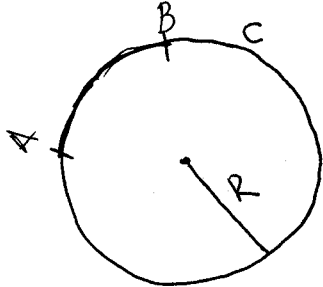


# Review - trigonometry

## 1. Properties of circles

⊕ Consider a circle delimited by the line  $C$ . All points on  $C$  are equally distant from the center of the circle.



### 1.1 Definitions:

- $C$  = "circumference" (line delimiting a circle)
- $R$  = "radius" (distance from the center to a point on the circumference)
- $d = 2R$  = diameter
- "piece"  $AB$  on the circumference: arc

⊗ Relation between the circumference and the diameter:  $\frac{C}{d} = \pi$   
( $\pi = 3.1415927\dots$ )

1.2 - Circular measure (radians): an angle  $\alpha$ , measured in radians, delimits an arc of length  $R\alpha$

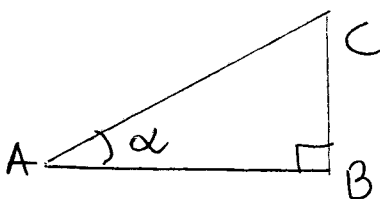
⊕ Conversion factors: degrees - radians:  $180^\circ = \pi$  radians

• degrees - radians: 1 radian =  $\frac{180}{\pi}$  degrees

• radians - degrees: 1 degree =  $\frac{\pi}{180}$  radians

## 2. Trigonometric functions

Consider the right-angled triangle  $ABC$  and the angle  $\alpha$



Then

$$(a) \sin \alpha = \frac{BC}{AC} \Rightarrow \alpha = \text{Arcsin} \left( \frac{BC}{AC} \right) \\ = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{BC}{AC} \right)$$

$$(b) \cos \alpha = \frac{AB}{AC} \Rightarrow \alpha = \text{Arc cos} \left( \frac{AB}{AC} \right) \\ = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{AB}{AC} \right)$$

(c)  $\tan \alpha = \frac{BC}{AB} \Rightarrow \alpha = \text{Arctan}\left(\frac{BC}{AB}\right)$

$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{BC}{AB}\right)$

\* Please note: i)  $\tan \alpha = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha}$  (obtained dividing (a) by (b))

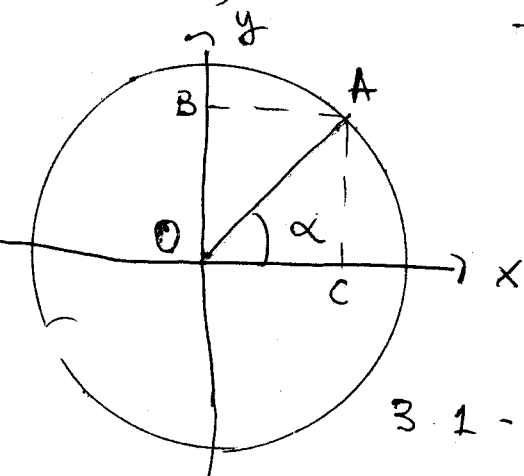
(ii)  $\sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \alpha = 1$

Proof: from Pythagoras's theorem:  $(AC)^2 = (AB)^2 + (CB)^2$

• dividing by  $(AC)^2$ :  $1 = \underbrace{\left(\frac{AB}{AC}\right)^2}_{\cos^2 \alpha} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{CB}{AC}\right)^2}_{\sin^2 \alpha}$

### 3. Trigonometric circle:

Let us consider a circle of radius 1 in the xy plane, centered at the origin O, and let us define an angle  $\alpha$  with respect to the  $x$  axis (by convention,  $\alpha$  increases in the anti-clockwise direction)



Then:

•  $\sin \alpha = \frac{OB}{1}$  (projection onto the y axis)

•  $\cos \alpha = \frac{OC}{1}$  (projection onto the x axis)

