

Lecture 4

Definitions in Mathematics

The role of a mathematical definition

The role of a mathematical definition

Mathematics is an exact science.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.
The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.
The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.
The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.
A definition is an **agreement** about terms.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words),

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

A definition describes the **meaning**

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

A definition describes the **meaning**
in which a certain word (or words) will be used.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

A definition describes the **meaning**
in which a certain word (or words) will be used.

It is important to know the definitions in their **exact** forms,

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

A definition describes the **meaning**
in which a certain word (or words) will be used.

It is important to know the definitions in their **exact** forms,
not just to have an approximate idea.

Mathematics is an exact science. All the statements should be **precise**,
that is, to be understood in a **unique** way.

The precision (exactness, accuracy, clarity) is ensured by
a careful usage of definitions.

A definition is an **agreement** about terms. A definition introduces a new word
(or words), which will be understood exactly as it is stated in the definition.

A definition describes the **meaning**
in which a certain word (or words) will be used.

It is important to know the definitions in their **exact** forms,
not just to have an approximate idea.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Definition. Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Definition. Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called <name>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called <**name**>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called <**name**>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called <**name**>

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

The statements of names are followed by the conditions.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called <**name**>
if <statement>.

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

The statements of names are followed by the conditions.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called **<name>**
if <statement>.

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

The statements of names are followed by the conditions.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g

if $h(x) = g(f(x))$ for any $x \in X$.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called **<name>**
if <statement>.

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

The statements of names are followed by the conditions.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g
if $h(x) = g(f(x))$ for any $x \in X$.

This is a **descriptive** (or implicit) definition.

Like a fairy tale often begins with words “Once upon a time ...”,
a typical definition in a well-written math book begins
with a description of a context.

Let ... <description of objects, universe, etc.>
<notation> is called **<name>**
if <statement>.

The word Definition is not necessary here.

The description is followed by one or several statements of names.

Names are emphasized typographically (by italic or bold).

The statements of names are followed by the conditions.

Example:

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

A map $h : X \rightarrow Z$ is called the **composition** of f and g
if $h(x) = g(f(x))$ for any $x \in X$.

This is a **descriptive** (or implicit) definition.

There are also **constructive** (or explicit) definitions.

- (1) Sometimes a description of context is omitted.

- (1) Sometimes a description of context is omitted.
- (2) The last two parts may be written in the opposite order:
If <condition>, then <description of names>.

- (1) Sometimes a description of context is omitted.
- (2) The last two parts may be written in the opposite order:
If <condition>, then <description of names>.
- (3) By a tradition, the **conditional** statement
must be understood as a **biconditional**.

- (1) Sometimes a description of context is omitted.
- (2) The last two parts may be written in the opposite order:
If <condition>, then <description of names>.
- (3) By a tradition, the **conditional** statement
must be understood as a **biconditional**.
- (4) if the name is an adjective,
then instead of **is called** one may use **is said to be**.

The scheme of a constructive definition looks as follows:

The scheme of a constructive definition looks as follows:

<description of objects>
<formula> is called <name>.

The scheme of a constructive definition looks as follows:

<description of objects>
<formula> is called <name>.

Example.

Let X , Y and Z be sets, and let $f : X \rightarrow Y$, $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ be maps.

Then the map $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ defined by formula $g \circ f(x) = g(f(x))$ is called the **composition** of f and g .

Example of a definition: divisibility

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d)

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why?

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division?

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$?

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0 ?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0 ?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.
If a divides both b and c ,

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0 ?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used** in the **proof of a theorem**.

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.
If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.
If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used** in the **proof of a theorem**.

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility,

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used** in the **proof of a theorem**.

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used** in the **proof of a theorem**.

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k .
Since $a|c$, then

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l .

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c =$$

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how this definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al$$

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al = a(k + l).$$

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al = a(k + l).$$

Since $k + l$ is an integer,

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al = a(k + l).$$

Since $k + l$ is an integer, a is a factor of $b + c$.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al = a(k + l).$$

Since $k + l$ is an integer, a is a factor of $b + c$. Therefore, a divides $b + c$.

Example of a definition: divisibility

Definition. Let d and n be integers and $d \neq 0$. One says that d **divides** n (or, equivalently, n is **divisible** by d) if $n = d \cdot k$ for some integer k .

Notation: $d|n$

Remarks. 1. The definition of divisibility is made in terms of multiplication, not division. Why? Is there a division? How would it be with division?

2. Why $d \neq 0$? Why we can't divide by 0?

Let us see **how** this **definition is used in the proof of a theorem.**

Theorem. Let a, b and c be integers, and $a \neq 0$.

If a divides both b and c , then a divides $b + c$.

Proof. Since $a|b$, then, by definition of divisibility, $b = a \cdot k$ for some integer k . Since $a|c$, then $c = a \cdot l$ for some integer l . Therefore,

$$b + c = ak + al = a(k + l).$$

Since $k + l$ is an integer, a is a factor of $b + c$. Therefore, a divides $b + c$. \square

A definition from geometry

A definition from geometry

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space.

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α ,

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

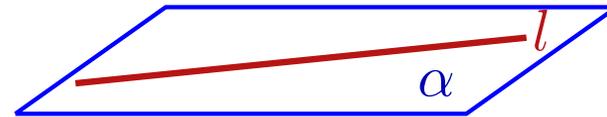
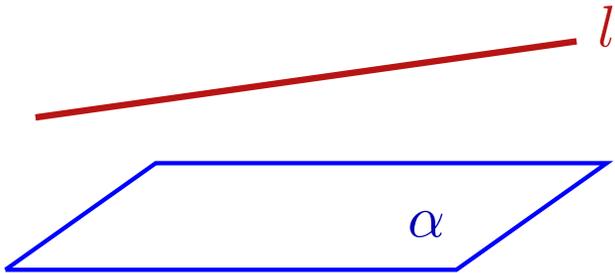
Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

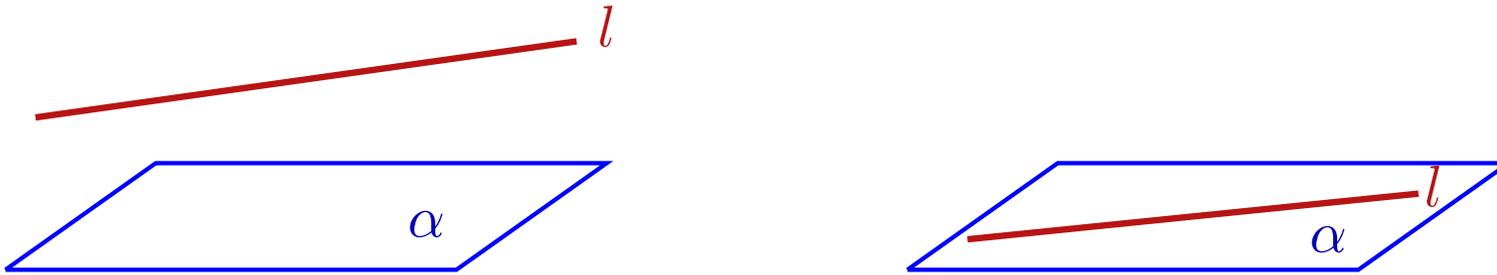
Illustration:



Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:



Control question: What does it mean that a line is **not** parallel to a plane?

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:



Control question: What does it mean that a line is **not** parallel to a plane?

By definition, $l \parallel \alpha \iff$

A definition from geometry

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:



Control question: What does it mean that a line is **not** parallel to a plane?

By definition, $l \parallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha = \emptyset}_{l \text{ doesn't intersect } \alpha} \vee \underbrace{l \subset \alpha}_{l \text{ lies on } \alpha}$

A definition from geometry

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:



Control question: What does it mean that a line is **not** parallel to a plane?

By definition, $l \parallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha = \emptyset}_{l \text{ doesn't intersect } \alpha} \vee \underbrace{l \subset \alpha}_{l \text{ lies on } \alpha}$

Therefore, $l \nparallel \alpha \iff$

A definition from geometry

Definition. Let l be a line and α be a plane in the space. The line l is said to be **parallel** to the plane α , if either l doesn't intersect α or l lies on α .

Notation: $l \parallel \alpha$

Illustration:



Control question: What does it mean that a line is **not** parallel to a plane?

By definition, $l \parallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha = \emptyset}_{l \text{ doesn't intersect } \alpha} \vee \underbrace{l \subset \alpha}_{l \text{ lies on } \alpha}$

Therefore, $l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$

Non-parallel

Non-parallel

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

Non-parallel

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

In words:

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

In words:

A line l is **not** parallel to a plane α if l intersects α , but doesn't lie on α .

