

Some Set Properties Underlying Geometry and Physics

George. M. Van Treeck

ABSTRACT. Volume and distance are derived from the same set and limit-based foundation. A symmetry constraint on a cyclic set is proved to limit the set to at most 3 members. For an symmetric cyclic set of a 3 distances, other elements have different types (members of other sets), with unit-factoring ratios between a distance unit and units of other compact and continuous types (time, mass, and charge). The geometry proofs and ratios are used to derive the gravity, charge, permittivity, Planck, and fine structure constants, and used to provide simpler, more rigorous derivations of some well-known classical gravity and charge equations, special and general relativity equations, and quantum physics equations. All the proofs are verified in Coq.

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1. Introduction

The Riemann integral, Lebesgue integral, and Lebesgue measure define Euclidean volume as product of interval sizes, $v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i$, and $s_i = b_i - a_i$, $[a_i, b_i] \in \mathbb{R}$ [Gol76] [Rud76]. Mathematical analysis defines the product of interval sizes as the set of n-tuples, each n-tuple corresponding to a point (real value), that is a subset of the \mathbb{R}^n n-tuples. But there has been no proof that the set of n-tuples actually generates the product product of interval sizes.

Further, mathematical analysis defines Euclidean distance, metric space, and inner product space [Gol76] [Rud76]. Of the many definitions of a distance measure, no metric provides a definition or derivation of Euclidean distance in terms

of sets of n-tuples. Therefore, mathematical analysis has lacked a single, abstract, combinatorial foundation, a foundation of an ordered set of combinations (n-tuples), from which both volume and distance equations can be derived and from which the inner product and metric space can be derived.

The number of n-tuple, $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|$, where $|x_i|$ is the cardinal of a countable, disjoint set, x_i . Where each n-tuple corresponds to a real value, an infinite countable set of values, has measure 0. In order to have a size > 0 , each set, x_i , must correspond to a set of subintervals of an interval $[a_i, b_i] \in \mathbb{R}$. In this article, it will be proved that: $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i$, where x_i is a set of infinitesimal subintervals of the interval, $[a_i, b_i] \in \mathbb{R}$, $s_i = b_i - a_i$.

$v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = f(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, n)$. If f is a bijective function, then $\exists d_c : d_c = f^{-1}(v_c, n)$ and $v_c = f(d_c, n) = f(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, n)$. If f is also isomorphic, then $d_c = |x_1| = \dots = |x_n|$ and $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_c = d_c^n$.

Where $v_c = f(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, n)$ is bijective and isomorphic, it will be proved that $v_c = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i} \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n$. d is the ρ -norm (Minkowski distance) [Min53], which will be proved to imply the metric space properties [Rud76]. And $\forall d_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $\exists a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R} : a_i b_i = d_i^2 \Rightarrow d^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i b_i$, which is the inner product.

Volume and distance are both derived from the same sets of n-tuples, x_1, \dots, x_n . If x_1, \dots, x_n are arbitrary labels for the purpose of deterministic sequencing of all members, where there are no members with an intrinsic value that makes it the first, second, \dots , last member, then the set can be assigned a cyclic sequence (order). For example, there is no intrinsic property of height that must make it be sequenced before width or depth. A cyclic order allows starting with any member and sequencing through every member.

Sequencing a cyclic order, via successor and predecessor relations, in all n-at-a-time orders, is a “symmetry” property, where every set member is either an immediate successor or immediate predecessor to every other set member. A cyclic and symmetric set will be proved to have $n \leq 3$ members.

Therefore, if $\{s_1, s_2, s_3\}$ is a cyclic and symmetric set of 3 “distances,” then another compact and continuous element, s_4 , must have a different type (member of different set), with constant, unit-factoring ratios between a unit of distance, r , and units of other compact and continuous types. For example: $r = (r_c/t_c)t = (r_c/m_c)m = (r_c/q_c)q = \dots$.

The geometry proofs and ratios are used to derive the gravity (G), charge (k_e), permittivity (ϵ_0), Planck (h), and fine structure (α) constants. And the proofs and ratios are used to provide simpler, more rigorous derivations of some well-known classical gravity and charge equations, special and general relativity equations, and quantum physics equations. The ratios are also used to easily add quantum effects to general relativity and classical physics equations.

All the proofs in this article have been verified using the Coq proof verification system [Coq23]. The formal proofs are in the Coq files, “euclidrelations.v” and “threed.v,” at: <https://github.com/treeck/RASGeometry>.

2. Ruler measure and convergence

A ruler (measuring stick) measures the size of each interval *approximately* as the sum of the nearest integer number, p , of size κ subintervals. The ruler is both an inner and outer measure of an interval.

DEFINITION 2.1. Ruler measure, $M = \sum_{i=1}^p \kappa = p\kappa$, where $\forall [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$, $s = b - a \wedge 0 < \kappa \leq 1 \wedge (p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \vee p = \text{ceiling}(s/\kappa))$.

THEOREM 2.2. *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, $\text{floor}(x) = \max(\{y : y \leq x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \in \mathbb{R}\})$:

$$(2.1) \quad \forall \kappa > 0, p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \wedge 0 \leq |\text{floor}(s/\kappa) - s/\kappa| < 1 \Rightarrow |p - s/\kappa| < 1.$$

Multiply both sides of inequality 2.1 by κ :

$$(2.2) \quad \forall \kappa > 0, |p - s/\kappa| < 1 \Rightarrow |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|.$$

$$(2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall \epsilon = \delta \wedge |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow |\kappa - 0| < \delta \wedge |p\kappa - s| < \delta = \epsilon \quad := \quad M = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} p\kappa = s. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

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

LEMMA 2.3. $\forall n \geq 1, 0 < \kappa < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa$.

