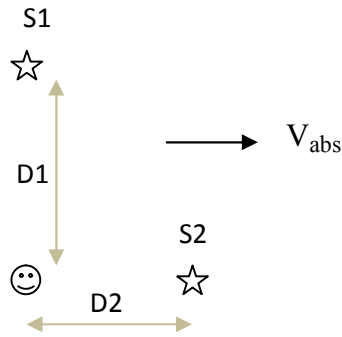
$$D' = D \frac{c}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta = D \frac{V_{abs}}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

Therefore, the time delay  $t_d$  between emission and reception of the light pulse in this case will be

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

Now suppose that there are two ideally *coherent* light sources S1 and S2, as shown below. Recent experiments show that interference between independent laser lights is possible.



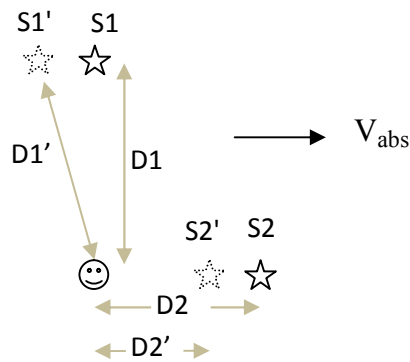


S1, S2 and observer O are co-moving absolutely to the right with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ .

If  $V_{abs}$  is zero the two time delays will be :

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D1}{c} \quad , \quad t_{d2} = \frac{D2}{c}$$

If  $V_{abs}$  is not zero, the positions of the sources will change apparently relative to the observer as shown below and hence the two time delays will be affected differently and hence a fringe shift occurs as the whole system is rotated (orientation of the apparatus changed relative to absolute velocity vector)



In this case, the two time delays will be different.

$$D1' = D1 \frac{c}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

$$D2' = D2 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Therefore

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D1'}{c} = \frac{D1}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

and

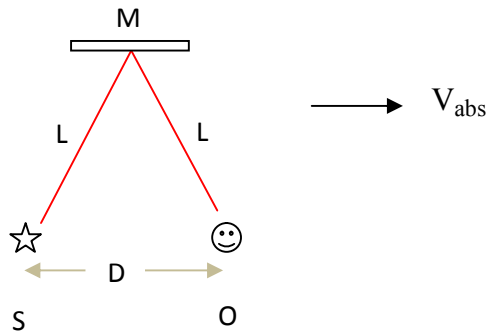
$$t_{d2} = \frac{D2'}{c} = \frac{D2}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Hence, it can be seen that a fringe shift would occur as the magnitude of the absolute velocity is changed or as the whole apparatus is rotated.

So far we have considered only the simplest ideal systems in which only a light source and an observer are involved. However, real experiments involve mirrors, causing confusions, so in the next section we will analyze a system additionally consisting of mirrors.

Consider a light source S, an observer O and a mirror M, co-moving to the right with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ .

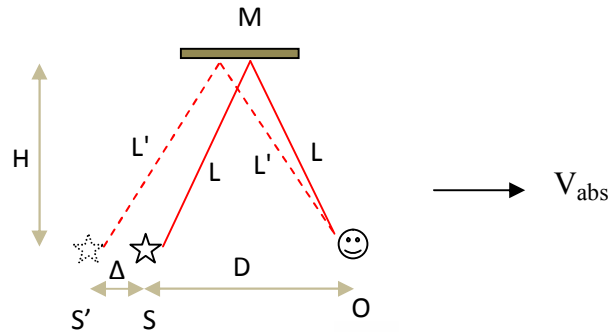
In the co-moving observer's reference frame



If  $V_{abs}$  is zero, then the time delay between emission and reception of a light pulse will be

$$t_d = \frac{2L}{c}$$

If  $V_{abs}$  is not zero, then, as discussed previously, the source S appears to have shifted away from the observer O by an amount  $\Delta$ . The effect will be the same as physically shifting the source in a Galilean space and applying emission theory. In other words, we replace the real source with an apparent source and then analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.



$$\Delta = D \frac{V_{abs}}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Hence the length of the light path from S' to O will be:

$$2L' = 2 \sqrt{\left(\frac{D + \Delta}{2}\right)^2 + H^2}$$

Therefore, the time delay will be

$$t_d = \frac{2L'}{c} = \frac{2}{c} \sqrt{\left(\frac{D + \Delta}{2}\right)^2 + H^2}$$

where D is the *direct* distance from observer to source. Note that, throughout this paper, we always take source-observer *direct* distance to determine apparent position of the source, for experiments involving absolute translation. So the effect of absolute motion is just to create an apparent change in the position of the light source relative to the observer. This avoids all the confusions that arise in systems consisting of mirrors. We would not say, for example, that the mirror will move to a different position while the light beam is in transit, etc., as in standard, classical theories, such as in ether theory and SRT. Only the position of the light *source* is thought to change apparently relative to the observer. As already said, we can think of this as actually/ physically shifting the source from position S to S' in Galilean space, with the same effect, *for that observer*. In other words, we replace the real source with the apparent source to account for the absolute velocity. Once we have done this, we assume Galilean space and simply use (modified) emission theory. Modified emission theory is one in which the *group* velocity is constant relative to the *apparent source* ( it is constant relative to the *source* in conventional emission theory), whereas the phase velocity is constant *c* independent of source or observer velocity. Constancy of phase velocity is explained in a later section.

According to AST, the procedure of analysis of light speed experiments is:

1. Replace the real source with an apparent source
2. Analyze the experiment in the reference frame of the observer by assuming the *group* velocity

of light to be constant relative to the apparent source.

Equivalently, the above procedure means that we replace the real source with an apparent source and then analyze the experiment by assuming Galilean space in which (modified) emission theory holds. In modified emission theory, the *group* velocity is constant relative to the apparent source. Apparent Source Theory applies only to group velocity, not to phase velocity because the phase velocity is always constant, independent of source or observer velocity[6], as will be discussed later on.

A little thought reveals a strange phenomenon predicted by this AST interpretation. With the apparatus in absolute motion, an obstacle in the way of the dotted red line will block the light coming from the apparent source  $S'$  to the observer and the observer will not see any light! The observer will not also see light coming from  $S'$  if part of the mirror at which the apparent light ray hits the mirror is missing! We will see the significance of this in a latter section on the physical meaning of AST.

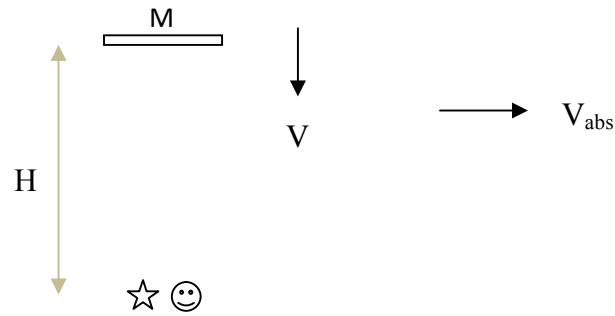
What if the mirror is moving relative to the observer in the above experiment? Assume that the mirror is moving towards or away from the source and the observer with velocity  $V$ , with the source and observer at rest relative to each other, but with a common absolute velocity as shown in the next figure. How are such experiments analyzed?

The procedure of analysis is restated below:

1. Replace the real source with an apparent source (i.e. a source at the apparent position)
2. Analyze the experiment in the reference frame of the co-moving observer by assuming that the *group* velocity of light to be constant relative to the apparent source.

Let us consider a simple case in which the distance  $D$  between source and observer is much less than the distance  $H$  to the mirror, so that we can assume that the source and observer are essentially at the same point in space. From our analysis so far, the lesser the distance between co-moving source and observer, the lesser will be the apparent change of source position due to absolute motion, hence the lesser observable absolute motion will be. *For all experiments in which co-moving source and observer are so close enough to each other that they can be assumed to be at the same point in space, absolute motion will have no effect on the experiment.*

In this case, there will not be any significant apparent change of position of the source relative to the observer. The source and the observer can be considered to be at rest (according to the procedure mentioned above), with the mirror moving towards them with velocity  $V$ . An outstanding experiment confirming this assertion is the anomalous radar range data of planet Venus as discovered by Bryan G. Wallace. The detail analysis of this experiment will be made later on.



If the mirror is not moving, the round trip time of a light pulse emitted by the source will be:

$$t_d = \frac{2H}{c}$$

If the mirror is moving with velocity  $V$ , we apply emission (ballistic) theory after replacing the real source by the apparent source (which in this case is almost at the same position as the real source), the *group* velocity of the reflected light will be  $c + 2V$ , relative to the observer.

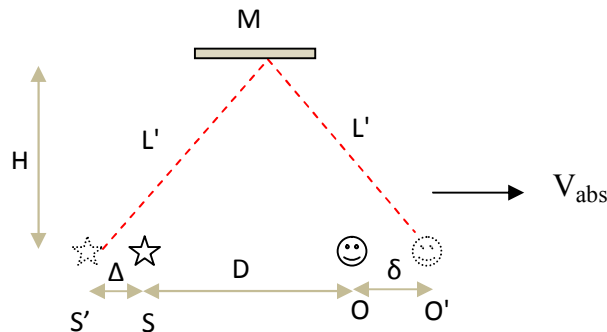
The analysis of the round trip for the case of a moving mirror will be made in the section ahead which explains the Bryan G. Wallace experiment. In this experiment, the planet Venus acts as the moving mirror  $M$ .

In the absolute reference frame

Once the real source is replaced with an apparent source (as seen by the co-moving observer), we can analyze the experiment in the absolute reference frame and we should get the same result as in the co-moving observer's reference frame analysis above.

*Therefore, the procedure of analysis of any light speed experiment is:*

- 1. Replace the real source with an apparent source, as seen by a co-moving observer*
- 2. Analyze the experiment in the absolute reference frame, by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.*



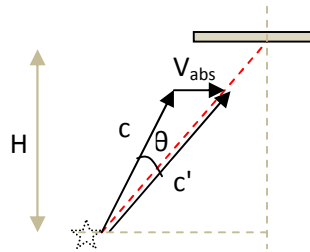
The time  $T$  elapsed for the light to travel from  $S'$ , reflection at mirror, then arrive at  $O'$  is equal to the time taken for the observer to move from  $O$  to  $O'$ . The speed of light is  $c$  relative to the apparent source. We have to determine the speed of light  $c'$  in the dashed light ray, as seen in the absolute reference frame.

$$\frac{2L'}{c'} = \frac{\delta}{V_{abs}}$$

But

$$\left(\frac{+D + \delta}{2}\right)^2 + H^2 = L'^2$$

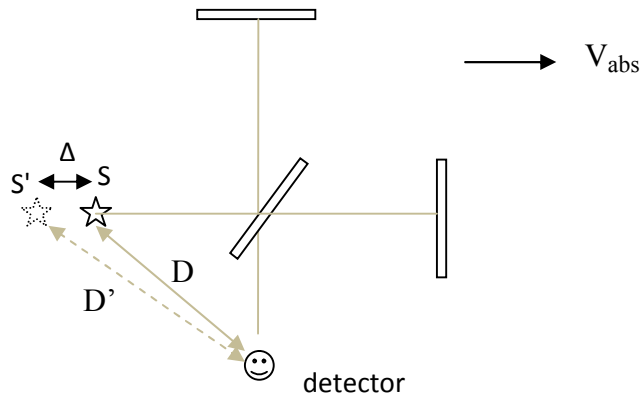
The relationship between  $c$ ,  $V_{abs}$  and  $c'$  is as follows.



$$\frac{\sin \theta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{H}{L'} = \frac{\sin(\theta + \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{H}{L'}\right))}{c'}$$

From the last three equations it is possible to determine  $\delta$  and hence  $L'$ , from which  $T$  can be calculated.

With the interpretation (theory) presented so far, the Michelson- Morley and the Kennedy- Thorndike experiments can be explained. One of the secrets behind the null results of these experiments is that only a single light source was used, with a single light beam split into two.



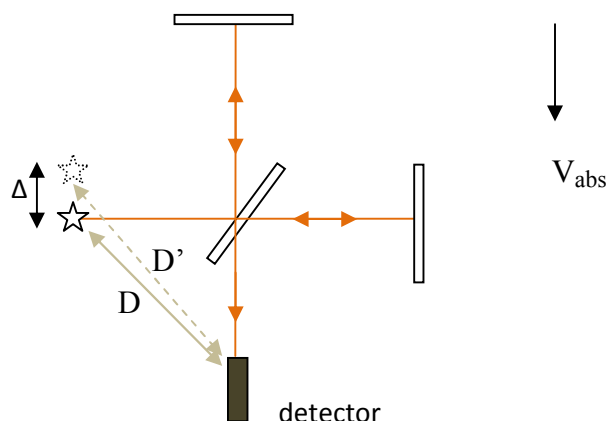
From the above diagram of the Michelson-Morley experiment, arranged for circular or straight parallel fringes, we see that the effect of absolute velocity is just to create an apparent change of the position of the light source relative to the detector, for absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  directed to the right.

The best way to understand the effect of this apparent change of source position is to ask: *what is the effect of actually, physically shifting the source from position  $S$  to position  $S'$ , (assuming Galilean space and emission theory) ?*

Obviously there will be no (significant) fringe shift because, intuitively, both the longitudinal and lateral beams will be affected identically. It is possible to prove this experimentally in optics.

Therefore, in the present case, the apparent shift of the source position is common both to the forward and transverse light beams and doesn't significantly change the relative path lengths of the two beams and hence no significant fringe shift will occur. I propose this to be analyzed in optics. The effect is the same as physically changing the source position, which would not create any fringe shift obviously. The group and phase will be delayed by the same amount, due to the apparent change in source position.

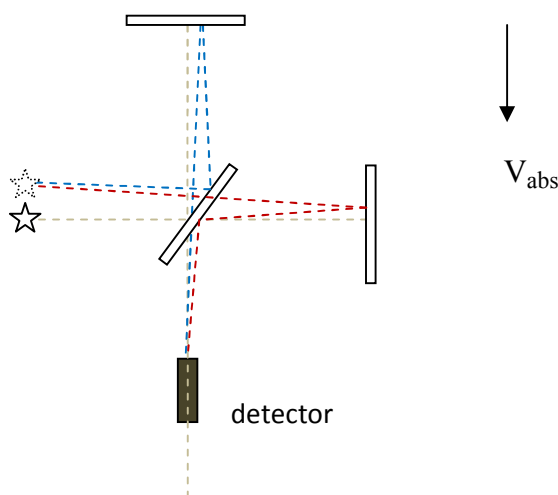
Now let us consider the case of absolute velocity directed as shown below. For an absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  directed downwards, the apparent position of the light source will be as shown below, as seen by the detector.



What is the effect of absolute velocity in this case? In the same way as above, we ask: what is the effect of actually, physically shifting the source position from  $S$  to  $S'$ ? In this case also there may be a very small fringe shift because the two beams will be misaligned and will have slightly different path lengths. This may be why a very small fringe shift was always observed in conventional MM experiments.

Note that there is no beam with slant path as in the conventional MMX analysis of SRT or ether theory. This is one distinction in Apparent Source Theory.

Now we can see why there were NON-NUL results in many conventional MM experiments, such as the Miller experiments. There will be the same small ( insignificant ) fringe shift as if the light source was actually ( physically ) shifted to the apparent position shown in the figure below. If the light source is physically shifted to the position shown, the path lengths of the two beams arriving at the observer ( detector ) should change slightly differently. The two beams will also be misaligned. From optics, it is possible to calculate the changes in the two path lengths.

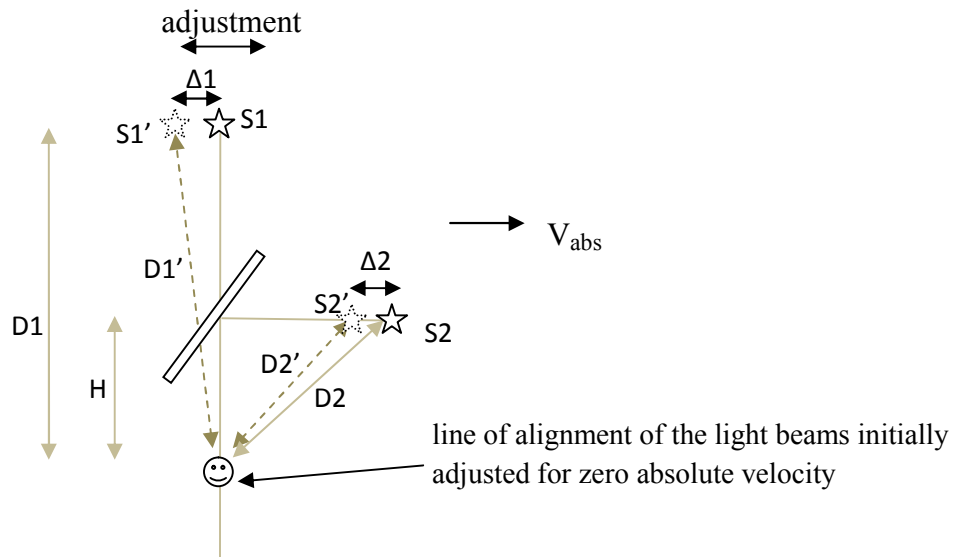




The blue and red dotted lines show the two light beams. The drawing is not meant to be accurate but only to illustrate the idea.

### Hypothetical Michelson-Morley experiment

According to AST, one method to detect absolute motion with an MMX type experiment is to use two ideally coherent light sources, as shown below. The single light source in the conventional MM apparatus is omitted and the two reflecting mirrors are replaced by two ideally coherent light sources. Recent experiments show interference between two photons is possible.



With zero absolute velocity, the two light beams arriving at the detector are adjusted to be aligned. Then, due to non zero absolute velocity, the two beams will be misaligned and a fringe shift will occur. The position of the source S1 may be adjusted (towards the right) until the two light beams are aligned again. The amount of adjustment of position of S1 required to align the two beams again can be used to determine the absolute velocity.

Let the two light sources be at distances  $D1$  and  $D2$  from the detector. Note that  $D1$  and  $D2$  are the *direct* distances between the detector and the sources and does *not* involve any distances to the mirrors.

As discussed previously, therefore:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D1'}{c}$$

$$= \frac{D1}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

and

$t_{d2}$  can be determined after  $D2'$  is determined from the following equations.

$$\frac{D2'}{c} = \frac{\Delta 2}{V_{abs}} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

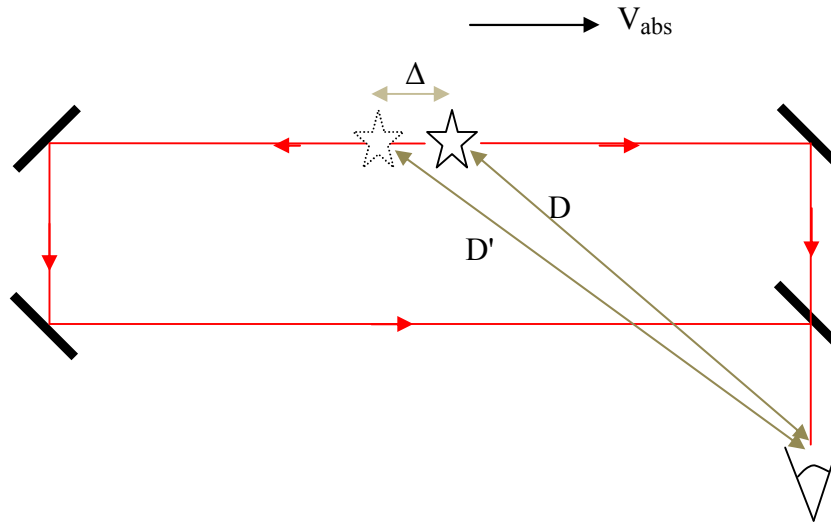
$$\overline{D2^2 - H^2} - \overline{D2'^2 - H^2} = \Delta 2 \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

A large fringe shift corresponding to the absolute velocity of the Earth (about 390 Km/s) would be observed when changing the orientation of the apparatus.

One may ask: The modern MMX experiments which are based on optical resonators use two independent orthogonal laser light beams from two independent laser light sources; why then did the experiments fail to detect absolute motion? These experiments look for differences in the frequencies of the two orthogonal beams, which are tuned to two cavity resonators. The experiment is based on the assumption that, if the ether existed, the resonant frequency of the two cavities would be affected and this would be detected by locking the frequency of the two lasers to the resonance frequencies of the cavities. As explained so far, the effect of absolute motion is to create a change in path length and hence a change in phase. The phases of the two beams change differently. A change in phase difference (and not a change in frequencies) occurs. The resonance frequency of the optical cavities do not change due to absolute motion; for a point inside the optical cavity, only the phase of the wave changes. The Modern Michelson-Morley experiment will be discussed in more detail later on.

But there is a problem with the practicality of the above proposed experiment. The coherence time of even the best lasers available is in the order of milliseconds. It is not possible/ practical to rotate the apparatus within one millisecond to detect the absolute motion of the earth. The above proposed experiment is only theoretical and is meant only to clarify the theory. But the good news is that a more practical and basically the same kind of experiment has already been carried out. This is the Roland De Witte 's experiment. He used two *independent*, Cesium stabilized 5 MHz sources with co-axial cables. He detected absolute motion by comparing the phases of the two independent signals and observed sidereal dependence.

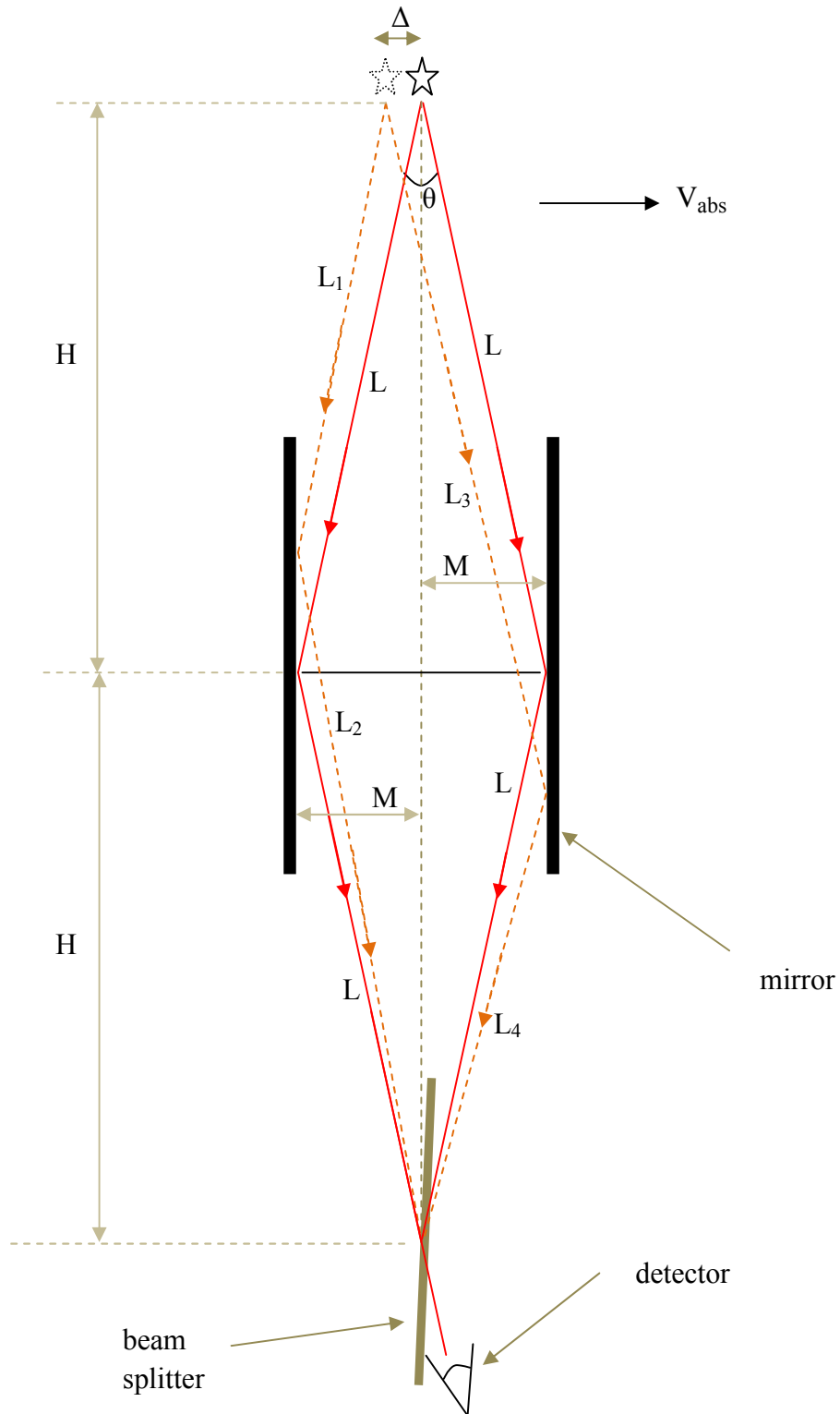
Another hypothetical experiment which, unlike the Michelson-Morley experiment, is capable of detecting absolute velocity is shown below. A single light source is used in this case.



The source in this experiment should emit a photon in either direction with nearly equal ( or comparable ) probabilities, so that the photon interferes with itself at the detector. This is why the experiment has been called hypothetical. Real macroscopic light sources cannot emit a single photon in opposite directions. Theoretically an isolated atom can be used as the source, since it can emit (nearly) equally in both directions. Real sources cannot be used since atoms in real sources may not emit a photon in opposite directions. No beam splitter should be used to send a photon in opposite directions so that it interferes with itself at the detector, as in the Michelson-Morley experiment; the experiment will fail to detect absolute motion if a beam splitter is used.

As the apparatus is absolutely moved to the right, the path length of the right beam is lengthened and the path length of the left beam is shortened. A very large fringe shift will be observed ! For example, if distance  $D$  is about one meter,  $\Delta$  is of the order of one millimeter, for absolute velocity 390 Km/s. One millimeter is about 2063 wavelengths, for  $\lambda = 630 \text{ nm}$  !.

Perhaps a possibly practical version of the above experiment is as follows. It contains a light source, two parallel plane mirrors, a beam splitter and a detector.



In the above experiment it is assumed that each photon has (nearly) equal probability of going to the right or to the left mirror. This is true for small angles  $\theta$ , but the experiment becomes less sensitive to absolute motion as angle  $\theta$  becomes small.

Let us try to analyze this experiment to see if it is sensitive enough to detect Earth's absolute velocity.

With zero absolute velocity, the difference in path length of the two light beams is zero.

For non-zero absolute velocity ( $V_{abs} \neq 0$ ), we proceed as follows.

For the left light beam ( $L_1L_2$ ), since angle of incidence is equal to angle of reflection:

$$\frac{M - \Delta}{L_1} = \frac{M}{L_2}$$

and

$$\sqrt{L_1^2 - (M - \Delta)^2} + \sqrt{L_2^2 - M^2} = 2H$$

For the right light beam ( $L_3L_4$ ), since angle of incidence is equal to angle of reflection:

$$\frac{M + \Delta}{L_3} = \frac{M}{L_4}$$

and

$$\sqrt{L_3^2 - (M + \Delta)^2} + \sqrt{L_4^2 - M^2} = 2H$$

For example, we are required to compute  $L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4$  given the following.

$$H = 10m, M = 0.1m$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_{abs}}{c} D \quad \text{and} \quad D = 2H \\ = \frac{390Km/s}{300000Km/s} * 20m = 0.026m = 2.6 cm \end{aligned}$$

$L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4$  were determined analytically and the result is shown below.

$$L_1^2 = \frac{(M - )^2 ((M - )^2 + M^2 + 2M(M - ) + 4H^2)}{(M - )^2 + M^2 + 2M(M - )}$$

and

$$L_3^2 = \frac{(M + )^2 ((M + )^2 + M^2 + 2M(M + ) + 4H^2)}{(M + )^2 + M^2 + 2M(M + )}$$

Using Excel, I computed the values for  $H = 10\text{m}$  ,  $M = 0.1\text{m}$  and  $\Delta = 0.026\text{m}$

$$(L_3 + L_4) - (L_1 + L_2) = 519973 \text{ nm}$$

For a wavelength of  $\lambda=630\text{nm}$  , we observe a fringe shift of

$$\frac{519973\text{nm}}{630\text{nm}} = 825.354 \text{ wavelengths !}$$

This is an extremely sensitive experiment !!!

The angle  $\theta$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\theta}{2} &= \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) \Rightarrow \theta = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) \Rightarrow \theta = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{0.1}{10} \right) = 0.02 \text{ radians} \\ &\Rightarrow \theta = 1.146 \text{ degrees} \end{aligned}$$

For  $H = 1.5\text{m}$  ,  $M = 0.02\text{m}$  ,  $\Delta = 0.0039\text{m} = 3.9 \text{ mm}$

$$(L_3 + L_4) - (L_1 + L_2) = 103990.6 \text{ nm}$$

For a wavelength of  $\lambda=630\text{nm}$  , we observe a fringe shift of

$$\frac{103990.6\text{nm}}{630\text{nm}} = 165 \text{ wavelengths !}$$

The angle  $\theta$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\theta}{2} &= \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) \Rightarrow \theta = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{M}{H} \right) \Rightarrow \theta = 2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{0.02}{1.5} \right) = 0.0267 \text{ radians} \\ &\Rightarrow \theta = 1.53 \text{ degrees} \end{aligned}$$

## 2.2 Where does a light beam start? Apparent contradiction in the new theory

Even though we have seen so far that the new interpretation ( AST ) has succeeded in resolving the most challenging contradictions and paradoxes of the speed of light, an apparent contradiction has been identified in AST.

Assume two observers  $O_A$  and  $O_B$ , both at absolute rest, at points A and B, respectively, with distance between them equal to D.



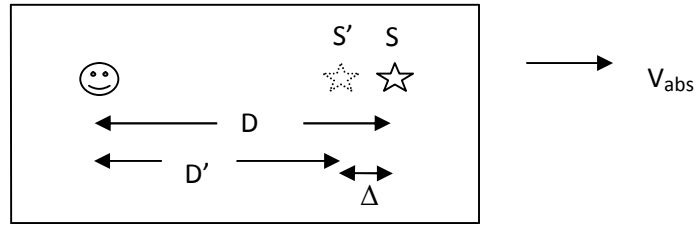
A light source S is moving towards observer  $O_A$ . Assume that the source emits a very short light pulse just at the moment it is passing through point B, as seen by observer  $O_B$ . The light pulse will be seen by observer  $O_A$  after a delay of time. A key idea in this paper is as follows:

For observer  $O_B$ , the light beam was emitted from its own position, from point B. For observer  $O_A$ , however, it is as if the light beam was emitted from the apparent source position, point B', and not from point B. Obviously, this is counterintuitive at first sight. According to all conventional theories, the light beam starts from the same point in space, for all observers.

Observer  $O_B$  witnessed that the source emitted light from point B, from his own position. Who is right? Logically no other observer can be more sure than observer  $O_B$  regarding where the source was at the instant of emission, i.e. from which point the light pulse was emitted. This is because observer  $O_B$  was in the proximity of the source at the instant of emission.

The solution of this apparent paradox is as follows.

1. For a light source that is at absolute rest, light always starts from the source's physical position, for all moving or stationary observers.
2. For a source that is in absolute motion, however, the apparent point where a light beam started (the past position of the source) is determined by two factors
  - The absolute velocity of the source
  - The distance between the source and the observer *at the instant of emission*.



Imagine a light source and an observer in a closed room (Galileo’s ship thought experiment). The light source emits a light pulse. The observer wants to know the point in space where the light pulse started.

If the laboratory is at absolute rest, the light started from the point where the source physically is, i.e. from point S which is at a distance D from the observer. If the laboratory is in absolute motion, as shown, the light pulse started not from the current/instantaneous point where the source is now but from a point in space S’ that is at a distance D’ from the observer.

From our previous discussions,

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

and

$$\Delta = D - D' = D \frac{V_{abs}}{c + V_{abs}}$$

From the above formula, we see that the point where the light apparently started depends on two factors:

- Physical distance D between source and observer and
- Absolute velocity of the laboratory

This means that for  $D = 0$ , i.e. source and observer exactly at the same point in space (which is actually not possible, just imagined), the distance  $\Delta$  between the real source position and the apparent source position will be zero, i.e. the light starts exactly from where the source is physically. For  $D = 0$ , light always starts from the source position.

For a non-zero distance D, however, absolute velocity will have an effect on the apparent position where the light pulse started. As distance D becomes larger and larger, this will ‘amplify’ (multiply) more and more the effect of absolute velocity. This means that absolute velocity affects the amount of apparent change of position of the light source *through* distance D, because  $\Delta$  is a *product* of D and  $[ V_{abs} / (c \pm V_{abs}) ]$ .

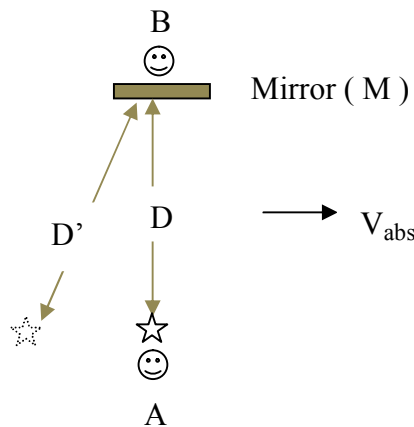
Returning back to the case of observers  $O_A$  and  $O_B$ , for observer  $O_B$  the light source started (was emitted by the source) almost from point B, the point through which the source was passing



at the instant of emission. For observer  $O_A$ , however, the light started not from point B, but from point B'. However, for the case of a light source in absolute motion and observer at rest, this apparent change in position of the source is exactly compensated for by the fact that the speed of light also changes apparently because the speed of light is constant  $c$  relative to the apparent source, according to AST. Therefore, the apparent change in source position is only an artifact and has no real effect. The time delay between emission of light and detection by observer  $O_A$  is just equal to  $D/c$ , and not  $D'/c$ . However, for absolutely co-moving source and observer, the apparent change in source position has real effect in that the time delay will be  $D'/c$  and not  $D/c$ .

This is the distinctive idea which enabled the resolution of many paradoxes and contradictions between experiments. The *physical meaning* of this apparent change in position of the source will be presented later.

Another contradiction arose on the way to the new theory. Assume an absolutely co-moving system below.



Suppose that a light pulse is emitted from the source towards the mirror M and reflected back to the source (to observer A). We assume that observer A is at the same point in space as the light source, hence, for observer A, the apparent position of the source will be almost the same as the real position of the source, because the effect of absolute velocity will be nullified because observer A is almost at the same point as the source, as discussed above. Hence, observer A will predict that the time delay between emission of the light pulse and its reception (after reflection from mirror) will be:

$$\tau = \frac{2D}{c}$$

From this, observer A predicts that the time interval between emission and reflection at the mirror to be:

$$\frac{\tau}{2} = \frac{D}{c}$$

Assume that A and B each have synchronized clocks. Observer B recorded the time instant when

he/she detected the light pulse. But observer B detects light after a delay of

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c}$$

and not  $D/c$ .

Assume that A and B also have a means to communicate instantaneously. Just after a time delay of  $D/c$  after emission of the light pulse, observer A calls observer B (through instantaneous communication) and asks him/her if he/she has just detected the light pulse. Observer B says that the light pulse hasn't arrived yet, because  $D'/c > D/c$ . This is a paradox !

For observer B, the light started not from the real (physical) position of the source, but from the apparent position of the source and hence the light pulse has to travel a larger path length ( $D'$ ) before arriving at observer B's location.

But a question still arises: How can the light be reflected from the mirror 'before arriving at the mirror', as the time interval ( $D/c$ ) calculated by observer A for the light pulse to *arrive* at the mirror is less than the time interval ( $D'/c$ ) of *detection* calculated by observer B ? This apparent paradox is resolved as follows in the current version of this paper, after a long time of puzzlement since the first version of this paper.

The light pulse *actually*, physically arrives at the mirror ( at observer B position) after a delay of  $D'/c$  , not after  $D/c$ . But for observer A the light pulse always behaves *as if* the forward and backward times are both  $D/c$ . This means that for all measurements made at or sufficiently close to the source, absolute motion is 'invisible', i.e. has no observable effect. The effect of absolute motion can be observed only for measurements made at points far enough away from the source. This means that for *all* observations/ measurements made at point of observer A, the light behaves *as if* it took a time delay of  $D/c$  to the mirror and  $D/c$  back to observer A, so that the round trip time actually measured by observer A will be  $2D/c$ . This means that if the actual time from source to mirror is  $D'/c$  (which is greater than  $D/c$ ), and if the actual round trip time is  $2D/c$ , then the actual time delay from mirror back to source should be  $2D/c - D'/c$ . In fact, this is the only way to determine the time from mirror back to the source, i.e. the back flight time can only be found as 'the round trip time minus the forward flight time'. It follows that the actual forward flight time is greater than the actual backward flight time. This is even more evident in the explanation of the Bryan G.Wallace Venus radar range experiment, to be discussed in a section ahead.

I was content with the above explanation until I found out a serious problem. Conventionally, observer A should always detect the reflected pulse later than observer B detects the light pulse.

This means that

$$\frac{D'}{c} < \frac{2D}{c}$$

But

$$D' = D \frac{c}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{ab}^2}}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{D'}{c} < \frac{2D}{c} \Rightarrow \frac{D}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{ab}^2}} < \frac{2D}{c} \Rightarrow V_{ab} < \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}c$$

Therefore, the condition for observer B detecting the light pulse earlier than observer A detecting the reflected pulse is

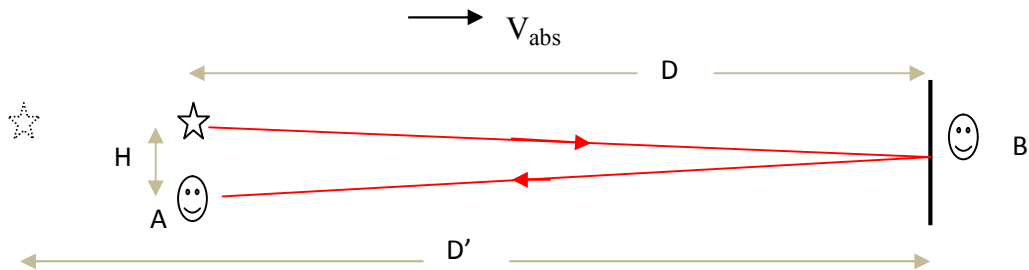
$$V_{ab} < \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}c$$

If

$$V_{ab} > \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}c$$

then observer A detects the reflected pulse earlier than observer B detects any light pulse ! How can the light pulse reflect from the mirror before/without being detected by observer B ? ! This shows that light should not be considered as ordinary waves. Light is not only a local phenomenon; light is a dual phenomenon: local and non-local.

Additionally consider the following example, with  $D \gg H$ .



The condition for observer B to detect the light pulse earlier than observer A detects the reflected light is:

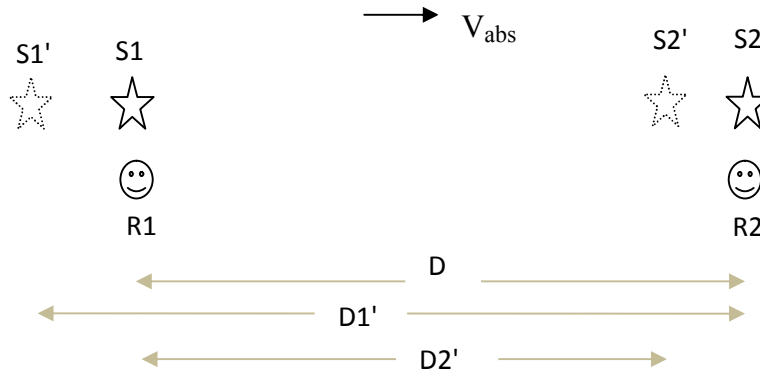
$$\frac{2D}{c} > \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} \Rightarrow V_{abs} < \frac{c}{2}$$

The solution might be in quantum mechanics. Observer B will never detect the same photon that is detected by observer A. The assertion that light has different velocities in different directions fails to explain this. After all, this assertion is rooted in ether theory.

This is rooted in light being not only a local phenomenon, but also a non-local phenomenon.

### Proposed experiment to test Apparent Source Theory

Consider the following optical experiments. In the first experiment, a short light pulse is emitted by source S1 and detected by detector R2 which triggers source S2 to emit a short light pulse . Detector R1 detects the light pulse and triggers source S1 to emit another light pulse which will be detected by detector R2 and so on. This is a system of two transponders. A counter counts the number of round trips.



The apparent distance  $D1'$  will be:

$$D1' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

The apparent distance  $D2'$  will be:

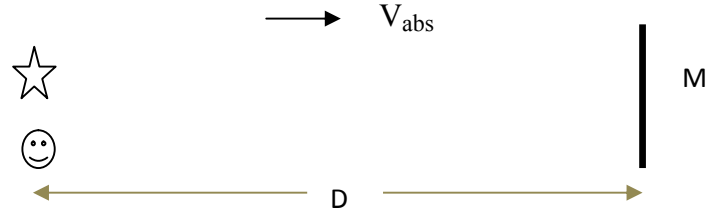
$$D2' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The round trip time will be:

$$\frac{D1' + D2'}{c} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}} = \frac{2D}{c} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2}}$$

For  $D = 10 \text{ m}$  ,  $V_{abs} = 390 \text{ Km/s}$  , the round trip time will be  $66.6667793334 \text{ ns}$  .

Now consider a slightly different experiment, shown below, with the light source, the detector and the mirror co-moving absolutely. In this case light comes back to the point of emission by reflection from a mirror.



The light source emits a short light pulse towards the mirror. The reflected light is detected by the detector, which triggers the light source to emit another light pulse and so on. A counter counts the number of round trips.

The round trip time will be:

$$2T = \frac{2D}{c}$$

For  $D = 10 \text{ m}$ , the round trip time will be  $66.666666667 \text{ ns}$ . Unlike the previous experiment, Earth's absolute velocity will not affect this experiment.

The difference in the round trip times of the above two experiments will be

$$\frac{2D}{c} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2}} - \frac{2D}{c} \approx \frac{2D}{c} \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2}$$

Let us see the difference between the number of round trips counted in the two cases, in one day (24 hours). One day is 86400 seconds.

The number of round trips counted in 24 hours in the first experiment will be:

$$\frac{86400 \cdot 10^9}{66.6667793334} = 1295997809762$$

The number of round trips counted in 24 hours in the second experiment will be:

$$\frac{86400 \cdot 10^9}{66.6666666667} = 1295999999999$$

The difference in the number of round trips of light pulses counted in the two cases, in 24 hours will be:

$$1295999999999 - 1295997809762 = 2190237 \text{ counts}$$

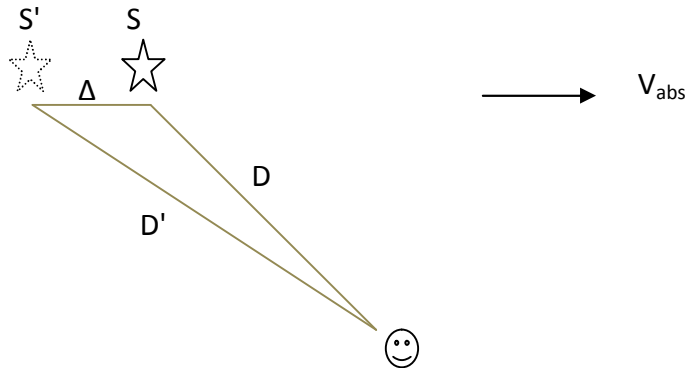
Instead of one day, if we calculate for 10 minutes the difference will be 15,210 counts !

Note that the propagation delay time in the circuits between detection and emission of the light pulses have to be considered, in a practical experiment. If the experiment takes long time, for example 24 hours, the axis of the apparatus should be made to follow and continuously be pointing towards constellation Leo.

## 2.5. The Sagnac effect

The procedure for analysis of light speed experiments has been formulated as:

1. For source, observer and mirrors absolutely moving with uniform rectilinear motion, replace the real source by an apparent source. The apparent position of the source is determined as follows: during the time interval that light travels from the apparent source  $S'$  to the observer, the source moves from  $S'$  to  $S$ .



$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}}$$

and

$$\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{D}' \quad (\text{vector equation})$$

The distance  $D$  is the source observer distance *at the instant of light emission*.

2. Determine the velocity of the apparent source  $S'$  relative to the observer. If the source and observer are at rest relative to each other, the apparent source will also be at rest relative to the observer. If the real source  $S$  is moving relative to the observer, the apparent source  $S'$  will also move relative to the observer.

3. Analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source. Once the real source is replaced by an apparent source to account for the absolute velocity of the source, we apply ( modified ) emission theory in which the *group* velocity of light is constant relative to the apparent source and the speed of light depends on mirror relative velocity. The phase velocity of light is always constant  $c$  independent of source, observer, mirror velocity.

The above procedure applies to any light speed experiment involving uniform or accelerated rectilinear motion of the source, the observer and mirrors.

However, this procedure fails for experiments involving non-rectilinear motion of source, observer and mirrors such as in the Sagnac experiment. More precisely, this experiment fails particularly in the Sagnac experiment in which rotation is involved. For example, we will apply this procedure in the analysis of the Mossbauer experiment even though the observer/detector is moving in circular path with the source at the center. The application of AST to Sagnac effect has been the most challenging problem I faced. The mystery has been revealed in this paper as follows.

The principle governing any light speed experiment, experiments involving uniform or accelerated, rectilinear or non-rectilinear motions of light source, observer/detector and mirrors, is formulated as follows.

