## Application of the Time-Dilation Factor to Velocity, Acceleration, and Doppler Shift

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## Abstract

The application of a light-speed separation time-dilation factor to velocity, acceleration, and Doppler shift.

With respect to the concepts outlined in [1], we shall consider the application of the derivation of the time-dilation factor.

fig1

$$
v_{2}^{\prime}=\frac{v_{2}}{T} \cdot t
$$


fig2

$$
v^{\prime}=v \cdot\left(\frac{c-v}{c}\right)
$$

We define a new ratio $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}, t^{\prime}=\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}$ (For $T=1$ ) Or the equivalent $\frac{t}{T}$, or t for $T=1$. And therefore, $\frac{v^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}=v$. Considering: $v^{\prime}=v \cdot\left(\frac{c-v}{c}\right)$ On the right side is the ratio, of the net light speed $(c-v)$ relative to $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ 's speed $v$, to, the real absolute light-speed with $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ still, $c$ (or in other words,
in $\mathrm{e}_{1}^{\prime}$ 's POV, $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ being still). For $c=1$ and $v=0.5 \quad, \quad v^{\prime}=0.5 \cdot\left(\frac{1-0.5}{1}\right)=0.25 \quad$ and $\quad t^{\prime}=\frac{0.25}{0.5}=0.5 \quad$. And $\frac{c}{t^{\prime}}-v=\frac{1}{0.5}-0.5=1.5$, which states that, if velocity $v=0.5$, and the mover's length is compressed by $t^{\prime}=0.5$ then, then the new, now faster, speed, with the compressed size, of light, is
2c , and if the speed of the mover in this new space weren't compressed, the separation of light ahead, the gain, is $1.5 \mathrm{c} . v^{\prime}$ is then the world-apparent resulting speed, scaled to accommodate light to give a separation of $c$. And $v$ by itself is the under-the-hood (to $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ 's POV), true, hidden variable of speed. Likwise, $\frac{c}{t^{\prime}}-v \cdot T^{\prime}=\frac{1}{0.5}-0.5 \cdot 2=1=c$ and $\frac{c}{t^{\prime}}-\frac{v}{t^{\prime}}=c$. The component of velocity $v$ in the same direction as the component of light of $c$, must be used to make sense of the directionality of time dilation. From the previous equations, $\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=1-\frac{v}{c}$ follows.

fig3


## fig4

Using $-\cos (\angle(v T, c T)) \cdot 2 \cdot v T \cdot c T+(v T)^{2}+(c T)^{2}=(c t)^{2}$, if we take the case where the velocity direction of $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ is aligned with the shooting of a flashlight, $\cos \left(0^{\mathrm{o}}\right)=\frac{\text { adjacent }}{\text { hypotenuse }}=1$, and $c=1$,
$v=0.5$, and $T=1$, then $(-1) \cdot 2 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 1+0.25+1=(c t)^{2}=0.25$ and $t=0.5$. The angle between the velocity in the perspective of $\mathrm{e}_{1}$, of $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ 's velocity, and the angle that $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ shoots the light at, in it's own reference frame (still frame of view), as is the angle that $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ shoots its flashlight at and the opposite direction that it observes $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ move relative to $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ 's frame, is the angle $\angle(v T, c T)$. If the angle is a right angle, then the equation reduces to the classical equation, however, the component of $v T$ is $T$ (that is, the right-angle would be between $v T$ and $c t$, while the cosine equations measure the angle between $v T$ and $c T$ ). And with that, we can apply $t^{\prime}$ to velocity and acceleration.

fig5
The component of light and velocity on the x axis, is an angle of 90 degrees for the classical train example. The angle of 90 would have to be for the $v T$ and $c t$ sides. We can decompose these and compare components somehow, in other cases.

fig6
For $c=5$ and $v=2, v^{\prime}=2 \cdot\left(\frac{5-2}{5}\right)=\frac{6}{5}$. Remember that $\frac{c}{t^{\prime}}-\frac{v}{t^{\prime}}=c$ and therefore $\frac{5}{\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)}-\frac{2}{\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)}=\frac{25}{3}-\frac{10}{3}=5$. And using the cosine equation outlined in $[1]:-1 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5+4+25=25 \cdot t^{2}$
and $\sqrt{\left(\frac{(25+4-20)}{25}\right)}=t=\sqrt{\frac{9}{25}}=\frac{3}{5}$. We can also see, $c-v=c \cdot t^{\prime}$ and $c-v \cdot t^{\prime}=c \cdot t^{\prime}+\frac{v^{2}}{c}$.

