ALGEBRA

Logarithm

If
$$a^x = M$$
, then $x = \log_a M$

Rules of Logarithm:-

(1)
$$\log_a 1 = 0$$

(2)
$$\log_a a = 1$$

$$(3) a^{\log_a M} = M$$

$$(4) \log_a MN = \log_a M + \log_a N$$

$$(5) \log_a \left(\frac{M}{N}\right) = \log_a M - \log_a N$$

(6)
$$\log_a M^n = n \log_a M$$

(7)
$$\log_a M = \log_b M \times \log_a b$$

(8)
$$\log_b a \times \log_a b = 1$$

(9)
$$\log_b a = \frac{1}{\log_a b}$$

$$(10) \log_b M = \frac{\log_a M}{\log_a b}$$

$$(11) \log_a M = \frac{\log M}{\log a}$$

(12)
$$\log e = 1$$

Note: *If base of logarithm is not mentioned, then it is taken* 10.

Complex Number

$$z = x + iy$$

where,

$$i = \sqrt{-1} \& x, y \in R.$$

x is called the real part & iy is called the imaginary part.

Properties of Complex Number

(1)
$$|z| = |x + iy| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

(2)
$$Amp\ z\ (or\ Arg\ z) = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = \theta$$

If $-\pi < \theta \le \pi$, then θ is called the Principal value of the argument.

(3) If
$$z = x + iy$$
 & in complex plane,

$$(x,y)$$
 is in 1st quadrant, then $0 < P.V.$ of $\theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$(x,y)$$
 is in 2nd quadrant, then $\frac{\pi}{2} < P.V.$ of $\theta < \pi$

$$(x,y)$$
 is in 3rd quadrant, then $-\pi < P.V.$ of $\theta < -\frac{\pi}{2}$

(x, y) is in 4th quadrant,

then
$$-\frac{\pi}{2} < P.V. of \theta < 0$$

(4) Modulus-Amplitude Form

$$z = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$

where,

$$r = |z|$$

$$\theta = Arg.z$$

$$(5) |z_1 + z_2| \le |z_1| + |z_2|$$

(6)
$$|z_1z_2| = |z_1||z_2|$$

$$(7) \left| \frac{z_1}{z_2} \right| = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|}$$

(8) (i)
$$Arg(z_1z_2) = Arg z_1 + Arg z_2 + m$$

(ii)
$$Arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = Arg z_1 - Arg z_2 + m$$

where, m = 0 or $\pm 2\pi$

(9) The three cube roots of 1 are $1, w, w^2$

where,
$$w = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{3}i}{2}$$

(10) If w is a complex cube root of 1, then $w^3 = 1 \& 1 + w + w^2 = 0$.

(11) <u>De-Moivre's Theorem</u>

$$(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i\sin n\theta$$

(12) Euler's Identity

$$e^{\pm i\theta} = \cos\theta \pm i\sin\theta$$

- (1) If the 1st term = a & the common difference = d in an A.P., then
 - (a) $n th \ term, \ t_n = a + (n-1)d$
 - (b) Sum of 1st n terms,

$$S_n = \frac{n}{2}(a + l)$$

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

(2)
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

(3)
$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

(4)
$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = \left\{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right\}^2$$

(5) If x be the AM of two numbers a & b, then $x = \frac{(a+b)}{2}$

(1) If the 1st term = a_i common ratio = r in a GP_i then

(a)
$$n - th term = t_n = ar^{n-1}$$

(b) Sum of 1st n terms,

$$S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$
 when, $-1 < r < 1$
= $\frac{a(r^n-1)}{r-1}$ when, $r > 1$ or $r < -1$

(2) If x be the GM of two numbers a & b, then $x = \pm \sqrt{ab}$

Infinite GP

$$S_n = \frac{a}{1-r}$$
 when, $-1 < r < 1$

For r > 1 or r < -1, the series doesn't exist.

