The Countable Set Mappings Generating Geometry

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ABSTRACT. Where each countable, disjoint domain set has a corresponding range (distance) set: the countable distance spanning the domain sets is a function of the number of domain-to-distance set mappings; and countable volume is a function of the number of distance-to-distance set mappings. The countable distance and volume mappings between sets of size c subintervals of domain and range intervals generate the properties of metric space, the Lp norms (for example, Manhattan and Euclidean distance), and the volume equation as c goes to 0. The proportionate interval principle and volume proof are used to derive Coulomb's charge force, Newton's gravity force (without using the inverse square law or Gauss's divergence theorem), some spacetime, and general relativity equations. A symmetry constraint on a totally ordered set limits distance and volume to 3 dimensions. All proofs are verified in Coq.

CONTENTS

1. Introduction

The definitions of metric space, Euclidean distance, and area/volume in analysis [**Gol76**] [**Rud76**] model Euclidean geometry [**Joy98**]. Proving that those definitions are derived from a set and limit-based foundation exposes properties of geometry that modeling cannot provide, for example: the counting constraint between the infinitesimal members of domain and range sets that makes a space flat; the countable domain-to-range set mapping that makes Euclidean distance the smallest possible distance in flat space; the set operation and constraint generating

the properties of metric space; and the symmetry constraint on sets that can limit distance and volume to 3 dimensions.

Where each countable domain set, x_i, has a corresponding range (distance) set, y_i, the countable distance spanning the domain sets is the cardinal of a constrained union of the range (distance) sets: $d_c = |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} y_i|$, where vertical bars around a set, $|\{\cdots\}|$, or list, $|[\cdots]|$, indicates the cardinal (the number of members in the set or list). As the intersection of the range sets increases, more domain set members can map to a single range set member. Therefore, the cardinal of the union range set, d_c, is a function of the number of domain-to-range set mappings.

Countable volume is the cardinal of the set of all possible countable distance unions, which is a function of number of intersection n-tuples, one member from each range set, which is the number of distance-to-distance (range-to-range) set mappings.

Applying these abstract, countable set definitions of distance and volume to sets of size c subintervals of domain and range intervals generates the properties of metric space, all L_p norms (Minkowski distances, for example, Manhattan and Euclidean distance), and the volume equation as $c \to 0$. Some applications to physics are also shown.

All the proofs in this article have been verified using using the Coq proof verification system [**Coq15**]. The formal proofs are in the Coq files, "euclidrelations.v" and "threed.v," at: https://github.com/treeck/RASRGeometry.

2. Ruler measure and convergence

A tool is needed to derive geometric relations from the number of possible mappings between the p_x number of size c subintervals in one interval and the p_y number of size c subintervals in another interval. A ruler (measuring stick) measures the size of each interval *approximately* as the sum of the nearest integer number, p, of whole subintervals, where each subinterval has the *same* size, c.

DEFINITION 2.1. Ruler measure, M: $\forall\, c,\, s \in \mathbb{R},\, [a,b] \subset \mathbb{R},\, s = b-a \wedge c > 0 \wedge$ $(p = floor(s/c) \;\vee\; p = ceiling(s/c)) \;\wedge\; M = \sum_{i=1}^{p} c = pc.$

THEOREM 2.2. *Ruler convergence:* $M = \lim_{c \to 0} pc = s.$

The proof is trivial but is included here for completeness. The theorem, "limit_c_0_M_eq_exact_size," and formal proof is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF. (epsilon-delta proof)
By definition of the floor function, $floor(x) = max(\{y : y \leq x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \in \mathbb{R}\})$:

(2.1) $\forall\, c > 0,\, p = floor(s/c) \;\wedge\; 0 \leq |floor(s/c) - s/c| < 1 \;\Rightarrow\; 0 \leq |p - s/c| < 1.$

Multiply all sides of inequality 2.1 by c:

(2.2) $\qquad\qquad \forall\, c > 0, \quad 0 \leq |p - s/c| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 0 \leq |pc - s| < |c|.$

(2.3) $\quad \forall\, \delta\, : \; |pc - s| < |c| = |c - 0| < \delta$
$\qquad\qquad \Rightarrow \quad \forall\, \epsilon = \delta : \; |c - 0| < \delta \;\wedge\; |pc - s| < \epsilon \; := \; M = \lim_{c \to 0} pc = s. \quad \square$

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

3. Distance

3.1. Countable distance. Each disjoint domain set, x_i, has its own range (distance) set, y_i. The countable distance spanning the disjoint domain sets is the cardinal, d_c, of a union range (distance) set that is constrained by a relation between the number of members in the domain set and corresponding range set.

