Maths refresher course HSLU, Semester 1

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Part I

Lesson 1

1 Numerical sets

- $\mathbb{N} := \text{Natural numbers (including 0)}$
- $\mathbb{Z} := \text{Integer numbers}$
- $\mathbb{Q} := \text{Rational numbers}$
- $\mathbb{R} := \text{Real numbers}$

Notation: The "*" symbol means that the set does not include 0.

We have that:

 $\mathbb{N}\subset\mathbb{Z}\subset\mathbb{Q}\subset\mathbb{R}\subset\mathbb{C}$

2 Prime numbers

A prime number is a number $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0,1\}$ such that, for every divisor $d \in \mathbb{N}$, if $d \mid n$, then d = 1 or d = n.

$$n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0,1\}$$
 is prime $\iff \forall d \in \mathbb{N}, (d \mid n) \Rightarrow (d = 1 \text{ or } d = n)$

3 Positive powers

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $a \subset \mathbb{R}$, then

$$a^1 := a \quad | \quad a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a}_{n \text{ times}}$$

3.1 Property 1

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$a^n \cdot a^m = a^{n+m}$$

3.2 Property 2

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$(a \cdot b)^n = a^n \cdot b^n$$

Notation: The power a^n , a is the base and n is the exponent.

3.3 Property 3

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}, \ m, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, then

$$(a^n)^m = a^{n \cdot m}$$
, which is $\neq a^{(n^m)}$

4

4 Fractions

Notation 1: $a \cdot b = a \times b = ab$ | $\frac{a}{b} = a \div b = a : b$

Notation 2: "a" is called numerator, "b" is called denominator.

 $\underline{\text{Notation 3}} \colon \tfrac{a}{b}, \ a,b \in \mathbb{R}, \ b \neq 0$

4.1 Property 1

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot c}{b \cdot d}$$

4.2 Property 2

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\frac{a}{b} \div \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{d}{c}$$

4.3 Property 3

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^*$ and $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\frac{a}{b} \pm \frac{c}{d} = \frac{a \cdot d \pm c \cdot b}{b \cdot d}$$

5 Negative powers

5.1 Definition

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^*; \quad a^{-1} := \frac{1}{a}$$

5.2 Property 4

Let $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \ \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$a^{-n} = \left(\frac{1}{a}\right)^n$$

This property implies that $\forall z \in \mathbb{Z}, \ \forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \ z \neq 0$ We can compute a^z

5.3 Property 5

Let $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \ a \neq 0, \ \forall n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$\frac{a^n}{a^m} = a^{n-m}$$

5

Consequences:

- 1. Properties 1, 2 and 3 also hold for integer exponents:
 - $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, \ \forall n, m \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow a^n \cdot a^m = a^{n+m}$
 - $\forall b \in \mathbb{R}, \ (a \cdot b)^n = a^n \cdot b^n$
 - $(a^n)^m = a^{n \cdot m}$
- 2. $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}^*, \ a^0 = a^{1-1} = \frac{a^1}{a^1} = 1 \Rightarrow a^0 = 1$

6 Fractions and percentages (and back)

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \ n\% \text{ of } \alpha \Longleftrightarrow \frac{n}{100} \cdot \alpha$$

Part II

Lesson 2

7 Symbols

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, then

- $-a = b \rightarrow \text{equality};$
- $a \neq b \rightarrow$ inequality (a is not equal to b);
- $-a < b \rightarrow \text{less than (a is strictly less than b)};$
- $a \leq b \rightarrow$ less than or equal to (a is less than or equal to b);
- $-a > b \rightarrow$ greater than (a is strictly greater than b);
- $-a \ge b \to \text{greater than or equal to } (a \text{ is greater than or equal to } b).$

Example: $x \in \mathbb{R}, \ x \ge 2 \to 2 \le x < \infty$

8 Brackets

- () Parenthesis (round brackets)
- [] Square brackets
- { } Braces

9 Latin notations

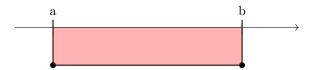
- e.g. = for example;
- i.e. = that is / that implies;
- Q.E.D. (\square)= quod erat demonstrandum (we finally prove it).

