# VISUALIZATIONS AND ANALYSES OF QUANTUM BEHAVIOR, SPACETIME CURVATURE, AND METRIC RELATIONSHIPS IN RELATIVISTIC PHYSICS 

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#### Abstract

This study aims to investigate essential concepts in quantum mechanics and theoretical physics, with an emphasis on the $1+1$ dimension. We examine the Dirac equation for relativistic spin- $1 / 2$ particles, the Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation in $1+1$ spacetime with flat conformal metric, and connect them to the Dirac equation. Additionally, we explore the Alcubierre Metric related to warp drive, particle modeling in a harmonic potential using the Schrödinger Equation, and the Gödel Metric Solution to depict the peculiarities of spacetime. The research aims to deepen the understanding of these concepts, identify theoretical implications, and their potential applications. This research aims to enhance the understanding of fundamental physics, assist in the development of future technologies, and provide deeper insights into the universe. Its benefits lie in contributing to theoretical understanding in physics, which can spark the development of new theories. This study is limited to physics concepts in the $1+1$ dimensions, without empirical experiments or practical applications. The primary focus is on the theoretical analysis of these concepts. The results of this research have potential theoretical implications in understanding basic physics and spacetime phenomena. The simplification and connections between these concepts can aid in the development of new theories in theoretical physics. The uniqueness of this research lies in its integrative approach to quantum mechanics and theoretical physics concepts in the $1+1$ dimension, which may not have been extensively explored previously. Through this research, we have investigated several key concepts in quantum mechanics and theoretical physics in the $1+1$ dimension. These findings can make a significant contribution to our understanding of the universe and the potential development of new theories in physics.


Keywords: Quantum Mechanics; Spacetime Curvature; Metric Relationships; Relativistic Physics

## Introduction

The study delves into the visualization and analysis of various quantum and relativistic phenomena within different spacetime geometries. ${ }^{1}$ These phenomena encompass spatial and temporal fluctuations of wave functions, ${ }^{2}$ the relationship between momentum and energy in particle physics, ${ }^{3}$ conformal factor and wavefunction behavior

[^0]in curved spacetime, ${ }^{4}$ the behavior of the conformally-flat metric in (1+1)dimensional spacetime, ${ }^{5}$ quantum wave function evolution. ${ }^{6}$ and the visualization and analysis of spacetime curvature within the framework of the Alcubierre metric. Through comprehensive visual representations and analyses, this research contributes to our understanding of the
intricate interplay between quantum behavior, relativistic effects, and spacetime curvature.

Quantum mechanics and relativistic physics have fundamentally reshaped our comprehension of the universe at the subatomic and cosmic scales. ${ }^{7-9}$ The behavior of particles in quantum systems and the behavior of spacetime in the presence of massive objects challenge conventional intuition. ${ }^{10}$ To deepen our insights into these phenomena, visualizations and analyses play a crucial role. The visualization of quantum wave functions and the portrayal of spacetime curvature in various contexts offer valuable avenues for comprehending complex physical concepts. ${ }^{11}$

The primary objective of this study is to employ visualizations to enhance our understanding of quantum and relativistic phenomena. By visually representing the behavior of wave functions, spacetime curvature, and metric components, this research aims to bridge the gap between theoretical formulations and intuitive comprehension. ${ }^{12}$ The significance of this research lies in its potential to provide insights into the behavior of particles in quantum systems, the fundamental relationship between momentum and energy, the influence of spacetime curvature on particle behavior, and the theoretical aspects of faster-than-light travel. ${ }^{13}$

This research is centered on visualizations and analyses of quantum and relativistic phenomena within specific contexts. The scope includes the spatial and temporal fluctuations of wave functions, momentum-energy relationships, conformal factor and wavefunction behavior, spacetime curvature within the Alcubierre metric, and wave function evolution. However, it is essential to acknowledge that visualizations, while powerful tools, inherently simplify complex physical concepts and may not capture all nuances. ${ }^{14}$

While theoretical frameworks exist to describe quantum and relativistic phenomena, the visualizations presented in
this research contribute a novel dimension to understanding. These visualizations provide a bridge between mathematical formulations and conceptual comprehension. The visual exploration of wave functions in various spacetime geometries and the portrayal of spacetime curvature based on the Alcubierre metric address a research gap by offering intuitive insights into phenomena that are often considered challenging to grasp.

## Methods

## Paul Dirac's Special Relativistic Wave Equation

Paul Dirac's special relativistic wave equation, also known as the Dirac equation, is a fundamental equation in quantum mechanics that describes the behavior of relativistic spin- $1 / 2$ particles like electrons. ${ }^{15}$ This equation incorporates special relativity and quantum mechanics. ${ }^{16}$ To derive the equation, we'll start with some basic principles. We begin by defining the Dirac matrices, which are $4 \times 4$ matrices. There are four of them $\gamma^{0}, \gamma^{1}, \gamma^{2}$, and $\gamma^{3}$.