HP

(1) If a, b, c are in HP

then
$$\frac{1}{a}$$
, $\frac{1}{h}$, $\frac{1}{c}$ are in AP

(2) If x be the HM of two numbers a & b, then $x = \frac{2ab}{a+b}$

Infinite Series

If n is a – ve integer or fraction & |x| < 1, then

(1)
$$(1 + x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \dots \infty$$

(2)
$$(1-x)^n = 1 - nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 - \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \dots \infty$$

(3)
$$(1+x)^{-n} = 1 - nx + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!}x^2 - \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \dots \infty$$

(4)
$$(1-x)^{-n} = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \infty$$

(5)
$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^r}{r!} + \cdots + \infty$$

(6)
$$e^{-x} = 1 - \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + (-1)^r \frac{x^r}{r!} + \cdots + \infty$$

(7)
$$e = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots \dots \infty$$

(8)
$$e^{-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots \dots \infty$$

(9)
$$a^x = 1 + \frac{(\log_e a)}{11} x + \frac{(\log_e a)^2}{21} x^2 + \frac{(\log_e a)^3}{31} x^3 + \cdots \infty$$

(10)
$$\log_e(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \dots \infty$$
; when $-1 < x \le 1$

(11)
$$\log_e(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots + \infty$$
; when $-1 \le x < 1$

(12)
$$\log_e 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots \dots \infty$$

Quadratic Equation

General Expression:-

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \qquad [a \neq 0]$$

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

(1) If the two roots of a quadratic equation be $\alpha \& \beta$, then

(a)
$$\alpha + \beta = -\frac{b}{a}$$

(b)
$$\alpha\beta = \frac{c}{a}$$

(2) General structure of a quadratic equation:-

$$x^2 - (Sum \ of \ the \ roots)x + (Product \ of \ the \ roots) = 0$$

(3) Discriminant, $D = b^2 - 4ac$

Case I:- (When D>0 & a square no.)

The roots will be real, rational & unequal

Case II:- (When D>0 but not a square no.)

The roots will be real, irrational & unequal

Case III:- (When D=0)

The roots will be real & equal

Case IV:- (When D<0)

The roots will be imaginary

- (4) If a, b, c are real & a root of equation (i) be $\alpha + i\beta$, then the other root will be $\alpha i\beta$ and vice versa (where α, β real).
- (5) If a,b,c are rational & a root of equation (i) be $p + \sqrt{q}$, then the other root will be $p \sqrt{q}$ & vice versa (where p, q real).
- (6) The two roots will be common of two quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0 & a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0$

$$iff \ \frac{a}{a_1} = \frac{b}{b_1} = \frac{c}{c_1}.$$

(7) The two quadratic equations $ax^2 + bx + c = 0 \& a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0$ will have exactly one common root if f

$$(a_1c - ac_1)^2 = (ab_1 - a_1b)(bc_1 - b_1c) \& \frac{b}{a} \neq \frac{b_1}{a_1} \text{ or } \frac{c}{a} \neq \frac{c_1}{a_1}.$$

Permutation

(1)
$$n! = n(n-1)(n-2)(n-3).......3.2.1$$

$$(2) 0! = 1$$

- (3) $_{r}^{n}P = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} = No. of permutations of n dissimilar things taken r at a time$
- (4) $\frac{n!}{p!q!r!}$ = The permutation of n things in which p of them to be a, q of them to be b, r of them

to be c, and the rest to be unlike.

(5) $n^r = The \ no. \ of \ permutations \ of \ n \ different \ things \ taken \ r \ at \ a \ time, each \ thing \ may \ be \ repeated$ once, twice, upto \ r \ times \ in \ any \ arrangement.

(6) Circular Permutation:-

If no distinction is made between the clockwise & anti - clockwise arrangement then

the no. of permutation = $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$.

And if the distinction is made then the no. of total permutation = (n-1)!.