10 The real line

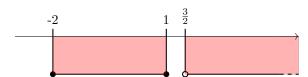


10.1 Exercises

1) $\forall a, b, x \in \mathbb{R}, \ a \le x \le b$



2) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ x \in]-2,-1] \cup]\frac{3}{2},+\infty[$



<u>Notation</u>: The union of two or more intervals where $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is denoted by the symbol \cup .

11 Properties of real numbers

11.1 Property 1 - Closure under "+" and "."

 $\forall x,y \in \mathbb{R} \\ x+y \in \mathbb{R} \\ x \cdot y \in \mathbb{R}$

Remark: for $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$, closure does not hold for division.

11.2 Property 2 - Commutativity

 $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ x + y = y + x $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$

Remark: commutativity does not hold for divisions and subtractions.

11.3 Property 3 - Associative

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R} \\ x + (y + z) &= (x + y) + z \\ x \cdot (y \cdot z) &= (x \cdot y) \cdot z \end{aligned}$

Remark: associativity does not hold for divisions and subtractions.

11.4 Property 4 - Distributive

 $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ $x(y \pm z) = xy \pm xz$

11.5 Property 5 - Identity

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

a) 0 + x = x

b) $1 \cdot x = x$

Remark: $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x \cdot 0 = 0$ is not an identity property.

11.6 Property 6 - Inverses and opposites

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

a) x + (-x) = 0 (additive inverse)

b) when $x \neq 0$, $x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 1$ (multiplicative inverse or opposite)

Remark 1: $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}$ does not exist either inverse nor opposite.

Remark 2: $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$ has inverses, but not opposites.

12 The order of operations

- Perform all operations inside grouping symbols beginning with the innermost set:
 () inside brackets operations;
- 2. Perform all exponential operations as you come to them, moving left-to-right: x^a ;
- 3. Perform all multiplications and divisions as you come to them, moving left-to-right: " \cdot " and " \div ";
- 4. Perform all additions and subtractions as you come to them, moving left-to-right: "+" and "-";
- 5. When the level of priority is the same (e.g. multiplications and divisions) solve them as you come to them.

Signed numbers **13**

A number is denoted as positive if it is directly preceded by a + sign or no sign at all. A number is denoted as negative if it is directly preceded by a - sign.

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$-(-x) = x$$

$$+(-x)=-x$$

$$+(+x) = x$$

$$+(-x) = -x$$
 $+(+x) = x$ $-(+x) = -x$

Absolute value 14

Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

14.1 Property

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$|x| > 0$$
 if $y \neq 0$

$$|x| = 0$$
 if $x = 0$

Part III

Lesson 3

15 Polynomials

15.1 Terms and factors

15.1.1 Variables

A variable is a letter or a symbol that can assume any value.

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

The most common variables are a, b, x, y.

When we have an equality y = x + a, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, x can assume any value in the set of real numbers (x is an independent variable), while y strictly depends on the value that we decide to give to x.

<u>Notice</u>: we can write y = x + a as y - a = x, changing which variable is independent and which is dependent.

15.1.2 Sets

Consider the set A = [a, b], where $a \le b$. Then:

$$\forall x \in A, \ a \le x \le b$$

15.2 Expressions, terms and factors

15.2.1 Expressions

An expression is any formula containing numbers, variables, operations, and brackets.

$$y = ax^2 + bx \cdot c$$

15.2.2 Terms

A term is any part of the expression separated by "+" or "-".

$$y = \underbrace{ax^2}_{term} + \underbrace{bx \cdot c}_{term}$$

15.2.3 Factors

Each term can be split into a product of factors.

$$x \cdot y \cdot (a-b) \cdot 24 = x \cdot y \cdot (a-b) \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$$

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<u>Notice</u>: the process of splitting a term into several factors is called "factorization".

The goal of a factorization is to factorize an expression as much as possible.

16 Common factor

Any expression made of terms is composed of several factors.

$$x^2 + x^3 + x = x(x + x^2 + 1), \ \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

17 Notable products

- $(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ (difference of two squares);
- $(a-b)^2 = a^2 2ab + b^2$ (square of a binomial);
- $(a-b)(a+b) = a^2 b^2$ (square of a binomial);
- $(a-b)(a^2+b^2+ab) = a^3-b^3$ (difference of two cubes);
- $(a+b)(a^2+b^2-ab) = a^3+a^3$ (sum of two cubes).

