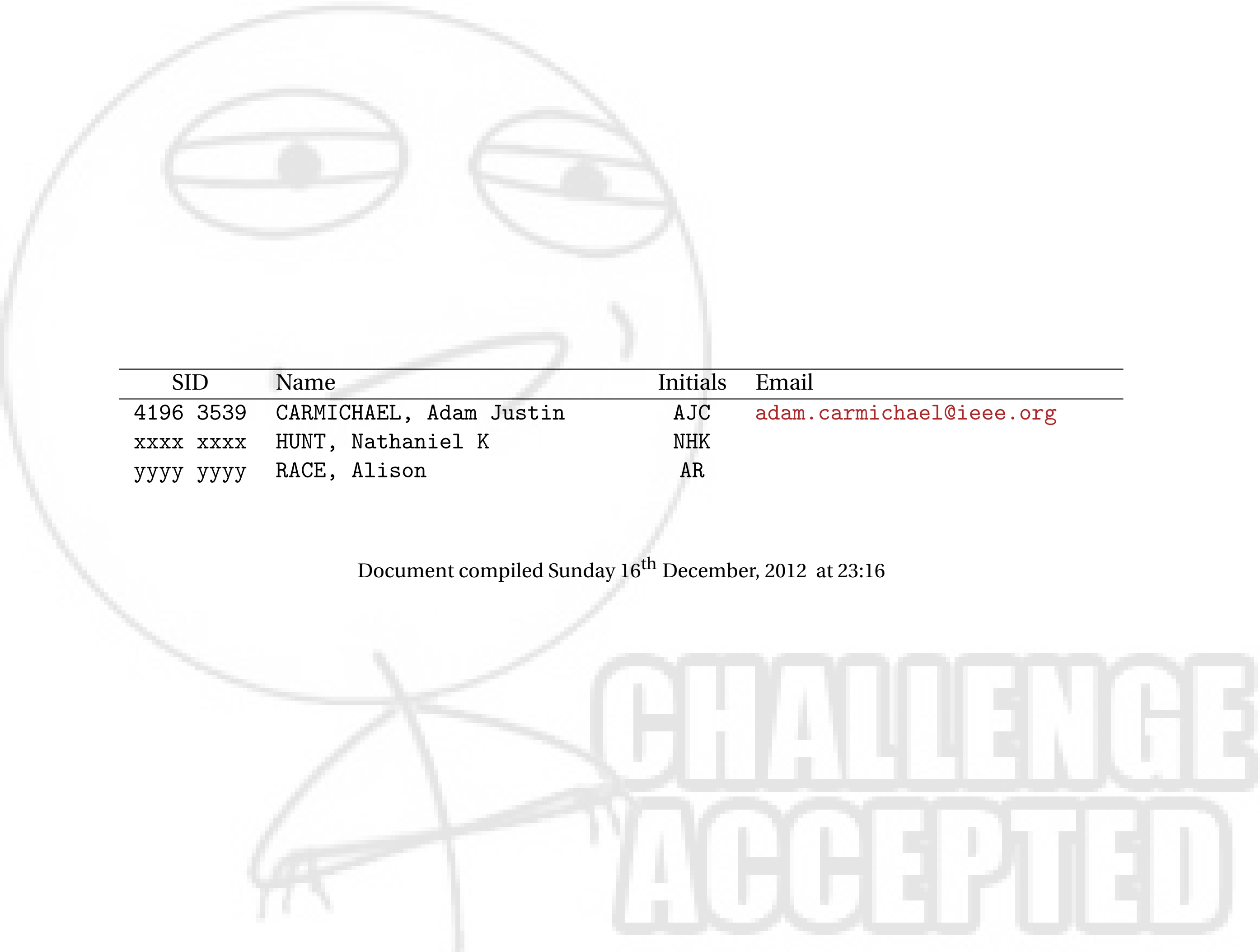
Macquarie University

Grokking MATH135

A very unofficial textbook.



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CHAPTER 1

TRIGONOMETRY REVIEW

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

Big Ideas:

- Radians and arc length are interrelated. There are 2π radians in a circle.
- An angle subtended by θ will have arc length θ.
- $\cos(\theta) = y$-ordinate, $\sin(\theta) = x$-ordinate
- $\tan(\theta) = \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\cos(\theta)} = \frac{y}{x}$
- Pythagorean Identities (page 5) are worth learning!

1.1 Radian & Arc Length

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 1-2`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

Radians and arc length are interrelated. There are 2π radians in a circle, that is a semi-circle has about 3.14 radians (π radians to be exact).

In areas of maths, science and engineering radians are used as the main unit of measurement of angles rather than degrees, as such it can be handy to know how to convert between the two units.

$$\text{degrees} = \text{radians} \times \frac{180}{\pi} \tag{1.1}$$

$$\text{radians} = \text{degrees} \times \frac{\pi}{180} \tag{1.2}$$

Aside from the conversion formula, it is also useful to remember the following special values:

$$\frac{\pi}{6} = 30^\circ \tag{1.3}$$

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 45^\circ \tag{1.4}$$

$$\frac{\pi}{3} = 60^\circ \tag{1.5}$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2} = 30^\circ \tag{1.6}$$

$$\pi = 180^\circ \tag{1.7}$$

$$2\pi = 360^\circ \tag{1.8}$$

1.2 The Unit Circle

In high school we learned that trigonometry was about angles of triangles, and while this remains true, we look at it in the context of circles. Consider a special circle called *the unit circle*. See (ref fig 1.2 page 5). If we run a vertical line from each point in the unit circle to the line $y = 0$, the triangle is formed.