They are Hermitian matrices, meaning $\gamma^{\mu}=\left(\gamma^{\mu}\right)^{\dagger}$ where $\dagger$ represents the Hermitian conjugate. They anticommute with each other: $\left\{\gamma^{\mu}, \gamma^{\nu}\right\}=\gamma^{\mu} \gamma^{\nu}+\gamma^{\nu} \gamma^{\mu}=2 g^{\mu \nu} I$, where $g^{\mu \nu}$ is the Minkowski metric and I is the identity matrix. Commonly used representations for the Dirac matrices are the Pauli-Dirac representation or the Weyl representation. ${ }^{17}$ In the standard representation (Pauli-Dirac), the Dirac matrices can be constructed as follows

$$
\gamma^{0}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0  \tag{1}\\
0 & -I
\end{array}\right) \text {, and } \gamma^{i}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & \sigma^{i} \\
-\sigma^{i} & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

Where I is the $2 \times 2$ identity matrix and $\sigma^{i}$ are the Pauli matrices. The Dirac equation can be derived from the Dirac Lagrangian density, which is given by ${ }^{18}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{L}=\bar{\psi}\left(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}-m\right) \psi \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\psi$ is the Dirac spinor, and $\bar{\psi}=\psi^{\dagger} \gamma^{0}$ is its adjoint. Now, we can derive the Dirac equation by applying the Euler-Lagrange equation to this Lagrangian ${ }^{19}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}}{\partial \psi}-\partial_{\mu}\left(\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}}{\partial\left(\partial_{\mu} \psi\right)}\right)=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let's compute the variations. $\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}}{\partial \psi}$ where This gives us $\left(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}-m\right) \psi$ where This gives us $i \gamma^{\mu} \psi$. Plugging these into the EulerLagrange equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}-m\right) \psi-\partial_{\mu}\left(i \gamma^{\mu} \psi\right)=0 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we use the property that $\gamma^{\mu} \gamma^{\nu}+\gamma^{\nu} \gamma^{\mu}=2 g^{\mu \nu} I$ and the fact that $\gamma^{0}$ and $\gamma^{i}$ anticommute to manipulate the equation further. After some algebraic manipulation, you will arrive at the desired Dirac equation:
$\left(i \gamma^{\mu} \partial_{\mu}-m\right) \psi=0$
This is the Dirac equation for a relativistic spin- $1 / 2$ particle. It describes the behavior of particles like electrons in a relativistic quantum mechanical framework. ${ }^{20}$ The Dirac matrices in the standard representation are given by ${ }^{21}$ :

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\gamma^{0} & =\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right), & \gamma^{1} & =\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right),  \tag{6}\\
\gamma^{2} & =\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\
0 & 0 & i & 0 \\
0 & i & 0 & 0 \\
-i & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right), & \gamma^{3}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
-1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0
\end{array}\right) .
\end{array}
$$

The Dirac equation was developed as an attempt to linearize the Klein-Gordon equation, which arises from applying the Einstein relation $E^{2}=p^{2}+m^{2}$ to the Schrödinger equation's Hamiltonian. ${ }^{22}$ The Klein-Gordon equation describes relativistic particles with mass $m$ in a relativistic framework, but it has some interpretation
issues like negative energy solutions. ${ }^{23}$ Dirac sought a more satisfactory equation and successfully formulated the Dirac equation, describing mass-bearing particles with spin $1 / 2$ (such as electrons), in a way consistent with the principles of relativity and quantum mechanics. ${ }^{24,25}$

## Simplification of Dirac Equation in 1+1 Dimensions

To simplify the Dirac equation in $1+1$ dimensions as shown, we will use some common notations in quantum field theory and Dirac matrices. The Dirac equation can be written in matrix form as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
i\left(\partial_{t}+\frac{\dot{\Omega}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi=-i \sigma_{x}\left(\partial_{x}+\frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi+\sigma_{z} \Omega m \psi \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

To determine whether $\Omega$ (Omega) is a function of time or not, we need to check whether $\Omega$ depends on time $t$ or is constant. To do so, we need to analyze each term in the equation. The time-independent Schrödinger equation has a general form:
$i \hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}=H \psi$
Where ( $\hbar$ ) is the reduced Planck constant, $(\psi)$ is the wave function, and H is the Hamiltonian operator which usually consists of kinetic and potential terms. The first term is $\left\{i\left(\partial_{t}+\frac{\dot{\Omega}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi\right\}$, This tribe contains $(\dot{\Omega}$ which shows that $\Omega$ depending on time. Therefore, $\Omega$ is a function of time and for the second term $\left\{-i \sigma_{x}\left(\partial_{x}+\frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi\right\}$, This tribe does not contain $(\dot{\Omega})$, so it is independent of time. This is the term that describes the spatial changes in the system. The third term is ( $\sigma_{z} \Omega m \psi$ ), This term contains $\Omega$, but $\Omega$ in this case is $\Omega$ without brackets (without a dot on it), which indicates that $\Omega$ in this term is a constant, not a function of time. So $\Omega$ is a function of time because it contains $(\dot{\Omega})$, while the other
terms are independent of time. Here, we will use the standard Pauli matrices:

The Dirac equation in matrix notation can be rewritten as:

$$
\sigma_{x}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1  \tag{9}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad \sigma_{z}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
i \partial_{t} \psi+\frac{i}{2 \Omega} \dot{\Omega} \psi=-i \sigma_{x}\left(\partial_{x}+\frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi+\sigma_{z} \Omega m \psi \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we will split this equation into two parts and simplify them. The first part (lefthand side) of the equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
i \partial_{t} \psi+\frac{i}{2 \Omega} \dot{\Omega} \psi \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we will factor out the 'i' from both

$$
\begin{equation*}
i\left(\partial_{t}+\frac{\dot{\Omega}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$ terms:

$$
\begin{align*}
&-i\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\left(\partial_{x}+\frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi=-i\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)\binom{\partial_{x} \psi_{1}}{\partial_{x} \psi_{2}}-i\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right) \frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\binom{\psi_{1}}{\psi_{2}}  \tag{13}\\
&=-i\binom{\partial_{x} \psi_{2}}{\partial_{x} \psi_{1}}-i \frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\binom{\psi_{2}}{\psi_{1}} \\
& \sigma_{z} \Omega m \psi=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right) \Omega m\binom{\psi_{1}}{\psi_{2}}  \tag{14}\\
&=\binom{\Omega m \psi_{1}}{-\Omega m \psi_{2}} \\
& i\left(\partial_{t}+\frac{\dot{\Omega}}{2 \Omega}\right) \psi=-i\binom{\partial_{x} \psi_{2}}{\partial_{x} \psi_{1}}-i \frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \Omega}\binom{\psi_{2}}{\psi_{1}}+\binom{\Omega m \psi_{1}}{-\Omega m \psi_{2}} \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

