HL Math Help Version 1

Student-to-Student Tutoring

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Polynomial Theorems

Factor Theorem
Remainder Theorem
Rational Root Theorem
Complex Conjugate Root Theorem
Sum and Product of Roots

Properties of Functions

Even and Odd-Powered Polynomials

Even and Odd Functions

Function Transformations

Derivatives Power Rule

Chaos Theory

Fixed Points

Stability

Cobweb Method

n-cycles

Advanced Rational Functions Inequalities

Sequences and Series basic Formulae

Mathematical Induction

I. Polynomial Theorems

I.i. Factor Theorem

If c is a root of p(x), (x - c) is a factor of p(x).

I.ii. Remainder Theorem

The remainder when p(x) is divided by c is p(c).

I.iii. Rational Root Theorem

For the polynomial $p(x) = a_n x^2 + \cdots + a_0$, the rational roots are represented by $\frac{\text{factors}(a_0)}{\text{factors}(a_n)}$

Example

Given the polynomial $3x^3 + 4x^2 + 2x + 7$, the possible rational roots can be expressed as:

p.r.z. =
$$\frac{\pm 1, \pm 7}{\pm 1, \pm 3}$$

This should be represented as:

p.r.z. =
$$\left\{ \pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{3}, \pm 7, \pm \frac{7}{3} \right\}$$

I.iv. Complex Conjugate Root Theorem

Complex roots always come in conjugate pairs.

Example

If x - mi is a factor of f(x), then x + mi must also be a factor of f(x).

N.B.

Always remember to state the theorem you are using!

I.v. Sum and Product of Roots

Consider the following *n*th degree polynomial:

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$

The sum and product of roots can be found using the following formulae:

$$\Sigma \text{Roots} = \frac{-a_{n-1}}{a_n}$$
 $\Pi \text{Roots} = \frac{(-1)^n a_0}{a_n}$

II. Properties of Functions

II.i. Even and Odd-Powered Polynomials

Even-Powered Polynomials

Consider the Polynomial:

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$

If n is an even number (i.e. if 2|n), are two scenarios to consider:

- 1. Even-powered polynomials when $a_n < 0$ go from the bottom left, do something wonky, and come down on the bottom right.
- 2. Even-powered polynomials when $a_n > 0$ go from the top left, do something wonky, and come down on the top right.

Figure: x^2 when $a_n < 0$

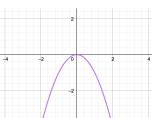
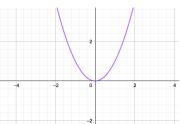


Figure: x^2 when $a_n > 0$



Odd-Powered Functions

Consider the same polynomial:

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + \dots + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$

If n is an odd number, there are also two scenarios to consider:

- 1. Odd-powered polynomials when $a_n > 0$ go from the bottom left, do something wonky, and come up on the top right.
- 2. Odd-powered polynomials when $a_n < 0$ go from the top left, do something wonky, and come down on the bottom right.

Figure: x when $a_0 < 0$

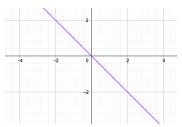
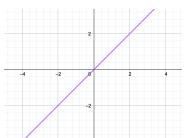


Figure: x when $a_0 > 0$



II.ii. Even and Odd Functions

The Odd Function

An odd function is a function with the following property:

$$f(x) = -f(-x)$$

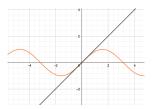
This essentially means it is symmetrical over the y = x line.

N.B.

An odd function is not the same as an odd-powered polynomial!

The sin function is an example, as it is symmetrical over the y=x line, as shown in the figure below:

Figure: The sin function is symmetrical over the y = x line



The Even Function

An even function is a function with the following property:

$$f(x) = f(-x)$$

This essentially means it is symmetrical over the y axis.

Figure: The cos function

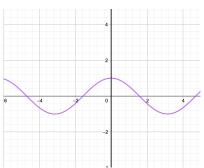


Figure: The x^2 function

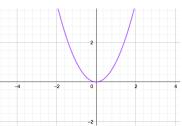
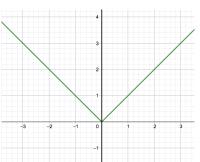


Figure: The |x| function



N.B.

Because an even function is symmetrical over the y axis, a vertical translation keeps it an even function. That said, a horizontal translation makes it no longer an even function. This means that x^2 and x^2+1 are both even functions, though $(x+1)^2$ is not.

II.iii. Function Transformations

Formulae

Given a function of the form:

$$g(x) = af(bx - h) + k$$

Any of its transformed coordinates can be determined by the following formula:

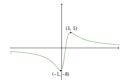
$$(x,y)\mapsto \left(\frac{x}{b}+h,ay+k\right)$$

Of course, an alternate method is to use logic.

