

# Some Set Properties Underlying Geometry and Physics

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(Dated: October 22, 2025)

Euclidean volume and some distance equations are instances of abstract sets of ordered combinations (n-tuples), where the sets of n-tuples include another combinatorial (permutation) property that limits distance to 3 dimensions. Higher dimensions have non-distance types, are members of other sets. Ratios of distance to the non-distance types (time, mass, and charge) allow short and simple derivations of gravity, charge, electromagnetic, relativity, and quantum physics equations and constants. The ratios also allow simple quantum extensions to classical and relativity equations. All the proofs are verified in Rocq.

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	<b>Keywords:</b> mathematical physics, combinatorics, set theory, distance measure, inner product, gravity, charge, electromagnetism, relativity, quantum physics.	
	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	
	Many math and physics equations either assume Euclidean space (for example, Newton's gravity force, Coulomb's charge force, electromagnetism, and Schrödinger's equation) [2][3], or assume that the space near each local coordinate point is Euclidean (Riemann and pseudo-Riemann spaces, special and general relativity) [4][5][6]. Although Euclidean geometry permeates math and physics, mathematical analysis defines the Euclidean volume and distance equations [7][8].	
	Justifications for particular volume and distance functions require finger-pointing to geometry. The volume or distance function is the "independent" component, where an n-tuple of domain values and the corresponding range value "depend" on the particular function.	
	Here, the Euclidean volume equation and some distance equations, including the inner product and Euclidean distance, are proved to be instances of abstract sets of ordered combinations (n-tuples). This reversed (sets of n-tuples and combinatorial) perspective provides useful insights into geometry and physics.	
	The rest of this section is an overview of the rest of this article. The proofs in this article have been verified using the Rocq proof verification system [9]. The formal proofs are in the Rocq files, "euclidrelations.v" and "threed.v," which are included as ancillary files.	
	Let $ x_i $ be the cardinal of (number of elements in) the countable set, $x_i$ . And let $v_c$ be the integer number of ordered combinations (n-tuples) of the members of $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . The number of n-tuples, $v_c$ , will be proved	

imply the Euclidean volume equation:

$$\forall v_c, d_c, |x_i| \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\}, x_i \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}, \\ v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i, s_i, v \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (1)$$

For all  $n > 1$ , there are an infinite number of possible domain values,  $s_1, \dots, s_n$ , that multiplied yield the same range value,  $v$ . Inferring a domain value,  $d$ , from  $v$ , requires an inverse (bijective) function,  $d = f_n^{-1}(v)$  and  $v = f_n(d)$ . The simplest bijective case, for all  $n$ , extends the  $n = 1$  case,  $v_c = |x_1| = d_c^1$ :

$$\exists d_c, v_c, |x_i| \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\} : v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_c = d_c^n. \quad (2)$$

A set of  $n$ -tuples being the union of disjoint subsets of  $n$ -tuples implies that the domain value,  $d_c$ , is also the inverse function of the sum of  $n$ -tuples:

$$d_c^n = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} = \sum_{i=1}^m (\prod_{j=1}^n |x_{i,j}|) \\ \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m (\prod_{j=1}^n s_{i,j}). \quad (3)$$

Where each  $s_{i,j}$  is  $\pm$ -signed, the  $n = 2$  case is the inner product.

Where each  $v_{c_i}$  is also the bijective function,  $v_{c_i} = d_{c_i}^n$ :

$$d_c^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n. \quad (4)$$

$|d|$  is the  $p$ -norm (Minkowski distance) [10], which will be proved to imply the metric space properties [8]. The  $n = 2$  case is the Euclidean distance.

Volume and distance are derived from sets of ordered combinations ( $n$ -tuples), which includes another combinatorial (permutation) property. The union, intersection, multiplication and addition operations defining the total number of  $n$ -tuples and the corresponding volume and distance equations are commutative.

The commutative property requires being able to sequence a set of  $n$  number of members in any one of  $n!$  permuted sequences. Reliably re-sequencing a set of members in the same order requires assigning a sequential order to the members. Further, the *only* sequential order that allows starting with any set member and sequencing in a repeatable order, is a cyclic order.

Reliably re-sequencing a cyclic set in any any one of  $n!$  permutations, is a symmetry, where every set member is either an *immediate* cyclic successor or an *immediate* cyclic predecessor to every other set member, which is, herein, referred to as an “immediate symmetric” cyclic set (ISCS). An ISCS will be proved to have  $n \leq 3$  members.

Application to physics uses the following 3 hypotheses:

1. **ISCS:** Physical distance is an ISCS of 3 dimensions,  $\{r_1, r_2, r_3\}$ , and  $\{t$  (*time*),  $m$  (*mass*),  $q$  (*charge*) $\}$  is the ISCS of “non-distance” dimensions, each dimension  $\subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Physical space is 6-dimensional:  $r_1$ - $r_2$ - $r_3$ - $t$ - $m$ - $q$ .

2. **Cartesian:** Each local coordinate point is the origin of a Cartesian grid (the space near each local coordinate point is Euclidean), where for each Cartesian axis unit interval length,  $r_p$ , of distance, there is a constant Cartesian axis unit interval length:  $t_p$  of time;  $m_p$  of mass; and  $q_p$  of charge, such that:  $r = (r_p/t_p)t = (r_p/m_p)m = (r_p/q_p)q$ , where  $r_p/t_p = c_t$ ,  $r_p/m_p = c_m$ , and  $r_p/q_p = c_q$ .

3. **Maximum ratios** The Cartesian axis unit ratios,  $c_t$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $c_q$  are the largest ratios. For example, the speed of light is limited to  $c_t$ .

A consequence of these hypotheses is that all equations derived from combining the constant ratios are the same equations at each local coordinate point, which is the reason the laws of physics are same at each local coordinate point.

The proofs and the 3 direct proportion ratios,  $c_t$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $c_q$ , are used to provide simple derivations of: the gravitational constant,  $G = c_m c_t^2$ , the Newton, Gauss, and Poisson gravity equations [3][2], Coulomb’s charge force [2] and charge constant,  $k_e = c_q^2 c_t^2 / c_m$ , the special relativity equations[4][6], the Schwarzschild time dilation and black hole metric equations [11][12] (pointing to a simplified method of finding solutions to Einstein’s general relativity equations), the Gauss, Lorentz, and Faraday electromagnetic equations, the vacuum permittivity,  $\epsilon_0$ , and vacuum permeability,  $\mu_0$ , constants [2]. The derivations from the ratios will show that  $G$ ,  $k_e$ ,  $\epsilon_0$ ,  $\mu_0$ , and  $\hbar$  are **not** fundamental (atomic) constants.

Algebraic manipulation of the 3 direct proportion ratios yields 3 inverse proportion ratios,  $r = t_p r_p / t = m_p r_p / m = q_p r_p / q$ , where  $k_t = t_p r_p$ ,  $k_m = m_p r_p$ , and  $k_q = q_p r_p$ . The combination of the direct and inverse proportion ratios are used to derive the Planck relation [2][13] and the reduced Planck constant,  $\hbar = k_m c_t$ . The values of  $k_t$ ,  $k_m$ , and  $k_q$  are calculated from the values of  $\hbar$ ,  $c_t$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $c_q$ .

$r_p$ ,  $t_p$ ,  $m_p$ , and  $q_p$  are the Planck units, calculated from  $G$ ,  $k_e$ ,  $\hbar$ , and the ratios. The fine structure electron coupling constant,  $\alpha$ , is derived, in this article, as the ratio of two forces that reduces to the ratio of subtypes,  $\alpha = q_e^2 / q_p^2$ , which is much simpler and more elucidating than the standard equation,  $\alpha = q_e^2 / 4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c$  [14].

The ratios and Planck relation are used to derive the Compton wavelength, the position-space Schrödinger, and the Dirac wave equations [2][15][16]. And, finally, the inverse proportion ratios are also used to add quantum extensions to some general relativity and classical physics equations.

