

# The Set Properties Generating Geometry and Physics

George. M. Van Treeck

ABSTRACT. Volume and the Minkowski distances/Lp norms (e.g., Manhattan and Euclidean distance) are derived from a set and limit-based foundation without referencing the primitives and relations of geometry. Sequencing a strict linearly ordered set in all n-at-a-time permutations via successor/predecessor relations is a cyclic set of at most 3 members. Therefore, all other interval lengths have different types from a cyclic set of 3 distance interval lengths. Unit-factoring ratios between different types of interval lengths and the set proofs provide simpler derivations of the spacetime, Newton's gravity, Coulomb's charge force, Planck-Einstein, quantum-relativity gravity equations and corresponding constants. All proofs are verified in Coq.

## CONTENTS

1. Introduction	1
2. Ruler measure and convergence	2
3. Volume	3
4. Distance	4
5. Applications to physics	7
6. Insights and implications	10
References	12

## 1. Introduction

Mathematical (real) analysis can construct differential calculus from a set and limit-based foundation without the need to reference the primitives and relations of Euclidean geometry, like straight line, angle, shape, etc., providing a more rigorous foundation to calculus. But volume in the Riemann integral, Lebesgue integral, and measure theory and distance in the vector norm and metric space axioms are all definitions motivated by Euclidean geometry. [Gol76] [Rud76] Here, volume and distance are motivated and derived from a set and limit-based foundation.

A well-known set-based motivation of Euclidean volume is the number of members (cardinal),  $v_c$ , of an abstract, countable set of Cartesian product n-tuples:

$v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ , where  $|x_i|$  is the cardinal of the countable, disjoint set,  $x_i$ . Where each  $x_i$  is a set of size  $\kappa$  partitions of  $[a_i, b_i] \subset \mathbb{R}$  and  $s_i = b_i - a_i$ , it will be proved that Euclidean volume,  $v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i$ , is the *only* function implied by  $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ . Non-Euclidean volumes are the cases where the partitions are not all the same size.

Instead of defining a distance measure as a function satisfying a set of Euclidean geometry-motivated (metric space) axioms, here, a distance measure is defined as a bijective, monotonic increasing function of the countable set-based n-volume,  $v_c$ . And, therefore, all functions that are continuous, bijective, monotonic increasing functions of any  $v_c$ -derived n-volume,  $v$ , are also distance measures.

All volumes and corresponding distance measures can be partitioned into the sum of  $m$  number of sub-volumes and sub-distance measures. It will be proved that:  $v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_{i,j}|) = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i} \Rightarrow d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n$ .  $d$  is the  $L_p$  norm (Minkowski distance), which will be proved to imply the metric space properties.

In the prior equations, sequencing a set, from  $i = 1$  to  $n$ , is a strict linear (total) order that set theory defines in terms of successor and predecessor functions. But the commutative laws of addition and multiplication allow sequencing the sets in all n-at-a-time orders, which requires an additional “symmetry” constraint, where every set member is either a successor or predecessor to every other set member. A strict linearly ordered and symmetric set is proved to be a cyclic set, where  $n \leq 3$ .

Therefore, if  $\{x, y, z\}$  is a strict linearly ordered and symmetric set of 3 “distance” dimensions, then a fourth dimension,  $t$ , must have a different type (is a member of different set). A Cartesian grid maps some amount on the  $x$  axis to a proportionate amount on the  $t$  axis, where the proportion is expressed as a unit-factoring, conversion ratio (linear transformation), for example, *meters/second*.

Simpler and shorter derivations of the: spacetime, Newton’s gravity, Coulomb’s charge force, Planck-Einstein, quantum-relativity gravity equations, and their corresponding constants are provided using the ratios,  $r = (r_c/t_c)t = (r_c/m_c)m = (r_c/q_c)q$ , and the results of the volume, distance, and 3D proofs. Impacts on Einstein’s field equations are also discussed.

All the proofs in this article have been verified using using the Coq proof verification system [Coq23]. The formal proofs are in the Coq files, “euclidrelations.v” and “threed.v,” at: <https://github.com/treeck/RASRGeometry>.

## 2. Ruler measure and convergence

Derivatives and integrals partition each interval into the same number of subintervals (infinitesimals). Therefore, the size of the infinitesimals in each interval are proportionate to the size of the containing interval, which precludes using derivatives and integrals to directly express many-to-many (Cartesian product) mappings between same-sized, size  $\kappa$ , infinitesimals in different-sized intervals. Further, using tools that define Euclidean volume and distance precludes using those tools to derive Euclidean volume and distance.