#### 3.1 Particular cases

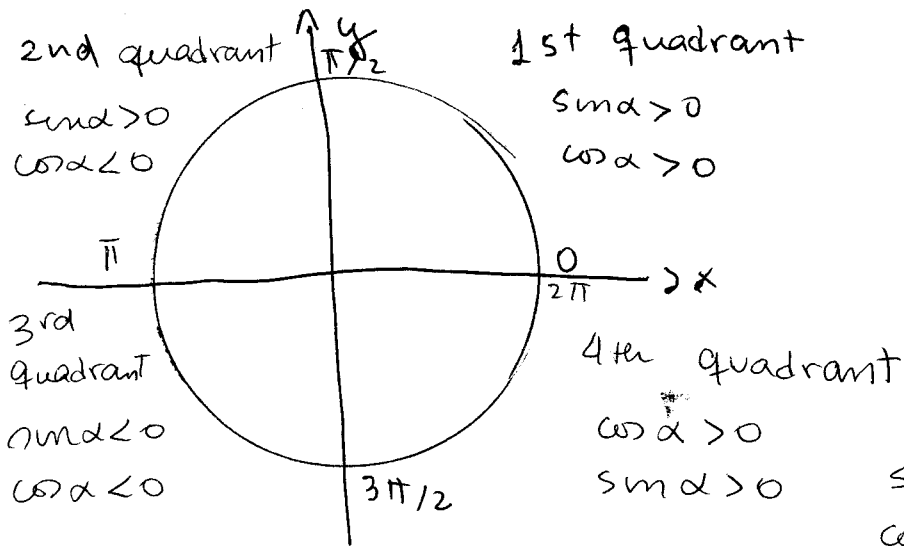
(a)  $\alpha = 0 \Rightarrow \cos \alpha = 1$   
 $\sin \alpha = 0$

(b)  $\alpha = \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \cos \alpha = 0$   
 $\sin \alpha = 1$

(c)  $\alpha = \pi \Rightarrow \cos \alpha = -1$   
 $\sin \alpha = 0$

(d)  $\alpha = \frac{3\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \cos \alpha = 0$   
 $\sin \alpha = -1$

### 3.2 - Signs of $\sin \alpha$ , $\cos \alpha$



$\sin(\alpha + 2\pi) = \sin \alpha$   
 $\cos(\alpha + 2\pi) = \cos \alpha$   
 $\Rightarrow \sin \alpha, \cos \alpha$  are periodic in  $2\pi$

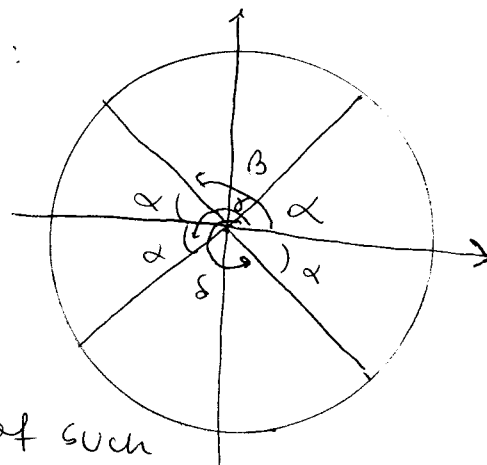
### 3.3 - Relations between $\cos$ , $\sin$ of particular angles

Let us consider the following angles:

(a)  $\beta = \pi - \alpha$

(b)  $\gamma = \pi + \alpha$

(c)  $\delta = 2\pi - \alpha, \text{ or } -\alpha$



We wish to relate the  $\sin$  and the  $\cos$  of such angles to  $\cos \alpha, \sin \alpha$

(a)  $\sin \beta = \sin \alpha \Rightarrow \sin(\pi - \alpha) = \sin \alpha$   
 $\cos \beta = -\cos \alpha \Rightarrow \cos(\pi - \alpha) = -\cos \alpha$

(b)  $\sin \gamma = -\sin \alpha \Rightarrow \sin(\pi + \alpha) = -\sin \alpha$   
 $\cos \gamma = -\cos \alpha \Rightarrow \cos(\pi + \alpha) = -\cos \alpha$

(c)  $\sin \delta = -\sin \alpha \Rightarrow \sin(2\pi - \alpha) = -\sin \alpha \quad \sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$   
 $\cos \delta = \cos \alpha \Rightarrow \cos(2\pi - \alpha) = \cos \alpha \quad \text{or } \cos(-\alpha) = \cos \alpha$