## RULER MEASURE AND CONVERGENCE

**Definition .1.** Ruler measure,  $M = \sum_{i=1}^p \kappa = p\kappa$ ,

where  $\forall s, \kappa \in \mathbb{R}, \quad 0 < \kappa \leq 1, \quad (p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \vee p = \text{ceiling}(s/\kappa))$ .

**Theorem .2.** *Ruler convergence:*  $M = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} p\kappa = s$ .

The formal proof, “limit\_c.0.M\_eq\_exact\_size,” is in the file, euclidrelations.v.

*Proof.* (epsilon-delta proof)

By definition of the floor function,  $\text{floor}(x) = \max(\{y : y \leq x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \in \mathbb{R}\})$ :

$$p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \quad \wedge \quad 0 \leq |\text{floor}(s/\kappa) - s/\kappa| < 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad |p - s/\kappa| < 1. \quad (5)$$

Multiply both sides of inequality 5 by  $\kappa$ :

$$\forall 0 < \kappa \leq 1, \quad |p - s/\kappa| < 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|. \quad (6)$$

$$\forall \epsilon = \delta \quad \wedge \quad |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow \quad |\kappa - 0| < \delta \quad \wedge \quad |p\kappa - s| < \delta = \epsilon \\ := \quad M = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} p\kappa = s. \quad \square \quad (7)$$

The following is an example of ruler convergence for the interval,  $[0, \pi]$ :  $s = \pi - 0$ , and  $p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \Rightarrow p\kappa = 3.1_{\kappa=10^{-1}}, 3.14_{\kappa=10^{-2}}, 3.141_{\kappa=10^{-3}}, \dots, \pi_{\lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0}}$ .

**Lemma .3.**  $\forall n \geq 1, 0 < \kappa \leq 1 : \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa$ .

*Proof.* The formal proof, “lim\_c.to\_n\_eq\_lim\_c,” is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

$$n \geq 1 \quad \wedge \quad 0 < \kappa \leq 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 0 < \kappa^n < \kappa \\ \Rightarrow \quad |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|. \quad (8)$$

$$\forall \epsilon = \delta \quad \wedge \quad |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow \quad |\kappa - 0| < \delta \quad \wedge \quad |\kappa - \kappa^n| < \delta = \epsilon \\ := \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0. \quad (9)$$

$$\lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0 \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa. \quad \square \quad (10)$$

## VOLUME

### Euclidean volume

**Theorem .4.** *Euclidean volume,*

$$\forall v_c, d_c, |x_i| \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\}, \quad x_i \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}, \\ v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i, \quad s_i, v \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (11)$$

The formal proof, “Euclidean\_volume,” is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

*Proof.*

$$v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad v_c \kappa = (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \\ \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa. \quad (12)$$

Apply the ruler (.1) and ruler convergence (.2) to equation 12:

$$\exists v, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : v_c = \text{floor}(v/\kappa) \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa \quad \wedge \\ \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \\ \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa. \quad (13)$$

Apply lemma .3 to equation 13:

$$v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa \\ \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa). \quad (14)$$

Apply the ruler (.1) and ruler convergence (.2) to  $s_i$ :

$$\exists s_i, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : \text{floor}(s_i/\kappa) = |x_i| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i. \quad (15)$$

$$v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa) \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i \\ \Leftrightarrow \quad v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i \quad \square \quad (16)$$

### Sum of volumes

**Lemma .5.** *The number of  $n$ -tuples,  $v_c$ , is the sum of the number of  $n$ -tuples,  $v_{c_i}$ , in each subset of  $n$ -tuples, implies a volume is the sum of volumes,*

$$v_c = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i, \quad v, v_i \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The formal proof, “sum\_of\_volumes,” is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

*Proof.* From the condition of this theorem:

$$v_c = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_i} \kappa). \quad (17)$$

Apply lemma .3 to equation 17:

$$\lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i}) \kappa \quad \wedge \\ \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa \\ \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_i} \kappa). \quad (18)$$

Apply the ruler (.1) and ruler convergence theorem (.2) to equation 18:

$$\exists v, v_i : v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa \quad \wedge \\ \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_i} \kappa) \\ \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_i} \kappa). \quad (19)$$

Apply the ruler (.1) and ruler convergence theorem (.2) to equation 19:

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_i} \kappa) \quad \wedge \\ &\quad \exists v_i, v_{c_i} : v_i = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_{c_i} \kappa \\ &\Rightarrow v = \sum_{j=1}^m v_i. \quad \square \quad (20) \end{aligned}$$

### DISTANCE

**Definition .6.** Bijective, countable domain value,  $d_c$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \forall v_c, d_c, |x_i| \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\}, \quad x_i \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}, \\ v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_c = d_c^n. \quad (21) \end{aligned}$$

### Sum of volumes distance

**Theorem .7.** *Sum of volumes distance:*

$$d_c^n = v_c = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m (\prod_{j=1}^n s_{ij}).$$

The formal proof, “sum\_of\_volumes\_distance,” is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

*Proof.* From lemma .5 and the Euclidean volume theorem .4:

$$\begin{aligned} d_c^n = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} &\Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i, \quad \wedge \\ v_i = \prod_{j=1}^n s_{ij} &\Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m (\prod_{j=1}^n s_{ij}). \quad \square \quad (22) \end{aligned}$$

### Minkowski distance ( $p$ -norm)

**Theorem .8.** *Minkowski distance ( $p$ -norm):*

$$d_c^n = v_c = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} = \sum_{i=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \Leftrightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n.$$

The formal proof, “Minkowski\_distance,” is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

*Proof.* From theorem .7 and the Euclidean volume theorem .4:

$$\begin{aligned} d_c^n = v_c = \sum_{i=1}^m v_{c_i} &\Rightarrow d^n = v = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i \quad \wedge \\ v_i = \prod_{j=1}^n d_i &= d_i^n \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n \quad \square \quad (23) \end{aligned}$$

### Distance inequality

The formal proof, distance\_inequality, is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

**Theorem .9.** *Distance inequality*

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad v_a, v_b \geq 0 : (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n}.$$

*Proof.* Expand  $(v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n$  using the binomial expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0 : \quad v_a + v_b &\leq v_a + v_b + \\ &\quad \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^{n-i} (v_b^{1/n})^i + \\ &\quad \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^i (v_b^{1/n})^{n-i} = (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n. \quad (24) \end{aligned}$$

Take the  $n^{th}$  root of both sides of the inequality 24:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0, \quad n \in \mathbb{N} : \quad v_a + v_b &\leq (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n \\ \Rightarrow (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} &\leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n}. \quad \square \quad (25) \end{aligned}$$

### Distance sum inequality

The formal proof, distance\_sum\_inequality, is in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

**Theorem .10.** *Distance sum inequality*

$$\begin{aligned} \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad a_i, b_i \geq 0 : \\ (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} &\leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}. \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.* Apply the distance inequality (.9):

$$\begin{aligned} \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad v_a, v_b \geq 0 : \quad v_a &= \sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n \quad \wedge \\ v_b &= \sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n \quad \wedge \quad (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \\ \Rightarrow ((\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n) + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n))^{1/n} &= (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq \\ &(\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}. \quad \square \quad (26) \end{aligned}$$

### Metric Space

All Minkowski distances ( $p$ -norms) imply the metric space properties. The formal proofs: triangle\_inequality, symmetry, non\_negativity, and identity\_of\_indiscernibles are in the Rocq file, euclidrelations.v.

