Dynamics and Renormdynamics

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Talk at the Supersymmetry in Integrable Systems - SIS'14 International Workshop 11 - 13 September 2014

Let us consider a general dynamical system described by the following system of the ordinary differential equations [Arnold, 1978]

$$\dot{x}_n = v_n(x),\ 1 \leq n \leq N, \tag{1}$$

$\dot{x}_n$ stands for the total derivative with respect to the parameter t. When the number of the degrees of freedom is even, and

$$v_n(x) = \varepsilon_{nm}\frac{\partial H_0}{\partial x_m},\ 1 \leq n, m \leq 2M, \tag{2}$$

the system (1) is Hamiltonian one and can be put in the form

$$\dot{x}_n = \{x_n, H_0\}_0, \tag{3}$$

where the Poisson bracket is defined as

$$\{A, B\}_0 = \varepsilon_{nm}\frac{\partial A}{\partial x_n}\frac{\partial B}{\partial x_m} = A\frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial x_n}\varepsilon_{nm}\frac{\overrightarrow{\partial}}{\partial x_m}B, \tag{4}$$

and summation rule under repeated indices has been used.

Let us consider the following Lagrangian

$$L = (\dot{x}_n - v_n(x))\psi_n \tag{5}$$

and the corresponding equations of motion

$$\dot{x}_n = v_n(x), \dot{\psi}_n = -\frac{\partial v_m}{\partial x_n}\psi_m. \tag{6}$$

The system (6) extends the general system (1) by linear equation for the variables ψ. The extended system can be put in the Hamiltonian form [Makhaldiani, Voskresenskaya, 1997]

$$\dot{x}_n = \{x_n, H_1\}_1, \dot{\psi}_n = \{\psi_n, H_1\}_1, \tag{7}$$

where first level (order) Hamiltonian is

$$H_1 = v_n(x)\psi_n \tag{8}$$

and (first level) bracket is defined as

$$\{A, B\}_1 = A(\frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial x_n}\frac{\overrightarrow{\partial}}{\partial \psi_n} - \frac{\overleftarrow{\partial}}{\partial \psi_n}\frac{\overrightarrow{\partial}}{\partial x_n})B. \tag{9}$$

Note that when the Grassmann grading [Berezin, 1987] of the conjugated variables x_n and ψ_n are different, the bracket (9) is known as Buttin bracket[Buttin, 1996].
In the Faddeev-Jackiw formalism [Faddeev, Jackiw, 1988] for the Hamiltonian treatment of systems defined by first-order Lagrangians, i.e. by a Lagrangian of the form

$$L = f_n(x)\dot{x}_n - H(x), \tag{10}$$

motion equations

$$f_{mn}\dot{x}_n = \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_m}, \tag{11}$$

for the regular structure function f_{mn}, can be put in the explicit hamiltonian (Poisson; Dirac) form

$$\dot{x}_n = f_{nm}^{-1}\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_m} = \{x_n, x_m\}\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_m} = \{x_n, H\}, \tag{12}$$

where the fundamental Poisson (Dirac) bracket is

$$\{x_n, x_m\} = f_{nm}^{-1}, \; f_{mn} = \partial_m f_n - \partial_n f_m. \tag{13}$$

The system (6) is an important example of the first order regular hamiltonian systems. Indeed, in the new variables,

$$y_n^1 = x_n, y_n^2 = \psi_n, \tag{14}$$

lagrangian (5) takes the following first order form

$$\begin{aligned} L &= (\dot{x}_n - v_n(x))\psi_n \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(\dot{x}_n\psi_n - \dot{\psi}_n x_n) - v_n(x)\psi_n \\ &= \frac{1}{2}y_n^a\varepsilon^{ab}\dot{y}_n^b - H(y) \\ &= f_n^a(y)\dot{y}_n^a - H(y), f_n^a = \frac{1}{2}y_n^b\varepsilon^{ba}, H = v_n(y^1)y_n^2, \\ f_{nm}^{ab} &= \frac{\partial f_m^b}{\partial y_n^a} - \frac{\partial f_n^a}{\partial y_m^b} = \varepsilon^{ab}\delta_{nm}; \end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

corresponding motion equations and the fundamental Poisson bracket are

$$\dot{y}_n^a = \varepsilon_{ab}\delta_{nm}\frac{\partial H}{\partial y_m^b} = \{y_n^a, H\}, \{y_n^a, y_m^b\} = \varepsilon_{ab}\delta_{nm}. \tag{16}$$

To the canonical quantization of this system corresponds

$$[\hat{y}_n^a, \hat{y}_m^b] = i\hbar\varepsilon_{ab}\delta_{nm},\ \hat{y}_n^1 = y_n^1,\ \hat{y}_n^2 = -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial y_n^1} \tag{17}$$

In this quantum theory, classical part, motion equations for y_n^1, remain classical.

Nabu – Babylonian God
of Wisdom and Writing.

The Hamiltonian mechanics (HM) is in the fundamentals of mathematical description of the physical theories [Faddeev, Takhtajan, 1990]. But HM is in a sense blind; e.g., it does not make a difference between two opposites: the ergodic Hamiltonian systems (with just one integral of motion) [Sinai, 1993] and (super)integrable Hamiltonian systems (with maximal number of the integrals of motion).
Nabu mechanics (NM) [Nambu, 1973, Whittaker, 1927] is a proper generalization of the HM, which makes the difference between dynamical systems with different numbers of integrals of motion explicit (see, e.g.[Makhaldiani, 2007]).

In the canonical formulation, the equations of motion of a physical system are defined via a Poisson bracket and a Hamiltonian, [Arnold, 1978]. In Nambu's formulation, the Poisson bracket is replaced by the Nambu bracket with $n+1, n \geq 1$, slots. For $n = 1$, we have the canonical formalism with one Hamiltonian. For $n \geq 2$, we have Nambu-Poisson formalism, with n Hamiltonians, [Nambu, 1973], [Whittaker, 1927].

The system of N vortexes can be described by the following system of differential equations, [Aref, 1983, Meleshko,Konstantinov, 1993]

$$\dot{z}_n = i \sum_{m \neq n}^{N} \frac{\gamma_m}{z_n^* - z_m^*}, \quad 1 \leq n \leq N, \tag{18}$$

where $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ are complex coordinate of the centre of n-th vortex, for $N = 3$, and the quantities

$$\begin{aligned} u_1 &= ln|z_2 - z_3|^2, \\ u_2 &= ln|z_3 - z_1|^2, \\ u_3 &= ln|z_1 - z_2|^2 \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

reduce to the following system

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{u}_1 &= \gamma_1(e^{u_2} - e^{u_3}), \\ \dot{u}_2 &= \gamma_2(e^{u_3} - e^{u_1}), \\ \dot{u}_3 &= \gamma_3(e^{u_1} - e^{u_2}), \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

The system (20) has two integrals of motion

$$H_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{e^{u_i}}{\gamma_i}, H_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{3} \frac{u_i}{\gamma_i}$$

and can be presented in the Nambu–Poisson form, [Makhaldiani, 1997,2]

$$\dot{u}_i = \omega_{ijk} \frac{\partial H_1}{\partial u_j} \frac{\partial H_2}{\partial u_k} = \{x_i, H_1, H_2\} = \omega_{ijk} \frac{e^{u_j}}{\gamma_j} \frac{1}{\gamma_k},$$

where

$$\omega_{ijk} = \epsilon_{ijk} \rho, \rho = \gamma_1 \gamma_2 \gamma_3$$

and the Nambu–Poisson bracket of the functions A, B, C on the three-dimensional phase space is

$$\{A, B, C\} = \omega_{ijk} \frac{\partial A}{\partial u_i} \frac{\partial B}{\partial u_j} \frac{\partial C}{\partial u_k}. \quad (21)$$

This system is superintegrable: for $N = 3$ degrees of freedom, we have maximal number of the integrals of motion $N - 1 = 2$.

