# C Precalculus Review

# C.1 Real Numbers and the Real Number Line

- Represent and classify real numbers.
- Order real numbers and use inequalities.
- Find the absolute values of real numbers and find the distance between two real numbers.

# Real Numbers and the Real Number Line

Real numbers can be represented by a coordinate system called the **real number line** or *x*-axis (see Figure C.1). The real number corresponding to a point on the real number line is the **coordinate** of the point. As Figure C.1 shows, it is customary to identify those points whose coordinates are integers.



The point on the real number line corresponding to zero is the **origin** and is denoted by 0. The **positive direction** (to the right) is denoted by an arrowhead and is the direction of increasing values of *x*. Numbers to the right of the origin are **positive**. Numbers to the left of the origin are **negative**. The term **nonnegative** describes a number that is either positive or zero. The term **nonpositive** describes a number that is either negative or zero.

Each point on the real number line corresponds to one and only one real number, and each real number corresponds to one and only one point on the real number line. This type of relationship is called a **one-to-one correspondence**.

Each of the four points in Figure C.2 corresponds to a **rational number**—one that can be written as the ratio of two integers. (Note that  $4.5 = \frac{9}{2}$  and  $-2.6 = -\frac{13}{5}$ .) Rational numbers can be represented either by *terminating decimals* such as  $\frac{2}{5} = 0.4$ , or by *repeating decimals* such as  $\frac{1}{3} = 0.333$ ... =  $0.\overline{3}$ .

Real numbers that are not rational are **irrational.** Irrational numbers cannot be represented as terminating or repeating decimals. In computations, irrational numbers are represented by decimal approximations. Here are three familiar examples.

 $\sqrt{2} \approx 1.414213562$  $\pi \approx 3.141592654$  $e \approx 2.718281828$ 

(See Figure C.3.)





Rational numbers Figure C.2

# **Order and Inequalities**

One important property of real numbers is that they are **ordered**. For two real numbers a and b, a is **less than** b when b - a is positive. This order is denoted by the **inequality** 

$$a < b$$
.

This relationship can also be described by saying that b is **greater than** a and writing b > a. If three real numbers a, b, and c are ordered such that a < b and b < c, then b is **between** a and c and a < b < c.

Geometrically, a < b if and only if a lies to the *left* of b on the real number line (see Figure C.4). For example, 1 < 2 because 1 lies to the left of 2 on the real number line.

Several properties used in working with inequalities are listed below. Similar properties are obtained when < is replaced by  $\leq$  and > is replaced by  $\geq$ . (The symbols  $\leq$  and  $\geq$  mean **less than or equal to** and **greater than or equal to**, respectively.)

#### Properties of Inequalities

Let *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, and *k* be real numbers.

1.	If $a <$	b  and  b < c,  then  a < c.	Transitive Property
2.	If $a <$	b  and  c < d,  then  a + c < b + d.	Add inequalities.
3.	If $a <$	k = b, then $a + k < b + k$ .	Add a constant.
4.	If $a <$	k > 0, then $ak < bk$ .	Multiply by a positive constant.
5.	If $a <$	k < 0, then $ak > bk$ .	Multiply by a negative constant.

Note that you *reverse the inequality* when you multiply the inequality by a negative number. For example, if x < 3, then -4x > -12. This also applies to division by a negative number. So, if -2x > 4, then x < -2.

A set is a collection of elements. Two common sets are the set of real numbers and the set of points on the real number line. Many problems in calculus involve subsets of one of these two sets. In such cases, it is convenient to use set notation of the form  $\{x: \text{ condition on } x\}$ , which is read as follows.

The set of all x such that a certain condition is true.  $\begin{cases} x : condition on x \end{cases}$ 

For example, you can describe the set of positive real numbers as

 $\{x: x > 0\}$ . Set of positive real numbers

Similarly, you can describe the set of nonnegative real numbers as

 $\{x: x \ge 0\}$ . Set of nonnegative real numbers

The **union** of two sets *A* and *B*, denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is the set of elements that are members of *A* or *B* or both. The **intersection** of two sets *A* and *B*, denoted by  $A \cap B$ , is the set of elements that are members of *A* and *B*. Two sets are **disjoint** when they have no elements in common.



a < b if and only if a lies to the left of b.

Figure C.4

The most commonly used subsets are **intervals** on the real number line. For example, the **open** interval

$$(a, b) = \{x: a < x < b\}$$
 Open interval

is the set of all real numbers greater than a and less than b, where a and b are the **endpoints** of the interval. Note that the endpoints are not included in an open interval. Intervals that include their endpoints are **closed** and are denoted by

$$[a, b] = \{x: a \le x \le b\}.$$
 Closed interval

The nine basic types of intervals on the real number line are shown in the table below. The first four are **bounded intervals** and the remaining five are **unbounded intervals**. Unbounded intervals are also classified as open or closed. The intervals  $(-\infty, b)$  and  $(a, \infty)$  are open, the intervals  $(-\infty, b]$  and  $[a, \infty)$  are closed, and the interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$  is considered to be both open *and* closed.

	<b>Interval Notation</b>	Set Notation	Graph
Bounded open interval	(a, b)	$\{x: a < x < b\}$	$ () \longrightarrow x$
Bounded closed interval	[ <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> ]	$\{x: a \le x \le b\}$	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline \\ \hline \\ a \\ \end{array}  x \\ x $
Bound intervals	[ <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> )	$\{x: a \le x < b\}$	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline \\ \hline \\ a \\ \end{array}  x$
(neither open nor closed)	(a, b]	$\{x: a < x \le b\}$	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline \\ \hline \\ a & b \end{array} > x$
	$(-\infty, b)$	$\{x: x < b\}$	
Unbounded open intervals	$(a,\infty)$	${x: x > a}$	$a \xrightarrow{(} x$
	$(-\infty, b]$	$\{x: x \le b\}$	$\checkmark$ $\downarrow$ $b$ $x$
Unbounded closed intervals	$[a,\infty)$	$\{x: x \ge a\}$	a  x
Entire real line	$(-\infty,\infty)$	$\{x: x \text{ is a real number}\}$	<b>→</b> <i>x</i>

Intervals on	the	Real	Number	Line
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Note that the symbols  $\infty$  and  $-\infty$  refer to positive and negative infinity, respectively. These symbols do not denote real numbers. They simply enable you to describe unbounded conditions more concisely. For instance, the interval  $[a, \infty)$  is unbounded to the right because it includes *all* real numbers that are greater than or equal to *a*.

EXAMPLE 1 Liqu

# Liquid and Gaseous States of Water

Describe the intervals on the real number line that correspond to the temperatures x (in degrees Celsius) of water in

**a.** a liquid state. **b.** a gaseous state.

#### Solution

**a.** Water is in a liquid state at temperatures greater than 0°C and less than 100°C, as shown in Figure C.5(a).

 $(0, 100) = \{x: 0 < x < 100\}$ 

**b.** Water is in a gaseous state (steam) at temperatures greater than or equal to 100°C, as shown in Figure C.5(b).



If a real number a is a **solution** of an inequality, then the inequality is **satisfied** (is true) when a is substituted for x. The set of all solutions is the **solution set** of the inequality.



Solve 2x - 5 < 7.

Solution

2x - 5 < 7 2x - 5 + 5 < 7 + 5 2x < 12  $\frac{2x}{2} < \frac{12}{2}$  x < 6Write original inequality. Add 5 to each side. Simplify. Divide each side by 2. Simplify.



Checking solutions of 2x - 5 < 7Figure C.6

The solution set is  $(-\infty, 6)$ .

In Example 2, all five inequalities listed as steps in the solution are called **equivalent** because they have the same solution set.