***An arbitrary observer A at a given point and at a given instant of time observes what a co-moving observer O at that point is observing at that instant of time. A co-moving observer is an observer at a certain point relative to the source that continues to move with the same velocity (speed and direction) the source had at the instant of emission.***

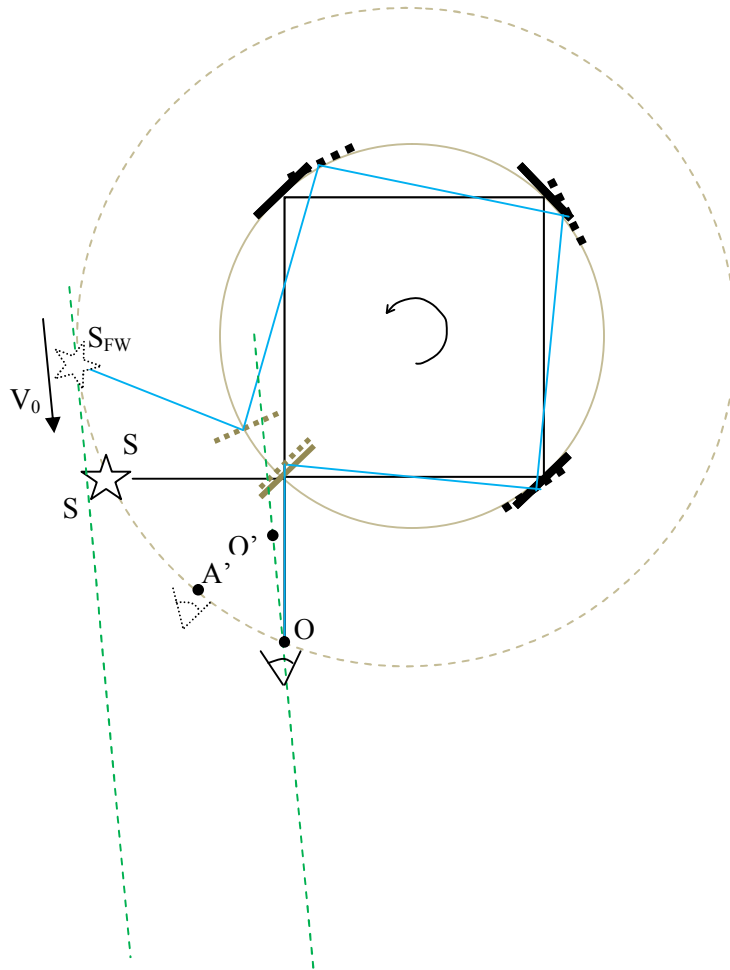
***This means that given the position and velocity of observer A at the instant of emission, then the problem is to find a point O such that the time taken by observer A to reach point O is equal to the time taken for light to reach point O ( location of co-moving observer ) .***

Applying this principle should correctly predict the well known path difference between the path lengths of the forward and reverse light beams, which is  $4\omega A/c$  . However, this result will be given a new interpretation in this paper.

For example, for a circular Sagnac interferometer, the light source apparently shifts towards the observer, as seen by the observer/detector, by an amount  $2\omega A / (c + \omega R)$  when looking in the forward direction and by an amount  $2\omega A / (c - \omega R)$  when looking in the backward direction, so that the difference in the path lengths of the two light beams will be  $4\omega A/c$  .

The apparent sources and the apparent position of the mirrors as seen by the detector have been shown above, along with the real, instantaneous position of the mirrors and the source drawn with solid lines. We can see that the path length of the light will be apparently reduced and increased in the forward and backward directions, respectively, due to rotation of the apparatus.

The position of the source apparently shifts towards when looking in the forward direction and away from the detector when looking in the backward direction. Therefore, a difference between path lengths of the backward light beam and the forward light beam arises resulting in a fringe shift. The apparent sources are at rest relative to the observer ( because the real source is at rest relative to the observer ) and the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.



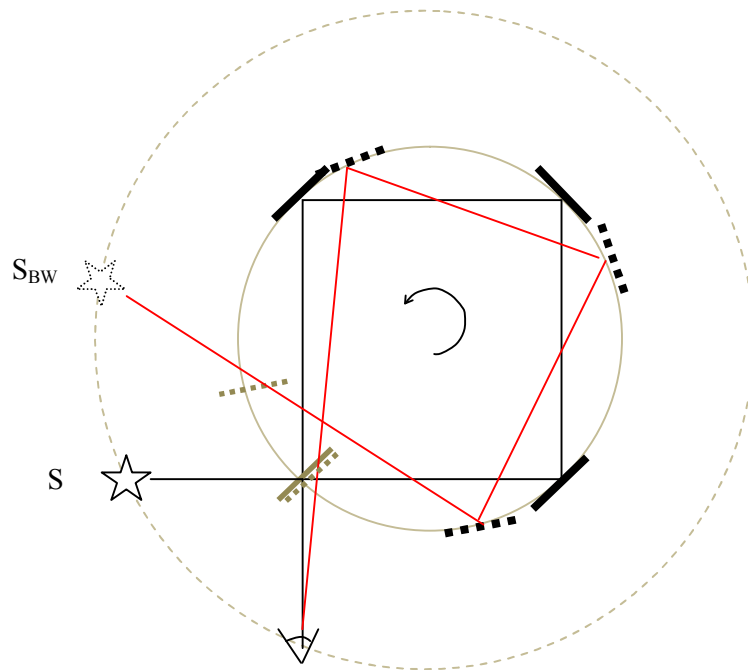
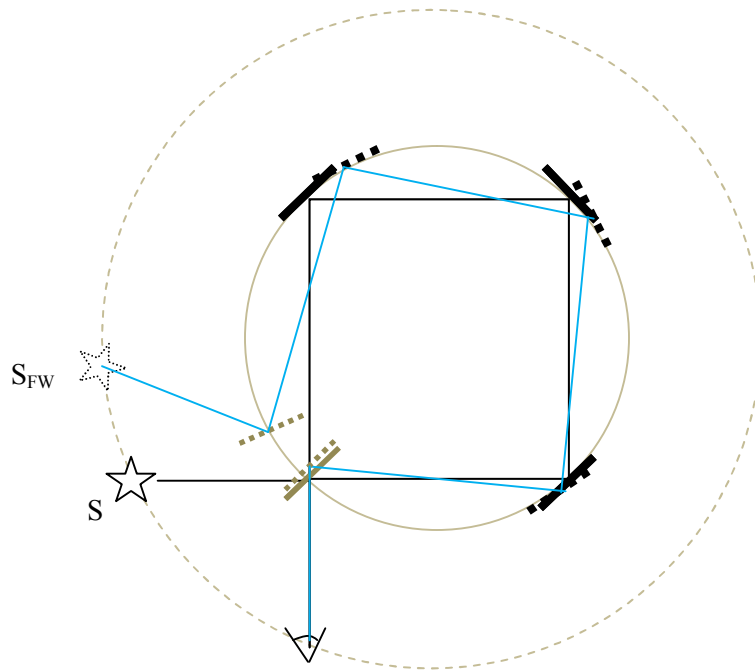
At the instant of light emission, the source was at  $S_{FW}$ , the moving observer  $A$  was at point  $A'$ , the co-moving observer  $O$  was at point  $O'$ . The time taken by observer  $A$  to move from point  $A'$  to point  $O$ , the time taken by observer  $O$  to move from point  $O'$  to  $O$ , the time taken for the light to travel from point  $S_{FW}$  to point  $O$ , and the time taken for the mirrors from their initial positions at the instant of light emission to their final positions at the instant of light observation by observer  $A$  and co-moving observer  $O$  are equal.

It should be possible to arrive at the Sagnac formula based on the above procedure. Although the motion of the mirrors affect the group velocity of light, *it does not affect the phase velocity*. Since the Sagnac experiment is an interference experiment and not a time of flight experiment,



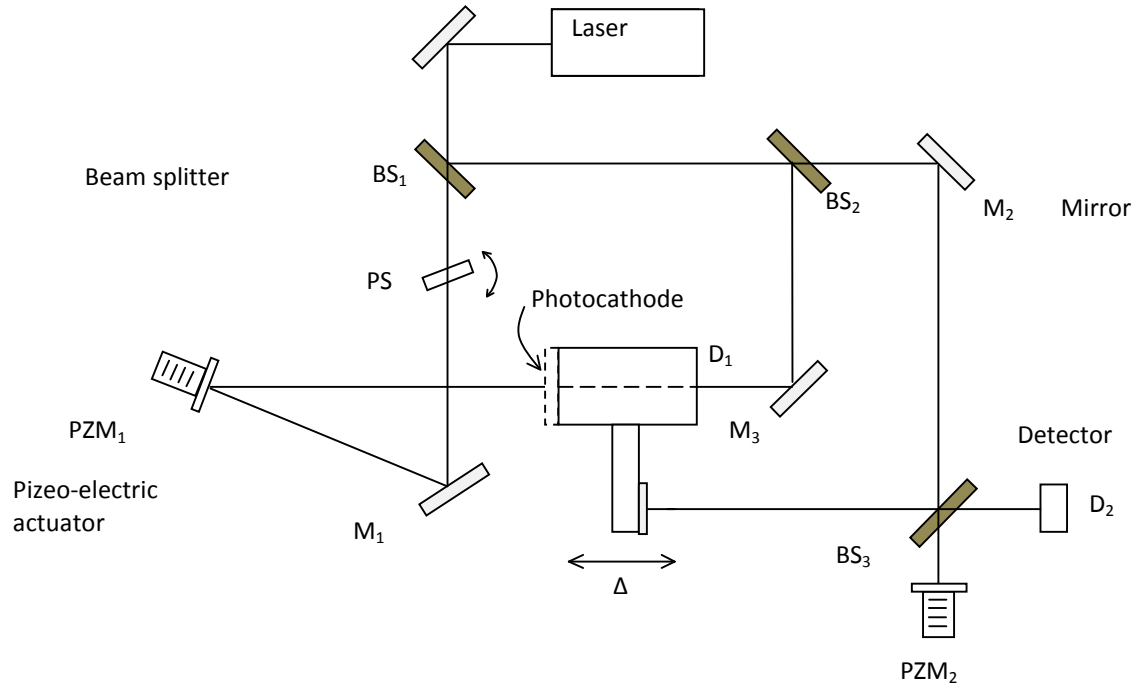
the fringe shift depends only on the difference of path lengths and not on differences of arrival times of the groups, just as in the A. Michelson moving mirror experiment.

***This implies that we can also analyze the Sagnac experiment by assuming the ether even though the ether doesn't exist.***



## 2.6. The Silvertooth experiment

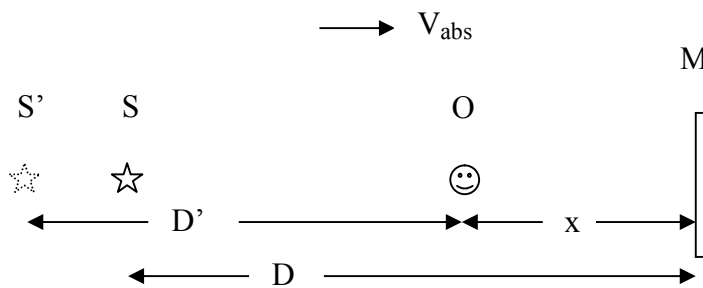
In this section Apparent Source Theory (AST) will be applied to the Silvertooth experiment. The diagram below is taken from Silvertooth's paper of 1989 from the journal Electronics and Wireless World.



The Silvertooth experiment is the other crucial evidence of absolute motion.

In this section, the 'wavelength' change effect in Silvertooth experiment will be explained.

Imagine a light source  $S$ , an observer  $O$  and a mirror  $M$ , co-moving with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  to the right as shown below.



### 'Wavelength' and velocity of incident light

Light emitted by S at time  $t = 0$  will be received by observer O after time delay  $t_d$ . From the previous discussions:

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

( note that D in this equation is not the one shown in the above figure)

Substituting  $D - x$  in place of D

$$D' = (D - x) \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Time delay will be

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D - x}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Assume that the source emits a light wave according to

$$\sin \omega t$$

The light wave will be received at the detector as

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \omega(t - t_d) &= \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{x}{c - V_{abs}} \right) \\ &= \sin \left( \omega t - \frac{\omega D}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{\omega x}{c - V_{abs}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

The above is a wave equation. If we take a 'snapshot' of the wave at an instant of time  $t = \tau$ , the above equation will be:

$$\sin \left( \omega \tau - \frac{\omega D}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{\omega x}{c - V_{abs}} \right)$$

The two terms  $\omega \tau$  and  $\omega D / (c - V_{abs})$  represent phase shifts. The 'wavelength' is determined from the third term:

$$\frac{\omega x}{c - V_{abs}}$$

If we have a function

$$\sin kx$$

then the wavelength can be shown to be

$$\frac{2\pi}{k}$$

In the same way, for the function

$$\sin\left(\frac{\omega x}{c - V_{abs}}\right)$$

$$k = \frac{\omega}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Hence the 'wave length' of the incident light will be

$$\lambda_{INC} = \frac{2\pi}{k} = \frac{2\pi}{\frac{\omega}{c - V_{abs}}} = (c - V_{abs}) \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \frac{c - V_{abs}}{f}$$

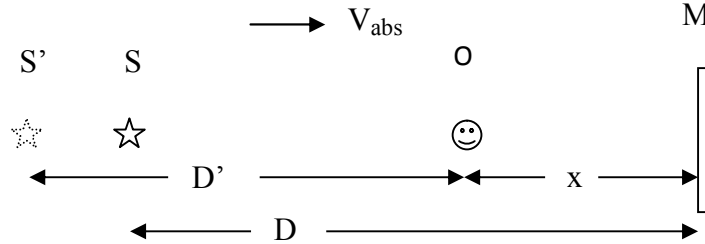
Note that the 'wavelength' predicted here is different in form from the 'wavelength' predicted by Silvertooth, in his paper, but the results obtained are nearly the same as will be shown shortly.

This shows an *apparent* change in wavelength and hence an apparent change of speed of light relative to the observer, for absolutely co-moving source and observer. However, to interpret this as an actual/real change in wavelength is wrong or inaccurate. Neither the wavelength nor the phase velocity has changed. To understand this rather confusing statement, the best way is to ask: assuming Galilean space, will an *actual*/physical change of the position of the source result in change of speed or wavelength observed by the observer, for co-moving source and observer? Obviously no. For the same reason, an *apparent* change in the position of the source should not result in change of wavelength and speed of light. This can be confirmed by measuring the wavelength with a spectroscope. The independence of wavelength and speed of light from Earth's absolute velocity has been confirmed because no variation of spectroscopic measurements of characteristic wavelengths emitted by atoms has ever been observed or reported. The Ives-Stilwell experiment confirms that absolute velocity of the Earth doesn't affect phase velocity and wavelength of light, because, if it did, large variations in 'transverse Doppler shift' would be observed in different experiments due to possible variations in orientation of the experimental apparatus, as the ion velocity in the Ives-Stilwell experiment ( $\approx 1000\text{Km/s}$ ) is comparable to Earth's absolute velocity ( $390\text{ Km/s}$ ). The fast ion beam experiment is another evidence. Wavelength change occurs only due to Doppler effect, which depends only on source observer *relative* velocity.

The apparent wavelength pattern observed in the Silvertooth experiment arises due to Apparent Source Theory. This means that for every point, the apparent position of the light source is different. For material waves, such as the sound wave, the wave starts from the same point for all observers in the same reference frame. In AST, the apparent past position of the light source (the point where it was at the instant of emission) is different for different observers at different positions (distance and direction) even if they are in the same reference frame.

### Wavelength and velocity of reflected light

Next we determine the 'wavelength' of the reflected light.



Time delay between emission and reception before reflection of light from mirror M, at point x, has been determined as follows (preceding section).

$$D' = (D - x) \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Relative to an observer at point x, who is observing the reflected light, time delay between emission and reception of reflected light will be:

$$\begin{aligned} t_d &= \frac{D'}{c} + \frac{2x}{c} = \frac{D - x}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{2x}{c} \\ &= \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} - x \left( \frac{1}{c - V_{abs}} - \frac{2}{c} \right) \\ &= \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} + x \frac{c - 2V_{abs}}{c(c - V_{abs})} \end{aligned}$$

If the source emits light according to

$$\sin \omega t$$

The reflected light wave will be received at point x as

$$\sin \omega(t - t_d) = \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} - x \frac{c - 2V_{abs}}{c(c - V_{abs})} \right)$$

The coefficient of x is:

$$k = \omega \frac{c - 2V_{abs}}{c(c - V_{abs})}$$

As before, the 'wavelength' of reflected light will be:

$$\lambda_{REF} = \frac{2\pi}{k} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega \frac{c - 2V_{abs}}{c(c - V_{abs})}}$$

$$= \frac{c(c - V_{abs})}{f(c - 2V_{abs})} = \frac{1}{f} \cdot \frac{c(c - V_{abs})}{c - 2V_{abs}}$$

Conventionally, one would expect the 'wave length' of the reflected light to be equal to  $(c + V_{abs}) / f$ , because the 'wavelength' of incident light is  $(c - V_{abs}) / f$ , such as in ether theory. However, it turned out in the above analysis that this is not the case. However, it can be shown that the actual difference between the two expressions is very small, as will be shown below.

The absolute velocity of the earth is known to be  $V_{abs} = 390 \text{ Km/s}$

$$\lambda_{REF} = \frac{1}{f} \cdot \frac{c(c - V_{abs})}{c - 2V_{abs}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{f} \cdot \frac{300000(300000 - 390)}{300000 - 2 * 390}$$

$$= \frac{1}{f} * 300,391 \text{ Km}$$

According to classical (ether) theory

$$\lambda_{REF} = \frac{1}{f} \cdot (c + V_{abs})$$

$$= \frac{1}{f} * (300,000 + 390) = \frac{1}{f} * 300,390 \text{ Km}$$

The ratio between the wavelengths is:

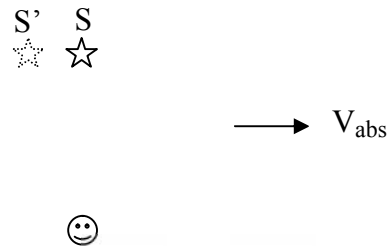
$$\frac{\frac{1}{f} * 300,390 \text{ Km}}{\frac{1}{f} * 300,391 \text{ Km}} = 0.99999667$$

Note again that this is not the real wavelength which is equal to  $\lambda = c / f$ . It is only an apparent wavelength. The apparent incident and reflected wavelengths differ as observed by Silvertooth and as shown above. The real incident and reflected wavelengths, which can be measured by a spectroscope, are both :  $\lambda = c / f$ .

In the above analyses, we considered the simplest cases in which the source, the observer and the mirror are in line, with the light beam incident perpendicularly on a mirror and reflected back on itself. It is possible to extend the analysis to more general cases for a better clarification of the theory ( AST ). In the next section we will look at the application of AST to some of these cases.

As the resulting solutions are more complicated (but straight forward) , we will only look at how to proceed.

Let us see at a case in which the source - observer relative position is perpendicular to the absolute velocity.



From previous discussions

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

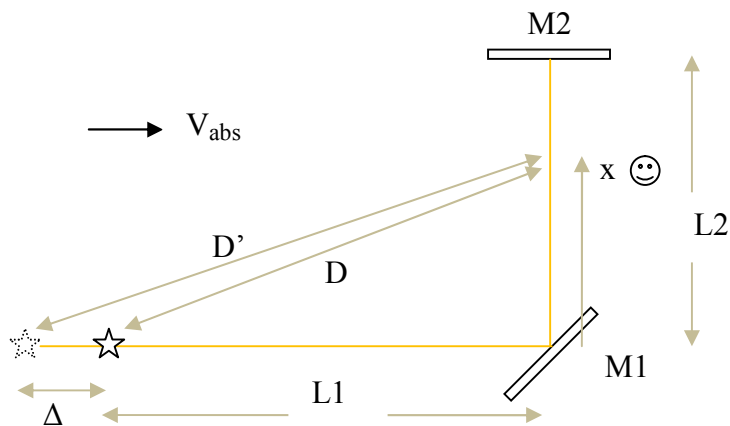
If the source emits according to

$$\sin \omega t$$

then the light received will be

$$\sin \omega(t - t_d)$$

Next consider the following case, as in Doug Marrett's replication of Silvertooth experiment [2]. An observer at point \$x\$ will observe the incident light ( light reflected from mirror M1, but before reflection from mirror M2) and the reflected light (light reflected from mirror M2).



To analyze this problem, we first have to determine the apparent change in position ( $\Delta$ ) of the source as seen from point  $x$ , due to absolute motion.

The time delay of the incident light will be:

$$t_d = \frac{\Delta + L1 + x}{c}$$

But

$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}}$$

The above equation means that the time it takes a *direct* light beam to reach the observer at point  $x$  from the apparent source position  $S'$  is equal to the time it takes for the source to move from position  $S'$  to position  $S$ . Note that we have assumed a direct light beam from point  $S'$  to point  $x$  to determine the apparent change in the position of the source ( $\Delta$ ) for an observer at point  $x$ , even if there is no direct light beam from the source to the observer in this case (i.e. the observer sees only light reflected from mirror  $M1$  in this case), due to an obstacle between the source and the observer.

Also

$$(\Delta + L1)^2 + x^2 = D'^2$$

and

$$L1^2 + x^2 = D^2$$

From the last three equations, the solution for  $\Delta$  can be obtained as follows.

$$(\Delta + L1)^2 + x^2 = D'^2$$

$$(\Delta + L1)^2 = \frac{c^2 \Delta^2}{V_{abs}^2} - x^2$$

resulting in the quadratic equation

$$\Delta^2 \left( \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} - 1 \right) - \Delta(2L1) - (L1^2 + x^2) = 0$$

The solution for  $\Delta$  will be:

$$\Delta = \frac{2L1 + \sqrt{4L1^2 + 4 \left( \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} - 1 \right) (L1^2 + x^2)}}{2 \left( \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} - 1 \right)}$$

Now the time delay  $t_d$  can be obtained in terms of  $x$  from the previous equation:



$$t_d = \frac{(\Delta + L1 + x)}{c}$$

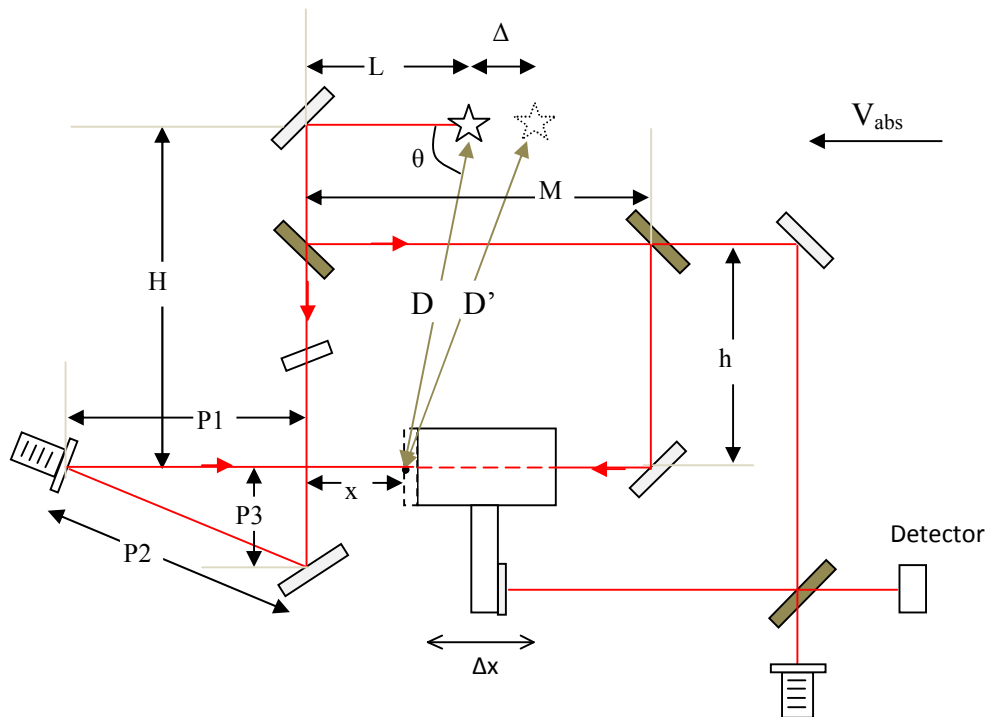
The solution for  $\Delta$  shows that time delay varies with  $x$  in a more complex (non-linear) way. It can be seen that the time delay depends not only on  $x$  but also on higher powers of  $x$ . This results in dependence of the apparent wavelength on  $x$ , along  $x$ , which is unconventional. This shows that what was measured by Silvertooth is not real wavelength, because real wavelength does not change along the path of light.

For the reflected light, the equation for time delay  $t_d$  will be :

$$t_d = \frac{\Delta + L1 + x + 2(L2 - x)}{c}$$

The equation for  $\Delta$  obtained above should be substituted in the above equation to determine the time delay and hence the 'wave length' of the reflected light.

Now that we have understood at a basic level the 'wavelength change' observed in the Silvertooth experiment, by applying the Apparent Source Theory, next we attempt to analyze the actual Silvertooth experiment.



$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\sqrt{D'^2 - H^2} - \sqrt{D^2 - H^2} = \Delta \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$L - \sqrt{D^2 - H^2} = x \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

From equation (3)

$$(L - x)^2 = D^2 - H^2 \Rightarrow D = \sqrt{(L - x)^2 + H^2}$$

From equation (1)

$$D' = \Delta \frac{c}{V_{abs}}$$

Substituting for D' in equation (2)

$$\sqrt{\Delta^2 \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} - H^2} - \sqrt{D^2 - H^2} = \Delta$$

After some manipulations we get a quadratic equation in  $\Delta$  :

$$\Delta^2 \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} - 2\Delta(L - x) - (H^2 + (L - x)^2) = 0, \text{ for } V_{abs} \ll c$$

From which

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta &= \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} (L - x) + \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \sqrt{(L - x)^2 + \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} (H^2 + (L - x)^2)} \\ &= \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} (L - x) + \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \sqrt{(L - x)^2 \left(1 + \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2}\right) + \frac{c^2}{V_{abs}^2} H^2} \\ &= \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} (L - x) + \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \sqrt{(L - x)^2 + H^2}, \quad \text{for } V_{abs} \ll c \\ &= \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \sqrt{(L - x)^2 + H^2}, \quad \text{for } V_{abs} \ll c \end{aligned}$$

$\Delta$  is a non-linear function of  $x$ .

For a given value of  $x_0$ ,  $\Delta$  can be approximated as a linear function for values of  $x$  close to  $x_0$ .

$$\frac{d\Delta}{dx} = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \left( \frac{-(L-x)}{\sqrt{(L-x)^2 + H^2}} \right)$$

$$\frac{d\Delta}{dx} (at x = x_0) = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \left( \frac{-(L-x_0)}{\sqrt{(L-x_0)^2 + H^2}} \right) = -\frac{V_{abs}}{c} K_0 = -\frac{V_{abs}}{c} \cos \theta$$

But

$$(at x = x_0) = \Delta_0 = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \sqrt{(L-x_0)^2 + H^2}$$

Therefore

$$= \Delta_0 + \frac{d\Delta}{dx} x = \Delta_0 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c} x \quad (at x = x_0)$$

Now that  $\Delta$  has been determined, the two light waves can be determined. There are two waves propagating across the detector D1, one from right to left, the other from left to right.

Assume that the laser emits according to

$$A \sin(\dots t)$$

The path length for the left to right wave will be:

$$pl_{LR} = \Delta + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1 + x$$

The time delay will be

$$\tau_{LR} = \frac{pl_{LR}}{c} = \frac{\Delta + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1 + x}{c}$$

Therefore, the left to right wave will be

$$A_{x1} \sin \omega(t - \tau_{LR}) = A_{x1} \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{\Delta + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1 + x}{c} \right)$$

$$= A_{x1} \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{\Delta_0 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c} x + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1 + x}{c} \right)$$

At a given time  $t = \tau$ , the 'snap shot' picture of the wave will be

$$= A_{x1} \sin \omega \left( \tau - \frac{\Delta_0 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c} x + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1 + x}{c} \right)$$

$$= A_{x1} \sin \omega \left( \tau - \frac{t_0 + L + H + P3 + P2 + P1}{c} - x \left( \frac{1}{c} - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} \right) \right)$$

The coefficient of x is

$$\omega \left( \frac{1}{c} - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} \right)$$

Therefore, the 'wave length' of the left to right wave will be

$$\lambda_{LR} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega \left( \frac{1}{c} - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} \right)} = \frac{\lambda}{1 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c}}$$

Likewise the path length of the right to left wave will be

$$pl_{RL} = \Delta + L + (H - h) + M + h + (M - x)$$

Therefore, the right to left wave will be

$$\begin{aligned} A_{x2} \sin \omega(t - \tau_{RL}) &= A_{x2} \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{\Delta + L + (H - h) + M + h + (M - x)}{c} \right) \\ &= A_{x2} \sin \omega \left( t - \frac{t_0 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c} x + L + (H - h) + M + h + (M - x)}{c} \right) \end{aligned}$$

At a given time  $t = \tau$ , the 'snap shot' picture of the wave will be

$$\begin{aligned} &= A_{x2} \sin \omega \left( \tau - \frac{t_0 - K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c} x + L + (H - h) + M + h + (M - x)}{c} \right) \\ &= A_{x2} \sin \omega \left( \tau - \frac{t_0 + L + (H - h) + M + h + M}{c} + x \left( K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} + \frac{1}{c} \right) \right) \end{aligned}$$

The coefficient of x is

$$\omega \left( K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} + \frac{1}{c} \right)$$

Therefore, the 'wave length' of the right to left wave will be,

$$\lambda_{RL} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega \left( K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2} + \frac{1}{c} \right)} = \frac{\lambda}{1 + K_0 \frac{V_{abs}}{c}}$$

According to Silvertooth, and classical formula,

$$\lambda' = \frac{\lambda}{\left( 1 \pm \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \right)}$$

There is a discrepancy between the formula based on the Apparent Source Theory (AST), which contains the factor  $K_0$ , and the classical formula. Even though Silvertooth's theory is not clear and may not be correct, his experimental results closely agree with the classical formula and with the CMBR frequency anisotropy measurement. So it may seem that AST is not in agreement with Silvertooth's experiment. But there is also a possibility that  $K_0 = \cos \theta$  is close to unity in the Silvertooth experiment. For example, if  $L - x = 4H$ , then  $K_0 = 0.97$ . ( $K_0 \approx 1$ , for  $L - x \gg H$ ). Unfortunately Silvertooth did not provide these dimensions in his papers.

The above discrepancy may seem to be a serious challenge to AST. However, considering the many successes of AST, it appears that this will not disprove AST, but requires further development of the theory. The problem may be that our analysis assumed an ordinary light source, whereas a laser source was used in Silvertooth experiment.

We interpret the above discrepancy as follows. Assuming that AST is correct, the result of Silvertooth experiment shows that the laser behaves as if it is at a distance much larger than  $L$ .

But why does the experiment behave as if distance  $L$  of the laser is much larger than its actual, physical distance? This was one of the most challenging enigmas I faced in the development of AST and has been solved in the current version of this paper.

The mystery lied in AST and the process of light emission itself. How do we apply AST to analyze stimulated emission of light in lasers?

Suppose that a photon originates from atom  $A$  in the forward direction which was excited by the laser pumping system. Relative to co-moving observer  $O$ , the apparent position of the emitting atom  $A$  is at  $A'$ . The photon emitted by atom  $A$  is reflected back and forth say, one hundred times, from the mirrors of the laser (assuming ideal mirrors with 100% reflection) and finally exit through the window. If there were no excited atoms for stimulated emission, the photon would be observed by observer  $O$  after a time delay of:

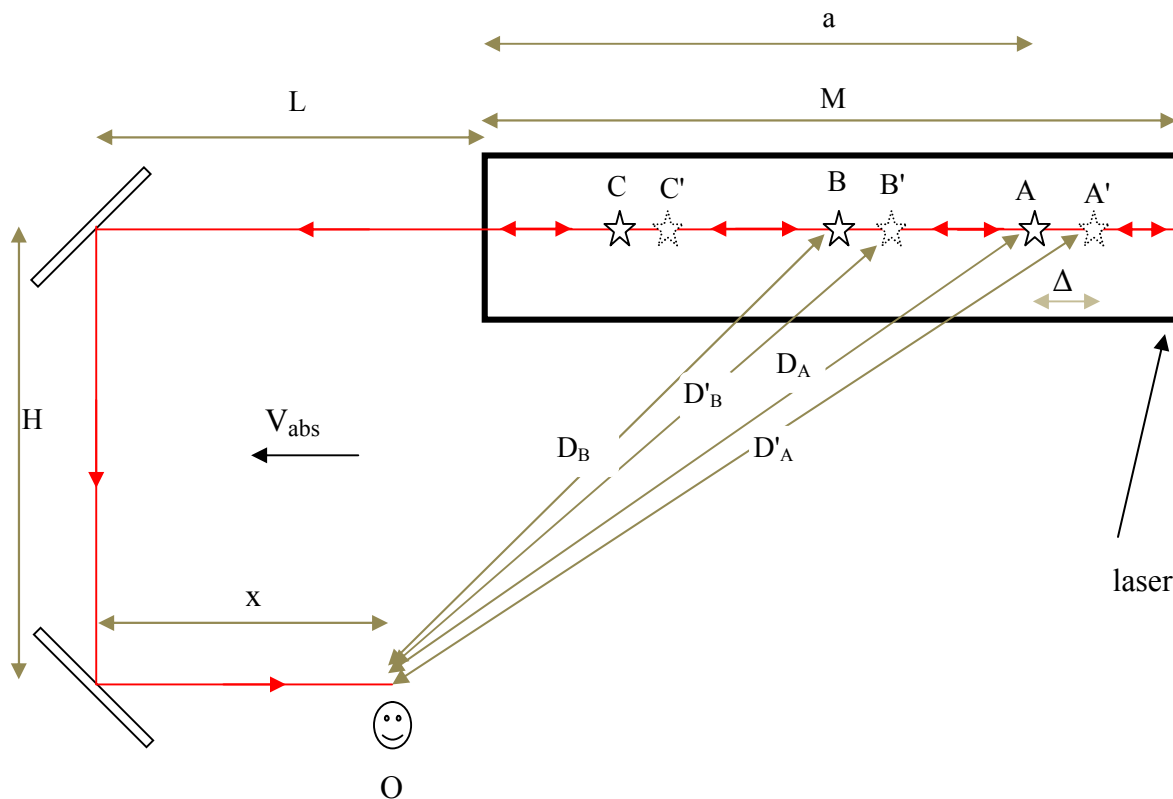
$$t_d = \frac{(a + l) + 100M + L + H + x}{c}$$

For example, for  $D_A = 1\text{m}$ ,  $\Delta$  is of the order of 1mm.

Now suppose that excited atoms B and C exist and the photon emitted by atom A stimulates emission from atom B, then from atom C, after passing through the atom 'gas' one hundred times. Then two coherent photons exit through the laser window.

The photon emitted by atom A stimulates emission of a coherent photon from excited atom B. Relative to the observer, atom B emitted light from its apparent position B' and therefore, this will introduce additional delay. The two coherent photons from A and B stimulate emission from atom C. Atom C will also introduce additional time delay due to apparent change of position relative to the observer. So far we have seen that an atom stimulated by the (coherent) photons travelling in the forward direction ( in the direction of the absolute velocity ) will delay the photon. But an atom stimulated by the (coherent) photons travelling backwards, after reflection from the front mirror, will introduce a time advance to the photon, relative to the observer. For example, if the coherent photons reflect from the front mirror and stimulate emission from atom C, the (coherent ) photon will advance the photon because, relative to the observer, it emits from its apparent position C', and hence the photon will have less distance to travel to the back mirror.

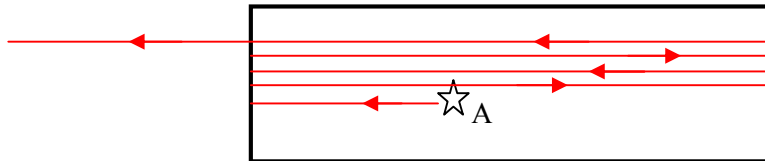
Therefore, stimulated emissions will delay the coherent photon (photons) when the coherent photon is travelling forward and will advance the coherent photon when the coherent photon is travelling backwards.



In an actual laser there are trillions of photons in a coherent photon. We have seen that atoms emitting in the forward direction ( stimulated by photon travelling in the forward direction ) will delay the photon, relative to the observer, and atoms emitting in the backward direction (stimulated by photon travelling in the backward direction ) will advance the photon, relative to the observer.

In the analysis of Silvertooth experiment we have seen that the laser behaves as if distance L is much greater than its physical/actual value. This means that the laser photon is delayed, i.e. the apparent position of the laser is much greater than its calculated apparent position by using the direct physical distance between the laser and the detector. Since we have seen that the coherent photon is delayed by stimulated emissions while travelling forward and advanced by stimulated emissions while travelling backward, how can there be a *net* delay of the photon, as we have seen in the analysis of the Silvertooth experiment?

The answer to this question is that the number of forward stimulated emissions is always greater than the number of backward stimulated emissions because the laser exits through the front window. The following diagram illustrates this. Note that only the atom emitting the original photon is shown.



For any position of the original atom A ( the atom that emits the initial single photon, excited by the laser pumping system ), except the position very close to the front mirror, we can see that the number of stimulated emissions in the forward directions is always greater than the number of stimulated emissions in the backward direction. Typically, the order of magnitude of this net difference is 10 million, if the original photon is emitted from near the center of the laser, for example. The apparent change in the position ( $\Delta$ ) of each emitting atom is of the order of 1mm. Therefore, the total change in the positions of the emitting atoms will be :  $\Delta = 1\text{mm} \times 10000000 = 10\text{Km}$ . From this, we determine the effective distance L of the laser as:

$$\Delta = L \frac{V_{abs}}{c - V_{abs}} , \quad \text{for } L \gg H$$

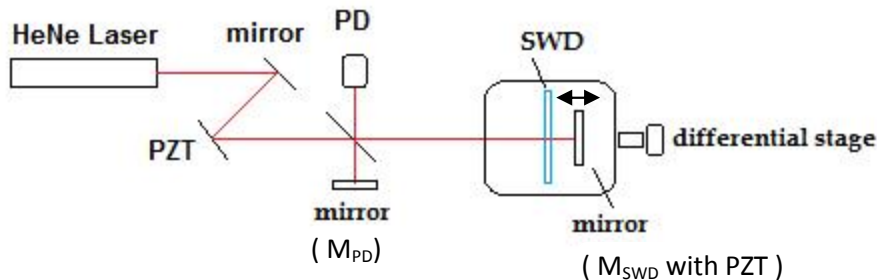
$$\Rightarrow L = \Delta \frac{c - V_{abs}}{V_{abs}} \approx \frac{c}{V_{abs}} = 10 \text{ Km} * \frac{300000\text{Km/s}}{390\text{Km/s}} = 7692 \text{ Km}$$

Therefore, the laser behaves as if it is at a distance  $L = 7692 \text{ Km}$ . This explains the result of the Silvertooth experiment. However, even if  $L = 10\text{m}$ , and  $H=1\text{m}$ , then  $K_0 = \cos \theta = 0.995$  and the formula will be almost the same as the Silvertooth ( classical ) formula.

An important point to be noted is that, if two atoms are stimulated and emitted coherent lasers at the same instant of time, each atom will introduce a time delay (or advance) to the coherent photon. This is because the photon is coherent. The billions of photons of a coherent laser beam all act as a single photon. A proof of this is that, according to AST, if the photons were considered as independent photons, they would lose their coherence due to absolute motion, at a short distance from the laser and we know that a coherent laser light will remain coherent within its coherence length.

### A Replication of the Silvertooth Experiment

Doug Marett performed a modified version of the Silvertooth experiment [2].



Doug Marett reported that he detected phase shift of the SWD voltage as the stage is moved, with the mirror  $M_{SWD}$  and the SWD detector co-moving with the stage. The  $M_{SWD}$  is also actuated with a triangle wave. How can movement of the stage create phase variation of the SWD voltage, with the mirror and the SWD sensor co-moving with the stage [20] ?

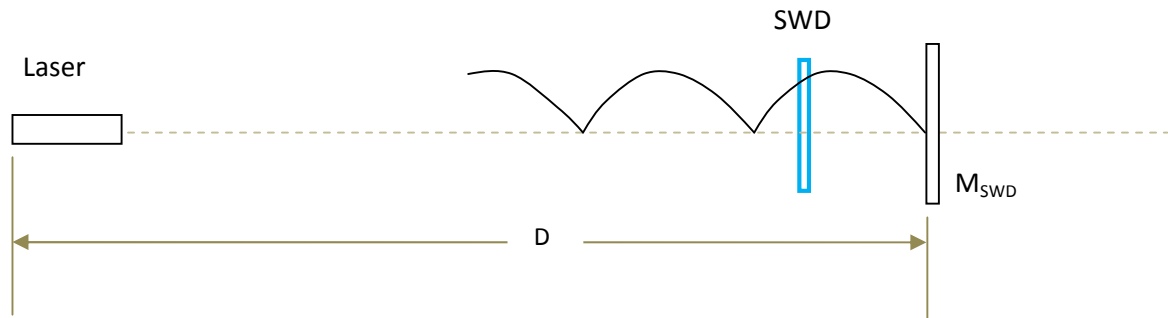
In all of the original Silvertooth experiments, two light beams pass through the SWD detector in opposite directions. As the stage is moved, the path of one beam is shortened, and the path of the opposite beam lengthened. In this case it is not difficult to figure out how the phase of the SWD voltage changes, as the stage is moved. In the Doug Marett's experiment, the standing wave is locked to the mirror and moves with it. So the position of the detector does not change relative to the standing wave. Since the paths of the two opposite beams always change equally as the stage is moved, there would be no change in phase relationship between the incident and reflected light beams. Then how does the phase change at the SWD occur?

Even if we assumed the ether ( as Silvertooth did), or any material wave such as a sound wave, Doug Marett's version of the experiment should not result in change in relative phases of the incident and reflected waves. Since the amplitude of the SWD at the surface of the mirror is



always zero, the amplitude of the standing wave at the SWD detector should not vary as the stage is moved; the amplitude of the standing wave should change at the SWD only if its distance from  $M_{SWD}$  is changed. Only the distance of the SWD from the  $M_{SWD}$  matters. The distance from the laser or from the PZT is irrelevant when determining the phase relationship between the incident and the reflected light at the SWD. The SWD detector is always stationary relative to the SWD pattern, as the stage is moved. The standing wave is locked to the mirror.

The above argument, however, does not take into consideration the effect of the laser beam reflecting into the laser, hence forming a kind of resonant cavity.



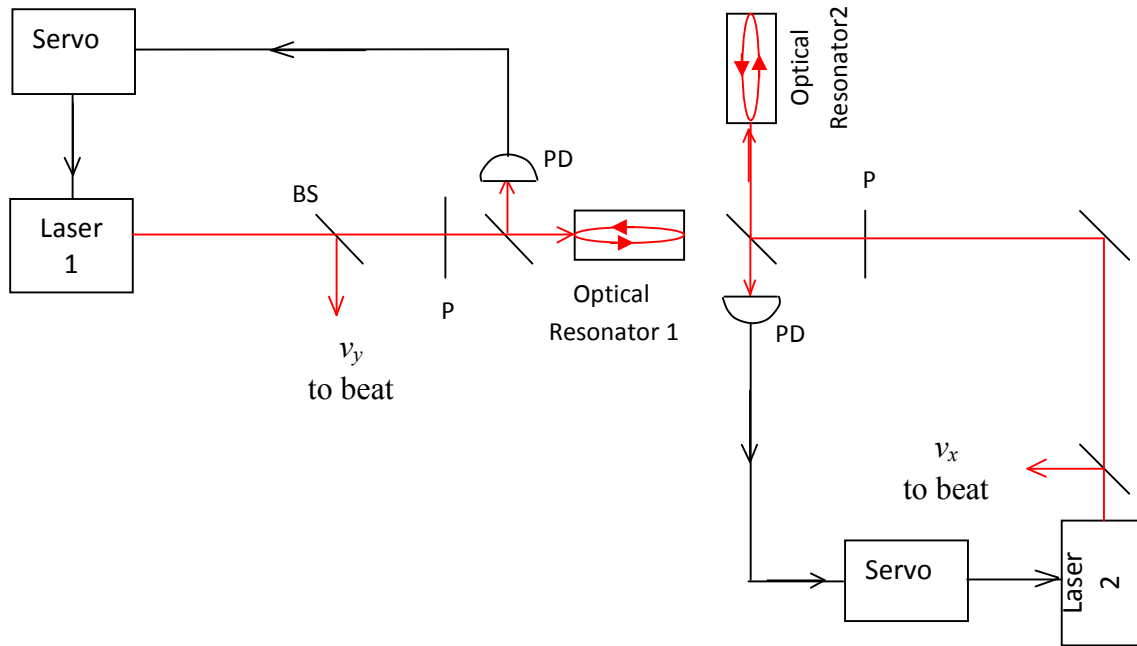
If we consider the whole optical system as a resonant cavity, then the distance  $D$  between the laser and the mirror becomes important. The standing wave will be maximum when  $D$  is an integral multiple of half wave lengths. If  $D$  is not equal to an integral multiple of half wave lengths, the resonant system will be detuned and the amplitude of the standing wave will decrease at all points between the laser and the mirror. However, the standing wave is always locked to the mirror. So, as the distance between the laser and the mirror is changed, the standing wave pattern does not shift relative to the detector, but its amplitude will change.

Now, how does dithering the mirror affect the voltage at the detector? If we consider the optical system as a resonator system, then a movement of the mirror will make the system to be closer to or farther from resonance condition. If the movement of the mirror makes the distance  $D$  closer to being an integral multiple of half wavelengths, the optical system will be closer to resonance and the amplitude of the standing wave will increase at all points. If the movement of the mirror makes the difference between distance  $D$  and an integral multiple of half wavelengths larger and larger, the optical system will be detuned and the standing wave will be suppressed at all points. This is why the same movement of the mirror results an increase in the SWD voltage for some values of  $D$  and a decrease in the SWD voltage for other values of  $D$ .

