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[Marco Pereira](#) *

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Article

The Kinetic Energy of Relativistic Particles

Marco A. Pereira

Independent Researcher; ny2292000@gmail.com

Abstract: This article explores the kinetic energy of a particle with mass m accelerated from rest to a final velocity within an Absolute Reference Frame (ARF). Using a Minkowski-based approach and focusing on the integral form for energy calculations, we derive an alternative formulation for kinetic energy that differs from traditional relativity by recovering the classical form, $KE=mv^2/2$, within the ARF context. This formulation implies a mass-dependent energy cap as velocity approaches the universal maximum, c , aligning with classical mechanics in the limit while diverging from relativistic predictions at high speeds[1]. A proposed experiment using particle accelerators and precise calorimetry could reveal observable discrepancies in energy deposition, potentially challenging the conventional kinetic energy model.

Keywords: relativity; classical mechanics

1. Introduction

In conventional relativity, the kinetic energy KE_{rel} of a particle with mass m moving at velocity v is given by:

$$KE_{\text{rel}} = (\gamma - 1) mc^2 \quad (1.1)$$

where the Lorentz factor γ is:

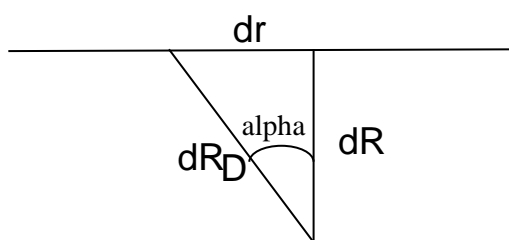
$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \quad (1.2)$$

This relativistic formulation has been experimentally confirmed across various high-energy physics applications, as discussed in foundational texts like Jackson's *Classical Electrodynamics* [1]. However, the ARF hypothesis proposes that kinetic energy may reach a mass-dependent limiting cap at Absolute Velocity c , suggesting a fundamental deviation in energy deposition at high velocities. This implies that kinetic energy might have a different formulation within the Absolute Reference Frame (ARF), where interactions are moderated by an intrinsic absolute velocity cap [1,2].

2. Theory and Derivations:

Derivation of Kinetic Energy in an Absolute Reference Frame (ARF)

Notice that ARF is only introduced because I successfully defended the assumption that there is an extra spatial dimension and that our universe is a Lightspeed Expanding Hyperspherical Hypersurface.



Minkowski Diagram

Figure 2.1. The derivation of the Kinetic Energy is based on this diagram, and thus, it is relativistic despite using an absolute reference frame (ARF). The ARF comprises the perpendicular axis R and any perpendicular vector within the 3D hyperplane, represented by a horizontal line. The diagram embodies Minkowski's interpretation of Lorentz transformations as rotations of the 4D metric [5]. You can see the angle of rotation as alpha. I am using hyperbolic functions in this derivation. That said, that is irrelevant, and using trigonometric functions would produce the same final conclusion.

Minkowski Spacetime reflects what is happening in the actual 4D Spatial Manifold. Minkowski's spatial coordinates describe a hyperplane traveling at the speed of light in some undefined direction. HU shows that this is the local linearization of the hyperspherical hypersurface (for short distances, the hyperspherical hypersurface can be approximated to a hyperplane). The vector perpendicular to the hyperplane is the same as the radial direction on the hyperspherical hypersurface. In other words, there is no sense in speaking about a direction of propagation in time. Once you add one extra spatial dimension, it makes all sense to talk of a perpendicular direction in a 4D Spatial Manifold.

That is why I mentioned ARF. If one just stays in the 4D Spacetime, my argument survives. The only difference is that the perpendicular vector in spacetime becomes an arbitrary inertial framework. The argument remains the same since this reference frame maps to the lab frame.

To derive the kinetic energy, we calculate the work dW done to accelerate the particle from rest ($v = 0$) to a final velocity of v_0 in the ARF. We'll show that either hyperbolic or trigonometric transformations yield the same force, thus indicating that Lorentz transformation is an artifact of a force that is Absolute-Velocity-Dependent.