It will be shown in the next subsections that the constraint, $|x_i| = |y_i|$, generates Manhattan and Euclidean distance at the boundaries (generates flat space/rectilinear distances). Generalizing distance and volume beyond flat space is shown in the last section of this article.

DEFINITION 3.1. Countable distance, d_c, in flat space:
$$d_c = |\textstyle\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| : \quad \bigcap_{i=1}^n x_i = \emptyset \quad \wedge \quad |x_i| = |y_i|.$$

3.2. Union-Sum Inequality. The inequality, $|\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|$, is used in this article. The proof is trivial but is included here for completeness.

The proof follows from the associative law of addition where the sum of set sizes is equal to the size of all the set members appended into a list and the commutative law of addition that allows sorting that list into a list of unique members (the *union* set) and a list of duplicates. For example, $y_1 = \{a, b, c\}$ and $y_2 = \{c, d, e\} \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i=1}^2 |y_i| = |\{a, b, c, d, e\}| = 5 < \sum_{i=1}^2 |y_i| = |\{a, b, c\}| + |\{c, d, e\}| = |[a, b, c, c, d, e]| = |\{a, b, c, d, e\}| + |[c]| = 6.$

LEMMA 3.2. *Union-Sum Inequality:* $|\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|$.

PROOF. A formal proof, union_sum_inequality, using sorting into a set of unique members (*union* set) and a list of duplicates, is in the file euclidrelations.v.

$$(3.1) \quad \textstyle\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i| = |append_{i=1}^n y_i| = |sort(append_{i=1}^n y_i)|$$
$$= |\textstyle\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| + |duplicates_{i=1}^n y_i|.$$

$$(3.2) \quad |\textstyle\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| + |duplicates_{i=1}^n y_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i| \quad \wedge \quad |duplicates_{i=1}^n y_i| \ge 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad |\textstyle\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|. \quad \square$$

3.3. Countable distance range. From the countable distance constraint (3.1), where $|x_i| = |y_i| = p_i$, the countable distance, d_c, ranges from a function of the sum of 1-1 domain-to-range set correspondences, $d_c = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n (1 \cdot |y_i|)) = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i)$, to a function of the sum of each-to-each (Cartesian product) domain-to-range set mappings, $d_c = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n (|x_i| \cdot |y_i|)) = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2)$.

3.4. Manhattan distance.

THEOREM 3.3. *Manhattan (largest) distance, d, is the size of the range interval,* $[d_0, d_m]$, *corresponding to a set of disjoint domain intervals,*
$\{[a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \ldots, [a_n, b_n]\}$, *where:*
$$d = \textstyle\sum_{i=1}^n s_i, \quad d = d_m - d_0, \quad s_i = b_i - a_i.$$

The formal proof, "taxicab_distance," is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF.
From the countable distance definition (3.1) and the union-sum inequality (3.2), the largest possible countable distance, d_c, is the equality case:

(3.3) $d_c = |\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| \le \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i| \wedge |x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists\, p_i,\ d_c : d_c = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i.$

Multiply both sides of equation 3.3 by c and take the limit:

(3.4) $d_c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \Rightarrow d_c \cdot c = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(p_i \cdot c) \Rightarrow \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c)$.

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence theorem (2.2) to the definition of d:

(3.5) $\qquad d = d_m - d_0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists\, c\, d : floor(d/c) = d_c \quad \Rightarrow \quad d = \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c$.

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence theorem (2.2) to each domain interval:

(3.6) $\quad s_i = b_i - a_i \quad \wedge \quad floor(s_i/c) = |x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{c \to 0} p_i \cdot c = s_i$.

Combine equations 3.5, 3.4, 3.6:

(3.7) $\quad d = \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) \quad \wedge$

$\lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) = s_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad d = \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i. \quad \square$

3.5. Euclidean distance.

THEOREM 3.4. *Euclidean (smallest) distance, d, is the size of the range interval, $[d_0, d_m]$, corresponding to a set of disjoint domain intervals,*
$\{[a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \ldots, [a_n, b_n]\}$, *where:*
$$d^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i^2, \quad d = d_m - d_0, \quad s_i = b_i - a_i.$$

The formal proof, "Euclidean_distance," is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF.
Apply the rule of product to the largest number of domain-to-range set mappings, where all p_i number of range set members, y_i, map to each of the p_i number of members in the domain set, x_i, which, by the rule of product, is the Cartesian product, $|y_i| \cdot |x_i|$:

(3.8) $\qquad\qquad |x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n}|y_i| \cdot |x_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2$.

From the countable distance definition (3.1) and the union-sum inequality (3.2), the smallest possible distance is the equality case:

(3.9) $d_c = |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} y_i| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n}|y_i| \wedge |x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists\, p_i,\, d_c : d_c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i$.