Therefore, a different tool is used here. A ruler (measuring stick) measures the size of each interval *approximately* as the sum of the nearest integer number,  $p$ , of size  $\kappa$  infinitesimals. The ruler is both an inner and outer measure of an interval.

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

**THEOREM 2.2.** *Ruler convergence:*  $M = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} p\kappa = s$ .

The formal proof, “limit\_c\_0\_M\_eq\_exact\_size,” is in the file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF. (epsilon-delta proof)

By definition of the floor function,  $\text{floor}(x) = \max(\{y : y \leq x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \in \mathbb{R}\})$ :

$$(2.1) \quad \forall \kappa > 0, p = \text{floor}(s/\kappa) \wedge 0 \leq |\text{floor}(s/\kappa) - s/\kappa| < 1 \Rightarrow |p - s/\kappa| < 1.$$

Multiply both sides of inequality 2.1 by  $\kappa$ :

$$(2.2) \quad \forall \kappa > 0, |p - s/\kappa| < 1 \Rightarrow |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|.$$

$$(2.3) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall \epsilon = \delta \wedge |p\kappa - s| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow |\kappa - 0| < \delta \wedge |p\kappa - s| < \epsilon \quad := \quad M = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} p\kappa = s. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

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

LEMMA 2.3.  $\forall n \geq 1, 0 < \kappa < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa$ .

PROOF. The formal proof, “lim\_c\_to\_n\_eq\_lim\_c,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

$$(2.4) \quad n \geq 1 \wedge 0 < \kappa < 1 \Rightarrow 0 < \kappa^n < \kappa \Rightarrow |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa| = |\kappa - 0|.$$

$$(2.5) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall \epsilon = \delta \wedge |\kappa - \kappa^n| < |\kappa - 0| < \delta \\ \Rightarrow |\kappa - 0| < \delta \wedge |\kappa - \kappa^n| < \delta = \epsilon \quad := \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.6) \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = 0 \wedge \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa = 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa. \quad \square$$

### 3. Volume

DEFINITION 3.1. An n-volume is the number of ordered combinations (n-tuples),  $v_c$ , of the members of  $n$  number of disjoint, countable domain sets,  $x_i$ :

$$(3.1) \quad \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, v_c \in \{0, \mathbb{N}\}, x_i \in \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} : \bigcap_{i=1}^n x_i = \emptyset \wedge v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|.$$

THEOREM 3.2. *Euclidean volume*,

$$(3.2) \quad \begin{aligned} \forall [a_i, b_i] \in \{[a_1, b_1], \dots, [a_n, b_n]\}, [v_a, v_b] \subset \mathbb{R}, s_i = b_i - a_i, v = v_b - v_a : \\ v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i. \end{aligned}$$

The formal proof, “Euclidean\_volume,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF.

$$(3.3) \quad v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Leftrightarrow v_c \kappa = (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa \Leftrightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa.$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2) to equation 3.3:

$$(3.4) \quad \exists v, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : v_c = \text{floor}(v/\kappa) \Rightarrow v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa.$$

Apply lemma 2.3 to equation 3.4:

$$(3.5) \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i|) \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa).$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2) to  $s_i$ :

$$(3.6) \quad \exists s_i, \kappa \in \mathbb{R} : \text{floor}(s_i/\kappa) = |x_i| \Rightarrow \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i.$$

$$(3.7) \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \kappa) \wedge \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (|x_i| \kappa) = s_i \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i \quad \square$$

THEOREM 3.3. *Sum of volumes:*

$$(3.8) \quad \forall x_{i,j} \in \{x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_m}\} = x_i : v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \quad \wedge \quad v_{c_j} = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_{i,j}| \quad \wedge \\ v_c = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_j} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists s_i, s_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R} : \prod_{i=1}^n s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j}).$$

The formal proof, “sum\_of\_volumes,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF. From the Euclidean volume theorem (3.2):

$$(3.9) \quad v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| \Rightarrow v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i \quad \wedge \quad v_{c_j} = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_{i,j}| \Rightarrow v_j = \prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j}.$$

Apply the ruler (2.1) and ruler convergence (2.2):

$$(3.10) \quad \exists v, v_j, \kappa \in R : \quad v_c = \text{floor}(v/\kappa) \quad \wedge \quad v_{c_j} = \text{floor}(v_j/\kappa) \\ \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa \quad \wedge \quad v_i = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_{c_j} \kappa.$$

$$(3.11) \quad v_c = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_j} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_c \kappa = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_j}) \kappa.$$