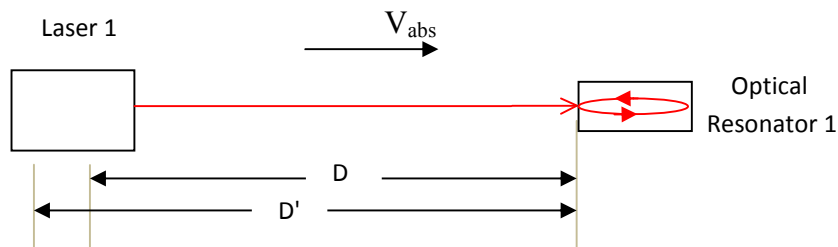
The effect of absolute motion creates an apparent difference in wave lengths of the incident and reflected lights.

## 2.7 Modern Michelson-Morley experiments

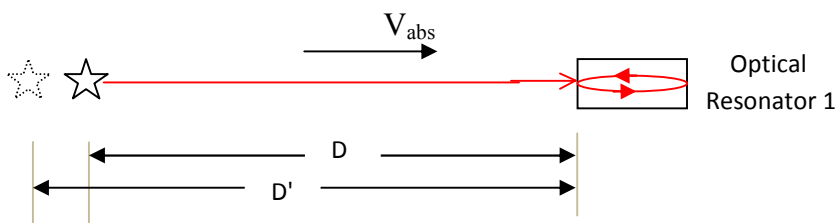
We will look at the experiment performed by Muller et al [19].



Let us consider one of the two optical resonator systems.



The laser has been represented as a single coherent point source, as shown below.



Let us just assume that the point source is at distance  $D$  from the optical cavity. According to Apparent Source Theory, the effect of absolute motion for co-moving source and observer is to create an apparent change in the position of the source as seen by the observer. Therefore, to an observer at the inlet of the optical resonator, for example, the source appears to be farther than its actual position for the absolute velocity shown in the above diagram. For all observers at all points along the path of light and at all points inside the optical resonator, the effect of absolute motion is simply to create an apparent change in the position of the source; the source appears farther than it actually (physically) is.

The procedure of analysis, as discussed already, is:

1. Replace the real source with an apparent source
2. Solve the problem by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.

In other words, the above procedure means that we replace the real source with an apparent source and analyze the experiment by assuming Galilean space. We know that in Galilean space the (group) velocity of light is constant relative to the source. It is proposed that the phase velocity is always constant[6], independent of source or observer velocity.

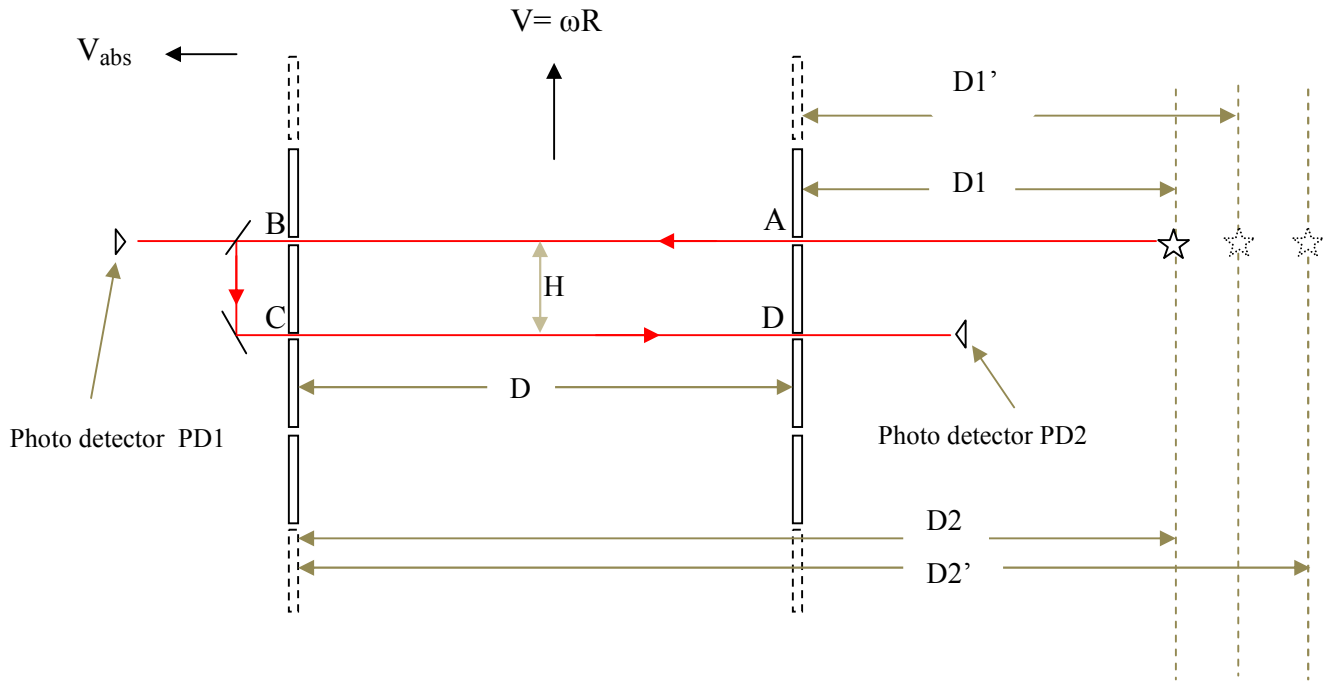
All we need is to answer is: what is the effect of apparent change of source position, which is equivalent to physical/real change of source position ?

Obviously, the apparent or physical position of the source inside the laser does not have any significant effect on the resonance frequency of the resonator.

The Muller et al experiment was conceived by assuming that absolute motion would change the resonance frequency of the resonator. This means that, if the laser frequency is constant, the resonator would be slightly detuned due to changes in absolute velocity( by rotating the apparatus), which would result in decreasing of the amplitude of the wave at all points inside the cavity resonator. But changing the distance between the laser and the optical cavity does not affect the resonance frequency/wavelength of the cavity.

## 2.8. The Marinov Coupled-Shutters Experiment

In this section the Marinov experiment is explained by the Apparent Source Theory.



We assume a linearly translating long apparatus for simplicity.

Two photo detectors, PD1 and PD2 are placed as shown. Assume that four other photo detectors (not shown in the figure above) are placed at the four holes, at points A, B, C and D, just at the outlets/inlets of the holes. Assume that the light source emits a very short light pulse at time  $t=0$ . First we determine the time interval between detection of the light pulse at points B and A.

$$D1' = D1 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

and

$$D2' = D2 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

The time delay for light detection at point A will be

$$T_A = \frac{D1'}{c} = \frac{D1 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}}{c} = \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}}$$

The time delay for light detection at point B will be:

$$T_B = \frac{D2'}{c} = \frac{D2 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}}{c} = \frac{D2}{c - V_{abs}}$$

The time taken by light to move from A to B:

$$\begin{aligned} T_{AB} &\approx T_B - T_A = \frac{D2}{c - V_{abs}} - \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}} \\ &= \frac{D2 - D1}{c - V_{abs}} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} \end{aligned}$$

The velocity of light propagation between the holes is :

$$\frac{D}{T_{AB}} = c - V_{abs}$$

As the absolute velocity changes in direction and magnitude, the time of flight between A and B varies.

Now let us determine the round trip time. We make some assumptions to simplify the problem. The separation distance (H) between the holes is nearly zero. Therefore,

$$T_B \approx T_C$$

From the assumption that  $H \approx 0$ , also follows that the photo detectors at points A and D are also almost at the same point and hence the same apparent distance ( $D1'$ ) of the source for both photo detectors.

The round trip time will be:

$$T_{AB} + T_{CD} = (T_B - T_A) + (T_D - T_C)$$

Let us first determine,  $T_D$ , the time of detection of the pulse at point D.

$$T_D = \frac{D1' + 2D}{c}$$

But

$$D1' = D1 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

Therefore,

$$T_D = \frac{D1' + 2D}{c} = \frac{D1'}{c} + \frac{2D}{c} = \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{2D}{c}$$

Now we can determine the time interval between detection of the pulse at point C and at point D.

$$\begin{aligned} T_{CD} = T_D - T_C = T_D - T_B &= \left( \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{2D}{c} \right) - \frac{D2}{c - V_{abs}} \\ &= \frac{D1 - D2}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{2D}{c} \\ &= \frac{2D}{c} - \frac{(D2 - D1)}{c - V_{abs}} \end{aligned}$$

But,

$$D = D2 - D1$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} T_{CD} &= \frac{2D}{c} - \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} = \frac{D}{c} \frac{c - 2V_{abs}}{c - V_{abs}} \\ &= \frac{D}{c \frac{c - V_{abs}}{c - 2V_{abs}}} \end{aligned}$$

From the above equation, the velocity of light propagation between points C and D is:

$$c \frac{c - V_{abs}}{c - 2V_{abs}}$$

This is distinct from the conventional formula

$$c + V_{abs}$$

which is the velocity of light propagation between points C and D according to the ether theory.

But the difference between the above two expressions is very small. If we substitute  $V_{abs} = 390$  Km/s (absolute velocity of solar system) and  $c = 300,000$  Km/s into the former equation:

$$300,000 \frac{(300,000 - 390)}{(300,000 - 780)} = 300,391.0166 \quad 300,391 \text{ Km/s}$$

From the latter equation:

$$c + V_{abs} = 300,000 + 390 = 300,390 \text{ Km/s}$$

The difference between the two results is only 1 Km/s which is less than 0.25 % of the earth's (solar system's) absolute velocity.

Note that photo detectors PD1 and PD2 are assumed to be just at the holes B and D, respectively.

From the dependence of these time delays on absolute velocity, the variation of intensity of the light detected by the photo detectors with orientation of the apparatus, i.e. with absolute velocity, can be determined. The round trip time between the holes is independent of absolute velocity.

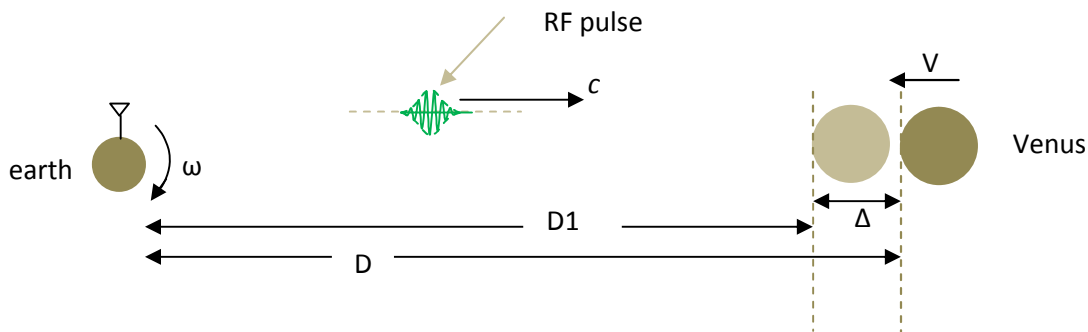
$$\text{Round trip time} = T_{AB} + T_{CD} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} + \frac{D}{c \frac{c - V_{abs}}{c - 2V_{abs}}} = \frac{2D}{c}$$

Therefore PD2 current will not vary with absolute velocity, where as PD1 current will vary with absolute velocity.

## 2.9. ‘Anomalous’ radar range data from Venus planet as discovered by Bryan G. Wallace

One of the observations that seem to be in contradiction with Einstein’s light postulate is the discovery by Bryan G. Wallace that analysis of radar range data of planet Venus did not conform to the principle of constancy of the speed of light.

The analysis of Bryan G. Wallace’s experiment belongs to this section of co-moving source and observer because the source (RF transmitter) and the observer (RF receiver) are co-moving as both are bound to the Earth. The planet Venus acts as a mirror moving relative to the Earth. The effect of Earth’s absolute velocity is negligible in creating an apparent change of position of the RF transmitter as ‘seen’ by the RF receiver because they are located at nearly the same location and because the distance to Venus is much greater than the distance between the transmitter and the receiver, which may be not more than a few tens of meters.



According to Special Relativity and ether theories, the center of the spherical wave fronts of the transmitted RF pulse remains at the point in space where the source was at the instant of emission. According to Apparent Source Theory, the center of the spherical wave fronts moves with the apparent source. As stated above, there is no significant difference between the real and the apparent positions of the source (the transmitter / antenna).

Remember the procedure of analysis:

1. Replace the real source with the apparent source (in this case almost the same as the real source)
2. Then analyze the problem by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.

In this case, the velocity of the RF pulse reflected from Venus relative to an observer on Earth is  $c+2V$ , according to emission theory, where  $V$  is the earth Venus relative velocity. Suppose that at the instant of the reflecting of the RF pulse from Venus surface, the distance between the Earth and Venus is  $D$  and the Earth – Venus relative velocity is  $V$ .

The round trip time can be determined if we know the velocity of the RF pulse in the earth's reference frame (which can be considered to be at rest, according to emission theory and Galilean relativity). The velocity of the transmitted RF pulse is obviously equal to  $c$  relative to the transmitter. The velocity of the reflected pulse will be  $c + 2V$ , relative to the Earth (reflection from a moving mirror).

Therefore, the total round trip time is determined as:

$$t_1 = \frac{D}{c} \quad , \quad t_2 = \frac{D}{c + 2V} \quad \text{and} \quad t_1 + t_2 = t$$

$$t = t_1 + t_2 = \frac{D}{c} + \frac{D}{c + 2V} = \frac{2D(c + V)}{c(c + 2V)}$$

$$\Rightarrow D = \frac{tc}{2} \frac{c + 2V}{c + V}$$

where  $t_1$  is the forward flight time,  $t_2$  is the backward flight time and  $t$  is the round trip time of the RF pulse.

The distance  $D_1$  at the instant of reception of the pulse on earth will be:

$$D_1 = D - \Delta = D - t_2V$$

$$= D - \frac{D}{c + 2V} V$$

$$= D \frac{c + V}{c + 2V}$$

$$= \frac{tc}{2}$$

In the case of Einstein's light postulate :



$$D1 = \frac{tc}{2} - \frac{tV}{2}$$

An important distinction here is that the absolute velocity of the solar system doesn't have any effect on this result and hasn't appeared in the above analysis, as explained in a previous section 'Apparent Contradiction'. To be clear, suppose that a detector and a clock were placed on Venus and another synchronized clock on Earth. If the time of detection of the radar pulse was recorded on Venus, it would be  $D'/c$  and not  $D/c$ , unlike our assumption in the above analysis, where  $D'$  is the apparent distance of the transmitter on Earth as seen by a detector on Venus ( not shown in the above figure ); as already discussed  $D'$  depends on  $D$  and absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  of the solar system and the orientation of the Earth -Venus line relative to the solar system absolute velocity.

However, the peculiar nature of the speed of light is that it behaves as if this time is  $D/c$ , from the perspective of an observer on Earth.

According to the procedure already given, the observer on Earth

1. replaces the real transmitter position with an apparent transmitter position ( which in this case is almost the same as the real transmitter position, because the observer is nearly at the same position as the transmitter (considering the large distance between Earth and Venus)
2. Analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source ( in the co-moving observer's reference frame or in the absolute reference frame ) .

Since in Galilean space ( or emission theory ) the forward and back flight times will be  $D/c$  and  $D/(c+2V)$  respectively, according to emission theory, where  $V$  is Earth - Venus relative velocity, the absolute velocity of the solar does not enter in the analysis of the experiment.

### **Repetition of the Bryan G.Wallace experiment using a lunar laser ranging experiment**

Suppose that a laser pulse is emitted towards a mirror placed on the Moon and reflected back to the Earth and detected. The time elapsed between emission and detection is determined from Earth-Moon distance.

$$T = \frac{2D}{c}$$

In this case  $T = 2 * 300,000 / 300,000 = 2$  seconds

Now assume that the mirror on the moon is moving. This can be done by putting the mirror at the tip of a rotating rod, as in A. Michelson moving mirror experiment. Suppose that the velocity of the mirror is 100 m/s towards the Earth. Assume Earth-Moon distance to be 300,000Km, and speed of light 300,000 Km/s.

The laser light pulse will move at the speed of light  $c$  relative to the Earth before reflection from the mirror. After reflection, however, the pulse will move with velocity  $c+2V$ , where  $V$  is the mirror velocity, relative to the Earth.

Now

$$T = \frac{D}{c} + \frac{D}{c + 2V} = D \frac{2c + 2V}{c(c + 2V)}$$

$$T = 1.999999333334 \text{ seconds}$$

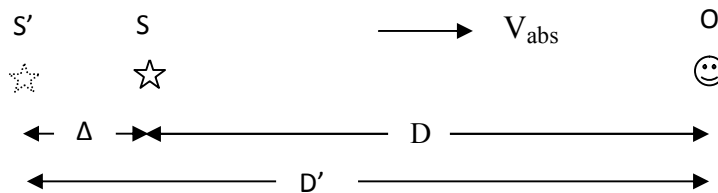
The time difference between the above two time delays will be:

$$2.0 \text{ s} - 1.999999333334 \text{ s} = 666 \text{ nano second}$$

Detection of this difference will validate AST and disprove Special Relativity.

### 2.10. Acceleration

One may ask what will happen if co-moving source and observer are accelerating.



Suppose that the co-moving source and observer are in continuous constant acceleration and a light pulse is emitted while the source and observer are in acceleration. The problem is to find the time elapsed between emission and detection of the pulse. In this case the apparent change of the position of the source relative to the observer is determined as follows.

During the time interval  $t$  that the light pulse is emitted from S' and detected at O, the source will move from S' to S.

For constant acceleration motion

$$= V_{abs0}t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

where  $V_{abs0}$  is the initial absolute velocity, at the instant of light emission.

Solving the above quadratic equation for  $t$

$$t = \frac{-V_{abs0} + \sqrt{V_{abs0}^2 + 2a\Delta}}{a}$$

This time  $t$  is the same as the time required for light pulse to move from S' to O, which is:

$$t = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{-V_{abs0} + \sqrt{V_{abs0}^2 + 2a\Delta}}{a} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

The above is a quadratic function of  $\Delta$ . Once  $\Delta$  is determined, the time elapsed between emission and detection of the light pulse is determined as:

$$t = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

The apparent change of position ( $\Delta$ ) of the source can also be determined.

In the above analysis we haven't considered the fact that the apparent source  $S'$  is moving relative to the observer at the instant of emission, due to acceleration. Hence, since the speed of light is  $c$  relative to the apparent source, we should use  $c - V'$  instead of  $c$  in the above equations, where  $V'$  is the velocity of the apparent source relative to the observer.  $V'$  can be determined as follows.

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dV_{abs}} = D \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = \frac{dV_{abs}}{dt} D \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = aD \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2}$$

For  $V_{abs} = V_{abs0}$

$$V' = aD \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs0})^2}$$

### 3. Source, observer and mirror in absolute and relative motion, for uniform rectilinear motion and for accelerated motion

In this section we consider the case of light source, observer and mirror moving independently, with independent absolute and relative velocities, for uniform rectilinear motion and accelerated motion, for translational and rotational motion.

To analyze any light speed experiment, the following principle is used:

***For any light speed experiment, an arbitrary observer A at a given point relative to the source, at a given instant of time, observes what a co-moving observer O at that point is observing at that instant of time. A co-moving observer is an observer that continues to move with the same velocity as the velocity of the source at the instant of light emission.***

If a light source, observer and mirrors are co-moving with uniform rectilinear absolute motion, the experiment is analyzed by replacing the real source by an apparent source and by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source. Note that just as the real source is at rest relative to the observer in this case, the apparent source is also at rest relative to the observer; only the position of the apparent source differs from the real source position.

If the experiment involves source and observer co-moving with uniform rectilinear absolute motion but the mirrors are moving relative to the source and observer, we replace the real source with an apparent source and analyze the experiment according to ( modified ) emission theory in which the *group* velocity of light depends on mirror velocity.

In the general case of light source, observer and mirrors with independent, arbitrary, relative and absolute motion, uniform rectilinear absolute motion or accelerated motion, rotational ( such as the Sagnac experiment ) or translational motion, the experiment is analyzed on the above principle.

Therefore, the procedure of analysis of any light speed experiment is :

1. Find the co-moving observer O that observes the light at the same instant that the moving observer A is passing through point O ( location of co-moving observer O )
2. The time delay of light for the moving observer A is the same as the time delay of light for the co-moving observer O, because both O and A are at the same point at the instant O observes the light.

This is the fundamental procedure that applies to any light speed experiment.

However, another, more convenient procedure that can be used to analyze all light speed experiments involving uniform *rectilinear* motion is as follows:

1. From the *direct* source observer distance at the instant of emission, determine the position of the apparent source
2. Determine the velocity of the apparent source relative to the observer

- Analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.

The second procedure is more convenient for experiments involving uniform and accelerated *rectilinear* motion of light source, observer and mirrors, both in absolute and relative motion. However, this procedure fails for experiments involving rotation and non-rectilinear motions, such as the Sagnac effect. The Sagnac effect is analyzed by using the first procedure.

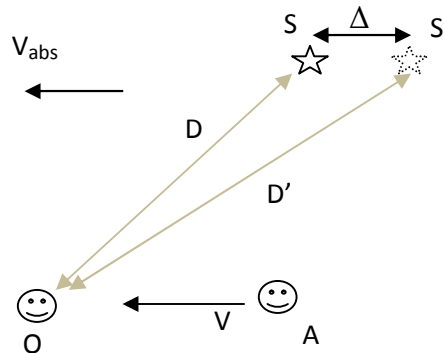
Next we will analyze the case of source, observer and mirrors in uniform rectilinear absolute and relative motion using both procedures.

### First procedure

#### **3.1. Source and observer in absolute and relative motion, for uniform rectilinear motion**

Consider a light source  $S$  moving with constant absolute velocity in straight line.

We have already seen how the time delay of light is determined for a co-moving source. How can we determine the time delay for an observer moving relative to the source?



$O$  is the co-moving observer and  $A$  is an observer moving with velocity  $V$  relative to the source and observer, and at the position shown at the time instant light is emitted by the source. The principle governing the speed of light is formulated as follows:

***An arbitrary observer  $A$  at a given point relative to the source, at a given instant of time, observes what is being observed by a co-moving observer  $O$  at that instant of time.***

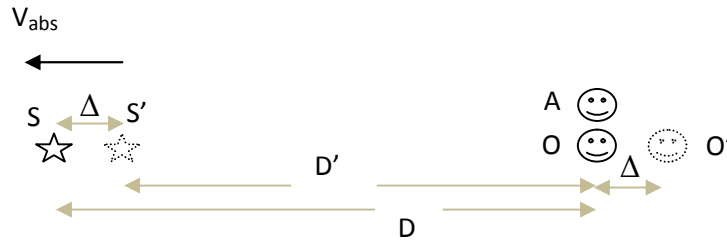
This means that, to determine the time and the point when and where an observer, for example an observer  $A$  at a given point at the instant of light emission and moving relative to the source, observes light emitted by the source, we find the point  $O$  where the time taken by observer  $A$  to reach point  $O$  is equal to the time taken for light to reach a co-moving observer  $O$  at point  $O$ .

With this law we can analyze any light speed experiment, involving source , observer and mirror, moving independently with their own absolute and relative velocities and with uniform rectilinear motion and with accelerated motion, including non-rectilinear motions.

Any observer A , moving with uniform rectilinear motion or with accelerated motion, observes the light being observed by a co-moving observer O at a given instant of time , if A happens to be at the location of O at that instant of time.

### Absolutely moving source and observer at absolute rest

Consider light source S and co-moving observer O and another observer A who is at absolute rest. Light is emitted by the source at point S' at which time the co-moving observer is at point O'. Observer O detects the light at point O, at which time the source is at point S. Relative to the co-moving observer, it is as if the position of the source changed from S to S'.



The apparent position of the source relative to the co-moving observer is determined from the following equations.

$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{D - D'}{V_{abs}}$$

$$\Rightarrow D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Co-moving observer O detects light after a time delay of

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}}$$

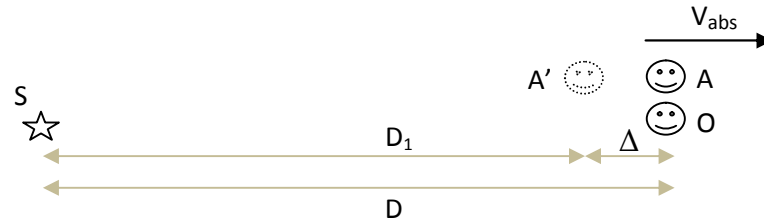
A stationary observer A who happens to be at the same point as observer O at that instant of time  $t_d$  also observes the same light . This means that the time delay between emission and detection of light for the observer A, who is at absolute rest, is also equal to

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}}$$

This explains why / how the speed of light is independent of the velocity of the source. Note in the above notations that the moving source emitted light when it was at distance  $D'$  from observer A.

### Absolutely moving observer and source at absolute rest

For a light source that is at absolute rest, a 'co-moving' observer is also at absolute rest. According to AST, the position of the apparent source is the same as the position of the real source if the source is at absolute rest.



Suppose that the source S emits light at  $t = 0$ . At that instant moving observer is at point A'. The 'co-moving' observer O ( who is also at absolute rest ) will observe the light after a time delay of :

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c}$$

If observer A happens to be at the same point as observer O at  $t = t_d$ , he will also observe the light at that instant,  $t_d$ .

Now the moving observer was at point A', which is at distance  $D_1$  from the source, at the instant of light emission and is at point A (the same as point O) at the instant of observation. This means that during the time interval  $t_d$  that observer A moves from point A' to point A, the light travels from S to O (or A). Therefore,

$$t_d = \frac{D}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}}$$

and

$$D = D_1 + \Delta$$

$$\Rightarrow D_1 = D \left( 1 - \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \right)$$

In the reference frame of the moving observer A, the speed of light is

$$c' = \frac{D_1}{t_d} = \frac{D \left( 1 - \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \right)}{\frac{D}{c}} = c - V_{abs}$$

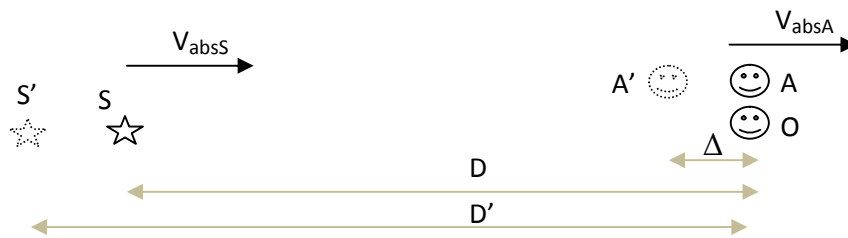
Therefore, for a light source that is at absolute rest, the ( group ) velocity of light relative to a moving source is

$$c' = c \pm V_{abs}$$

where  $V_{abs}$  is the absolute velocity of the observer, for an observer moving directly (radially) towards or away from the light source.

### Source and observer in absolute and relative motion

Let us first consider the simple case of source and observer moving along the same line.



Suppose that the distance between a co-moving observer O ( the absolute velocity of O is the same as the absolute velocity of the source,  $V_{absS}$  ) and the source is D and that the moving observer (A) was at point A' relative to the source at the instant of light emission. Suppose that observer A is just passing through point A ( the same as point O ) at the instant that observer O detects the light. Therefore, observer A will also detect the light at that instant.

Observer A is moving *relative* to the source with a velocity of

$$V = V_{absA} - V_{absS}$$

For the co-moving observer, we have already seen that

$$t_d = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}}}{c} = \frac{D}{c - V_{absS}}$$

Therefore, since the moving observer A is at the same point as the co-moving observer O at the instant of time that O detects the light, A will also detect the light at the same instant.

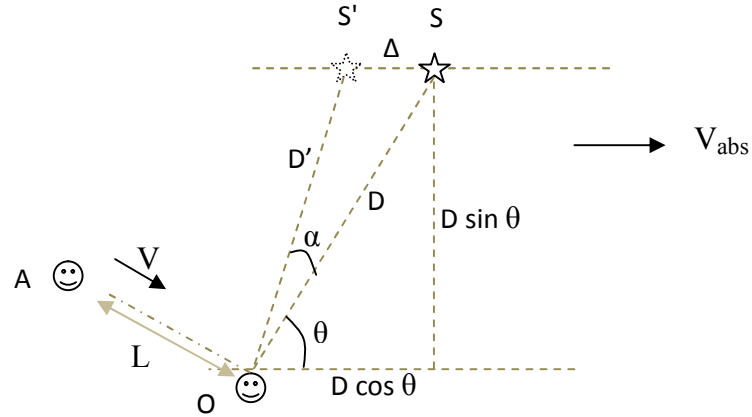
In the reference frame of the moving observer, the speed of light is:

$$c' = \frac{D - \Delta}{t_d} = \frac{D - V t_d}{t_d} = c - V_{absS} - (V_{absA} - V_{absS}) = c - V_{absA}$$



### Source and observer in absolute and relative motion, in arbitrary directions

Consider a light source S and an observer O absolutely co-moving, as shown below.



We want to get the relationship between  $\theta$  and  $\Delta$ .

$$\Delta = D \cos \theta - \sqrt{D'^2 - D^2 \sin^2 \theta} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

From (1) and (2)

$$D'^2 \left( 1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \right) + \frac{2DV_{abs}}{c} \cos \theta D' - D^2 = 0$$

which is a quadratic equation of  $D'$ .

From the above equations, the apparent position ( distance  $D'$  and angle  $\alpha$  ) of the source relative to the co-moving observer O can be determined, from which the time interval (delay) between emission of light from the source and observation by co-moving observer can be determined.

If another observer A which is moving with velocity  $V$  relative to the source was at point A at the instant of light emission and is at point O at the instant that observer O detects the light, then observer A also will detect the light. **Given the position and velocity of observer A at the instant of emission, then the problem is to find a point O such that the time taken by observer A to reach point O is equal to the time delay of light for co-moving observer at point O.**

This means that the time taken by moving observer A to travel distance  $L$  is equal to the time interval between light emission from source S and light detection by co-moving observer O.

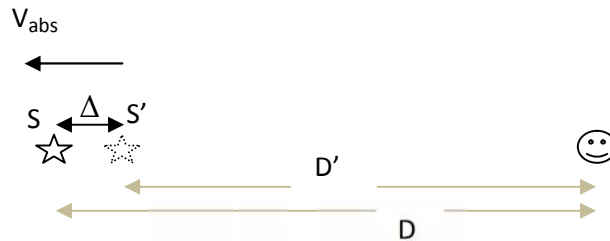
## Second procedure

**Why/how the velocity of light is independent of the velocity of the source.**

### Source in absolute motion and observer at absolute rest

Let us first consider the simple case in which only the source is in absolute motion, with the observer at absolute rest. The effect of absolute motion of a light source is to create an apparent change in the *past* position of the light source as seen by the observer at absolute rest.

Assume an observer that is at absolute rest and an absolutely moving source. The source was at distance  $D$  from the observer, *at the moment of emission*.



$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{D - D'}{V_{abs}}$$

$$\Rightarrow D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

$$\frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} = V_{abs} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

where  $V'$  is the velocity of the apparent source.

$$V' = V_{abs} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

for a light source absolutely moving away from an observer that is at absolute rest and

$$V' = V_{abs} \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

for a light source absolutely moving towards an observer that is at absolute rest.

Remember that the light pulse starts from  $S'$ , not from  $S$ , for the observer.

The above equations show the relationship between the velocity ( $V_{abs}$ ) of the real source and the velocity ( $V'$ ) of the apparent source.

From the above derivation, a new theory of light speed is:

*The (group) velocity of light is  $c$  relative to the apparent source.*

*The group velocity of light towards an observer will be*

$$c_0 = c + V' = c + V_{abs} \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} = \frac{c^2}{c - V_{abs}}$$

*relative to an observer that is at absolute rest, in the case of a light source moving with an absolute velocity  $V$  towards the observer. For a light source moving away with  $V_{abs}$  from an observer who is at absolute rest*

$$c_0 = c - V' = c - V_{abs} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} = \frac{c^2}{c + V_{abs}}$$

However, many experiments and observations did not detect any dependence of the speed of light on the speed of its source. These include: the Albert Michelson moving mirror experiment, the Q. Majorana moving mirror and moving source experiments, experiments using sun light and star light ( Tolman, Miller, ), experiments using elementary particles ( such as positron in annihilation in flight) moving with speeds comparable to the speed of light as sources of radiation. There is also the de Sitter's binary star argument.

Now we can see why no dependence of the velocity of light on the velocity of its source was ever detected and why this apparent velocity relative to the observer is only an artifact. For a light source moving away from an observer that is at absolute rest, the time delay between emission and detection of a light pulse will be:

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c - V'} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}}{c - \frac{V_{abs}c}{c + V_{abs}}} = \frac{D}{c}$$

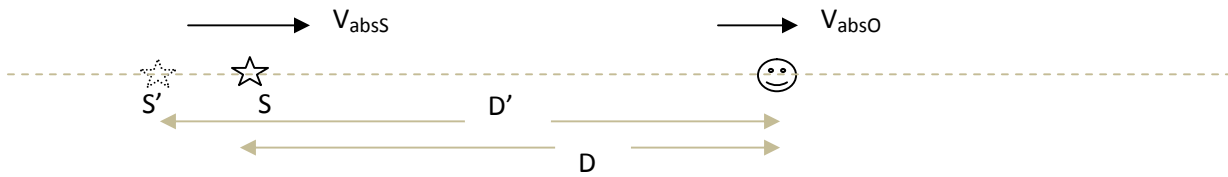
Although the source is moving away from the observer, it still takes the same amount of time for the light to be observed compared to the case of the source at rest relative to the observer.

The increase / decrease of the speed of light relative to the observer is compensated for exactly by the increase / decrease of the apparent distance where the light pulse was emitted, so that the time of flight is always independent of source velocity and will be equal to  $D / c$  . Therefore, for absolutely moving source and observer at rest, the apparent change in the speed of light is exactly compensated for by an apparent change in the past position of the light source.

### Both source and observer in absolute and relative motion

The procedure of analysis of any light speed experiment is as follows:

1. Determine the distance between the observer and the apparent source *at the instant of emission*
2. From the absolute velocities of the source and the observer, determine the velocity of the source relative to the observer, from which the velocity of the *apparent* source *relative* to the observer will be determined
3. Solve the problem by assuming that the speed of light is constant *relative to the apparent source*



From previous analyses

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}} = V \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}}$$

where  $V$  is the source observer relative velocity.

But

$$V = V_{absS} - V_{absO} \quad , \quad \text{for } V_{absS} > V_{absO}$$

The time delay  $\tau$  between emission and observation of light is:

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c + V'}$$

(the plus sign is because the source and observer are approaching each other)

Substituting the previous values for  $D'$ ,  $V'$  and  $V$ , i.e.

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}} \quad , \quad V' = V \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}} \quad , \quad V = V_{absS} - V_{absO}$$

we get

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c - V_{absO}}$$

We see that the (absolute) velocity of the source  $V_{absS}$  does not appear in the above equation.

We can determine the velocity ( $c_0$ ) of light relative to an observer as follows.

$$c_0 = c + V' = c + V \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}} = c + (V_{absS} - V_{absO}) \frac{c}{c - V_{absS}}$$

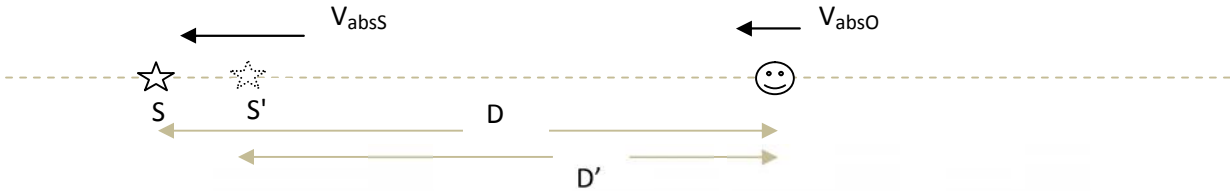
$$= c \frac{c - V_{absO}}{c - V_{absS}}$$

We see that this result is distinct from  $(c - V_{absO})$ , which is the velocity of light relative to the observer in ether theory, where  $V_{absO}$  is the velocity of the observer relative to the ether.

The general formula will be

$$c_0 = c \frac{c \pm V_{absO}}{c \pm V_{absS}}$$

Let us consider a case in which the observer's absolute velocity is directed towards the source and the source and observer are receding away from each other.



In this case,

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{absS}} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c + V_{absS}} = V \frac{c}{c + V_{absS}}$$

where  $V$  is the source observer relative velocity.

But

$$V = V_{absS} - V_{absO} \quad , \quad \text{for } V_{absS} > V_{absO}$$

The time delay  $\tau$  between emission and observation of light is:

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c - V'}$$

(the minus sign is because the source and observer are receding away from each other)

Substituting the previous values for  $D'$ ,  $V'$  and  $V$ ,

i.e.

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{absS}} \quad , \quad V' = V \frac{c}{c + V_{absS}} \quad , \quad V = V_{absS} - V_{absO}$$

we get

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c + V_{absO}}$$

The above analysis can be applied to any combination of magnitude and direction of source and observer absolute velocities, with the source and observer moving *directly* (radially) towards each other or receding directly away from each other, with no transverse component of their relative velocity.

In general,

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c \pm V_{absO}}$$

We see that the (absolute) velocity of the source,  $V_{absS}$ , does not appear in the above equation.

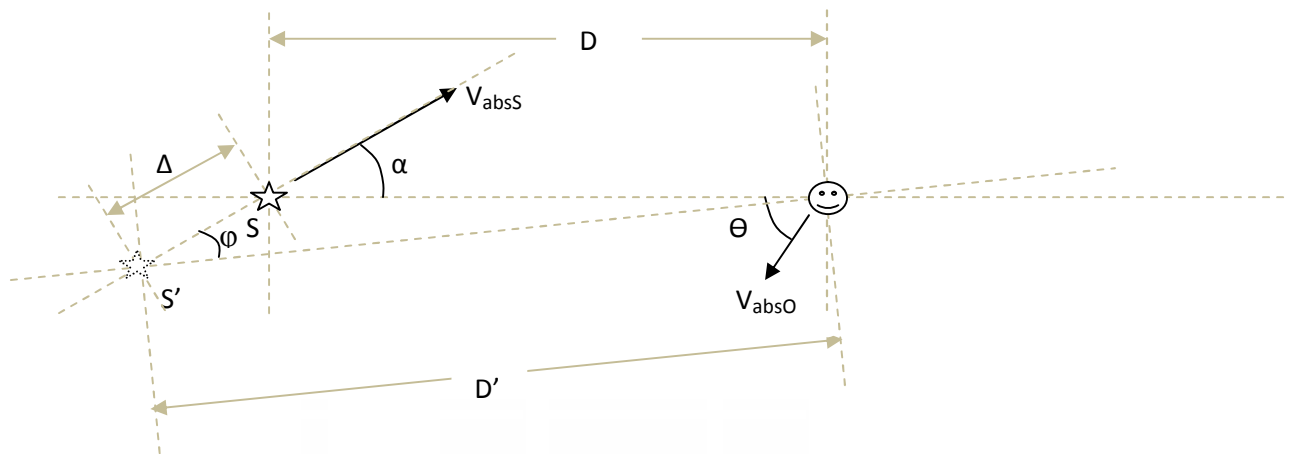
From the above equation we see that the velocity of light as determined experimentally ( $D/\tau$ ) is

$$\frac{D}{\tau} = c \pm V_{absO}$$

The measured speed of light is independent of the absolute velocity of the source  $V_{absS}$ , which is in agreement with experiments and observations. The velocity of light, however, depends on the absolute velocity of the observer  $V_{absO}$ .

**Transverse relative motion between source and observer**

In the preceding section, the source observer relative velocity was assumed to have no transverse component. The following figure shows both radial and transverse relative velocity components.



$$(\Delta \cos\alpha + D)^2 + (\Delta \sin\alpha)^2 = D'^2 \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{V_{absS}} = \frac{D'}{c} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$V = V_{absS} \cos\alpha + V_{absO} \cos\theta \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

where  $V$  is the source observer relative velocity.

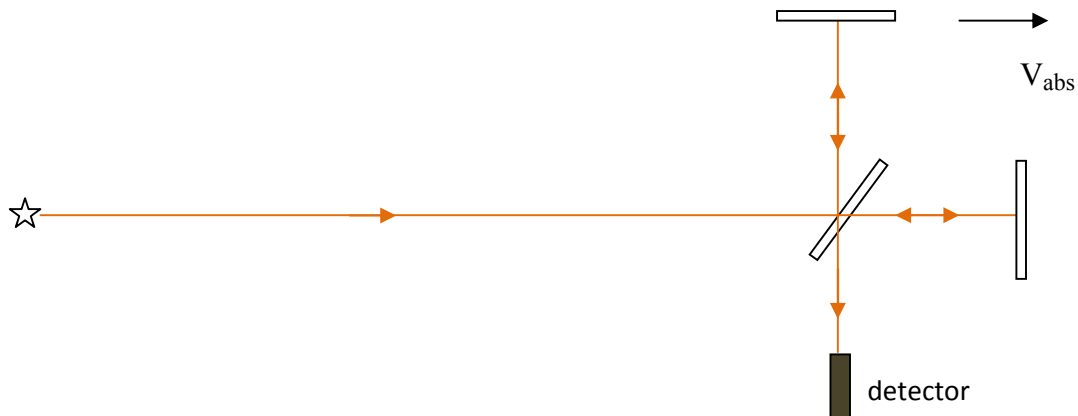
Determine  $D'$  and  $\Delta$  from the first two equations. From the equation for the expression of  $D'$  in terms of  $D$ , determine the expression for  $V'$  in terms of  $V$  (by differentiating both sides).  $V$  will have radial and transverse components. Then determine the time delay between emission and observation as:

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c + V'_r}$$

, where  $V'_r$  is the radial velocity component of the apparent source.

### Michelson-Morley thought experiment

Suppose that the light source in the Michelson-Morley interferometer is at absolute rest, but the mirrors and the detector are in absolute motion, as shown below.



Will there be a fringe shift? According to the AST procedure, since the light source is at absolute rest, its apparent position is the same as its real position. Once the real source is replaced by an apparent source, we simply apply modified emission theory, which states that phase velocity is always constant, irrespective of source observer relative or absolute motion, but the group velocity is variable in the conventional way, i.e.  $c \pm V_{abs}$ . Therefore, according to conventional emission theory, we can simply assume the mirrors and the detector to be at rest, with the source in motion. We know that no fringe shift is expected due to motion of the source. The time (phase) delay of both the longitudinal and transverse light beams is equal. Only Doppler shift is observed. Note that ether theory predicts a fringe shift for this thought experiment. The same result is obtained in the reference frame of the source, according to emission theory.

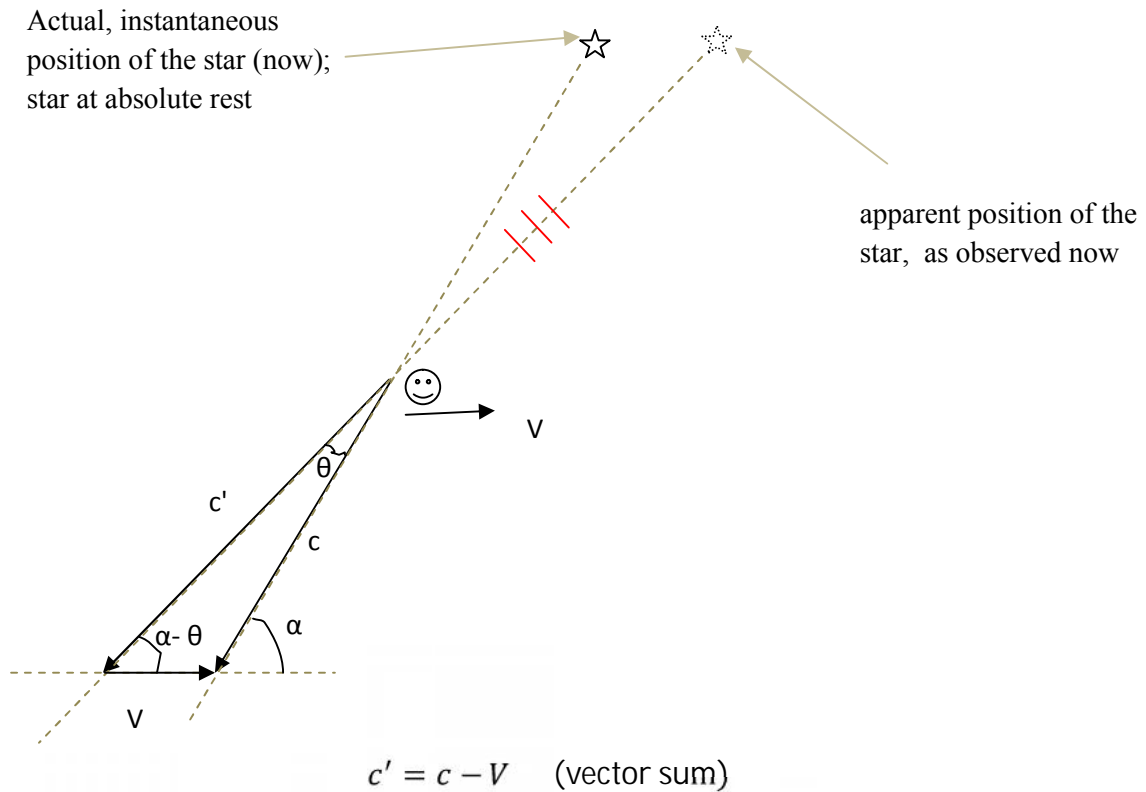
## Stellar aberration

In reality, the phenomenon of stellar aberration, as observed from the earth, involves the absolute and relative velocities of both the star and the earth. We are certain that the earth is in absolute motion ( 390 Km/s), but the stars are also most probably in absolute motion.