Square both sides of equation 3.9 ($x = y \Leftrightarrow f(x) = f(y)$):

(3.10) $\qquad \exists\, p_i,\, d_c : d_c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \exists\, p_i,\, d_c : d_c^2 = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i)^2$.

Apply the square of sum inequality, $(\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i)^2 \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2$, to equation 3.10 and select the smallest area (the equality) case:

(3.11) $\quad d_c^2 = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_j$

$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} p_j \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists\, p_i : d_c^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2$.

Multiply both sides of equation 3.11 by c^2, simplify, and take the limit.

(3.12) $\quad d_c^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2 \Rightarrow d_c^2 \cdot c^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^2 \cdot c^2 \Leftrightarrow (d_c \cdot c)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n}(p_i \cdot c)^2$

$\Rightarrow \quad \lim_{c \to 0}(d_c \cdot c)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c)^2$.

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence theorem (2.2) and square both sides:

(3.13) $\exists\, c\, d \in \mathbb{R} : floor(d/c) = d_c \quad \Rightarrow \quad d = \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c \quad \Rightarrow \quad d^2 = \lim_{c \to 0}(d_c \cdot c)^2$.

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence theorem (2.2) to each domain interval:

(3.14) $\quad s_i = b_i - a_i \quad \wedge \quad floor(s_i/c) = |x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{c \to 0} p_i \cdot c = s_i$.

Combine equations 3.13, 3.12, 3.14:

(3.15) $d^2 = \lim_{c \to 0}(d_c \cdot c)^2 \quad \wedge \quad \lim_{c \to 0}(d_c \cdot c)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c)^2 \quad \wedge$

$\lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) = s_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad d^2 = \lim_{c \to 0}(d_c \cdot c)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i^2.$ □

3.6. Metric Space. All distances, $d(u, w)$, satisfying the countable distance definition (3.1), where the ruler is applied, generates the properties of metric space. The formal proofs: triangle_inequality, non_negativity, identity_of_indiscernibles, and symmetry are in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

THEOREM 3.5. *Triangle Inequality:* $d_c = |y_1 \cup y_2| \Rightarrow d(u, w) \le d(u, v) + d(v, w).$

PROOF. Use the countable distance (3.1) and union-sum inequality (3.2) as conditions. And next apply the ruler measure (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2).

(3.16) $\forall c > 0, \ d(u, w), \ d(u, v), \ d(v, w) :$

$|y_1| = floor(d(u, v)/c) \ \wedge \ |y_2| = floor(d(v, w)/c) \quad \wedge$

$d_c = floor(d(u, w)/c) \quad \wedge \quad d_c = |y_1 \cup y_2| \le |y_1| + |y_2|$

$\Rightarrow \ floor(d(u, w)/c) \le floor(d(u, v)/c) + floor(d(v, w)/c)$

$\Rightarrow \ floor(d(u, w)/c) \cdot c \le floor(d(u, v)/c) \cdot c + floor(d(v, w)/c) \cdot c$

$\Rightarrow \ \lim_{c \to 0} floor(d(u, w)/c) \cdot c \le \lim_{c \to 0} floor(d(u, v)/c) \cdot c + \lim_{c \to 0} floor(d(v, w)/c) \cdot c$

$= d(u, w) \le d(u, v) + d(v, w).$ □

THEOREM 3.6. *Non-negativity:* $d_c = |y_1 \cup y_2| \Rightarrow d(u, w) \ge 0.$

PROOF. By definition, a set always has a size (cardinal) ≥ 0:

(3.17) $\forall c > 0, \ d(u, w) : \quad floor(d(u, w)/c) = d_c \quad \wedge \quad d_c = |y_1 \cup y_2| \ge 0$

$\Rightarrow \quad floor(d(u, w)/c) = d_c \ge 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) = \lim_{c \to 0} d_c \cdot c \ge 0.$ □

THEOREM 3.7. *Identity of Indiscernibles:* $d(w, w) = 0.$

PROOF. Apply the triangle inequality property (3.5):

(3.18) $\forall \ d(u, v) = d(v, w) = 0 \ \wedge \ d(u, w) \le d(u, v) + d(v, w) \ \Rightarrow \ d(u, w) \le 0.$

Combine the non-negativity property (3.6) and the previous inequality (3.18):

(3.19) $d(u, w) \ge 0 \ \wedge \ d(u, w) \le 0 \ \Leftrightarrow \ 0 \le d(u, w) \le 0 \ \Rightarrow \ d(u, w) = 0.$

Combine the result of step 3.19 and the condition, $d(u, v) = 0$, in step 3.18.