Apply lemma 2.3 to equation 3.11:

$$(3.12) \quad \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \kappa \quad \wedge \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_j}) \kappa \quad \wedge \quad v_i = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} v_{c_j} \kappa \\ \Rightarrow \quad v = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} (\sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_j}) \kappa^n = \lim_{\kappa \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^m (v_{c_j} \kappa) = \sum_{j=1}^m v_j.$$

$$(3.13) \quad v = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i \quad \wedge \quad v_j = \prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j} \quad \wedge \quad v = \sum_{j=1}^m v_j \\ \Rightarrow \quad \prod_{i=1}^n s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m \prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j}. \quad \square$$

## 4. Distance

DEFINITION 4.1. A distance measure is a bijective, monotonic increasing function of an n-volume.

### 4.1. Minkowski distance ( $L_p$ norm).

THEOREM 4.2. *Minkowski distance ( $L_p$  norm):*

$$v_c = \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_{i,j}|) = \sum_{j=1}^m v_{c_i} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d^n = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n.$$

The formal proof, “Minkowski\_distance,” is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

PROOF. From the sum of volumes proof (3.3):

$$(4.1) \quad \prod_{i=1}^n |x_i| = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n |x_{i,j}|) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \prod_{i=1}^n s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j})$$

$$(4.2) \quad \exists d, d_i \in \mathbb{R} : d = (\sum_{i=1}^n s_i)/n \quad \wedge \quad d_i = (\sum_{j=1}^m s_{i,j})/n \quad \wedge \\ \prod_{i=1}^n s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad d^n = \prod_{i=1}^n s_i = \sum_{j=1}^m (\prod_{i=1}^n s_{i,j}) = \sum_{i=1}^m d_i^n. \quad \square$$

**4.2. Distance inequality.** Proving that all Minkowski distances ( $L_p$  norms) satisfy the metric space triangle inequality requires another inequality. The formal proof, distance\_inequality, is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

THEOREM 4.3. *Distance inequality*

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, v_a, v_b \geq 0 : (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n}.$$

PROOF. Expand  $(v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n$  using the binomial expansion:

$$(4.3) \quad \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0 : \quad v_a + v_b \leq v_a + v_b + \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^{n-i} (v_b^{1/n})^i + \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{i} (v_a^{1/n})^i (v_b^{1/n})^{n-i} = (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n.$$

Take the  $n^{th}$  of both sides of the inequality 4.3:

$$(4.4) \quad \forall v_a, v_b \geq 0, n \in \mathbb{N} : v_a + v_b \leq (v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n})^n \Rightarrow (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n}. \quad \square$$

**4.3. Distance sum inequality.** The formal proof, distance\_sum\_inequality, is in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

**THEOREM 4.4. Distance sum inequality**

$$\forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, a_i, b_i \geq 0 : (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}.$$

PROOF. Apply the distance inequality (4.3):

$$(4.5) \quad \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, v_a, v_b \geq 0 : \quad v_a = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n \quad \wedge \quad v_b = \sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n \quad \wedge \\ (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad ((\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n) + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n))^{1/n} = \\ (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}. \quad \square$$

**4.4. Metric Space.** All Minkowski distances ( $L_p$  norms) have the properties of metric space.

The formal proofs: triangle\_inequality, symmetry, non\_negativity, and identity\_of\_indiscernibles are in the Coq file, euclidrelations.v.

**THEOREM 4.5. Triangle Inequality:**

$$d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w).$$

PROOF.  $\forall p \geq 1, \quad k > 1, \quad u = s_1, \quad w = s_2, \quad v = w/k:$

$$(4.6) \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + w^p) + 2v^p)^{1/p} = ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p}.$$

Apply the distance inequality (4.3) to the inequality 4.6:

$$(4.7) \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \quad \wedge \quad (v_a + v_b)^{1/n} \leq v_a^{1/n} + v_b^{1/n} \\ \wedge \quad v_a = u^p + v^p \quad \wedge \quad v_b = v^p + w^p \\ \Rightarrow \quad (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq ((u^p + v^p) + (v^p + w^p))^{1/p} \leq (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} \\ \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) = (u^p + w^p)^{1/p} \leq \\ (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} + (v^p + w^p)^{1/p} = d(u, v) + d(v, w). \quad \square$$

