1.6 Trigonometric Functions

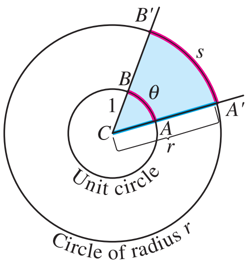


FIGURE 1.63 The radian measure of angle ACB is the length θ of arc AB on the unit circle centered at C. The value of θ can be found from any other circle, however, as the ratio s/r. Thus $s = r\theta$ is the length of arc on a circle of radius r when θ is measured in radians.

This section reviews the basic trigonometric functions. The trigonometric functions are important because they are periodic, or repeating, and therefore model many naturally occurring periodic processes.

Radian Measure

In navigation and astronomy, angles are measured in degrees, but in calculus it is best to use units called *radians* because of the way they simplify later calculations.

The **radian measure** of the angle ACB at the center of the unit circle (Figure 1.63) equals the length of the arc that ACB cuts from the unit circle. Figure 1.63 shows that $s = r\theta$ is the **length of arc** cut from a circle of radius r when the subtending angle θ producing the arc is measured in radians.

Since the circumference of the circle is 2π and one complete revolution of a circle is 360°, the relation between radians and degrees is given by

$$\pi \text{ radians} = 180°.$$

For example, 45° in radian measure is

$$45 \cdot \frac{\pi}{180} = \frac{\pi}{4} \text{ rad},$$

and $\pi/6$ radians is

$$\frac{\pi}{6} \cdot \frac{180}{\pi} = 30°.$$

Conversion Formulas

$$1 \text{ degree} = \frac{\pi}{180} (\approx 0.02) \text{ radians}$$

Degrees to radians: multiply by $\frac{\pi}{180}$

$$1 \text{ radian} = \frac{180}{\pi} (\approx 57) \text{ degrees}$$

Radians to degrees: multiply by $\frac{180}{\pi}$

Figure 1.64 shows the angles of two common triangles in both measures.

An angle in the xy-plane is said to be in **standard position** if its vertex lies at the origin and its initial ray lies along the positive x-axis (Figure 1.65). Angles measured counterclockwise from the positive x-axis are assigned positive measures; angles measured clockwise are assigned negative measures.

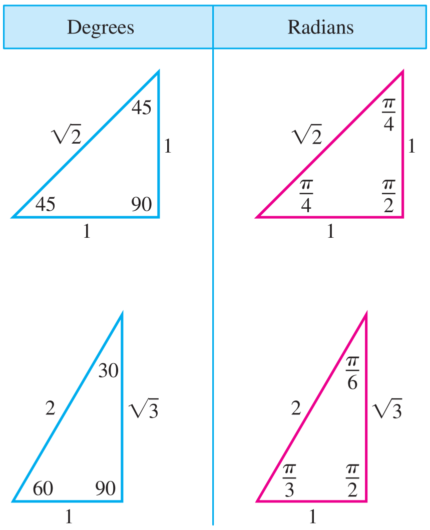


FIGURE 1.64 The angles of two common triangles, in degrees and radians.

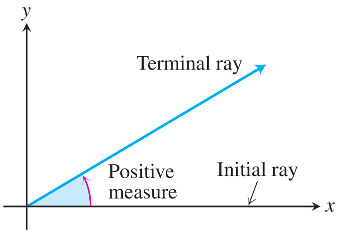


FIGURE 1.65 Angles in standard position in the xy-plane.

When angles are used to describe counterclockwise rotations, our measurements can go arbitrarily far beyond 2π radians or 360°. Similarly, angles describing clockwise rotations can have negative measures of all sizes (Figure 1.66).