As an example of the infinite dimensional Nambu-Poisson dynamics, let me conside the following extension of Schrödinger quantum mechanics [Makhaldiani, 2000]

$$iV_t = \Delta V - \frac{V^2}{2}, \quad (22)$$

$$i\psi_t = -\Delta\psi + V\psi. \quad (23)$$

An interesting solution to the equation for the potential (22) is

$$V = \frac{4(4-d)}{r^2}, \quad (24)$$

where d is the dimension of the spase. In the case of $d = 1$, we have the potential of conformal quantum mechanics.
The variational formulation of the extended quantum theory, is given by the following Lagrangian

$$L = (iV_t - \Delta V + \frac{1}{2}V^2)\psi. \quad (25)$$

The momentum variables are

$$P_v = \frac{\partial L}{\partial V_t} = i\psi, P_\psi = 0. \tag{26}$$

As Hamiltonians of the Nambu-theoretic formulation, we take the following integrals of motion

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 &= \int d^d x(\Delta V - \frac{1}{2}V^2)\psi, \\ H_2 &= \int d^d x(P_v - i\psi), \\ H_3 &= \int d^d x P_\psi. \end{aligned} \tag{27}$$

We invent unifying vector notation, $\phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4) = (\psi, P_\psi, V, P_v)$. Then it may be verified that the equations of the extended quantum theory can be put in the following Nambu-theoretic form

$$\phi_t(x) = \{\phi(x), H_1, H_2, H_3\}, \tag{28}$$

where the bracket is defined as

$$\{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4\} = i\varepsilon_{ijkl} \int \frac{\delta A_1}{\delta \phi_i(y)} \frac{\delta A_2}{\delta \phi_j(y)} \frac{\delta A_3}{\delta \phi_k(y)} \frac{\delta A_4}{\delta \phi_l(y)} dy$$
$$= i \int \frac{\delta(A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4)}{\delta(\phi_1(y), \phi_2(y), \phi_3(y), \phi_4(y))} dy = idet(\frac{\delta A_k}{\delta \phi_l}). \quad (29)$$

The basic building blocks of M theory are membranes and $M5-$branes. Membranes are fundamental objects carrying electric charges with respect to the 3-form C-field, and $M5$-branes are magnetic solitons. The Nambu-Poisson 3-algebras appear as gauge symmetries of superconformal Chern-Simons nonabelian theories in $2+1$ dimensions with the maximum allowed number of $N=8$ linear supersymmetries.
The Bagger and Lambert [Bagger, Lambert, 2007] and, Gustavsson [Gustavsson, 2007] (BLG) model is based on a 3-algebra,

$$[T^a, T^b, T^c] = f_d^{abc} T^d \tag{30}$$

where T^a, are generators and f_{abcd} is a fully anti-symmetric tensor.

Given this algebra, a maximally supersymmetric Chern-Simons lagrangian is:

$$L = L_{CS} + L_{matter},$$
$$L_{CS} = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon^{\mu\nu\lambda}(f_{abcd}A_\mu^{ab}\partial_\nu A_\lambda^{cd} + \frac{2}{3}f_{cdag}f^g_{efb}A_\mu^{ab}A_\nu^{cd}A_\lambda^{ef}), \quad (31)$$

$$L_{matter} = \frac{1}{2}B_\mu^{Ia}B_a^{\mu I} - B_\mu^{Ia}D^\mu X_a^I$$
$$+\frac{i}{2}\bar{\psi}^a\Gamma^\mu D_\mu\psi_a + \frac{i}{4}\bar{\psi}^b\Gamma_{IJ}x_c^I x_d^J\psi_a f^{abcd}$$
$$-\frac{1}{12}tr([X^I, X^J, X^K][X^I, X^J, X^K]),\ I = 1, 2, ..., 8, \quad (32)$$

where A_μ^{ab} is gauge boson, ψ^a and $X^I = X_a^I T^a$ matter fields. If $a = 1, 2, 3, 4$, then we can obtain an $SO(4)$ gauge symmetry by choosing $f_{abcd} = f\varepsilon_{abcd}, f$ being a constant. It turns out to be the only case that gives a gauge theory with manifest unitarity and $N = 8$ supersymmetry.

The action has the first order form so we can use the formalism of the first section. The motion equations for the gauge fields

$$f^{nm}_{abcd}\dot{A}^{cd}_{m}(t,x) = \frac{\delta H}{\delta A^{ab}_{n}(t,x)}, f^{nm}_{abcd} = \varepsilon^{nm} f_{abcd} \tag{33}$$

take canonical form

$$\dot{A}^{ab}_{n} = f^{abcd}_{nm}\frac{\delta H}{\delta A^{cd}_{m}} = \{A^{ab}_{n}, A^{cd}_{m}\}\frac{\delta H}{\delta A^{cd}_{m}} = \{A^{ab}_{n}, H\},$$
$$\{A^{ab}_{n}(t,x), A^{cd}_{m}(t,y)\} = \varepsilon_{nm} f^{abcd}\delta^{(2)}(x-y) \tag{34}$$

The quasi-classical description of the motion of a relativistic (nonradiating) point particle with spin in accelerators and storage rings includes the equations of orbit motion

$$\begin{aligned} &\dot{x}_n = f_n(x),\ f_n(x) = \varepsilon_{nm}\partial_m H,\ n, m = 1, 2, ..., 6; \\ &x_n = q_n,\ x_{n+3} = p_n,\ \varepsilon_{n,n+3} = 1,\ n = 1, 2, 3; \\ &H = e\Phi + c\sqrt{\wp^2 + m^2c^2},\ \wp_n = p_n - \frac{e}{c}A_n \end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

and Thomas-BMT equations
[Tomas, 1927, Bargmann, Michel,Telegdi, 1959] of classical spin motion

$$\begin{aligned} &\dot{s}_n = \varepsilon_{nmk}\Omega_m s_k = \{H_1, H_2, s_n\},\ H_1 = \Omega \cdot s,\ H_2 = s^2, \\ &\{A, B, C\} = \varepsilon_{nmk}\partial_n A\partial_m B\partial_k C, \end{aligned} \tag{36}$$

$$\Omega_n = \frac{-e}{m\gamma c}((1+k\gamma)B_n - k\frac{(B\cdot\wp)\wp_n}{m^2c^2(1+\gamma)} + \frac{1+k(1+\gamma)}{mc(1+\gamma)}\varepsilon_{nmk}E_m\wp_k) \quad (37)$$

where, parameters e and m are the charge and the rest mass of the particle, c is the velocity of light, $k=(g-2)/2$ quantifies the anomalous spin g factor, γ is the Lorentz factor, p_n are components of the kinetic momentum vector, E_n and B_n are the electric and magnetic fields, and A_n and Φ are the vector and scalar potentials;

$$B_n = \varepsilon_{nmk}\partial_m A_k,\ \ E_n = -\partial_n\Phi - \frac{1}{c}\dot{A}_n,$$
$$\gamma = \frac{H-e\Phi}{mc^2} = \sqrt{1+\frac{\wp^2}{m^2c^2}} \quad (38)$$

The spin motion equations we put in the Nambu-Poisson form. Hamiltonization of this dynamical system according to the general approach of the previous sections we will put in the ground of the optimal control theory of the accelerator.