1.3 Trigonometric Functions

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 2-4`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

Looking at the unit circle, an angle is defined by the two points, the first at the origin $(0,0)$, the second is $(\cos\theta), \sin\theta)$. That is to say

$$x = \cos\theta \quad \text{and} \qquad y = \sin\theta \tag{1.9}$$

Additionally, we can define $\tan\theta$:

$$\tan\theta = \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} = \frac{y}{x} \tag{1.10}$$

Finally there are the inverse trigonometric functions:

$$\sec\theta = \frac{1}{\cos\theta} = \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{and} \qquad \csc\theta = \frac{1}{\sin\theta} = \frac{1}{y} \tag{1.11}$$

$$\cot\theta = \frac{\cos\theta}{\sin\theta} = \frac{x}{y} \tag{1.12}$$

Note: $\tan\theta$ and $\sec\theta$ are defined only when $\cos\theta \neq 0$ and $\cot\theta$ and $\csc\theta$ are defined only when $\sin\theta \neq 0$.

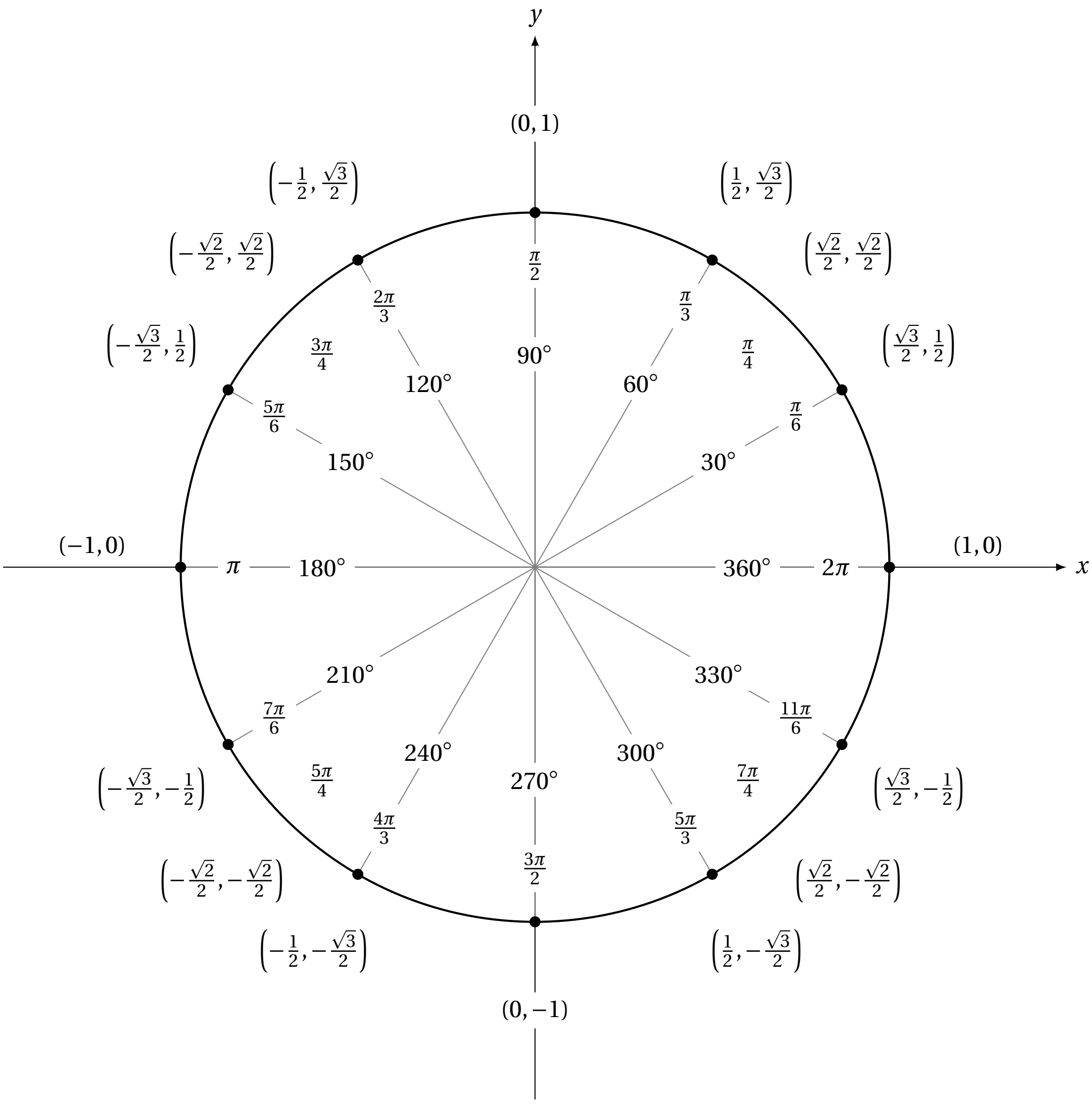

Figure 1.1: The Unit Circle, courtesy of Supreme Ayal, TiKZ Examples [**?**]

1.4 Pythagorean Identities

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 4-5`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

$$\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1 \tag{1.13}$$

By dividing 1.13 by $\cos^2\theta$ we get:

$$1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta \tag{1.14}$$

By dividing 1.13 by $\sin^2\theta$ we get:

$$1+\cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta \tag{1.15}$$

1.5 Properties of Trigonometric Functions

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 5-10`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

Properties of $\sin\theta$

$$\cos(\theta+2\pi) = \cos\theta \tag{1.16}$$
$$\cos(-\theta) = -\cos\theta \tag{1.17}$$
$$\cos(\theta+\pi) = -\cos\theta \tag{1.18}$$
$$\cos(\pi-\theta) = \cos\theta \tag{1.19}$$

