

Chapter 0 Preliminaries

Before we start, the following are topics from high school that you'll need to use frequently:

- ⊙ **Factorization** and **solving polynomial equations**
- ⊙ **Laws of exponents** and **laws of logarithms**
- ⊙ **Mensuration, areas** and **volumes** of simple geometric objects
- ⊙ The **coordinate plane**, slopes and equations of **lines**, equations of **circles**
- ⊙ **Trigonometry**

Make sure you don't forget what you have learnt about these tools. Apart from the above topics, we will introduce in this chapter a few other preliminary topics which are particularly important.

1. Basic set theory

In the subject of calculus, the fundamental objects that we study are **functions**. We need some basic language in **set theory** before we can define what a function is.

A **bold and italicized phrase** in a definition indicates the phrase that is being defined.

Definition 0.1 A **set** is a collection of objects. The objects collected in a set are called **elements** of the set.

- ⊙ Each element of a set A is said to **belong to** A . In symbols we write $x \in A$ if an object x belongs to the set A , and we write $x \notin A$ if x does not belong to A .
- ⊙ Two sets A and B are said to be **equal**, written $A = B$, if they contain the same elements.

Example 0.2 There are various ways to denote the same set, for example:

- ⊙ List all its elements (in any order),

$$A = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}.$$

- ⊙ Write down conditions that its elements satisfy,

$$A = \{x: 0 < x < 10 \text{ and } x \text{ is an odd number}\}.$$

In this example, we have $1 \in A$, $3 \in A$, $7 \in A$, but $2 \notin A$, $6 \notin A$, $\sqrt{2} \notin A$ and $\pi \notin A$.

Example 0.3 Rewrite each of the following sets by listing all its elements.

- (a) $A = \{x: 0 < x < 5 \text{ and } x \text{ is an integer}\}$
- (b) $B = \{x: (x - 2)(x - 3) = 0\}$
- (c) $C = \{x: x \text{ is a vowel in the English alphabet}\}$

Instead of the form {object: conditions}, some authors denote a set in the form {object | conditions}, which is also fine.

Solution:

- (a) $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- (b) $B = \{2, 3\}$
- (c) $C = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$

Example 0.4 The order, arrangement and repetition of the elements in a set is irrelevant, e.g.

- ⊙ The sets $\{1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$ are equal;
- ⊙ The sets $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $\{2, 1, 4, 5, 3\}$ are equal.

Definition 0.5 The **empty set** contains nothing and is denoted by $\emptyset$,

$$\emptyset := \{ \}.$$

The **set of all real numbers** is denoted by $\mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathbb{R} := \{x: x \text{ is a real number}\}.$$

When we introduce a **new notation**, we write the notation on the left-hand side of “:=”, and its meaning on the right-hand side of “:=”.

In calculus, we mainly deal with sets that consist of (some) real numbers only. The following is an important class of “connected” sets, called **intervals**.

Definition 0.6 Let $a \leq b$ be two real numbers. Then the following sets are called **intervals**:

Open intervals

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: a < x < b\} \\ (a, +\infty) &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x > a\} \\ (-\infty, b) &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x < b\}\end{aligned}$$

Closed intervals

$$\begin{aligned}[a, b] &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: a \leq x \leq b\} \\ [a, +\infty) &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \geq a\} \\ (-\infty, b] &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: x \leq b\}\end{aligned}$$

Half-open intervals

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b] &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: a < x \leq b\} \\ [a, b) &:= \{x \in \mathbb{R}: a \leq x < b\}\end{aligned}$$

- ⊙ The real numbers a and b are called the **left end-point** and the **right end-point** of the corresponding intervals.
- ⊙ Every other number contained in each interval is said to be in the **interior** of that interval.
- ⊙ The **width** of an interval with left end-point a and right end-point b is the number $b - a$.

Here “ $+\infty$ ” and “ $-\infty$ ” are just **symbols**. They are NOT real numbers!

We can do **operations** on two sets to produce a new set. These operations include the union, the intersection and the complement.

Definition 0.7 Let A and B be sets.

