Mathematical English (a brief summary)

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Arithmetic

Integers

0		10		20	
0	zero	10	ten	20	twenty
1	one	11	eleven	30	thirty
2	two	12	twelve	40	forty
3	three	13	thirteen	50	fifty
4	four	14	fourteen	60	sixty
5	five	15	fifteen	70	seventy
6	six	16	sixteen	80	eighty
7	seven	17	seventeen	90	ninety
8	eight	18	eighteen	100	one hundred
9	nine	19	nineteen	1000	one thousand
	_	245	minus two hu	undred and	l forty-five
22731		twenty-two thousand seven hundred and thirty-one			
1 000 000		one million			
56 000 000		fifty-six million			
$1 \ 000 \ 000 \ 000$		one billion	[US usage	e, now universal]	

1 000 000 000	one billion [05 usage, now universal]
$7 \ 000 \ 000 \ 000$	seven billion [US usage, now universal]
$1 \ 000 \ 000 \ 000 \ 000$	one trillion [US usage, now universal]
$3\ 000\ 000\ 000\ 000$	three trillion [US usage, now universal]

Fractions [= Rational Numbers]

$\frac{1}{2}$	one half	$\frac{3}{8}$	three eighths
$\frac{1}{3}$	one third	$\frac{26}{9}$	twenty-six ninths
$\frac{1}{4}$	one quarter [= one fourth]	$-\frac{5}{34}$	minus five thirty-fourths
$\frac{1}{5}$	one fifth	$2\frac{3}{7}$	two and three sevenths
$-\frac{1}{17}$	minus one seventeenth		

Real Numbers

-0.067	minus nought point zero six seven
81.59	eighty-one point five nine
$-2.3\cdot 10^6$	minus two point three times ten to the six
[= -2 300 000	minus two million three hundred thousand]
$4 \cdot 10^{-3}$	four times ten to the minus three
[= 0.004 = 4/1000	four thousandths]
$\pi \ [= 3.14159\ldots]$	pi [pronounced as 'pie']
$e \ [= 2.71828 \ldots]$	e [base of the natural logarithm]

Complex Numbers

i	i
3+4i	three plus four i
1-2i	one minus two i
$\overline{1-2i} = 1+2i$	the complex conjugate of one minus two i equals one plus two i

The real part and the imaginary part of 3 + 4i are equal, respectively, to 3 and 4.

Basic arithmetic operations

Addition: Subtraction: Multiplication: Division:	3+5=8 3-5=-2 $3\cdot 5=15$ 3/5=0.6	<pre>three plus five equals [= is equal to] eight three minus five equals [=] minus two three times five equals [=] fifteen three divided by five equals [=] zero point six</pre>
$(2-3) \cdot 6 + 1 = -5$	two minus	s three in brackets times six plus one equals minus five
$\frac{1-3}{2+4} = -1/3$	one minus	s three over two plus four equals minus one third
$4! \ [= \ 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4]$	four fact	corial

Exponentiation, Roots

5^2	$[= 5 \cdot 5 = 25]$	five squared
5^3	$[=5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 125]$	five cubed
5^4	$[=5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 625]$	five to the (power of) four
5^{-1}	[=1/5=0.2]	five to the minus one
5^{-2}	$[=1/5^2=0.04]$	five to the minus two
$\sqrt{3}$	$[= 1.73205 \ldots]$	the square root of three
$\sqrt[3]{64}$	[=4]	the cube root of sixty four
$\sqrt[5]{32}$	[=2]	the fifth root of thirty two

In the complex domain the notation $\sqrt[n]{a}$ is ambiguous, since any non-zero complex number has *n* different *n*-th roots. For example, $\sqrt[4]{-4}$ has four possible values: $\pm 1 \pm i$ (with all possible combinations of signs).

 $(1+2)^{2+2}$ one plus two, all to the power of two plus two $e^{\pi i}=-1$ $\,$ e to the (power of) pi i equals minus one

Divisibility

The multiples of a positive integer a are the numbers $a, 2a, 3a, 4a, \ldots$ If b is a multiple of a, we also say that a divides b, or that a is a divisor of b (notation: $a \mid b$). This is equivalent to $\frac{b}{a}$ being an integer.

Division with remainder

If a, b are arbitrary positive integers, we can divide b by a, in general, only with a remainder. For example, 7 lies between the following two consecutive multiples of 3:

$$2 \cdot 3 = 6 < 7 < 3 \cdot 3 = 9,$$
 $7 = 2 \cdot 3 + 1$ $\left(\iff \frac{7}{3} = 2 + \frac{1}{3} \right)$

In general, if qa is the largest multiple of a which is less than or equal to b, then

b = qa + r, $r = 0, 1, \dots, a - 1.$

The integer q (resp., r) is the quotient (resp., the remainder) of the division of b by a.

Euclid's algorithm

This algorithm computes the greatest common divisor (notation: (a, b) = gcd(a, b)) of two positive integers a, b.

It proceeds by replacing the pair a, b (say, with $a \leq b$) by r, a, where r is the remainder of the division of b by a. This procedure, which preserves the gcd, is repeated until we arrive at r = 0.