Combination

(1) The no. of combinatios of n dissimilar things taken r at a time = ${}^n_r C = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$

$$(2) {\atop r}^n C = {\atop n-r}^n C$$

(3) If
$${}_{p}^{n}C = {}_{q}^{n}C$$
, then $p + q = n$. $[p \neq q]$

$$(4) {\atop r}^{n}C + {\atop r-1}^{n}C = {\atop n+1}^{n+1}C$$

$$(5) \frac{{\binom{n}{r}C}}{{\binom{n}{r-1}C}} = \frac{n-r+1}{r}$$

(6) The total no. of combinations of n dissimilar things taken one, two, etc. all at a time =

$${}_{1}^{n}C + {}_{2}^{n}C + {}_{3}^{n}C + \cdots + {}_{n}^{n}C = 2^{n} - 1$$

(7) The no. of ways in which it is possible to make a selection by taking some or all out of $p + q + r + \cdots$... things, whereof p are alike of one kind, q alike of second kind, r alike of third kind; and so on

$$= (p + 1)(q + 1)(r + 1)....-1$$

(8) If n = +ve even integer, then ${}_{r}^{n}C$ is greatest when $r = \frac{n}{2}$.

If n = +ve odd integer then n_rC is greatest when $r = \frac{n-1}{2}$ or $\frac{n+1}{2}$.

(9) The no. of ways in which (m + n) things can be divided into two groups, containing m & n things

$$respectively = \frac{(m+n)!}{m! \, n!}.$$

(10) The no. of ways in which (m + n + p) things can be divided into three groups, containing $m_1n_2p_1$

things respectively =
$$\frac{(m+n+p)!}{m! \, n! \, p!}.$$

Binomial Theorem

(1) If n is a + ve integer, then

$$(a + x)^n = a^n + {}_{1}^{n}Ca^{n-1}x^1 + {}_{2}^{n}Ca^{n-2}x^2 + \dots + {}_{r}^{n}Ca^{n-r}x^r + \dots + x^n$$

(2) If n is a - ve integer or fraction, then

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^3 + \dots \dots \infty$$
 [|x| < 1]

(3) General term =
$$(r + 1) - th term = t_{r+1} = {}_{r}^{n}Ca^{n-r}x^{r}$$

- (4) (i) If n is even, then there exists a middle term & the middle term will be $\left(\frac{n}{2}+1\right)$ th term.
 - (ii) If n is odd, then there exists two middle terms & the middle terms will be

$$\left(\frac{n-1}{2}+1\right)-th\ term\ \&\ \left(\frac{n+1}{2}+1\right)-th\ term.$$

(5) (i) In the above expansion, the m-th term will be greatest if $\frac{(n+1)x}{a+x}=a+ve$ integer (m)

(ii) In the above expansion, the (m + 1) – th term will be greatest if $\frac{(n+1)x}{a+x} = a + ve$ integer (m) + a proper fraction.

Determinant

General Form:-

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1$$

$$D = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 (b_2 c_3 - b_3 c_2) - b_1 (a_2 c_3 - a_3 c_2) + c_1 (a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2)$$

Symbolic Form:-

Addition of Determinants:-

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} l_1 & m_1 & n_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 + l_1 & b_1 + m_1 & c_1 + n_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} l_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ l_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ l_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 + l_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 + l_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 + l_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Properties of Determinants:-

- (1) If the rows & columns are interchanged then the value of the determinant remains same.
- (2) If two associated rows (or columns) are interchanged then the sign will be changed.
- (3) If there are two rows (or columns) are identical, then the value will be zero.
- (4) If each element of a row (or a column) of a determinant is multiplied by a constant k then the value of new determinant is k times the value of original determinant.
- (5) If all the elements in a row (or column) are zero, then the value will be zero.

Multiplication of Determinants:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} p_1 & q_1 \\ p_2 & q_2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1p_1 + b_1q_1 & a_1p_2 + b_1q_2 \\ a_2p_1 + b_2q_1 & a_2p_2 + b_2q_2 \end{vmatrix}$$
 (R × R)

To find the area of a triangle:-

Area of
$$\triangle ABC = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
 sq. units

Cramer's Rule:-

Let,
$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = k_1$$

$$a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = k_2$$

$$a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = k_3$$
Using cramer's rule, $x = \frac{D_1}{D}$, $y = \frac{D_2}{D}$, $z = \frac{D_3}{D}$

$$where, \qquad D = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \; ; \; D_1 = \begin{vmatrix} k_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ k_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ k_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \; ; \; D_2 = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & k_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & k_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & k_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \; ; \; D_3 = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & k_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & k_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & k_3 \end{vmatrix} \; .$$

Important Conditions: -

Case I:- (When $D \neq 0$)

The system of linear equations will be consistent, independent & it has unique solution.