PROOF. The formal proof, “lim_c_to_n_eq_lim_c,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

$$(2.4) \quad n \geq 1 \wedge 0 < \kappa < 1 \Rightarrow 0 < \kappa^n < \kappa \Rightarrow |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|.$$

$$(2.5) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall \epsilon = \delta \wedge |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow |\kappa - 0| < \delta \wedge |\kappa - \kappa^n| < \delta = \epsilon \quad := \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.6) \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0 \wedge \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa. \quad \square$$

3. Volume

DEFINITION 3.1. A countable n-volume is the number of ordered combinations (n-tuples), v_c , of the members of n number of disjoint, countable domain sets, x_i :

$$(3.1) \quad \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, v_c \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\}, x_i \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} : \bigcap_{i=1}^n x_i = \emptyset \wedge v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|.$$

THEOREM 3.2. *Euclidean volume,*

$$(3.2) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall [a_i, b_i] \in \{[a_1, b_1], \dots, [a_n, b_n]\}, [v_a, v_b] \subset \mathbb{R}, s_i = b_i - a_i, v = v_b - v_a : \\ v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i. \end{aligned}$$

The formal proof, “Euclidean_volume,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF.

$$(3.3) \quad v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Leftrightarrow v_c \kappa = (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa.$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2) to equation 3.3:

$$(3.4) \quad \exists v, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : v_c = \text{floor}(v/\kappa) \Rightarrow v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa.$$

Apply lemma 2.3 to equation 3.4:

$$(3.5) \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa \Rightarrow v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa).$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2) to s_i :

$$(3.6) \quad \exists s_i, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : \text{floor}(s_i/\kappa) = |x_i| \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i.$$

$$(3.7) \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa) \wedge \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i \quad \square$$

4. Distance

DEFINITION 4.1. Countable distance, $d_c = f(v_c, n) = f(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|, n) = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ is bijective and isomorphic: $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_c = d_c^n$.

4.1. Minkowski distance (ρ -norm).

THEOREM 4.2. *Minkowski distance (ρ -norm):*

$$v_c = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i} \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n, \quad d, d_i \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The formal proof, “Minkowski_distance,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF. Apply the countable distance definition (4.1) to the assumption:

$$(4.1) \quad v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_c = d_c^n \quad \wedge \quad v_{c_i} = \prod_{j=1}^n |x_{ij}| = \prod_{i=1}^n d_{c_i} = d_{c_i}^n \\ \wedge \quad v_c = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i} \Rightarrow d_c^n = \sum_{j=1}^m d_{c_i}^n.$$

Multiply both sides of equation 4.1 by κ and take the limit:

$$(4.2) \quad d_c^n = \sum_{j=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} d_c^n \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \kappa.$$

Apply lemma 2.3 to equation 4.1:

$$(4.3) \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} d_c^n \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \kappa \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa \\ \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} d_c^n \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m d_{c_i}^n \kappa^n \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (d_c \kappa)^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (d_{c_i} \kappa)^n.$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence theorem (2.2) to equation 4.3:

$$(4.4) \quad \exists d, d_i : d_c = \text{floor}(d/\kappa), \quad d = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} d_c \kappa \\ \wedge \quad d_{c_i} = \text{floor}(d_i/\kappa), \quad d_i = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} d_{c_i} \kappa \Rightarrow \\ d^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (d_c \kappa)^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (d_{c_i} \kappa)^n = \sum_{j=1}^m d_i^n. \quad \square$$

4.2. Distance inequality. The formal proof, distance_inequality, is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

THEOREM 4.3. *Distance inequality*

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

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

$$(4.5) \quad \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0 : v_a + v_b \leq v_a + v_b + \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^{n-k} (v_b^{1/n})^k + \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^k (v_b^{1/n})^{n-k} = (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n.$$

Take the n^{th} root of both sides of the inequality 4.5:

$$(4.6) \quad \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0, n \in \mathbb{N} : v_a + v_b \leq (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n \Rightarrow (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n}. \quad \square$$

4.3. Distance sum inequality. The formal proof, `distance_sum_inequality`, is in the Coq file, `euclidrelations.v`.

THEOREM 4.4. *Distance sum inequality*

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

PROOF. Apply the distance inequality (4.3):

$$(4.7) \quad \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad v_a, v_b \geq 0 : \quad v_a = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n \quad \wedge \quad v_b = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n \quad \wedge \\ (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad ((\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n) + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n))^{1/n} = \\ (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}. \quad \square$$

4.4. Metric Space. All Minkowski distances (ρ -norms) imply the metric space properties. The formal proofs: `triangle_inequality`, `symmetry`, `non_negativity`, and `identity_of_indiscernibles` are in the Coq file, `euclidrelations.v`.

THEOREM 4.5. *Triangle Inequality:*

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

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

$$(4.8) \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + w^p) + 2v^p)^{1/p} = ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p}.$$

Apply the distance inequality (4.3) to the inequality 4.8:

$$(4.9) \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \quad \wedge \quad (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \\ \wedge \quad v_a = u^p + v^p \quad \wedge \quad v_b = v^p + w^p \\ \Rightarrow \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \leq (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} \\ \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) = (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq \\ (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} = d(u, v) + d(v, w). \quad \square$$

THEOREM 4.6. *Symmetry:* $d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = d(v, u)$.

PROOF. By the commutative law of addition:

$$(4.10) \quad \forall p : p \geq 1, \quad d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} = (s_1^p + s_2^p)^{1/p} \\ \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} = (v^p + u^p)^{1/p} = d(v, u). \quad \square$$

THEOREM 4.7. *Non-negativity:* $d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) \geq 0$.

PROOF. By definition, the length of an interval is always ≥ 0 :

$$(4.11) \quad \forall [a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \quad u = b_1 - a_1, \quad v = b_2 - a_2, \quad \Rightarrow \quad u \geq 0, \quad v \geq 0.$$

$$(4.12) \quad p \geq 1, \quad u, v \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} \geq 0. \quad \square$$

THEOREM 4.8. *Identity of Indiscernibles:* $d(u, u) = 0$.

