

Notes: These are rough notes for the Math 1113

Precalculus course at the University of Georgia

## **Precalculus**

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# 1 | Preface

# 2 | Unit 1: Functions

#### Theorem 2.0.1 (The Pythagorean Theorem).

If a, b are the legs of a right triangle with hypotenuse c, there is a relation

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$
.

#### Theorem 2.0.2 (The Distance Formula).

If  $p = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $q = (x_2, y_2)$  are points in the Cartesian plane, then there is a **distance** function

 $d: \{ \text{Pairs of points } (p,q) \} \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$(p,q) \mapsto d(p,q) := \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_q)^2}.$$

Law of cosines

#### **Definition 2.0.3** (Linear Functions)

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is **linear** if and only if f has a formula of the following form:

$$f(x) = \alpha x + \beta$$

$$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$
.

#### **Definition 2.0.4** (Intercepts)

Given a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , an x-intercept of f is a point  $(x_0, 0)$  on the graph of f, so  $f(x_0) = 0$ . Equivalently, it is a point on the intersection of the graph and the x-axis.

A y-intercept of f is a point  $(0, y_0)$  on the graph of f, so  $f(0) = y_0$ . Equivalently, it is a point on the intersection of the graph and the y-axis.

#### **Definition 2.0.5** (Relation)

A **relation** on two sets X and Y is a set of ordered pairs  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ , so R can be described as a set:

$$R = \{(x_0, y_0), (x_1, y_2), \cdots\}.$$

The **domain** of the relation is the set of all  $x \in X$  that occur in the first slot of these pairs, and the **range** is the set of all  $y \in Y$  that occur in the second slot.

#### **Definition 2.0.6** (Function)

A relation R is a function if it satisfies the following deterministic property: for every  $x_0 \in$ 

Preface 3

dom(R), there is exactly one pair of the form  $(x_0, y_0) \in R$ .

**Remark 2.0.7:** This says we can think of X as "inputs" and Y as "output", and a function is a way to unambiguously assign inputs to outputs. It can be useful to think of functions like programs: if I send in an x, what y should the program return to me? If I run this program today, tomorrow, and 100 years from now, sending in the same x every time, we might want it to give the same output every time, which is the *deterministic* property: I can *determine* a single unique output if I know what the input is. If my program tells me that 2+2=4 today but 2+2=5 tomorrow, who knows what it will return in 100 years! We can't "determine" it.

#### Slogan 2.0.8

For domains and ranges:

- Domains: the set of meaningful inputs that the function "knows" how to handle.
- Ranges: the set of attainable outputs that we can expect.

Remark 2.0.9: To determine a domain:

- 1. Naively hope it is *all* of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- 2. Throw out "problematic" points.
- 3. Draw a number line and write out what you are left with in interval notation.

**Example 2.0.10**(?): Define

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$
$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{x}.$$

Then  $dom(f) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} = (-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$  and  $range(f) = \mathbb{R}$ .

**Example 2.0.11**(?): Define

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$
$$x \mapsto \sqrt{x}.$$

Then  $dom(f) = \mathbb{R} \setminus (-\infty, 0) = [0, \infty)$  and  $range(f) = [0, \infty)$ .

# 3 | Unit 2: Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

# 4 Unit 3: Trigonometric Functions

#### 4.1 General Notes

 $\sim$ 

- $\bullet\,$  In this section, always draw a picture! Virtually 100% of the time.
  - In particular, a unit circle should almost always show up.
- Use exact ratios wherever possible.
- There are too many details and formulas to just memorize in this unit: focus on the **processes**.

#### $\sim$ 4.2 Common Mistakes $\sim$

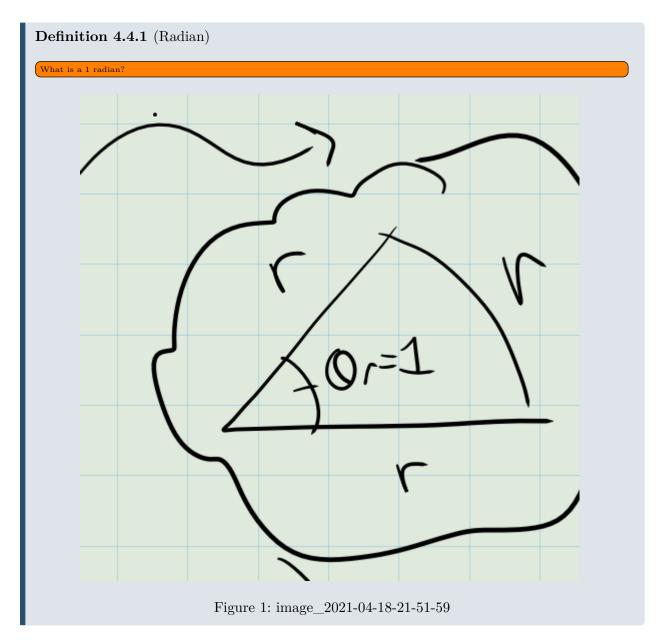
Some facts to remember:

