

1 Fundamental

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1.1 Intervals

Intervals are basically subsets of \mathbb{R} and are commonly used in solving inequalities or in finding domains. If there are two numbers $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $a < b$, there are four types of intervals:

- Open interval: $(a, b) = \{x : a < x < b\}$ i.e end points are not included. Symbols: $()$ or $][$
- Closed interval: $[a, b] = \{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$ i.e end points are also included. Symbol: $[[$
- Open-Closed interval: $(a, b) = \{x : a < x \leq b\}$. Symbols: $()]$ or $][$
- Closed-Open interval: $(a, b) = \{x : a \leq x < b\}$. Symbols: $]()$ or $[[$

Infinite Intervals

- $(a, \infty) = \{x : x > a\}$
- $[a, \infty) = \{x : x \geq a\}$
- $(-\infty, b) = \{x : x < b\}$
- $(-\infty, b] = \{x : x \leq b\}$
- $(-\infty, \infty) = \{x : x \in \mathbb{R}\}$

1.2 Sets and Relations

1.2.1 Set

A collection of any kind of objects. The objects that make up a set are called *elements* or *members*. The statement 'a is an element of set A' can be written as $a \in A$ and set containing elements a, b and c is denoted by $\{a, b, c\}$. A *empty* or *null* set is denoted by \emptyset , which is the set that contains no elements.

Union(join, sum): The union of two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cup B$, consists of those elements that belong to A or to B :

$$A \cup B = \{x : (x \in A) \vee (x \in B)\}$$

For example, if A is $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and B is $\{1, 4, 5, 6\}$ then $A \cup B$ is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

Intersection(meet, product): The intersection of two sets A and B , denoted by $A \cap B$, consists of those elements that belong to both A and B :

$$A \cap B = \{x : (x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)\}$$

For example, if A is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and B is $\{1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ then $A \cap B$ is $\{1, 4, 5, 6\}$.

Complement: The complement of a set A , denoted by A' or A^c , consists of all those elements that are not members of A :

$$A' = \{x : x \notin A\}$$

For example, in the domain of natural numbers, if A is set of even numbers the its complement A' is the set of odd numbers.

Universal Set: Relative to a particular domain, the universal set, denoted by U , is set of all objects of that domain:

$$U = \{x : x = x\}$$

1.2.2 Properties of sets

Commutative law:

- $(A \cup B) = B \cup A$
- $(A \cap B) = B \cap A$

Associative law:

- $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
- $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$

Distributive law:

- $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
- $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$

De Morgan's law:

- $(A \cup B)' = A' \cap B'$
- $(A \cap B)' = A' \cup B'$

Identity law:

- $A \cup \mathbf{U} = A$
- $A \cup \emptyset = A$

Complement law:

- $A \cup A' = \mathbf{U}$
- $A \cap A' = \emptyset$
- $(A')' = A$

Idempotent law:

- $A \cap A = A$
- $A \cup A = A$

1.2.3 Results on number of elements in sets

If A, B, C are finite sets and \mathbf{U} be Universal finite set then:

- $n(A \cup B) = n(A) + n(B) - n(A \cap B)$
- $n(A - B) = n(A) - n(A \cap B)$
- $n(A \cup B \cup C) = n(A) + n(B) + n(C) - n(A \cap B) - n(B \cap C) - n(C \cap A) + n(A \cap B \cap C)$

1.2.4 Relations

An association between, or property of, two or more objects. Thus $(x = y)$ and $(a \text{ lies between } b \text{ and } c)$ are relations, but $(N \text{ is a prime})$ is not.

1.2.5 Types of Relations

Void Relation: Let A be a set. Then $\emptyset \subseteq A \times A$ and so it is a relation on A . This relation is also called empty relation on A .

Universal Relation: Let A be a set. Then $A \times A \subseteq A \times A$ and so it is a relation on A . This relation is called the universal relation on A .

Identity relation: Let A be a set. Then the relation $I_A = \{(a, a) : a \in A\}$ is called the identity relation on A . In other words, a relation I_A on A is called the identity relation if every element of A is related to itself only.

Reflexive Relation: A relation R on a set A is said to be reflexive if every element of A is related to

itself. Thus R on set A is not reflexive if there exists an element $a \in A$ such that $(a, a) \notin R$.

Symmetric Relation: A Relation R on set A is said to be symmetric if

$$(a, b) \in R \implies (b, a) \in R \forall a, b \in A$$

i.e

$$a R b \implies b R a \forall a, b \in A$$

Transitive Relation: A Relation R on set A is said to be transitive if $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R \implies (a, c) \in R \forall a, b, c \in A$.

Equivalence Relation: A Relation is said to be equivalence if it satisfies *reflexive*, *symmetric* and *transitive* relations.

Equivalence Class: If R is an equivalence relation defined on set A then the equivalence class of any element $x \in A$, denoted by $[x]$, is the set of elements to which x is related by equivalence relation R :

$$[x] = \{y : x R y\}$$

For example, if R is the equivalence relation (the same height as), then the equivalence class of the element $x \in A$ consists of all elements of A with same height as x .

2 Quadratic Equations

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2.1 Equation and Basic Results

An equation of the form

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

where $a \neq 0$ and $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ is called a quadratic equation. The roots of quadratic equation are given by

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

The quantity D ($D = b^2 - 4ac$) is known as discriminant of equation.

2.1.1 Results

1. Let α and β be two roots of given quadratic equation. Then

- $\alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a}$
- $\alpha\beta = \frac{c}{a}$

2. A quadratic equation, whose roots are α and β can be written as

$$(x - \alpha)(x - \beta) = 0$$

i.e

$$ax^2 + bx + c \equiv a(x - \alpha)(x - \beta)$$

3. If the quadratic equation is satisfied by more than two distinct numbers (real or complex), then it becomes an identity, i.e

$$a = b = c = 0$$

4. The quadratic equation has real and equal roots if and only if $D = 0$ i.e $b^2 - 4ac = 0$.
5. The quadratic equation has real and distinct roots if and only if $D > 0$ i.e $b^2 - 4ac > 0$.
6. The quadratic equation has complex roots with non-zero imaginary parts if and only if $D < 0$ i.e $b^2 - 4ac < 0$.
7. If $p + iq$ ($p, q \in \mathbb{R}$) is root of quadratic equation where $i = \sqrt{-1}$, the $p - iq$ is also root of quadratic equation. Provided $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.
8. If $p + \sqrt{q}$ is an irrational root of quadratic equation, then $p - \sqrt{q}$ is also a root of equation provided that all coefficients are rational.

2.2 Conditions for Common Root(s)

Let $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ and $dx^2 + ex + f = 0$ have a common root α . Then $a\alpha^2 + b\alpha + c = 0$ and $d\alpha^2 + e\alpha + f = 0$.

Solving for α^2 and α :

$$\frac{\alpha^2}{bf - ce} = \frac{\alpha}{dc - af} = \frac{1}{ae - bd} \implies$$

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{bf - ce}{ae - bd}$$

and

$$\alpha = \frac{dc - af}{ae - bd} \implies$$

$$(dc - af)^2 = (bf - ce)(ae - bd)$$

which is a required condition for the two equation to have a common root.

- Condition for both the roots to be common is $\frac{a}{d} = \frac{b}{e} = \frac{c}{f}$

2.3 Wavy Curve Method

The Method of intervals is used for solving inequalities of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{(x - a_1)^{n_1}(x - a_2)^{n_2} \dots (x - a_k)^{n_k}}{(x - b_1)^{m_1}(x - b_2)^{m_2} \dots (x - b_p)^{n_p}}$$