Once you have solved an inequality, check some x-values in your solution set to verify that they satisfy the original inequality. You should also check some values outside your solution set to verify that they *do not* satisfy the inequality. For example, Figure C.6 shows that when x = 0 or x = 5 the inequality 2x - 5 < 7 is satisfied, but when x = 7 the inequality 2x - 5 < 7 is not satisfied.

# EXAMPLE 3

# Solving a Double Inequality

Solve  $-3 \le 2 - 5x \le 12$ .

#### Solution

$-3 \leq$	2 - 5x	≤ 12	Write original inequality.
$-3 - 2 \le 2$	2 - 5x -	$2 \leq 12 - 2$	Subtract 2 from each part.
$-5 \leq$	-5x	≤ 10	Simplify.
$\frac{-5}{-5} \ge$	$\frac{-5x}{-5}$	$\geq \frac{10}{-5}$	Divide each part by $-5$ and reverse both inequalities.
1 ≥	x	≥ -2	Simplify.

The solution set is [-2, 1], as shown in Figure C.7.

The inequalities in Examples 2 and 3 are **linear inequalities**—that is, they involve first-degree polynomials. To solve inequalities involving polynomials of higher degree, use the fact that a polynomial can change signs *only* at its real **zeros** (the *x*-values that make the polynomial equal to zero). Between two consecutive real zeros, a polynomial must be either entirely positive or entirely negative. This means that when the real zeros of a polynomial are put in order, they divide the real number line into **test intervals** in which the polynomial has no sign changes. So, if a polynomial has the factored form

$$(x - r_1)(x - r_2) \cdot \cdot \cdot (x - r_n), \quad r_1 < r_2 < r_3 < \cdot \cdot < r_n$$

then the test intervals are

 $(-\infty, r_1), (r_1, r_2), \ldots, (r_{n-1}, r_n), \text{ and } (r_n, \infty).$ 

To determine the sign of the polynomial in each test interval, you need to test only *one value* from the interval.

# EXAMPLE 4 Solving a Quadratic Inequality

Solve  $x^2 < x + 6$ .

#### Solution

$x^2 < x + 6$	Write original inequality.
$x^2 - x - 6 < 0$	Write in general form.
(x-3)(x+2) < 0	Factor.

The polynomial  $x^2 - x - 6$  has x = -2 and x = 3 as its zeros. So, you can solve the inequality by testing the sign of  $x^2 - x - 6$  in each of the test intervals  $(-\infty, -2)$ , (-2, 3), and  $(3, \infty)$ . To test an interval, choose any number in the interval and determine the sign of  $x^2 - x - 6$ . After doing this, you will find that the polynomial is positive for all real numbers in the first and third intervals and negative for all real numbers in the solution of the original inequality is therefore (-2, 3), as shown in Figure C.8.





Testing an interval **Figure C.8** 

• **REMARK** You are asked

# **Absolute Value and Distance**

If *a* is a real number, then the **absolute value** of *a* is

$$|a| = \begin{cases} a, & a \ge 0\\ -a, & a < 0. \end{cases}$$

The absolute value of a number cannot be negative. For example, let a = -4. Then, because -4 < 0, you have

|a| = |-4| = -(-4) = 4.

Remember that the symbol -a does not necessarily mean that -a is negative.

# **Operations with Absolute Value**

Let a and b be real numbers and let n be a positive integer.

Exercises 73, 75, 76, and 77.	<b>1.</b> $ ab  =  a   b $	<b>2.</b> $\left \frac{a}{b}\right  = \frac{ a }{ b },$	$b \neq 0$
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<b>3.</b> $ a  = \sqrt{a^2}$	<b>4.</b> $ a^n  =  a ^n$	

# **Properties of Inequalities and Absolute Value**

Let a and b be real numbers and let k be a positive real number.

- **1.**  $-|a| \le a \le |a|$
- 2.  $|a| \leq k$  if and only if  $-k \leq a \leq k$ .
- **3.**  $|a| \ge k$  if and only if  $a \le -k$  or  $a \ge k$ .
- **4.** Triangle Inequality:  $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$

Properties 2 and 3 are also true when  $\leq$  is replaced by < and  $\geq$  is replaced by >.

# EXAMPLE 5 Solving an Absolute Value Inequality

Solve  $|x - 3| \le 2$ .

**Solution** Using the second property of inequalities and absolute value, you can rewrite the original inequality as a double inequality.



$-2 \leq$	<i>x</i> – 3	$\leq 2$	Write as double inequality.
$-2 + 3 \leq x$	- 3 +	$3 \le 2+3$	Add 3 to each part.
1 ≤	x	≤ 5	Simplify.

The solution set is [1, 5], as shown in Figure C.9.



Solution set of |x + 2| > 3Figure C.10



Solution set of  $|x - a| \le d$ 



Solution set of  $|x - a| \ge d$ Figure C.11

# EXAMPLE 6

# A Two-Interval Solution Set

Solve |x + 2| > 3.

**Solution** Using the third property of inequalities and absolute value, you can rewrite the original inequality as two linear inequalities.

x + 2 < -3 or x + 2 > 3x < -5 x > 1

The solution set is the union of the disjoint intervals  $(-\infty, -5)$  and  $(1, \infty)$ , as shown in Figure C.10.

Examples 5 and 6 illustrate the general results shown in Figure C.11. Note that for d > 0, the solution set for the inequality  $|x - a| \le d$  is a *single* interval, whereas the solution set for the inequality  $|x - a| \ge d$  is the union of *two* disjoint intervals.

The distance between two points a and b on the real number line is given by



The directed distance from *a* to *b* is b - a and the directed distance from *b* to *a* is a - b, as shown in Figure C.12.



Figure C.12



**a.** The distance between -3 and 4 is

$$|4 - (-3)| = |7| = 7$$
 or  $|-3 - 4| = |-7| = 7$ .

(See Figure C.13.)

**b.** The directed distance from -3 to 4 is

$$4 - (-3) = 7$$

**c.** The directed distance from 4 to -3 is

$$-3 - 4 = -7$$

The **midpoint** of an interval with endpoints a and b is the average value of a and b. That is,

Midpoint of interval 
$$(a, b) = \frac{a+b}{2}$$
.

To show that this is the midpoint, you need only show that (a + b)/2 is equidistant from a and b.



Figure C.13

# C.1 Exercises

**Rational or Irrational?** In Exercises 1–10, determine whether the real number is rational or irrational.

<b>1.</b> 0.7	<b>2.</b> - 3678
<b>3.</b> $\frac{3\pi}{2}$	<b>4.</b> $3\sqrt{2} - 1$
<b>5.</b> 4.3451	<b>6.</b> $\frac{22}{7}$
<b>7.</b> <sup>3</sup> √64	<b>8.</b> 0.8177
<b>9.</b> $4\frac{5}{8}$	<b>10.</b> $(\sqrt{2})^3$

**Repeating Decimal** In Exercises 11–14, write the repeating decimal as a ratio of two integers using the following procedure. If x = 0.6363..., then 100x = 63.6363... Subtracting the first equation from the second produces 99x = 63 or  $x = \frac{63}{99} = \frac{7}{11}$ .

11.	0.36	12.	$0.3\overline{18}$
13.	0.297	14.	0.9900

**15.** Using Properties of Inequalities Given a < b, determine which of the following are true.

(a) $a + 2 < b + 2$	(b) $5b < 5a$
(c) $5 - a > 5 - b$	(d) $\frac{1}{a} < \frac{1}{b}$
(e) $(a - b)(b - a) > 0$	(f) $a^2 < b^2$

16. Intervals and Graphs on the Real Number Line Complete the table with the appropriate interval notation, set notation, and graph on the real number line.

Interval Notation	Set Notation	Graph
		$\begin{array}{c c} \hline & & \\ \hline & & \\ -2 & -1 & 0 \end{array} \succ x$
$(-\infty, -4]$		
	$\left\{x: 3 \le x \le \frac{11}{2}\right\}$	
(-1,7)		

Analyzing an Inequality In Exercises 17–20, verbally describe the subset of real numbers represented by the inequality. Sketch the subset on the real number line, and state whether the interval is bounded or unbounded.

