The Fundamental Theorem of Trigonometry

Eric Grinberg* and Omar Hijab†

Abstract

Counting complete rotations is a primordial idea, and makes us aware of the integers. Similarly, Archimedes's measure of partial rotations forces the completeness of the real numbers. What is less well-known is that Archimedes's idea unearths the complex numbers, and leads to the Fundamental Theorem of Trigonometry.

1 Introduction

A mystifying feature of today's calculus books is a lack of any discussion of exactly what is the measure of an angle. The subject is assumed to have been treated somehow in secondary school. However, this is not so, as axiomatic treatments [1] of angle measure bypass this issue by design.

Instead of treating angle measure in a pre-calculus course or early in a calculus course, within the framework of just-learned cartesian geometry, calculus books often go outside this framework by appealing to pictures not only for motivation, but also for justification. As a consequence, they forfeit the opportunity to present angle measure as a basic paradigm of calculus.

Typically, calculus books state the measure θ of an angle is the length of the subtended arc along the unit circle, use this to define $\sin\theta$, then go on to derive

$$\lim_{\theta\to 0}\frac{\sin\theta}{\theta} = 1 \tag{1}$$

by sandwiching a sector's area between the areas of inscribed and circumscribed triangles. None of this is defined analytically when beginning cartesian geometry.

The book [6] comes close to defining the measure of an angle, as it discusses the history of the subject at length. The books [4], [5] ignore the issue completely, although the material here would fit perfectly there.

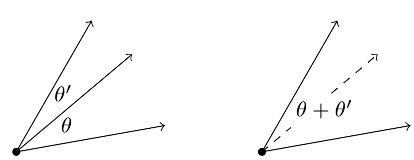

Figure 1: Additivity.

Whatever definition one takes for the measure of the angle, it should be additive: When angles are stacked, their measures should add (Figure 1).

Additive angle measure θ was introduced by Archimedes, as part of his work [3] leading to his estimate of the half-circumference of the unit circle,

$$\frac{223}{71} < \pi < \frac{22}{7}. \tag{2}$$

By contrast, Hipparchus [7] and Ptolemy [8] used chord measure θ_1, which is equivalent to θ but not additive, to build their trigonometric tables.

To understand angle measure within the context of euclidean geometry, we recall some basic facts [2]. In euclidean geometry, a euclidean plane is a set of points containing subsets, called lines and

*University of Massachusetts, Boston, MA, eric.grinberg@umb.edu
†Temple University, Philadelphia, PA, hijab@temple.edu

TABLE OF CHORDS

Arcs	Chords	Sixtieths	Arcs	Chords	Sixtieths
½	0 31 25	1 2 50	23	23 55 27	1 1 33
1	1 2 50	1 2 50	23½	24 26 13	1 1 30
1½	1 34 15	1 2 50	24	24 56 58	1 1 26
2	2 5 40	1 2 50	24½	25 27 41	1 1 22
2½	2 37 4	1 2 48	25	25 58 22	1 1 19
3	3 8 28	1 2 48	25½	26 29 1	1 1 15
3½	3 39 52	1 2 48	26	26 59 38	1 1 11
4	4 11 16	1 2 47	26½	27 30 14	1 1 8
4½	4 42 40	1 2 47	27	28 0 48	1 1 4
5	5 14 4	1 2 46	27½	28 31 20	1 1 0
5½	5 45 27	1 2 45	28	29 1 50	1 0 56
6	6 16 49	1 2 44	28½	29 32 18	1 0 52
6½	6 48 11	1 2 43	29	30 2 44	1 0 48
7	7 19 33	1 2 42	29½	30 33 8	1 0 44
7½	7 50 54	1 2 41	30	31 3 30	1 0 40

Figure 2: A portion of Ptolemy's chord tables.

angles, whose behavior is restricted by specific axioms. In a euclidean plane, line segments may be added and multiplied, resulting in an ordered field $\mathbf{F}$, the field of segment arithmetic. Then $\mathbf{F}$ is necessarily Pythagorean[1], and the euclidean plane is isomorphic to the cartesian plane $\mathbf{F}^2$ over $\mathbf{F}$. In particular, when $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{R}$, the euclidean plane is $\mathbf{R}^2$.