- ⊙ The **intersection** of A and B is the set

$$A \cap B := \{x: x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

- ⊙ The **union** of A and B is the set

$$A \cup B := \{x: x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$$

- ⊙ The **complement** of B in A is the set

$$A \setminus B := \{x: x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}.$$

We say that A and B are **disjoint** if their intersection is empty, i.e. $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Example 0.8 Each of the following sets can be expressed as a union of disjoint intervals:

- (a) $(-3, 5) \cap [4, 7] = [4, 5)$, $(-3, 5) \cup [4, 7] = (-3, 7]$
- (b) $[2, 5] \cap ((1, 3) \cup (4, 6)) = [2, 3) \cup (4, 5]$
- (c) $\mathbb{R} \setminus ([0, 2] \cap (1, 3)) = \mathbb{R} \setminus (1, 2] = (-\infty, 1] \cup (2, +\infty)$

2. Inequalities in one unknown

In the previous section when we defined intervals, we made use of inequalities in one unknown. Let us review some facts and tools for solving **inequalities in one unknown**.

Theorem 0.9 *Let a, b, c be real numbers.*

- (i) *If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$ and $a - c < b - c$.*
- (ii) *If $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $ac < bc$.*
- (iii) *If $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ac > bc$.*

Remark 0.10 When multiplying or dividing both sides of an inequality by something, watch out whether that something is positive or negative!

Example 0.11 Solve the inequality

$$4x - 3 < 2x + 5.$$

Solution:

Adding $(3 - 2x)$ on both sides of the given inequality, we obtain

$$(4x - 3) + (3 - 2x) < (2x + 5) + (3 - 2x),$$

i.e. $2x < 8$. Dividing both sides by 2 we obtain $x < 4$. Therefore the solutions to the given inequality are all those $x \in (-\infty, 4)$.

Example 0.12 Solve the inequality

$$\frac{4}{x - 3} \leq 2.$$

Solution:

Note that $x - 3 \neq 0$ because $x - 3$ appears in the denominator of an expression.

⊙ If $x - 3 > 0$, then multiplying $x - 3$ on both sides the inequality becomes

$$4 \leq 2(x - 3).$$

Rearranging this inequality we get $2x \geq 10$, and so $x \geq 5$. Combining with the assumption that $x - 3 > 0$, we obtain $(x \geq 5 \text{ and } x > 3)$, which is the same as just $x \geq 5$.

⊙ If $x - 3 < 0$, then multiplying $x - 3$ on both sides the inequality becomes

$$4 \geq 2(x - 3).$$

Rearranging this inequality we get $2x \leq 10$, and so $x \leq 5$. Combining with the assumption that $x - 3 < 0$, we obtain $(x \leq 5 \text{ and } x < 3)$, which is the same as just $x < 3$.

Now combining both cases, the solutions to the inequality are all those $x \in (-\infty, 3) \cup [5, +\infty)$.

Alternative solution:

The given inequality can be rewritten as $2 - \frac{4}{x-3} \geq 0$, or after clearing the denominators,

$$\frac{2x - 10}{x - 3} \geq 0.$$

Note that as x varies, the numerator and the denominator have “sign changes” when $x = 5$ and when $x = 3$ respectively. Let’s analyze the sign of the whole expression on the left-hand side:

x	$(-\infty, 3)$	$x = 3$	$(3, 5)$	$x = 5$	$(5, +\infty)$
$2x - 10$	—	—	—	0	+
$x - 3$	—	0	+	+	+
$\frac{2x - 10}{x - 3}$	+	undefined	—	0	+

From this table, we see that the inequality $\frac{2x-10}{x-3} \geq 0$ holds if and only if $x \in (-\infty, 3) \cup [5, +\infty)$.

So the solutions to the given inequality are all those $x \in (-\infty, 3) \cup [5, +\infty)$. Set-theoretically we may write

$$\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}: \frac{4}{x-3} \leq 2\right\} = (-\infty, 3) \cup [5, +\infty).$$

Example 0.13 Solve the inequality

$$\frac{(x+1)^2 + 3}{(x+2)(x-4)} \leq 0.$$

Solution:

Note that in the expression on the left-hand side, the **numerator** $(x+1)^2 + 3$ is always ≥ 3 , so the numerator is **always positive** in particular. Now let’s analyze the sign of the whole expression on the left-hand side:

x	$(-\infty, -2)$	$x = -2$	$(-2, 4)$	$x = 4$	$(4, +\infty)$
$x + 2$	—	0	+	+	+
$x - 4$	—	—	—	0	+
$\frac{(x+1)^2 + 3}{(x+2)(x-4)}$	+	undefined	—	undefined	+

From this table, we deduce that the solutions to the given inequality

$$\frac{(x+1)^2 + 3}{(x+2)(x-4)} \leq 0$$

are all those $x \in (-2, 4)$. Set-theoretically we may write

$$\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}: \frac{(x+1)^2 + 3}{(x+2)(x-4)} \leq 0\right\} = (-2, 4).$$

3. Absolute values

Definition 0.14 Let a be a real number. The **absolute value** of a , denoted as $|a|$, is defined by

$$|a| = \begin{cases} -a & \text{if } a < 0 \\ a & \text{if } a \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Example 0.15 $|5| = 5$ and $|-5| = 5$.