(3.20) $d(u, w) = 0 \ \wedge \ d(u, v) = 0 \ \Rightarrow \ w = v.$

Combine the condition, $d(v, w) = 0$, in step 3.18 and the result of step 3.20.

(3.21) $d(v, w) = 0 \ \wedge \ w = v \ \Rightarrow \ d(w, w) = 0.$ □

THEOREM 3.8. *Symmetry:* $d_c = |y_1 \cup y_2| \ \wedge \ |x_i| = |y_i| \ \Rightarrow \ d(u, v) = d(v, u).$

PROOF. The number domain set, x_i, members mapping to a range set, y_i, member increases with the amount of range set intersection. Therefore, the range of countable distances (3.3) is a function of domain-to-range set members, under the constraint, $|x_i| = |y_i|$, is:

(3.22) $|x_i| = |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad d_c = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i| \cdot |y_i|^q) = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i^{1+q}), \ q \in \{0, \ 1\}.$

Where d_c is applied to sets of size c subintervals of intervals, the previous Manhattan distance proof (3.3), $d(x, y) = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^{2} s_i^1)$, and Euclidean distance proof (3.4), $d(x, y) = \mathrm{f}(\sum_{i=1}^{2} s_i^2)$, show that distance is a function of domain interval sizes, s_i, where $x = s_1$ and $y = s_2$. Generalizing:

$$(3.23) \quad \forall\, p : p \geq 0, \quad d(x, y) = \mathrm{f}(\textstyle\sum_{i=1}^{2} s_i^p) = \mathrm{f}(x^p + y^p)$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = \mathrm{f}(u^p + v^p) = \mathrm{f}(v^p + u^p) = d(v, u). \quad \square$$

4. Euclidean Volume

$\mathbb{R}^n$, the Lebesgue measure, Riemann integral, and Lebesgue integral define (assume) area/volume to be the product of domain interval lengths. The goal here is to derive the area/volume equation from an abstract, set-based definition of volume without assuming the product of interval lengths.

Countable volume is the cardinal of the set of all possible countable distance unions, which is a function of number of intersection n-tuples, one member from each range set. And the number of n-tuples is the number of distance-to-distance (range-to-range) set mappings. By the rule of product, the largest number of mappings is the Cartesian product of the number of members in disjoint, range sets:

DEFINITION 4.1. Euclidean (largest possible) Countable Volume in flat space:

$$v_c = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} |y_i| : \quad \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} y_i = \emptyset \quad \wedge \quad |x_i| = |y_i|.$$

THEOREM 4.2. *Euclidean volume, v, is length of the range interval, $[v_0, v_m]$, equal to product of domain interval lengths, $\{[a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \ldots, [a_n, b_n]\}$:*

$$v = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_i, \;\; v = v_m - v_0, \;\; s_i = b_i - a_i.$$

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

PROOF.
Use the ruler (2.1) to partition each of the domain intervals, $[a_i, b_i]$, into a set, x_i, containing p_i number of subintervals.

$$(4.1) \qquad \forall\, i\, n \in \mathbb{N}, \quad i \in [1, n], \quad c > 0 \quad \wedge \quad floor(s_i/c) = p_i = |x_i| = |y_i|.$$

Apply the ruler convergence theorem (2.2) to equation 4.1:

$$(4.2) \qquad floor(s_i/c) = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) = s_i.$$

$$(4.3) \qquad v_c = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} |y_i| \quad \wedge \quad |y_i| = p_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad v_c = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i.$$

Multiply both sides of equation 4.3 by c^n:

$$(4.4) \qquad v_c \cdot c^n = (\textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i) \cdot c^n = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n}(p_i \cdot c).$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) to the range interval, $[v_0, v_m]$ (where $v = v_m - v_0$). Combine with equation 4.4. Apply the ruler convergence (2.2) and equation 4.2.

$$(4.5) \quad \forall\, v_c, n \in \mathbb{N},\; c >= 0\, \exists\, v \in \mathbb{R} : \; floor(v/c^n) = v_c \quad \wedge \quad v_c \cdot c^n = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n}(p_i \cdot c)$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{c \to 0} v_c \cdot c^n = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} \lim_{c \to 0}(p_i \cdot c) = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^{n} s_i. \quad \square$$

5. Applications to physics

The Euclidean distance interval is a continuous interval $\subset \mathbb{R}$ (3.4). And all continuous intervals $\subset \mathbb{R}$ are commensurate, have proportionate sizes (first derivative related), to each other.