Case II:- (When
$$D = D_1 = D_2 = D_3 = 0$$
)

The system of linear equations will be consistent, dependent & it has infinite no. of solutions.

Case III:- (When D = 0 & at least one of D_1 , D_2 , D_3 is \neq 0)

The system of linear equations will be inconsistent & it has no solution.

Matrix

Basic Form:-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
; $Order = R \times C$

- (1) A matrix A is said to be square matrix if f(R) = C.
- (2) If all the elements in A are zero, then A is said to be a Null (or zero) matrix, denoted by O.

$$E.g.$$
 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(3) If a matrix have only diagonal terms & the other terms are zero, then it is called diagonal matrix.

$$E.g.$$
 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 17 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$

(4) If all the terms in a diagonal matrix are only 1, then it is called unit or identity matrix.

$$E.g.$$
 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- (5) If $A^T = A$, then A is a symmetric matrix.
- (6) If $A^T = -A$, then A is a skew symmetric matrix.
- (7) If |A| = 0, then A is a singular matrix.
- (8) If $A^T A = I$, then A is an orthogonal matrix.
- (9) If $A^2 = A$, then A is an idempotent matrix.
- (10) If $A^2 = I$, then A is an involutory matrix.
- (11) If $A^k = 0$, then A is a nilpotent matrix.
- (12) If the rows & columns of a matrix are interchanged, then it is called transpose matrix A^{T} .
- (13) If a diagonal matrix have all the terms same, then it is called scalar matrix.
- (14) Equal Matrices:-

If
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \& B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & d_1 \\ c_2 & d_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
; then $A = B$ iff $a_1 = c_1$, $a_2 = c_2$, $b_1 = d_1$, $b_2 = d_2$.

(15) Addition & Subtraction of matrices:-

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & d_1 \\ c_2 & d_2 \end{bmatrix}, then A \pm B = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \pm c_1 & b_1 \pm d_1 \\ a_2 \pm c_2 & b_2 \pm d_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(16) Multiplication by a scalar k:-

$$k \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ka_1 & kb_1 \\ ka_2 & kb_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

(17) Multiplicability of two matrices:-

Let there are two matrices $[A]_{R_1 \times C_1} \& [B]_{R_2 \times C_2}$.

If $C_1 = R_2$, then $A \times B$ exists otherwise not and the order of the resulting matrix will be $R_1 \times C_2$.

(18) Multiplication of two matrices:-

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & d_1 \\ c_2 & d_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1c_1 + b_1c_2 & a_1d_1 + b_1d_2 \\ a_2c_1 + b_2c_2 & a_2d_1 + b_2d_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(19) Adjoint matrix:-

$$If A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad then \ Adj. A = \begin{bmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & c_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} \\ - \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 \\ a_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 \\ a_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_3 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \\ + \begin{vmatrix} a_2 & b_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} & - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} & + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

(20) Inverse matrix:
$$A^{-1} = \frac{Adj. A}{|A|}$$
 [$|A| \neq 0$]

(21)
$$A = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T) + \frac{1}{2}(A - A^T)$$

where, $A = square\ matrix$

$$\frac{1}{2}(A + A^T) = symmetric\ matrix$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(A - A^T) = skew - symmetric matrix$$

(22) Some useful relations:-

(i)
$$(A^T)^T = A$$

(ii)
$$(A \pm B)^T = A^T \pm B^T$$

(iii)
$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

$$(iv) A^{-1}A = I$$

$$(v) AA^{-1} = I$$

(vi)
$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

(vii)
$$(A^{-1})^T = (A^T)^{-1}$$

(viii)
$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

(ix)
$$AB \neq BA$$
 in general

$$(x) (AB)C = A(BC)$$

$$(xi) A(B + C) = AB + AC$$

(xii)
$$A. O = O. A = O$$

(xiii)
$$AI = IA = A$$

(xiv) If
$$A \neq 0 \& B \neq 0$$
, then $AB = 0$ (it may be)

(XV) If
$$CA = CB$$
, then it is not mandatory $A = B$.