Example. Compute gcd(12, 44).

$$44 = 3 \cdot 12 + 8$$

$$12 = 1 \cdot 8 + 4$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 4 + 0$$

$$gcd(12, 44) = gcd(8, 12) = gcd(4, 8) = gcd(0, 4) = 4.$$

This calculation allows us to write the fraction $\frac{44}{12}$ in its lowest terms, and also as a continued fraction:

$$\frac{44}{12} = \frac{44/4}{12/4} = \frac{11}{3} = 3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}}.$$

If gcd(a, b) = 1, we say that a and b are relatively prime.

add additionner
algorithm algorithme
Euclid's algorithm algorithme de division euclidienne
bracket parenthèse
left bracket parenthèse à gauche
right bracket parenthèse à droite
curly bracket accolade
denominator denominateur

difference différence divide diviser divisibility divisibilité divisor diviseur exponent exposant factorial factoriel fraction fraction continued fraction fraction continue gcd [= greatest common divisor] pgcd [= plus grand commun diviseur] lcm [= least common multiple] ppcm [= plus petit commun multiple] infinity l'infini iterate itérer iteration itération multiple multiple multiply multiplier
number nombre ${\bf even \ number} \quad {\rm nombre \ pair}$ odd number nombre impair numerator numerateur pair couple pairwise deux à deux **power** puissance **product** produit quotient quotient ratio rapport; raison **rational** rationnel(le) **irrational** irrationnel(le) relatively prime premiers entre eux **remainder** reste root racine sum somme subtract soustraire

Algebra

Algebraic Expressions

$A = a^2$	capital a equals small a squared
a = x + y	a equals x plus y
b = x - y	b equals x minus y
$c = x \cdot y \cdot z$	c equals x times y times z
c = xyz	c equals x y z
(x+y)z+xy	x plus y in brackets times z plus x y
$x^2 + y^3 + z^5$	x squared plus y cubed plus z to the (power of) five
$x^n + y^n = z^n$	x to the n plus y to the n equals z to the n
$(x-y)^{3m}$	x minus y in brackets to the (power of) three m
	x minus y, all to the (power of) three m
$2^x 3^y$	two to the x times three to the y
$ax^2 + bx + c$	a x squared plus b x plus c
$\sqrt{x} + \sqrt[3]{y}$	the square root of x plus the cube root of y
$\sqrt[n]{x+y}$	the n-th root of x plus y
$rac{a+b}{c-d}$	a plus b over c minus d
$\binom{n}{m}$	(the binomial coefficient) n over m

Indices

x_0	x zero; x nought
$x_1 + y_i$	x one plus y i
R_{ij}	(capital) R (subscript) i j; (capital) R lower i j
M^k_{ij}	(capital) M upper k lower i j;
	(capital) M superscript k subscript i j
$\sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i x^i$	<pre>sum of a i x to the i for i from nought [= zero] to n;</pre>
	sum over i (ranging) from zero to n of a i (times) x to the i
$\prod_{m=1}^{\infty} b_m$	product of b m for m from one to infinity;
	product over m (ranging) from one to infinity of b m
$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} b_{jk}$	sum of a i j times b j k for j from one to n;
	sum over j (ranging) from one to n of a i j times b j k
$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} x^{i} y^{n-i}$	sum of n over i x to the i y to the n minus i for i
	from nought [= zero] to n

Matrices

column colonne column vector vecteur colonne determinant déterminant index (pl. indices) indice matrix matrice matrix entry (pl. entries) coefficient d'une matrice $m \times n$ matrix [m by n matrix] matrice à m lignes et n colonnes multi-index multiindice row ligne row vector vecteur ligne square carré

square matrix matrice carrée

Inequalities

x > y	x is greater than y
$x \ge y$	x is greater (than) or equal to y
x < y	x is smaller than y
$x \leq y$	x is smaller (than) or equal to y
x > 0	x is positive
$x \ge 0$	x is positive or zero; x is non-negative
x < 0	x is negative
$x \leq 0$	x is negative or zero

The French terminology is different!

Ś

x > y x	est	strictement plus grand que y
$x \ge y$ x	est	supérieur ou égal à y
x < y x	est	strictement plus petit que y
$x \leq y$ x	est	inférieur ou égal à y
x > 0 x	est	strictement positif
$x \ge 0$ x	est	positif ou nul
x < 0 x	est	strictement négatif
$x \le 0$ x	est	négatif ou nul

Polynomial equations

A polynomial equation of degree $n \geq 1$ with complex coefficients

$$f(x) = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n = 0 \qquad (a_0 \neq 0)$$

has n complex solutions (= roots), provided that they are counted with multiplicities.

