# Absolute value (modulus)

## Theorem (Properties of the absolute value)

For any  $w, z \in \mathbb{C}$  there holds:

1)a) 
$$z \ge 0$$
 1)b)  $|z| = 0 \Leftrightarrow z = 0$ 

2) 
$$|z + w| \le |z| + |w|$$
 (triangle inequality)

3) 
$$|z \cdot w| = |z||w|$$
 (multiplicativity)

Remark: A field, for whose elements a mapping with the properties of an absolute value exists, is called a **valued field**.

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We extend the exponential function into the complex plane.

## Definition (Complex exponential function)

For  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  we define

$$\exp(z) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} z^k = 1 + z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots$$

## Properties:

- $\bigcirc$  exp $(z) \neq 0$  for any  $z \in \mathbb{C}$
- $\bigcirc$  exp(z) is continuous
- Let z = x + yi, then  $|\exp(z)| = |\exp(x)|$ .

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# **Trigonometric functions**

## Definition (Cosine and sine)

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we define:

$$\cos(x) := \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{ix}\right)$$

$$sin(x) := Im(e^{ix})$$

We see that the Euler formula holds:

$$\exp(ix) = \cos(x) + i\sin(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

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# Geometric interpretation of the Euler formula

S.-J. Kimmerle

Analysis 1

The range of values is the unit circle:

$$|\exp(ix)| = \left(\exp(ix)\overline{\exp(ix)}\right)^{1/2}$$
$$= \left(\exp(ix)\exp(-ix)\right)^{1/2} = \left(\exp(0)\right)^{1/2} = 1, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

sin(x) and cos(x) are the projections on the real and imaginary axis, resp.

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Summary - outlook and review

sin and cos are extended on complex arguments by  $\exp(iz)$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . For real arguments sin and cos coincide with the known functions.



# Geometric interpretation of multiplication in C

We consider the polar complex plane.

We have

$$z = r \exp(i\phi) \in \mathbb{C}$$

with  $r = |z| \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$  and  $\phi \in (-\pi, \pi]$ .

Thus for the multiplication of  $z_1 = r_1 \exp(i\phi_1)$ ,  $z_2 = r_2 \exp(i\phi_2) \in \mathbb{C}$  there holds

$$z_1z_2 = r_1r_2 \exp(i(\phi_1 + \phi_2)).$$

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## Theorem (Properties of cosine and sine)

For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  there holds:

• 
$$cos(x) = \frac{1}{2} (e^{ix} + e^{-ix}), \quad sin(x) = \frac{1}{2i} (e^{ix} - e^{-ix})$$

- $\circ$   $\cos(-x) = \cos(x), \quad \sin(-x) = \sin(x)$
- $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(x) = 1$
- $\bullet$  cos :  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and sin :  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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# Trigonometric addition theorems

## Theorem (Addition theorems of cosine and sine)

For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  there holds:

$$\cos(x + y) = \cos(x)\cos(y) - \sin(x)\sin(y),$$
  

$$\sin(x + y) = \sin(x)\cos(y) + \cos(x)\sin(y).$$

## Theorem (Duplication formulas of cosine and sine)

For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  there holds:

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x),$$
  

$$\sin(2x) = 2\sin(x)\cos(x).$$

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# Series representation of (co)sine

## Theorem (Sine and cosine as series)

For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we define

$$\cos(x) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{(2k)!} x^{2k} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \dots$$

$$\sin(x) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} + \dots$$

Both series converge absolutely.

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## Proof.

The exponential series is absolutely convergent. We consider:

Series representation of (co)sine - proof

$$\exp(ix) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^k}{k!}$$

Note that:  $i^0 = 1$ ,  $i^1 = i$ ,  $i^2 = -1$ ,  $i^3 = -i$ ,  $i^4 = 1$ 

In a cyclic manner:  $i^{4k} = 1$ ,  $i^{4k+1} = i$ ,  $i^{4k+2} = -1$ ,...

We order the terms (why is it allowed?) with even (4k, 4k + 2) and odd indices (4k + 1, 4k + 3):

$$\exp(ix) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{(2k)!} x^{2k} + i \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{1}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1}$$

Together with the Euler formula

$$\exp(ix) = \cos(x) + i\sin(x)$$

the statement is verified.

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## Estimates for the remainder

Since we may evaluate only a finite part of a series, it is important to have estimates for the remainder:

## Theorem (Estimates for the remainder for (co)sine)

For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\exp(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} + r_{n}(x),$$

$$with |r_{n+1}(x)| \le 2 \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \quad for |x| \le \frac{n+1}{2}$$

$$\cos(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!} + r_{2n+2}(x),$$

$$with |r_{2n+2}(x)| \le \frac{|x|^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!} \quad for |x| \le 2n+3$$

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} + r_{2n+3}(x),$$

$$with |r_{2n+3}(x)| \le \frac{|x|^{2n+3}}{(2n+3)!} \quad for |x| \le 2n+4$$

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## Theorem (Some limits sin and cos)

For any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

1) 
$$\lim_{X\to 0, X\neq 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{X} = 1,$$

2) 
$$\lim_{X\to\infty}\frac{sin(X)}{X}=0,$$

3) 
$$\lim_{x\to 0, x\neq 0} \frac{\cos x - 1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

4) 
$$\lim_{X\to\infty}\frac{\cos(x)}{X}=0$$

## Lemma (2 estimates for sin and cos)

for all 
$$x \in (0,2]$$

$$\sin(x) > 0 \qquad \text{for all } x \in (0, 2]$$

$$\cos(2) \le -\frac{1}{3}$$

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## Definition (The number $\pi$ )

The cosine has exactly one zero p in the interval [0, 2]. We define

$$\pi := 2p$$
.