Corollary 0.16 Let a be a real number. Then

$$\sqrt{a^2} = |a|.$$

In particular, we must have $|a| \geq 0$.

Notice how $\sqrt{x^2}$ and $(\sqrt{x})^2$ are different from each other.

Remark 0.17 Let a and b be real numbers. The quantity $|a - b|$ represents the “distance” between the numbers a and b . We have

$$|a - b| = \begin{cases} b - a & \text{if } a < b \\ a - b & \text{if } a \geq b \end{cases}$$

Theorem 0.18 Let a and b be real numbers. Then

- (i) $|ab| = |a||b|$
- (ii) $|a^2| = |a|^2 = a^2$
- (iii) $|-a| = |a|$
- (iv) $\left|\frac{a}{b}\right| = \frac{|a|}{|b|}$ if $b \neq 0$.

Remark 0.19 In order to remove the absolute value sign from an expression $|*|$, we first check whether the expression $*$ inside the absolute value sign is negative or not.

⊙ If $* < 0$, then we write an extra negative sign after removing the absolute value sign, i.e.

$$|*| = -*;$$

⊙ if $* \geq 0$, then we do nothing after removing the absolute value sign, i.e.

$$|*| = *.$$

Example 0.20 For each of the following inequalities, find all the real numbers x which satisfy the inequality:

- (a) $|2x - 5| > 7$
- (b) $|x - 2| + |2x + 1| \leq 4$

Solution:

- (a) ☉ If $2x - 5 \geq 0$, i.e. if $x \geq \frac{5}{2}$, then the inequality becomes $2x - 5 > 7$, and so $x > 6$.

Combining $x \geq 5/2$ and $x > 6$, we see that every $x > 6$ is a solution to the inequality.

- ☉ If $2x - 5 < 0$, i.e. if $x < \frac{5}{2}$, then the inequality becomes $-(2x - 5) > 7$, so $x < -1$.

Combining $x < 5/2$ and $x < -1$, we see that every $x < -1$ is also a solution.

Therefore the solutions to the inequality consists of all those $x \in (-\infty, -1) \cup (6, +\infty)$.

- (b) ☉ If $x \in (-\infty, -\frac{1}{2})$, then both $x - 2 < 0$ and $2x + 1 < 0$, and the inequality becomes

$$-(x - 2) - (2x + 1) \leq 4,$$

so $x \geq -1$. Combining with $x < -\frac{1}{2}$, we see that every $x \in [-1, -\frac{1}{2})$ is a solution.

- ☉ If $x \in [-\frac{1}{2}, 2)$, then $x - 2 < 0$ but $2x + 1 \geq 0$, and the inequality becomes

$$-(x - 2) + (2x + 1) \leq 4,$$

so $x \leq 1$. Combining with $-\frac{1}{2} \leq x < 2$, we see that every $x \in [-\frac{1}{2}, 1]$ is a solution.

- ☉ If $x \in [2, +\infty)$, then both $x - 2 \geq 0$ and $2x + 1 \geq 0$, and the inequality becomes

$$(x - 2) + (2x + 1) \leq 4,$$

so $x \leq 5/3$. But there is no x which satisfies both $x \geq 2$ and $x \leq 5/3$, so this case does not give any solutions.

Therefore the solutions to the inequality consists of all those $x \in [-1, 1]$.

When handling equations or inequalities that involve absolute values, the following fact is useful.

Corollary 0.21 Let x be a real number and c be a non-negative real number.

- (i) $|x| < c$ if and only if $-c < x < c$.
- (ii) $|x| = c$ if and only if either $x = c$ or $x = -c$.
- (iii) $|x| > c$ if and only if either $x > c$ or $x < -c$.

If c were a negative real number in the above corollary, then it would be obvious that $|x| < c$ is always impossible, $|x| = c$ is always impossible and $|x| > c$ is always true.

Example 0.22 Solve the inequality

$$\left| 3 - \frac{4}{x} \right| < 1.$$

Solution:

Note that $\left|3 - \frac{4}{x}\right| < 1$ if and only if $-1 < 3 - \frac{4}{x} < 1$, i.e.

$$4 - \frac{4}{x} > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 2 - \frac{4}{x} < 0.$$

⊙ The first inequality $4 - \frac{4}{x} > 0$ is the same as $\frac{4(x-1)}{x} > 0$. From the following sign table

x	$(-\infty, 0)$	$x = 0$	$(0, 1)$	$x = 1$	$(1, +\infty)$
$x - 1$	—	—	—	0	+
x	—	0	+	+	+
$\frac{4(x-1)}{x}$	+	undefined	—	0	+

we deduce that $4 - \frac{4}{x} > 0$ if and only if $x \in (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, +\infty)$.

