## A formalisation of transcendence of e

Jujian Zhang (CID: 01803812)

Supervisor: Prof. Kevin Buzzard

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#### Declaration

I declare that this report was composed by myself, that the work contained herein is my own except where explicitly stated otherwise in the text.

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#### Abstract

The objective of this report is to present formalization of some basic theorems from transcendental number theory with Lean and mathlib in the hope that it will motivate and inspire other mathematicians, by igniting their curiosity about interactive theorem proving. The following theorems are formalized:

1. the set of algebraic numbers is countable, hence transcendental number exists:

2. all Liouville numbers are transcendental:

```
theorem liouville_numbers_transcendental :
∀ x : ℝ, liouville_number x → transcendental x
```

3.  $\alpha:=\sum_{i=0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{10^{i!}}$  is a Liouville number hence  $\alpha$  is transcendental.

```
theorem liouville_\alpha : liouville_number \alpha theorem transcendental_\alpha : transcendental \alpha := liouville_numbers_transcendental \alpha liouville_\alpha
```

4. e is transcendental:

```
theorem e_transcendental : transcendental e
```

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## Chapter 1

## Overview

### 1.1 Interactive theorem proving

Around 1920s, the German mathematician David Hilbert put forward a programme to seek:

- 1. an axiomatic foundation of mathematics;
- 2. a proof of consistency of the said foundation;
- 3. Entscheidungsproblem: an algorithm to determine if any proposition is universally valid given a set of axioms.

The first two aims were later proved to be impossible by Gödel and his celebrated incompleteness theorems. Via the completeness of first order logic, the Entscheidungsproblem can also be interpreted as an algorithm for producing proofs using deduction rules. Even without a panacea approach for mathematics, a computer still bears advantages against a carbon-based mathematician. Perhaps the most manifested advantage is the accuracy of a computer with which it execute its command and to recall its memories. Thus came the idea of interactive theorem proving — instead of hoping a computer algorithm can spit out some unfathomable proofs, assuming computers are given the ability to check the correctness of proofs, so human-comprehensible proofs can be verified by machines and thus guaranteed to be free of errors. With a collective effort, all theorems verified this way can be collected in an error-free library such that all mathematicians can utilise to prove further theorems, which can then be added to the collection, ad infinitum [Boy+94]. Curry-Howard isomorphism provided the crucial relationship between mathematical proofs and computer programmes, more specifically relationship between propositions and types, to make such project feasible [KK11]. The idea will be explained in section 2 along with Lean.

The proof of "Kepler's conjecture<sup>1</sup>" illustrates and exemplifies the utility of

 $<sup>^{1}\</sup>mathrm{the}$  most efficient way to pack spheres should be hexagonally

interactive theorem proving. As early as 1998, Thomas Hales had claimed a proof [Hal98; HUW14], however the proof is controversial in the sense that other mathematician even after great effort could not guarantee its correctness. A collaborative project using Isabelle<sup>2</sup> and HOL Light<sup>3</sup> verified the proof around 2014, hence settled the controversy in 2017 [Hal+17]. There is also Georges Gonthier with his teams using Coq<sup>4</sup> who formalised the four colour theorem and Feit-Thompson theorem where the latter is a step closer to the classification of simple groups [Gon08; Gon+13]. Additionally, using Lean<sup>5</sup>, Buzzard, Commelin, and Massot were able to formalise the modern notion of perfectoid spaces [BCM20].

### 1.2 History of transcendental numbers

"Transcendence" as a mathematical jargon first appeared in a Leibniz's 1682 paper where he proved that sine is a transcendental function in the sense that for any natural number n there does not exist polynomials  $p_0, \dots, p_n$  such that

$$p_0(x) + p_1(x)\sin(x) + p_2(x)\sin(x)^2 + \dots + p_n(x)\sin(x)^n = 0$$

holds for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  [Bou98]. The Swiss mathematician Johann Heinrich Lambert in his 1768 paper proved the irrationality of e and  $\pi$  and he also conjectured their transcendence [Lam04]. It is not until 1844 that Joseph Liouville proved the existence of any transcendental number and until 1851 an explicit example of transcendental number was actually given by its decimal expansion:[Kem16]

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{i!}} = 0.11000100000 \cdots.$$

However, this construction is still artificial in nature. The first example of a real number proven to be transcendental that is not constructed for the purpose of being transcendental was e. Charles Hermite proved the transcendence of e in 1873 with a method applicable (with help of symmetric polynomial) to  $\pi$  in 1882 and later to be generalised to Lindemann-Weierstrass theorem in 1885 stating that if  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  are distinct algebraic numbers then  $e^{\alpha_1}, \dots, e^{\alpha_n}$  are linearly independent over the algebraic numbers [Bak90]. The transcendence of  $\pi$  was particularly celebrated because it immediately implied the impossibility of the ancient greek challenge of squaring the circle, i.e. it is not possible to construct a square, using compass and ruler only, with equal area to a circle. This question is plainly equivalent to construct  $\sqrt{\pi}$ , which is not possible for otherwise  $\pi$  is algebraic. Georg Cantor in 1874 proved that algebraic numbers are countable hence not only do transcendental numbers exist, they exist in

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ a theorem prover relies extensively on dependent type theory and Curry-Howard correspondence.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>ibid.

 $<sup>^5</sup>$ ibid.

a ubiquitous manner – there is a bijection from the set of all transcendental numbers to  $\mathbb{R}$  [Can32; Can78].

In 1900, Hilbert proposed twenty-three questions, the 7th of which is regarding transcendental numbers: Is  $a^b$  transcendental, for any algebraic number a that is not 0 or 1 and any irrational algebraic number b? The answer is yes provided by Gelfond-Schneider theorem in 1934 [Gel34]. This led to some immediate consequences such that

- 1.  $2^{\sqrt{2}}$  and its square root  $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  are transcendental;
- 2.  $e^{\pi}$  is transcendental for  $e^{\pi} = \left(e^{i\pi}\right)^{-i} = \left(-1\right)^{-i}$ ;
- 3.  $i^i = e^{-\frac{\pi}{2}}$  is transcendental etc.

In contrast, none of  $\pi \pm e$ ,  $\pi e$ ,  $\frac{\pi}{e}$ ,  $\pi^{\pi}$ ,  $\pi^{e}$ , etc were proven to be transcendental. It was also conjectured by Stephen Schanuel that given any  $n \mathbb{Q}$ -linearly independent  $z_1, \dots, z_n \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $\operatorname{trdeg}(\mathbb{Q}(z_1, \dots, z_n, e^{z_1}, \dots, e^{z_n})/\mathbb{Q})$  is at least n [Lan66]. If this was proven, the algebraic independence of e and  $\pi$  would follow immediately by setting  $z_1 = 1$  and  $z_2 = \pi i$  with Euler's identity.

## Chapter 2

## Brief introduction to Lean

Lean was developed by Leonardo de Moura at Microsoft Research Redmond in 2013 using dependent type theory and calculus of inductive constraint [AMK15]. In this chapter, basic ideas of Curry-Howard isomorphism will be demonstrated by some basic examples of mathematical theorem expressed in Lean using dependent type theory.

### 2.1 Simple type theory

Unlike set theory where everything from basic things like natural numbers to complex constructions like modular forms is essentially a set, type theory associate every expression with a type. In set theory, an element can belong to different sets, for example 0 is simultaneously in  $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ . However an expression can only have one type. 0 without any context will have type  $\mathbb{N}$  and, to specify the zero with type  $\mathbb{R}$  we write  $(0 : \mathbb{R})$ . If a has type a, we write a : a. By a universe of types we mean a collection of types. Types can be combined to form new types in the following way:

- let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be types then  $\alpha \to \beta$  is the type of functions from  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$ : the element of type  $\alpha \to \beta$  is a function that for any element of  $\alpha$  gives an element of  $\beta$ . For mathematicians this loosely means that for any two classes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , there is a new class  $hom(\alpha, \beta)$ . Sometimes we are not bothered to give a function a name, we can use the  $\lambda$  notation: the expression  $(\lambda x : \alpha, \text{expression})$  has type  $\alpha \to \dots$  depending on the content of expression. For example  $(\lambda x : \mathbb{N}, x + 1) : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  is the function from natural numbers to natural numbers that add 1 to any input.
- let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be types then  $\alpha \times \beta$  is the cartesian product of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ : the element of type  $\alpha \times \beta$  is an ordered tuple (a,b) where  $a:\alpha$  and  $b:\beta$ .
- Let  $\alpha$  be a type in universe  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\beta: \alpha \to \mathcal{U}$  be a family of type that for

any  $a:\alpha,\,\beta(a)$  is a type in  $\mathcal{U}$ . Then we can form the  $\Pi$ -type

$$\prod_{a:\alpha} \beta(a)$$

whose element is of the form  $f: \prod_{a:\alpha} \beta(a)$  such that for any  $x: \alpha, f(x):$ 

 $\beta(x)$ . Note that function type is actually an example of  $\Pi$ -type where  $\beta$  is a constant family of types. For this reason, we also call  $\Pi$ -types dependent functions. For example if  $\text{Vec}(\mathbb{R}, n)$  is the type of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$n \mapsto \underbrace{(1, \cdots, 1)}_{n \text{ times}} : \prod_{m:\mathbb{N}} \operatorname{Vec}(\mathbb{R}, m)$$

• We also have dependent cartesian product or  $\Sigma$ -type: Let  $\alpha$  be a type in universe  $\mathcal{U}$  and  $\beta: \alpha \to \mathcal{U}$  be a family of types in  $\mathcal{U}$ , then the  $\Sigma$ -type

$$\sum_{a:\alpha} \beta(a)$$

whose element is of the form  $(x,y):\sum_{a:\alpha}\beta(a)$  such that  $x:\alpha$  and  $y:\beta(x)$ . Similarly

$$\left(n,\underbrace{(1,\cdots,1)}_{n \text{ times}}\right): \sum_{m:\mathbb{N}} \operatorname{Vec}(\mathbb{R},m)$$

#### 2.1.1 Proposition as type

In type theory, a proposition p can be regarded as a type whose elements is a proof of p.

**Example 1.** 1+1=2 is a proposition. rfl is an element of type 1+1=2 where rfl is the assertion that every term equals to itself.

**Example 2.** For two propositions p and q, the implication  $p \implies q$  then can be interpreted as function  $p \to q$ . To say imp :  $p \to q$  is to say for any hp : p we have imp(hp) : q, or equivalently given any hp, a *proof* of proposition p, imp(hp) is a *proof* of proposition q.

**Example 3.** If  $p: \alpha \to \text{proposition}$ , the proposition  $\forall x: \alpha, p(x)$  can be interpreted as a  $\Pi$ -type  $\prod_{x:\alpha} p(x)$ . To prove  $\forall x: \alpha, p(x)$ , we need to find an element

of type  $\prod_{x:\alpha} p(x)$ ; equivalently for any  $x:\alpha$ , we need to find an element of type p(x); equivalently for any  $x:\alpha$ , we need to find a proof of p(x).

Similarly,  $\exists x: \alpha, p(x)$  can be interpreted as a  $\Sigma$ -type  $\sum_{x:\alpha} p(x)$ . To prove

 $\exists x : \alpha, p(x)$  is to find an element x of type  $\alpha$  and prove p(x), equivalent to find an element  $x : \alpha$  and an element of type p(x) and this is precisely  $(x, p(x)) : \sum_{x \in \alpha} p(a)$ .

Theorems are true propositions. Using the interpretation above, theorems are inhabited types and to prove a theorem is to find an element of the required type.

#### 2.2 Lean and mathlib

mathlib is the collection of mathematical definitions, theorems, lemmas built on Lean. mathlib includes topics in algebra, topology, manifolds and combinatorics etc. The following section will briefly explain how to use Lean with mathlib.