The general method of Hamiltonization of the dynamical systems we can use also in the spinning particle case. Let us invent unified configuration space $q = (x, p, s),\ x_n = q_n,\ p_n = q_{n+3},\ s_n = q_{n+6},\ n = 1, 2, 3$; extended phase space, (q_n, ψ_n) and hamiltonian

$$H = H(q, \psi) = v_n \psi_n,\ n = 1, 2, ...9; \tag{39}$$

motion equations

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{q}_n &= v_n(q), \\ \dot{\psi}_n &= -\frac{\partial v_m}{\partial q_n} \psi_m \end{aligned} \tag{40}$$

where the velocities v_n depends on external fields as in previous section as control parameters which can be determined according to the optimal control criterium.

EDM are one of the keys to understand the origin of our Universe [Sakharov, 1997]. Andrei Sakharov formulated three conditions for baryogenesis:
1. Early in the evolution of the universe, the baryon number conservation must be violated sufficiently strongly,
2. The C and CP invariances, and T invariance thereof, must be violated, and
3. At the moment when the baryon number is generated, the evolution of the universe must be out of thermal equilibrium.
CP violation in kaon decays is known since 1964, it has been observed in B-decays and charmed meson decays. The Standard Model (SM) accommodates CP violation via the phase in the Cabibbo-Kobayashi-Maskawa matrix.
CP and P violation entail nonvanishing P and T violating electric dipole moments (EDM) of elementary particles $\vec{d} = d\vec{s}$.

Although extremely successful in many aspects, the SM has at least two weaknesses: neutrino oscillations do require extensions of the SM and, most importantly, the SM mechanisms fail miserably in the expected baryogenesis rate.
Simultaneously, the SM predicts an exceedingly small electric dipole moment of nucleons $10^{-33} < d_n < 10^{-31} e \cdot cm$, way below the current upper bound for the neutron EDM, $d_n < 2.9 \times 10^{-26} e \cdot cm$. In the quest for physics beyond the SM one could follow either the high energy trail or look into new methods which offer very high precision and sensitivity.
Supersymmetry is one of the most attractive extensions of the SM and S. Weinberg emphasized [Weinberg, 1993]: "Endemic in supersymmetric (SUSY) theories are CP violations that go beyond the SM. For this reason it may be that the next exciting thing to come along will be the discovery of a neutron electric dipole moment."

The SUSY predictions span typically $10^{-29} < d_n < 10^{-24} e \cdot cm$ and precisely this range is targeted in the new generation of EDM searches [Roberts, Marciano, 2010]. There is consensus among theorists that measuring the EDM of the proton, deuteron and helion is as important as that of the neutron. Furthermore, it has been argued that T-violating nuclear forces could substantially enhance nuclear EDM [Flambaum, Khriplovich, Sushkov, 1986]. At the moment, there are no significant direct upper bounds available on d_p or d_d. Non-vanishing EDMs give rise to the precession of the spin of a particle in an electric field. In the rest frame of a particle

$$\dot{s}_n = \varepsilon_{nmk}(\Omega_m s_k + d_m E_k),\ \Omega_m = -\mu B_m, \quad (41)$$

where in terms of the lab frame fields

$$\begin{aligned} B_n &= \gamma(B_n^l - \varepsilon_{nmk}\beta_m E_k^l), \\ E_n &= \gamma(E_n^l + \varepsilon_{nmk}\beta_m B_k^l) \end{aligned} \quad (42)$$

Now we can apply the Hamiltonization and optimal control theory methods to this dynamical system.

Note that the procedure of reduction of the higher order dynamical system, e.g. second order Euler-Lagrange motion equations, to the first order dynamical systems, in the case to the Hamiltonian motion equations, can be continued using fractal calculus. E.g. first order system can be reduced to the half order one,

$$\begin{aligned} &D^{1/2}q = \psi, \\ &D^{1/2}\psi = p \Leftrightarrow \dot{q} = p. \end{aligned} \tag{43}$$

Computers are physical devices and their behavior is determined by physical laws. The Quantum Computations [Benenti, Casati, Strini, 2004 , Nielsen, Chuang, 2000], Quantum Computing, Quanputing [Makhaldiani, 2007.2], is a new interdisciplinary field of research, which benefits from the contributions of physicists, computer scientists, mathematicians, chemists and engineers. Contemporary digital computer and its logical elements can be considered as a spatial type of discrete dynamical systems [Makhaldiani, 2001]

$$S_n(k+1) = \Phi_n(S(k)), \tag{44}$$

where

$$S_n(k), \quad 1 \leq n \leq N(k), \tag{45}$$

is the state vector of the system at the discrete time step k. Vector S may describe the state and Φ transition rule of some Cellular Automata [Toffoli, Margolus, 1987].The systems of the type (44) appears in applied mathematics as an explicit finite difference scheme approximation of the equations of the physics [Samarskii, Gulin, 1989].

Definition: *We assume that the system (44) is time-reversible if we can define the reverse dynamical system*

$$S_n(k) = \Phi_n^{-1}(S(k+1)). \tag{46}$$

In this case the following matrix

$$M_{nm} = \frac{\partial \Phi_n(S(k))}{\partial S_m(k)}, \tag{47}$$

is regular, i.e. has an inverse. If the matrix is not regular, this is the case, for example, when $N(k+1) \neq N(k)$, we have an irreversible dynamical system (usual digital computers and/or corresponding irreversible gates).

Let us consider an extension of the dynamical system (44) given by the following action function

$$A = \sum_{kn} l_n(k)(S_n(k+1) - \Phi_n(S(k))) \tag{48}$$

and corresponding motion equations

$$\begin{aligned} S_n(k+1) &= \Phi_n(S(k)) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial l_n(k)}, \\ l_n(k-1) &= l_m(k)\frac{\partial \Phi_m(S(k))}{\partial S_n(k)} = l_m(k)M_{mn}(S(k)) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial S_n(k)}, \end{aligned} \tag{49}$$

where

$$H = \sum_{kn} l_n(k)\Phi_n(S(k)), \tag{50}$$

is discrete Hamiltonian. In the regular case, we put the system (49) in an explicit form

$$\begin{aligned} S_n(k+1) &= \Phi_n(S(k)), \\ l_n(k+1) &= l_m(k)M^{-1}_{mn}(S(k+1)). \end{aligned} \tag{51}$$

From this system it is obvious that, when the initial value $l_n(k_0)$ is given, the evolution of the vector $l(k)$ is defined by evolution of the state vector $S(k)$. The equation of motion for $l_n(k)$ - Elenka is linear and has an important property that a linear superpositions of the solutions are also solutions.