Solution of the Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation in (1+1) Dimensional Spacetime with Conformally-Flat Metric with Separation of Variables and Stationary Solutions

We investigate the evolution of the wave function in the context of a (1+1) dimensional spacetime using the conformally-flat form of the metric. ${ }^{26}$ By performing a series of mathematical manipulations, we derive a fundamental equation that governs the evolution of the wave function under specific conditions. ${ }^{27}$ The given time-dependent Schrödinger equation is:
$i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}=-i \sigma_{x} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$
where $\psi$ is the wave function, t is time, x is position, and $\sigma_{x}$ is the Pauli matrix $\sigma_{x}$, which represents the spin operator in the xdirection for a spin- $1 / 2$ particle. The Pauli matrix $\sigma_{x}$ is given by:

$$
\sigma_{x}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1  \tag{17}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

We will attempt to find a solution to this equation. First, we will use matrix notation to replace $\sigma_{x}$. Then, we will separate the variables and find the general solution. ${ }^{28,29}$ Finally, we will interpret this solution. The equation becomes:
$i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}=-i\left[\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right] \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$
We will attempt to find a solution by assuming that the wave function $\psi$ can be separated into the form of a product of functions of time and position:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi(x, t)=\phi(x) T(t) \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

This substitution allows us to separate the Schrödinger equation into two simpler equations, one for $\phi(x)$ and another for $T(t)$

$$
i \frac{d(T)}{d t} \phi(x)=-i\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1  \tag{20}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \frac{d(\phi)}{d x} T(t)
$$

Now, let's separate these variables:

$$
i \frac{d(T)}{d t} \phi(x)=-i\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1  \tag{21}\\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \frac{d(\phi)}{d x} T(t)
$$

The left-hand side is a function of time only, and the right-hand side is a function of position only. Therefore, they must be equal to the same constant, which we'll call E (the total energy of the system):

$$
\begin{align*}
i \frac{d(T)}{d t} & =E T(t)  \tag{22}\\
-i\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \frac{d(\phi)}{d x} & =E \phi(x)
\end{align*}
$$

The first equation is an ordinary differential equation that can be solved by separating variables and integrating ${ }^{30}$ :
$i \frac{d(T)}{d t}=E T(t)$
$\int \frac{d(T)}{T(t)}=\int-i E d t$
$\ln |T(t)|=-i E t+C$
$T(t)=e^{-i E t+C}$
This is the general solution for the time part of the wave function. The second equation involves the Pauli matrix and can be
separated into two coupled ordinary differential equations for the components $\phi_{1}(x)$ and $\phi_{2}(x)$ is $\left(\frac{d \phi_{1}}{d x}=-E \phi_{2}(x)\right)$ and $\left(\frac{d \phi_{2}}{d x}=-E \phi_{1}(x)\right)$. To find the solutions for both equations simultaneously, you can use a system of first-order linear differential equations. We can solve this system of equations using a matrix approach. Define a vector $\quad \boldsymbol{\Phi}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{l}\phi_{1}(x) \\ \phi_{2}(x)\end{array}\right], \quad$ and a matrix $\mathbf{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & -E \\ -E & 0\end{array}\right]$. The system can then be written as $\frac{d \boldsymbol{\Phi}}{d x}=\mathbf{A \Phi}$. Now, solve this system using the matrix exponential. The general solution for $\left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}(x)\right.$ is given by $\boldsymbol{\Phi}(x)=\mathbf{C} e^{A x}$, where $(\mathbf{C})$ is a constant vector and $\left(e^{A x}\right)$ is the matrix exponential. To find ( $e^{A x}$ ), you can diagonalize (A) by finding its eigenvalues and eigenvectors. The eigenvalues of (A) are $\left(\lambda_{1}=E\right)$ and $\left(\lambda_{2}=-E\right)$, and the corresponding eigenvectors are $\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 1\end{array}\right]\right)$ and $\left(\mathbf{v}_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{c}1 \\ -1\end{array}\right]\right)$, respectively. Now, you can write (A) in terms of its diagonalized form (D) and the matrix of eigenvectors ( $\mathbf{P}$ ) is $\mathbf{A}=\mathbf{P D P}^{-1}$. In this case, $\quad \mathbf{P}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right] \quad$ and $\quad \mathbf{D}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}E & 0 \\ 0 & -E\end{array}\right]$. Now, you can find ( $e^{A x}$ ) as follows $e^{\mathbf{A x}_{x}}=\mathbf{P} e^{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{P}^{-1}$. Since $\left(e^{\mathbf{D x}}\right)$ is a diagonal matrix with $\left(e^{E x}\right)$ and ( $\left.e^{-E x}\right)$ on its diagonal, we have:

$$
e^{D x}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0  \tag{27}\\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Now, plug this into equation $\boldsymbol{\Phi}(x)=\mathbf{C P} e^{\mathrm{Dx}} \mathbf{P}^{-1}$. Find the solutions for $\left(\phi_{1}(x)\right)$ and $\left(\phi_{2}(x)\right)$ by multiplying this expression by $\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0\end{array}\right]$ and $\left[\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1\end{array}\right]$ respectively:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \phi_{1}(x)=\mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]  \tag{28}\\
& \phi_{2}(x)=\mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-1
\end{array}\right] \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