fig7
The classical application with a right-angle triangle, using the original equation, is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (c t)^{2}+(v T)^{2}=(c T)^{2} \text { and } t=\sqrt{(c T)^{2}-(v T)^{2}}=\sqrt{1-0.25} \approx 0.866, \text { but } \frac{5-2}{0.866} \approx 3.46 \neq 5 . \text { As for the } \\
& t=\sqrt{-\cos \left(0^{\circ}\right) \cdot 2 \cdot v T \cdot c T+(v T)^{2}+(c T)^{2}}=\sqrt{\frac{(29-20)}{25}}=\frac{3}{5}=T \cdot \frac{c-v}{c}, \text { for } \angle(v T, c T)=0^{\circ} \text {, it means }
\end{aligned}
$$

that the original equation does not provide the necessary value to give $c=5$ separation with $v=2$. Whether we add velocity ( $\frac{c+v}{c}$ ), or subtract ( $\frac{c-v}{c}$ ), depends on whether velocity and the direction of light are positive or negative.


- oc
fig

$$
v^{\prime}=v \cdot \frac{c-v}{c}=2 \cdot \frac{1-2}{1}=-2 \quad t^{\prime}=\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=\frac{-2}{2}=-1 \quad \frac{v^{\prime}}{t^{\prime}}=v \quad \frac{c}{t^{\prime}}-\frac{v}{t^{\prime}}=c
$$

If we consider the case where $v=2 c$, the dilation is such that velocity is negative. For $c=1$ and $\downarrow v^{\prime}=\downarrow v \cdot \frac{\uparrow c+\uparrow v}{\uparrow c}=6=\downarrow v \cdot \frac{-\uparrow c-\uparrow v}{-\uparrow c}, \downarrow t^{\prime}=-3, \frac{\downarrow v^{\prime}}{\downarrow t^{\prime}}=\downarrow v$, and $\downarrow v=-2$. For $t^{\prime}=-1$, $a_{y}{ }^{\prime}=a_{y} \cdot t^{\prime}=-a_{y}$. We define the subsequent $\quad x_{2}{ }^{\prime}=x_{1}{ }^{\prime}+v \cdot t^{\prime} \quad$ and $\downarrow a_{y}{ }^{\prime}=t^{\prime} \cdot \downarrow a_{y}$. We define $v^{\prime}=\Delta x^{\prime}$ and $\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=\frac{\Delta x^{\prime}}{\Delta x}$.
fig
We can further apply this to the red- and blue-shift phenomena.

$$
\frac{1}{3} \cdot c=\left(f \cdot \frac{1}{c}\right) \cdot \lambda \quad f=\frac{1}{t} \quad 3 \cdot c=f \cdot(\lambda \cdot 3) \quad \lambda=D \quad f \cdot \lambda=c
$$


fig 10
$(c+v)=f \cdot \lambda+v \quad T^{\prime} \cdot(c+v)=T^{\prime} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda+v)$
$\uparrow \lambda^{\prime}=\uparrow \lambda \cdot \frac{c-\uparrow v}{c}$ In the simple case with no time-dilation of velocity.
$\uparrow \lambda^{\prime \prime}=\uparrow \lambda \cdot \frac{c-\uparrow \nu^{\prime}}{c}$ In the case where time-dilation comes into effect.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda+\downarrow v)=c \quad \lambda=\frac{\frac{c}{\uparrow T^{\prime}}-\downarrow v}{f} \\
& \uparrow T^{\prime}=\frac{c}{c-\uparrow v} \neq-\left(\frac{c}{c-\downarrow v}\right) \quad \uparrow v^{\prime}=\uparrow v \cdot \frac{c-|\uparrow v|}{c} \neq-\left(\downarrow v \cdot \frac{c-\downarrow v}{c}\right) \neq \uparrow v \cdot \frac{c-\uparrow v}{c} \\
& \uparrow f^{\prime \prime}=\frac{\uparrow f}{1+\frac{\downarrow v^{\prime}}{c}} \quad \uparrow \lambda^{\prime \prime}=\uparrow \lambda^{\prime} \cdot\left(1+\frac{\downarrow v^{\prime}}{c}\right) \\
& (f \cdot 3) \cdot\left(\lambda \frac{1}{3}\right)=c \quad c+v=f \cdot \lambda+v \quad t^{\prime} \cdot(c+v)=t^{\prime} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda+v) \\
& \frac{\downarrow f \cdot \downarrow \lambda+\uparrow v}{\downarrow t^{\prime}}=c \quad \frac{\uparrow c \cdot\left(\frac{\uparrow c-\uparrow v^{\prime}}{\uparrow c}\right)}{\uparrow f}=\uparrow \lambda^{\prime \prime} \quad\left(\text { For } \quad \uparrow\left(v^{\prime}\right)>0\right) \\
& \uparrow f^{\prime \prime}=\frac{\uparrow f}{\left(\frac{\downarrow\left(v^{\prime}\right)+\uparrow c}{\uparrow c}\right)}=\frac{\left(1-\frac{\left(c \cdot \uparrow t^{\prime}-f \cdot \lambda \cdot \uparrow t^{\prime 2}\right)}{c}\right)}{c}
\end{aligned}
$$

