

# UNIT-I : NUMBER SYSTEMS

## CHAPTER-1

### REAL NUMBERS

#### Topic-1

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, Rational and Irrational numbers, Proofs of irrationality of  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sqrt{5}$ .

**Concepts Covered** • Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic; Prime Factorization Method to find LCM and HCF; Proofs of irrationality of  $\sqrt{2}$ ,  $\sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sqrt{5}$ .



#### Revision Notes

##### ➤ The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Every composite number can be expressed as a product of **prime numbers** and this factorisation is unique, apart from the order in which the prime factors occur. Fundamental theorem of arithmetic is also called a **Unique Factorisation Theorem**.

Composite number = Product of prime numbers

Or

Any integer greater than 1 can either be a prime number or can be written as a unique product of **prime numbers**. e.g.,

(i)  $2 \times 11 = 22$  is the same as  $11 \times 2 = 22$ .

(ii) 6 can be written as  $2 \times 3$  or  $3 \times 2$ , where 2 and 3 are prime numbers.

(iii) 15 can be written as  $3 \times 5$  or  $5 \times 3$ , where 3 and 5 are prime numbers.

The prime factorisation of a natural number is unique, except the order of its factors.

e.g., 12 made by multiplying the prime numbers 2, 2 and 3 together,  $12 = 2 \times 2 \times 3$

We would probably write it as  $12 = 2^2 \times 3$

##### ➤ By using Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, we shall find the **HCF** and **LCM** of given numbers (two or more).

This method is also called **Prime Factorization Method**.

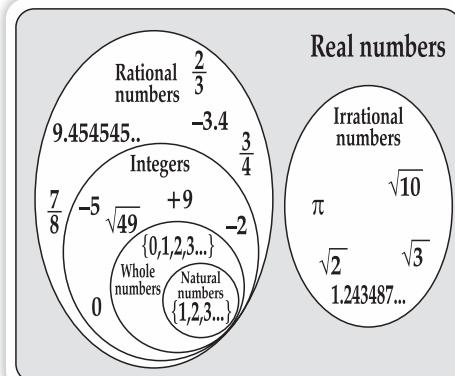


#### Key Word

**Prime number:** A prime number is a whole number greater than 1 whose only factors are 1 and the number itself.



#### Key Diagram

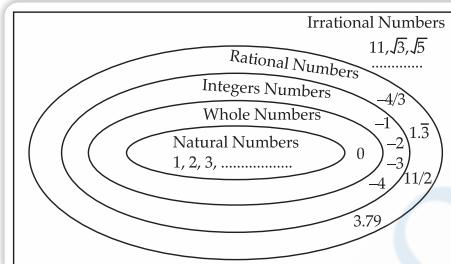




## Mnemonics

### Interpretations:

- R:** Real Numbers
- Q:** Rational Numbers
- W:** Whole Numbers
- I:** Irrational Numbers
- Z:** Integers
- N:** Natural Numbers



### ➤ Prime Factorization Method to find HCF and LCM :

- (i) Find all the prime factors of given numbers.
- (ii)  $HCF$  of two or more numbers = Product of the smallest power of each common prime factor, involved in the numbers.
- (iii)  $LCM$  of two or more numbers = Product of the greatest power of each prime factor, involved in the numbers.



## Key Formulae

For two positive integers  $a$  and  $b$ , we have

$$HCF(a, b) \times LCM(a, b) = a \times b$$

or 
$$HCF(a, b) = \frac{a \times b}{LCM(a, b)}$$

and 
$$LCM(a, b) = \frac{a \times b}{HCF(a, b)}$$

### ➤ Rational and Irrational Numbers

- (i) **Rational Numbers:** A number in the form  $\frac{p}{q}$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are co-prime numbers and  $q \neq 0$ , is known as rational number.

For example : 2, -3, 37, 25, -56, etc. are rational numbers.

- (ii) **Irrational Numbers:** A number is called irrational if it cannot be written in the form  $\frac{p}{q}$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . For example,  $\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \sqrt{5}$  are irrational numbers.

- (iii) Let  $p$  be a prime number. If  $p$  divides  $a^2$ , then  $p$  divides  $a$ , where  $a$  is a positive integer.

# UNIT-II : ALGEBRA

## CHAPTER-2

## POLYNOMIALS



### Revision Notes

- **Polynomial :** An algebraic expression in the form of  $a_nx^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$ , (where  $n$  is a whole number and  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are real numbers) is called a **polynomial** in one variable  $x$  of degree  $n$ .
- (i) **Degree of a polynomial:** The highest power of the variable in the polynomial is known as the degree of a polynomial.
- **Value of a Polynomial at a given point :** If  $p(x)$  is a polynomial in  $x$  and ' $\alpha$ ' is any real number, then the value obtained by putting  $x = \alpha$  in  $p(x)$ , is called the value of  $p(x)$  at  $x = \alpha$ .
- **Zero of a Polynomial :** A real number  $k$  is said to be a zero of a polynomial  $p(x)$ , if  $p(k) = 0$ .  
Geometrically, the zeroes of a polynomial  $p(x)$  are precisely the  $x$ - co-ordinates of the points, where the graph of  $y = p(x)$  intersects the  $x$ -axis.
- (ii) **Types of polynomial:** Polynomials can be classified on the basis of number of terms or the degree of the polynomial.

#### Based on Number of Terms:

- (a) **Monomial:** An expression having just one term. Example:  $2x, -4x^2, \frac{3}{4}x$ .
- (b) **Binomial:** An expression having two terms. Example:  $2x + 3, 5y^2 - 2y$ .



### Key Word

**Polynomial:** A Polynomial is an expression consisting of variables and coefficients, that involves only the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication and non-negative integer exponentiation of variable.

- (c) **Trinomial:** An expression having three terms. Example:  $4x^2 - 3x + 4$ .

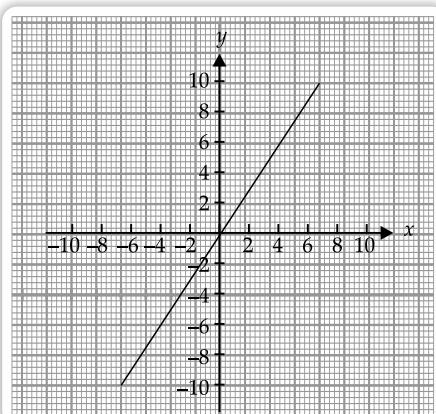
#### Based on Degree:

- (a) **Linear:** A polynomial whose degree is 1. Example:  $2x + 4, -4x$ .
- (b) **Quadratic:** A polynomial whose degree is 2. Example:  $3x^2 - 2x + 4$ .
- (c) **Cubic:** A polynomial whose degree is 3. Example:  $x^3 - x^2 + x + 1$ .

- **Graphs of Different types of Polynomials :**

- **Linear Polynomial :** The graph of a linear polynomial  $p(x) = ax + b$  is a straight line that intersects  $x$ -axis at one point only.

**Graph of linear polynomial :**

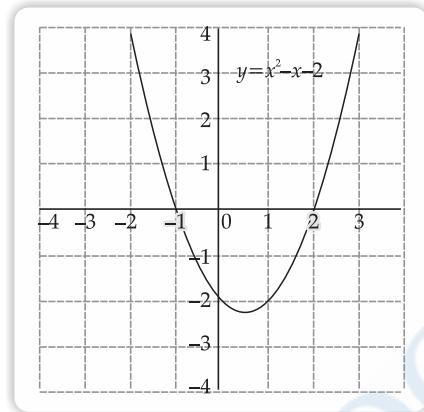


The above graphs represents a linear polynomial  $p(x) = x$  or  $y = x$ .

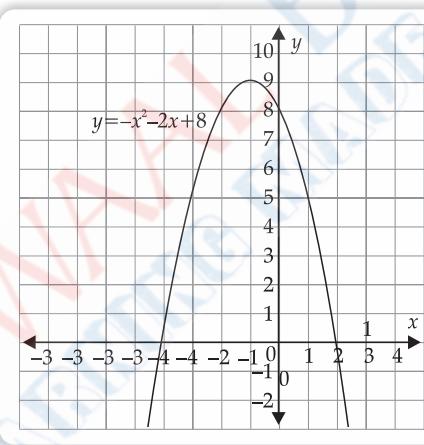
- **Quadratic Polynomial :** (i) Graph of a quadratic polynomial  $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a parabola which open upwards, if  $a > 0$  and intersects  $x$ -axis at a maximum of two distinct points.

#### Graph of Quadratic Polynomial

- (i) When  $a > 0$



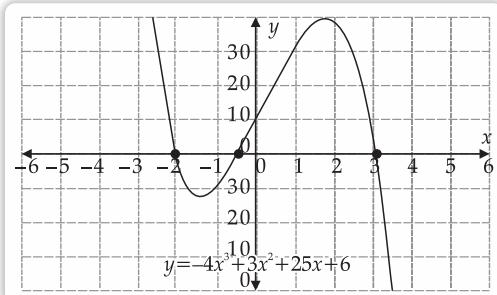
- (ii) When  $a < 0$



- (iii) Graph of a quadratic polynomial  $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a parabola which open downwards, if  $a < 0$  and intersects  $x$ -axis at a maximum of two distinct points.

**Graph of a cubic polynomial :** Graph of cubic polynomial  $p(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$  intersects  $x$ -axis at a maximum of three distinct points.