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

In words:

A line l is **not** parallel to a plane α if l intersects α , but doesn't lie on α .

A line which is not parallel to a plane is said to **transverse** the plane.

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

In words:

A line l is **not** parallel to a plane α if l intersects α , but doesn't lie on α .

A line which is not parallel to a plane is said to **transverse** the plane.

(The line and plane are said to be **transversal**.)

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

In words:

A line l is **not** parallel to a plane α if l intersects α , but doesn't lie on α .

A line which is not parallel to a plane is said to **transverse** the plane.

(The line and plane are said to be **transversal**.)

Illustration:

$$l \nparallel \alpha \iff \underbrace{l \cap \alpha \neq \emptyset}_{l \text{ intersects } \alpha} \wedge \underbrace{l \not\subset \alpha}_{l \text{ doesn't lie on } \alpha}$$

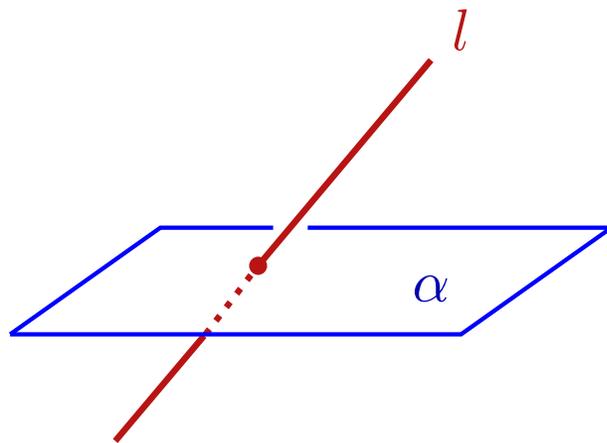
In words:

A line l is **not** parallel to a plane α if l intersects α , but doesn't lie on α .

A line which is not parallel to a plane is said to **transverse** the plane.

(The line and plane are said to be **transversal**.)

Illustration:



Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function,

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.
 L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.
 L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0$$

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0$$

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x$$

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations:

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \varphi, \chi, \psi, \omega$

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \varphi, \chi, \psi, \omega$
 $A, B, \Gamma, \Delta, E, Z, H, \Theta, I, K, \Lambda, M, N, \Xi, O, \Pi, P, \Sigma, T, \Upsilon, \Phi, X, \Psi, \Omega$

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \varphi, \chi, \psi, \omega$
 $A, B, \Gamma, \Delta, E, Z, H, \Theta, I, K, \Lambda, M, N, \Xi, O, \Pi, P, \Sigma, T, \Upsilon, \Phi, X, \Psi, \Omega$

– Three quantifiers

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \varphi, \chi, \psi, \omega$
 $A, B, \Gamma, \Delta, E, Z, H, \Theta, I, K, \Lambda, M, N, \Xi, O, \Pi, P, \Sigma, T, \Upsilon, \Phi, X, \Psi, \Omega$

– Three quantifiers

– Two inequalities

Definition of limit

Definition. Let $f(x)$ be a function, a and L be real numbers.

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

Notations: $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ or $f(x) \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} L$.

Why does this definition appear to be difficult?

– Unknown letters: ε , δ from **Greek alphabet**:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \varepsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \varphi, \chi, \psi, \omega$
 $A, B, \Gamma, \Delta, E, Z, H, \Theta, I, K, \Lambda, M, N, \Xi, O, \Pi, P, \Sigma, T, \Upsilon, \Phi, X, \Psi, \Omega$

– Three quantifiers

– Two inequalities

– One implication

Understanding the definition of limit

Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

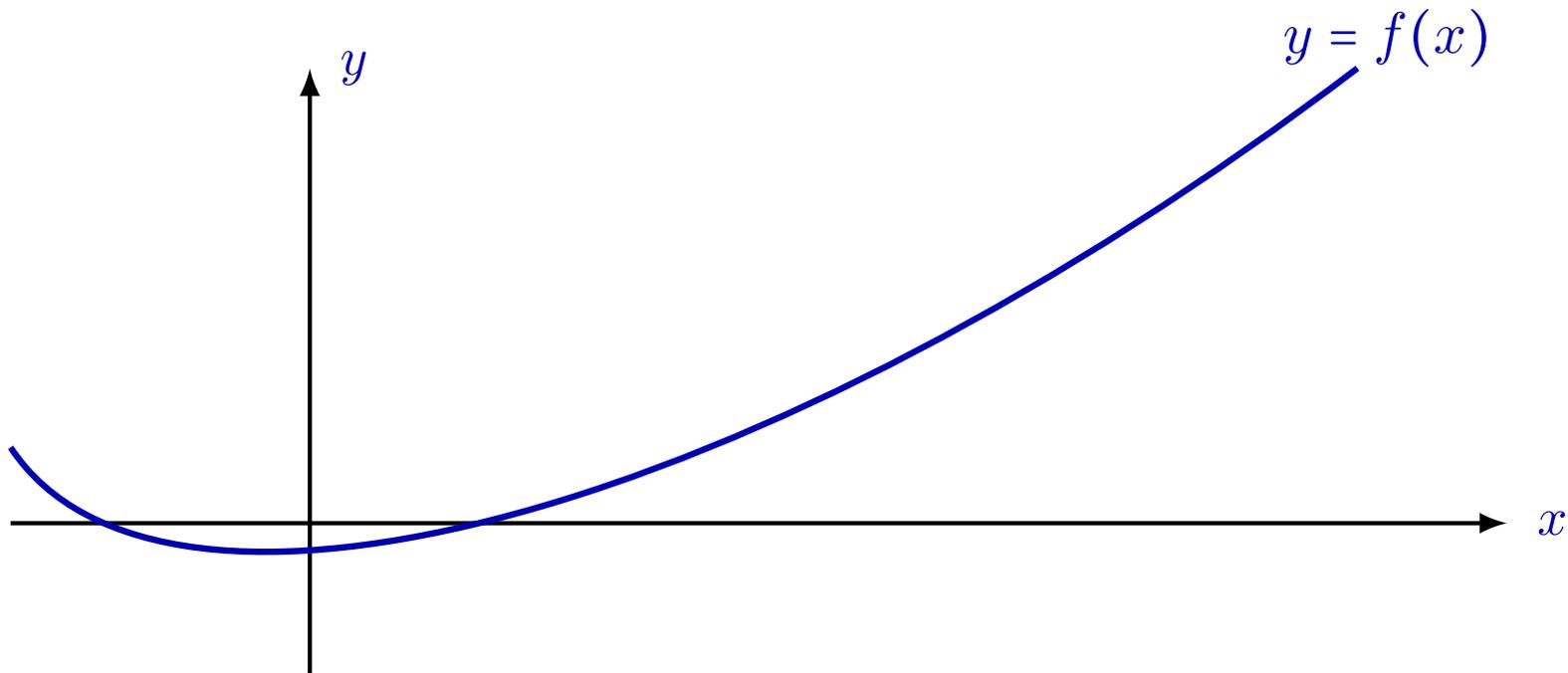
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

