

# TRIGONOMETRY ACROSS MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTATION: CLASSICAL CONSTRUCTIONS, ANALYTIC EXTENSIONS, AND APPLIED HARMONIC METHODS

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## ABSTRACT

Trigonometry is the mathematical study of relationships between angles and lengths, originally motivated by problems in astronomy, surveying, and geometry. Over time it evolved into a central language of periodicity and rotation, deeply embedded in calculus, linear algebra, complex analysis, signal processing, physics, and modern computing. This article presents a detailed research-style exposition of trigonometry, beginning with classical Euclidean definitions and moving through identities, inverse functions, laws of triangles, and analytic formulations. It then develops the deeper structural view of trigonometric functions as coordinate projections on the unit circle, as solutions to differential equations, and as manifestations of complex exponentials. Finally, it surveys major applications including waves, Fourier analysis, navigation, robotics, and imaging, while highlighting contemporary computational perspectives.

**Keywords:** Trigonometry, Unit Circle, Angle Measurement, Trigonometric Identities, Inverse Trigonometric Functions, Laws of Sines and Cosines, Complex Exponentials, Euler's Formula, Differential Equations, Harmonic Motion, Waves and Oscillations, Fourier Series.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Trigonometry occupies a unique role in mathematics. It is at once a practical toolkit for solving triangles and a theoretical framework for modeling oscillatory phenomena. Historically, civilizations including the Babylonians, Greeks, Indians, and Islamic scholars developed angle measurement and chord/sine tables to support astronomical prediction and land measurement. In modern mathematics, trigonometric functions are treated as analytic objects defined on real and complex domains, with precise algebraic, geometric, and differential properties.

A striking feature of trigonometry is its dual nature. On one hand, it solves concrete geometric tasks like finding a missing side of a triangle. On the other, it models abstract processes like wave propagation and harmonic decomposition. This breadth is possible because trigonometric functions encode rotation, periodicity, and projection in a unified way.

## 2. ANGLE MEASUREMENT AND GEOMETRIC ORIGINS

### 2.1 Degrees and radians

Angles are commonly measured in degrees, but radians are mathematically natural because they tie angle directly to arc length. If a circle has radius  $r$  and an arc length  $s$ , then the angle  $\theta$  in radians satisfies  $\theta = sr$ . This makes derivatives and integrals of trigonometric functions behave cleanly, which is one reason calculus is typically formulated using radians.

### 2.2 Right-triangle definitions

In a right triangle, for an acute angle  $\theta$ , the primary trigonometric ratios are defined as

- $\sin\theta$  as opposite over hypotenuse
- $\cos\theta$  as adjacent over hypotenuse

- $\tan\theta$  as opposite over adjacent

Secondary functions follow as reciprocals:  $\cos\theta, \sec\theta, \cot\theta$ . These definitions are historically fundamental but incomplete because they only define the functions for acute angles. That limitation is resolved by the unit circle formulation.

### 3. THE UNIT CIRCLE AND ANALYTIC DEFINITION

#### 3.1 Unit circle definition

Let a point  $P(x, y)$  lie on the unit circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , reached by rotating from  $(1,0)$  counter clockwise by angle  $\theta$ . then  $\cos\theta = x$ ,  $\sin\theta = y$  This definition extends sine and cosine to all real angles, including negative angles and angles exceeding  $360^\circ$  or  $2\pi$ .

#### 3.2 Periodicity and symmetry

From the geometry of rotation:

- Periodicity  $\sin(\theta + 2\pi) = \sin\theta, \cos(\theta + 2\pi) = \cos\theta$
- Odd/even symmetry  $\sin(-\theta) = -\sin\theta, \cos(-\theta) = \cos\theta$
- Quadrant signs follow directly from the coordinates of the unit circle.

#### 3.3 Tangent and slope interpretation

Because  $\tan\theta = \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta}$  tangent can be interpreted as the slope of the line from the origin to the unit-circle point when  $\cos\theta \neq 0$ . This connects trigonometry to analytic geometry and linear models.

### 4. CORE IDENTITIES AND THEIR STRUCTURE

#### 4.1 The Pythagorean identity

From the unit circle equation  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ :  $\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1$  This is the most structurally important identity in classical trigonometry. Many others are algebraic consequences of it.