**THEOREM 4.6. Symmetry:**  $d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = d(v, u).$

PROOF. By the commutative law of addition:

$$(4.8) \quad \forall p : p \geq 1, \quad d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} = (s_1^p + s_2^p)^{1/p} \\ \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} = (v^p + u^p)^{1/p} = d(v, u). \quad \square$$

**THEOREM 4.7. Non-negativity:**  $d(s_1, s_2) = (\sum_{i=1}^2 s_i^p)^{1/p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, w) \geq 0.$

PROOF. By definition, the length of an interval is always  $\geq 0$ :

$$(4.9) \quad \forall [a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], \quad u = b_1 - a_1, v = b_2 - a_2, \quad \Rightarrow \quad u \geq 0, v \geq 0.$$

$$(4.10) \quad p \geq 1, \quad u, v \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, v) = (u^p + v^p)^{1/p} \geq 0. \quad \square$$

THEOREM 4.8. *Identity of Indiscernibles:  $d(u, u) = 0$ .*

PROOF. From the non-negativity property (4.7):

$$(4.11) \quad d(u, w) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(u, v) \geq 0 \quad \wedge \quad d(v, w) \geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \exists d(u, w) = d(u, v) = d(v, w) = 0.$$

$$(4.12) \quad d(u, w) = d(v, w) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = v.$$

$$(4.13) \quad d(u, v) = 0 \quad \wedge \quad u = v \quad \Rightarrow \quad d(u, u) = 0. \quad \square$$

#### 4.5. The properties limiting a set to at most 3 members.

DEFINITION 4.9. Totally ordered set:

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

DEFINITION 4.10. Symmetry (every set member is sequentially adjacent to every other member):

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

THEOREM 4.11. *A strict linearly ordered and symmetric set is a cyclic set.*

$$i = n \quad \wedge \quad j = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{successor } x_n = x_1 \quad \wedge \quad \text{predecessor } x_1 = x_n.$$

The formal proof, “ordered\_symmetric\_is\_cyclic,” is in the Coq file, `threed.v`.

PROOF. A total order (4.9) assigns a unique label to each set member and assigns 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 property (4.10):

$$(4.14) \quad i = n \quad \wedge \quad j = 1 \quad \wedge \quad \text{successor } x_i = x_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{successor } x_n = x_1.$$

Applying the definition of the symmetry property (4.10) to conclusion 4.14:

$$(4.15) \quad \text{successor } x_i = x_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{predecessor } x_j = x_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{predecessor } x_1 = x_n. \quad \square$$

THEOREM 4.12. *An ordered and symmetric set is limited to at most 3 members.*

The 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 order logic), which makes it clear which facts satisfy a proof goal.

PROOF.

It was proved that an ordered and symmetric set is a cyclic set (4.11).

DEFINITION 4.13. (Cyclic) Successor of  $m$  is  $n$ :

$$(4.16) \quad \text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow (m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1) \vee (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

DEFINITION 4.14. (Cyclic) Predecessor of  $m$  is  $n$ :

$$(4.17) \quad \text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}) \vee (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

DEFINITION 4.15. Adjacent: member  $m$  is sequentially adjacent to member  $n$  if the successor of  $m$  is  $n$  or the predecessor of  $m$  is  $n$ . Notionally:

$$(4.18) \quad \text{Adjacent}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(m, n, \text{setsize}) \vee \text{Predecessor}(m, n, \text{setsize}).$$

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

$$(4.19) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 1, 1) \leftarrow (m = \text{setsize} \wedge n = 1).$$

$$(4.20) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 2) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.21) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(2, 1, 2) \leftarrow (n = \text{setsize} \wedge m = 1).$$

$$(4.22) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.23) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(2, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

$$(4.24) \quad \text{Adjacent}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(3, 1, 3) \leftarrow (n = \text{setsize} \wedge m = 1).$$

$$(4.25) \quad \text{Adjacent}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.26) \quad \text{Adjacent}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow \text{Successor}(2, 3, 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

$$(4.27) \quad \text{Adjacent}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(3, 2, 3) \leftarrow (n = m - 1 \geq 1).$$

Member 2 is the only successor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ , which implies member 3 is not ( $\neg$ ) a successor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ :

$$(4.28) \quad \neg \text{Successor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \\ \leftarrow \text{Successor}(1, 2, \text{setsize} > 3) \leftarrow (n = m + 1 \leq \text{setsize}).$$

