

GRAVITY AND NON-EXTENSIVE NATURE OF MASS

Z. CHYLIŃSKI

Institute of Nuclear Physics
 Radzikowskiego 152, 31-342 Cracow, Poland

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Gravitational interaction responsible for stability of large objects like stars and planets results in their mass-defect, thus affecting the gravitational "coupling constants". This double role of gravitation leads to the non-extensive character of mass, which would question the locality of gravitational field equations in the regions filled by matter.

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The gravitation force acting on a bound composite structure must account for its mass-defect, as otherwise the equality of inertial and heavy masses would be violated. Indeed, if heavy mass were insensitive to the mass-defect, then *e.g.* the α -particle composed of four nucleons of masses M would interact with an external gravitational field more strongly than a single nucleon. Its heavy mass would be equal to $4M$, while the inertial mass M_α of α -particle is less than $4M$, as:

$$M_\alpha = 4M - \frac{B}{c^2} = 4M - \Delta M \quad (\Delta M = \frac{B}{c^2}), \quad (1)$$

where B is its binding energy.

However, the α -particle binding energy is due to the strong and electromagnetic forces and therefore, the α -particle interaction with an external field of gravitation is automatically separated into two uncoupled problems. First, from quantum physics neglecting gravitation, one obtains M_α and next, one puts the corresponding equations of motion of the particle with mass M_α in a gravitational field. However, in the case of astronomical objects like stars and planets, gravitation is responsible for their stability and hence, *via* the mass-defect, for their masses which determine the "coupling constants" of the gravitation itself. This double role of gravitational force makes any local theory of a gravitational field inside matter vague according to the non-extensive nature of masses of these large objects. Let us show

this by estimating the rest-mass M of a spherically symmetric "star \mathcal{M} " with radius R , under the following simplifying assumptions.

1° Let the static gravitational force between two point-particles of masses m_1, m_2 follow the Newtonian law

$$\vec{f} = -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^3} \vec{r} \quad (2)$$

and

2° let the spherically symmetric function $\overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)$ denote the "proper mass-density" of the star \mathcal{M} built of rigid bodies. Thus we assume that the internal energy of \mathcal{M} is due to the gravitational interaction only. The atomism provides us with a precise definition of the "proper mass-density" of \mathcal{M} . Let us suppose for a moment that \mathcal{M} is a neutron star and let $N(r)$ denotes the number of neutrons in a unit volume at a distance r from its centre. Then

$$\overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r) = N(r)M, \quad (3)$$

where M , as before, denotes the rest-mass of a free nucleon.

According to (2), the gravitational potential $\phi(r)$ normalized to zero at infinity ($r \rightarrow \infty$) is equal to:

$$\phi(r) = \begin{cases} -\frac{GM(R)}{R} - G \int_r^R dx \frac{M(x)}{x^2} & \text{for } r \leq R \\ -\frac{GM(R)}{r} & \text{for } r \geq R, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where the so far unknown function $M(r)$ ($r \leq R$) denotes the heavy (and inertial) mass of the sphere of radius r inside the star \mathcal{M} . In agreement with Eq. (2), outside the star ($r > R$) $\phi(r)$ coincides with the Newtonian potential, however, the extensive Newtonian mass $M_0(R)$,

$$M_0(R) = 4\pi \int_0^R dx x^2 \overset{\circ}{\varrho}(x), \quad (5)$$

is to be replaced by $M(R) < M_0(R)$.

Under the above assumptions, the binding energy of a thin shell of matter covering the sphere of radius r and mass $M(r)$ amounts to:

$$dB(r) = -[4\pi \overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)r^2 dr]\phi(r) > 0$$

and so, $M(r)$ must fulfill the following equality:

$$M(r+dr) = M(r) + 4\pi \overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)r^2 dr + 4\pi \overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)r^2 dr \frac{\phi(r)}{c^2}$$

and hence, the following equations:

$$\frac{dM(r)}{dr} = 4\pi \overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)r^2 \left[1 - \frac{GM(R)}{Rc^2} - \frac{G}{c^2} \int_r^R dx \frac{M(x)}{x^2} \right] \quad (6.i)$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dr} \left[\frac{1}{\overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r)r^2} \frac{dM(r)}{dr} \right] = 4\pi \frac{G}{c^2} \frac{M(r)}{r^2}. \quad (6.ii)$$

Let us put $\overset{\circ}{\varrho}(r) = \varrho_0 = \text{const.}$ which once again oversimplifies real situation but enables one to evaluate $M(r)$ analytically. On introducing the characteristic length

$$a = \frac{c}{(4\pi G \varrho_0)^{1/2}}, \quad (7)$$

Eq. (6.ii) becomes reducible to the confluent hypergeometric equation [1] hence its solution satisfying the boundary condition $M(0) = 0$ takes the form

$$M(y) = Cy^3 e^{-y/2} F(\alpha = 2, \gamma = 4; y) \quad \left(y = \frac{2r}{a} \right). \quad (8)$$