For example, a quadratic equation

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \qquad (a \neq 0)$$

can be solved by completing the square, *i.e.*, by rewriting the L.H.S. as

$$a(x + \text{constant})^2 + \text{another constant}.$$

This leads to an equivalent equation

$$a\left(x+\frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 = \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a},$$

whose solutions are

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

where $\Delta = b^2 - 4ac$ (= $a^2(x_1 - x_2)^2$) is the discriminant of the original equation. More precisely,

$$ax^{2} + bx + c = a(x - x_{1})(x - x_{2}).$$

If all coefficients a, b, c are real, then the sign of Δ plays a crucial rôle:

if $\Delta = 0$, then $x_1 = x_2$ (= -b/2a) is a double root;

if $\Delta > 0$, then $x_1 \neq x_2$ are both real;

if $\Delta < 0$, then $x_1 = \overline{x_2}$ are complex conjugates of each other (and non-real).

coefficient coefficient
degree degré
discriminant discriminant
equation équation
L.H.S. [= left hand side] terme de gauche
 R.H.S. [= right hand side] terme de droite
polynomial adj. polynomial(e)
polynomial n. polynôme
provided that à condition que
root racine
 simple root racine simple
 double root racine double
 triple root racine triple
 multiple root racine multiple
 root of multiplicity m racine de multiplicité m

solution solution solve résoudre

Congruences

Two integers a, b are congruent modulo a positive integer m if they have the same remainder when divided by m (equivalently, if their difference a - b is a multiple of m).

 $a\equiv b \pmod{m}$ a is congruent to b modulo m $a\equiv b \pmod{m}$

Some people use the following, slightly horrible, notation: a = b [m].

Fermat's Little Theorem. If p is a prime number and a is an integer, then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. In other words, $a^p - a$ is always divisible by p.

Chinese Remainder Theorem. If m_1, \ldots, m_k are pairwise relatively prime integers, then the system of congruences

 $x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \qquad \cdots \qquad x \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}$

has a unique solution modulo $m_1 \cdots m_k$, for any integers a_1, \ldots, a_k .



The definite article (and its absence)

measure theory	théorie de la mesure
number theory	théorie des nombres
Chapter one	le chapitre un
Equation (7)	l'équation (7)
Harnack's inequality	l'inégalité de Harnack
the Harnack inequality	
the Riemann hypothesis	l'hypothèse de Riemann
the Poincaré conjecture	la conjecture de Poincaré
Minkowski's theorem	le théorème de Minkowski
the Minkowski theorem	
the Dirac delta function	la fonction delta de Dirac
Dirac's delta function	
the delta function	la fonction delta

Geometry



Let *E* be the intersection of the diagonals of the rectangle *ABCD*. The lines (*AB*) and (*CD*) are parallel to each other (and similarly for (*BC*) and (*DA*)). We can see on this picture several *acute angles:* $\angle EAD$, $\angle EAB$, $\angle EBA$, $\angle AED$, $\angle BEC$...; right angles: $\angle ABC$, $\angle BCD$, $\angle CDA$, $\angle DAB$ and obtuse angles: $\angle AEB$, $\angle CED$.



Let P and Q be two points lying on an ellipse e. Denote by R the intersection point of the respective tangent lines to e at P and Q. The line r passing through P and Q is called the polar of the point R w.r.t. the ellipse e.



Here we see three concentric circles with respective radii equal to 1, 2 and 3.



If we draw a line through each vertex of a given triangle and the midpoint of the opposite side, we obtain three lines which intersect at the barycentre (= the centre of gravity) of the triangle.



Above, three circles have a common tangent at their (unique) intersection point.

Euler's Formula

Let P be a convex polyhedron. Euler's formula asserts that

$$V =$$
 the number of vertices of P ,
 $E =$ the number of edges of P ,
 $F =$ the number of faces of P .

V - E + F = 2,

Exercise. Use this formula to classify regular polyhedra (there are precisely five of them: tetrahedron, cube, octahedron, dodecahedron and icosahedron).

For example, an icosahedron has 20 faces, 30 edges and 12 vertices. Each face is an isosceles triangle, each edge belongs to two faces and there are 5 faces meeting at each vertex. The midpoints of its faces form a dual regular polyhedron, in this case a dodecahedron, which has 12 faces (regular pentagons), 30 edges and 20 vertices (each of them belonging to 3 faces).

angle angle acute angle angle aigu obtuse angle angle obtus right angle angle droit area aire axis (pl. axes) axe coordinate axis axe de coordonnées horizontal axis axe horisontal **vertical axis** axe vertical centre [US: center] centre circle cercle colinear (points) (points) alignés **conic (section)** (section) conique **cone** cône **convex** convexe cube cube curve courbe dimension dimension distance distance dodecahedron dodecaèdre edge arête ellipse ellipse ellipsoid ellipsoïde face face hexagon hexagone hyperbola hyperbole hyperboloid hyperboloïde

one-sheet (two-sheet) hyperboloid hyperboloïde à une nappe (à deux nappes) icosahedron icosaèdre intersect intersecter intersection intersection lattice réseau lettuce laitue length longeur line droite midpoint of milieu de octahedron octaèdre orthogonal; perpendicular orthogonal(e); perpendiculaire parabola parabole **parallel** parallèl(e) parallelogram parallélogramme pass through passer par pentagon pentagone **plane** plan point point (regular) polygon polygone (régulier) (regular) polyhedron (pl. polyhedra) polyèdre (régulier) **projection** projection central projection projection conique; projection centrale orthogonal projection projection orthogonale parallel projection projection parallèle quadrilateral quadrilatère radius (pl. radii) rayon rectangle rectangle rectangular rectangulaire rotation rotation side côté **slope** pente sphere sphère square carré square lattice réseau carré **surface** surface tangent to tangent(e) à tangent line droite tangente tangent hyper(plane) (hyper)plan tangent tetrahedron tetraèdre triangle triangle equilateral triangle triangle équilatéral isosceles triangle triangle isocèle right-angled triangle triangle rectangle vertex sommet