Member  $n = \text{setsize} > 3$  is the only predecessor of member 1, which implies member 3 is not ( $\neg$ ) a predecessor of member 1 for all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ :

$$(4.29) \quad \neg \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \\ \leftarrow \text{Predecessor}(1, \text{setsize}, \text{setsize} > 3) \leftarrow (m = 1 \wedge n = \text{setsize} > 3).$$

For all  $\text{setsize} > 3$ , some elements are not ( $\neg$ ) sequentially adjacent to every other element (not symmetric):

$$(4.30) \quad \neg \text{Adjacent}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \\ \leftarrow \neg \text{Successor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3) \wedge \neg \text{Predecessor}(1, 3, \text{setsize} > 3). \quad \square$$

## 5. Applications to physics

From the 3D proof (4.12), the interval lengths:  $t$  (time),  $m$  (mass), and  $q$  (charge) have different types (are from different sets) from a 3-dimensional distance interval length,  $r$ .

**5.1. Axiom of geometric measures.** A Cartesian grid maps some amount on a 3 dimensional distance axis,  $r$ , to a proportionate amount on the  $t$ ,  $m$ , and  $q$  axes, which are expressed as unit-factoring, conversion ratios:

$$(5.1) \quad r = (r_c/t_c)t = (r_c/m_c)m = (r_c/q_c)q.$$

**5.2. Spacetime equations.** From the volume proof (3.2), two disjoint distance intervals,  $[0, r]$  and  $[0, r']$ , define a 2-volume (area). From the Minkowski distance proof (4.2), the distance interval lengths,  $r$  and  $r'$ , are continuous, bijective, monotonic increasing functions of two areas,  $v$  and  $v'$  having the sizes,  $v = r^2$  and  $v' = r'^2$ . From the sum of volumes proof (3.3),  $\forall r^2 \geq r'^2 \exists r_\nu \in \mathbb{R} : r^2 = r'^2 + r_\nu^2$ . From the 3D proof (4.12), there exists the unit-factoring ratios,  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ , converting some type,  $t$ , to distances  $r$  and  $r_\nu$ .

$$(5.2) \quad \forall r^2 \geq r'^2 \exists r_\nu \in \mathbb{R} : r^2 = r'^2 + r_\nu^2 \quad \wedge \quad \exists u, v \in \mathbb{R} : r = \mu t \quad \wedge \quad r_\nu = \nu t \\ \Rightarrow \quad (\mu t)^2 = r'^2 + (\nu t)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad r' = \sqrt{(\mu t)^2 - (\nu t)^2} = \mu t \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

Local (proper) distance,  $r'$ , contracts relative to coordinate distance,  $r$ , as  $\nu \rightarrow \mu$ :

$$(5.3) \quad r' = \mu t \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad \mu t = r \quad \Rightarrow \quad r' = r \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

From equation 5.2, coordinate length,  $t$ , dilates relative to local length,  $t'$ , as  $\nu \rightarrow \mu$ :

$$(5.4) \quad \mu t = r' / \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2} \quad \wedge \quad r' = \mu t' \quad \Rightarrow \quad t = t' / \sqrt{1 - (\nu/\mu)^2}.$$

Using  $r^2 = r'^2 + r_\nu^2$  from equation 5.2, where  $r_\nu$  is a 3-dimensional distance, one form of the flat Minkowski's spacetime event interval is:

$$(5.5) \quad dr^2 = dr'^2 + dr_\nu^2 \quad \wedge \quad dr_\nu^2 = dx_1^2 + dx_2^2 + dx_3^2 \quad \wedge \quad d(\mu t) = dr \\ \Rightarrow \quad dr'^2 = d(\mu t)^2 - dx_1^2 - dx_2^2 - dx_3^2.$$

**5.3. Newton's gravity force and the constant,  $G$ .** From equation 5.1:

$$(5.6) \quad \forall m_1, m_2, m, r \in \mathbb{R} : m_1 m_2 = m^2 \quad \wedge \quad m = (m_c/r_c)r \\ \Rightarrow \quad m_1 m_2 = ((m_c/r_c)r)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad (r_c/m_c)^2 m_1 m_2 / r^2 = 1.$$

$$(5.7) \quad r = r_c/t_c = ct \quad \wedge \quad mr = ((m_c/r_c)r)(ct) \quad \Rightarrow \quad mr = (m_c/r_c)(ct)^2.$$

$$(5.8) \quad mr = (m_c/r_c)(ct)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad ((r_c/m_c)/c^2)mr/t^2 = 1.$$

$$(5.9) \quad ((r_c/m_c)/c^2)mr/t^2 = 1 \quad \wedge \quad (r_c/m_c)^2 m_1 m_2 / r^2 = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \quad F := mr/t^2 = ((r_c/m_c)c^2)m_1 m_2 / r^2 = G m_1 m_2 / r^2,$$

where Newton's constant,  $G = (r_c/m_c)c^2$ , has the SI units:  $m^3 \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot s^{-2}$ .