Definition of Force and Displacement

Force: We define force F as acting in the direction of motion. In the ARF, the force remains aligned with the changes in the particle's velocity, and we express it as:

Using time as an imaginary quantity

$$F = m \frac{dv}{dt} = mc^2 \frac{d\left(-\frac{v}{ic}\right)}{icdt} = mc^2 \frac{d\sinh(\alpha)}{dR} = mc^2 \frac{d\sinh(\alpha)}{d\alpha} \frac{d\alpha}{dR} \quad (2.1)$$

$$\text{with } \sinh(\alpha) = -\frac{v}{ic} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\frac{d\sinh(\alpha)}{d\alpha} = 1 + \sinh^2(\alpha) = 1 + \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2 = \gamma^2 \quad (2.3)$$

Using time as a real quantity

$$F = m \frac{dv}{dt} = mc^2 \frac{d\left(\frac{v}{c}\right)}{cdt} = mc^2 \frac{d\tan(\alpha)}{dR} = mc^2 \frac{d\tan(\alpha)}{d\alpha} \frac{d\alpha}{dR} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\text{with } \tan(\alpha) = -\frac{v}{c} \quad (2.5)$$

$$\frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{d\alpha} = 1 - \tan^2(\alpha) = 1 - \left(\frac{v}{c}\right)^2 = \gamma^{-2} \quad (2.6)$$

This means that it is irrelevant if we have time as an imaginary quantity or not. The Physics it describes is in the absolute-velocity dependent force shown below:

$$F = m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = mc^2 \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) \frac{d\alpha}{dR} \quad (2.6)$$

This means that it is irrelevant if we have time as an imaginary quantity or not. The Physics it describes is in the absolute-velocity dependent force shown below:

From there you can go to:

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt'^2} = mc^2 \frac{d\alpha}{dR} \quad (2.7)$$

$$dt \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = dt' \text{ or} \quad (2.8)$$

$$dt = \frac{dt'}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \text{ (a.k.a. Time Dilation)} \quad (2.9)$$

$$\frac{m}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \frac{dv}{dt'} = mc^2 \frac{d\alpha}{dR} \text{ (time dilation and relativistic mass increase)} \quad (2.10)$$

Displacement dr:

Displacement dr is defined along a vector within the hyperplane in Minkowski space.

$$dr = dR_D \cdot \sin(\alpha) \quad (2.11)$$

Energy Integral

To find the kinetic energy, we calculate the work done from $v = 0$ to $v = v_0$ by integrating the expression for $dW = F \cdot dr$:

$$dW = mc^2 \frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{dR_D} \frac{dR_D}{dR} dR_D \sin(\alpha) = mc^2 \frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{d\alpha} \frac{dR_D}{dR} \sin(\alpha) d\alpha \quad (2.12)$$

Change of Variable and Integral Setup: To integrate, we change the variable to α using the following relationship:

$$\frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{dR_D} dR_D = \frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{d\alpha} \frac{d\alpha}{dR_D} dR_D = \frac{d \tan(\alpha)}{d\alpha} d\alpha \quad (2.13)$$

Resulting:

$$dW = mc^2 \frac{\sin(\alpha)}{\cos^3(\alpha)} d\alpha \quad (2.14)$$

Since:

$$\frac{dR}{dR_D} = \cos(\alpha) \quad (2.15)$$

1. Integral in Terms of α : Using the expressions for dR_D and substituting into the work integral, we obtain:

$$KE_{\text{ARF}} = \int_0^{\alpha_0} mc^2 \frac{\sin(\alpha)}{\cos^3(\alpha)} d\alpha = mc^2 \left[\frac{\tan^2(\alpha)}{2} \right]_0^{\alpha_0} = mc^2 \frac{\tan^2(\alpha_0)}{2} \quad (2.16)$$

Here, α_0 is the hyperbolic angle corresponding to the final velocity v_0 , where:

$$\alpha_0 = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{v_0}{c} \right) \quad (2.17)$$

Solving the Integral: Integration gives us:

$$KE_{\text{ARF}} = mc^2 \frac{\tan^2(\alpha_0)}{2} = \frac{mc^2}{2} \frac{v_0^2}{c^2} = \frac{mv_0^2}{2} \quad (2.18)$$

This result resembles the classical form for kinetic energy and highlights a cap on kinetic energy when using the ARF, which differs from the prediction of relativity[1].

3. Proposed Experimental Test in Calorimetry

To test the ARF model, we propose measuring the energy deposition of high-velocity protons, like those accelerated in the Large Hadron Collider (LHC). Conventional relativity predicts that a proton with 6.5 TeV energy should deposit all of this energy in a calorimeter. However, according to the ARF model, the energy deposition is capped at approximately 470 MeV:

$$KE_{\text{ARF}} = \frac{m_p c^2}{2} \approx 470 \text{ MeV} \quad (3.1)$$

Discrepancy in Calorimetric Measurements

In high-energy physics, calorimeters are often calibrated based on penetration depth, an indicator of how deeply particles penetrate the detector material before depositing their energy. Typically, calibration begins with velocity calculations derived from synchronization parameters, which then translate into energy estimates using relativistic formulas. This energy is then correlated with penetration depth, assuming that deeper penetration indicates higher energy deposition.