Simplify these expressions to find the specific solutions for $\left(\phi_{1}(x)\right)$ and $\left(\phi_{2}(x)\right)$. The constant vector (C) will depend on the initial conditions of the problem. To find the stationary (time-independent) solutions for the given equations, we will use the previously provided solutions for $\left(\phi_{1}(x)\right)$ and $\left(\phi_{2}(x)\right)$. We will seek a stationary solution $(\psi(x))$ by using a linear combination of $\left(\phi_{1}(x)\right)$ and $\left(\phi_{2}(x)\right)$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi(x)=A \phi_{1}(x)+B \phi_{2}(x) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, (A) and (B) are constants that we will determine. Now, let's compute $(\psi(x))$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\psi(x) & =A \phi_{1}(x)+B \phi_{2}(x)  \tag{31}\\
& =A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
1
\end{array}\right]+ \\
& B \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-1
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 1 \\
1 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
A+B \\
A-B
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
(A+B)+(A-B) \\
(A+B)-(A-B)
\end{array}\right] \\
& =\mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
e^{E x} & 0 \\
0 & e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
2 A \\
2 B
\end{array}\right] \\
& =2 \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E x} \\
0
\end{array}\right] A+2 \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right] B \\
& =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E x} \\
0
\end{array}\right]+2 B \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right] \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, the stationary solution $(\psi(x))$ is given by:

$$
\psi(x)=2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E x}  \tag{33}\\
0
\end{array}\right]+2 B \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]
$$

This is the stationary solution, we can determine the values of A and B based on initial conditions. To determine the values of (A) and (B) based on initial conditions, we need to consider the specific problem or boundary conditions provided in your problem statement. Initial conditions specify the values of $(\psi(x))$ and its derivatives at a particular point or over a certain interval. Let's assume we have initial conditions for $(\psi(x))$ at a point $\left(x_{0}\right):$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(\psi\left(x_{0}\right)=\psi_{0}\right)  \tag{34}\\
& \left.\frac{d \psi}{d x}\right|_{x=x_{0}}=\psi^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=\psi_{0^{\prime}} \tag{35}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, we can use these initial conditions to determine the values of (A) and (B) in the expression for $(\psi(x))$ :

$$
\psi(x)=2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E x}  \tag{36}\\
0
\end{array}\right]+2 B \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
e^{-E x}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Let's evaluate $\left(\psi\left(x_{0}\right)\right)$ and $\left.\frac{d \psi}{d x}\right|_{x=x_{0}}$ using the given expression for $(\psi(x))$ and then apply the initial conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(\psi\left(x_{0}\right)\right. & =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E_{x_{0}}} \\
0
\end{array}\right]+2 B \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
e^{-E E_{0}}
\end{array}\right]  \tag{37}\\
& =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E_{x_{0}}} \\
0
\end{array}\right] \\
\left.\frac{d \psi}{d x}\right|_{x=x_{0}} & =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
E e^{E_{0}} \\
0
\end{array}\right] \tag{38}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, we can apply the initial conditions:

$$
\begin{align*}
\psi\left(x_{0}\right) & =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
e^{E x_{0}} \\
0
\end{array}\right]  \tag{39}\\
& =\psi_{0} \\
\left.\frac{d \psi}{d x}\right|_{x=x_{0}} & =2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}
E e^{E_{0}} \\
0
\end{array}\right]  \tag{40}\\
& =\psi_{0^{\prime}}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, we can solve these equations for (A) and (B). From the first equation, we have
$2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}e^{E_{x_{0}}} \\ 0\end{array}\right]=\psi_{0}$ this implies $2 A \mathbf{C} e^{E_{0}}=\psi_{0}$ so $A=\frac{\psi_{0}}{2 \mathbf{C e}^{E_{x_{0}}}}$. From the second equation, we have $\quad 2 A \mathbf{C}\left[\begin{array}{c}E e^{E x_{0}} \\ 0\end{array}\right]=\psi_{0^{\prime}} \quad$ this implies $2 A \mathbf{C E e} e^{E_{E_{0}}}=\psi_{0^{\prime}} \quad$ so $\quad B=\frac{\psi_{0^{\prime}}}{2 \mathbf{C} E e^{E_{x_{0}}}} . \quad$ Now expressions for (A) and (B) in terms of the given initial conditions ( $\psi_{0}$ ) and ( $\psi_{0^{\prime}}$, as well as the constants (C) and (E), and the value of $\left(x_{0}\right)$.

Deriving the Dirac Equation from the Time-Independent Schrödinger Equation in One-Dimensional Space

The calculation to derive the Dirac Equation from the time-independent Schrödinger Equation in one dimension requires several steps. The time independent Schrödinger equation in one dimension for a particle of mass $m$ with potential $\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{x})$ is as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\hat{H} \psi(x) & =\left(-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m} \frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}+V(x)\right) \psi(x)  \tag{41}\\
& =E \psi(x)
\end{align*}
$$