In this section, however, we analyze the phenomenon of stellar aberration by assuming two simple cases:

- star in absolute motion and observer at absolute rest
- star at absolute rest and observer in absolute motion

### Star at absolute rest and observer in absolute motion



$$\frac{\sin\theta}{V} = \frac{\sin(180 - \alpha)}{c'} = \frac{\sin(\alpha - \theta)}{c} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin\theta \approx \theta \quad (\text{for small angle } )$$

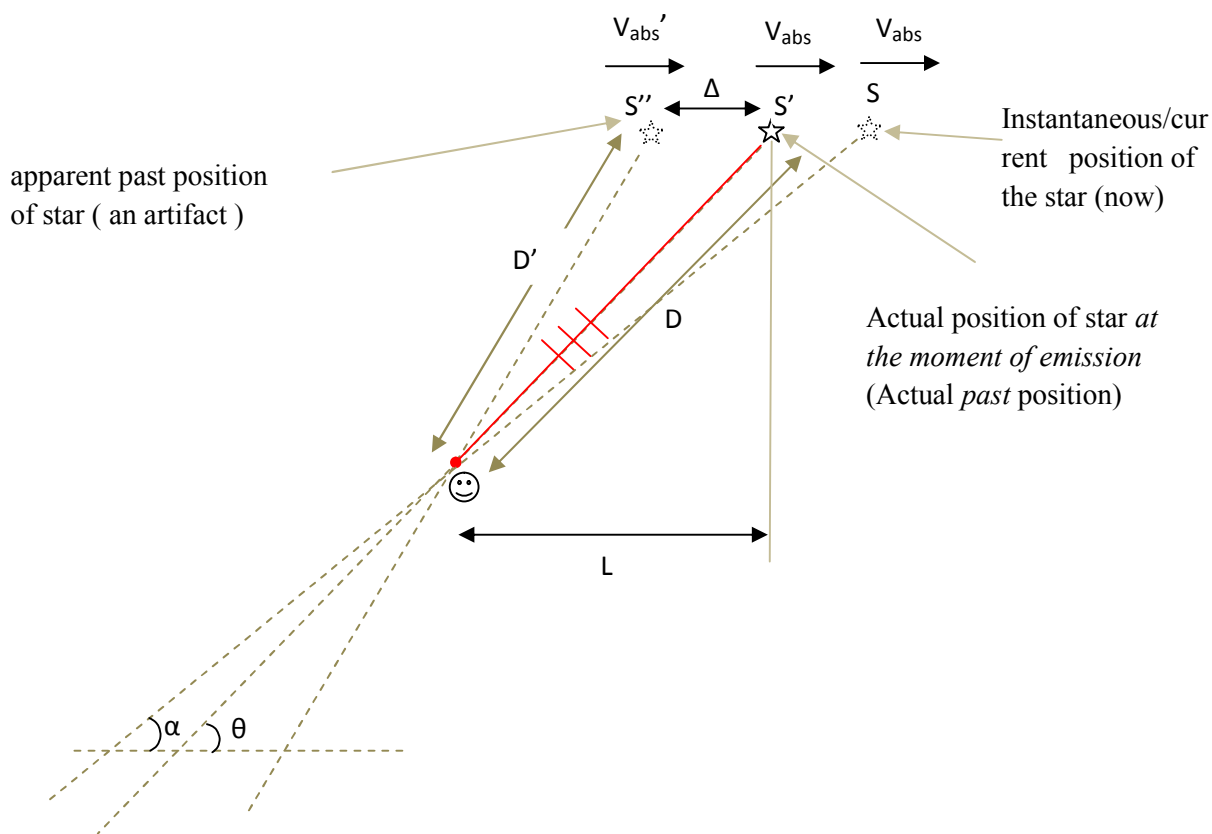
$$\frac{\sin\theta}{V} \approx \frac{\theta}{V} \approx \frac{\sin\alpha}{c} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta = \frac{V}{c} \sin\alpha$$

This is the kind of aberration known as Bradley aberration. In this case, aberration is due to the



difference between the actual (instantaneous) and apparent position of the star, caused by the motion of the observer. In this case star light aberration is an apparent change of *current* (instantaneous) position of the star. Conventionally, this is considered to be just an illusion, like a man running in rain with rain drops appearing to fall in slant path. However, there is a strange phenomenon for light that the wave fronts arrive from the direction of the apparent source, as will be discussed later.

Star in absolute motion and observer at absolute rest



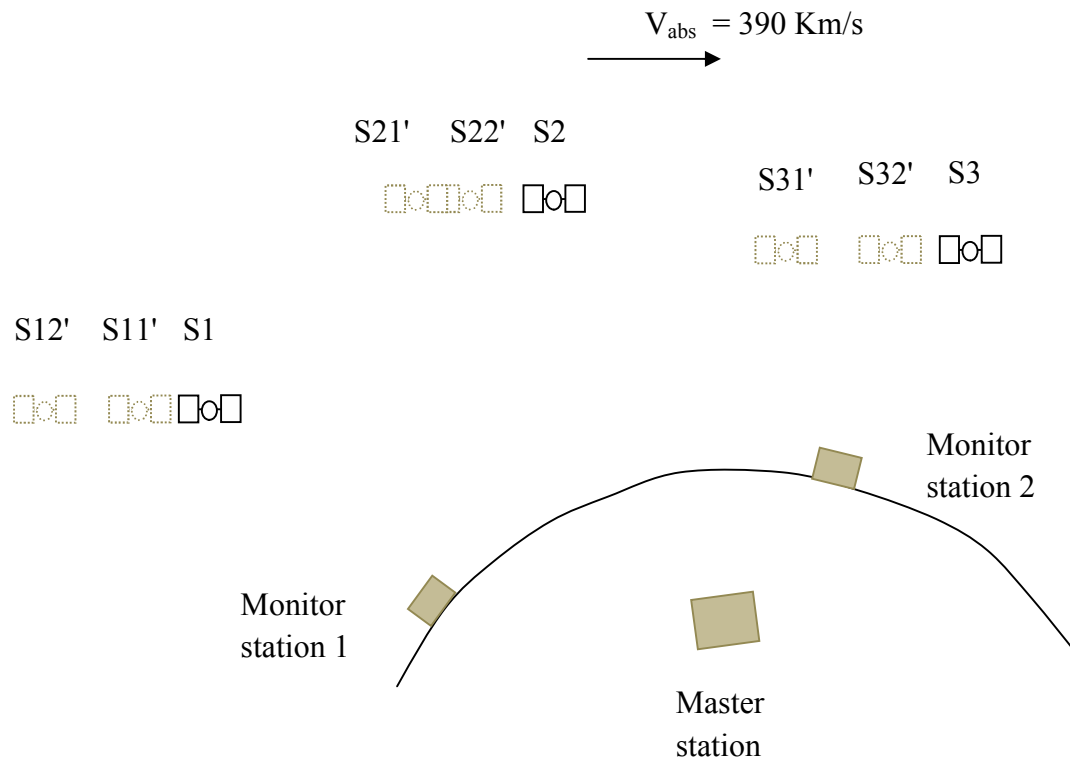
The star emitted light from point  $S'$ . Light arrives at the observer after a time delay of  $D/c$ , and not  $D'/c$ .  $S''$ , an apparent past position of the star, is only an artifact because the apparent change in the past position of the star is exactly compensated for by an apparent change in velocity of light relative to the observer, because the speed of light is constant  $c$  relative to the apparent source  $S''$ . The time it takes light to arrive at the observer is just equal to  $D/c$ , and not  $D'/c$ , proving that the speed of light is independent of source velocity. Therefore, for the stationary observer, light comes in straight line from the point where it was emitted, from  $S'$ .

## The Global Positioning System

The Global Positioning System (GPS) is a physical system which provides an opportunity to observe the real behavior of the speed of light. However, the reality is that the GPS only added another problem to the already confusing light speed puzzle. The Silvertooth, Marinov and CMBR experiments already confirmed our absolute motion through space. But the GPS appears to hold correct (only?) in the ECI ( Earth-Centered Inertial) frame, as if there was an ether entrained by the Earth and moving with it, but not rotating with it. However, the GPS was meant to be a practically useful system and was not meant to be an experiment to test the speed of light. In the GPS, Einstein's light postulate is applied.

Why is Earth's absolute velocity of about 390 Km/s (apparently) not detected by the GPS? Or has any one investigated into this ? Since the notion of absolute motion has been abandoned due to null results of Michelson-Morley experiments, perhaps there has been no motivation for this. I made some search for any paper that analyzes the GPS system with the assumption of absolute ( non-entrained) ether, to see the magnitude and pattern of error introduced in position measurement, but I couldn't find any. Since Apparent Source Theory and ether theory can give similar results in some experiments, such an analyses or experiments would have been helpful. I think of the possibility that the error in position measurement by a GPS receiver due to Earth's absolute motion may have been somehow masked by the way the GPS works.

Let us see how Apparent Source Theory applies to GPS.



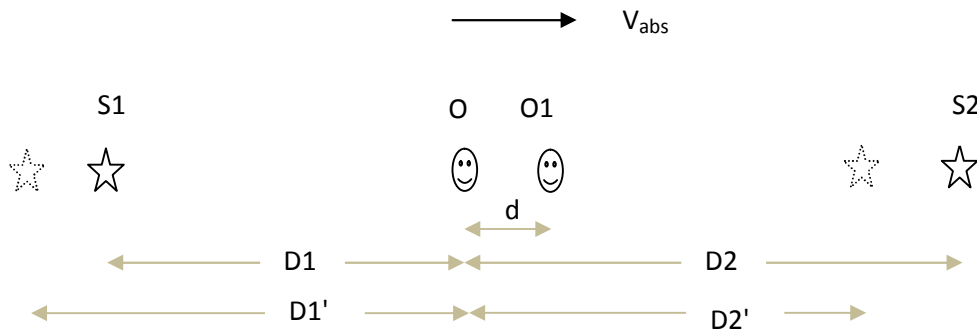
The control stations monitor the satellites from the signals they transmit and send the information to the master station, where the orbit and clock performance of each satellite is computed. These data are then uploaded to each satellite.

According to Apparent Source Theory, the monitoring stations measure the apparent position and not the real /physical position of each satellite. Note that the apparent position of each satellite is different as seen from each monitoring station.

The effect is that the actual/physical and apparent orbit of each satellite will be different. This may not have been a problem. The problem is even more complicated because the same apparent orbit does not apply for GPS receivers at different locations on Earth. Further complication comes from the fact that the ground stations transmitting data to satellites appear to be at their apparent positions ( not shown in the figure) from the perspective of each Satellite. The transmission of data from the monitoring stations to the master station is also affected by Earth's absolute motion.

I am not going to make a quantitative analysis in this paper. But an important question is : how does all this show up in position measurement by a GPS receiver ? Suppose that a GPS receiver is fixed at some location on Earth. Will there be any periodic variation in the measured position of the GPS receiver, due to combined effect of Earth's absolute motion ( 390 Km/s) and Earth's diurnal rotation ? I think that this has not been observed because the Satellite orbit data is updated every few hours or because the effect may be very small.

Let us consider a simple example below, the observers and sources co-moving absolutely.



S1 and S2 are satellites, O represents control and monitoring station, O1 represents a GPS receiver. We assume that all clocks are perfectly synchronized, there is no relative motion between the satellites, the control and monitoring station and the GPS receiver, for simplicity. Our aim is to find the order of magnitude of error in position measurements caused by Earth's absolute motion ( 390 Km/s ).

The control and monitoring station measures the distances of the satellites to be D1' and D2' , not

D1 and D2, which are the physical positions of the satellites, according to AST. Note that we assumed that the control and monitoring station measures the distance of the satellites from the signals they transmit.

$$D1' = D1 \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

$$D2' = D2 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The travel times of signals from the satellites to the control and monitoring station are:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D1'}{c} = \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}}$$

$$t_{d2} = \frac{D2'}{c} = \frac{D2}{c + V_{abs}}$$

A GPS receiver just at the control and monitoring station measures the difference in time of arrival of the signals from the two satellites to be:

$$t_0 = t_{d1} - t_{d2} = \frac{D1}{c - V_{abs}} - \frac{D2}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Let  $D1 = D2 = D$ , for simplicity

$$t_0 = t_{d1} - t_{d2} = \frac{D}{c - V_{abs}} - \frac{D}{c + V_{abs}} = 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}$$

But for a GPS receiver at distance  $d$  from the control and monitoring station, the time delays of the signals of the two satellites will be:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D + d}{c - V_{abs}}$$

$$t_{d2} = \frac{D - d}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The difference in arrival times of the satellite signals at position O1, according to Apparent Source theory, will be

$$t_1 = t_{d1} - t_{d2} = \frac{D + d}{c - V_{abs}} - \frac{D - d}{c + V_{abs}} = 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} + 2d \frac{c}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}$$

But the GPS receiver determines its position as follows, by assuming that the satellites are at distance  $(D1' + d)$  and  $(D2' - d)$ , where  $\Delta t'$  is the difference in time of arrival of the two signals.

$$t_1' = \frac{D1' + d}{c} - \frac{D2' - d}{c} = 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} + \frac{2d}{c}$$

If the GPS receiver used the equation based on AST,

$$t_1 = 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} + \frac{2d}{c}$$

$$\Rightarrow d = \left( \Delta t_1 - 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} \right) \frac{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}{2c}$$

The GPS receiver actually uses the equation,

$$\Delta t_1' = 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} + \frac{2d}{c}$$

$$\Rightarrow d = \left( \Delta t_1' - 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} \right) \frac{c}{2}$$

The discrepancy ( $\varepsilon_d$ ) between the distance  $d$  of the GPS receiver from the control and monitoring station, by using the above two equations can be estimated.

$$\varepsilon_d = \left( \Delta t_1 - 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} \right) \left( \frac{c}{2} - \frac{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}{2c} \right) = \left( \Delta t_1 - 2D \frac{V_{abs}}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} \right) \frac{V_{abs}^2}{2c}$$

Assume the measured difference in arrival times ( $\Delta t_1$  or  $\Delta t_1'$ ) of the two satellite signals to be 10ms,  $V_{abs} = 390 \text{ Km/s}$ ,  $D \approx 20000 \text{ Km}$ ,  $c = 300000 \text{ Km/s}$ .

$$\varepsilon_d \approx 10\text{ms} \frac{390^2}{600000} = 0.002535 \text{ Km} \approx 2.5 \text{ m}$$

We see that absolute motion of the Solar System essentially affects GPS position measurement but the effect is very small: it is almost 'invisible' in GPS measurements. That may be why the ECI frame appears to apply accurately to GPS and why the speed of light appears to be constant in the ECI frame. Note that the value of  $\varepsilon_d$  does not mean error in position measurement of actual GPS; it is meant to show that current GPS performance might be achieved even with the Earth in absolute motion (390 Km/s). Note also that we have only shown that the *difference* between arrival times, not the absolute times, of satellite signals at the GPS receiver is almost not sensitive to Earth's absolute motion in space.

Application of Apparent Source Theory to GPS can improve its accuracy.

## 4. Moving mirror and moving observer experiments

### 4.1. Q. Majorana and Albert Michelson moving mirror experiments

Even though the Bryan G. Wallace experiment is also a case of moving mirror, only group velocity is relevant in its analysis, since it is a time-of-flight experiment. It was readily understood using the AST theory.

The Albert Michelson and Q. Majorana moving mirror experiments, however, used interference method, so their analysis will also involve phase velocity.

From analysis of Bryan G. Wallace experiment, we concluded that a moving mirror will alter the *group* velocity of light. But the *phase* velocity is always constant, irrespective of source, observer or mirror velocity, as will be discussed later on.

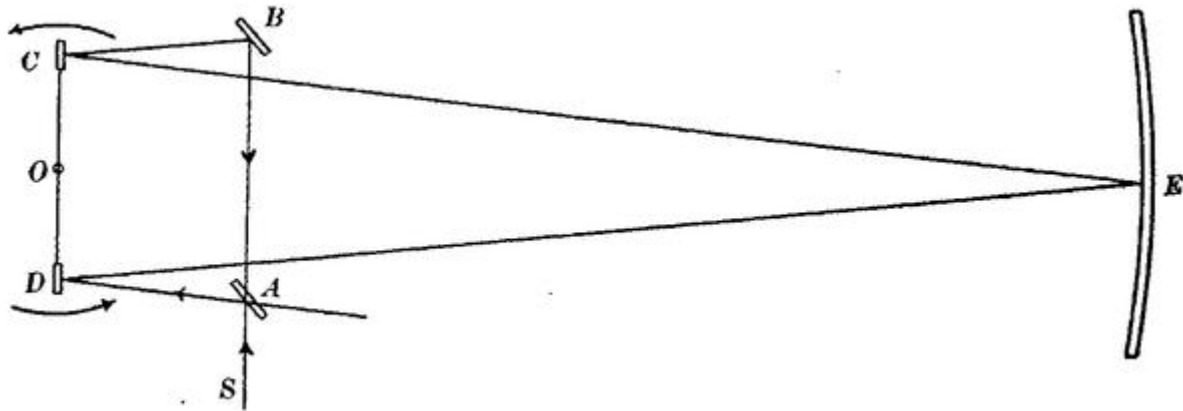
1. In absolute space, the group velocity of light is independent of source absolute velocity, but depends on observer absolute velocity. In Galilean space the group velocity varies with both source, observer (relative) velocity. For a light source that is at absolute rest, the group velocity of light varies with observer velocity, whereas the phase velocity is constant  $c$  independent of observer velocity. For a light source that is in absolute motion and an observer that is at absolute rest, both the group velocity and phase velocity are independent of source velocity.

2. The group velocity of light depends on mirror relative velocity

In principle, to account for the Earth's absolute velocity, we first replace the actual light source with an apparent source, as seen from the detector's position. We then analyze the experiment by assuming Galilean space and (modified) emission theory. Modified emission theory is one in which the phase velocity is constant  $c$  independent of source observer relative velocity, whereas the group velocity depends both on the source and observer velocity, in a conventional way, in Galilean space. To simplify the discussion, however, we ignore the absolute velocity of the Earth and just assume Galilean space and modified emission theory.

### 4.2. Albert Michelson moving mirror experiment

The A. Michelson moving mirror experiment was done to investigate the effect of mirror velocity on the velocity of light, by looking for a fringe shift due to a possible difference in the velocities, and arrival times, of the two light beams.



Assuming Galilean space, for simplicity of discussion, the group velocity of the two light beams will be different because group velocity depends on mirror velocity, according to AST. We have already concluded that the group velocity will depend on the mirror velocity. In this case it may seem that, given sufficiently large mirror velocity, the faster beam will arrive earlier than the slower beam in such a way that they may not even overlap in time to create an interference pattern. This is not the case however.

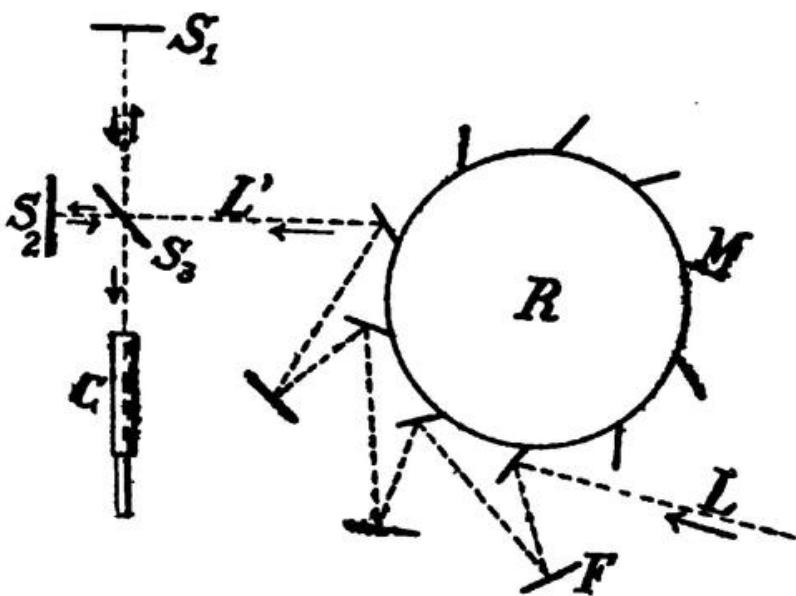
My work on quantum mechanics [9,10] has helped me to understand this experiment better. As we know, the interference pattern is due to self interference of a photon. A photon is emitted from the source and will take only one of the two paths, and never both paths simultaneously. Yet an interference pattern is observed. This is a well known phenomenon of quantum mechanics. A new interpretation has been provided in the paper [9,10].

Therefore, the difference in group velocities of the two light beams will have no effect on the interference pattern. If the photon takes the path of faster velocity ( path ADECBA) it will only arrive slightly earlier than if it took the other path and this will have no effect on the interference pattern. My previous paper [9,10] provides a very intuitive way of understanding quantum phenomena. But the *phase* velocity of the two light beams is always constant  $c$  and hence equal, so the velocity of the mirrors will not affect the phase velocity. The amount of fringe displacement measured in the experiment agrees with this explanation. The fringe shift is only due to a slight difference in path length of the two beams, caused by velocity of the mirrors and finite transit time of light. Michelson only disproved the conventional emission theory in which both phase velocity and group velocity depend on source and mirror velocity. He did not make the distinction that phase velocity is constant while group velocity varies with mirror velocity. Normally, he would also think that a photon takes both paths simultaneously, as in classical waves. By default, Michelson wrongly interpreted the result of the experiment that the group velocity also is not affected by the mirror velocity, which is also the mainstream thought today. The quantum interpretation applies also to the Michelson-Morley experiment: *the photon takes only one of the two possible paths to the detector: the path of one or the other mirror, not both.*

### 4.3. Q. Majorana moving mirror experiment

According to conventional emission theory, the wavelength of light does not change with source, observer or mirror velocity; it is 'rigid'. The Q. Majorana experiment tested this hypothesis and disproved it. The emission theory was a straight forward explanation for the Michelson-Morley experiment.

As already stated, the group velocity of light depends on the mirror velocity according to the ballistic hypothesis. The phase velocity is always constant  $c$  independent of source, observer or mirror velocity. Hence, for the phase velocity to be constant, the wavelength should change and this was what was proved by this experiment.



Q. Majorana also did not make the distinction on phase velocity and group velocity, as proposed in this paper, i.e. constant phase velocity and variable group velocity.

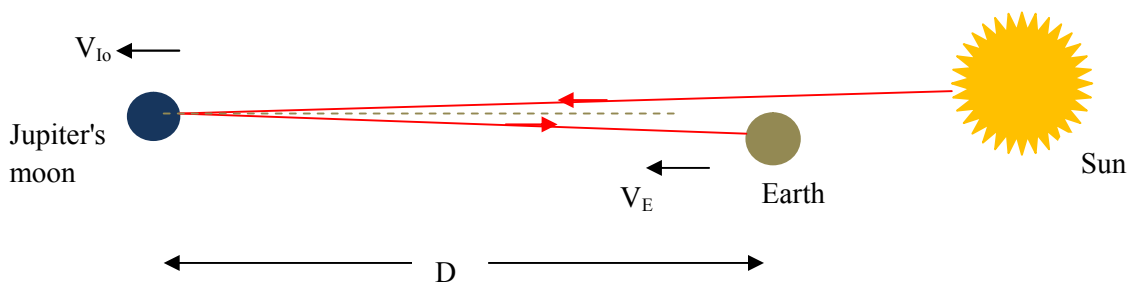
### 4.4. Ole Roamer's experiment

Roamer observed that the eclipse time of Jupiter's moon Io is 22 minutes longer when the Earth was moving away from Jupiter than when it was moving towards Jupiter. From this observation, the speed of light was determined, for the first time. Before that time the order of the speed of light was unknown, and was even thought to be infinite.

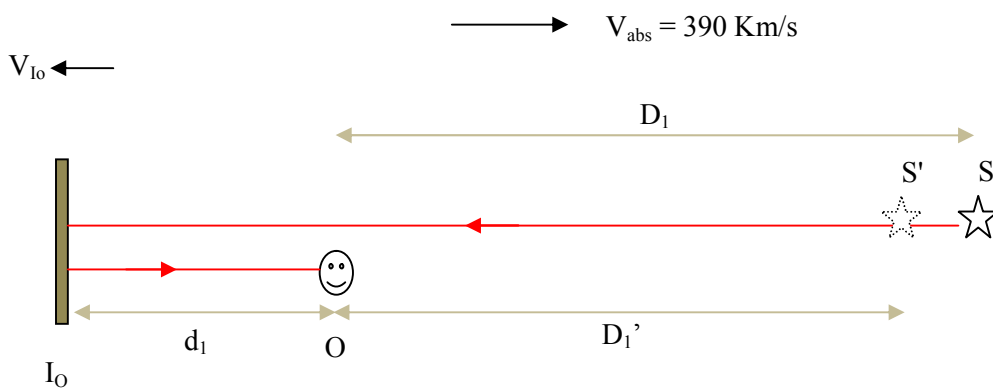
The Roamer experiment is one of the decisive experiments that led me to the conclusion that the (group) velocity of light is variable, for a moving observer, and to abandon Einstein's light postulate as it is. We have already established that the group velocity of light is independent of source absolute velocity, but varies with observer absolute velocity. Group velocity also varies



with the velocity of mirror. One objection to this theory is that the Albert Michelson moving mirror experiment, which apparently confirmed that the velocity of light does not depend on the velocity of mirror. But what was measured in the Michelson moving mirror experiment was a fringe shift. The Michelson experiment only confirmed that the *phase* velocity of light is independent of mirror velocity. The *group* velocity of light varies with mirror velocity and with observer velocity. Both group velocity and phase velocity are independent of source velocity. We have already discussed the explanation of the A. Michelson moving mirror experiment.



Suppose O is an observer co-moving with the source S ( the Sun ).



We can analyze the experiment by using two procedures.

### Procedure I

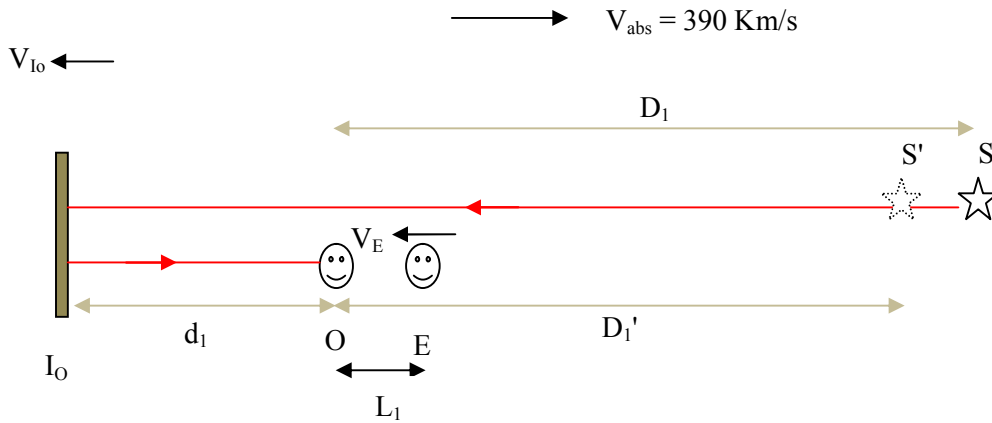
According to this procedure, given the initial position and motion ( velocity and acceleration) of the Earth (E) at the instant of light emission from the source S ( the Sun ), the problem is to find the position of a co-moving observer O who is just observing the light at the instant that observer E is passing through point O.

$$D_1' = D_1 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Light emitted by the source S ( the Sun ) and reflected by I<sub>O</sub> is detected by a co-moving observer O after a time delay of:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D_1' + d_1}{c} + \frac{d_1}{c - 2V_{IO}}$$

Now suppose that the moving observer E ( the Earth ) is at the distance L<sub>1</sub> from the co-moving observer and moving with velocity V<sub>E</sub> in the Sun's reference frame.



Suppose that the Sun emits light at  $t = 0$  when the Earth is at the position shown. During the time interval  $t_{d1}$  that the light arrives at the co-moving observer O after reflection from I<sub>O</sub>, the moving observer E will also move from point E to point O.

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D_1' + d_1}{c} + \frac{d_1}{c - 2V_{IO}} = \frac{L_1}{V_E}$$

The problem is to determine the time ( $t_{d1}$ ) and location ( $d_1$ ) where observer E meets the light emitted from S, after reflection from I<sub>O</sub>, given the distance ( $D_1 + d_1$ ) between S and I<sub>O</sub>, the distance ( $d_1 + L_1$ ) between the observer E (the Earth) and I<sub>O</sub> and the velocity  $V_E$ .

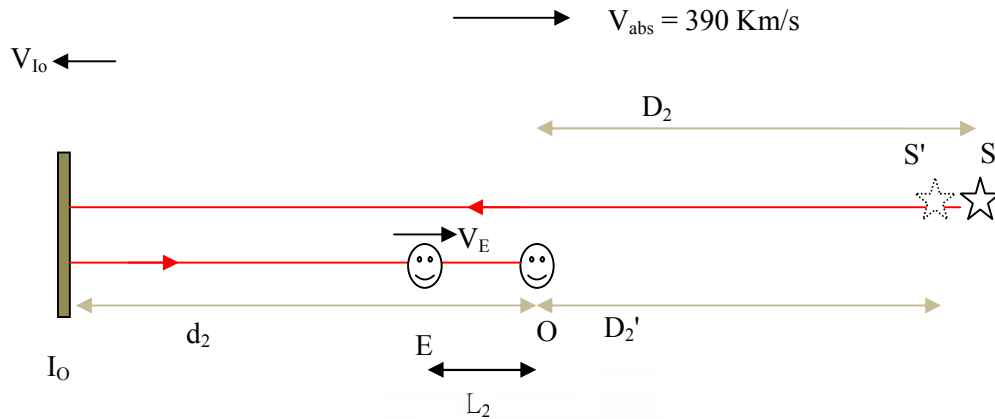
$$t_{d1} = \frac{D_1 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} + d_1}{c} + \frac{d_1}{c - 2V_{IO}} = \frac{L_1}{V_E}$$

$$d_1 + L_1 = M$$

$$d_1 + D_1 = N$$

With three equations and three variables (  $D_1, d_1, L_1$  ) we can determine the time delay  $t_{d1}$  and the distance  $d_1$  where the moving observer observes the light.

The procedure is repeated with the observer E ( the Earth ) moving in the opposite direction. The initial distance (  $D_2 + d_2$  ) between S and  $I_0$  and the initial distance (  $d_2 - L_2$  ) between E and  $I_0$  is the same as above.



$$D_2' = D_2 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Suppose again that the source emits light at  $t = 0$  , while E is at the position shown ( the same initial position as the first case ). A co-moving observer O detects the light, after reflection from  $I_0$  , after a time delay of:

$$t_{d2} = \frac{D_2' + d_2}{c} + \frac{d_2}{c - 2V_{I0}} = \frac{L_2}{V_E}$$

$$\Rightarrow t_{d2} = \frac{D_2 \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} + d_2}{c} + \frac{d_2}{c - 2V_{I0}} = \frac{L_2}{V_E}$$

But

$$d_2 - L_2 = M$$

$$d_2 + D_2 = N$$

With three equations and three variables (  $D_2, d_2, L_2$  ) we can determine the time delay  $t_{d2}$  and the distance  $d_2$  where the moving observer observes the light.

Since  $t_{d2} - t_{d1}$ , which is 22 minutes, can be expressed in terms of the speed of light ( $c$ ), the speed of light can be determined from the above equations.

The experiment can also be analyzed by replacing the real source (the Sun) with an apparent source and then by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source and depends on mirror velocity according to (modified) emission theory in which the phase velocity of light is always constant but the group velocity is independent of source absolute velocity, but depends on observer absolute velocity and on mirror relative velocity.

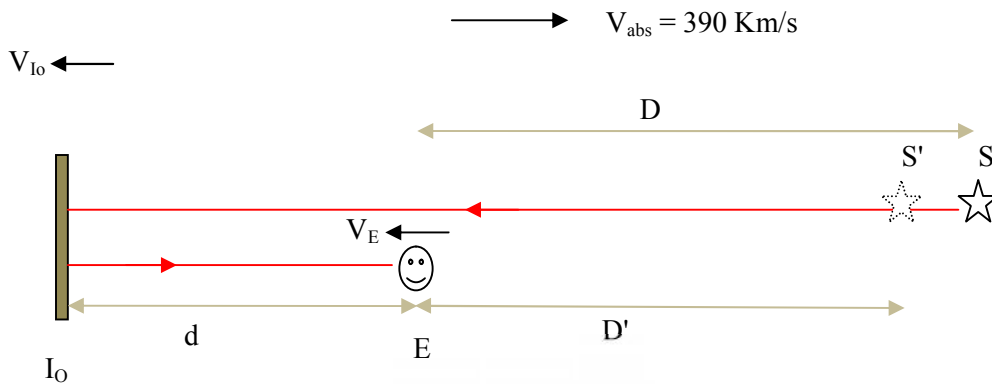
### Procedure II

Suppose that the Earth observer ( $E$ ) is at a distance of  $d_1$  from  $I_0$  at the instant of light emission and is moving with velocity  $V_E$  towards  $I_0$ .

The second procedure is:

1. Determine the apparent position of the source and the apparent velocity of the source relative to the observer
2. Analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source

### The Earth moving towards $I_0$



$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The velocity of the apparent source relative to the observer is determined as:

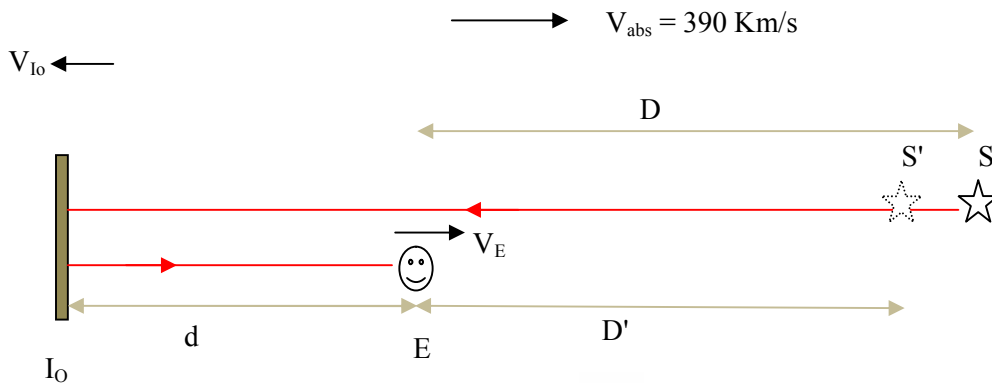
$$\frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} = V_E \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Therefore, the time delay of light for observer E is:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D' + d}{c - V'} + \frac{d}{c - V' - V_{I0}}$$

where  $d$  is the distance between  $E$  and  $I_0$  at the instant of light reflection from  $I_0$ .

The Earth moving away from  $I_0$



$$D' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The velocity of the apparent source relative to the observer is determined as:

$$\frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} = -V_E \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

Therefore, the time delay of light for observer  $E$  is:

$$t_{d1} = \frac{D' + d}{c + V'} + \frac{d}{c + V' - V_{I0}}$$

where  $d$  is the distance between  $E$  and  $I_0$  at the instant of light reflection from  $I_0$ .

## 5. Light speed measurement experiments: A. Michelson rotating mirror experiment

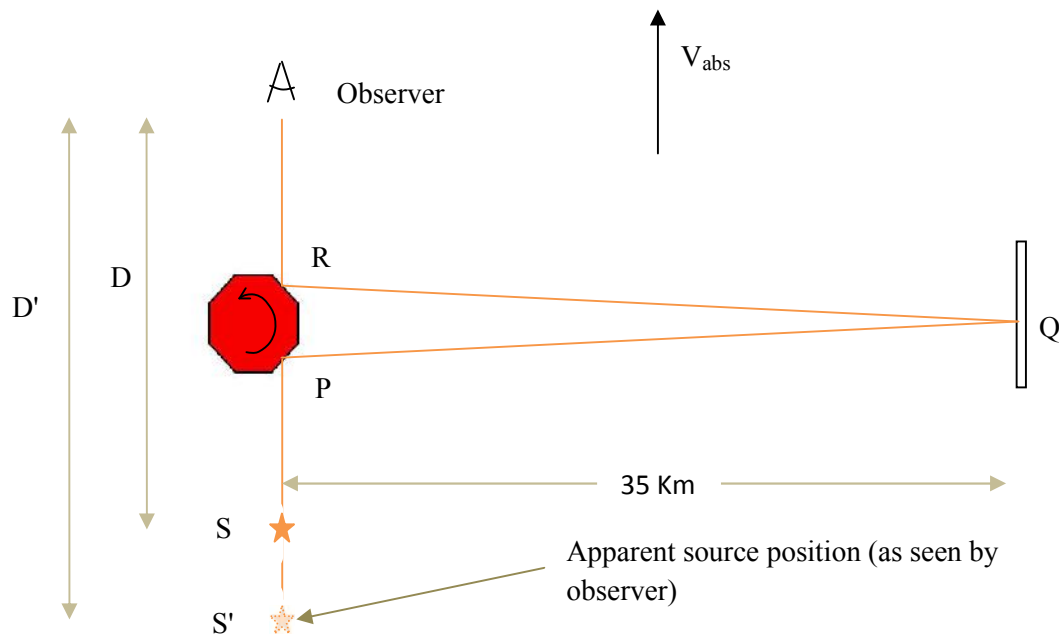
The speed of light has been measured with increasing accuracy by Ole Romer, Bradely, Fizeau, Foucault and Albert Michelson, from observation of astronomical phenomena and by terrestrial experiments. Modern experiments use optical cavity resonators, microwave interferometer and laser methods. The currently accepted value is  $2.99792458 \times 10^8$  m/s.

Apparently, no variation in the speed of light has ever been detected with different orientations of the measuring apparatus relative to the orbital velocity of the earth.

Let us consider the Albert Michelson rotating mirror experiment.

As discussed so far, the source apparently shifts relative to the observer due to absolute velocity of the Earth (about 390 Km/s). We will see that this apparent shift of the position of the source relative to the observer does not affect the result of the experiment. The time taken by the light beam to move from the rotating mirror to the distant mirror and back to the rotating mirror, as 'seen' by the observer, is not affected by the absolute velocity of the Earth. What is affected by absolute velocity of the Earth is the total time taken for the light beam to go from the source to the observer. One may think of this as actually, physically changing the distance between the source and the observer (change distance of source from rotating mirror), which will not change the result of the experiment, obviously: the measured speed of light.

The same applies to optical cavity resonators and microwave and laser interferometer methods. The change in path length of the wave from source to detector due to absolute motion does not affect the result of such experiments. The *apparent* change of the position of the microwave source does not affect the frequency of a resonant cavity, just as *actually* changing the position of the source does not, in principle, affect the experiment. The frequency and the wavelength of light emitted by a source is not affected by an apparent or actual change of the position of the source.



$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}}$$

To clarify this interpretation, assume that sensors are put at points P, Q and R. Points P and R are points in space where the light is reflected from the rotating mirror, point Q is point on the distant mirror where the light is reflected. If a short light pulse is emitted by the source at time  $t = 0$ , then the light will be detected at points P, Q, and R, at times  $t_P$ ,  $t_Q$  and  $t_R$ , respectively.

The distinction in the AST theory is as follows. The time it takes light pulse to go from the rotating mirror to the distant mirror (from point P to point Q),  $t_Q - t_P$ , and the time for the pulse to go from the distant mirror back to the rotating mirror (from point Q to point R),  $t_R - t_Q$ , will *actually* vary with the absolute velocity, as actually recorded by the sensors. The distinction in the AST theory is that this variation is not relevant to the observer, to predict the result of his experiment. The observer simply accounts for the absolute velocity by replacing the real source with the apparent source and analyze the experiment by assuming Galilean space and (modified) emission (ballistic) theory. Shifting the source from position S to position S' would not obviously affect the time from the rotating mirror to the distant mirror and the time from the distant mirror back to the rotating mirror, and the round trip time, from the perspective of the observer. Note that the observer is not actually measuring these times. He makes observations and measurements only at his own position.

But this difference is not important for the observer. The observer simply replaces the real source with the apparent source and analyze the experiment as if the whole system is at absolute rest or as if space is Galilean. Obviously, even real (physical) change of the light source does not affect the forward and backward flight times of the light pulse (assume absolute rest or Galilean space, for simplicity). Thus, for the observer, the forward and backward flight times are unaffected by absolute motion, as compared with a system ( the source, the mirrors, the observer) at absolute rest.

Even though the two times are different, they are affected by absolute motion in such a way that their sum (the round trip time) is unaffected and will be the same as compared with a similar system that is at absolute rest or in Galilean space.

A different method was used by Rosa and Dorsey to measure the speed of light in 1907 .They measured vacuum permittivity  $\epsilon_0$  and vacuum permeability  $\mu_0$  from which the speed of light can be computed from the equation  $c^2 = 1 / \epsilon_0 \mu_0$ . The result obtained was within 0.00005 % of the currently accepted value. This is an important experiment that shows that vacuum permittivity and vacuum permeability, and hence the vacuum *phase* velocity of light relative to any observer, are not affected by absolute motion. This can be another experimental evidence confirming Einstein's light postulate (for phase velocity).

## 6. Constant phase velocity and variable group velocity of light

### Constant *phase* velocity of light

Einstein's beautiful thought experiment, 'chasing a beam of light', is very compelling and is in fact the main argument for Special Relativity. If the ether doesn't exist, as confirmed by the Michelson-Morley experiment, then Einstein is right in asserting that the velocity of light is independent of observer velocity. By 'velocity of light', we mean *phase* velocity and not *group* velocity. However, Einstein never made this distinction and this led him to the wrong theory of Special Relativity, length contraction, time-dilation speculations. Emission theory was also shown to be wrong conceptually and by experiments. One of the conceptual arguments against conventional emission theory is that it implies 'frozen' light[18], which is untenable. The above considerations are compelling to postulate the constancy of *phase* velocity of light, independent of source or observer relative or absolute velocities, even though no direct experimental evidence seems to exist. However, the fast ion beam experiment may be a direct evidence.

In an attempt to understand Einstein's light postulate, I developed a theory [6] in which the wave gets compressed or expanded as a result of source observer relative motion, the wavelength depending on source observer relative velocity. This is unlike all conventional knowledge. To my knowledge, no one ever considered such a possibility, i.e. changing of wavelength with observer velocity. According to ether theory, emission theory and Special Relativity ? , the wavelength of light does not depend on observer velocity.

The wavelength of light varies with observer velocity, according to Exponential Law of Doppler effect of light [8]. *The phase velocity of light is always constant c relative to an observer, irrespective of source and observer relative or absolute motion, for constant velocity and during acceleration.*

The Exponential Law of Light theory [8] is considered to be the correct expression for the compression and expansion of the light wave resulting from source observer relative motion.

According to the theory of Exponential Law of Light, the expression for the Doppler wavelength and frequency shift is:

$$\lambda' = \lambda e^{v/c}$$

, for source and observer receding away from each other

$$f' = f e^{-v/c}$$

, for source and observer receding away from each other

Thus,

$$\lambda' f' = \lambda e^{v/c} f e^{-v/c} = \lambda f = c$$



We see that the (phase) velocity of light is independent of source observer relative velocity. Obviously, this is different from classical, conventional thinking. For sound waves, only source velocity creates change in wavelength. Observer velocity doesn't change the wavelength of sound, but only the frequency. In the case of light, both the frequency and wavelength of light change [6] due to source observer-source relative velocity, and the Doppler effect is governed by the Exponential Law of Light [8].

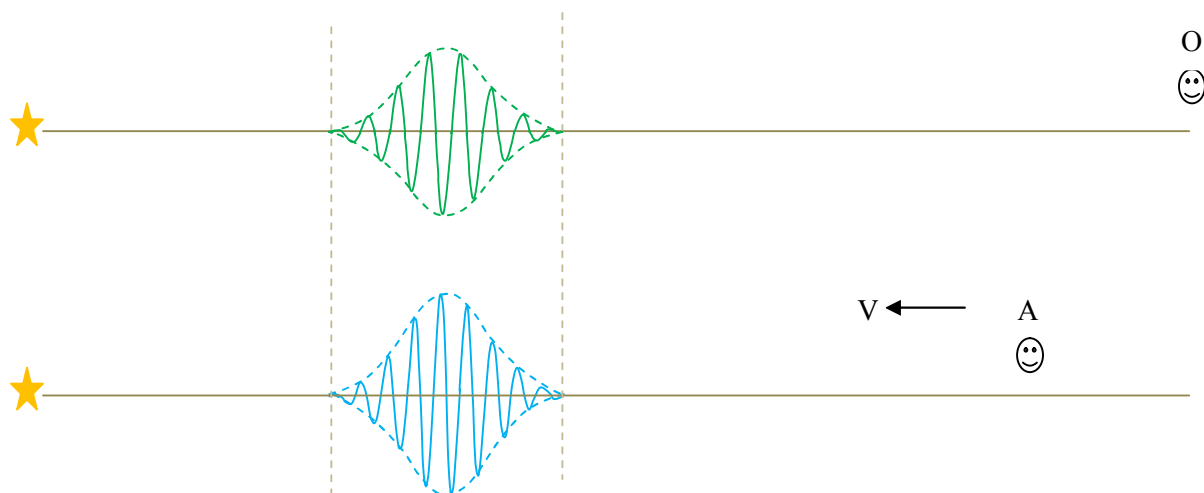
Recently I came across a paper that made a somewhat similar proposal[23], that the constant  $c$  in Maxwell's equation should be interpreted as phase velocity, while searching information about GPS. However, the paper does not make clear *how* the phase velocity will be constant.

### Constant phase velocity and variable group velocity of light

Now that we have interpreted Einstein's thought experiment to mean that *phase* velocity is always constant  $c$ , we are freed from the confusion that group velocity also should be constant. By postulating that phase velocity is always constant  $c$ , we conform to Maxwell's equations. So there is no reason to assume that group velocity should also be constant always. Group velocity is independent of source velocity, but depends on observer and mirror velocity. With this theory we can think intuitively, clearly and explain many experiments and observations.

By making the distinction that the *phase* velocity, and not the group velocity, is constant, a century old puzzle has been solved. Special Relativity resulted from failure to make this distinction. The group velocity behaves in the conventional, intuitive way:  $c \pm V$ .

It is wrong and unnecessary to speculate that velocity of light is constant relative to all observers, without making this distinction. Therefore, there is no reason to think that the *group* velocity of light also is constant relative to any observer.



Consider two observers. Observer O is at rest relative to the light source and observer A is moving towards the light source.