In Lean, new definition can be introduced with the following syntax:

```
def name (arg<sub>1</sub>:type<sub>1</sub>) ... (arg<sub>n</sub>:type<sub>n</sub>) : return_type := contents

def name' {arg<sub>1</sub>:type<sub>1</sub>} ... (arg<sub>n</sub>:type<sub>n</sub>) : return_type := contents
```

return\_type is optional when it can be inferred from contents. If an argument is enclosed by curly brackets instead of round brackets, then when the definition is invoked the said argument is implicit, i.e. name'  $a_2$  ...  $a_n$  where  $a_i$ :type<sub>i</sub>. To explicitly mention the said argument, one needs to use @name'  $a_1$  ...  $a_n$  where  $a_i$ :type<sub>i</sub>. One can use "if then else" to introduce a function whose value depends on the value of the arguments:

```
def name args : return_type :=
    if (h args)
    then contents1
    else contents2

def name args : return_type :=
    ite (h args) contents1 contents2
```

New notations are introduced with the following syntax:

```
notation _`lhs`_ := _rhs_
```

so that Lean will treat every occurrence of \_`lhs`\_ as \_rhs\_ verbatim. For example **notation**  $\mathbb{Z}$ `[X]` := polynomial  $\mathbb{Z}$  will replace polynomial  $\mathbb{Z}$  with a more familiar notation of  $\mathbb{Z}[X]$ .

For any type of  $\alpha$ , we can introduce a subtype of  $\alpha$  by:

```
def \alpha' := \{x : \alpha // property_satisfied_by_x\}
```

An element of type  $\alpha'$  is of the form  $\langle x, hx \rangle$  where  $x : \alpha$  and hx is a proof that x satisfies the given property.

Theorems or lemmas are introduced with the following syntax:

```
theorem name (arg1:type1) ... (argn:typen) : content :=
begin
-- proof of the theorem
end
```

To write a proof understandable to Lean, one need to use *tactic mode*. In Lean, one can use

• proof by induction: if the goal is a proposition about natural number n, induction n with n IH is to prove the proposition by induction. This command will change the current goal to two goals. The first is to prove the proposition for n = 0 and the second to prove the proposition for n + 1 with the additional inductive hypothesis IH;

```
theorem awesome_theorem_about_natural_number (n : N) :
    propositionn :=
begin
    induction n with n IH,

a_proof_of_proposition0

-- (IH : propositionn) is now in context
a_proof_of_propositionn+1
end
```

 proof by contradiction: if the goal is to prove proposition H, by\_contra absurdum will add absurdum: ¬H into the current context and turn the goal into proving false;

```
theorem awesome_theorem : awesome_proposition :=
begin
by_contra absurdum,

-- Now (absurdum : ¬ awesome_proposition) is in context and

the goal is to prove falsehood.
a_proof_of_falsehood
end
```

- proof in a forward manner i.e. introduce new theorem into the current context or convert known theorem in the current context to approach the goal:
  - have H := content will introduce a new proposition whose proof is given by content.

have H: some\_proposition will add one more goal of proving the proposition then introduce the proved proposition to the current context.

- If H is in context then replace H := content will change H to (a proof of) the proposition that content is proving.
  - replace H : some\_proposition will add one more goal of proving some\_proposition and then replace H to the proposition proven.
- If H is in context, simp at H will simplify H to using small lemmas<sup>1</sup>.
   simp only [h1,...,hn] is to simplify only using h1 ... hn.
- rw is for term rewriting. If we have h : lhs = rhs or h : lhs ← rhs and another H in context, then rw h at H will replace every occurrence of lhs with rhs in H and rw ← h will replace every occurrence of rhs with lhs in H.
  - rw [h1, h2, ..., hn] at H is the same as rw h1 at H, rw h2 at H, ..., rw hn at H.
- The fact that rw and simp change all term occurrences sometimes creates an inconvenience. If H is in context, conv\_lhs at H {tactics} will confine the scope of tactics only to the left hand side of H; similarly conv\_rhs at H {tactics} will confine the scope to the right hand side of H.
- generalise H : lhs = var\_name will set var\_name to lhs and add (proof of) the proposition H : lhs = var\_name to the current context.
- If H : 3 x : type, property\_about\_x is in the current context, choose x hx using H will introduce x:type with the assumption hx : property\_about\_x to the current context.
- If H:  $p \wedge q$  is in the current context, then H.1 is (a proof of) p and H.2 is (a proof of) q.
- If H: ite h1 h2 h3 is in the current context, then split\_ifs at H will turn the current goal into two goals, the first one is to prove the original goal with the additional assumption h1 and h2; the second one is to prove the original with goal with the additional assumption ¬h1 and h3.
- proof in a backward manner i.e. convert or replace the goal so that it is closer to what is known in context:
  - unfold definition is to unfold a definition to what is explicitly defined when the definition is introduced.
  - simp, rw, conv\_lhs {tactics} and conv\_rhs {tactics} is the same as above except now they change at goal.
  - Given (a proof of) proposition  $H: h1 \rightarrow h2$ , then apply H will change the goal of proving h2 to prove h1.

¹to be more precise, lemma with  $\mathfrak{d}[\mathsf{simp}]$  tag, i.e. lemmas declared in the following syntax  $\mathfrak{d}[\mathsf{simp}]$  lemma lemma\_name args: Prop. These lemma are usually trivial in nature such as nat.add\_zero which asserts that  $\forall n: \mathbb{N}, n+0=n$ .

- suffices H: some\_proposition ask for a proof of the current goal with additional H, then ask for a proof of H.
- norm\_cast converts the type of numbers. For example the current goal is  $(x:\mathbb{R})<(y:\mathbb{R})$  where x and y are of type  $\mathbb{N}$ , then after norm\_cast the goal will become x< y. This should be simpler because  $\mathbb{R}$  in Lean is defined as equivalent classes of Cauchy sequence of  $\mathbb{Q}$  while natural number is much easier to work with.

norm\_num is equivalent to norm\_cast, simp.

- ext will convert the current goal with axioms of extensionality. For example if the goal is to prove equality of polynomial then after ext the goal would become to prove that every coefficient is equal; or if the goal is to prove equality of sets of type  $\alpha$  A = B, then after ext, an arbitrary element x of type  $\alpha$  will be introduced into context then the goal will become to prove  $x \in A \iff x \in B$ . ext var\_name will force Lean to introduce a new variable under the identifier var name.
- If the goal is to prove ite h1 h2 h3 (or ite h1 h2 lhs = rhs), then split\_ifs at H will turn the current goal into two goals, the first one is to prove h2 (lhs = rhs resp.) with the additional assumption h1; the second one is to prove h3 (lhs = rhs resp.) with the additional assumption ¬h1.
- when the goal is easily provable, one can use the following to finish a goal:
  - refl (for reflexive) is used to prove propositions of the form lhs = rhs when lhs is definitionally equal to rhs. Definitional equality is more general than two string being literally identical but is less general than being (canonically) isomorphic. For example

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^j}$$

is a definitional equality but

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \operatorname{Func}(\{0, \cdots, n-1\}, \mathbb{R})$$

is not a definitional equality (strictly speaking perhaps not an equality at all).

- exact H will prove the current goal if the goal is definitionally equal to H.
- ring will try to prove the current goal using associativity and commutativity of addition and multiplication.
- linarith is used when proving inequality from context. linarith
  is semi-automated, so it can work with inequalities with symbols or
  variables but only to a degree. If linarith fails, one has to either

provide linarith with more propositions or use other tactics to change the goal into something more manageable the use linarith. linarith [h1, ..., hn] is equivalent to use linarith with additional (proofs of) propositions h1 ... hn.

- tidy is to ask Lean to try different tactics and finishes the goal if it possible.
- If there is multiple goals, one can use { } to focus on the first one.
- If the entirety of proof is one line, one can replace begin contents end with by contents.

A proposition if not atomic is either a conjunction, a disjunction, an implication, an equivalence, a negation or a proposition with universal quantifier or existential quantifier.

#### 2.2.1 prove a conjunction

If the goal is to prove a conjunction of the form  $h_1 \wedge h_2$ , split is used. It will change the current goal to two goals of proving  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  respectively. Then the general pattern is

```
theorem how_to_prove_conjunction (h_1 : Prop) (h_2 : Prop) : h_1 \wedge h_2 := begin split,

proof_of_h_1

proof_of_h_2
end
```

#### 2.2.2 prove a disjunction

If the goal is to prove a disjunction of the form  $h_1 \vee h_2$ , one can use left to change the goal to prove  $h_1$  or right to change the goal to prove  $h_2$ . Let us assume  $h_1$  is a true proposition:

```
theorem how_to_prove_disjunction ( h_1 : Prop) ( h_2 : Prop) : h_1 \lor h_2 := begin left, proof_of_h_1 end
```

#### 2.2.3 prove an implication

If the goal is to prove an implication of the form  $p \implies q$ , one can use intro hp to add hp:p a proof of p into the context and convert the goal to proving q.

```
theorem how_to_prove_implication (p : Prop) (q : Prop) : p \rightarrow q := begin intro hp, proof_of_q end
```

If the goal is of the form  $p_1 \to p_2 \to \dots p_n$ , one can use intros  $hp_1 \dots hp_n$  as an abbreviation of intro  $hp_1$ , intro  $hp_2$ ,..., intro  $hp_n$ .

#### 2.2.4 prove an equivalence

An equivalence of the form  $p \iff q$  is by definition  $p \implies q \land q \implies p$ . Thus split will change the goal to two goals, one to prove  $p \implies q$ , the other to prove  $q \implies p$ . Then use section 2.2.3.

#### 2.2.5 prove a negation

A negation of the form  $\neg p$  is by definition  $p \implies \bot$ . Thus intro hp will add hp:p to the current context and convert the goal to proving a falsehood.

```
theorem how_to_prove_negation (p : Prop) : ¬p := begin intro hp,

proof_of_falsehood end
```

#### 2.2.6 prove a proposition with $\forall$

A proposition of the form  $\forall a : \alpha, p(a)$  where  $\alpha$  is a type and  $p : \alpha \to \mathsf{Prop}$  can be proved also using intro  $x_0$ . This will add an arbitrary  $x_0 : \alpha$  to the current context and change the goal to proving  $p(x_0)$ .

```
theorem how_to_proposition_with_universal_quantifier \{\alpha: {\tt Type}\}\ (p \hookrightarrow : \alpha \to {\tt Prop}): \forall a: \alpha, pa:= \begin intro $x_0$, a_proof_of_$p(x_0)$ end
```

If the goal is the form  $\forall a_1 : \alpha_1, \forall a_2 : \alpha_2, \ldots, \forall a_n : \alpha_n, p \ a_1 \ a_2 \ldots a_n$  can be proved using intros  $a_1 \ a_2 \ldots a_n$  as an abbreviation of intro  $a_1$ , intro  $a_2$ ,..., intro  $a_n$ .

#### 2.2.7 prove a proposition with $\exists$

A proposition of the form  $\exists a : \alpha, p(a)$  where  $\alpha$  is a type and  $p : \alpha \to \mathsf{Prop}$  can be proved by use  $x_0$ . This will convert the goal to proving  $p(x_0)$ .

### 2.3 An example

To illustrate the above syntax and patterns, an example is presented here of defining mean value of two real numbers and proving some basic properties thereof.

```
import data.real.basic
   import tactic
2
   noncomputable theory
   open_locale classical
   def mean (x y : \mathbb{R}) : \mathbb{R} := (x + y) / 2
   theorem min_le_mean : \forall x y : \mathbb{R}, min x y \le (\text{mean } x y) :=
   begin
10
   intros x y,
11
   have ineq1: min x y \le x := min_le_left x y,
   have ineq2 : min x y \le y := min_le_right x y,
13
14
   unfold mean, rw le_div_iff, rw mul_two,
15
   apply add_le_add,
16
   exact ineq1, exact ineq2,
17
18
19
   linarith,
   end
20
21
   theorem mean_le_max : \forall x y : \mathbb{R}, (mean x y) \leq max x y :=
   begin
23
   intros x y,
24
   have ineq1 : x \le max \times y := le_max_left \times y,
25
   have ineq2: y \le \max x y := le \max right x y,
26
   unfold mean, rw div_le_iff, rw mul_two,
   apply add_le_add,
   exact ineq1, exact ineq2,
30
31
   linarith,
```

```
end
33
34
    theorem a number in between :
35
      \forall x y : \mathbb{R}, x \leq y \rightarrow \exists z : \mathbb{R}, x \leq z \land z \leq y :=
    begin
37
    intros x y hxy,
38
    have ineq1 := min_le_mean x y,
    have ineq2 := mean_le_max x y,
    have min_eq_x := min_eq_left hxy,
42
    have max_eq_y := max_eq_right hxy,
    use mean x y,
43
    split,
44
45
    { conv_lhs {rw \leftarrow min_eq_x}, exact ineq1, },
    { conv_rhs {rw \leftarrowmax_eq_y}, exact ineq2, },
47
```

Line 1 makes basic properties of real available to use and line 2 makes all the tactics we discussed amongst other more advanced tactics available to use. We add line 4 so that lean would ignore the issue of computability and line 5 so that we can use proof by contradiction<sup>2</sup>.