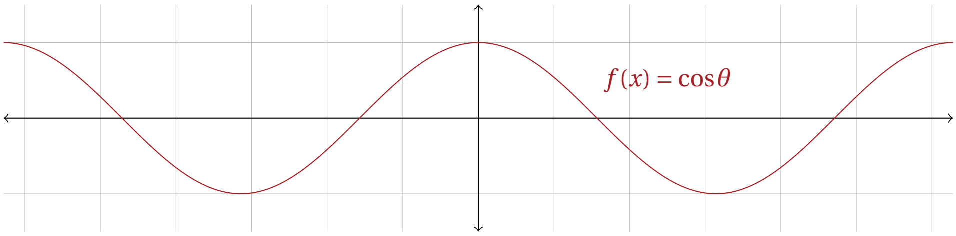

Figure 1.2: $f(x) = \cos\theta$

Properties of $\cos\theta$

$$\sin(\theta+2\pi) = \sin\theta \tag{1.20}$$
$$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin\theta \tag{1.21}$$
$$\sin(\theta+\pi) = -\sin\theta \tag{1.22}$$
$$\sin(\pi-\theta) = \sin\theta \tag{1.23}$$

Properties of $\tan\theta$

$$\tan(\theta+\pi) = \tan\theta \tag{1.24}$$
$$\tan(-\theta) = -\tan\theta \tag{1.25}$$
$$\tan(\pi-\theta) = -\tan\theta \tag{1.26}$$

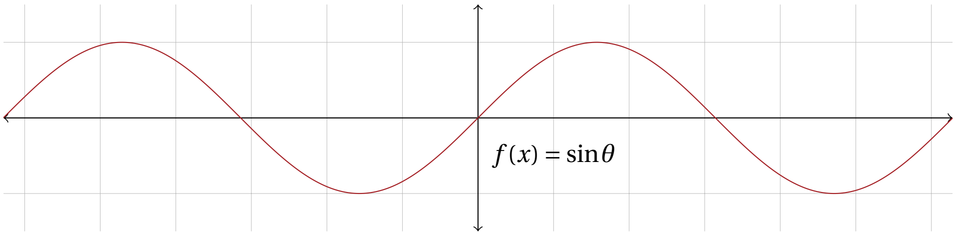

Figure 1.3: $f(x) = \sin\theta$

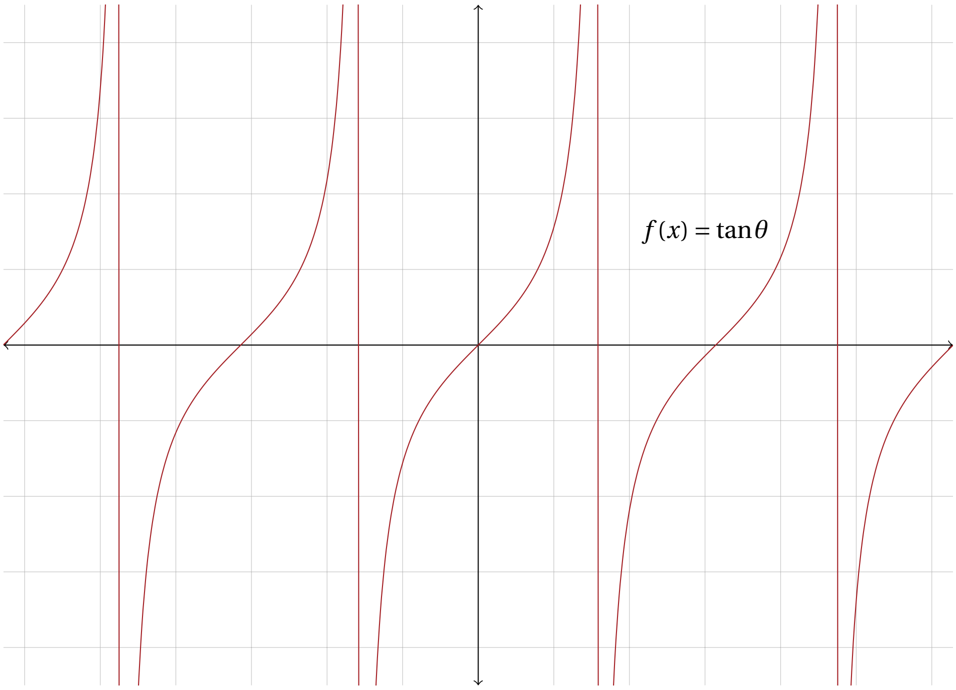

Figure 1.4: $f(x) = \tan\theta$

1.6 Trigonometric Identities

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 11`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

Sine Rule

$$\frac{a}{\sin(A)} = \frac{b}{\sin(B)} = \frac{c}{\sin(C)} \tag{1.27}$$

Cosine Rule

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc\cos(A) \tag{1.28}$$

$$b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac\cos(B) \tag{1.29}$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos(C) \tag{1.30}$$

Angle Sum & Difference Identities

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 12`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

$$\sin(A \pm B) = \sin(A)\cos(\mathrm{B}) \pm \cos(A)\sin(B) \tag{1.31}$$

$$\cos(A \pm B) = \cos(A)\cos(\mathrm{B}) \mp \sin(A)\sin(B) \tag{1.32}$$

Double Angle Identity

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 12`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

$$\sin(2\theta) = 2\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) \tag{1.33}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(2\theta) &= \cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta) && (1.34)\\ &= 1 - 2\sin^(\theta) && (1.35)\\ &= 2c\cos^2(\theta) - 1 && (1.36) \end{aligned}$$

Half Angle Identity

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym01.pdf’’ pp 13-15`, `http://goo.gl/wyojl`

$$\sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{1-\cos(\theta)}{2} \tag{1.37}$$

$$\cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) = \frac{1+\cos(\theta)}{2} \tag{1.38}$$

CHAPTER 2

POLYNOMIALS

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’`, `http://goo.gl/jHCXo`

Big Ideas:

- An expression of finite length constructed from variables and constants using only addition, subtraction, multiplication and non-negative integer powers.
- The highest power of a variable indicates the polynomials *degree*.
- Determining the *roots* of a poloynomial tells us where a polynomial equation intersects the x-axis.
- Polynomials of degree 2 are called *quadratic*.
- Polynomials of degree 3 are called *cubic*.