Thus line segment measure exists naturally within euclidean geometry. To what extent is angle measure θ natural within euclidean geometry? In any euclidean plane, Archimedes bisection (§3) yields approximations

$$\theta_1 < \theta_2 < \theta_3 < \cdots < \frac{\theta_3}{x_3} < \frac{\theta_2}{x_2} < \frac{\theta_1}{x_1} \tag{3}$$

in $\mathbf{F}$. However, to assert the existence of the limit θ within $\mathbf{F}$, one must appeal to the completeness property. Thus, strictly speaking, Archimedes bisection leads to angle measure only for the real euclidean plane $\mathbf{R}^2$. Nevertheless, (3) is well-defined for any euclidean plane, even when $\mathbf{F}$ is non-archimedean.

Archimedes did not discuss additivity, at least not in his *measurement of a circle*. As a consequence of angle stacking (Figure 3), a euclidean plane is naturally a complex plane. This is easiest to see when the euclidean plane is the cartesian plane. Ironically, Descartes, the discoverer of cartesian geometry, did not consider these issues, and dismissed complex numbers as "imaginary".

In this note, we explain how angle stacking leads to complex numbers, derive the additivity of Archimedes' angle measure, and show how additivity leads to the fundamental theorem of trigonometry. To maintain the flow of the arguments, some proofs are deferred to an appendix.

Apart from the completeness property of the reals, continuity, and the intermediate value theorem, our presentation remains within the confines of cartesian geometry, and is therefore accessible to the beginning calculus student.

2 Angle Stacking

Although angle stacking is defined in any euclidean plane, for definiteness, we work in the real cartesian plane.

In the real cartesian plane, points are ordered pairs of real numbers $P = (x, y)$, $P' = (x', y')$. Points may be added, $P + P' = (x + x', y + y')$, and multiplied by real numbers t, $tP = (tx, ty)$.

An angle is an ordered pair of rays starting from a common point, the vertex of the angle. If the vertex is the origin $O = (0, 0)$, then an angle is determined by the intersections P, P' of its rays with the unit circle. We say an angle is anchored if its vertex is O and its first intersection is $I = (1, 0)$.

Complex multiplication and division are forced upon us as soon as we stack angles as in Figure 1, even before angle measure is defined.

[1] a, b in $\mathbf{F}$ implies $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ is in $\mathbf{F}$.

This is clearest when the angles are anchored. Let P and P' be on the unit circle, and let P'' be obtained by stacking P' atop P, as in Figure 3.

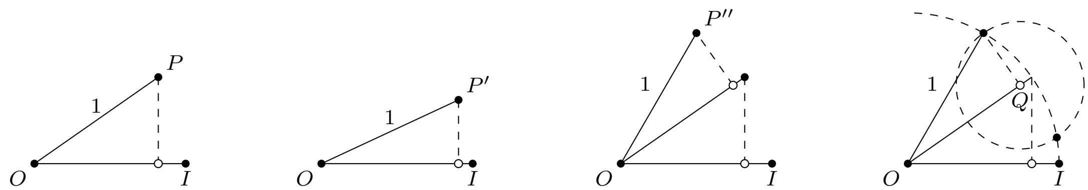

Figure 3: Stacking anchored angles.

To make stacking precise, draw the circle with center $Q = x'P$ and radius $|y'|$, as in Figure 3. When $x'y' \neq 0$, this circle intersects the unit circle at

$$P'' = (xx' - yy', x'y + xy') \qquad \text{and} \qquad P'' = (xx' + yy', x'y - xy'). \tag{4}$$

The proof is straightforward, and in the appendix.

This defines multiplication $P'' = PP'$ and division $P'' = P/P'$ of points P, P' on the unit circle. For P, P' not on the unit circle, an analogous diagram results in the usual formulas for PP' and P/P'.