Example Question

Given the graph of the function f(x) below, determine the coordinates of the local extrema in the transformed function g(x) = 2f(x-3) + 1.

Figure: Mystery Function f(x)



We start by noting down all relevant information about the function:

Then we apply the formula for point (3,5):

$$(x,y) \mapsto \left(\frac{x}{b} + h, ay + k\right)$$

$$(3,5) \mapsto (3+3,10+1)$$

$$\mapsto (6,11)$$

And for point (-1, -8):

$$(x,y) \mapsto \left(\frac{x}{b} + h, ay + k\right)$$

 $(-1, -8) \mapsto (2, -15)$

III. Derivatives

III.i. Power Rule

To find the derivative of f(x), for each term, you multiply the coefficient by the power, make that the new coefficient, subtract one from the exponent, and make that the new exponent. As a result, constant terms are ignored, but negative exponents are not!

Example

Given
$$f(x) = 5x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$$
, the derivative is $f'(x) = 15x^2 + 6x + 2$.

Definition

The derivative of f(x) is often written as f'(x).

IV. Chaos Theory

IV.i. Fixed Points

A fixed point is when the function is equal to itself (i.e. the point is "trapped"). Fixed points are found by solving for f(x) = x (i.e. the intersection between the function and the y = x line).

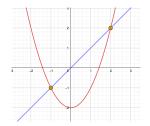
The fixed points of $x^2 - 2$ would be:

$$x^{2}-2-x = 0$$

 $(x-2)(x+1) = x \in \{-1,2\}$

So the fixed points are -1 and 2. This is also shown by the graph:

Figure: Fixed points of $x^2 - 2$



IV.ii. Stability

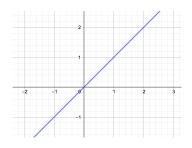
The stability of a fixed point can be determined using the derivative of the original function. Let x_{\star} be a fixed point of f(x). Let $g = |f'(x_{\star})|$. If g > 1, it is unstable and repelling. If g = 1, it is neutral. If g < 1, it is stable and attracting.

Example

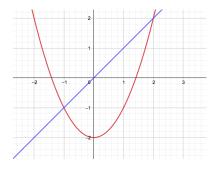
The fixed points of $f(x) = x^2 - 2$ are $x_* \in \{-1, 2\}$. f'(x) = 2x, and let g(x) = |f'(x)|. For -1, g(-1) = 2, which is greater than 1. Both fixed points are unstable and repelling.

IV.iii. Cobweb Method

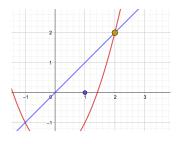
- I Draw the the y = x line on a cartesian plane.
- II Draw the function (we will use the example from earlier, $f(x) = x^2 2$)
- III Choose a point on the x-axis near the fixed point you are testing (we are testing fixed point $x_* = 2$).



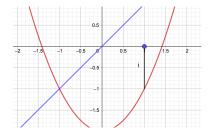
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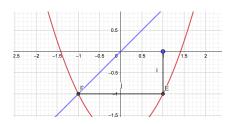
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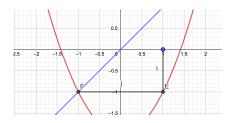
- IV Draw a line from that point to the function.
- V Draw a line from the function to the y = x line.
- VI Draw a line from the y = x line to the function (in this case it converges already).



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- V Draw a line from the function to the y = x line.
- VI Draw a line from the y = x line to the function (in this case it converges already).



Repeat this process until you can see whether

- 1. It diverges (unstable and repelling)
- 2. It converges to the point (stable and attracting)
- 3. It behaves in a chaotic way (neutral)

IV.iv. n-cycles

To find an *n*-cycle, all one must do is plug the function into itself n times. An nth cycle is often written as n f(x), for a given function f(x).

It is important to note that all one-cycles are **trivial** *n*-cycles. This means that they will appear as *n*-cycles, even if really, they are one-cycles.

Also note that an *n*-cycle means that it gets stuck into a loop of sorts, where the function alternates between the values in the cycle.

Find all 2-cycles of $f(x) = x^2 - 2$. To to so, we must compute f(f(x)) - x = 0.

$$f(x) - x = 0$$

$$f(f(x)) - x = 0$$

$$(x^{2} - 2)^{2} - 2 - x = 0$$

$$x^{4} - 4x^{2} - x + 2 = 0$$

Fortunately, we know that all one-cycles are trivial n-cycles, so $x^2 - x - 2$ is a root of $x^4 - 4x^2 - x + 2$. To find the other roots, we simply divide the two and factor the resulting quadratic:

$$\begin{array}{r}
x^2 + x - 1 \\
x^2 - x - 2) \overline{)x^4 - 4x^2 - x + 2} \\
\underline{-x^4 + x^3 + 2x^2} \\
x^3 - 2x^2 - x \\
\underline{-x^3 + x^2 + 2x} \\
-x^2 + x + 2 \\
\underline{x^2 - x - 2} \\
0
\end{array}$$