#### 4.2 Angle addition formulas

A central result is  $(\alpha + \beta) = \sin\alpha \cdot \cos\beta + \cos\alpha \cdot \sin\beta$  ,  $\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos\alpha \cdot \cos\beta - \sin\alpha \cdot \sin\beta$  These formulas encode how rotations compose. They are the trigonometric reflection of group structure of planar rotations.

#### 4.3 Double-angle and half-angle formulas

By setting

$$\alpha = \beta$$

Double-angle formulas,

$$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin\theta\cos\theta, \quad \cos 2\theta = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta$$

Using identities,

$$\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$$

We also get,

$$\begin{aligned}\cos 2\theta &= 1 - 2\sin^2\theta \\ \cos 2\theta &= 2\cos^2 - 1\end{aligned}$$

Half-angle formulas (derived by rearranging)

From

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2\theta &= 1 - 2\sin^2\theta \\ \Rightarrow \sin^2\theta &= \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} \end{aligned}$$

From

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 2\theta &= 2\cos^2\theta - 1 \\ \Rightarrow \cos^2\theta &= \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} \end{aligned}$$

#### 4.4 Product-to-sum and sum-to-product

These identities form the backbone of harmonic analysis and Fourier methods. For example:

$$\cos\alpha \cos\beta = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$$

This shows that products of oscillations can be expressed as sums of oscillations, a key idea in modulation and signal processing.

### 5. INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS AND BRANCH ISSUES

#### 5.1 Principal values

Inverse trigonometric functions such as  $\arcsin x$ ,  $\arccos x$  and  $\arctan x$  are defined by restricting the domains of the original trigonometric functions to intervals where they are one-to-one.

Typical principal ranges:

- $\arcsin x \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$
- $\arccos x \in [0, \pi]$
- $\arctan x \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

#### 5.2 Domain constraints and geometry

$\arcsin x$  and  $\arccos x$  require  $x \in [-1, 1]$  because sine and cosine outputs lie in that interval. These inverse functions are essential in triangle solving, coordinate transformations, and phase recovery in signal processing.

#### 5.3 The role of $\operatorname{atan2}$

In computation, angle recovery from  $(x, y)$  often uses the two-argument function  $\operatorname{atan2}(y, x)$  to avoid quadrant ambiguity, a practical issue that arises because  $\tan\theta$  has period  $\pi$  and loses sign information about  $\cos\theta$ .

### 6. SOLVING TRIANGLES: LAWS AND METHODS

#### 6.1 Law of Sines

For any triangle with sides  $a, b, c$  opposite angles  $A, B, C$  respectively, the Law of Sines states that

$$\frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C} = 2R$$

Where  $2R$  is the circumradius of the triangle,

Equivalently,

$$a = 2R \sin A, b = 2R \sin B, c = 2R \sin C$$

The Law of Sines is especially useful for solving triangles in ASA (Angle–Side–Angle) and AAS (Angle–Angle–Side) cases. However, in SSA (Side–Side–Angle) configurations, it may lead to the ambiguous case, where zero, one, or two distinct triangles may satisfy the given data.

## 6.2 Law of Cosines

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C$$

where

- $a$  and  $b$  are the lengths of two sides of a triangle,
- $c$  is the length of the side opposite angle  $C$ , and
- $C$  is the angle between sides  $a$  and  $b$ .

This formula generalizes the Pythagorean theorem and is primarily used when SAS (Side–Angle–Side) or SSS (Side–Side–Side) information is known. It also supports geometric derivations in Euclidean space and provides a conceptual bridge to dot products in vector algebra.

## 6.3 Area formulas

Trigonometry gives an angle-based area formula:  $Area = \frac{1}{2} ab \sin C$  This becomes extremely useful in mechanics, robotics, and computational geometry where angles arise naturally.

# 7. TRIGONOMETRY THROUGH CALCULUS AND DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

## 7.1 Derivatives and integrals

With  $\theta$  in radians:

$$\frac{d}{d\theta}(\sin\theta) = \cos\theta$$

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

These derivatives cycle between sine and cosine, reflecting the rotational and periodic nature of trigonometric functions.