Now, we will use the momentum operator in its more general form, i.e. $\left(\hat{p}=-i \hbar \frac{d}{d x}\right)$. We also know that $\hat{p}^{2}=-\hbar^{2} \frac{d^{2}}{d x^{2}}$. Thus, the Schrödinger equation can be written as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{\hat{p}^{2}}{2 m}+V(x)\right) \psi(x)=E \psi(x) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let us define the energy operator as $\hat{E}=\frac{\hat{p}^{2}}{2 m}+V(x)$. Now the Schrödinger equation becomes:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{E} \psi(x)=E \psi(x) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know that ( $\hat{E}$ ) is the energy operator, and we can also introduce the identity
operator ( $\hat{I}$ ) which does nothing to any function, i.e. $(\hat{I} \psi(x)=\psi(x))$. The Schrödinger equation can now be written as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\hat{E}-E \hat{I}) \psi(x)=0 \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we will find the relationship between the energy operators ( $\hat{E}$ ) and momentum operator ( $\hat{p}$ ). We know that the classical kinetic energy is $\left(\frac{p^{2}}{2 m}\right)$, where ( p ) is the classical momentum. In quantum mechanics, classical momentum (p) is replaced by the momentum operator ( $\hat{p}$ ). So, we can express ( $\hat{E}$ ) as:
$\hat{E}=\frac{\hat{p}^{2}}{2 m}+V(x)$
With this definition, the Schrödinger equation can be rewritten as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\hat{E}-E \hat{I}) \psi(x)=\left(\frac{\hat{p}^{2}}{2 m}+V(x)-E\right) \psi(x)=0 \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will simplify this equation further. Now, let's find the energy operator ( $\hat{E}$ ) for relativistic particles (particles with high energy traveling close to the speed of light) in relativistic notation. For these particles, the total energy (E) is:
$E=\sqrt{p^{2} c^{2}+m^{2} c^{4}}$
Here, (p) is the momentum, (c) is the speed of light, and (m) is the mass of the particle. Now, we want to replace (p) with the momentum operator ( $\hat{p}$ ). This results in:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{E}=\sqrt{\hat{p}^{2} c^{2}+m^{2} c^{4}} \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, we have reached the initial form of the Dirac Equation. The Dirac equation in one dimension for a particle of mass (m) at the speed of light (c) is:
$\left(\sqrt{\hat{p}^{2} c^{2}+m^{2} c^{4}}-m c^{2}\right) \psi(x)=0$

This is the Dirac Equation in one dimension that describes relativistic particles. This is the basic form, and the equation is more commonly expressed in four-spinor notation to describe more complex particles in higher dimensions.

## Understanding the Alcubierre Metric: A Warp Drive Solution

This is the Dirac equation in the transformed. The Alcubierre Metric is a solution to Einstein's equations that describes the concept of a warp drive in theoretical physics. ${ }^{31}$ The Alcubierre Metric is given by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=-N^{2} d t^{2}+g_{i j}\left(d x^{i}+N^{i} d t\right)\left(d x^{j}+N^{j} d t\right) \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case, we have the coordinate transformation:
$d t=d \bar{t}, \quad d x=d \bar{x}+v_{s} d t$
We will derive a new expression for the Alcubierre Metric in these new coordinates. To do that, we will substitute these coordinate changes into the original Alcubierre Metric. In the Alcubierre Metric, we have:
$d s^{2}=-N^{2} d t^{2}+g_{i j}\left(d x^{i}+N^{i} d t\right)\left(d x^{j}+N^{j} d t\right)$
Now, we will substitute (dt) and (dx). This is the Alcubierre Metric in the $(\bar{t})$ and ( $\bar{x}$ ) coordinates. This calculation explains how we can transform the Alcubierre Metric from the coordinates $((\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{x}))$ to $((\bar{t}, \bar{x}))$ according to the given coordinate transformation

$$
\begin{align*}
d s^{2}= & -N^{2}(d \bar{t})^{2}+g_{i j}\left(d \bar{x}^{i}+v_{s} d \bar{t}+N^{i} d \bar{t}\right)\left(d \bar{x}^{j}+v_{s} d \bar{t}+N^{j} d \bar{t}\right)  \tag{53}\\
d s^{2}= & -N^{2}(d \bar{t})^{2}+g_{i j}\left(d \bar{x}^{i} d \bar{x}^{j}+v_{s} d \bar{t} d \bar{x}{ }^{j}+N^{i} d \bar{t} d \bar{x}^{j}+v_{s} d \bar{t} \bar{x}^{i}+v_{s}^{2}(d \bar{t})^{2}+\right. \\
& \left.v_{s} N^{j}(d \bar{t})^{2}+N^{i} d \bar{t} d \bar{x}^{j}+v_{s} d \bar{t} N^{i} d \bar{t}+N^{i} d \bar{t} N^{j}(d \bar{t})^{2}\right) \\
d s^{2}= & -N^{2}(d \bar{t})^{2}+g_{i j} d \bar{x}^{i} d \bar{x}^{j}+\left(2 v_{s} g_{i j}+2 v_{s} N^{i} g_{i j}+v_{s}^{2}+N^{i} N^{j} g_{i j}\right)(d \bar{t})^{2} \\
d s^{2}= & -N^{2}(d \bar{t})^{2}+g_{i j} d \bar{x}^{i} d \bar{x}^{j}+\left(g_{i j}\left(2 v_{s}+2 N^{i}+v_{s}^{2}+N^{i} N^{j}\right)\right)(d \bar{t})^{2}
\end{align*}
$$

## Curved Spacetime Metrics and Quantum Wave Functions

In cylindrical coordinates, the metric is given by the following expression:

$$
\begin{align*}
d s^{2}= & d t^{2}-\frac{d r^{2}}{1+\left(\frac{r}{2 a}\right)^{2}}-r^{2}\left(1-\left(\frac{r}{2 a}\right)^{2}\right)^{2} d \phi^{2}  \tag{54}\\
& -d z^{2}+\frac{2 r^{2}}{a \sqrt{2}} d t d \phi .
\end{align*}
$$

Here, a is a parameter with units of length that represents a characteristic distance. Particularly, $r_{G}=2 a$ represents the critical radius from which Closed Timelike Curves (CTC) can exist. ${ }^{32}$ Taking a radial section
with $\phi=\phi_{0}$ and $z=z_{0}$, the G"odel metric becomes:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=d t^{2}-\frac{1}{1+(r / 2 a)^{2}} d r^{2} . \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

By making the coordinate change $(t, r) \rightarrow(t, \bar{r})$ with:
$d \bar{r}^{2}=\frac{1}{1+(r / 2 a)^{2}} d r^{2}, \quad d t^{2}=d t^{2}$,
The metric transforms into the Minkowski metric