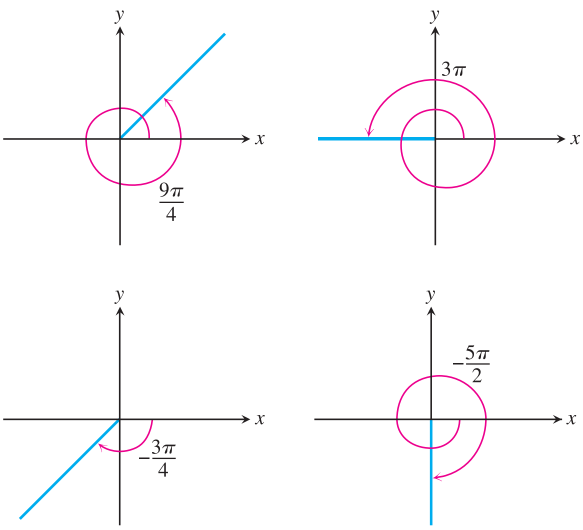
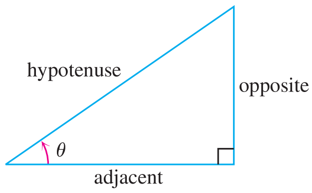


FIGURE 1.66 Nonzero radian measures can be positive or negative and can go beyond 2π.



$$\sin\theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} \qquad \csc\theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}}$$
$$\cos\theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}} \qquad \sec\theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}}$$
$$\tan\theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}} \qquad \cot\theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}}$$

FIGURE 1.67 Trigonometric ratios of an acute angle.

> **Angle Convention: Use Radians**
> From now on in this book it is assumed that all angles are measured in radians unless degrees or some other unit is stated explicitly. When we talk about the angle $\pi/3$, we mean $\pi/3$ radians (which is 60°), not $\pi/3$ degrees. When you do calculus, keep your calculator in radian mode.

The Six Basic Trigonometric Functions

You are probably familiar with defining the trigonometric functions of an acute angle in terms of the sides of a right triangle (Figure 1.67). We extend this definition to obtuse and negative angles by first placing the angle in standard position in a circle of radius r. We then define the trigonometric functions in terms of the coordinates of the point $P(x, y)$ where the angle's terminal ray intersects the circle (Figure 1.68).

$$\begin{aligned} &\textbf{sine:} \quad \sin\theta = \frac{y}{r} && \textbf{cosecant:} \quad \csc\theta = \frac{r}{y} \\ &\textbf{cosine:} \quad \cos\theta = \frac{x}{r} && \textbf{secant:} \quad \sec\theta = \frac{r}{x} \\ &\textbf{tangent:} \quad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x} && \textbf{cotangent:} \quad \cot\theta = \frac{x}{y} \end{aligned}$$

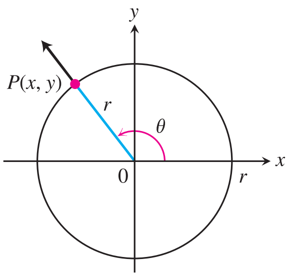


FIGURE 1.68 The trigonometric functions of a general angle θ are defined in terms of x, y, and r.

These extended definitions agree with the right-triangle definitions when the angle is acute (Figure 1.69).

Notice also the following definitions, whenever the quotients are defined.

$$\tan\theta = \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} \qquad \cot\theta = \frac{1}{\tan\theta}$$
$$\sec\theta = \frac{1}{\cos\theta} \qquad \csc\theta = \frac{1}{\sin\theta}$$

As you can see, $\tan\theta$ and $\sec\theta$ are not defined if $x = 0$. This means they are not defined if θ is $\pm\pi/2, \pm 3\pi/2, \ldots$. Similarly, $\cot\theta$ and $\csc\theta$ are not defined for values of θ for which $y = 0$, namely $\theta = 0, \pm\pi, \pm 2\pi, \ldots$.

The exact values of these trigonometric ratios for some angles can be read from the triangles in Figure 1.64. For instance,

$$\sin\frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad \sin\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \qquad \sin\frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$
$$\cos\frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad \cos\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \qquad \cos\frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$
$$\tan\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 \qquad \tan\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \qquad \tan\frac{\pi}{3} = \sqrt{3}$$

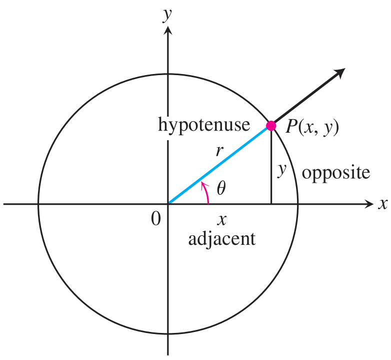


FIGURE 1.69 The new and old definitions agree for acute angles.