<b>17.</b> $-3 < x < 3$	<b>18.</b> $x \ge 4$
<b>19.</b> $x \le 5$	<b>20.</b> $0 \le x < 8$

**Using Inequality and Interval Notation** In Exercises 21–24, use inequality and interval notation to describe the set.

**21.** *y* is at least 4.

**22.** q is nonnegative.

- **23.** The interest rate *r* on loans is expected to be greater than 3% and no more than 7%.
- **24.** The temperature *T* is forecast to be above  $90^{\circ}$ F today.

**Solving an Inequality** In Exercises 25–44, solve the inequality and graph the solution on the real number line.

<b>25.</b> $2x - 1 \ge 0$	<b>26.</b> $3x + 1 \ge 2x + 2$
<b>27.</b> $-4 < 2x - 3 < 4$	<b>28.</b> $0 \le x + 3 < 5$
<b>29.</b> $\frac{x}{2} + \frac{x}{3} > 5$	<b>30.</b> $x > \frac{1}{x}$
<b>31.</b> $ x  < 1$	<b>32.</b> $\frac{x}{2} - \frac{x}{3} > 5$
<b>33.</b> $\left \frac{x-3}{2}\right  \ge 5$	<b>34.</b> $\left \frac{x}{2}\right  > 3$
<b>35.</b> $ x - a  < b, b > 0$	<b>36.</b> $ x+2  < 5$
<b>37.</b> $ 2x + 1  < 5$	<b>38.</b> $ 3x + 1  \ge 4$
<b>39.</b> $\left 1 - \frac{2}{3}x\right  < 1$	<b>40.</b> $ 9 - 2x  < 1$
<b>41.</b> $x^2 \leq 3 - 2x$	<b>42.</b> $x^4 - x \le 0$
<b>43.</b> $x^2 + x - 1 \le 5$	<b>44.</b> $2x^2 + 1 < 9x - 3$

**Distance on the Real Number Line** In Exercises 45–48, find the directed distance from a to b, the directed distance from b to a, and the distance between a and b.

45.	a = -1 $b = 3$	
	$-2  -1  0  1  2  3  4 \qquad \qquad$	
46.	$a = -\frac{5}{2}$ $b = -\frac{13}{4}$	
	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	
47.	(a) $a = 126, b = 75$	
	(b) $a = -126, b = -75$	
48.	(a) $a = 9.34, b = -5.65$	
	(b) $a = \frac{16}{5}, b = \frac{112}{75}$	

**Using Absolute Value Notation** In Exercises 49–54, use absolute value notation to define the interval or pair of intervals on the real number line.



- C.1 Real Numbers and the Real Number Line C9
- 53. (a) All numbers that are at most 10 units from 12
  - (b) All numbers that are at least 10 units from 12
- **54.** (a) *y* is at most two units from *a*.
  - (b) *y* is less than  $\delta$  units from *c*.

Finding the Midpoint In Exercises 55–58, find the midpoint of the interval.



- **58.** (a) [-6.85, 9.35]
  - (b) [-4.6, -1.3]
- **59. Profit** The revenue *R* from selling *x* units of a product is

R = 115.95x

and the cost C of producing x units is

C = 95x + 750.

To make a (positive) profit, *R* must be greater than *C*. For what values of *x* will the product return a profit?

**60. Fleet Costs** A utility company has a fleet of vans. The annual operating cost *C* (in dollars) of each van is estimated to be

C = 0.32m + 2300

where *m* is measured in miles. The company wants the annual operating cost of each van to be less than 10,000. To do this, *m* must be less than what value?

**61.** Fair Coin To determine whether a coin is fair (has an equal probability of landing tails up or heads up), you toss the coin 100 times and record the number of heads *x*. The coin is declared unfair when

$$\left|\frac{x-50}{5}\right| \ge 1.645.$$

For what values of x will the coin be declared unfair?

**62. Daily Production** The estimated daily oil production *p* at a refinery is

$$|p - 2,250,000| < 125,000$$

where p is measured in barrels. Determine the high and low production levels.

Which Number is Greater? In Exercises 63 and 64, determine which of the two real numbers is greater.

**63.** (a) 
$$\pi \operatorname{or} \frac{355}{113}$$
  
(b)  $\pi \operatorname{or} \frac{22}{7}$ 
**64.** (a)  $\frac{224}{151} \operatorname{or} \frac{144}{97}$   
**65.** (b)  $\frac{73}{81} \operatorname{or} \frac{6427}{143}$ 

**65.** Approximation—Powers of 10 Light travels at the speed of  $2.998 \times 10^8$  meters per second. Which best estimates the distance in meters that light travels in a year?

(a) $9.5 \times 10^5$	(b) $9.5 \times 10^{15}$

- (c)  $9.5 \times 10^{12}$  (d)  $9.6 \times 10^{16}$
- **66.** Writing The accuracy of an approximation of a number is related to how many significant digits there are in the approximation. Write a definition of significant digits and illustrate the concept with examples.

# **True or False?** In Exercises 67–72, determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is false, explain why or give an example that shows it is false.

- 67. The reciprocal of a nonzero integer is an integer.
- **68.** The reciprocal of a nonzero rational number is a rational number.
- 69. Each real number is either rational or irrational.
- 70. The absolute value of each real number is positive.
- **71.** If x < 0, then  $\sqrt{x^2} = -x$ .
- 72. If a and b are any two distinct real numbers, then a < b or a > b.

#### **Proof** In Exercises 73–80, prove the property.

73. 
$$|ab| = |a||b|$$
  
74.  $|a - b| = |b - a|$   
[*Hint*:  $(a - b) = (-1)(b - a)$ ]  
75.  $\left|\frac{a}{b}\right| = \frac{|a|}{|b|}, \quad b \neq 0$   
76.  $|a| = \sqrt{a^2}$   
77.  $|a^n| = |a|^n, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, ...$ 

- **78.**  $-|a| \le a \le |a|$
- 79.  $|a| \leq k$  if and only if  $-k \leq a \leq k$ , k > 0.
- **80.**  $|a| \ge k$  if and only if  $a \le -k$  or  $a \ge k$ , k > 0.
- **81. Proof** Find an example for which |a b| > |a| |b|, and an example for which |a b| = |a| |b|. Then prove that  $|a b| \ge |a| |b|$  for all a, b.
- **82. Maximum and Minimum** Show that the maximum of two numbers *a* and *b* is given by the formula

 $\max(a, b) = \frac{1}{2}(a + b + |a - b|).$ 

Derive a similar formula for min(a, b).

# **C.2** The Cartesian Plane

- Understand the Cartesian plane.
- Use the Distance Formula to find the distance between two points and use the Midpoint Formula to find the midpoint of a line segment.
- Find equations of circles and sketch the graphs of circles.

# The Cartesian Plane

Just as you can represent real numbers by points on a real number line, you can represent ordered pairs of real numbers by points in a plane called the **rectangular coordinate system**, or the **Cartesian plane**, after the French mathematician René Descartes.

The Cartesian plane is formed by using two real number lines intersecting at right angles, as shown in Figure C.14. The horizontal real number line is usually called the *x*-axis, and the vertical real number line is usually called the *y*-axis. The point of intersection of these two axes is the **origin**. The two axes divide the plane into four parts called **quadrants**.