Remark: notable products are useful to factorize expressions when we don't know a common factor.

18 Classification of polynomials

Polynomials can be classified using two criteria:

- 1. the number of terms;
- 2. the degree of the polynomial.

Number of Terms	Name	Example	Comment	
One	Monomial	ax^2	Mono means "one" in Greek	
Two	Binomial	$ax^2 - bx$	Bi means "two" in Latin	
Three	Trinomial	$ax^2 - bx + c$	Tri means "three" in Greek	
Four or more	Polynomial	$ax^3 - bx^2 + cx - d$	Poly means "many" in Greek	

18.1 Definition

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, then a polynomial is the sum or difference of n-monomials.

18.2 Degree

The degree of a polynomial is the largest exponent of its monomials.

18.2.1 Monomials

The degree of a monomial is the sum of all the exponents of all the variables.

$$p(x) = x^2 + 1 \rightarrow \text{the degree is 2.}$$

 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ p(0) = 0^2 + 1 = 1 \to 1 \text{ is a polynomial with degree } 0.$

18.2.2 Polynomials

The degree of a polynomial is the highest of all the degrees of all the monomials which compose the polynomial.

Notation: Let $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$, a and b are called coefficient.

The coefficient of the monomial with highest coefficient is called **leading coefficient**.

Part IV

Lesson 4

19 Operations between polynomials

19.1 Polynomials with one independent variable

The order of the monomials is not important, but it is preferable to write the highest degree monomials in decreasing order.

$$p(x) = ax^2 - bx + c$$

19.1.1 Sum

We have to sum all the monomials of the same degree.

$$\begin{split} p(x) &= x^2 + x - 1 \\ q(x) &= 5 - x + x^5 - x^2 \\ p(x) &+ q(x) = x^2 + x - 1 + 5 - x + x^5 - x^2 = x^5 + 4 \end{split}$$

<u>Definition</u>: in a polynomial with one variable, monomials of same degree are called **similar terms**.

<u>Remark</u>: when there is a difference between polynomials, the minus MUST be distributed throughout the next monomial.

19.1.2 Multiplications

We have to multiply the factors with each other using the distributive property.

$$p(x) = (x-1)$$

$$q(x) = (x^2 + 2x)$$

$$p(x) \cdot q(x) = (x-1)(x^2 + 2x) = x^3 + 2x^2 - x^2 - 2x = x^3 + x^2 - 2x = x(x^2 + x - 2)$$

19.2 Polynomials with two or more variables

19.2.1 Sum

$$p(x) = ab + a^{2}b$$

$$q(x) = 4ab - 3ab^{2}$$

$$p(x) + q(x) = ab + a^{2}b + 4ab - 3ab^{2} = a^{2}b - 3ab^{2} + 5ab = ab(a - b + 5)$$

Remark: $5a^3b^4 + 7a^3b^4 = 12a^3b^4$, but with $5a^3b^4 + 7a^4b^3$ we can't go further with the sum.

20 Equations

An equation is a formula given by the equality of expressions.

Symbol notations:

- \exists = there exist(s);
- \nexists = there does not exists;
- $\exists! = \text{it exists and it is unique};$
- : or | = such that.

Equations are the main topic, then we have

- Identities;
- Contradictions;
- Conditional equations.

20.1 Identities

An identity is an equality that holds true regardless of the values chosen for its variables:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ \exists y \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x,y) = 0$$

e.g.

- 1 = 1;
- x-1=-1+x;
- $\sin^2(x) + \cos^2(x) = 1$.

20.2 Contradictions

A contradiction occurs when we get a statement p, such that p is true and its negation $\sim p$ is also true:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ \neg(\exists y \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x,y) = 0)$$

e.g.

- 0 = 1, false;
- $x^2 = -1$ it is always positive or zero;
- |a| = -3 it is always positive or zero;
- $\sqrt{-(x^2+1)} = 1$ it is never defined (\nexists) .

20.3 Conditional equations

In general, we want to find a solution for each equation, i.e. all the real numbers that, when they replace a variable inside the equation, give an identity:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \ (x > 0 \Rightarrow \exists y \in \mathbb{R} \mid f(x, y) = 0)$$

e.g.

