Real Numbers

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${\bf Abstract}$

This article contains Z Notation type declarations for the real numbers, \mathbb{R} , and some related objects. It has been type checked by fUZZ.

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1 Introduction

The real numbers, \mathbb{R} , are foundational to many mathematical objects such as vector spaces and manifolds, but are not built-in to Z Notation. This article provides type declarations for \mathbb{R} and related objects so that they can be used and type checked in formal Z specifications.

No attempt has been made to provide complete, axiomatic definitions of all these objects since that would only be of use for proof checking. Although proof checking is highly desirable, it is beyond the scope of this article. The type declarations given here are intended to provide a basis for future axiomatization.

2 Real Numbers

Z notation does not predefine the set of real numbers, so we define it here.

2.1 $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{R}$

Let \mathbb{R} denote the set of real numbers. We define it to be simply a given set. We'll add further axioms as needed below.

 $[\mathbb{R}]$

2.2 + \addR, 0 \zeroR, - \negR, and - \subR

Let x and y be real numbers. Let x + y denote addition, let 0 denote zero, let -x denote negation, and let x - y denote subtraction.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} -+-: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ 0: \mathbb{R} \\ -: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

Although these real number objects are displayed using the same symbols as the corresponding integer objects, they represent distinct mathematical objects. This distinction is apparent to the fUZZ type-checker and should not cause confusion to the human reader because the underlying types of objects will, as a rule, be clear from the context. Visually distinct symbols will be used in cases where confusion is possible.

The real numbers form an Abelian group under addition.

$$(-+-) \in \operatorname{abgroup} \mathbb{R}$$

 $0 = identity_element(-+-)$
 $- = inverse_operation(-+-)$

Subtraction is defined in terms of addition and negative.

2.3 \mathbb{R}_* \Rnz

Let \mathbb{R}_* denote the set of non-zero real numbers, also referred to as the *punctured real* number line.

$$\mathbb{R}_* == \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

2.4 * mulR

Let x and y be real numbers. Let x * y denote multiplication.

$$| \quad _{-}*_{-}:\mathbb{R}\times\mathbb{R}\longrightarrow\mathbb{R}$$

$2.5 * \text{mulRnz}, 1 \text{ oneR}, ^{-1} \text{ invRnz}, \text{ and } / \text{ divR}$

Let (-*-) denote the restriction of (-*-) to \mathbb{R}_* .

$$\begin{array}{c}
-* -: \mathbb{R}_* \times \mathbb{R}_* \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_* \\
\hline
(-* -) = (\lambda x, y : \mathbb{R}_* \bullet x * y)
\end{array}$$

Let x be real number and let y be a non-zero real number. let 1 denote one, let y^{-1} denote inverse, and let x / y denote division.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
1,2:\mathbb{R}_* \\
-^1:\mathbb{R}_* \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}_*
\end{array}$$

The nonzero real numbers form an Abelian group under multiplication.

$$(-*-) \in \operatorname{abgroup} \mathbb{R}_*$$

 $1 = identity_element(-*-)$
 $(-^{-1}) = inverse_operation(-*-)$

Division is defined in terms of multiplicative inverse.

Addition is distributive over multiplication.

$$\forall x, y, z : \mathbb{R} \bullet (x + y) * z = x * z + y * z$$

2.6 $< \text{ltR}, \leq \text{leR}, > \text{gtR}, \text{ and } \geq \text{lgeR}$

Let $x < y, x \le y, x > y$, and $x \ge y$ denote the usual comparison relations.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} -<-:\mathbb{R} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ -\leq-:\mathbb{R} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ ->-:\mathbb{R} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ -\geq-:\mathbb{R} \longleftrightarrow \mathbb{R} \end{array}$$

2.7 abs \absR

Let abs(x) denote |x|, the absolute value of x.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} abs: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \hline \forall \, x: \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ abs(x) = \mathbf{if} \,\, x \geq 0 \,\, \mathbf{then} \,\, x \,\, \mathbf{else} \, - \, x \end{array}$$

2.8 \mathbb{R}_+ \Rpos and Friends

Let \mathbb{R}_+ denote the set of positive real numbers.

$$\mathbb{R}_{+} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x > 0 \}$$

Similarly, we have the following useful subsets of \mathbb{R} .