PROOF. From the non-negativity property (4.7):

$$(4.13) \quad d(u, w) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(u, v) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(v, w) \geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \exists d(u, w) = d(u, v) = d(v, w) = 0.$$

$$(4.14) \quad d(u, w) = d(v, w) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = v.$$

$$(4.15) \quad d(u, v) = 0 \quad \wedge \quad u = v \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, u) = 0. \quad \square$$

4.5. Set properties limiting a set to at most 3 members. The following definitions and proof uses Horn clauses (a subset of first order logic), which makes it clear which facts satisfy a proof goal.

DEFINITION 4.9. Immediate Cyclic Successor of m is n :

$$(4.16) \quad \forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \\ \text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow (m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1) \vee (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

DEFINITION 4.10. Immediate Cyclic Predecessor of m is n :

$$(4.17) \quad \forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \\ \text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}) \vee (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

DEFINITION 4.11. 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:

$$(4.18) \quad \forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \\ \text{Adjacent}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \vee \text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}).$$

DEFINITION 4.12. Symmetric (every set member is sequentially adjacent to every other member):

$$(4.19) \quad \forall x_m, x_n \in \{x_1, \dots, x_{\text{setsize}}\} : \quad \text{Adjacent}(m, n, \text{setsize}).$$

THEOREM 4.13. *A cyclic and symmetric set is limited to at most 3 members.*

The formal proofs in the Coq file `threed.v` are:

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

PROOF.

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

$$(4.20) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow (m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1).$$

$$(4.21) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.22) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow (n = \text{setsize} \wedge m = 1).$$

$$(4.23) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.24) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

$$(4.25) \quad \text{Adjacent}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = \text{setsize} \wedge m = 1).$$

$$(4.26) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.27) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.28) \quad \text{Adjacent}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

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

$$(4.29) \quad \neg \text{Successor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} \geq 3) \\ \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, \text{setsize} \geq 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

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

$$(4.30) \quad \neg \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} \geq 3)$$

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

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

$$(4.31) \quad \neg \text{Adjacent}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3)$$

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

5. Applications to physics

From the volume proof (3.2), two disjoint distance intervals, $[0, r_1]$ and $[0, r_2]$, define a 2-volume. From the Minkowski distance proof (4.2), $\exists r : r^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2$. And from the 3D proof (4.13), for some non-distance type, $\tau : \tau \in \{t \text{ (time)}, m \text{ (mass)}, q \text{ (charge)}, \dots\}$, there exist constant, unit-factoring ratios, μ, ν_1, ν_2 :

$$(5.1) \quad \forall r, r_1, r_2 : r^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 \quad \wedge \quad r = \mu\tau \quad \wedge \quad r_1 = \nu_1\tau \quad \wedge \quad r_2 = \nu_2\tau \\ \Rightarrow (\mu\tau)^2 = (\nu_1\tau)^2 + (\nu_2\tau)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mu \geq \nu_1 \quad \wedge \quad \mu \geq \nu_2.$$

μ is the maximum-possible ($\mu \geq \nu_1, \nu_2$), constant, unit-factoring ratio, where:

$$(5.2) \quad \mu \in \{r_c/t_c, r_c/m_c, r_c/q_c, \dots\} : r = (r_c/t_c)t = (r_c/m_c)m = (r_c/q_c)q = \dots$$

5.1. Derivation of the constant G , and the gravity laws of Newton, Gauss, and Poisson. From equation 5.2:

$$(5.3) \quad r = (r_c/m_c)m \quad \wedge \quad r = (r_c/t_c)ct \quad \Rightarrow \quad r/(ct)^2 = (r_c/m_c)m/r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r/t^2 = ((r_c/m_c)c^2)m/r^2 = Gm/r^2,$$

where Newton's constant, $G = (r_c/m_c)c^2$, conforms to the SI units: $m^3 \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot s^{-2}$.

Newton's law follows from multiplying both sides equation 5.3 by m :

$$(5.4) \quad r/t^2 = Gm/r^2 \quad \wedge \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{R} : \exists m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{R} : m_1 m_2 = m^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \exists m_1, m_2 \in \mathbb{R} : F := mr/t^2 = Gm^2/r^2 = Gm_1 m_2 / r^2.$$

Gauss's flux divergence, $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g}$ and Poisson's curl per unit mass, $\nabla^2 \Phi(r, t)$ are measures of acceleration, r/t^2 . Again, starting with equation 5.3 and using ρ as the mass field density (Gauss's flux divergence) on a sphere having the surface area $4\pi r^2$ yields the differential forms of:

$$(5.5) \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \nabla^2 \Phi(\vec{r}, t) = r/t^2 \quad \wedge \quad r/t^2 = (-Gm/r^2)(4\pi/4\pi) \quad \wedge \quad \rho = m/4\pi r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = \nabla^2 \Phi(\vec{r}, t) = -4\pi G\rho.$$

5.2. Derivation of Coulomb's charge constant, k_e and charge force.

$$(5.6) \quad \forall q \in \mathbb{R} : \exists q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R} : q_1 q_2 = q^2 \quad \wedge \quad r = (r_c/q_c)q \\ \Rightarrow \quad \exists q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{R} : q_1 q_2 = q^2 = ((q_c/r_c)r)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad (r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 = 1.$$

$$(5.7) \quad r = (r_c/t_c)t = ct \quad \Rightarrow \quad mr = (m_c/r_c)(ct)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad ((r_c/m_c)/c^2)mr/t^2 = 1.$$

$$(5.8) \quad ((r_c/m_c)/c^2)mr/t^2 = 1 \quad \wedge \quad (r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad F := mr/t^2 = ((m_c/r_c)c^2)(r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2.$$

$$(5.9) \quad r_c/t_c = c \quad \wedge \quad F = ((m_c/r_c)c^2)(r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad F = (m_c(r_c/t_c^2))(r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 = k_e q_1 q_2 / r^2,$$

where Coulomb's constant, $k_e = (m_c(r_c/t_c^2))(r_c/q_c)^2$, conforms to the SI units: $N \cdot m^2 \cdot C^{-2}$.