The CAST rule (Figure 1.70) is useful for remembering when the basic trigonometric functions are positive or negative. For instance, from the triangle in Figure 1.71, we see that

$$\sin\frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \qquad \cos\frac{2\pi}{3} = -\frac{1}{2}, \qquad \tan\frac{2\pi}{3} = -\sqrt{3}.$$

Using a similar method we determined the values of $\sin\theta$, $\cos\theta$, and $\tan\theta$ shown in Table 1.4.

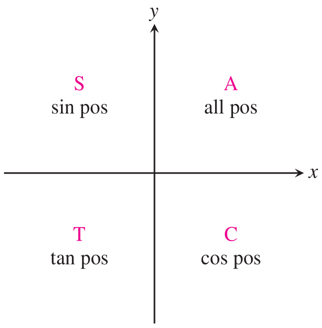


FIGURE 1.70 The CAST rule, remembered by the statement "All Students Take Calculus," tells which trigonometric functions are positive in each quadrant.

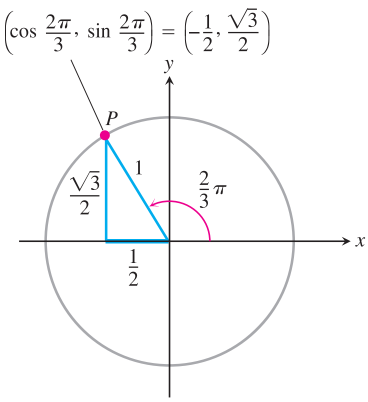


FIGURE 1.71 The triangle for calculating the sine and cosine of $2\pi/3$ radians. The side lengths come from the geometry of right triangles.

Most calculators and computers readily provide values of the trigonometric functions for angles given in either radians or degrees.

TABLE 1.4 Values of $\sin\theta$, $\cos\theta$, and $\tan\theta$ for selected values of θ

Degrees	**−180**	**−135**	**−90**	**−45**	**0**	**30**	**45**	**60**	**90**	**120**	**135**	**150**	**180**	**270**	**360**
θ (radians)	$-\pi$	$\frac{-3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{-\pi}{2}$	$\frac{-\pi}{4}$	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{5\pi}{6}$	π	$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	2π
$\sin\theta$	0	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	-1	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	-1	0
$\cos\theta$	-1	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	0	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2}$	-1	0	1
$\tan\theta$	0	1		-1	0	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$		$-\sqrt{3}$	-1	$\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{3}$	0		0

EXAMPLE 1 Finding Trigonometric Function Values

If $\tan\theta = 3/2$ and $0 < \theta < \pi/2$, find the five other trigonometric functions of θ.

Solution From $\tan\theta = 3/2$, we construct the right triangle of height 3 (opposite) and base 2 (adjacent) in Figure 1.72. The Pythagorean theorem gives the length of the hypotenuse, $\sqrt{4+9} = \sqrt{13}$. From the triangle we write the values of the other five trigonometric functions:

$$\cos\theta = \frac{2}{\sqrt{13}}, \quad \sin\theta = \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}, \quad \sec\theta = \frac{\sqrt{13}}{2}, \quad \csc\theta = \frac{\sqrt{13}}{3}, \quad \cot\theta = \frac{2}{3}$$

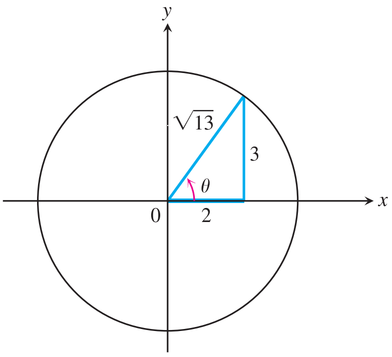


FIGURE 1.72 The triangle for calculating the trigonometric functions in Example 1.