Sin/cos/etc as ratios

•  $\sin^{-1}(\theta) \neq 1/\sin(\theta)$ . Mnemonic: reciprocals of trigonometric functions already have a better name, here  $\csc(\theta)$ .

# $\sim$ 4.3 Basic Trigonometric Functions $\sim$

## 4.4 Proportionality Relationships ~



**Remark 4.4.2:** In geometric terms, an angle in radians in the ratio of the arc length  $s(\theta, R)$  to the radius R, so

$$\theta_R = \frac{s(\theta, R)}{R}.$$

#### $\textbf{Definition 4.4.3} \ ( \textbf{Coterminal Angles} )$

If  $\theta$  is an abstract angle, we will say  $\theta + k \operatorname{rev} \simeq \theta$  for any integer  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Any such angle is said to be **coterminal** to  $\theta$ .

#### Remark 4.4.4: In radians:

$$\theta_R \simeq \theta_R + k \cdot 2\pi$$

$$k \in \mathbb{Z}$$
.

In degrees:

$$\theta_D \simeq \theta_D + k \cdot 360^{\circ}$$

$$k \in \mathbb{Z}$$
.

#### Proposition 4.4.5 (Degrees are related to radians).

tode

$$\frac{\theta}{1 \, \mathrm{rev}} = \frac{\theta_R}{2\pi \, \mathrm{rad}} = \frac{\theta_D}{360^{\circ}}.$$

#### Proposition 4.4.6 (Arc length and sector area are related to radians).

todo

$$\frac{\theta}{1 \text{ rev}} = \frac{s(R, \theta)}{2\pi R} = \frac{A(R, \theta)}{\pi R^2}.$$

This implies that

$$A(R,\theta) = \frac{R^2\theta}{2}$$
$$s(R,\theta) = R\theta.$$

## 4.5 Trigonometric Functions as Ratios



#### **Definition 4.5.1** (?)

There are 6 trigonometric functions defined by the following ratios:

soh-cah-toa, cho-sha-cao

Function	Domain	Range
$\sin$	$\mathbb R$	[-1, 1]
cos	$\mathbb{R}$	[-1, 1]
tan	$\mathbb{R} \setminus \left\{ \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \cdots \right\}$ $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \cdots \}$	?
csc	$\mathbb{R}\setminus\{0,\pm\pi,\pm2\pi,\cdots\}$	?

sec 
$$\mathbb{R} \setminus \left\{ \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \cdots \right\}$$
? cot  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \cdots\}$ ?

Proposition 4.5.2 (Domains of trigonometric functions).

#### 4.6 Polar Coordinates

#### **Definition 4.6.1** (Unit Circle)

The unit circle is defined as

$$S^1 := \left\{ \mathbf{p} = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid d(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{0}) = 1 \right\} = \left\{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1 \right\},$$

the set of all points in the plane that are distance exactly 1 from the origin.

#### Theorem 4.6.2 (Polar Coordinates).

If a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  has at an angle of  $\theta$  in radians and has length R, the corresponding point  $\mathbf{p}$  at the end of  $\mathbf{v}$  is given by

$$\mathbf{p} = [x, y] = [R\cos(\theta), R\sin(\theta)].$$

Conversely, if (x, y) are known, then the corresponding R and  $\theta$  are given by

$$[R, \theta] = \left[\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)\right].$$

#### Corollary 4.6.3 (Polar Coordinates on $S^1$ ).

If R = 1, so **v** is on the unit circle  $S^1$ , then

$$[x, y] = [\cos(\theta), \sin(\theta)].$$

**Remark 4.6.4:** This is a very important fact! The x, y coordinates on the unit circle *literally* corresponding to cosines and sines of subtended angles will be used frequently.

#### Slogan 4.6.5

Cosines are like x coordinates, sines are like y coordinates.