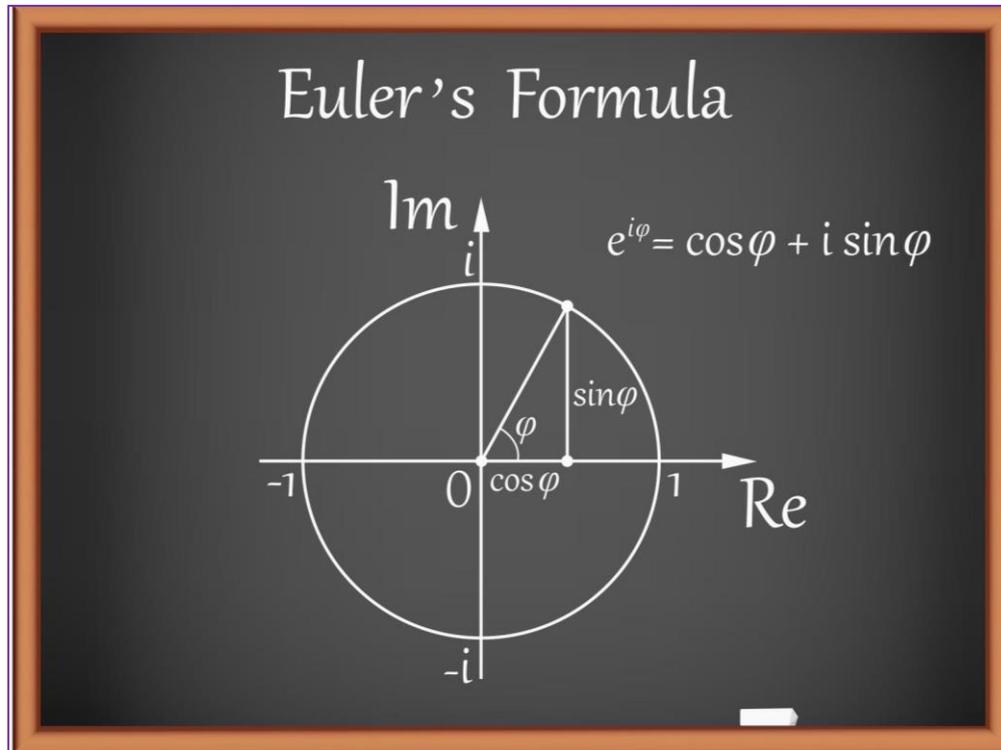
## 7.2 Trigonometric functions as solutions to ODEs

Sine and cosine solve the harmonic oscillator equation:  $y'' + y = 0$  General solution  $y(\theta) = A \cos\theta + B \sin\theta$  This provides a deep reason why trigonometry appears in vibrations, circuits, and wave physics: nature often follows second-order linear dynamics.

## 8. COMPLEX EXPONENTIALS AND EULER'S FORMULA

### 8.1 Euler's identity

A profound link between trigonometry and complex analysis is  $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i \sin\theta$ . This turns trigonometric manipulation into algebraic manipulation of exponentials.



Where:

- $e$  is Euler's number ( $\approx 2.71828$ ),
- $i$  is the imaginary unit ( $i^2 = -1$ ),
- $\theta$  is a real number (usually an angle in radians).

#### Why It Works (Power Series Perspective)

The justification comes from Taylor series expansions:

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

Substituting  $x = i\theta$  into the exponential series:

$$e^{i\theta}$$

Separating even and odd powers (and using,  $i^2 = -1$ ) naturally produces:

$$\cos \theta + i \sin \theta$$

Thus, Euler's formula is not magic — it arises directly from fundamental infinite series.

## Euler's Identity (Special Case)

If we substitute  $\theta = \pi$ :

$$e^{i\pi} = -1$$

Rearranging:

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$

This is known as Euler's identity, often called the most beautiful equation in mathematics because it links:

- $e$  (analysis),
- $i$  (complex numbers),
- $\pi$  (geometry),
- 1 (multiplicative identity),
- 0 (additive identity).

## Geometric Interpretation

On the complex plane (Argand diagram):

- $\cos \theta$  is the **x-coordinate**
- $\sin \theta$  is the **y-coordinate**
- $e^{i\theta}$  lies on the **unit circle**

Multiplying by  $e^{i\theta}$  corresponds to rotating a complex number by angle  $\theta$ .