Linear Algebra

basis (pl. bases) base change of basis changement de base **bilinear form** forme bilinéaire coordinate coordonnée (non-)degenerate (non) dégénéré(e) dimension dimension codimension codimension finite dimension dimension finie infinite dimension dimension infinie dual space espace dual eigenvalue valeur propre eigenvector vecteur propre (hyper)plane (hyper)plan image image isometry isométrie kernel noyau linear linéaire linear form forme linéaire **linear map** application linéaire linearly dependent liés; linéairement dépendants linearly independent libres; linéairement indépendants multi-linear form forme multilinéaire origin origine orthogonal; perpendicular orthogonal(e); perpendiculaire orthogonal complement supplémentaire orthogonal orthogonal matrix matrice orthogonale (orthogonal) projection projection (orthogonale) quadratic form forme quadratique reflection réflexion represent représenter rotation rotation scalar scalaire scalar product produit scalaire subspace sous-espace (direct) sum somme (directe) skew-symmetric anti-symétrique symmetric symétrique trilinear form forme trilinéaire vector vecteur vector space espace vectoriel vector subspace sous-espace vectoriel vector space of dimension n espace vectoriel de dimension n

Mathematical arguments

Set theory

$x \in A$	x is an element of A; x lies in A;
	x belongs to A; x is in A
$x\not\in A$	x is not an element of A; x does not lie in A;
	x does not belong to A; x is not in A
$x, y \in A$	(both) x and y are elements of A;lie in A;
	belong to A;are in A
$x,y\not\in A$	(neither) x nor y is an element of A;lies in A;
	belongs to A;is in A
Ø	the empty set (= set with no elements)
$A=\emptyset$	A is an empty set
$A \neq \emptyset$	A is non-empty
$A\cup B$	the union of (the sets) A and B; A union B
$A \cap B$	the intersection of (the sets) A and B; A intersection B
A imes B	the product of (the sets) A and B; A times B
$A\cap B=\emptyset$	A is disjoint from B ; the intersection of A and B is empty
$\{x \mid \ldots\}$	the set of all x such that
\mathbf{C}	the set of all complex numbers
\mathbf{Q}	the set of all rational numbers
\mathbf{R}	the set of all real numbers

 $A \cup B$ contains those elements that belong to A or to B (or to both). $A \cap B$ contains those elements that belong to both A and B. $A \times B$ contains the ordered pairs (a, b), where a (resp., b) belongs to A (resp., to B). $A^n = \underbrace{A \times \cdots \times A}_{n \text{ times}}$ contains all ordered n-tuples of elements of A.

belong to appartenir à
disjoint from disjoint de
element élément
empty vide
 non-empty non vide
intersection intersection
inverse l'inverse
 the inverse map to f l'application réciproque de f
 the inverse of f l'inverse de f
map application
 bijective map application bijective
 injective map application injective
 surjective map application surjective
pair couple

ordered pair couple ordonné triple triplet quadruple quadruplet *n*-tuple *n*-uplet relation relation equivalence relation relation d'équivalence set ensemble finite set ensemble fini infinite set ensemble infini union réunion

Logic

S ~ee ~T	S or T
$S~\wedge~T$	S and T
$S \implies T$	S implies T; if S then T
$S \iff T$	S is equivalent to T; S iff T
$\neg S$	not S
$\forall x \in A \dots$	for each [= for every] x in A
$\exists x \in A \dots$	there exists [= there is] an x in A (such that)
$\exists ! x \in A \dots$	there exists [= there is] a unique x in A (such that)
$\not\exists x \in A \dots$	there is no x in A (such that)
$x > 0 \ \land \ y > 0 \Longrightarrow x + y$	> 0 if both x and y are positive, so is $x+y$
$\nexists x \in \mathbf{Q} x^2 = 2$	no rational number has a square equal to two

 $\nexists x \in \mathbf{Q}$ $x^2 = 2$ $\forall x \in \mathbf{R} \exists y \in \mathbf{Q}$ |x - y| < 2/3 no rational number has a square equal to two for every real number x there exists a rational number y such that the absolute value of x minus y is smaller than two thirds

Exercise. Read out the following statements.

$$\begin{array}{ll} x \in A \cap B \iff (x \in A \wedge x \in B), & x \in A \cup B \iff (x \in A \lor x \in B), \\ \forall x \in \mathbf{R} \quad x^2 \geq 0, & \neg \exists x \in \mathbf{R} \quad x^2 < 0, & \forall y \in \mathbf{C} \; \exists z \in \mathbf{C} \quad y = z^2. \end{array}$$

