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Trigonometric Functions

In an extended way the study is also of the angles forming the elements of a triangle. Logically, a discussion of the properties of a triangle; solving a triangle, physical problems in the area of heights and distances using the properties of a triangle – all constitute a part of the study. It also provides a method of solution of trigonometric equations.

MEASUREMENT OF ANGLES 1

There are two methods used in measuring angles. The first one uses the idea of right angle as a fundamental unit. When two lines intersect, four angles are formed. If the lines intersect in such a way fundamental unit. that all the four angles are equal, then each is called a right angle. The other units in this system are:

- 1 right angle = 90 degrees (= 90°)
- 1 degree $= 60$ minutes $(= 60)$
- 1 minute $= 60$ seconds $(= 60ⁿ)$

In the second method the fundamental unit is radian, which is the angle subtended at the centre of any circle by an arc of the circle equal in length to the radius.

Though defined with respect to a circle it is totally independent of the circle (its radius or its centre location).

In fact it is a constant angle for otherwise it cannot be chosen as a unit of measurement. The formula of conversion of angles from radian measure to degree measure is

 π radians = 180 degrees or π^c = 180°

conversely from degrees to radians

 $1^\circ = (\pi/180)$ of a radian.

It is usual to write π for 180°, $\pi/2$ for 90°, $\pi/4$ for 45° *etc.* It may be mentioned that this means that π radians = 180°; ($\pi/2$) radians = 90° and so on.

S

R P O

Q

1 radian

The unit radian is denoted by *c* (circular measure) and it is customary to omit this symbol *c.*

Thus, when an angle is denoted as $\frac{\pi}{2}$, $\frac{\pi}{2}$, it means that the angle is $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{6}$ radians where π is the number

with approximate value 3.14159.

LENGTH OF AN ARC OF A CIRCLE

Consider an arc *PS* of a circle which subtends an angle θ (θ radians). Let $\angle POQ = 1$ radian.

Then arc *PQ = r* If the length of the arc *PS = l,* then *PQ PS POQ POS* arc $\frac{\angle POS}{\angle POQ} = \frac{\text{arc}}{\text{arc}}$ Ž *i.e.*, $\frac{0}{1} = \frac{1}{r}$ $\frac{\theta}{\theta} = \frac{I}{I}$ $\frac{0}{1} = \frac{1}{r}$ or $l = r\theta$

Y

θ *D*(*x, 0*)

O

E(0, *y*)

P(x, y)

x

TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS OF AN ANGLE 2

The six trigonometric ratios sine, cosine, tangent, cotangent, secant and cosecant of an angle θ , 0° < θ < 90° are defined as the ratios of two sides of a right-angled triangle with θ as one of the angles. However these can be defined through a unit circle more elegantly.

Draw a unit circle and take any two diameters at right angle as

X and *Y* axes. Taking *OX* as the initial line, let *OP* be the radius vector corresponding to an angle θ , where P lies on the unit circle. Let (x, y) be the coordinates of *P.*

Then by definition :

 $cos\theta = x$, the *x* coordinate of *P*

$$
\sin\theta = y
$$
, the y coordinate of P

y

y

$$
\tan\theta = \frac{y}{x}, x \neq 0
$$

$$
\cot\theta = \frac{x}{y}, y \neq 0
$$

$$
\sec\theta = \frac{1}{x}, x \neq 0
$$

$$
\csc\theta = \frac{1}{x}, y \neq 0
$$

y

Angles measured anticlockwise from the initial line *OX* are deemed to be positive and angles measured clockwise are considered to be negative.

Since we can associate a unique radius vector OP and a unique point P with each angle θ , we say x and y and their ratios are functions of θ . This justifies the term trigonometric 'function'. This definition holds good for all angles positive, negative, acute or not acute (irrespective of the magnitude of the angle).

This definition also helps us to write the sine and cosine of four important angles 0°, 90°, 180° and 270° easily.