5.1. Coulomb's charge force. q_1 and q_2, are the sizes of two independent charge intervals, where each infinitesimal size c subinterval of a charge interval exerts an infinitesimal force on each size c subinterval of the other charge interval. The total force, F, is equal to the total number of forces, which is proportionate to the Cartesian product of the infinitesimal size c components:

$$(5.1) \quad p_1 = floor(q_1/c) \quad \wedge \quad p_2 = floor(q_2/c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad F = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(\lim_{c\to 0} p_1 c \cdot \lim_{c\to 0} p_2 c) =$$

$$(m_C a_C/q_C^2) \int_0^{q_2} \int_0^{q_1} \mathrm{d}^2 c = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2),$$

where $m_C a_C/q_C^2$ is both a first derivative and a unit-factoring conversion ratio.

$$(5.2) \quad \exists\, r,\, t_C \in \mathbb{R} : a = r/t_C^2 \quad \wedge \quad F = m_0 a = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad F = m_0 r/t_C^2 = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2).$$

$$(5.3) \quad F = m_0 r/t_C^2 = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2) \;\Rightarrow\; r \propto q,\, q \in \{q_1,\, q_2\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \exists\, q_C,\, r_C \in \mathbb{R} :\, (q_C/r_C)r = q,$$

where q_C/r_C is both a first derivative and unit-factoring conversion ratio.

$$(5.4) \quad \forall\, q_1, q_2 \geq 0 \quad \exists\, q \in \mathbb{R} :\, q^2 = q_1 q_2 \quad \wedge \quad (q_C/r_C)r = q$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad ((q_C/r_C)r)^2 = q_1 q_2.$$

$$(5.5) \quad ((q_C/r_C)r)^2 = q_1 q_2 \quad \wedge \quad F = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad (m_C a_C/q_C^2)((q_C/r_C)r)^2 = (m_C a_C/q_C^2)(q_1 q_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad m_C a_C = (m_C a_C r_C^2/q_C^2)q_1 q_2/r^2 = k_c q_1 q_2/r^2.$$

where $k_C = m_C a_C r_C^2/q_C^2$ corresponds to the SI units: $Nm^2 C^{-2}$.

$$(5.6) \quad \forall\, m_C,\, a_C \in \mathbb{R} \, \exists\, m_0, a \in \mathbb{R} :\, m_0 a = m_C a_C \quad \wedge \quad m_C a_C = k_c q_1 q_2/r^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad F = m_0 a = k_c q_1 q_2/r^2.$$

5.2. Newton's gravity force equation. m_1 and m_2, are the sizes of two independent mass intervals, where each infinitesimal size c subinterval of a mass interval exerts an infinitesimal force on each size c subinterval of the other mass interval. The total force, F, is equal to the total number of forces, which is proportionate to the Cartesian product of the infinitesimal size c components:

$$(5.7) \quad p_1 = floor(m_1/c) \quad \wedge \quad p_2 = floor(m_2/c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad F = (m_G a_G/m_G^2)(\lim_{c\to 0} p_1 c \cdot \lim_{c\to 0} p_2 c) = (a_G/m_G)(\lim_{c\to 0} p_1 c \cdot \lim_{c\to 0} p_2 c) =$$

$$(a_G/m_G) \int_0^{m_2} \int_0^{m_1} \mathrm{d}^2 c = (a_G/m_G)(m_1 m_2),$$

where $m_G a_G/m_G^2 = a_G/m_G$ is both a first derivative and unit-factoring conversion ratio.

$$(5.8) \quad \exists\, r,\, t_G \in \mathbb{R} : a = r/t_G^2 \quad \wedge \quad F = m_0 a = (a_G/m_G)(m_1 m_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad F = m_0 r/t_G^2 = (a_G/m_G)(m_1 m_2).$$

(5.9) $F = m_0 r/t_G^2 = (a_G/m_G)m^2 \Rightarrow r \propto m, \ m \in \{m_1, \ m_2\}$
$$\Rightarrow \quad \exists \, m_G, \ r_G \in \mathbb{R} : (m_G/r_G)r = m,$$

where m_G/r_G is both a first derivative and a unit-factoring conversion ratio.

(5.10) $\forall \, m_1, m_2 \geq 0 \quad \exists \, m \in \mathbb{R} : m^2 = m_1 m_2 \quad \wedge \quad (m_G/r_G)r = m$
$$\Rightarrow \quad ((m_G/r_G)r)^2 = m_1 m_2.$$

(5.11) $(m_G/r_G)r = m \quad \wedge \quad m^2 = m_1 m_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad ((m_G/r_G)r)^2 = m_1 m_2.$

(5.12) $((m_G/r_G)r)^2 = m_1 m_2 \quad \wedge \quad F = (a_G/m_G)(m_1 m_2)$
$$\Rightarrow \quad (a_G/m_G)((m_G/r_G)r)^2 = (a_G/m_G)(m_1 m_2)$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad m_G a_G = (a_G r_G^2/m_G)m_1 m_2/r^2.$$