Observer A who is moving towards the light source should logically detect the light pulse earlier than the stationary observer O. However, observer A should observe a spatially compressed (smaller wavelength) form of the wave observed by stationary observer O, so that the phase velocity is always constant  $c$  relative to observer A.

*Even though the (sinusoidal) waves are compressed, the envelop or the group will not be compressed. However, the amplitude of the envelope will increase according to a new interpretation of Planck's relation [9][10]. Doppler shift of light is accompanied with change in amplitude of the envelope due to Planck's relation,  $E = hf$ .*

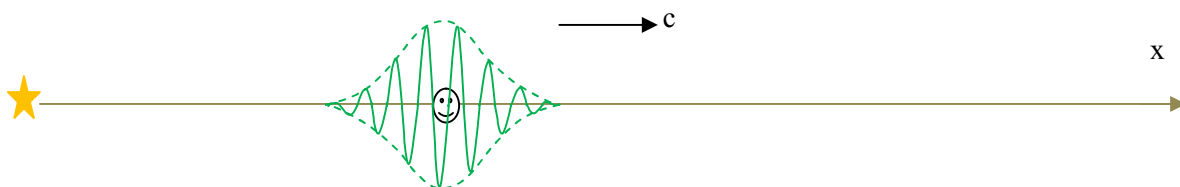
Note the slight compression of the blue sinusoidal waves as compared to the green sinusoidal waves, but that the two envelopes have the same width, in the figure above.

For the stationary observer O, the phases are at rest relative to the envelope. However, for moving observer A, the phases are moving relative to the envelope.

One experimental evidence for the variable group velocity of light (varying with observer's absolute velocity) is Ole Roamer's observation that the eclipse time of Jupiter's moon  $I_0$  is longer when the earth is moving away from Jupiter than when it is moving towards Jupiter, by about 22 minutes. This can be seen as the effect of absolute motion of the observer.

### **A new interpretation of Einstein's light speed thought experiment**

Imagine a light source that is at rest and an observer moving away from the source at or near the speed of light, as Einstein imagined in his thought experiment. Assume that the observer was at the source position but just moving away at the speed of light at an instant of time  $t = 0$ . Assume that the source emits a light pulse at this same instant of time,  $t = 0$ .



According to the 'constant phase velocity variable group velocity' theory, the phases always go past the observer at the speed of light, but the envelop will be at rest ('frozen') relative to the observer. Einstein (and no one else, as far as I know) never imagined such a possibility.

Experimental evidences exist for *constant phase velocity and variable group velocity of light*. These include the Albert Michelson moving mirror experiment and the Q.Majorana moving

mirror experiment discussed already. In these experiments, although the group velocity of light depends on the mirror velocity, the phase velocity is independent of mirror velocity. Since phase velocity, and not group velocity, is relevant in experiments using interference method, this explains the results of A. Michelson and Q. Majorana experiments.

Other experimental evidences also exist, such as the Argo star light refraction and aberration experiments.

### Phase

We have seen the exponential law governing the Doppler frequency/wavelength shift of light. However, a complete expression of the waveform observed by a moving observer includes the amplitude, the frequency and the phase of the wave.

Suppose that the source, at  $t = 0$ , starts emitting a wave,

$$E(t) \sin \omega t \quad , \quad \text{where } E(t) \text{ is the envelope function}$$

Then an observer moving with velocity  $V$  relative to the source will observe a wave:

$$E'(t) \sin \omega'(t - t_d)$$

where

$$\omega' = 2\pi f' = 2\pi f e^{\frac{-v}{c}}$$

where  $V$  is positive for source and observer receding from each other.

and

$$t_d = \frac{D_0}{c}$$

where  $D_0$  is the distance of the observer at the instant the light caught up with the observer.

## **The Argo, the Airy, the Fizeau, the Hoek experiments and Fresnel's drag coefficient**

In this section we will see the fundamental significance of the Argo and Airy experiments.

### **The Argo refraction experiments**

In 1810 Dominique-Francois Argo performed experiments to test the emission theory of light that predicted variations in refraction angle of light from different stars. He observed no difference in the refraction angles of light from different stars, demonstrating that the speed of light from all stars is the same, independent of star velocity, supporting the wave theory. However, he performed another experiment in which he observed the angle of refraction of the light from the same star, instead of different stars, at different times of the year. Again he observed no change in the angle of refraction of the star light. This posed a problem not only to the emission theory, which he disproved in his first refraction experiment, but also to the wave theory. Fresnel successfully explained this phenomenon through his partial ether drag formula, which was also confirmed later by the Fizeau experiment. According to Fresnel's partial ether drag hypothesis, the velocity of light in moving optical media is given by

$$\frac{c}{n} + v. \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$$

in the laboratory reference frame, where  $n$  is the index of refraction of the medium and  $v$  is the velocity of the moving medium.

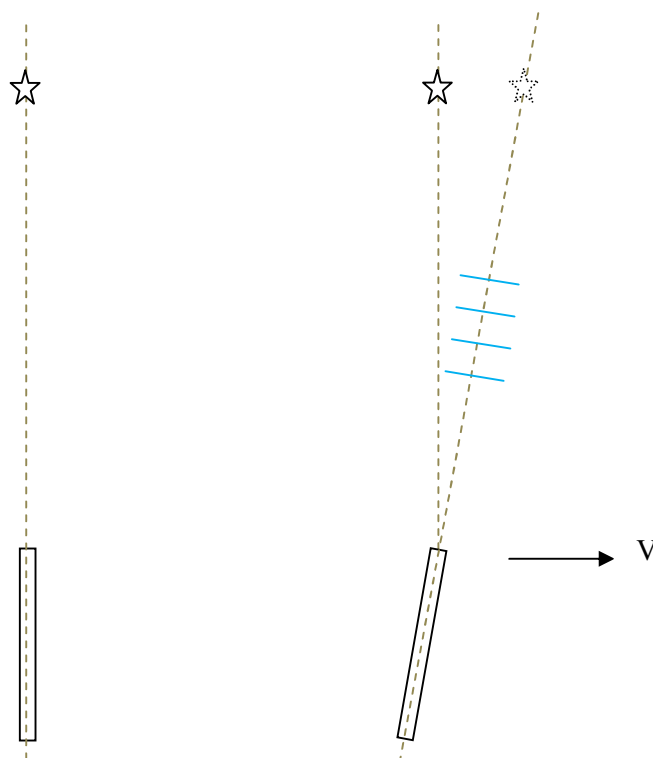
Although Fresnel's formula was empirically successful, the underlying theory was found to be wrong. Then the Special Theory of Relativity arrived, claiming the correct explanation and the mainstream physics community assumes that this problem has been solved. However, SRT has been disproved both experimentally and theoretically, by the Apparent Source Theory proposed by this author. Therefore, Argo's experiment still requires an explanation, after one hundred years of Special Relativity.

According to the theory already proposed in this section, *the phase velocity of light is constant  $c$  independent of observer or source velocity*. The group velocity of light is independent of source absolute velocity, but depends on observer absolute velocity. Since it is the phase velocity that is relevant in refraction, therefore, in the experiment of Argo, there will be no change in the refraction angle of the star light due to Earth's orbital motion because the phase velocity of light is always constant.

### **The Argo, the Airy stellar aberration experiments**

In another experiment carried out by Argo and repeated later by Airy, a telescope filled with optical medium ( glass or water) was used to observe stellar aberration to detect change in angle of aberration which was implied by Bradley's explanation of stellar aberration. Since the speed of light in glass is less than in air, a change in angle of aberration was expected. However, no

change in aberration angle was observed compared to the aberration angle observed by a telescope filled with air.



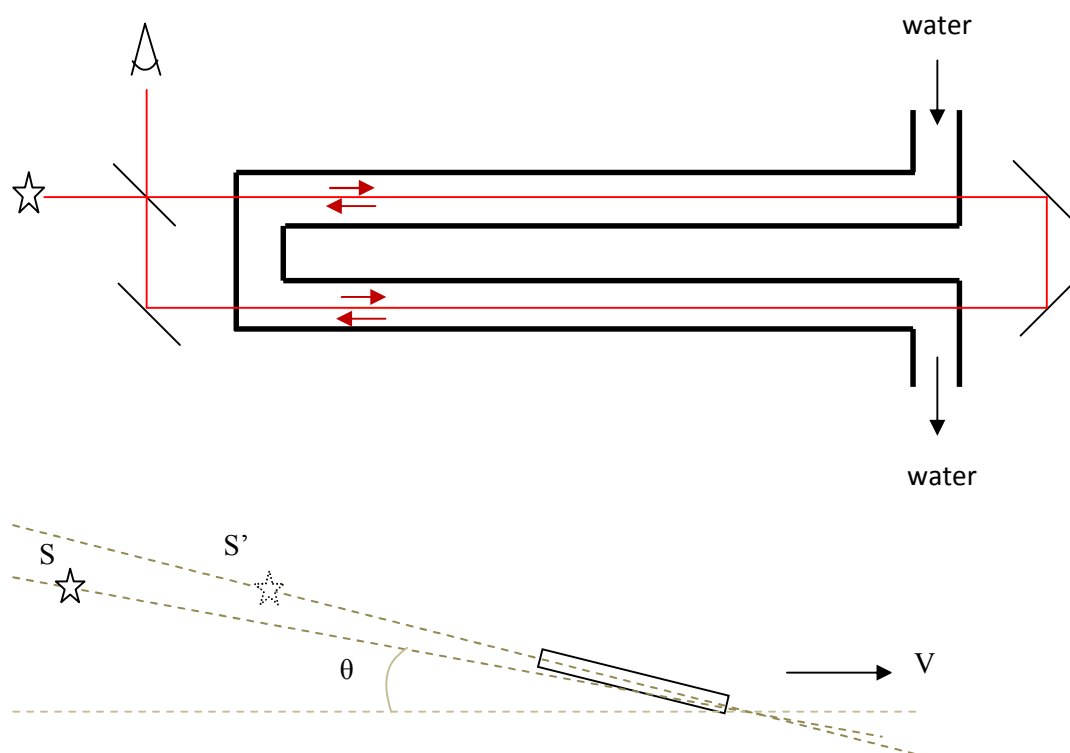
We now explain the aberration experiment. Consider a star that is directly overhead. When the observer (telescope) is at rest relative to the star, the light rays strike the surface of the medium (glass ) perpendicularly, hence no refraction occurs. With the observer moving with velocity  $V$ , the position of the star changes apparently. *The wave fronts also rotate*, which is a strange nature of light, and thus the light strikes the glass at the same angle as before ( perpendicularly ), again no refraction. Therefore, the angle of aberration is independent of the medium in the telescope.

The only way an observer in the 'ether' frame can account for these refraction and aberration experiments is by assuming that the glass or water partially drags along light according to Fresnel's formula. Since the ether doesn't exist, one has to assume that moving optical media partially drag light.

For the observer in the reference frame of the telescope, light comes from the direction of the apparent star and hence no additional tilting of the telescope is required to compensate for the refraction index of the glass or the water. The strange thing here is that, for the observer moving with the telescope, the wave fronts are rotated, as shown in the figure.

## The Fizeau experiment

In 1851, Fizeau carried out an experiment that confirmed Fresnel's ether drag formula. An interesting point is that Fresnel's ether drag formula, which was later confirmed by the Fizeau experiment, was derived based on the star light refraction and aberration experiments of Argo. How could ( can ) Fresnel drag coefficient be derived based only on the Fizeau experiment, i.e. if the Argo star light refraction experiment were never carried out ? Special Relativity (SRT) 'derives' the Fresnel drag coefficient based on the Fizeau experiment. However, even the SRT was created based on the Fizeau experiment (the Fresnel drag coefficient) and stellar aberration in the first place, according to Einstein.



The Fizeau experiment is a stellar aberration phenomenon ( Argo's water filled telescope experiment ) with angle  $\theta = 0^0$  and  $\theta = 180^0$

## The Hoek experiment

The null result of the Hoek experiment is expected because the water is not moving (relative to the light source ). Only the source position apparently changes as seen by the detector due to rotation of the experimental apparatus with respect to Earth's absolute velocity, and this will not result in any fringe shift just as in the Michelson- Morley experiment.

### Relation between wavelengths and envelope widths of different wavelength photons

We postulate that a photon of a particular wavelength has a unique shape. Two photons with exactly the same wavelength will have exactly the same amplitude time waveform. We also postulate that a photon from a stationary source is identical to a Doppler shifted photon with the same frequency.

A photon has frequency  $f$  for an observer at rest relative to a light source and a frequency  $f'$  for an observer moving relative to the source with velocity  $V$ , where  $V$  is positive for source observer receding from each other.

$$f' = f e^{-V/c} \quad \Rightarrow \quad -\ln \frac{f'}{f} = \frac{V}{c}$$

We have seen that the group velocity of light is variable. Assume that the photon has spatial width  $W$  for an observer at rest relative to the source and width  $W'$  for the moving observer. Then,

$$W' = W \frac{c}{c - V} \quad \Rightarrow \quad W' = W \frac{1}{1 - \frac{V}{c}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{W'}{W} = \frac{1}{1 + \ln \frac{f'}{f}} = \frac{1}{1 - \ln \frac{\lambda'}{\lambda}}$$

## 7. Doppler effect

We have already discussed that the phase velocity of light is always constant  $c$  irrespective of source and observer relative or absolute velocity. Now we postulate the following:

*Doppler effect of light depends only on source observer relative velocity and not on the absolute velocities of the source or the observer. More precisely, Doppler effect exists whenever there is relative motion between the past source and the present observer, in the radial direction.*

The above postulate shows that only source observer relative velocity is relevant to Doppler effect. Source and observer absolute velocities are irrelevant in Doppler effect of light.

The disentanglement of absolute velocity from Doppler effect is one of the biggest challenges I faced during the development of this theoretical framework.

How Doppler effect is not affected by absolute velocity is described later on under 'Physical Meaning'. For now we just apply the above postulate. Even though absolute velocity is not relevant to Doppler effect, I have chosen to make the discussion as different combinations of source and observer absolute velocities, even if only relative velocity is relevant, to show and clarify other effects such as aberration at the same time, for a more complete understanding.

### Longitudinal Doppler effect

In this case we consider a light source and an observer directly approaching each other or receding away from each other, with radial velocity component only

Source at absolute rest, observer in absolute motion



According to the Exponential Law of Light[8]:

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^{v/c} \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^{-v/c}$$

where  $\lambda_0$  and  $\lambda_r$  are emitted and received wavelengths, respectively. and  $f_0$  and  $f_r$  are emitted and received frequencies, respectively.

$V$  is positive for source and observer receding away from each other.



A light pulse emitted by the source is detected by the observer after a time delay of:

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c - V}$$

where D is the distance between source and observer at the instant of emission. This shows that the group velocity of light varies with observer velocity, as already discussed.

Observer at absolute rest and source in absolute motion



The equations for Doppler effect are the same as above but we see 'aberration' in this case, i.e. the apparent past position ( position of source at the instart of emission ) of source is different from the actual past position.

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^{v/c} \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^{-v/c}$$

Even though the past position of the light source is apparently changed, this does not affect the time delay between emission and detection of light, which is:

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c}$$

where D is the distance between source and observer at the instant of emission. This shows that the speed of light does not depend on the velocity of the source.

**Transverse Doppler effect**

Let us first consider Doppler effect of material waves, such as sound waves. For moving source and stationary receiver ( relative to air ), there will not be any Doppler effect of sound transmitted at the moment of closest approach ; and there will be Doppler effect for sound received at the moment of closest approach.

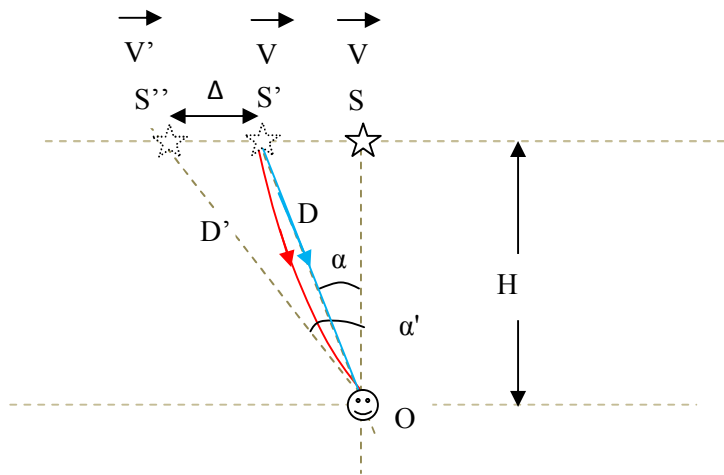
For stationary source and moving receiver, there will be no Doppler effect of sound received at the moment of closest approach, where as there will be Doppler effect of sound transmitted at the moment of closest approach.

In this section it is shown/proposed that light behaves in the same way, regarding transverse Doppler effect. Therefore, transverse Doppler effect doesn't exist as predicted by Special

Relativity. Then what about the Ives – Stilwell experiment? The red shift in the Ives – Stilwell experiment is not due to transverse Doppler effect, but due to law governing the longitudinal Doppler effect of light: Exponential Law of Light [9], in which longitudinal Doppler effect is asymmetric.

Next we analyze different cases for transverse Doppler effect of light. Before considering Doppler effect, let us consider related phenomenon.

Assume that light source is in absolute motion and observer is at absolute rest. The source emits light from point  $S'$ , i.e.  $S'$  is the actual past position of the source.  $S''$  is the apparent past position of the star.  $S$  is the position of the source now, at the moment of light detection.



As already discussed in the section on stellar aberration, the apparent change of past position of the source is exactly compensated for by an apparent change of the speed of light relative to the observer. There will be an apparent change of the speed of light relative to the observer because the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source  $S''$ . The time delay between emission of light is  $D/c$  and not  $D'/c$ . Therefore, apparent past position  $S''$  of the source is only an artifact and light comes to the observer from the actual past position of the source, as shown by the blue straight line. The curved light ray is not real in this case. It is real only for absolutely co-moving observer. There will be aberration for co-moving observer. Therefore, for the stationary observer, light comes in straight line from the point where it was emitted. Thus, absolute motion is irrelevant in the analysis of Doppler effect. Doppler effect depends only on source observer relative motion and not on any source and/or observer absolute motion.

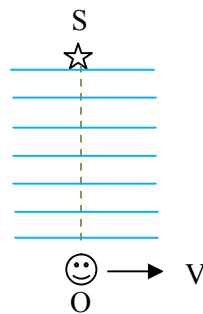
Next we see specific cases.

***Light received at the moment of closest approach***

Source at absolute rest and observer in absolute motion

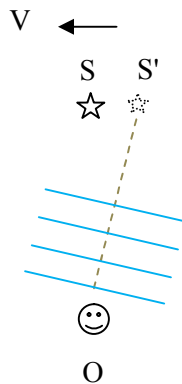
Again, Doppler effect depends only on source observer relative velocity and not on any source or observer absolute velocity.

From the figure below (parallel wave fronts, for simplicity) we see that transverse motion of the observer will have no effect on the phase velocity and hence on the wavelength and frequency of light seen by the observer. The phases will always go at  $c$  past the observer. No transverse Doppler effect (TDE). Only radial / longitudinal velocity component will have the expansion or compression effect on the wave to keep phase velocity constant.

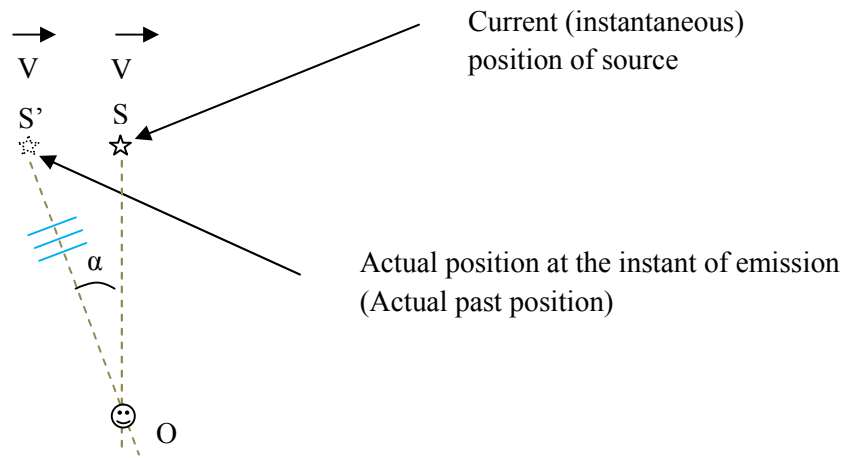


Sound received at the moment of closest approach will not be Doppler shifted also, for a stationary source and moving receiver.

It appears that the above picture is not correct as has been discussed in the section on Argo's experiment. There will be no (transverse) Doppler effect in this case, but there will be aberration and the orientation of the wave fronts will be different in the observer's reference frame, as shown below. Change in the angle of arrival of the wave fronts due to observer's motion is a strange nature of light making it distinct from material waves. Argo's and Airy's glass (water) telescope stellar aberration experiment can be explained by this theory.



Source in absolute motion and observer at absolute rest



The source position now (at the moment of observation) is at  $S$ , moving with velocity  $V$ . But the source was at position  $S'$  at the moment of emission, moving with velocity  $V$  also, assuming uniform motion.

The Doppler shift is determined by the radial/ longitudinal component of the velocity  $V$ . Therefore, light received at the moment of closest approach is blue shifted. We will not call this transverse Doppler effect because the same happens for sound waves also.

*Doppler effect occurs if the present observer is in motion relative to the past source, in the radial direction.*

In this case, light received at the moment of closest approach is Doppler shifted as follows:

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^{-V \sin \alpha / c} \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^{V \sin \alpha / c}$$

But it can be shown that

$$\sin \alpha = \frac{V}{c}$$

Substituting in the above equation gives

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^{-k} \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^k$$

where

$$k = \frac{V^2}{c^2}$$

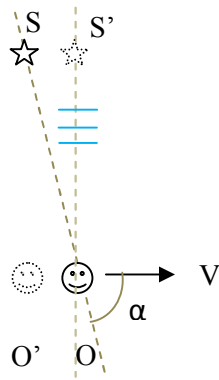
Note that the wave fronts arrive at the observer from the direction of  $S'$ , as shown.

***Light emitted at the moment of closest approach***

Source at absolute rest and observer in absolute motion

Light emitted at the instant of closest approach will be received after a delay of time. If the observer continues to move in the same direction, he /she will see, obviously, a red shifted light, as shown below.

Only the radial velocity component of the observer's velocity will result in a Doppler shift. Again we would not call this transverse Doppler effect because the same holds for sound also. The distinction for light is that the source appears to be at S' at the instant of observation, due to the phenomenon of Bradley stellar aberration .



The Doppler shift will be as follows:

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^{V \cos \alpha / c} \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^{-V \cos \alpha / c}$$

But it can be shown that

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{V}{c}$$

Therefore

$$\lambda_r = \lambda_0 e^k \quad \text{and} \quad f_r = f_0 e^{-k}$$

where

$$k = \frac{V^2}{c^2}$$

To the moving observer, the source appears to be at S' , and not at S, which is due to Bradley aberration. Note that the wave fronts arrive at the observer from the apparent source S' direction, as shown in the diagram, and this is due to Bradley aberration.

Source in absolute motion and observer at absolute rest



We know that there will be no Doppler effect for sound emitted at the moment of closest approach, for moving source and stationary observer.

The source emitted light from point S. The wave fronts arrive at the observer from the direction of S, as shown.

*Therefore, transverse Doppler effect does not exist as predicted by SRT.*

Summary

	sound		light	
	Stationary source Moving observer	Moving source Stationary observer	Stationary source Moving observer	Moving source Stationary observer
Light/sound observed at the moment of closest approach	no Doppler effect	'blue' shifted	no Doppler effect	blue shifted
Light/sound emitted at the moment of closest approach	'red' shifted at moment of observation	no Doppler effect	red shifted at moment of observation	no Doppler effect

## 8. Exponential Law of Doppler Effect of Light - the mystery behind Ives-Stilwell experiment

In Special Relativity, transverse Doppler effect arises because of *multiplication* of the classical Doppler shift formula by the gamma ( $\gamma$ ) factor.

However, the Ives-Stilwell experiment can be explained by a very compelling alternative theory- Exponential Law of Light [ 8 ]. The observed red shift results from *asymmetrical* longitudinal Doppler shift, unlike the classical formula which predicts symmetrical longitudinal Doppler shift.

Although I previously proposed this theory[8] from a different line of reasoning, which I have abandoned now, the ease with which it explains the Ives-Stilwell experiment makes it very compelling and I have still adopted it in this paper.

The mysterious term governing Doppler effect of light is proposed as:

$$e^{V/c}$$

where V is the source - observer relative velocity.

Therefore, the formula for *longitudinal* Doppler effect would be:

$$\lambda' = \lambda e^{V/c} \quad \text{and} \quad f' = f e^{-V/c}$$

V is positive for source and observer receding from each other.

Now, in the Ives-Stilwell experiment, the wavelength of the light emitted from the ion in the forward direction would be:

$$\lambda'_{F} = \lambda e^{V/c}$$

The wavelength of light emitted in the backward direction would be:

$$\lambda'_{B} = \lambda e^{-V/c}$$

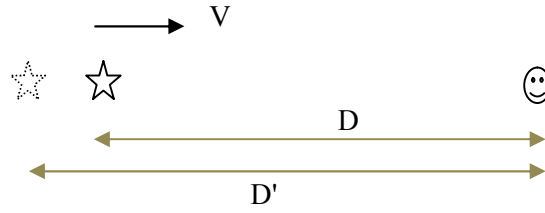
The average wavelength:

$$\lambda_{avg} = \frac{1}{2} (\lambda'_{F} + \lambda'_{B}) = \frac{1}{2} (\lambda e^{V/c} + \lambda e^{-V/c})$$

$$\Delta = \lambda_{avg} - \lambda = \left( \frac{1}{2} e^{V/c} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-V/c} - 1 \right) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{V}{c} \right)^2 \lambda = \frac{1}{2} \beta^2 \lambda \quad (\text{using Taylor's expansion})$$

This is the same formula predicted by Special Relativity and confirmed by the Ives-Stilwell experiment.

In previous versions of this paper it was proposed that Exponential law may apply to AST. In this paper we show that Exponential law does not apply to AST. It applies only to Doppler effect of light.



Consider a light source moving with velocity  $V$  towards an observer that is at absolute rest. If Exponential law applied to AST, then

$$D' = D e^{\frac{V}{c}} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} e^{\frac{V}{c}} = V e^{\frac{V}{c}}$$

Since, according to AST, the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source, the time elapsed between emission and detection of light is:

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c + V'} = \frac{D e^{\frac{V}{c}}}{c + V e^{\frac{V}{c}}} = \frac{D}{c e^{-\frac{V}{c}} + V}$$

For  $V = c$

$$\tau = \frac{D}{c e^{-\frac{V}{c}} + V} = \frac{D}{\frac{c}{e} + c} = \frac{D/c}{\frac{1}{e} + 1} = 0.731 \frac{D}{c}$$

This is not in agreement with experiments using particles emitting photons while moving at nearly the speed of light, such as the 'positron annihilation in flight' experiment, which confirmed that  $\tau = D/c$ . Therefore, Exponential law does not apply to AST.

Applying AST to the above problem,

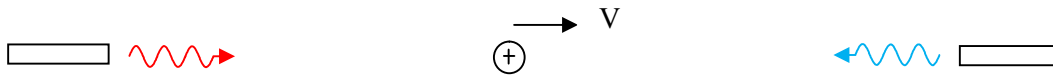
$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = \frac{dD}{dt} \frac{c}{c - V} = V \frac{c}{c - V}$$

$$\tau = \frac{D'}{c + V'} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c - V}}{c + V \frac{c}{c - V}} = \frac{Dc}{c(c - V) + Vc} = \frac{D}{c}$$

This is in agreement with experiments.



### Modern Ives-Stilwell experiment: fast ion beam experiment



The frequencies of the two laser beams as seen by the ion are related to the transition frequencies as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{01} &= f_R e^{-V/c} \\ f_{02} &= f_B e^{V/c} \end{aligned}$$

From which follows:

$$f_{01} f_{02} = f_R f_B \Rightarrow \frac{f_{01} f_{02}}{f_R f_B} = 1$$

where  $f_{01}$  and  $f_{02}$  are the two transition frequencies, in the rest frame of the ion and  $f_R$  and  $f_B$  are the frequencies of the parallel and anti-parallel laser beams, respectively. The above result is consistent with experiments.

### Earth's absolute motion and the Ives-Stilwell experiments

One of the most confusing problems in the development of AST and Exponential Law of Doppler effect of light has been regarding the effect of Earth's absolute motion on the observed Doppler effect in Ives-Stilwell and fast ion beam experiments. This is solved in this paper.

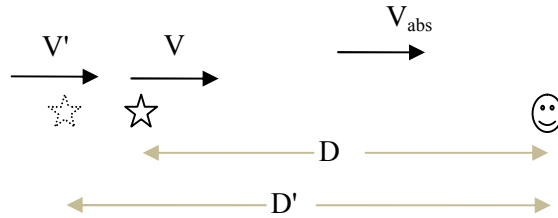
We restate Exponential Law of Doppler effect of light as follows. Consider a light source and an observer moving relative to each other in the radial direction, with the light source in absolute motion and the observer at rest or with the light source at absolute rest and the observer in absolute motion.

As proposed already, the phase velocity of light is always constant, independent of source or observer velocities. This requires a law governing Doppler effect for light. This is the Exponential Law of Doppler effect of light. Therefore, this law assumes that the phase velocity is constant, independent of source or observer velocity.

Therefore, in applying Exponential Law of Doppler effect of light, we apply the law only to real sources, not to apparent sources, because the speed of light is independent of the velocity of the real source, but depends on the velocity of apparent source.

Therefore, we only consider the velocity of the real source relative to the observer in order to determine Doppler frequency and wavelength shift. That is why Earth's absolute motion does not affect the Ives-Stilwell experiments. In fact, this is what is confirmed by the fast ion beam experiments.

For further clarification, consider co-moving light source and an observer, with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ , both mounted on a common platform. Assume that the source is additionally moving towards the observer with relative velocity  $V$ .



The Doppler effect is determined only by the source observer relative velocity  $V$ . The effect of absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  is just to create a time delay; absolute velocity is irrelevant in the determination of Doppler effect. This is why Earth's absolute velocity has no effect on the experimental results of Ives-Stilwell experiment and the fast ion beam experiment. The effect of Earth's absolute velocity is just to create a time delay in arrival of the ( Doppler shifted) photons at the detector.

## 9. Physical meaning

So far we have developed a model of the speed of light that successfully predicts and explains the outcome of experiments of the speed of light and absolute/ relative motion. But the physical meaning of these models has been one of the greatest challenges in the development of this theoretical framework. We have already discussed an apparent paradox associated with Apparent Source Theory ( AST ). In AST, we have been replacing the real source with an apparent source and then assumed Galilean space and emission theory to *consistently* explain many experiments, such as the conventional and modern Michelson-Morley experiments, the Sagnac and Michelson-Gale experiments, moving source and moving mirror experiments, the Silvertooth and the Marinov experiments, the Roland De Witte experiment, the Bryan G. Wallace experiment, Bradley stellar aberration, Doppler effect , Einstein's thought experiment: chasing a beam of light, the Ives-Stillwell experiment. No existing theory of light can consistently explain even two of these experiments: the Michelson-Morley experiment and Sagnac effect. Different theories have been proposed within a single theoretical framework: Apparent Source Theory, constant phase velocity and variable group velocity of light, Exponential Law of Doppler effect of Light, and the dependence of Doppler effect only on relative velocity and not on absolute velocity.

Despite the success of this theoretical framework, understanding the physical meanings and the relationships of the theories posed a great challenge.

The puzzles were:

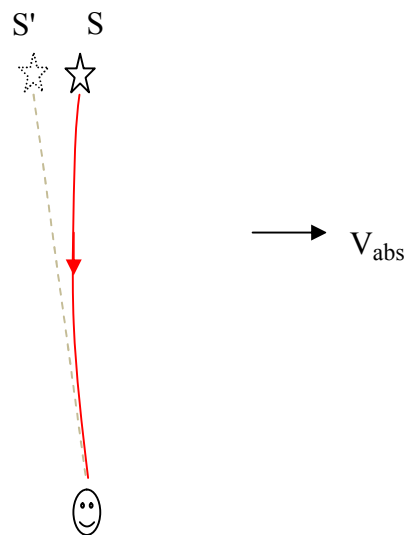
1. What is the physical meaning of replacing the real source with an apparent source ?
2. How can Doppler effect be disentangled from absolute velocity? Why does Earth's absolute velocity not affect characteristic wavelengths of atoms ? Why was Ives-Stilwell experiment not affected by Earth's absolute velocity? No such effect of Earth's absolute motion has ever been observed.
3. Why transverse Doppler effect should not exist
4. AST states that, for absolutely co-moving source and observer, only the path length, and not the velocity of light, changes. But we know that Silvertooth detected a change in 'wavelength'. Even if we may interpret that as an apparent change of wavelength, what does that mean?

However, we have to be cautious that we should clearly understand the physical meaning or we will be misled. We should use the physical meaning to get some intuitive understanding only and apply AST as described so far. It will be misleading to interpret the physical meaning conventionally. One example is the 'change' in wavelength detected in the Silvertooth experiment. The 'change' in wavelength is only apparent. The accurate description is that wavelength and speed of light will not be affected by absolute motion, for co-moving source and observer. Therefore, to solve problems, we just apply AST as described so far, by strictly adhering to the procedure:

1. Replace the real source with the apparent source
2. Analyze the experiment by assuming that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source.

We must understand the physical meaning of AST to help us understand the theory intuitively. For example, the experiment proposed in the next section is based on the bending of light rays, which is just a physical meaning. This intuitive understanding helps us to understand what is happening physically and hence to set up an appropriate experiment ( putting a slit between source and observer ).

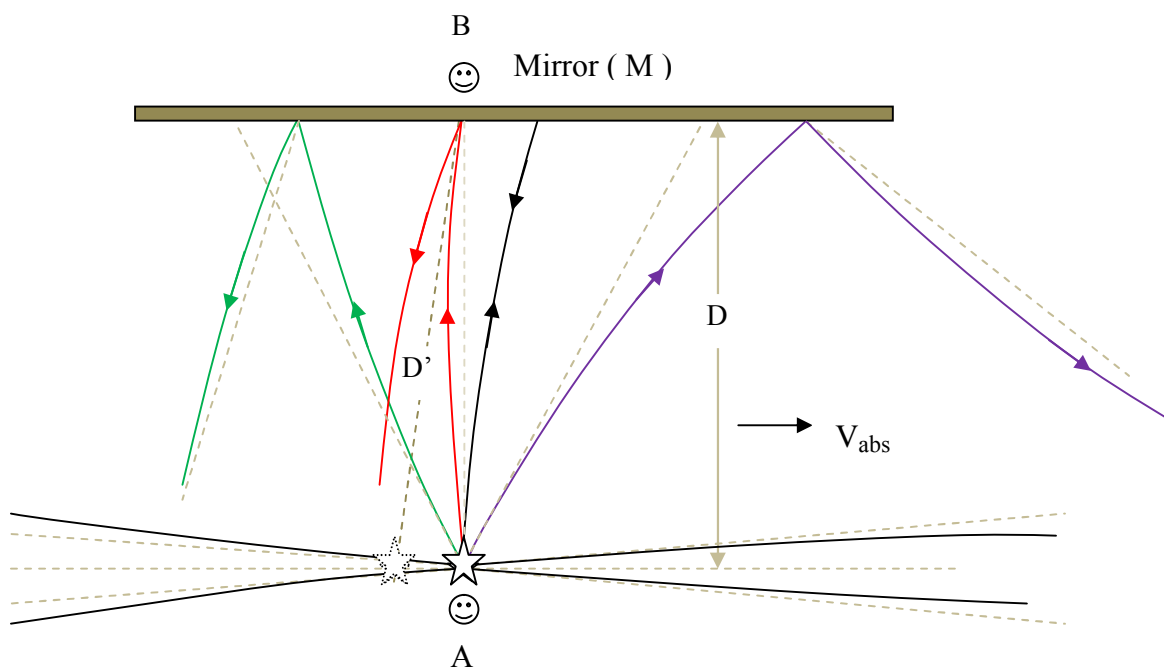
Imagine a light source and an observer absolutely co-moving, as shown below.



We see that the apparent change in position of the source is due to the curving of the light rays, as shown above. *The curve is determined by applying the Apparent Source Theory (AST) at every point.* Even though the source is physically, actually at position S relative to the observer, it appears to the observer that it is at position S' and this is due to the curving of the light ray which is a result of absolute velocity.

However, a crucial distinction, which I understood after years of confusion, is that the bending of light rays is only relative to an observer absolutely co-moving with the light source. For an observer that is at absolute rest, there will be no bending of light rays from a source that is in absolute motion, as already explained in the section on stellar aberration, and light behaves in the ordinary way in this case, with the center of the wave fronts remaining at the point of emission and straight light rays.

However, light still travels in *straight line* from the *apparent source* to the observer.



The apparent contradiction described previously in the section:

' Where does a light beam start? Apparent contradiction in the new theory '

is resolved as shown in the above figure. To the observer B, the source apparently changes its position as shown and the time delay between emission and detection of light by observer B is calculated by dividing the distance between observer B and the apparent source by the speed of

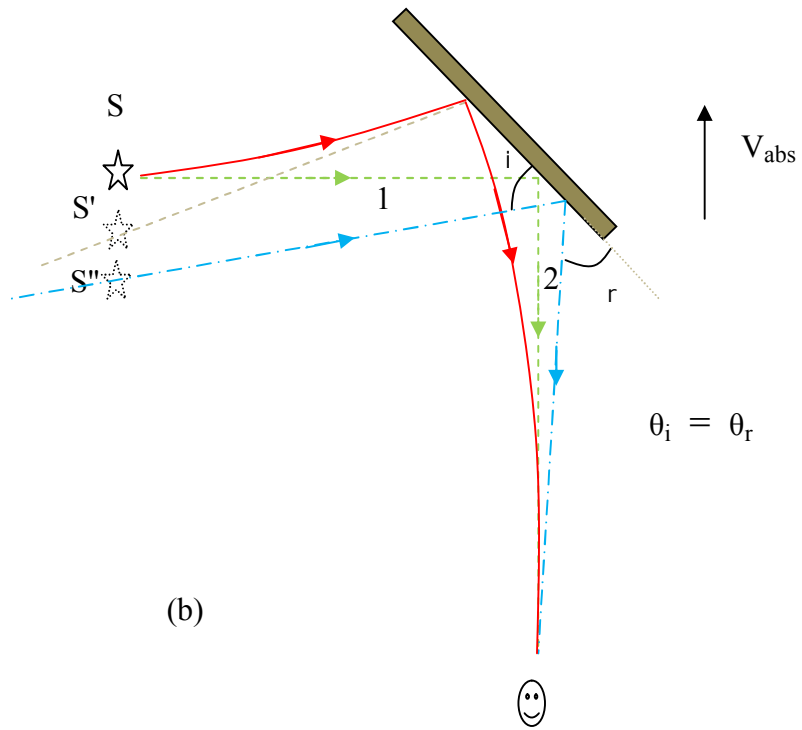
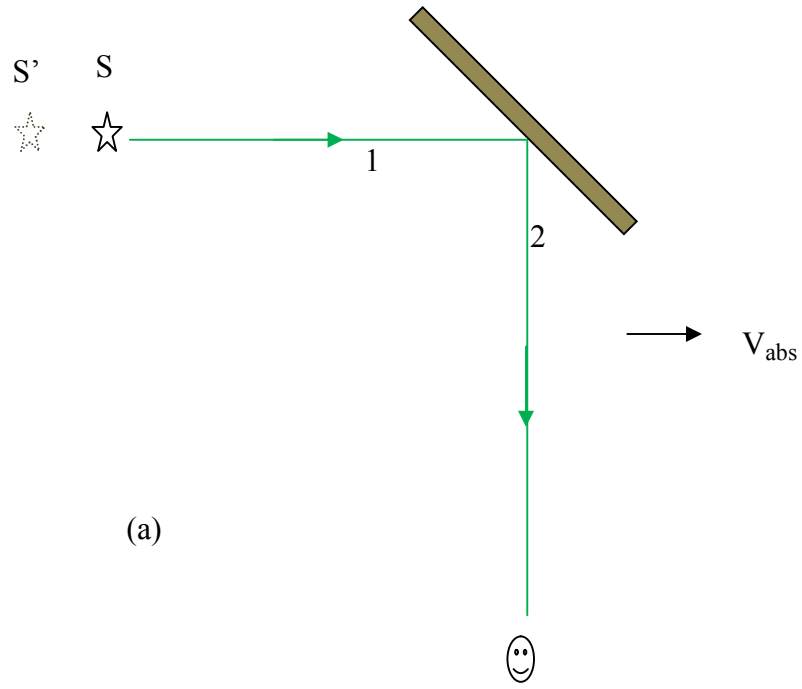
light, since observer B and the apparent source are co-moving and since the speed of light is equal to  $c$  relative to the apparent source :  $D'/c$  . For observer A, the apparent source position is the same as the real source position because observer A and the source are essentially at the same point in space. Once we replace the real source with an apparent source ( which are the same in this case ), we calculate the time delay between light emission from source and its detection by observer A by assuming emission theory or Galilean space ( which means that the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source:  $2D/c$  .

The light rays from an absolutely moving light source will be curved as shown, for a co-moving observer. An interesting question is: how are the ( curved) light rays constructed? For the incident rays, theoretically *at every point*, we apply the AST as described so far to calculate and locate the apparent source position as seen *from that point* and put a line of infinitesimal length at that point, with such a slope that it will pass through the apparent source position when projected, i.e. the infinitesimal line is part of the straight light ray coming from the apparent source. We do this to every point. Then a curved pattern of the flow of the incident light rays will emerge. For reflected rays, again *for every point*, we apply AST to calculate and locate the position of the apparent source as seen from that point. Then we easily draw the straight light ray that will come to that point from the apparent source after reflection from the mirror, with angle of incidence equal to the angle of reflection, as usual. Then we put an infinitesimal length of line at that point which is part of the straight light ray coming from the apparent source after reflection from the mirror. After doing this for every point a pattern emerges for reflected rays.

Note again that this is just to show what is happening physically so that we will have an intuitive understanding. We don't need to draw curved light rays to analyze and predict the results of experiments. Note that curving of light rays is real only for a co-moving observer and not real for an observer that is at absolute rest who sees straight light ray coming from the point where it was emitted from an absolutely moving source.

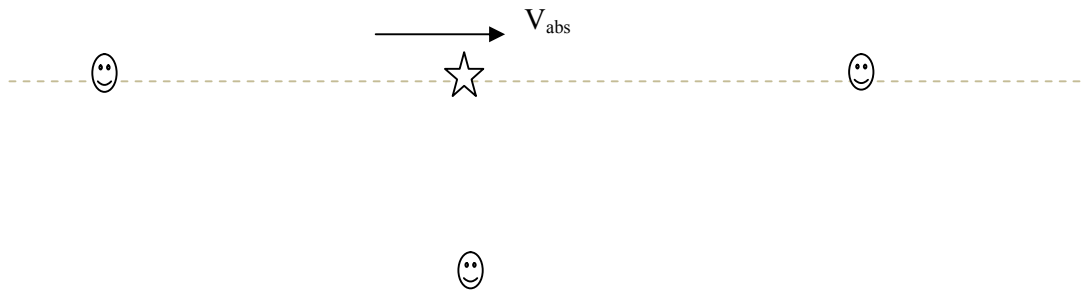
In the above discussion, it has been shown that the light rays from a light source in absolute motion will be bent in the lateral directions (i.e. in directions other than forward and backward directions). In the forward and backward directions, obviously, the light rays will not be bent, but the speed of light will be  $c - V$  and  $c + V$  *relative to the source*, respectively.

For better clarification and to make sure that there are no misunderstandings, let us consider two cases for the following system,. In the first case the system moves to the right with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  (a) , and with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  upwards in the second case (b). The question is: will there be bending of the light rays ? The mirror is inclined at  $45^\circ$  .



The answer is that there will not be any bending of both the incident ray 1 and the reflected ray 2 when the system is moving to the right in the first case ( a ) . For absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  directed upwards (b) there will be bending of both rays, 1 and 2, as shown by the bent light rays in red. S' is the apparent source as seen from a point where the incident curved ray is reflecting from the mirror. S'' is the apparent source as seen from the location of the observer. Note that theoretically the apparent source position has to be determined for every point in which case there will be infinite apparent sources. We have considered just two apparent sources. The drawing is not meant to be accurate but only for a qualitative explanation. Note that the reflected curved ray in ( b ) (blue) is tangent with the broken line at the observer, as shown in the diagram. The green broken rays 1 and 2 of the first case are shown just for comparison.

For an absolutely moving source, the group velocity of light is *constant* relative to the *apparent* source, not relative to the real source. The group velocity of light *varies* in magnitude and direction relative to the *real* source. Phase velocity is always constant, independent of any source or observer absolute or relative velocity.