Each point in the plane is identified by an **ordered pair** (x, y) of real numbers x and y, called the **coordinates** of the point. The number x represents the directed distance from the y-axis to the point, and the number y represents the directed distance from the x-axis to the point (see Figure C.14). For the point (x, y), the first coordinate is the **x-coordinate** or **abscissa**, and the second coordinate is the **y-coordinate** or **ordinate**. For example, Figure C.15 shows the locations of the points (-1, 2), (3, 4), (0, 0), (3, 0), and (-2, -3) in the Cartesian plane. The signs of the coordinates of a point determine the quadrant in which the point lies. For instance, if x > 0 and y < 0, then the point (x, y) lies in Quadrant IV.

Note that an ordered pair (a, b) is used to denote either a point in the plane *or* an open interval on the real number line. This, however, should not be confusing—the nature of the problem should clarify whether a point in the plane or an open interval is being discussed.

# The Distance and Midpoint Formulas

Recall from the Pythagorean Theorem that, in a right triangle, the hypotenuse c and sides a and b are related by  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ . Conversely, if  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ , then the triangle is a right triangle (see Figure C.16).



**Figure C.16** or of determining the distance



The distance between two points **Figure C.17** 

Now, consider the problem of determining the distance *d* between the two points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the plane. If the points lie on a horizontal line, then  $y_1 = y_2$  and the distance between the points is  $|x_2 - x_1|$ . If the points lie on a vertical line, then  $x_1 = x_2$  and the distance between the points is  $|y_2 - y_1|$ . When the two points do not lie on a horizontal or vertical line, they can be used to form a right triangle, as shown in Figure C.17. The length of the vertical side of the triangle is  $|y_2 - y_1|$ , and the length of the horizontal side is  $|x_2 - x_1|$ . By the Pythagorean Theorem, it follows that

$$d^{2} = |x_{2} - x_{1}|^{2} + |y_{2} - y_{1}|^{2}$$
$$d = \sqrt{|x_{2} - x_{1}|^{2} + |y_{2} - y_{1}|^{2}}$$

Replacing  $|x_2 - x_1|^2$  and  $|y_2 - y_1|^2$  by the equivalent expressions  $(x_2 - x_1)^2$  and  $(y_2 - y_1)^2$  produces the **Distance Formula.** 

# **Distance Formula**

The distance *d* between the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the plane is given by  $d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}.$ 

# EXAMPLE 1 Finding the Distance Between Two Points

Find the distance between the points (-2, 1) and (3, 4).

## Solution

$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$
 Distance Formula  
=  $\sqrt{[3 - (-2)]^2 + (4 - 1)^2}$  Substitute for  $x_1, y_1, x_2$ , and  $y_2$ .  
=  $\sqrt{5^2 + 3^2}$   
=  $\sqrt{25 + 9}$   
=  $\sqrt{34}$   
 $\approx 5.83$ 



Verifying a right triangle **Figure C.18** 







Midpoint of a line segment **Figure C.20** 

# EXAMPLE 2

# **PLE 2** Verifying a Right Triangle

Verify that the points (2, 1), (4, 0), and (5, 7) form the vertices of a right triangle.

**Solution** Figure C.18 shows the triangle formed by the three points. The lengths of the three sides are as follows.

$$d_1 = \sqrt{(5-2)^2 + (7-1)^2} = \sqrt{9+36} = \sqrt{45}$$
  

$$d_2 = \sqrt{(4-2)^2 + (0-1)^2} = \sqrt{4+1} = \sqrt{5}$$
  

$$d_3 = \sqrt{(5-4)^2 + (7-0)^2} = \sqrt{1+49} = \sqrt{50}$$

Because

 $d_1^2 + d_2^2 = 45 + 5 = 50$ 

Sum of squares of sides

and

Square of hypotenuse

you can apply the Pythagorean Theorem to conclude that the triangle is a right triangle.

# EXAMPLE 3

 $d_3^2 = 50$ 

# E 3 Using the Distance Formula

Find x such that the distance between (x, 3) and (2, -1) is 5.

**Solution** Using the Distance Formula, you can write the following.

$5 = \sqrt{(x-2)^2 + [3-(-1)]^2}$	Distance Formula
$25 = (x^2 - 4x + 4) + 16$	Square each side.
$0 = x^2 - 4x - 5$	Write in general form.
0 = (x - 5)(x + 1)	Factor.

So, x = 5 or x = -1, and you can conclude that there are two solutions. That is, each of the points (5, 3) and (-1, 3) lies five units from the point (2, -1), as shown in Figure C.19.

The coordinates of the **midpoint** of the line segment joining two points can be found by "averaging" the *x*-coordinates of the two points and "averaging" the *y*-coordinates of the two points. That is, the midpoint of the line segment joining the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the plane is

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}\right)$$
. M

Midpoint Formula

For instance, the midpoint of the line segment joining the points (-5, -3) and (9, 3) is

$$\left(\frac{-5+9}{2}, \frac{-3+3}{2}\right) = (2,0)$$

as shown in Figure C.20.



Definition of a circle **Figure C.21** 



Figure C.22

# **Equations of Circles**

A **circle** can be defined as the set of all points in a plane that are equidistant from a fixed point. The fixed point is the **center** of the circle, and the distance between the center and a point on the circle is the **radius** (see Figure C.21).

You can use the Distance Formula to write an equation for the circle with center (h, k) and radius *r*. Let (x, y) be any point on the circle. Then the distance between (x, y) and the center (h, k) is given by

$$\sqrt{(x-h)^2 + (y-k)^2} = r.$$

By squaring each side of this equation, you obtain the **standard form of the equation of a circle.** 

# Standard Form of The Equation of a Circle

The point (x, y) lies on the circle of radius r and center (h, k) if and only if

 $(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2.$ 

The standard form of the equation of a circle with center at the origin, (h, k) = (0, 0), is

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2.$$

If r = 1, then the circle is called the **unit circle**.

# **EXAMPLE 4**

# Writing the Equation of a Circle

The point (3, 4) lies on a circle whose center is at (-1, 2), as shown in Figure C.22. Write the standard form of the equation of this circle.

**Solution** The radius of the circle is the distance between (-1, 2) and (3, 4).

$$r = \sqrt{[3 - (-1)]^2 + (4 - 2)^2} = \sqrt{16 + 4} = \sqrt{20}$$

You can write the standard form of the equation of this circle as

$$[x - (-1)]^{2} + (y - 2)^{2} = (\sqrt{20})^{2}$$
  
(x + 1)^{2} + (y - 2)^{2} = 20. Write in standa

ard form.

By squaring and simplifying, the equation  $(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2$  can be written in the following general form of the equation of a circle.

 $Ax^2 + Ay^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0, \quad A \neq 0$ 

To convert such an equation to the standard form

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = p$$

you can use a process called **completing the square.** If p > 0, then the graph of the equation is a circle. If p = 0, then the graph is the single point (h, k). If p < 0, then the equation has no graph.

# EXAMPLE 5 Completing the Square

Sketch the graph of the circle whose general equation is

$$4x^2 + 4y^2 + 20x - 16y + 37 = 0$$

**Solution** To complete the square, first divide by 4 so that the coefficients of  $x^2$  and  $y^2$  are both 1.



Note that you complete the square by adding the square of half the coefficient of *x* and the square of half the coefficient of *y* to each side of the equation. The circle is centered at  $\left(-\frac{5}{2}, 2\right)$  and its radius is 1, as shown in Figure C.23.

You have now reviewed some fundamental concepts of *analytic geometry*. Because these concepts are in common use today, it is easy to overlook their revolutionary nature. At the time analytic geometry was being developed by Pierre de Fermat and René Descartes, the two major branches of mathematics—geometry and algebra—were largely independent of each other. Circles belonged to geometry and equations belonged to algebra. The coordination of the points on a circle and the solutions of an equation belongs to what is now called analytic geometry.

It is important to become skilled in analytic geometry so that you can move easily between geometry and algebra. For instance, in Example 4, you were given a geometric description of a circle and were asked to find an algebraic equation for the circle. So, you were moving from geometry to algebra. Similarly, in Example 5 you were given an algebraic equation and asked to sketch a geometric picture. In this case, you were moving from algebra to geometry. These two examples illustrate the two most common problems in analytic geometry.