## 8.2 Consequences for identities

Using Euler's formula, addition identities become immediate because  $e^{i(\alpha+\beta)} = e^{i\alpha}e^{i\beta}$ . Then equating real and imaginary parts yields the sine and cosine addition formulas.

Using Euler's formula:

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

Expanding:

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

Equating real and imaginary parts gives:

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

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

Thus:

Trigonometric addition identities become simple algebraic multiplication.

## Other Important Consequences

### 1. De Moivre's Theorem

$$(e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta}$$

Which gives:

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

This is crucial in:

- Solving polynomial equations
- Finding roots of complex numbers
- Fourier analysis

## 2. Expressing Sine and Cosine Using Exponentials

From Euler's formula:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2}$$
$$\sin \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i}$$

These identities are foundational in:

- Differential equations
- Quantum mechanics
- Signal processing

## 3. Fourier Series and Transform

Every periodic signal can be written as a sum of complex exponentials:

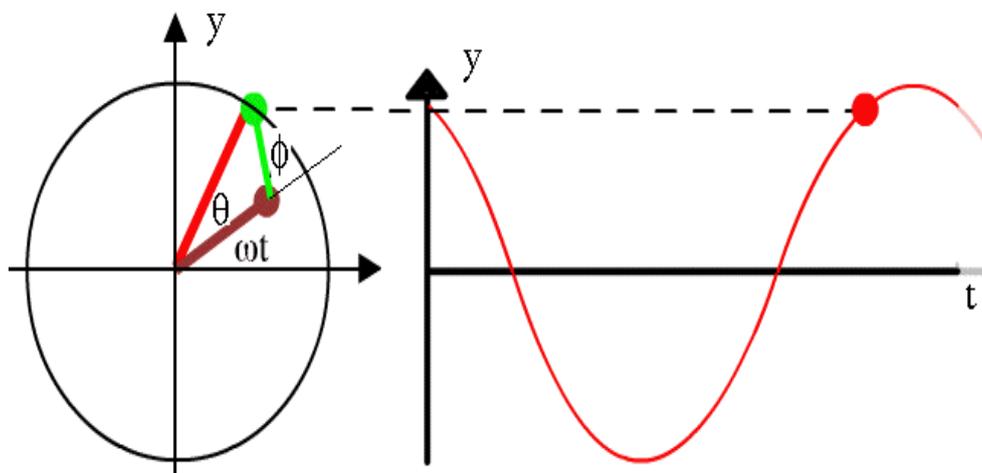
$$f(t) = \sum c_n e^{in\omega t}$$

This idea powers:

- Audio compression
- Image processing
- Wireless communication

### 8.3 Phasors and rotation

In engineering, a sinusoid is often represented as the real part of a complex exponential. This is the basis of phasors in AC circuit analysis and frequency-domain methods in signal processing.



In electrical engineering and signal processing, a sinusoid is often written as:

$$A\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

Using Euler's formula:

$$Ae^{i(\omega t + \phi)}$$

The actual signal is the real part:

$$\text{Re}\{Ae^{i(\omega t + \phi)}\}$$

This complex number representation is called a **phasor**.

### Why Phasors Are Powerful

1. Differentiation becomes multiplication:

$$\frac{d}{dt} e^{i\omega t} = i\omega e^{i\omega t}$$

So solving differential equations becomes algebra.

2. Circuit analysis simplifies:

- Inductor impedance  $\rightarrow i\omega L$
- Capacitor impedance  $\rightarrow \frac{1}{i\omega C}$

This converts calculus problems into algebraic ones.

### Geometric Meaning of Phasors

A phasor is:

- A rotating vector in the complex plane
- Rotating at angular speed  $\omega$
- Its projection on the real axis gives the sinusoidal signal

Thus:

Complex exponentials = rotation

Sine waves = projections of rotation

## 9. FOURIER ANALYSIS AND HARMONIC DECOMPOSITION

### 9.1 Why trigonometry is the language of signals

Any sufficiently well-behaved periodic function  $f(t)$  can be expressed as a sum of sines and cosines:  $f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt))$  This is not just a trick; it reflects the fact that sines and cosines form an orthogonal basis under an inner product on function space.