2.1 Polynomial Equations

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 3-4.`

An equation in the form $ax + b = 0$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ and $a \neq 0$ is called a *linear equation* or *linear polynomial equation*. It has a degree of 1 (that is, the power of x is 1). We can determine the value of x:

$$ax + b = 0 \tag{2.1}$$

$$ax = -b \tag{2.2}$$

$$x = -\frac{b}{x} \tag{2.3}$$

An equation in the form $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{F}$ are constants and $a \neq 0$ is called a *quadratic equation*. To solve such an equation we use the *quadratic formula*:

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \tag{2.4}$$

Where $b^2 - 4ac$ (called the *determinant*) is greater than or equal to 0. This will yield two solutions:

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

and

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

However, equation 2.4 is the most compact and easiest to remember.

If the determinant < 0, then it indicates there are no roots exist in the real plane ($\mathbb{R}$) and that a complex plane ($\mathbb{C}$) solution exists.

For polynomials of degree 3 or more there is no general formula for a solution, however division of polynomials allows us to reduce polynomials of a higher degree to a factor and a lesser degree. By iteratively reducing polynomials we can eventually find all roots.

2.2 Polynomial Division

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 4-6.`

Remember long division from primary school? By the time we get to university most of us have forgotten. Checkout `http://goo.gl/TvDoI` for a Kahn Academy video on how to do it using just plain numbers. It is well worth the refresher even if you think you can remember how it works.

There is a simple recursive algorithm for polynomial long division, consisting of 3 steps which are repeated until either a divide by zero, or a remainder occurs.[1]

Jaye's Algorithm:

1. Divide the next term numerator (the part under the long line) by the first term in the denominator. Write the result above the long line.

2. Multiply the result by the denominator and then by -1. Write the result underneath the term(s) operated on, underlining any new terms.

3. Perform a simple addition, carrying anything down below the line.

Rinse and repeat these 3 steps underneath your new long line.

The following example comes from Purple Math, `http://goo.gl/GPi0z`: Suppose we wish to divide $\frac{x^2-9x-10}{x+1}$:

1. First write the polynomial in the form:

   $$x+1\overline{\big)\ x^2 \quad -9x-10}$$

   We will look only at the leading x in the divisor and the leading x^2 in the numerator.

[1] I call this algorithm Jaye's Algorithm because Jaye, a 9 year old at the time, helped me memorise it a few weeks before writing it down.

2. We want to divide the x^2 in the numerator by the x in the denominator. $\frac{x^2}{x} = x$ so we write the resulting x above the line.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x \\ \hline x+1) & x^2 \;-9x-10 \end{array}$$

3. Now we must take care of the $+1$ in the denominator. Multiply the result above the line by -1 and multiply again by the denominator:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x \\ \hline x+1) & x^2 \;-9x-10 \\ & \underline{-x^2 \;\; -x} \end{array}$$

4. Perform the subtraction as we would a normal sum carrying anything to the right down:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x \\ \hline x+1) & x^2 \;-9x-10 \\ & \underline{-x^2 \;\; -x} \\ & \quad -10x-10 \end{array}$$

5. Divide $-10x-10$ by x goes -10 times, so write -10 above the line

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x-10 \\ \hline x+1) & x^2 \;-9x-10 \\ & \underline{-x^2 \;\; -x} \\ & \quad -10x-10 \end{array}$$

6. Multiply -10 by -1 and then again by $(x+1)$:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x-10 \\ \hline x+1) & x^2 \;-9x-10 \\ & \underline{-x^2 \;\; -x} \\ & \quad -10x-10 \\ & \quad \underline{\;\;10x+10} \\ & \qquad\qquad 0 \end{array}$$

7. **The zero means there is no remainder, and we are done.**

Another example of polynomial long division, taken from the same site as above, to divide $\frac{x^2+9x+14}{x+7}$

1. Write out in the standard form:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \end{array}$$

2. Next divide $\frac{x^2}{x} = x$ and write above the line.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \end{array}$$

3. Multiply $-x$ by $x+7$ and write underneath:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & \quad x \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \\ & \underline{-x^2-7x} \end{array}$$

4. Perform the addition:

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & x \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \\ & -x^2-7x \\ \hline & \quad 2x+14 \end{array}$$

5. Divide $\frac{2x}{x}=2$

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & x \quad +2 \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \\ & -x^2-7x \\ \hline & \quad 2x+14 \end{array}$$

6. Multiply -2 by $x+7$ and write underneath, and we can see there is no remainder.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & x \quad +2 \\ \hline x+7) & x^2+9x+14 \\ & -x^2-7x \\ \hline & \quad 2x+14 \\ & \quad -2x-14 \\ \hline & \quad\quad 0 \end{array}$$

Sometimes there are tricky ones where you might have some terms with a coefficient of zero, such as $\frac{2x^3-9x^2+15}{2x-5}$. Here x^1 does not appear as a part of numerator, but we can rewrite it as $\frac{2x^3-9x^2+0x+15}{2x-5}$. With problems such as these, it is easiest to keep your writing neat and in columns. Where you might see $0x$ you can just as easily substitute a bit of whitespace.

$$\begin{array}{r|l} & x^2 \quad -2x \quad -5 \\ \hline 2x-5) & 2x^3-9x^2 \qquad +15 \\ & -2x^3+5x^2 \\ \hline & \quad -4x^2 \\ & \quad 4x^2-10x \\ \hline & \qquad -10x+15 \\ & \qquad 10x-25 \\ \hline & \qquad\quad -10 \end{array}$$

This example also shows a remainder of -10. The final answer could also be written as one of two ways, either:

1. $x^2-2x-5-\left(\frac{10}{2x-5}\right)$ – or –
2. x^2-2x-5 r 10

Though the first method is probably better as it is less confusing sans the letter "r".