This can be checked as, given $\lambda=1$ or $\lambda=0.5, \quad T^{\prime}=\frac{1}{12}$ for both cases, so the equations give the same Doppler effect with respect to the wavelength.

We shall consider two electrons $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{1}$, with $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ moving toward or away from $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and emitting a light ray towards $\mathrm{e}_{1}$.

fig11
There is a degree of redundancy in that we can either use an angle of $180^{\circ}$, or an angle of $0^{\circ}$ and a negative $v$, to the same end.

fig12
For a time-dilation factor $t^{\prime}<1$, it means that $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ is younger.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{\uparrow t^{\prime}}+\frac{\downarrow v}{\uparrow t^{\prime} \cdot \uparrow c}=1 \quad \frac{1}{\uparrow t^{\prime}}-1=\frac{\uparrow v}{\uparrow t^{\prime} \cdot \uparrow c} \quad \text { (With appropriate bounds for } v \quad \text { ) } \\
& \uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda+\downarrow v)=c \quad \uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot(c+\downarrow v)=c \quad \uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot c+\uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot \downarrow v=c \\
& \uparrow T^{\prime}+\frac{\uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot \downarrow v}{c}=1 \quad \uparrow T^{\prime}-1=\frac{-\uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot \downarrow v}{c}=\frac{-\downarrow V^{\prime}}{c} \quad \frac{\downarrow V^{\prime}}{\downarrow v}-1=\frac{-\downarrow V^{\prime}}{c} \quad(\text { For } \quad \downarrow v<0 \quad) \\
& \uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot \uparrow v=\frac{\uparrow T}{\uparrow t} \cdot \uparrow v=\uparrow V^{\prime} \quad(\text { For } \quad \uparrow v>0 \quad)
\end{aligned}
$$

For all observers, the speed of light will be observed to be $c$, the absolute speed will not exceed $c$, but the observed speed can exceed $c$ in another POV.

We measure $c$ or rather the time-dilation factor $t^{\prime}$ both behind and in front of the direction of movement $v$.

According to the linear Hubble's law: $z=\frac{\left(\lambda_{\text {observed }}-\lambda_{\text {emitted }}\right)}{\lambda_{\text {emitted }}}$. Therefore: $z=\frac{\left(\lambda \cdot t^{\prime \prime}-\lambda\right)}{\lambda}$, where $t^{\prime \prime}=t^{\prime}\left(v^{\prime}\right)=\frac{c-v^{\prime}}{c}$.
$v^{\prime}=v \cdot\left(\frac{c-v}{c}\right)$

fig13

fig14
For $v<0$ and $c>0$, the case is that $v^{\prime}=v \cdot\left(\frac{c+v}{c}\right)$ and $\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=t^{\prime}<1$.

And we can say that $\uparrow T^{\prime} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda+\downarrow v)=c$.

fig15
We must understand how to use the time-dilated velocity $v^{\prime}$. If it is not $v^{\prime}$ that is displacing position $x$ in terms of global time, then what is the purpose of $v^{\prime}$ ?

We can, at this point, deduce four general patterns:

1. light speed will be observed to be $c$
2. the hidden variable speed (to the stationary $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ 's POV, observing the moving $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ ) can exceed $c$
3. the time-dilated, effectual speed never exceeds $c$
4. to the observed-to-be-moving electron $\mathrm{e}_{2}, c$ is constant

Furthermore, we can say that:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{f \cdot \lambda-v}{t^{\prime}}=c \quad t^{\prime} \cdot c=f \cdot \lambda-v \quad \lambda=\frac{\left(t^{\prime} \cdot c+v\right)}{f} \quad f=\frac{\left(t^{\prime} \cdot c+v\right)}{\lambda} \quad v=f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c \\
& f^{\prime}=\frac{f}{1-\frac{v}{c}} \quad \lambda^{\prime}=\lambda \cdot\left(1-\frac{v}{c}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This is the result of blue-shift, i.e., where $v>0$ and the direction being measured is such that $c>0$ and $v<c$ or else then the case is that $v^{\prime}<0$ and it becomes red-shift. Alternatively, we may look at it as $f^{\prime}=-f$ for $v=2 c$, however this is only correct in one direction.