We define the mean value of two real numbers on line 7. Then  $mean^3$  has the type  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , mean 1 has the type  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and mean 1 2 has the type  $\mathbb{R}$ 

We can introduce and prove theorems about mean stating that the mean value of two numbers is greater than or equal to the minimum of the two numbers but less than the maximum. This is from line 9 to line 33 where

- $\min_{e} \text{left}$  is a proof of the proposition  $\forall (x \ y : \alpha), \min(x, y) \leq x$  where  $\alpha$  is an implicit argument with a linear order. In this case, Lean infers from context that  $\alpha$  is  $\mathbb{R}$ . Thus  $\min_{e} \text{left} x y$  is a proof of  $\min x y \leq x$ .
- min\_le\_right is a proof of the proposition  $\forall (x \ y : \alpha), \min(x, y) \leq y$  In this case, min\_le\_right x y is a proof of min x y \le y.
- Similarly, le\_max\_left is a proof of the proposition  $\forall (x \ y : \alpha), x \le \max(x,y)$  where  $\alpha$  is an implicit argument with a linear order. In this case, le\_max\_left is a proof of  $x \le \max x y$ .
- Similarly, le\_max\_right is a proof of the proposition  $\forall (x \ y : \alpha), y \le \max(x,y)$  where  $\alpha$  is an implicit argument with a linear order. In this case, le\_max\_right is a proof of  $y \le \max x y$ .
- le\_div\_iff is a proof that  $0 < c \to (a \le \frac{b}{c} \iff a \times c \le b)$  where a,b,c are elements of a type with a linear ordered field structure. So by

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Lean by default use constructivism where  $\neg \neg p \implies p$  is not an axiom of deduction. Thus the law of excluded middle is not by default a tautology.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>mean is not a function  $\mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  but a function  $\mathbb{R} \to \operatorname{Func}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ . This is called currying.

rw le\_div\_iff, the goal would change from min  $x y \le (x + y) / 2$  to min  $x y * 2 \le x + y$ . Since le\_div\_iff requires the assumption that 0 < c, a new goal to prove that 0 < 2 is created after the original goal. This goal is proved by the final linarith.

- div\_le\_iff is proof that  $0 < b \implies (\frac{a}{b} \le c \iff a \le c \times b)$  where a,b,c are elements of a type with a linear ordered field structure. So by rw div\_le\_iff the goal would change from  $(x + y) / 2 \le \max x y$  to  $x + y \le \max x y + 2$ . Since div\_le\_iff requires the assumption that 0 < b, a new goal to prove 0 < 2 is created after the original goal. This goal is proved by the final linarith.
- mul\_two proves the lemma that  $\forall n : \alpha, n \times 2 = n + n$  where  $\alpha$  is a semiring. Thus rw mul\_two would change the goal of proving min x y \* 2 \le x + y (x + y \le max x y \* 2 resp.) to min x y + min x y \le x + y (x + y \le max x y + max x y resp.).
- add\_le\_add proves the lemma that  $a \le b \to c \le d \to a + c \le b + d$  where a, b, c and d are elements of an ordered additive commutative monoid. Since the goal now is to prove min x y + min x y  $\le$  x + y, by apply add\_le\_add, goal will be replaced by two goals of proving min x y  $\le$  x and min x y  $\le$  y. These are *exactly* ineq1 and ineq2.

## Chapter 3

# Formalisation using Lean

### Logistics of the formalisation

There are five main files in this project where

- 1. small\_things.lean formalised results about the trivial embedding of  $\mathbb{Z}[X] \subset \mathbb{R}[X]$  and manipulation of inequality in real numbers common to all three parts;
- 2. algebraic\_over\_Z.lean formalised countability of algebraic numbers with help of Schröder-Berstein theorem.
- 3. liouville.lean formalised Liouville's theorem and a construction of a Liouville's number;
- 4. e\_trans\_helpers2.lean formalised some results about differentiation and integration. Especially the formalisations of

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^n}{\mathrm{d}x^n}uv = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \frac{\mathrm{d}^i u}{\mathrm{d}x^i} \frac{\mathrm{d}^{n-i} v}{\mathrm{d}x^{n-i}}$$

where u and v are differentiable function from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  and

$$\int_0^t e^{t-x} f(x) dx = e^t \sum_{i=0}^m f^{(i)}(0) - \sum_{i=0}^m f^{(i)}(t)$$

where  $f(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ ;

5. e\_transcendental.lean formalised transcendence of e by assuming the algebraicity of e which resulted in two contradictory bounds using the results from e\_trans\_helpers2.lean.

### 3.1 Countability argument

The main caveat in this part is the internal specification of mathlib. A real number x in Lean is algebraic over  $\mathbb{Z}$  if and only if there exists a nonzero polynomial  $p(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  such that p is in the kernel of the unque  $\mathbb{Z}$ -algebra homomorphism  $\mathbb{Z}[X] \to \mathbb{R}$  given by  $X \mapsto x$ .

```
∃ (p : \mathbb{Z}[X]), p ≠ 0 ∧ \uparrow(polynomial.aeval \mathbb{Z} \mathbb{R} \times) p = 0
```

Here the  $\mathbb{Z}$ -algebra homomorphism is polynomial.aeval  $\mathbb{Z} \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{N}$  is to convert the homomorphism to a function applicable to p. The reason that a conversion is necessary is because an algebra homomorphism contains more information than a function, it is a structure containing the map and other fields containing (proofs of) the properties of algebra homomorphism. However in polynomial library of mathlib, the definition of root is as following:

```
def is_root (p : polynomial R) (a : R) : Prop := p.eval a = 0
```

Thus the first part of this formalisation is to unify the two evaluation methods – denote  $\iota_x$  to be the unique  $\mathbb{Z}$ -algebra homomorphism  $\iota_x : \mathbb{Z}[X] \to \mathbb{R}$  given by  $X \mapsto x$  then for all polynomial  $p(X) \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  and for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , eval<sub>p</sub> $(x) = \iota_x p$ :

```
-- the trivial embedding Z[X] ⊆ R[X]

def poly_int_to_poly_real (p : Z[X]) : polynomial R :=

→ polynomial.map ZembR p

def poly_int_to_poly_real_wd (p : Z[X]) :=

∀ x : R, polynomial.aeval Z R x p = (poly_int_to_poly_real

→ p).eval x

theorem poly_int_to_poly_real_well_defined

(x : R) (p : Z[X]) : poly_int_to_poly_real_wd p :=

begin

proof_omitted
end
```

Source Code 3.1: unifying two ways of evaluation

For any  $p \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$ , we can define the set of roots to be  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | \operatorname{eval}_p(x) = 0\}$  or  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | \iota_x p = 0\}$  where the former is builtin as  $\uparrow(\operatorname{poly\_int\_to\_poly\_real} p).\operatorname{roots}^1$  and the latter is defined as line 1 in source code 3.2. By line 7 in source code 3.1, the two sets must be equal, hence they have finite cardinality for a none-zero polynomial:

<sup>1</sup>\_.roots in fact has type finset ℝ. The type finset is a set with a proof of finite cardinality. Here ↑ is used to convert a finset to set by discarding the proof of finite cardinality.

```
def roots_real (p : \mathbb{Z}[X]) : set \mathbb{R} :=
       \{x \mid polynomial.aeval \mathbb{Z} \mathbb{R} \times p\}
2
3
    theorem roots_real_eq_roots (p : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (hp : p \neq 0) :
4
       roots_real p = \(\frac{poly_int_to_poly_real p).roots :=
       proof_omitted
    theorem roots_finite (p : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (hp : p \neq 0) :
       set.finite (roots_real p) :=
11
12
       proof_omitted
13
    end
14
```

Source Code 3.2: two ways of defining roots We define the set of all algebraic numbers over  $\mathbb{Z}$  to be

```
def algebraic_set : set \mathbb{R} := \{x \mid \text{is\_algebraic } \mathbb{Z} \mid x\}
```

To investigate the countability of algebraic\_set, we compare it with

$$\bigcup_{\substack{n \in \mathbb{N} \\ p \neq 0 \\ \text{deg } p < n+1}} \{x \in \mathbb{R} | \iota_x p = 0\}.$$
(3.1)

To this end, we introduce some types of interest:

```
notation `int_n` n := fin n \to \mathbb{Z}

notation `nat_n` n := fin n \to \mathbb{N}

notation `poly_n'` n := \{p : \mathbb{Z}[X] // p \neq \emptyset \land p.nat\_degree < n\}

notation `int_n'` n := \{f : fin n \to \mathbb{Z} // f \neq \emptyset\}

notation `int'` := \{r : \mathbb{Z} // r \neq \emptyset\}
```

where  $\langle m, hm \rangle$  is an element of fin n if and only if m is a natural number and hm is a proof of m < n. Then fin n is the type of only n elements. Thus

- int\_n n is  $\mathbb{Z}^n$ ;
- int\_n' n is  $\mathbb{Z}^n \{(0, \dots, 0)\};$
- int' is  $\mathbb{Z} \{0\}$ ;
- nat n n is  $\mathbb{N}^n$ ;
- $poly_n'$  n is the type of non-zero integer polynomials with degree less than n.

Then  $\mathbb{Z} \simeq \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$  by the bijective function  $s : \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$ :

$$m \mapsto \begin{cases} m & \text{if } m < 0 \\ m+1 & \text{if } m \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

```
\texttt{def strange\_fun} \; : \; \mathbb{Z} \; \rightarrow \; \texttt{int'} \; := \;
      λ m, if h : m < 0
2
             then (m, by linarith)
3
             else (m + 1, by linarith)
    theorem strange_fun_inj :
      function.injective strange_fun :=
    begin
      proof_omitted
10
11
    theorem strange_fun_sur :
12
      function.surjective strange_fun :=
13
14
      proof_omitted
15
    end
16
17
    theorem int_eqiv_int' : \mathbb{Z} \simeq \text{int'} :=
18
19
      apply equiv.of_bijective strange_fun,
      split,
21
      exact strange_fun_inj,
22
      exact strange_fun_sur,
23
    end
24
```

#### Source Code 3.3: $\mathbb{Z} \simeq \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$

Then we prove that for all non-zero  $n: \mathbb{N}$ , non-zero integer polynomials of degree less than n bijectively correspond to  $\mathbb{Z}^n - \{(0, \dots, 0)\}$  via the function:  $p \mapsto \mathbf{z}$  where the i-th coordinate of  $\mathbf{z}$  is the i-th coefficient of p.

```
def identify (n : nat) : (poly_n' n) \rightarrow (int_n' n) :=
     λ p, (λ m, p.1.coeff m.1, a_proof_z_is_not_zero)
2
   theorem sur_identify_n (n : nat) (hn : n ≠ 0) :
       function.surjective (identify n) :=
   begin
7
     proof_omitted
   end
   theorem inj_identify_n (n : nat) (hn : n ≠ 0) :
     function.injective (identify n) :=
11
   begin
12
     proof_omitted
13
14
15
   theorem poly_n'_equiv_int_n' (n : nat) :
     (poly_n' n.succ) ≃ (int_n' n.succ) :=
17
   begin
```

```
apply equiv.of_bijective (identify n.succ),
split,
exact inj_identify_n n.succ (nat.succ_ne_zero n),
exact sur_identify_n n.succ (nat.succ_ne_zero n),
end
```

†: n.succ means n+1.