- A calorimeter is a detector which fully absorbs the particles.
 - The signals produced are a measure for the **energy** of the particle, but the particle is **lost** for further inspection
 - The particle initiates a **particle shower**. Each secondary particle deposits energy and produces further particles until the full energy is absorbed.
 - The **composition** and **shape** of the showers depend on the **type** and **energy** of the **primary particle** (e^\pm , γ or hadrons)
 - Ideally (but not in practice), the response is **linear**: Calorimeter signal \propto deposited energy \propto energy of primary particle.
- Calorimetry is a widespread technique in particle physics:
 - instrumented targets: neutrino exp. / proton decay / cosmic ray
 - 4 π detectors for collider experiments
- Calorimetry makes use of various detection mechanisms:
 - Scintillation, Cherenkov radiation, Ionization, Cryogenic phen.

Convert energy E of incident particles to detector response $S \propto E$

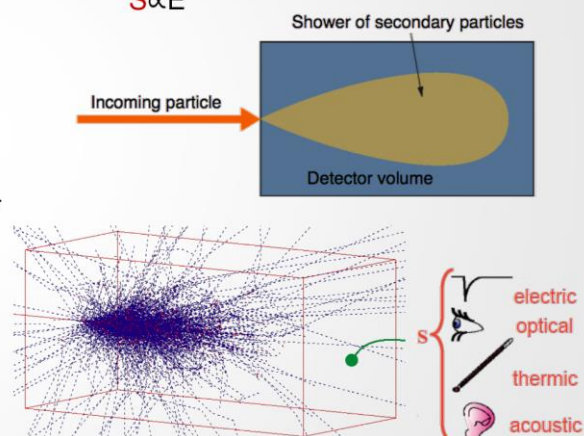


Figure 3.1. This figure shows how particles interact with the calorimeter components. The incoming particle creates a shower of secondary particles. For speed's sake, the measurement is not done thermally (it takes time for thermal equilibrium). Instead, the detector measures penetration. In other words, one can measure the effect of the particle shower on the different layers of the detector and use that to create a penetration profile. This penetration profile is modeled using Relativity, which creates a biased measurement.

However, under the Absolute Reference Frame (ARF) model, penetration depth could increase without a disproportional increase in energy. This discrepancy arises because particle interactions diminish as velocity approaches the absolute limit c , reducing the rate of energy transfer to the detector material. In this scenario, particles could penetrate deeper into the detector with only minimal additional energy since the interaction cross-section decreases significantly at high speeds. This phenomenon challenges the assumption that penetration depth directly correlates with energy, as is typical in relativistic calibrations.

To detect the predictions of the ARF model accurately, calorimeters would need to measure energy deposition as thermal changes rather than relying solely on penetration depth, which may obscure the lower energy transfer rates predicted by the ARF hypothesis [2–4].

In Appendices A and B, we present the Russian Scientist Anatoli Bogorski's event and numerical simulation based on Relativity and the Hypergeometrical Universe Theory

4. Practical Implications: Shielding for Spacecraft

The ARF hypothesis derives a force that is dependent upon the Absolute Velocity. That force diminishes as the Absolute Velocity increases towards lightspeed c . At c , the force goes to zero. This would explain the higher penetration observed in high-energy physics experiments.

This implies a shielding effect for particles approaching the speed of light relative to the ARF. This effect may aid in developing spacecraft shielding technologies, allowing high-speed travel without excessive particle interactions. **Notice that this is exactly the opposite of what Relativity predicts, and it would make a good test case.**

Gaps in Experimental Verification

Many experiments in high-energy physics implicitly assume relativistic models. Calorimeters are designed to measure penetration and shower length, which may mask discrepancies predicted by the ARF model. An unbiased test requires calorimeters that directly measure energy deposition as thermal changes.

Temperature-Based Calorimetric Test

A temperature-sensitive calorimeter could directly measure deposited energy without the influence of relativistic assumptions. Such a device could provide empirical evidence to support or challenge the ARF model.

5. The Anatoli Bugorski Event:

Here's an overview of Anatoli Bugorski's incident, his injuries, and the details surrounding the U-70 Synchrotron accelerator.