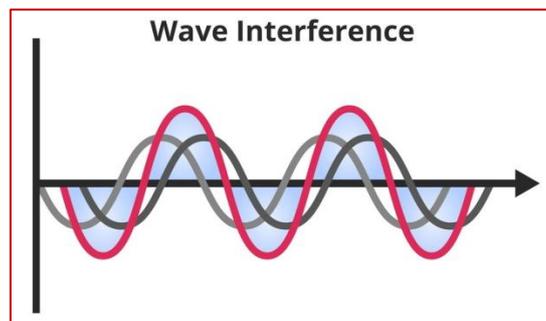
### 9.2 Modern computational role

The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) computes discrete Fourier transforms efficiently, enabling compression, denoising, spectral estimation, and feature extraction. Much of modern audio, imaging, and communications relies on this trigonometric decomposition.

## 10. APPLICATIONS ACROSS DISCIPLINES

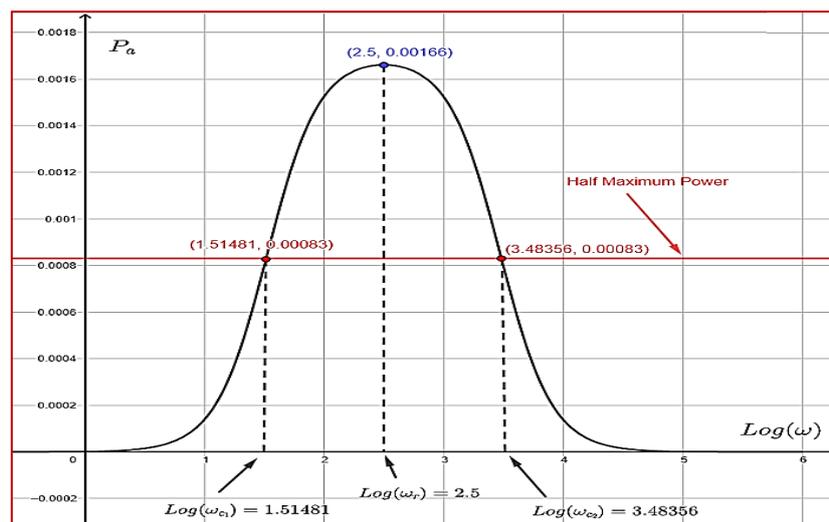
### 10.1 Physics

In physics, trigonometric functions arise naturally because many physical systems obey linear differential equations whose solutions are sinusoidal. For example, in simple harmonic motion (SHM), governed by  $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \omega^2x = 0$ , the general solution is  $x(t) = A\cos(\omega t) + B\sin(\omega t)$ . This models oscillations of springs, pendulums (small angles), and molecular vibrations. Wave motion—such as sound waves, light waves, and water waves—is expressed as  $A \sin(kx - \omega t)$ , capturing amplitude, frequency, and phase. Interference and diffraction patterns, central to optics and quantum experiments like the double-slit experiment, are explained by phase differences between sinusoidal waves. In quantum mechanics, wavefunctions often take complex exponential forms  $e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$ , whose real and imaginary parts correspond to sinusoidal behavior, making trigonometry fundamental to describing matter at microscopic scales.



### 10.2 Electrical engineering

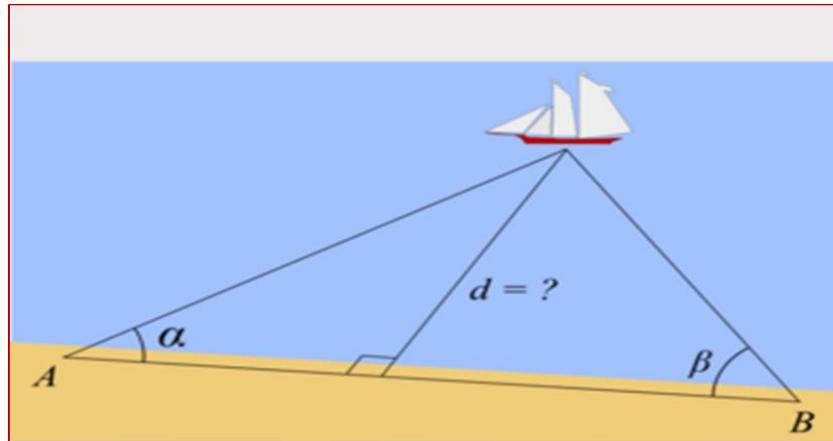
AC circuits use trigonometric steady-state solutions, where voltage and current are sinusoidal and phase differences matter. Impedance and resonance analysis is naturally expressed using complex exponentials tied to trigonometry.