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=d t^{2}-d \bar{r}^{2} . \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, the relationship between the ( t , r ) and ( $t, \bar{r}$ ) coordinates can be found by performing the following integration:
$\bar{r}(r)=\int \frac{d r}{\sqrt{1+(r / 2 a)^{2}}}$,
with the solution, assuming $\bar{r}(r=0)=0, \bar{r}(r)=2 a \sinh ^{-1}\left(\frac{r}{2 a}\right) \quad$ With these new coordinates, the conformal factor becomes $\Omega^{2}=1$, and the Minkowski spacetime solution will be the same as the curved spacetime solution, as in the case of the Alcubierre metric. ${ }^{33}$ Thus, the only difference between G"odel and Alcubierre metrics is the relationship between the original coordinates and the new coordinates. ${ }^{34}$ Assuming the wave function has a Gaussian initial form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(\bar{x}, 0)=N e^{-\frac{\left(\bar{x}-\bar{x}_{0}\right)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}}, \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where $\bar{x}$ is the conformally flat coordinate and N is a normalization constant, the solution for the Dirac equation in Minkowski spacetime will be:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(\bar{x}, t)=N e^{-\frac{\left(t-\left(\bar{x}-\overline{z_{2}}\right)\right)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}} . \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\psi=\phi$, to find the curved spacetime solution, we only have to apply the coordinate change for each metric. For the Alcubierre case, we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(x, t)=N e^{-\frac{\left(t-\left(x-s t-\overline{\delta_{0}}\right)^{2}\right.}{\sigma^{2}}}, \tag{61}
\end{equation*}
$$

while, for the G"odel metric:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(r, t)=N e^{-\frac{\left(t-\left(2 a \sinh ^{-1}(r)\left(2 a-\bar{x}_{0}\right)\right)^{2}\right.}{\sigma^{2}}} . \tag{62}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Kerr Metric and Wave Function Behavior in Curved Spacetime

Various aspects of the Kerr metric in the context of general relativity and its implications for the behavior of wave functions ( $\psi$ ) in curved spacetime. ${ }^{35}$ The Kerr metric is a solution to Einstein's field equations that describes the spacetime around a rotating black hole. ${ }^{36-39}$ It is given in Boyer-Lindquist coordinates ( $t, r, \theta, \phi$ ) and is characterized by the metric components $d s^{2}$. where, $\Sigma(r, \theta)$ is $r^{2}+a^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta$, and $\Delta(r)$ is $r^{2}+a^{2}-2 M r$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
d s^{2}=-\left[1-\frac{2 M r}{\Sigma}\right] d t^{2}-\frac{4 M a r \sin ^{2} \theta}{\Sigma} d t d \theta+\frac{\Sigma \Delta}{\Sigma} d r^{2}+\Sigma d \theta^{2}+\frac{\left(r^{2}+a^{2}+2 M a^{2} r \sin ^{2} \theta\right)}{\Sigma} \sin ^{2} \theta d \phi^{2} \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

When considering a radial section ( $\theta=\theta_{0}, \phi=\phi_{0}$ ), the metric simplifies to:
$d s^{2}=-\left[1-\frac{2 M r}{\Sigma\left(r, \theta_{0}\right)}\right] d t^{2}+\Sigma\left(r, \theta_{0}\right) \Delta(r) d r^{2}$
A coordinate change $(t, r) \rightarrow(t, \bar{x}) \quad$ is introduced to simplify the metric further. This involves the conformal factor $\Omega^{2}(r)=1-\frac{2 M r}{\Sigma(r)}$, where $r$ becomes a function of $\bar{x}$. The relation between solutions in curved spacetime $(\psi)$ and flat spacetime $(\psi)$ involves the factor $\Omega^{-1 / 2}(r)$. The conformal factor $\Omega^{-1}(r)$ influences the
properties of the wave function. It is shown that there are regions where the probability density of the wave function becomes infinite or null, based on conditions involving $\Sigma(r)$ and $\Omega^{-1}(r)$.
Occurs when $\Sigma(r)-2 M r=0$, leading to the apparent singularities $r_{ \pm}=M \pm \sqrt{M^{2}-a^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta_{0}}$, which define the ergosphere. Occurs when $\Omega^{-1}(r)=0$, corresponding to the conditions $r^{2}+a^{2} \cos ^{2} \theta_{0}=0$. This happens when either $r=0$ (no rotation) or $r=0, \theta_{0}=\frac{\pi}{2}$. Occurs for $\Sigma(r)-2 M r<0$, specifically within the region $r_{-}<r<r_{+}$, which is within the
ergosphere. The goal is to solve the integral and find the expression for $\bar{x}(r)$ as provided in the given form. First calculate the quantity $\Delta(r)$, which is a key part of your integral. It is defined as:

$$
\begin{align*}
\Delta(r) & =\Sigma(r)-2 M r  \tag{65}\\
& =r^{2}+a^{2}-2 M r
\end{align*}
$$

Then factorize $\Delta(r)$ as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\Delta(r) & =r^{2}-2 M r+a^{2}  \tag{66}\\
& =(r-M)^{2}+a^{2}-M^{2} \\
& =(r-M)^{2}+\left(a^{2}-M^{2}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Substitute the expression for $\bar{x}(r)$ into the integral:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{x}(r)=\int \frac{r^{2}+a^{2}}{(r-M)^{2}+\left(a^{2}-M^{2}\right)}, d r+C . \tag{67}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proceed with a trigonometric substitution to simplify the integral:

$$
\begin{equation*}
r-M=\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}} \tan \theta, \quad d r=\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{\cos ^{2} \theta} d \theta \tag{68}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitute the trigonometric expressions into the integral:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{x}(r)=\int \frac{r^{2}+a^{2}}{a^{2}+r^{2}-M^{2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{\cos ^{2} \theta} d \theta+C . \tag{69}
\end{equation*}
$$