$$
f^{\prime}=\frac{f}{1-\frac{f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c}{c}} \quad \lambda^{\prime}=\lambda \cdot\left(1-\frac{f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c}{c}\right)=\lambda \cdot\left(1-\frac{f \cdot \lambda}{c}+t^{\prime}\right)=\lambda \cdot t^{\prime}
$$

For the galaxy GN-z11, being observed to be moving away at super-luminal speeds, the red-shift away from the direction of motion is (we could just as well measure it as blue-shift in the direction of motion with reversed arrows):

$$
z=11=\frac{\lambda^{\prime \prime}-\lambda}{\lambda}=\frac{\lambda \cdot t^{\prime \prime}-\lambda}{\lambda} \quad t^{\prime \prime}=12 \quad v^{\prime}=-\left(t^{\prime \prime} \cdot c-c\right)=-(12 \mathrm{c}-c)=c-12 \mathrm{c}=-11 \mathrm{c}
$$


fig16

$$
\frac{c-v}{t^{\prime}}=c \quad \frac{1}{t^{\prime}}-\frac{1}{t^{\prime}} \cdot \frac{v}{c}=1 \quad \frac{1}{t^{\prime}}-1=\frac{1}{t^{\prime}} \cdot \frac{v}{c} \quad \frac{1}{t^{\prime}}-1=\frac{v^{2}}{v^{\prime} \cdot c} \quad \frac{v}{v^{\prime}}-1=\frac{v^{2}}{v^{\prime} \cdot c} \quad 1-\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=\frac{v}{c}
$$

We will observe two time-dilation factors in any axis, where one direction may result in positive time increase (older), or a negative (younger).

fig17

$$
1-t^{\prime}=\frac{v}{c}
$$

With all of this, we must consider the sign of $c, v$, and the relation to $f$, whether it grows or decreases, with the direction of the receiver.

$$
\frac{1}{t^{\prime}} \cdot(f \cdot \lambda-v)=c \quad t^{\prime} \cdot c=f \cdot \lambda-v \quad f \cdot \lambda=t^{\prime} \cdot c+v \quad \lambda=\frac{t^{\prime} \cdot c+v}{f} \quad f=\frac{t^{\prime} \cdot c+v}{\lambda} \quad v=f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c
$$

For the case where $v<0$ (red-shift) and $v>0$ measures velocity away:

$$
f^{\prime}=f \cdot\left(1+\frac{v}{c}\right) \quad \lambda^{\prime}=\frac{\lambda}{1+\frac{v}{c}} \quad f^{\prime}=f \cdot\left(1+\frac{f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c}{c}\right) \quad \lambda^{\prime}=\frac{\lambda}{1+\frac{f \cdot \lambda-t^{\prime} \cdot c}{c}}=\frac{\lambda}{1+\frac{f \cdot \lambda}{c}-t^{\prime}}
$$

In the Michelson-Morley experiment, it does not indicate that length contraction is equivalent to timedilaiton, however, in this formulation, they may appear to be equivalent.

fig18

$$
\bar{i} \mathrm{ct}
$$

fig19

We may state the relation as a matter of proper, global time and the coordinate times $T$ and $t$ or as the proper, global time $\tau$ and the gamma-factor $\gamma$, now expressed in these terms as $t^{\prime}$.

fig20

$$
\bar{i} C T \cdot Y
$$

fig21
Where $\gamma<1$, for length-contraction of the coordinate $y, y^{\prime}=y \cdot \gamma$. According to the original: $c \cdot \tau=\sqrt{(c \cdot \tau \cdot \gamma)^{2}+(v \cdot \tau)^{2}}$. It is as though extra space appears (in front) as it is traversed.

fig22
The spaces expand, so, from the outside, keeping the spaces constant, it is as if the mover is compressed.

$$
-\bigcirc \longrightarrow
$$

fig23

fig24
We shall refer to $L$ as the separation of space between two objects. In the case of $v=11$, the naive application of $\gamma$ would indicate that $L$ increases to -12 in front and 12 behind, offsetting the net center of balance back by a factor of 12 .