### 10.3 Navigation, surveying, and geodesy

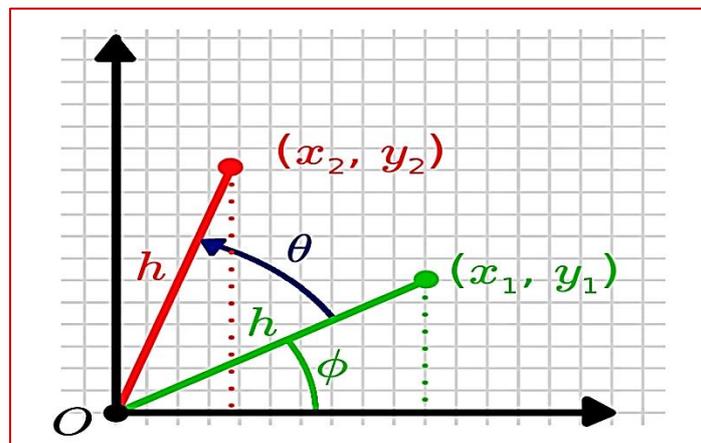
Navigation and surveying historically relied on triangulation, where unknown distances are computed using the Law of Sines and Law of Cosines. By measuring angles and one known baseline, surveyors could determine positions of distant landmarks with high accuracy. For large-scale measurements across Earth's curved surface, spherical trigonometry replaces

planar formulas; great-circle distances, used in aviation and maritime navigation, are computed using spherical cosine rules. Modern geodesy and satellite positioning systems such as GPS apply trigonometric and spherical relationships to determine latitude, longitude, and altitude from satellite signals. Without trigonometric modeling of angles and distances on curved surfaces, global navigation and mapping would not be possible.



#### 10.4 Robotics and computer vision

Robot kinematics uses sine and cosine to represent rotations and rigid transformations. In vision, camera models and projections also use trigonometric relationships, and rotations are implemented via matrix forms derived from trigonometric functions. In robotics, trigonometric functions describe rotational motion and joint angles in robotic arms through forward and inverse kinematics. The position of an end-effector in a planar two-link arm, for instance, is expressed using cosine and sine of joint angles.



#### 10.5 Computer graphics

Computer graphics extensively employs trigonometry in rendering and animation. Rotations of objects in 3D space use trigonometric rotation matrices, ensuring smooth and accurate transformations. Lighting models such as Lambertian reflection and Phong shading depend on cosine relationships between surface normals and light directions to calculate intensity. Circular and oscillatory motions in animations—such as bouncing objects, waves, or orbital movements—are generated using sine and cosine functions for smooth periodic behavior. Procedural textures and simulations, including water ripples and sound-reactive visuals, are built from trigonometric primitives. Thus, modern digital graphics engines rely fundamentally on trigonometric mathematics to create realistic motion, shading, and spatial transformations.

## 11. EXTENSIONS: SPHERICAL AND HYPERBOLIC TRIGONOMETRY

### 11.1 Spherical trigonometry

On a sphere, “lines” are great circles, and triangle angle sums exceed  $\pi$ . The spherical law of cosines differs from the planar one and includes curvature effects. This is essential in astronomy and Earth-scale navigation.

### 11.2 Hyperbolic functions

Hyperbolic sine and cosine  $\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$ ,  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$  mirror many trigonometric identities but relate to hyperbolic geometry and relativity. While not “trigonometry” in the classical triangle sense, they share the same exponential backbone and identity structure.

## 12. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Trigonometry is far more than a set of triangle-solving rules. It is a comprehensive framework for representing rotation, periodicity, and harmonic structure. Its classical geometric roots lead naturally to analytic definitions on the unit circle, which then connect to calculus through derivatives and differential equations, and to complex analysis through Euler’s formula. In modern practice, trigonometry is indispensable for Fourier methods and computational models that drive contemporary science and engineering.

A key takeaway is that trigonometry persists not because it is historically convenient, but because it is structurally inevitable: whenever systems exhibit cycles, waves, rotations, or oscillations, trigonometric functions emerge as the simplest and most stable mathematical representation.

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