$$\mathbb{R}_{-} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x < 0 \}$$

$$\mathbb{R}_{<0} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x < 0 \}$$

Remark.

$$\mathbb{R}_{<0} = \mathbb{R}_{-}$$

$$\mathbb{R}_{\leq 0} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x \leq 0 \}$$

$$\mathbb{R}_{>0} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x \ge 0 \}$$

$$\mathbb{R}_{>0} == \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x > 0 \}$$

Remark.

$$\mathbb{R}_{>0} = \mathbb{R}_+$$

2.9 sqrt \sqrtR

For non-negative x, let $\operatorname{sqrt}(x)$ denote \sqrt{x} , the non-negative square root of x.

$$| sqrt : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$| sqrt = \{ x : \mathbb{R} \mid x \ge 0 \bullet x * x \mapsto x \}$$

3 Open Sets

3.1 interval \intervalR

For any real numbers a and b, let interval(a, b) denote (a, b), the open interval bounded by a and b.

Remark. If $a \geq b$ then interval $(a, b) = \emptyset$.

3.2 ball \ballR

For any real numbers x and r, let ball(x, r) denote the set of all real numbers within distance r of x.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} & \operatorname{ball} : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P} \,\mathbb{R} \\ \hline & \forall \, x, r : \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ & \operatorname{ball}(x, r) = \{ \, x' : \mathbb{R} \mid \operatorname{abs}(x' - x) < r \,\} \end{array}$$

Remark. Balls are intervals.

$$\forall x, r : \mathbb{R} \bullet$$

ball $(x, r) = interval(x - r, x + r)$

Remark. If r > 0 then x is in ball(x, r).

$$\forall x : \mathbb{R}; r : \mathbb{R}_+ \bullet$$

 $x \in \text{ball}(x, r)$

Remark. If $r \leq 0$ then ball(x, r) is empty.

$$\forall x, r : \mathbb{R} \mid r \leq 0 \bullet$$

 $\operatorname{ball}(x, r) = \emptyset$

3.3 balls \ballsR

Let balls denote the set of all open balls in \mathbb{R} .

```
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \text{balls} : \mathcal{F} \mathbb{R} \\ \hline \hline \text{balls} = \{ x, r : \mathbb{R} \bullet \text{ball}(x, r) \} \end{array}
```

3.4 open \openR

A subset U of \mathbb{R} is said to be *open* if every point $x \in U$ is surrounded by some open ball $B \subset U$ that lies strictly within U. Let **open** denote the set of all open subsets of \mathbb{R} .

```
\begin{array}{c|c} \mathsf{open}: \mathcal{F} \, \mathbb{R} \\ \hline \\ \mathsf{open} = \\ \{ \, U: \mathbb{P} \, \mathbb{R} \, | \\ \\ \forall \, x: \, U \bullet \\ \\ \exists \, B: \mathsf{balls} \bullet \, x \in B \subset U \, \} \end{array}
```

Remark. All balls are open.

$$balls \subset open$$

Remark. The empty set is open.

$$\varnothing \in \mathsf{open}$$

Remark. The set of all real numbers is open.

$$\mathbb{R}\in\mathsf{open}$$

3.5 $\tau_{\mathbb{R}} \setminus \text{tauR}$

The topology generated by the open balls of \mathbb{R} is referred to as the *usual* or *standard* topology on \mathbb{R} . Let $\tau_{\mathbb{R}}$ denote the usual topology on \mathbb{R} .

Remark.

$$au_{\mathbb{R}} = \mathsf{open}$$

3.6 $\mathbb{R}_{ au}$ \Rtau

Let \mathbb{R}_{τ} denote the topological space defined by \mathbb{R} with the usual topology.

Example.

$$\mathbb{R}_{\tau} \in topSpace[\mathbb{R}]$$

3.7 neigh \neighR

Let x be a real number. Any open set that contains x is called a *neighbourhood* of it. Let neigh(x) denote the set of all neighbourhoods of x.

Clearly, every real number has an infinity of neighbourhoods.

