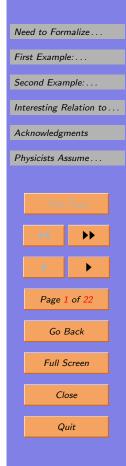
# Equations Without Equations: Challenges on a Way to a More Adequate Formalization of Reasoning in Physics

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#### 1. Need to Formalize Reasoning in Physics

- Fact: in medicine, geophysics, etc., expert systems use automated expert reasoning to help the users.
- *Hope:* similar systems may be helpful in general theoretical physics as well.
- What is needed: describe physicists' reasoning in precise terms.
- Reason: formalize this reasoning inside an automated computer system.
- Formalized part of physicists' reasoning: theories are formulated in terms of PDEs (or ODEs)  $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x)$ .
- Meaning: these equations describe how the corresponding fields (or quantities) x change with time t.



## 2. Mathematician's View of Physics and Its Limitations

- Mathematician's view: we know the initial conditions  $x(t_0)$  at some moment of time  $t_0$ .
- We solve the corresponding Cauchy problem and find the values x(t) for all t.
- Limitation: not all solutions to the equation  $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x)$  are physically meaningful.
- Example 1: when a cup breaks into pieces, the corresponding trajectories of molecules make physical sense.
- Example 2: when we reverse all the velocities, we get pieces assembling themselves into a cup.
- Fact: this is physically impossible.
- Fact: the reverse process satisfies all the original (T-invariant) equations.



#### 3. Physicists' Explanation

- Reminder: not all solutions to the physical equation are physically meaningful.
- Explanation: the "time-reversed" solution is non-physical because its initial conditions are "degenerate".
- Clarification: once we modify the initial conditions even slightly, the pieces will no longer get together.
- Conclusion: not only the equations must be satisfied, but also the initial conditions must be "non-degenerate".
- Two challenges in formalizing this idea:
  - how to formalize "non-degenerate";
  - the separation between equations and initial conditions depends on the way equations are presented.
- First challenge: can be resolved by using Kolmogorov complexity and randomness.



## 4. First Example: Schrödinger's Equation

• Example: Schrödinger's equation

$$\mathrm{i}\hbar\cdot\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\cdot\nabla^2\Psi + V(\vec{r})\cdot\Psi.$$

- In this representation: the potential V is a part of the equation, and  $\Psi(\vec{r}, t_0)$  are initial conditions.
- Transformation:
  - we represent  $V(\vec{r})$  as a function of  $\Psi$  and its derivatives,
  - differentiate the right-hand side by time, and
  - equate the derivative w.r.t. time to 0.
- Result:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\mathrm{i}\hbar}{\Psi} \cdot \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot \frac{\nabla^2 \Psi}{\Psi} \right) = 0.$$



#### 5. First Example (cont-d)

• Reminder:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\mathrm{i}\hbar}{\Psi} \cdot \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot \frac{\nabla^2 \Psi}{\Psi} \right) = 0.$$

- Mathematically: the new equation (2nd order in time) is equivalent to the Schrödinger's equation:
  - every solution of the Schrödinger's equation for any  $V(\vec{r})$  satisfies this new equation, and
  - every solution of the new equation satisfies Schödinger's equation for some  $V(\vec{r})$ .
- Observation: in the new equation, initial conditions, in effect, include  $V(\vec{r})$ .
- Conclusion: "non-degeneracy" ("randomness") condition must now include  $V(\vec{r})$  as well.



## 6. Towards 2nd Example: General Physical Theories

- Traditional description of physical theories: in terms of differential equations.
- Example (17 cent.): Newton's mechanics  $m \cdot \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = F$ .
- Important discovery (18 cent.): most physical theories can be reformulated as  $S \to \min$  for "action" S.
- Example: Newton's mechanics is equivalent to  $S = \int L dt \rightarrow \min$ , where  $L = \frac{1}{2} \cdot m \cdot \dot{x}^2 + V(x)$ .
- For functions  $f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ : minimum when  $f(x + dx) \approx f(x)$ , so  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = 0$  for all i.
- For functions of functions ("functionals"): minimum when  $S(f + \delta f) \approx S(f)$ , so  $\frac{\delta S}{\delta f}(x) = 0$  for all x.