(5.13) $\forall \, m_G, \ a_G \in \mathbb{R} \, \exists \, m_0, a \in \mathbb{R} : m_0 a = m_G a_G \quad \wedge$
$$m_G a_G = (a_G r_G^2/m_G)m_1 m_2/r^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad F = m_0 a = (a_G r_G^2/m_G)m_1 m_2/r^2.$$

(5.14) $\exists \, t_G \in \mathbb{R} : r_G/t_G^2 = a_G \quad \wedge \quad F = m_0 a = (a_G r_G^2/m_G)m_1 m_2/r^2$
$$\Rightarrow \quad F = (r_G^3/m_G t_G^2)m_1 m_2/r^2 = Gm_1 m_2/r^2,$$

where $G = r_G^3/m_G t_G^2$ corresponds to the SI units: $m^3 kg^{-1} s^{-2}$.

5.3. Spacetime equations. For any Euclidean distance interval having size, r, an interval having size, t, exists, where $r = (r_c/t_c)t = ct$, and $r_c/t_c = c$ is both a first derivative and a unit-factoring conversion ratio.

Applying the ruler to two intervals, $[0, d_1]$ and $[0, d_2]$, in two inertial (independent, non-accelerating) frames of reference, the smallest distance (and time) spanning the two domain intervals converges to the Euclidean distance (3.4), r.

(5.15) $r^2 = d_1^2 + d_2^2 \quad \wedge \quad r = (r_c/t_c)t = ct \quad \Rightarrow \quad (ct)^2 = d_1^2 + d_2^2$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad d_1^2 = (ct)^2 - (x^2 + y^2 + z^2),$$

where $d_2^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$, which is one form of Minkowski's well-known flat spacetime interval equation [**Bru17**]. And, the time dilation and length contraction equations also follow directly by dividing both sides of $(ct)^2 = d_1^2 + d_2^2$ by t^2 and using $v = d/t$.

5.4. General relativity without the complexity of tensors: Using the mass and spacetime ratios: $r = (r_G/m_G)m = ct \Rightarrow (r_G/m_G)m \cdot ct = r^2 \Rightarrow m = (m_G/r_G c)r^2/t = (m_G/r_G c)rv$. For a constant mass, m, a decrease in distance, r, also requires a decrease in time, t, (time slows down). v is the orbital velocity at distance, r, from the mass center. Also, $(r_G/m_G)m \cdot (ct)^2 = r^3 \Rightarrow E = mc^2 = (m_G/r_G)r^3/t^2$. Likewise, for charge, $r = (r_C/q_C)q = ct \Rightarrow q = (q_C/r_C c)r^2/t = (q_C/r_C c)rv$ and $E = qc^2 = (q_C/r_C)r^3/t^2$.

5.5. 3 dimensional balls. Countable distance, $d_c = |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} y_i|$, (3.1), countable volume, $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^{n} |y_i|$, (4.1), Manhattan distance (3.3), Euclidean distance (3.4), and volume (4.2) requires that a set of intervals/dimensions can be assigned a *total order* ($i = 1$ to n). And the commutative properties of union, multiplication, and addition allow sequencing through each interval (dimension) in every possible order. "Strict" sequencing (no jumping over other members) via the successor and predecessor relations of a totally ordered set in every possible order requires each set member to be sequentially adjacent (either a successor or predecessor) to every other member, herein referred to as a symmetry constraint.

It will now be proved that coexistence of the symmetry constraint on a sequentially ordered set defines a cyclic set that contains at most 3 members, in this case, 3 dimensions of ordered and symmetric distance and volume.

DEFINITION 5.1. Ordered geometry:

$$\forall\, i\, n \in \mathbb{N}, \ i \in [1, n-1], \ \forall\, x_i \in \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\},$$
$$successor\ x_i = x_{i+1} \ \wedge \ predecessor\ x_{i+1} = x_i.$$

DEFINITION 5.2. Symmetry Constraint (every set member is sequentially adjacent to every other member):

$$\forall\, i\, j\, n \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall\, x_i\, x_j \in \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}, \ successor\ x_i = x_j \ \Leftrightarrow \ predecessor\ x_j = x_i.$$

THEOREM 5.3. *An ordered and symmetric set is a cyclic set.*

$$i = n \ \wedge \ j = 1 \ \Rightarrow \ successor\ x_n = x_1 \ \wedge \ predecessor\ x_1 = x_n.$$

The formal proof, "ordered_symmetric_is_cyclic," is in the Coq file, threed.v.