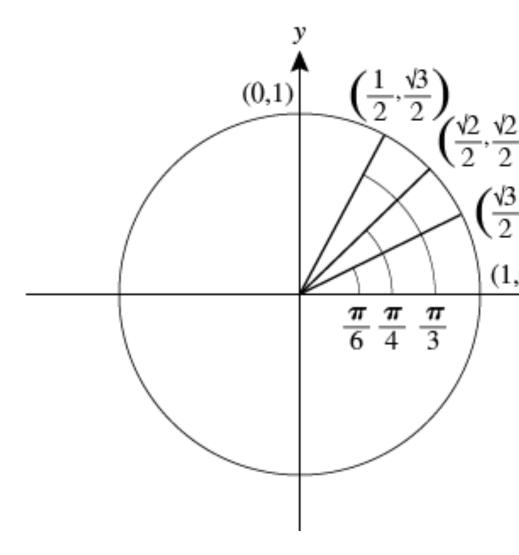
**Example 4.6.6(?):** Given  $\theta_R = 4\pi/3$ , what is the corresponding point on the unit circle  $S^1$ ?

#### **⚠** Warning 4.6.7

Note that  $\sin(\theta), \cos(\theta)$  work for any  $\theta$  at all. However,  $\cos(\theta) = 0$  sometimes, so  $\tan(\theta) := \sin(\theta)/\cos(\theta)$  will on occasion be problematic. Similar story for the other functions.

4.6 Polar Coordinates 8

## 4.7 Special Angles



For reference: the unit circle.

Remark 4.7.1: Idea: we want to partition the circle simultaneously

- Into 8 pieces, so we increment by  $2\pi/8 = \pi/4$
- Into 12 pieces, so we increment by  $2\pi/12 = \pi/6$ .

Proposition 4.7.2 (Trick to memorize special angles).

Table of special angles, increasing/decreasing

4.7 Special Angles

# 4.8 Reference Angles and the Flipping Method

#### **Definition 4.8.1** (Reference Angle)

Given a vector at of length R and angle  $\theta$ , the **reference angle**  $\theta_{\text{Ref}}$  is the acute angle in the triangle formed by dropping a perpendicular to the nearest horizontal axis.

#### Proposition 4.8.2(?).

Reference angles for each quadrant:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{Quadrant II:} & \theta + \theta_{\text{Ref}} = \pi \\ \text{Quadrant III:} & \pi + \theta_{\text{Ref}} = \theta \\ \text{Quadrant IV:} & \theta + \theta_{\text{Ref}} = 2\pi. \end{array}$ 

**Example 4.8.3**(?): Given  $\sin(\theta) = 7/25$ , what are the five remaining trigonometric functions of  $\theta$ ?

Method:

- 1. Draw a picture! Embed  $\theta$  into a right triangle.
- 2. Find the missing side using the Pythagorean theorem.
- 3. Use definition of trigonometric functions are ratios.

**Remark 4.8.4:** Note that you can not necessarily find the angle  $\theta$  here, but we didn't need it. If we *did* want  $\theta$ , we would need an inverse function to free the argument:

$$\sin(\theta) = 7/25$$

$$\implies \arcsin(\sin(\theta)) = \arcsin(7/25)$$

$$\implies \theta = \arcsin(7/25)$$

## 4.9 Identities Using Pythagoras

Proposition 4.9.1(?).

$$(\sin(\theta))^2 + (\cos(\theta))^2 = 1$$
$$1 + (\cot(\theta))^2 = (\csc(\theta))^2$$
$$(\tan(\theta))^2 + 1 = (\sec(\theta))^2.$$

Proof (?).

Derive first from Pythagorean theorem in  $S^1$ . Obtain the second by dividing through by  $(\sin(\theta))^2$ . Obtain the third by dividing through by  $(\cos(\theta))^2$ .

## 4.10 Even/Odd Properties

#### ~

#### **Question 4.10.1**

Thinking of  $cos(\theta)$  as a function of  $\theta$ , is it

- Even?
- Odd?
- Neither?

Remark 4.10.2: Why do we care? The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

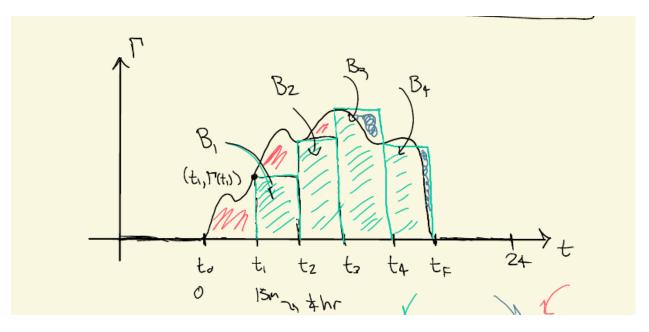


Figure 2: image\_2021-04-18-22-39-08

#### Proposition 4.10.3 (?).

- $f(\theta) := \cos(\theta)$  is an even function.
- $g(\theta) := \sin(\theta)$  is an odd function.