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 $\theta = 0^{\circ}$ \Rightarrow $A(1, 0)$ $\theta = 90^\circ$ \Rightarrow *B*(0, 1) $\theta = 180^\circ$ \Rightarrow $A'(-1, 0)$ $\theta = 270^\circ$ \Rightarrow *B*'(0, -1)

2.1 TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS OF (−**)**

Let *OP* and *OP*' be the radii vectors, on the unit circle corresponding to θ and −θ. If (*x, y*) are the coordinates of *P,* then (*x,* −*y*) would be the coordinates of *P.* Now $sin\theta = y$ and $sin(-\theta) = -y$ Hence, $sin(-\theta) = -sin\theta$ Similarly, $cos(-\theta) = cos\theta$ and $tan(-\theta) = -tan\theta$ **2.2 CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS OF ALLIED ANGLES** When θ is an acute angle, 90° – θ is called the angle complementary to θ . Trigonometric functions of 90° – θ are related to trigonometric functions of θ as follows : $sin(90^\circ - \theta) = cos\theta$ $cosec(90^\circ - \theta) = sec\theta$ $\cos(90^\circ - \theta) = \sin\theta$ $\sec(90^\circ - \theta) = \csc\theta$

 $tan(90^\circ - \theta) = cot\theta$ $cot(90^\circ - \theta) = tan\theta$

When θ is acute, θ and 180° – θ are called supplementary angles.

- $sin(180^\circ \theta) = sin\theta$ $cosec(180^\circ \theta) = cosec\theta$
- $\cos(180^\circ \theta) = -\cos\theta$ $\sec(180^\circ \theta) = -\sec\theta$
- $tan(180^\circ \theta) = -tan\theta$ $cot(180^\circ \theta) = -cot\theta$

Formulae for functions of :180° + θ , 270° – θ , 270° + θ , 360° – θ can all be derived with the help of unit circle definition.

There is an easy way to remember these formulae. First of all think of θ as an acute angle. Angles like 180° \pm 0, 360° \pm 0, -0 can be considered as angles associated with the horizontal line, angles like 90° – θ , 90° + θ , 270° \mp θ can be considered as angles associated with vertical line. When associated with the horizontal line, the magnitude of the function does not change, whereas when associated with the vertical line the function changes to the corresponding complementary value. For example sin(180° + θ) will be only sin θ (in magnitude) plus or minus and cos(180° – θ) will be cosine θ only in magnitude.

To decide upon the sign, consider the quadrant in which the angle falls and decide the sign by the quadrant rule.

For example, $sin(180^\circ + \theta)$ is $sin\theta$ (in magnitude) (180° + θ) lies in third quadrant and hence $sin(180^\circ + \theta)$ is negative.

 \therefore sin (180° + θ) = −sin θ

Again consider cos(360° – θ) : first of all, it should be cos θ (in magnitude); since (360° – θ) lies in IV quadrant, its cosine is positive.

 \therefore cos (360° – θ) = cos θ .

Again consider tan (90° + θ): This should be cot θ and must have a negative sign since $(90^\circ + \theta)$ is in II quadrant and hence tan $(90^\circ + \theta)$ is negative.

 $tan (90^\circ + \theta) = -cot\theta$

TABLE OF FORMULAE FOR ALLIED ANGLES

These formulae are not memorized but derived as and when the occasion demands according to the rule explained above.

Trigonometric ratios of 30°, 45° and 60° are of great importance in solving problems on heights and distances. These along with 0° and 90° are written in tabular form and remembered.

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2.3 SOME IMPORTANT FACTS The following may be noted

- (i) For any power *n*, (sin *A*)^{*n*} is written as sin^{*n*}A. Similarly for all other trigonometric ratios.
- (ii) cosec*A,* sec*A* and cot*A* are respectively the reciprocals of sin*A,* cos*A* and tan*A.*
- (iii) $\sin^2 A + \cos^2 A = 1$; $1 + \tan^2 A = \sec^2 A$ and $1 + \cot^2 A = \csc^2 A$.
- (iv) sec*A* − tan*A* and sec*A* + tan*A* are reciprocals. So also are cosec*A* [−] cot*A* and cosec*A +* cot*A.*

Whenever secA or tanA is thought of for an angle A, it is necessary to stress that, $A \neq \pi/2$

particularly, and generally $A \neq m$ + $\frac{\pi}{2}$ ($n \in \mathbb{N}$, where $\mathbb N$ is the set of natural numbers).