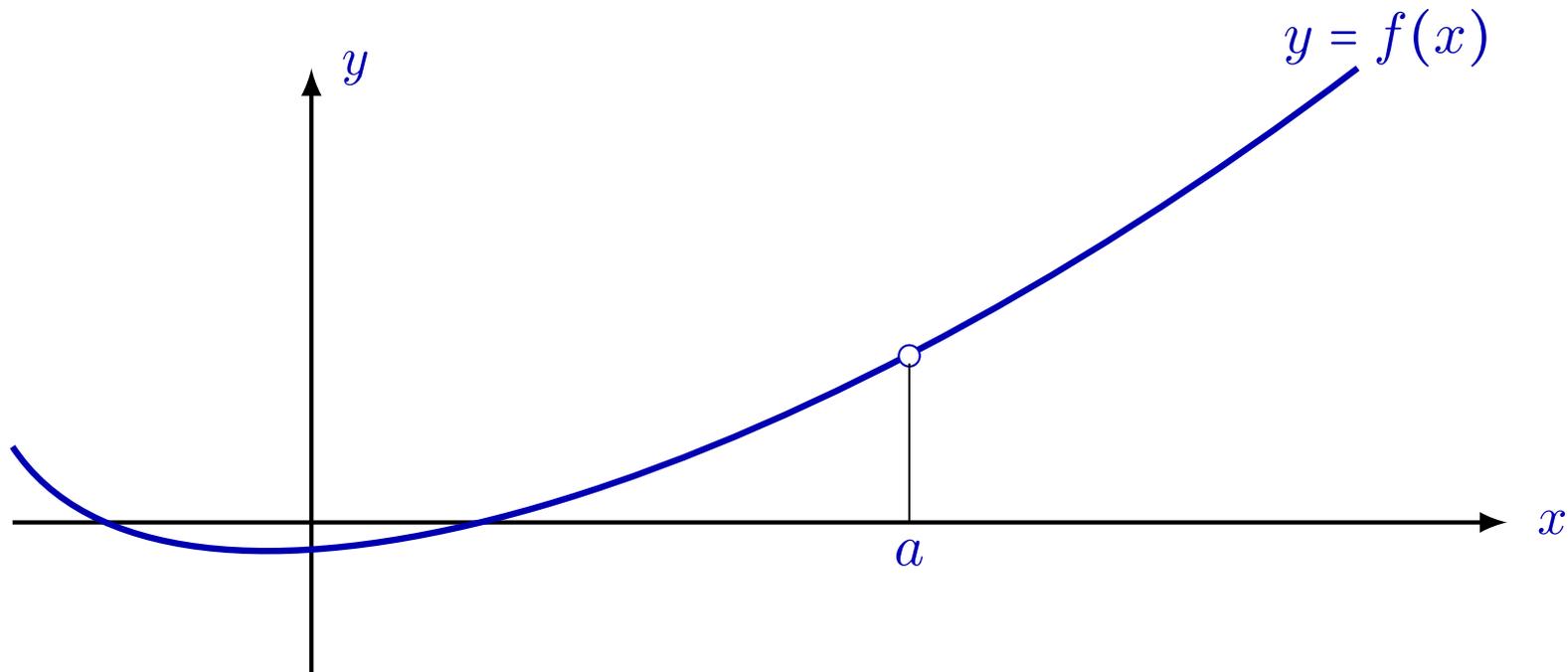
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

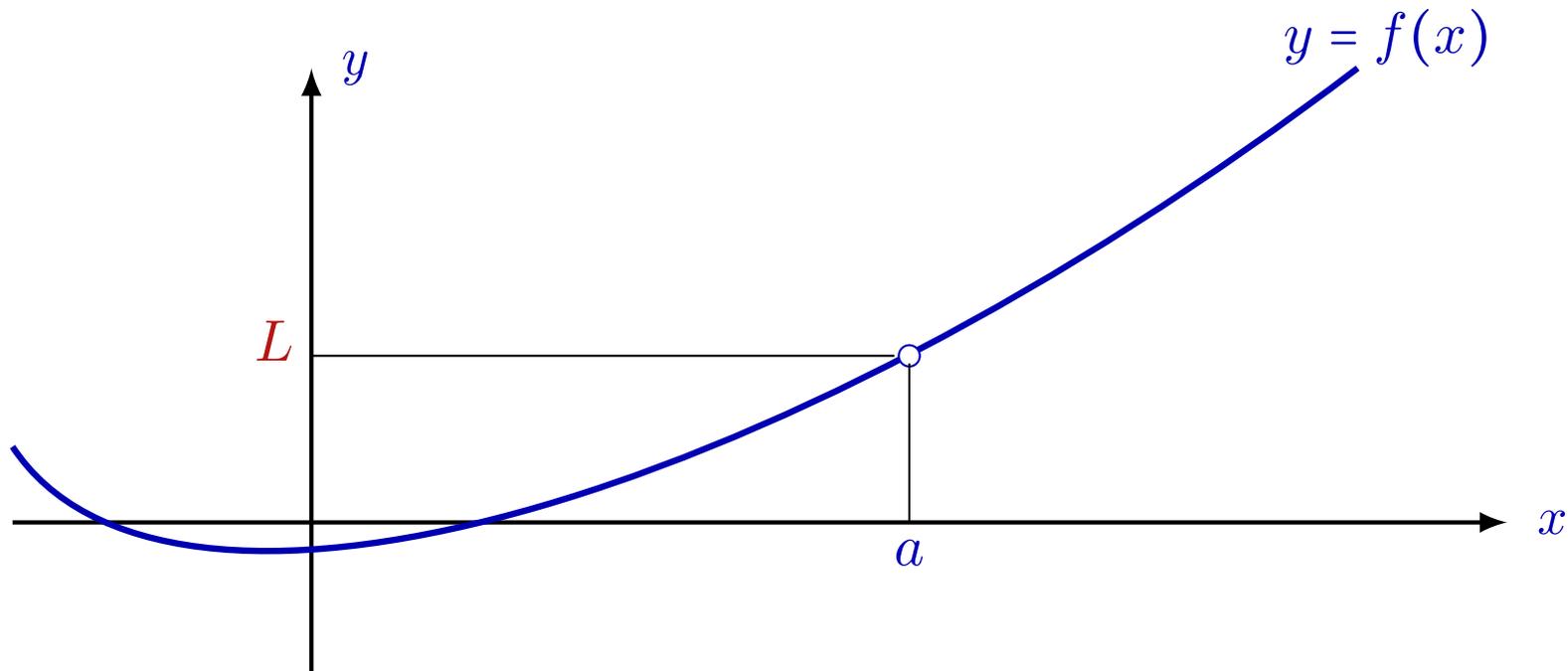
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

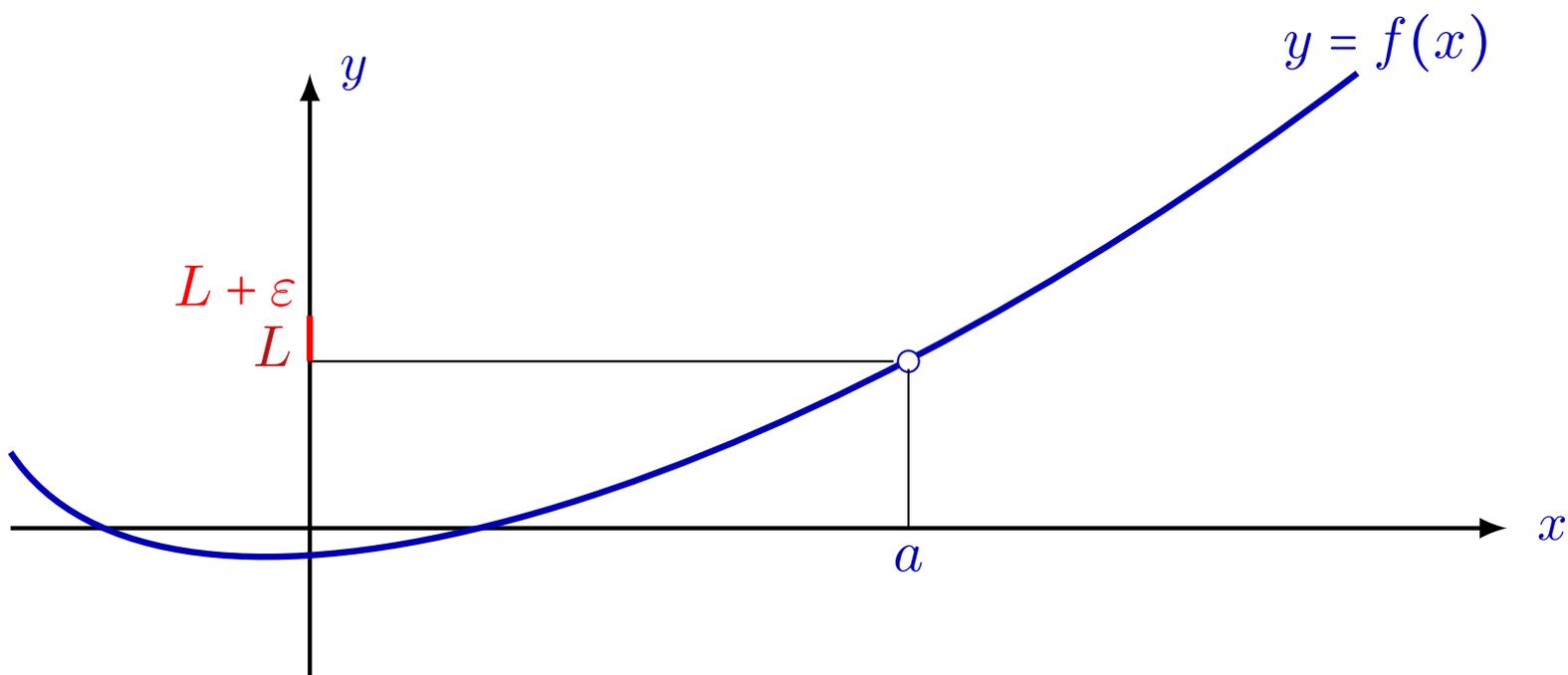
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$