**5.4. Coulomb's charge force and constant.** From equation 5.1:

$$(5.10) \quad r = (r_c/m_c)m = (r_c/q_c)q \Rightarrow m = (m_c/q_c)q.$$

Substituting equations 5.10 and 5.1 into equation 5.9:

$$(5.11) \quad m = (m_c/q_c)q \quad \wedge \quad r_c/t_c = c \quad \wedge \quad F = G m_1 m_2 / r^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad F = (m_c/q_c)^2 G q_1 q_2 / r^2 = (m_c/q_c)(r_c/q_c)(r_c/t_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2.$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 (5.12) \quad a_G = r_c/t_c^2 \quad \wedge \quad F = (m_c/q_c)(r_c/q_c)(r_c/t_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 \\
 \Rightarrow \quad F = (m_c a_G)(r_c/q_c)^2 q_1 q_2 / r^2 = k_e q_1 q_2 / r^2,
 \end{aligned}$$

where Coulomb's constant,  $k_e = (m_c a_G)(r_c/q_c)^2$ , has the SI units:  $N \cdot m^2 \cdot C^{-2}$ .

**5.5. 3 fundamental constants.**  $c_t$ ,  $c_m$ , and  $c_q$ .

$$(5.13) \quad c_t = r_c/t_c \approx 2.99792458 \cdot 10^8 m \, s^{-1}.$$

$$(5.14) \quad G = (r_c/m_c)c_t^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad c_m = r_c/m_c \approx 7.4261602691 \cdot 10^{-28} m \, kg^{-1}.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5.15) \quad k_e = (m_c/q_c)^2 G = (c_q/c_m)^2 G = \\
 \Rightarrow \quad c_q = r_c/q_c \approx 8.6175172023 \cdot 10^{-18} m \, C^{-1}.
 \end{aligned}$$

**5.6. Principle of conservation.** A change in distance corresponds to an inversely proportionate change in another type of measure. The ratios of  $c_t$  to  $c_m$  and  $c_t$  to  $c_q$  yields 3 conservation constants,  $k_t$ ,  $k_m$ , and  $k_q$  that are the basis of particle-wave behavior:

$$(5.16) \quad c_t/c_m = (m_c/r_c)(r_c/t_c) = (m_c r_c)/(t_c r_c) = k_m/k_t.$$

$$(5.17) \quad c_t/c_q = (q_c/r_c)(r_c/t_c) = (q_c r_c)/(t_c r_c) = k_q/k_t.$$

**5.7. Planck-Einstein equation:** Applying both the relative measure ratios 5.1 and the conservation ratios 5.6:

$$(5.18) \quad m(ct)^2 = mr^2 \quad \wedge \quad mr = m_c r_c = k_m \quad \Rightarrow \quad m(ct)^2 = k_m r.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5.19) \quad m(ct)^2 = k_m r \quad \wedge \quad r_c/t_c = r/t = c \\
 \Rightarrow \quad E := mc^2 = k_m r/t^2 = (k_m(r/t)) (1/t) = (k_m c)(1/t) = hf,
 \end{aligned}$$

where the Planck constant  $h = k_m c$  and the frequency  $f = 1/t$ .

$$(5.20) \quad k_m = m_c r_c = h/c \approx 2.21022 \cdot 10^{-42} \, kg \, m.$$

$$(5.21) \quad k_t = t_c r_c = k_m/(c_t/c_m) \approx 5.47493 \cdot 10^{-78} \, s \, m.$$

$$(5.22) \quad k_q = q_c r_c = (c_t/c_q)k_t \approx 1.90466 \cdot 10^{-52} \, C \, m.$$