#### 7. Euler-Lagrange Equations

- Reminder: physical theories can be formulated in terms of the minimal action principle  $S \to \min$ .
- Here,  $S = \int L dx$  for a "Lagrange" f-n L that depends on the fields  $\varphi, \ldots$ , and their derivatives  $\varphi_{,i} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\partial \varphi}{\partial x}$ .
- Euler-Lagrange equations: when  $S = \int L dx$ ,

$$\frac{\delta S}{\delta f} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial f_{,i}} \right) = 0.$$

- Comment: we use "Einstein's rule" that repeated indices mean summation: e.g.,  $f_{,i}f_{,i}$  means  $\sum_{i} f_{,i}f_{,i}$ .
- For a single scalar field  $\varphi$ :

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi_{,i}} \right) = 0.$$

Need to Formalize . . .

First Example: . . .

Second Example: . . .

Interesting Relation to . . .

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## 8. Second Example: General Scalar Field

- General scalar theory:  $L = L(\varphi, \varphi_{i})$ .
- 3-D case: it is reasonable to consider rotation-invariant Lagrangian functions L.
- Conclusion: L depends only on the length  $\varphi_{,i}\varphi^{,i}$  of the vector  $\varphi_{,i}$ , not on its orientation.
- 4-D case: L should be invariant w.r.t. Lorentz transformations (4-D "rotations").
- Conclusion:  $L = L(\varphi, a)$ , where  $a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi_{,i} \varphi^{,i}$ .
- Traditional formulation: every Lagrangian is possible, but initial conditions  $\varphi(x, t_0)$  must be non-degenerate.
- Our result: there exists a 3rd order equation such that:

 $\varphi \text{ satisfies this equation} \Leftrightarrow \\ \varphi \text{ satisfies Euler-Lagrange equation for } some \ L.$ 



#### 9. Scalar Field: Proof

- Reminder:  $L = L(\varphi, a)$ , where  $a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi_{,i} \varphi^{,i}$ .
- Euler-Lagrange equations:  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi} \partial_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \varphi_i} = 0.$
- Using chain rule:  $\frac{\partial L(\varphi, a)}{\partial \varphi_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial a} \cdot \frac{\partial a}{\partial \varphi_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial a} \cdot 2\varphi^i$ .
- Conclusion:  $L_{,\varphi} \partial_i (2L_{,a} \cdot \varphi_{,i}) = 0.$
- ullet Using chain rule again, we get

$$L_{,\varphi} - 2L_{,a} \cdot \Box \varphi - 2L_{,a\varphi} \cdot (\varphi_{,i}\varphi^{,i}) - 4L_{,aa} \cdot \varphi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\varphi^{,j} = 0,$$
where  $\Box \varphi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi^{,i}_{,i}$ .

- Conclusion:
  - if at two points, we have the same values of  $\varphi$ ,  $\varphi_{,i}\varphi^{,i}$ , and  $\square \varphi$ ,
  - then we have same values of  $\varphi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\varphi^{,j}$ .

Need to Formalize . . .

First Example: . . .

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#### 10. Scalar Field: Proof (cont-d)

- Reminder: if at two points, we have the same values of  $\varphi$ ,  $a = \varphi_{,i}\varphi^{,i}$ , and  $b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Box \varphi$ , then we have same values of  $c \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\varphi^{,j}$ .
- Particular case: if we have  $dx^k$  for which  $\varphi_{,k} \cdot dx^k = 0$ ,  $a_{,k} \cdot dx^k = 0$ , and  $b_{,k} \cdot dx^k = 0$ , then  $c_{,k} \cdot dx^k = 0$ .
- In geom. terms: if  $dx^k \perp \varphi_{,k}$ ,  $dx^k \perp a_{,k}$ , and  $dx^k \perp b_{,k}$ , then  $dx^k \perp c_{,k}$ .
- Conclusion:  $\varphi_{,k}$ ,  $a_{,k}$ ,  $b_{,k}$ , and  $c_{,k}$  lie in the same 3-plane.
- In algebraic terms: the determinant is 0:

$$\varepsilon_{ijkl} \cdot \varphi_{,i} \cdot a_{,j} \cdot b_{,k} \cdot c_{,l} = 0,$$

where  $\varepsilon_{ijkl} = 0$  if some indices are equal and is  $\pm 1$  else.