Understanding the definition of limit

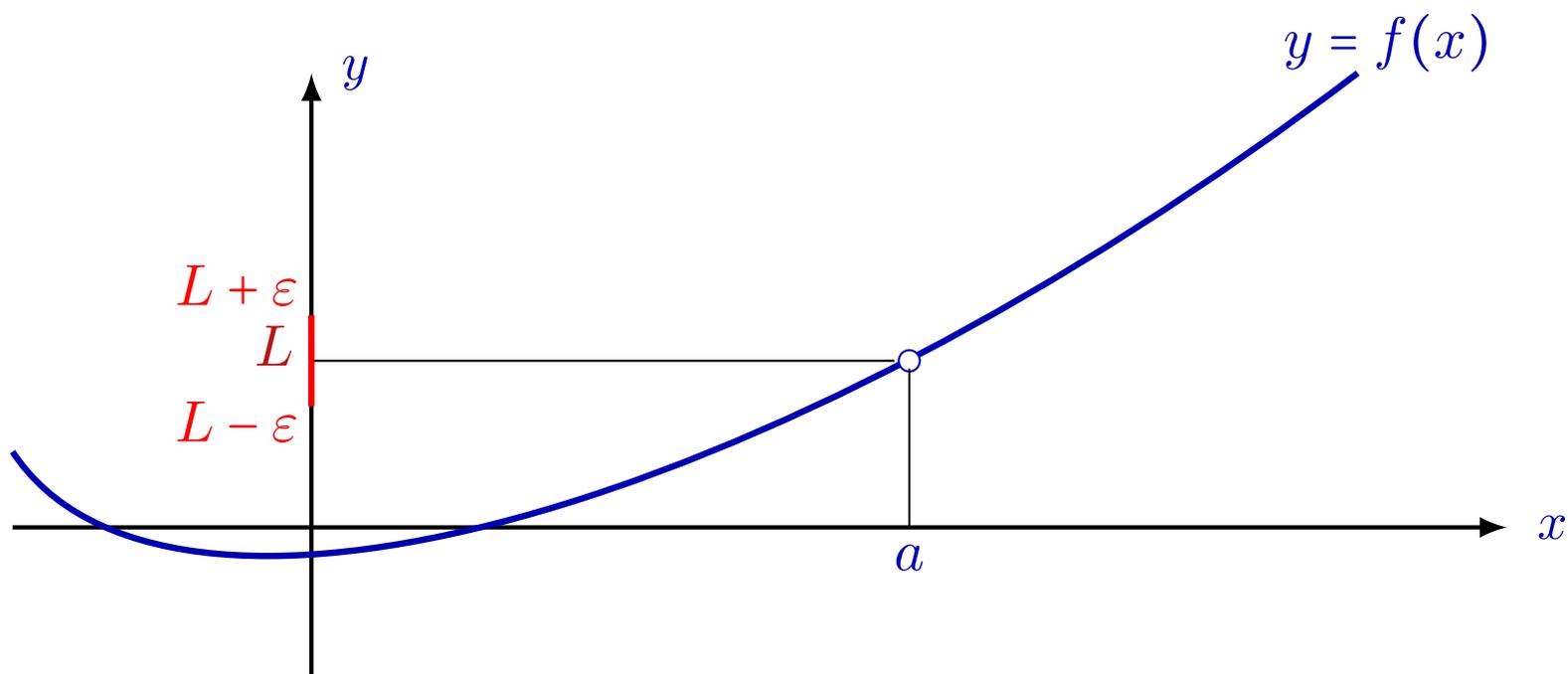
How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

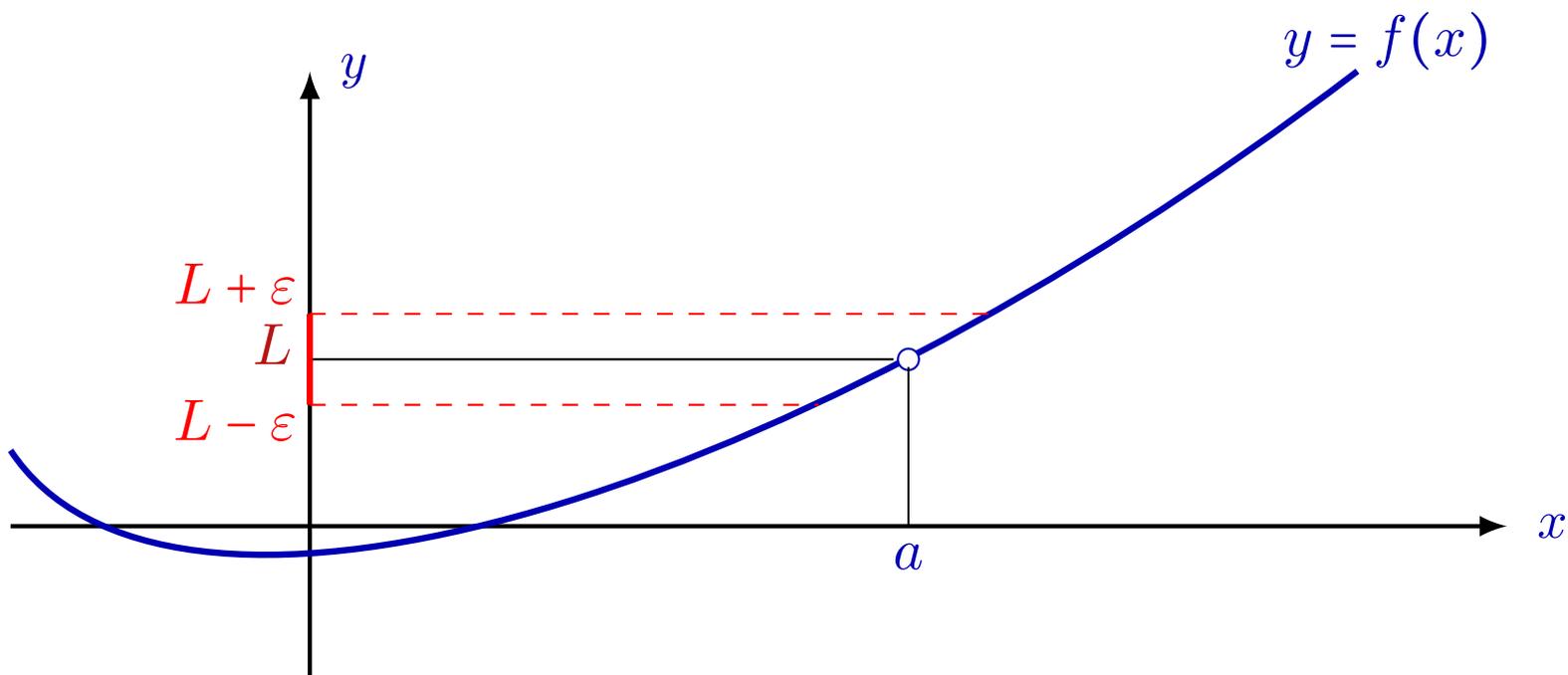
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