Statement: *Any time-reversible dynamical system (e.g. a time-reversible computer) can be extended by corresponding linear dynamical system (quantum - like processor) which is controlled by the dynamical system and has a huge computational power,*
[Makhaldiani, 2001, Makhaldiani, 2002, Makhaldiani, 2007.2, Makhaldiani, 2011.2].

For motion equations (49) in the continual approximation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
&S_n(k+1) = x_n(t_k+\tau) = x_n(t_k) + \dot{x}_n(t_k)\tau + O(\tau^2),\\
&\dot{x}_n(t_k) = v_n(x(t_k)) + O(\tau), \quad t_k = k\tau,\\
&v_n(x(t_k)) = (\Phi_n(x(t_k)) - x_n(t_k))/\tau;\\
&M_{mn}(x(t_k)) = \delta_{mn} + \tau\frac{\partial v_m(x(t_k))}{\partial x_n(t_k)}.
\end{aligned}
\tag{52}
$$

(de)Coherence criterion: *the system is reversible, the linear (quantum, coherent, soul) subsystem exists, when the matrix M is regular,*

$$
detM = 1 + \tau\sum_n \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial x_n} + O(\tau^2) \neq 0. \tag{53}
$$

For the Nambu - Poisson dynamical systems (see e.g. [Makhaldiani, 2007])

$$
\begin{aligned}
&v_n(x) = \varepsilon_{nm_1m_2...m_p}\frac{\partial H_1}{\partial x_{m_1}}\frac{\partial H_2}{\partial x_{m_2}}...\frac{\partial H_p}{\partial x_{m_p}}, \quad p = 1,2,3,...,N-1,\\
&\sum_n \frac{\partial v_n}{\partial x_n} \equiv divv = 0.
\end{aligned}
\tag{54}
$$

Let me motivate an idea of construction of the reversible dynamical systems by simple example from field theory. There are renormalizable models of scalar field theory of the form (see, e.g. [Makhaldiani, 1980])

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(\partial_\mu \varphi \partial^\mu \varphi - m^2\varphi^2) - g\varphi^n, \quad (55)$$

with the constraint

$$n = \frac{2d}{d-2}\ , \quad (56)$$

where d is dimension of the space-time and n is degree of nonlinearity. It is interesting that if we define d as a function of n, we find

$$d = \frac{2n}{n-2} \quad (57)$$

the same function !
Thing is that, the constraint can be put in the symmetric implicit form [Makhaldiani, 1980]

$$\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{d} = \frac{1}{2} \quad (58)$$

Generalization of the idea

Now it is natural to consider the following symmetric function

$$f(y) + f(x) = c \tag{59}$$

and define its solution

$$y = f^{-1}(c - f(x)). \tag{60}$$

This is the general method, that we will use in the following construction of the reversible dynamical systems. In the simplest case,

$$f(x) = x, \tag{61}$$

we take

$$y = S(k+1), \quad x = S(k-1), \quad c = \tilde{\Phi}(S(k)) \tag{62}$$

and define our reversible dynamical system from the following symmetric, implicit form (see also [Toffoli, Margolus, 1987])

$$S(k+1) + S(k-1) = \tilde{\Phi}(S(k)), \tag{63}$$

explicit form of which is

$$\begin{aligned} S(k+1) &= \Phi(S(k), S(k-1)) \\ &= \tilde{\Phi}(S(k)) - S(k-1). \end{aligned} \tag{64}$$

This dynamical system defines given state vector by previous two state vectors. We have reversible dynamical system on the time lattice with time steps of two units,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&S(k+2,2) = \Phi(S(k,2)),\\
&S(k+2,2) \equiv (S(k+2), S(k+1)),\\
&S(k,2) \equiv (S(k), S(k-1))).
\end{aligned}
\tag{65}
$$

Starting from a general discrete dynamical system, we obtained reversible dynamical system with internal(spin,bit) degrees of freedom

$$\begin{aligned} S_{ns}(k+2) &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} S_n(k+2) \\ S_n(k+1) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Phi_n(\Phi(S(k)) - S(k-1)) - S(k)) \\ \Phi_n(S(k)) - S_n(k-1) \end{pmatrix} \\ &\equiv \Phi_{ns}(S(k)), \quad s = 1,2 \end{aligned} \tag{66}$$

where

$$S(k) \equiv (S_{ns}(k)), \quad S_{n1}(k) \equiv S_n(k), \quad S_{n2}(k) \equiv S_n(k-1) \tag{67}$$

For the extended system we have the following action

$$A = \sum_{kns} l_{ns}(k)(S_{ns}(k+2) - \Phi_{ns}(S(k))) \tag{68}$$

and corresponding motion equations

$$\begin{aligned} S_{ns}(k+2) &= \Phi_{ns}(S(k)) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial l_{ns}(k)}, \\ l_{ns}(k-2) &= l_{mt}(k)\frac{\partial \Phi_{mt}(S(k))}{\partial S_{ns}(k)} \\ &= l_{mt}(k) M_{mtns}(S(k)) = \frac{\partial H}{\partial S_{ns}(k)}, \end{aligned} \tag{69}$$

By construction, we have the following reversible dynamical system

$$\begin{aligned} S_{ns}(k+2) &= \Phi_{ns}(S(k)), \\ l_{ns}(k+2) &= l_{mt}(k) M^{-1}_{mtns}(S(k+2)), \end{aligned} \tag{70}$$

with classical S_{ns} and quantum l_{ns}(in the external, background S) string bit dynamics.

We can also consider p-point generalization of the previous structure,

$$\begin{aligned}
& f_p(S(k+p)) + f_{p-1}(S(k+p-1)) + ... + f_1(S(k+1)) \\
& + f_1(S(k-1)) + ... + f_p(S(k-p)) = \tilde{\Phi}(S(k)), \\
& S(k+p) = \Phi(S(k), S(k+p-1), ..., S(k-p)) \\
& \equiv f_p^{-1}(\tilde{\Phi}(S(k)) - f_{p-1}(S(k+p-1)) - ... - f_p(S(k-p)))
\end{aligned} \tag{71}$$

and corresponding reversible p-oint cluster dynamical system

$$\begin{aligned}
& S(k+p,p) \equiv \Phi(S(k,p)), \\
& S(k+p,p) \equiv (S(k+p), S(k+p-1), ..., S(k+1)), \\
& S(k,p) \equiv (S(k), S(k-1), ..., S(k-p+1)), \quad S(k,1) = S(k).
\end{aligned} \tag{72}$$

So we have general method of construction of the reversible dynamical systems on the time (tame) scale p. The method of linear extension of the reversible dynamical systems (see [Makhaldiani, 2001] and previous section) defines corresponding Quanputers,

$$\begin{aligned}
& S_{ns}(k+p) = \Phi_{ns}(S(k)), \\
& l_{ns}(k+p) = l_{mt}(k) M_{mtns}^{-1}(S(k+p)),
\end{aligned} \tag{73}$$

p-point cluster and higher spin states reversible dynamics, or pit string dynamics

This case the quantum state function $l_{ns},\ s = 1, 2, ...p$ will describes the state with spin $(p-1)/2$.
Note that, in this formalism for reversible dynamics minimal value of the spin is $1/2$. There is not a place for a scalar dynamics, or the scalar dynamics is not reversible. In the Standard model (SM) of particle physics, [Beringer et al, 2012], all of the fundamental particles, leptons, quarks and gauge bosons have spin. Only scalar particles of the SM are the Higgs bosons. Perhaps the scalar particles are composed systems or quasiparticles like phonon, or Higgs dynamics is not reversible (a mechanism for 'time arrow').