Basic arguments

It follows from ... that ... We deduce from ... that ... Conversely, ... implies that ... Equality (1) holds, by Proposition 2. By definition, ... The following statements are equivalent. Thanks to ..., the properties ... and ... of ... are equivalent to each other. ... has the following properties. Theorem 1 holds unconditionally. This result is conditional on Axiom A. ... is an immediate consequence of Theorem 3. Note that ... is well-defined, since ... As \ldots satisfies \ldots , formula (1) can be simplified as follows. We conclude (the argument) by combining inequalities (2) and (3). (Let us) denote by X the set of all ... Let X be the set of all \ldots Recall that ..., by assumption. It is enough to show that ... We are reduced to proving that ... The main idea is as follows. We argue by contradiction. Assume that ... exists. The formal argument proceeds in several steps. Consider first the special case when ... The assumptions ... and ... are independent (of each other), since, which proves the required claim. We use induction on n to show that ... On the other hand, ... \ldots , which means that \ldots In other words, ... argument argument assume supposer assumption hypothèse **axiom** axiome case cas special case cas particulier claim v. affirmer (the following) claim l'affirmation suivante; l'assertion suivante concept notion conclude conclure conclusion conclusion condition condition a necessary and sufficient condition une condition nécessaire et suffisante conjecture conjecture

consequence conséquence consider considérer contradict contredire contradiction contradiction conversely réciproquement corollary corollaire deduce déduire **define** définir well-defined bien défini(e) definition définition equivalent équivalent(e) establish établir example exemple exercise exercice explain expliquer explanation explication false faux, fausse formal formel hand main on one hand d'une part on the other hand d'autre part iff [= if and only if] si et seulement si **imply** impliquer, entraîner induction on récurrence sur lemma lemme proof preuve; démonstration **property** propriété satisfy property P satisfaire à la propriété P; vérifier la propriété P**proposition** proposition reasoning raisonnement reduce to se ramener à **remark** remarque(r) **required** réquis(e) **result** résultat s.t. = such that statement énoncé t.f.a.e. = the following are equivalent theorem théorème true vrai truth vérité wlog = without loss of generalityword mot in other words autrement dit

Functions

Formulas/Formulae

f(x)	f of x
g(x,y)	g of x (comma) y
h(2x,3y)	h of two x (comma) three y
$\sin(x)$	sine x
$\cos(x)$	cosine x
$\tan(x)$	tan x
$\arcsin(x)$	arc sine x
$\arccos(x)$	arc cosine x
$\arctan(x)$	arc tan x
$\sinh(x)$	hyperbolic sine x
$\cosh(x)$	hyperbolic cosine x
$\tanh(x)$	hyperbolic tan x
$\sin(x^2)$	sine of x squared
$\sin(x)^2$	sine squared of x; sine x, all squared
$rac{x+1}{ an(y^4)}$	x plus one, all over over tan of y to the four
$3^{x-\cos(2x)}$	three to the (power of) x minus cosine of two x
$\exp(x^3 + y^3)$	exponential of x cubed plus y cubed

Intervals

(a,b)	open interval a b
[a,b]	closed interval a b
(a,b]	half open interval a b (open on the left, closed on the right)
[a,b)	half open interval a b (open on the right, closed on the left)

]a,b[intervalle	ouvert a b						
[a,b]	intervalle	fermé a b						
]a,b]	intervalle	demi ouvert	a b	(ouvert	à	gauche,	fermé	à droite)
[a,b[intervalle	demi ouvert	a b	(ouvert	à	droite,	fermé	à gauche)

Exercise. Which of the two notations do you prefer, and why?

Derivatives

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f^\prime f dash; f prime; the first derivative of f
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¹⁹

$f^{\prime\prime}$	f double dash; f double prime; the second derivative of f
$f^{(3)}$	the third derivative of f
$f^{(n)}$	the n-th derivative of f
$rac{dy}{dx}$	d y by d x; the derivative of y by x
$rac{d^2y}{dx^2}$	the second derivative of y by x; d squared y by d x squared
$rac{\partial f}{\partial x}$	the partial derivative of f by x (with respect to x); partial d f by d x
$rac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$	the second partial derivative of f by x (with respect to x)
	partial d squared f by d x squared
∇f	nabla f; the gradient of f
Δf	delta f

Example. The (total) differential of a function f(x, y, z) in three real variables is equal to

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz.$$

The gradient of f is the vector whose components are the partial derivatives of f with respect to the three variables:

$$\nabla f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right).$$

The Laplace operator Δ acts on f by taking the sum of the second partial derivatives with respect to the three variables:

$$\Delta f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}.$$

The Jacobian matrix of a pair of functions g(x, y), h(x, y) in two real variables is the 2×2 matrix whose entries are the partial derivatives of g and h, respectively, with respect to the two variables:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Integrals

$$\begin{split} &\int f(x)\,dx & \quad \text{integral of f of x d x} \\ &\int_a^b t^2\,dt & \quad \text{integral from a to b of t squared d t} \\ &\iint_S h(x,y)\,dx\,dy & \quad \text{double integral over S of h of x y d x d y} \end{split}$$