If we identify cartesian points $P = (x, y)$, $P' = (x', y')$ with complex numbers $z = x+iy$, $z' = x'+iy'$, the points (4) are identified with the complex product zz' and the complex quotient z/z', at least when z, z' lie on the unit circle.

Given this, it makes sense to replace points P, P', P'' by complex numbers z, z', z'', and to rewrite (4) as

$$z'' = zz' \qquad \text{and} \qquad z'' = z/z'. \tag{5}$$

This translation is purely cosmetic; the presentation may be continued in the cartesian plane, rather than the complex plane.

Below we define the Archimedes measure $\theta(z)$ of $z \neq -1$ on the unit circle. To take into account both cases in (5), we require $\theta(1/z) = -\theta(z)$. Then we interpret Figure 1 by writing

$$\theta(zz') = \theta(z) + \theta(z'), \qquad x > 0, x' > 0. \tag{6}$$

It is in this form we establish additivity of $\theta = \theta(z)$.

3 Archimedes Bisection

Let $z = x + iy$ be on the punctured unit circle $z \neq -1$, and define $m_1 = (z + 1)/2$ and

$$z_1 = \frac{m_1}{|m_1|} = \frac{z+1}{\sqrt{2+2x}} = \frac{x+1}{\sqrt{2+2x}} + i\frac{y}{\sqrt{2+2x}} = x_1 + iy_1. \tag{7}$$

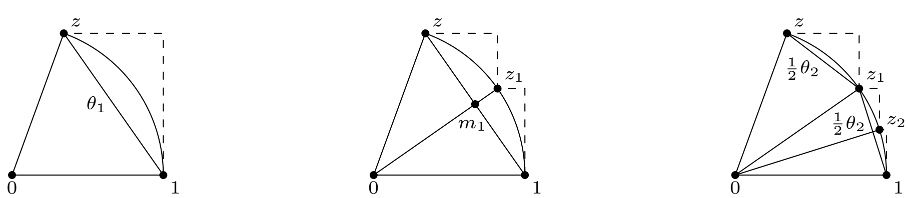

Figure 4: Bisection.

A short computation shows $z_1^2 = z$, thus z_1 is a square root of z; we write $\sqrt{z}$ for this square root. By (7), $\sqrt{z}$ maps the punctured unit circle $z \neq -1$ continuously and bijectively onto the right-half unit circle $x_1 > 0$, and the imaginary parts of z and $\sqrt{z}$ have the same sign (Figure 5).

Since $(\sqrt{z}\sqrt{z'})^2 = zz'$,

$$\sqrt{zz'} = \sqrt{z}\sqrt{z'}, \tag{8}$$

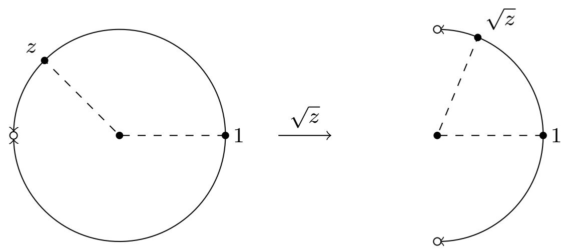

Figure 5: The square root.

up to sign, whenever both sides of (8) are defined. When z, z', zz' are in the upper-half unit circle, both sides are defined and have positive imaginary parts. Hence (8) is correct as written, when z, z', zz' are in the upper-half unit circle.

Let $\theta_1 = \theta_1(z) = |z-1|$ be as in in Figure 4, with z in the unit circle first quadrant $x > 0$, $y > 0$. Then it is easy to check $\theta_1 = 2y_1$ and

$$y < 2y_1 < \frac{2y_1}{x_1} < \frac{y}{x}.$$

Similarly, let $z_2 = x_2 + iy_2 = \sqrt{z_1}$ and let $\theta_2 = \theta_2(z) = 2\theta_1(z_1)$ be the chord-length sum in Figure 4. Then $\theta_2 = 4y_2$ and

$$2y_1 < 4y_2 < \frac{4y_2}{x_2} < \frac{2y_1}{x_1}, \tag{9}$$

when z is on the upper-half unit circle $y > 0$.