5.3. Vacuum permittivity, ε_0 , and Gauss's law for electric fields. From equation 5.2:

$$(5.10) \quad r = (r_c/q_c)q \quad \wedge \quad r = (r_c/t_c) = ct \quad \Rightarrow \quad r/(ct)^2 = (r_c/q_c)q/r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r/t^2 = ((r_c/q_c)/c^2)q/r^2,$$

And where ρ is the charge field density on the sphere surface area, $4\pi r^2$:

$$(5.11) \quad r/t^2 = (((r_c/q_c)/c^2)q/r^2)(4\pi/4\pi) \quad \wedge \quad \rho = q/4\pi r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad r/t^2 = 4\pi((r_c/q_c)c^2)\rho.$$

Multiply both sides by of equation 5.11 by $(m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)$:

$$(5.12) \quad r/t^2 = 4\pi((r_c/q_c)c^2)\rho \\ \Rightarrow \quad (m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)r/t^2 = 4\pi(m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)((r_c/q_c)c^2)\rho.$$

Gauss's electric flux divergence is also a measure of acceleration, $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} \propto r/t^2$. And using the derivation of k_e in equations 5.8 and 5.9:

$$(5.13) \quad (m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)r/t^2 = 4\pi(m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)((r_c/q_c)c^2)\rho \quad \wedge \quad \varepsilon_0 := 1/4\pi k_e \quad \wedge \\ k_e = ((m_c/r_c)c^2)(r_c/q_c)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} := (m_c/r_c)(r_c/q_c)r/t^2 = 4\pi k_e \rho = \rho/\varepsilon_0,$$

which is the Gauss's law for electric fields that is used in Maxwell's equations, etc.

5.4. Space-time-mass-charge equations. Form equation 5.1:

$$(5.14) \quad \forall r, r', r_v, \mu, \nu : r^2 = r'^2 + r_v^2 \quad \wedge \quad r = \mu\tau \quad \wedge \quad r_v = \nu\tau \\ \Rightarrow \quad r' = \sqrt{(\mu\tau)^2 - (\nu\tau)^2} = \mu\tau\sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

Rest frame distance, r' , contracts relative to stationary frame distance, r , as $\nu \rightarrow \mu$:

$$(5.15) \quad r' = \mu\tau\sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad \mu\tau = r \quad \Rightarrow \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

Stationary frame type, τ , dilates relative to the rest frame type, τ' , as $\nu \rightarrow \mu$:

$$(5.16) \quad \mu\tau = r'/\sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad r' = \mu\tau' \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tau = \tau'/\sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

Where τ is type, time, the space-like flat Minkowski spacetime event interval is:

$$(5.17) \quad dr^2 = dr'^2 + dr_v^2 \quad \wedge \quad dr_v^2 = dr_1^2 + dr_2^2 + dr_3^2 \quad \wedge \quad d(\mu\tau) = dr \\ \Rightarrow \quad dr'^2 = d(\mu\tau)^2 - dr_1^2 - dr_2^2 - dr_3^2.$$

5.5. Derivation of Schwarzschild's gravitational time dilation and black hole metric. [Che10] From equations 5.15 and 5.2:

$$(5.18) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)(r/r)} \quad \wedge \quad r = (r_c/m_c)m \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - ((r_c/m_c)m)v^2/rc^2}.$$

$$(5.19) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - ((r_c/m_c)m)v^2/rc^2} \quad \wedge \quad KE = mv^2/2 = mv_{escape}^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2(r_c/m_c)mv_{escape}^2/rc^2}.$$

$$(5.20) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \lim_{v_{escape} \rightarrow c} \sqrt{1 - 2(r_c/m_c)mv_{escape}^2/rc^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2(r_c/m_c)mc^2/rc^2}.$$

Combining equation 5.20 with the derivation of G (5.4):

$$(5.21) \quad (r_c/m_c)c^2 = G \quad \wedge \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2(r_c/m_c)mc^2/rc^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2}.$$

Combining equation 5.21 with equation 5.16 yields Schwarzschild's gravitational time dilation:

$$(5.22) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} \quad \wedge \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} \\ \Rightarrow \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2}.$$

Schwarzschild defined the black hole event horizon radius, $r_s := 2Gm/c^2$.

$$(5.23) \quad r_s = 2Gm/c^2 \quad \wedge \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}.$$

From equations 5.15 and 5.23:

$$(5.24) \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} \quad \wedge \quad \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} = \sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} \\ \Rightarrow \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - 2Gm/rc^2} = r\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}.$$

Using the time-like spacetime interval, where ds^2 is negative:

$$(5.25) \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - r_s/r} \quad \wedge \quad ds^2 = dr'^2 - dr^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}dr')^2 - (dr/\sqrt{1 - r_s/r})^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dr'^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2.$$

$$(5.26) \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dr'^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 \quad \wedge \quad dr' = d(ct) \quad \wedge \quad c = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 = f(r, t).$$

Translating from 2D to 4D yields Schwarzschild's black hole metric:

$$(5.27) \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 = f(r, t) \\ \Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 - r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) = f(r, t, \theta, \phi).$$

5.6. Simplifying Einstein's general relativity (field) equation. Simplification step 1) Use the unit-factoring ratios to define functions returning values for each component of the metric, $g_{\nu,\mu}$, in Einstein's field equations [Ein15] [Wey52]: All functions derived from the ratios are valid metrics, as an example, the previous Schwarzschild black hole metric derivation using the unit-factoring ratios (5.5).

Simplification step 2) Express the EFE as 2D tensors: As shown in equation 5.27, the Schwarzschild metric was first derived as a 2D metric and then expanded to a 4D metric. Further, the 4D flat spacetime interval equation (5.17) is an instance of the 2D equation, $dr'^2 = d(ct)^2 - dr_v^2$, where dr_v^2 is the magnitude of a 3-dimensional vector.

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.

Simplification 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, ϕ , and θ . For example, the 2D Schwarzschild metric was translated to 4D using this method in equation 5.27.