Remark. Any open ball that contains x is a neighbourhood of x.

```
\forall x : \mathbb{R}; B : \text{balls} \mid x \in B \bullet B \in \text{neigh}(x)
```

4 Functions

The following sections define continuity, limits, and differentiability, which are point-wise properties of functions. These properties are *local* in the sense that in order to determine if they hold at a given point it is sufficient to consider the restriction of the function to an arbitrarily small neighbourhood of the point. It is therefore useful to first introduce the set of *locally defined* functions, namely those functions that are defined in some neighbourhood of each point of their domains.

4.1 F \FunR

For x a real number, let F(x) denote the set of all real-valued, partial functions on \mathbb{R} that are locally defined at x.

Remark. The function sqrt is not locally defined at 0 because it's defined only for non-negative numbers, but every neighbourhood of 0 contains some negative numbers.

```
sqrt \notin F(0)
```

4.2 F \FunPR

For U a subset of \mathbb{R} , let F(U) denote the set of all real-valued functions on U that are locally defined at each point of U.

```
F: \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R})
\forall U: \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \bullet
F(U) = \{ f: U \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid \forall x: U \bullet f \in F(x) \}
```

Remark. If $f \in F(U)$ then $U \in \text{open}$.

$$\forall\; U: \mathbb{P}\,\mathbb{R}\, \bullet \\ \mathbb{F}(\,U) \neq \varnothing \Rightarrow \, U \in \mathsf{open}$$

5 Continuity

Let f be a real-valued partial function on \mathbb{R} that is locally defined at x and let U be a neighbourhood of x contained within the domain of f. The function f is said to be continuous at x if for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is some $\delta > 0$ for which f(x') is always within ϵ of f(x) when $x' \in U$ is within δ of x.

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \bullet \exists \delta > 0 \bullet \forall x' \in U \bullet$$
$$|x' - x| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x') - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

```
RealContinuous
f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}
x: \mathbb{R}
f \in F(x)
\forall \epsilon: \mathbb{R}_{+} \bullet \exists \delta: \mathbb{R}_{+} \bullet \forall x': \text{dom } f \bullet
\text{abs}(x' - x) < \delta \Rightarrow \text{abs}(f(x') - f(x)) < \epsilon
```

5.1 $\mathrm{C^0}$ \CzeroR

Let $C^0(x)$ denote the set of all real-valued partial functions on \mathbb{R} that are continuous at x.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & C^0 : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}) \\
\hline
 & \forall x : \mathbb{R} \bullet \\
 & C^0(x) = \{ f : F(x) \mid RealContinuous \} \end{array}$$

5.2 C^0 \CzeroPR

Let U be any subset of \mathbb{R} . Define $C^0(U)$ to be the set of all real-valued functions on U that are continuous at each point in U.

$$C^{0}: \mathbb{PR} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})$$

$$\forall U: \mathbb{PR} \bullet$$

$$C^{0}(U) = \{ f: F(U) \mid \forall x: U \bullet f \in C^{0}(x) \}$$

Remark. If $f \in C^0(U)$ then U is open.

$$\forall U : \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \bullet$$
 $C^0(U) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow U \in \mathsf{open}$

Remark. The $\epsilon - \delta$ definition of continuity given above is compatible with the definition of continuity for mappings between topological spaces when we consider \mathbb{R}_{τ} , the usual topology on \mathbb{R} , and $\mathbb{R}_{\tau} \mid_{\mathsf{top}} U$, the topology induced on the subset U.

$$\forall U : \mathsf{open} \bullet$$

$$C^0(U) = C^0(\mathbb{R}_\tau \mid_{\mathsf{top}} U, \mathbb{R}_\tau)$$

6 Limits

Let x and l be real numbers and let f be a real-valued partial function on \mathbb{R} that is defined everywhere in some neighbourhood U of x, except possibly at x. The function f is said to approach the limit l at x if $f \oplus \{x \mapsto l\}$ is continuous at x.

$$\lim_{x' \to x} f(x') = l$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
Limit \\
f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \\
x, l: \mathbb{R} \\
\hline
f \oplus \{x \mapsto l\} \in C^0(x)
\end{array}$$

6.1 lim \limRR

Let $\lim(x, l)$ denote the set of all real-valued partial functions on \mathbb{R} that approach the limit l at x.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} & \lim: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}) \\ \hline & \forall \, x, l : \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ & \lim(x, l) = \{ \, f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid Limit \, \} \end{array}$$