Differential equations

An ordinary (resp., a partial) differential equation, abbreviated as ODE (resp., PDE), is an equation involving an unknown function f of one (resp., more than one) variable together with its derivatives (resp., partial derivatives). Its order is the maximal order of derivatives that appear in the equation. The equation is linear if f and its derivatives appear linearly; otherwise it is non-linear.

f' + xf = 0	first order linear ODE
$f'' + \sin(f) = 0$	second order non-linear ODE
$(x^2 + y)\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - (x + y^2)\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} + 1 = 0$	first order linear PDE

The classical linear PDEs arising from physics involve the Laplace operator

$$\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}.$$

$\Delta f = 0$	the Laplace equation
$\Delta f = \lambda f$	the Helmholtz equation
$\Delta g = \frac{\partial g}{\partial t}$	the heat equation
$\Delta g = \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial t^2}$	the wave equation

Above, x, y, z are the standard coordinates on a suitable domain U in \mathbb{R}^3 , t is the time variable, f = f(x, y, z) and g = g(x, y, z, t). In addition, the function f (resp., g) is required to satisfy suitable boundary conditions (resp., initial conditions) on the boundary of U (resp., for t = 0).

act v. agir action action **bound** borne **bounded** borné(e) bounded above borné(e) supérieurement bounded below borné(e) inférieurement **unbounded** non borné(e) comma virgule concave function fonction concave condition condition boundary condition condition au bord initial condition condition initiale **constant** *n*. constante **constant** *adj.* constant(e) **constant function** fonction constant(e) **non-constant** *adj.* non constant(e)

non-constant function fonction non constante **continuous** continu(e) continuous function fonction continue **convex function** fonction convexe decrease *n*. diminution decrease v. décroître decreasing function fonction décroissante strictly decreasing function fonction strictement décroissante derivative dérivée second derivative dérivée seconde *n*-th derivative dérivée *n*-ième partial derivative dérivée partielle differential *n*. différentielle differential form forme différentielle differentiable function fonction dérivable twice differentiable function fonction deux fois dérivable n-times continuously differentiable function fonction n fois continument dérivable domain domaine equation équation the heat equation l'équation de la chaleur the wave equation l'équation des ondes function fonction graph graphe **increase** *n*. croissance increase v. croître increasing function fonction croissante strictly increasing function fonction strictement croissante integral intégrale interval intervalle closed interval intervalle fermé open interval intervalle ouvert half-open interval intervalle demi ouvert Jacobian matrix matrice jacobienne **Jacobian** le jacobien [= le déterminant de la matrice jacobienne] **linear** linéaire non-linear non linéaire **maximum** maximum global maximum maximum global local maximum maximum local minimum minimum global minimum minimum global local minimum minimum local monotone function fonction monotone strictly monotone function fonction strictement monotone

operator opérateur the Laplace operator opérateur de Laplace ordinary ordinaire order ordre otherwise autrement $\mathbf{partial} \quad \mathrm{partiel}(\mathrm{le})$ **PDE** [= partial differential equation] EDP \mathbf{sign} signe value valeur complex-valued function fonction à valeurs complexes real-valued function fonction à valeurs réelles variable variable complex variable variable complexe **real variable** variable réelle function in three variables fonction en trois variables with respect to [= w.r.t.] par rapport à

This is all Greek to me

Small Greek letters used in mathematics

α	alpha	eta	beta	γ	gamma	δ	delta
ϵ, ε	epsilon	ζ	zeta	η	eta	heta, artheta	theta
ι	iota	κ	kappa	λ	lambda	μ	mu
u	nu	ξ	xi	0	omicron	$\pi, arpi$	pi
$ ho, \varrho$	rho	σ	sigma	au	tau	v	upsilon
$\phi, arphi$	phi	χ	chi	ψ	psi	ω	omega

Capital Greek letters used in mathematics

В	Beta	Γ	Gamma	Δ	Delta	Θ	Theta
Λ	Lambda	Ξ	Xi	Π	Pi	Σ	Sigma
Υ	Upsilon	Φ	Phi	Ψ	Psi	Ω	Omega

Sequences, Series

Convergence criteria

By definition, an infinite series of complex numbers $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges (to a complex number s) if the sequence of partial sums $s_n = a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ has a finite limit (equal to s); otherwise it diverges.

The simplest convergence criteria are based on the following two facts.

Fact 1. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$ is convergent, so is $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ (in this case we say that the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is absolutely convergent).

Fact 2. If $0 \le a_n \le b_n$ for all sufficiently large n and if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ converges, so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

Taking $b_n = r^n$ and using the fact that the geometric series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n$ of ratio r is convergent iff |r| < 1, we deduce from Fact 2 the following statements.

The ratio test (d'Alembert). If there exists 0 < r < 1 such that, for all sufficiently large n, $|a_{n+1}| \leq r |a_n|$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is (absolutely) convergent.

The root test (Cauchy). If there exists 0 < r < 1 such that, for all sufficiently large n, $\sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \le r$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ is (absolutely) convergent.

What is the sum $1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots$ equal to?