5.7. 3 fundamental direct proportion ratios. c_t , c_m , and c_q :

$$(5.28) \quad c_t = r_c/t_c \approx 2.99792458 \cdot 10^8 m \ s^{-1}.$$

$$(5.29) \quad G = (r_c/m_c)c_t^2 = c_m c_t^2 \Rightarrow c_m = r_c/m_c \approx 7.4261602691 \cdot 10^{-28} m \ kg^{-1}.$$

$$(5.30) \quad k_e = (c_t^2/c_m)(r_c/q_c)^2 \Rightarrow c_q = r_c/q_c \approx 8.6175172023 \cdot 10^{-18} m \ C^{-1}.$$

5.8. 3 fundamental inverse proportion ratios. k_t , k_m , and k_q :

$$(5.31) \quad r/t = r_c/t_c, \quad r/m = r_c/m_c \Rightarrow (r/t)/(r/m) = (r_c/t_c)/(r_c/m_c) \Rightarrow \\ (mr)/(tr) = (m_c r_c)/(t_c r_c) \Rightarrow mr = m_c r_c = k_m, \quad tr = t_c r_c = k_t.$$

$$(5.32) \quad r/t = r_c/t_c, \quad r/q = r_c/q_c \Rightarrow (r/t)/(r/q) = (r_c/t_c)/(r_c/q_c) \Rightarrow \\ (qr)/(tr) = (q_c r_c)/(t_c r_c) \Rightarrow qr = q_c r_c = k_q, \quad tr = t_c r_c = k_t.$$

5.9. Planck relation and constant, h . [Jai11] Applying both the direct proportion ratio (5.28), and inverse proportion ratio (5.31):

$$(5.33) \quad m(ct)^2 = mr^2 \wedge m = m_c r_c / r = k_m / r \Rightarrow m(ct)^2 = (k_m / r)r^2 = k_m r.$$

$$(5.34) \quad m(ct)^2 = k_m r \wedge r/t = r_c/t_c = c \\ \Rightarrow E := mc^2 = k_m r/t^2 = (k_m (r/t)) (1/t) = (k_m c)(1/t) = hf,$$

where the Planck constant, $h = k_m c$, and the frequency, $f = 1/t$.

$$(5.35) \quad k_m = m_c r_c = h/c \approx 2.2102190943 \cdot 10^{-42} \ kg \ m.$$

$$(5.36) \quad k_t = t_c r_c = k_m c_m / c_t \approx 5.4749346710 \cdot 10^{-78} \ s \ m.$$

$$(5.37) \quad k_q = q_c r_c = k_t c_t / c_q \approx 1.9046601056 \cdot 10^{-52} \ C \ m.$$

5.10. Compton wavelength. [Jai11] From equations 5.31 and 5.34:

$$(5.38) \quad mr = k_m \wedge h = k_m c \Rightarrow r = k_m / m = (k_m / m)(c/c) = h/mc.$$

5.11. 4 quantum units. Distance (r_c), time (t_c), mass (m_c), and charge (q_c):

$$(5.39) \quad r_c = \sqrt{r_c^2} = \sqrt{c_t k_t} = \sqrt{c_m k_m} = \sqrt{c_q k_q} \approx 4.0513505432 \cdot 10^{-35} \text{ m.}$$

$$(5.40) \quad t_c = r_c/c_t \approx 1.3513850782 \cdot 10^{-43} \text{ s.}$$

$$(5.41) \quad m_c = r_c/c_m \approx 5.4555118613 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ kg.}$$

$$(5.42) \quad q_c = r_c/c_q \approx 4.7012967286 \cdot 10^{-18} \text{ C.}$$

Planck length = $r_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, time = $t_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, mass = $m_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, charge = $q_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$.

5.12. Fine structure constant. The fine structure constant, α , is the ratio of two types (dimensions) of charge fields: 1) the *stationary* elementary particle charge field, F_e , and 2) the *moving* elementary charge (electromagnetic) wave field (the reduced Planck charge unit), F_p . From the ratio-derived Coulomb's law equation 5.8:

$$(5.43) \quad \exists \alpha \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha = \frac{F_e}{F_p} = \frac{k_e q_e^2 / r^2}{k_e q_p^2 / r^2} = q_e^2 / q_p^2 = q_e^2 / (q_c / \sqrt{2\pi})^2 \approx 0.0072973526.$$

5.13. Schrödinger's equation. Start with the previously derived Planck relation 5.34 and multiply the kinetic energy component by mc/mc :

$$(5.44) \quad h/t = mc^2 \Rightarrow \exists V(r, t) : h/t = h/2t + V(r, t) \Rightarrow h/t = hmc/2mct + V(r, t).$$

And from the distance-to-time (speed of light) ratio (5.28):

$$(5.45) \quad h/t = hmc/2mct + V(r, t) \wedge r = ct \Rightarrow h/t = hmc^2/2mcr + V(r, t).$$

$$(5.46) \quad h/t = hmc^2/2mcr + V(r, t) \wedge h/t = mc^2 \Rightarrow h/t = h^2/2mcrt + V(r, t).$$

$$(5.47) \quad h/t = h^2/2mcrt + V(r, t) \wedge r = ct \Rightarrow h/t = h^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t).$$

Replace the Planck constant in equation 5.47 with the reduced Planck constant:

$$(5.48) \quad h/t = h^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t) \wedge \hbar = h/2\pi \Rightarrow 2\pi\hbar/t = (2\pi)^2\hbar^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t).$$

Multiply both sides of equation 5.48 by a function, $\Psi(r, t)$.

$$(5.49) \quad 2\pi\hbar/t = (2\pi)^2\hbar^2/2mr^2 + V(r, t) \\ \Rightarrow (2\pi\hbar/t)\Psi(r, t) = ((2\pi)^2\hbar^2/2mr^2)\Psi(r, t) + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t).$$

$$(5.50) \quad (2\pi\hbar/t)\Psi(r, t) = ((2\pi)^2\hbar^2/2mr^2)\Psi(r, t) + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t) \wedge \\ \forall \Psi(r, t) : \partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 = (-(2\pi)^2/r^2)\Psi(r, t) \wedge \partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t = (i 2\pi/t)\Psi(r, t) \\ \Rightarrow i\hbar\partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t = -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t),$$

which is Schrödinger's equation in one dimension of space.

$$(5.51) \quad -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 + V(r, t)\Psi(r, t) = i\hbar\partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t \wedge \|\vec{r}\| = r \\ \Rightarrow \exists \vec{r} : i\hbar\partial\Psi(\vec{r}, t)/\partial t = -(\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t)/\partial \vec{r}^2 + V(\vec{r}, t)\Psi(\vec{r}, t),$$

which is Schrödinger's equation in three dimensions of space.