Theorem 1. If a function f approaches some limit at x then that limit is unique.

$$\forall x, l, l' : \mathbb{R} \bullet$$

 $\forall f : \lim(x, l) \cap \lim(x, l') \bullet$
 $l = l'$

Proof. Suppose we are given real numbers

$$x, l, l' \in \mathbb{R}$$

and a function

$$f \in \lim(x, l) \cap \lim(x, l')$$

Let ϵ be any positive real number

$$\epsilon > 0$$

Since f approaches limits l and l' at x there exists a real number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\forall x' \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < |x' - x| < \delta \bullet |f(x') - l| < \epsilon \land |f(x') - l'| < \epsilon$$

For any such real number x' we have

$$\begin{aligned} |l'-l| \\ &= \left| (f(x')-l) - (f(x')-l') \right| & \text{[add and subtract } f(x') \text{]} \\ &\leq \left| f(x')-l \right| + \left| f(x')-l' \right| & \text{[triangle inequality]} \\ &= 2\epsilon & \text{[definition of limits]} \end{aligned}$$

Since the above holds for any $\epsilon > 0$ we must have

$$l = l'$$

6.2 lim \limFR

If f approaches the limit l at x then let $\lim(f,x)$ denote l. By the preceding theorem, $\lim(f,x)$ is well-defined when it exists.

$$\lim : (\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$
$$\lim = \{ Limit \bullet (f, x) \mapsto l \}$$

7 Differentiability

Let f be a real-valued partial function on \mathbb{R} , let x be a real number, and let f be defined on some neighbourhood U of x.

The function f is said to be differentiable at x if the following limit holds for some number denoted by f'(x).

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = f'(x)$$

Remark. If f is differentiable at x then f is continuous at x.

The geometric intuition behind the concept of differentiability is that f is differentiable at x when, very near x, the graph of f is approximately a straight line through the point (x, f(x)) with slope f'(x).

$$f(x+h) \approx f(x) + f'(x)h$$
 when $|h| \approx 0$

The slope f'(x) is called the *derivative* of f at x and f' is called the *derived function*.

We can read this definition as saying that the approximate slope function m(h) defined for small enough, non-zero values of h by

$$m(h) = \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

approaches the limit l = f'(x) as $h \to 0$.

$$\lim_{h \to 0} m(h) = l = f'(x)$$

```
Differentiable
f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}
x, l: \mathbb{R}
f \in C^{0}(x)
\mathbf{let} \ m == (\lambda \ h: \mathbb{R}_{*} \mid x + h \in \mathrm{dom} f \bullet (f(x + h) - f(x)) \ / \ h) \bullet
\lim_{} (m, 0) = l
```

Remark. If f is differentiable at x then the limit l is unique.

7.1 diff \diffRR

Let diff(x, l) denote the set of all functions f that are differentiable at x with f'(x) = l.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \operatorname{diff}: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}) \\ \hline \forall \, x, l : \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ \hline \operatorname{diff}(x, l) = \{ \, f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid \textit{Differentiable} \, \} \end{array}$$

7.2 diff \diffR

Let diff(x) denote the set of all functions that are differentiable at x.

$$\frac{\operatorname{diff}:\mathbb{R}\longrightarrow\mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R})}{\forall\,x:\mathbb{R}\bullet}$$
$$\operatorname{diff}(x)=\bigcup\{\,l:\mathbb{R}\bullet\operatorname{diff}(x,l)\,\}$$

7.3 diff \diffPR

Let U be any subset of \mathbb{R} . Let diff(U) denote the set of all functions on U that are differentiable at each point of U.

$$\frac{\operatorname{diff}: \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})}{\forall U : \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \bullet}$$
$$\operatorname{diff}(U) = \{ f : C^{0}(U) \mid \forall x : U \bullet f \in \operatorname{diff}(x) \}$$

8 Derivatives

8.1 D \derivFR

Let D(f, x) denote f'(x), the derivative of f at x.

$$D: (\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$D = \{ Differentiable \bullet (f, x) \mapsto l \}$$

8.2 D \derivF

Let D(f) denote f', the derived function.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} D: (\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) & \longrightarrow (\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) \\ \hline \forall f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ Df = (\lambda \, x: \mathbb{R} \mid f \in \mathrm{diff}(x) \bullet \mathrm{D}(f, x)) \end{array}$$

Remark. If f is differentiable on U then f' is not necessarily continuous on U. Counterexamples exist.