PROOF. A total order (5.1) defines unique successors and predecessors for all set members except for the successor of x_n and the predecessor of x_1. Therefore, the only member that can be a successor of x_n, without creating a contradiction, is x_1. And the only member that can be a predecessor of x_1, without creating a contradiction, is x_n. Applying the symmetry constraint (5.2):

(5.16) $\qquad i = n \ \wedge \ j = 1 \ \wedge \ successor\ x_i = x_j \ \Rightarrow \ successor\ x_n = x_1.$

Applying the definition of the symmetry constraint (5.2) to conclusion 5.16:

(5.17) $successor\ x_i = x_j \ \Rightarrow \ predecessor\ x_j = x_i \ \Rightarrow \ predecessor\ x_1 = x_n.$ $\qquad \square$

THEOREM 5.4. *An ordered and symmetric set is limited to at most 3 members.*

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

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

The following proof uses Horn clauses (a subset of first logic) that uses unification and resolution. Horn clauses make it clear which facts satisfy a proof goal.

PROOF.
It was proved that an ordered and symmetric set is a cyclic set (5.3).

DEFINITION 5.5. Successor of m is n:

(5.18) $Successor(m, n, setsize) \leftarrow (m = setsize \wedge n = 1) \vee (n = m + 1 \le setsize).$

DEFINITION 5.6. Predecessor of m is n:

$$(5.19) \quad Predecessor(m, n, setsize) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = setsize) \vee (n = m - q \geq 1).$$

DEFINITION 5.7. Adjacent: member m is sequentially adjacent to member n if the successor of m is n or the predecessor of m is n. Notionally:
$$(5.20)$$
$$Adjacent(m, n, setsize) \leftarrow Successor(m, n, setsize) \vee Predecessor(m, n, setsize).$$

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

$$(5.21) \quad Adjacent(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow Successor(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow (m = setsize \wedge n = 1).$$

$$(5.22) \quad Adjacent(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow Successor(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq setsize).$$
$$(5.23) \quad Adjacent(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow Successor(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow (n = setsize \wedge m = 1).$$

$$(5.24) \quad Adjacent(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow Successor(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq setsize).$$
$$(5.25) \quad Adjacent(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow Predecessor(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - q \geq 1).$$
$$(5.26) \quad Adjacent(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow Successor(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = setsize \wedge m = 1).$$
$$(5.27) \quad Adjacent(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow Predecessor(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = setsize).$$
$$(5.28) \quad Adjacent(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow Successor(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq setsize).$$
$$(5.29) \quad Adjacent(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow Predecessor(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - q \geq 1).$$

Must prove that for all $setsize > 3$, there exist non-adjacent members. For example, the first and third members are not ($\neg$) adjacent:

$$(5.30) \quad \forall\, setsize > 3 : \quad \neg Successor(1, 3, setsize > 3)$$
$$\leftarrow Successor(1, 2, setsize > 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq setsize).$$

That is, member 2 is the only successor of member 1 for all $setsize > 3$, which implies member 3 is not a successor of member 1 for all $setsize > 3$.

$$(5.31) \quad \forall\, setsize > 3 : \quad \neg Predecessor(1, 3, setsize > 3)$$
$$\leftarrow Predecessor(1, setsize, setsize > 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = setsize > 3).$$

That is, member $n = setsize > 3$ is the only predecessor of member 1, which implies member 3 is not a predecessor of member 1 for all $setsize > 3$.

$$(5.32) \quad \forall\, setsize > 3 : \quad \neg Adjacent(1, 3, setsize > 3)$$
$$\leftarrow \neg Successor(1, 3, setsize > 3) \wedge \neg Predecessor(1, 3, setsize > 3). \quad \square$$

That is, for all $setsize > 3$, some elements are not sequentially adjacent to every other element (not symmetric).

6. Insights and implications

(1) The Manhattan and Euclidean distance proofs (3.3) (3.4) and the Euclidean volume proof (4.2) show the constraint between domain and range (distance) sets, $|x_i| = |y_i|$, generates flat space (rectilinear distances and volume).

(2) Generalizing the flat space constraint on countable distance and volume, $|x_i| = |y_i|$, to $|x_i| = |y_i|^q$, $q \geq 0$, generates all the L^p norms (Minkowski distances), $||L||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n s_i^p)^{1/p}$. For example, using the same proof pattern as for Euclidean distance (3.4): $|y_i| = p_i \Rightarrow |x_i| = p_i^q \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \cdot |y_i| = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^q \cdot p_i = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^{q+1} \leq d_c^{q+1}$. Choosing the equality case and applying the ruler: $d^{q+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n s_i^{q+1}$.