(c) shows that  $\sin \alpha$  is an ODD function and  $\cos \alpha$  is an EVEN function

(\*) Note that  $-1 < \sin \alpha < 1 \Rightarrow$  both functions are bounded  
 $-1 < \cos \alpha < 1$

#### 4. Other trigonometric functions

(a)  $\tan \alpha = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \Rightarrow$  <sup>goes to</sup> infinity when  $\cos \alpha = 0$ , i.e., for  $\alpha = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$

(b)  $\cot \alpha = \frac{1}{\tan \alpha}$

(c)  $\sec \alpha = \frac{1}{\cos \alpha}$

(d)  $\operatorname{cosec} \alpha = \frac{1}{\sin \alpha}$

\* Please note: (b), (c) and (d) are NOT the inverse trigonometric functions  $\tan^{-1} \alpha$ ,  $\cot^{-1} \alpha$ ,  $\sin^{-1} \alpha$

#### 4.1. Some trigonometric identities

(a)  $\tan^2 \alpha + 1 = \sec^2 \alpha$

Proof:  $\frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{\cos^2 \alpha} + 1 = \frac{\sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \alpha}{\cos^2 \alpha} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \alpha}$

(b)  $\cot^2 \alpha + 1 = \operatorname{cosec}^2 \alpha$

Proof:  $\frac{\cos^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} + 1 = \frac{\cos^2 \alpha + \sin^2 \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \alpha}$

~~cos~~

→ see back

#### Calculus with trigonometric functions

##### 6.1 - Differentiating

(a)  $\frac{d}{d\alpha} \sin \alpha = \cos \alpha$

(b)  $\frac{d}{d\alpha} (\cos \alpha) = -\sin \alpha$

(c)  $\frac{d}{d\alpha} (\tan \alpha) = 1 + \tan^2 \alpha = \sec^2 \alpha$

\* Proof of (c):  $\frac{d}{d\alpha} (\tan \alpha) = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \left( \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha} \right)$

Applying the quotient rule  $\left( \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{u(x)}{v(x)} \right) = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2} \right)$ , we obtain

(4a)

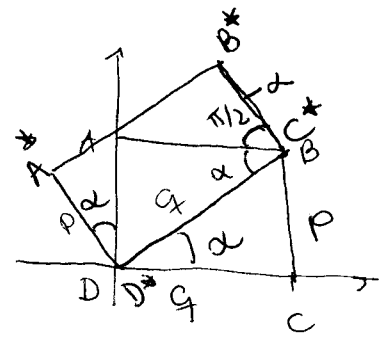
### 5. Addition formulae:

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta$$

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$

Proof: Let us consider the rectangle ABCD with the coordinates

- A = (0, p)
- B = (q, p)
- C = (q, 0)
- D = (0, 0)



we now rotate this rectangle in an angle  $\alpha$ . We wish to determine its new coordinates

- $A^* = (-p \sin \alpha, p \cos \alpha)$
- $B^* = (q \cos \alpha - p \sin \alpha, q \sin \alpha + p \cos \alpha)$
- $C^* = (q \cos \alpha, q \sin \alpha)$
- $D^* = (0, 0)$

One may write the new coordinates as

$$A^* = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ p \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}; \quad B^* = \begin{bmatrix} q \\ p \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

$$C^* = \begin{bmatrix} q \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}; \quad D^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

(i.e.) as a vector representing the old coordinates multiplied by a matrix

Hence, a rotation through  $\alpha$  radians is described by  $M(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$

Let us now consider a rotation through  $\alpha + \beta$  radians. This can be described as a rotation by  $\alpha$  followed by a rotation by  $\beta$  radians

$$\text{Hence } M(\alpha + \beta) = M(\alpha) M(\beta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\alpha + \beta) & -\sin(\alpha + \beta) \\ \sin(\alpha + \beta) & \cos(\alpha + \beta) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \beta & -\sin \beta \\ \sin \beta & \cos \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \cos(\alpha + \beta) &= \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta \\ \sin(\alpha + \beta) &= \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta & -\sin \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \alpha \sin \beta \\ \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta & \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan \alpha) = \frac{\cos \alpha \frac{d}{dx} \sin \alpha - \sin \alpha \frac{d}{dx} \cos \alpha}{\cos^2 \alpha} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}(\tan \alpha) = \frac{1}{\cos^2 \alpha}$$