2.3 Polynomial Roots

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 6-8.`

2.4 Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 7.`

2.5 Roots of Real Polynomials

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 7-8.`

2.6 More Polynomial Roots

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 8.`

2.7 Rational Functions

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 8-11.`

2.8 Greatest Common Divisor

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 12-13.`
Further reading: `Kenneth H ROSEN ‘‘Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications 6e’’, Chapter Primes and Greatest Common Divisors, pp 210-227.`

Definition: Let a and b be integers no both zero. The largest integer d such that $d|a$[a] and $d|b$ is called the greatest common divisor of a and b, denoted as $\gcd(a,b)$.

[a] read as d divides a

There are many ways to determine the gcd of two numbers, including a products of primes and Euclid's algorithm. Euclid's algorithm is by far the most efficient and is discussed in the next subsection.

Euclid's Algorithm

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘mtfym02.pdf’’ pp 12-13.`
Further reading: `Rosen ‘‘Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications’’, 6e, pp 227-229`

Euclid's algorithm is recursive, and consists of 2 steps:

Euclid's algorithm:

1. Divide the larger of the two numbers by the smaller of the two numbers, and add the remainder onto the end.
2. Find the gcd of the remainder and the smaller of the two original numbers.

In summary:

$$\text{Let } a = bq + r \quad | \quad a, b, q, r \in \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{Then } \gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b,r) \tag{2.5}$$

The following example comes from ROSEN p 229:

$$662 = 414 \cdot 1 + 248 \tag{2.6}$$
$$414 = 248 \cdot 1 + 166 \tag{2.7}$$
$$248 = 166 \cdot 1 + 82 \tag{2.8}$$
$$166 = 82 \cdot 2 + 2 \tag{2.9}$$
$$82 = 2 \cdot 41 \tag{2.10}$$

2 is the last non-zero remainder, therefore gcd(414,662) = 2.

Chapter 3

Complex Numbers

Further reading: Chen & Duong "em09-cn.pdf", http://goo.gl/C5rfq
Further reading: Chen & Duong "fyc01.pdf", http://goo.gl/e0E7y
Further reading: Chris Cooper "LINALG03 Complex Numbers", http://goo.gl/N85u0

Big Ideas:

- Complex numbers are created to solve what would otherwise be unsolveable equations because we cannot square any number in $\mathbb{R}$ to get a negative number.
- Complex numbers are made of two parts, a real part and an imaginary part (i).
- i exhibits ring-like behaviour when raised to powers.
- A complex number resembles the form:

$$z = x + y\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.1}$$

- Rules exist for adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing complex numbers.
- Complex numbers fall into their own special set of numbers $\mathbb{C}$.
- Complex numbers have a "twin" called a *complex conjugate*, suppose we have:

$$z = (x + y\mathrm{i})$$

  then the conjugate is:

$$\overline{z} = (x - y\mathrm{i})$$

When we square any number in the real number plane, we *always* get a postive number. This begs the question, how do we square root a negative number? Previously, a problem such as

$$i^2 + 1 = 0 \tag{3.2}$$
$$i^2 = -1 \tag{3.3}$$

Would be left with “no real solution” as an answer in a paper. While this is true, we **can in fact find a solution**. It just happens to be outside of the real plane and is defined exactly as:

$$i = \sqrt{-1} \tag{3.4}$$

This gives rise to a very interesting property...What if we were to square i? We already know, the answer from equation 3.3

$$i^2 = -1 \tag{3.5}$$

What about if we cube i?

$$i^3 = i * i^2 \tag{3.6}$$
$$= i * -1 \tag{3.7}$$
$$= -i \tag{3.8}$$

What if we go again?

$$i^4 = i^2 * i^2 \tag{3.9}$$
$$= -1 * -1 \tag{3.10}$$
$$= 1 \tag{3.11}$$

And again?

$$i^5 = i * i^4 \tag{3.12}$$
$$= i * 1 \tag{3.13}$$
$$= i \tag{3.14}$$

This repetitive behaviour is called a *ring* and is cyclic for every 4^{th} power of i. Remember this fact, it will become useful in later trigonometry.

Ring behaviour of powers of i:

$$i^0 = 1 \tag{3.15}$$
$$i^1 = i \tag{3.16}$$
$$i^2 = -1 \tag{3.17}$$
$$i^3 = -i \tag{3.18}$$
$$i^4 = 1 \tag{3.19}$$
$$i^5 = i \tag{3.20}$$
$$i^6 = -1 \tag{3.21}$$
$$i^7 = -i \tag{3.22}$$
$$i^8 = 1 \tag{3.23}$$

Why does this work so neatly? Consider our basic index laws and apply to numbers between 0 and 3 inclusive:

$$i^{a+b} = i^a * i^b \quad | \quad a, b \in [0,3] \tag{3.24}$$

3.1 Arithmetic of Complex Numbers

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘em09-cn.pdf’’ pp 1-2.`
Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘fyc01.pdf’’ pp 6-8.`

Addition Rule:

$$(a + b\mathrm{i}) + (c + d\mathrm{i}) = (a + c) + (b + d)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.25}$$

Subtraction Rule:

$$(a + b\mathrm{i}) - (c + d\mathrm{i}) = (a - c) + (b - d)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.26}$$

Multiplication Rule:

$$(a + b\mathrm{i}) \cdot (c + d\mathrm{i}) = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.27}$$