The Incident: Anatoli Bugorski's Accident

- Date: July 13, 1978.
- Location: Institute for High Energy Physics in Protvino, Russia.
- Accelerator: The U-70 Synchrotron was the particle accelerator involved in the accident.

Anatoli Bugorski, a Russian scientist and researcher, was performing maintenance on the U-70 Synchrotron, which was the largest particle accelerator in the Soviet Union at the time. During his work, a malfunction led to an unexpected event where Bugorski accidentally placed his head in the path of a proton beam.

Details of the U-70 Synchrotron

- Type: Proton synchrotron.

- Operational Energy: The U-70 Synchrotron was capable of accelerating protons to 76 GeV (76 billion electron volts), significantly lower than modern accelerators like the Large Hadron Collider (6.5 TeV per proton).
- Circumference: Approximately 1,500 meters.

The U-70 was built in the late 1960s and became operational in 1967. It was primarily used for high-energy physics experiments and was a significant achievement in Soviet particle physics.

Nature of the Exposure

- Proton Beam Energy: The beam that struck Bugorski was at the full energy of the U-70's capability, 76 GeV per proton.
- Exposure Path: The proton beam entered the back of Bugorski's head, passed through his skull, and exited near his nose.
- Duration: Although not precisely measured, the exposure likely lasted several seconds because human can only move slowly and there was no pain. Bugorski was exposed long enough to absorb a large dose of energy. Unlike the Large Hadron Collider, a Synchrotron produces a continuous beam, so the exposure depends only upon the exposure time.

Immediate Effects

- Visual Phenomenon: Bugorski reportedly saw a flash "brighter than a thousand suns" but did not feel any pain.
- Severe Radiation Dose: He received a localized radiation dose estimated between 200,000 to 300,000 rads (2,000 to 3,000 Gy) to the tissue along the beam path, far beyond a lethal dose for whole-body exposure. However, because the beam was highly localized, the damage was confined to the area it traversed.

Medical and Long-Term Effects

1. Initial Injury: The beam severely burned a narrow path of tissue in his head. It destroyed tissue, bone, and nerves along the way, and Bugorski's face swelled up beyond recognition within days.
2. Partial Paralysis: The right side of his face was paralyzed, and he lost hearing in his left ear. Bugorski also experienced severe seizures in the years following the accident, likely due to damage to brain tissue.
3. Cognitive Effects: Despite the extensive injury, Bugorski's cognitive functions remained intact, and he was able to continue his work as a scientist after the accident.
4. Long-Term Survival: Bugorski survived against all odds, making his case one of the most unusual in radiation injury history. He continued to live a relatively normal life, albeit with ongoing health issues related to the accident.

Legacy and Scientific Interest

Bugorski's case remains a unique study of the effects of high-energy proton beams on biological tissue and a testament to human resilience. It is still referenced in studies related to radiation injuries, particle beam therapy, and the biological effects of localized high-dose radiation.

The incident underscores both the risks of working with particle accelerators and the unpredictable nature of radiation injuries, especially when dealing with high-energy particles like protons.

Energy Deposition Numerical Analysis

Here's a more detailed explanation with the relevant formulas for dE/dx due to ionization losses, especially as they apply to the 76-GeV proton beam that struck Anatoli Bugorski.

Is the dE/dx in the Code Due to Ionization? Yes, the dE/dx we used in the code to estimate the energy loss of a 76-GeV proton beam passing through tissue or water primarily represents ionization losses.

Why Ionization Dominates for Protons at 76 GeV

For high-energy protons like the 76 GeV beam from the U-70 Synchrotron:

Ionization is the dominant mechanism of energy loss when a proton passes through matter, including tissue. This is because ionization losses are significant for heavy charged particles (like protons) over a wide range of energies.

Bremsstrahlung (radiative losses), which becomes significant for lighter particles like electrons, is negligible for protons. This is because Bremsstrahlung losses are inversely proportional to the square of the particle's mass. The proton's mass is about 1,836 times the electron's, making Bremsstrahlung insignificant even at high energies.

Why We Used This Simplified dE/dx in the Code

In our code, we used to approximate the average rate of energy deposition for a proton traveling through 10 cm of material.

Ionization Dominates for Protons: At 76 GeV, a proton's primary energy loss mechanism in tissue is ionization, not Bremsstrahlung. By approximating the rate as a constant over the 10 cm path, we avoid complex particle-by-particle tracking.