1. Given a graph, find its equation.







# C.2 Exercises

Using the Distance and Midpoint Formulas In Exercises 1–6, (a) plot the points, (b) find the distance between the points, and (c) find the midpoint of the line segment joining the points.

1. (2, 1), (4, 5) **2.** (-3, 2), (3, -2)**3.**  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1), (-\frac{3}{2}, -5)$  **4.**  $(\frac{2}{3}, -\frac{1}{3}), (\frac{5}{6}, 1)$  **5.**  $(1, \sqrt{3}), (-1, 1)$  **6.**  $(-2, 0), (0, \sqrt{2})$ 

Locating a Point In Exercises 7-10, determine the quadrant(s) in which (x, y) is located so that the condition(s) is (are) satisfied.

Vertices of a Polygon In Exercises 11-14, show that the points are the vertices of the polygon. (A rhombus is a quadrilateral whose sides are all the same length.)

Vertices	Polygon
(4, 0), (2, 1), (-1, -5)	Right triangle
(1, -3), (3, 2), (-2, 4)	Isosceles triangle
(0, 0), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 3)	Rhombus
(0, 1), (3, 7), (4, 4), (1, -2)	Parallelogram
	Vertices (4, 0), (2, 1), (-1, -5) (1, -3), (3, 2), (-2, 4) (0, 0), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 3) (0, 1), (3, 7), (4, 4), (1, -2)

**15. Number of Stores** The table shows the number *y* of Target stores for each year x from 2002 through 2011. (Source: Target Corp.)

Year, <i>x</i>	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Number, y	1147	1225	1308	1397	1488
Year, <i>x</i>	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Number, y	1591	1682	1740	1750	1763

Select reasonable scales on the coordinate axes and plot the points (x, y).

**16.** Conjecture Plot the points (2, 1), (-3, 5), and (7, -3) in a rectangular coordinate system. Then change the sign of the x-coordinate of each point and plot the three new points in the same rectangular coordinate system. What conjecture can you make about the location of a point when the sign of the x-coordinate is changed? Repeat the exercise for the case in which the signs of the y-coordinates are changed.

Collinear Points? In Exercises 17–20, use the Distance Formula to determine whether the points lie on the same line.

**17.** (0, -4), (2, 0), (3, 2)**18.** (0, 4), (7, -6), (-5, 11) **19.** (-2, 1), (-1, 0), (2, -2)**20.** (-1, 1), (3, 3), (5, 5)

Using the Distance Formula In Exercises 21 and 22, find x such that the distance between the points is 5.

**21.** (0, 0), (x, -4)**22.** (2, -1), (x, 2)

Using the Distance Formula In Exercises 23 and 24, find y such that the distance between the points is 8.

- **23.** (0, 0), (3, y)**24.** (5, 1), (5, y)
- 25. Using the Midpoint Formula Use the Midpoint Formula to find the three points that divide the line segment joining  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  into four equal parts.
- 26. Using the Midpoint Formula Use the result of Exercise 25 to find the points that divide the line segment joining the given points into four equal parts.

(a) (1, -2), (4, -1) (b) (-2, -3), (0, 0)

Matching In Exercises 27–30, match the equation with its graph. [The graphs are labeled (a), (b), (c), and (d).]



**27.**  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ **28.**  $(x - 1)^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 4$ **29.**  $(x-1)^2 + y^2 = 0$ **30.**  $\left(x+\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(y-\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{4}$ 

Writing the Equation of a Circle In Exercises 31-38, write the general form of the equation of the circle.

<b>31.</b> Center: (0, 0)	<b>32.</b> Center: (0, 0)
Radius: 3	Radius: 5
<b>33.</b> Center: (2, -1)	<b>34.</b> Center: (-4, 3)
Radius: 4	Radius: $\frac{5}{8}$

**35.** Center: (-1, 2)

Point on circle: (0, 0)

**36.** Center: (3, -2) Point on circle: (-1, 1)

- **37.** Endpoints of a diameter: (2, 5), (4, -1)
- **38.** Endpoints of a diameter: (1, 1), (-1, -1)
- **39. Satellite Communication** Write the standard form of the equation for the path of a communications satellite in a circular orbit 22,000 miles above Earth. (Assume that the radius of Earth is 4000 miles.)
- **40. Building Design** A circular air duct of diameter *D* is fit firmly into the right-angle corner where a basement wall meets the floor (see figure). Find the diameter of the largest water pipe that can be run in the right-angle corner behind the air duct.



Writing the Equation of a Circle In Exercises 41–48, write the standard form of the equation of the circle and sketch its graph.

**41.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 2x + 6y + 6 = 0$  **42.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 2x + 6y - 15 = 0$  **43.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 2x + 6y + 10 = 0$  **44.**  $3x^2 + 3y^2 - 6y - 1 = 0$  **45.**  $2x^2 + 2y^2 - 2x - 2y - 3 = 0$  **46.**  $4x^2 + 4y^2 - 4x + 2y - 1 = 0$  **47.**  $16x^2 + 16y^2 + 16x + 40y - 7 = 0$ **48.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 2y + 3 = 0$ 

**Graphing a Circle** In Exercises 49 and 50, use a graphing utility to graph the equation. Use a *square setting*. (*Hint:* It may be necessary to solve the equation for y and graph the resulting two equations.)

**49.**  $4x^2 + 4y^2 - 4x + 24y - 63 = 0$ **50.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 8x - 6y - 11 = 0$ 

**Sketching a Graph of an Inequality** In Exercises 51 and 52, sketch the set of all points satisfying the inequality. Use a graphing utility to verify your result.

**51.**  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 2y + 1 \le 0$ **52.**  $(x - 1)^2 + (y - \frac{1}{2})^2 > 1$  **53. Proof** Prove that

$$\left(\frac{2x_1+x_2}{3},\frac{2y_1+y_2}{3}\right)$$

is one of the points of trisection of the line segment joining  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ . Find the midpoint of the line segment joining

$$\left(\frac{2x_1+x_2}{3},\frac{2y_1+y_2}{3}\right)$$

and  $(x_2, y_2)$  to find the second point of trisection.

**54. Finding Points of Trisection** Use the results of Exercise 53 to find the points of trisection of the line segment joining each pair of points.

(a) 
$$(1, -2), (4, 1)$$

(b) (-2, -3), (0, 0)

**True or False?** In Exercises 55–58, determine whether the statement is true or false. If it is false, explain why or give an example that shows it is false.

- **55.** If ab < 0, then the point (a, b) lies in either Quadrant II or Quadrant IV.
- **56.** The distance between the points (a + b, a) and (a b, a) is 2b.
- **57.** If the distance between two points is zero, then the two points must coincide.
- **58.** If ab = 0, then the point (a, b) lies on the *x*-axis or on the *y*-axis.

#### **Proof** In Exercises 59–62, prove the statement.

- **59.** The line segments joining the midpoints of the opposite sides of a quadrilateral bisect each other.
- **60.** The perpendicular bisector of a chord of a circle passes through the center of the circle.
- **61.** An angle inscribed in a semicircle is a right angle.
- **62.** The midpoint of the line segment joining the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  is

$$\left(\frac{x_1+x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1+y_2}{2}\right).$$

# C.3 Review of Trigonometric Functions



Standard position of an angle **Figure C.24** 

- Describe angles and use degree measure.
- Use radian measure.
- Understand the definitions of the six trigonometric functions.
- Evaluate trigonometric functions.
- Solve trigonometric equations.
- Graph trigonometric functions.