Division Rule:

$$\frac{(a + b\mathrm{i})}{(c + d\mathrm{i})} = x + y\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.28}$$

such that

$$a + b\mathrm{i} = (c + d\mathrm{i})(x + y\mathrm{i}) = (cx - dy)(cy + dx)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.29}$$

It follows that

$$a = cx - dy \tag{3.30}$$
$$b = cy + dx \tag{3.31}$$

With the solution:

$$x = \frac{ac + bd}{c^2 + d^2} \quad \text{and} \quad y = \frac{bc - ad}{c^2 + d^2} \tag{3.32}$$

3.2 Complex Conjugates

Complex numbers have a “twin” called a *complex conjugate*, suppose we have:

$$z = (x + y\mathrm{i})$$

then the conjugate is:

$$\overline{z} = (x - y\mathrm{i})$$

Conjugates exhibit special properties, they are:

$$\overline{z+w} = \overline{z} + \overline{w} \tag{3.33}$$

and

$$\overline{z \cdot w} = \overline{z} \cdot \overline{w} \tag{3.34}$$

Proof of equation 3.33 is as follows:

$$\text{Let: } z = x + y\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.35}$$
$$\text{Let: } w = u + v\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad u, v \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.36}$$
$$\overline{z+w} = \overline{(x+u) + (y+v)\mathrm{i}} \tag{3.37}$$
$$= (x+u) - (y+v)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.38}$$
$$= (x - y\mathrm{i}) + (u - v\mathrm{i}) \tag{3.39}$$
$$= \overline{z} + \overline{w} \tag{3.40}$$

□

Proof of equation 3.34 is as follows:

$$\text{Let: } z = x + y\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.41}$$
$$\text{Let: } w = u + v\mathrm{i} \quad | \quad u, v \in \mathbb{R} \tag{3.42}$$
$$\overline{z \cdot w} = \overline{(x + y\mathrm{i})(u + v\mathrm{i})} \tag{3.43}$$
$$= \overline{(xu - yv) + (xv + yu)\mathrm{i}} \tag{3.44}$$
$$= (xu - yv) - (xv + yu)\mathrm{i} \tag{3.45}$$
$$= (x - y\mathrm{i})(u - v\mathrm{i}) \tag{3.46}$$
$$= \overline{z} \cdot \overline{w} \tag{3.47}$$

□

CHAPTER 4

Complex Plane

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘em09-cn.pdf’’ pp 3-4.`
Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘fyc01.pdf’’ pp 8-11.`

Big Ideas:

- Complex numbers take the form $(a + b\text{i})$.
- We can represent x and y ordinates in the real plane ($\mathbb{R}^2$) in the form $(x + y\text{i})$.
- x is called the real part (represented by $\mathfrak{Re}[z]$)
- y is called the imaginary part (represented by $\mathfrak{Im}[z]$)
- Plotting these on an x, y axis is called an *Argand diagram*.
- Polar coordinates use two variables, (r, θ) to describe a point.
- θ is an angle measured in radians
- r is a length.
- Conversion between polar coordinates and Cartesian coordinates is done using Pythagoras theorem or trigonmetry.

4.1 Argand Diagrams

Complex numbers consist of two parts, such as $z = (x + y\text{i})$. Suppose we were to plot both x and y ordinates on an x, y plane as seen in figure 4.1.

Following our addition rules in section 3.1 (page 17), we can add, two complex numbers as seen in figure 4.2.

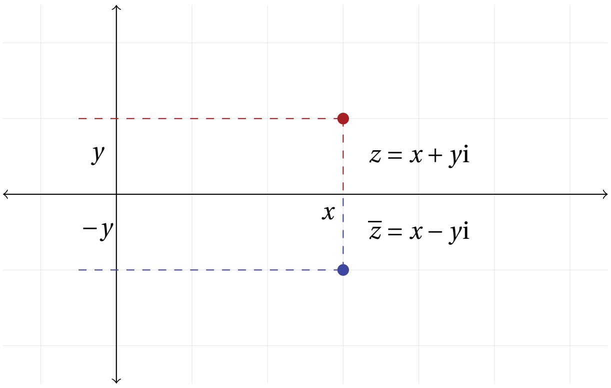

Figure 4.1: Argand Diagram, z, and complex conjugate $\overline{z}$.

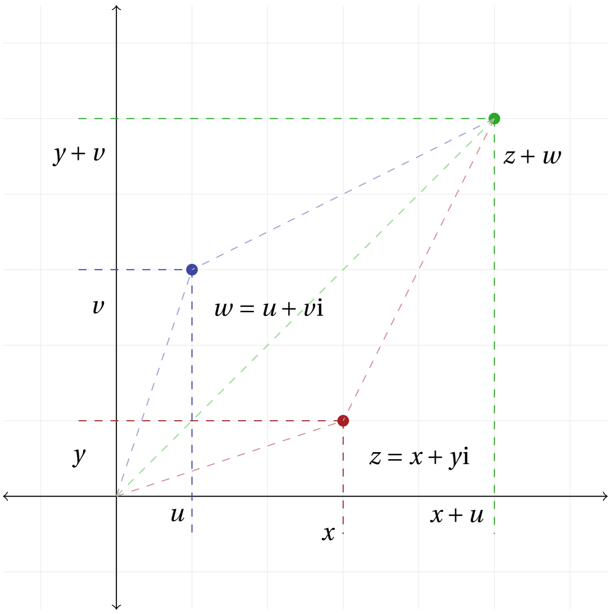

Figure 4.2: Addition of two complex numbers in an Argand Diagram

The working for 4.2 is as follows:

$$\text{Let: } z = x + y\mathrm{i} \tag{4.1}$$
$$\text{Let: } w = u + v\mathrm{i} \tag{4.2}$$