Source Code 3.4: non-zero integer polynomials with degree less than n has the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{Z}^n - \{(0, \dots, 0)\}$ 

Then we define two injective functions  $F: \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} - \{(0, \dots, 0)\}$  and  $G: \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} - \{(0, \dots, 0)\} \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$  by:

$$F(m_0, ..., m_n) = (s(m_0), ..., s(m_n))$$
  
 $G(m_0, ..., m_n) = (m_0, ..., m_n)$ 

where  $s: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} - \{0\}$  is defined previously. By Schröder-Berstein theorem, there is then a bijection  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} - \{(0,\ldots,0)\}$  and thus  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} - \{(0,\ldots,0)\}$ :

```
def F (n : nat) : (int_n n.succ) \rightarrow (int_n' n.succ) :=
     \lambda f, (\lambda m, (strange_fun (f m)).1,
   proof_omitted
   end
   def G (n : nat) : (int_n' n.succ) \rightarrow (int_n n.succ) :=
     \lambda f m, (f.1 m)
10
   theorem G_inj (n : nat) : function.injective (G n) :=
11
   begin
12
     proof_omitted
13
   end
14
15
   theorem int_n_equiv_int_n' (n : nat) :
16
     (int_n n.succ) \simeq int_n' n.succ :=
18
     choose B HB using function.embedding.schroeder_bernstein (F_inj
19
     \rightarrow n) (G_inj n),
     apply equiv.of_bijective B HB,
20
```

Source Code 3.5:  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} - \{(0, \dots, 0)\}$ 

For any natural number  $n \geq 1$ , we then construct two injective function  $f_n: \mathbb{Z}^{n+2} \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{Z}$  and  $g_n: \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}^{n+2}$ :

$$f_n((m_0, \dots, m_{n+1})) = ((m_0, \dots, m_n), m_{n+1})$$
  
$$g_n(((m_0, \dots, m_n), m_{n+1})) = (m_0, \dots, m_{n+1})$$

Then by Schröder-Berstein theorem  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+2} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

```
def fn (n : nat) :
      (int_n n.succ.succ) \rightarrow (int_n n.succ) \times \mathbb{Z} := \lambda r
2
      (λ m, r (⟨m.1, nat.lt_trans m.2 (nat.lt_succ_self n.succ)⟩),
       r ((n.succ, nat.lt_succ_self n.succ)))
   theorem fn_inj (n : N) : function.injective (fn n) :=
      proof_omitted
   def gn (n : nat) : (int_n n.succ) \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow (int_n n.succ.succ) := \lambda r
   begin
11
      by_cases (m.1 = n.succ),
12
        exact r.2,
13
        exact r.1 ((m.1, lt_of_le_of_ne (fin.le_last m) h)),
14
15
   theorem gn_inj (n : nat) : function.injective (gn n) :=
16
   begin
17
      proof omitted
18
   end
19
20
   theorem aux_int_n (n : nat) :
21
      (int_n n.succ.succ) \simeq (int_n n.succ) \times \mathbb{Z} :=
22
23
   choose B HB using function.embedding.schroeder_bernstein (fn_inj n)
24
    apply equiv.of_bijective B HB,
25
```

Source Code 3.6:  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+2} \simeq \mathbb{Z}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{Z}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ 

Now we are finally in the position of using equation 3.1 to prove the countability of all algebraic numbers. We first define the set of real roots of non-zero integer polynomials of degree less than n to be:

Hence by taking union over all natural numbers we can obtain an equivalent definition of all algebraic number over  $\mathbb{Z}$ :

We prove by induction that for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$  is denumerable (i.e. countably infinite) where the base case is  $\mathbb{Z}^1 \simeq \mathbb{Z}$  and the inductive step is to prove

 $\mathbb{Z}^{n+2}$  is denumerable using the denumerability of  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ . Since non-zero integer polynomials of degree less than n+1 bijectively corresponds to  $\mathbb{Z}^{n+1}$ , we infer that non-zero integer polynomials of degree less than n+1 are denumerable hence countable. Then the result of taking union over the countable set  $\mathbb{N}$ 

$$\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\bigcup_{\substack{p\in\mathbb{Z}[X]\\p\neq 0\\\deg p< n+1}}\{x\in\mathbb{R}|\iota_xp=0\}$$

is still countable. Then finally the set of all algebraic numbers over  $\mathbb Z$  is conclude to be countable. Since  $\mathbb R$  is uncountable, transcendental number must exist:

```
theorem int_1_equiv_int : (int_n 1) \simeq \mathbb{Z} :=
    begin
      proof_omitted
3
    end
5
    theorem int_n_denumerable {n : nat} :
      denumerable (int_n n.succ) :=
      proof_omitted
    end
10
11
    theorem poly_n'_denumerable (n : nat) :
12
      denumerable (poly_n' n.succ) :=
13
    begin
      proof_omitted
15
    end
16
17
    theorem algebraic_set'_n_countable (n : nat) :
18
      set.countable (algebraic_set'_n n) :=
19
    begin
20
      proof_omitted
21
    end
22
23
    theorem algebraic_set'_countable :
      set.countable algebraic_set' :=
25
      set.countable_Union
26
        (λ n, algebraic_set'_n_countable n.succ)
27
28
    theorem algebraic_set_countable :
      set.countable algebraic_set :=
30
31
      rw ←algebraic_set'_eq_algebraic_set, exact algebraic_set'_countable
32
33
34
35
    theorem transcendental_number_exists :
36
      \exists x : \mathbb{R}, transcendental x :=
37
38
      proof_omitted
    end
```

Source Code 3.7: algebraic numbers are countable, hence transcendental numbers exists.

#### 3.2 Liouville's theorem and Liouville numbers

#### General theory about Liouville numbers

A Liouville number is a real number that is "almost rational", i.e. for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there is a rational number  $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that b > 1 and  $0 < |x - \frac{a}{b}| < \frac{1}{b^n}$ .

Source Code 3.8: Definition of Liouville number We first prove a lemma about irrational roots of an integer polynomial:

**Lemma 3.2.1.** if f is an integer polynomial with degree m>1 and  $\alpha$  is an irrational root for i(f) where  $i:\mathbb{Z}[X]\to\mathbb{R}[X]$  is the trivial embedding, then there is a postive real number A such that for every rational number  $\frac{a}{b}$ ,

$$\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| > \frac{A}{b^m}$$
:

```
lemma about_irrational_root (\alpha : \mathbb{R})
(h\alpha : irrational \alpha) (f : \mathbb{Z}[X])
(f_deg : f_nat_degree > 1)
(\alpha_root : f_eval_on_\mathbb{R} f \alpha = 0) :
3 A : \mathbb{R}, A > 0 \wedge \forall a b : \mathbb{Z}, b > 0 \rightarrow abs(\alpha - a/b) >
\hookrightarrow (A/b^(f_nat_degree)) :=
```

*Proof.* We will abuse the notation to denote f both as the integer polynomial and the real polynomial via trivial embedding.

```
begin

have f_nonzero : f ≠ 0,

proof_omitted

generalize hfR: f.map ZembR = f_R,

have hfR_nonzero : f_R ≠ 0,

proof_omitted

generalize hDf: f_R.derivative = Df_R,
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Without losing generality, we are always assuming, for any rational number, the denominator is a strictly positive natural number.

Since  $\operatorname{abs} \circ Df: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  given by  $x \mapsto \left|\frac{\operatorname{d}}{\operatorname{d}t}\right|_{t=x} f(t)$  is a continuous function and  $[\alpha-1,\alpha+1]$  is a non-empty compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\operatorname{abs} \circ Df$  attains a maximum on  $[\alpha-1,\alpha+1]$ , denote it by M. Then M>0 for otherwise M=0 then Df(x)=0 for all  $x\in [\alpha-1,\alpha+1]$  implying that f is constant contradicting the degree of f.

```
have H := is compact.exists forall ge
13
                    a_proof_of_[\alpha-1,\alpha+1]_compact
14
                    a_proof_of_[\alpha-1,\alpha+1]_not_empty
15
16
                    a_proof_of_abs \circ Df_continuous,
17
      choose x_max hx_max using H,
18
      generalize M_def: abs (Df_R.eval x_max) = M,
19
      have hM := hx_max.2, rw M_def at hM,
20
      have M_non_zero : M ≠ 0,
21
        proof_omitted
22
      have M_pos: M > 0
23
        proof_omitted
24
```

Let us consider the smallest element B of the set  $\left\{1,\frac{1}{M}\right\} \cup \{|\alpha-x|\,|f(x)=0 \land x \neq \alpha\}$ , then B>0.

```
generalize roots def : f R.roots = f roots,
25
      generalize roots'_def : f_roots.erase \alpha = f_roots',
26
      generalize roots_distance_to_\alpha : f_roots'.image (\lambda x, abs (\alpha -
27
      \rightarrow x)) = distances,
      generalize hdistances' : insert (1/M) (insert (1:ℝ) distances) =
28
          distances',
      have hnon_empty: distances'.nonempty,
29
        proof_omitted
      generalize hB : finset.min' distances' hnon_empty = B,
31
      have allpos : \forall x : \mathbb{R}, x \in \text{distances'} \rightarrow x > 0,
32
        proof_omitted
33
      have B pos : B > 0
34
        proof_omitted
```

Let  $A=\frac{B}{2}$  then A>B>0. We claim that A satisfies the lemma, i.e. A>0 and for every rational number  $\frac{a}{b}, \ |\alpha-a/b|>\frac{A}{b^m}$  where m is the degree of f.

```
generalize hA : B / 2 = A,
use A, split,
a_proof_of_A > 0
```

We proceed by assuming that there exists a rational number  $\frac{a}{b}$  such that  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| \leq \frac{A}{b^m}$  for a contradiction. Since  $b \geq 1$ , we have  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| \leq A < B$ . Then  $\frac{a}{b}$  is not a root of f because otherwise  $B \leq \left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right|$ .

```
by_contra absurd,
       simp only [gt_iff_lt, classical.not_forall, not_lt,
40

    classical.not_imp] at absurd,

       choose a ha using absurd,
41
      choose b hb using ha, have hb2 : b ^ f.nat_degree ≥ 1,
42
43
         {\tt proof\_omitted}
44
       have hb21 : abs (\alpha - a / b) \le A,
45
         proof_omitted
46
       have hb22 : abs (\alpha - a/b) < B,
         proof_omitted
48
       have hab0 : (a/b:\mathbb{R}) \in \text{set.Icc } (\alpha-1) (\alpha+1),
49
         proof_omitted
50
       have hab1 : (a/b:\mathbb{R}) \neq \alpha,
51
         proof_omitted
52
       have hab2 : (a/b:\mathbb{R}) \notin f\_roots,
53
         proof_omitted
```

Since  $\alpha \neq \frac{a}{b}$ , we can assume without losing generality that  $\frac{a}{b} < \alpha$ . Since  $\operatorname{eval}_f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  given by  $x \mapsto f(x)$  is differentiable, we can use mean value theorem to find  $x_0 \in \left(\frac{a}{b}, \alpha\right)$  such that

$$Df(x_0) = \frac{\operatorname{eval}_f(\alpha) - \operatorname{eval}_f(\frac{a}{b})}{\alpha - \frac{a}{b}} \quad [\text{Mean value theorem}]$$
$$= -\frac{\operatorname{eval}_f(\frac{a}{b})}{\alpha - \frac{a}{b}} \quad [\alpha \text{ is a root of } i(f)]$$

```
have hab3 := ne_iff_lt_or_gt.1 hab1,
cases hab3,
have H :=
exists_deriv_eq_slope (\lambda x, f_R.eval x) hab3 _ _,
choose x0 hx0 using H,
have hx0r := hx0.2,
rw [polynomial.deriv, hDf, \leftarrowhfR] at hx0r,
rw [f_eval_on_R] at \alpha_root, rw [\alpha_root, hfR] at hx0r, simp only
\hookrightarrow [zero_sub] at hx0r,
```

Then  $|Df(x_0)| > 0$  hence  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| = \left|\frac{\operatorname{eval}_f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)}{Df(x_0)}\right|$  is non-zero. Since M is the maximum of  $\operatorname{abs} \circ Df$  on  $[\alpha - 1, \alpha + 1]$ . We have  $|Df(x_0)| \leq M$  and thus  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| \geq \frac{|\operatorname{eval}_f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)|}{M}$ . If we write f(X) as  $\sum_{j=0}^m \lambda_j X^j$  then

$$\left| \operatorname{eval}_f \left( \frac{a}{b} \right) \right| = \left| \sum_{j=0}^m \lambda_j \frac{a^j}{b^j} \right| = \frac{1}{b^m} \left| \sum_{j=0}^m \lambda_j a^j b^{m-j} \right| \ge \frac{1}{b^m}$$

Hence we have  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| \ge \frac{1}{Mb^m} > \frac{A}{b^m}$ . But we assumed  $\left|\alpha - \frac{a}{b}\right| < \frac{A}{b^m}$  to start with, this is the desired contradiction.