Simplify the integrand step by step:

$$
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}(r) & =\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}} \int \frac{r^{2}+a^{2}}{\cos ^{2} \theta} d \theta+C  \tag{70}\\
& =\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}} \int \frac{r^{2}+a^{2}}{1+u^{2}} d u+C
\end{align*}
$$

Calculate the new integral using a trigonometric approach:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int \frac{r^{2}+a^{2}}{1+u^{2}} d u=\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)+D \tag{71}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitute the result back into the expression for $\bar{x}(r)$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}(r) & =\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}}\left[\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)+D\right]+C \\
& =\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}}\left[\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{r-M}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}\right)+D\right]+C
\end{align*}
$$

This concludes which derives the expression for $\bar{x}(r)$ in the given form using mathematical steps involving trigonometric substitutions and integral calculations. To solve this calculation, we will start by finding the derivative of $\bar{x}(r)$ with respect to r . The derivative of $\bar{x}(r)$ with respect to r is:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\frac{d \bar{x}}{d r}=\frac{d}{d r}\left[\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}}\left[\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)+D\right]+C\right]  \tag{73}\\
\quad=\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}} \frac{d}{d r}\left[\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)+D\right]
\end{array}
$$

Now we need to find the derivative of $\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)$ with respect to r. For this, we will use the product rule:

$$
\begin{align*}
& =\frac{d}{d r}\left[\left(r^{2}+a^{2}\right) \arctan (u)\right]  \tag{74}\\
& =\frac{d}{d r}\left[r^{2} \arctan (u)+a^{2} \arctan (u)\right] \\
& =\frac{d}{d r}\left[r^{2} \arctan (u)\right]+\frac{d}{d r}\left[a^{2} \arctan (u)\right]
\end{align*}
$$

Let's find the derivative of $r^{2} \arctan (u)$ first. We will use the chain rule for this, where $f(u)=r^{2}$ and $g(r)=\arctan (u)$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& =\frac{d}{d r}\left[r^{2} \arctan (u)\right]  \tag{75}\\
& =\frac{d}{d(\arctan (u))}\left[r^{2}\right] \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(\arctan (u))
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\frac{d}{d u}\left[r^{2}\right] \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(\arctan (u)) \\
& =2 r \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(\arctan (u))
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we need to find the derivative of $a^{2} \arctan (u)$ with respect to r. However, $a^{2}$ is a constant, so its derivative with respect to $r$ is zero:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d r}\left[a^{2} \arctan (u)\right]=0 \tag{76}
\end{equation*}
$$

Back to the main expression:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d \bar{x}}{d r}=\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}}\left[2 r \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(\arctan (u))\right] \tag{77}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, let's find the derivative of $\arctan (u)$ with respect to r. For this, we will use the chain rule again. We have $f(u)=\arctan (u)$ and $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{r})=\mathrm{u}$. The derivative of $\arctan (u)$ with respect to u is $\frac{1}{1+u^{2}}$, so:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d}{d r}(\arctan (u)) & =\frac{d}{d u}(\arctan (u)) \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(u)  \tag{78}\\
& =\frac{1}{1+u^{2}} \cdot \frac{d}{d r}(u)
\end{align*}
$$

Next, we need to find the derivative of $u$ with respect to r . We have:
$u=\frac{r-M}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}$
Now, let's calculate the derivative of $u$ with respect to r :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{d r}(u) & =\frac{d}{d r}\left(\frac{r-M}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}} \frac{d}{d r}(r-M) \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we can combine all this information into the derivative $\frac{d \bar{x}}{d r}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d \bar{x}}{d r} & =\frac{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}{a^{2}-M^{2}}\left[2 r \cdot \frac{1}{1+u^{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^{2}-M^{2}}}\right]  \tag{81}\\
& =\frac{2 r}{\left(a^{2}-M^{2}\right)\left(1+u^{2}\right)}
\end{align*}
$$

Now we have found the derivative $\frac{d \bar{x}}{d r}$.

## Results and Discussion

## Real Part $(\operatorname{Re}(T(t)))$ and Its Significance in Quantum Particle Probability

Through this research, we have delved into the intricate nuances of relativistic quantum physics. The significance of the Real Part $(\operatorname{Re}(T(t)))$ plot, depicted in blue, lies in its ability to reveal the real component of the wave function ( $\mathrm{T}(\mathrm{t})$ ). Within the realm of quantum physics, this plot plays a pivotal role by furnishing vital insights into the probability of a quantum particle's presence at a particular time ( t ). Essentially, it serves as a visual representation of the spatial distribution of particles within our quantum system at any given moment.

In the realm of quantum physics, the Imaginary Part Plot $(\operatorname{Im}(T(t)))$, depicted in red, assumes a pivotal role as it encapsulates the imaginary facet of the wave function $(\mathrm{T}(\mathrm{t})$ ). This component, while not directly divulging the particle's spatial likelihood, profoundly influences the temporal evolution of the particle's wave function by dictating its phase. Consequently, the Imaginary Part Plot serves as an invaluable tool for scrutinizing alterations in the wave phase within the quantum system. Furthermore, our investigation delves into the parameter (E), which signifies the energy within the quantum system. In the realm of quantum physics applications, this energy value ( $\backslash(\mathrm{E} \backslash)$ ) intimately links to both the kinetic and potential energy contributions of the quantum particle,
rendering it a primary determinant in shaping the quantum system's dynamics. Another essential factor we consider is the parameter (C), a complex constant that wields significant influence over the wave phase. This constant is instrumental in characterizing the initial conditions of the quantum system and provides insights into its evolution from one initial state to another, especially within the context of relativistic quantum physics.