By the addition rule:

$$(x + y\mathrm{i}) + (u + v\mathrm{i}) = x + u + y\mathrm{i} + v\mathrm{i} \tag{4.3}$$
$$= (x + u) + (y + v)\mathrm{i} \tag{4.4}$$

4.2 Polar Coordinates

1. Polar coordinates use two variables, (r, θ) to describe a point.
2. r is a length.
3. θ is an angle

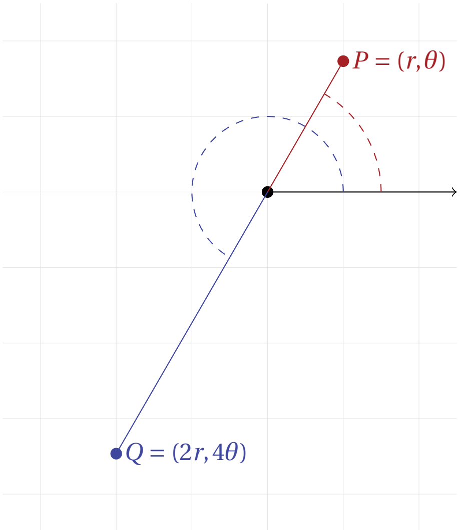

Figure 4.3: Two polar coordinates. Note how r, the radius, is specified first followed by the angle.

Converting between polar coordinates and cartesian coordinates is a matter of applying some trigonometry but is summarised as follows:

$$x = r\cos\theta \tag{4.5}$$
$$y = r\sin\theta \tag{4.6}$$

Iff $r \geq 0$ and $-\pi \leq \theta < \pi$ we can also convert to Cartesian coordinates as follows:

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \tag{4.7}$$
$$\theta = \begin{cases} \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \arctan\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) + \pi & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y \geq 0 \\ \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) - \pi & \text{if } x < 0 \text{ and } y < 0 \\ \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y > 0 \\ -\frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ and } y = 0 \end{cases} \tag{4.8}$$

4.3 Modulus

Consider diagram 4.4:

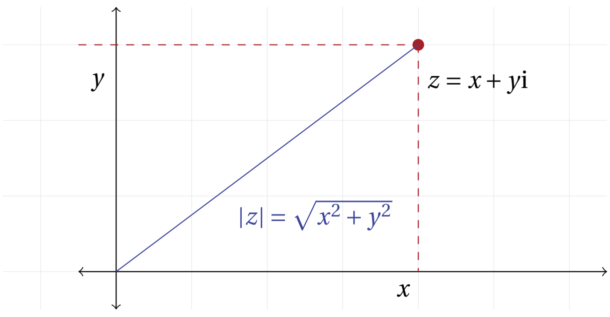

Figure 4.4: The modulus, $|z|$, is given by Pythagoras' theorem

4.4 Euler's Formula

Euler's Formula: Euler was this dude who had a formula:

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta \tag{4.9}$$

In the context of the unit circle, projected onto an Argand diagram, it starts to form an important relationship shown in figure 4.5.

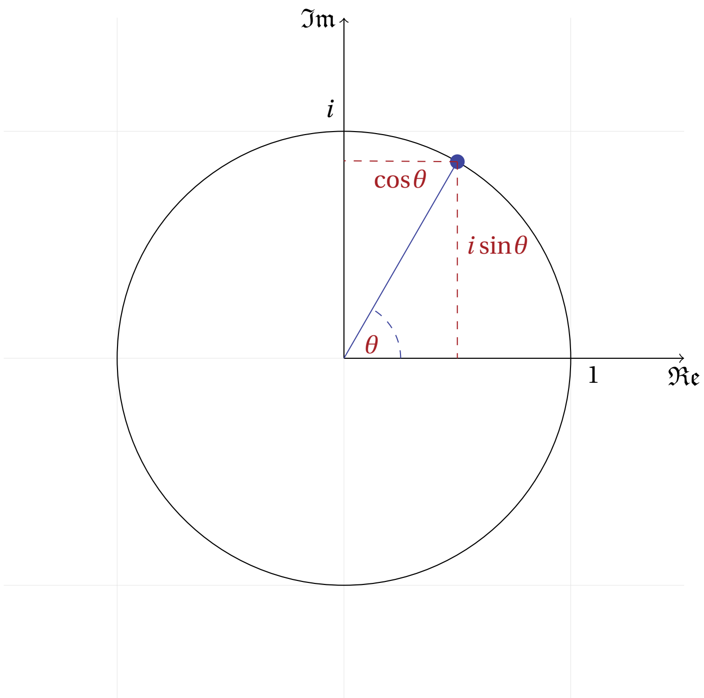

Figure 4.5: Euler's Formula plotted on an Argand diagram

CHAPTER 5

de Moivre's Theorem & Roots of Complex Numbers

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ''fyc01.pdf''`, `http://goo.gl/e0E7y`

Big Ideas:

- de Moivre was this dude who had a theorem.

5.1 de Moivre's Theorem

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ''fyc01.pdf'' pp 12.`

5.2 Finding Roots of Complex Numbers

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ''fyc01.pdf'' pp 12-14.`

5.3 Analytic Geometry

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ''fyc01.pdf'' pp 14-15.`

CHAPTER 6

LINEAR EQUATIONS

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’, http://goo.gl/N7S2s

Big Ideas:

- Linear equations are often called a *system of linear equations* when equations are linked together.
- A system of equations can be represented in a *matrix*.

6.1 System of Linear Equations as Matrices

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 1-3.

6.2 Elementary Row Operations

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 3-6.

6.3 Row Echelon Form

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 6-10.

6.4 Reduced Row Echelon Form

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 11-12.

6.5 Solving a System of Linear Equations

Further reading: Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 12-15.