If we define θ_n and $z_n = x_n + iy_n$ recursively by $\theta_{n+1}(z) = 2\theta_n(\sqrt{z})$ and $z_{n+1} = \sqrt{z_n}$, $n \geq 2$, then θ_1, θ_2, θ_3, ... are obtained by repeated bisection of the subtended arc, and it is easy to check

$$\theta_n = 2^n y_n, \qquad n \geq 1. \tag{10}$$

Iterating (9) and appealing to (10) yields the sequences (3) when z is on the upper-half unit circle $y > 0$. In (3), the decreasing sequence consists of the chord-length sums of the circumscribed chords obtained by dilating the inscribed chords in Figure 4 away from the origin.

By (3), θ_1, θ_2, θ_3, ... is bounded. By (10), $y_n \to 0$, hence $x_n \to 1$, as $n \to \infty$. By the completeness property of the real numbers, the sequences in (3) have a common limit $\theta = \theta(z)$. By construction,

$$\theta(z) = 2\theta(\sqrt{z}) \tag{11}$$

follows, when $y > 0$.

Extend $\theta(z)$ to the lower-half unit circle $y < 0$ by

$$\theta(z) = -\theta(1/z), \tag{12}$$

and set $\theta(1) = 0$. Then (11) and (12) are valid on the punctured unit circle $z \neq -1$, and $\theta(z) = \theta\left(\sqrt{1-y^2} + iy\right)$ is an odd function of y on the right-half unit circle.

Let $z'' = zz' = x'' + iy''$, and let $\theta = \theta(z)$, $\theta' = \theta(z')$, and $\theta'' = \theta(z'')$. Let $z'_n = x'_n + iy'_n$, $z''_n = x''_n + iy''_n$, $n \geq 1$, be the corresponding sequences starting from z', z'' respectively, and let θ'_n, θ''_n, $n \geq 1$, be the corresponding chord-length sums. The proof of (6) uses multiplicativity of the square root (8) and the fact that $2^{-n}\theta_n(z)$ is the imaginary part of z_n (10) to derive

$$\theta''_n = x'_n\theta_n + x_n\theta'_n, \qquad n \geq 1. \tag{13}$$

Passing to the limit then yields (6). The details are in the appendix.

Assume $x > 0$, $y > 0$. Since $\sqrt{2+2x} < 2$ and by (7) $x_1 > y_1$,

$$2(1 - x_1 + y_1) = 2 - 2(x_1 - y_1) < 2 - \sqrt{2+2x}(x_1 - y_1) = 1 - x + y.$$

Iterating this, $2^n(1 - x_n + y_n) < 1 - x + y$, hence $\theta_n < 2(1 - x_1 + y_1)$, $n \geq 1$, as suggested by the dashed lines in Figure 4. Passing to the limit,

$$y < \theta(z) < 1 - x + y, \qquad z = x + iy, x > 0, y > 0. \tag{14}$$

Let z be in the unit circle first quadrant. From (7), y_1 is an increasing function of y. Similarly, with y_2 playing the role of y_1, y_2 is an increasing function of y_1, hence an increasing function of y. Continuing in this manner, y_n, $n \geq 1$, are increasing functions of y. By (10), θ_n, $n \geq 1$, are increasing functions of y. Passing to the limit, and since $\theta(z)$ is an odd function of y, it follows $\theta(z)$ is an increasing function of y, when z is in the right-half unit circle.

