college algebra and igonometry

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Canyon, Texas

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preface

As a teacher I have always felt that many college algebra and trigonometry (precalculus mathematics) texts do not devote an adequate amount of time to the trigonometry portion of the text. Thus as an author I decided to write a book which does give detailed coverage to the trigonometry portion of the book.

When writing this book, my main objectives were (a) to write a text-book that the student could read and understand, and (b) to *stress problem solving* as a means of obtaining an understanding of the topics that traditionally comprise college algebra and trigonometry (precalculus mathematics) courses. To accomplish these goals, I have done the following:

- 1. Worked out many examples in detail to emphasize both the theoretical and the computational aspects of the topics covered in the text.
- 2. Following many of the examples (particularly those in the earlier chapters), I have given other problems, similar in nature to the examples, as exercises for the student to work in class or at home so that he can be sure that he understands the concepts discussed in the examples.
- 3. Given an extensive selection of problems at the end of each section so that the student can solidify his understanding of the concepts considered in that section.
- 4. Provided chapter review problems at the end of each chapter so that the student can further solidify his understanding of the topics considered in that chapter.

For the convenience of the instructor, the problems at the end of each section are arranged so that the student can obtain a balanced coverage of the material in that section by working every third problem. For the convenience of the instructor and the student, the answers to problems 1, 4, 7, 10, . . . and 2, 5, 8, 11, . . . are given immediately after the problem set. The answers and solutions to all problems are given in a solutions manual which is available to the instructor upon request.

Canyon, Texas

W. G. A.

contents

introductory topics 1	
1.1 Real Numbers 1	
1.2 Sets 6	
1.3 Deductive Reasoning 12	
1.4 The Field of Real Numbers 16	
1.5 Properties of Real Numbers 21	
The Real Number Line, and the Order and Completeness Axioms	28
	1.1 Real Numbers 1 1.2 Sets 6 1.3 Deductive Reasoning 12 1.4 The Field of Real Numbers 16

2 operations on algebraic expressions

2.1 Natural Numbers As Exponents 39
2.2 Basic Operations on Polynomials 41
2.3 Factoring Special Polynomials 49
2.4 Basic Operations on Rational Expressions 53
2.5 Integers As Exponents 63
2.6 Roots; Rational Numbers As Exponents 66

2.7 Radicals 68 2.8 Basic Operations on Radicals 73

2		
3	equations and inequalities in one variable	78

- 3.1 Linear Equations 78
- 3.2 Quadratic Equations 83
- 3.3 Complex Numbers and Imaginary Roots of Quadratic Equations 89
 - 3.4 Applied Problems 93
 - 3.5 Equations in Quadratic Form 99
 - 3.6 Equations Containing Radicals 101
 - 3.7 Linear Inequalities 104
 - 3.8 Inequalities Involving Products or Quotients 109
 - 3.9 Equations and Inequalities Involving Absolute Value 114

4 relations 121

- 4.1 Cartesian Coordinate Systems and the Distance Formula 121
 - 4.2 Relations Defined by Equations 127
 - 4.3 Relations Whose Graphs Are Lines 134
 - 4.4 Relations Whose Graphs Are Circles 142
 - 4.5 Relations Whose Graphs Are Parabolas 146
 - 4.6 Relations Whose Graphs Are Ellipses or Hyperbolas 154
 - 4.7 Relations Defined by Inequalities 162

5 functions 168

- 5.1 Functions (A Special Kind of Relation) 168
 - 5.2 Polynomial Functions 173
 - 5.3 Rational Functions 179
 - 5.4 Square Root Functions 185
 - 5.5 Special Functions 189
- 5.6 Variation As a Functional Relationship 195

exponential and logarithmic functions 201
6.1 Inverse Functions 201 6.2 Exponential Functions 208 6.3 Logarithmic Functions 211 6.4 Common Logarithms 217 6.5 Using Logarithms to Make Numerical Calculations 223 6.6 Natural Logarithms 226 6.7 Exponential and Logarithmic Equations 229 6.8 Applications 231
7 circular functions 238
7.1 The Wrapping Function 238
7.2 The Sine, Cosine, and Tangent Functions 248
7.3 The Cotangent, Secant, and Cosecant Functions 254
7.4 Graphs of the Circular Functions 258
7.5 Determining Circular Function Values Using Tables 263
7.6 Determining Circular Function Values of Any Real Number 2687.7 Inverse Circular Functions 275
7.7 Inverse Circular Functions 275
8 identities involving circular functions 287
8.1 The Fundamental Identities 287
8.2 The Sum and Difference Identities for the Cosine Function 296
 8.3 The Sum and Difference Identities for the Sine and Tangent Functions 302 8.4 The Double-Value Identities 308
8.5 The Half-Value Identities 311
8.6 The Product-to-Sum and the Sum-to-Product Identities 315
further topics involving circular functions 321
9.1 Equations Involving Circular Functions 3219.2 Further Equations Involving Circular Functions 326
9.3 Equations Involving Circular Functions 326 9.3 Equations Involving Inverse Circular Functions 330
Talledolla 330