\n- (v)
$$
|\sin A| \leq 1 \Rightarrow -1 \leq \sin A \leq 1
$$
\n $|\cos A| \leq 1 \Rightarrow -1 \leq \cos A \leq 1$ \n $|\csc A| \geq 1 \Rightarrow \csc A \geq 1$ or $\csc A \leq -1$ \n $|\sec A| \geq 1 \Rightarrow \sec A \geq 1$ or $\sec A \leq -1$ \n $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - A\right) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + A\right) = \cos A$ \n
\n- (vi) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - A\right) = -\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + A\right) = \sin A$ \n $\sin(\pi - A) = -\sin(\pi + A) = \sin A$ \n $\cos(\pi - A) = \cos(\pi + A) = -\cos A$ \n
\n

$$
\tan(\pi - A) = -\tan(\pi + A) = -\tan A
$$

(vii) The trigonometric ratios are also called as trigonometric functions. They are also sometimes called circular functions.

The trigonometric functions, apart from possessing many other properties exhibit a property of the values being repeated when the angle is changed (increased or decreased) by a constant value. Such a property is referred to as periodicity.

Thus $\sin x = \sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin(x + 4\pi)$

 $=$ sin($x - 2\pi$) = sin($x + 2k\pi$), *k* an integer.

 $\cos x = \cos(x + 2\pi) = \cos(x + 4\pi)$

 $=$ cos($x - 2\pi$) = cos($x + 2k\pi$), *k* an integer.

Hence both sinx and cosx are periodic functions of period 2π radians. From (v), it is clear that they are also bounded functions.

cosec *x* and sec *x*, whenever they exist, are also periodic of period 2π radians. tan *x* and cot *x*, when they exist, are periodic of period π radians.

tan *x,* sec *x,* cosec *x* and cot *x* are unbounded functions.

2.4 GRAPH OF TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS

Graph of $y = \sin x$

 $v = \sin x$

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Graph of $y = \tan x$

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CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS OF COMPOUND ANGLES 3

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An equation involving trigonometric functions, which is true for all those values of θ for which the functions are defined is called a trigonometric identity, otherwise it is a trigonometric equation. We shall now derive some results which are useful in simplifying trigonometric equations. *To* **SMARTLEARN** COACHING

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J $\cos(A+B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B \}$ \mathcal{L} $+ B$) = $\frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B}$ $\sin(A+B)=\sin A \cos B+\cos A \sin B$ $(A + B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{A}$ $\tan(A+B)=\frac{\tan A+\tan A}{1-\tan A\tan A}$

3.2 SUBTRACTION FORMULAE

J $\cos(A-B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B \}$ + $-B$) = $\frac{\tan A - \tan B}{1 + \tan A \tan B}$ $\mathsf{sin}(A-B) = \mathsf{sin} \, A \mathsf{cos} \, Bπmathsf{cos} \, A \mathsf{sin} \, B$ $(A - B) = \frac{\tan A - \tan B}{\sin A}$ $\tan(A-B)=\frac{\tan A - \tan A}{1 + \tan A \tan A}$

...(ii)

...(i)

These formulae can be derived with the help of elementary geometry. The subtraction formulae can be derived from the addition formulae by replacing *B* by − *B.*

Function of $(A + B + C)$

1. sin($A + B + C$) = Σ sin \overline{A} cos \overline{B} cos \overline{C} − sin \overline{A} sin \overline{B} sin \overline{C} **Proof**: $\sin\{A + (B + C)\} = \sin A \cdot \cos(B + C) + \cos A \cdot \sin(B + C)$ = sin*A*{cos*B* cos*C* [−] sin*B* sin*C*}