**Theorem .11.** *Triangle Inequality:*

$$d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \Rightarrow d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w).$$

*Proof.*  $\forall p \geq 1, \quad k > 1, \quad u = s_1, \quad w = s_2, \quad v = w/k$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} &\leq ((u^p + w^p) + 2v^p)^{1/p} = \\ &((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p}. \quad (27) \end{aligned}$$

Apply the distance inequality (.9) to the inequality 27:

$$\begin{aligned}
(u^p + w^p)^{1/p} &\leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \quad \wedge \\
&\quad (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \\
&\quad \wedge \quad v_a = u^p + v^p \quad \wedge \quad v_b = v^p + w^p \\
\Rightarrow (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} &\leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \leq \\
&\quad (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} \\
\Rightarrow d(u, w) &= (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq \\
&\quad (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} = d(u, v) + d(v, w). \quad \square \\
&\quad (28)
\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem .12.** *Symmetry:*

$$d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \Rightarrow d(u, v) = d(v, u).$$

*Proof.* By the commutative law of addition:

$$\begin{aligned}
\forall p : p \geq 1, \quad d(s_1, s_2) &= (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} = (s_1^p + s_2^p)^{1/p} \\
\Rightarrow d(u, v) &= (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} = (v^p + u^p)^{1/p} = d(v, u). \quad \square \\
&\quad (29)
\end{aligned}$$

**Theorem .13.** *Non-negativity:*

$$d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \Rightarrow d(u, w) \geq 0.$$

*Proof.* By definition, the length of an interval is always  $\geq 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\forall [a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \quad u &= b_1 - a_1, \quad v = b_2 - a_2, \\
\Rightarrow u &\geq 0, \quad v \geq 0. \quad (30)
\end{aligned}$$

$$p \geq 1, \quad u, v \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} \geq 0. \quad (31) \quad \square$$

**Theorem .14.** *Identity of Indiscernibles:*  $d(u, u) = 0$ .

*Proof.* From the non-negativity property (.13):

$$\begin{aligned}
d(u, w) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(u, v) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(v, w) \geq 0 \\
\Rightarrow \exists d(u, w) = d(u, v) = d(v, w) = 0. \quad (32)
\end{aligned}$$

$$d(u, w) = d(v, w) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = v. \quad (33)$$

$$d(u, v) = 0 \quad \wedge \quad u = v \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, u) = 0. \quad (34) \quad \square$$

### Properties limiting a set to at most 3 members

The following definitions and proof use first order logic. A Horn clause-like expression is used, here, to make the proof easier to read. By convention, the proof goal is on the left side and supporting facts are on the right side of the implication sign ( $\leftarrow$ ). The formal proofs in the Rocq file `threed.v` are:

**Lemmas:** `adj111`, `adj122`, `adj212`, `adj123`, `adj133`, `adj233`, `adj213`, `adj313`, `adj323`, and `not_all_mutually_adjacent_gt_3`.

**Definition .15.** Immediate Cyclic Successor of  $m$  is  $n$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \\
\text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \\
\leftarrow (m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1) \quad \vee \quad (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}). \quad (35)
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition .16.** Immediate Cyclic Predecessor of  $m$  is  $n$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \\
\text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \\
\leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}) \quad \vee \quad (n = m - 1 \geq 1). \quad (36)
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition .17.** Adjacent: Member  $m$  is sequentially adjacent to member  $n$  if the immediate cyclic successor of  $m$  is  $n$  or the immediate cyclic predecessor of  $m$  is  $n$ . Notionally:

$$\begin{aligned}
\forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \text{Adjacent}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \\
\leftarrow \text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \vee \text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}). \quad (37)
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition .18.** Immediate Symmetric (every set member is sequentially adjacent to every other member):

$$\forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \text{Adjacent}(m, n, \text{setsize}). \quad (38)$$

**Theorem .19.** *An immediate symmetric cyclic set is limited to at most 3 members.*

*Proof.*

Every member is adjacent to every other member, where  $\text{setsize} \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Adjacent}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow \\
(m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1). \quad (39)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow \\
(n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}). \quad (40)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow \\
(n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}). \quad (41)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Adjacent}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow \\
(n = m - 1 \geq 1). \quad (42)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Adjacent}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = \text{setsize} \wedge m = 1). \quad (43)$$

$$\text{Adjacent}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}). \quad (44)$$

$$\text{Adjacent}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}). \quad (45)$$

$$\text{Adjacent}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - 1 \geq 1). \quad (46)$$

Member 2 is the only immediate successor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} \geq 3$ , which implies member 3 is not ( $\neg$ ) an immediate successor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} \geq 3$ :

$$\neg \text{Successor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} \geq 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, \text{setsize} \geq 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}). \quad (47)$$

Member  $n = \text{setsize} > 3$  is the only immediate predecessor of member 1, which implies member 3 is not ( $\neg$ ) an immediate predecessor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ :

$$\neg \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} \geq 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(1, \text{setsize}, \text{setsize} > 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize} > 3). \quad (48)$$

For all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ , some elements are not ( $\neg$ ) sequentially adjacent to every other element (not immediate symmetric):

$$\neg \text{Adjacent}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \leftarrow \neg \text{Successor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \wedge \neg \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3). \quad \square \quad (49)$$

The Symmetric goal matches Adjacent goals 39 through 46 and fails for all “setsize” greater than three.

## APPLICATIONS TO PHYSICS

Where distance is an immediate symmetric cyclic set (ISCS) of dimensions, the 3D proof (.19) requires more dimensions to have non-distance types (members of other sets). Let  $\tau = \{t \text{ (time)}, m \text{ (mass)}, q \text{ (charge)}\}$  be the ISCS of type “non-distance” dimensions, where for each Cartesian axis unit length,  $r_p$ , of distance,  $r$ , there are Cartesian axis unit lengths:  $t_p$  of time,  $t$ ;  $m_p$  of mass,  $m$ ; and  $q_p$  of charge,  $q$ , such that:

$$r = (r_p/t_p)t = (r_p/m_p)m = (r_p/q_p)q, \quad (50)$$

where  $c_t$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $c_q$  are the maximum ratios:

$$c_t = r_p/t_p, \quad c_m = r_p/m_p, \quad c = c_t = r_p/q_p. \quad (51)$$

## Ratio-derived $G$ , Newton, Gauss, and Poisson gravity laws

From equation 51:

$$r = c_m m \quad \wedge \quad r = c_t t \quad \Rightarrow \quad r/(c_t t)^2 = c_m m/r^2 \Rightarrow r/t^2 = (c_m c_t^2) m/r^2 = Gm/r^2, \quad (52)$$

where  $G = c_m c_t^2$ , has the SI units:  $m^3 \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot s^{-2}$  [3].

Newton’s law follows from multiplying both sides of equation 52 by  $m$ :

$$r/t^2 = Gm/r^2 \Leftrightarrow F := mr/t^2 = Gm^2/r^2. \quad (53)$$

$$F = Gm^2/r^2 \wedge \forall m \in \mathbb{R} : \exists m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{R} : m_1 m_2 = m^2 \Rightarrow F = Gm_1 m_2/r^2. \quad (54)$$

In this article, the following rationale for Gauss’s and Poisson’s laws for gravity is presented: Equation 52 relates linear (straight line) acceleration,  $r/t^2$ , to mass and distance. Gauss’s gravity field,  $\mathbf{g}$ , and Poisson’s gravity field,  $-\nabla\Phi(r, t)$ , relates orbital acceleration,  $2\pi r/t^2$ , to mass and distance. Multiplying both sides of equation 52 by  $2\pi$  and differentiating yields Gauss’s and Poisson’s gravity laws [2]:

$$\mathbf{g} = -\nabla\Phi(\vec{r}, t) = 2\pi r/t^2 = 2\pi Gm/r^2 \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \nabla^2\Phi(\vec{r}, t) = -4\pi Gm/r^3. \quad (55)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \nabla^2\Phi(\vec{r}, t) = -4\pi Gm/r^3 \quad \wedge \quad \rho = m/r^3 \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \nabla^2\Phi(\vec{r}, t) = -4\pi G\rho. \quad (56)$$

## Ratio-derived $k_e$ and Coulomb’s charge law

[2] From equation 51:

$$r = c_q q \quad \Rightarrow \quad r^2 = c_q^2 q^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c_q^2 q^2/r^2 = 1. \quad (57)$$

$$r = c_m m = c_t t \quad \Rightarrow \quad mr = ((1/c_m)r)(c_t t) = (c_t^2/c_m)t^2 \Rightarrow (c_m/c_t^2)mr/t^2 = 1. \quad (58)$$

$$c_q^2 q^2/r^2 = 1 \quad \wedge \quad (c_m/c_t^2)mr/t^2 = 1 \Rightarrow F := mr/t^2 = (c_q^2 c_t^2/c_m)q^2/r^2 = k_e q^2/r^2, \quad (59)$$

where  $k_e = c_q^2 c_t^2/c_m$ , conforms to the SI units:  $kg \cdot m^3 \cdot s^{-2} \cdot C^{-2} = N \cdot m^2 \cdot C^{-2}$  [2].