- x = 1;
- x + y = 3;
- $\sin(\alpha) = 0.5$.

21 Fundamental theorem of algebra

Let p(x) be a polynomial with one variable and real coefficients. Assume that $\deg(p(x)) = n \in \mathbb{N}$, then:

$$p(x) = 0$$
 has at most n solutions

22 Linear equations with one variable

$$p(x) = q(x)$$
 where $deg(0, (x)) = 1$

22.1 Simple tools

22.1.1 Tool 1

 $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \ x+a=b,$ let's isolate the variable $x: \ x-a-a=b-a \Rightarrow x=b-a$

22.1.2 Tool 2

 $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, \ ax = b, \text{ let's isolate the variable } x: \ \frac{ax}{a} = \frac{b}{a} \Rightarrow x = \frac{b}{a}$

23 Linear inequalities with one variable

The inequality is a relation between two or more sets. Let $a, b, x \in \mathbb{R}, \ a < x, \ b > x$, then:

23.1 Negative sign

In solving the inequality we have to move a negative factor from one side to the other, so we need to reverse the sign of the inequality:

$$\boxed{-ax < b \Rightarrow x > -\frac{b}{a}}$$

24 Equations and inequalities with absolute values

To solve absolute values we need to consider two cases. Let's take this equation: |x+2|=-x+4, then

$$\begin{cases} \text{case 1: } x+2=-x+4 \Rightarrow 2x=2 \Rightarrow x_1=1 \\ \text{case 2: } -x-2=-x+4 \Rightarrow -2=4 \text{ (contradiction)} \end{cases} \implies \text{Sol: } x=\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x+2 \geq 0 \\ \text{no solution} & \text{if } x+2 < 0 \end{cases}$$

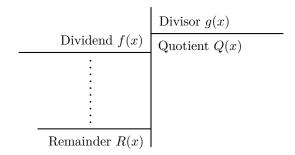
Part V

Lesson 5

25 Division of polynomials

25.1 Division algorithm for polynomials by monomials

Let f(x) be a polynomial and g(x) a monomial such that $g(x) \neq 0$. Consider the rational expression $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, then:



- Divide the highest degree term in f(x) (the dividend) by the highest degree term in g(x) (the divisor). This gives the first partial quotient $q_1(x)$.
- Multiply the partial quotient $R_1(x)$ by the entire divisor g(x). This product represents the part of the dividend that can be "cancelled" in this step.
- Subtract the product obtained in step 2 from the original dividend f(x). This subtraction gives a new polynomial, often called the remainder $R_1(x)$, which is of a lower degree than the original dividend.
- Now divide the leading term of the new remainder $R_1(x)$ by the leading term of g(x). This gives the next partial quotient $Q_2(x)$.
- Multiply $Q_2(x)$ by g(x) and subtract it from the current remainder. This process generates a new remainder $R_2(x)$.
- Keep repeating the division, multiplication, and subtraction steps until the degree of the remainder is less than the degree of the divisor g(x). At this point, you cannot continue dividing.
- The final quotient Q(x) is the sum of all the partial quotients: $Q(x) = Q_1(x) + Q_2(x) + \cdots + Q_n(x)$.
- The remainder $R_n(x)$ is the result after all subtractions are completed. If the remainder is zero, the division is exact. If not, the remainder is the leftover part of the division.

Tip: When the sum of the coefficients is equal to 0, then the polynomial is always divisible by x-1.

26 Second degree polynomials

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, then

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

The three possible outcomes we can have when solving this 2nd-degree polynomial are:

- 2 solutions;
- 1 solution;
- 0 solutions.

26.1 Quadratic formula

$$x_{1,2} = \frac{-b \mp \sqrt{\Delta}}{2a}$$

26.1.1 Discriminant of the polynomial

$$\Delta = b^2 - 4ac$$

From the discriminant we can determine how many solutions the equation will have:

- $\Delta > 0 \Rightarrow 2$ real solutions;
- $\Delta = 0 \Rightarrow 1$ real solution;
- $\Delta < 0 \Rightarrow 0$ real solutions (2 complex solutions).