9.5 More About Graphing Sine and Cosine Curves 345
10
trigonometric functions 352
10.1 Angles 352
10.2 Trigonometric Functions and Their Relationship to Circular Functions 358
10.3 Trigonometric Function Values 364
10.4 Solving Right Triangles 370
10.5 Solving Triangles Using the Law of Cosines 377
10.6 Solving Triangles Using the Law of Sines 382
10.7 The Trigonometric Form of a Complex Number 389
systems of equations and inequalities 400
11.1 Systems of Linear Equations in Two Variables 400
11.2 Systems Involving Nonlinear Equations 406
11.3 Systems of Inequalities 411
11.4 Introduction to Linear Programming 414
11.5 Systems of Linear Equations in Three Variables 422
matrices and determinants 427
12.1 Basic Algebraic Properties of Matrices 427
12.2 Solving Linear Systems Using Matrices 432
12.3 Determinants 437
12.4 Properties of Determinants 442

9.4 Graphing Sine and Cosine Curves 336

13 theory of equations 457

12.5 Solving Linear Systems Using Determinants 44612.6 Inverse of a Square Matrix 450

13.1 Synthetic Division 457

13.2 Remainder and Factor Theorems 461

13.3	Theorems About the Roots of Polynomial Equations	465
	13.4 Real Roots of Polynomial Equations 469	

- 13.5 Rational Roots of Polynomial Equations with Integers As Coefficients 47413.6 Irrational Roots of Polynomial Equations with Real Coefficients 479
 - sequences; mathematical induction; the binomial theorem 484
 - 14.1 Sequences and Series 484
 - 14.2 Arithmetic Sequences and Series 489
 - 14.3 Geometric Sequences and Series 492
 - 14.4 Mathematical Induction 495
 - 14.5 The Binomial Theorem 499

probability 505

- 15.1 The Fundamental Counting Axiom 505
 - 15.2 Permutations 508
 - 15.3 Combinations 511
 - 15.4 Probability 514
 - 15.5 Basic Probability Properties 519
- Table A. Common Logarithms of Numbers 527

 Table B. Powers and Roots 529

 Table C. Circular Function Values 530

 Table D. Trigonometric Function Values 534

index 539

1

introductory topics

1.1 Real Numbers

Since numbers and their properties are of fundamental importance in the study of algebra, we begin with a discussion of various kinds of numbers.

Natural Numbers and Integers

The first kind of numbers with which you became acquainted were the **counting numbers** (also known as the **natural numbers**) $1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Next you were introduced to the number 0 and the negatives, $-1, -2, -3, \ldots$, of the natural numbers. The natural numbers and their negatives, together with the number zero, are known as the **integers**. An integer is said to be an **even integer** if it can be expressed in the form 2k, where k is an integer. An integer is said to be an **odd integer** if it can be expressed in the form 2k + 1, where k is an integer. Note that every integer is either even or odd.

EXAMPLE 1

The integers -6, 0 and 10 are examples of even integers, since

$$-6 = 2(-3),$$

0 = 2(0),

and

$$10 = 2(5)$$
.

On the other hand, the integers -13, 1, and 11 are examples of odd integers, since

$$-13 = 2(-7) + 1$$
,
 $1 = 2(0) + 1$,

and

$$11 = 2(5) + 1$$
.

If a, b, and c are integers with $a \cdot b = c$, then a (and also b) is said to be a **factor** (or **divisor**) of c, and c is said to be a **multiple** of a (and also of b).

EXAMPLE 2

Since $2 \cdot 3 = 6$, 2 and 3 are factors (divisors) of 6, and 6 is a multiple of 2 and of 3.

EXERCISE 1

List all factors of 6.

Answer The factors of 6 are 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, 6, and -6, since 6 = (6)(1) = (-6)(-1) = (3)(2) = (-3)(-2).

EXERCISE 2

Is -9 a multiple of 3?

Answer Yes, since 3(-3) = -9.

A natural number greater than 1 is said to be a **prime number** if it has no natural numbers as divisors except itself and 1. A natural number greater than 1 is said to be a **composite number** if it is not a prime number.

EXAMPLE 3

The natural number 2 is a prime number, since 2 (itself) and 1 are the only divisors of 2 that are natural numbers. Other prime numbers are 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, and so on. The natural number 6 is a composite number, since 6 and 1 are not the only divisors of 6 that are natural numbers. Other such divisors are 2 and 3. Some other composite numbers are 4, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, and so on.