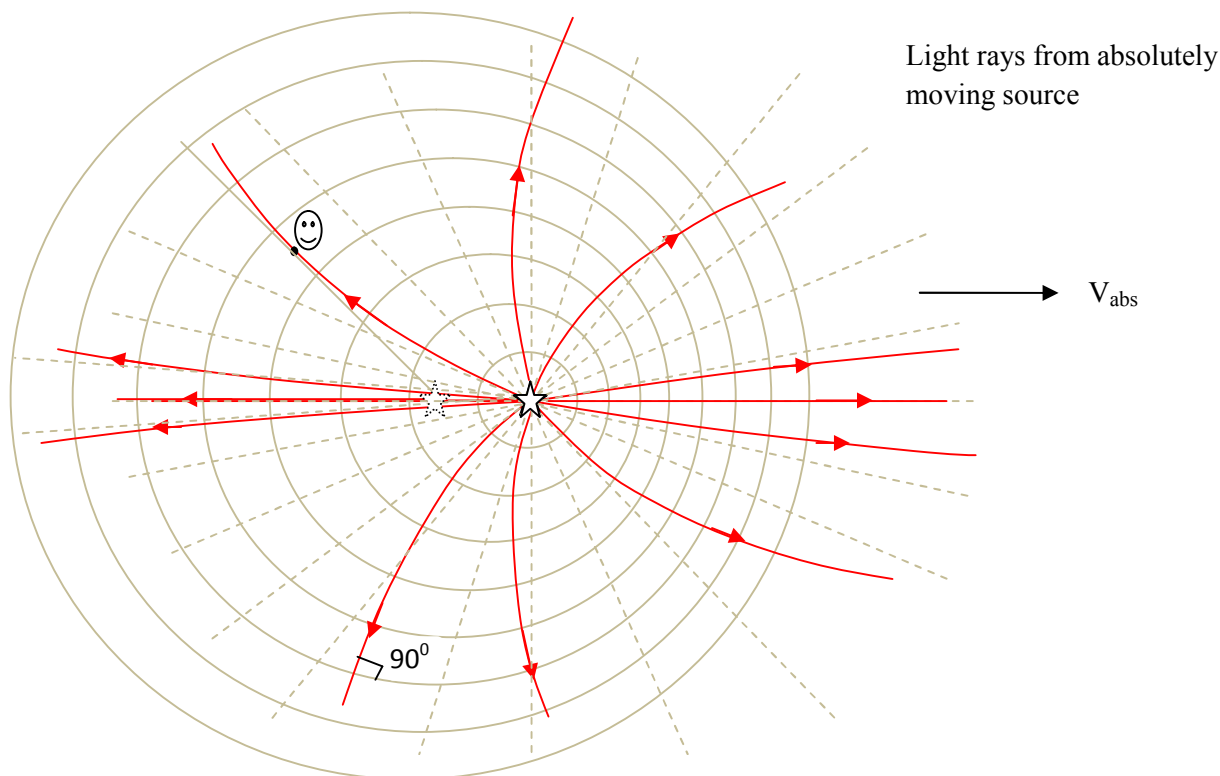


Consider absolutely co-moving source and observers (see above figure ).

The phase velocity is always constant  $c$  for all three observers, irrespective of the magnitude of absolute velocity. The phases will always move at  $c$  past the observers. For the front observer, the group velocity is  $c - V_{abs}$  . For the rear observer, the group velocity is  $c + V_{abs}$  . For the side observer, the group velocity is  $(c^2 - V_{ab}^2)^{1/2}$  . For the side observer, the light ray arrives from the direction of apparent source and not from the direction of the real source. Note that these velocities are obtained by dividing the source observer physical distance by the time delay between emission and detection of light. For the front and rear observers it can be shown that the group velocity of light determined in this way is also the local group velocity, i.e. small local distance near the observer divided by the time elapsed for light to travel that distance. For the side observer, the local group velocity is yet to be computed to check if it is the same as the average group velocity  $(c^2 - V_{ab}^2)^{1/2}$  determined by dividing the source observer distance by the time elapsed between emission and detection.

The next diagram shows what happens physically to the light rays from a source that is in

absolute motion. Note again the distinction that the bending of the light rays is observed by the observer who is absolutely co-moving with the light source. For an observer who is at absolute rest, there will be no bending of light rays emitted by an absolutely moving source. For the observer at absolute rest, light rays come in straight line from the point where it was emitted.



\* note that the above diagram is not drawn accurately. The light rays should always make  $90^\circ$  with the wave fronts. The bending light rays are only for a co-moving observer. For an observer at rest, light rays come as usual in straight lines from the point where they were emitted.

In lateral directions the bending of light rays is large. As we approach the forward and backward directions, the bending of the light rays becomes less and less. In the forward and backward directions (with respect of direction of absolute velocity), the light rays are straight and there is no bending. Note that the drawing is not meant to be accurate, but only to serve as a qualitative illustration.

**The group velocity of light is constant relative to the apparent source. Physically, this means that the effect of absolute motion of a light source is to create a change in the (group) velocity (magnitude and direction) of light relative to the real source.**



Let us consider only the forward and backward light rays from a source in absolute motion, for simplicity.

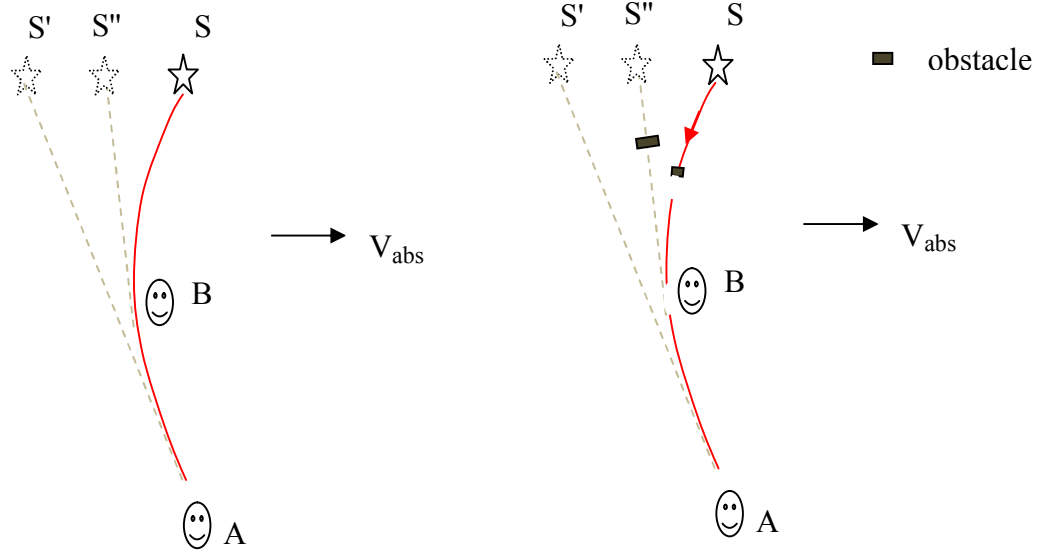
**Relative to the (real) source moving with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ , the group velocity of light is  $c - V_{abs}$  and  $c + V_{abs}$ , for the forward light beam and for the backward light beam, respectively.**

This is just a modified emission theory because, for a given absolute velocity, the speed of light in a given direction is 'constant' ( $c \pm V_{abs}$ ) *relative to the source*. The effect of absolute motion of the source is just to create a change in the group velocity (*magnitude and direction*) of light **relative to the source**. In the forward and backward directions, only the magnitude of the light speed vary and the direction of the light rays are radial. In all other directions, both the magnitude and direction of the group velocity of light vary with absolute velocity of the source. The direction of the light rays are not purely radial and will have transverse components in the lateral directions because the light rays are curved.

According to conventional emission theory, the speed of light is the same  $c$  relative to the source and directed radially in every direction relative to the source. In Apparent Source Theory (AST) the group velocity of light from a source that is in absolute motion is not the same in every direction *relative to the source* and the light rays are curved in the lateral directions (in directions different from the forward and backward directions), for a co-moving observer. Just as conventional emission theory predicts a null fringe shift for the Michelson Morley experiment, so does AST because, for a given absolute velocity, and in a given direction relative to the source, the velocity of light is 'constant' *relative to the source*. Note that by 'constant' we mean, for example,  $c + V_{abs}$ .

We can easily explain the circular Sagnac effect by the physical meaning of AST. Since the source has absolute velocity ( $V_{abs} = \omega R$ ), the speed of the forward beam is  $c - V_{abs}$  RELATIVE TO THE SOURCE and the speed of the backward beam is  $c + V_{abs}$  RELATIVE TO THE SOURCE, hence a fringe shift. This is true for the hypothetical Sagnac interferometer discussed earlier.

Let us see a strange phenomenon of light predicted by AST. Consider a light source and an observer co-moving with absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ . The light rays from this source will be curved lines.

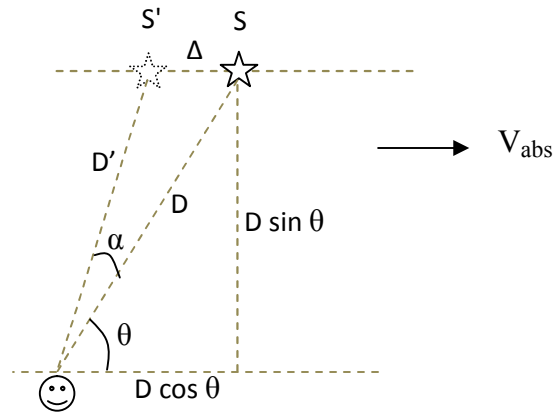


According to AST, observer A sees light coming from 'his own' apparent source S'. However, there is no light reaching observer B from apparent source S'' , as shown by the red line broken at observer B position, because there is an obstacle between observer B and apparent source S'' , as shown in the figure. Therefore, although observer B is in front of observer A, he/she will not see light, while observer A will see light ! And, placing an obstacle along the curved ray somewhere in front of the observers will not block light coming to the observers! ( Or does it not ? ). This is a strange behavior of light predicted by AST.

### Proposed experiment to detect absolute motion and to test Apparent Source Theory

According to Apparent Source Theory ( AST ), the light rays from an absolutely moving source will be bent in the lateral directions, for a co-moving observer. Therefore, detection of bending light rays means detection of absolute motion and also confirmation of AST.

Consider a light source and an observer absolutely co-moving, as shown below.



We want to get the relationship between  $\theta$  and  $\Delta$  .

$$\Delta = D \cos \theta - \sqrt{D'^2 - D^2 \sin^2 \theta} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

From (1) and (2)

$$D'^2 \left( 1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \right) + \frac{2DV_{abs}}{c} \cos \theta D' - D^2 = 0$$

which is a quadratic equation of  $D'$  .

$$\Rightarrow D' \approx D - \frac{DV_{abs}}{c} \cos \theta \text{ , for } \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \approx 0$$

From (2) ,

$$\Delta = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} D' \Rightarrow \Delta = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \left( D - \frac{DV_{abs}}{c} \cos \theta \right) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

But

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{\Delta} = \frac{\sin \theta}{D'} \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin \alpha = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \sin \theta$$

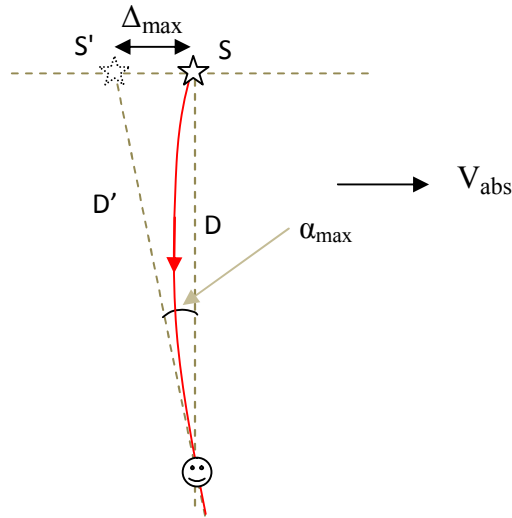
$\alpha$  will be maximum when  $\theta = 90^\circ$

$$\sin \alpha_{max} = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} \Rightarrow \alpha_{max} = \sin^{-1} \frac{V_{abs}}{c}$$

From (3)

$$\Delta_{max} = \frac{V_{abs}}{c} D \text{ (for } \theta = 90^\circ)$$

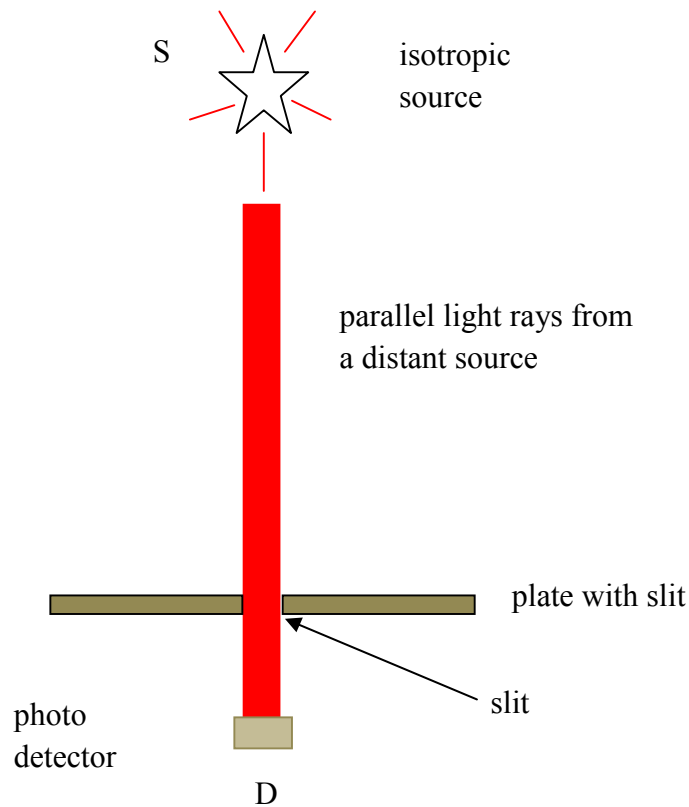
We have shown that the maximum apparent change in the position of the light source ( $\Delta_{\max}$  and  $\alpha_{\max}$ ), hence the maximum bending of the light rays, occurs when the absolute velocity of the co-moving source and observer is orthogonal to the line connecting the source and observer. Hence there will be maximum sensitivity with this orientation, as shown below.



Now that we have determined the orientation of the source and observer relative to the absolute velocity vector for maximum apparent change of position of the light source, and this can be used for maximum sensitivity to detect absolute velocity of the light source.

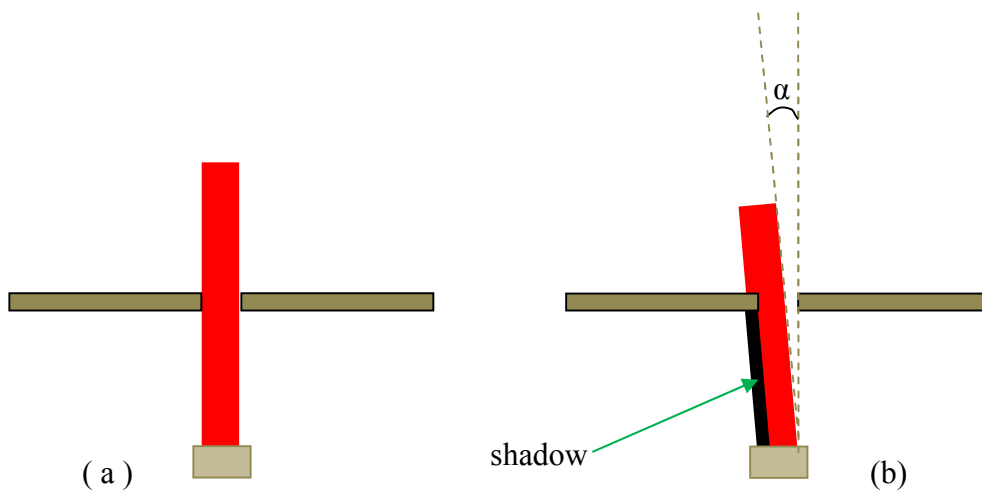
Assume that the source S is isotropic, i.e. it radiates equally in all directions. In this case, the intensity of light at the observer will not be affected significantly by absolute velocity, the only effect being light rays coming at an angle, which is very small for  $V_{\text{abs}} \ll c$ , and this will not practically affect the light intensity as compared to when absolute velocity is zero with straight light rays coming from the source. The effect of absolute velocity is to cause a change direction from which light arrives at the observer.

Let us see the experimental setup to detect absolute velocity with an isotropic light source.



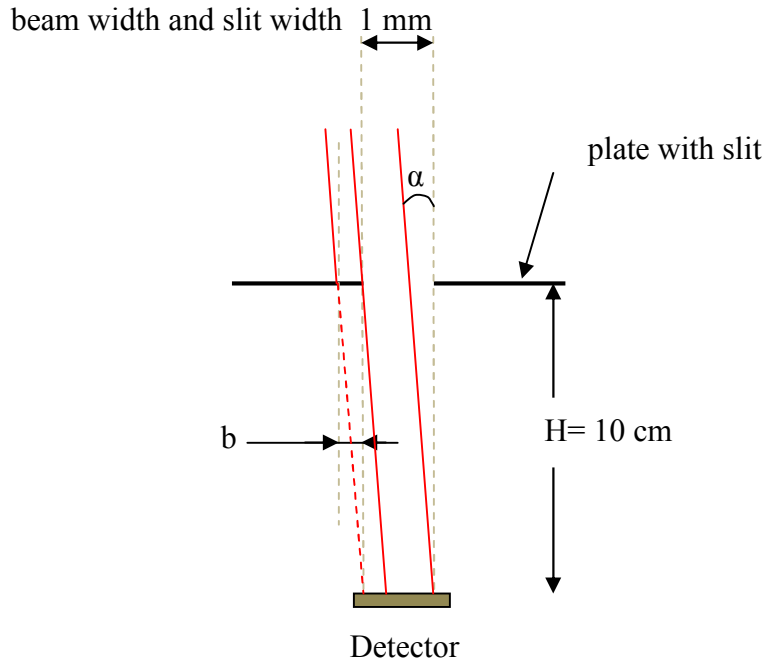
If the whole apparatus is at absolute rest, or if the line connecting the source and the photo detector (line  $SD$ ) is oriented parallel to the absolute velocity vector, there will be no bending of the light ray.

But when the line  $SD$  is orthogonal to the absolute velocity vector, the light ray will be bent and the angle of arrival  $\alpha$  of the light ray will be different from zero as shown in the next diagram.

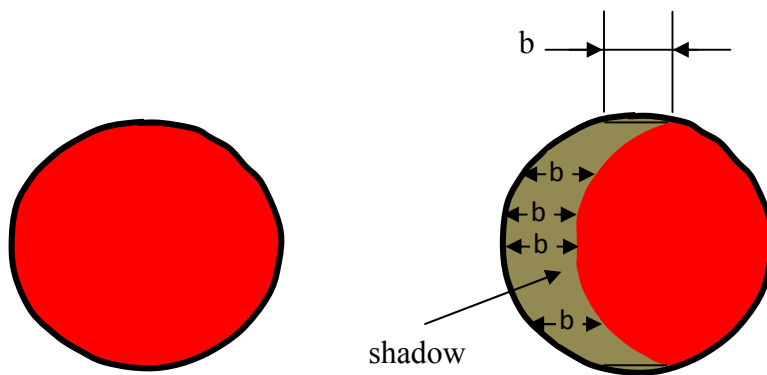


We can see that when the light is bent due to absolute motion, part of the light rays is blocked by the plate, creating a shadow and hence a decrease in intensity ( quantity of light per unit area ) of light falling on the photo detector. By measuring the voltage output of the photo detector, it is possible to observe variation of light intensity with variation in absolute velocity and with variation in orientation of line SD relative to the absolute velocity.

An approximate analysis is as follows.



Suppose that the slit is circular.



The left diagram shows a bright circular spot on the photo detector which will occur when there is no bending of the light ray. The right diagram shows what the spot of the light ray on the photo detector looks like, with a shadow due to bending of the light ray. Note that the size of the shadow has been exaggerated, which is actually only about 16.56% of the total area of the circle for an absolute velocity of 390 Km/s of the Earth.

$$\frac{b}{H} = \sin\alpha = \frac{V_{abs}}{c}$$

$$b = H \frac{V_{abs}}{c}$$

If we take Earth's absolute velocity,  $V_{abs} = 390 \text{ Km/s}$  ,  $c = 300,000 \text{ Km/s}$

$$b = 100 * 390/300,000 \text{ mm} = 0.13 \text{ mm}$$

Area of the shaded ( shadowed ) area is:

$$dA_{sh} = b dh \Rightarrow A_{sh} \approx 2 \int_0^r b dh = 2br$$

where r is the radius of the slit.

$$A_{sh} = 2 * 0.13 * 0.5 = 0.13 \text{ mm}^2$$

This is the area of the shadowed part.

The total area A of the circle is :

$$A = \frac{\pi D^2}{4} = \frac{\pi(1)^2}{4} = 0.785 \text{ mm}^2$$

Since we assumed an isotropic source, the intensity of the light falling is uniform, then we can calculate the percentage of change in intensity due to bending of the laser beam.

$$\frac{A_{sh}}{A} * 100\% = \frac{0.13}{0.785} * 100\% = 16.56\%$$

This is a big change !

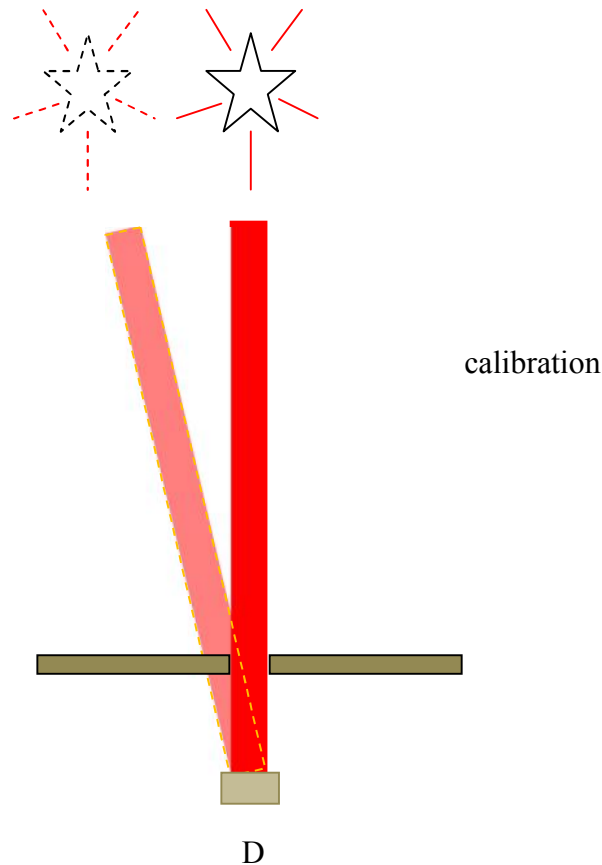
To measure absolute velocities, the instrument has to be calibrated first. It would be easier and more accurate to use this method than to try to determine analytically the change in intensity for a given absolute velocity and for a given orientation of line SD relative to the absolute velocity.

The calibration is done by recording the voltage output of the photo detector for different angles of the arriving light ray, by changing the position of the source physically relative to the slit and the photo detector, as shown in the next diagram. Then, when measuring absolute velocity, the

angle  $\alpha$  of the light ray corresponding to the voltage output of the photo detector is read from the calibration table. Once the angle  $\alpha$  is obtained, the absolute velocity is determined from the formula:

$$\sin\alpha = \frac{V_{abs}}{c}$$

Remember that this formula applies for line SD orthogonal with the absolute velocity vector.



But there is problem with this method of calibration. For calibration, the apparatus needs to be at absolute rest so that the light rays from the source are radial and straight. Since the Earth is in absolute motion ( 390 Km/s), this method ( calibration) is not practical.

There is another feasible method. The line SD ( source-observer line) is oriented to be parallel (or anti parallel) with the Earth's absolute velocity. The assembly consisting the plate and the light detector is then rotated to different angles, with a resolution of a few arcseconds. At each angular position, the intensity of light detected by the detector is recorded in a calibration table, corresponding to each angular position. During calibration, the line SD is always parallel with Earth's absolute velocity. Once the calibration is completed, the plate and detector assembly is returned to its initial angular position and fixed in that position. The line SD is then oriented to



be in the plane orthogonal to Earth's absolute velocity. The light intensity measured by the light sensor (detector D) is then noted and the corresponding angle  $\alpha$  read from the calibration table, from which Earth's absolute velocity can be determined. The calibration method requires a rotation stage with resolution of about 2 arcseconds.

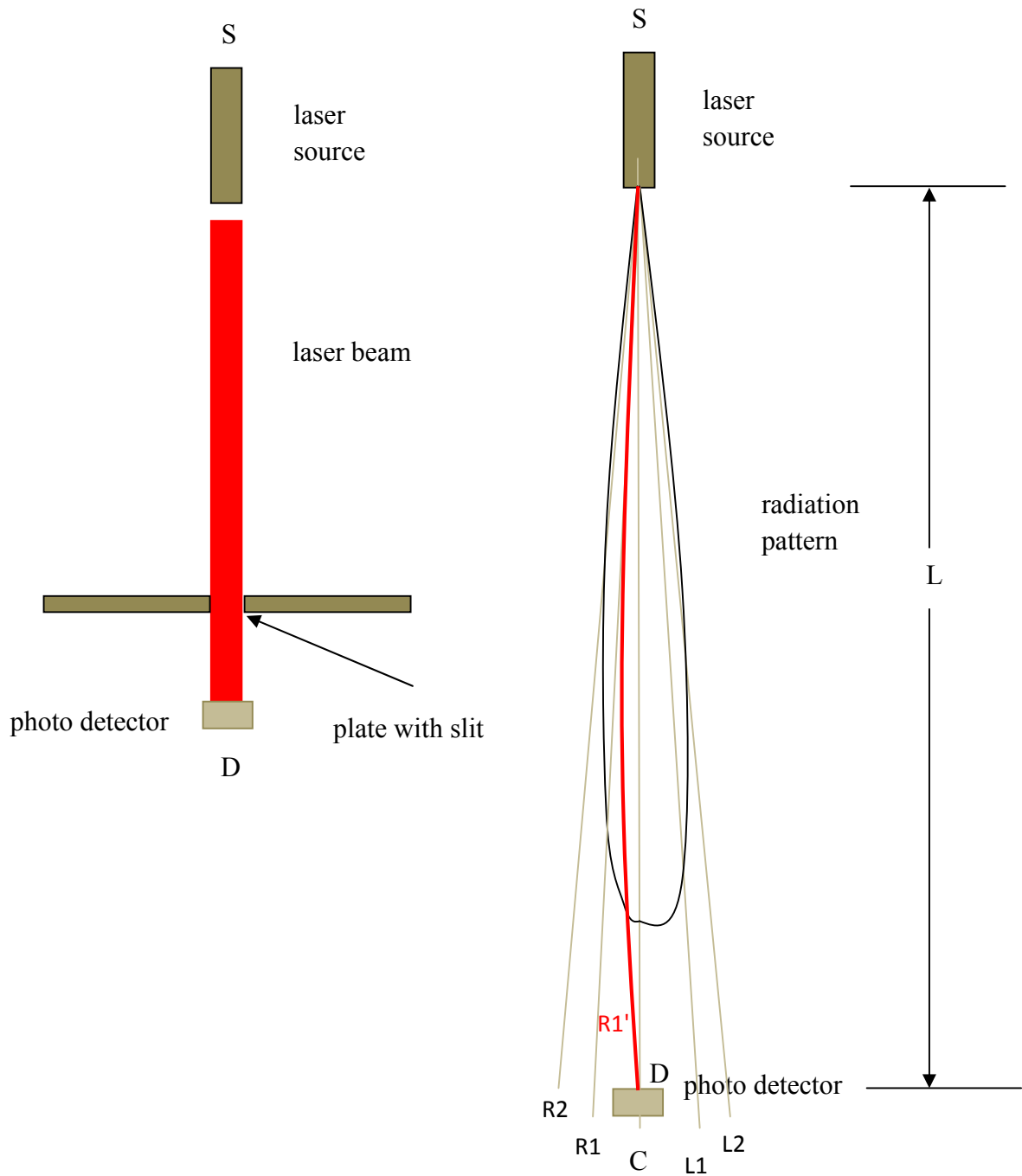
The other method is analytical method. This has practical limitations.

The procedure of measuring absolute velocity is as follows:

1. First align the source detector line ( SD) to be orthogonal to the absolute velocity vector. This means that the line SD should be on a plane orthogonal to the absolute velocity vector. How can we find this plane ? We use trial and error method. Rotation of the line SD in this plane will result in constant voltage output of the photo detector because the angle  $\alpha$  will be constant in this plane; the bending of the light ray is constant. Rotation of the line SD in all other planes will result in variation of angle  $\alpha$  , which will result in variation/ fluctuation of voltage of the photo sensor, as line SD is rotated in that plane. Another method is as follows. First the laser and the photo detector are nominally aligned for optimum light intensity falling on the photo detector. Then the orientation of the rod (line SD) in space is varied. As the orientation of the rod is changed in space, the amount of light falling on the photo detector varies, due to bending of the light rays by different extents depending on the orientation of the rod relative to the direction of the absolute velocity. The reading of the photo detector is recorded for all directions (orientations). The direction in which the photo detector detects maximum amount of light is parallel or anti-parallel to Earth's absolute velocity vector.
2. Once the line SD is orthogonal to the absolute velocity vector, read the voltage output of the photo detector and try to determine the angle  $\alpha$  analytically, from which absolute velocity is determined.

With this experiment, it is possible to determine the direction and magnitude of Earth's absolute velocity, hence confirm the validity of absolute motion.

In the experimental set up explained above, we assumed an isotropic source. Next we consider a practical case of non-isotropic source. By using a highly directional light beam, a laser beam, with the experimental set up described above, the sensitivity of the apparatus to absolute velocity can be significantly increased.



At first assume that there is no plate between the laser source and the photo detector. If the apparatus is at absolute rest and if the laser beam is aligned to the photo detector for maximum light intensity falling on the photo detector, the light ray going to the photo detector in this case will be ray C. Next assume that the apparatus is moving with absolute velocity to the right, without changing the alignment of the laser beam. In this case it will be light ray R1 that will go to the detector and not light ray C, even if we didn't change the alignment of the laser.

The curved light ray ( red curved line) is designated as R1' . R1 is tangent to R1' at the source.

In this case, since the intensity of ray R1 ( R1' ) is less than intensity of ray C, then we detect a change in intensity at the detector due to absolute velocity. If we place a plate with slit between the laser source and the detector, as before, the sensitivity of the device will increase further.

Unlike the previous case of an isotropic source, the calibration in this case is feasible. To do the calibration, we first align the source detector line SD with the absolute velocity of the Earth, since we want to measure the Earth's absolute velocity. We do this because, if the line SD is aligned to be parallel with the Earth's absolute velocity, light ray from the source to the detector will not be bent and will always be straight. We have already explained how to find the direction of Earth's absolute velocity. The direction of Earth's absolute velocity is easily found by rotating the line SD ( the apparatus) in different planes until we get a steady voltage at the output of the photo detector. The photo detector output voltage will be constant only when the device is rotated in a plane perpendicular to Earth's absolute velocity. Once we have found the direction of Earth's absolute velocity, we align the apparatus ( line SD ) to be parallel with the Earth's absolute velocity. We start by aligning ray C, which has maximum intensity, with the slit and the photo detector and record the voltage of the photo detector. Then we rotate the laser source to different degrees, with the line SD always parallel to Earth's absolute velocity, and record the voltage of the photo detector for each angle. For a resolution of 3 Km / s , we need an angular resolution of 2 arcseconds in rotating the laser source. Once we have completed the calibration table, we are ready to measure the Earth's absolute velocity. For this, we align the source detector line SD to be orthogonal to the absolute velocity. We then measure the voltage of the photo detector. From the calibration table, we read the angle  $\alpha$  corresponding to that voltage and determine Earth's absolute velocity from:

$$\sin\alpha = \frac{V_{abs}}{c}$$

Practically, however, we are interested in Earth's absolute velocity, which is much less than the speed of light, and the required directionality of the laser beam is too high to be practical. Even a beam width of one degree will require very large distance L between source and detector. The use of the slit is therefore necessary.

A more feasible calibration method is to rotate the plate and photo detector assembly, as explained already.

I conceived this experiment several months ago after I fully understood the physical meaning of Apparent Source Theory (AST ), which is bending of light rays and variable velocity of light relative to the source. It took me quite a long time to figure out the physical meaning of AST. I long thought about the possibility of bending of light rays as a physical meaning to the theory but was unable to understand it clearly and completely, so I was in doubt about its reality ( bending of light rays ). I had a hard time to figure it out clearly because the physical meaning of AST is quite hard to understand. On top of that, bending of light rays seemed to be an extraordinary claim. Even with such a vague understanding, I decided to do the above experiment. However, I was unable to acquire the components needed for the experiment in time and just continued to develop the theory.

In the mean time, I came across a paper [17 ] on the internet in which the author claimed to have observed bending of a laser beam due to Earth's absolute motion. This created a big motivation for me because I was then sure that bending of light rays is real. The very fact that bending of light rays is proved to be real enabled me to think more clearly to advance the theory and its physical meaning. Before long, I was able to fully understand the physical meaning. Once I understood the physical meaning, I decided to do the experiment. This is a very easy, cheap yet vital experiment. However, unfortunately, again I had difficulty to the components needed to do this experiment. It is not easy to make foreign purchases from my area. At last I decided just to publish the experiment as a proposal. At the same time I am trying to get the components and will hopefully do this experiment in the near future, with an accuracy just enough to confirm the Apparent Source Theory. A laser pointer and a photo detector would suffice.

## **10. Absolute velocity as mass weighed resultant velocity of an object relative to all massive objects in the universe.**

*The problem of uniformly moving charges; the Trouton-Noble paradox*

Now we consider the long standing problem of moving charges. We consider this problem at this point of this paper because of its profound implications to the understanding of absolute motion. In the discussions so far, we applied the new model or interpretation of absolute motion and the speed of light ( AST ), without being concerned by what absolute motion fundamentally is, i.e. the 'relative to what' problem.

One of the experiments being cited as evidence of Special Relativity is the Trouton-Noble experiment.

However, a little thought reveals that the theory of relativity faces an insurmountable problem to explain the Trouton-Noble experiment, whether torque ( rotation ) is observed or not. This is a well known paradox : the Trouton-Noble paradox.

Contrary to the Trouton-Noble experiment, there is another experiment [11] in which the authors claimed to have detected a torque. Even in the Trouton-Noble experiment, the result was not null but much less than the expected amount. This is similar to the Michelson-Morley result that was interpreted as null when actually a small fringe was detected.

Assume that the Trouton-Noble experiment is sensitive enough to detect any possible absolute velocity. If no torque develops on the charge system, as apparently observed in the original experiment, then this is a real problem for relativity, not a supporting evidence. The problem is that, how can an observer moving relative to the Earth predict or explain a zero torque? This is a problem because, a torque should develop in a reference frame moving relative to the Earth, according to the classical laws of magnetism, because the charges are moving in that reference frame. Will there be torque ( rotation) or not ? ! Since rotation is a phenomena on which all observers agree, there is no chance at all for the proponents of relativity in this case. I think this paradox is even harder than the Twin Paradox of Special Relativity.

It is strange how the mainstream scientific community has tolerated this paradox.

The consideration of the problem of moving charges led me to a deeper investigation of the meaning of absolute motion.

The solution to this century old problem may be related to quantum mechanics: *the observer effect*. Imagine a charge moving with a velocity  $V$  relative to an observer. From classical physics, the observer will experience the magnetic field of the moving charge. If the charge is moving relative to another observer with a different velocity  $U$ , then that observer also will measure a different magnitude of magnetic field. An observer in the reference frame of the moving charge will not detect any magnetic field. So far there seems to be no problem .

A problem stands out when we consider the Trouton- Noble ( T-N ) experiment. Consider the Trouton-Noble experimental apparatus in different reference frames. In the reference frame in which the charges (the capacitor) is at rest, zero torque is predicted. The torque predicted is different for all different frames. So an observer moving relative to the Earth, for example an observer in the Sun's reference frame, will predict a non-zero torque. There are only two possibilities: either there will be a torque or not. The capacitor will turn or not. All observers agree on the rotation or non-rotation of the capacitor. Now, will the capacitor turn or not? Which observer will 'decide' on the observable quantity: rotation ? This paradox is a deadly blow to the theory of relativity. It is known as the Trouton-Noble paradox.

Pursuing the above reasoning, I came across a possible solution to the problem. The above paradox leads us to the inescapable conclusion that *the observer affects the result of an experiment*. This seems to be no new assertion, but is a new application of ideas in quantum mechanics in solving the problems of absolute/relative motion and the speed of light.

The observable quantity in the Trouton-Noble experiment, which is rotation (angular velocity or angular acceleration), is the resultant effect of all observers. All observers contribute to the torque developed in the device. It is intuitive to assume that not all observers have equal influence on the torque. I propose that the fundamental characteristic of an 'observer' that is important is the mass of the observer. In this sense any massive body is an 'observer'. The more massive an observer (an object) is the more influence it will have on the Trouton-Noble experiment. This means that if the Trouton-Noble device has different velocities relative to two objects, for example the Sun and a space craft, it is the velocity of the T-N device relative to the sun that almost completely determines the torque. The velocity of the T-N device relative to the space craft has negligible effect on the torque.

Trouton and Noble did not observe the expected rotation of the capacitor. This result is very difficult to explain because, even if the T-N device is at rest relative to the Earth, it is in motion relative to the Sun (30 Km/s ) which is much more massive than the Earth, and relative to billions of stars in the universe (390 Km/s ).

Therefore, it is not clear why absolute motion was detected with the Silvertooth, the Marinov , the Roland De Witte and the Miller experiments, but was not detected by the Trouton-Noble experiment. Perhaps the T-N experiment was not sensitive enough or was flawed. But another experiment [11] was reported in which the authors claimed detection of torque. In that experiment, the capacitor was not shielded, unlike the other T-N experiments. Even the result of the original Trouton-Nobel experiment was *not null*, but was only much less than expected.

Even if I have asserted that the fundamental quantity defining an observer is its mass, much remains to be clarified regarding such a hypothesis. *How* does the mass of an object physically

affect an experiment, i.e. with what mechanism? Does shielding the capacitor prevent the charges from being 'observed' by celestial objects in the universe ? e.t.c.

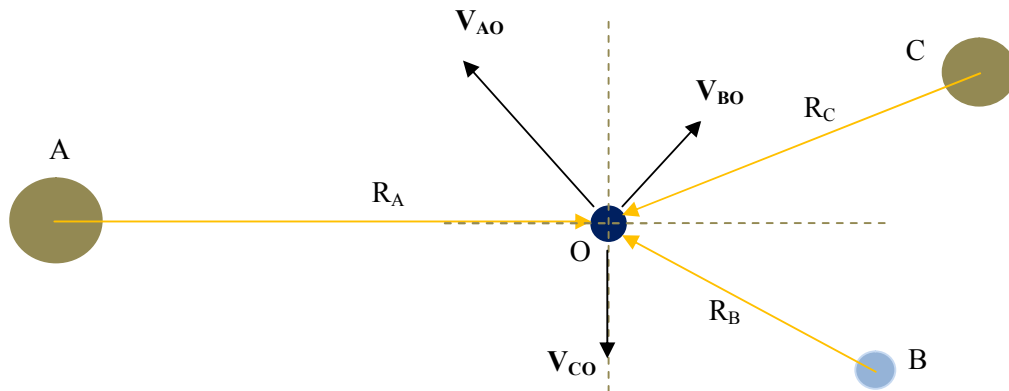
### Absolute motion as motion relative to by massive cosmic objects.

Absolute motion has been detected by many experiments, such as the Miller, Silvertooth, Marinov, Roland De Witte experiments. The failure of conventional and modern Michelson-Morley experiments to detect the (expected) fringe shift is due to a serious flaw of the experiments. Those experiments were designed to detect the ether, and were successful in disproving the ether hypothesis. However, they were flawed to detect absolute motion. Absolute motion and motion relative to the ether were always (wrongly) perceived to be the same.

Now the question is: if the ether does not exist, relative to what is absolute motion defined? I propose that *absolute velocity of a body is the vector sum of the mass weighed velocities of the body relative to all matter (massive objects) in the universe.*

Imagine a hypothetical universe in which only three bodies exist, A, B and C, for simplicity.

A, B, C, D and O are massive celestial objects (see next figure) in motion. We seek to determine the absolute velocity of object O, with a Michelson-Morley device attached to it. To determine the absolute velocity of O, we determine the resultant of the mass weighed velocities of objects A, B, C and D in a reference frame ( $S_O$ ) attached to object O. It is proposed here that this resultant velocity is the velocity of the absolute reference frame  $S_{absO}$  relative to  $S_O$ .



$$\mathbf{V}_{absO} = \frac{M_A}{M_T} \mathbf{V}_{AO} + \frac{M_B}{M_T} \mathbf{V}_{BO} + \frac{M_C}{M_T} \mathbf{V}_{CO} \quad (\text{vector sum})$$

where  $M_T$  is the total mass in the universe.

$$M_T = M_A + M_B + M_C + M_O$$

The more massive an object the more influence it has in determining the absolute velocity of another body .

Therefore, the absolute velocity of O is  $V_{\text{absO}}$  , which is the velocity of O relative to  $S_{\text{absO}}$ .

But this absolute reference frame  $S_{\text{absO}}$  applies only for object O . Each of the objects will have their own associated absolute reference frames:  $S_{\text{absA}}$  ,  $S_{\text{absB}}$  ,  $S_{\text{absC}}$  , which are in motion relative to each other ! There is no single, universal absolute reference frame.

However, note that we assumed in the above analysis that there are only four massive objects in the universe. We know that there are more than one hundred billion galaxies in the universe. It can be shown according to the above analysis that the absolute reference frames of all objects are almost at rest relative to each other, due to the enormous number of massive objects in the universe. Therefore, we can say that there is essentially a single universal absolute reference frame.

Therefore, the absolute velocity (378 Km/s) of the Earth as detected in the Silvertooth experiment is theoretically the resultant sum of mass weighed velocities of the Earth relative to all celestial bodies ( all matter ) in the universe.

The implication of this hypothesis is that distance from the massive objects is irrelevant in the determination of absolute velocity. For example, Galilean space is usually approximated by a region of space far enough away from all matter in the universe. In the above formula, however, distance of object O from celestial bodies A and B, does not appear to have any effect on absolute velocity.

This theory may solve the centuries old perplexing paradox: Relative to what is the absolute velocity of a body determined? The answer is: Relative to all matter ( cosmic massive objects) in the universe.

### **Galilean space**

From our discussion so far, Galilean space doesn't exist physically. We have used Galilean space only as a mathematical abstraction in solving problems of absolute motion. The procedure to solve a problem of the speed of light, with a source and observer in absolute motion is:

1. Replace the ( real ) source with an apparent source to account for absolute motion
2. Solve the problem by assuming Galilean space and by applying modified emission theory for group velocity. The phase velocity is always  $c$  independent of source and observer velocities. In Galilean space, the group velocity of light is constant relative to the source, i.e. varies with source, observer and mirror velocity; the phase velocity is always constant  $c$ .

Galilean space exists only as a mathematical abstraction.

## 11. Absolute motion and electromagnetism, the speed of light and the speed of electrostatic fields

The problem of whether the electrostatic force is instantaneous or is propagated at the speed of light is a long standing one and one of the most confusing and unresolved problems in physics. According to Coulomb's law, electrostatic fields are instantaneous; therefore, there will be no aberration of the field from a moving charge. According to Special Relativity (SRT) and Quantum Electrodynamics ( QED) electrostatic force propagates at the speed of light.

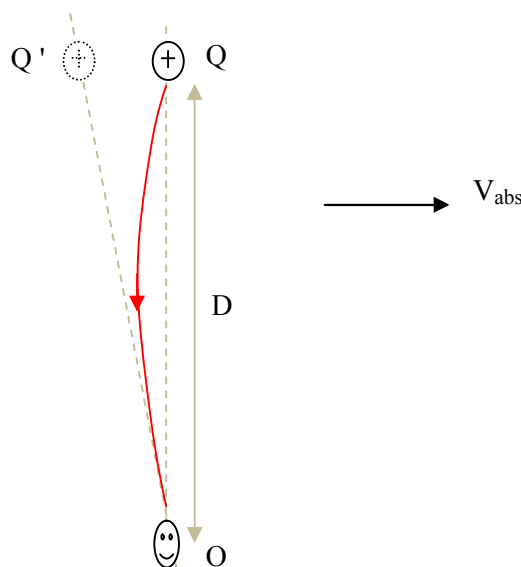
The standard solution of Maxwell's equations for a charge in uniform motion is by using Leinard's retarded potential. The interpretation of the result is confusing[4]. A new experiment[4] has been performed that seems to support infinite speed of propagation of electrostatic fields.

However, there is another astronomical observation that disagrees with the infinite speed of propagation of electrostatic fields. This is based on my proposal at the end of this paper that gravity is just an electrostatic effect. And, observations show that the Earth accelerates towards a point 20 arc seconds ahead of the visible sun. Considering the absolute velocity ( 390 Km/s) of the solar system, according to AST this can be shown to imply that the ‘speed’ of gravity ( electrostatic field) is in fact the same as the speed of light.

The speed of electrostatic (and gravitational ) fields is one of the most confusing subjects in physics. Tom Van Flandern has discussed this in an interesting way [5].

### Absolutely co-moving charge and observer

A new theory of electrostatic fields is proposed as follows. Consider absolutely co-moving charges  $Q$  and an observer  $O$ , both on a common platform, initially at rest. While both are at rest, radial, straight electric lines of force emanate from the charge. Imagine that the charge and observer instantaneously accelerate from rest to a common absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$ .

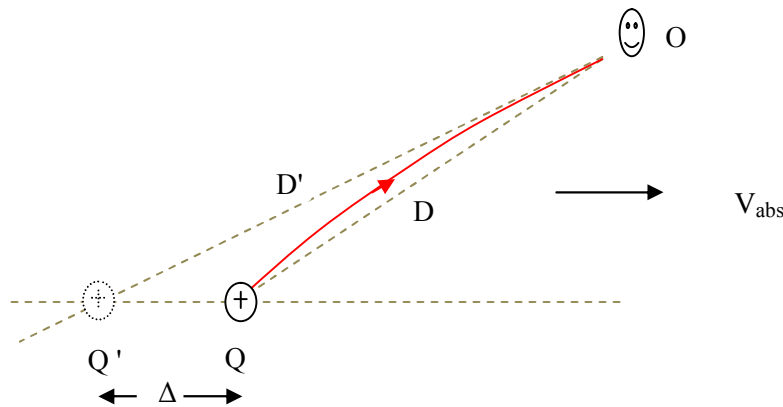




The new theory proposed here is that the observer detects the absolute velocity instantaneously, as there will be an instantaneous apparent change in the position of the charge relative to the observer. The observer detects the change in state of motion of the platform instantaneously, but the position of the charge changes apparently. To the observer, the electric lines of force come from apparent charge  $Q'$  and not from the physical charge  $Q$ . It is *as if* electrostatic field propagated at the speed of light, yet, at the same time, the observer detects change in state of (absolute) motion of the co-moving charge instantaneously.