```
have Df x0 nonzero : Df \mathbb{R}.eval x0 \neq 0,
63
         proof_omitted
64
       have H2: abs(\alpha - a/b) = abs((f_R.eval (a/b:R)) / (Df_R.eval
65
       \rightarrow x0)),
66
         proof_omitted
67
      have ineq' : polynomial.eval (a/b:\mathbb{R}) (polynomial.map \mathbb{Z}emb\mathbb{R} f) \neq
68
       \hookrightarrow 0,
         proof omitted
69
      have ineq: abs (\alpha - a/b) \ge 1/(M*b^{(f.nat\_degree)}),
70
         proof_omitted
71
      have ineq2 : 1/(M*b^(f.nat_degree)) > A / (b^f.nat_degree),
72
         proof_omitted
73
      have ineq3: abs (\alpha - a / b) > A / b f.nat_degree,
74
         proof_omitted
      have ineq4: abs (\alpha - a / b) > abs (\alpha - a / b),
76
         proof_omitted
77
       linarith,
78
79
       We omit the proof of differentiability of eval_f, continuity of abs \circ Df and the case when
          \frac{a}{b} > \alpha
      rest_omitted
81
```

We then prove the irrationality of Liouville numbers.

Lemma 3.2.2. Every Liouville number is irrational

```
lemma liouville_numbers_irrational: \forall (x : \mathbb{R}), (liouville_number x) \rightarrow irrational x :=
```

*Proof.* Let x be an arbitrary Liouville number and suppose for a contradiction that  $x = \frac{a}{b}$ , write n = b + 1 then  $2^{n-1} > b$ .

```
begin
intros x liouville_x a b hb rid,
replace rid : x = \frac{1}{2} a \frac{1}{2} b, linarith,
generalize hn : b.nat_abs + 1 = n,
have b_ineq : 2 ^ (n-1) > b,
proof_omitted
```

Since  $x = \frac{a}{b}$  is a Liouville number we can find a rational number  $\frac{p}{q}$  such that q > 1 and  $0 < \left| \frac{a}{b} - \frac{p}{q} \right| < \frac{1}{q^n}$  or equivalently  $0 < \frac{|aq - bp|}{bq} < \frac{1}{q^n}$ . If aq - bp = 0, then 0 < 0 is the desired contradiction.

```
choose p hp using liouville_x n,
choose q hq using hp, rw rid at hq,
have q_pos: q > 0 := by linarith,
rw [div_sub_div at hq, abs_div at hq],

by_cases (abs (a*q-b*p:R) = 0),
intermediate_step_omitted
linarith,
```

If  $aq - bp \neq 0$  then  $\frac{1}{bq} \leq \frac{|aq - bp|}{bq}$ . But we also have  $b < 2^{n-1}$  and  $2^{n-1}q \leq q^n$  because  $q \geq 2$ . Hence  $bq < q^n$ , then  $\frac{|aq - bp|}{bq} > \frac{1}{q^n}$ . This is the desired contradiction.

```
have ineq4 : 1 / (b * q : \mathbb{R}) \leq (abs(a * q - b * p:\mathbb{R})) / (b * q),
17
         proof_omitted
18
       have b_{ineq''}: (b*q:\mathbb{R}) < (2:\mathbb{R})^{(n-1)*(q:\mathbb{R})},
19
         proof_omitted
20
       have q_{ineq3} : 2 (n - 1) * q \le q n,
21
         proof_omitted
22
       have b_{ineq2} : b * q < q ^ n, linarith,
23
       have rid''
24
         abs (a*q-b*p:\mathbb{R}) / (b*q:\mathbb{R}) > 1/q^n,
25
         proof_omitted,
27
       have hq22 := hq2.2,
       linarith,
29
30
       We manipulated inequalities involving division and multiplication hence we need to prove
31
       \hookrightarrow several things to be positive.
       proofs_omitted
32
33
    end
```

With the above lemmas, we are ready to prove the transcendence of Liouville numbers.

**Theorem 3.2.1.** Every Liouville number is transcendental.

```
theorem liouville_numbers_transcendental : \forall x : \mathbb{R}, \hookrightarrow liouville_number x \rightarrow transcendental x :=
```

*Proof.* Let x be an arbitrary Liouville number then x is irrational. Assume for a contradiction that x is algebraic, let f be the non-zero integer polynomial admitting x as root as a  $\mathbb{R}$ -polynomial. Then since x is irrational, f has degree at least 2.

By using lemma 3.2.1 we can find a real number A>0 such that for any rational number  $\frac{p}{q}$ ,  $\left|x-\frac{p}{q}\right|>\frac{A}{q^n}$  where n is the degree of f.

Since  $\mathbb R$  is an Archimedean field, we can find an  $r \in \mathbb N$  such that  $\frac{1}{A} \leq 2^r$ . Then consider m := r + n. Since x is a Liouville number, there is a rational number  $\frac{a}{b}$  such that b > 1 and  $0 < \left| x - \frac{a}{b} \right| < \frac{1}{b^m} = \frac{1}{b^r b^n}$ .

```
have exists_r := pow_big_enough A A_pos,
13
      choose r hr using exists_r,
      have hr' : 1/(2^r) \le A,
15
        proof_omitted
16
      generalize hm : r + f.nat_degree = m,
17
      replace liouville_x := liouville_x m,
18
      choose a ha using liouville_x,
19
      choose b hb using ha,
20
21
      have ineq: abs (x-a/b:\mathbb{R}) < 1/((b:\mathbb{R})^r)*(1/(b:\mathbb{R})^f.nat_degree),
22
        proof_omitted
```

Since  $b \geq 2$ , we have  $\frac{1}{b^r} \leq \frac{1}{2^r} \leq A$ . Thus  $\left| x - \frac{a}{b} \right| < \frac{1}{b^r b^n} \leq \frac{A}{b^n}$ . This contradicts lemma 3.2.1 stating that  $\left| x - \frac{a}{b} \right| > \frac{A}{q^n}$ .

```
have ineq3 : 1/(b:R)^r ≤ A,
proof_omitted,
have ineq4 : 1 /(b:R)^r * (1/(b:R)^ f.nat_degree) ≤ (A /
(b:R)^f.nat_degree),
proof_omitted
have ineq5 : abs (x - a/b:R) < A/(b:R)^f.nat_degree, linarith,
have rid := hA.2 a b _, linarith, linarith,
end
```

#### Construction of a Liouville number

Knowing that all Liouville numbers are transcendental, we now focus on constructing a Liouville number

$$\alpha = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{j!}}$$

hence obtain a concrete example of transcendental number  $\alpha$ .

#### **Lemma 3.2.3.** $\alpha$ converges.

*Proof.* Since for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $\frac{1}{10^n}$  is none-negative and  $\frac{1}{10^n} \leq \frac{1}{10^{n!}}$ , we can use comparison test against  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^j}$  to deduce the convergence of  $\alpha$ .

```
\label{eq:def_def} \mbox{def ten_pow_n_fact_inverse (n : N) : } \mathbb{R} :=
           (1/10)<sup>n</sup>.fact
       def ten_pow_n_inverse (n : \mathbb{N}) : \mathbb{R} :=
            (1/10)<sup>n</sup>
       lemma summable_ten_pow_n_fact_inverse : summable
        → ten_pow_n_fact_inverse :=
           exact @summable_of_nonneg_of_le _
                ten_pow_n_inverse
               ten_pow_n_fact_inverse \begin{aligned} &\text{ten_pow_n_fact_inverse} \\ &\text{a_proof_of} - \frac{1}{10^n} \geq 0 \\ &\text{a_proof_of} - \frac{1}{10^n} \leq \frac{1}{10^{n!}} \\ &\text{a_proof_of} - \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^n} - \text{converges,} \end{aligned}
10
11
12
13
       end
14
15
      \mathsf{def} \ \alpha \ \coloneqq \ \sum' \ \mathsf{n, ten\_pow\_n\_fact\_inverse} \ \mathsf{n}
```

 $\dagger$ : In Lean,  $\sum'$  is to indicate infinite sum while  $\sum$  is for finite sum.

**Lemma 3.2.4.** For every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists some  $p_k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} \frac{1}{j^{k!}} = \frac{p_k}{10^{k!}}$$

```
notation `\alpha_k` k := \sum_{i=1}^{n} ii \text{ in } finset.range(k+1),}
\leftrightarrow \text{ ten_pow_n_fact_inverse } ii
notation `\alpha_k_rest` k := \sum_{i=1}^{n} ii \text{ in } finset.range(k+1),}
```

```
\sum_{k=0}^{7} \text{ ii, ten_pow_n_fact_inverse (ii+(k+1))}
```

*Proof.* We prove by induction on k. For k=0, the zeroth partial sum is  $\frac{1}{10^{0!}} = \frac{1}{10}$ . Thus we can pick  $p_0 = 1$ .

Assuming that  $\sum_{j=0}^{k} \frac{1}{10^{j!}} = \frac{p_k}{10^{k!}}$ , let  $m := 10^{(k+1)!-k!}$ , then we can set  $p_{k+1} := 1$ 

 $p_k m + 1$  then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} \frac{1}{10^{j!}} = \frac{p_k}{10^{k!}} + \frac{1}{10^{(k+1)!}} = \frac{p_k m + 1}{10^{(k+1)!}} = \frac{p_{k+1}}{10^{(k+1)!}}$$

```
choose pk hk using IH,
rw α_k at hk ⊢,
generalize hm : 10^((k+1).fact - k.fact) = m,
generalize hp : pk * m + 1 = p,
use p,
proof_omitted
end
```

†: In line 1 and 4 above, we use ii as indexing variable is to avoid clashes.

 $\ddagger$ : finset.range n ranges over  $\{0,\ldots,n-1\}$ .

**Theorem 3.2.2.**  $\alpha$  is a Liouville number

```
theorem liouville_\alpha : liouville_number \alpha :=
```

*Proof.* We need to prove that for an arbitrary  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists a rational number  $\frac{p(n)}{q(n)}$  such that p(n) > 1 and  $0 < \left|\alpha - \frac{p(n)}{q(n)}\right| < \frac{1}{q(n)^n}$ . By lemma 3.2.4 We know that for some  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{1}{10^{j!}} + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}} = \frac{p}{10^{n!}} + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}}.$$

We take p(n) to be p and q(n) to be  $10^{n!}$ . Then  $10^{n!} > 1$ , thus it suffices to prove  $0 < \left| \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}} \right| < \left( \frac{1}{10^{n!}} \right)^n$ 

```
begin
intro n,
have lemma1 := α_k_rat n,
have lemma2 : (α_k_rest n) = α - α_k n,
proof_omitted
choose p hp using lemma1,
use p, use 10^(n.fact),
suffices : 0 < abs (α_k_rest n) ∧
abs (α_k_rest n) < 1/(10^n.fact)^n,
split,
a_proof_of_10^n! > 1,
tidy,
split,
```

Since each summand is strictly positive,  $\left|\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}}\right| = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}} >$ 

0. Then we prove 
$$\left|\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}}\right| < \left(\frac{1}{10^{n!}}\right)^n$$
, or equivalently  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+n+1)!}} < 10^{-n}$ 

 $\left(\frac{1}{10^{n!}}\right)^n$  instead. Because for all  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $10^j \times 10^{(n+1)!} \le 10^{(j+(n+1))!}$ , we have

$$\begin{split} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{(j+(n+1))!}} &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{10^{j}} \frac{1}{10^{(n+1)!}} \right) = \frac{1}{10^{(n+1)!}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{10^{j}} \\ &= \frac{10}{9} \frac{1}{10^{(n+1)!}} < \frac{2}{10^{(n+1)!}} < \left( \frac{1}{10^{n!}} \right)^{n} \end{split}$$

```
rw [\alpha_k_rest, abs_of_pos (\alpha_k_rest_pos n)],

have ineq2:

(\sum_{i=1}^{1} (j:N), ten_pow_n_fact_inverse (j+(n+1))) \leq

(\sum_{i=1}^{1} (i:N), (1/10:R)^i * (1/10:R)^(n+1).fact),
proof_omitted
have ineq3:

(\sum_{i=1}^{1} (i:N), (1/10:R)^i * (1/10:R)^(n.fact*n.succ)) \leq
(2/10^nn.succ.fact:R),
proof_omitted
have ineq4: (2 / 10 ^ (n.fact*n.succ):R) <
(1/((10:R)^n.fact)^n),
proof_omitted,
have ineq5:
```

```
(\sum_{j=0}^{7} (j : N), ten_pow_n_fact_inverse (j+(n+1))) < (j+(n+1)) < (j+(n+
```

The transcendence of  $\alpha$  follows immediately from theorem 3.2.1 and theorem 3.2.2.

П

Corollary 3.2.1.  $\alpha$  is a transcendental number.