5.14. Dirac's wave equation. Using the derived Planck relation 5.34:

$$(5.52) \quad mc^2 = h/t \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists V(r, t) : mc^2/2 + V(r, t) = h/t \\ \Rightarrow \quad 2h/t - 2V(r, t) = mc^2.$$

$$(5.53) \quad \forall V(r, t) : V(r, t) = h/t \quad \wedge \quad r = ct \quad \wedge \quad 2h/t - 2V(r, t) = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad 2h/t - 2hc/r = mc^2.$$

Use the charge ratio, c_q , and time ratio, $c_t = c$ to multiply each term on the left side of equation 5.53 by 1:

$$(5.54) \quad qc_q/r = qc_q/ct = 1 \quad \wedge \quad 2h/t - 2hc/r = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad 2h(-qc_q/c)/t^2 - 2h((-qc_q/c)/r^2)c = mc^2.$$

where a negative sign is added to q to indicate an attractive force between an electron and a nucleus.

Applying a quantum amplitude equation in complex form to equation 5.55:

$$(5.55) \quad A_0 = (c_q/c)((1/t)) + i(1/r)) \quad \wedge \quad 2h(-qc_q/c)/t^2 - 2h((-qc_q/c)/r^2)c = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad 2h\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c = mc^2.$$

Translating equation 5.55 to moving coordinates via the Lorentz factor, $\gamma_0 = 1/\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}$:

$$(5.56) \quad 2h\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \gamma_0 2h\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - \gamma_0 i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c = mc^2.$$

Multiplying both sides of equation 5.56 by $\Psi(r, t)$:

$$(5.57) \quad \gamma_0 2h\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t - \gamma_0 i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c = mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \gamma_0 2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \gamma_0 i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c\Psi(r, t) = mc^2\Psi(r, t).$$

Applying the vectors to equation 5.57:

$$(5.58) \quad \gamma_0 2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \gamma_0 i2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial r)c\Psi(r, t) = mc^2\Psi(r, t) \wedge \\ \|\vec{r}\| = r \quad \wedge \quad \|\vec{A}\| = A_0 \quad \wedge \quad \|\vec{\gamma}\| = \gamma_0 \quad \wedge \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exists \vec{r}, \vec{A}, \vec{\gamma} : \\ \gamma_0 2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i2h(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t).$$

Adding a $\frac{1}{2}$ angular rotation (spin- $\frac{1}{2}$) of π to equation 5.55 allows substituting the reduced Planck constant, $\hbar = h/2\pi$, into equation 5.58, which yields Dirac's wave equation:

$$(5.59) \quad \gamma_0 2h(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i2h(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t) \\ \wedge A_0 = \pi(c_q/c)((1/t) + (1/r)) \\ \Rightarrow \quad \gamma_0 \hbar(\partial(-qA_0)/\partial t)\Psi(r, t) - \vec{\gamma} \cdot i\hbar(\partial(-q\vec{A})/\partial r)c\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = mc^2\Psi(\vec{r}, t).$$

5.15. 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 (5.28) and inverse proportion ratios (5.31):

$$(5.60) \quad m_0 = r/(r_c/m_c) = r/c_m \quad \wedge \quad m_{ke} = (m_c r_c)/r = k_m/r \quad \wedge$$

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

5.16. Quantum extension to general relativity. The simplest way to demonstrate how to add quantum physics to general relativity is by extending the Schwarzschild's black hole metric (5.5). Start by changing equation 5.18 in the Schwarzschild derivation:

$$(5.61) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)(r/r)} \quad \wedge \quad r = \sqrt{(c_m m)^2 + (k_m/m)^2} = Q_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - Q_m v^2/rc^2}.$$

$$(5.62) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - Q_m v^2/rc^2} \quad \wedge \quad KE = mv^2/2 = mv_{escape}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m v_{escape}^2/rc^2}.$$

$$(5.63) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \lim_{v_{escape} \rightarrow c} \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m v_{escape}^2/rc^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m c^2/rc^2} = \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m/r}.$$

Combining equation 5.63 with equation 5.16 yields Schwarzschild's gravitational time dilation with a quantum mass effect:

$$(5.64) \quad \sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)} = \sqrt{1 - 2Q_m/r} \quad \wedge \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - (v^2/c^2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - 2Q_m/r}.$$

Schwarzschild defined the black hole event horizon radius, $r_s := 2Gm/c^2$. The radius with the quantum extension is $r_s := 2Q_m$:

$$(5.65) \quad r_s = 2Q_m \quad \wedge \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - 2Q_m/r} \quad \Rightarrow \quad t' = t\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}.$$

From equations 5.15 and 5.65:

$$(5.66) \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} \quad \wedge \quad \sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2} = \sqrt{1 - r_s/r} \quad \Rightarrow \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}.$$

Using the time-like spacetime interval, where ds is negative:

$$(5.67) \quad r' = r\sqrt{1 - r_s/r} \quad \wedge \quad ds^2 = dr'^2 - dt^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (\sqrt{1 - r_s/r}dr')^2 - (dr/\sqrt{1 - r_s/r})^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dr'^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2.$$

$$(5.68) \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dr'^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 \quad \wedge \quad dr' = d(ct) \quad \wedge \quad c = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2.$$