6.6 Homogeneous Systems

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 15-16.`

CHAPTER 7

MATRICES & LINEAR EQUATIONS

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 8

APPLICATION OF LINEAR EQUATIONS

Big Ideas:

-

8.1 Application to Network Flow

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 16-18.`

8.2 Application to Electric Circuits

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 18-21.`

8.3 Application to Economics

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 21-22.`

8.4 Application to Chemistry

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 22-23.`

8.5 Application to Mechanics

Further reading: `Chen & Duong ‘‘la01.pdf’’ pp 23-25.`

CHAPTER 9

ARITHMETIC OF MATRICES

Big Ideas:

-

Chapter 10

Determinant of a Matrix

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 11

VECTORS

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 12

Vectors & Geometry

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 13

Combinatorics & Binomial Theorem

Further reading: `Chris Cooper ‘‘ALG03 The Binomial Theorem’’`, `http://goo.gl/bqTQH`

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 14

Real Numbers

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 15

INDUCTION

Big Ideas:

- POMI establishes that a given statement is true for all $\mathbb{N}$.
- Start by proving (or assuming if given) that the first statement is true. This statement is called the **basis** or **base case**
- Next prove that **any one** statement then so is the next statement. This is known as the **inductive step**.

CHAPTER 16

FUNCTIONS

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 17

LIMITS

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 18

CONTINUITY

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 19

DIFFERENTIABILITY

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 20

Stationary Points

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 21

Curve Sketching

Big Ideas:

-

Chapter 22

Applications of the Derivative

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 23

ANTIDERIVATIVES

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 24

Techniques of Integration

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 25

SEPARABLE DIFFERENTIABLE EQUATIONS

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 26

Area Under a Curve

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 27

VOLUME OF SOLIDS OF REVOLUTION

Big Ideas:

-

CHAPTER 28

More Applications of Integration

Big Ideas:

-

Chapter 29

Glossary

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Symbol	Name	LaTeX
$\mathbb{A}$	Blackboard A	\mathbb{A}
$\mathbb{B}$	Blackboard B	\mathbb{B}
$\mathbb{C}$	Blackboard C	\mathbb{C}
$\mathbb{D}$	Blackboard D	\mathbb{D}
$\mathbb{E}$	Blackboard E	\mathbb{E}
$\mathbb{F}$	Blackboard F	\mathbb{F}
$\mathbb{G}$	Blackboard G	\mathbb{G}
$\mathbb{H}$	Blackboard H	\mathbb{H}
$\mathbb{I}$	Blackboard I	\mathbb{I}
$\mathbb{J}$	Blackboard J	\mathbb{J}
$\mathbb{K}$	Blackboard K	\mathbb{K}
$\mathbb{L}$	Blackboard L	\mathbb{L}
$\mathbb{M}$	Blackboard M	\mathbb{M}
$\mathbb{N}$	Blackboard N	\mathbb{N}
$\mathbb{O}$	Blackboard O	\mathbb{O}
$\mathbb{P}$	Blackboard P	\mathbb{P}
$\mathbb{Q}$	Blackboard Q	\mathbb{Q}
$\mathbb{R}$	Blackboard R	\mathbb{R}
$\mathbb{S}$	Blackboard S	\mathbb{S}
$\mathbb{T}$	Blackboard T	\mathbb{T}
$\mathbb{U}$	Blackboard U	\mathbb{U}
$\mathbb{V}$	Blackboard V	\mathbb{V}
$\mathbb{W}$	Blackboard W	\mathbb{W}
$\mathbb{X}$	Blackboard X	\mathbb{X}
$\mathbb{Y}$	Blackboard Y	\mathbb{Y}
$\mathbb{Z}$	Blackboard Z	\mathbb{Z}

Table 29.1: Blackboard letters. Blackboard notation must be inside math mode.

Greek Uppercase	Lowercase	Name	LaTeX(Upper)	LaTeX(Lower)
A	α	Alpha	A	\alpha
B	β	Beta	B	\beta
Γ	γ	Gamma	\Gamma	\gamma
Δ	δ	Delta	\Delta	\delta
E	ϵ	Epsilon	E	\epsilon
	ε	Epsilon Variant		\varepsilon
Z	ζ	Zeta	Z	\zeta
H	η	Eta	H	\eta
Θ	θ	Theta	\Theta	\theta
	ϑ	Theta Variant		\vartheta
I	ι	Iota	I	\iota
K	κ	Kappa	K	\kappa
	$\varkappa$	Kappa Variant		\varkappa
Λ	λ	Lambda	\Lambda	\lambda
M	μ	Mu	M	\mu
N	ν	Nu	N	\nu
Ξ	ξ	Xi	\Xi	\xi
O	o	Omicron	O	o
Π	π	Pi	\Pi	\pi
	ϖ	Pi Variant		\varpi
P	ρ	Rho	P	\rho
	ϱ	Rho Variant		\varrho
Σ	σ	Sigma	\Sigma	\sigma
	ς	Sigma Variant		\varsigma
T	τ	Tau	T	\tau
Υ	υ	Upsilon	\Upsilon	\upsilon
Φ	ϕ	Phi	\Phi	\phi
	φ	Phi Variant		\varphi
X	χ	Chi	X	\chi
Ψ	ψ	Psi	\Psi	\psi
Ω	ω	Omega	\Omega	\omega

Table 29.2: The Greek alphabet.

Symbol	My LaTeX	LaTeX	Description
$\mathfrak{Re}$	`$\Re$`	`$\operatorname{\mathfrak{Re}}$`	Real part of a number
$\mathfrak{Im}$	`$\Im$`	`$\operatorname{\mathfrak{Im}}$`	Imaginary part of a number

Table 29.3: Real and Imaginary symbols