• We get a 3-rd order equation; so, we can predict future evolution – w/o knowing L.



#### 11. Scalar Field: Discussion and Conclusions

- Observation: the new "equation" does not contain L at all.
- Fact: a field  $\varphi$  satisfies the new equation  $\Leftrightarrow$  it satisfies the Euler-Lagrange equations for some L.
- Observation:
  - similarly to Wheeler's cosmological "mass without mass" and "charge without charge",
  - we now have "equations without equations".
- Conclusion: when formalizing physical equations:
  - we must not only describe them in a mathematical form,
  - we must also select *one* of the mathematically equivalent forms.



#### 12. Interesting Relation to Dimension of Space-Time

- Reminder: our conclusion is based on the idea that four vectors lie in a 3-D plane.
- Observation: if the dimension of space-time is 3 or smaller, this is always true.
- Conclusion: "equations without equations" are only possible when dimension is  $\geq 4$ .
- Speculation: maybe this explains why our space-time is 4-D?



# 13. Interesting Relation to Dimension of Space-Time (cont-d)

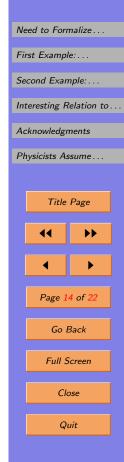
• What about 2 scalar fields  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$ : here, preservation of 10 quantities

$$\varphi, \psi, \varphi_{,i}\varphi^{,i}, \psi_{,i}\psi^{,i}, \varphi_{,i}\psi^{,i}, \varphi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\varphi^{,j}, \varphi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\psi^{,j}, \varphi_{,ij}\psi^{,i}\psi^{,j},$$

$$\psi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\varphi^{,j}, \psi_{,ij}\varphi^{,i}\psi^{,j}, \psi_{,ij}\psi^{,i}\psi^{,j}$$

means that  $\Box \varphi$  and  $\Box \psi$  are the same.

- Conclusion: 11 vectors (gradients of the above quantities) and  $(\Box \varphi)_{,k}$  must be in the same 11-D space.
- Observation: this requirement is always true in spaces of dimension  $\leq 11$ .
- Conclusion: for 2 scalar fields, equations w/o equations are possible in dim  $\geq 12$ .
- Is this physical? yes: consistent quantum field theory is only possible when dim  $\geq 11$ .



#### 14. Acknowledgments

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## 15. Physicists Assume that Initial Conditions and Values of Parameters are Not Abnormal

- To a mathematician, the main contents of a physical theory is its equations.
- Not all solutions of the equations have physical sense.
- Ex. 1: Brownian motion comes in one direction;
- Ex. 2: implosion glues shattered pieces into a statue;
- Ex. 3: fair coin falls heads 100 times in a row.
- *Mathematics:* it is possible.
- *Physics* (and common sense): it is not possible.
- Our objective: supplement probabilities with a new formalism that more accurately captures the physicists' reasoning.



#### 16. A Seemingly Natural Formalizations of This Idea

- *Physicists:* only "not abnormal" situations are possible.
- Natural formalization: idea.
  - If a probability p(E) of an event E is small enough,
  - then this event cannot happen.
- Natural formalization: details. There exists the "smallest possible probability"  $p_0$  such that:
  - if the computed probability p of some event is larger than  $p_0$ , then this event can occur, while
  - if the computed probability p is  $\leq p_0$ , the event cannot occur.
- Example: a fair coin falls heads 100 times with prob.  $2^{-100}$ ; it is impossible if  $p_0 \ge 2^{-100}$ .