#### Graph of Cubic Polynomial:

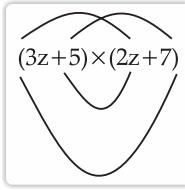




## Mnemonics

**Mnemonic to multiply the binomials :**

F : Firsts  
O : Outsides  
I : Insides  
L : Lasts



Firsts :  $3z \times 2z = 6z^2$   
Outsides :  $3z \times 7 = 21z$   
Insides :  $5 \times 2z = 10z$   
Lasts :  $5 \times 7 = 35$

➤ **Relationship between the Zeroes and the Coefficients of a Polynomial :**

- (i) Zero of a linear polynomial

$$= \frac{(-1)^1 \times \text{Constant term}}{\text{Coefficient of } x}$$

If  $ax + b$  is a given linear polynomial, then zero of linear polynomial is  $\frac{-b}{a}$

- (ii) In a quadratic polynomial,

Sum of zeroes of a quadratic polynomial

$$= \frac{(-1)^1 \times \text{Coefficient of } x}{\text{Coefficient of } x^2}$$

Product of zeroes of a quadratic polynomial

$$= \frac{(-1)^2 \times \text{Constant term}}{\text{Coefficient of } x^2}$$

∴ If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the zeroes of a quadratic polynomial  $ax^2 + bx + c$ , then

$$\alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a} \text{ and } \alpha\beta = \frac{c}{a}$$

- (iii) If  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\gamma$  are the zeroes of a cubic polynomial

$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$ , then

$$\alpha + \beta + \gamma = (-1)^1 \frac{b}{a} = -\frac{b}{a}, \alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \gamma\alpha = (-1)^2 \frac{c}{a} = \frac{c}{a} \text{ and } \alpha\beta\gamma = (-1)^3 \frac{d}{a} = -\frac{d}{a}$$



## Key Formulae

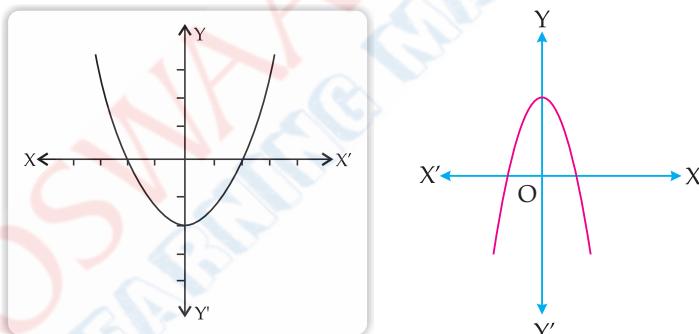
**Relationship between the zeroes and the coefficients of a Polynomial :**

S. No.	Type of Polynomial	General form	Maximum Number of zeroes	Relationship between zeroes and coefficients
1.	Linear	$ax + b$ , where $a \neq 0$	1	$k = -\frac{b}{a}$ , i.e., $k = \frac{-\text{Constant term}}{\text{Coefficient of } x}$
2.	Quadratic	$ax^2 + bx + c$ , where $a \neq 0$	2	Sum of zeroes ( $\alpha + \beta$ )

				$= \frac{-\text{Coefficient of } x}{\text{Coefficient of } x^2} = -\frac{b}{a}$
				Product of zeroes ( $\alpha\beta$ ) $= \frac{\text{Constant term}}{\text{Coefficient of } x^2} = \frac{c}{a}$
3.	Cubic	$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$ , where $a \neq 0$	3	Sum of zeroes ( $\alpha + \beta + \gamma$ ) $= \frac{-\text{Coefficient of } x^2}{\text{Coefficient of } x^3} = -\frac{b}{a}$ Sum of product of zeroes taken two at a time ( $\alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \gamma\alpha$ ) $= \frac{\text{Coefficient of } x}{\text{Coefficient of } x^3} = \frac{c}{a}$ Product of zeroes ( $\alpha\beta\gamma$ ) $= \frac{-\text{Constant term}}{\text{Coefficient of } x^3} = -\frac{d}{a}$

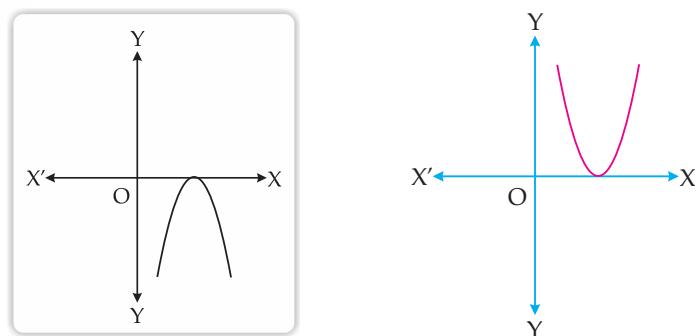
➤ **Discriminant of a Quadratic Polynomial :** For  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , where  $a \neq 0$ ,  $b^2 - 4ac$  is called its discriminant  $D$ . The discriminant  $D$  determines the nature of roots/zeroes of a quadratic polynomial.

**Case I :** If  $D > 0$ , graph of  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  will intersect the  $x$ -axis at two distinct points,  $x$ -coordinates of points of intersection with  $x$ -axis is known as 'zeroes' of  $f(x)$ .



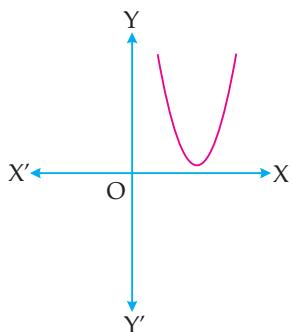
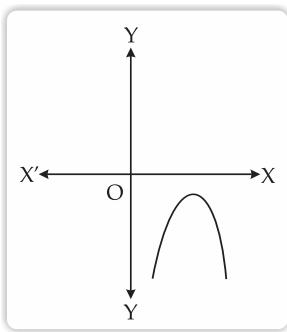
$\therefore f(x)$  will have two zeroes and we can say that the nature of roots/zeroes of the given polynomial are real and unequal.

**Case II :** If  $D = 0$ , graph of  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  will touch the  $x$ -axis at one point only.



$\therefore f(x)$  will have only one 'zero' and we can say that the nature of roots/zeroes of the given polynomial are real and equal.

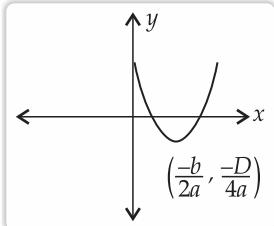
**Case III :** If  $D < 0$ , graph of  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  will neither touch nor intersect the  $x$ -axis.



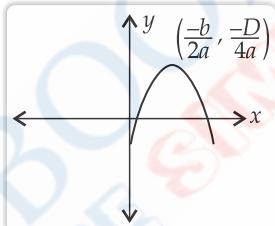
$\therefore f(x)$  will not have any real zero.

### Key Diagram

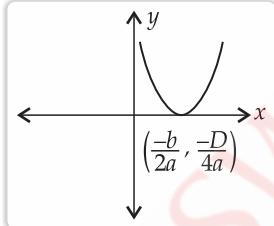
(i)  $a > 0, D > 0$  (2 roots)



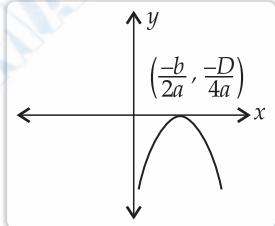
(ii)  $a < 0, D > 0$  (2 roots)



(iii)  $a > 0, D = 0$  (equal roots)

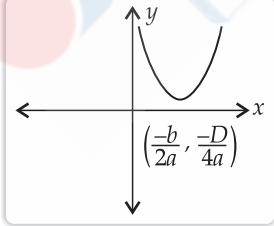


(iv)  $a < 0, D = 0$  (equal roots)

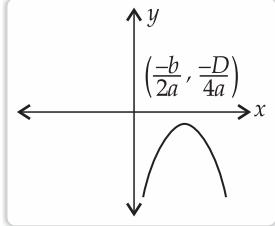


### Key Diagram

(v)  $a < 0, D = 0$  (no real roots)



(vi)  $a < 0, D = 0$  (no real roots)



## CHAPTER-3

# PAIR OF LINEAR EQUATIONS IN TWO VARIABLES

### Topic-1

#### Graphical Solution of Linear Equations in Two Variables

**Concepts Covered** *Linear equations; Graphical representation and solutions of linear equation.*

#### Revision Notes

- **Linear Equation :** An equation of the form  $ax + by = c$ , where  $a, b$  and  $c$  are real numbers and  $a$  and  $b$  are not both zero, is called a **linear equation** in two variables  $x$  and  $y$ .

The most general form of a pair of linear equations in two variables is :

$$\begin{aligned} a_1x + b_1y + c_1 &= 0 \\ a_2x + b_2y + c_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



#### Key Word

**Linear equation:** An equation of the form  $ax + b = 0$ , is called a linear equation in one variable. An equation  $ax + by + c = 0$ , is called a linear equation in two variables (where  $a, b, c$  are real)

where  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2, c_1$  and  $c_2$  are real numbers, such that

$$a_1^2 + b_1^2 \neq 0, a_2^2 + b_2^2 \neq 0.$$

e.g.,  $3x - y + 7 = 0$

and  $7x + y = 0$

are linear equations in two variables  $x$  and  $y$ .

- **Solution of a pair of linear equations in two variable:** A pair of values of the variables  $x$  and  $y$  satisfying each linear equation, is called a solution of the linear equation in two variables.

e.g., If  $x + 3y = 5$  and  $4x - y = 7$  are two linear equations

Clearly,  $x = 2, y = 1$  is a solution for both the linear equations.

Linear equation represent straight lines on a graph. Therefore, a pair of linear equations in two variable represent two straight lines. When we have two lines in a plane, there are only three possibilities that can happen:

- (i) The two lines are parallel. (They never intersect with each other.)
- (ii) The two lines will intersect exactly at one point.
- (iii) The two lines will be coincident.

- There are two methods of solving simultaneous linear equations in two variables :

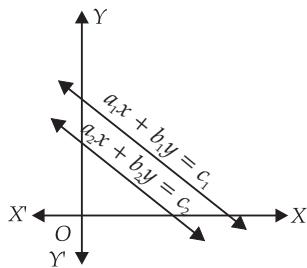
- (i) Graphical method and,
- (ii) Algebraic method.

#### 1. Graphical Method :

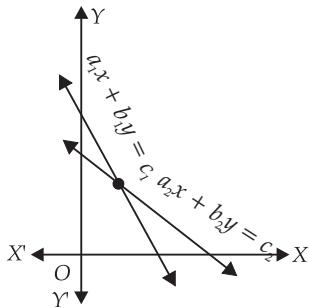
- (i) Express one variable (say  $y$ ) in terms of the other variable  $x$  in the form of  $y = ax + b$ , for the given equation.
- (ii) Take three values of independent variable  $x$  and find the corresponding values of dependent variable  $y$ , take integral values only.
- (iii) Plot these values on the graph paper in order to represent these equations.
- (iv) If the lines intersect at a distinct point, then point of intersection will be the unique solution for given equations. In this case, the pair of linear equations is consistent.
- (v) If the lines representing the linear equations coincides, then system of equations has infinitely many solutions. In this case, the pair of linear equations is consistent and dependent.
- (vi) If the lines representing the pair of linear equations are parallel, then the system of equations has no solution and is called inconsistent.

#### Parallel Lines :

- (i) If  $\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} \neq \frac{c_1}{c_2}$ , then the pair of linear equations is inconsistent with no solution.

**Intersecting Lines :**

- (ii) If  $\frac{a_1}{a_2} \neq \frac{b_1}{b_2}$ , then the pair of linear equations is consistent with a unique solution.

**Coincident Lines :**

- (iii) If  $\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$ , then the pair of linear equations is consistent with infinitely many solutions.