Expanding to 4D spherical coordinates yields Schwarzschild's black hole metric:

$$(5.69) \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 = f(r, t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad ds^2 = (1 - r_s/r)dt^2 - (1 - r_s/r)^{-1}dr^2 - r^2(d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2) = f(r, t, \theta, \phi).$$

5.17. 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 equation 5.2:

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

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

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

6. Insights and implications

- (1) The ruler measure (2.1) and convergence theorem (2.2) are tools for proving that a real-valued (and possibly a complex-valued) equation is the only instance of an abstract, countable set relation.
- (2) Combinatorics, the ordered combinations of countable, disjoint sets (n -tuples), generates both Euclidean volume (3.2) and the Minkowski distances (4.2), which includes Manhattan and Euclidean distances, without relying on the geometric primitives and relations in Euclidean geometry [Joy98], axiomatic geometry [Lee10], and vector analysis [Wey52].
- (3) $\forall d_i \in \mathbb{R}, \exists a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R} : a_i b_i = d_i^2 \Rightarrow d^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i$. If a_i and b_i can have negative values indicating negative-sized intervals (direction), then the inner product space is also derived from the same countable set-based definition of distance (4.1).
- (4) Euclid's proof that Euclidean distance is the smallest distance between two distinct points equate Euclidean distance to a straight line, where it is assumed that the straight line length is the smallest distance [Joy98]. And analytic proofs that the straight line length is the smallest distance equate the straight line length to Euclidean distance.

Without using the notion of a straight line: All distance measures derived from the set-based countable distance (4.1) are Minkowski distances (4.2). For all 2-volumes, all Minkowski distances are limited to $n \in \{1, 2\}$: $n = 1$ is the Manhattan (largest monotonic) distance case, $d = \sum_{i=1}^m s_i$. $n = 2$ is the Euclidean (smallest) distance case, $d = (\sum_{i=1}^m s_i^2)^{1/2}$. For the case, $n \in \mathbb{R}, 1 \leq n \leq 2$: d decreases monotonically as n goes from 1 to 2.

But this raises some questions. If Euclidean distance is the shortest *plane* distance within a higher dimensional volume, then what is the geometric interpretation of distances, $d = (\sum_{i=1}^m s_i^n)^{1/n}$, $n > 2$? Do such distances have a use in physics?

(5) The left side of the distance sum inequality (4.4),

$$(6.1) \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n},$$

differs from the left side of Minkowski's sum inequality [Min53]:

$$(6.2) \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n)^{\mathbf{n}})^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}.$$

The two inequalities are only the same where $n = 1$.

- (a) The distance sum inequality (4.4) is a more fundamental inequality because the proof does not require the convexity and Hölder's inequality assumptions of the Minkowski sum inequality proof [Min53].
- (b) The Minkowski sum inequality term, $\forall n > 1 : ((a_i^n + b_i^n)^{\mathbf{n}})^{1/n}$, is **not** a Minkowski distance spanning the n-volume, $a_i^n + b_i^n$. But the distance sum inequality term, $(a_i^n + b_i^n)^{1/n}$, is the Minkowski distance spanning the n-volume, $a_i^n + b_i^n$, which makes it directly related to geometry (for example, the metric space triangle inequality was derived from the $m = 1$ case for all $n \geq 1$ (4.5)).
- (6) Combinatorics, all n-at-time permutations of a cyclic and symmetric set, limits the set to 3 members (4.13). This set-based, first-order logic proof is a simpler and more logically rigorous hypothesis for observing only 3 dimensions of physical space than parallel dimensions that cannot be detected or extra dimensions rolled up into infinitesimal balls that are too small to detect.
 - (a) Higher order dimensions must have different types (members of different sets), for example, types/dimensions of time, mass, and charge. Order and symmetry probably limit the number of fundamental types/dimensions to a very small number. For example, temperature, measured in Kelvins, is not a true dimension because temperature is more correctly a measure of frequency or kinetic energy, where entropy is a drop in frequency or kinetic energy. The magnetic field might be a pseudo (fictitious) field that is a function of distance, time, charge, and spin. Likewise, one should not immediately assume the strong force field, weak force field, etc. are dimensions. For example, quantum effects might allow radioactivity without a weak force.
 - (b) Each of 3 cyclic and symmetric dimensions of space can have at most 3 cyclic and symmetric state values, for example, a cyclic and symmetric set of 3 vector orientations, $\{-1, 0, 1\}$, per dimension of space and at most 3 spin states per plane, etc.
 - (c) If the states are not sequentially ordered (a bag of states), then a state value is undetermined until observed (like Schrödinger's poisoned cat being both alive and dead until the box is opened). That is, for a bag of states, there is no "axiom of choice", an axiom often used in math proofs that allows selecting a particular set element (state).
 - (d) A discrete value cannot form a constant unit-factoring ratio with continuous dimensions of distance and time. Therefore, the discrete spin states of two quantum entangled particles and the polarization states of two quantum entangled photons are independent of continuously varying distance and time interval lengths. This is reason entangled particles change states at the same time over any distance.

- (e) For each unit of a 3-dimensional, compact and continuous distance, unit there are units of other compact and continuous types of elements (5.7): $c_t = r_c/t_c$, $c_m = r_c/m_c$, $c_q = r_c/q_c \Leftrightarrow$ the inverse proportion ratios (5.8): $k_t = r_c t_c$, $k_m = r_c m_c$, $k_t = r_c q_c$, where the combination of the direct and inverse ratios implies the quantum units (5.11): r_c , t_c , m_c , q_c . These ratios and quantum units were shown to be the basis of much physics:

- (i) The gravity, G (5.4), charge k_e (5.9), vacuum permittivity, ε_0 , and Planck h (5.34) constants were all derived from the ratios. Therefore, G , k_e , ε_0 , and h are **not** “fundamental” constants.
- (ii) G , k_e , and h all depend on the speed of light ratio, c_t : $G = c_m c_t^2$, $k_e = (c_q^2/c_m) c_t^2$, and $h = k_m c_t$.
- (iii) $k_e = (c_q^2/c_m) c_t^2 = ((m_c/r_c)(r_c/t_c)^2) c_q^2 = (m_c(r_c/t_c^2)) c_q^2$, where the term, r_c/t_c^2 , suggests a maximum acceleration constant, which agrees with the MOND theories of gravity.
- (iv) Planck length $= r_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, time $= t_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, mass $= m_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$, and charge $= q_c/\sqrt{2\pi}$.
- (v) The inverse square law for gravity (5.3) and charge (5.6) were shown to be a result of the direct proportion ratios.
- (vi) The unit-factoring ratios are the basis of relativity theory.
 - (A) From equation 5.1, there is always a maximum ratio (for example, the speed of light, $c_t = r_c/t_c$).
 - (B) Special and general relativity assume covariance, which states that the laws of physics are invariant in every frame of reference. Covariance is the result of the same unit-factoring ratios in every frame of reference. For example, the special relativity time dilation equation 5.16 was derived from the ratio, $c_t = r_c/t_c$ (the speed of light), and combined with the ratio, $c_m = r_c/m_c$, (5.7) yielded Schwarzschild’s general relativity gravitational time dilation and black hole metric equations (5.23).
- (vii) The combination of direct and inverse proportion ratios was shown to create the particle-wave equations: Planck relation (5.9), Compton wavelength (5.38), Schrödinger (5.13), and Dirac equations (5.14).

This seems to support the notion of particle-wave duality. But consider the moral about the four blind men experiencing an elephant for the first time: The first man feels the tail and says, “An elephant is a rope.” The second man feels the leg and says, “You must be feeling a branch, because I feel a large tree trunk.” The third man feels the body of the elephant and says, “You are feeling the column in front of a wall.” The fourth man feels the trunk and screams, “Run for your lives it’s giant snake!” What exists at the microcosmic scale, is not a particle, not a wave, and not a particle-wave.

- (viii) The derivation of the Compton wavelength equation (5.10) shows that the computation of the wavelength is overly complex (because it assumes the Planck constant is a fundamental

constant) and can be simplified to $r = k_m/m$.

- (ix) The fine structure constant, α , has been an empirical constant with defined equations. For example, the CODATA definition is: $\alpha = q_e^2/4\pi\epsilon\hbar c$, where α is assumed to be dimensionless.

However, the derivation of α , in this article (5.43), shows that α does have dimensions because it is the ratio of two types (dimensions) of charge fields: 1) the *stationary* elementary particle charge field, F_e , and 2) the *moving* elementary charge (electromagnetic) wave field, F_p , which yields the more parsimonious equation: $\alpha = q_e^2/q_p^2$.

There may be other fine structure constants, for example, the ratio of a stationary elementary particle gravity field to a moving gravity field: $\alpha_m = m_e^2/m_p^2$.

- (7) The derivations of the spacetime equations, in this article (5.4), differ from other derivations:
- (a) The derivations, here, do not rely on the Lorentz transformations or Einsteins' postulates [Ein15]. The derivations do not even require the notion of light.
 - (b) The same derivations are also valid for spacemass and spacecharge.
 - (c) The derivations, here, rely only on the Minkowski distances proof (4.1), and the 3D proof (4.13), which provides the insight that the properties of physical space creates constant maximum ratios, the spacetime equations, and 3 dimensions of distance.
- (8) The derivation of Schrödinger's equation (5.13) and Dirac's equation (5.14), in this article, differs from other derivations:
- (a) Other derivations are based on the Hamiltonian (energy-momentum) operator. In contrast, the derivations, in this article, rely on the Planck (energy-frequency) relation.
 - (b) The derivations here are more rigorous because:
 - (i) The energy-momentum term, $\hbar^2/2m$, was derived, in this article, from the Planck relation (5.47), where the Planck relation was also rigorously derived (5.9). Other derivations **incorrectly** assume (define) the energy-momentum relation as: $(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{p})/2m = \hbar^2/2m$. The reduced Planck constant is only valid if the partial derivatives of the probability distribution function, $\Psi(r, t)$, contains compensating 2π terms: $\partial^2\Psi(r, t)/\partial r^2 = -(2\pi)^2/r^2\Psi(r, t)$ and $\partial\Psi(r, t)/\partial t = (i\ 2\pi/t)\Psi(r, t)$. Finding solutions to Schrödinger's equation would be simpler if the full Planck constant is used because it would reduce the complexity of $\Psi(r, t)$.
 - (ii) Other derivations assume the probability distribution has a mean value, where values closer to the mean are more probable. The derivation here makes no such assumptions.
- (9) The quantum extensions to: Schwarzschild's black hole metric (5.66) and Newton's gravity force (5.72) make quantifiable predictions. Specifically: $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} F = c^2 m_1 m_2 / k_m$, and **both** the gravity and charge forces peak at the quantum length: $r_c = \sqrt{r_c^2} = \sqrt{c t k_t} = \sqrt{c_m k_m} = \sqrt{c_q k_q} \approx 4.0513505432 \cdot 10^{-35} \text{ m}$ (5.39).

- (a) Newton's gravitational constant, G , and Coulomb's constant, k_e , are not valid, where the distance, r , is sufficiently small that the quantum effects becomes measurable.
- (b) Finding solutions to Einstein's field equations becomes more difficult because the covariant components that had the units $1/\text{distance}^2$, will now have the more complex units, $1/\sqrt{(\text{distance}^4/c_m^2) + k_m^2}$, and Einstein's constant (which contains G) is no longer valid, where the distance is sufficiently small that the quantum effects becomes measurable.
- (c) Gravitational time dilation peaks at r_c (no black hole time singularity, no event horizon).
- (d) Black holes have sizes > 0 (no size singularities).
- (e) A finite maximum gravity-charge allows radioactivity, quantum tunneling, and possibly black hole evaporation.

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GEORGE VAN TREECK, 668 WESTLINE DR., ALAMEDA, CA 94501