The $NP \stackrel{?}{=} P$ problem will be solved if for some $NP-$ complete problem, e.g. TSP, a polynomial algorithm find; or show that there is not such an algorithm; or show that it is impossible to find definite answer to that question.
TSP means to find minimal length path between N fixed points on a surface, which attends any point ones. We consider a system where N points with quenched positions $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$ are independently distributed on a finite domain D with a probability density function $p(x)$. In general, the domain D is multidimensional and the points x_n are vectors in the corresponding Euclidean space. Inside the domain D we consider a polymer chain composed of N monomers whose positions are denoted by $y_1, y_2, ..., y_N$. Each monomer y_n is attached to one of the quenched sites x_m and only one monomer can be attached to each site. The state of the polymer is described by a permutation $\sigma \in \Sigma_N$ where Σ_N is the group of permutations of N objecs.

The Hamiltonian for the system is given by

$$H = \sum_{n=1}^{N} V(|y_n - y_{n-1}|) \tag{74}$$

Here V is the interaction between neighboring monomers on the polymer chain. For convenience the chain is taken to be closed, thus we take the periodic boundary condition $x_0 = x_N$. A physical realization of this system is one where the x_n are impurities where the monomers of a polymer loop are pinned. In combinatorial optimization, if one takes $V(x)$ to be the norm, or distance, of the vector x then $H(\sigma)$ is the total distance covered by a path which visits each site x_n exactly once. The problem of finding σ_0 which minimizes $H(\sigma)$ is known as the traveling salesman problem (TSP) [Gutin, Pannen, 2002].

In field theory language to the TSP we correspond the calculation of the following correlator

$$
\begin{aligned}
&G_{2N}(x_1, x_2, ..., x_N) = Z_0^{-1} \int d\varphi(x)\varphi^2(x_1)\varphi^2(x_2)...\varphi^2(x_N)e^{-S(\varphi)} \\
&= \frac{\delta^{2N} F(J)}{\delta J(x_1)^2 ... \delta J(x_N)^2}, \ F(J) = \ln Z(J), \\
&Z(J) = \int d\varphi e^{-\frac{1}{2}\varphi \cdot A \cdot \varphi + J \cdot \varphi} = e^{\frac{1}{2} J \cdot A^{-1} \cdot J}, \ A^{-1}(x, y; m) = e^{-m|x-y|}, \\
&L_{min}(x_1, ..., x_N) = -\frac{d}{dm} \ln G_{2Ns} + O(e^{-am}) \\
&< A^{-1} > \equiv \frac{1}{\Gamma(s)} \int_0^\infty dm m^{s-1} A^{-1}(x, y; m) = \frac{1}{|x-y|^s} \\
&= L_s A^{-1}(x-y; s) \\
&k(d)\Delta_d L_s A^{-1}(x; s) = \delta^d(x) \Rightarrow A(x; s) = k(d)\Delta_d L_s, \\
&s = d-2; \varphi = \varphi(x, m).
\end{aligned}
\tag{75}
$$

If we take relativistic massive scalar field, then $A = \Delta_d + m^2$,

$$A^{-1}(x) \sim |x|^{2-d} e^{-m|x|}, \tag{76}$$

and for $d = 2$, we also have the needed behaviour. Note that G_{2N} is symmetric with respect to its arguments and contains any paths including minimal length one.

Quantum field theory (QFT) and Fractal calculus (FC) provide Universal language of fundamental physics (see e.g. [Makhaldiani, 2011]). In QFT existence of a given theory means, that we can control its behavior at some scales (short or large distances) by renormalization theory [Collins, 1984]. If the theory exists, than we want to solve it, which means to determine what happens on other (large or short) scales. This is the problem (and content) of Renormdynamics. The result of the Renormdynamics, the solution of its discrete or continual motion equations, is the effective QFT on a given scale (different from the initial one).

Perturbation theory series (PTS) have the following qualitative form

$$f(g) = f_0 + f_1 g + ... + f_n g^n + ..., \; f_n = n!P(n)$$
$$f(x) = \sum_{n\geq 0} P(n)n!x^n = P(\delta)\Gamma(1+\delta)\frac{1}{1-x}, \; \delta = x\frac{d}{dx} \quad (77)$$

So, we reduce previous series to the standard geometric progression series. This series is convergent for $|x| < 1$ or for $|x|_p = p^{-k} < 1, \; x = p^k a/b, \; k \geq 1$. With proper nomalization of the expansion parametre, the coefficients of the series are rational numbers and if experimental data indicates for some prime value for g, e.g. in QED

$$g = \frac{e^2}{4\pi} = \frac{1}{137.0...} \quad (78)$$

then we can take corresponding prime number and consider p-adic convergence of the series. In the case of QED, we have

$$f(g) = \sum f_n p^{-n}, \; f_n = n!P(n), \; p = 137, \; |f|_p \leq \sum |f_n|_p p^n \quad (79)$$

In the Yukawa theory of strong interactions (see e.g. [Bogoliubov, Shirkov, 1959]), we take $g = 13$,

$$f(g) = \sum f_n p^n,\ f_n = n!P(n),\ p = 13,$$
$$|f|_p \le \sum |f_n|_p p^{-n} < \frac{1}{1-p^{-1}} \tag{80}$$

So, the series is convergent. If the limit is rational number, we consider it as an observable value of the corresponding physical quantity.
In $MSSM$ (see [Kazakov, 2004]) coupling constants unifies at $\alpha_u^{-1} = 26.3 \pm 1.9 \pm 1$. So,

$$23.4 < \alpha_u^{-1} < 29.2 \tag{81}$$

Question: how many primes are in this interval?

$$24,\ 25,\ 26,\ 27,\ 28,\ 29 \tag{82}$$

Only one!
Proposal: take the value $\alpha_u^{-1} = 29.0...$ which will be two orders of magnitude more precise prediction and find the consequences for the SM scale observables.