$$\exists q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R} : q_1 q_2 = q^2 \quad \wedge \quad F = k_e q^2/r^2 \Rightarrow F = k_e q_1 q_2/r^2. \quad (60)$$

### 3 direct proportion ratios: $c_t$ , $c_m$ , and $c_q$

$$c_t = r_p/t_p \approx 2.99792458 \cdot 10^8 m \, s^{-1}. \quad (61)$$

$$\begin{aligned} G &= c_m c_t^2 = c_m c_t^2 \\ \Rightarrow c_m &= r_p/m_p \approx 7.4261602691 \cdot 10^{-28} m \, kg^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (62)$$

$$\begin{aligned} k_e &= c_q^2 c_t^2 / c_m \\ \Rightarrow c_q &= r_p/q_p \approx 8.6175172023 \cdot 10^{-18} m \, C^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (63)$$

### 3 inverse proportion ratios: $k_t$ , $k_m$ , and $k_q$

$$\begin{aligned} r/t &= r_p/t_p \quad \wedge \quad r/m = r_p/m_p \\ \Rightarrow (r/t)/(r/m) &= (r_p/t_p)/(r_p/m_p) \\ \Rightarrow (mr)/(tr) &= (m_p r_p)/(t_p r_p) \\ \Rightarrow mr &= m_p r_p = k_m, \quad tr = t_p r_p = k_t. \end{aligned} \quad (64)$$

$$\begin{aligned} r/t &= r_p/t_p \quad \wedge \quad r/q = r_p/q_p \\ \Rightarrow (r/t)/(r/q) &= (r_p/t_p)/(r_p/q_p) \\ \Rightarrow (qr)/(tr) &= (q_p r_p)/(t_p r_p) \\ \Rightarrow qr &= q_p r_p = k_q, \quad tr = t_p r_p = k_t. \end{aligned} \quad (65)$$

### Ratio-derived $\hbar$ , $h$ , and Planck relation

[2][13] Applying both the direct proportion ratio (61), and inverse proportion ratio (64):

$$\begin{aligned} r &= ct \quad \wedge \quad m = k_m/r \\ \Rightarrow m(ct)^2 &= (k_m/r)r^2 = k_m r. \end{aligned} \quad (66)$$

$$\begin{aligned} m(ct)^2 &= k_m r \quad \wedge \quad r/t = c \quad \Rightarrow \\ E &:= mc^2 = k_m r/t^2 = (k_m c)(1/t) \\ &= \hbar \omega = \hbar \omega (2\pi/2\pi) = hf, \end{aligned} \quad (67)$$

where the reduced Planck constant,  $\hbar = k_m c$ , angular frequency,  $\omega = 1/t$ , the full Planck constant,  $h = 2\pi\hbar$ , and the cycles per second frequency (Hertz),  $f = 1/2\pi t$ .

$$k_m = m_p r_p = \hbar/c \approx 3.5176729162 \cdot 10^{-43} kg \, m. \quad (68)$$

$$k_t = t_p r_p = k_m c_m / c_t \approx 8.7136291599 \cdot 10^{-79} s \, m. \quad (69)$$

$$k_q = q_p r_p = k_t c_t / c_q \approx 3.0313607071 \cdot 10^{-52} C \, m. \quad (70)$$

### 4 quantum (Planck) units: $r_p$ , $t_p$ , $m_p$ , $q_p$

:

$$\begin{aligned} r_p &= \sqrt{r_p^2} = \sqrt{c_t k_t} = \sqrt{c_m k_m} = \sqrt{c_q k_q} \\ &\approx 1.6162550244 \cdot 10^{-35} m. \end{aligned} \quad (71)$$

$$t_p = r_p/c_t \approx 5.3912464472 \cdot 10^{-44} s. \quad (72)$$

$$m_p = r_p/c_m \approx 2.176434343 \cdot 10^{-8} kg. \quad (73)$$

$$q_p = r_p/c_q \approx 1.875546038 \cdot 10^{-18} C. \quad (74)$$

### Ratio-derived fine structure constant, $\alpha$

The ratios of two subtypes of force implies ratios of the form:  $\alpha_\tau = \frac{F_{\tau_1}}{F_{\tau_2}} = \frac{K\tau_1^2/r^2}{K\tau_2^2/r^2} = \frac{\tau_1^2}{\tau_2^2}$ . For example, where  $q_e$  is the elementary (electron) charge ( $1.60217663 \cdot 10^{-19} C$ ), and  $q_p$  is Planck charge unit, the fine structure electron coupling constant is:

$$\alpha_q = q_e^2/q_p^2 \approx 0.0072973526. \quad (75)$$

### Ratio-derived Space-time-mass-charge

Let  $r$  be an Euclidean distance. Then by the Minkowski distance theorem (.8),  $r^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i^2$ . Let,  $r' = r_1$  and  $r_v^2 = (\sum_{i=2}^m r_i^2)$ . From the 3D theorem (.19) and Cartesian hypothesis (2):

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \tau \in \{t, m, q\}, r^2 &= r'^2 + r_v^2, \exists \mu, \nu : r = \mu\tau \quad \wedge \\ r_v &= \nu\tau \quad \Rightarrow \quad (\mu\tau)^2 = r'^2 + (\nu\tau)^2 \\ \Rightarrow r' &= \sqrt{(\mu\tau)^2 - (\nu\tau)^2} = \mu\tau \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (76)$$

Local frame distance,  $r'$ , contracts relative to a distant observer frame distance,  $r$ , as  $\nu \rightarrow \mu$ :

$$\begin{aligned} r' &= \mu\tau \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad \mu\tau = r \\ \Rightarrow r' &= r \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (77)$$

A distant observer frame type,  $\tau$ , dilates relative to the local observer frame type,  $\tau'$ , as  $\nu \rightarrow \mu$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mu\tau &= r' / \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad r' = \mu\tau' \\ \Rightarrow \tau &= \tau' / \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (78)$$

Where  $\tau$  is type, time, the space-like flat Minkowski spacetime event interval is:

$$\begin{aligned} dr^2 &= dr'^2 + dr_v^2 \quad \wedge \quad dr_v^2 = dr_1^2 + dr_2^2 + dr_3^2 \quad \wedge \\ d(\mu\tau) &= dr \quad \Rightarrow \quad dr'^2 = d(\mu\tau)^2 - dr_1^2 - dr_2^2 - dr_3^2. \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

### Ratio-derived Schwarzschild's time dilation and black hole metric

From equations 77 and 50:

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - (c_m m/r)} \quad \wedge \quad c_m m/r = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - (c_m m)v^2/rc^2}.\end{aligned}\quad (80)$$

Where  $v_{escape}$  is the escape velocity:

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - (c_m m)v^2/rc^2} \quad \wedge \\ KE &= mv^2/2 = mv_{escape}^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2c_m mv_{escape}^2/rc^2}.\end{aligned}\quad (81)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \lim_{v_{escape} \rightarrow c} \sqrt{1 - 2c_m mv_{escape}^2/rc^2} \\ &= \sqrt{1 - 2c_m mc^2/rc^2}.\end{aligned}\quad (82)$$

Combining equation 82 with the derivation of  $G$  (54):

$$\begin{aligned}c_m c^2 = G \quad \wedge \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2c_m mc^2/rc^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2}.\end{aligned}\quad (83)$$

Combining equation 83 with equation 78 yields Schwarzschild's gravitational time dilation [11] [12]:

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} \quad \wedge \\ t' = t\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} \quad \Rightarrow \quad t' &= t\sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2}.\end{aligned}\quad (84)$$

Schwarzschild defined the black hole event horizon radius,  $\alpha := 2Gm/c^2$ . From equations 77 and 83:

$$\begin{aligned}r' = r\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} \quad \wedge \\ \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} \quad \wedge \quad \alpha := 2Gm/c^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r' &= r\sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} = r\sqrt{1 - \alpha/r}.\end{aligned}\quad (85)$$