### Key Formulae

\* If  $a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0$  and  $a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$  is a pair of linear equations in two variables  $x$  and  $y$  such that:

- (i) System has unique solution

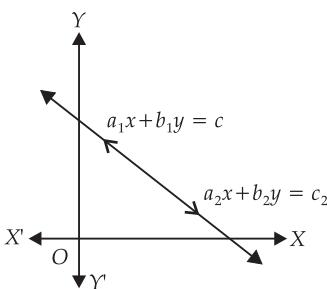
$$\text{if } \frac{a_1}{a_2} \neq \frac{b_1}{b_2}$$

- (ii) System has infinite number of solutions

$$\text{if } \frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$$

- (iii) System has no solution

$$\text{if } \frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} \neq \frac{c_1}{c_2}$$

**Mnemonics**

PIC
NUI

Types of line	Nature of Solution
P: Parallel	→ N: No Solution
I: Intersecting	→ U: Unique Solution
C: Coincident	→ I: Infinite Solutions

- If  $a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0$   
and  $a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$   
is a pair of linear equations in two variables  $x$  and  $y$ , then

Possibilities of solutions and Inconsistency :

Pair of lines (Examples)	$\frac{a_1}{a_2}$	$\frac{b_1}{b_2}$	$\frac{c_1}{c_2}$	Compare the ratios	Graphical representation	Algebraic interpretation	Conditions for solvability
$x - 2y = 0$ $3x - 4y - 20 = 0$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{-2}{-4}$	$\frac{0}{-20}$	$\frac{a_1}{a_2} \neq \frac{b_1}{b_2}$	Intersecting lines	Exactly one solution or Unique solution	System is consistent
$2x + 3y - 9 = 0$ $4x + 6y - 18 = 0$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{3}{6}$	$\frac{-9}{-18}$	$\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$	Coincident lines	Infinitely many solutions	System is consistent
$x + 2y - 4 = 0$ $2x + 4y - 12 = 0$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{-4}{-12}$	$\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} \neq \frac{c_1}{c_2}$	Parallel lines	No solution	System is inconsistent

## Topic-2

### Algebraic methods to solve pair of Linear Equations

**Concepts Covered** Algebraic methods to solve linear equations; Various Problems based on linear equations.



#### Revision Notes

- **Algebraic Method :** We can solve the linear equations algebraically by **substitution method**, **elimination method** and **cross-multiplication method**.
1. **Substitution Method :**
    - (i) Find the value of one variable (say  $y$ ) in terms of the other variable i.e.,  $x$  from either of the equations.
    - (ii) Substitute this value of  $y$  in other equation and reduce it to an equation in one variable.
    - (iii) Solve the equation so obtained and find the value of  $x$ .
    - (iv) Put this value of  $x$  in one of the equations to get the value of variable  $y$ .
  2. **Elimination Method :**
    - (i) Multiply given equations with suitable constants, make either the  $x$ -coefficients or the  $y$ -coefficients of the two equations equal.
    - (ii) Subtract or add one equation from the other to get an equation in one variable.
    - (iii) Solve the equation so obtained to get the value of the variable.
    - (iv) Put this value in any one of the equation to get the value of the second variable.



#### Key Word

**Solution of linear equations:** A pair of values  $(x, y)$  satisfying the given pair of equations is called a solution of linear equations.

#### Note :

- (a) If in step (ii), we obtain a true equation involving no variable, then the original pair of equations has infinitely many solutions i.e. it is consistent.
  - (b) If in step (ii), we obtain a false equation involving no variable, then the original pair of equations has no solution i.e., it is inconsistent.
- **Equations reducible to a pair of Linear Equations in two variables :** Sometimes, a pair of equations in two variables is not linear but can be reduced to linear form by making some suitable substitutions. Here, first we find the solution of new pair of linear equations and then find the solution for the given pair of equations.

#### Steps to be followed to solve word problems based on pair of linear equations

S. No.	Problem type	Steps to be followed
1.	Age Problems	If the problem involves finding out the ages of two persons, take the present age of one person as $x$ and of the other as $y$ . Then, ' $a$ ' years ago, age of 1 <sup>st</sup>

		person was ' $x - a$ ' years and that of 2 <sup>nd</sup> person was ' $y - a$ ' and after ' $b$ ' years, age of 1 <sup>st</sup> person will be ' $x + b$ ' years and that of 2 <sup>nd</sup> person will be ' $y + b$ ' years. Formulate the equations and then solve them.
2.	Problems based on Numbers and Digits	Let the digit in unit's place be $x$ and that in ten's place be $y$ . The two-digit number is given by $10y + x$ . On interchanging the positions of the digits, the digit in unit's place becomes $y$ and in ten's place becomes $x$ . The two digit number becomes $10x + y$ . Formulate the equations and then solve them.
3.	Problems based on Fractions	Let the numerator of the fraction be $x$ and denominator be $y$ , then the fraction is $\frac{x}{y}$ . Formulate the linear equations on the basis of conditions given and solve for $x$ and $y$ to get the value of the fraction.
4.	Problems based on Distance, Speed and Time	$\text{Speed} = \frac{\text{Distance}}{\text{Time}}$ or $\text{Distance} = \text{Speed} \times \text{Time}$ and $\text{Time} = \frac{\text{Distance}}{\text{Speed}}$ . To solve the problems related to speed of boat going downstream and upstream, let the speed of boat in still water be $x$ km/h and speed of stream be $y$ km/h. Then, the speed of boat downstream = $(x + y)$ km/h and speed of boat upstream = $(x - y)$ km/h.
5.	Problems based on commercial Mathematics	For solving specific questions based on commercial mathematics, <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Suppose the fare of 1 full ticket may be taken as ₹ <math>x</math> and the reservation charges may be taken as ₹ <math>y</math>, so that one full fare = <math>x + y</math> and one half fare = <math>\frac{x}{2} + y</math>.</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To solve the questions of profit and loss, take the cost price of 1<sup>st</sup> article as ₹ <math>x</math> and that of 2<sup>nd</sup> article as ₹ <math>y</math>.</li> <li>To solve the questions based on simple interest, take the amount invested as ₹ <math>x</math> at some rate of interest and ₹ <math>y</math> at some other rate of interest.</li> </ul>
6.	Problems based on Geometry and Mensuration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Make use of angle sum property of a triangle (<math>\angle A + \angle B + \angle C = 180^\circ</math>) in case of a triangle.</li> <li>In case of a parallelogram, opposite angles are equal and in case of a cyclic quadrilateral, opposite angles are supplementary.</li> </ul>



## Mnemonics

Nature of solutions:

Interpretation

- |   |                                      |
|---|--------------------------------------|
| P | Parallel lines represents            |
| I | Inconsistent equations and           |
| N | No                                   |
| S | Solution<br>I Infinite many solution |



C Consistent



U unique Solution

## CHAPTER-4

# QUADRATIC EQUATIONS

### Topic-1

#### Solutions of Quadratic Equations

##### **Concepts Covered**

- Quadratic equation, • Solutions of equations by Factorisation,

- Quadratic Formula

#### Revision Notes

- A quadratic equation in variable  $x$  is of the form  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are real numbers and  $a \neq 0$ .
- The values of  $x$  that satisfy an equation are called the solutions or roots or zeroes of the equation.
- A real number  $\alpha$  is said to be a solution/root or zero of the quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , if  $a\alpha^2 + b\alpha + c = 0$ .
- A quadratic equation can be solved by the following algebraic methods :
  - (i) Splitting the middle term,
  - (ii) Making perfect squares and
  - (iii) Using quadratic formula.
- If  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a \neq 0$  can be reduced to the product of two linear factors, then the roots of the quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  can be found by equating each factor to zero.
- Method for splitting the middle term of the equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a \neq 0$ .
  - (i) Form the product  $a$  and  $c$  i.e., " $ac$ "
  - (ii) Find a pair of numbers  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  whose product is " $ac$ " and whose sum is " $b$ " (if you can't find such number, it can't be factorised).
  - (iii) Split the middle term using  $b_1$  and  $b_2$ , that expresses the term  $bx$  as  $b_1x \pm b_2x$ . Now factorize, by grouping the pairs of terms.
- Roots of the quadratic equation can be found by equating each linear factor to zero. Since, product of two numbers is zero, then either or both of them are zero.
- Any quadratic equation can be converted into the form  $(x + a)^2 - b^2 = 0$  by adding and subtracting same terms. This method of finding the roots of quadratic equation is called the method of making the perfect square.
- Method of making the perfect square for quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a \neq 0$ .
  - (i) Dividing throughout by  $a$ , we get  $x^2 + \frac{b}{a}x + \frac{c}{a} = 0$
  - (ii) Multiplying and dividing the coefficient of  $x$  by 2
  - (iii) Adding and subtracting

$$x^2 + 2 \frac{b}{2a}x + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

(iii) Adding and subtracting

$$\frac{b^2}{4a^2}x^2 + 2 \frac{b}{2a}x + \frac{b^2}{4a^2} - \frac{b^2}{4a^2} + \frac{c}{a} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 = \frac{b^2 - 4ac}{4a^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left( x + \frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \right)^2$$

If  $(b^2 - 4ac) \geq 0$ , then by taking square root :

$$\left( x + \frac{b}{2a} \right) = \frac{\pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

- The Old-Babylonians (400 BC) stated and solved problems involving quadratic equations.
- The Greek mathematician Euclid's developed a geometrical approach for finding out roots, which are solutions of quadratic equations.
- In Vedic manuscripts, procedures are described for solving quadratic equations by geometric methods related to completing a square.
- Brahmagupta (C.E. 598-665) gave an explicit formula to solve a **quadratic equation** of the form  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ .

- Sridharacharya (C.E. 870-930) derived the quadratic formula for solving a quadratic equation by the method of completing the perfect square.
- An Arab mathematician Al-Khwarizmi (about C.E. 800) studied quadratic equations of different types.
- Abraham bar Hiyya Ha-nasi, in his book 'Liber embadorum' published in Europe in C.E. 1145 gave complete solutions of different quadratic equations.
- Golden ratio  $\phi$  is the root of quadratic equation  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ .



## Key Words

**Quadratic Equation:** A quadratic equation in variable  $x$  is of the form  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a, b$  and  $c$  are real numbers and  $a$  is not equal to 0.

**Roots of Quadratic Equation:** The values of  $x$  that satisfy an equation are called the solutions or roots or zeroes of the equation.



## Key Formulae

- The real roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a \neq 0$  are  $\frac{-b + \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$  and  $\frac{-b - \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$ , where  $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ .
- Roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , where  $a \neq 0$  are  $\frac{-b}{2a}$  and  $\frac{-b}{2a}$ , where  $b^2 - 4ac = 0$
- **Quadratic identities :**
  - (i)  $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$
  - (ii)  $(a - b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2$
  - (iii)  $a^2 - b^2 = (a + b)(a - b)$



## Key Diagram

Quadratic equation in standard form

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

Quadratic Formula 
$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$



## Mnemonics

How can we factor Quadratic Equations?

