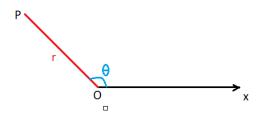
Polar Coordinates

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1 Polar Coordinates

There are different ways to locate a point on a plane, among which is the Cartesian coordinates that we have been using for a long time. Besides the Cartesian coordinates, another popular coordinate system for the plane is the **polar coordinates**, where the location of a point is described by its distance and direction to the origin.

P is a point on the plane. We connect the origin O and P by a line segment. The length of the line segment \overline{OP} is denoted by r, and the angle whose terminal edge (recall that by default, the initial edge for an angle coincides with the positive x-axis) coincides with \overline{OP} is denoted by θ (Note that the choice of θ is not unique, since angles differed by multiples of 2π will have terminal edge coincide). Then in polar coordinates, the point P is represented by the pair (r, θ) .



A special convention is that given (r, θ) , the polar coordinates of a point P, if r < 0, this denotes the point with polar coordinates $(-r, \theta + \pi)$. For example, the point $(-1, \frac{\pi}{2})$ in polar coordinates is the same as $(1, \frac{3\pi}{2})$.

If a point on the plane P has Cartesian coordinates (x, y) and polar coordinates (r, θ) , by Trigonometry, we can obtain the conversion formulas between the two coordinates:

$$\begin{cases} x = r\cos\theta\\ y = r\sin\theta \end{cases}$$

Example 1. If a point has polar coordinates $r = 3, \theta = -\frac{\pi}{6}$, then its Cartesian coordinates can be recovered by $x = 3\cos(-\frac{\pi}{6}) = 3 \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}$, $y = 3\sin(-\frac{\pi}{6}) = 3 \times (-\frac{1}{2}) = -\frac{3}{2}$, so its Cartesian Coordinates is $(\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}, -\frac{3}{2})$.

We can also convert the other way round:

$$\begin{cases} r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \text{ if } x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

You will need to determine the value for θ after you find the value for $\tan \theta$. If we use the inverse tangent function, we can choose θ in the following way:

$$\theta = \begin{cases} \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}, \text{ if } (x, y) \text{ is in Quadrant I or IV} \\ \pi + \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}, \text{ if } (x, y) \text{ is in Quadrant II or III} \end{cases}$$

Example 2. If P is a point with Cartesian coordinates (-1, -1), find the polar coordinates for P.

 $r = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{2}. \ \tan \theta = \frac{-1}{-1} = 1, \ and \ P \ is \ in \ the \ Quadrant III, \ so \ \theta = \pi + \tan^{-1}(1) = \pi + \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{5\pi}{4}. \ In \ polar \ coordinates \ the \ point \ P \ is \ r = \sqrt{2}, \ \theta = \frac{5\pi}{4}.$

When the point has x-coordinate to be 0, it lies on the y-axis, so its angle is $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ if it's on positive y-axis, and $\theta = -\frac{\pi}{2}$ if it is on the negative y-axis.

Example 3. The polar coordinates for the point (0,3) is $r = 3, \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$, and the polar coordinates for the point (0,-3) is $r = 3, \theta = -\frac{\pi}{2}$

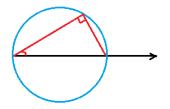
Similar to Cartesian coordinates, the polar coordinates can be used to describe not only points, but also curves, an equation $F(r, \theta) = 0$ denotes the set of all points on the plane whose polar coordinates satisfy this equation.

Example 4. The circle of radius R with centre at origin corresponds to the equation r = R, since it is the set of points whose distance to the origin is R.

A ray coming out from Origin can be described by the equation $\theta = \theta_0$, where θ_0 is the angle formed by the positive x-axis and this ray. For example, the equation for the diagonal ray of the Quadrant II is $\theta = \frac{3\pi}{4}$. **Example 5.** What is the polar equation of the circle of radius 2 with centre at (1,0)?

For angle θ , the corresponding radius is $2\cos\theta$, so the equation is

 $r = 2\cos\theta$



You can also fine some other interesting examples in the textbook, for example, $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ (cardioid) and $r = \cos 2\theta$ (four-leaved rose).

Example 6. Find the intersections of the four leaved rose $r = 2\cos\theta$ and the circle $r = \frac{1}{2}$

We need to first find points of intersection of the two curves. They intersect at the points on the four leaved rose such that $r = \pm \frac{1}{2}$, i.e., $|r| = \frac{1}{2}$. We get the equation

$$\frac{1}{2} = |r| = |\cos 2\theta|$$

and the solutions are $\pm \frac{\pi}{6}, \pm \frac{\pi}{3}, \pm \frac{2\pi}{3}, \pm \frac{5\pi}{6}$, which correspond to the points in Cartesian coordinates:

$$(\pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}, \pm \frac{1}{4}), (\pm \frac{1}{4}, \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4})$$

2 Calculus for Polar Coordinates

Given the polar equation $r = f(\theta)$ of a curve, we can find the slope of the curve by the chain rule:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{d\theta}}{\frac{dx}{d\theta}} = \frac{\frac{d(r\sin\theta)}{d\theta}}{\frac{d(r\cos\theta)}{d\theta}} = \frac{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta}{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta}$$

In particular, if the curve passes through the origin, its slope is given by

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta}{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta} = \tan\theta$$

when $\frac{dr}{d\theta} \neq 0$, and this formula agrees with our geometric understanding of the slope.