Applying equation 85 to the time-like spacetime interval equation 79:

$$\begin{aligned}r' = r\sqrt{1 - \alpha/r} \quad \wedge \quad ds^2 &= dr'^2 - dr^2 \quad \Rightarrow \\ ds^2 &= (\sqrt{1 - \alpha/r}dr)^2 - (dr'/\sqrt{1 - \alpha/r})^2 \\ &= (1 - \alpha/r)dr^2 - (1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}dr'^2.\end{aligned}\quad (86)$$

In general relativity,  $r' = r$ .

$$\begin{aligned}ds^2 &= (1 - \alpha/r)dr^2 - (1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}dr^2 \quad \wedge \\ dr &= d(ct) \quad \wedge \quad c = 1 \quad \wedge \quad r' = r \\ \Rightarrow \quad ds^2 &= (1 - \alpha/r)dt^2 - (1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}dr^2.\end{aligned}\quad (87)$$

Using spherical coordinates to translate from 2D to 4D yields the  $+- --$  form of Schwarzschild's black hole

metric [11] [12]:

$$\begin{aligned}ds^2 &= (1 - \alpha/r)dt^2 - (1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}dr^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad ds^2 &= (1 - \alpha/r)dt^2 - (1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}dr^2 - \\ &\quad r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) \\ \Rightarrow \quad g_{\mu,\nu} &= \text{diag}[(1 - \alpha/r), -(1 - \alpha/r)^{-1}, -r^2(d\theta^2), \\ &\quad -r^2(\sin^2\theta d\phi^2)].\end{aligned}\quad (88)$$

### Simple method to find general relativity solutions

Einstein's field equation is:

$$G_{\mu,\nu} = \mathbf{R} + \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu,\nu} = \kappa T_{\mu,\nu}, \quad (89)$$

where:  $G_{\mu,\nu}$  is Einstein's tensor defined as  $\mathbf{R} + \frac{1}{2}Rg_{\mu,\nu}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}$  is the Ricci curvature,  $R$  is scalar curvature,  $g_{\mu,\nu}$  is the metric tensor,  $\kappa = 8\pi G/c^4$ , and  $T_{\mu,\nu}$  is the stress-energy tensor [4][6].

The goal of the field equation is to determine the geodesic path and acceleration of a particle caused by the distribution of mass and energy as specified in the stress-energy tensor,  $T_{\mu,\nu}$ . This requires solving the equation for the metric tensor,  $g_{\mu,\nu}$ . But the metric tensor has a complex nonlinear relation to the Ricci and scalar curvature, which makes it complicated to determine the metric. Often there are no exact solutions.

In this article, the metric,  $g_{\mu,\nu}$ , is determined independent of Einstein's field equation. The metric tensor puts constraints on distribution of mass and energy in the stress-energy tensor,  $T_{\mu,\nu}$ .

The infinitesimal space near every coordinate point on a pseudo-Riemann surface is Euclidean. In this case, the Cartesian unit ratios (61) (64) apply, where: all physics equations derived from the ratios and special relativity equations (76) are valid around the infinitesimal space at each coordinate point.

This leads to the following steps to solve for the metric tensor,  $g_{\mu,\nu}$ , independent of Einstein's field equation.

Step 1) Use the ratios and relativity equations to define functions returning scalar values for each component of the metric,  $g_{\nu,\mu}$ , in Einstein's field equations [4][6]: All functions derived from the ratios and relativity are valid metrics. For example, the previous Schwarzschild black hole metric derivation using the ratios and special relativity equations (80).

The diagonal components the metric,  $g_{\mu,\nu}$ , are determined as a generalization of the Minkowski spacetime interval equation:  $ds^2 = g_{1,1}dx_1^2 + \dots + g_{4,4}dx_4^2$ . Einstein used the terms,  $G_{\mu,\nu}$  and  $g_{\mu,\nu}$ , as homage to the equation for Gaussian curvature [4].  $ds$  is an element of the geodesic line (the affine connection between geodesics).  $x_1, \dots, x_4$  are the dimension of time and the 3 dimensions of space.



Step 2) Express the Einstein field equation as 2D tensors: As shown in equation 88, the Schwarzschild metric was first derived as a 2D metric and then expanded to a 4D metric. Further, the 4D flat spacetime interval equation (79) is an instance of the 2D equation,  $dr'^2 = d(ct)^2 - dr_v^2$ .

(OPTIONAL) The 2D metric tensor allows using the much simpler 2D Ricci curvature and scalar curvature. And the 2D tensors reduce the number of independent equations to solve, which can be used to set constraints on the solutions in the 4D tensors.

Step 3) One simple method to translate from 2D to 4D is to use spherical coordinates, where  $r$  and  $t$  remain unchanged and two added dimensions are the angles,  $\phi$ , and  $\theta$ . For example, the 2D Schwarzschild metric was translated to 4D using this method in equation 88. The spherical coordinates can then be translated to other types of coordinates.

### Ratio-relativity-derived $\mathbf{E}$ , $\mathbf{B}$ , and Lorentz's law

In this article, the following rationale for Gauss's electric field is presented: Coulomb's charge force equation (59) relates linear acceleration,  $r/t^2$ , to charge and distance. Gauss's electric field,  $\mathbf{E}$ , relates orbital (or rotational) acceleration,  $2\pi r/t^2$  to charge and distance:

$$F_C = mr/t^2 = k_e q^2/r^2 \Rightarrow \exists F_E \in \mathbb{R} : F_E = m(2\pi r/t^2) = 2\pi k_e q^2/r^2. \quad (90)$$

Applying the distance contraction equation, 77, to equation 90, where  $r$  is the distant observer frame of reference and  $r'$  is moving particle local frame of reference:

$$r = r'/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2} \wedge F = 2\pi k_e q^2/r^2 \Rightarrow F = 2\pi k_e q^2(1 - v^2/c^2)/r'^2. \quad (91)$$

$$E := 2\pi k_e q/r'^2 \Rightarrow F = q(E - ((2\pi k_e/c^2)q/r'^2)v^2). \quad (92)$$

$$B := (2\pi k_e/c^2)vq/r'^2 \Rightarrow F = q(E - Bv). \quad (93)$$

$$F = q(E - Bv) \Rightarrow \mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} - \vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \mathbf{B}), \quad (94)$$

which is Lorentz law in the rest (observer on the moving particle) frame of reference. And

$$\mathbf{B} \times \vec{\mathbf{v}} = -(\vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \mathbf{B}) \wedge \mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} - \mathbf{B} \times \vec{\mathbf{v}}) \Rightarrow \mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \vec{\mathbf{v}} \times \mathbf{B}), \quad (95)$$

which is Lorentz law by a distant observer of the moving particle frame of reference. The direction of deflection (right-left or up-down) depends on your frame of reference.

The electric field,  $E := 2\pi k_e q/r'^2$ , conforms to the SI units  $kg \cdot m \cdot s^{-2} \cdot C^{-1} = N \cdot C^{-1}$  and the magnetic field,  $B = (2\pi k_e/c^2)vq/r'^2$ , conforms to the base SI units:  $kg \cdot s^{-1} \cdot C^{-1} = kg \cdot s^{-2} \cdot A^{-1} = T$ .

$$B := (2\pi k_e/c^2)vq/r'^2 \wedge B := \mu_0 H \wedge \mu_0 := 4\pi k_e/c^2 \Rightarrow H = vq/2r'^2, \quad (96)$$

where  $\mu_0 = 4\pi k_e/c^2$  conforms to the SI units  $kg \cdot m \cdot C^{-2} = kg \cdot m \cdot s^{-2} A^{-2}$  and  $H = vq/2r'^2$  conforms to the SI units  $C \cdot s^{-1} \cdot m^{-1} = A \cdot m^{-1}$ .

### Ratio-derived $\varepsilon_0$ and Gauss's electric field law

From equation 92:

$$E = 2\pi k_e q/r^2 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{E} = 2\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^2 \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -4\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3. \quad (97)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -4\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3 \wedge \varepsilon_0 := 1/4\pi k_e \wedge \rho = q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3 \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\rho/\varepsilon_0, \quad (98)$$

which is Gauss's electric field law [2].