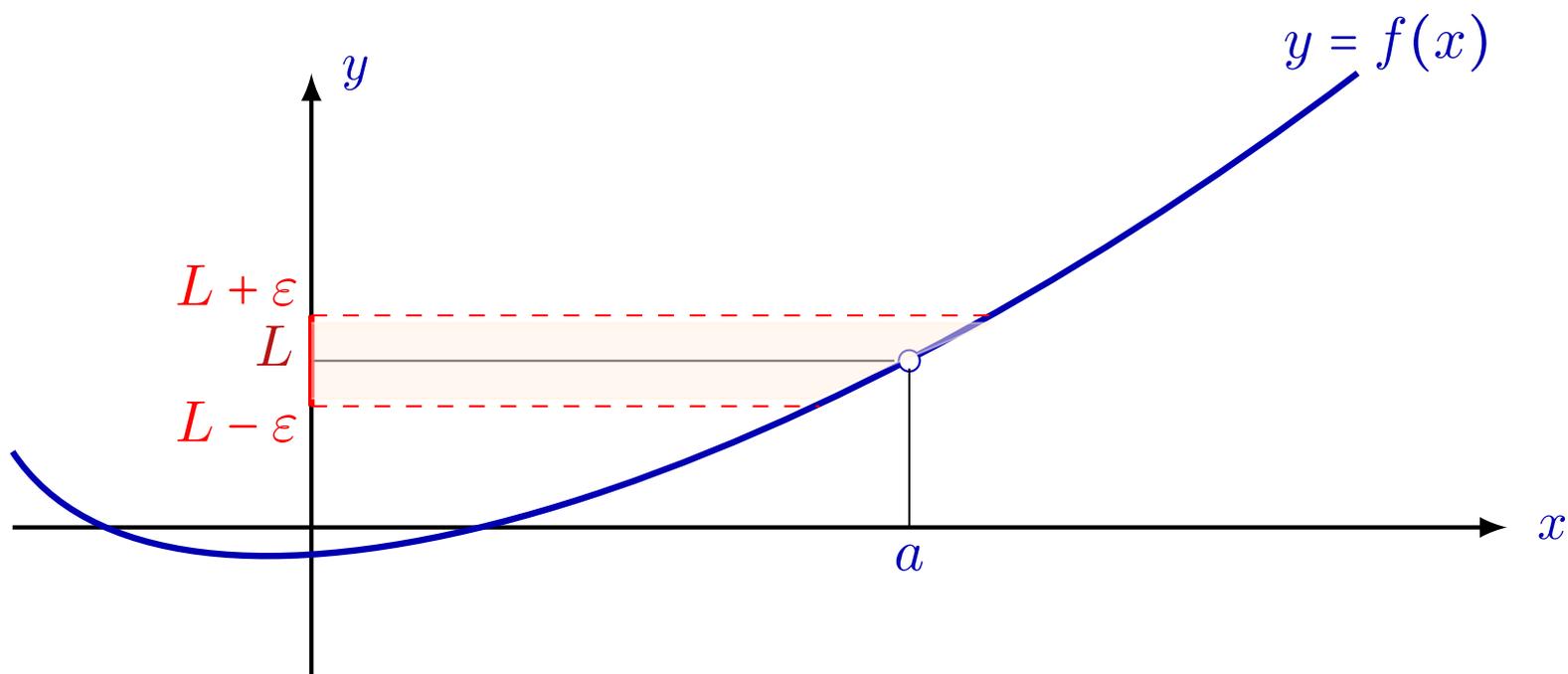
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

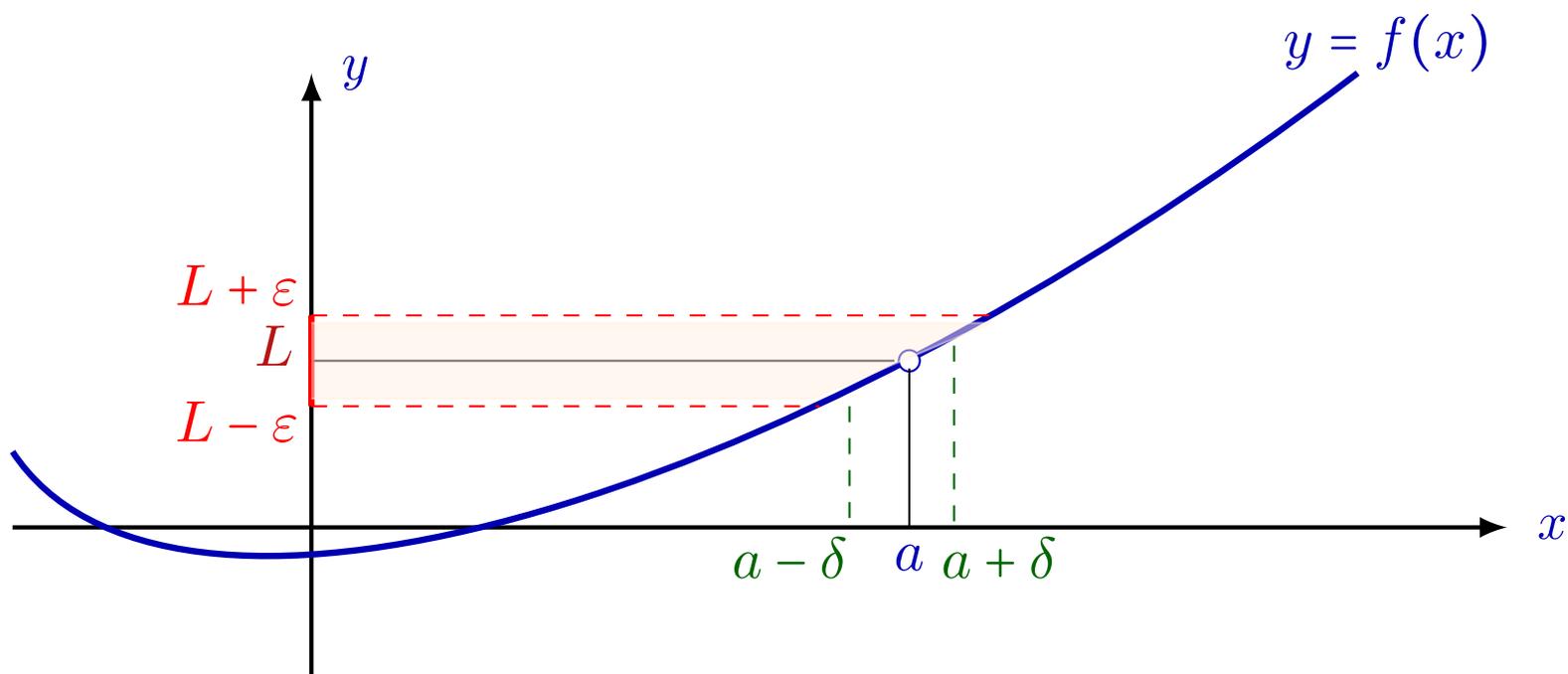
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

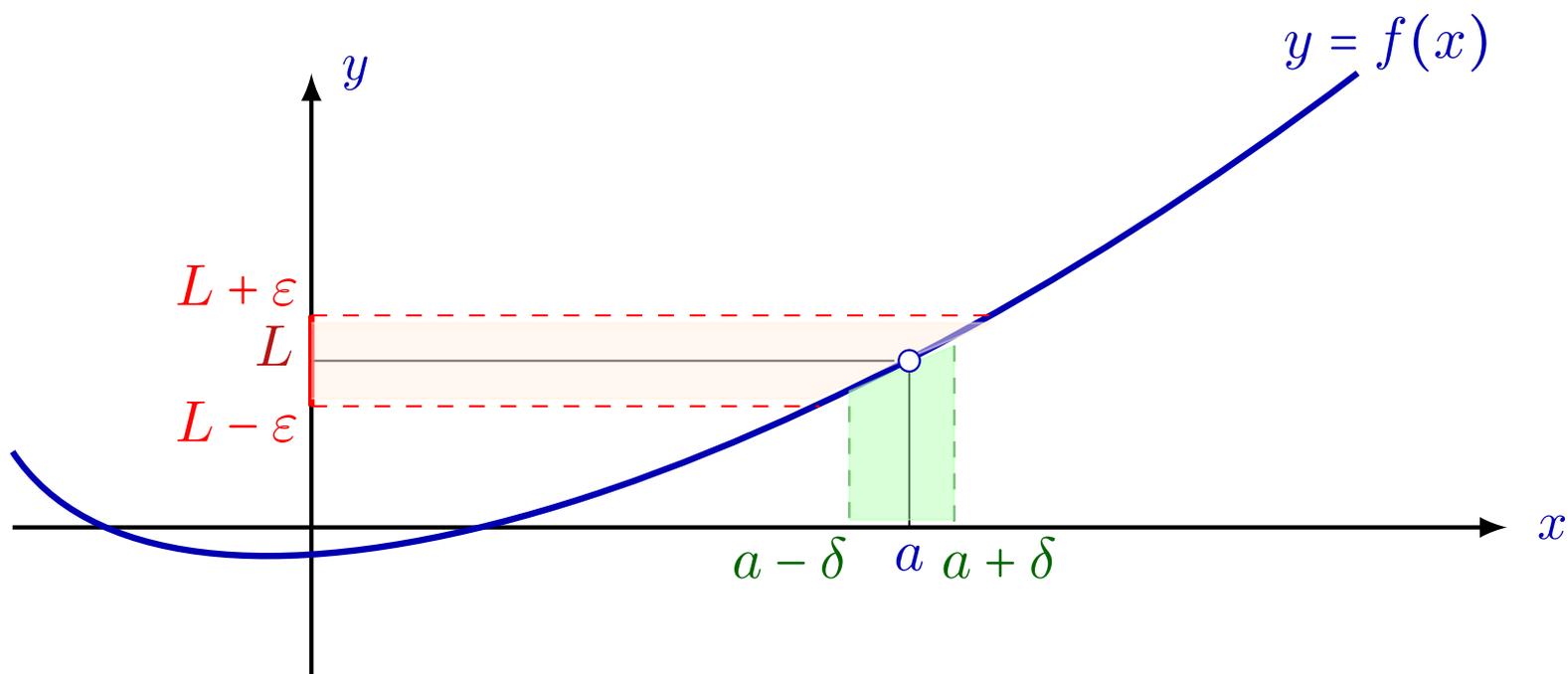
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