Every composite number can be expressed as the product of primes in a way that is *unique* except for the order of the factors. For example,

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3 = (2 \cdot 2) \cdot 3 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$$

and

$$12 = 6 \cdot 2 = (2 \cdot 3) \cdot 2 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2$$
.

In each case, the factors are the same. However, the order of the factors is different.

Two integers are said to be **relatively prime** if they have no prime factors in common.

EXAMPLE 4

The prime factors of 10 are 2, 5, and 10, and the prime factors of 21 are 3, 7, and 21. Thus 10 and 21 are relatively prime, since none of the prime factors of 10 and of 21 are the same.

EXERCISE 3

Are 10 and 35 relatively prime?

Answer No. They have a common prime factor, namely 5.

Rational Numbers and Irrational Numbers

A rational number is a number that can be expressed in the form p/q, where p and q are integers and $q \ne 0$. For example, $\frac{3}{5}$, $-\frac{2}{7}$, and 2 are rational numbers. Note that 2 is a rational number, since $2 = \frac{2}{1}$.

By using ordinary division, each rational number can be expressed as a **periodic decimal** (i.e., a decimal in which a block of one or more digits in the decimal repeats itself during the division process). Examples are:

$$\frac{4}{5} = .8000 . . . = .8\overline{0},$$
 $\frac{1}{3} = .333 . . . = .\overline{3},$
 $\frac{2}{11} = .181818 . . . = .\overline{18}.$

In each of the previous examples, the bar above the decimal is used to indicate the block of numbers that repeats itself.

It is also true that each periodic decimal can be expressed as the quotient of two integers. That is, each periodic decimal represents a rational number.

EXAMPLE 5

Express $3.\overline{24}$ as the quotient of two integers.

Solution Let x = 3.2424... Then 100x = 324.2424... Subtracting the sides of the first equation from the corresponding sides of the second equation, we get

$$\begin{array}{r}
 100x = 324.2424 . . . \\
 x = 3.2424 . . . \\
 \hline
 99x = 321
 \end{array}$$
 (subtract)

from which it follows that

$$x = \frac{321}{99} = \frac{107}{33}$$
.

EXERCISE 4

Express each of the numbers (a) $2.\overline{171}$ and (b) $4.\overline{395}$ as the quotient of two integers.

Answer (a)
$$\frac{2169}{999}$$
 (b) $\frac{4352}{990}$

Since each rational number can be represented as a periodic decimal, and vice versa, it follows that each decimal that is not periodic must represent some kind of number other than a rational number. We call this new kind of number an irrational number. Thus an **irrational number** is a number whose decimal representation is not periodic. For example, the number .1010010001 . . . , which is formed by adding one additional zero between each two successive 1's, is an irrational number, since it is not a periodic decimal. Other examples of irrational numbers are π , $\sqrt{2}$, and $\sqrt{3}$. To prove that π is irrational requires more mathematics than is available to us in this course. However, we shall show in Section 1.3 that each of the numbers $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{3}$ is an irrational number. Additional examples of irrational numbers are $\pi/5$, $2-\sqrt{2}$, $\sqrt[3]{2}$, $\sqrt[5]{3}$, and $\sqrt{5}+\sqrt{3}$.

Each irrational number can be approximated to any desired degree of accuracy by some rational number. For example, the rational number 3.14159 is a five-decimal approximation of the irrational number π . Four-decimal approximations of $\sqrt{2}$ and $\sqrt{3}$ are 1.4142 and 1.7321, respectively.

Real Numbers

The rational numbers together with the irrational numbers are called the **real numbers.** That is, a real number is any number that has a decimal representation. Even though there are other kinds of numbers, when we speak of numbers in this book we shall mean real numbers unless otherwise specified.

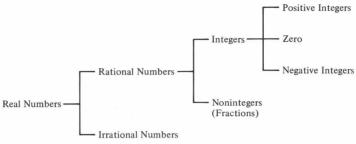


Figure 1.1

The various kinds of (real) numbers considered in the previous discussion and their relationships to one another are summarized in Figure 1.1.