(3) The L_p norms (Minkowski distances) also follow from Euclidean volume: $\forall V \in \mathbb{R}^n \; \exists \; v_1, \cdots, v_m \in \mathbb{R}^n : V = \sum_{i=1}^m v_i \Rightarrow \forall \; d^n = V \; \exists \; d_1, \cdots d_m : d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n \Rightarrow d = (\sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n)^{1/n}$.

(4) $-1 \leq q < 0 \Rightarrow 0 \leq p < 1$ and generates functions that do not satisfy the metric space triangle inequality property.

(5) The curvature of a space around a point is typically measured in terms of second order differential equations, e.g., the Laplacian. A set-based measure of the amount of curvature is how far q deviates from the value, 1, in the countable distance and volume constraint, $|x_i| = |y_i|^q$.

(6) The smallest possible countable distance (3.1), $d_c = |\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i|$, is the case of the largest intersection of the range sets, which is also the case of the largest possible number (the Cartesian product) of domain-to-range set mappings, in flat space: $d_c = \text{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \cdot |y_i|) = \text{f}(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i^2)$. And applying the ruler to create countable sets of subintervals of domain and range intervals, the Cartesian product of domain-to-range set mappings yields the Euclidean distance equation.

(7) Manhattan (largest) distance and Euclidean (largest) volume are both cases of disjoint range sets, $\bigcap_{i=1}^n y_i = \emptyset$, in flat space (where $|x_i| = |y_i|$):

$$d_c = |\textstyle\bigcup_{i=1}^n y_i| : \quad \bigcap_{i=1}^n x_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n y_i = \emptyset \quad \wedge \quad |x_i| = |y_i|.$$

$$v_c = \textstyle\prod_{i=1}^n |y_i| : \quad \bigcap_{i=1}^n x_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^n y_i = \emptyset \quad \wedge \quad |x_i| = |y_i|.$$

(8) There are combinatorial relationships between countable sets of subintervals of intervals in statistics, probability, physics, etc., where the ruler is an applicable tool. For example, applying the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2) to the Cartesian product of same-sized, infinitesimal charge forces and mass forces allowed deriving Coulomb's charge force (5.1) and Newton's gravity force (5.7) equations in a few steps each, without using other laws of physics, the inverse square law, or Gauss's divergence theorem.

(9) **The ∇/Proportionate Interval Principle:** All continuous intervals are proportionate in size (first derivative, ∇) related to each other. Therefore, Euclidean distance intervals having a size, r, have proportionately sized intervals of other types: $r = (r_C/q_C)q = (r_G/m_G)m = (r_c/t_c)t = ct$. These ratios were used to generate the charge force, gravity force, spacetime, and some general relativity equations.

   (a) Some constants like charge, vacuum magnetic permeability, fine structure, etc. contain the value 4π because the creators assumed flux divergence on the surface of a sphere having the area, $4\pi r^2$. Using Occam's razor, the mapping of rectangular geometric area to rectangular charge and mass areas provides more parsimonious derivations of the inverse square law, charge, and gravity force equations than

flux divergence. Therefore, those versions of the constants containing the value 4π might be incorrect.

(b) The phenomenon of quantum charge and mass values is the result of related unit-factoring ratios (related first order derivatives).

(c) If there are quantum values of charge, q_C, and mass, m_G, then there are quantum distances, r_C and r_G, where the charge and gravity forces do not exist (are not defined) at smaller distances.

(d) There is no proportion relationship between discrete, finite values (states), which have measure 0, and distance and time interval lengths. For example, the change of spin values of two quantum entangled electrons and the change of polarization of two quantum entangled photons are independent of the distance and time between the entangled particles.

(10) If there are higher dimensions of ordered and symmetric space, then there is a set of three members, each member being an ordered and symmetric set of 3 dimensions (three balls), yielding a total of 9 ordered and symmetric dimensions of space.

(11) All members members of a set have some common properties, a common type. Therefore, any higher dimensional balls must have dimensions of different types. For example, what we experience in the 3 geometric dimensions as particles, waves, forces, etc. are the result proportionate intervals and discrete states in dimensions of other types.

(12) Each ordered and symmetric ball can have at most 3 ordered and symmetric dimensions of discrete states of the same type, for example, a set of 3 binary values, 1 and -1, indicating vector orientation.

(13) Each dimension of discrete physical states can have at most 3 ordered and symmetric discrete state values, which allows $3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 = 27$ possible combinations of discrete values of the same type per ball, for example, spin values: -1, 0, 1 per orthogonal plane in the ball.

(14) Each of the 3 possible ordered and symmetric dimensions of discrete physical states could contain an unordered collection (bag) of discrete state values. Bags (of states) are non-deterministic. For example, every time an unordered binary state is measured, there is a 50 percent chance of having one of the binary values.

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