**5.8. Quantum-special relativity gravity.** The total mass of a particle is  $m = \sqrt{m_0^2 + m_{ke}^2}$ , where  $m_0$  is the rest mass and  $m_{ke}$  is the kinetic energy-equivalent mass. Applying both the relative measure ratios 5.1 and the conservation ratios 5.6:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5.23) \quad m_0 = (m_c/r_c)r \quad \wedge \quad m_{ke} = m_c r_c/r \quad \wedge \quad m = \sqrt{m_0^2 + m_{ke}^2} \\
 \Rightarrow \quad m = \sqrt{((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Applying equation 5.23 to equation 5.6:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5.24) \quad \exists m : m_1 m_2 = m^2 = ((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2 \\
 \Rightarrow \quad m_1 m_2 / (((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2) = 1,
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $r$  is the distance in the coordinate frame of reference. But, the experienced force in the proper (local) frame of reference is, from equation 5.2,  $r' = \sqrt{(ct)^2 - (vt)^2}$ :

$$(5.25) \quad r' = \sqrt{(ct)^2 - (vt)^2} \Rightarrow m_0 r' = (m_c/r_c)((ct)^2 - (vt)^2).$$

$$(5.26) \quad m_0 r' = (m_c/r_c)((ct)^2 - (vt)^2) \Rightarrow ((r_c/m_c)/(c^2 - v^2))m_0 r'/t^2 = 1.$$

$$(5.27) \quad ((r_c/m_c)/(c^2 - v^2))m_0 r'/t^2 = 1 \\ \wedge \quad m_1 m_2 / (((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2) = 1 \\ \Rightarrow F := m_0 r'/t^2 = ((m_c/r_c)(c^2 - v^2))m_1 m_2 / (((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2).$$

**5.9. Quantum-special relativity charge.** Applying  $m = (m_c/q_c)q$  to the quantum-relativistic gravity equation (5.8):

$$(5.28) \quad F = (m_c/q_c)^2 (m_c/r_c)(c^2 - v^2)q_1 q_2 / (((m_c/r_c)r)^2 + ((m_c r_c)/r)^2).$$

## 6. Insights and implications

- (1) Proving that Euclidean volume and distance are derived from the same abstract, set-based definition of a countable n-volume provides a unifying set and limit-based foundation under volume and distance without using the geometric primitives and relations required in Euclidean geometry [Joy98], axiomatic geometry [Lee10], and vector analysis [Wey52]. This puts a more rigorous set and limit-based foundation under integration, measure theory, the vector norm, and the metric space axioms.
- (2) Conjecture: A distance measure as a continuous, bijective, monotonic increasing function of a real-valued n-volume is a restriction on a complete metric space.
- (3) Euclid's proof that Euclidean distance is the smallest distance between two distinct points equate Euclidean distance to a straight line, where it is assumed that the straight line length is the smallest distance [Joy98]. And proofs that a straight line is the smallest distance equate the straight line to the Euclidean distance.

Using the calculus of variations for a shortest distance proof would result in circular logic due to the Euclidean assumptions in the definitions of the Riemann and Lebesgue integrals.

All distance measures of an Euclidean 2-volume (area) are Minkowski distances (4.2), where  $1 \leq n \leq 2$ .  $n = 1$  is the Manhattan (largest) distance case,  $d = \sum_{i=1}^m s_i$ . And  $n = 2$  is the Euclidean (smallest) distance case,  $d = (\sum_{i=1}^m s_i^2)^{1/2}$ .

- (4) Compare the distance sum inequality (4.4),

$$(6.1) \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n},$$

to Minkowski's sum inequality:

$$(6.2) \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n)^n)^{1/n} \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^n)^{1/n} + (\sum_{i=1}^m b_i^n)^{1/n}$$

[Min53]. Note the exponent difference in the left side of each equation:

$$(6.3) \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n))^{1/n} \quad \text{vs.} \quad (\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i^n + b_i^n)^n)^{1/n}.$$

The two inequalities only intersect where  $n = 1$ . The distance sum inequality is a more fundamental inequality because its proof does not require the convexity and various inequality theorems required to prove the Minkowski sum inequality. And the distance sum inequality is derived from the definitions of volume and distance, which makes it more directly related to geometry.