The real number  $\pi$  is an infinite, non-periodic decimal fraction, i.e. an irrational number,

$$\pi = 3,141592653589...$$

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## Periodicities of sine and cosine I

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$\cos(x+2\pi)=\cos(x)$
$\sin(x+2\pi)=\sin(x)$
$cos(y + \pi) = cos(y)$

$$cos(x + \pi) = -cos(x)$$
$$sin(x + \pi) = -sin(x)$$

$$\cos(x) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)$$

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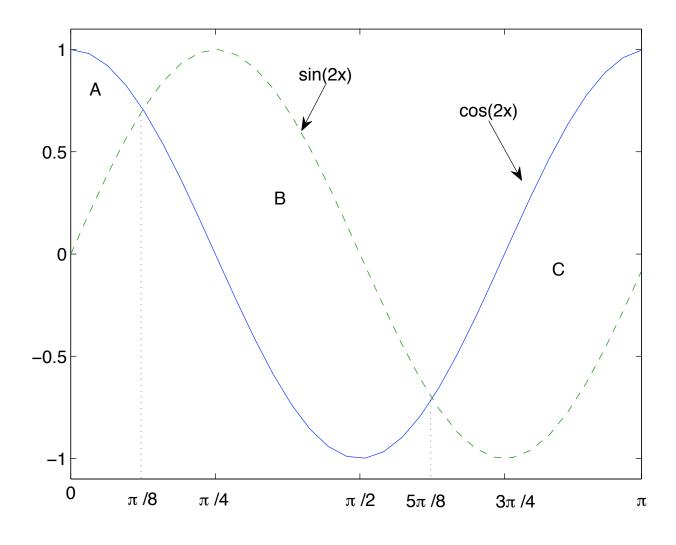
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Periodicities of sine and cosine II

Sine and cosine with half the periodicity

The quotient of sine and cosine has a certain importance. It is called the **tangent** 

$$\tan(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}.$$

Moreover, we define the **cotangent** 

$$\cot(x) = \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)}.$$

Note the singularities at zeros of cos or sin.

Remark: There exist further trigonometric functions that we do not consider here:

$$sec(x) = \frac{1}{\cos(x)}, \quad \csc(x) = \frac{1}{\sin(x)}$$

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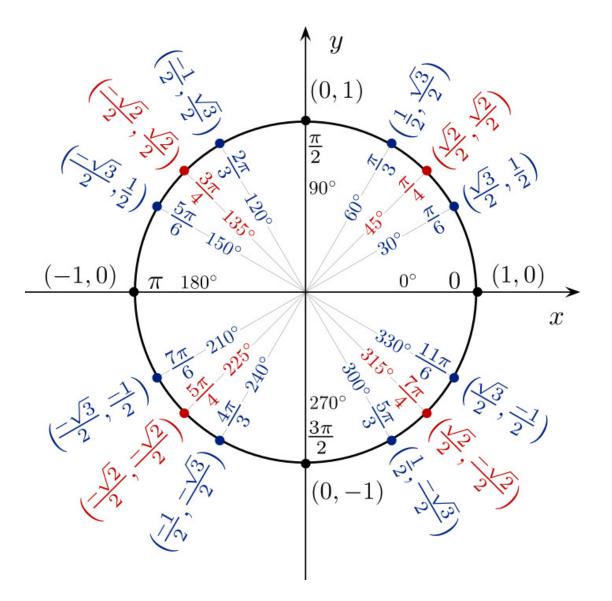


Radian	degree	sin	cos	tan
0	0°	0	1	0
$\frac{\pi}{6}$	30°	1/2	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$
$\frac{\pi}{4}$	45°	$\begin{array}{c c} 1\\ \hline 2\\ \hline \sqrt{2}\\ \hline 2\\ \hline \sqrt{3}\\ \hline 2\\ \end{array}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1
$\frac{\pi}{3}$	60°	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	<u>1</u>	$\sqrt{3}$
$\frac{\pi}{2}$	90°	1	0	$\infty$

Special values of trigonometric functions

# Special values of co(sine)

S.-J. Kimmerle



Unit circle with coordinates of important points Source: Wikipedia

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# On the interval $[0, \pi]$ the function cos is strictly monotone decrasing and maps bijectively to [-1, 1].

The inverse function

$$arccos(x): [-1,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

exists and it is called arccosine.

Inverse trigonometric functions I

On the interval  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  the function sin is strictly monotone incrasing and maps bijectively to [-1, 1]. The inverse function

$$arcsin(x): [-1,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

exists and it is called arcsine.

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# Inverse trigonometric functions II

On the interval  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  the function tan is strictly monotone incrasing and maps bijectively to  $\mathbb{R}$ . The inverse function

$$arctan(x) : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

exists and it is called arctangent.

Note that the inverse functions are restricted to a "principal branch".

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Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We define the **hyperbolic cosine** as

$$\cosh(x) := \frac{1}{2} \left( \exp(x) + \exp(-x) \right),$$

and the hyperbolic sine as

$$\sinh(x) := \frac{1}{2} \left( \exp(x) - \exp(-x) \right).$$

## Applications:

- sagging high voltage lines or chains (e.g. of bridges)
   have the shape of a cosh
- magnetism
- cosmology
- ...

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