For absolutely co-moving charge and observer, the line of force will be bent, creating an apparent change of position of the charge, as shown above.

We state the above theory more fundamentally as follows: *the electric lines of force emanating from an absolutely moving charge bend, as seen by co-moving observer. Only lines of force emanating from a charge at absolute rest are straight lines.* There will be aberration even for absolutely co-moving charge and observer.



The apparent change in position of a light source depends on the speed of light. In this case, it is *as if* the electrostatic field was 'propagated' at the speed of light. Actually there is no propagation.

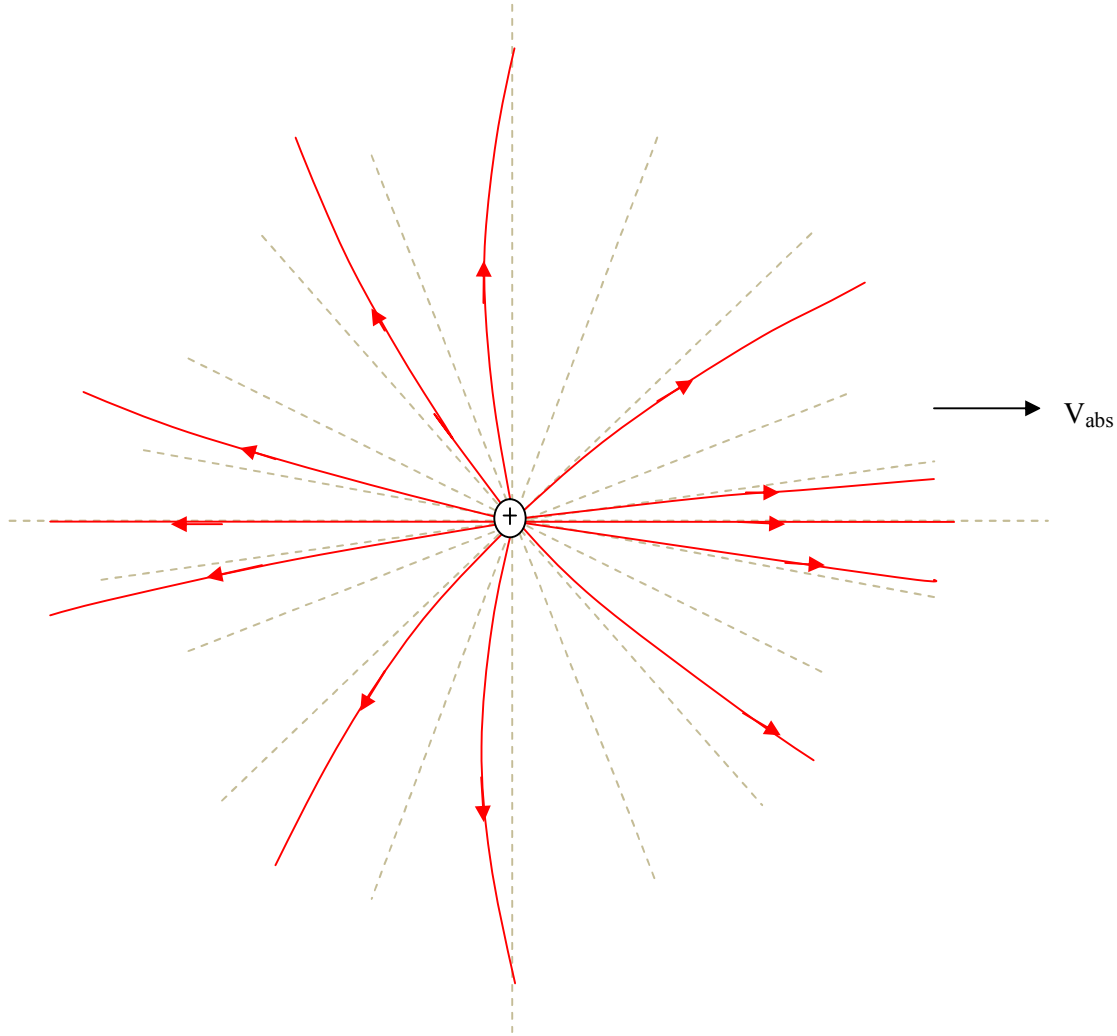
$$\frac{D'}{c} = \frac{\Delta}{V_{abs}} = \frac{|\mathbf{D}' - \mathbf{D}|}{c}$$

where  $\mathbf{D}$  and  $\mathbf{D}'$  are written in bold to denote vector quantities.

The above notation *seems* to mean that during the time that the field 'propagates' from position  $Q'$  to observer  $O$ , the charge moves from position  $Q'$  to position  $Q$ . This is only apparent, however. There is no propagation of static fields. It is as if the bent line of force is rigidly carried by the real charge  $Q$  and the straight lines of force are rigidly carried by the apparent charge  $Q'$ . The result of the Calcaterra et al experiment[ 4] is interpreted by this theory.

To summarize the above: static field is (nearly) instantaneous, but the lines of force are bent due

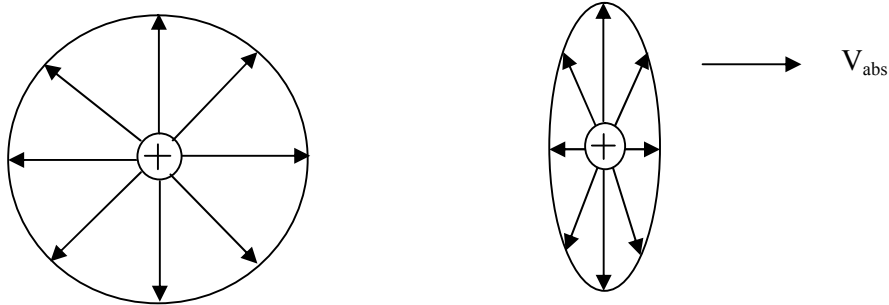
to absolute velocity. The lines of force are straight only if the charge is at absolute rest. The next figure shows the electric lines of force of a charge in absolute motion. The bent lines of force are rigidly carried by and moving with the charge.



From the above figure, we see that bending of the lines of force is maximum in lateral/transverse directions, at or near the ninety degrees (orthogonal) directions. In the forward and backward directions ( $0^{\circ}$  and  $180^{\circ}$ ), there is no bending of the light rays. In directions close to these directions, for example  $2^{\circ}$  or  $178^{\circ}$ , there is a very slight bending only. In these directions, the lines of force or the equi-potential lines will get compressed or expanded, respectively. The bending electric lines of force move rigidly with the charge. Change in absolute velocity of the charges changes the bending of the light rays.

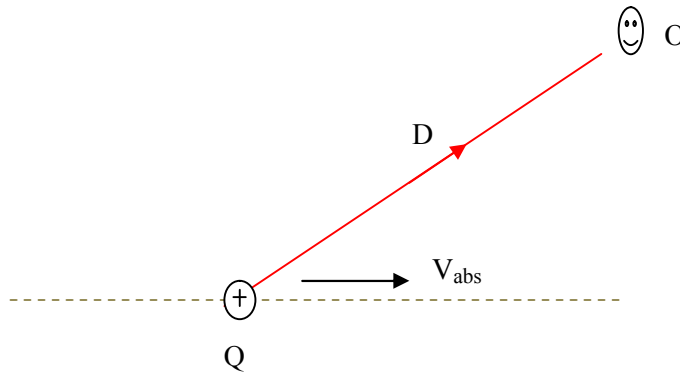
There is also additional effect due to absolute motion of the charge. The electric field around a

charge that is at absolute rest is isotropic, where as the electric field around an absolutely moving charge is distorted, as shown in the diagram below. This is predicted by the Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential method.



### Charge in absolute motion, observer at absolute rest

Consider a charge  $Q$  and an observer  $O$  both at absolute rest initially. In this case, the lines of force are straight lines going out of the charge, with magnitude according to Coulomb's law.

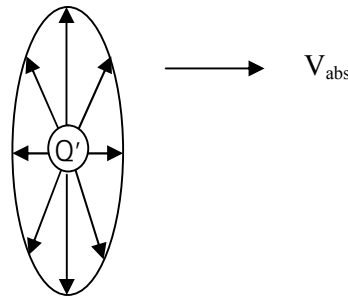


The most confusing problem has been what would happen if the charge accelerates suddenly from rest to a velocity  $V_{abs}$ , at time  $t = 0$ . The question is: will the observer detect the change in state of motion of the charge with a delay of the speed of light or instantaneously? It is proposed in this paper that the observer  $O$  detects the change in state of motion or a change in position of the charge *instantaneously*. The magnitude of the electric field will be according to the conventional formula for the electric field of a uniformly moving charge, discussed in next section. To the stationary observer, it is as if the field is rigidly attached to the field. However, for a co-moving observer, the line of force will be bent, as already discussed.

The electric field at  $O$  changes *instantaneously*, and the electric field around the charge will also be distorted. The counter intuitive conclusion is this: *the electric field at  $O$  is computed by assuming that the charge  $Q$  has been moving with (absolute) velocity  $V_{abs}$  indefinitely, and*

*applying Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential.* Even though the charge started moving a short time ago, it behaves as if it has been in uniform motion forever! However, such confusion arises from the simplistic conventional assumption that electrostatic fields propagate at the speed of light. There are two separate conventional views on the speed of propagation of electrostatic fields: light speed propagation and instantaneous propagation. Both of these views are simplistic and miss the novel dual nature of light. Apparent Source Theory successfully models this odd behavior. Electrostatic force has dual nature: instantaneous propagation and light speed propagation.

The effect of absolute motion of a charge is to distort its electric field, as already discussed.



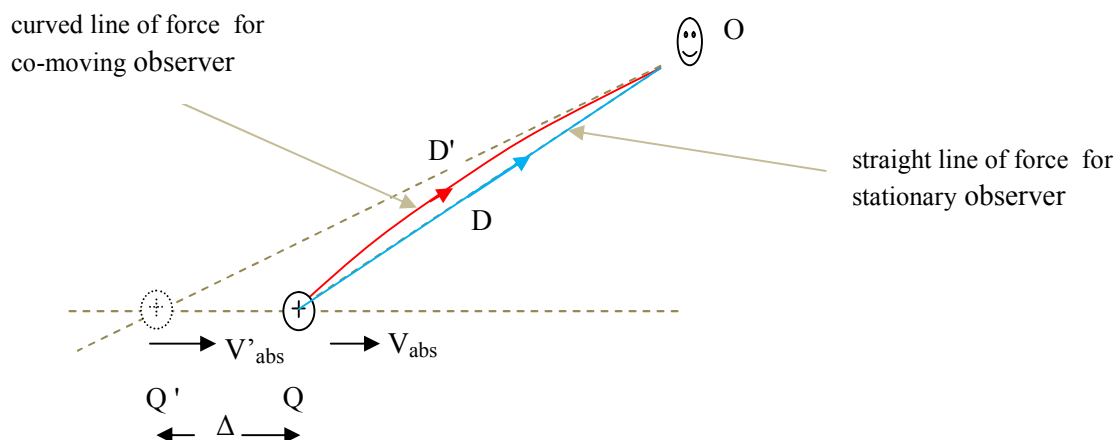
There are a lot of ambiguities related to the standard analysis and interpretation of the electric field of a moving charge. For example, what is the velocity  $V$  : is it absolute velocity or relative velocity ? Does motion of the observer also distort the observed field ?

According to the new interpretation of AST, the electric field at  $O$  due to charge  $Q$  is given by:

$$E(t) = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{R}(t)}{R(t)^3} \frac{1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2}}{\left(1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \sin^2\theta(t)\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

Velocity of the charge in this formula is considered as absolute velocity. The electric field is distorted and approaches infinity as the absolute velocity approaches the speed of light. This is because the mass of the electron, which is radiation reaction ( as will be proposed later ), approaches infinity as the absolute velocity of the electron approaches the speed of light.

For absolutely co-moving charge and observer, there will be an apparent change in source position, as seen by the observer, as already discussed. The question here is: will there be an apparent change in the position of the charge for an observer at rest also ? The experiment[4] was crucial to answer this question.



For the stationary observer, it is as if the electric field is rigidly carried by the moving charge, straight radial lines emanating from the charge. We explain this with AST as follows. For the stationary observer, the apparent change in position of the charge is exactly compensated for by the fact that the ‘speed’ of the electrostatic field will be  $c$  relative to the apparent charge  $Q'$ .

For absolutely co-moving light source and observer, there will be an apparent change in the position of the source relative to the observer and this will have a real effect in that there will be a change in the time delay between emission and detection of light. In fact, the effect is the same as actually, physically changing the position of the source. In the case of light source absolutely moving relative to an observer at rest, we have seen that there will be an apparent change in past position of the light source, i.e. an apparent change in position of the source at the instant of emission. However this apparent change in the past position of the source is exactly compensated for by the fact that the speed of light also changes apparently: the speed of light is constant relative to the apparent source. The time delay between emission and detection of light is equal to the distance between the (real) source and the observer at the moment of emission divided by the speed of light, as usual. Therefore, the apparent change in the *past* position of a light source is only an artifact in this case (absolutely moving source, stationary observer) and light behaves normally : it starts from the point where the source was physically at the moment of emission.

With the same analogy, for absolutely co-moving charge and observer, there will be an apparent change in the position of the charge as seen by the observer. This apparent change in charge position has real effect: change in magnitude and direction of the charge. There will also be distortion of the field due to absolute motion, as discussed already. In the case of a charge in absolute motion and observer at rest, however, the apparent change in charge position is exactly compensated for by an apparent change in the ‘speed’ of the field. The ‘speed’ of the field changes from  $c$  to  $c'$ , where  $\mathbf{c}' = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{V}'$ , written in bold to denote vector quantities, meaning that the speed of light is constant  $c$  relative to the apparent source.  $V'$  is the velocity of the apparent source. Therefore, the apparent change in *current, instantaneous* position of the charge is only an artifact and has no real effect; to the stationary observer, the electric field now comes from the charge position now.

### Electric field of a uniformly moving charge - Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential

According to Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential, the electric field at  $r(x,y,z)$  from a charge  $e$  traveling with constant velocity  $v$ , at a time  $t$  can be written as [4]:

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}{\left(R(t') - \frac{\mathbf{R}(t') \cdot \mathbf{v}}{c}\right)^3} \left(\mathbf{R}(t') - \mathbf{v} \frac{R(t')}{c}\right)$$

where

$$\mathbf{R}(t') = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{v} t'$$

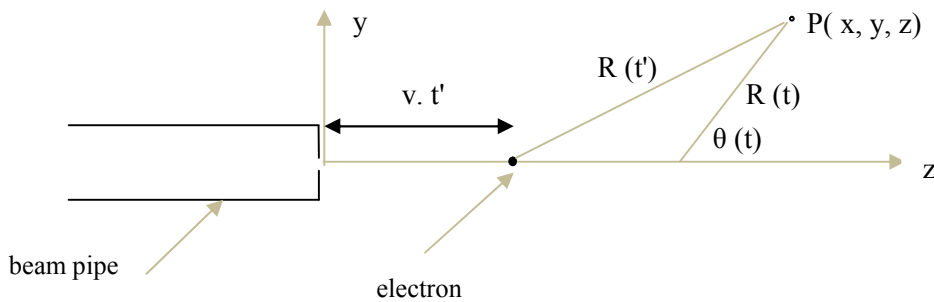
is the distance between the moving charge and the space point where one measures the field at time  $t$ , and

$$t' = t - \frac{R(t')}{c}$$

The field from a steadily moving charge can also be written as:

$$\mathbf{E}(t) = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\mathbf{R}(t)}{R(t)^3} \frac{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}{\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \sin^2\theta(t)\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

where  $\mathbf{R}(t)$  is the vector joining the charge position and the point at which we evaluate the e.m field at time  $t$  and  $\theta(t)$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{R}(t)$ .



The maximum transverse electric field with respect to the direction of motion can be computed:

$$E_{max} = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\gamma}{y^2}$$

a value obtained when the charge is at a distance  $\gamma y$  at a time

$$t' = t - \frac{\gamma y}{c}$$

where

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

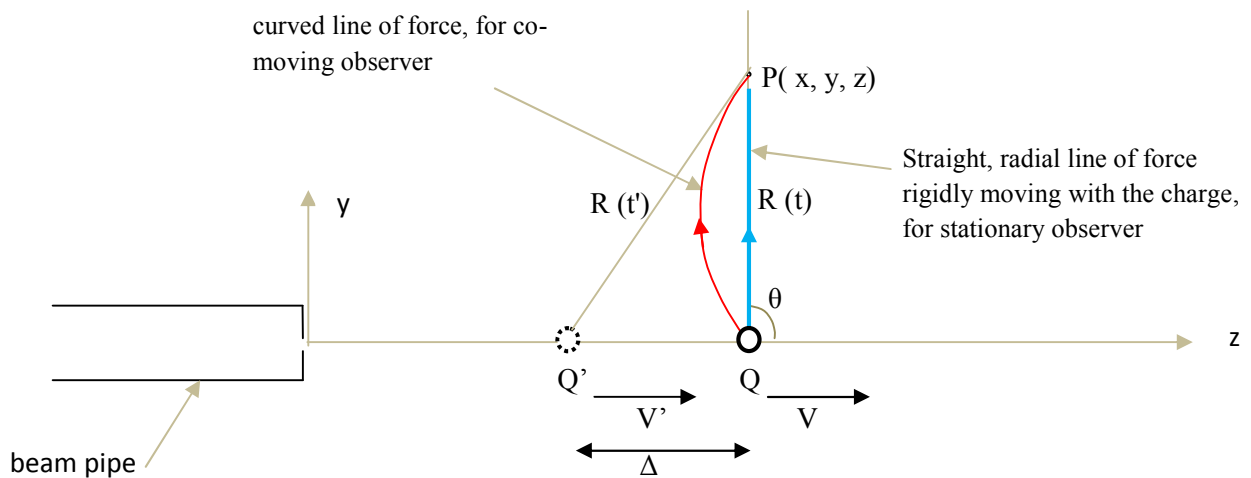
Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential states that the electric field at point P at time  $t$  is caused by the charge at an earlier time  $t'$ , due to finite speed of 'propagation' of the field.

In the experiment[4],  $\gamma = 1000$ ,  $y = 30$  cm, hence  $z = -300$ m.  $E_{\max}$  is caused by the electron when it was at position  $z = -300$  m. Since the electron can never be physically at  $z = -300$ m in this experiment, this is very intriguing for conventional thinking.

The experiment[4] is perhaps the most crucial experiment ever done in relation to static fields, to develop the model of electrostatic fields proposed in this paper. I concluded that the Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential is partly the correct model to *predict* the outcome of experiments but its interpretation has been wrong. However, it doesn't reveal the apparent change in position of the charge for absolutely co-moving charge and observer. Static fields do not have any propagation delay as thought in the conventional interpretation of Maxwell's equations and the Lienard-Wiechert retarded potential.

*Electrostatic fields have dual nature: finite speed of propagation and infinite speed of propagation.*

Now we apply AST to experiment[4].



From the figure above, we can see that the maximum transverse electric field is detected at point P when the charge is physically at Q.

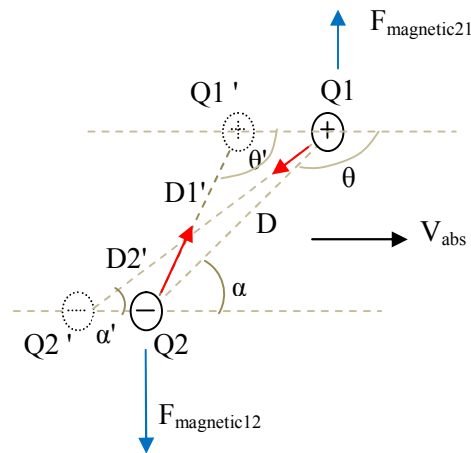
### Charge at absolute rest, observer in absolute motion

Motion of the observer relative to the charge ( relative to the apparent charge ) has no effect on the observed electric field. The experiment[4] has confirmed this because the  $\gamma$  of the electron beam, which was 1000, was determined by the conventional assumption that the electron beam does not affect the accelerating field. The reported good agreement between the measured and predicted voltage (  $V_{\max}$  ) indicates that the calculated  $\gamma$  was correct.

For a charge at absolute rest and an observer in motion, the motion of the observer has no effect on the observed electric field magnitude and direction.

### Magnetic field

I thought of the possibility that AST may express magnetic field as an electrostatic field modified due to absolute motion and as such not a fundamental quantity. However, on closer examination, I came to the conclusion that magnetic field is a fundamental quantity because I couldn't explain the magnetic force between two current carrying conductors by electric field alone.



For absolutely co-moving charges Q1 and Q2 , the magnetic force of Q1 on Q2 is calculated by using distance  $D1'$  and angle  $\theta'$  , and not by using  $D$  and  $\theta$  , although the physical distance between the charges is  $D$  and the physical angle is  $\theta$  . Also the magnetic force of Q2 on Q1 is determined by using  $D2'$  and  $\alpha'$  , and not  $D$  and  $\alpha$  . It can be seen that the magnetic force of Q1 on Q2 is different ( greater) from the magnetic force of Q2 on Q1. Note that, to an observer at absolute rest, unlike the co-moving observer, the magnetic field behaves in the classical way.

The magnetic force (blue) creates a counter-clockwise torque. The electrostatic force (red) creates clockwise torque (see figure on the right) because the force of electrostatic attraction by Q1 on Q2 is greater than that by Q2 on Q1 because of difference in the apparent distances of the

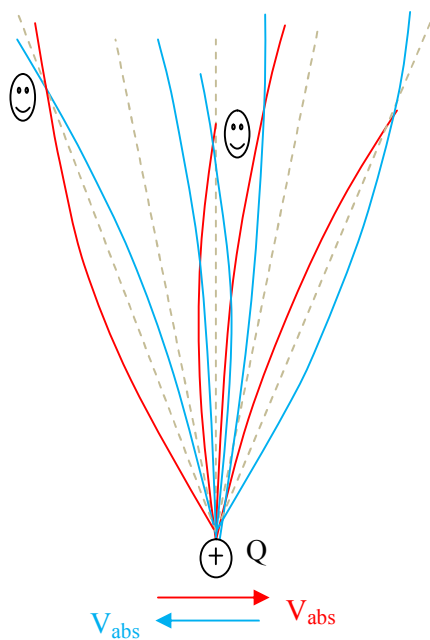


other charge in each case. Therefore, it is the resultant of the two torques ( electrostatic and magnetic ) that is to be expected in the Trouton-Noble experiment.

### Electromagnetic radiation

Another long standing problem is the problem of electromagnetic radiation. Conventionally, it is believed that electromagnetic radiation is produced by accelerating charges. But the physical process involved is not known clearly.

This paper reveals the mystery of electromagnetic radiation. Consider an accelerating or oscillating charge. Let us see what an observer *in the reference frame of the charge* observes.



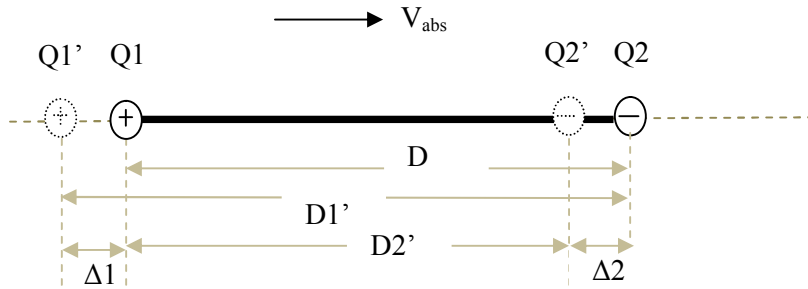
Since the lines of force are bending relative to the charge due to absolute motion, the lines of force will have *transverse* component. As the charge oscillates left and right, the observer in the reference frame of the charge observes that there is a time varying *transverse* component of the electric field, changing directions and magnitudes as the charge accelerates to the right and to the left. The time varying transverse component of the electric field causes electromagnetic radiation. We can see that maximum radiation occurs in the lateral directions, with no radiation in the longitudinal directions. This means that *rate of change of absolute motion* ( acceleration ) is the cause of electromagnetic radiation.

Note again that only co-moving observer sees the bending of lines of force. For a stationary observer, the field rigidly moves with the charge.

## Reactionless thrust, free energy, anti-gravity, the Biefeld-Brown effect

I have already shown that Apparent Source Theory predicts reactionless thrust and free energy[24].

Consider two opposite charged balls fixed to the ends of a rigid rod. Assume them to be point charges.



\$D\$ is the actual, physical distance between real charges \$Q1\$ and \$Q2\$. \$D1'\$ is the apparent distance of \$Q1\$ as seen by \$Q2\$. We can also say that \$D1'\$ is the distance of apparent charge \$Q1'\$ from real charge \$Q2\$. \$D2'\$ is the apparent distance of \$Q2\$ as seen by \$Q1\$. We can also say that \$D2'\$ is the distance of apparent charge \$Q2'\$ from real charge \$Q1\$.

Now the electrostatic force exerted by \$Q1\$ on \$Q2\$ will be:

$$F_{12} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 Q2}{(D1')^2}$$

The electrostatic force exerted by \$Q2\$ on \$Q1\$ will be:

$$F_{21} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 Q2}{(D2')^2}$$

But

$$D1' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} \quad \text{and} \quad D2' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

The above equations for \$D1'\$ and \$D2'\$ result from new interpretations of 'speed' of electrostatic fields proposed in my paper[1].

The net force on the rod will be:

$$F = F_{21} - F_{12} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 Q2}{(D2')^2} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 Q2}{(D1')^2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} Q1 Q2 \left( \frac{1}{(D2')^2} - \frac{1}{(D1')^2} \right)$$

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{D^2} \left( \frac{4 V_{abs}}{c} \right)$$

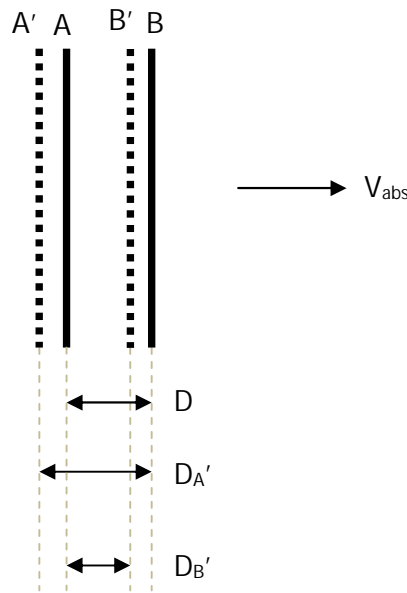
There is a net force on the system ! The force is directed in the direction of the absolute velocity.

Now consider a parallel plate charged capacitor, with plates named A and B, and with an air (vacuum) dielectric. Assume that the capacitor is absolutely moving to the right. For ease of discussion, assume that the capacitor dimensions are such that the electric field lines are parallel to each other and perpendicular to the capacitor surfaces, i.e. we neglect distortion due to absolute motion. In reality, according to AST, a charge at a given point on one plate doesn't see the other plate as a flat plane, but as a curved plane.

A' is the apparent position of plate A as seen by plate B. And B' is the apparent position of plate B as seen by plate A. The electrostatic force between the plates of a parallel plate capacitor is given by:

$$F = \frac{\epsilon_0 A V^2}{2 D^2} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{D^2}$$

where  $V$  is the potential difference across the capacitor,  $D$  is the plate separation distance and  $A$  is the area of each plate. This is the formula for the force exerted by one plate on the other.



$D_{A'}$  is the apparent distance of plate A as seen by plate B.  $D_{B'}$  is the apparent distance of plate B as seen by plate A. Strict application of AST shows that, to a point charge on one capacitor plate the opposite plate is not a plane but somewhat curved. However, we can use the above simplistic assumption to a good approximation.

Now we determine the force exerted by plate A on plate B.

$$F_{AB} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{(D_A')^2}$$

And the force exerted by plate B on plate A will be:

$$F_{BA} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{(D_B')^2}$$

The NET force on the capacitor will be:

$$F = F_{BA} - F_{AB} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{(D_B')^2} - \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{(D_A')^2}$$

But

$$D_A' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} \quad \text{and} \quad D_B' = D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}}$$

From which,

$$-F = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} V^2 \left( \frac{1}{(D_B')^2} - \frac{1}{(D_A')^2} \right)$$

$$F = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2D^2} \frac{V^2}{c} \frac{4V_{abs}}{c} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \left( \frac{V}{D} \right)^2 \frac{4V_{abs}}{c} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} E^2 \frac{4V_{abs}}{c}$$

where  $E = V/D$  is the electric field strength.

If there is a dielectric between the plates, the 'speed' of the electrostatic field ( $c$ ) is modified by the dielectric constant  $\epsilon$ .

$$c' = \frac{c}{\epsilon}$$

Therefore

$$F = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{D^2} \frac{4V_{abs}}{c'} = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{2} \frac{V^2}{D^2} \frac{4V_{abs}}{\left(\frac{c}{\epsilon}\right)} = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon A}{2} \frac{V^2}{D^2} \frac{4V_{abs}}{c}$$

From the above formula, we can see that the net force on the capacitor is :

- directly proportional to the square of the applied voltage
- inversely proportional to the square of plate separation distance
- directly proportional to the area of the plates
- directly proportional to the relative permittivity of the dielectric material.
- directly proportional to the absolute velocity, for  $V_{abs} \ll c$

That the net force is directly proportional to the square of the electric field strength ( $E = V/D$ ) implies that dielectric materials with the highest dielectric strength are vital to the realization of free energy devices. Diamond has the highest known dielectric strength, about 2000 MV/m [9]. Mylar also has a high dielectric strength, typically 500 MV/m at DC, for small thicknesses.

The above formula will be further modified by a factor [1].

$$F = \left( \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon A}{2} \frac{V^2}{D^2} \frac{4V_{abs}}{c} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{V_{abs}^2}{c^2} \right)$$

For  $V_{abs} \ll c$ , the factor  $(1 - V_{abs}^2/c^2) \approx 1$ .

To illustrate the possibilities, consider a parallel plate capacitor with diamond as the dielectric material.

$$A = 1\text{m}^2, \quad \epsilon = 5.5, \quad \text{dielectric strength} = 2000 \text{ MV/m}$$

The absolute velocity of the earth,  $V_{abs} = 390 \text{ Km/s}$  and  $c = 300000 \text{ Km/s}$ ,  $V_{abs} \ll c$

$$F = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon A}{2} E^2 \frac{4V_{abs}}{c} = \frac{8.85 \cdot 10^{-12} * 5.5}{2} * \frac{1}{(2000 \cdot 10^6)^2} * \frac{4 \cdot 390}{300000}$$

$$F = 506220 \text{ N} = 50622 \text{ Kgf}$$

This is an enormous net force from a single capacitor !

Now let us push the limits even further. We can increase the net force enormously by stacking up hundreds of thousands of such capacitors connected in parallel to a voltage source. Assume each capacitor has a thickness of 50 nm, with each plate 10nm thick and the dielectric 30nm thick. A voltage of about 60 V is applied to the capacitors for maximum electric field intensity of 2000 MV/m. If we construct a capacitor stack containing 20 million such capacitors ( the total thickness of the stacked capacitor will be 1m ), the net force will be:

$$F = 50622 \cdot 20000000 \text{ Kgf} = 1 \text{ trillion Kgf} !$$

This is the weight of about 10,000 aircraft carriers.

Thus, according to AST, a free energy device that has a size of only  $1\text{m}^3$  can produce a net force that can lift 10,000 aircraft carriers. Even if one part in a million of this were true, all our energy needs would be fulfilled. The purpose of this calculation is just to inspire researchers on what is possible if the AST prediction is correct. Although AST neatly predicts free energy and reactionless thrust, it may not be complete and needs development.

One of the experimental evidences for AST in predicting free energy is the report by Thomas Brown that the effect continuously varies with time, including variation with sidereal time, indicating connection between the effect and Earth's absolute motion.

## **12. Non linear law of electromagnetic radiation power and radiation reaction - Universal speed limit $c$**

In my previous paper [13] , with the theories

' Apparent Source Theory '

' Constant Phase Velocity and Variable Group Velocity of Light ' and

' Exponential Law of Light '

, I was able to explain many conventional light speed experiments and the Ives-Stilwell experiment.

Despite the success of the above theories, however, there was a category of experiments which remained very tough to explain. These were the muon 'time dilation' , the limiting light speed experiments and the 'mass increase' of relativistic electrons,. The speed of electrons and beta particles accelerated with very high voltages have been measured even by time of flight method and were always found to be just less than the speed of light. If Special Relativity is wrong ( as confirmed by the much compelling alternative theories listed above), then how is it that SRT is still successful to explain these experiments. This was very challenging.

After a considerable bewilderment, I came to realize that there is some profound mystery of nature yet to be discovered.

Before long, I came across a paper [ 1 ] on the internet in which I found a crucial hint on the missing link. In this paper, the author ( Musa D. Abdullahi ) proposes an alternative explanation to the Bertozzi's experiment. In the Bertozzi's experiment[14], an electron is accelerated with a high voltage and its kinetic energy is measured using calorimetry. It is found out that, as the accelerating voltage is increased further in the range required for relativistic speeds of the electron, the measured heat energy continues to increase, despite the fact that the speed of the electrons is always just under the speed of light, which was confirmed by time of flight method. What sparked my thought were a few statements made by the author in his papers [1] and in an e-mail exchange we had regarding his paper on the Bertozzi's experiment.

' . . . Special relativity . . . gives radiation power  $R = \gamma^4 R_p$ , where  $\gamma$  is . . . The factor  $\gamma^4$  means that the radiation power increases explosively as the speed  $v$  approaches that of light  $c$ . . . '

' . . . Radiation reaction force  $R_f$  is missing in classical and relativistic electrodynamics and it makes all the difference. . . '

' So it is not the energy of the electrons which continues to increase but the emitted radiation. This emitted radiation has a heating effect as may be detected by calorimetry. '

' It is as if the electron, under acceleration by an electric field, encounters a kind of 'frictional force' opposing motion, which prevents it from going beyond the speed of light. '

The above statements brought to my attention ' radiation reaction ' and the gamma ( $\gamma$ ) term of Special Relativity to consider them as a possible explanation of limiting light speed and relativistic mass increase experiments. So I interpreted these ideas for a new alternative interpretation: 'relativistic' mass increase and light speed as the limiting ( maximum possible) *absolute and relative velocity* in the universe. This means that no absolute or relative velocity equal to greater than the speed of light is possible in the universe.

Now, what is the explanation for the impossibility to accelerate electrons or beta particles to or beyond the speed of light ? As the *absolute* velocity of the (charged) particles approaches the speed of light, any further increase in absolute velocity will increasingly cause or require radiation of infinite amounts of electromagnetic energy, and infinite amount of radiation reaction, so that it would be impossible for these particles to attain the speed of light. In other words, it gets extremely difficult to accelerate and, to a somewhat lesser extent, to decelerate, an electron which is moving with an absolute velocity close to the speed of light. It becomes harder and harder to change ( to increase or to decrease ) the absolute velocity of an electron which has already attained an absolute velocity close to the speed of light. Near the speed of light, it requires practically infinite amount of energy to *change* the *absolute velocity* of the electron.

So far we have been talking about charged particles, which can radiate electromagnetic energy when accelerated.

In this paper we just adopt the gamma ( $\gamma$ ) factor of Special Relativity,

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

So the formula for radiated power should contain the gamma term, so that radiated power becomes infinity at the speed of light.

The formula for radiated power from a charged particle is, according to Special Relativity[1]:

$$R_p = \frac{q^2 a^2}{6\pi\epsilon_0 c^3} \gamma^4 \quad (\text{Lienard formula})$$

The radiated power becomes infinity at the speed of light. We will use this relationship in an argument about universal absolute velocity limit as the speed of light. Note that light speed limit applies only to physical objects, objects with mass, according to this paper.

One long standing problem is that of radiation reaction. The radiation reaction is given by[1]:

$$F_{rad} = \frac{q^2}{6\pi\epsilon_0 c^3} \frac{da}{dt} \quad (\text{Abraham - Lorentz formula})$$

We know that radiation is caused by acceleration. But the above formula implies that there will be no radiation reaction for constant acceleration because the rate of change of acceleration will be zero in this case. The above formula doesn't reflect our hypothesis that radiation reaction will be infinite near the speed of light, i.e. there is no gamma term in the above formula. If this hypothesis is correct, then this implies that Maxwell's equations and their solution should be reconsidered.

Special Relativity also has problems with radiation reaction[1].

### **Mass increase of relativistic electrons**

The experimentally established increase in mass of relativistic electrons, as compared to non-relativistic electrons, is just an increase of radiation reaction of the electron as its absolute velocity approaches the speed of light. Therefore, this is just an increase in inertia or mass of an electron.

### **13. Mass ( inertia ) may be nothing but radiation reaction !**

Consider a charge being accelerated by an external force. We know that the charge will radiate electromagnetic energy. From Newton's law we know that a force is required to accelerate an object with mass. As a massive object is pushed, by the principle of action and reaction, there will be a reaction force.

Consider an electron accelerated by an electric field. Conventionally, the electric field has to supply two kinds of energies:

1. kinetic energy to the electron ( because electron has mass )
2. energy radiated by the electron

The new theory proposed here is that inertia is nothing but radiation reaction. Thus, as an electron is pushed, it will radiate and a radiation reaction arises. Inertia arises from radiation reaction.



All energy imparted to the electron will be radiated.

The electron radiates not only during acceleration, but also during deceleration. A force is needed to stop a moving electron and this is again due to radiation reaction.

### **Mass ( inertia)**

Mass increase of relativistic electrons has already been explained above as non-linear law of radiation reaction. As the absolute velocity of the electron approaches the speed of light, it requires nearly infinite amount of radiated power to impart any further acceleration to it. This means that there will be practically infinite radiation reaction. This may be nothing but (practically) infinite mass ( inertia) of the electron, as proposed above.

What about neutral objects ? Does the limiting speed of light apply only to charged particles or is it *universal*, i.e. does the limiting light speed apply to all physical objects ? The problem with neutral particles or objects here is that there is no experimental evidence in the laboratory.

If charged particles can never attain or exceed the speed of light, which is now an experimentally established fact, so should neutral particles, since neutral particles are composed of charged particles. Thus we conclude that neutral particles/ objects also can't attain or exceed the speed of light. So the speed of light is the universal *absolute* velocity limit to all physical objects in the universe.

The above argument encourages us to make a radical speculation. What if inertia (mass) itself is nothing but radiation reaction ?! I mean that a massive object resists any change in its state of motion because of radiation reaction. i.e. the inertia of an object is due to radiation reaction. One appealing feature of this idea is that both inertia and radiation reaction are reaction forces opposing acceleration. The long standing difficulty in understanding radiation reaction might also be a hint that there is some profound mystery.

The immediate objection to this assertion is that neutral objects cannot radiate even if accelerated because they carry no net charge.

Despite this problem, I persisted to pursue this hypothesis that inertia may be just radiation reaction because this is a very compelling idea with profound implications, if proved to be correct.

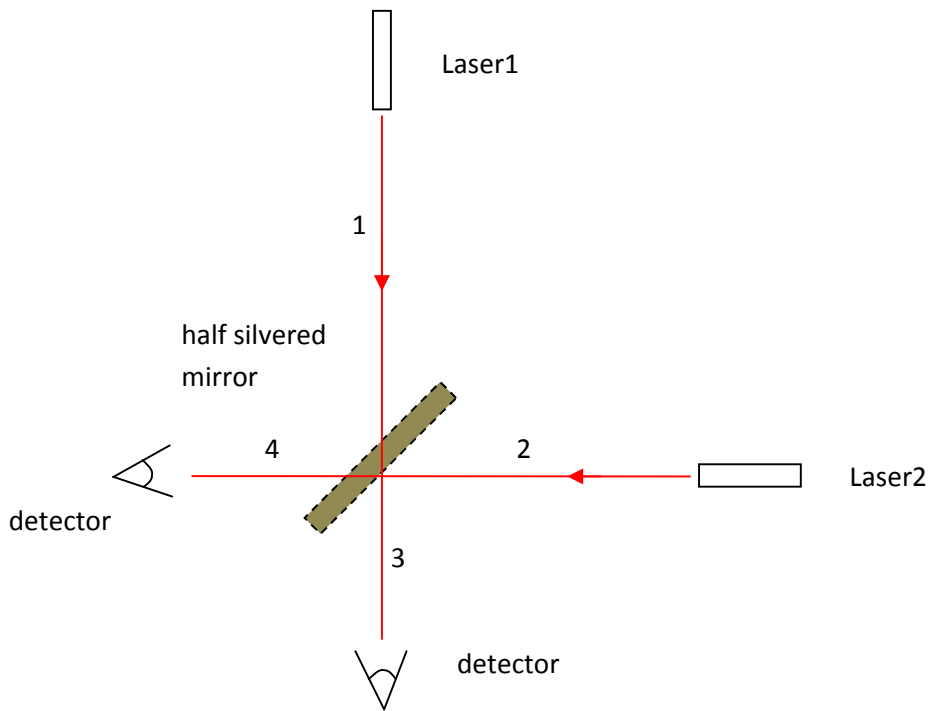
I came across a solution to the above stated problem that neutral objects do not radiate. I found the possible solution to be in quantum mechanics.

The electrons, protons and all charged elementary particles in a macroscopic object all radiate if that object is accelerated. The individual charged particles behave in the same way as when they are free/isolated. An electron bound in a macroscopic object and a free electron are governed by the same law: an accelerated electron radiates. If the free electron and the neutral object containing the bound electron have equal accelerations, then the two electrons will develop equal radiated power and equal radiation reaction. An electron bound in a neutral object does not stop

to radiate simply because there are positively charged particles in that object that will also radiate so as to cancel the radiation of the electrons.

However, the radiated power of the bound electrons will never be accessible because it is cancelled by the power radiated from the positive bound charges. However, 'canceled' doesn't mean that the energy disappears. The radiated energies of negatively and positively charged particles inside a neutral object simply become *inaccessible*. Whether the radiated power is accessible ( as for a free accelerated electron) or inaccessible ( as for an electron bound in a neutral accelerated object), there will always be radiation reaction and that may be the same thing as what has been known as 'inertia' for centuries.

The following argument shows that this may not be an extraordinary claim .



Consider the lasers to be ideal : their coherence time is infinite , and both have exactly the same frequencies and intensities, the arm lengths are exactly equal. The beam divergences are nearly zero.

First the phases of the two lasers are adjusted so that the two light beams interfere with complete destructive interference at the detectors. Detectors placed on paths 1 and 2 ( not shown) will detect light, but detectors placed anywhere along paths 3 and 4 will not detect any light. Now, the puzzle is: where does the energy go? Detectors placed on paths 3 and 4 will detect light only if one of the two lasers is switched off.

The above argument shows that photons may be emitted yet not accessible. A photon does not 'mix' with other photons. Two photons may simultaneously act on the same particle, but the two photons will not be 'lost' due to 'mixing' with other photons. Similar argument applies to the radiation from bound charged particles of a neutral object. Since everyday accelerations of macroscopic objects is of very low frequency, the cancelling of two photons will be even more complete.

Therefore, a neutral object reacts to any acceleration because of the same phenomenon that a free electron reacts to any acceleration: radiation reaction.

Therefore, universal light speed limit will also apply to neutral particles and objects. The radiation reaction of an electron inside a neutral macroscopic object moving at absolute velocity close to the speed of light is the same as the radiation reaction of a free electron moving at the same absolute velocity. This means that if the free or the bound electrons are accelerated while moving with absolute velocities close to the speed of light, both the free electron and the object containing the bound electron having equal absolute velocity and accelerations, the radiated power and the radiation reaction on the two electrons is also equal.

## **14. Other experimental evidences associated with Special Relativity**

### **Mossbauer rotor experiment**

Another experiment considered as evidence for the theory of Special Relativity is the Mossbauer rotor experiment performed by Kundig.

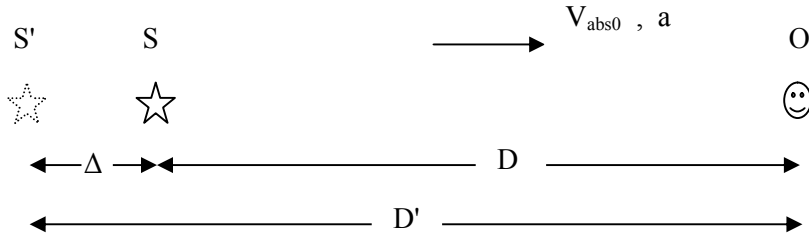
As we have already formulated, the procedure of analysis of the Mossbauer rotor experiment is to determine the point relative to the source where the co-moving observer is just observing light emitted from the source at the instant that the moving observer/detector is passing through that point. A co-moving observer is an observer that continues to move with the velocity ( speed and direction ) the source had at the instant of light emission.

However, we may use the following approach also.

First we analyze a simpler case of co-moving, accelerating source and observer.

### **Doppler effect for co-moving, accelerating light source and observer**

Consider absolutely co-moving, accelerating light source and observer. Both the absolute velocity and the acceleration are towards the right, as shown in the figure below. We consider only rectilinear motion. Will Doppler effect be observed ? We show that Doppler effect will be observed even if the source and observer are not moving relative to each other. This is due to *acceleration*.



$V_{abs0}$  is the initial absolute velocity and  $a$  is the acceleration.

Let the present (at the instant of light detection) source and the present observer ( absolute) velocity be  $V_f$  and the past velocity ( at the instant of light emission) be  $V_i$  .