Slide & Divide method

Swedish Fish Don't Really Swim

Step1: S- slide

Step2: F- factor

Step3: D- Divide

Step4: R- Reduce

Step5: S- Swing

**Explanation:** Firstly Slide through Quadratic Equation, by writing it in standard form. Then factorize the middle term of the equation by dividing it in factors appropriately. Now reduce the terms in the pairs and slide the each part by equating it to zero for getting factors.

## Topic-2

### Discriminant and Nature of Roots

#### Concepts Covered

- Discriminant and Nature of roots, • Situational Problems based on quadratic equations.



## Revision Notes

- For the quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ , the expression  $b^2 - 4ac$  is known as discriminant i.e., Discriminant D =  $b^2 - 4ac$ .
- Nature of roots of a quadratic equation :
  - If  $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ , the quadratic equation has two distinct real roots.
  - If  $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ , the quadratic equation has two equal real roots.
  - If  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ , the quadratic equation has no real roots.

## CHAPTER-5

# ARITHMETIC PROGRESSIONS

### Topic-1

#### To Find $n^{\text{th}}$ Term of the Arithmetic Progression

- Concepts Covered**
- Define first term, common difference.
  - Define finite and infinite A.P.
  - Formula for finding  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of an A.P.



#### Revision Notes

- An arithmetic progression is a **sequence** of numbers in which each **term** is obtained by adding or subtracting a fixed number  $d$  to the preceding **term**, except the first **term**.
- The difference between the two successive terms of an A.P. is called the common difference.
- Each number in the **sequence** of arithmetic progression is called a term of an A.P.
- The arithmetic progression having finite number of terms is called a finite arithmetic progression.
- The arithmetic progression having infinite number of terms is called an infinite arithmetic progression.
- A list of numbers  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  is an A.P. if the differences  $a_2 - a_1, a_3 - a_2, a_4 - a_3, \dots$  give the same value i.e.,  $a_{k+1} - a_k$  is same for all different values of  $k$ .
- The general form of an A.P. is  $a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d, \dots$
- If the A.P.  $a, a + d, a + 2d, \dots, l$  is reversed to  $l, l - d, l - 2d, \dots, a$ , the common difference changes to negative of original **sequence** common difference.



#### Key Formulae

- The general ( $n^{\text{th}}$ ) term of an A.P. is expressed as:  

$$a_n = a + (n-1)d. \dots \text{from the starting.}$$

where,  $a$  is the first term and  $d$  is the common difference.
- The general ( $n^{\text{th}}$ ) term of an A.P.  $l, l - d, l - 2d, \dots, a$  is given by:  

$$a_n = l + (n-1)(-d) = l - (n-1)d \dots \text{from the end.}$$

where,  $l$  is the last term,  $d$  is the common difference and  $n$  is the number of terms.



#### Key Words

**Term:** A term is a word or expression used with a particular meaning.

**Sequence:** A sequence is an enumerated collection of objects in which repetitions are allowed and order matters.



#### Key Facts

- (1) An A.P. or arithmetic sequence is a sequence of numbers such that the difference between the consecutive terms is constant.
- (2) The 7<sup>th</sup> Century Indian Mathematician and astronomer Brahmagupta is the father of Arithmetic.
- (3) If a constant is added or subtracted from each term of an A.P., the resulting sequence is also an A.P.
- (4) If each term of an A.P. is multiplied or divided by a non-zero constant, the resulting sequence is also an A.P.
- (5) If the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term is in linear form i.e.,  $an + b = a_n$ , the sequence is in A.P.
- (6) If the terms are selected at a regular interval, the given sequence is in A.P.
- (7) If three consecutive numbers  $a, b$  and  $c$  are in A.P., the sum two numbers is twice the middle number i.e.,  $2b = a + c$ .
- (8) A sequence is defined as an ordered list of numbers.  
The first, second and third terms of a sequence are denoted by  $t_1, t_2$  and  $t_3$  respectively.
- (9) If the terms of sequence are connected with plus (+) or minus (-), the pattern is called a series.  
**Example:**  $2 + 4 + 6 + 8 + \dots$  is a series.
- (10) The sequence of numbers  $0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots$  was discovered by a famous Italian Mathematician Leonasalo Fibonacci, when he was dealing with the problem of rabbit population.
- (11) If the terms of a sequence or a series are written under specific conditions, then the sequence or series is called a progression.



## Mnemonics

**Concept:**  $n^{\text{th}}$  Term of Arithmetic Progression  $n = a + (n - 1)d$ .

**Mnemonics:** Nokia Offers Additional Programmers in English To Attract Positive New One Buyer Daily Interpretation:

Nokia's 'N' is  $n^{\text{th}}$  term.

Offer's 'O' is of

Additional's 'A' is Arithmetic Programmer's 'P' is Progression

In's 'I' is is.

English's 'E' is Equal

To's 'T' is To

Attract's 'A' is a

Positive's 'P' is +

New's 'N' is n

One buyer is -1

Daily's 'D' is d

## Example

Which term of the A.P. 6, 13, 20, 27,..... is 98 more than its 24<sup>th</sup> term ?

**Step 1.** The given A.P. is 6, 13, 20, 27,.....

Here, first term,

$$a = 6$$

common difference,

$$d = 13 - 6 = 20 - 13 = 7$$

**Step 2.** According to question:

$$a_n = a_{24} + 98$$

⇒

$$a + (n - 1)d = a + (24 - 1)d + 98$$

⇒

$$7(n - 1) = 23 \times 7 + 98$$

⇒

$$n - 1 = 23 + 14$$

⇒

$$n = 38$$

Hence, 38<sup>th</sup> term is the required term.

## Topic-2

### Sum of n Terms of an Arithmetic Progression

**Concepts Covered** • Understand the formula to find the sum of n terms of A.P.

• Students will be able to recall some patterns which occur in their daily life.



## Revision Notes

- Sum of  $n$  terms of an A.P. is given by:

$$S_n = \frac{n}{2} [2a + (n - 1)d]$$

where,  $a$  is the first term,  $d$  is the common difference and  $n$  is the total number of terms.

- Sum of  $n$  terms of an A.P. when first and last term is given.

$$S_n = \frac{n}{2} [a + l]$$

where,  $a$  is the first term and  $l$  is the last term.

- The  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of an A.P. is the difference of the sum of first  $n$  terms and the sum to first  $(n - 1)$  terms of it. i.e.,  $a_n = S_n - S_{n-1}$ .



## Fundamental Facts

- (1) To find the sum of  $n$  terms of an A.P. we use a formula first founded by Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.
- (2) A.P. can be applied in real life by analysing a certain pattern, for example, A.P. is used in straight line depreciation.

## UNIT-III : CO-ORDINATE GEOMETRY

### CHAPTER-6

### LINES (IN TWO DIMENSIONS)



#### Revision Notes

- Two perpendicular number lines intersecting at origin are called co-ordinate axes. The horizontal line is the **X-axis** (denoted by X'OX) and the vertical line is the **Y-axis** (denoted by Y'OY).



#### Key Words

**Axis:** A line, used as a reference to determine position, symmetry and rotation.

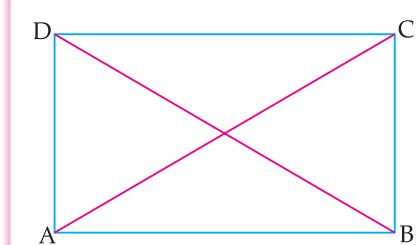
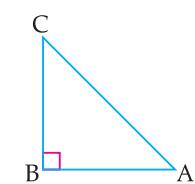
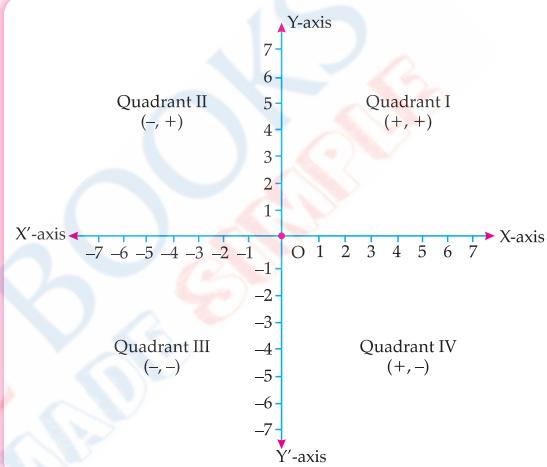
**Point:** To indicate the presence or position of.

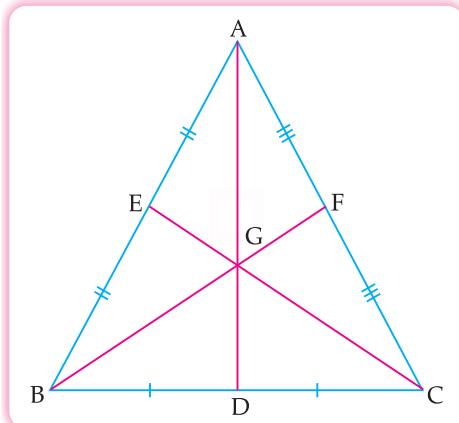
**Plane:** A level or flat surface.

- The point of intersection of X-axis and Y-axis is called origin and denoted by O.
- Cartesian **plane** is a plane obtained by putting the co-ordinate axes perpendicular to each other in the plane. It is also called co-ordinate **plane** or XY-**plane**.
- The X-coordinate of a **point** is its perpendicular distance from Y-axis.
- The y-coordinate of a **point** is its perpendicular distance from X-axis.
- The point where the X-axis and the Y-axis intersect has co-ordinate **point** (0, 0).
- The abscissa of a point is the X-coordinate of the point.
- The ordinate of a point is the Y-coordinate of the point.
- If the abscissa of a point is  $x$  and the ordinate of the point is  $y$ , then  $(x, y)$  is called the co-ordinates of the point.
- The axes divide the Cartesian plane into four parts called the quadrants (one fourth part), numbered I, II, III and IV anti-clockwise from OX.
- The co-ordinates of a point on the X-axis are of the form  $(x, 0)$  and that of the point on Y-axis are  $(0, y)$ .
- Sign of co-ordinates depicts the quadrant in which it lies. The co-ordinates of a point are of the form  $(+, +)$  in the first quadrant,  $(-, +)$  in the second quadrant,  $(-, -)$  in the third quadrant and  $(+, -)$  in the fourth quadrant.
- Three points A, B and C are collinear if the distances AB, BC and CA are such that the sum of two distances is equal to the third.
- Three points A, B and C are the vertices of an equilateral triangle if  $AB = BC = CA$ .
- The points A, B and C are the vertices of an isosceles triangle if  $AB = BC$  or  $BC = CA$  or  $CA = AB$ .
- Three points A, B and C are the vertices of a right triangle, if  $AB^2 + BC^2 = CA^2$ .
- For the given four points A, B, C and D:

1. If  $AB = BC = CD = DA$ ;  $AC = BD$ , then ABCD is a square.
2. If  $AB = BC = CD = DA$ ;  $AC \neq BD$ , then ABCD is a rhombus.
3. If  $AB = CD$ ,  $BC = DA$ ;  $AC = BD$ , then ABCD is a rectangle.
4. If  $AB = CD$ ,  $BC = DA$ ;  $AC \neq BD$ , then ABCD is a parallelogram.