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+cos*A* {sin*B* cos*C +* cos*B* sin*C*}

$$
= \sum \sin A \cos B \cos C - \sin A \sin B \sin C \qquad ...(iii)
$$

- 2. $\cos(A + B + C) = \cos A \cos B \cos C \sum \cos A \sin B \sin C$ Proof is similar to that of the previous formula.
- 3. $\tan (A + B + C) = \frac{2 \tan A \tan B \tan C}{1 \Sigma \tan B \tan C}$. tan A – tan Atan Btan *A* – tan *A* tan *B* tan *C* ∑tan A –

$$
1-\Sigma \tan B \tan C
$$

SinB

SinB

with the help of elementary geometry. The subtraction formulae

ale by replacing B by - B.

ssnA cos(B + Q + OssA sin(B + C)

smA cos(B + Q + OssA sin(B + C)

= sinA cosB cos C - sinA sinC

= Σ sinA cosB cos **Proof:** $\tan(A + B + C) = \tan\{A + (B + C)\} = \frac{\tan\{A + C\}}{\tan\{A + C\}} = \frac{\tan\{B + C\}}{\tan\{B + C\}} =$ $\overline{}$ J \backslash ļ. l ſ − $-$ tan A $\left(\frac{\tan B + \sin B}{\tan B}\right)$ − $+\frac{\tan B+}{\tan B+}$ $-$ tan A.tan($B +$ $=\frac{\tan A + \tan(B +$ *B C* $A\left(\frac{\tan B + \tan C}{\cos A}\right)$ *B C* $A + \frac{\tan B + \tan C}{2}$ A tan(B + C $A + tan(B + C)$ 1 – tan B tan 1 - tan A $\left(\frac{\tan B + \tan B}{\tan B} \right)$ $1 - \tan B \tan$ tan $A + \frac{\tan B + \tan B}{\tan B}$ 1 – tan A.tan $(B+C)$ $\tan A + \tan(B+C)$

2 $_{1}$ – $_{3}$ 1 – (tan A tan B + tan B tan C + tan C tan A) 1 $(\tan A + \tan B + \tan C) - \tan A \cdot \tan B \cdot \tan C$ *S* $S_1 - S$ A $\tan B$ + $\tan B$ $\tan C$ + $\tan C$ $\tan A$ A + $\tan B$ + $\tan C$) – $\tan A$ $\tan B$ $\tan C$ − $=\frac{S_{1}-S_{2}}{S_{1}-S_{2}}$ – (t<mark>an *A* tan *B* + tan *B* tan *C* +</mark> $=\frac{(\tan A + \tan B + \tan C) -$

where *S^r =* sum of the products (of tangents) taken *r* at a time.

3.4 MULTIPLE ANGLE FORMULAE

3.4.1 Functions of 2A

- (i) sin2*A* = $2\sin A \cos A$
	- (ii) cos2*A =* cos²*A* − sin²*A =* 2 cos²*A* − 1 = 1 − 2sin²*A*

(iii)
$$
\tan 2A = \frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A}
$$

These are special cases of the addition formulae by taking $B = A$. The formulae for cos2A leads to two results whose application occurs often in problems.

1 + cos2A = 2cos²A and 1 - cos 2A = 2sin²A
\nBesides these,
$$
\sin 2A = \frac{2 \tan A}{1 + \tan^2 A}
$$
 and $\cos 2A = \frac{1 - \tan^2 A}{1 + \tan^2 A}$
\nIf A be replaced by $\frac{A}{2}$, these formulae reduce to
\n(i) $\sin A = 2\sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{A}{2}$

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(ii)
$$
\cos A = \cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}
$$

= $2\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - 1 = 1 - 2\sin^2 \frac{A}{2}$
(iii) $\tan A = \frac{2\tan \frac{A}{2}}{1 - \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}}$

3.4.2 Functions of 3A

 (i) $\sin 3A = 3\sin A - 4\sin^3 A$

Proof: $\sin 3A = \sin(2A + A) = \sin 2A \cos A + \cos 2A \sin A$ $= 2\sin A \cos^2 A + \sin A (1 - 2 \sin^2 A)$