Periodicity and Graphs of the Trigonometric Functions

When an angle of measure θ and an angle of measure $\theta + 2\pi$ are in standard position, their terminal rays coincide. The two angles therefore have the same trigonometric function values:

$$\cos(\theta + 2\pi) = \cos\theta \qquad \sin(\theta + 2\pi) = \sin\theta \qquad \tan(\theta + 2\pi) = \tan\theta$$
$$\sec(\theta + 2\pi) = \sec\theta \qquad \csc(\theta + 2\pi) = \csc\theta \qquad \cot(\theta + 2\pi) = \cot\theta$$

Similarly, $\cos(\theta - 2\pi) = \cos\theta$, $\sin(\theta - 2\pi) = \sin\theta$, and so on. We describe this repeating behavior by saying that the six basic trigonometric functions are *periodic*.

DEFINITION Periodic Function

A function $f(x)$ is **periodic** if there is a positive number p such that $f(x + p) = f(x)$ for every value of x. The smallest such value of p is the **period** of f.

When we graph trigonometric functions in the coordinate plane, we usually denote the independent variable by x instead of θ. See Figure 1.73.

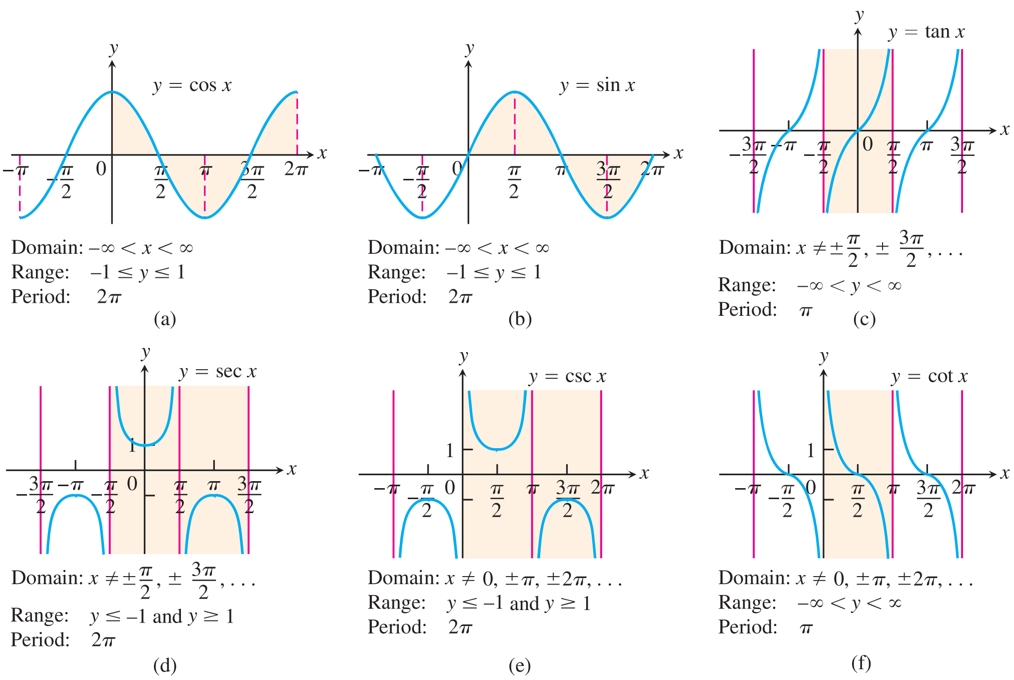


FIGURE 1.73 Graphs of the (a) cosine, (b) sine, (c) tangent, (d) secant, (e) cosecant, and (f) cotangent functions using radian measure. The shading for each trigonometric function indicates its periodicity.