26.1.2 Evident solutions

When we have a 2nd-degree equation (x-a)(x-b)=0, we have two obvious solutions in \mathbb{R} . In this case, $x_1=a,\ x_2=b$

This factorization can be obtained using notable products.

e.g. Let
$$x^2 + 4x + 4 = 0 \Rightarrow (x+2)^2 = 0$$
, then $x = -2$.

26.2 Extraction of a root

Let $a \in \mathbb{R}, \ a \geq 0$, then:

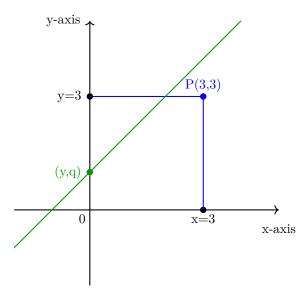
$$x^2 - a = 0 \Rightarrow x = \pm \sqrt{a}$$

Part VI

Lesson 6

27 Lines and parabola

27.1 Cartesian diagram



27.2 Straight line

Let A and B be any two distinct points, then there is one and only one line passing through A and B.

27.3 Slope-intercept equation

Let $m, q \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$y = mx + q$$

- m: slope $(\tan(\alpha))$;
- q: vertical intercept.

27.3.1 Slope

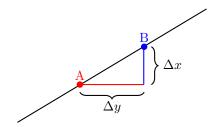
The slope of a line can be calculated with the equation

$$m = \frac{y_B - y_A}{x_B - x_A} = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$$

We have three different slope outcomes:

- m > 0, the line is increasing;
- m = 0, the line is stable;
- m < 0, the line si decreasing.

27.3.2 Drawing



27.4 Vertical lines

The more the value of m increase, the closer the line vertical will be, but never getting vertical.

Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then x = c.

Vertical lines cannot be written as a function.

28 Equation of a line

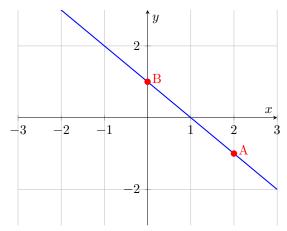
Let $m, x_A, y_A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $A(x_A, y_A)$, then

$$y - y_A = m(x - x_A)$$

e.g.: Find the line with m = -1 and A(2, -1).

$$y - 1 = -1(x + 2) \Rightarrow y = -x + 1$$

Points: A(2,-1); B(0,1)



28.1 General equation in a cartesian diagram

$$ax + by + c = 0$$

Remarks:

- All the lines can be described with this kind of equation;
- When $b=0,\, a\neq 0$, then $ax=-c\Rightarrow x=\frac{-c}{a}\in \mathbb{R};$
- When $b \neq 0$, then $y = -\frac{a}{b}x \frac{c}{b}$, where $m = -\frac{a}{b}$ and $q = -\frac{c}{b}$.

29 Vertical parabolas

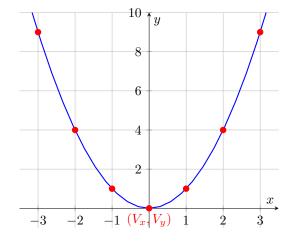
29.1 Function of parabolas

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, then

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

29.2 Drawing example

x	у
-3	9
-2	4
-1	1
0	0
1	1
2	4
3	9



29.3 Concavity of a parabola

We have three cases:

- a > 0, concave up;
- a = 0, not a parabola;
- a < 0, concave down.

29.4 Vertex of a parabola

The vertex of a parabola $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ is the point given by the coordinates:

$$V = \left(-\frac{b}{2a}, -\frac{\Delta}{2a}\right)$$

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Remarks: we have two different cases:

- When a > 0, the vertex is the lower point of the parabola;
- When a < 0, the vertex is the highest point of the parabola.

e.g.: given $y=x^2,$ find the vertex: $V=\left(-\frac{0}{2},\ -\frac{0}{2}\right) \to V(0,0)$

Alternative: solving the x coordinate V_x , we can sostitute the x inside the given function f(x).

30 Powers with $\mathbb Z$ and $\mathbb R$ exponents

Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then:

$$\alpha^{\frac{1}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{\alpha}$$

Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$\alpha^{\frac{m}{n}} = \left(\alpha^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^m$$

Let $a, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}^*$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$. Then, we can approximate λ by a fraction:

$$\left[\frac{a}{b} < \lambda < \frac{c}{d}\right]$$