Proof (?).

Plot vectors for  $\theta$ ,  $-\theta$  on  $S^1$  and flip over the x-axis.

#### Corollary 4.10.4(?).

- $\cos(t)$ ,  $\sec(t)$  are even.
- $\sin(t)$ ,  $\csc(t)$ ,  $\tan(t)$ ,  $\cot(t)$  are odd.

#### 4.11 Wave Function

**Remark 4.11.1:** Motivation: let a vector run around the unit circle, where we think of  $\theta$  as a time parameter. What are its x and y coordinates? What happens if we plot x(t) in a new  $\theta$  plane?

**Definition 4.11.2** (Standard Form of a Wave Function)

The standard form of a wave function is given by

$$f(t) := A\cos(\omega(t-\varphi)) + \delta,$$

where

- A is the amplitude,
- $\omega$  is the **frequency**,
- $\varphi$  is the **phase shift**, and
- $\delta$  is the **vertical shift**.
- $P := 2\pi/\omega$  is the **period**, so f(t + kP) = f(t) for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Insert plot

**Remark 4.11.3:** Note that this is nothing more than a usual cosine wave, just translated/dilated in the x direction and the y direction.

## **⚠** Warning 4.11.4

Don't memorize equations like  $y = \sin(Bt + C)$  and e.g. the phase shift if  $\varphi = -C/B$ . Instead, use a process: always put your equation in standard form, then you can just read off the parameters. For example:

$$f(t) = \cos(Bt + C)$$

$$= \cos(B(t + \frac{C}{B}))$$

$$= \cos(\omega(t - \varphi))$$

$$\implies B = \omega, \varphi = -\frac{C}{B}.$$

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**Example 4.11.5**(?): Put the following wave in standard form:

$$f(t) := 4\cos(3t+2)$$
.

**Example 4.11.6**(?): Put the following wave in standard form:

$$f(t) := \alpha \cos(\beta t + \gamma).$$

#### Proposition 4.11.7(?).

How to plot the graph of a wave equation:

- 1. Put in standard form.
- 2. Read off the parameters to build a rectangular box of width P and height 2|A| about the line  $y = \delta$ .
- 3. Break the box into 4 pieces using the key points  $t = \varphi + \frac{k}{4}P$  for k = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4.

**Example 4.11.8** (*Plotting*): Plot the following function in the t plane:

$$f(t) = 2\cos\left(5t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + 7.$$

Example 4.11.9(?): Plot the following:

$$f(t) = -2\sin(3t - 7).$$

#### Proposition 4.11.10 (Determining the equation of a sine wave).

Given a picture of a graph of a sine wave,

- 1. Draw a horizontal line cutting the wave in half. This will be  $\delta$ .
- 2. Measure the distance from this midline to a peak. This will be |A|.
- 3. Restrict to one full period, starting either at a peak (if you want to match cos(t)) or a zero (if you want to match sin(t)). Pick the period starting as close as possible to the y-axis.
- 4. Measure the period P and reverse-engineer it to get  $\omega$ :  $P = 2\pi/\omega \implies \omega = 2\pi/P$ .
- 5. Measure the distance from the starting point to the y-axis: this is  $\varphi$ .