## 6.2 - Integrating

### 6.2.1 - Direct trigonometric functions

(a)  $\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$

(b)  $\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$

(c)  $\int \tan x \, dx = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \, dx = -\ln|\cos x| + C$   
 (performed by substitution)  
 $u = \cos x$   
 $du = -\sin x \, dx$

### 6.2.2 - Integrals which yield inverse trigonometric functions (at least those we have seen in class)

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx = \text{Arc tan } x + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \text{Arc sin } x + C$$

> can all be proven by substitution

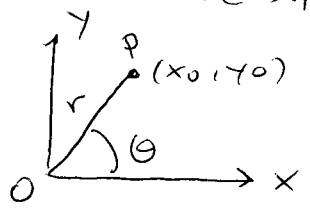
## 7. Polar coordinates

### 7.1 - Generalities

(\*) In general, one uses coordinates to locate something (e.g., a point) in a plane/in space

Problem: Consider a point in a plane, whose distance from the origin of the coordinate system is  $r$ . How to locate this point?

Example 1: cartesian coordinates: we take the projections of  $r$  onto the  $x, y$  axis



Example 2: Polar coordinates: we take the distance  $r$  from the origin and the angle  $\theta$   $\overline{OP}$  forms with the  $x$  axis

#2. Relation between cartesian and polar coordinates:

$$x = r \cos \theta; y = r \sin \theta$$

On the other hand, using Pythagoras's theorem,

$$r = [x^2 + y^2]^{1/2}$$

Furthermore,

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} \Rightarrow \theta = \text{Arc cos} \left( \frac{x}{r} \right) \quad (*)$$

or

$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} \Rightarrow \theta = \text{Arc cos} \left( \frac{y}{r} \right) \quad (**)$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \stackrel{\text{or}}{\Rightarrow} \theta = \text{Arc tan} \left( \frac{y}{x} \right) \quad (***)$$

- Normally one uses (\*\*\*) to determine  $\theta$
- Please note: the above definitions are not sufficient on their own to determine a unique angle

Example:  $\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = 1$

and

$$\tan\left(\pi + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) = 1$$

way to find  $\theta$ :

(a) find an acute angle  $\alpha$  so that  $\tan \alpha = \left| \frac{y}{x} \right|$

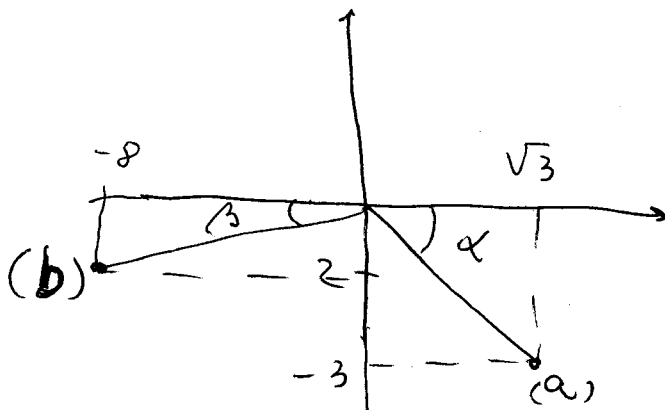
(b)  $\theta$  is  $\alpha$ ,  $-\alpha$ ,  $\alpha - \pi$  or  $\pi - \alpha$  depending on the signs of  $x$  and  $y$

Example:

Find the polar coordinates of the following points:

(a)  $(x, y) = (\sqrt{3}, -3)$

(b)  $(x, y) = (-2, -2)$



(a) Find  $r$ :

$$r = \sqrt{(x)^2 + (y)^2} = \sqrt{3+9} = \sqrt{12} = 2\sqrt{3}$$

Find  $\theta$ :

$$\alpha = \text{Arc tan} \left| \frac{y}{x} \right| = \text{Arc tan} \left| \frac{-3}{\sqrt{3}} \right|$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

Since, however,  $y$  has a negative coordinate,  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < 0$