Now, we apply the quadratic formula:

$$x^{2} - x - 1 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4(1)(-1)}}{2}$$

$$x = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

Therefore, the **trivial** 2-cycles are -1 and 2, and the **nontrivial** 2-cycles are $\frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$ and $\frac{-1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$

V. Advanced Rational Functions

V.i. Inequalities

What is the solution to the following?

$$\frac{x^2 + 5x}{x^2 - 4} > 0$$

Start by factoring to get:

$$\frac{x(x+5)}{(x-2)(x+2)} > 0$$

Note down some of the properties

Zeroes:
$$x = 0$$

$$x = -5$$

Restrictions:
$$x \neq -2$$

$$x \neq 2$$

A -5 B -2 C 0 D 2 E

Testing for A

$$x = -6$$

$$= \frac{-6(-6+5)}{(-6-2)(-6+2)}$$
This section does not work.
$$= \frac{-\cdot -}{-\cdot -}$$

$$= +$$

$$+ > 0$$

Testing for B

$$x = -3$$

$$= \frac{-3(-3+5)}{(-3-2)(-3+2)}$$
This section works.
$$= \frac{-\cdot +}{-\cdot -}$$

$$= -$$

$$- < 0$$

Testing for C

$$x = -1$$

$$= \frac{-1(-1+5)}{(-1-2)(-1+2)}$$
This section does not work.
$$= \frac{-\cdot +}{-\cdot +}$$

$$= +$$

$$+ > 0$$

Testing for D

$$x = 1$$

$$= \frac{1(1+5)}{(1-2)(1+2)}$$
This section works.
$$= \frac{+\cdot+}{-\cdot+}$$

$$= -$$

$$- < 0$$

Testing for E

$$x = 3$$

$$= \frac{3(3+5)}{(3-2)(3+2)}$$
This section does not work.
$$= \frac{+\cdot +}{+\cdot +}$$

$$= +$$

$$+ > 0$$

In conclusion,
$$x < 0$$
 so long as $x \in]-5, -2[\cup]0, 2[$

VI. Sequences and Series

VI.i. basic Formulae

Geometric Sequence

Let $a = a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots, a_n$ where there are n terms. If each element is r times the previous, the **sum** is:

$$S_n = a_1 \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$$

The **recursive formula** is:

$$a_n = a_{n-1} \cdot r$$

The closed formula is:

$$a_n = a_1 \cdot r^{n-1}$$

Algebraic Sequence

Let $a=a_1,a_2,a_3,a_4,\cdots,a_n$ where there are n terms. If each element is d more than the previous, the **sum** is:

$$S_n = n\left(\frac{a_1 + a_n}{2}\right)$$

The recursive formula is:

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + d$$

The **closed formula** is:

$$a_n = a_1 + d(n-1)$$



VII. Mathematical Induction

Example Question

Use mathematical induction to prove that $5^n + 3^n \ge 2^{2n+1}$; $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$

Step I

let
$$p(n): 5^n + 3^n \ge 2^{2n+1}; \ \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$$

Step II

$$p(1): 5+3 \ge 2^3$$

8 \ge 8

p(1) is true **Step III**

$$p(k): 5^k + 3^k \ge 2^{2k+1}$$

Step IV

$$p(k+1): 5^{k+1} + 3^{K+1} \stackrel{?}{\geq} 2^{2k+3}; \ \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^*$$

$$LS = 5^{k+1} + 3^{k+1}$$

$$5^k \cdot 5 + 3^k \cdot$$

$$\geq (2^{2k+1} - 3^k) \cdot 5 + 3^k \cdot 3$$

$$= 5 \cdot 2^{2k+1} - 5 \cdot 3^k + 3 \cdot 3^k$$

$$=5\cdot 2^{2k+1}-2\cdot 3^k$$

$$\geq 5 \cdot 2^{2k+1} - 2 \cdot 4^k$$

$$= 5 \cdot 2^{2k+1} - 2 \cdot 2^2 k$$

$$= 5 \cdot 2^{2k+1} - \cdot 2^{2k+1}$$

Start on the left side

Expand.

By the Inductive hypothesis, we have that if $5^k + 3^k \ge 2^{2k+1}$, $5^k \ge 2^{2k+1} - 3^k$

Simplify.

Because $-3^k \ge -4^k$ (notice the brackets and watch out for negative signs).

Because $4 = 2^2$

 $= 4 \cdot 2^{2k+1}$ $= 2^{2k+3}$

Simplify

Because $4 = 2^2$

= RS

This is equal to the right

side

Step V

By the principle of mathematical induction, p(x) is true.