**Example 4.11.11(?):** Determine the equation of the following wave function:

4.11 Wave Function 13

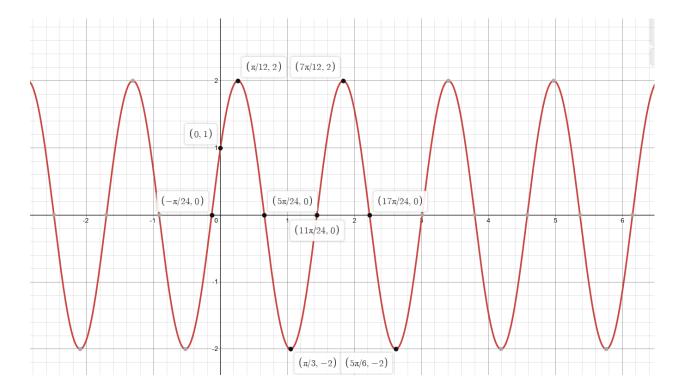


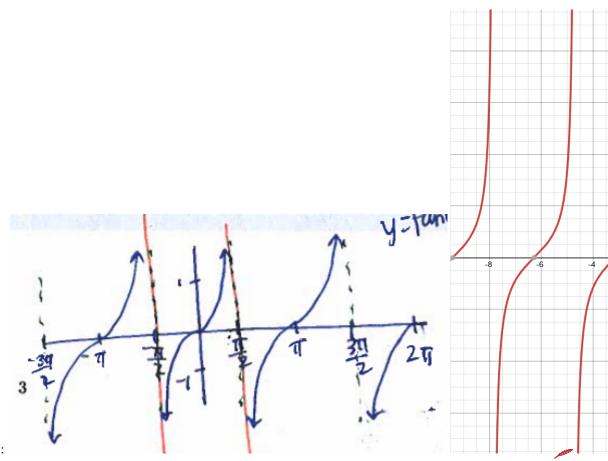
Figure 3:  $image_2021-04-18-20-51-34$ 

Solution:

$$f(t) = 2\sin\left(4t + \frac{\pi}{6}\right).$$

Remark 4.11.12: Note that we can graph other trigonometric functions: they get pretty wild though.

4.11 Wave Function 14



• Tangent:

## 4.12 Inverse Functions

**Remark 4.12.1:** Motivation: we want a way to solve equations where the unknown  $\theta$  is stuck in the argument of a trigonometric function. For example, for  $\sin : \mathbb{R}_A \to \mathbb{R}_B$ , this would be some function  $f : \mathbb{R}_B \to \mathbb{R}_A$  such that

$$f(\sin(\theta)) = id(\theta) = \theta$$

$$\sin(f(y)) = \mathrm{id}(y) = y.$$

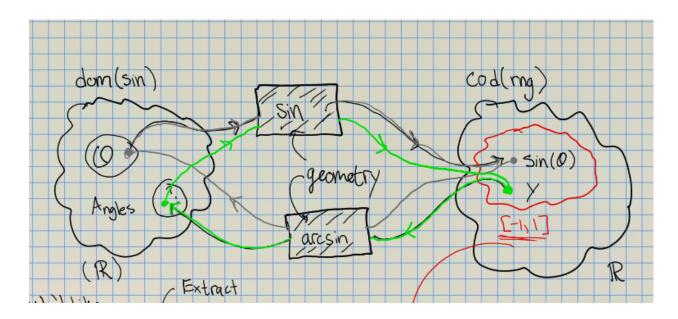
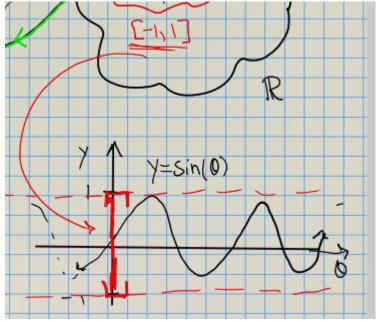


Figure 4:  $image_2021-04-18-22-24-55$ 

Note that we only ever have to define f on range(sin), since we're only ever sending outputs of f in as the inputs of sin. So we need range(sin)  $\subset$  dom(f), noting that range(sin) = [-1,1]:



Similarly, we need range $(f) \subset dom(sin)$ .

**Remark 4.12.2:** The setup: try swapping y and  $\theta$  in the graph of  $y = \sin(\theta)$ :

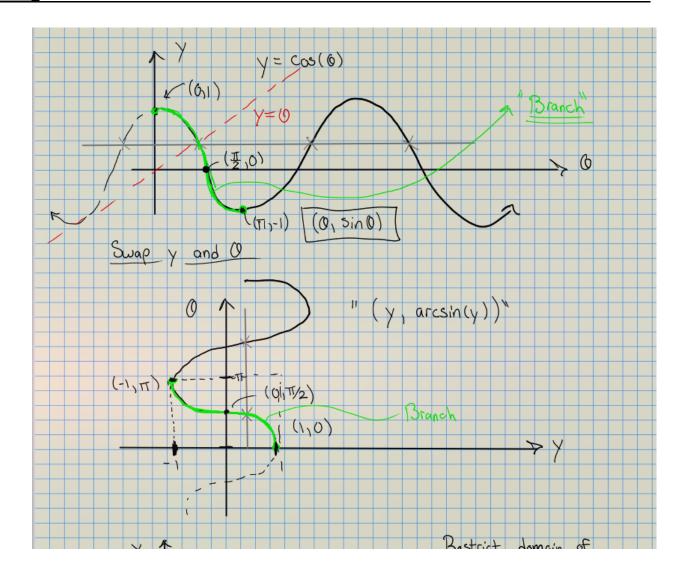


Figure 5: image\_2021-04-18-22-32-36

Note that the latter is a function (vertical line test) iff the former is injective (horizontal line test). So we take the largest branch where the inverse is a function:

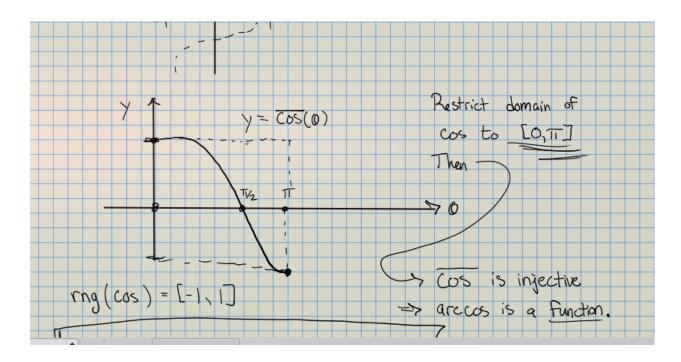


Figure 6:  $image_2021-04-18-22-33-27$ 

Back on our original graph, this looks like the following:

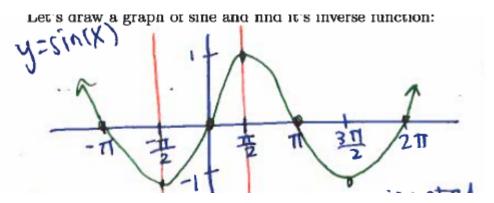
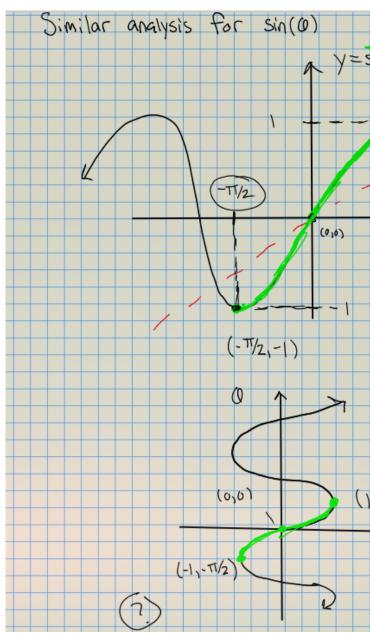


Figure 7:  $image_2021-04-18-20-53-25$ 

Restricting, we get

- dom(arccos) := range(cos) = [-1, 1].
- range(arccos) := dom(cos) =  $[0, \pi]$ .



**Remark 4.12.3:** A similar analysis works for  $sin(\theta)$ :

Restricting, we get

- dom(arcsin) := range(sin) = [-1, 1].
- range(arcsin) := dom(sin) =  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ .

#### Remark 4.12.4: This gives us a new tool to solve equations:

$$\vdots = \vdots$$

$$\implies \cos(x) = b$$

$$\implies \arccos(\cos(x)) = \arccos(b)$$

$$\implies x = \arccos(b),$$

but only if we know this makes sense based on domain/range issues.

#### Proposition 4.12.5 (Domains of inverse trigonometric functions).

Restrict domains in the following ways:

• sin:  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ 

•  $\cos : [0, \pi]$ 

•  $\tan : [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ 

Function	Domain	Range
arcsin	[-1,1]	$[-\pi/2,\pi/2]$
arccos	[-1,1]	$[0,\pi]$
arctan	$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\pi/2,\pi/2)$
arccsc	$\mathbb{R}\setminus\{0,\pm\pi,\pm2\pi,\cdots\}$	?
arcsec	$\mathbb{R}\setminus\left\{\pmrac{\pi}{2},\pmrac{3\pi}{2},\cdots ight\}$	?
arccot	$\mathbb{R}\setminus\{0,\pm\pi,\pm2\pi,\cdots\}$	?