- Diagonals of a square, rhombus, rectangle and parallelogram always bisect each other.
- Diagonals of rhombus and square bisect each other at right angle.
- Centroid is the point of intersection of the three medians of a triangle. In the figure, G is the centroid of a triangle ABC.





- Centroid divides each median of a triangle in a ratio of 2 : 1 from vertex to base of the side.
- If  $x \neq y$ , then  $(x, y) \neq (y, x)$  and if  $(x, y) = (y, x)$ , then  $x = y$ .
- To plot a point  $P(3, 4)$  in the cartesian plane.
  - (i) A distance of 3 units along X-axis.
  - (ii) A distance of 4 units along Y-axis.



### Key Formulae

- The distance between two points i.e.,  $P(x_1, y_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2)$  is

$$d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

- The distance of a point  $P(x, y)$  from origin is

$$\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

- Co-ordinates of point  $(x, y)$  which divides the line segment by joining the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  in the ratio  $m : n$  internally are

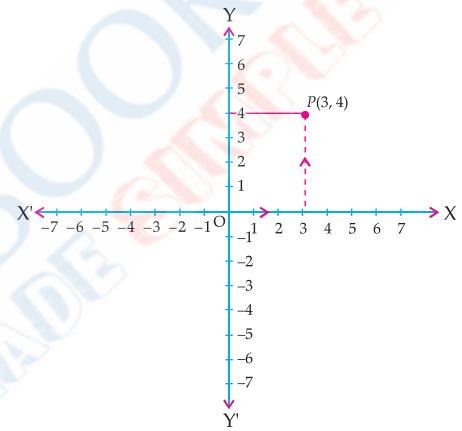
$$x = \left( \frac{mx_2 + nx_1}{m+n} \right)$$

and       $y = \left( \frac{my_2 + ny_1}{m+n} \right)$

- Co-ordinates of mid-point of the line segment by joining the points  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  are

$$x = \left( \frac{x_2 + x_1}{2} \right)$$

and       $y = \left( \frac{y_2 + y_1}{2} \right)$



### Fundamental Facts

- (1) Co-ordinate geometry is the system of geometry where the position of points on the plane is described using an ordered pair of numbers.
- (2) Cartesian plane was discovered by *Rene Descartes*.
- (3) The other name of co-ordinate geometry is Analytical Geometry.
- (4) Co-ordinate Geometry acts as a bridge between the Algebra and Geometry.
- (5) Medians of a triangle are concurrent. The point of concurrency is called the centroid.
- (6) Trisection of a line segment means dividing it into 3 equal parts, so 2 points are required.
- (7) Centroid of a triangle divides its median in the ratio of 2 : 1.

## UNIT-IV : GEOMETRY

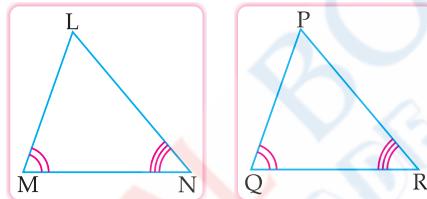
### CHAPTER-7

### TRIANGLES



#### Revision Notes

- A triangle is one of the basic shapes of geometry. It is a polygon with 3 sides and 3 vertices/corners.
- Two figures are said to be congruent if they have the same shape and the same size.
- Those figures which have the same shape but not necessarily the same size are called **similar** figures. Hence, we can say that all congruent figures are similar but all similar figures are not congruent.
- **Similarity of Triangles:** Two triangles are similar, if:
  - (i) their **corresponding** sides are proportional.
  - (ii) their **corresponding** angles are equal.
 If  $\triangle ABC$  and  $\triangle DEF$  are similar, then this similarity can be written as  $\triangle ABC \sim \triangle DEF$ .
- **Criteria for Similarity of Triangles:**



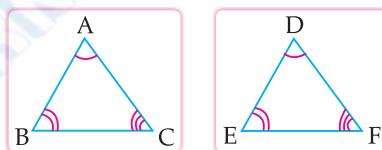
In  $\triangle LMN$  and  $\triangle PQR$ , if

(a)  $\angle L = \angle P, \angle M = \angle Q$  and  $\angle N = \angle R$

(b)  $\frac{LM}{PQ} = \frac{MN}{QR} = \frac{LN}{PR}$ ,

then  $\triangle LMN \sim \triangle PQR$ .

- (i) **AAA-Criterion:** In two triangles, if corresponding angles are equal, then the triangles are similar and hence their **corresponding** sides are in the same ratio.



If  $\triangle ABC$  and  $\triangle DEF$  are similar

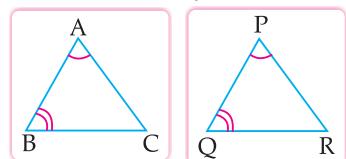
$\angle A = \angle D, \angle B = \angle E$  and  $\angle C = \angle F$ .

Then, 
$$\frac{AB}{DE} = \frac{BC}{EF} = \frac{AC}{DF}$$

**Remark:** If two angles of a triangle are respectively equal to the two angles of another triangle, then by the angle sum property of a triangle their third angles will also be equal. Therefore, AAA similarity criterion can also be stated as follows:

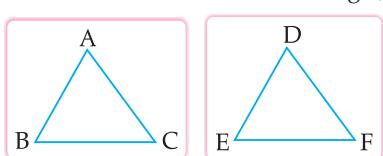
**AA-Criterion:** If two angles of one triangle are respectively equal to two angles of another triangle, then the two triangles are similar.

As we know that the sum of all angles in a triangle is  $180^\circ$  so if two angles in  $\triangle ABC$  and  $\triangle PQR$  are same i.e.,  $\angle A = \angle P, \angle B = \angle Q$ .



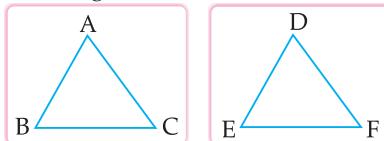
- (ii) **SSS-Criterion:** In two triangles if the sides of one triangle are proportional to the sides of another triangle, then the two triangles are similar and hence corresponding angles are equal.

If 
$$\frac{AB}{DE} = \frac{BC}{EF} = \frac{CA}{FD}$$



$\therefore \Delta ABC \sim \Delta DEF$   
 then  $\angle A = \angle D, \angle B = \angle E$   
 and  $\angle C = \angle F$

- (iii) **SAS-Criterion:** If one angle of a triangle is equal to one angle of another triangle and the sides including these angles are in the same ratio, then the two triangles are similar.



If  $\frac{AB}{DE} = \frac{AC}{DF}$  and  $\angle A = \angle D$ , then  $\Delta ABC \sim \Delta DEF$ .



## Key Words

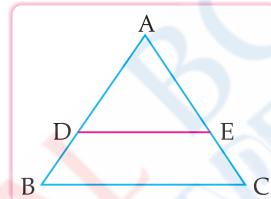
**Similar:** A thing similar to another.

**Corresponding:** Having in the same relationship.

**Parallel:** It means that two lines that never intersect.

### Some theorems based on similarity of triangles:

- (i) If a line is drawn **parallel** to one side of a triangle to intersect the other two sides at distinct points, the other two sides are divided in the same ratio. It is known as '**Basic Proportionality Theorem**' or '**Thales Theorem**'.



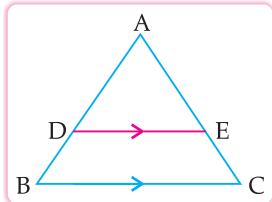
In  $\Delta ABC$ , let  $DE \parallel BC$ , then

$$(a) \frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AE}{EC} \quad (b) \frac{AB}{DB} = \frac{AC}{EC} \quad (c) \frac{AD}{AB} = \frac{AE}{AC}.$$

- (ii) If a line divides any two sides of a triangle in the same ratio, then the line is **parallel** to the third side. It is the '**Converse of Basic Proportionality Theorem**'.

If  $\frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AE}{EC}$ ,

then  $DE \parallel BC$



## Fundamental Facts

- (1) The use of similar triangles has made possible the measurements of heights and distances.
- (2) Thales of Miletus was the great mathematician who found the similar triangles.



## Mnemonics

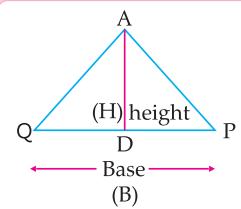
How can we factor Quadratic Equations?

**Concept:** Area of triangle =  $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Base} \times \text{height}$

**Mnemonics:** Audi is the product of half of BMW and Honda

### Interpretations:

A  $\Rightarrow$  Area  
 B  $\Rightarrow$  Base  
 H  $\Rightarrow$  Height



## CHAPTER-8

# CIRCLES

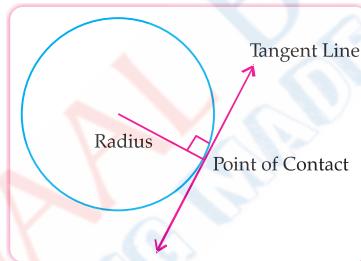
### **Concepts Covered**

- Tangent line secant
- Property/theorems of tangents to a circle



### **Revision Notes**

- Tangent: A **tangent** to a **circle** is a line that intersects the circle at one point only.
- The common point of the **circle** and the tangent is called the point of **contact**.
- Secant: Two common points (A and B) between line PQ and circle.
- A **tangent** to a circle is a special case of the secant when the two end points of the corresponding chord coincide.
- There is no **tangent** to a circle passing through a point lying inside the circle.
- At any point on the circle there can be one and only one tangent.
- The tangent at any point of a circle is perpendicular to the radius through the point of **contact**.



### **Key Words**

**Circle:** A circle is a round shaped figure has no corners or edges.

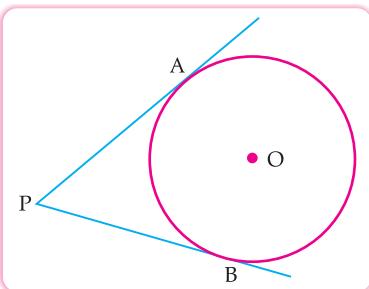
**Tangent:** A line, curve or surface touching but not intersecting another.

**Contact:** To touch or make touch physical.

- There are exactly two tangents to a circle through a point outside the circle.
- The length of the segment of the tangent from the external point P and the point of **contact** with the circle is called the length of the tangent.
- The lengths of the tangents drawn from an external point to a circle are equal.