Periods of Trigonometric Functions

Period π: $\tan(x + \pi) = \tan x$
$\cot(x + \pi) = \cot x$

Period 2π: $\sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin x$
$\cos(x + 2\pi) = \cos x$
$\sec(x + 2\pi) = \sec x$
$\csc(x + 2\pi) = \csc x$

As we can see in Figure 1.73, the tangent and cotangent functions have period $p = \pi$. The other four functions have period 2π. Periodic functions are important because many behaviors studied in science are approximately periodic. A theorem from advanced calculus says that every periodic function we want to use in mathematical modeling can be written as an algebraic combination of sines and cosines. We show how to do this in Section 11.11.

The symmetries in the graphs in Figure 1.73 reveal that the cosine and secant functions are even and the other four functions are odd:

Even	Odd
$\cos(-x) = \cos x$	$\sin(-x) = -\sin x$
$\sec(-x) = \sec x$	$\tan(-x) = -\tan x$
	$\csc(-x) = -\csc x$
	$\cot(-x) = -\cot x$

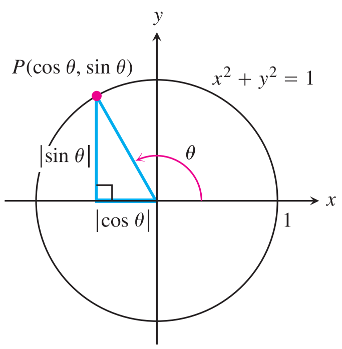


FIGURE 1.74 The reference triangle for a general angle θ.

Identities

The coordinates of any point $P(x, y)$ in the plane can be expressed in terms of the point's distance from the origin and the angle that ray OP makes with the positive x-axis (Figure 1.69). Since $x/r = \cos\theta$ and $y/r = \sin\theta$, we have

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta.$$

When $r = 1$ we can apply the Pythagorean theorem to the reference right triangle in Figure 1.74 and obtain the equation

$$\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1. \tag{1}$$

This equation, true for all values of θ, is the most frequently used identity in trigonometry. Dividing this identity in turn by $\cos^2\theta$ and $\sin^2\theta$ gives

$$1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta.$$
$$1 + \cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta.$$

The following formulas hold for all angles A and B (Exercises 53 and 54).

Addition Formulas

$$\cos(A + B) = \cos A\cos B - \sin A\sin B$$
$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A\cos B + \cos A\sin B \tag{2}$$

You Try It

There are similar formulas for $\cos(A - B)$ and $\sin(A - B)$ (Exercises 35 and 36). All the trigonometric identities needed in this book derive from Equations (1) and (2). For example, substituting θ for both A and B in the addition formulas gives

Double-Angle Formulas

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2\theta &= \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta \\ \sin 2\theta &= 2\sin\theta\cos\theta \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

Additional formulas come from combining the equations

$$\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1, \qquad \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = \cos 2\theta.$$

We add the two equations to get $2\cos^2\theta = 1 + \cos 2\theta$ and subtract the second from the first to get $2\sin^2\theta = 1 - \cos 2\theta$. This results in the following identities, which are useful in integral calculus.

Half-Angle Formulas

$$\cos^2\theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} \tag{4}$$

$$\sin^2\theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} \tag{5}$$

The Law of Cosines

If a, b, and c are sides of a triangle ABC and if θ is the angle opposite c, then

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta. \tag{6}$$

This equation is called the **law of cosines**.

We can see why the law holds if we introduce coordinate axes with the origin at C and the positive x-axis along one side of the triangle, as in Figure 1.75. The coordinates of A are $(b, 0)$; the coordinates of B are $(a\cos\theta, a\sin\theta)$. The square of the distance between A and B is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 &= (a\cos\theta - b)^2 + (a\sin\theta)^2 \\ &= a^2\underbrace{(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta)}_{1} + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta \\ &= a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta. \end{aligned}$$

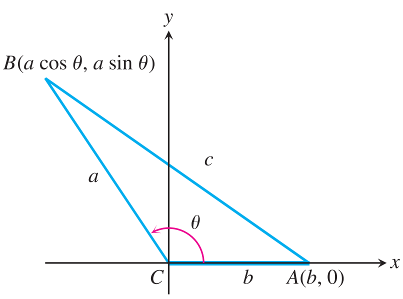


FIGURE 1.75 The square of the distance between A and B gives the law of cosines.