#### Example 4.12.6(?): We have some exact values.

Sines should be in QI or QIV:

- $\arcsin(1/2) = \pi/6$
- $\arcsin(\sqrt{3}/2) = \pi/3$
- $\arcsin(-1/2) = -\pi/6$

Cosines should be in QI or QII:

- $\arccos(\sqrt{3}/2) = \pi/6$
- $\arccos(-\sqrt{2}/2) = 3\pi/4$
- $\arccos(1/2) = \pi/3$

Tangents should be in QI or QIV:

- $\arctan(\sqrt{3}/3) = \pi/6$
- $\arctan(0) = 0$
- $\arctan(1) = \pi/4$

### **⚠** Warning 4.12.7

Note that if f, g are an inverse pair, we have

$$f \circ g = \mathrm{id} \iff f(g(x)) = x, \quad g(f(x)) = x.$$

However, we have to be careful with domains for trigonometric functions:

- $\arcsin(\sin(x)) = x \iff x \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  (restricted domain of sin)
- $\sin(\arcsin(x)) = x \iff x \in [-1, 1] \text{ (domain of arcsin)}$
- $\arccos(\cos(x)) = x \iff x \in [0, \pi]$  (restricted domain of cos)
- $\cos(\arccos(x)) = x \iff x \in [-1, 1] \text{ (domain of arccos)}$
- $\arctan(\tan(x)) = x \iff x \in [0]$  (restricted domain of tan)
- $tan(arctan(x)) = x \iff x \in \mathbb{R}$ 
  - Domain of arctan, then range is  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ , which is in the domain of tan.

**Remark 4.12.8:** Most inverse trigonometric functions can *not* be exactly solved! We'll have to approximate by calculator if we want the actual angle. If we just want *other* trigonometric functions though, we can always embed in a triangle.

Example 4.12.9(?): Show the following:

- $\cos(\arcsin(24/26)) = 10/26$ 
  - Write  $\theta = \arcsin(24/26)$ , note  $\theta$  is in  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2] = \operatorname{range}(\arcsin)$ .
- $\tan(\arccos(-10/26)) = 10/26$ 
  - Write  $\theta = \arccos(-10/26)$ , note  $\theta$  is in  $[0, \pi] = \operatorname{range}(\arccos)$

#### Exercise 4.12.10 (?)

Compute  $\arcsin(3/5)$ .

#### **⚠** Warning 4.12.11

This is equal to  $\sin^{-1}(3/5)$ , which is *not* equal to  $\frac{1}{\sin(3/5)}$ ! One way to remember this is that we have another name for reciprocals, here  $\csc(3/5)$ .

#### Solution:

$$\theta = \arcsin(3/5)$$

$$\implies \sin(\theta) = (3/5)$$

$$\implies \cdots?$$
roughly by injectivity

We are out of luck, since this isn't a special angle. So we can't find a numerical value of  $\theta$ . We can find other trig functions of  $\theta$  though:

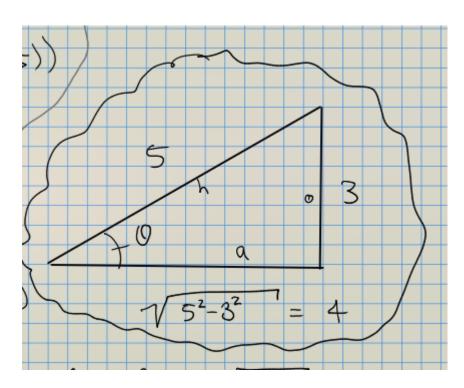


Figure 8: image\_2021-04-18-22-30-09

So for example,  $\cos(\arcsin(3/5)) = 4/5$ .

## 4.13 Simplifying Identities

**Remark 4.13.1:** The goal: reduce a complicated mess of trigonometric functions to something as simple as possible. We'll use a **boxing-up method**.

Exercise 4.13.2 (?) Simplify the following:

$$F(\theta) := \left(\frac{\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta)}{\cot(\theta)}\right)\cos(\theta)\csc(\theta).$$

Solution:

$$F = s\left(\frac{s}{c}\right).$$

**Remark 4.13.3:** On verifying identities: if you want to show  $f(\theta) = g(\theta)$ , start at one and arrive

at the other:

$$f(\theta) = \text{simplify } f$$
  
 $= \cdots$   
 $= \cdots$   
 $= \cdots$   
 $= g(\theta)$ 

#### ⚠Warning 4.13.4

If you end up with something like 1 = 1 or 0 = 0, this is hinting at a problem with your logic.

**Remark 4.13.5:** As an alternative, you can use the **transitivity of equality**: show that  $f(\theta) = h(\theta)$  for some totally different function h, and then show  $g(\theta) = h(\theta)$  as well.