Define $\pi = 2\theta(i)$. Since $2\theta_1(i) = 2\sqrt{2}$ and $x_1(i) = 1/\sqrt{2}$, by (3), $2\sqrt{2} < \pi < 4$. To achieve (2) using (3), Archimedes effectively calculated

$$2\theta_6(i) = 64\sqrt{2 - \sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{2}+2}+2}+2}+2}}.$$

By (14), and since $\theta(z)$ is an odd function of y, $\theta(z)$ is continuous at $z = 1$ and $\theta(z) \neq 0$ when $z \neq 1$. If $z \neq z'$ are in the right-half unit circle and close to each other, then z/z' is $\neq 1$ and close to 1. By (6),

$$\theta(z/z') = \theta(z) - \theta(z'), \qquad x > 0, x' > 0.$$

It follows $\theta(z)$ is continuous and injective on the right-half unit circle. By (11), $\theta(z)$ is continuous and injective on the punctured unit circle. Since $\theta(z)$ is an increasing function of y and $\theta(\pm i) = \pm\pi/2$, $\theta(z)$ maps the right-half unit circle into $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. By the intermediate value theorem, $\theta(z)$ is a continuous bijection from the right-half unit circle onto $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. By (11) again, $\theta(z)$ is a continuous bijection from the punctured unit circle $z \neq -1$ onto $(-\pi, \pi)$.

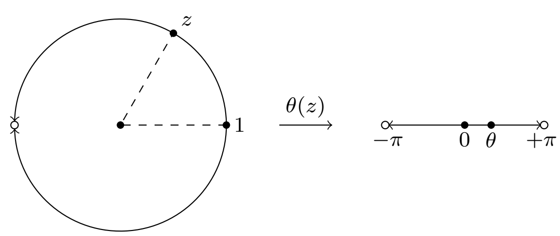

Figure 6: Angle Measure

To summarize, $\theta(z)$ is a continuous bijection between the punctured unit circle $z \neq -1$ and the interval $(-\pi, \pi)$ (Figure 6).

4 Trigonometry

The basic result of trigonometry is the existence of a continuous map $z(\theta) = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$ of the real line into the unit circle satisfying the addition formula

$$z(\theta)z(\theta') = z(\theta + \theta') \tag{15}$$

for all θ, θ'. In this form, the addition formula goes back to DeMoivre.

Separating the addition formula into real and imaginary parts yields the usual trigonometric identities for $\sin\theta$ and $\cos\theta$. By (15), any such map satisfies $z(0) = 1$ and $z(-\theta) = 1/z(\theta)$.

Since the constant map $z(\theta) \equiv 1$ satisfies (15) trivially, we only seek non-constant maps satisfying (15). The fundamental theorem of trigonometry, whose proof is in the appendix, formalizes the addition formula as follows.

Theorem (Fundamental theorem of trigonometry)**.** *There is a non-constant continuous map $z(\theta)$ of the real line into the unit circle, unique up to rescaling, satisfying* (15)*.*

Here is a sketch of the proof. Let $z(\theta)$ be the inverse of angle measure $\theta(z)$. Since $\theta(z)$ maps onto $(-\pi, \pi)$, $z(\theta)$ is defined only on $(-\pi, \pi)$. Since (6) is valid only on the right-half unit circle, $z(\theta)$ satisfies (15) only on $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$.

To extend $z(\theta)$ to the real line, we use the following consequence of (15)

$$z(\theta) = z(\theta/2)^2 \tag{16}$$

repeatedly, each time doubling the interval of definition of $z(\theta)$. This leads to a map $z(\theta)=\cos\theta+i\sin\theta$ of the real line onto the unit circle satisfying (15).

If $z(\theta)$ satisfies (15), then $z(\alpha\theta)$ satisfies (15), for any real α. Hence, at best, there is uniqueness up to rescaling. To show that this is indeed the case, we need to attach a scale to each such map $z(\theta)$. This scale, or yardstick, is its least positive period.

Given a continuous map $z(\theta)$ satisfying (15), we say a real α is a period if $z(\alpha)=1$. Then 0 is a period, every integer multiple of a period is a period, and a limit of periods is a period.

Armed with this, uniqueness falls into three parts: First we establish the existence of a positive period, then we establish the existence of a least positive period, and use it to rescale the map, then we use (15) to show

$$z(\theta\pi/2)=i^{\theta}. \tag{17}$$

This determines $z(\theta)$ uniquely, completing the sketch.

Inserting $z=\cos\theta+i\sin\theta$ in (14) leads to (1).