# Angles and Degree Measure

An **angle** has three parts: an **initial ray**, a **terminal ray**, and a **vertex** (the point of intersection of the two rays), as shown in Figure C.24. An angle is in **standard position** when its initial ray coincides with the positive *x*-axis and its vertex is at the origin. It is assumed that you are familiar with the degree measure of an angle.\* It is common practice to use  $\theta$  (the lowercase Greek letter *theta*) to represent both an angle and its measure. Angles between 0° and 90° are **acute**, and angles between 90° and 180° are **obtuse**.

Positive angles are measured *counterclockwise*, and negative angles are measured *clockwise*. For instance, Figure C.25 shows an angle whose measure is  $-45^{\circ}$ . You cannot assign a measure to an angle by simply knowing where its initial and terminal rays are located. To measure an angle, you must also know how the terminal ray was revolved. For example, Figure C.25 shows that the angle measuring  $-45^{\circ}$  has the same terminal ray as the angle measuring  $315^{\circ}$ . Such angles are **coterminal**. In general, if  $\theta$  is any angle, then



Coterminal angles Figure C.25

 $\theta + n(360)$ , *n* is a nonzero integer

is coterminal with  $\theta$ .

An angle that is larger than  $360^{\circ}$  is one whose terminal ray has been revolved more than one full revolution counterclockwise, as shown in Figure C.26. You can form an angle whose measure is less than  $-360^{\circ}$  by revolving a terminal ray more than one full revolution clockwise.



Figure C.26

Note that it is common to use the symbol  $\theta$  to refer to both an *angle* and its *measure*. For instance, in Figure C.26, you can write the measure of the smaller angle as  $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ .

<sup>\*</sup>For a more complete review of trigonometry, see *Precalculus*, 9th edition, by Larson (Brooks/Cole, Cengage Learning, 2014).

# Radian Measure

To assign a radian measure to an angle  $\theta$ , consider  $\theta$  to be a central angle of a circle of radius 1, as shown in Figure C.27. The **radian measure** of  $\theta$  is then defined to be the length of the arc of the sector. Because the circumference of a circle is  $2\pi r$ , the circumference of a **unit circle** (of radius 1) is  $2\pi$ . This implies that the radian measure of an angle measuring  $360^{\circ}$  is  $2\pi$ . In other words,  $360^{\circ} = 2\pi$  radians.

Using radian measure for  $\theta$ , the length *s* of a circular arc of radius *r* is  $s = r\theta$ , as shown in Figure C.28.



You should know the conversions of the common angles shown in Figure C.29. For other angles, use the fact that  $180^{\circ}$  is equal to  $\pi$  radians.



Radian and degree measures for several common angles Figure C.29





Sides of a right triangle **Figure C.30** 



An angle in standard position Figure C.31

# **The Trigonometric Functions**

There are two common approaches to the study of trigonometry. In one, the trigonometric functions are defined as ratios of two sides of a right triangle. In the other, these functions are defined in terms of a point on the terminal side of an angle in standard position. The six trigonometric functions, **sine**, **cosine**, **tangent**, **cotangent**, **secant**, and **cosecant** (abbreviated as sin, cos, tan, cot, sec, and csc, respectively), are defined below from both viewpoints.

# Definition of the Six Trigonometric Functions

*Right triangle definitions, where*  $0 < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$  (see Figure C.30).

$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$	$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$	$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{adjacent}}$
$\csc \ \theta = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{opposite}}$	sec $\theta = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{adjacent}}$	$\cot \theta = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{opposite}}$

*Circular function definitions, where*  $\theta$  *is any angle* (see Figure C.31).

$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$	$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$	$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x},  x \neq 0$
$\csc \ \theta = \frac{r}{y},  y \neq 0$	$\sec \theta = \frac{r}{x},  x \neq 0$	$\cot \theta = \frac{x}{y},  y \neq 0$

The trigonometric identities listed below are direct consequences of the definitions. [Note that  $\phi$  is the lowercase Greek letter *phi* and  $\sin^2 \theta$  is used to represent  $(\sin \theta)^2$ .]

TRIGONOMETRIC IDENTITIES		
Pythagorean Identities:	Even/Odd Identities	
$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$	$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin\theta$	$\csc(-\theta) = -\csc \theta$
$1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$	$\cos(-\theta) = \cos\theta$	$\sec(-\theta) = \sec \theta$
$1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta$	$\tan(-\theta) = -\tan\theta$	$\cot(-\theta) = -\cot\theta$
Sum and Difference Formulas	Power-Reducing Formulas	Double-Angle Formulas
$\sin(\theta \pm \phi) = \sin \theta \cos \phi \pm \cos \theta \sin \phi$	$\sin^2\theta = \frac{1-\cos 2\theta}{2}$	$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin \theta \cos \theta$
$\cos(\theta \pm \phi) = \cos \theta \cos \phi \mp \sin \theta \sin \phi$	$\cos^2\theta = \frac{1+\cos 2\theta}{2}$	$\cos 2\theta = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1$ = 1 - 2 sin <sup>2</sup> $\theta$ = cos <sup>2</sup> $\theta$ - sin <sup>2</sup> $\theta$
$\tan(\theta \pm \phi) = \frac{\tan \theta \pm \tan \phi}{1 \mp \tan \theta \tan \phi}$	$\tan^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{1 + \cos 2\theta}$	$\tan 2\theta = \frac{2\tan\theta}{1-\tan^2\theta}$
Law of Cosines:	<b>Reciprocal Identities</b>	Quotient Identities:
$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$	$\csc \ \theta = \frac{1}{\sin \ \theta}$	$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$
b A a	$\sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$	$\cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$
C	$\cot \theta = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$	

# **Evaluating Trigonometric Functions**

There are two ways to evaluate trigonometric functions: (1) decimal approximations with a calculator and (2) exact evaluations using trigonometric identities and formulas from geometry. When using a calculator to evaluate a trigonometric function, remember to set the calculator to the appropriate mode—degree mode or *radian* mode.

# EXAMPLE 2

# **Exact Evaluation of Trigonometric Functions**

Evaluate the sine, cosine, and tangent of  $\frac{\pi}{3}$ .

**Solution** Because  $60^\circ = \pi/3$  radians, you can draw an equilateral triangle with sides of length 1 and  $\theta$  as one of its angles, as shown in Figure C.32. Because the altitude of this triangle bisects its base, you know that  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ . Using the Pythagorean Theorem, you obtain

$$y = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

Now, knowing the values of *x*, *y*, and *r*, you can write the following.

$$\sin \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{y}{r} = \frac{\sqrt{3}/2}{1} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$
$$\cos \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{x}{r} = \frac{1/2}{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$
$$\tan \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{\sqrt{3}/2}{1/2} = \sqrt{3}$$

Note that all angles in this text are measured in radians unless stated otherwise. For example, when sin 3 is written, the sine of 3 radians is meant, and when sin  $3^{\circ}$  is written, the sine of 3 degrees is meant.

The degree and radian measures of several common angles are shown in the table below, along with the corresponding values of the sine, cosine, and tangent (see Figure C.33).

# **Common First-Quadrant Angles**

Degrees	0	30°	45°	60°	90°
Radians	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$
$\sin \theta$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
$\cos \theta$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
$\tan \theta$	0	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	Undefined







Common angles Figure C.33

-		
Quadrant II $\sin \theta$ : + $\cos \theta$ : - $\tan \theta$ : -	Quadrant I $\sin \theta$ : + $\cos \theta$ : + $\tan \theta$ : +	
Quadrant III $\sin \theta$ : - $\cos \theta$ : - $\tan \theta$ : +	Quadrant IV $\sin \theta$ : - $\cos \theta$ : + $\tan \theta$ : -	

v

Quadrant signs for trigonometric functions

Figure C.34

The quadrant signs for the sine, cosine, and tangent functions are shown in Figure C.34. To extend the use of the table on the preceding page to angles in quadrants other than the first quadrant, you can use the concept of a **reference angle** (see Figure C.35), with the appropriate quadrant sign. For instance, the reference angle for  $3\pi/4$  is  $\pi/4$ , and because the sine is positive in Quadrant II, you can write

$$\sin\frac{3\pi}{4} = \sin\frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

Similarly, because the reference angle for  $330^{\circ}$  is  $30^{\circ}$ , and the tangent is negative in Quadrant IV, you can write

$$\tan 330^\circ = -\tan 30^\circ = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}.$$



Figure C.35

**EXAMPLE 3** 

# **Trigonometric Identities and Calculators**

Evaluate each trigonometric expression.