Understanding the definition of limit

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

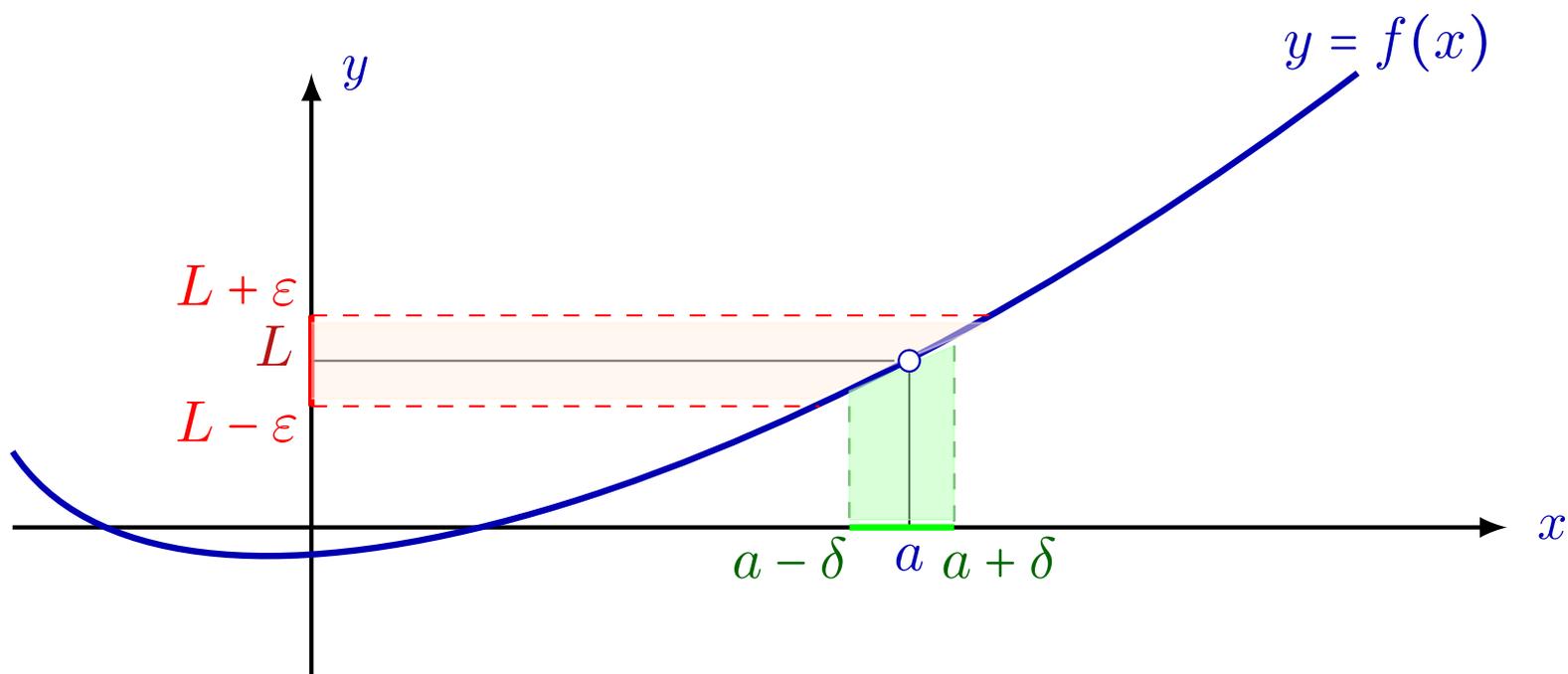
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



Understanding the definition of limit

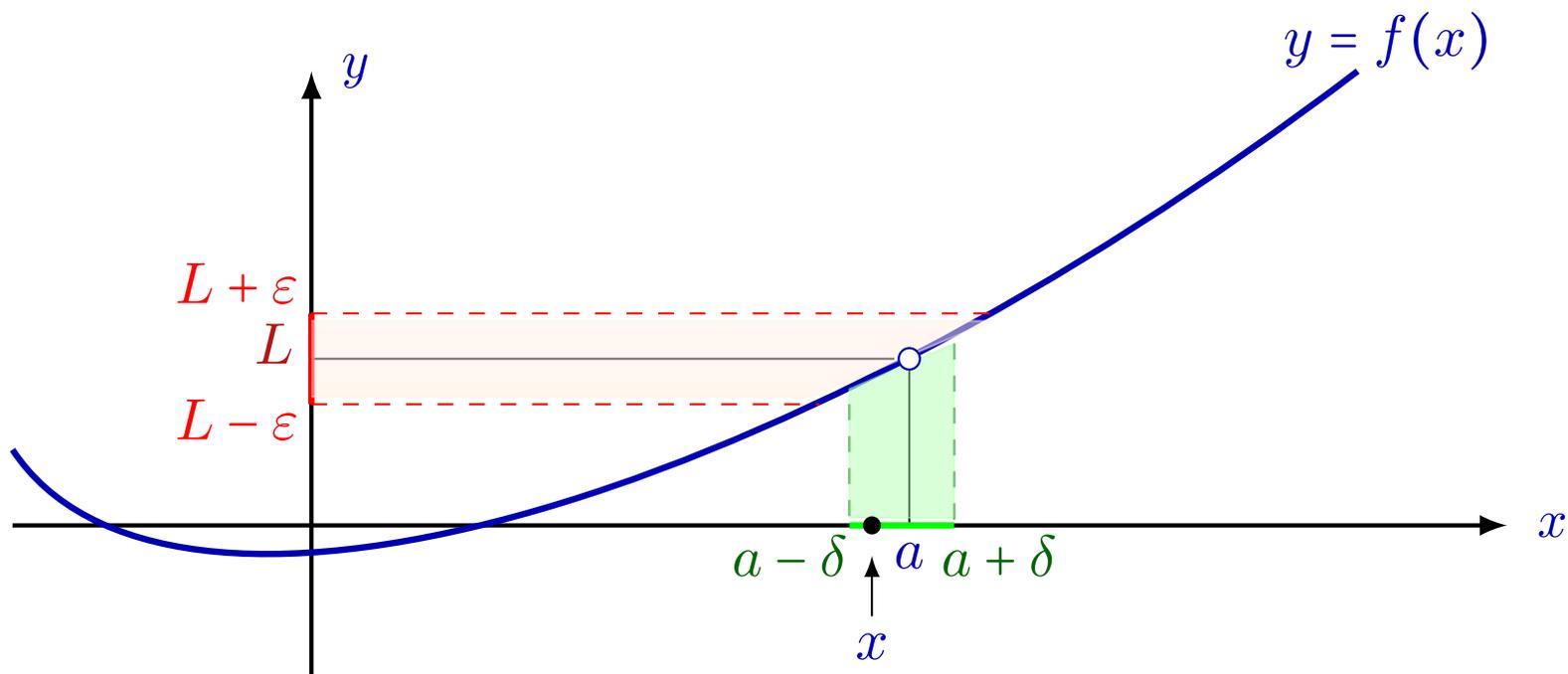
How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