Let us make more explicit the formal representation of (77)

$$f(x) = \sum_{n\geq 0} P(n)n!x^n = P(\delta)\Gamma(1+\delta)\frac{1}{1-x},$$
$$= P(\delta)\int_0^\infty dte^{-t}t^\delta\frac{1}{1-x} = P(\delta)\int_0^\infty dt\frac{e^{-t}}{1+(-x)t},\ \delta = x\frac{d}{dx} \quad (83)$$

This integral is well defined for negative values of x. The Mathematica answer for the corresponding integral is

$$I(x) = \int_0^\infty dt\frac{e^{-t}}{1+xt} = e^{1/x}\Gamma(0,1/x)/x,\ Im(x)\neq 0,\ Re(x)\geq 0, \quad (84)$$

where $\Gamma(a,z)$ is the incomplete gamma function

$$\Gamma(a,z) = \int_z^\infty dtt^{a-1}e^{-t} \quad (85)$$

For $x = 0.001,\ I(x) = 0.999$

The Goldberger-Treiman relation (GTR) [Goldberger, Treiman, 1958] plays an important role in theoretical hadronic and nuclear physics. GTR relates the Meson-Nucleon coupling constants to the axial-vector coupling constant in β-decay:

$$g_{\pi N} f_\pi = g_A m_N \tag{86}$$

where m_N is the nucleon mass, g_A is the axial-vector coupling constant in nucleon β-decay at vanishing momentum transfer, f_π is the π decay constant and $g_{\pi N}$ is the $\pi - N$ coupling constant.
Since the days when the Goldberger-Treiman relation was discovered, the value of g_A has increased considerably. Also, f_π decreased a little, on account of radiative corrections. The main source of uncertainty is $g_{\pi N}$.

If we take

$$\alpha_{\pi N} = \frac{g_{\pi N}^2}{4\pi} = 13 \Rightarrow g_{\pi N} = 12.78 \tag{87}$$

the proton mass $m_p = 938MeV$ and $f_\pi = 93MeV$, from (86), we find

$$g_A = \frac{f_\pi g_{\pi N}}{m_N} = \frac{93 \times \sqrt{52\pi}}{938} = 1.2672 \tag{88}$$

which is in agreement with contemporary experimental value
$g_A = 1.2695(29)$
In an old version of the unified theory [Heisenberg 1966], for the $\alpha_{\pi N}$ the following value were found

$$\alpha_{\pi N} = 4\pi(1 - \frac{m_\pi^2}{3m_p^2}) = 12.5 \tag{89}$$

Determination of $g_{\pi N}$ from $NN, N\bar{N}$ and πN data by the Nijmegen group [Rentmeester et al, 1999] gave the following value

$$g_{\pi N} = 13.05 \pm .08,\ \Delta = 1 - \frac{g_A m_N}{g_{\pi N} f_\pi} = .014 \pm .009,$$
$$13.39 < \alpha_{\pi N} < 13.72 \qquad (90)$$

This value is consistent with assumption $g_{\pi N} = 13 \Rightarrow \alpha_{\pi N} = 13.45$
Due to the smallness of the u and d quark masses, Δ is necessarily very small, and its determination requires a very precise knowledge of the $g_{\pi N}$ coupling (g_A and f_π are already known to enough precision, leaving most of the uncertainty in the determination of Δ to the uncertainty in $g_{\pi N}$).

QCD is the theory of the strong interactions with, as only inputs, one mass parameter for each quark species and the value of the QCD coupling constant at some energy or momentum scale in some renormalization scheme. This last free parameter of the theory can be fixed by Λ_{QCD}, the energy scale used as the typical boundary condition for the integration of the Renormdynamic (RD) equation for the strong coupling constant. This is the parameter which expresses the scale of strong interactions, the only parameter in the limit of massless quarks. While the evolution of the coupling with the momentum scale is determined by the quantum corrections induced by the renormalization of the bare coupling and can be computed in perturbation theory, the strength itself of the interaction, given at any scale by the value of the renormalized coupling at this scale, or equivalently by Λ_{QCD}, is one of the above mentioned parameters of the theory and has to be taken from experiment.

The RD equations play an important role in our understanding of Quantum Chromodynamics and the strong interactions. The beta function and the quarks mass anomalous dimension are among the most prominent objects for QCD RD equations. The calculation of the one-loop β-function in QCD has lead to the discovery of asymptotic freedom in this model and to the establishment of QCD as the theory of strong interactions
['t Hooft, 1972, Gross, Wilczek, 1973, Politzer, 1973].
The MS-scheme [1] belongs to the class of massless schemes where the β-function does not depend on masses of the theory and the first two coefficients of the β-function are scheme-independent.

The Lagrangian of QCD with massive quarks in the covariant gauge is

$$L = -\frac{1}{4}F^a_{\mu\nu}F^{a\mu\nu} + \bar{q}_n(i\gamma D - m_n)q_n$$
$$-\frac{1}{2\xi}(\partial A)^2 + \partial^\mu \bar{c}^a(\partial_\mu c^a + gf^{abc}A^b_\mu c^c)$$
$$F^a_{\mu\nu} = \partial_\mu A^a_\nu - \partial_\nu A^a_\mu + gf^{abc}A^b_\mu A^c_\nu,\ (D_\mu)_{kl} = \delta_{kl}\partial_\mu - igt^a_{kl}A^a_\mu, \quad (91)$$

$A^a_\mu, a = 1, ..., N_c^2 - 1$ are gluon; $q_n, n = 1, ..., n_f$ are quark; c^a are ghost fields; ξ is gauge parameter; t^a are generators of fundamental representation and f^{abc} are structure constants of the Lie algebra $[t^a, t^b] = if^{abc}t^c$, we consider an arbitrary compact semi-simple Lie group G. For QCD, $G = SU(N_c), N_c = 3$.
The RD equation for the coupling constant is

$$\dot{a} = \beta(a) = \beta_2 a^2 + \beta_3 a^3 + \beta_4 a^4 + \beta_5 a^5 + O(a^6),$$
$$a = \frac{\alpha_s}{4\pi} = (\frac{g}{4\pi})^2,\ \int_{a_0}^{a}\frac{da}{\beta(a)} = t - t_0 = \ln\frac{\mu^2}{\mu_0^2}, \quad (92)$$

μ is the 't Hooft unit of mass, the renormalization point in the MS-scheme.

To calculate the β-function we need to calculate the renormalization constant Z of the coupling constant, $a_b = Za$, where a_b is the bare (unrenormalized) charge. The expression of the β-function can be obtained in the following way

$$0 = d(a_b\mu^{2\varepsilon})/dt = \mu^{2\varepsilon}(\varepsilon Za + \frac{\partial(Za)}{\partial a}\frac{da}{dt})$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{da}{dt} = \beta(a,\varepsilon) = \frac{-\varepsilon Za}{\frac{\partial(Za)}{\partial a}} = -\varepsilon a + \beta(a),\ \beta(a) = a\frac{d}{da}(aZ_1) \quad (93)$$

where

$$\beta(a,\varepsilon) = \frac{D-4}{2}a + \beta(a) \quad (94)$$

is $D-$dimensional $\beta-$function and Z_1 is the residue of the first pole in ε expansion

$$Z(a,\varepsilon) = 1 + Z_1\varepsilon^{-1} + ... + Z_n\varepsilon^{-n} + ... \quad (95)$$

Since Z does not depend explicitly on μ, the β-function is the same in all MS-like schemes, i.e. within the class of renormalization schemes which differ by the shift of the parameter μ.