In the figure,

$$PA = PB.$$



### **Key Formulae**

- (1) The word 'tangent' comes from the Latin word 'tangere', which means to touch and was introduced by the Danish mathematician **Thomas Fincke** in 1583.
- (2) The line perpendicular to the tangent and passing through the point of contact, is known as the normal.
- (3) In two concentric circles, the chord of the larger circle, which touches the smaller circle, is bisected at the point of contact.

## UNIT-V : TRIGONOMETRY

### CHAPTER-9

# TRIGONOMETRY & TRIGONOMETRIC IDENTITIES

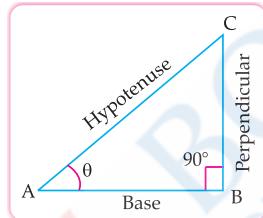
#### Topic-1

#### Trigonometric Ratios and Its Value

**Concepts Covered** • Six trigonometric ratios with their sides of a right angled triangle.  
• Values of trigonometric ratios between  $0^\circ$  to  $90^\circ$ .

#### Revision Notes

- In fig., a right triangle ABC right angled at B is given and  $\angle BAC = \theta$  is an acute angle. Here side AB which is adjacent to  $\angle A$  is **base**, side BC opposite to  $\angle A$  is **perpendicular** and the side AC is **hypotenuse** which is opposite to the right angle B.



#### Key Words

**Hypotenuse:** The longest side of a right angled triangle.

**Base:** Adjacent side of an angle is a base of a triangle.

**Perpendicular:** Opposite side of an angle in the right triangle.



#### Key Formulae

The trigonometric ratios of  $\angle A$  in right triangle ABC are defined as

$$\text{sine of } \angle A = \sin \theta = \frac{\text{Perpendicular or opposite side}}{\text{Hypotenuse}} = \frac{BC}{AC}$$

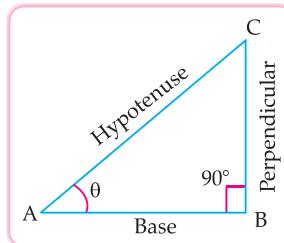
$$\text{cosine of } \angle A = \cos \theta = \frac{\text{Base or adjacent side}}{\text{Hypotenuse}} = \frac{AB}{AC}$$

$$\text{tangent of } \angle A = \tan \theta = \frac{\text{Perpendicular or opposite side}}{\text{Base adjacent side}} = \frac{BC}{AB}$$

$$\text{cotangent of } \angle A = \cot \theta = \frac{\text{Base or adjacent side}}{\text{Perpendicular or opposite side}} = \frac{AB}{BC} = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$$

$$\text{secant of } \angle A = \sec \theta = \frac{\text{Hypotenuse}}{\text{Base or adjacent side}} = \frac{AC}{AB} = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

$$\text{cosecant of } \angle A = \operatorname{cosec} \theta = \frac{\text{Hypotenuse}}{\text{Perpendicular or opposite side}} = \frac{AC}{BC} = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$$



It is clear from the above ratios that cosecant, secant and cotangent are the reciprocals of sine, cosine and tangent respectively.

Also,

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$

and

$$\cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$

- The trigonometric ratios of an acute angle in a right triangle express the relationship between the angle and length of its sides.
- The value of trigonometric ratio of an angle does not depend on the size of the triangle but depends on the angle only.

$\angle A$	$0^\circ$	$30^\circ$	$45^\circ$	$60^\circ$	$90^\circ$
$\sin A$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
$\cos A$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
$\tan A$	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	Not defined ( $\infty$ )
$\cot A$	Not defined ( $\infty$ )	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0
$\sec A$	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	Not defined ( $\infty$ )
$\cosec A$	Not defined ( $\infty$ )	2	$\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	1



## Fundamental facts

- (1) The concept of trigonometry is completely based on right angles.
- (2) The three basic functions in trigonometry are sine, cosine and tangent.
- (3) Trigonometry, as the name might suggest, is all about triangles.



## Mnemonics

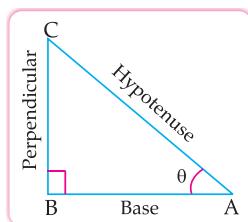
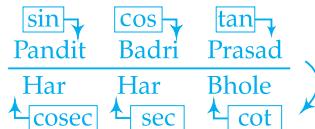
### 1. The relation of Trigonometric Ratios

#### Mnemonics:

In right angled  $\Delta ABC$ , we have

$$\sin \theta = \frac{BC}{AC}, \cos \theta = \frac{BA}{AC}, \tan \theta = \frac{BC}{AB},$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{AB}{BC}, \sec \theta = \frac{AC}{BA}, \cosec \theta = \frac{AC}{BC}$$



**Interpretation:**

Here,

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{Pandit}}{\text{Har}} = \frac{P}{H} = \frac{\text{Perpendicular}}{\text{Hypotenuse}} = \frac{BC}{AC}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{Badri}}{\text{Har}} = \frac{B}{H} = \frac{\text{Base}}{\text{Hypotenuse}} = \frac{BA}{AC}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{Prasad}}{\text{Bhole}} = \frac{P}{B} = \frac{\text{Perpendicular}}{\text{Base}} = \frac{BC}{AB}$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{\text{Bhole}}{\text{Prasad}} = \frac{B}{P} = \frac{\text{Base}}{\text{Perpendicular}} = \frac{AB}{BC}$$

$$\sec \theta = \frac{\text{Har}}{\text{Badri}} = \frac{H}{B} = \frac{\text{Hypotenuse}}{\text{Base}} = \frac{AC}{BA}$$

$$\csc \theta = \frac{\text{Har}}{\text{Pandit}} = \frac{H}{P} = \frac{\text{Hypotenuse}}{\text{Perpendicular}} = \frac{AC}{BC}.$$

**2. Trigonometric Ratios**

**Mnemonics:** We learn these ratios in following ways:

(i) "Some people have"  $\sin \theta = \frac{P}{H}$

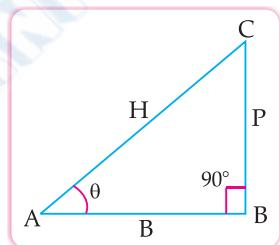
(ii) "Curly Brown Hair"  $\cos \theta = \frac{B}{H}$

(iii) "Through proper Brushing"  $\tan \theta = \frac{P}{B}$ .

(i)  $\sin \theta = \frac{BC}{AC} = \frac{P}{H}$

**Interpretation:**

Some  
↓  
 $\sin \theta$       People  
↓  
Perpendicular      Have  
↓  
Hypotenuse



(ii)  $\cos \theta = \frac{AB}{AC} = \frac{B}{H}$

**Interpretation:**

Curly  
↓  
 $\cos \theta$       Brown  
↓  
Base      Hair  
↓  
Hypotenuse

(iii)  $\tan \theta = \frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{P}{B}$

**Interpretation:**

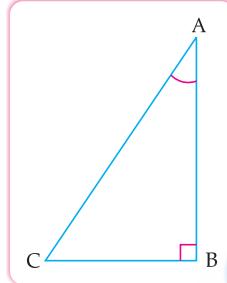
Through  
↓  
 $\tan \theta$       Proper  
↓  
Perpendicular      Brushing  
↓  
Base

**Topic-2****Trigonometric Identities****Concepts Covered** • Three important identities are:

(i)  $\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$ , (ii)  $1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$ , (iii)  $1 + \cot^2\theta = \operatorname{cosec}^2\theta$ .

**Revision Notes**

- An equation is called an identity if it is true for all values of the variable(s) involved.
- An equation involving trigonometric ratios of an angle is called a trigonometric identity if it is true for all values of the angle.

In  $\Delta ABC$ , right-angled at  $B$ , By Pythagoras Theorem,

$$AB^2 + BC^2 = AC^2$$

... (i)

Dividing each term of (i) by  $AC^2$ ,

$$\frac{AB^2}{AC^2} + \frac{BC^2}{AC^2} = \frac{AC^2}{AC^2}$$

or

$$\left(\frac{AB}{AC}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{BC}{AC}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{AC}{AC}\right)^2$$

or

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

or

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

... (ii)

This is true for all values of  $A$  such that  $0^\circ \leq A \leq 90^\circ$ . So, this is a trigonometric identity. Now divide eqn.(i) by  $AB^2$ .

$$\frac{AB^2}{AB^2} + \frac{BC^2}{AB^2} = \frac{AC^2}{AB^2}$$

or

$$\left(\frac{AB}{AB}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{BC}{AB}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{AC}{AB}\right)^2$$

or

$$1 + \tan^2 A = \sec^2 A$$

... (iii)

Is this equation true for  $A = 0^\circ$ ? Yes, it is. What about  $A = 90^\circ$ ? Well,  $\tan A$  and  $\sec A$  are not defined for  $A = 90^\circ$ . So, eqn. (iii) is true for all values of  $A$  such that  $0^\circ \leq A < 90^\circ$ .Again dividing eqn. (i) by  $BC^2$ .

$$\frac{AB^2}{BC^2} + \frac{BC^2}{BC^2} = \frac{AC^2}{BC^2}$$

or

$$\left(\frac{AB}{BC}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{BC}{BC}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{AC}{BC}\right)^2$$

or

$$\cot^2 A + 1 = \operatorname{cosec}^2 A$$

... (iv)

Note that  $\operatorname{cosec} A$  and  $\cot A$  are not defined for all  $A = 0^\circ$ . Therefore eqn. (iv) is true for all value of  $A$  such that  $0^\circ < A \leq 90^\circ$ .

Using these identities, we can express each trigonometric ratio in terms of other trigonometric ratios, i.e., if any one of the ratios is known, we can determine the values of other trigonometric ratios.

# CHAPTER-10

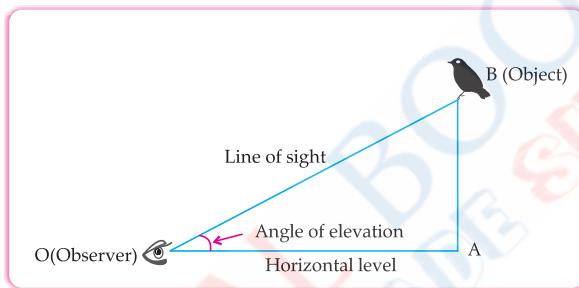
## HEIGHTS AND DISTANCES

**(Angle of Elevation, Angle of Depression)**

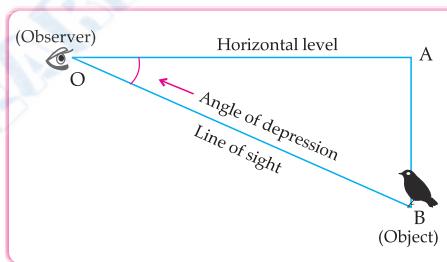


### Revision Notes

- The line of sight is the line drawn from the eye of an observer to the point on the object viewed by the observer.
- The angle of elevation of a point on the object being viewed is the angle formed by the line of sight with the horizontal when it is above the horizontal level, i.e., the case when we raise our head to look at a point on the object.
- Line of sight, angles and altitude (height).