 $= 3\sin A - 4\sin^3 A$

(ii)
$$
\cos 3A = 4\cos^3 A - 3\cos A
$$

Proof : $\cos 3A = \cos(2A + A) = \cos 2A \cdot \cos A - \sin 2A \sin A$

$$
= (2\cos^2 A - 1)\cos A - 2\sin^2 A \cos A
$$

$$
= (2\cos^2 A - 1) \cos A - 2\cos A (1 - \cos^2 A)
$$

$$
=4\cos^3 A - 3\cos A
$$

(iii)
$$
\tan 3A = \frac{3 \tan A - \tan^3 A}{1 - 3 \tan^2 A}
$$

Proof:
$$
\tan 3A = \frac{\tan 2A + \tan A}{1 - \tan 2A \tan A} = \frac{\frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A} + \tan A}{1 - \frac{2 \tan^2 A}{1 - \tan^2 A}} = \frac{3 \tan A - \tan^3 A}{1 - 3 \tan^2 A}
$$

Note: This formula can be derived from the expansion of $tan(A + B + C) = \frac{S_1 - S_3}{1 - S_2}$ by taking $B = C = A$.

EXPRESSING PRODUCTS OF TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS AS SUM OR DIFFERENCE 3.5

- (i) $2\sin A \cos B = \sin(A + B) + \sin(A - B)$
- (ii) $2\cos A \sin B = \sin(A + B) \sin(A B)$
- (iii) $2\cos A \cos B = \cos(A + B) + \cos(A B)$
- (iv) $2\sin A \sin B = \cos(A B) \cos(A + B)$

The above four formulae can be obtained by expanding the right hand side and simplifying.

 $.$ (i)

Note : In the fourth formula, there is a change in the pattern. Angle $(A - B)$ comes first and $(A + B)$ B) later. In the first quadrant, the greater the angle, the less the cosine. Hence cosine of the smaller angle is written first [to get a positive result].

3.7 **SOME MORE RESULTS**

$$
\bullet \sin(A + B) \times \sin(A - B) = \sin^2 A - \sin^2 B
$$

$$
\bullet \cos(A + B) \times \cos(A - B) = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 B
$$

$$
\bullet \ \sin 18^\circ = \frac{(\sqrt{5}-1)}{4} = \cos 72^\circ
$$

$$
\bullet \quad \cos 18^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{10+2\sqrt{5}}}{4} = \sin 72^\circ
$$

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$$
\bullet \quad \cos 36^\circ = \frac{(\sqrt{5}+1)}{4} = \sin 54^\circ
$$

$$
\bullet \ \ \sin 36^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{10-2\sqrt{5}}}{4} = \cos 54^\circ
$$

•
$$
\tan 22 \frac{1}{2} \degree = (\sqrt{2} - 1)
$$

Triple Angle Formulae

- $\sin\theta \sin(60^\circ \theta) \sin(60^\circ + \theta) = \frac{1}{4} \sin 3\theta$
- $\cos\theta \cos(60^\circ \theta) \cos(60^\circ + \theta) = \frac{1}{4}\cos 3\theta$ \bullet
- $tan\theta$ tan(60° θ) tan(60° + θ) = tan3 θ

CONDITIONAL TRIGONOMETRICAL IDENTITIES

4.1 **IDENTITIES** A trigonometric equation is an identity if it is true for all values of the angle or angles involved.

 4.2 **CONDITIONAL IDENTITIES** When the angles involved satisfy a given relation, the identity is called conditional identity. In proving these identities we require properties of complementary and supplementary angles.

SOME IMPORTANT CONDITIONAL IDENTITIES 4.3

If $A + B + C = \pi$, then

- $tanA + tanB + tanC = tanA$ $tanB$ $tanC$ \bullet
- $cotA \cdot cotB + cotB \cdot cotC + cotC \cdot cotA = 1$
- $sin2A + sin2B + sin2C = 4 sinA sinB sinC$
- $\cos 2A + \cos 2B + \cos 2C = -1 4 \cos A \cos B \cos C$
- $\cos^2 A + \cos^2 B + \cos^2 C = 1 2 \cos A \cos B \cos C$

•
$$
\cos A + \cos B + \cos C = 1 + 4 \sin \frac{A}{2} \sin \frac{B}{2} \sin \frac{C}{2}
$$