**a.** 
$$\sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)$$
 **b.**  $\sec 60^{\circ}$  **c.**  $\cos(1.2)$ 

## Solution

**a.** Using the reduction formula  $\sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta$ , you can write

$$\sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = -\sin\frac{\pi}{3} = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

**b.** Using the reciprocal identity sec  $\theta = 1/\cos \theta$ , you can write

$$\sec 60^\circ = \frac{1}{\cos 60^\circ} = \frac{1}{1/2} = 2.$$

c. Using a calculator, you obtain

 $\cos(1.2) \approx 0.3624.$ 

Remember that 1.2 is given in *radian* measure. Consequently, your calculator must be set in *radian* mode.

# Solving Trigonometric Equations

How would you solve the equation  $\sin \theta = 0$ ? You know that  $\theta = 0$  is one solution, but this is not the only solution. Any one of the following values of  $\theta$  is also a solution.

 $\ldots, -3\pi, -2\pi, -\pi, 0, \pi, 2\pi, 3\pi, \ldots$ 

You can write this infinite solution set as  $\{n\pi: n \text{ is an integer}\}$ .

EXAMPLE 4 Solving a Trigonometric Equation

Solve the equation

$$\sin\,\theta=-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

**Solution** To solve the equation, you should consider that the sine is negative in Quadrants III and IV and that

$$\sin\frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

So, you are seeking values of  $\theta$  in the third and fourth quadrants that have a reference angle of  $\pi/3$ . In the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ , the two angles fitting these criteria are

$$\theta = \pi + \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{4\pi}{3}$$
 and  $\theta = 2\pi - \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{5\pi}{3}$ 

By adding integer multiples of  $2\pi$  to each of these solutions, you obtain the following general solution.

$$\theta = \frac{4\pi}{3} + 2n\pi$$
 or  $\theta = \frac{5\pi}{3} + 2n\pi$ , where *n* is an integer.

See Figure C.36.

# EXAMPLE 5 Solving a Trigonometric Equation

Solve  $\cos 2\theta = 2 - 3 \sin \theta$ , where  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ .

**Solution** Using the double-angle identity  $\cos 2\theta = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \theta$ , you can rewrite the equation as follows.

$\cos 2\theta = 2 - 3\sin \theta$	Write original equation.
$1 - 2\sin^2\theta = 2 - 3\sin\theta$	Trigonometric identity
$0 = 2\sin^2\theta - 3\sin\theta + 1$	Quadratic form
$0 = (2\sin\theta - 1)(\sin\theta - 1)$	Factor.

If  $2 \sin \theta - 1 = 0$ , then  $\sin \theta = 1/2$  and  $\theta = \pi/6$  or  $\theta = 5\pi/6$ . If  $\sin \theta - 1 = 0$ , then  $\sin \theta = 1$  and  $\theta = \pi/2$ . So, for  $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$ , there are three solutions.

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}, \quad \frac{5\pi}{6}, \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\pi}{2}$$



Figure C.36

# **Graphs of Trigonometric Functions**

A function *f* is **periodic** when there exists a nonzero number *p* such that f(x + p) = f(x) for all *x* in the domain of *f*. The least such positive value of *p* (if it exists) is the **period** of *f*. The sine, cosine, secant, and cosecant functions each have a period of  $2\pi$ , and the other two trigonometric functions, tangent and cotangent, have a period of  $\pi$ , as shown in Figure C.37.



The graphs of the six trigonometric functions **Figure C.37** 

Note in Figure C.37 that the maximum value of sin x and cos x is 1 and the minimum value is -1. The graphs of the functions  $y = a \sin bx$  and  $y = a \cos bx$  oscillate between -a and a, and so have an **amplitude** of |a|. Furthermore, because bx = 0 when x = 0 and  $bx = 2\pi$  when  $x = 2\pi/b$ , it follows that the functions  $y = a \sin bx$  and  $y = a \cos bx$  each have a period of  $2\pi/|b|$ . The table below summarizes the amplitudes and periods of some types of trigonometric functions.

Function	Period	Amplitude
$y = a \sin bx$ or $y = a \cos bx$	$\frac{2\pi}{ b }$	a
$y = a \tan bx$ or $y = a \cot bx$	$\frac{\pi}{ b }$	Not applicable
$y = a \sec bx$ or $y = a \csc bx$	$\frac{2\pi}{ b }$	Not applicable



Figure C.38

# EXAMPLE 6

# Sketching the Graph of a Trigonometric Function

Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = 3 \cos 2x$ .

**Solution** The graph of  $f(x) = 3 \cos 2x$  has an amplitude of 3 and a period of  $2\pi/2 = \pi$ . Using the basic shape of the graph of the cosine function, sketch one period of the function on the interval  $[0, \pi]$ , using the following pattern.

Maximum: 
$$(0, 3)$$
  
Minimum:  $\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, -3\right)$   
Maximum:  $(\pi, 3)$ 

By continuing this pattern, you can sketch several cycles of the graph, as shown in Figure C.38.

Horizontal shifts, vertical shifts, and reflections can be applied to the graphs of trigonometric functions, as illustrated in Example 7.

# **EXAMPLE 7**

# Shifts of Graphs of Trigonometric Functions

Sketch the graph of each function.

**a.** 
$$f(x) = \sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$
 **b.**  $f(x) = 2 + \sin x$  **c.**  $f(x) = 2 + \sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{4}\right)$ 

# Solution

- **a.** To sketch the graph of  $f(x) = \sin(x + \pi/2)$ , shift the graph of  $y = \sin x$  to the left  $\pi/2$  units, as shown in Figure C.39(a).
- **b.** To sketch the graph of  $f(x) = 2 + \sin x$ , shift the graph of  $y = \sin x$  upward two units, as shown in Figure C.39(b).
- c. To sketch the graph of  $f(x) = 2 + \sin(x \pi/4)$ , shift the graph of  $y = \sin x$  upward two units and to the right  $\pi/4$  units, as shown in Figure C.39(c).







(a) Horizontal shift to the left

(b) Vertical shift upward

(c) Horizontal and vertical shifts

Transformations of the graph of  $y = \sin x$ 

Figure C.39

# C.3 Exercises

**Coterminal Angles in Degrees** In Exercises 1 and 2, determine two coterminal angles in degree measure (one positive and one negative) for each angle.



**Coterminal Angles in Radians** In Exercises 3 and 4, determine two coterminal angles in radian measure (one positive and one negative) for each angle.



**Degrees to Radians** In Exercises 5 and 6, rewrite each angle in radian measure as a multiple of  $\pi$  and as a decimal accurate to three decimal places.