- (i)  $\angle AOB$  is the angle of elevation.
- (ii) By height AB, means object is at point B from the point A located at the ground.
- (iii) AO is the distance of the observer from the point A.
- The angle of depression of a point on the object being viewed is the angle formed by the line of sight with the horizontal when it is below the horizontal level, i.e., the case when we lower our head to look at a point on the object.



- The height of object above the water surface is equal to the depth of its image below the water surface.
- The values of the trigonometric ratios of an angle do not vary with the length of the sides of the triangle, if the angles remain the same.

## UNIT-VI : MENSURATION

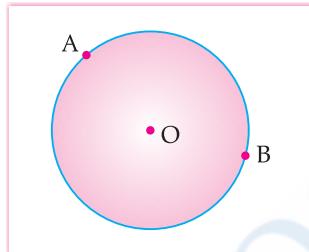
### CHAPTER-11

#### AREAS RELATED TO CIRCLES

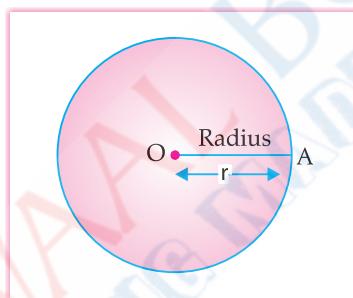


#### Revision Notes

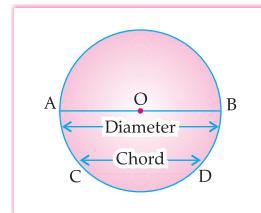
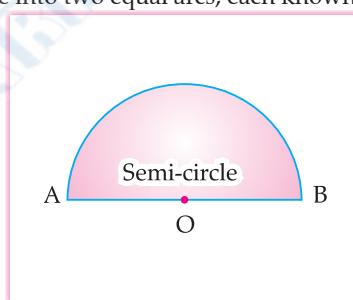
- A circle is a collection of all points in a plane which are at a constant distance from a fixed point in the same plane.



- A line segment joining the centre of the circle to a point on the **circumference** of the circle is called its radius.



- A line segment joining any two points of a circle is called a chord. A chord passing through the centre of circle is called its diameter. A diameter is the largest chord of the circle. Here AB is a diameter, which is a longest chord.
- A diameter of a circle divides a circle into two equal arcs, each known as a semi-circle.



- A part of a **circumference** of circle is called an arc.
- An **arc** of a circle whose length is less than that of a semi-circle of the same circle is called a minor arc.
- An **arc** of a circle whose length is greater than that of a semi-circle of the same circle is called a major arc.
- The region bounded by an **arc** of a circle and two radii at its end points is called a **sector**.

### Key Formulae

1. Circumference (perimeter) of a circle =  $\pi d$  or  $2\pi r$ , where  $d$  is diameter and  $r$  is the radius of the circle.
2. Area of a circle =  $\pi r^2$ .
3. Area of a semi-circle =  $\frac{1}{2} \pi r^2$ .
4. Perimeter of a semi-circle =  $\pi r + 2r = (\pi + 2)r$
5. Area of a ring or an annulus =  $\pi(R + r)(R - r)$ , where  $R$  is the outer radius and  $r$  is the inner radius.
6. Length of arc,  $l = \frac{2\pi r\theta}{360^\circ}$  or  $\frac{\pi r\theta}{180^\circ}$ , where  $\theta$  is the angle subtended at centre by the arc.
7. Area of a sector =  $\frac{\pi r^2\theta}{360^\circ}$  or area of sector  
 $= \frac{1}{2}(l \times r)$ , where  $l$  is the length of arc.
8. Area of minor segment =  $\frac{\pi r^2\theta}{360^\circ} - \frac{1}{2}r^2 \sin \theta$ .
9. Area of major segment = Area of the circle – Area of minor segment  
 $= \pi r^2 - \text{Area of minor segment.}$
10. If a chord subtends a right angle at the centre, then area of the corresponding segment  
 $= \left[ \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{1}{2} \right] r^2$
11. If a chord subtends an angle of  $60^\circ$  at the centre, then area of the corresponding segment  
 $= \left( \frac{\pi}{6} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \right) r^2$ .
12. Distance moved by a wheel in 1 revolution = Circumference of the wheel.
13. Number of revolutions in one minute =  $\frac{\text{Distance moved in 1 minute}}{\text{Circumference}}$ .
14. Perimeter of a sector =  $\frac{\pi r\theta}{180^\circ} + 2r$ .



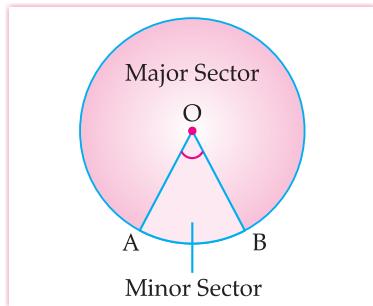
### Fundamental Facts

- An Indian mathematician Srinivas Ramanujan worked out the identity using the value of  $\pi$  correct to million places of decimals.
- The Indian mathematician Aryabhatta gave the value of  $\pi$  as  $\frac{62832}{20000}$
- “How I made a greater discovery” this mnemonic help us in getting the value of  $\pi = 3.14159 \dots$
- Give it under separate reading with explanation how to use

CAN	I	HAVE	A	SMALL	CONTAINER	OF	COFFEE
-----	---	------	---	-------	-----------	----	--------

No. of Letters →	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
	3	1	4	1	5	9	2
							6

- Archimedes calculated the area of a circle by approximating it to a square.
- Area of sector of a circle depends on two parameters-radius and central angle.



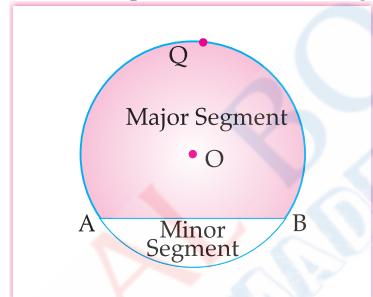
### Key Words

**Circumference:** carrying around means the perimeter of circle.

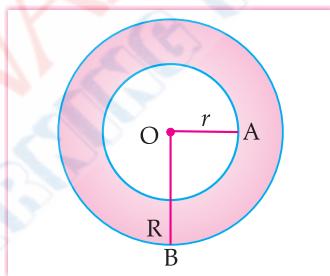
**Arc:** Any smooth curve joining two points.

**Sector:** A part of a circle made of the arc of the circle along with its two radii.

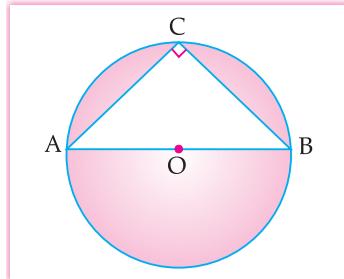
- A chord divides the interior of a circle into two parts, each called a segment.



- Circles having the same centre but different radii are called concentric circles.



- Two circles (or arcs) are said to be congruent if on placing one over the other cover each other completely.
- The distance around the circle or the length of a circle is called its circumference or perimeter.
- The mid-point of the hypotenuse of a right triangle is equidistant from the vertices of the triangle.
- Angle subtended at the circumference by a diameter is always a right angle.



- Angle described by minute hand in 60 minutes is  $360^\circ$ .
- Angle described by hour hand in 12 hours is  $360^\circ$ .

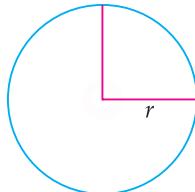
# CHAPTER-12

## SURFACE AREAS AND VOLUMES

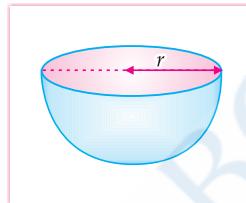


### Revision Notes

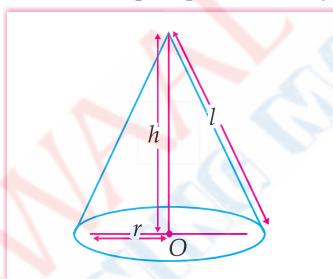
- A sphere is a perfectly round geometrical object in three-dimensional space.



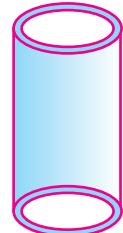
- A hemisphere is half of a sphere.



- A cone is a three dimensional geometric shape tapers smoothly from a flat base to a point called the apex or vertex.



- A cylinder is a solid or a hollow object that has a circular base and a circular top of the same size.



### Key Words

**Surface area:** The amount of space covering the outside of a three dimensional shape.

**Volume:** The amount of space occupied by a three dimensional object.

**Materials:** A substance or mixture of substances that constitutes an object.



### Key Formulae

- **Cuboid:** Lateral **surface area** or area of four walls

$$= 2(l + b)h$$

$$\text{Total surface area} = 2(lb + bh + hl)$$

$$\text{Volume} = l \times b \times h$$

$$\text{Diagonal} = \sqrt{l^2 + b^2 + h^2}$$

Here,  $l$  is length,  $b$  is breadth and  $h$  is height of the cuboid.

- **Cube:**

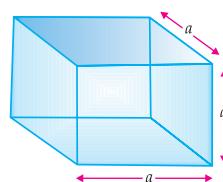
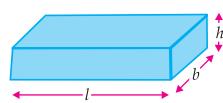
Lateral **surface area** or area of four walls

$$= 4 \times a^2$$

$$\text{Total surface area} = 6 \times a^2$$

$$\text{Volume} = a^3$$

$$\text{Diagonal of a cube} = \sqrt{3} \times a$$



Here,  $a$  is edge of cube.

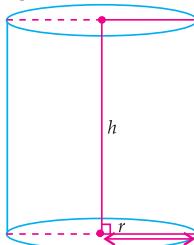
- **Right Circular Cylinder:**

Area of base or top face =  $\pi r^2$

Area of curved surface or curved surface area  
= perimeter of the base  $\times$  height =  $2\pi rh$

Total **surface area** (including both ends) =  $2\pi rh + 2\pi r^2 = 2\pi r(h + r)$

**Volume** = (Area of the base  $\times$  height) =  $\pi r^2 h$



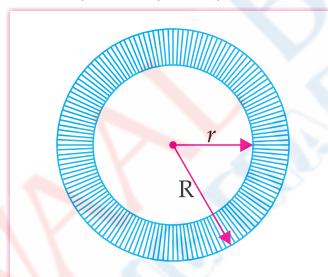
Here,  $r$  is the radius of base and  $h$  is the height of the right circular cylinder.