### Ratio-derived Faraday's law

From the magnetic field equation 93, where the electric and magnetic fields are propagating at the speed,  $v = c$ :

$$B = (2\pi k_e/c^2)qv/r^2 \wedge v = c \wedge r = ct \Rightarrow B = (2\pi k_e/c^3)q/t^2. \quad (99)$$

$$B = (2\pi k_e/c^3)q/t^2 \Rightarrow \partial B/\partial t = -(4\pi k_e/c^3)q/t^3. \quad (100)$$

$$\partial B/\partial t = -(4\pi k_e/c^3)q/t^3 \wedge r = ct \Rightarrow \partial B/\partial t = -4\pi k_e q/r^3. \quad (101)$$

From equation 97:

$$\mathbf{E} = 2\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^2 \Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 4\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3. \quad (102)$$

Combining equations 102 and 101 yields Faraday's law [2]:

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 4\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3 \wedge \partial \mathbf{B}/\partial t = -4\pi k_e q/\vec{\mathbf{r}}^3 \Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\partial \mathbf{B}/\partial t. \quad (103)$$

### Ratio-derived Compton wavelength, $\lambda$

[2][13] From equations 64 and 67:

$$r = k_m/m \wedge h = 2\pi k_m c \Rightarrow \lambda = 2\pi r = 2\pi k_m/m = (2\pi k_m/m)(c/c) = h/mc. \quad (104)$$

### Ratio-derived Schrödinger's position-space equation

Start with the previously derived Planck relation 67 and multiply the kinetic energy component by  $mc/mc$ :

$$\begin{aligned} mc^2 = \hbar\omega = \hbar/t &\Rightarrow \exists V(r, t) : \hbar/t = \hbar/2t + V(r, t) \\ &\Rightarrow \hbar/t = \hbar mc/2mct + V(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (105)$$

And from the distance-to-time (speed of light) ratio (61):

$$\begin{aligned} \hbar/t = \hbar mc/2mct + V(r, t) &\wedge r = ct \\ \Rightarrow \hbar/t = \hbar mc^2/2mcr + V(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (106)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hbar/t = \hbar mc^2/2mcr + V(r, t) &\wedge \hbar/t = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \hbar/t = \hbar^2/2mcrt + V(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (107)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hbar/t = \hbar^2/2mcrt + V(r, t) &\wedge r = ct \\ \Rightarrow \hbar/t = \hbar^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (108)$$

Multiply both sides of equation 108 by a function,  $\Psi(r, t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \hbar/t = \hbar^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t) \\ \Rightarrow (\hbar/t)\Psi(r, t) = (\hbar^2/2mr^2)\Psi(r, t) + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (109)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (\hbar/t)\Psi(r, t) &= (\hbar^2/2mr^2)\Psi(r, t) + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t) \wedge \\ \forall \Psi(r, t) : \partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 &= (-1/r^2)\Psi(r, t) \wedge \\ \partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t &= (i/t)\Psi(r, t) \Rightarrow \\ i\hbar\partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t &= -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t), \end{aligned} \quad (110)$$

which is the one-dimensional position-space Schrödinger's equation [15][13].

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar\partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t &= -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t) \\ &\wedge ||\vec{r}|| = r \\ \Rightarrow \exists \vec{r} : i\hbar\partial\Psi(\vec{r}, t)/\partial t \\ &= -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t)/\partial \vec{r}^2 + V(\vec{r}, t)\Psi(\vec{r}, t), \end{aligned} \quad (111)$$

which is the 3-dimensional position-space Schrödinger's equation [15] [13].

### Ratio-relativity-derived Dirac's wave equation

Using the derived Planck relation 67:

$$\begin{aligned} mc^2 = \hbar/t &\Rightarrow \exists V(r, t) : mc^2/2 + V(r, t) = \hbar/t \\ &\Rightarrow 2\hbar/t - 2V(r, t) = mc^2. \end{aligned} \quad (112)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \forall V(r, t) : V(r, t) &= i\hbar/t \wedge r = ct \wedge \\ 2\hbar/t - 2V(r, t) &= mc^2 \Rightarrow 2\hbar/t - i2\hbar c/r = mc^2. \end{aligned} \quad (113)$$

Use the ratios,  $r = c_q q$ , and,  $r = ct$ . to multiply each term on the left side of equation 113 by 1:

$$\begin{aligned} qc_q/r = qc_q/ct = 1 &\wedge 2\hbar/t - i2\hbar c/r = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow 2\hbar(qc_q/c)/t^2 - i2\hbar((qc_q/c)/r^2)c &= mc^2. \end{aligned} \quad (114)$$

Applying a quantum amplitude equation in complex form to equation 115:

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= (c_q/c)((1/t) - i(1/r)) \wedge \\ 2\hbar(qc_q/c)/t^2 - i2\hbar((qc_q/c)/r^2)c &= mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow 2\hbar\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - i2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c &= mc^2. \end{aligned} \quad (115)$$

Translating equation 115 to moving (rest frame) coordinates via the Lorentz factor,  $\gamma_0 = 1/\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 2\hbar\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - i\hbar\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r &= mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \gamma_0 2\hbar\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - \gamma_0 i2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c &= mc^2. \end{aligned} \quad (116)$$

Multiplying both sides of equation 116 by  $\Psi(r, t)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_0 2\hbar\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - \gamma_0 i2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c &= mc^2 \Rightarrow \\ \gamma_0 2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \gamma_0 i2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c\Psi(r, t) \\ &= mc^2\Psi(r, t). \end{aligned} \quad (117)$$

Applying the vectors to equation 117:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_0 2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \\ \gamma_0 i2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c\Psi(r, t) &= mc^2\Psi(r, t) \wedge \\ ||\vec{r}|| = r \wedge ||\vec{A}|| = A_0 \wedge ||\vec{\gamma}|| = \gamma_0 \\ \Leftrightarrow \exists \vec{r}, \vec{A}, \vec{\gamma} : \\ \gamma_0 2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i2\hbar(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) \\ &= mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t). \end{aligned} \quad (118)$$

Adding a  $\frac{1}{2}$  spin to equation 115 yields Dirac's wave equation [16] [13]:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_0 2\hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i2\hbar(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) \\ &= mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t) \\ \wedge A_0 &= \frac{1}{2}(c_q/c)((1/t) - i(1/r)) \\ \Rightarrow \gamma_0 \hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i\hbar(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) \\ &= mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t). \end{aligned} \quad (119)$$

### Total mass

The total mass of a particle is  $m = \sqrt{m_0^2 + m_{ke}^2}$ , where  $m_0$  is the rest mass and  $m_{ke}$  is the kinetic energy-equivalent mass. Applying both the direct (61) and inverse proportion ratios (64):

$$\begin{aligned} m_0 = r/c_m \quad \wedge \quad m_{ke} = k_m/r \quad \wedge \quad m = \sqrt{m_0^2 + m_{ke}^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad m = \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (120)$$

### Quantum extension to general relativity

The simplest way to demonstrate how to add quantum physics to general relativity is by extending Schwarzschild's time dilation equation and black hole metric. Start by changing equation 80 in the Schwarzschild derivation:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)(r/r)} \quad \wedge \\ r &= \sqrt{(c_m m)^2 + (k_m/m)^2} = Q_m \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - Q_m v^2 / r c^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (121)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - Q_m v^2 / r c^2} \quad \wedge \\ KE &= mv^2/2 = mv_{escape}^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m v_{escape}^2 / r c^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (122)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \lim_{v_{escape} \rightarrow c} \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m v_{escape}^2 / r c^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m c^2 / r c^2} = \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m / r}. \end{aligned} \quad (123)$$

Combining equation 123 with equation 78 yields Schwarzschild's gravitational time dilation with a quantum mass effect:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} &= \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m / r} \quad \wedge \quad t' = t \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} \\ \Rightarrow \quad t' &= t \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m / r}. \end{aligned} \quad (124)$$

Schwarzschild defined the black hole event horizon radius,  $\alpha := 2Gm/c^2$ . The radius with the quantum extension is  $\alpha := 2Q_m$ . At this point the exact same equations 85 through 88 yield what looks like the same Schwarzschild black hole metric.