- (5) The gravity (5.7), charge (5.12), and Planck (5.19) constants were all derived from more fundamental constants and all depend on the speed of light constant:  $r = (r_c/t_c)t = ct$ . For example,  $G = (r_c/m_c)c^2$ ,  $k_e = (m_c/q_c)^2G = (m_c/q_c)^2(r_c/m_c)c^2$ , and  $h = (m_cr_c)c$ .
- (6) The derivations of the spacetime equations, here (5.2), differ from other derivations.
  - (a) The derivations, here, are shorter and simpler.
  - (b) The derivations, here, do not rely on the Lorentz transformations or Einsteins' postulates [Ein15]. The derivations do not even require the notion of light.
  - (c) The derivations, here, rely only on geometry: the Euclidean volume proof (3.2), the sum of volumes proof (3.3), the Minkowski distances proof (4.1), and the 3D proof (4.12), which provides the insight that the set properties of physical space creates a maximum speed,  $c$ , and the spacetime equations.
  - (d) The derivations are valid for spacetime, spacemass, and spacecharge.
- (7) Applying the ratios to derive Newton's gravity force (5.3) and Coulomb's charge force (5.4) equations provide:
  - (a) Derivations that do not assume the inverse square law or Gauss's flux divergence theorem. **Note:** the components of the Ricci and metric tensors in Einstein's field equations have the units,  $1/\text{distance}^2$  [Wey52], which is an assumption of the inverse square law.
  - (b) The first derivations to show that the inverse square law and the property of force as mass times acceleration are the result of the conversion ratios,  $r = (r_c/t_c)t = (r_c/m_c)m$ . And the derivation of the inverse square law does not rely on Gauss's flux divergence on the surface of a sphere.

The quantum-special relativity extension to Newton's gravity equation (5.26) makes empirically verifiable predictions.

- (a) In Newton's gravity force, Gauss's gravity law, and Einstein's field (general relativity) equations, the force,  $F \rightarrow \infty$  as the distance,  $r \rightarrow 0$ . But, in the quantum-special relativity extension to Newton's gravity equation,  $F \rightarrow 0$  as  $r \rightarrow 0$ . Where the distance between point-like particles is less than approximately  $10^{-4} m$ , the gravity force should measurably decrease, which implies larger black hole radii and maybe allows black hole evaporation.
- (b) Further, the quantum-special relativity gravity equation indicates that Newton's gravity constant,  $G$ , Gauss's constant,  $4\pi G$ , and Einstein's gravity constant,  $k = 8\pi G/c^4$ , [Wey52], are only valid where the local velocity,  $v = 0$ .
- (c) Adapting the quantum-relativistic gravity equation to Einsteins field (general relativity) equations requires replacing  $G$  in the constant  $k$

with “ $((m_c/r_c)(c^2 - v^2))$ ”, and the components in the metric and Ricci tensor must have the units, “ $1/(distance^2 + 1/distance^2)$ ”.

- (8) There is no unit-factoring ratio converting a discrete state value to a continuously varying interval length. Therefore, the spin states of two quantum entangled particles and the polarization states of two quantum entangled photons are independent of varying distance and time interval lengths.
- (9) Linear algebra, vector analysis, differential geometry, etc. assume any number of possible dimensions. For example, the Gram-Schmidt process is a method to find an orthogonal vector for any  $n$ -dimensional vector [Coh21]. None of those disciplines have exposed the properties that can limit a geometry to 3 dimensions. But the proof that a strict linearly ordered and symmetric set is a cyclic set of at most 3 members (4.12) is the simplest explanation for observing only 3 dimensions of physical space.
  - (a) If there are higher dimensions of ordered and symmetric geometric space, then there is a set of at most three members (4.12), each member being an ordered and symmetric set of 3 dimensions (three 3-dimensional balls).
  - (b) Each of 3 ordered and symmetric dimensions of space can have at most 3 sequentially ordered and symmetric state values, for example, an ordered and symmetric set of 3 vector orientations,  $\{-1, 0, 1\}$ , per dimension of space and at most 3 spin states per dimension, etc.

## References

- [Coh21] M. Cohen, *Linear algebra: Theory, intuition, code*, Amazon Kindle, 2021. ↑12
- [Coq23] Coq, *Coq proof assistant*, 2023. <https://coq.inria.fr/documentation>. ↑2
- [Ein15] A. Einstein, *Relativity, the special and general theory*, Princeton University Press, 2015. ↑11
- [Gol76] R. R. Goldberg, *Methods of real analysis*, John Wiley and Sons, 1976. ↑1
- [Joy98] D. E. Joyce, *Euclid’s elements*, 1998. <http://aleph0.clarku.edu/~djoyce/java/elements/elements.html>. ↑10
- [Lee10] J. M. Lee, *Axiomatic geometry*, American Mathematical Society, 2010. ↑10
- [Min53] H. Minkowski, *Geometrie der zahlen*, Chelsea, 1953. reprint. ↑10
- [Rud76] W. Rudin, *Principles of mathematical analysis*, McGraw Hill Education, 1976. ↑1
- [Wey52] H. Weyl, *Space-time-matter*, Dover Publications Inc, 1952. ↑10, 11

GEORGE VAN TREECK, 668 WESTLINE DR., ALAMEDA, CA 94501