```
theorem transcendental_\alpha : transcendental \alpha := \hookrightarrow liouville_numbers_transcendental \alpha liouville_\alpha
```

#### 3.3 Hermite's theorem

Throughout this section f will be an integer polynomial with degree d, and t is a none-negative real number.

**Definition 3.3.1.** we define

$$I(f,t) := \int_0^t e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) \mathrm{d}x$$

```
def II (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (t : \mathbb{R}) (ht : t \geq 0) : \mathbb{R} :=
\int x \, \mathbf{in} \, \text{set.Icc 0 t, real.exp(t-x)*(f_eval_on_\mathbb{R} f x)}
```

If 
$$f(X) = \sum_{j=0}^d \lambda_j X^j$$
, we define  $\bar{f}(X) := \sum_{j=0}^d |\lambda_j| \, X^j$ 

 $\dagger$ : In Lean, an integer polynomial is a function  $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$  with finite support such that for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the value of the said function at n is not zero if and only if n is in the support of the said function. Thus to define  $\bar{f}$ , not only need we to specify the support and the function, a proof of n-th coefficient being non-zero if and only if n being in the support is needed as well.

Let us estimate an upper bound for |I(f,t)| using  $\bar{f}$ .

### **Lemma 3.3.1.** If $x \in [0, t]$ , then $|\operatorname{eval}_f(x)| \leq \operatorname{eval}_{\bar{f}}(t)$

```
lemma f_bar_ineq (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (t : \mathbb{R}) (ht : t \ge 0) :

\forall x \in \text{set.Icc } 0 \text{ t, abs } (f_eval_on_\mathbb{R} f x) \le f_eval_on_\mathbb{R} (f_bar f)

\rightarrow t :=
```

*Proof.* If we write  $f(X) = \sum_{j=0}^d \lambda_j X^j$ , then for any  $x \in [0,t]$ , we have  $|\text{eval}_f(x)| =$ 

$$\left| \sum_{j=0}^{d} \lambda_j x^j \right| \le \sum_{j=0}^{d} \left| \lambda_j x^j \right|.$$

```
intros x hx,
have lhs : f_eval_on_R f x = \( \subseteq i \) in f.support, (f.coeff i : \( \mathbb{R} \)) *

\[
\times x \ ^ i, \\
\times proof_omitted \\
\text{rw lhs,}
\]

have ineq1 : abs (\( \subseteq (i : \mathbb{N}) \) in f.support, (f.coeff i:\( \mathbb{R}) \times x \ ^ i)
\[
\times \( \subseteq \subseteq i \) in f.support, (abs (f.coeff i:\( \mathbb{R}) \times (x \ ^ i)), \]

proof_omitted
```

On the right hand side,  $\operatorname{eval}_{\bar{f}}(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{d} |\lambda_j| t^j$ . We conclude by noting that for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x^n \leq t^n$ .

Theorem 3.3.1.

$$|I(f,t)| \le te^t \operatorname{eval}_{\bar{f}}(t)$$

```
theorem abs_II_le2 (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (t : \mathbb{R}) (ht : t \geq 0) : abs (II f t ht) \leq t*t.exp*(f_eval_on_\mathbb{R} (f_bar f) t) :=
```

Proof.

$$|I(f,t)| = \left| \int_0^t e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) dx \right|$$

$$\leq \int_0^t \left| e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) \right| dx$$

$$\leq t e^t \operatorname{eval}_{\bar{f}}(t)$$

where the last inequality is due to  $e^{t-x} \le e^t$  for all  $x \in [0, t]$  and lemma 3.3.1.

Lemma 3.3.2.

```
I(f,t) := \int_0^t e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) dx = e^t \operatorname{eval}_f(0) - \operatorname{eval}_f(t) + I(f',t)
```

*Proof.* Since  $e^{t-x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left( -e^{t-x} \right)$ , we can use integration by part.

**Lemma 3.3.3.** For any  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$I(f,t) := \int_0^t e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) dx = e^t \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(0) - \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(t) + I(f^{(m+1)}, t)$$

П

```
lemma II_integrate_by_part_m (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (t : \mathbb{R})

(ht : t \geq 0) (m : \mathbb{N}) :

II f t ht = t.exp * (\sum i in finset.range (m+1), (f_eval_on_\mathbb{R}

(deriv_n f i) 0)) - (\sum i in finset.range (m+1), f_eval_on_\mathbb{R}

(deriv_n f i) t) + (II (deriv_n f (m+1)) t ht) :=
```

*Proof.* We prove by induction on m. The base case is lemma 3.3.2

```
begin
induction m with m ih,
rw [deriv_n, II_integrate_by_part],
simplification_steps_omitted
```

The inductive steps is to apply lemma 3.3.2 to  $f^{(m+1)}$  and regroup.

```
rw [ih, II_integrate_by_part],
simplification_steps_omitted
end
```

By the previous lemma, we obtain an alternative formulation of I(f,t)

#### Theorem 3.3.2.

$$I(f,t) = e^t \left( \sum_{j=0}^d \text{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(0) \right) - \sum_{j=0}^d \text{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(t)$$

*Proof.* We use lemma 3.3.3 with m := d, the degree of f. Then we get

$$I(f,t) := \int_0^t e^{t-x} \operatorname{eval}_f(x) dx = e^t \sum_{j=0}^d \operatorname{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(0) - \sum_{j=0}^d \operatorname{eval}_{f^{(j)}}(t) + I(f^{(d+1)}, t)$$

together with  $f^{(d+1)}$  is the zero polynomial so that  $I(f^{(d+1)},t)=0$ .

```
begin
have II_integrate_by_part_m :=
    II_integrate_by_part_m f t ht f.nat_degree,
have triv : deriv_n f (f.nat_degree + 1) = 0,
    proof_omitted
    rw I, rw [triv, II_0, add_zero] at II_integrate_by_part_m,
    assumption,
end
```

#### Transcendence of e

To prove the transcendence of e, we will assume the algebraicity for the hope of a contradiction.

**Definition 3.3.2.** For any prime number p and natural number n, we define an integer polynomial  $f_{p,n}(X) := X^{p-1} \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X-i)^{p}$ . For any integer polynomial g with degree n whose i-th coefficient is denoted by  $g_{i}$ , we define  $J_{p}(g) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} g_{j}I(f_{p,n},j)$ 

Let us evaluate an upper bound for  $J_p(g)$ 

**Theorem 3.3.3.** Let g and  $f_{p,n}$  be as above. Define

$$M := (d+1) \left( \max\{1, |g_0|, \dots, |g_m|\} (n+1) e^{n+1} \left( 2(n+1) \right)^{1+n} \right).$$

Then

$$|J_p(g)| \leq M^p$$

```
 \begin{array}{c} \text{def M (g : } \mathbb{Z}[X]) : \mathbb{R} := \\ \text{g.nat\_degree.succ} * ((\text{max\_abs\_coeff\_1 g}) * (\text{g.nat\_degree+1}) * \\ & \hookrightarrow ((\text{g.nat\_degree:} \mathbb{R}) + 1).\text{exp } * \\ & \hookrightarrow (2*(\text{g.nat\_degree+1}))^*(1+\text{g.nat\_degree})) \\ \end{array}
```

```
theorem abs_J_upper_bound
(g: Z[X]) (p: N) (hp: nat.prime p):
abs (J g p hp) ≤ (M g)^p :=
```

Proof.

$$|J_p(g)| = \left| \sum_{j=0}^n g_j I(f_{p,n},j) \right|$$
 [by definition] 
$$\leq \sum_{j=0}^n |g_j I(f_{p,n},j)|$$
 ineq1 
$$\leq \sum_{j=0}^n |g_j| j e^j \operatorname{eval}_{\tilde{I}_{p,d}}(j)$$
 [by theorem 3.3.1] 
$$\leq \sum_{j=0}^n \max\{1,|g_0|,\dots,|g_m|\} \cdot (d+1) e^{d+1} \left( j^{p-1} \prod_{i=1}^n (j-i)^p \right)$$
 
$$\leq \sum_{j=0}^n \max\{1,|g_0|,\dots,|g_m|\} \cdot (d+1) e^{d+1} \left( (2d+1)^p \prod_{i=1}^n (2d+1)^p \right)$$
 ineq2 
$$= (n+1) \left( \max\{1,|g_0|,\dots,|g_m|\} \cdot (n+1) e^{n+1} \left( 2n+1 \right)^{p(1+n)} \right)$$
 ineq3 
$$\leq (n+1)^p \left( \max\{1,|g_0|,\dots,|g_m|\}^p \cdot (n+1)^p e^{p(n+1)} \left( 2n+1 \right)^{p(1+n)} \right)$$
 
$$= M^p$$
 
$$\frac{\operatorname{theorem\ abs\ J\ upper\ bound\ (g\ :\ Z[X])\ (p\ :\ N)\ (hp\ :\ nat.prime\ p)\ :\ begin\ have\ ineq1\ :=\ abs\ J\ ineq1''\ g\ p\ hp,\ have\ ineq2\ :=\ sum\ ineq1\ g\ p\ hp,\ have\ ineq3\ :=\ sum\ ineq2\ g\ p\ hp,\ have\ ineq4\ :=\ le\ trans\ (le\ trans\ ineq1\ ineq2)\ ineq3,\ rw\ [M,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ comm,\ rw$$
 [M,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ pow,\ mul\ comm,\ rw]

†: Later we will see that as long as there exists for some c > 0,  $|J_p(g)| < c^p$ , we can prove the transcendence of e. Thus here M is chosen to be quite rough on purpose to trivialise the small inequalities needing to be proved such as  $j^{p-1} < (2(n+1))^p$  for any  $j = 0, \ldots, d$ .

eq1, **exact** ineq4,

end

For lower bound of  $J_p(g)$  where  $\operatorname{eval}_g(e) = 0$ , we need to work with more precision.

**Lemma 3.3.4.** For any prime number p and natural number n,  $f_{p,n}(X)$  has degree (n+1)p-1.

**Theorem 3.3.4.** Let  $g \in \mathbb{Z}[X]$  with degree n whose i-th coefficient is denoted by  $g_i$  such that  $\operatorname{eval}_g(e) = 0$ . Let m = (n+1)p-1. Then

$$J_p(g) = -\sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{n} g_k \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k)$$
(3.2)

*Proof.* We consider the following equalities

$$\begin{split} J_p(g) &= \sum_{k=0}^n g_k I(f_{p,n},k) & \text{[definition]} \\ J_-\text{eq1} &= \sum_{k=0}^n g_k \left[ e^k \left( \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0) \right) - \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) \right] & \text{[by lemma 3.3.2]} \\ J_-\text{eq2} &= \sum_{k=0}^n g_k e^k \left( \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0) \right) - \sum_{k=0}^n g_k \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) \\ &= \left( \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0) \right) \sum_{k=0}^n g_k e^k - \sum_{k=0}^n g_k \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) \\ J_-\text{eq3} &= -\sum_{k=0}^n g_k \sum_{j=0}^m \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) & \text{[eval}_g(e) = 0] \\ &= -\sum_{j=0}^m \sum_{k=0}^n g_k \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) \end{split}$$

```
begin
rw [J_eq1, J_eq2, J_eq3, finset.sum_comm],
```

```
simp only [zero_sub, neg_inj],
apply congr_arg, ext, rw finset.mul_sum,
assumption,
end
```

†: Types too long to be displayed with clarity, thus the information about  $J_eqi$  was moved to the start of the proof.

The summation in 3.2 actually starts at j = p - 1 because of the following lemmas.

**Lemma 3.3.5.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. If j < p-1, then  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{n,n}^{(j)}}(0) = 0$ .