Problems 1.1

- 1. Which of the numbers -4, $\frac{2}{3}$, 0, $\pi/2$, $\sqrt[3]{2}$, 7, $\sqrt{5}$, -1, .02, and . $\overline{02}$ are natural numbers?
- 2. Which of the numbers in problem 1 are integers?
- 3. Which of the numbers in problem 1 are rational numbers?
- 4. Which of the numbers in problem 1 are irrational numbers?
- 5. Explain why 50 is an even integer.
- **6.** Explain why -37 is an odd integer.
- 7. List the factors of 12 that are natural numbers.
- 8. List the factors of 99 that are natural numbers.
- 9. List five multiples of 7.
- 10. List five multiples of 5.
- 11. List the prime numbers between 20 and 30.
- 12. List the prime numbers between 30 and 40.
- 13. Express 98 as the product of primes.
- 14. Express 323 as the product of primes.
- 15. Are 77 and 117 relatively prime? Explain.
- 16. Are 35 and 99 relatively prime? Explain.
- 17. Every rational number can be expressed as a ____? ___ decimal.
- 18. Every irrational number can be expressed as a ____? ___ decimal.

In problems 19 – 24, determine the decimal expansion of the given rational number.

19.
$$\frac{2}{7}$$
 20. $\frac{4}{9}$ 21. $\frac{6}{13}$ 22. $\frac{23}{39}$ 23. $\frac{4}{37}$ 24. $\frac{23}{37}$

In problems 25-36, express the given decimal as the quotient of two integers.

34. .02121

35. 1.37

36. 2.7 $\overline{3}$

- 37. The rational number $\frac{22}{7}$ is frequently used as an approximation of the irrational number π . To how many decimal places are the decimal expansions of $\frac{22}{7}$ and π the same? Obtain a rational number that represents π correct to four decimal places.
- 38. Express $.239\overline{9}$ as the quotient of two integers. Express $.240\overline{0}$ as the quotient of two integers. Can a rational number have two different decimal expansions?

Answers 1.1

1. 7 7. 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12	24, 0, 7, -1 8. 1, 3, 9, 11, 33, 99	4. $\frac{\pi}{2}$, $\sqrt[3]{2}$, $\sqrt{5}$ 105, 0, 5, 10, 15	5. 2(25) 11. 23, 29
13. $2 \cdot 7 \cdot 7$ 19. $\overline{.285714}$ 25. $\frac{4}{9}$ 31. $\frac{35}{99}$ 37. $2, \frac{31413}{99999}$	14. 17 · 19 204 26. $\frac{38}{99}$ 32. $\frac{7}{9}$	16. yes 2223 28. 152 111 34. 7 330 38. yes	17. periodic 23. $.\overline{108}$ 29. $\frac{307}{111}$ 35. $\frac{62}{45}$

1.2 Sets

The main objective of this section is to present an introduction to sets, set terminology, and set symbolism. Our primary interest in set terminology and symbolism is as a means of abbreviating and clarifying various concepts that appear in later sections of this book. The idea of a set is such a basic idea in mathematics that we will not attempt to give a formal definition of a set. However, a set should be thought of intuitively as a collection of objects. Each object in this collection of objects is called an element of the set. A set must be well defined. That is, there must be some criterion for deciding whether a particular object is or is not an element of the set. The following are examples of sets:

The set of all letters in the word "TARANTULA." The set of all points of a given line. The set of all persons in your class.

Capital letters, A, B, C, . . . , are generally used to represent sets, while lowercase letters, a, b, c, . . . , are used to represent the elements of sets. If the object a belongs to the set A, we write " $a \in A$ " to mean that "a is an element of the set A." Similarly, we write " $a \notin A$ " to mean that "a is not an element of the set A." Thus, if A is the set of all countries in Europe, we write

France $\in A$ and Canada $\notin A$.

Sets are usually described by one of two methods. In either method, the set description is included inside braces { }. A set is said to be described by the **roster method** if each of the elements of the set is actually listed inside the braces. For example, the set consisting of the last four letters of the English alphabet is denoted by

$$\{w, x, y, z\}.$$

Another example of a set described by the roster method is the set

{New Mexico, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana},

whose elements are the names of those states which share a border in common with Texas.

A set is said to be described by the **rule method** if a common property that describes the elements of the set, and only the elements of the set, is enclosed inside the braces. In such situations, the set is generally expressed in the form

$$\{x|x \text{ has property } P\},\$$

which is read "the set of all objects x such that x has the property P." For example, the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ can be described as

 $\{x|x \text{ is a counting number less than 6}\}.$

As another example, the set {California, Colorado, Connecticut} can be described as

 $\{x | x \text{ is a state of the United States whose name begins with C}\}.$

As a matter of future convenience, we shall reserve the capital letters N, I, Q, and R to represent certain special sets of numbers. These sets can now be described in set notation by the rule method as follows:

 $N = \{x | x \text{ is a natural number}\},\$ $I = \{x | x \text{ is an integer}\},\$ $Q = \{x | x \text{ is a rational number}\},\$ $R = \{x | x \text{ is a real number}\}.$

The letter x used in describing a set by the rule method is an example of