Remark. If f is uniformly differentiable on U then f' is continuous on U. A further discussion of uniform differentiability is beyond the scope of this article.

9 Higher Order Derivatives

Let n be a natural number and let x be a real number. In differential geometry we normally deal with $C^n(x)$, the set of functions that possess continuous derivatives of order $0, \ldots, n$ at x.

9.1 C \CnR

Let C(n, x) denote the set of all functions that have continuous derivatives of order $0, \ldots, n$ at x

$$C: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R})$$

$$\forall x : \mathbb{R} \bullet$$

$$C(0, x) = C^{0}(x)$$

$$\forall n : \mathbb{N}; x : \mathbb{R} \bullet$$

$$C(n + 1, x) = \{ f : diff(x) \mid Df \in C(n, x) \}$$

9.2 C \CnPR

Let n be a natural number and let U be a subset of \mathbb{R} . Let C(n, U) denote the set of all functions on U that have continuous derivatives of order $0, \ldots, n$ at every point of U.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline C: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}) \\ \hline \forall \, n: \mathbb{N}; \, U: \mathbb{P} \, \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ \hline C(n, \, U) = \{ \, f: \mathrm{F}(U) \mid \forall \, x: \, U \bullet f \in \mathrm{C}(n, x) \, \} \end{array}$$

10 Smoothness

10.1 $C^{\infty} \setminus \text{smoothR}$

A function is said to be *smooth* if it possesses continuous derivatives of all orders. Let x be a real number. Let $C^{\infty}(x)$ denote the set of all functions that are smooth at x.

10.2 C^{∞} \smoothPR

Let $C^{\infty}(U)$ denote the set of all functions on U that are smooth at every point of U.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \mathbf{C}^{\infty}: \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{P}(\mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}) \\ \hline \forall \, U: \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R} \bullet \\ \hline \mathbf{C}^{\infty}(U) = \{ f: \mathbf{F}(U) \mid \forall \, x: \, U \bullet f \in \mathbf{C}^{\infty}(x) \, \} \end{array}$$

11 Important Constants and Functions

This section defines several important constants and functions.

$11.1 integer_as_real$

The real numbers contain a natural copy of the integers. Let *integer_as_real* denote this embedding.

```
integer\_as\_real: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrowtail \mathbb{R}
```

11.2 real \asZR

We introduce the notation real $x = integer_as_real x$ for this embedding.

$$real == integer_as_real$$

The real numbers 0 and 1 are the images of the corresponding integers under this embedding.

```
\operatorname{real} 0 = 0\operatorname{real} 1 = 1
```

11.3 IntegerTimesReal

We can use the embedding to define the product y = n * x where n is an integer and x and y are real numbers.

11.4 integer_times_real

Let $y = integer_times_real(n, y)$ denote this multiplication operation.

$$integer_times_real == \{ IntegerTimesReal \bullet (n, x) \mapsto y \}$$

11.5 * mulZR

We introduce the notation $n * x = integer_times_real(n, x)$.

$$(_*_) == integer_times_real$$

11.6 RealDivInteger

Similarly, we can define division of a real number x by a nonzero integer n to give the quotient y = x/n.

$$RealDivInteger ___$$

$$n: \mathbb{Z}$$

$$x, y: \mathbb{R}$$

$$n \neq 0$$

$$y = x / (real n)$$

$\textbf{11.7} \quad real_div_integer$

Let $y = real_div_integer(x, n)$ denote this division operation.

$$real_div_integer == \{ RealDivInteger \bullet (x, n) \mapsto y \}$$

11.8 / \divRZ

We introduce the notation y = x / n.

$$(_/_) == real_div_integer$$

11.9 $\sin \sin R$

Let $\sin(x)$ denote the usual trigonometric sine function of the real number x.

$$| \sin : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

11.10 $\cos \ \cos \$

Let cos(x) denote the usual trigonometric cosine function of the real number x.