```
lemma deriv_f_p_k_eq_zero_k_eq_0_when_j_lt_p_sub_one
(p: N) (hp: nat.prime p) (n j: N) (hj: j < p-1):
polynomial.eval 0 (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) j) = 0 :=</pre>
```

*Proof.* Let us agree to write  $f_{p,n}(X) = X^{p-1}\Pi_{p,n}$  as a short hand. Then

$$f_{p,n}^{(j)}(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{j} {j \choose i} (X^{p-1})^{(j-i)} \Pi_{p,n}^{(i)}$$

$$\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0) = \sum_{i=0}^{j} {j \choose i} \operatorname{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(j-i)}}(0) \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}^{(i)}}(0)$$
(3.3)

We prove that for all i = 0, ..., j, since j - i ,

$$(X^{p-1})^{(j-i)} = \left(\prod_{k=0}^{j-i-1} (p-1) - k\right) X^{p-1-(j-i)}.$$
 (3.4)

Thus by substituting 0, we get  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0) = \sum_{i=0}^j \binom{j}{i} 0 = 0$ 

```
begin
corresponding to equation (3.3)
rw [deriv_n_poly_prod, eval_sum',polynomial.eval_mul],
intermediate_steps_omitted

corresponding to equation (3.4)
rw deriv_X_pow',
rest_omitted
end
```

Similarly, we have the following lemma:

**Lemma 3.3.6.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. If j < p, then  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(x) = 0$  for all  $1 \le x \le n$ .

```
lemma deriv_f_p_when_j_lt_p (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) (n : N) : \forall x : N, \forall j : N, j \rightarrow x > 0 \rightarrow x < n.succ \rightarrow polynomial.eval (x:Z) (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) j) = 0 :=
```

*Proof.* We prove this by induction on n. For n = 0, there is no  $1 \le x \le 0$ , there is nothing to prove.

```
begin
induction n with n hn,
intros x j hj hx1 hx2,
linarith,
```

For the inductive step, assume  $\mathrm{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k)=0$  for all  $1\leq k\leq n.$  Then for any  $1\leq x\leq n+1$ 

$$f_{p,n+1} = f_{p,n}(X - (n+1))^p$$

$$f_{p,n+1}^{(j)} = \sum_{i=0}^{j} {j \choose i} f_{p,n}^{(j-i)} \left( (X - (n+1))^p \right)^{(i)}$$

$$\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n+1}^{(j)}}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{j} {j \choose i} \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j-i)}}(x) \operatorname{eval}_{((X - (n+1))^p)^{(i)}}(x).$$

We will prove that for any  $0 \le y \le j$ ,

$$\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j-y)}}(x)\operatorname{eval}_{((X-(n+1))^p)^{(y)}}(x) = 0$$

```
intros x j hj hx1 hx2,
rw [f_p_n_succ, deriv_n_poly_prod, eval_sum'],
apply finset.sum_eq_zero, intros y hy,
```

Here we have that either  $x \leq n$  or x = n+1. For  $x \leq n$ , by inductive hypothesis we have  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j-y)}}(x) = 0$  then of course  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j-y)}}(x) \operatorname{eval}_{((X-(n+1))^p)^{(y)}}(x) = 0$ 

For x = n + 1, we show  $eval_{((X - (n+1))^p)^{(y)}}(x) = 0$ . This is true because

$$((X - (n+1))^p)^{(y)} = \left(\prod_{i=0}^y (p-i)\right) (X - (n+1))^{p-y}$$

and p - y > 0 hence  $0^{p-y} = 0$ .

Combining the previous lemmas 3.3.5 and 3.3.6, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 3.3.1. Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. If j < p-1, then  $\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) = 0$  for all  $0 \le k \le n$ .

Thus

$$\sum_{j=0}^{p-2} \sum_{k=0}^{n} g_k \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k) = 0$$

```
theorem deriv_f_p_k_eq_zero_when_j_lt_p_sub_one
      (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) (n j : N)
      (hj : j 
      (hk : k \in finset.range n.succ):
      polynomial.eval (k:\mathbb{Z}) (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) j) = 0 :=
6
   begin
      cases k,
      exact deriv_f_p_k_eq_zero_k_eq_0_when_j_lt_p_sub_one p hp n j hj,
      apply deriv_f_p_when_j_lt_p p hp n k.succ j (nat.lt_of_lt_pred

→ hj) (nat.succ_pos k) (finset.mem_range.mp hk),
10
   end
11
   theorem J_partial_sum_from_one_to_p_sub_one
12
      (g : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (p : \mathbb{N}) (hp : nat.prime p) :
13
      \sum_{i=1}^{n} (j : N) in finset.range (p - 1),
\sum_{i=1}^{n} (k : N) in finset.range g.nat_degree.succ,
15
        g.coeff k * polynomial.eval ↑k (deriv_n (f_p p hp g.nat_degree)
           j) = 0 :=
   begin
17
      rw finset.sum_eq_zero, intros, rw finset.sum_eq_zero, intros,
18
19
      rw mul_eq_zero, right,
      rw deriv_f_p_k_eq_zero_when_j_lt_p_sub_one, simp only
20
          [finset.mem_range] at H, exact H, exact H_1,
   end
```

When j = p - 1, we can express  $\text{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(p-1)}}(0)$  in a closed form.

**Theorem 3.3.5.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. Then

$$\mathrm{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(p-1)}}(0) = (p-1)!(-1)^{np}(n!)^p$$

```
theorem deriv_f_p_zero_when_j_eq_p_sub_one
(p: N) (hp: nat.prime p) (n: N):
polynomial.eval 0 (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) (p-1)) =
(p-1).fact * (-1)^(n*p)*(n.fact)^p :=
```

*Proof.* We have the following equalities:

$$\begin{split} f_{p,n}^{(p-1)}(X) &= \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \binom{p-1}{i} (X^{p-1})^{(p-1-i)} \Pi_{p,n}^{(i)} \\ &\operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(p-1)}}(0) = \sum_{i=0}^{p-1} \binom{p-1}{i} \operatorname{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(p-1-i)}}(0) \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}^{(i)}}(0) \\ &= \binom{p-1}{0} \operatorname{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(p-1)}}(0) \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}}(0) \end{split}$$

where the last equality is due to  $\operatorname{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(p-1-i)}}(0) = 0$  for  $i \neq 0$  (lemma 3.3.6).

Combine theorem 3.3.5 with lemma 3.3.6, we get the following corollary:

Corollary 3.3.2. Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} g_k \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(p-1)}}(k) = g_0(p-1)!(-1)^{np}(n!)^p$$

```
rw deriv_f_p_zero_when_j_eq_p_sub_one p hp g.nat_degree,

intros i hi1 hi2, rw mul_eq_zero, right,
apply deriv_f_p_when_j_lt_p p hp g.nat_degree,
rest_omitted
end

rw deriv_f_p_zero_when_j_eq_p_sub_one p hp g.nat_degree,

intros i hi1 hi2, rw mul_eq_zero, right,
apply deriv_f_p_when_j_lt_p p hp g.nat_degree,
rest_omitted
end
```

The final piece of the puzzle is to evaluate  $f_{p,n}^j$  when  $j \geq p$ . We first consider when k = 0:

**Lemma 3.3.7.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. Then if  $j \ge p$  then  $p! \mid \text{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(0)$ .

```
lemma k_eq_0_case_when_j_ge_p (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) (n:N) : \forall j : N, j \geq p \rightarrow (p.fact:\mathbb{Z}) | polynomial.eval 0 (deriv_n (f_p p \rightarrow hp n) j) :=
```

*Proof.* Using equation 3.3, we need to prove that for all  $0 \le x \le j$ ,

$$p! \mid \binom{j}{x} \mathrm{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(j-x)}}(0) \mathrm{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}^{(x)}}(0)$$

```
begin

rw f_p, intros j j_ge_p, rw [deriv_n_poly_prod, eval_sum'],
apply finset.dvd_sum, intros x hx,
simp only [polynomial.eval_C, polynomial.C_add, polynomial.C_1,

polynomial.eval_mul, nat.fact],
```

If j-x=p-1, then  $\operatorname{eval}_{(X^{p-1})^{(j-x)}}(0)=(p-1)!$ , so it suffices to prove that  $p\mid \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi^{(x)}}(0)$ . In this case,  $x\neq 0$ , otherwise j=p-1>p. For  $x\geq 1$ ,

$$\Pi_{p,n}^{(x)} = \left( \left( \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - i) \right)^{p} \right)^{(x)} = p \left( \left( \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - i) \right)^{p-1} \left( \prod_{i=1}^{n} (X - i) \right)' \right)^{(x-1)}$$
(3.5)

```
by_cases j - x = p - 1,
      rw [h, deriv_X_pow'], simp only [mul_one, polynomial.eval_C,
       \hookrightarrow nat.sub_self, pow_zero],
       rw \leftarrow fact_eq_prod',
      suffices:
10
         (p:\mathbb{Z}) \mid polynomial.eval 0 (deriv_n (\prod (x : N) in finset.range))
          \rightarrow n, (polynomial.X - (polynomial.\overline{C} \uparrow x + 1)) ^ p) x),
         proof_omitted
12
       cases x
13
         simplification omitted, linarith,
14
         rw finset.prod_pow,
         {\bf apply} \ {\tt dvd\_poly\_pow\_deriv}, \ {\tt corresponding} \ {\tt to} \ {\tt equation} \ 3.5
```

If  $j - x \neq p - 1$ , either j - x or <math>j - x > p - 1. If  $j - x then <math>eval_{(X^{p-1})^{j-x}}(0) = 0$ ; if j - x > p - 1,  $(X^{p-1})^{j-x}$  is the zero polynomial.

```
replace h : j - x  p - 1, exact lt_or_gt_of_ne
17
      \hookrightarrow h,
18
     cases h,
       rw [(deriv_X_pow' (p-1) (j-x) (le_of_lt h)),
        \rightarrow polynomial.eval_mul],
       simp only [polynomial.eval_X, polynomial.eval_C,
20

→ polynomial.eval_pow],
21
       rw (rw (zero_pow (nat.sub_pos_of_lt h))),
       simp only [zero_mul, mul_zero, dvd_zero],
22
23
       rw deriv_X_pow_too_much,
24
       simp only [zero mul, mul zero, polynomial.eval zero, dvd zero],
25
       assumption,
```

**Lemma 3.3.8.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. Then for all natural number j,  $p! \mid \text{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k)$  for any  $0 < k \le n$  and any p > 0, prime or composite.