At first glance, the answer is easy and not particularly interesting: as the partial sums

1,
$$1+2=3$$
, $1+2+3=6$, $1+2+3+4=10$, ...

tend towards plus infinity, we have

$$1+2+3+\cdots = +\infty.$$

It turns out that something much more interesting is going on behind the scenes. In fact, there are several ways of "regularising" this divergent series and they all lead to the following surprising answer:

(the regularised value of) $1+2+3+\cdots = -\frac{1}{12}$.

How is this possible? Let us pretend that the infinite sums

$$a = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \cdots$$

$$b = 1 - 2 + 3 - 4 + \cdots$$

$$c = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots$$

all make sense. What can we say about their values? Firstly, adding c to itself yields

$$c = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots \\ c = 1 - 1 + 1 - \cdots \\ c + c = 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 + \cdots = 1$$
 $\Longrightarrow c = \frac{1}{2}.$

Secondly, computing $c^2 = c(1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots) = c - c + c - c + \cdots$ by adding the infinitely many rows in the following table

$$c = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots$$

-c = -1 + 1 - 1 + ...
c = 1 - 1 + ...
-c = -1 + ...
: ...

we obtain $b = c^2 = \frac{1}{4}$. Alternatively, adding b to itself gives

$$\left. \begin{array}{c} b = 1 - 2 + 3 - 4 + \cdots \\ b = 1 - 2 + 3 - \cdots \\ b + b = 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots = c \end{array} \right\} \Longrightarrow b = \frac{c}{2} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Finally, we can relate a to b, by adding up the following two rows:

Exercise. Using the same method, "compute" the sum

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + \cdots$$

 $\lim_{x \to 1} f(x) = 2$ — the limit of f of x as x tends to one is equal to two

approach approcher close proche arbitrarily close to arbitrairement proche de compare comparer comparison comparaison converge converger convergence convergence criterion (pl. criteria) critère diverge diverger

divergence divergence **infinite** infini(e) infinity l'infini minus infinity moins l'infini **plus infinity** plus l'infini large grand large enough assez grand sufficiently large suffisamment grand limit limite tend to a limit admettre une limite tends to $\sqrt{2}$ tends vers $\sqrt{2}$ **neighbo(u)rhood** voisinage sequence suite bounded sequence suite bornée convergent sequence suite convergente divergent sequence suite divergente unbounded sequence suite non bornée series série absolutely convergent series série absolument convergente geometric series série géométrique sum somme partial sum somme partielle

Prime Numbers

An integer n > 1 is a prime (number) if it cannot be written as a product of two integers a, b > 1. If, on the contrary, n = ab for integers a, b > 1, we say that n is a composite number. The list of primes begins as follows:

 $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61 \dots$

Note the presence of several "twin primes" (pairs of primes of the form p, p + 2) in this sequence:

$$11, 13$$
 $17, 19$ $29, 31$ $41, 43$ $59, 61$

Two fundamental properties of primes – with proofs – were already contained in Euclid's Elements:

Proposition 1. There are infinitely many primes.

Proposition 2. Every integer $n \ge 1$ can be written in a unique way (up to reordering of the factors) as a product of primes.

Recall the proof of Proposition 1: given any finite set of primes p_1, \ldots, p_j , we must show that there is a prime p different from each p_i . Set $M = p_1 \cdots p_j$; the integer $N = M + 1 \ge 2$ is divisible by at least one prime p (namely, the smallest divisor of N greater than 1). If p was equal to p_i for some $i = 1, \ldots, j$, then it would divide both N and $M = p_i(M/p_i)$, hence also N - M = 1, which is impossible. This contradiction implies that $p \ne p_1, \ldots, p_j$, concluding the proof.

The beauty of this argument lies in the fact that we do not need to know in advance any single prime, since the proof works even for j = 0: in this case N = 2 (as the empty product M is equal to 1, by definition) and p = 2.

It is easy to adapt this proof in order to show that there are infinitely many primes of the form 4n + 3 (resp., 6n + 5). It is slightly more difficult, but still elementary, to do the same for the primes of the form 4n + 1 (resp., 6n + 1).

Questions About Prime Numbers

Q1. Given a large integer n (say, with several hundred decimal digits), is it possible to decide whether or not n is a prime?

Yes, there are algorithms for "primality testing" which are reasonably fast both in theory (the Agrawal-Kayal-Saxena test) and in practice (the Miller-Rabin test).

Q2. Is it possible to find concrete large primes?

Searching for huge prime numbers usually involves numbers of special form, such as the Mersenne numbers $M_n = 2^n - 1$ (if M_n is a prime, n is necessarily also a prime). The point is that there is a simple test (the Lucas-Lehmer criterion) for deciding whether M_n is a prime or not.

In practice, if we wish to generate a prime with several hundred decimal digits, it is computationally feasible to pick a number randomly and then apply a primality testing algorithm to numbers in its vicinity (having first eliminated those which are divisible by small primes).

Q3. Given a large integer n, is it possible to make explicit the factorisation of n into a product of primes? [For example, $999\,999 = 3^3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 37$.]

At present, no (unless n has special form). It is an open question whether a fast "prime factorisation" algorithm exists (such an algorithm is known for a hypothetical quantum computer).