If we try to apply the forward gamma:

$$
\frac{c-13}{c}=-12 \quad \frac{c-(-13)}{c}=14 \quad \frac{c-11}{c}=-10 \quad \frac{c-(-11)}{c}=12 \quad \uparrow v^{\prime}=\uparrow v \cdot-12 \quad \uparrow a^{\prime}=\uparrow a \cdot-12
$$

It would be interesting to apply this transformation of acceleration (and velocity) to the loop example given earlier in [2] to give a continuous path. Could it be that another transformation of $a^{\prime}=-12$ leads to $v^{\prime}=+12$ (i.e., an acceleration $|a|>c$ causing another reversal of the sign of velocity)?

fig25
For the example above: $-\cos \left(180^{\circ}\right) \cdot 2 \cdot(-11)+121+1=\left(c \cdot t^{\prime}\right)^{2}$. With the angle $180^{\circ}$ but velocity $v=-11,-22+122=t^{\prime 2} \quad t^{\prime}=10$, the angle $180^{\circ}$ and negative velocity therefore cancel out, to give the forward gamma. However, the gamma must be $t^{\prime}=-10$ as in the previous example, so the simpler equation must be used, or else the sign of the square root adjusted to match the forward equation solution.


## fig26

With $-\cos \left(0^{\circ}\right) \cdot 2 \cdot(11)+121+1=\left(c \cdot t^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ the result is still $t^{\prime}=10$. Different linear Hubble law
$|z|$ values of observed red-shift on different sides of the moving electron may give the same general $|v|$. At $a^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ at the back-side increase with increasing $|v|$ toward an attractive object (i.e., with $v>c$ giving $t^{\prime}<0$ and thus a negative $v$ and $a$, as would be the cae for GN-z11), but because the distance to the gravitational attractor is decreasing, even that doesn't help slow it down.

$$
\uparrow x^{\prime}=\uparrow x \cdot(-10) \quad \downarrow x^{\prime}=\downarrow x \cdot 12 \quad \Delta\left(\uparrow x^{\prime}, \downarrow x^{\prime}\right)=2 \quad \text { So, even though the new } \uparrow x \text { is negative, there }
$$ is still room between $\uparrow x$ and $\downarrow x$ for chemical activities and a domain of interaction. At most, a force $\uparrow F=1$ and $\downarrow F=1$ still give $\Delta(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=2$ net force separation, because a $\uparrow F=1$ is $(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=-10 \quad$ and $\downarrow F=1 \quad$ is $(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=-12$.


fig27
In the case of an electron being attracted to a proton or an electron $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and a moving electron $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ :

$$
\uparrow F=1 \text { gives } \Delta(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=-10, \uparrow F=0 \text { gives } \Delta(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=0, \text { and } \downarrow F=1 \text { gives } \Delta(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=-12
$$

To the still $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ 's POV, it appears that $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ still moves at $v$ absolute, and only $a^{\prime}$ changes. And still,
$\uparrow a_{\text {free }}>\downarrow a^{\prime}$, that is, the free acceleration effect outlined in [1], on the current velocity, is stronger than the backward acceleration due to gravitation and the net shifted center of balance, so GN-z11 continues accelerating. Perhaps the galaxy rotation curves of extra velocity can be explained by free acceleration.

Perhaps $v^{\prime}$ is the apparent velocity to both $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ ?

fig28
Then $v^{\prime}=v \cdot\left(\frac{c-v}{c}\right)=(-10) \cdot\left(\frac{c-(-10)}{c}\right)=-110$, and, given a universal age of $13.82 \times 10^{9} y$, it would indicate that $\mathrm{GN}-\mathrm{zll}$ is at a distance of

$$
110 \cdot 299,792,458 \frac{\mathrm{~m}}{\mathrm{~s}} \cdot 60 \frac{\mathrm{~s}}{\min } \cdot 60 \frac{\mathrm{~min}}{\text { hour }} \cdot 24 \frac{\text { hour }}{\text { day }} \cdot 365 \frac{\text { day }}{y} \cdot 13.82 \times 10^{9} y=1.43 \times 10^{25} \mathrm{~km}=1.52 \times 10^{12} \mathrm{ly} .
$$