$$\cos:\mathbb{R}\longrightarrow\mathbb{R}$$

11.11 $\pi \neq \pi$

Let π denote the usual ratio of the perimeter of a circle to its diameter.

$$\pi:\mathbb{R}$$

11.12 *sum_real*

Given a sequence a of zero or more real numbers, we define its sum $sum_real(a)$ recursively as follows

$$sum_real : seq \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$sum_real(\langle \rangle) = 0$$

$$\forall x : \mathbb{R}; a : seq \mathbb{R} \bullet$$

$$sum_real(\langle x \rangle \cap a) = x + sum_real(a)$$

11.13 $\Sigma \setminus \text{sumR}$

We introduce the notation $\Sigma(a) = sum_real(a)$.

$$\Sigma == sum_real$$

12 The Real Plane

In order to define what it means for an arrangement of test tubes to be balanced, we need to use some concepts from Euclidean geometry and classical mechanics. Classical mechanics is phrased in terms of real coordinate systems. We therefore start by defining the usual real plane and its coordinates.

12.1 \mathbb{R}^2 \Rtwo

We model the real plane as pairs of real numbers. Let \mathbb{R}^2 denote the real plane.

$$\mathbb{R}^2 == \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$$

12.2 $zero_real_plane$

Let the point $zero_real_plane \in \mathbb{R}^2$ denote the origin of the real plane.

$$zero_real_plane == (0,0)$$

12.3 0 \zeroRtwo

We introduce the usual notation $\mathbf{0} = zero_real_plane$ for the origin of the real plane.

$$\mathbf{0} == zero_real_plane$$

12.4 RealPlane

Let $point \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a point in the real plane. Its Cartesian coordinates are denoted by x and y. Let the schema RealPlane denote this situation.

12.5 ScaleRealPlane

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ be a scaling factor and let $point \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a point. Let point' = a * point be point scaled by a. Let the schema ScaleRealPlane denote this situation.

```
ScaleRealPlane
a: \mathbb{R}

RealPlane

RealPlane'

x' = a * x

y' = a * x
```

$\textbf{12.6} \quad scale_real_plane$

Let $point' = scale_real_plane(a, point)$ denote the operation of scalar multiplication.

$$scale_real_plane == \{ ScaleRealPlane \bullet (a, point) \mapsto point' \}$$

$12.7 * \mbox{smulRtwo}$

We introduce the notation $a * point = scale_real_plane(a, point)$ for scalar multiplication.

```
(\_*\_) == scale\_real\_plane
```

12.8 ScaleIntRealPlane

It is convenient to allow scaling of points in the real plane by integers. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a scaling factor and let $point \in \mathbb{R}^2$ be a point. Let point' = n * point be point scaled by n. Let the schema ScaleIntRealPlane denote this situation.

```
ScaleIntRealPlane
n: \mathbb{Z}
RealPlane
RealPlane'
x' = n * x
y' = n * x
```

$\textbf{12.9} \quad scale_int_real_plane$

Let $point' = scale_int_real_plane(n, point)$ denote the operation of scalar multiplication by an integer.

$$scale_int_real_plane == \{ ScaleIntRealPlane \bullet (n, point) \mapsto point' \}$$

$12.10 * \mbox{smulZRtwo}$

We introduce the notation $n * point = scale_int_real_plane(n, point)$ for scalar multiplication.

$$(_*_) == scale_int_real_plane$$

12.11 AddRealPlane

Let $point_1$ and $point_2$ be points. We can define their sum $point' = point_1 + point_2$ by component-wise addition. Let the schema AddRealPlane denote this situation.

$\mathbf{12.12} \quad add_real_plane$

Let $add_real_plane(point_1, point_2) = point_1 + point_2$ denote addition of points in the real plane.

$$add_real_plane == \{ AddRealPlane \bullet (point_1, point_2) \mapsto point' \}$$

$12.13 + \addRtwo$

We introduce the usual notation $point_1 + point_2 = add_real_plane(point_1, point_2)$ to denote addition of points in the real plane.