```
lemma p_fact_dvd_prod_part (n : N) :
\forall j : N, \forall k : N, \forall p : N, p > 0 \rightarrow k > 0 \rightarrow k < n.succ \rightarrow
(p.fact:\mathbb{Z}) | polynomial.eval (k:\mathbb{Z}) (deriv_n (\prod i in finset.range \rightarrow n, (polynomial.X - polynomial.C (\uparrowi + 1))^p) j) :=
```

*Proof.* We proceed by using strong induction on j. For j=0 we need to prove  $p! \mid \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}^{(0)}p,n}(k) = \operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}}(k)$  for any  $0 < k \le n$ . This is true because  $\operatorname{eval}_{\Pi_{p,n}}(k) = 0$ 

For inductive case, we assume  $p! \mid \mathrm{eval}_{\Pi^{(m)}_{n,n}}(k)$  for all  $m \leq j, \, p > 0$  and  $0 < k \leq j$ 

n. This is certainly true for p = 1, for p! = 1. For p > 1,

$$\begin{split} \Pi_{p,n}^{(j+1)} &= \left( \left( \left( \prod_{i=0}^{n} (X - (i+1)) \right)^{p} \right)' \right)^{(j)} \\ &= p \left( \left( \prod_{i=0}^{n} (X - (i+1)) \right)^{p-1} \left( \prod_{i=0}^{n} (X - (i+1)) \right)' \right)^{(j)} \\ &= p \sum_{i=0}^{j} \binom{j}{i} \Pi_{p-1,n}^{(j-i)} \left( \Pi'_{1,n} \right)^{(i)} \end{split}$$

By inductive hypothesis  $(p-1)! \mid \Pi_{p-1,n}^{j-i}$  for any  $i=0,\ldots,j$ . Thus  $p! \mid \Pi_{p,n}^{(j+1)}$ 

```
intros j IH k p hp hk1 hk2,
11
     rw [deriv_n, function.iterate_succ_apply, ←deriv_n,
        finset.prod_pow, poly_pow_deriv, deriv_n_poly_prod,
         eval_sum'],
     apply finset.dvd_sum,
13
     intros x hx,
14
     by_cases (p=1), rw h, norm_num,
15
16
     replace IH := IH (j-x) _ k (p-1) _ hk1 hk2,
17
     intermediate_steps_omitted,
     exact IH,
19
```

Immediately by lemmas 3.3.7, 3.3.8 and equation 3.3, we have:

**Corollary 3.3.3.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above. If  $j \ge p$  then for all  $0 \le k \le n$  we have  $p! \mid \text{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k)$ . Then

$$p! \mid \sum_{i=p}^{m} \sum_{k=0}^{n} g_k \operatorname{eval}_{f_{p,n}^{(j)}}(k)$$

```
lemma k_ge_1_case_when_j_ge_p (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) (n:N) :
    ∀ j : N, j ≥ p → ∀ k : N, k < n.succ → k > 0 → (p.fact:ℤ) |
    → polynomial.eval (k:ℤ) (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) j) :=
    begin
    intros j hj k hk1 hk2,
    rw [f_p, deriv_n_poly_prod, eval_sum'], apply finset.dvd_sum,
    intros x hx,
    rw polynomial.eval_mul, rw polynomial.eval_mul,
    apply dvd_mul_of_dvd_right,
    apply p_fact_dvd_prod_part n _ _ _ (nat.prime.pos hp) hk2 hk1,
    end
    theorem when_j_ge_p_k (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) (n:N) :
```

```
\forall j : N, j \geq p \rightarrow \forall k : N, k \in finset.range n.succ \rightarrow (p.fact:\mathbb{Z})
13
      \rightarrow | polynomial.eval (k:\mathbb{Z}) (deriv_n (f_p p hp n) j) :=
14
   begin
      intros j j_ge_p k hk,
15
      simp only [finset.mem_range] at hk,
16
      cases k,
17
        exact k_eq_0_case_when_j_ge_p p hp n j j_ge_p,
18
        exact k_ge_1_case_when_j_ge_p p hp n j j_ge_p k.succ hk
19
         end
20
21
   theorem J_{partial\_sum\_rest} (g : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (e_root_g : (polynomial.aeval
22
    \rightarrow Z R e) g = 0) (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) :
      (p.fact:ℤ) |
23
        \sum (j : N) in finset.Ico p (f_p p hp
24

    g.nat_degree).nat_degree.succ,

        \sum (k : N) {f in} finset.range g.nat_degree.succ, g.coeff k \star
25
        → polynomial.eval (k:ℤ) (deriv_n (f_p p hp g.nat_degree) j)
   begin
26
      apply finset.dvd_sum, intros x hx,
27
      apply finset.dvd_sum, intros y hy,
28
      apply dvd_mul_of_dvd_right,
29
      apply when_j_ge_p_k, simp only [finset.Ico.mem] at hx,
30
      exact hx.1, exact hy,
31
   end
```

We finally have everything we need to evaluate equation 3.2: by previous corollaries 3.3.1 3.3.2 we have:

Corollary 3.3.4. Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above, there is some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

$$J_p(q) = -g_0(p-1)!(-1)^{np}(n!)^p + p! \cdot c$$

```
theorem J_eq_final
      (g : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (e_root_g : (polynomial.aeval \mathbb{Z} \mathbb{R} e) g = 0)
      (p : N) (hp : nat.prime p) :
     \exists c : \mathbb{Z}, (\exists g p hp) = \mathbb{Z}emb\mathbb{R} ((-(g.coeff 0 * (\uparrow((p - 1).fact) *
      \rightarrow (-1) ^ (g.nat_degree * p) * \uparrow(g.nat_degree.fact) ^ p))) +
      \hookrightarrow (p.fact:\mathbb{Z}) * c) :=
   begin
     have J_eq ≔ J_eq'' g e_root_g p hp, rw J_eq, rw
6

← ring_hom.map_neg,

     have seteq : finset.range (f_p p hp g.nat_degree).nat_degree.succ

    g.nat_degree).nat_degree.succ,

       proof_omitted
     rw seteq, rw finset.sum_union, rw finset.sum_union,
     rw J_partial_sum_from_one_to_p_sub_one g, rw zero_add, rw
10
         finset.sum_singleton,
     rw J_partial_sum_from_p_sub_one_to_p g e_root_g,
11
     have H3 := J_partial_sum_rest g e_root_g p hp,
13
     rw dvd_iff_mul at H3,
```

```
choose c eq3 using H3,
rw eq3, rw neg_add, use -c, rw neg_mul_eq_mul_neg \( (p.fact), \)
rest_omitted
end
```

We are now ready to prove a lower bound for  $|J_p(g)|$ .

**Theorem 3.3.6.** Let  $g, p, n, f_{p,n}$  be like above, if we further assume  $g_0 \neq 0$ , p > n and  $p > |g_0|$ . Then  $(p-1)! \leq |J_p(g)|$ 

```
theorem abs_J_lower_bound

(g: Z[X]) (e_root_g: (polynomial.aeval Z R e) g = 0)

(coeff_nonzero: (g.coeff 0) ≠ 0)

(p: N) (hp: nat.prime p)

(hp2: p > g.nat_degree ∧ p > (g.coeff 0).nat_abs):

((p-1).fact:R) ≤ (abs (J g p hp)) :=
```

*Proof.* By the previous theorem, for some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ 

$$|J_p(g)| = (p-1)! |(-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p) + pc|.$$

Thus to prove  $|J_p(g)| > (p-1)!$ , we prove  $|(-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p) + pc| \ge 1$ , equivalently,  $(-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p) + pc \ne 0$ . Let us assume otherwise, i.e. assume  $(-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p) + pc = 0$ 

```
simplification_steps_omitted intro rid,
```

Then since  $p \mid 0$ , we have  $p \mid (-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p) + pc$  then  $p \mid (-g_0(-1)^{np}(n!)^p)$ .

Assume  $(-1)^{np} = 1$ , then we have  $p \mid g_0(n!)^p$ , then either  $p \mid |g_0|$  or  $p \mid (n!)^p$ . If  $p \mid |g_0|$  then  $p \leq |g_0|$ .

```
have triv : (-1:ℤ) ^ (g.nat_degree * p) = 1 v (-1:ℤ) ^

(g.nat_degree * p) = -1 := neg_one_pow_eq_or _,

cases triv,

simplification_steps_omitted

rw nat.prime.dvd_mul at rid2,

cases rid2,

simplification_steps_omitted

have hm : p*m = (g.coeff 0).nat_abs, proof_omitted,

replace hm : p ≤ (g.coeff 0).nat_abs, proof_omitted,
```

If  $p \mid (n!)^p$ , since p is a prime number,  $p \mid n!$  implies  $p \le n$ .

```
intermediate_steps_omitted

have H : p | ↑(g.nat_degree.fact).nat_abs,
rw nat.prime.dvd_fact at H,
```

For  $(-1)^{np} = -1$ , the same proof works mutatis mutandis.

```
rest_omitted end
```

To fullfill the requirement of g having a non-zero coefficient, we divide g by a suitable power of X as following:

```
def min_degree_term (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (hf : f \neq 0) : N :=
     finset.min' (f.support) (non_empty_supp f hf)
   def make const term nonzero (f : \mathbb{Z}[X]) (hf : f \neq 0) : \mathbb{Z}[X] :=
   { support := finset.image (λ i : N, i-(min_degree_term f hf))
   \hookrightarrow f.support,
     to_fun := (\lambda n, (f.coeff (n+(min_degree_term f hf)))),
     mem_support_to_fun := begin
       intro n, split, intro hn, rw finset.mem_image at hn, choose a

→ ha using hn, rw ←ha.2, rw nat.sub_add_cancel,
       have eq2 := (f.3 a).1 ha.1, exact eq2,
10
       rw min_degree_term, exact finset.min'_le f.support
11
        intro hn, rw finset.mem_image, use n + min_degree_term f hf,
13
       split.
       exact (f.3 (n + min_degree_term f hf)).2 hn, simp only
14
           [nat.add_sub_cancel],
     end. }
15
```

In other words, we divide g by  $X^m$  where m is the degree of the lowest non-zero monomial of g.

Because for any  $x \geq 0$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$  and there is an infinite amount of primes, we have the following theorem serving the coup de grace of attacking the algebraicity of e.

**Theorem 3.3.7.** For any integer z and non-negative real number M, there is some prime number p > z such that  $(p-1)! > M^p$ 

```
theorem coup_de_grace (M : \mathbb{R}) (hM : M \geq 0) (z : \mathbb{Z}) : \exists p : \rightarrow nat.primes, (p.val:\mathbb{Z}) > z \land ((p.val-1).fact:\mathbb{R}) > M^p.val
```

**Theorem 3.3.8.** e is transcendental.

```
theorem e_transcendental : transcendental e :=
```

*Proof.* We prove by contradiction. Assume e is algebraic then there is an integer polynomial g such that  $eval_g(e) = 0$ . Divide g by some suitable power of X if necessary, we can assume that g has a non-zero constant coefficient.

```
begin

by_contra e_algebraic,

rw is_algebraic at e_algebraic,

choose g' g'_def using e_algebraic,

have g'_nonzero := g'_def.1,

have e_root_g' := g'_def.2,

generalize g_def : make_const_term_nonzero g' g'_nonzero = g,

have coeff_zero_nonzero : (g.coeff 0) ≠ 0,

rw ←g_def, apply coeff_zero_after_change,

have e_root_g : (polynomial.aeval Z R e) g = 0,

rw ←g_def,

apply non_zero_root_same, rw e, exact (1:R).exp_ne_zero, exact

⇔ e_root_g',
```

There is a prime number p such that p > n,  $p > |g_0|$  and  $(p-1)! > M^p$  where M is defined as in theorem 3.3.3. Then  $(p-1)! > M^p \ge |J_p(g)| > (p-1)!$  is the desired contradiction.

# Conclusion and future work

This project lives in an interdisciplinary area between mathematics and computer science. Even interactive theorem proving is not necessarily suitable for every mathematician, its pedagogical value is enormous because by formalising theorems the logic of proofs are disentangled and one is forced to be precise and explicit. Hence a proof in Lean often challenge users to prove intuitions in a rigourous manner. For example, Alan Baker deemed the evaluation of  $J_p(g)$  in equation 3.2 to be clear, but by formalising one has to get hands dirty by actually performing the evaluation [Bak90]. Then anyone else interested in the proof can choose to read or discard relavent sections depending on whether she/he shares the same intuitions with the author.

This is perhaps both a blessing and a curse – by forbidding to use words like "trival" or "clearly", one often finds her/himself proving truly trivial propositions as well, for example to prove that  $\mathbb{Z}^1 \simeq \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence there are at least two directions in which future works could take. One is to formalise more theorems of interest for example the transcendence of  $\pi$ ; the other is to use the (meta-)programming facilities of Lean to make more tactics so that learning and using Lean could be more effortless.

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