For quark anomalous dimension, RD equation is

$$\dot{b} = \gamma(a) = \gamma_1 a + \gamma_2 a^2 + \gamma_3 a^3 + \gamma_4 a^4 + O(a^5),$$
$$b(t) = b_0 + \int_{t_0}^{t} dt\gamma(a(t)) = b_0 + \int_{a_0}^{a} da\gamma(a)/\beta(a). \qquad (96)$$

To calculate the quark mass anomalous dimension $\gamma(g)$ we need to calculate the renormalization constant Z_m of the quark mass $m_b = Z_m m,\ m_b$ is the bare (unrenormalized) quark mass. Than we find the function $\gamma(g)$ in the following way

$$0 = \dot{m}_b = \dot{Z}_m m + Z_m \dot{m} = Z_m m((\ln Z_m)^{\cdot} + (\ln m)^{\cdot})$$
$$\Rightarrow \gamma(a) = -\frac{d\ln Z_m}{dt} = \dot{b} = -\frac{d\ln Z_m}{da}\frac{da}{dt} = -\frac{d\ln Z_m}{da}(-\varepsilon a + \beta(a))$$
$$= a\frac{dZ_{m1}}{da},\ b = -\ln Z_m = \ln\frac{m}{m_b}, \qquad (97)$$

where RD equation in $D-$dimension is

$$\dot{a} = -\varepsilon a + \beta(a) = \beta_1 a + \beta_2 a^2 + ... \quad (98)$$

and Z_{m1} is the coefficient of the first pole in the $\varepsilon-$expantion of the Z_m in MS-scheme

$$Z_m(\varepsilon, g) = 1 + Z_{m1}(g)\varepsilon^{-1} + Z_{m2}(g)\varepsilon^{-2} + ... \quad (99)$$

Since Z_m does not depend explicitly on μ and m, the γ_m-function is the same in all MS-like schemes.

RD equation,

$$\dot{a} = \beta_1 a + \beta_2 a^2 + ... \tag{100}$$

can be reparametrized,

$$a(t) = f(A(t)) = A + f_2 A^2 + ... + f_n A^n + ... = \sum_{n\geq 1} f_n A^n, \tag{101}$$

$$\dot{A} = b_1 A + b_2 A^2 + ... = \sum_{n\geq 1} b_n A^n,$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\dot{a} &= \dot{A} f'(A) = (b_1 A + b_2 A^2 + ...)(1 + 2f_2 A + ... + n f_n A^{n-1} + ...) \\
&= \beta_1 (A + f_2 A^2 + ... + f_n A^n + ...) + \beta_2 (A^2 + 2f_2 A^3 + ...) + ... \\
&+ \beta_n (A^n + n f_2 A^{n+1} + ...) + ... \\
&= \beta_1 A + (\beta_2 + \beta_1 f_2) A^2 + (\beta_3 + 2\beta_2 f_2 + \beta_1 f_3) A^3 + \\
&... + (\beta_n + (n-1)\beta_{n-1} f_2 + ... + \beta_1 f_n) A^n + ... \\
&= \sum_{n,n_1,n_2\geq 1} A^n b_{n_1} n_2 f_{n_2} \delta_{n,n_1+n_2-1}
\end{aligned} \tag{102}$$

$$= \sum_{n,m\geq 1;m_1,...,m_k\geq 0} A^n \beta_m f_1^{m_1}...f_k^{m_k} f(n,m,m_1,...,m_k),$$

$$f(n,m,m_1,...,m_k) = \frac{m!}{m_1!...m_k!}\delta_{n,m_1+2m_2+...+km_k}\delta_{m,m_1+m_2+...+m_k},$$

$$b_1 = \beta_1,\ b_2 = \beta_2 + f_2\beta_1 - 2f_2b_1 = \beta_2 - f_2\beta_1,$$

$$b_3 = \beta_3 + 2f_2\beta_2 + f_3\beta_1 - 2f_2b_2 - 3f_3b_1 = \beta_3 + 2(f_2^2 - f_3)\beta_1,$$

$$b_4 = \beta_4 + 3f_2\beta_3 + f_2^2\beta_2 + 2f_3\beta_2 - 3f_4b_1 - 3f_3b_2 - 2f_2b_3, ...$$

$$b_n = \beta_n + ... + \beta_1 f_n - 2f_2b_{n-1} - ... - nf_nb_1, ... \qquad (103)$$

so, by reparametrization, beyond the critical dimension ($\beta_1 \neq 0$) we can change any coefficient but β_1.

We can fix any higher coefficient with zero value, if we take

$$f_2 = \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1},\ f_3 = \frac{\beta_3}{2\beta_1} + f_2^2,\ \dots, f_n = \frac{\beta_n + \dots}{(n-1)\beta_1}, \dots \tag{104}$$

In the critical dimension of space-time, $\beta_1 = 0$, and we can change by reparametrization any coefficient but β_2 and β_3.
From the relations (103), in the critical dimension ($\beta_1 = 0$), we find that, we can define the minimal form of the RD equation

$$\dot{A} = \beta_2 A^2 + \beta_3 A^3, \tag{105}$$

We can solve (105) as implicit function,

$$u^{\beta_3/\beta_2} e^{-u} = c e^{\beta_2 t},\ u = \frac{1}{A} + \frac{\beta_3}{\beta_2} \tag{106}$$

then, as in the noncritical case, explicit solution will be given by reparametrization representation (101) [Makhaldiani, 2013].

If we know somehow the coefficients β_n, e.g. for first several exact and for others asymptotic values (see e.g. [Kazakov, Shirkov, 1980]) than we can construct reparametrization function (101) and find the dynamics of the running coupling constant. This is similar to the action-angular canonical transformation of the analytic mechanics (see e.g. [Faddeev, Takhtajan, 1990]).
Statement: The reparametrization series for a is p-adically convergent, when β_n and A are rational numbers.

Let us take the the anomalous dimension of some quantity

$$\gamma(a) = \gamma_1 a + \gamma_2 a^2 + \gamma_3 a^3 + ... \quad (107)$$

and make reparametrization

$$a = f(A) = A + f_2 A^2 + f_3 A^3 + ... \quad (108)$$

$$\gamma(a) = \gamma_1(A + f_2A^2 + f_3A^3 + ...) + \gamma_2(A^2 + 2f_2A^3 + ...) + \gamma_3(A^3 + ...)$$
$$= \Gamma_1 A + \Gamma_2 A^2 + \Gamma_3 A^3 + ...$$
$$\Gamma_1 = \gamma_1,\ \Gamma_2 = \gamma_2 + \gamma_1 f_2,\ \Gamma_3 = \gamma_3 + 2\gamma_2 f_2 + \gamma_1 f_3, ... \quad ($$

When $\gamma_1 \neq 0$, we can take $\Gamma_n = 0,\ n \geq 2$, if we define f_n as

$$f_2 = -\frac{\gamma_2}{\gamma_1},\ f_3 = -\frac{\gamma_3 + 2\gamma_2 f_2}{\gamma_1} = -\frac{\gamma_3 - 2\gamma_2^2/\gamma_1}{\gamma_1}, ... \quad (110)$$

So, we get the exact value for the anomalous dimension

$$\gamma(A) = \gamma_1 A = \gamma_1 f^{-1}(a) = \gamma_1(a + \gamma_2/\gamma_1 a^2 + \gamma_3/\gamma_1 a^3 + ... :) \quad (111)$$

While it has been well established in the perturbative regime at high energies, QCD still lacks a comprehensive solution at low and intermediate energies, even 40 years after its invention. In order to deal with the wealth of non-perturbative phenomena, various approaches are followed with limited validity and applicability. This is especially also true for lattice QCD, various functional methods, or chiral perturbation theory, to name only a few. In neither one of these approaches the full dynamical content of QCD can yet be included. Basically, the difficulties are associated with a relativistically covariant treatment of confinement and the spontaneous breaking of chiral symmetry, the latter being a well-established property of QCD at low and intermediate energies. As a result, most hadron reactions, like resonance excitations, strong and electroweak decays etc., are nowadays only amenable to models of QCD. Most famous is the constituent-quark model (CQM), which essentially relies on a limited number of effective degrees of freedom with the aim of encoding the essential features of low- and intermediate-energy QCD.