Example 7. Find the points on the curve $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ at which the tangent line is horizontal or vertical.

We know the tangent line is horizontal when the slope is zero; the tangent line is vertical when the slope tends to infinity. So we compute the slope first.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta}{\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta}$$
$$= \frac{\cos\theta\sin\theta + (1+\sin\theta)\cos\theta}{\cos^2\theta - (1+\sin\theta)\sin\theta}$$
$$= \frac{(1+2\sin\theta)\cos\theta}{(1-\sin^2\theta) - \sin^2\theta - \sin\theta}$$
$$= \frac{(1+2\sin\theta)\cos\theta}{-2\sin^2\theta - \sin\theta + 1}$$

The numerator is zero when $(1 + 2\sin\theta)\cos\theta = 0$, i.e., $\sin\theta = -\frac{1}{2}$ or $\cos \theta = 0, we get \theta = -\frac{\pi}{6}, -\frac{5\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{2}, -\frac{\pi}{2}.$ The denominator is zero when $-2\sin^2 \theta - \sin \theta + 1 = 0$, i.e., $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{2}$ or

 $\sin \theta = -1$, we get $\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{5\pi}{6}, -\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Note $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ is a solution to both the numerator and denominator, and

$$\lim_{\theta \to -\frac{\pi}{2}} \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right| = \lim_{\theta \to -\frac{\pi}{2}} \left| \frac{(1+2\sin\theta)\cos\theta}{-2\sin^2\theta - \sin\theta + 1} \right| = \infty$$

So the tangent line is vertical at this point.

We conclude the tangent line is horizontal when $\theta = -\frac{\pi}{6}, -\frac{5\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{2}$, they correspond to points $(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}, -\frac{1}{4})$, $(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}, -\frac{1}{4})$, (0, 2) in Cartesian coordinates. The tangent line is vertical when $\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{5\pi}{6}, -\frac{\pi}{2}$, they correspond to points

 $(\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{4}, \frac{3}{4}), (-\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{4}, \frac{3}{4}), (0, 0)$ in Cartesian coordinates.

We can compute the arc length of a polar curve of the form $r = f(\theta)$, with $a \le \theta \le b$. This in Cartesian coordinates a parametric curve

$$(r\cos\theta, r\sin\theta) = (f(\theta)\cos\theta, f(\theta)\sin\theta)$$

Theorem 8. The arc length of the parametric curve $r = f(\theta)$, with $a \le \theta \le b$ is

$$\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{r^{2} + (\frac{dr}{d\theta})^{2}} \, d\theta$$

Proof.

$$\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^{2}} \, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{r\cos\theta}{d\theta}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{r\sin\theta}{d\theta}\right)^{2}} \, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\cos\theta - r\sin\theta\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\sin\theta + r\cos\theta\right)^{2}} \, d\theta$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{r^{2} + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^{2}} \, d\theta$$

Example 9. Compute the arclength of the four cadioiod $r = 1 + \sin \theta$.

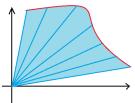
$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sqrt{r^2 + (\frac{dr}{d\theta})^2} \, d\theta = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sqrt{(1 + \sin\theta)^2 + (\cos\theta)^2} \, d\theta = 8$$

We can also use polar coordinates to compute some area.

Theorem 10. A polar curve is given by the equation $r = f(\theta)$, with $a \le \theta \le b$. Connect the two endpoints to the origin, then the area enclosed can be computed by

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{r^2}{2} \, d\theta$$

Proof. We can divide [a, b] into n pieces of length $\Delta \theta = \frac{b-a}{n}$, with endpoints $a = \theta_0 < \theta_1 < \ldots < \theta_{n-1} < \theta_n = b$. Choose a point $\theta_i^* \in [\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$. The rays $\theta = \theta_1, \ldots, \theta = \theta_{n-1}$ divide the region into n parts, and when n is big, each of



them can be approximated by a sector of a circle with radius $f(\theta_i^*)$ and angle $\Delta \theta$, whose are is $\frac{r^2\theta}{2}$. So taking the limit of the Riemann sum, we obtain the area enclosed is

$$\lim_{\Delta\theta\to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{f(\theta_i^*)^2}{2} \,\Delta\theta = \int_a^b \frac{f(\theta)^2}{2} \,d\theta = \int_a^b \frac{r^2}{2} \,d\theta$$

Example 11. Find the region enclosed by one loop of the four leaved rose $r = \cos 2\theta$.

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(\cos 2\theta)^2}{2} \, d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1 + \cos 4\theta}{4} \, d\theta = \int_0^{8\pi} \frac{1 + \cos u}{16} \, du = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

Example 12. Find the area of the region that lies inside the circle $r = 3 \sin \theta$ and outside of the cardioid $r = 1 + \sin \theta$.

We first find the points of intersection of the two curves:

$$\begin{cases} r = 3\sin\theta\\ r = 1 + \sin\theta \end{cases}$$

We get $\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$ or $\theta = \frac{5\pi}{6}$, and $r = \frac{3}{2}$. So the area is

$$\int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{5\pi}{6}} \frac{(3\sin\theta)^2}{2} - \frac{(1+\sin\theta)^2}{2} \, d\theta = \pi$$