Even though the present observer is not moving relative to the present source, *the present observer is moving relative to the past source, due to acceleration*. The velocity of the present observer relative to the past source will be:

$$V = V_f - V_i$$

The Doppler shifted frequency is determined by the Exponential Law:

$$f' = f e^{\frac{-v}{c}} = f e^{\frac{-(V_f - V_i)}{c}}$$

$V_f$  can be determined as follows.

$$V_f = V_i + at$$

To determine  $t$  we proceed as follows.

During the time interval  $t$  that the light pulse is emitted from S' and detected at O, the source will 'move' from S' to S.

For constant acceleration motion

$$= V_{abs0}t + \frac{1}{2}at^2$$

where  $V_{abs0}$  is the initial absolute velocity, at the instant of light emission.

Solving the above quadratic equation for  $t$

$$t = \frac{-V_{abs0} + \sqrt{V_{abs0}^2 + 2a\Delta}}{a}$$

This time  $t$  is the same as the time required for light pulse to move from  $S'$  to  $O$ , which is:

$$t = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{-V_{abs0} + \sqrt{V_{abs0}^2 + 2a\Delta}}{a} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

The above is a quadratic function of  $\Delta$ . Once  $\Delta$  is determined, the time elapsed between emission and detection of the light pulse is determined as:

$$t = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D + \Delta}{c}$$

The apparent change of position ( $\Delta$ ) of the source can also be determined.

Once we have determined  $t$ , we determine  $V_f$  from which we can determine  $f'$ .

In the above analysis we haven't considered the fact that the apparent source  $S'$  is moving relative to the observer (away from the observer) at the instant of emission, due to acceleration. Hence, since the speed of light is  $c$  relative to the apparent source, we should use  $c - V'$  instead of  $c$  in the above equations, where  $V'$  is the velocity of the apparent source relative to the observer. (the minus sign is because the apparent source is moving away from the observer, due to acceleration to the right).  $V'$  at the instant of light emission can be determined as follows.

$$D' = D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dV_{abs}} = D \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2} \Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = \frac{dV_{abs}}{dt} D \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dD'}{dt} = V' = aD \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs})^2}$$

For  $V_{abs} = V_{abs0}$

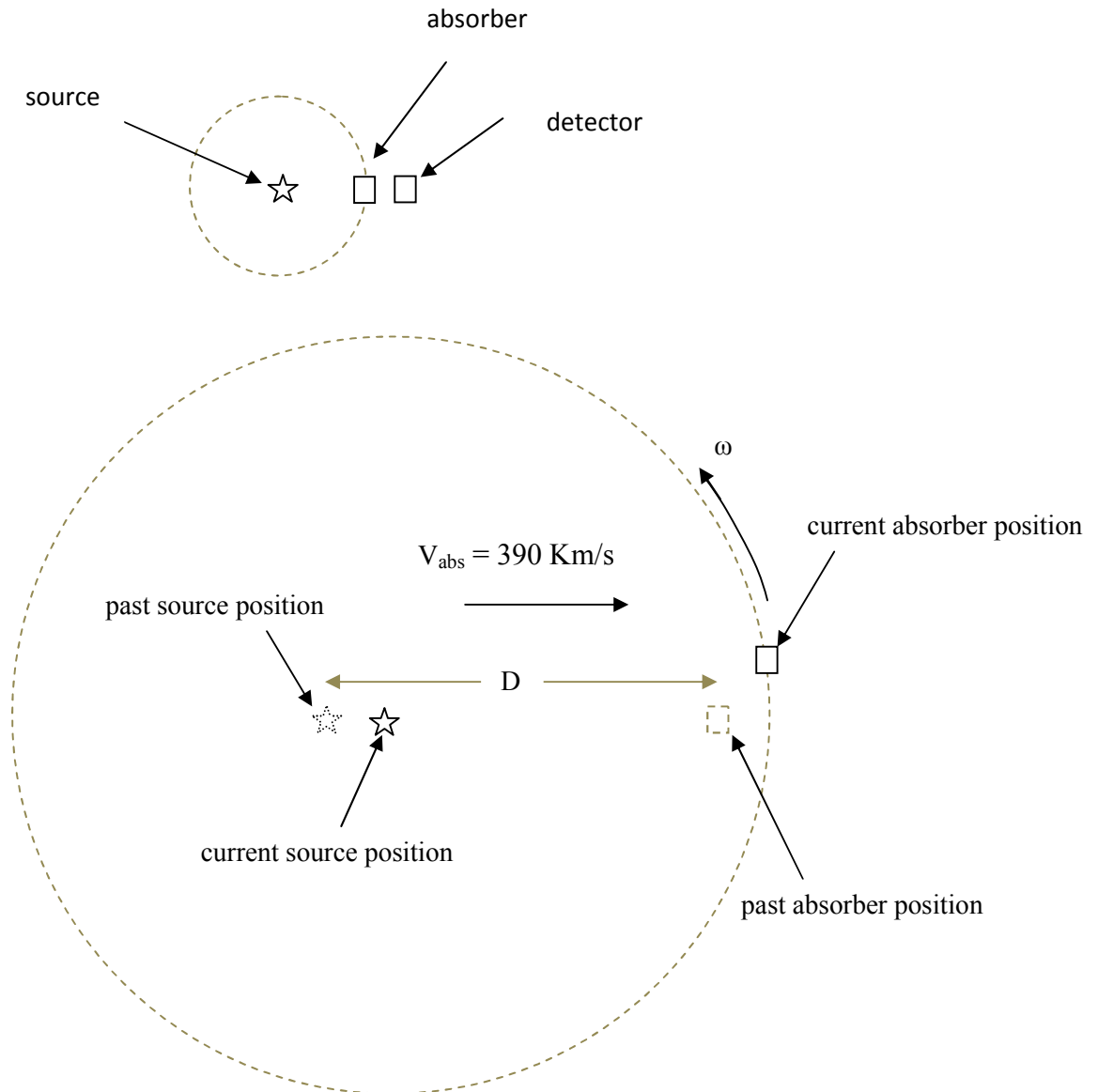
$$V' = aD \frac{-c}{(c - V_{abs0})^2}$$

Note that we have considered the apparent source (absolute velocity) only in the determination of  $t$ . The velocity of the apparent source does not enter into the formula for (Exponential) Doppler effect: only the velocity of the real source is used in the Doppler shift formula, as I have already clarified in the discussion of Ives-Stilwell experiment.

We see that absolute motion will result in Doppler effect for co-moving source and observer, if there is acceleration. If there is no acceleration, absolute motion has no effect on Doppler frequency/wavelength shift, as can be observed in the Ives-Stilwell experiment and in the fast ion beam experiment.

### Mossbauer rotor experiment

The Mossbauer rotor experiment can be analyzed basically in the same way, although it is more complicated than the simple case discussed above, due to involvement of rotation. The Mossbauer rotor experiment is a case of accelerating source and observer.



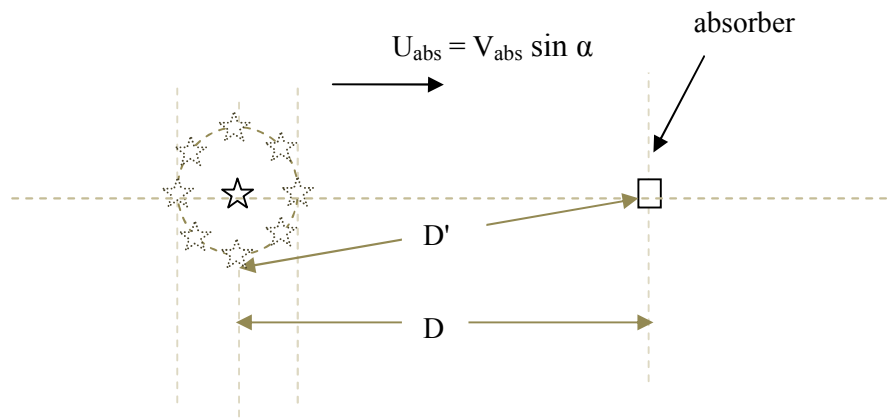
Why should we observe Doppler shift in the Mossbauer rotor experiment, as the source and detector are not in relative motion? As stated in the last section, this is because the present observer (at moment of detection) is moving relative to the past source (at moment of emission).

No Doppler effect would be observed in the Mossbauer rotor experiment of Kundig if the Earth was at absolute rest.

Since the Mossbauer rotor experiment apparatus is both in translational and rotational motion, the analysis will be more complicated. The analysis consists of:

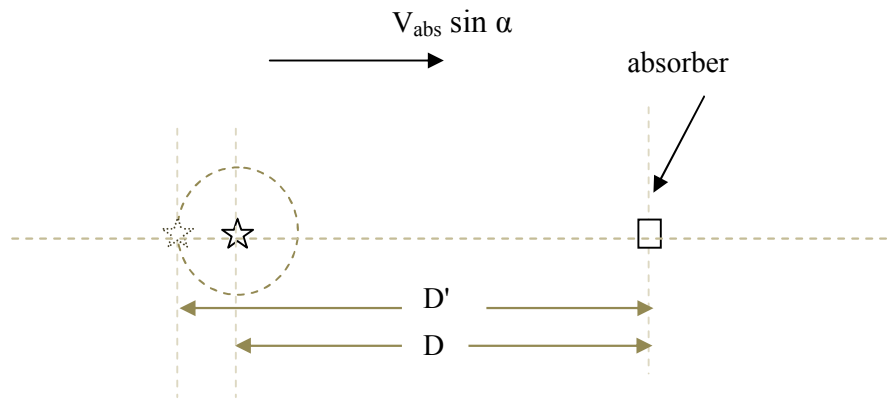
1. determination of the time interval ( $t$ ) between emission and detection, and, from this
2. determination of the *radial* velocity of the *current absorber relative to the past source*

To determine the time interval  $t$  we consider the absorber to be at rest with the source rotating about a center ( the position of the real source ), as shown below. Relative to the absorber, the source apparently rotates about its actual position and this is due to the continuously changing orientation of the source-absorber line relative to the direction of Earth's absolute velocity, according to Apparent Source Theory.



Rotation of the absorber around the source can effectively be seen as a stationary absorber with the source rotating in the dashed circle shown ( theoretically deviates from a perfect circle). The amount of frequency shift depends both on the component of Earth's absolute velocity in the plane of rotation, which is  $U_{\text{abs}} = V_{\text{abs}} \sin \alpha$ , where  $\alpha$  is the angle between the Earth's absolute velocity vector and axis of rotation, on the angular velocity ( $\omega$ ) and on distance  $D$ . For a given angle  $\alpha$  and distance  $D$ , the maximum frequency shift depends on the angular velocity ( RPM) of the device.

Next we calculate the order of magnitude of time  $t$ . In order to roughly see the effect, assume that  $V_{\text{abs}} \sin \alpha = 100 \text{ km/s}$ . Let  $D = 10\text{cm}$  and  $\omega = 30,000 \text{ RPM}$ . We consider the light emitted at the instant the source observer line is parallel to  $U_{\text{abs}}$  as shown below, for simplicity.



$$t = \frac{D'}{c} = \frac{D \frac{c}{c - U_{abs}}}{c} = \frac{D}{c - U_{abs}}$$

$U_{abs}$  in this expression is the component of Earth's absolute velocity along the axis of rotation,

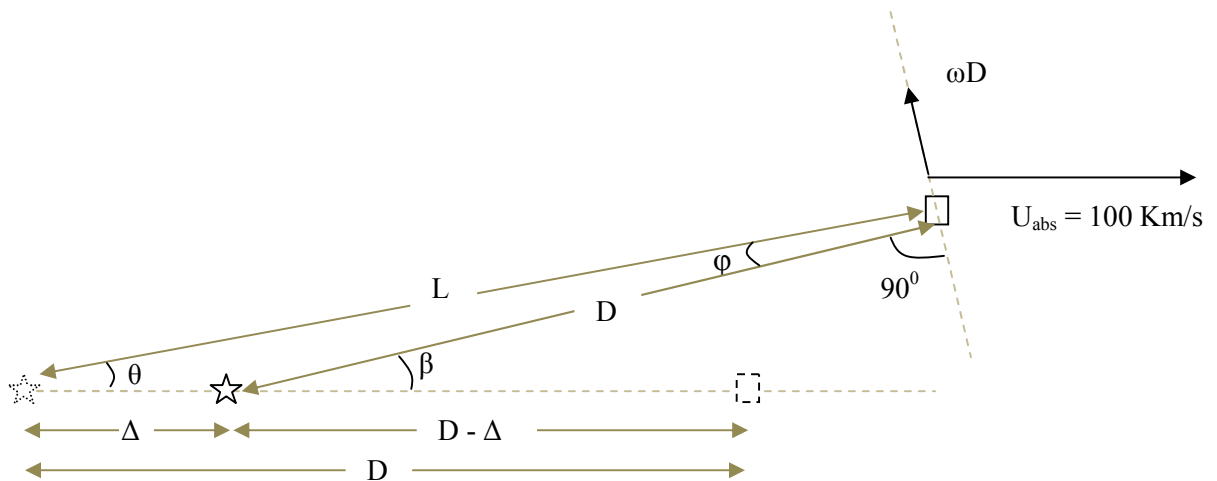
$$U_{abs} = V_{abs} \sin \theta$$

For  $U_{abs} = 100 \text{ Km/s}$ ,  $D = 10 \text{ cm}$ ,  $\omega = 30,000 \text{ RPM}$

$$t = \frac{D}{c - U_{abs}} = \frac{0.0001}{300000 - 390} = 0.334 \text{ ns}$$

$$\omega = 30000 \frac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{60 \text{ s}} = 3140 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}}$$

$$= 100 \frac{\text{Km}}{\text{s}} * 0.334 \text{ ns} = 33.4 \mu\text{m}$$





$$\beta = \omega t = 3140 \frac{\text{rad}}{\text{s}} * 0.334 \text{ ns} = 1.05 * 10^{-6} \text{ rad}$$

Consider the triangle with sides D, Δ and L. From knowledge of Δ, D and angle β, L can be determined

$$L = 0.1000334 \text{ m}$$

Angle θ can also be determined.

$$\frac{\sin \theta}{D} = \frac{\sin (\pi - \beta)}{L}$$

$$\sin \theta = 0.00159317 \quad \theta \approx 0.00159317 \text{ rad}$$

Angle φ will be

$$\varphi = 3.14 - ((3.14 - 1.05 * 10^{-6}) + 0.00159317) = 0.00159212 \text{ rad}$$

The radial velocity v of the current absorber relative to the past source will be:

$$v = \omega D * \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \varphi\right)$$

from which

$$v = 3140 * 0.1 * \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - 0.00159212\right)$$

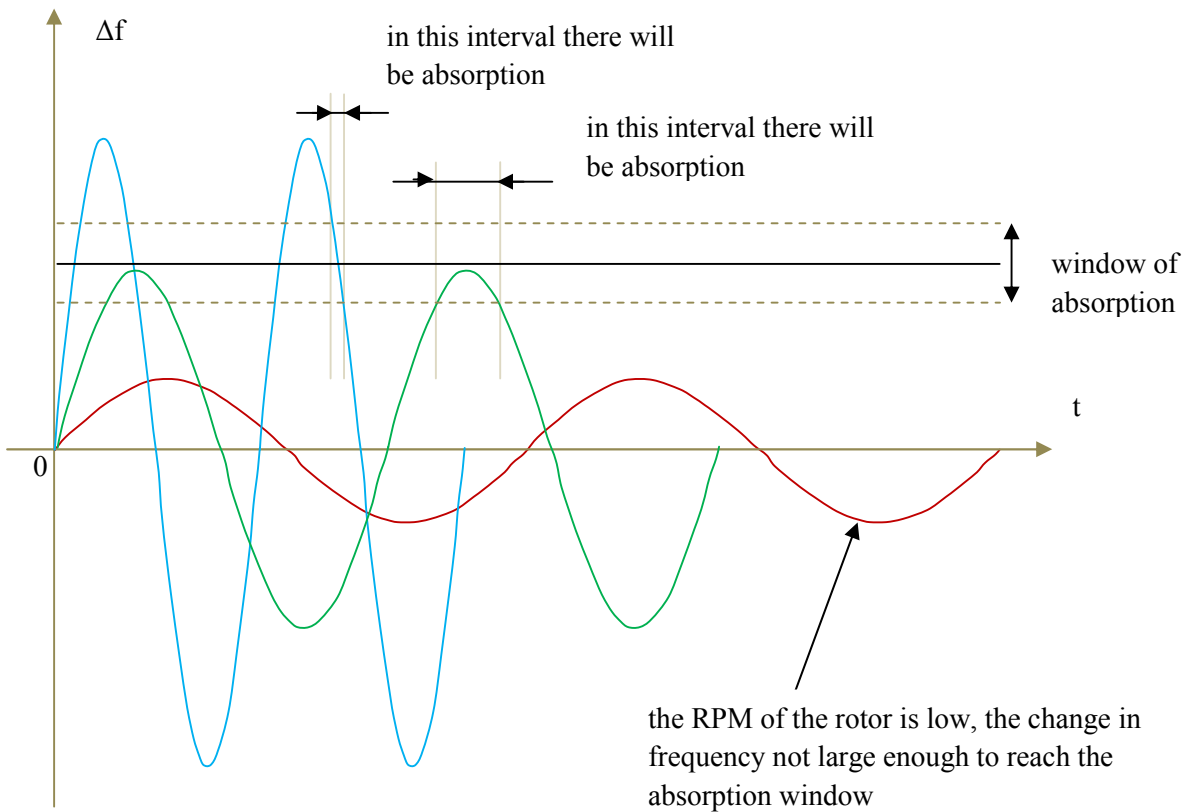
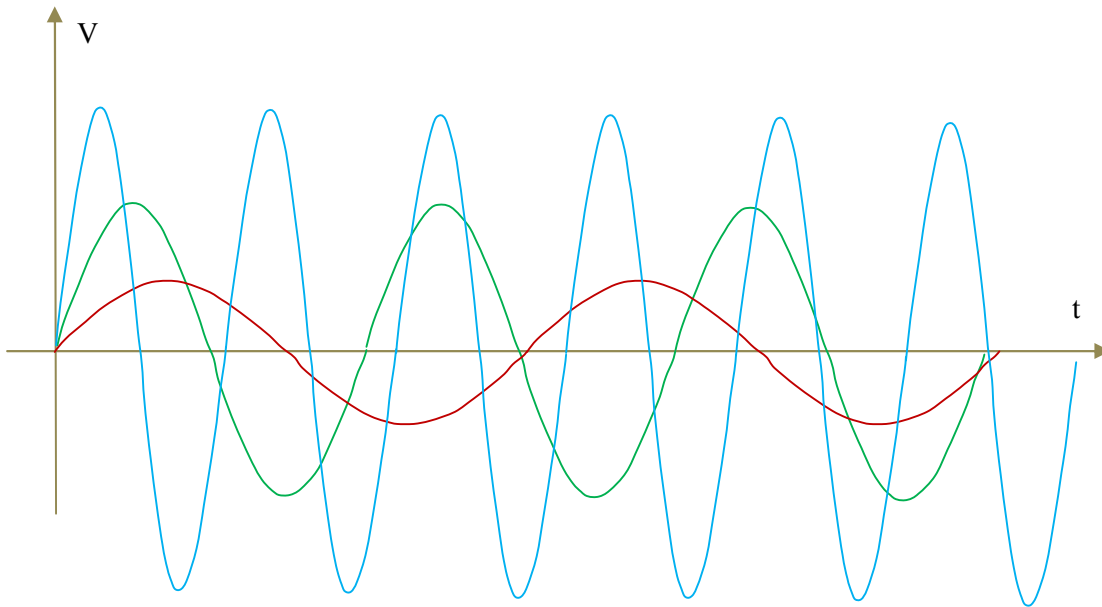
$$v = 0.75 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$$

This is a relatively large relative radial velocity between the past source and the current absorber.

The Doppler frequency shift will be:

$$f' = f e^{\frac{v}{c}} \Rightarrow \Delta f = f - f' = f (1 - e^{\frac{v}{c}})$$

$$f = f \left( 1 - e^{\frac{0.75}{3000000000}} \right) = f * 2.5 * 10^{-9}$$



We assumed that there is no absorption at zero angular velocity, because the difference between the resonance frequencies of the source and the absorber is usually made slightly different.

From the above figure we see that Doppler frequency shift increases with angular velocity. The red curve, which corresponds to low angular velocity, has not yet entered the window of absorption. The green curve corresponds to angular velocities for which resonant absorption just starts to take place. As the angular velocity is further increased, it can be seen that the time interval during which the curve remains within the window of absorption progressively decreases ( blue curve ). This may also explain the 'line broadening' effect observed in the Kundig and other experiments.

The above discussion is just meant to show the effect qualitatively. A more accurate mathematical expression for the Doppler frequency shift can be developed.

### **Proposed Mossbauer rotor experiment**

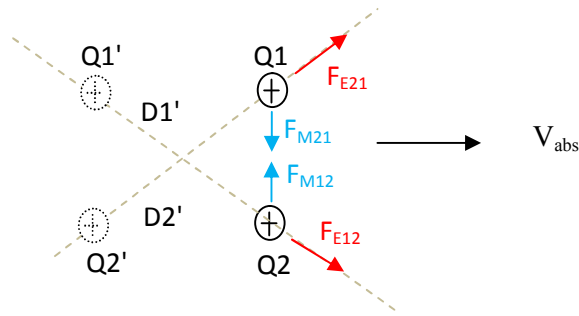
I propose that the Mossbauer rotor experiment be repeated with the axis of rotation of the Mossbauer rotor set parallel to the direction of Earth's absolute velocity, towards Leo constellation, which has been discovered in the Silvertooth and NASA CMBR measurement experiments. Such orientation of the experimental apparatus avoids the effect of acceleration discussed above and allows for testing of possible transverse Doppler effect only. If no Doppler effect is detected, i.e. no change ( dropping ) of the number of gamma ray photons detected, with increase in RPM of the rotor, then this will clearly disprove the transverse Doppler effect by avoiding the acceleration effect discussed above, and, prove Apparent Source Theory.

### **'Time-dilation'**

The Hafele-Keating , muon time-dilation, GPS correction experiments are claimed to confirm gravitational and kinematic time-dilation of GRT and SRT. Since SRT ( hence GRT ) has been disproved in this paper by presenting a compelling alternative theory ( AST ), basically its predictions are no more valid. The experimental results normally associated with SRT may be categorized as those that may be genuine and those that may be fraudulent. Even if the effects predicted by SRT were really observed, these should be questioned : were these effects observed *exactly* as predicted by SRT ? Were they really observed with the precisions ( 1% etc. ) claimed? The Hafele-Keating experiment has been shown to be due to manipulation of raw data so as to obtain the result predicted by SRT.

A possible explanation of the kinetic and gravitational ' time- dilation ' effects observed is a change in the line spectra of the ( Caesium ) atoms of the atomic clock due to absolute motion. As the absolute velocity of an atomic clock changes, the mass of the electrons in the atoms of the atomic clock change, which in turn affects the energy levels of the atoms.

In the case of muon 'time-dilation' some qualitative explanation is possible. Consider two same sign charges absolutely co-moving .



As the absolute velocity  $V_{abs}$  approaches the speed of light, the repulsive electrostatic force ( red ) between the two charges also approaches zero since the apparent distance of each charge approaches infinity. Hence, even though the charges have same sign, there will be no repulsive force between them. In addition to lack of repulsive force, there will be an attractive force: magnetic force ( blue ). As the absolute velocity decreases, the repulsive electrostatic force increases and the attractive magnetic force decreases. This might explain muon ' time- dilation '.

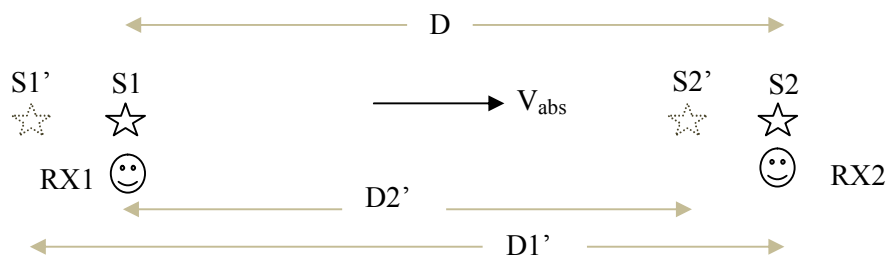
The conclusion is that if any such an effect exists in some form, it obviously need an explanation. However, SRT (and GRT) is not one.

Absolute velocity may affect the capacitance of a capacitor, because the position of each plate will change as seen by the other plate (distorting the electric field, creating electric field gradient ) , and hence the oscillation frequency of electronic oscillators and resulting in change of clock rate.

### A hypothetical clock

I will describe a hypothetical clock whose rate will depend on its absolute velocity, just to clarify the new theory.

Consider a clock working on the following principle, in absolute space. Two pulsed light sources S1 and S2, separated by distance D and two detectors located at the two sources so that the two light sources and the two detectors form a transponder system, all co-moving absolutely.

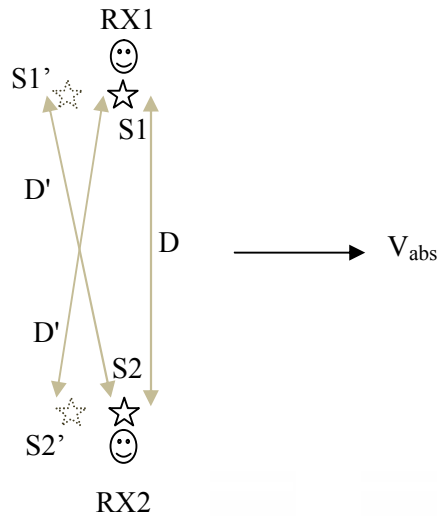


The operation of the clock is as follows: S1 emits a light pulse, then the detector RX2 detects the pulse, S2 transponds with another light pulse without delay, the detector RX1 detects the light pulse and S1 transponds without delay and so on. An electronic pulse counter can count the number of transmissions and hence a clock.

The round trip time depends on absolute velocity as shown below:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D2'}{c} + \frac{D1'}{c} &= D \frac{c}{c + V_{abs}} \frac{1}{c} + D \frac{c}{c - V_{abs}} \frac{1}{c} \\ &= D \frac{2c}{c^2 - V_{abs}^2} \end{aligned}$$

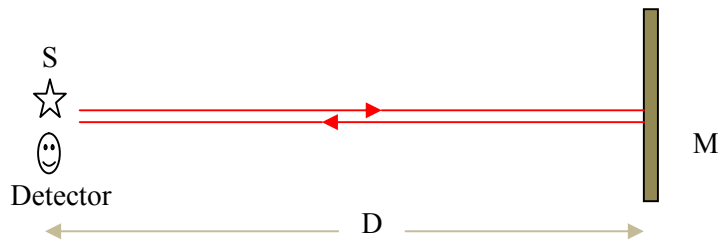
It can be shown in a similar way that for absolute velocity directed perpendicular to the line connecting the two transponders.



$$\text{Round trip time} = \frac{2D'}{c} = \frac{2D}{\sqrt{c^2 - V_{abs}^2}}$$

We see that the round trip time and hence the clock rate is affected by absolute velocity. The higher the absolute velocity, the slower the clock. Only the rate of the clock slows down ; there is no ‘time dilation’.

Note that the hypothetical clock is made from transponder system. To make the distinction clear, let us consider another kind of clock, which is made of a pulsed light source, a light detector (receiver) and a mirror.



The pulsed light source S and the light detector are very close to each other, so they can be assumed to be at the same point in space. The clock operates as follows. The source S emits a short light pulse, which is reflected from the mirror M back to the detector. Upon detecting the reflected light pulse, the detector actuates the source to emit a light pulse again, which is reflected back to the detector and so on. The rate of such clock is independent of absolute velocity because the round trip time is always equal to  $2D/c$ .

These examples are only about kinematic 'time-dilation'.

What about real atomic clocks? Electronic clocks? The hypothetical clock is made of a transponder system. How can slowing down of atomic clocks be explained? . We have clearly seen that our hypothetical clock, that uses time of flight method, is affected by absolute motion.

In the above discussion I just tried to show that it is possible to build a clock whose rate is affected by absolute motion. But I can't clearly figure out how an atomic clock slows down due to absolute or relative motion ( kinematic time dilation). The Hafele-Keating experiment and GPS correction are controversial and many authors, such as A.G Kelly, consider these as a fraud.

*Conclusion:* Within the new theoretical framework proposed in this paper, there is no prediction or explanation for gravitational and kinematic 'time dilation' of atomic clocks , as claimed in Special Relativity. But the effect of change in mass with absolute velocity, as proposed in this paper, might have an effect at the atomic level, changing emission and absorption lines of atoms. Both kinematic and gravitational 'time-dilation' are absolute motion effects.

The capacitance of a capacitor also depends on absolute velocity the position of each plate will change as seen by the other plate. The electric field will become strong near one plate and weak near the other plate. Therefore, the frequency of electronic oscillators is affected by absolute velocity.

## Star light bending near the sun

The bending of star light near the sun is currently considered to be due to the mass of the sun, according to General Relativity. An alternative explanation [7, 22] has been proposed for the bending of light near massive objects. It is proposed that the effect is not due to the mass of the sun, but due to its size. This is based on a new insight into the Huygens-Fresnel principle.

It may be tempting to speculate that vacuum permittivity and permeability is affected by massive objects, in their vicinity, to explain the bending of star light near the Sun. I propose that vacuum permittivity and permeability, hence the speed of light, is not affected by massive objects and is constant throughout the universe. I propose that the Rosa and Dorsey experiment (1907) be repeated at different distances from the Earth to see if there is any effect on vacuum permittivity and permeability.

## 15. Gravity; Mercury perihelion advance

### 15.1. Evidence that the speed of gravity is not infinite and is equal to the speed of light.

Tom Van Flandern argued that [5] planetary orbits would be unstable if the speed of gravity is finite, and he set a lower limit of  $2 \times 10^{10} c$  on the speed of gravity. In this paper, however, finite speed of gravity is proposed because it may explain Mercury perihelion advance. It will also be shown that the speed of gravity need not be infinite (as argued by Van Flandern) and that it is possible to explain stable planetary orbits and observations during solar eclipse by using finite speed of gravity and it will be shown that the 'speed' of gravity is in fact equal to the speed of light.

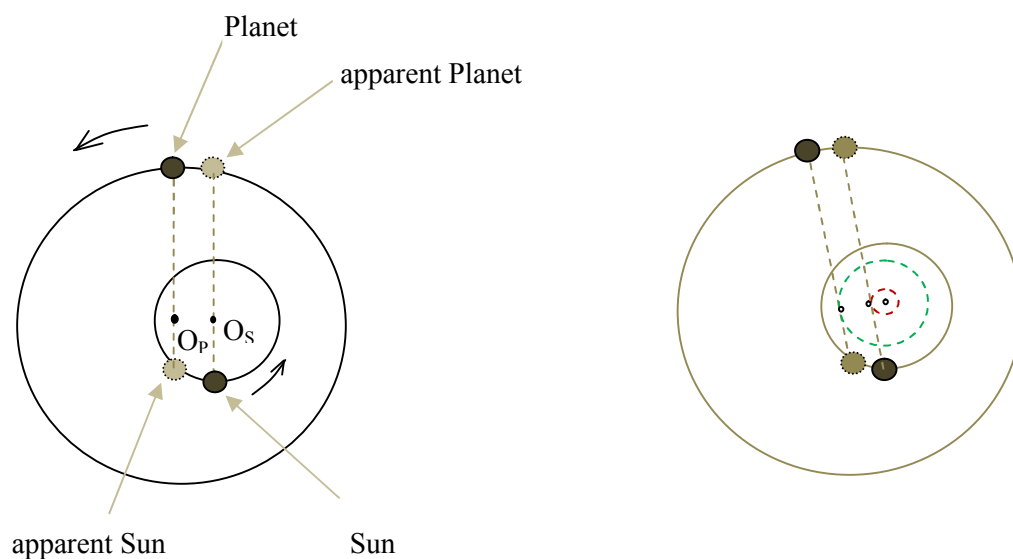
In this section we apply the Apparent Source Theory to gravity to explain gravitational phenomena. It is found that observations show light speed 'propagation' of gravity, not instantaneous propagation. Even though we show that the 'speed' of gravity is equal to the speed of light, actually there is no propagation, but there is aberration of gravity. Just like electrostatic fields, gravity behaves both as if it is instantaneous and as if it propagates with light speed.

Let us assume that the sun-planet system (the bary-center) to be at absolute rest, with the planet revolving the Sun.

The usual fallacy is to think of the sun and the planet to be on opposite sides of a single bary-center, which would imply unstable orbit for finite speed of gravity because of a non central force component. This fallacy is rooted in a hidden assumption of the ether. This hidden assumption of the ether is the source of most confusions surrounding absolute/relative motion and the speed of light. Even Einstein did not actually escape from the ether trap as he implicitly assumed the ether in Special Relativity.

In the next figure, two bary-centers,  $O_S$  and  $O_P$ , are shown.  $O_S$  is the bary-center for the Sun and the *apparent* Jupiter, and  $O_P$  is the bary-center for Jupiter and the *apparent* Sun. We see that the real Sun and the real Jupiter are never on opposite sides of a single bary-center.

The above explanation is not ultimately accurate, though. With a little thought we can see that *the orbits* of the Sun and Jupiter revolve around a single common bary-center (right figure). Therefore, it is not the Sun and the Jupiter themselves, but the *centers* of their respective *orbits*, that should be thought as revolving around the common bary-center.  $O_S$  and  $O_P$  (shown in the figure) are just the instantaneous bary-centers. The figure on the right shows a more accurate representation. The red dashed circle is the locus of the Sun-apparent Jupiter bary-center, and the green dashed circle is the locus of Jupiter-apparent Sun bary-center. These two bary-centers themselves revolve around the bary-center of the system. Note that the orbits shown are the 'instantaneous orbits'. Since the two bary-centers are continuously changing, the planet and the Sun will stay in the orbit shown in the figure only for a moment, i.e. the planet and the Sun move in continuously changing orbits.



With this scheme, the orbits would be 'complex' but stable, even if we assume a finite speed of gravity. Such a 'complex' orbit may account for the perihelion advance of Mercury and 'elliptic' orbits. We know that Newton's law doesn't predict perihelion advance for one sun - one planet system (Sun-Mercury system). So according to Apparent Source Theory (AST), then there can never be circular orbits in absolute space. There can't be perihelion advance in Galilean space. Pure circular and pure elliptic orbits are possible only in Galilean space. The observed perihelion advance of Mercury may be evidence for absolute motion (and for Apparent Source Theory).

This theory is a fusion of ether theory and emission theory, for gravity.

The explanation provided so far applies to absolute space. In Galilean space, emission theory can simply explain stability of orbits, again without requiring infinite speed of gravity. But Galilean space is only an abstraction that is useful in solving problems of absolute motion and does not exist in reality.



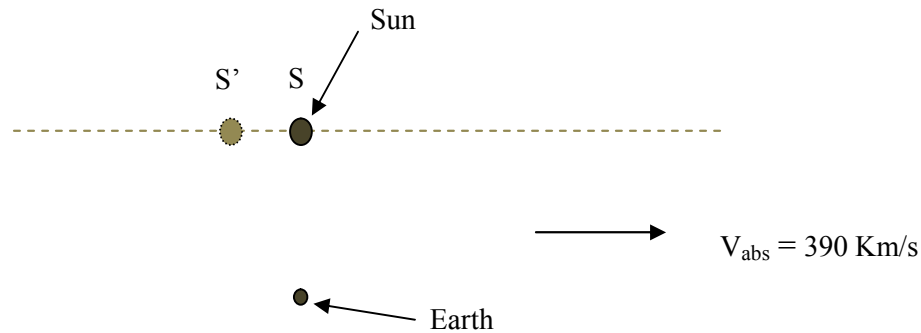
### Astronomical evidence that the 'speed' of gravity is equal to the speed of light.

The following are quotes taken from Tom Van Flandern's paper [5]

“ ... The earth accelerates towards a point 20 arc seconds in front of the visible sun ... In other words, the acceleration now is towards the true, instantaneous direction of the Sun now, ...”

“ ... Why do total eclipses of the Sun by the Moon reach maximum eclipse 40 seconds before the Sun and Moon's gravitational forces align ? ... “

The new interpretation of absolute motion proposed in this paper turns these observations into evidences showing that gravity 'propagates' at the speed of light. Note that, as explained already, there is only apparent propagation. The effect is as if there was gravity propagation at the speed of light, but there is no actual propagation in static fields.



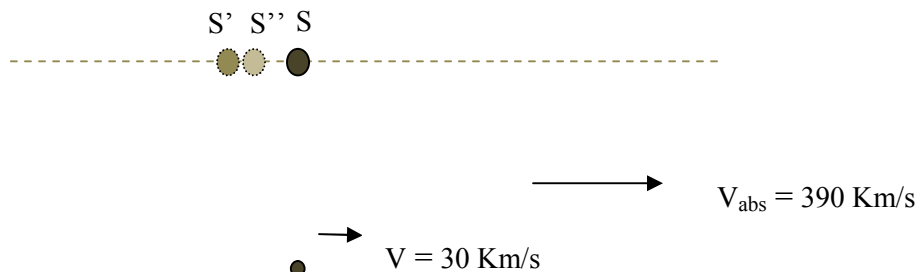
Assume that the Sun and the Earth are co-moving absolutely as shown above, with no relative motion between them. The amount of apparent change of the Sun's position is determined by the absolute velocity (390 km/s), the Earth-Sun distance and the speed of light. The light rays are coming from the direction of the apparent Sun (S').

The angular position of the true, instantaneous position S of the Sun relative to its apparent position S' is determined as follows.

$$\frac{390Km}{2\pi * 300,000Km} * 360 \quad 3600 \text{ arcseconds} = 268 \text{ arcseconds}$$

Assume now that we measure the direction of Sun's gravity at the same time and it also pointed towards the apparent Sun (S'). What do we conclude? We conclude that the speed of gravity is equal to the speed of light. If the 'speed' of gravity was infinite, the Sun's gravity would be towards S.

In the above argument, we assumed that the Earth is not moving relative to the Sun. Now we consider the Earth's motion relative to the Sun (30 km/s).



The sun will now appear to be at position S'' ( 20 arcseconds ahead of S'), due to earth's *relative* motion. However, this does not mean that the light rays are coming from the direction of S''; it is only an illusion. The light rays still come from the direction S'. It appears to a person running in the rain as if the rain droplets are falling at an angle. We know that this is only an illusion. This is Bradley aberration.

The mistake in Van Flandern's argument is that he considered point S' to be the true, instantaneous position of the Sun. Such mistake is committed in all arguments based on the principle of relativity, which denies the absolute motion of the solar system in space ( 390 Km/s). The true instantaneous position of the Sun is at S, 268 arcseconds ahead of S'. We consider this also to be the instantaneous, true position of the sun because the Earth and the Sun have common absolute velocity. Such an interpretation is distinct from the ether or classical absolute space theory. This is an application of the fusion of the ether and emission theories to gravitation.

“ ... The earth accelerates towards a point 20 arc seconds in front of the visible sun ... In other words, the acceleration now is towards the true, instantaneous direction of the Sun now, ...”

This observation shows that gravity is also directed towards S', showing that the speed of gravity is equal to the speed of light. One may ask : why does gravity also not act towards S'' instead of towards S' ? i.e. why does Bradley aberration not apply to gravity? This is because, unlike the case for light, there will be no Bradley aberration for gravitational (electrostatic) fields. Also motion of the observer does not affect the direction of gravitational force because the velocity of the observer is perpendicular to the Earth-Sun line. The rate of change of apparent source position with change in position of the observer is zero in this case, which can be shown by applying AST.

*Thus, if the 'speed' of gravity was different from the speed of light, the Earth would accelerate towards a point different from ' a point 20 arc seconds in front of the visible sun'. This would be 248 arc seconds (i.e. 268 minus 20) behind the visible sun, assuming the Earth's relative velocity and the Solar System's absolute velocity lie in the same plane, for simplicity.*

### Mercury perihelion advance

Paul Gerber correctly predicted the advance of Mercury perihelion by assuming that the speed of gravity is equal to the speed of light and this proves the correctness of AST as applied to gravity.

## 15.2. Electrostatic theory of gravity

The new interpretation of observations and experiments on gravity presented in the last section led me to the striking conclusion that the 'speed' of gravity is equal to the speed of light.

Even after discovering that the speed of gravity is equal to the speed of light, the implication of this didn't happen to me immediately. At a certain moment such a striking 'coincidence' took my attention.

How can the speed of gravity be equal to the speed of light? Aren't gravity and light fundamentally different phenomena? Isn't gravity a mysterious phenomenon? Can this be mere 'coincidence'?

I had never considered the possibility that gravity may be an electrostatic or electromagnetic force. Once this 'coincidence' came to my attention, it didn't take me long before coming across a very compelling idea:

*Gravity may be due to difference between electrostatic attractive and repulsive forces.*

This means that the force of attraction between opposite charges is slightly greater than the force of repulsion between similar charges. In previous versions of this paper, I interpreted this as difference between free space permittivity for attractive and for repulsive forces. However, this created a conceptual problem[25]: which of the two permittivities would we use in Maxwell's equations, i.e. which of the two permittivities determines the speed of light? Therefore I abandoned this idea of different permittivities and was able to solve this problem in [25], by introducing additional factors in Coulomb's law.

Coulomb's law is modified as follows[25]:

$$F_{att} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{r^2} K_{att}$$
$$F_{rep} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q1 \cdot Q2}{r^2} K_{rep}$$

where  $K_{att}$  is the constant for opposite charges and  $K_{rep}$  is for similar charges.  $K_{att}$  and  $K_{rep}$  are numbers very close to 1 and with extremely small difference between them to give rise to gravitational force.  $K_{att}$  is greater than  $K_{rep}$  because gravity is an attractive force.

I wondered if anyone else has already made such a proposal and searched the web, and found a paper [12] proposing the same idea, even claiming to have confirmed this hypothesis experimentally. I learned that this idea was first proposed by Michael Faraday.

## Gravitational magnetic field

Just as gravitational force is a difference between electrostatic attraction and repulsion forces, there should also be a net magnetic force between two neutral objects in absolute motion. Consider two neutral physical objects A and B moving in the same or opposite directions in parallel paths. In addition to the net electrostatic force (gravitation), there is an additional net static magnetic force between the two bodies. The force of magnetic attraction between the charges in A and B is different ( less or greater ? ) from the force of magnetic repulsion force.

## 16. Conclusion

The real nature of the speed of light has remained a mystery ever since the historical Michelson-Morley experiment and Maxwell's discovery of the speed of light. There are numerous and divergent empirical evidences that have accumulated for centuries, defying any natural, intuitive, logical explanation, within a single theoretical framework. All known theories of the speed of light, including Special Relativity, emission theory and ether theory, failed on a number of experiments. Physicists have failed to create a model of the speed of light that can consistently predict or explain the outcome of experiments, let alone understand the fundamental nature of light. There is no theory of light so far that can consistently explain even three of the experiments: the Michelson- Morley experiment, Sagnac effect and Silvertooth experiment. The model of the speed of light proposed in this paper successfully explains many experiments that have remained mutually contradicting and controversial for decades. A few theories and interpretations have been proposed as a single theoretical framework.

1. The *group* velocity of light is constant relative to the apparent source. The effect of absolute motion of a light source is to create an apparent change of its past position relative to an observer. Physically this means that the group velocity of light varies *relative* to the real source, due to absolute motion and also means bending of light rays in lateral directions.

The procedure of analysis of light speed experiments is as follows:

- I. Determine the distance between the observer and the apparent source *at the instant of emission*
- II. From the absolute velocities of the source and the observer, determine the velocity of the source relative to the observer, from which the velocity of the *apparent* source *relative* to the observer will be determined
- III. Solve the problem by assuming that the speed of light is constant *relative to the apparent source*, in the co-moving observer's reference frame or in the absolute reference frame.

2. The *phase* velocity of light is always constant  $c$ , independent of source or observer velocity, where as the group velocity is independent of source velocity but depends on observer and

mirror velocity. This model disentangles absolute velocity from Doppler effect.

3. The exponential Law of Doppler effect of light.
4. Absolute velocity of an object is the resultant of its mass weighed velocities relative to all massive objects in the universe.
5. Mass ( inertia) might be nothing but radiation reaction.
6. The speed of light is the universal speed limit of physical objects in the universe.
7. Light is a dual phenomenon: local and non-local
7. The speed of static electric fields have a dual nature: finite (light speed) and infinite
8. Gravity is a difference between attractive and repulsive electrostatic fields.

The Apparent Source Theory ( AST ) fully explains conventional and modern Michelson-Morley experiments, the Sagnac experiments, moving source and moving mirror experiments, moving observer experiments, the Silvertooth, the Marinov, the Roland De Witte, the Bryan G Wallace experiments. The procedure to apply AST is : 1. Replace the (real) source with an apparent source 2. Solve the problem by assuming that the group velocity of light is constant relative to the apparent source. AST also enabled us to give a new interpretation to observations of direction of Sun's gravity on Earth, during solar eclipses. The 'speed' of gravity has been shown to be equal to the speed of light. This fact, together with a very simple, compelling theory that gravity may be just a difference of electrostatic attraction and repulsion forces, led to the conclusion that gravity must be just a form of electromagnetic phenomenon. Constant phase velocity and variable group velocity of light provides a compelling interpretation of Einstein's thought experiment: chasing a beam of light. The Exponential Law of light correctly explains the Ives-Stilwell experiment. The mystery of electromagnetic radiation has been revealed. Relativistic mass increase of charged particles and hence universal light speed limit has been explained based on the law of non-linear radiation reaction. The equivalence of inertia with radiation reaction has been proposed. A successful theoretical framework of the speed of light has been presented in this paper. This will enable understanding of the nature of light at a more fundamental level and other phenomenon. This entails reconsideration of Maxwell's equations, their solutions and interpretations. Maxwell's equations do not predict radiation reaction correctly and do not predict universal speed limit. While this paper has solved many long standing problems of the speed of light, a number of anomalous observations still exist, such as cosmological red shift and the Pioneer anomaly.

Thanks to God and His Mother, Our Lady Saint Virgin Mary.

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