5.	(a)	30°	(b) 150°	(c) 315°	(d) 120°
6.	(a)	$-20^{\circ}$	(b) $-240^{\circ}$	(c) $-270^{\circ}$	(d) 144°

**Radians to Degrees** In Exercises 7 and 8, rewrite each angle in degree measure.

7. (a) 
$$\frac{3\pi}{2}$$
 (b)  $\frac{7\pi}{6}$  (c)  $-\frac{7\pi}{12}$  (d) -2.367

8. (a) 
$$\frac{7\pi}{3}$$
 (b)  $-\frac{11\pi}{30}$  (c)  $\frac{11\pi}{6}$  (d) 0.438

**9. Completing a Table** Let *r* represent the radius of a circle,  $\theta$  the central angle (measured in radians), and *s* the length of the arc subtended by the angle. Use the relationship  $s = r\theta$  to complete the table.

r	8 ft	15 in.	85 cm		
s	12 ft			96 in.	8642 mi
θ		1.6	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	4	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$

- **10. Angular Speed** A car is moving at the rate of 50 miles per hour, and the diameter of its wheels is 2.5 feet.
  - (a) Find the number of revolutions per minute that the wheels are rotating.
  - (b) Find the angular speed of the wheels in radians per minute.

Finding the Six Trigonometric Functions In Exercises 11 and 12, determine all six trigonometric functions for the angle  $\theta$ .



**Determining a Quadrant** In Exercises 13 and 14, determine the quadrant in which  $\theta$  lies.

13. (a) sin θ < 0 and cos θ < 0</li>
(b) sec θ > 0 and cot θ < 0</li>
14. (a) sin θ > 0 and cos θ < 0</li>

(b)  $\csc \theta < 0$  and  $\tan \theta > 0$ 

**Evaluating a Trigonometric Function** In Exercises 15–18, evaluate the trigonometric function.



**Evaluating Trigonometric Functions** In Exercises 19–22, evaluate the sine, cosine, and tangent of each angle *without* using a calculator.

19.	(a)	60°	20.	(a)	$-30^{\circ}$
	(b)	120°		(b)	150°
	(c)	$\frac{\pi}{4}$		(c)	$-\frac{\pi}{6}$
	(d)	$\frac{5\pi}{4}$		(d)	$\frac{\pi}{2}$
21.	(a)	225°	22.	(a)	750°
	(b)	-225°		(b)	510°
	(c)	$\frac{5\pi}{3}$		(c)	$\frac{10\pi}{3}$
	(d)	$\frac{11\pi}{6}$		(d)	$\frac{17\pi}{3}$

Evaluating Trigonometric Functions In Exercises 23–26, use a calculator to evaluate each trigonometric function. Round your answers to four decimal places.

<b>23.</b> (a) sin 10°	<b>24.</b> (a) sec 225°
(b) csc 10°	(b) sec 135°
<b>25.</b> (a) $\tan \frac{\pi}{9}$	<b>26.</b> (a) cot(1.35)
(b) $\tan \frac{10\pi}{9}$	(b) $\tan(1.35)$

Solving a Trigonometric Equation In Exercises 27–30, find two solutions of each equation. Give your answers in radians ( $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$ ). Do not use a calculator.

**27.** (a) 
$$\cos \theta = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$
  
(b)  $\cos \theta = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$   
**28.** (a)  $\sec \theta = 2$   
(b)  $\sec \theta = -2$   
**29.** (a)  $\tan \theta = 1$   
(b)  $\cot \theta = -\sqrt{3}$   
**30.** (a)  $\sin \theta = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$   
(b)  $\sin \theta = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ 

Solving a Trigonometric Equation In Exercises 31–38, solve the equation for  $\theta$  ( $0 \le \theta < 2\pi$ ).

**31.**  $2 \sin^2 \theta = 1$  **32.**  $\tan^2 \theta = 3$  **33.**  $\tan^2 \theta - \tan \theta = 0$  **34.**  $2 \cos^2 \theta - \cos \theta = 1$  **35.**  $\sec \theta \csc \theta = 2 \csc \theta$  **36.**  $\sin \theta = \cos \theta$  **37.**  $\cos^2 \theta + \sin \theta = 1$ **38.**  $\cos \frac{\theta}{2} - \cos \theta = 1$  **39.** Airplane Ascent An airplane leaves the runway climbing at an angle of  $18^{\circ}$  with a speed of 275 feet per second (see figure). Find the altitude *a* of the plane after 1 minute.



**40. Height of a Mountain** While traveling across flat land, you notice a mountain directly in front of you. Its angle of elevation (to the peak) is 3.5°. After you drive 13 miles closer to the mountain, the angle of elevation is 9°. Approximate the height of the mountain.



**Period and Amplitude** In Exercises 41–44, determine the period and amplitude of each function.





Period In Exercises 45–48, find the period of the function.

<b>45.</b> $y = 5 \tan 2x$	<b>46.</b> $y = 7 \tan 2\pi x$
<b>47.</b> $y = \sec 5x$	<b>48.</b> $y = \csc 4x$

Writing In Exercises 49 and 50, use a graphing utility to graph each function f in the same viewing window for c = -2, c = -1, c = 1, and c = 2. Give a written description of the change in the graph caused by changing c.

**49.** (a) 
$$f(x) = c \sin x$$
  
(b)  $f(x) = \cos(cx)$   
(c)  $f(x) = \cos(\pi x - c)$   
**50.** (a)  $f(x) = \sin x + c$   
(b)  $f(x) = -\sin(2\pi x - c)$   
(c)  $f(x) = \cos(\pi x - c)$   
(c)  $f(x) = \cos(\pi x - c)$ 

Sketching the Graph of a Trigonometric Function In Exercises 51–62, sketch the graph of the function.

51. 
$$y = \sin \frac{x}{2}$$
  
52.  $y = 2 \cos 2x$   
53.  $y = -\sin \frac{2\pi x}{3}$   
54.  $y = 2 \tan x$   
55.  $y = \csc \frac{x}{2}$   
56.  $y = \tan 2x$   
57.  $y = 2 \sec 2x$   
58.  $y = \csc 2\pi x$   
59.  $y = \sin(x + \pi)$   
60.  $y = \cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)$   
61.  $y = 1 + \cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$   
62.  $y = 1 + \sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ 

**Graphical Reasoning** In Exercises 63 and 64, find *a*, *b*, and *c* such that the graph of the function matches the graph in the figure.



- **65. Think About It** Sketch the graphs of  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = |\sin x|$ , and  $h(x) = \sin(|x|)$ . In general, how are the graphs of |f(x)| and f(|x|) related to the graph of f?
- **66. Think About It** The model for the height h of a Ferris wheel car is

 $h = 51 + 50 \sin 8\pi t$ 

where *t* is measured in minutes. (The Ferris wheel has a radius of 50 feet.) This model yields a height of 51 feet when t = 0. Alter the model so that the height of the car is 1 foot when t = 0. **67. Sales** The monthly sales *S* (in thousands of units) of a seasonal product are modeled by

$$S = 58.3 + 32.5 \cos \frac{\pi t}{6}$$

where t is the time (in months), with t = 1 corresponding to January. Use a graphing utility to graph the model for S and determine the months when sales exceed 75,000 units.

- **68. Investigation** Two trigonometric functions *f* and *g* have a period of 2, and their graphs intersect at x = 5.35.
  - (a) Give one smaller and one larger positive value of *x* at which the functions have the same value.
  - (b) Determine one negative value of x at which the graphs intersect.
  - (c) Is it true that f(13.35) = g(-4.65)? Give a reason for your answer.
- **Pattern Recognition** In Exercises 69 and 70, use a graphing utility to compare the graph of f with the given graph. Try to improve the approximation by adding a term to f(x). Use a graphing utility to verify that your new approximation is better than the original. Can you find other terms to add to make the approximation even better? What is the pattern? (In Exercise 69, sine terms can be used to improve the approximation, and in Exercise 70, cosine terms can be used.)

$$69. \ f(x) = \frac{4}{\pi} \left( \sin \pi x + \frac{1}{3} \sin 3\pi x \right)$$

$$y$$

$$2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \sin 3\pi x$$

$$-2 + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{\pi^2} \left( \cos \pi x + \frac{1}{9} \cos 3\pi x \right)$$

$$70. \ f(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{\pi^2} \left( \cos \pi x + \frac{1}{9} \cos 3\pi x \right)$$