The law of cosines generalizes the Pythagorean theorem. If $\theta = \pi/2$, then $\cos\theta = 0$ and $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$.

Transformations of Trigonometric Graphs

The rules for shifting, stretching, compressing, and reflecting the graph of a function apply to the trigonometric functions. The following diagram will remind you of the controlling parameters.

Vertical stretch or compression; reflection about x-axis if negative

Vertical shift

$$y = af(b(x + c)) + d$$

Horizontal stretch or compression; reflection about y-axis if negative

Horizontal shift

EXAMPLE 2 Modeling Temperature in Alaska

The builders of the Trans-Alaska Pipeline used insulated pads to keep the pipeline heat from melting the permanently frozen soil beneath. To design the pads, it was necessary to take into account the variation in air temperature throughout the year. The variation was represented in the calculations by a **general sine function** or **sinusoid** of the form

$$f(x) = A \sin\left[\frac{2\pi}{B}(x - C)\right] + D,$$

where $|A|$ is the *amplitude*, $|B|$ is the *period*, C is the *horizontal shift*, and D is the *vertical shift* (Figure 1.76).

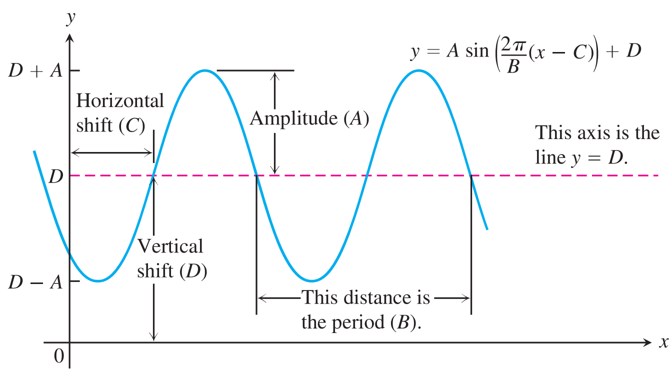


FIGURE 1.76 The general sine curve $y = A \sin[(2\pi/B)(x - C)] + D$, shown for A, B, C, and D positive (Example 2).

Figure 1.77 shows how to use such a function to represent temperature data. The data points in the figure are plots of the mean daily air temperatures for Fairbanks, Alaska, based on records of the National Weather Service from 1941 to 1970. The sine function used to fit the data is

$$f(x) = 37 \sin\left[\frac{2\pi}{365}(x - 101)\right] + 25,$$

where f is temperature in degrees Fahrenheit and x is the number of the day counting from the beginning of the year. The fit, obtained by using the sinusoidal regression feature on a calculator or computer, as we discuss in the next section, is very good at capturing the trend of the data.

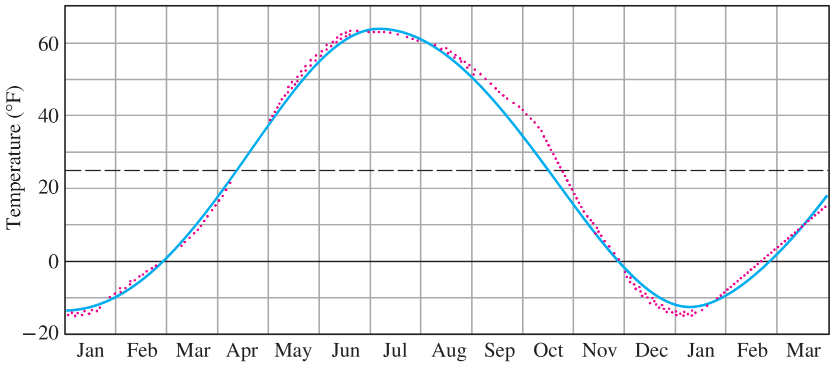


FIGURE 1.77 Normal mean air temperatures for Fairbanks, Alaska, plotted as data points (red). The approximating sine function (blue) is

$$f(x) \quad 37 \sin[(2\pi \quad 365)(x \quad 101)] \quad 25.$$