As

$$F(2, 4; y) = 6y^{-2}(e^y + 1) - 12y^{-3}(e^y - 1),$$

after inserting $M(y)$ into (6.i), one finds the normalization constant C and

$$M(r) = a \frac{c^2}{G} \left[\cosh \left(\frac{R}{a} \right) \right]^{-1} \left[\frac{r}{a} \cosh \left(\frac{r}{a} \right) - \sinh \left(\frac{r}{a} \right) \right] = M(r; R). \quad (9)$$

Finally, for $r = R$ we obtain the mass of the star \mathcal{M} equal to:

$$M(R) = a \frac{c^2}{G} (u - \tanh u) = M(R; R) \quad \left(u = \frac{R}{a} \right). \quad (10)$$

In the nonrelativistic limit ($c \rightarrow \infty$) $u \rightarrow 0$ and, of course, $M(R)$ from (10) coincides with $M_0(R)$,

$$M(R) \xrightarrow{c \rightarrow \infty} M_0(R) = \frac{4\pi}{3} R^3 \varrho_0. \quad (11)$$

The same limit (11) also occurs for finite c when $\varrho_0 \rightarrow 0$, as then $u \rightarrow 0$ too, as $R \sim \varrho_0^{-1/3}$, $a \sim \varrho_0^{-1/2}$, hence $u \sim \varrho_0^{1/6} \xrightarrow{\varrho_0 \rightarrow 0} 0$. In Fig. 1 the ratio

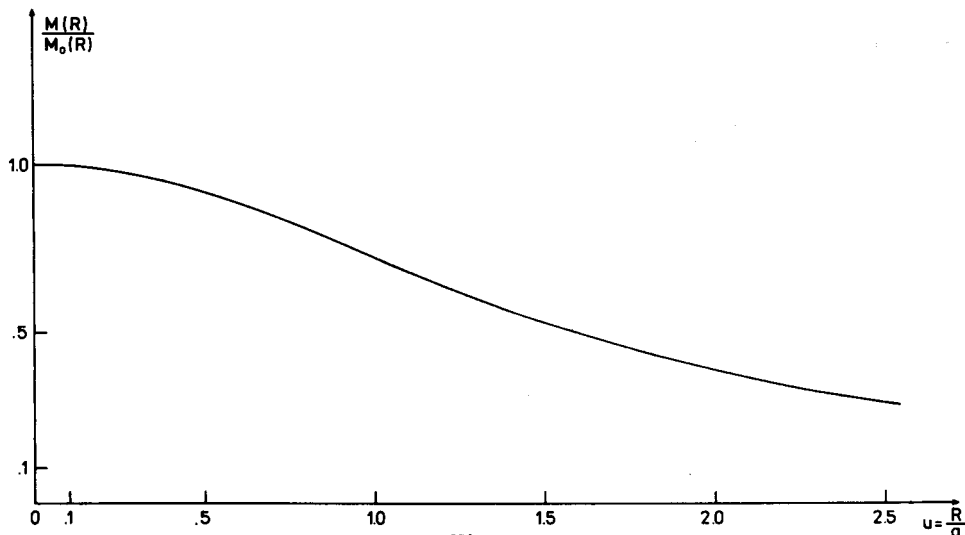


Fig. 1.

$M(R)/M_0(R)$ is presented as a function of $u = R/a$, which also shows the relative mass-defect $\Delta M/M_0$. From (10) and (11) we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta M(R)}{M_0(R)} &= 1 - \frac{M(R)}{M_0(R)} \\ &= 1 - \frac{3}{u^2} \left(1 - \frac{\tanh u}{u} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

For small values of u ($u \ll 1$), which is usually the case, we get

$$\frac{\Delta M(R)}{M_0(R)} = \frac{2}{5}u^2 - \frac{17}{105}u^4 + \dots, \quad (13)$$

while for large u ($u \gg 1$)

$$\frac{\Delta M(R)}{M_0(R)} \sim 1 - \frac{3}{u^2} \xrightarrow{u \rightarrow \infty} 1. \quad (14)$$

For earth \mathcal{E} and sun \mathcal{S} , although $u \ll 1$, we have:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta M}{M_0} \right)_{\mathcal{E}} \simeq 4 \cdot 10^{-10}, \quad \left(\frac{\Delta M}{M_0} \right)_{\mathcal{S}} \simeq 10^{-6}, \quad (15)$$

thus the mass-defects are quite large. If $u \gg 1$, from (10) we get

$$M(R) \xrightarrow{u \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c^2}{G} \right) R \quad (R \gg a), \quad (16)$$

which shows that $M(R)$ increases linearly with R , rather than with the third power of R as in the case of the extensive Newtonians mass $M_0(R)$ from (11).

The non-extensive character of the mass $M(R)$ exhibits its globality, thus calling in question any local theory of gravitation in regions filled by matter. Since $M(R)$ also determines the gravitational coupling constant of \mathcal{M} interacting with another star \mathcal{M}' , the detection of the masses of stars from their mutual motion can bring about a considerable underestimation of the number of nucleons constituting heavy stars.

REFERENCES

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