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Appendix

Proof of (4). Let $\langle P,P'\rangle=xx'+yy'$, $|P|^2=\langle P,P\rangle$, and $P^{\perp}=(-y,x)$. Then P is on the unit circle iff $|P|^2=1$, and P, P' on the unit circle satisfy $\langle P,P'\rangle=0$ iff $P'=\pm P^{\perp}$. Since P'' is on the circle of center Q and radius $|y'|$, we may write $P''=Q+y'R$, for some R on the unit circle. Then $1=|P''|^2=|x'P+y'R|^2$ iff $\langle P,R\rangle=0$ iff $R=\pm P^{\perp}$, yielding $P''=x'P\pm y'P^{\perp}$, which is (4). □

Proof of (6). We establish (6) for $z=x+iy$, $z'=x'+iy'$ in the right-half unit circle, $x>0$ and $x'>0$. Let $z''=zz'=x''+iy''$, and let $\theta=\theta(z)$, $\theta'=\theta(z')$, and $\theta''=\theta(z'')$. Since (6) is immediate when $yy'y''=0$, we may assume $yy'y''\neq 0$. There are two cases.

First assume $yy'>0$. By (12), (6) is valid for z, z' iff (6) is valid for $1/z$, $1/z'$. Hence, in this case, we may assume $y>0$ and $y'>0$. Let $z'_n=x'_n+iy'_n$, $z''_n=x''_n+iy''_n$, $n\geq 1$, be the corresponding sequences starting from z', z'' respectively, and let θ'_n, θ''_n, $n\geq 1$, be the corresponding chord-length sums. Then, by (8), $z''_n=z_nz'_n$, thus $y''_n=x'_ny_n+x_ny'_n$, hence, by (10), (13) follows. Now send $n\to\infty$. Since $x_n\to 1$, $x'_n\to 1$, we obtain $\theta''=\theta+\theta'$, which is (6).

Second assume $yy'<0$. Then we have $x''=xx'-yy'>0$. Since $yy'<0$, $y''(-y)$ and $y''(-y')$ have opposite signs. By switching the roles of z and z' if necessary, we may assume $y''(-y)>0$. Applying the first case to z'' and $1/z=x-iy$,

$$\theta(z')=\theta(z''/z)=\theta(z'')+\theta(1/z)=\theta(zz')-\theta(z),$$

which is (6). □

Proof of existence of $z(\theta)$ satisfying (15). Since $\theta(z)$ is a continuous bijection, there is a continuous inverse $z(\theta)$ on $(-\pi,\pi)$. *Then $z(\theta)$ can be extended uniquely to all reals with* (15) *valid for all θ, θ', and we write $z(\theta)=\cos\theta+i\sin\theta$.*

Since $\theta(i)=\pi/2$, $z(\pi/2)=i$. By (6), $z(\theta)$ satisfies (15) on $(-\pi/2,\pi/2)$, hence, for θ in $(-\pi,\pi)$, (16) holds.

For $\alpha\geq\pi$, suppose $z(\theta)$ is defined on $(-\alpha,\alpha)$ and satisfies (15) on $(-\alpha/2,\alpha/2)$. If $Z(\theta)$ extends $z(\theta)$ to $(-2\alpha,2\alpha)$ and satisfies (15) on $(-\alpha,\alpha)$, then $Z(\theta)=Z(\theta/2)^2=z(\theta/2)^2$ on $(-2\alpha,2\alpha)$, hence $Z(\theta)$ is uniquely determined. Conversely, define $Z(\theta)=z(\theta/2)^2$ on $(-2\alpha,2\alpha)$. Then $Z(\theta)$ satisfies (15) on $(-\alpha,\alpha)$, since

$$Z(\theta)Z(\theta')=z(\theta/2)^2z(\theta'/2)^2=z((\theta+\theta')/2)^2=Z(\theta+\theta')$$

for θ, θ' in $(-\alpha,\alpha)$, and $Z(\theta)$ extends $z(\theta)$, since $Z(\theta)=z(\theta/2)^2=z(\theta)$ on $(-\alpha,\alpha)$.