⊙ The second inequality $2 - \frac{4}{x} < 0$ is the same as $\frac{2(x-2)}{x} < 0$. From the following sign table

x	$(-\infty, 0)$	$x = 0$	$(0, 2)$	$x = 2$	$(2, +\infty)$
$x - 2$	—	—	—	0	+
x	—	0	+	+	+
$\frac{2(x-2)}{x}$	+	undefined	—	0	+

we deduce that $2 - \frac{4}{x} < 0$ if and only if $x \in (0, 2)$.

Finally, the solutions to the original inequality $\left|3 - \frac{4}{x}\right| < 1$ consist of all those x which belong to both $(-\infty, 0) \cup (1, +\infty)$ and $(0, 2)$. Therefore the solutions are all those $x \in (1, 2)$.

Theorem 0.23 Let a and b be real numbers. Then

- (i) $-|a| \leq a \leq |a|$,
- (ii) (Triangle inequality) $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$.

Proof. (i) is obviously true. Now given real numbers a and b , (i) implies that

$$-|a| \leq a \leq |a| \quad \text{and} \quad -|b| \leq b \leq |b|;$$

thus we have

$$-(|a| + |b|) \leq a + b \leq |a| + |b|$$

and so $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$ by Corollary 0.21. Therefore (ii) follows. ■

4. Sigma notation

In calculus, we will often evaluate a **sum of many numbers** in which the terms are almost identical to each other, with the only difference in the value of a running index. To simplify the notations of such sums, we use the following **Sigma notation**.

Definition 0.24 (Sigma notation) Let $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ be numbers. Then we denote

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k := a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n.$$

Remark 0.25 The sum $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ depends only on n , but does not depend on the “summation index” k . In fact, we can replace k by any symbol without changing the meaning of the notation:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j = \sum_{m=1}^n a_m.$$

We say that the summation index k is a **dummy variable** in the sum $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$, which means that the overall sum actually contains no such variable.

Lemma 0.26 Let $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n, c$ be numbers. Then we have the following:

- (i) $\sum_{k=1}^n c = cn$
- (ii) $\sum_{k=1}^n (a_k \pm b_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \pm \sum_{k=1}^n b_k$
- (iii) $\sum_{k=1}^n ca_k = c \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$

Remark 0.27 It is important to note that the following equalities are in general **NOT** true.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k b_k \neq \left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \right) \left(\sum_{k=1}^n b_k \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a_k}{b_k} \neq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n a_k}{\sum_{k=1}^n b_k}.$$

Remark 0.28 The summation index can also start from any integer other than 1. We may also do a “shifting” in the summation index without affecting the overall sum. As an example, every summation of the form $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_{k+1}$$

because both sides represent the same sum $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$.

Theorem 0.29 *Let n be a positive integer. Then we have the following identities:*

(i) (Sum of the first n positive integers)

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

(ii) (Sum of the first n squares)

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

(iii) (Sum of the first n cubes)

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Proof. To prove (i), we note that

$$k(k+1) - (k-1)k = 2k$$

for each positive integer k , so we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n k &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k(k+1) - (k-1)k}{2} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k(k+1)}{2} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(k-1)k}{2} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k(k+1)}{2} - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{k(k+1)}{2} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - \frac{0(0+1)}{2} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

To prove (ii), we note that

$$k(k+1)(k+2) - (k-1)k(k+1) = 3(k^2 + k)$$

for each positive integer k , so using (i) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\frac{k(k+1)(k+2) - (k-1)k(k+1)}{3} - k \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{3} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(k-1)k(k+1)}{3} - \sum_{k=1}^n k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{3} - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{3} - \sum_{k=1}^n k \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3} - \frac{0(0+1)(0+2)}{3} - \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

The proof of (iii) is similar and is left as an exercise. ■

Theorem 0.30 (Geometric sum) Let $r \neq 1$ be a number and n be a positive integer. Then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r^k = \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}.$$

Proof. Let $s := \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r^k$. Then $rs = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r^{k+1} = \sum_{k=1}^n r^k$, so

$$rs - s = \sum_{k=1}^n r^k - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r^k = r^n - r^0 = r^n - 1.$$

Rearranging we get $s = \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}$. ■

Example 0.31

- (a) Find the sum of squares of the first n positive even numbers.
- (b) Evaluate the sum $50 \cdot 52 + 51 \cdot 53 + 52 \cdot 54 + \cdots + 99 \cdot 101$.
- (c) Evaluate the sum $3 + 6 + 12 + 24 + \cdots + 3072$.