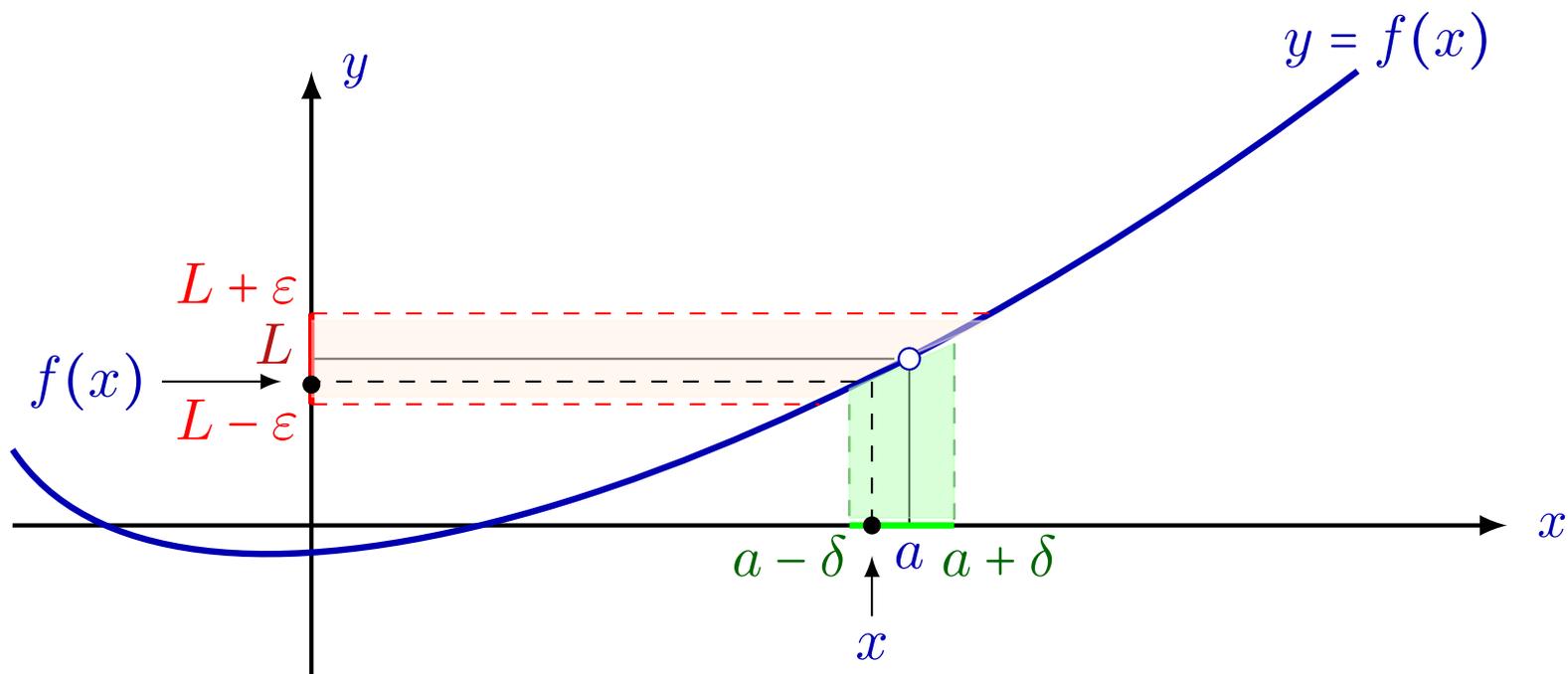
$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



For any x such that $x \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$,

How to understand what **exactly** the definition says?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$



For any x such that $x \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$, we have $f(x) \in (L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$.

Working with the definition of limit

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon.$$

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon.$$

In words:

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon.$$

In words:

A number L is **not** a limit of a function $f(x)$ at a point a ,

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon .$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon .$$

In words:

A number L is **not** a limit of a function $f(x)$ at a point a , if there exists a positive number ε , such that for any positive number δ one can find x , such that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, but $|f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon$.

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon.$$

In words:

A number L is **not** a limit of a function $f(x)$ at a point a , if there exists a positive number ε , such that for any positive number δ one can find x , such that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, but $|f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon$.

Exercise 1. Use the definition of limit to prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (2x + 1) = 7$.

What does it mean that $L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$?

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists \delta > 0 \quad \forall x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon.$$

$$L \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \iff \exists \varepsilon > 0 \quad \forall \delta > 0 \quad \exists x \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon.$$

In words:

A number L is **not** a limit of a function $f(x)$ at a point a , if there exists a positive number ε , such that for any positive number δ one can find x , such that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, but $|f(x) - L| \geq \varepsilon$.

Exercise 1. Use the definition of limit to prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (2x + 1) = 7$.

Exercise 2. Use the definition of limit to prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\sin \frac{1}{x} \right) \neq 0$.

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost.

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$.

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if
for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a
such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if
for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a
such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough?

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
 is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if
 for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a
 such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
 is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if
 for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a
 such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. A set U is a **neighborhood** of a iff

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$
 is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if
 for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a
 such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. A set U is a **neighborhood** of a iff
 there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that U contains the ε -neighborhood of a .

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. A set U is a **neighborhood** of a iff there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that U contains the ε -neighborhood of a . Now

L is a **limit** of f as x approaches a iff for each neighborhood V of L $f^{-1}(V) \cup \{a\}$ is a neighborhood of a .

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. A set U is a **neighborhood** of a iff there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that U contains the ε -neighborhood of a . Now

L is a **limit** of f as x approaches a iff for each neighborhood V of L $f^{-1}(V) \cup \{a\}$ is a neighborhood of a .

The notion of **limit** can be replaced by the notion of **continuity**:

Can one simplify the definition of limit?

Yes, at some cost. At the cost of an extra definition.

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then the interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ is called the ε -**neighborhood** of a .

L is called a **limit** of f as x approaches a if for any ε -neighborhood V of L there exists a δ -neighborhood U of a such that $f(U \setminus \{a\}) \subset V$.

Not easy enough? Then take one more definition:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$. A set U is a **neighborhood** of a iff there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that U contains the ε -neighborhood of a . Now

L is a **limit** of f as x approaches a iff for each neighborhood V of L $f^{-1}(V) \cup \{a\}$ is a neighborhood of a .

The notion of **limit** can be replaced by the notion of **continuity**:

A function f is said to be **continuous** at a if the preimage $f^{-1}(U)$ of any neighborhood U of $f(a)$ is a neighborhood of a .

Linear dependence

Definition.

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that

$$a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} .$$

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer.

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

Linear dependence

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ are not all zeros} \iff a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0$$

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ are not all zeros} \iff a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0$$

Linear independence in symbolic form:

Linear dependence

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ are not all zeros} \iff a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0$$

Linear independence in symbolic form:

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$$

Linear dependence

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ are not all zeros} \iff a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0$$

Linear independence in symbolic form:

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$$

Definition.

Linear dependence

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly dependent** if there exist numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , which are not all zeros, such that $a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$.

Disclaimer. We do not discuss the mathematical concept of linear dependence, but rather the logical structure of the definition above.

How to express in short that the numbers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are not all zeros?

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \text{ are not all zeros} \iff a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0$$

Linear independence in symbolic form:

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}$$

Definition. The vectors $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n$ are called **linearly independent** if they are not linearly dependent.

Linear independence

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\begin{array}{l} \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are } \mathbf{linearly\ dependent} \iff \\ \exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \underbrace{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q \end{array}$$

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff$$
$$\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \underbrace{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q$$

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly independent} \iff$$

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \underbrace{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q$$

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly independent} \iff$$

$$\neg \left(\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \ a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \right) \iff$$

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \underbrace{\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q$$

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly independent} \iff \neg \left(\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \right) \iff$$

$$\left[\text{We negate the conjunction as follows: } \neg(P \wedge Q) \iff (Q \implies \neg P) \right]$$

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are } \mathbf{linearly dependent} \iff \underbrace{\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q$$

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are } \mathbf{linearly independent} \iff \neg(\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}) \iff$$

[We negate the conjunction as follows: $\neg(P \wedge Q) \iff (Q \implies \neg P)$]

$$\forall a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q \implies$$

$$\underbrace{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 = 0}_{\neg P} \iff$$

Linear independence

Let us construct a symbolic form of linear independence.

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly dependent} \iff \underbrace{\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0}_P \wedge \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q$$

$$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_n \text{ are linearly independent} \iff \neg(\exists a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \neq 0 \wedge a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}) \iff$$

[We negate the conjunction as follows: $\neg(P \wedge Q) \iff (Q \implies \neg P)$]

$$\forall a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad \underbrace{a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0}}_Q \implies$$

$$\underbrace{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2 = 0}_{\neg P} \iff$$

$$\forall a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \quad (a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_n \vec{v}_n = \vec{0} \implies a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0)$$

linear independence

Definition of ring (from Algebra)

Definition of ring (from Algebra)

Motivation.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties, like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties, like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers,

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,
like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers, there are many other sets of mathematical objects
for which there are operations of addition and multiplication

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,
like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers, there are many other sets of mathematical objects
for which there are operations of addition and multiplication
possessing the same properties.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,
like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers, there are many other sets of mathematical objects
for which there are operations of addition and multiplication
possessing the same properties. For example, polynomials or matrices.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,
like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers, there are many other sets of mathematical objects
for which there are operations of addition and multiplication
possessing the same properties. For example, polynomials or matrices.

It is natural to gather all such sets equipped with operations under the same roof.

Motivation. We know that the set of integers is **closed** with respect to the operations of addition and multiplication. It means that

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad a + b \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{and} \quad ab \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z} possess several important properties,
like **associativity** and **distributivity**.

Besides the integers, there are many other sets of mathematical objects
for which there are operations of addition and multiplication
possessing the same properties. For example, polynomials or matrices.

It is natural to gather all such sets equipped with operations under the same roof.

It is done in the definition of **ring**.

Definition of ring

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication,

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot ,

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
 2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
 3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
 4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
 5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
 6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
 7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
 8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)
- If, additionally, $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ (\cdot is **commutative**),

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)

• If, additionally, $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ (\cdot is **commutative**),
 then R is called a **commutative** ring.