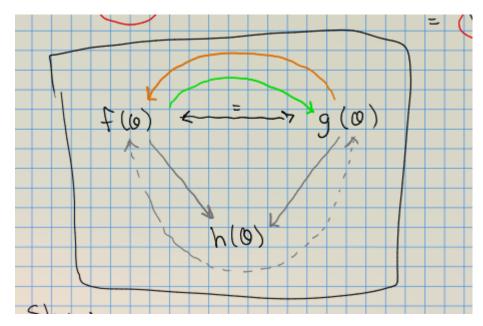


Figure 9: image\_2021-04-18-21-58-52

Example 4.13.6(?): Show the following identity:

$$\sin(-\theta) + \csc(\theta) = \cot(\theta)\cos(\theta)$$

by showing both sides are separately equal to  $h(\theta) := \csc(\theta) - \sin(\theta)$ .

## 4.14 Double/Half-Angle Identities

**Remark 4.14.1:** Sometimes we are interested in **superposition** of waves. Mathematically this is modeled by multiplying two wave functions together. We can sometimes rewrite these as a *single* 

wave with a phase shift.

#### Proposition 4.14.2(?).

Identities:

$$\sin(\theta + \psi) = \sin(\theta)\cos(\psi) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\psi)$$
$$\cos(\theta + \psi) = \cos(\theta)\cos(\psi) + \sin(\theta)\sin(\psi).$$

Note that you can divide these to get

$$\tan(\theta + \psi) = \frac{\tan(\theta) + \tan(\psi)}{1 - \tan(\theta)\tan(\psi)},$$

and replace  $\psi$  with  $-\psi$  and use even/odd properties to get formulas for  $\sin(\theta - \psi), \cos(\theta - \psi)$ 

#### Slogan 4.14.3

Sines are friendly and cosines are clique-y!

Remark 4.14.4: The most interesting modifications of waves: superpositions and damped waves.

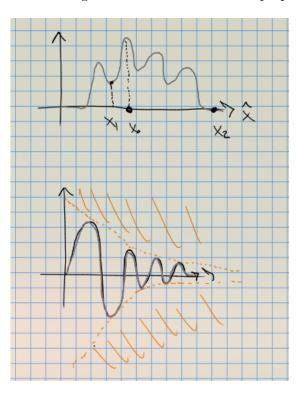


Figure 10: image\_2021-04-18-22-06-08

#### Corollary 4.14.5 (Double angle identities).

Taking  $\theta = \psi$  is the above identities yields

$$\sin(2\theta) = \sin(\theta)\cos(\theta) + \cos(\theta)\sin(\theta)$$
$$= 2\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta)$$

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos(\theta)\cos(\theta) + \sin(\theta)\sin(\theta)$$
$$= \cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta).$$

#### **⚠** Warning 4.14.6

The latter is not equal to 1! That would be  $\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta)$ .

Remark 4.14.7: Why do we care? We had 16 special angles, this gives a lot more. For example,

$$\cos(\pi/12) = \cos(\pi/3 - \pi/4) = \cdots$$
 plug in.

By allowing increments of  $\pi/12$ , we have 24 total angles.

#### Corollary 4.14.8(?).

Starting from the following:

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)$$

$$= \cos^2(\theta) - \left(1 - \cos^2(\theta)\right)$$

$$= 2\cos^2(\theta) - 1 \qquad \text{using } s^2 + c^2 = 1,$$

one can solve for

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

Similarly

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2(\theta) - \sin^2(\theta)$$

$$= (1 - \sin^2(\theta)) - \sin^2(\theta)$$

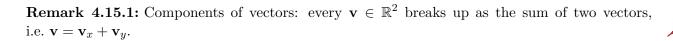
$$= 1 - 2\sin^2(\theta) \qquad \text{using } s^2 + c^2 = 1,$$

solving yields

$$\sin^2(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos(2\theta)).$$

4 ToDos

## 4.15 Bonus: Complex Exponentials



**Remark 4.15.2:** We've worked with the *Cartesian plane* all semester. One powerful tool is replacing this with the *complex* plane. We formally define a new symbol i such that  $i^2 = -1$ , and replace the  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  direction with the i direction – this amounts to replacing ordered pairs  $(a, b) := a\hat{\mathbf{x}} + b\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  by a single number x + iy.

Proposition 4.15.3 (Euler's Identity).

$$e^{i\pi} = -1.$$

**Remark 4.15.4:** The way you read this:  $e^{i\theta} \in S^1$  is a complex number (identified with a vector!), and the  $\theta$  tells you what direction it points in radians.  $\pi$  radians is directly to the left!

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