Q4. Are there infinitely many primes of special form?

According to Dirichlet's theorem on primes in arithmetic progressions, there are infinitely many primes of the form an + b, for fixed integers $a, b \ge 1$ without a common factor.

It is unknown whether there are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$ (or, more generally, of the form f(n), where f(n) is a polynomial of degree deg(f) > 1).

Similarly, it is unknown whether there are infinitely many primes of the form $2^n - 1$ (the Mersenne primes) or $2^n + 1$ (the Fermat primes).

Q5. Is there anything interesting about primes that one can actually prove?

Green and Tao have recently shown that there are arbitrarily long arithmetic progressions consisting entirely of primes.

digit chiffre
 prime number nombre premier
 twin primes nombres premiers jumeaux
 progression progression

arithmetic progression progression arithmétique geometric progression progression géométrique

Probability and Randomness

Probability theory attempts to describe in quantitative terms various random events. For example, if we roll a die, we expect each of the six possible outcomes to occur with the same probability, namely $\frac{1}{6}$ (this should be true for a fair die; professional gamblers would prefer to use loaded dice, instead).

The following basic rules are easy to remember. Assume that an event A (resp., B) occurs with probability p (resp., q).

Rule 1. If A and B are independent, then the probability of both A and B occurring is equal to pq.

For example, if we roll the die twice in a row, the probability that we get twice 6 points is equal to $\frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{36}$.

Rule 2. If A and B are mutually exclusive (= they can never occur together), then the probability that A or B occurs is equal to p + q.

For example, if we roll the die once, the probability that we get 5 or 6 points is equal to $\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}$.

It turns out that human intuition is not very good at estimating probabilities. Here are three classical examples.

Example 1. The winner of a regular TV show can win a car hidden behind one of three doors. The winner makes a preliminary choice of one of the doors (the "first door"). The show moderator then opens one of the remaining two doors behind which there is no car (the "second door"). Should the winner open the initially chosen first door, or the remaining "third door"?

Example 2. The probability that two randomly chosen people have birthday on the same day of the year is equal to $\frac{1}{365}$ (we disregard the occasional existence of February 29). Given $n \ge 2$ randomly chosen people, what is the probability P_n that at least two of them have birthday on the same day of the year? What is the smallest value of n for which $P_n > \frac{1}{2}$?

Example 3. 100 letters should have been put into 100 addressed envelopes, but the letters got mixed up and were put into the envelopes completely randomly. What is the probability that no (resp., exactly one) letter is in the correct envelope?

See the next page for answers.

coin pièce (de monnaie)	heads face
$\mathbf{toss} = \mathbf{flip} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{coin}$ lancer une pièce	probability probabilité
die (pl. dice) dé	random aléatoire
fair [= unbiased] die dé non pipé	randomly chosen choisi(e) par hasard
biased [= loaded] die dé pipé	tails pile
roll [= throw] a die lancer un dé	with respect to $[=$ w.r.t. $]$ par rapport à

Answer to Example 1. The third door. The probability that the car is behind the first (resp., the second) door is equal to $\frac{1}{3}$ (resp., zero); the probability that it is behind the third one is, therefore, equal to $1 - \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{2}{3}$.

Answer to Example 2. Say, we have n people with respective birthdays on the days D_1, \ldots, D_n . We compute $1 - P_n$, namely, the probability that all the days D_i are distinct. There are 365 possibilities for each D_i . Given D_1 , only 364 possible values of D_2 are distinct from D_1 . Given distinct D_1, D_2 , only 363 possible values of D_3 are distinct from D_1, D_2 . Similarly, given distinct D_1, \ldots, D_{n-1} , only 365 - (n-1) values of D_n are distinct from D_1, \ldots, D_{n-1} . As a result,

$$1 - P_n = \frac{364}{365} \cdot \frac{363}{365} \cdots \frac{365 - (n-1)}{365},$$
$$P_n = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right)$$

One computes that $P_{22} = 0.476...$ and $P_{23} = 0.507...$

In other words, it is more likely than not that a group of 23 randomly chosen people will contain two people who share the same birthday!

Answer to Example 3. Assume that there are N letters and N envelopes (with $N \ge 10$). The probability p_m that there will be exactly m letters in the correct envelopes is equal to

$$p_m = \frac{1}{m!} \left(\frac{1}{0!} - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \dots \pm \frac{1}{(N-m)!} \right)$$

(where $m! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots m$ and 0! = 1, as usual). For small values of m (with respect to N), p_m is very close to the infinite sum

$$q_m = \frac{1}{m!} \left(\frac{1}{0!} - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots \right) = \frac{1}{e \cdot m!} = \frac{1^m}{m!} e^{-1},$$

which is the probability occurring in the Poisson distribution, and which **does not depend** on the (large) number of envelopes.

In particular, both p_0 and p_1 are very close to $q_0 = q_1 = \frac{1}{e} = 0.368...$, which implies that the probability that there will be at most one letter in the correct envelope is greater than 73% !

depend on dépendre de (to be) independent of (d'être) indépendant de correspondence correspondance transcendental transcendant