•
$$
\tan \frac{A}{2} \tan \frac{B}{2} + \tan \frac{B}{2} \tan \frac{C}{2} + \tan \frac{C}{2} \tan \frac{A}{2} =
$$

•
$$
\cot \frac{A}{2} + \cot \frac{B}{2} + \cot \frac{C}{2} = \cot \frac{A}{2} \cdot \cot \frac{B}{2} \cdot \cot \frac{C}{2}
$$

4.4 **SOME OTHER USEFUL RESULTS**

 $\sin\alpha + \sin(\alpha + \beta) + \sin(\alpha + 2\beta) + \dots$ to n terms = $\frac{\sin[\alpha + (n-1)\beta/2]\sin(n\beta/2)}{2}$ $1.$

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$$
\sin(\beta/2)
$$

2.
$$
\cos \alpha + \cos(\alpha + \beta) + \cos(\alpha + 2\beta) + \dots
$$
to *n* terms
=
$$
\frac{\cos[\alpha + (n-1)\beta/2]\sin(n\beta/2)}{\sin(\beta/2)}
$$
.

3.
$$
\sin\frac{A}{2} + \cos\frac{A}{2} = \pm\sqrt{1 + \sin A}
$$

4.
$$
\sin\frac{A}{2} - \cos\frac{A}{2} = \pm\sqrt{1 - \sin A}
$$

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5.
$$
\sin A \pm \cos A = \sqrt{2} \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \pm A \right) = \sqrt{2} \cos \left(A \mp \frac{\pi}{4} \right)
$$

6.
$$
\cos\alpha + \cos\beta + \cos\gamma + \cos(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) = 4\cos\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\cos\frac{\beta + \gamma}{2}\cos\frac{\gamma + \alpha}{2}
$$

7.
$$
\sin \alpha + \sin \beta + \sin \gamma - \sin(\alpha + \beta + \gamma) = 4 \sin \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \sin \frac{\beta + \gamma}{2} \sin \frac{\gamma + \alpha}{2}
$$

8. If *A, B, C* are the angles of a triangle (or $A + B + C = \pi$), then the result (1) implies Σ sin*A* cos*B* $\cos C = \Pi \sin A$. Result (2) \Rightarrow Σ cos *A* sin*B* sin*C* = 1 + Π cos*A*

$$
Result (3) \Rightarrow \Sigma \tan A = \Pi \tan A
$$

Putting $\alpha = A$, $\beta = B$ and $\gamma = C$ in result (9) and (10),

we get
$$
\Sigma \cos A = 1 + 4\Pi \cos \frac{A}{2}
$$

and Σ sin $A = 4\Pi$ cos 2 *A* respectively.

Putting *A/2, B*/2, *C*/2 in place of *A, B, C* respectively in result (3), and utilizing $A + B + C = \pi$,

we get,

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$$
\Sigma \tan \frac{B}{2} \tan \frac{C}{2} = 1.
$$

For a triangle we can also show that $\Sigma \cot B \cot C = 1$; $\Sigma \cot \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{A}{2}$ = Π cot $\frac{A}{2}$; *A*

$$
\sum \sin 2A = 4\Pi \sin A; \ \sum \cos 2A = -1 - 4\Pi \cos A; \ \sum \cos^2 A = -1 - 2\Pi \cos A, \ \text{etc.}
$$

BOUNDS OF THE EXPRESSION: $acos\theta + bsin\theta$

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

\n
$$
= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \left(\sin\alpha \cos\theta + \cos\alpha \sin\theta \right)
$$

\n
$$
= \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \sin(\theta + \alpha), \text{ where } \tan\alpha = \frac{a}{b}
$$

\nAlso, $a \cos\theta + b \sin\theta = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \cos(\theta - \beta)$, where $\tan\beta = \frac{b}{a}$
\n
$$
\frac{-1 \le \sin(\theta + \alpha) \le 1}{-1 \le \sin(\theta + \alpha) \le 1}
$$

\nand hence, $-\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \le a \cos\theta + b \sin\theta \le \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
\nThus the expression $a \cos\theta + b \sin\theta$ is bounded above by $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ and bounded below by $-\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$.

