

# Edexcel Advanced Level GCE Mathematics FP2

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# 1 Complex Numbers

## 1.1 De Moivre's Theorem

De Moivre's theorem states

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \Leftrightarrow z^n = r^n (\cos (n\theta) + i \sin (n\theta))$$

Using the exponential form, this is equivalent to

$$z = re^{i\theta} \Leftrightarrow z^n = (re^{i\theta})^n = r^n e^{in\theta}$$

### 1.1.1 Proof of DMT

Let  $P_n$  be a predicate:

$$P_n \Leftrightarrow (r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta))^n = r^n (\cos (n\theta) + i \sin (n\theta))$$

Let  $n \rightarrow 1$ . Evidently,

$$P_1 \Leftrightarrow r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

thus

$$P_1 \text{ is True}$$

Assume  $P_k$ :

$$(r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta))^k = r^k (\cos (k\theta) + i \sin (k\theta))$$

Now, consider  $P_{k+1}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta))^{k+1} &= r(\cos \theta) \times r^k (\cos (k\theta) + i \sin (k\theta)) \\ &= r^{k+1} (\cos (\theta (k+1)) + i \sin (\theta (k+1))) \Leftrightarrow P_{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

therefore

$$P_k \Rightarrow P_{k+1}$$

Thus, by induction,

$$P_n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \geq 0$$

### 1.1.2 Uses

DMT is great, because it can be used to simplify expressions like this:

$$\frac{(\cos (\frac{9\pi}{17}) + i \sin (\frac{9\pi}{17}))^5}{(\cos (\frac{2\pi}{17}) - i \sin (\frac{2\pi}{17}))^3}$$

First we must put the denominator into the correct polar form (with a + inbetween cos and sin), and then we can apply de Moivre's Theorem.

$$\frac{(\cos (\frac{9\pi}{17}) + i \sin (\frac{9\pi}{17}))^5}{(\cos (-\frac{2\pi}{17}) + i \sin (-\frac{2\pi}{17}))^3}$$

And now applying de Moivre's Theorem:

$$\frac{\cos\left(\frac{45\pi}{17}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{45\pi}{17}\right)}{\cos\left(\frac{-6\pi}{17}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{-6\pi}{17}\right)}$$

From this point we can easily simplify the complex number down.

$$\cos\left(\frac{51\pi}{17}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{51\pi}{17}\right)$$

$$\cos(3\pi) + i \sin(3\pi)$$

$$\cos(\pi) + i \sin(\pi) = -1$$

### 1.1.3 De Moivre's Theorem and Trigonometric Identities

De Moivre's Theorem can also be applied to problems consisting of trigonometric functions by using identities and binomial expansion. First though, it is worth noting the following, where  $Z$  is a complex number  $r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$

$$Z + \frac{1}{Z} = 2 \cos(\theta) \quad Z^n + \frac{1}{Z^n} = 2 \cos(n\theta)$$

$$Z - \frac{1}{Z} = 2i \sin(\theta) \quad Z^n - \frac{1}{Z^n} = 2i \sin(n\theta)$$

Trigonometric functions can be replaced with these arrangements of complex numbers and then manipulated far more easily. The following is an example of such a situation.

Express  $\sin^3(\theta)$  in the form  $d \cos(4\theta) + e \cos(2\theta) + f$

$$Z - \frac{1}{Z} = 2i \sin(\theta) \therefore \left(Z^4 - \frac{1}{Z^4}\right)^4 = 16 \sin^4(\theta)$$

$$\left(Z^4 - \frac{1}{Z^4}\right)^4 = Z^4 + 4Z^3\left(\frac{-1}{Z}\right) + 6Z^2\left(\frac{-1}{Z}\right)^2 + 4Z\left(\frac{-1}{Z}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{-1}{Z}\right)^4$$

$$\rightarrow Z^4 + 4Z^2 + 6 - 4Z^{-2} + Z^{-4}$$

$$\rightarrow \left(Z^4 + \frac{1}{Z^4}\right) - 4\left(Z^2 + \frac{1}{Z^2}\right) + 6$$

$$\therefore 16 \sin^4(\theta) = 2 \cos(4\theta) - 8 \cos(2\theta) + 6$$

$$\therefore \sin^4(\theta) = \frac{1}{8} \cos(4\theta) - \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\theta) + \frac{3}{8}$$

#### 1.1.4 Finding the $n^{\text{th}}$ Root of a Polynomial Using De Moivre's Theorem

Solve  $Z^3 = 1$ . Represent Solutions on an argand diagram.

$$|Z^3| = 1 \quad \arg(Z^3) = \pi$$

$$Z^3 = 1 (\cos(\pi) + i \sin(\pi))$$

$$Z^3 = (\cos(\pi + 2k\pi) + i \sin(\pi + 2k\pi))$$

$$Z = (\cos(\pi + 2k\pi) + i \sin(\pi + 2k\pi))^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$Z = \cos\left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{3}\right)$$

We only need consider all values of  $k$  for which  $\pi < \theta < \pi$

$$k = 0 \rightarrow Z = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)$$

$$\therefore Z = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

$$k = 1 \rightarrow Z = \cos(\pi) + i \sin(\pi)$$

$$\therefore Z = -1$$

$$k = -1 \rightarrow Z = \cos\left(\frac{-\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{-\pi}{3}\right)$$

$$\therefore Z = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i$$

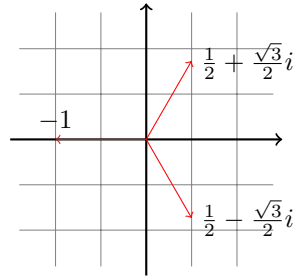


Figure 1: Third roots of  $-1$  shown on an argand diagram

## 2 Polynomial Expansions

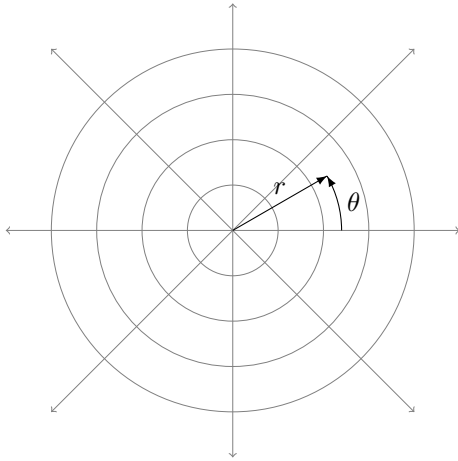
Maclaurin's expansion is a way to fit a polynomial to an arbitrary function. It states

$$f(x) \approx f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2 f''(0)}{2} + \frac{x^3 f'''(0)}{6} + \dots + \frac{x^n f^n(0)}{n!} = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{x^r f^r(0)}{r!}$$

Mapping this out to infinite terms gives an exact equivalence, called a Maclaurin series;

$$f(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^r f^r(0)}{r!}$$

## 3 Polar Coordinates



Points in a space described by polar coordinates are defined in terms of the magnitude and direction of their displacement from the origin. In a two dimensional space,  $(r, \theta)$  is an arbitrary point, where either  $\theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$  or  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ . This is equivalent to  $(x, y)$ , the cartesian form, where

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$r = (x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Cartesian equations can hence be converted into equivalent polar equations and vice versa.

## 4 Differential Equations

### 4.1 First Order Linear Inhomogeneous Ordinary Differential Equations

First order linear inhomogeneous ordinary differential equations can be expressed in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$