### Quantum extension to Newton's gravity force

The quantum mass effect is easier to understand in the context Newton's gravity equation than in general relativity, because the metric equations and solutions in

the EFEs are much more complex. From equations 120 and 50:

$$\begin{aligned} m / \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2} &= 1 \quad \wedge \quad r^2 / (ct)^2 = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r^2 / (ct)^2 &= m / \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad r^2 / t^2 &= c^2 m / \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (125)$$

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 / t^2 &= c^2 m / \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad (m/r)(r^2 / t^2) &= (m/r)(c^2 m / \sqrt{(r/c_m)^2 + (k_m/r)^2}) \\ \Rightarrow \quad F := mr / t^2 &= c^2 m^2 / \sqrt{(r^4 / c_m^2) + k_m^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (126)$$

$$\begin{aligned} F &= c^2 m^2 / \sqrt{(r^4 / c_m^2) + k_m^2} \quad \wedge \\ \forall m \in \mathbb{R}, \exists m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{R} : m_1 m_2 &= m^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad F &= c^2 m_1 m_2 / \sqrt{(r^4 / c_m^2) + k_m^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (127)$$

### Quantum extension to Coulomb's force

$$\begin{aligned} q^2 / ((r/c_q)^2 + (k_q/r)^2) &= 1 \quad \wedge \quad r^2 / (ct)^2 = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r^2 / (ct)^2 &= q^2 / ((r/c_q)^2 + (k_q/r)^2) \\ \Rightarrow \quad r^2 / t^2 &= c^2 q^2 / ((r/c_q)^2 + (k_q/r)^2). \end{aligned} \quad (128)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1/r)(r^2 / t^2) &= (1/r)(c^2 q^2 / ((r/c_q)^2 + (k_q/r)^2)) \\ \Rightarrow \quad r / t^2 &= c^2 q^2 / (r^3 / c_q^2 + k_q^2 / r). \end{aligned} \quad (129)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \forall q \in \mathbb{R} : \exists q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R} : q_1 q_2 &= q^2 \quad \wedge \\ r / t^2 &= c^2 q^2 / (r^3 / c_q^2 + k_q^2 / r) \\ \Rightarrow \quad \exists q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R} : r / t^2 &= c^2 q_1 q_2 / (r^3 / c_q^2 + k_q^2 / r). \end{aligned} \quad (130)$$

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 / t^2 &= c^2 q_1 q_2 / (r^3 / c_q^2 + k_q^2 / r) \quad \wedge \quad m = r / c_m \\ \Rightarrow \quad F := mr / t^2 &= (c^2 / c_m) q_1 q_2 / (r^2 / c_q^2 + k_q^2 / r^2). \end{aligned} \quad (131)$$

## INSIGHTS AND IMPLICATIONS

1. The ruler measure (.1) and convergence theorem (.2) were shown to be useful tools for proving that a countable sets of n-tuples imply a corresponding real-valued equation.
2. Defining all Euclidean and non-Euclidean distance measures as the inverse function of the sum of subset volumes:

$$\forall n, d : \quad d = f_n^{-1}(v) = f_n^{-1}(\sum_{i=1}^n v_i) : \quad (132)$$

- (a) shows the intimate relation between distance and volume that definitions, like inner product space and metric space, ignore [6] [7] [8];
- (b) is a more simple and concise definition of a distance measure that includes the properties of inner product space and metric space [6] [7] [8].
3. The left side of the distance sum inequality (.10),
- $$(\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}, \quad (133)$$
- differs from the left side of Minkowski's sum inequality [10]:
- $$(\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n)^{\mathbf{n}})^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}. \quad (134)$$
- (a) The two inequalities are only the same where  $n = 1$ .
- (b) The distance sum inequality (.10) is a more fundamental inequality because the proof does not require the convexity and Hölder's inequality assumptions required to prove the Minkowski sum inequality [10].
- (c) The distance sum inequality term,  $\forall n > 1$ ,  $v_i^n = a_i^n + b_i^n$ :  $d = v^{1/n} = (\sum_{i=1}^m v_i^n)^{1/n}$ , is the Minkowski distance, which makes it directly related to geometry. But the Minkowski sum inequality term,  $\forall n > 1$ ,  $v > 0$ :  $d = v^{1/n} = (\sum_{i=1}^m ((v_i^n)^{\mathbf{n}}))^{1/n} = (\sum_{i=1}^m v_i^{\mathbf{n}^2})^{1/n}$ , is *not* a Minkowski distance.
- (d) The distance sum inequality might be applicable to machine learning.
4. **Combinatorics.** The set of ordered combinations of countable, disjoint sets (n-tuples),  $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ , was proven to imply: the Euclidean volume equation (.4), the sum of volumes equation (.7) (which includes the inner product), and the Minkowski distance equation (.8) (which includes the Manhattan and Euclidean distance equations), without relying on the geometric primitives and relations in Euclidean geometry [17] [18], axiomatic geometry [19] [20] [21] [22] [23], trigonometry [24] [25] calculus [26] [24] [27], and vector analysis [6].
5. **Combinatorics.** Repeatable sequencing of an ordered set of  $n$  number of members in any one of  $n!$  possible permuted sequences (without jumping around) was proved to be an immediate symmetric cyclic set (ISCS) having  $n \leq 3$  members (.19). Higher dimensions must have different types (members of different sets).
- (a) For example, the vector inner product space can only be extended beyond 3 dimensions if
- and only if the higher dimensions have non-distance types, for example, dimensions time, mass, and charge.
- (b) As shown in the special relativity section (76), there is 6-dimensional space-time-mass-charge.
- (c) If each type of quantum state is an ISCS, then there are at most 3 states of the same type: 3 orientations per dimension of space, 3 quark color charges, {red, green, blue}, 3 quark anti-color charges, and so on.
- (d) If the states are not ordered (a bag of states), then a state value is undetermined (or superimposed) until observed (like Schrödinger's poisoned cat being both alive and dead until the box is opened [15]).
- (e) A discrete (point) value has measure 0 (zero-length interval). The ratio of a time or distance interval length to zero is undefined, which is the reason quantum entangled (discrete) state values exist independent of time and distance.
6. For each Cartesian axis unit,  $r_p$ , of a 3-dimensional distance interval having a length,  $r$ , there are Cartesian axis units of other types of intervals forming unit ratios (61):  $c_t = r_p/t_p$ ,  $c_m = r_p/m_p$ ,  $c_q = r_p/q_p \Leftrightarrow$  the inverse proportion ratios (64):  $k_t = r_p t_p$ ,  $k_m = r_p m_p$ ,  $k_t = r_p q_p$ , where  $r_p$ ,  $t_p$ ,  $m_p$ , and  $q_p$  are the Planck units (71).
7. Empirical laws *describe* relations. Deriving empirical laws from the ratios *explains* the relations. Further, all the derivations of the physics equations from the ratios were much shorter and simpler than other derivations, which shows that the ratios are an important tool for physicists and engineers.
8. As shown in the subsection deriving the Schwarzschild's time dilation and black hole metric (80) [11] [12] using ratios exposed a way of simplifying the finding of solutions to Einstein's field equations.
9. The speed of light ratio,  $c_t$ , is a component of the constants:  $G = c_m c_t^2$ ,  $k_e = c_q^2 c_t^2 / c_m$ ,  $\epsilon_0 = 1/4\pi k_e = 1/4\pi (c_q^2 c_t^2 / c_m)$ ,  $\hbar = k_m c_t$ .
- The only constant that does not contain  $c_t$  is vacuum permeability:  $\mu_0 = 4\pi k_e / c_t^2 = 4\pi c_q^2 / c_m$ .
10. Using the quantum (Planck) units,  $r_p$  and  $t_p$ :  $r_p/t_p^2 \approx 5.5607262989 \cdot 10^{51} \text{ m s}^{-2}$ , which suggests a maximum acceleration for masses. And  $2\pi r_p/t_p^2$  would be maximum orbital or rotational acceleration.