Does it make sense that the spacing in front contracts by a factor $\frac{1}{\gamma}$, leading to $\uparrow a^{\prime}=\uparrow a \cdot \gamma$, adding to velocity, giving $\uparrow \nu$, which is then again increased by factor $\gamma$, giving $\Delta x=K \cdot \gamma^{2}$ ? When $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ slows down, moves out of contracted space (is relaxed back to normal shape), the acceleration and velocity should relax back too. So $\frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$ must be used, in $v_{2}=v_{1} \cdot \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$. The previous velocity is adjusted during the velocity change and acceleration. At the $v=c$ point, $\frac{c-v}{c}=0=\gamma_{1}$, and $\frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}=\frac{\gamma_{2}}{0}=\infty$, therefore. The sequence of transformations is $v^{\prime}=v \cdot \gamma_{1}, v_{2}=v+a$, and then $v_{2}^{\prime}=\left(\frac{v_{1}}{\gamma_{1}}\right) \cdot \gamma_{2}$.

$$
1\rceil_{\mathrm{e}_{2}}^{\mathrm{p}} \rightarrow \mathrm{Y}=\frac{1}{2} \prod_{\mathrm{e} 2}^{\mathrm{p}}
$$

fig29
With $\gamma=\frac{1}{2}$, the spacing $D=1$ increases to $D^{\prime}=2=\frac{1}{\gamma}$, therefore the effect on acceleration across $D, a(D)=\frac{G \cdot M}{D^{2}}$, is $a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma}\right)-a(D)$ or $\frac{a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma}\right)}{a(D)}$. If we consider $v=1$, then in this case $v^{\prime}=1=v \cdot \gamma$. Then $v^{\prime}-v=v \cdot \gamma-v$ and $\frac{v^{\prime}}{v}=\frac{v \cdot \gamma}{v}=\gamma$ for $v^{\prime}=\gamma \cdot v . \quad v_{2}=v_{1} \cdot \gamma_{2}=\left(v_{0} \cdot \gamma_{1}\right) \cdot \gamma_{2}$, then, perhaps. For velocity as a function of the distance, $\frac{v}{D}(D)=\frac{v_{0}}{D}$, and the time to traverse a distance as a function of the distance and velocity, $\tau=\frac{D}{v}(D)=\frac{D}{v_{0}}$, we may compute $\frac{D}{v}\left(\frac{D}{\gamma}\right)-\frac{D}{v}(D)$, and
have $\frac{\frac{D}{v}\left(\frac{D}{\gamma}\right)}{\frac{D}{v}(D)}=\frac{\frac{D}{v_{0} \cdot \gamma}}{\frac{D}{v_{0}}}=\frac{1}{\gamma}$. How much would $a^{\prime}: a$ compare with $D^{\prime}=\frac{D}{\gamma}$ ? Because $\left(\frac{G \cdot M}{\left(\frac{D^{2}}{\gamma^{2}}\right)}\right.$
$\frac{\gamma^{2}}{\left(\frac{G \cdot M}{D^{2}}\right)}=\gamma^{2}$, it follows that $a^{\prime}=a \cdot \gamma^{2}$. In the end, for mechanics, we only care about $v_{2}^{\prime}$ from
$v_{2}$, not $v_{1}^{\prime}$, so $v_{2}=v_{1} \cdot \gamma+a^{\prime}$, and $v_{1}^{\prime}$ can be further discarded. The " $v$ " is a hidden variable, or the true, absolute value.