# 17. The Above Formalization of the Notion of "Typical" is Not Always Adequate

- *Problem:* every sequence of heads and tails has exactly the same probability.
- Corollary: if we choose  $p_0 \ge 2^{-100}$ , we will thus exclude all sequences of 100 heads and tails.
- However, anyone can toss a coin 100 times.
- This proves that some such sequences are physically possible.
- Similar situation: Kyburg's lottery paradox:
  - in a big (e.g., state-wide) lottery, the probability of winning the Grand Prize is very small;
  - a reasonable person should not expect to win;
  - however, some people do win big prizes.



#### 18. New Idea

- Example: height:
  - if height is  $\geq 6$  ft, it is still normal;
  - if instead of 6 ft, we consider 6 ft 1 in, 6 ft 2 in, etc., then  $\exists h_0$  s.t. everyone taller than  $h_0$  is abnormal;
  - we are not sure what is  $h_0$ , but we are sure such  $h_0$  exists.
- General description: on the universal set U, we have sets  $A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \ldots \supseteq A_n \supseteq \ldots$  s.t.  $\cap A_n = \emptyset$ .
- Example:  $A_1$  = people w/height  $\geq 6$  ft,  $A_2$  = people w/height  $\geq 6$  ft 1 in, etc.
- A set  $T \subseteq U$  is called a set of typical (not abnormal) elements if

 $\forall$  definable sequence of sets  $A_n$  for which  $A_n \supseteq A_{n+1}$  for all n and  $\cap A_n = \emptyset$ ,  $\exists N$  for which  $A_N \cap T = \emptyset$ .



#### 19. Coin Example

- Universal set  $U = \{H, T\}^{\mathbb{N}}$
- Here,  $A_n$  is the set of all the sequences that start with n heads and have at least one tail.
- The sequence  $\{A_n\}$  is decreasing and definable, and its intersection is empty.
- Therefore, for every set T of typical elements of U, there exists an integer N for which  $A_N \cap T = \emptyset$ .
- This means that if a sequence  $s \in T$  is not abnormal and starts with N heads, it must consist of heads only.
- In physical terms: it means that
  - a random sequence (i.e., a sequence that contains both heads and tails) cannot start with N heads.
- This is exactly what we wanted to formalize.



# 20. Possible Practical Use of This Idea: When to Stop an Iterative Algorithm

- Situation in numerical mathematics:
  - we often know an iterative process whose results  $x_k$  are known to converge to the desired solution x,
  - but we do not know when to stop to guarantee that

$$d_X(x_k, x) \leq \varepsilon.$$

- Heuristic approach: stop when  $d_X(x_k, x_{k+1}) \leq \delta$  for some  $\delta > 0$ .
- Example: in physics, if 2nd order terms are small, we use the linear expression as an approximation.



#### 21. Result

- Let  $\{x_k\} \in S$ , k be an integer, and  $\varepsilon > 0$  a real number.
- We say that  $x_k$  is  $\varepsilon$ -accurate if  $d_X(x_k, \lim x_p) \leq \varepsilon$ .
- Let  $d \ge 1$  be an integer.
- By a stopping criterion, we mean a function  $c: X^d \to R_0^+ = \{x \in R \mid x \geq 0\}$  that satisfies the following two properties:
  - If  $\{x_k\} \in S$ , then  $c(x_k, \dots, x_{k+d-1}) \to 0$ .
  - If for some  $\{x_n\} \in S$  and  $k, c(x_k, ..., x_{k+d-1}) = 0$ , then  $x_k = ... = x_{k+d-1} = \lim x_p$ .
- Result: Let c be a stopping criterion. Then, for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that
  - if  $c(x_k, \ldots, x_{k+d-1}) \leq \delta$ , and the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is not abnormal,
  - then  $x_k$  is  $\varepsilon$ -accurate.

Need to Formalize...

First Example:...

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