11. The simplification of  $\mu_0$  into the quantum units shows two interesting relationships:

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_0 &= 4\pi \frac{k_e}{c_t^2} = 4\pi \frac{c_q^2}{c_m} = 4\pi \frac{(r_p/q_p)^2}{r_p/m_p} = 4\pi \frac{m_p r_p}{q_p^2} = 4\pi \frac{k_m}{q_p^2} \\ &\approx 4\pi \frac{3.5176729162 \cdot 10^{-43}}{3.5176729162 \cdot 10^{-35}} = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ kg m C}^{-2} \\ &= 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ H m}^{-1}. \quad (135)\end{aligned}$$

- (a) The first time  $k_m = m_p r_p$  appears is in the derivation of the Planck relation and Planck constant,  $\hbar = k_m c$  (66), the second time in the Compton wavelength,  $r = k_m/m$  (104). And now,  $k_m$  appears as a components of  $k_e$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$ , and  $\mu_0$ .
- (b) It is an open question why  $\frac{k_m}{q_p^2}$  seems to equal  $1.0 \cdot 10^{-7}$  exactly.
12. The fine structure constant,  $\alpha$  was derived from the ratio of two forces of two subtypes that reduces to ratio of the square of the subtypes  $\alpha = q_e^2/q_p^2 \approx 0.0072973526$  (75), which is the empirical CODATA value [14].

- (a) The CODATA electron coupling version of the fine structure constant,  $\alpha$  is defined as:  $\alpha = q_e^2/4\pi\varepsilon_0\hbar c = q_e^2/2\varepsilon_0\hbar c$  [14]. The following steps show that the CODATA definition reduces to the ratio-derived equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\varepsilon_0 &:= 1/4\pi k_e = 1/(4\pi(c_q^2 c_t^2/c_m)) \quad \wedge \quad \hbar = k_m c_t \quad \wedge \\ &\quad h = 2\pi\hbar \\ \Rightarrow \quad \varepsilon_0 \hbar c &= 2\pi k_m c_t^2 / (4\pi(c_q^2/c_m)c_t^2) = k_m / (2(c_q^2/c_m)) \\ &= m_p r_p / (2((r_p/q_p)^2/(r_p/m_p))) = q_p^2/2. \quad (136)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= q_e^2/2\varepsilon_0\hbar c \quad \wedge \quad \varepsilon_0 \hbar c = q_p^2/2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \alpha &= q_e^2/2(q_p^2/2) = q_e^2/q_p^2. \quad (137)\end{aligned}$$

- (b) Other fine structure constants can also be expressed more simply as the ratios of two subtypes of fields, for example, an electron gravity coupling constant can be expressed as the ratio of the rest electron mass to a Planck mass unit:  $\alpha_{G_m} = m_e^2/m_p^2$ .
13. Empirical and hypothesized laws of physics use an *opaque* constant,  $K$ , that is defined to make an equation, where the units balance,  $g = Kf(r, t, \dots)$ . The opacity has led to the *incorrect* assumptions of those constants,  $K$ , being fundamental (atomic) constants.

In this article, some opaque constants are derived directly from (composed of) the ratios: gravity,  $G = c_m c_t^2$  (54), charge,  $k_e = c_q^2 c_t^2/c_m$  (59),

and Planck  $\hbar = k_m c_t$  (67).  $\varepsilon_0 = 1/4\pi k_e = 1/4\pi c_m / ((c_q^2/c_m)c_t^2)$  (98) and  $\mu_0 = 4\pi k_e/c_t^2 = 4\pi c_q^2/c_m$  (95).

And the quantum extensions to: Schwarzschild's time dilation (123) Newton's gravity force (127), and Coulomb's charge force show, that where the quantum effects become measurable, the constants  $G$ ,  $k_e$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$ , and  $\mu_0$  no longer exist (are no longer valid).

Therefore,  $G$ ,  $k_e$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$ ,  $\mu_0$ , and  $\hbar$  are **not** fundamental (atomic) constants.

14. The derivations of:  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = -4\pi G\rho$  from  $\mathbf{g} = 2\pi Gm/r^2$  (55),  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = -\rho/\varepsilon_0$  from  $\mathbf{E} = 2\pi k_e q/r^2$  (98), and  $\partial \mathbf{B}/\partial t = -\mu_0 \rho$  from  $\mathbf{B} = 2\pi k_e q/r^2$  (101), show that the use of mass and charge density,  $\rho$ , are unnecessary complications that obfuscates the pattern,  $\nabla \cdot f(x, y, r) = -2k_{x,y}y/r^3$ , being derived from the inverse square pattern,  $f(x, y, r) = k_{x,y}y/r^2$ . And the energy density in the stress-energy tensor,  $T_{\mu,\nu}$ , in Einstein's field equations [6] also obfuscates the inverse square assumption.
15. Einstein's relativity equations assume the Lorentz transformations, assume that the laws of physics are same at each coordinate point, assume the notion of light, and assume that the speed of light is the same at each coordinate point [4] [6]. The derivations, in this article, were made without those assumptions (does even require the notion of light). Assuming Cartesian coordinates at each coordinate point, creates unit ratios, where all equations (laws) derived from the unit ratios must be the same at each coordinate point. Deriving numeric values for the ratios assumes that the ratio,  $c_t$ , is the maximum speed.
16. The derivation of the magnetic field from the ratios and special relativity (92) shows that magnetic field,  $\mathbf{B}$ , is the spacetime bend of the electric field,  $\mathbf{E}$  due to relativistic velocities. The magnetic force is a torque caused by spacetime bending of the radial charge force.

A charged particle's spin (angular momentum) axis has an orientation. "Paired spins" is where the orientations of two valence electrons are in opposite directions. The opposite spacetime bending due to relativistic spins cancel each other. Materials with unpaired spins that have net aligned orientations is a permanent magnet.

A current in a conductor is where electrons are moving in the same direction with the orientations aligned in that same direction. Applying electromagnetic radiation to a thin, conductive film containing unpaired spins aligned in the same direction will create a current with near 100% efficiency

minus electrical resistance. Such a low-resistance film would be several times more efficient than current solar panels.

True elementary particles do not have a half or fractional spin. A “half-spin” is a  $\pi$  radians rotation of the spin axis orientation. Positive and negative charges with orientations in the same direction have opposite spins (opposite angular momenta).

17. The quantum extensions to: Schwarzschild’s time dilation (123) black hole metric (88), Newton’s gravity force (127), and Coulomb’s charge force (130) make quantifiable predictions:

- (a) The gravitation and charge forces peak at finite amounts as  $r \rightarrow 0$ : for gravity,  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} F = c^2 m_1 m_2 / k_m$ , and for charge,  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} F = 0$ . Finite maximum gravity and charge forces: 1) allows radioactivity, finite sloped energy well walls; and 2) eliminates the problem of forces going to infinity as  $r \rightarrow 0$ , which might eliminate the need to hypothesize the existence of a weak force and strong force.
- (b) The quantum-extended Schwarzschild time dilation and metric, gravity, and charge equations reduce to the classic equations, where the distance between masses and charges is sufficiently large or the masses and charges sufficiently large that the quantum effect is not measurable. **Note** that  $G$ ,  $k_e$ ,  $\varepsilon_0$ ,  $\mu_0$ , and  $\kappa$  (Einstein’s constant, which contains  $G$ ) do not exist (are not valid), where the quantum effects becomes measurable.
- (c) And the covariant tensor components, in Einstein’s field equations, that had the units  $1/\text{distance}^2$ , will now have the more complex units,  $1/\sqrt{(\text{distance}^4/c_m^2) + k_m^2}$ .
- (d)  $1/\sqrt{(\text{distance}^4/c_m^2) + k_m^2}$  implies that as distance  $\rightarrow 0$ , spacetime curvature peaks at a finite amount. And the ratio of Planck units,  $m_p/r_p^3$ , might indicate a maximum mass density. Therefore, black holes might have sizes  $> 0$  (might not be singularities). Black hole evaporation might be possible. If there was a “big bang,” then it might not have originated from a singularity.

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