From the gamma-factor points $\gamma_{1}=\frac{1}{2}$ to $\gamma_{2}=\frac{1}{4}$, it means that velocity turns from $v_{2}=\frac{1}{2} v_{1}$ to $v_{2}=v_{1} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}+a^{\prime}$, being the result of a speed-up in the front. Length of spacing along the x-axis, $L_{x}$, increases, while the size of the object in front along the x-axis, $s_{x}$, decreases. From a speed-up up to $c$, the time-dilation factor goes from $\gamma_{1}=\frac{1}{2}$ to $\gamma_{2}=0$, and the velocity to $v_{2}=\frac{0}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} v_{1}+a^{\prime}$, so $v_{2}=a^{\prime}$. Slowing down from $c$, to $\frac{c}{2}$, the spacing $L_{x}$ decreases, while $s_{x}$ increases, according to $v_{2}=\frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{0} v_{1}+a^{\prime}=\infty+a^{\prime}$. In $v_{2}=v_{1}+a^{\prime}$, the gamma is $\gamma_{1}=\frac{c-v_{1}}{c}$, while $v_{2}$ leads to $\gamma_{2}=\frac{c-v_{2}}{c}$, giving $v_{2}^{\prime}=v_{1} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}+a^{\prime}$, so it makes more sense to write it as $v_{2}^{\prime}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}+a^{\prime}$ now. Getting the gamma $\frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$ from $a^{\prime}: a$ gives $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}: a_{1}{ }^{\prime}=\gamma^{2}$, if we have only the $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}$ and $a_{1}{ }^{\prime}$ to work with, and $\sqrt{\frac{a_{2}{ }^{\prime}}{a_{1}{ }^{\prime}}}=\gamma=\frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$. When $D$ changes by $\frac{1}{\gamma}$, the previous $v$ changes by the new $\gamma$ , and acceleration $a^{\prime}$ automatically depends on $\frac{D}{\gamma_{\text {previous }}}$ or $\frac{D}{\gamma_{\text {new }}}$. So, after $x+v$ is used to obtain the new $x$, is $v$ adjusted by $\gamma_{\text {new }}$ then, for the next iteration? So the sequence would be $\gamma_{\text {new of previous }}=\gamma_{1}=\frac{c-v_{1}}{c}$ and then $v_{2}=v_{1}$, or $v_{2}^{\prime}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$. When $v$ changes, $\gamma$ changes, but $v$ only changes with $a$. So the previous $a$ must be added to $v . v_{2}=v_{1}+a_{1}$, where the previous gamma is perhaps $\gamma_{0}=\frac{c-v_{0}}{c}=1$, set to unity before any movement takes place. This then leads to the gamma $\gamma_{2}=\frac{c-v_{2}}{c}$, leading to $v_{2}^{\prime}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$, leading to $x^{\prime}=x+v_{2}{ }^{\prime}$, where $a_{2}=a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma_{2}}\right)$. All the $v_{2}, a_{2}$, and $x_{2}$ depend on $\frac{D}{\gamma_{1}}$. Or, we might have $x^{\prime}=x+v_{2}$ and $v_{1}=v_{2}{ }^{\prime}$, leading to a cycle.

Or, we may just store the absolute value $v$ to get $v_{2}^{\prime}$, i.e., $v_{2}=v_{1}+a_{1}, a_{1}=a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma_{1}}\right), \gamma_{1}=1$, $a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma_{1}}\right)=\frac{G \cdot M \cdot \gamma_{1}{ }^{2}}{D^{2}}$, and we know that $v_{2}=\frac{v_{2}{ }^{\prime}}{\gamma_{2}} \neq \infty$ for $\gamma_{2}=0$, so $v_{3}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{3}}{\gamma_{2}}=v_{2} \gamma_{3}$. $v_{2}=v_{2}{ }^{\prime} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{2}}$ for $\gamma_{2}=0$ and $v_{2} \neq \infty$, so we will arrange the sequence as $v_{3}=v_{2}{ }^{\prime}+a_{3}$, and $v_{3}{ }^{\prime}=v_{3} \frac{\gamma_{3}}{\gamma_{2}}$.

Where we have the unknown $v_{2}{ }^{\prime}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$ for $\gamma_{1}=0$, we have the known $v_{2}=v_{2}{ }^{\prime} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{2}}$, which we store, and therefore we skip $v_{1}=v_{2} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}} . v_{2}=v_{1}+a_{1}$, and for $\gamma_{1}=0$ and $v_{1}{ }^{\prime}=0, v_{2}=a_{1}$. Then $v_{2}{ }^{\prime}=a_{1} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}$, so $v_{2}{ }^{\prime}=0$ because $a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma_{1}}\right)=\frac{G \cdot M \cdot \gamma^{2}}{D^{2}}=0$.
$\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{x}=0 \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{0}=\infty \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x}=1 \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1-x}{x-1}=1$

How do we make sense of $v_{2}{ }^{\prime}=a_{1} \frac{\gamma_{2}}{\gamma_{1}}=0 \frac{\gamma_{2}}{0}=C \gamma_{2} \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s} \quad$ ?
For $\uparrow F=1, \downarrow F=1, \uparrow \gamma=-10$, and $\downarrow \gamma=12, \uparrow F^{\prime}=-100, \downarrow F^{\prime}=144$, and $\uparrow F_{n e t}{ }^{\prime}=\Delta(\uparrow F)^{\prime}=-44$, giving a range of $[-100,-144]$, without free acceleration.