$$(_+_) == add_real_plane$$

12.14 *sum_real_plane*

Given a sequence a of zero or more points in the real plane, we define its sum $sum_real_plane(a)$ recursively as follows.

```
sum\_real\_plane : seq \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^2
sum\_real\_plane(\langle \rangle) = \mathbf{0}
\forall \ point : \mathbb{R}^2; \ a : seq \mathbb{R}^2 \bullet
sum\_real\_plane(\langle point \rangle ^ a) = point + sum\_real\_plane(a)
```

12.15 $\Sigma \setminus \text{sumRtwo}$

We introduce the notation $\Sigma(a) = sum_real_plane(a)$.

$$\Sigma == sum_real_plane$$

$12.16 + \addFRtwo$

Let t be any set and let f and g be partial functions from t to \mathbb{R}^2 . Let h(x) = f(x) + g(x) denote their pointwise sum on their common domain of definition. Let the schema AddFunctionsRealPlane denote this situation.

Let the function $add_functions_real_plane(f,g) = h$ map two functions with values in \mathbb{R}^2 to their pointwise sum.

```
[t] = \underbrace{add\_functions\_real\_plane : (t \to \mathbb{R}^2) \times (t \to \mathbb{R}^2) \longrightarrow (t \to \mathbb{R}^2)}_{add\_functions\_real\_plane} = \underbrace{\{AddFunctionsRealPlane[t] \bullet (f,g) \mapsto h\}}
```

We introduce the notation $f + g = add_functions_real_plane(f, g)$.

$$(-+-)[t] == add_functions_real_plane[t]$$

12.17 PolarRealPlane

Let (x, y) be the Cartesian coordinates of a point in the plane. Let r denote the distance of the point from the origin and let a denote the counter-clockwise angle of the point from the x-axis. The pair (r, a) is called the *polar coordinates* of the point. Conversely, given an pair (r, a) we can compute the corresponding Cartesian coordinates. Let the schema PolarRealPlane denote this situation.

```
PolarRealPlane RealPlane r, a : \mathbb{R} x = r * \cos a y = r * \sin a
```

12.18 polar_to_cartesian

Let the function $polar_to_cartesian(r, a) = (x, y)$ denote the mapping from polar to Cartesian coordinates.

```
polar\_to\_cartesian == \{ PolarRealPlane \bullet (r, a) \mapsto (x, y) \}
```

Note that this function is not one-to-one for the following reasons.

- The pairs $(r, a + 2k\pi)$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ map to the same points.
- The pairs (r, a) and $(-r, a + \pi)$ map to the same points.
- The pairs (0, a) and (0, a') map to the same points.

12.19 The Dot Product

Given two points $v_1 = (x_1, y_1), v_2 = (x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, their dot product $v_1 \cdot v_2$ is defined as follows.

$$v_1 \cdot v_2 = x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 \tag{1}$$

Let the schema DotRealPlane denote this situation where $product = v_1 \cdot v_2$.

```
DotRealPlane
RealPlane_1
RealPlane_2
product : \mathbb{R}
product = x_1 * x_2 + y_1 * y_2
```

Let the function $dot_real_plane(v_1, v_2) = v_1 \cdot v_2$ map a pair of points to their dot product.

```
dot\_real\_plane : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}
dot\_real\_plane = \{ DotRealPlane \bullet (point_1, point_2) \mapsto product \}
We introduce the usual notation v_1 \cdot v_2 = dot\_real\_plane(v_1, v_2).
(\_\cdot\_) == dot\_real\_plane
```

12.20 Norm

The *norm* of a point in the plane is defined to be the square root of its dot product with itself. Let the schema *NormRealPlane* denote this situation where *norm* denotes the norm of the point.

```
NormRealPlane RealPlane norm: \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} norm = \operatorname{sqrt}(point \cdot point)
```

Let the function $norm_real_plane(point) = norm$ map a point to its norm.

We introduce the notation $norm(point) = norm_real_plane(point)$.

 $norm == norm_real_plane$

12.21 The Unit Circle

A point in the plane is said to be a *unit vector* when it has norm 1. The set of all unit vectors make up the *unit circle*. Let the schema *UnitCircle* denote this situation.

Let unit_circle denote the set of all unit vectors in the real plane.

```
unit\_circle : \mathbb{P} \mathbb{R}^2
```

We introduce the usual notation $S^1 = unit_circle$.

$$S^1 == unit_circle$$