- **Right Circular Hollow Cylinder:**

Total surface area = (External surface area + Internal surface area) + (Area of brim)

$$\begin{aligned} &= (2\pi Rh + 2\pi rh) + 2(\pi R^2 - \pi r^2) = [2\pi h(R+r) + 2\pi(R^2 - r^2)] \\ &= [2\pi(R+r)(h+R-r)] \end{aligned}$$

Curved surface area =  $(2\pi Rh + 2\pi rh) = 2\pi h(R+r)$



Volume of the **material** used

= (External volume) – (Internal volume)

$$= \pi R^2 h - \pi r^2 h = \pi h(R^2 - r^2)$$

$$= \pi R^2 h - \pi r^2 h = \pi h(R^2 - r^2)$$

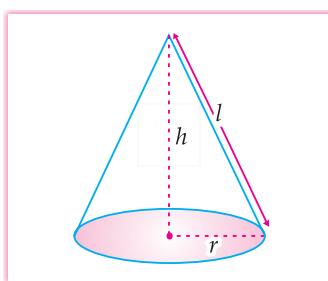
Here,  $R$  and  $r$  are the external and internal radii and  $h$  is the height of the right circular hollow cylinder.

- **Right Circular Cone:**

Slant height,  $l = \sqrt{h^2 + r^2}$

Area of curved surface =  $\pi r l$

$$= \pi r \sqrt{h^2 + r^2}$$



Total surface area = Area of curved surface + Area of base

$$= \pi r l + \pi r^2$$

$$= \pi r(l + r)$$

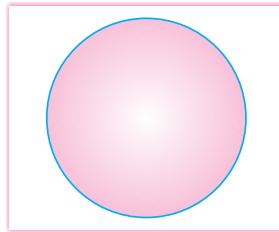
$$\text{Volume} = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 h$$

Here,  $r$ ,  $h$  and  $l$  are the radius, vertical height and slant height respectively of the right circular cone.

- **Sphere:**

$$\text{Surface area} = 4\pi r^2$$

$$\text{Volume} = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$$

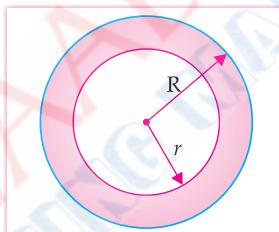


Here,  $r$  is the radius of the sphere.

- **Spherical Shell:**

$$\text{Surface area (outer)} = 4\pi R^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Volume of material} &= \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 - \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \\ &= \frac{4}{3} \pi (R^3 - r^3)\end{aligned}$$



Here,  $R$  and  $r$  are the external and internal radii of the spherical shell.

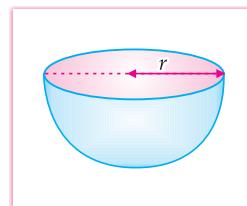
- **Hemisphere:**

$$\text{Area of curved surface} = 2\pi r^2$$

$$\text{Total surface area} = \text{Area of curved surface} + \text{Area of base}$$

$$= 2\pi r^2 + \pi r^2 = 3\pi r^2$$

$$\text{Volume} = \frac{2}{3} \pi r^3$$



Here,  $r$  is the radius of the hemisphere.



### Fundamental Facts

- The platonic solids also called the regular solids or regular polyhedra. Five such solids are : dodecahedron, icosahedron, octahedron and tetrahedron.
- Greek mathematician Plato equated tetrahedron with the 'element' fire, the cube with earth, the icosahedron with water, the octahedron with air and dodecahedron with the stuff of which the constellations and heavens were made.
- The stone of platonic solids are kept in Ashmolean Museum in Oxford.
- The tomb of Archimedes carried a sculpture consisting of a sphere and cylinder circumscribing it.

## UNIT-VII : STATISTICS AND PROBABILITY

# CHAPTER-13

# STATISTICS



### Revision Notes

- Statistics deals with the collection, presentation and analysis of numerical data.
- Three measures of central tendency are:
  - (i) Mean, (ii) Median and (iii) Mode
- **Mean:** In statistics mean stands for the arithmetic mean of the given items.

*i.e.,* Mean =  $\frac{\text{Sum of given items}}{\text{No. of items}}$

- **Median:** It is defined as the middle most or the central value of the variable in a set of observations, when the observations are arranged either in ascending or descending order of their magnitudes. It divides the arranged series in two equal parts *i.e.*, 50% of the observations lie below the median and the remaining are above the median.
- **Mode:** Mode is the observation which occurred maximum times. In ungrouped data, mode is the observation having maximum frequency. In a grouped frequency distribution, it is not possible to determine the mode by looking at the frequencies. To find the mode of grouped data, locate the class with the maximum frequency. This class is known as the **modal class**. The mode of the data is a value inside the modal class.



### Key Formulae

● **Mean:**

(a) **For Raw Data:**

If  $n$  observations  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are given, then their arithmetic mean is given by :

$$\bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

(b) **For Ungrouped Data:**

If there are  $n$  distinct observations  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  of variable  $x$  with frequencies  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  respectively, then the arithmetic mean is given by:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{f_1x_1 + f_2x_2 + \dots + f_nx_n}{f_1 + f_2 + f_3 + \dots + f_n} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i}$$

(c) **For Grouped Data:**

(i) To find the mean of grouped data, it is assumed that the frequency of each class-interval is centred around its mid-point.

(ii) **Direct Method:**

$$\text{Mean} (\bar{x}) = \frac{\sum f_i x_i}{\sum f_i}$$

where the  $x_i$  (class mark) is the mid-point of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  class interval and  $f_i$  is the corresponding frequency.

**(iii) Assumed Mean Method or Short-cut Method:**

$$\text{Mean } (\bar{x}) = a + \frac{\sum f_i d_i}{\sum f_i}$$

where  $a$  is the assumed mean and  $d_i = x_i - a$  are the deviations of  $x_i$  from  $a$  for each  $i$ .

**(iv) Step-Deviation Method:**

$$\text{Mean } (\bar{x}) = a + h \left( \frac{\sum f_i u_i}{\sum f_i} \right)$$

where  $a$  is the assumed mean,  $h$  is the class size and  $u_i = \frac{x_i - a}{h}$

**● Median of Grouped Data:**

Let  $n = f_1 + f_2 + f_3 + \dots + f_n$ . First of all find  $\frac{n}{2}$  and then the class in which  $\frac{n}{2}$  lies. This class is known as the **median class**. Median of the given distribution lies in this class.

Median of the grouped data can be calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Median } (M_e) = l + \left( \frac{\frac{n}{2} - c.f.}{f} \right) \times h$$

where  $l$  = lower limit of median class,  $f$  = frequency of median class,  $n$  = number of observations,  $c.f.$  = cumulative frequency of the class preceding the median class,  $h$  = class-size or width of the class-interval.

**● Mode of Grouped Data:**

Mode of the grouped data can be calculated by using the formula:

$$\text{Mode } (M) = l + \left( \frac{f_1 - f_0}{2f_1 - f_0 - f_2} \right) \times h$$

where  $l$  = lower limit of the modal class,  $h$  = width or size of the class-interval,  $f_1$  = frequency of the modal class,  $f_0$  = frequency of the class preceding the modal class,  $f_2$  = frequency of the class succeeding the modal class.

**● Empirical relation between mean, median and mode:**

- (i) Mode = 3 median – 2 mean
- (ii) Median =  $\frac{1}{3}$  mode +  $\frac{2}{3}$  mean
- (iii) Mean =  $\frac{3}{2}$  median –  $\frac{1}{2}$  mode

**Fundamental Facts**

- In statistics, that single value is called the central tendency and mean, median and mode are all ways to describe it.
- The mean is the average of a data set.
- The mode is the most common number in a data set.
- The median is the middle of the set of numbers.

# CHAPTER-14

## PROBABILITY



### Revision Notes

- Probability is a branch of mathematics that deals with calculating the likelihood of a given event's occurrence.
- A random **experiment** is an experiment or a process for which the outcome cannot be predicted with certainty. e.g.,
  - (i) tossing a coin, (ii) throwing a dice, (iii) selecting a card and (iv) selecting an object etc.
- Outcome associated with an experiment is called an event. e.g., (i) Getting a head on tossing a coin, (ii) getting a face card when a card is drawn from a pack of 52 cards.
- The events whose probability is one are called sure/certain **events**.
- The **events** whose probability is zero are called impossible **events**.
- An event with only one possible outcome is called an elementary event.
- In a given **experiment**, if two or more events are equally likely to occur or have equal probabilities, then they are called equally likely events.
- Probability of an event always lies between 0 and 1.
- Probability can never be negative and more than one.
- A pack of playing cards consists of 52 cards which are divided into 4 suits of 13 cards each. Each suit consists of an ace, one king, one queen, one jack and 9 other cards numbered from 2 to 10. Four suits are spades, hearts, diamonds and clubs.
- King, queen and jack are face cards.
- The sum of the probabilities of all elementary events of an experiment is 1.
- Two events A and B are said to be complementary to of each other if the sum of their probabilities is 1.
- Probability of an event E, denoted as  $P(E)$ , is given by:

$$P(E) = \frac{\text{Number of outcomes favourable to } E}{\text{Total possible number of outcomes}}$$

- For an event  $E$ ,  $P(\bar{E}) = 1 - P(E)$ , where the event  $\bar{E}$  representing 'not E' is the complement of the event E.
- For A and B two possible outcomes of an event,
  - (i) If  $P(A) > P(B)$ , then event A is more likely to occur than event B.
  - (ii) If  $P(A) = P(B)$ , then events A and B are equally likely to occur.



### Key Words

**Events:** The set of outcomes from an experiment is known as events.

**Experiment:** Something that can be repeated that has a set of possible results.



### Know the Facts

- The experimental or empirical probability of an event is based on what has actually happened while the theoretical probability of the event attempts to predict what will happen on the basis of certain assumptions.
- As the number of trials in an experiment go on increasing, we may expect the experimental and theoretical probabilities to be nearly the same.
- When we speak of a coin, we assume it to be 'fair' i.e., it is symmetrical so that there is no reason for it to come down more often on one side than the other. We call this property of the coin as being 'unbiased'.
- In the case of experiment we assume that the experiments have equally likely outcomes.
- A deck of playing cards consists of 4 suits : spades ( $\spadesuit$ ), hearts ( $\heartsuit$ ), diamonds ( $\diamondsuit$ ) and clubs ( $\clubsuit$ ). Clubs and spades are of black colour, while hearts and diamonds are of red colour.



## Fundamental Facts

- By the phrase 'random toss', we mean that the coin is allowed to fall freely without any bias or interference.
- The first book on probability 'The Book on Games of Chance' was written by Italian mathematician J. Cardan.
- The classical definition of probability was given by Pierre Simon Laplace.

□□