If $a \cdot 0_{0}=0_{1}$, then necessarily $\frac{0_{1}}{0_{0}}=a$, if we have the same occurrence of variables to produce $0_{0}$ and $0_{1}$. So, $v_{0}{ }^{\prime}=v_{0} \frac{\gamma_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}=v_{0} \frac{0_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}=0_{1}$, where $\gamma_{0}=0_{0}$, giving

$$
\begin{aligned}
& v_{1}^{\prime}=v_{1} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{0}}=\left(v_{0}{ }^{\prime}+a_{0}\right) \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{0}}=\left(0_{1}+0\right) \frac{\gamma_{1}}{0_{0}}=\left(\frac{v_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}+0\right) \gamma_{1}=v_{0} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{-1}} . \text { And } a_{0}=a\left(\frac{D}{\gamma_{0}}\right)=\frac{G \cdot M \cdot \gamma_{0}^{2}}{D^{2}}=0_{2}, \text { and } \\
& a_{-1}=a\left(\frac{0}{\gamma_{-1}}\right)=\frac{G \cdot M \cdot \gamma_{-1}{ }^{2}}{D^{2}}, \text { so if we were to obtain } a_{0} \text { from } a_{-1}, a_{0}=a_{-1} \frac{\gamma_{0}^{2}}{\gamma_{-1}^{2}}=0_{2}=a_{-1} \frac{0_{0}{ }^{2}}{\gamma_{-1}^{2}} . \\
& v_{1}^{\prime}=v_{1} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{0}}=\left(v_{0}{ }^{\prime}+a_{0}\right) \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{0}}=\left(0_{1}+0_{2}\right) \frac{\gamma_{1}}{0_{0}}=\left(v_{0} \frac{0_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}+a_{-1} \frac{0_{0}{ }^{2}}{\gamma_{-1}{ }^{2}}\right) \frac{\gamma_{1}}{0_{0}}=\left(\frac{v_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}+a_{-1} \frac{0_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}^{2}}\right) \gamma_{1}=\left(\frac{v_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}+0_{3}\right) \gamma_{1}=\left(\frac{v_{0}}{\gamma_{-1}}\right) \gamma_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

, where $v_{0}=v_{-1}{ }^{\prime}+a_{-1}$, gives $v_{1}^{\prime}=v_{0} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{-1}}$. As we measure $x$ in $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} i$, and $v \rightarrow c$ and therefore $\uparrow \nu^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$ and $\uparrow a^{\prime} \rightarrow 0$, then must it always be that $\left|x^{\prime}\right|<c$ ? Then what of cases where $x \neq 0$ just before the transition to $v=c$, or $v>c$, and free acceleration? Rather, $v_{1}{ }^{\prime}=v_{0} \frac{\gamma_{1}}{\gamma_{-1}}$ is the case after slowing down from $c$, but that is $\downarrow v$, and what is the continuous curve for $x$ position and $v$ ?

For electrons $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{3}, x_{2}-x_{3}=\frac{x_{2}{ }^{\prime}-x_{3}{ }^{\prime}}{\gamma}$, i.e., the separation between them in the new, dilated frame of reference, must be the same as in the previous. And $x_{2,2}=x_{2,1}+v_{2}$ and $x_{2}{ }^{\prime}=x_{2} \gamma$, where $\gamma_{2}=\gamma\left(x_{2}\right)$ is a function of $x_{2}$. But to $\mathrm{e}_{2}, x_{2}{ }^{\prime}-x_{3}{ }^{\prime}=\left(x_{2}-x_{3}\right) \gamma_{2}$, the separation appears the same under the gamma, which means that, $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}=a_{2} \gamma_{2}{ }^{2}$. But if there is length-contraction, then the forces must be unaffected, so $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}=a_{2}$, and there must not appear to be any changes with respect to the rest of the world, then, with no transformation, but, for $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{2}$, if $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}$ does not change then what is length contraction, or then it must only appear after the movement is contracted. So does $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ decrease acceleration $a_{2}^{\prime}$ after the $\gamma_{2}$ velocity change, or not? Or does that only change future changes to $a_{2}^{\prime}$ ? If they are co-moving they will gradually contract and expand together, and differences only appear when there is a difference in $v$, if $\mathrm{e}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{3}$ are co-accelerating, and one is in front of the other, through a uniform acceleration field. Is it necessary to store all connection distances, to simulate the physics? Then what is light propagation in absolute terms, if they have no acceleration force change between each other? Then what does distance matter? Or else, it does, and then they will have a difference in $v$, like $\mathrm{e}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{e}_{2}$. Will the rate of change of $a_{2}{ }^{\prime}$ change by $\gamma_{2}{ }^{2}$ with respect to time? In a black hole singularity, where $\gamma=\sqrt{1-\frac{2 \cdot G \cdot M}{r \cdot c^{2}}}$ becomes complex, the new $\gamma=\frac{c-v_{\text {escape }}}{c}$ can be used, without resulting in complex terms. The transformation then is $v^{\prime}=v \gamma$ and $a^{\prime}=a \gamma^{2}$.

## References

[1] JphysA-108258
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