The CQM has a long history, and it has made important contributions to the understanding of many hadron properties, think only of the fact that the systematization of hadrons in the standard particle-data base follows the valence-quark picture. Namely the Q dependence of the nucleon form factor corresponds to three-constituent picture of the nucleon and is well described by the simple equation [Brodsky, Farrar,1973], [Matveev, Muradyan,Tavkhelidze,1973]

$$F(Q^2) \sim (Q^2)^{-2} \tag{112}$$

It was noted [Voloshin, Ter-Martyrosian, 1984] that parton densities given by the following solution

$$\begin{aligned}
M_2(Q^2) &= \frac{3}{25} + \frac{2}{3}\omega^{32/81} + \frac{16}{75}\omega^{50/81}, \\
\bar{M}_2(Q^2) &= M_2^s(Q^2) = \frac{3}{25} - \frac{1}{3}\omega^{32/81} + \frac{16}{75}\omega^{50/81}, \\
M_2^G(Q^2) &= \frac{16}{25}(1 - \omega^{50/81}), \\
\omega &= \frac{\alpha_s(Q^2)}{\alpha_s(m^2)},\ Q^2 \in (5, 20) GeV^2,\ b = 9,\ \alpha_s(Q^2) \simeq 0.2
\end{aligned} \tag{113}$$

of the Altarelli-Parisi equation

$$\dot{M} = AM,\ M^T = (M_2, \bar{M}_2, M_2^s, M_2^G),$$
$$M_2 = \int_0^1 dxx(u(x) + d(x)),\ \bar{M}_2 = \int_0^1 dxx(\bar{u}(x) + \bar{d}(x)),$$
$$M_2^s = \int_0^1 dxx(s(x) + \bar{s}(x)),\ M_2^G = \int_0^1 dxxG(x),\ \dot{M} = Q^2 \frac{dM}{dQ^2}$$
$$A = -a(Q^2) \begin{pmatrix} 32/9 & 0 & 0 & -2/3 \\ 0 & 32/9 & 0 & -2/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 32/9 & -2/3 \\ -32/9 & -32/9 & -32/9 & 2 \end{pmatrix},\ a = (\frac{g}{4\pi})^2 \quad (114)$$

with the following "valence quark" initial condition at a scale m

$$M_2(m^2) = 1,\ \bar{M}_2 = M_2^s = M_2^G(m^2) = 0,\ \alpha_s(m^2) = 2 \quad (115)$$

gives the experimental values

$$M_2 = 0.44,\ \bar{M}_2 = M_2^s = 0.04,\ M_2^G = 0.48 \quad (116)$$

So, for valence quark model (VQCD), $\alpha_s(m^2) = 2$. We have seen, that for $\pi\rho N$ model $\alpha_{\pi\rho N} = 3$, and for πN model $\alpha_{\pi N} = 13$. It is nice that $\alpha_s^2 + \alpha_{\pi\rho N}^2 = \alpha_{\pi N}$. This relation can be seen, e.g., by considering pion propagator in the low energy πN model and in superposition of higher energy VQCD and $\pi\rho N$ models.
Note that to $\alpha_s = 2$ corresponds

$$g = \sqrt{4\pi\alpha_s} = 5.013 = 5+ \tag{117}$$

The AdS/CFT duality provides a gravity description in a (d + 1)-dimensional AdS space-time in terms of a flat d-dimensional conformally-invariant quantum field theory defined at the AdS asymptotic boundary
[Maldacena, 1999],[Gubser,Klebanov,Polyakov, 1998],[Witten, 1998]. Thus, in principle, one can compute physical observables in a strongly coupled gauge theory in terms of a classical gravity theory. The β-function for the nonperturbative effective coupling obtained from the LF holographic mapping in a positive dilaton modified AdS background is [Brodsky, 2010]

$$\beta(\alpha_{AdS}) = \frac{d\alpha_{AdS}}{\ln Q^2} = -\frac{Q^2}{4k^2}\alpha_{AdS}(Q^2) = \alpha_{AdS}(Q^2)\ln\frac{\alpha_{AdS}(Q^2)}{\alpha(0)} \leq 0 \tag{118}$$

where the physical QCD running coupling in its nonperturbative domain is

$$\alpha_{AdS}(Q^2) = \alpha(0)e^{-Q^2/4k^2} \tag{119}$$

So, this renormdynamics of QCD interpolates between IR fixed point $\alpha(0)$, which we take as $\alpha(0) = 2$, and UV fixed point $\alpha(\infty) = 0$.

For the QCD running coupling [Diakonov, 2003]

$$\alpha(q^2) = \frac{4\pi}{9\ln(\frac{q^2+m_g^2}{\Lambda^2})} \quad (120)$$

where $m_g = 0.88GeV,\ \Lambda = 0.28GeV$, the $\beta-$function of renormdynamics is

$$\beta(q^2) = -\frac{\alpha^2}{k}(1 - c\exp(-\frac{k}{\alpha})),$$
$$k = \frac{4\pi}{9} = 1.40,\ c = \frac{m_g^2}{\Lambda^2} = (3.143)^2 = 9.88 \quad (121)$$

for nontrivial (IR) fixed point we have

$$\alpha_{IR} = \frac{k}{\ln c} = 0.61 \quad (122)$$

For $\alpha(0) = 2$, we predict the gluon mass as

$$m_g = \Lambda e^{\frac{k}{2\alpha(0)}} = 1.42\Lambda = m_N/3,\ \Lambda = 220MeV. \quad (123)$$

The ghost-gluon interaction in Landau gauge has been determined either from DSEs [Zwanziger, 2002],[Lerche,von Smekal, 2002], or the Exact Renormalization Group Equations (ERGEs) [Pawlowski et al, 2004],[Fischer,Gies, 2004] and yield an IR fixed point

$$\alpha(0) = \frac{2\pi}{3N_c}\frac{\Gamma(3-2k)\Gamma(3+k)\Gamma(1+k)}{\Gamma(2-k)^2\Gamma(2k)} = \frac{8.9115}{N_c} = 2.970,$$
$$N_c = 3,\ k = (93-\sqrt{1201})/98 = 0.5954 \qquad (124)$$

Note that, from this formula for $k = 0.6036$ we have $\alpha(0) = 3$ and for $k = 0.36$ we have $\alpha(0) = 2$.

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