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
 2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
 3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
 4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
 5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
 6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
 7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
 8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)
- If, additionally, $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ (\cdot is **commutative**),
 then R is called a **commutative** ring.
 - If, additionally, $\exists 1 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad 1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
 2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
 3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
 4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
 5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
 6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
 7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
 8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)
- If, additionally, $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ (\cdot is **commutative**),
 then R is called a **commutative** ring.
 - If, additionally, $\exists 1 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad 1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$
 (there exists a **multiplicative identity**), then R is called a ring with **unity**.

Definition of ring

Definition. A **ring** R is a set with two operations, addition and multiplication, denoted by $+$ and \cdot , satisfying the following properties:

1. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to $+$)
2. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b \in R$ (R is **closed** with respect to \cdot)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ ($+$ is **associative**)
4. $\forall a, b \in R \quad a + b = b + a$ ($+$ is **commutative**)
5. $\exists 0 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad a + 0 = a$ (there exists an **additive identity** in R)
6. $\forall a \in R \quad \exists -a \in R \quad a + (-a) = 0$ (each element in R has an **additive inverse**)
7. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$ (\cdot is **associative**)
8. $\forall a, b, c \in R \quad a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$ and $(b + c) \cdot a = b \cdot a + c \cdot a$
 (multiplication **distributes** over addition)

• If, additionally, $\forall a, b \in R \quad a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ (\cdot is **commutative**),
 then R is called a **commutative** ring.

• If, additionally, $\exists 1 \in R \quad \forall a \in R \quad 1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$
 (there exists a **multiplicative identity**), then R is called a ring with **unity**.

The properties are called the **axioms** of a ring.

Examples of rings

1. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} are commutative rings with unity.

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring.

Examples of rings

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)

Examples of rings

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.

Examples of rings

1. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.
5. $M_n(\mathbb{R})$, square $n \times n$ matrices with real coefficients form a ring.

Examples of rings

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.
5. $M_n(\mathbb{R})$, square $n \times n$ matrices with real coefficients form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)

Examples of rings

1. \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x]$, $\mathbb{R}[x]$, $\mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.
5. $M_n(\mathbb{R})$, square $n \times n$ matrices with real coefficients form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
6. \mathbb{Z}_m , residues modulo m (to be discussed later in the course) form a ring.

Examples of rings

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.
5. $M_n(\mathbb{R})$, square $n \times n$ matrices with real coefficients form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
6. \mathbb{Z}_m , residues modulo m (to be discussed later in the course) form a ring.
7. $\mathcal{F} = \{f \mid f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$, real valued functions with the operations of addition $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ and multiplication $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$ form a ring.

Examples of rings

1. $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ are commutative rings with unity.
2. $2\mathbb{Z} = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a ring of even integers (Commutative? With unity?)
3. $\mathbb{Z}[x]$, polynomials in variable x with integer coefficients, form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
4. $\mathbb{Q}[x], \mathbb{R}[x], \mathbb{Z}[x, y]$, etc. are rings of polynomials.
5. $M_n(\mathbb{R})$, square $n \times n$ matrices with real coefficients form a ring. (Commutative? With unity?)
6. \mathbb{Z}_m , residues modulo m (to be discussed later in the course) form a ring.
7. $\mathcal{F} = \{f \mid f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$, real valued functions with the operations of addition $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ and multiplication $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$ form a ring.

Important: To prove that each of the listed above objects is a ring, we have to verify all ring axioms.

How to use the definition of ring

How to use the definition of ring

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem.

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 0 + 0$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$a \cdot 0 = a \cdot 0 + 0 \quad \text{by axiom 5}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 8} \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 8} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0) \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 8} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 5} \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 8} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Let us see how the definition of ring is used in the proof of a theorem.

Theorem. In any ring R , $a \cdot 0 = 0$ for all $a \in R$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 0 &= a \cdot 0 + 0 && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0)) && \text{by axiom 6} \\ &= (a \cdot 0 + a \cdot 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 3} \\ &= a \cdot (0 + 0) + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 8} \\ &= a \cdot 0 + (-a \cdot 0) && \text{by axiom 5} \\ &= 0 && \text{by axiom 6} \end{aligned}$$

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.)

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.)
one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once. Usually a work with a mathematical text involves several rounds (approaches, periods).

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once. Usually a work with a mathematical text involves several rounds (approaches, periods). Each round contributes to the overall understanding.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once. Usually a work with a mathematical text involves several rounds (approaches, periods). Each round contributes to the overall understanding.

A reading starts with determining the **structure** of the text and sorting out important and not very important elements.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once. Usually a work with a mathematical text involves several rounds (approaches, periods). Each round contributes to the overall understanding.

A reading starts with determining the **structure** of the text and sorting out important and not very important elements.

The second round is to focus on the **primary** parts of the text: definitions and statements of theorems.

In any mathematical text (article, monograph, textbook, etc.) one can trace common elements which help to see the structure of the text.

These common elements are:

definitions, axioms, theorems (statements, propositions, claims, lemmas, corollaries), proofs of theorems, examples, exercises, etc.

Besides, each mathematical text contains introductions, expositions, motivations, authors' opinions, and many other not very essential details.

One can rarely read a mathematical text from the very beginning to the very end and understand everything at once. Usually a work with a mathematical text involves several rounds (approaches, periods). Each round contributes to the overall understanding.

A reading starts with determining the **structure** of the text and sorting out important and not very important elements.

The second round is to focus on the **primary** parts of the text: definitions and statements of theorems.

Next come examples and **detailed** reading of proofs.

Let us read!

Let us read!

*Let's try to read an excerpt from a math textbook. We are **not** expected to understand the mathematical content, but we should be able to analyze the logical structure of the text. Determine and indicate definitions, notations, theorems, proofs, examples, exercises, etc. in the text.*

*Let's try to read an excerpt from a math textbook. We are **not** expected to understand the mathematical content, but we should be able to analyze the logical structure of the text. Determine and indicate definitions, notations, theorems, proofs, examples, exercises, etc. in the text.*

As the first step towards classifying the lengths which can be constructed by straightedge and compass, this chapter introduces the concept of an algebraic number. Each such number will satisfy many polynomial equations and our immediate goal is to choose the simplest one.

A number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is said to be *algebraic over a field* $\mathbb{F} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ if there exists a nonzero polynomial $f(x) \in \mathbb{F}[x]$ such that α is a zero of $f(x)$.

For each field \mathbb{F} , every number α in \mathbb{F} is algebraic over \mathbb{F} because α is a zero of the polynomial $f(x) = x - \alpha \in \mathbb{F}[x]$. This implies that e and π are algebraic over \mathbb{R} , though they are not algebraic over \mathbb{Q} as we will prove later.

Let us read!

The number $\sqrt{2}$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} because it is zero of the polynomial $f(x) = x^2 - 2$, which is nonzero and has coefficients in \mathbb{Q} .

In order to show that a number is algebraic, we look for a suitable polynomial having that number as zero. Try to prove that $1 + \sqrt{3}$ is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} .

It is useful to be able to recognize the definition of “algebraic over a field \mathbb{F} ” when it appears in different guises: a number $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is algebraic over $\mathbb{F} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ if and only if there is a positive integer n such that $\{1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}, \alpha^n\}$ are linearly dependent over \mathbb{F} .

Indeed, if $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ is algebraic over $\mathbb{F} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ then there exists a polynomial $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$, whose coefficients a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n all belong to \mathbb{F} , at least one of these coefficients is nonzero, and $f(\alpha) = 0$, that is

$$a_0 + a_1\alpha + a_2\alpha^2 \cdots + a_{n-1}\alpha^{n-1} + a_n\alpha^n = 0. \quad (*)$$

Let us read!

Since \mathbb{F} is a subfield of \mathbb{C} , we can regard \mathbb{C} as a vector space over \mathbb{F} . The numbers $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}, \alpha^n$ are all elements in \mathbb{C} , and hence can be regarded as vectors in the vector space \mathbb{C} over \mathbb{F} .

The coefficients $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n$, on the other hand, are all in \mathbb{F} so we can regard them as scalars. Thus, the equality $(*)$ can be interpreted as a linear dependence of vectors $1, \alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{n-1}, \alpha^n$ in \mathbb{C} .

You will often meet the terms “algebraic number” and “transcendental number” where no field is specified. In such cases the field is taken to be \mathbb{Q} . We formalize this as follows.

A complex number is said to be an *algebraic number* if it is algebraic over \mathbb{Q} ; a *transcendental number* if it is not algebraic over \mathbb{Q} .