Iterating this, $z(\theta)$ can be extended uniquely to $(-2\pi,2\pi)$, $(-4\pi,4\pi)$, $(-8\pi,8\pi)$, …, with the extensions satisfying (15) on $(-\pi,\pi)$, $(-2\pi,2\pi)$, $(-4\pi,4\pi)$, …, resulting in a continuous map $z(\theta)$ satisfying

(15) for all reals. Since $z(\pi) = z(\pi/2)^2 = -1$ and $z(2\pi) = z(\pi)^2 = 1$, $z(\theta)$ is surjective. Since $\theta(z)$ is bijective, 2π is the least positive period of $z(\theta)$.

Proof of uniqueness of $z(\theta)$ satisfying (15) step 1. Let $z(\theta)$ be any non-constant continuous map $z(\theta)$ of the real line into the unit circle satisfying (15). *Then $z(\theta)$ has a positive period.*

Write $z(\theta) = x(\theta) + iy(\theta)$. Since 0 is a period, $x(0) = 1$. Since $z(\theta)$ is non-constant, there is an $\alpha \neq 0$ with $x(\alpha) < 1$. Since $\cos 0 = 1$, by continuity, there is an $n \geq 1$ with $x(\alpha) < \cos(2\pi/n) < 1$. By the intermediate value theorem, there is a $\beta \neq 0$ with $x(\beta) = \cos(2\pi/n)$, hence $y(\beta)$ equals one of $\pm \sin(2\pi/n)$. By (15),

$$z(n\beta) = z(\beta)^n = (\cos(2\pi/n) \pm i \sin(2\pi/n))^n = \cos(2\pi) \pm i \sin(2\pi) = 1,$$

hence $z(\pm n\beta) = 1$, hence there is a positive period.

Proof of uniqueness of $z(\theta)$ satisfying (15) step 2. $z(\theta)$ has a least positive period α.

Since a limit of periods is a period, the infimum α of all positive periods is a period. For every real θ and every period $\beta > 0$, for some integer n, we have $n\beta \leq \theta < (n+1)\beta$. Hence for every period $\beta > 0$, every real θ lies within distance β of some period. If $\alpha = 0$, there would be arbitrarily small positive periods β. This would imply every real θ is the limit of some sequence of periods, and thus $z(\theta) \equiv 1$. Since by assumption this is disallowed, $\alpha > 0$.

Proof of uniqueness of $z(\theta)$ satisfying (15) step 3. By rescaling $z(\theta)$ to $z(\alpha\theta/2\pi)$, we may assume $\alpha = 2\pi$. Then $z(\pi) = -1$, so $z(\pi/2) = i$ or $z(-\pi/2) = i$. By rescaling $z(\theta)$ to $z(-\theta)$ if necessary, we may assume $z(\pi/2) = i$. *Then $z(\theta)$ is uniquely determined.*

Since 2π is the least positive period, $z(\theta) \neq \pm 1$ for $0 < |\theta| < \pi$. In particular, $\sqrt{z(\theta)}$ is defined for $-\pi < \theta < \pi$. By (15), we have (16), hence

$$z(\theta/2) = \sqrt{z(\theta)}, \qquad -\pi < \theta < \pi, \tag{18}$$

up to sign. We claim (18) is correct as written. This is immediate when $\theta = 0$, so assume $\theta \neq 0$. If the imaginary parts of $z(\theta)$ and $z(\theta/2)$ have opposite signs, then, by the intermediate value theorem, for some θ' between θ and $\theta/2$, we have $z(\theta') = 1$ or $z(\theta') = -1$. Since this can't happen, the imaginary parts of $z(\theta)$ and $z(\theta/2)$ must have the same sign. It follows the imaginary parts of $\sqrt{z(\theta)}$ and $z(\theta/2)$ have the same sign, establishing the claim. Using (15) and (18) repeatedly, $z(\theta)$ satisfies (17) for all dyadic rationals $\theta = k/2^n$. Since the dyadic rationals are dense and $z(\theta)$ is continuous, this determines $z(\theta)$. □

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