Figure 1. Real and Imaginary Components of Wave Function with Energy and Complex Constant (E and C)

## Modeling Trapped Particles with Harmonic Potential in Quantum Physics

In the field of relativistic quantum physics, our research has undertaken a thorough examination of the harmonic potential, which is mathematically defined as $\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{x})=0.5 * \mathrm{x}^{2}$. This equation provides a comprehensive description of how a particle behaves when confined near a central point, where the potential energy increases as the particle moves away from the central point $(x=0)$. The particle's wave function, represented as the light blue curve located at a lower position on the graph, emerges as a solution to the Schrödinger equation that is specifically tailored for this harmonic potential. This wave function effectively visualizes the probability distribution of the particle's position within the system.


Figure 2. Quantum Harmonic Potential Analysis and Total Energy Determination

The core of our research lies in the fundamental premise of quantum mechanics, where the Schrödinger equation, prominently positioned on the left-hand side, serves as the cornerstone. This equation artfully amalgamates the total energy of a particle within a given potential, incorporating essential elements like the kinetic operator ( $\mathrm{p}^{2} /(2 \mathrm{~m})$ ), potential energy $(\mathrm{V}(\mathrm{x}))$, and the wave function ( $\mathrm{psi}(\mathrm{x}))$. Our primary objective in this study is to determine the system's total energy, symbolized as 'E.' Illustrated on our graph is a distinctive red line at $\mathrm{E}=2.0$, signifying a critical threshold in the energy spectrum. In the domain of quantum mechanics, this particular energy value is one among a multitude of permissible energies that significantly influence the particle's characteristics and the dynamics of the associated quantum system.
Visualization and Analysis of the
Alcubierre Metric in Warp Drive
Scenarios
In the realm of relativistic quantum physics, our study offers a compelling and high-quality visualization of the Alcubierre metric, shedding light on the distribution of the potential in spacetime (phi). The Alcubierre metric, a pivotal element in grasping the warp drive concept within relativistic physics, is effectively portrayed in this visualization. Through a spectrum of
colors, each bearing profound significance, the distribution of phi potential is brought to life. The warmer hues, such as red, vividly represent positive phi values, signifying the existence of spacetime 'bubbles' where expansion and stretching occur. Conversely, the cooler tones, typified by blue, signify negative phi values, indicating the presence of 'bubbles' in which spacetime experiences compression and contraction.


Figure 3. Visualization of Alcubierre Metric

The intensity of colors in this visualization signifies the strength of the Alcubierre metric effect, with brighter colors indicating a more pronounced warp drive effect in the phi distribution. This vividly illustrates the remarkable potency of the warp drive within the realm of relativistic quantum physics. Within this study, two pivotal parameters demand special attention. The first parameter, denoted as " v ," dictates the warp drive's velocity, which governs how swiftly an object can traverse spacetime. The permissible range for " v " lies between 0 and 1 , where $v=0$ signifies an absence of warp drive (resulting in an unaltered spacetime), while $\mathrm{v}=1$ denotes the speed of light as the upper limit. The precise setting of the warp drive velocity in this context becomes paramount. The second parameter, "a," serves as a control factor influencing the Alcubierre metric's shape. The value of "a" determines the dimensions of the warp
drive-generated "bubbles." This parameter offers a versatile means to tailor the characteristics of the warp drive effect, thereby influencing the phi distribution in spacetime. The x and t coordinates in our visualization represent spatial and temporal coordinates. The graphical representation portrays the behavior of the Alcubierre metric effect along the x (horizontal) and t (vertical) axes, providing researchers with an intricate insight into how the warp drive can manipulate spacetime within the framework of quantum relativity.

## Visualizing Spacetime Deformation in Godel Metric Solution

In this research, we conducted an indepth analysis of the surface $(\phi(r, t))$ as a function of variables (r) and ( t ), using a visual representation in the form of plots that employ a color palette to indicate the values of $(\phi(r, t))$. The primary objective of these plots is to illustrate the distribution of $(\phi(r, t))$ within the framework of the Alcubierre metric solution. Specifically, $(\phi(r, t))$ serves as a key element of the metric that describes the spacetime deformation required in the context of the "warp drive" concept, which fundamentally enables travel at speeds exceeding that of light. The variable (r) is utilized to represent the radial coordinate around the "warp bubble" formed by this metric, while (t) refers to the time dimension. The colors used in the plots hold significant interpretations, where red signifies high intensity of spacetime deformation, while blue indicates lower intensity. This clearly demonstrates the presence of strong deformation in spacetime around the "warp bubble," which is an essential element of the Alcubierre concept.

Furthermore, these plots can also be interpreted within the framework of the Godel metric solution, which describes cosmic spacetime with unique properties, including the possibility of closed-time-like curves. The variables (r) and ( t ) retain the same meanings as in the Alcubierre metric. In the context of the Godel metric, $(\phi(r, t))$
likely reflects one of the metric components that describe the non-trivial properties of spacetime. The colors in the plot may reveal


Figure 4. Visualizing Spacetime Deformation Godel Metrics

## Conclusion

In conclusion, our journey through this diverse array of theoretical and practical insights in physics has provided a comprehensive understanding of fundamental concepts and their real-world applications. From the exploration of the Dirac Equation and its simplification in specific dimensions to our foray into the Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation and Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation and
its relationship with the Dirac Equation, and our contemplation of the Alcubierre Metric's implications for warp drive, as well as our examination of particle modeling in harmonic potentials and the unique properties of the Gödel Metric Solution - all these facets collectively contribute to a these facets collectively contribute to a
deeper comprehension of the multifaceted realms of theoretical and practical physics. These discoveries not only enhance our grasp of particle behavior and quantum systems but also shed light on the fascinating deformations of spacetime in various contexts. These insights open doors to new horizons in our pursuit of knowledge and the applications of physics in our everevolving world.
unique patterns in the deformation or structure of spacetime inherent in the Godel metric solution.

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