Relativistic and Classical Calorimetric Analysis

The proton energy decays as it interacts with the medium according to:

$$-\frac{dE}{dx} = \frac{E}{X_0} \quad (5.1)$$

The formula for the radiation length X_0 is empirically determined.

For a given material, the radiation length X_0 in units of g/cm^2 is given by[4]:

$$X_0 = \frac{716.408 \cdot A}{Z \cdot (Z + 1) \cdot \ln\left(\frac{287}{\sqrt{Z}}\right)} \quad (5.2)$$

This empirical formula (eq. 5.2) was used to calculate the radiation length X_0 for water in our code for both relativistic and classical analyses, where we substituted values specific to water:

- $Z_{\text{eff}} = 7.42$: effective atomic number of water.
 - $A_{\text{eff}} = 18.015, \text{ g/mol}$: molar mass of water.
 - $\rho_{\text{water}} = 1, \text{ g}/\text{cm}^3$: density of water.
 - The constant 716.408 is an empirical factor (in units of g cm^{-2}).
- To obtain X_0 in meters, this value must be divided by the density ρ of the material:

$$X_0, (\text{meters}) = \frac{X_0, (\text{g}/\text{cm}^2)}{\rho, (\text{g}/\text{cm}^3)} \quad (5.3)$$

Python Notebook is available in the GitHub repository[8].

6. Discussion

The Force Absolute-Velocity-dependency implies an innovative method for high-speed shielding, particularly relevant to spacecraft design. By minimizing the interaction rate as the velocity approaches the light speed limit, this ARF property could revolutionize spacecraft shielding,

suggesting decreased particle collision rates at high speeds—directly opposing traditional relativity predictions.

The use of temperature-sensitive calorimeters is uniquely positioned to reveal thermal dissipation rates, which relativistic frameworks may not fully capture. This distinction between thermal and penetration depth provides a critical testing ground for verifying the ARF model.

According to traditional relativistic predictions, the energy deposition from a high-energy proton beam would have been significantly higher, around 46 kJ, which would be expected to cause catastrophic tissue damage beyond survival limits. However, the Hypergeometrical Universe (HU) Theory, with its Absolute Reference Frame (ARF) model, predicts a much lower energy deposition cap, closer to 0.285 J. This result aligns with Anatoli Bugorski's survival, who endured severe but localized injuries after exposure to a high-energy proton beam. The HU model's absolute energy cap suggests that as particles approach light speed, their interactions with matter diminish, resulting in significantly reduced energy deposition.

The survival of Bugorski presents empirical evidence that challenges the conventional relativistic framework, highlighting the potential validity of the HU model's predictions. By implementing experiments focused on thermal energy deposition using calorimetry, we could effectively test the ARF model's predictions against those of relativity-based calibrations, which typically emphasize penetration depth.

7. Conclusions

The Absolute Reference Frame (ARF) model presents an alternative view of kinetic energy that deviates observably from relativistic expectations while recovering the Classical Mechanics definition of kinetic energy. Testing this hypothesis requires calorimetric techniques that measure pure thermal energy independent of the assumptions tied to relativistic calibration. If confirmed, the ARF model could fundamentally shift our understanding of particle dynamics, opening up new possibilities for aerospace applications.

The ARF model is integral to the Hypergeometrical Universe Theory (HU) [6,7]. Validating the ARF model would also validate HU, posing a direct challenge to General Relativity and established physics. Since Relativity is foundational to our current understanding of the Universe, confirmation of the ARF model would require a reevaluation of the principles that underlie modern physics.

The Anatoli Bugorski's incident supports the Absolute Reference Frame (ARF) or HU model.

- **Relativity Prediction:** Under traditional relativistic mechanics, the proton beam's energy deposition would be high enough to be lethal. You noted that relativity predicts a significant energy deposition (46 kJ), which would lead to catastrophic tissue damage beyond what was observed.
- **Hypergeometrical Universe (HU) Prediction:** Using the ARF model, your calculation yields a much lower energy deposition (around 0.285 J), aligning with Bugorski's survival, even though he experienced severe localized injuries. This lower energy deposition could be attributed to the ARF's implication of an energy cap at high velocities.

The survival of Bugorski despite such high-energy exposure presents a challenge to relativistic expectations. The lower predicted energy deposition of the HU model provides a more plausible explanation for the localized damage and his eventual survival.

This argument strengthens the case for experimental consideration of the HU model, particularly with the calorimetry tests you've proposed, which focus on thermal changes rather than penetration depth alone.

GitHub Repositories provided on [CMB HU](#), [HU GalaxyPackage](#), and [HU Papers](#).

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