Solution:

- (a) The sum of squares of the first n positive even numbers is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n (2k)^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^n 4k^2 = 4 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\ &= 4 \left[\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right] \\ &= \frac{2n(n+1)(2n+1)}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

- (b)

$$\begin{aligned} &50 \cdot 52 + 51 \cdot 53 + 52 \cdot 54 + \cdots + 99 \cdot 101 \\ &= \sum_{k=51}^{100} (k-1)(k+1) = \sum_{k=51}^{100} (k^2 - 1) \\ &= \sum_{k=51}^{100} k^2 - \sum_{k=51}^{100} 1 = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{100} k^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{50} k^2 \right) - \sum_{k=51}^{100} 1 \\ &= \frac{(100)(101)(201)}{6} - \frac{(50)(51)(101)}{6} - 50 \\ &= 295375 \end{aligned}$$

(c)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 3 + 6 + 12 + 24 + \cdots + 3072 \\
 &= 3 + 3 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 2^2 + 3 \cdot 2^3 + \cdots + 3 \cdot 2^{10} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{10} (3 \cdot 2^k) = 3 \sum_{k=0}^{10} 2^k = 3 \cdot \frac{2^{11} - 1}{2 - 1} \\
 &= 3 \cdot 2047 = 6141.
 \end{aligned}$$

As a by-product of the geometric sum we obtain the following identity, whose $n = 2$ and $n = 3$ cases should be well-known from high school.

Corollary 0.32 *Let a and b be numbers and n be a positive integer. Then*

$$a^n - b^n = (a - b)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \cdots + ab^{n-2} + b^{n-1}).$$

In particular when $n = 2$ or $n = 3$, we have

$$a^2 - b^2 = (a - b)(a + b)$$

and

$$a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$$

respectively.

Proof. Both sides of the identity are 0 if $a = b$, and both sides of the identity are $-b^n$ if $a = 0$. If $a \neq b$ and $a \neq 0$, then by the geometric sum formula we have

$$a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}b + \cdots + ab^{n-2} + b^{n-1} = a^{n-1} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^k = a^{n-1} \cdot \frac{\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^n - 1}{\frac{b}{a} - 1} = \frac{a^n - b^n}{a - b},$$

so the identity follows after multiplying $a - b$ on both sides. ■

When we encounter expressions that involve a **difference of square roots or n^{th} roots**, we may apply the above identity to get rid of such a difference. This technique called “**rationalization**” will sometimes be useful when we study limits and differentiation in chapters 2 and 3.

Example 0.33 (Rationalization) Let x and y be positive real numbers. Then we have

$$\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y} = (\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{y}) \frac{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}} = \frac{x - y}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y}}$$

and

$$\sqrt[3]{x} - \sqrt[3]{y} = (\sqrt[3]{x} - \sqrt[3]{y}) \frac{(\sqrt[3]{x})^2 + (\sqrt[3]{x})(\sqrt[3]{y}) + (\sqrt[3]{y})^2}{(\sqrt[3]{x})^2 + (\sqrt[3]{x})(\sqrt[3]{y}) + (\sqrt[3]{y})^2} = \frac{x - y}{(\sqrt[3]{x})^2 + (\sqrt[3]{x})(\sqrt[3]{y}) + (\sqrt[3]{y})^2}.$$

Summary of Chapter 0

The following are what you need to know in this chapter in order to get a pass (a distinction) in this course:

- ✓ To recognize a **set** and its **elements**; **equality** of two sets
- ✓ Universal notations of some important sets: $\emptyset$, $\mathbb{R}$
- ✓ Intervals; **open intervals** (a, b) , **closed intervals** $[a, b]$ and half-open intervals $(a, b]$, $[a, b)$
 - ⊙ To convert the set of numbers satisfying an inequality to the **interval notation**
- ✓ **Operations** on sets: intersection, union, complement

- ✓ Solving (real algebraic) **inequalities in one variable**, table of signs
- ✓ The **absolute value** of a real number
- ✓ Solving equations or inequalities that involve absolute signs

- ✓ The **Sigma notation** for sums
- ✓ **Summation formulas, geometric sum**
- ✓ Method of **rationalization**