Martin's Rule:-

$$Let, a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = k_1$$

$$a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = k_2$$

$$a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = k_3$$

Let,
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$
; $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$; $B = \begin{bmatrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \\ k_3 \end{bmatrix}$

Then the system of equations can be written as $AX = B_i i.e.$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k_1 \\ k_2 \\ k_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Important Conditions: -

Case I:- (When $|A| \neq 0$)

Then the solution will be $X = A^{-1}B$.

Case II:- (When |A| = 0 & (adj. A)B = 0)

Then the system may have infinite solution (consistent) or no solution (inconsistent).

Case II:- (When $|A| = 0 \& (adj. A)B \neq 0$)

Then solution doesn't exist (inconsistent).

Probability

- (1) In a random experiment, if S be a sample space & E be an event, then
 - (i) $P(E) \geq 0$
 - (ii) $P(\emptyset) = 0$
 - (iii) P(S) = 1.
- (2) $0 \le P(E) \le 1$.
- $(3) P(E) + P(\overline{E}) = 1$
- $(4) P(E-F) = P(E) P(E \cap F)$
- (5) $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F) P(E \cap F)$
- $(6) P(E \cup F \cup G) = P(E) + P(F) + P(G) P(E \cap F) P(F \cap G) P(E \cap G) + P(E \cap F \cap G)$
- (7) If $E_1 \& E_2$ be two events such that $E_1 \subseteq E_2$, then $P(E_1) \le P(E_2)$
- (8) If E & F are mutually exclusive events, then
 - (i) $P(E \cap F) = 0$
 - (ii) $P(E \cup F) = P(E) + P(F)$
- (9) If E & F are two mutually exclusive exhaustive events, then P(E) + P(F) = 1.
- (10) Independent Event:-

$$P(E \cap F) = P(E).P(F)$$

(11) Conditional Probability:-

If E & F be two events associated with the same random experiment, then

$$P(E \cap F) = P(E).P\left(\frac{F}{E}\right)$$
 [where $P(E) \neq 0$]

PROBABILITY

Theory of Probability

(1) Conditional Probability

Let A & B be the two events associated with the same random experiment . Then the probability of occurrence of A under the condition B has already occurred and $P(B) \neq 0$, is called conditional probability, denoted by $P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right)$.

$$P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}, \text{ where } P(B) \neq 0$$

(2) Let A and B be the two events of a sample space S and let E be an event such that $P(E) \neq 0$.

Then,
$$P\left[\frac{A \cup B}{E}\right] = P\left(\frac{A}{E}\right) + P\left(\frac{B}{E}\right) - P\left[\frac{A \cap B}{E}\right]$$

(3) For any events A & B of a sample space S, prove that

$$P\left(\frac{\overline{A}}{B}\right) = 1 - P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right).$$

(4) Multiplication Theorem on Probability

Let A and B be the two events associated with a sample space S. Then, the simultaneous occurrence of two events A and B is denoted by $(A \cap B)$ is given by

$$P(AB) = P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P\left(\frac{B}{A}\right) = P(B) \cdot P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right)$$
; where $P(A) \neq 0$ and $P(B) \neq 0$

(5) For any three events A, B, C of the same sample space, we have

$$P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P\left(\frac{B}{A}\right) \cdot P\left[\frac{C}{A \cap B}\right].$$

(6) **Independent Events**

Two events A and B are said to be independent if

$$P\left(\frac{A}{B}\right) = P(A); \text{ where } P(B) \neq 0$$
 $P\left(\frac{B}{A}\right) = P(B); \text{ where } P(A) \neq 0$

So, for independent events, $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B)$

(7) Two events A and B are said to be mutually exclusive if $A \cap B = \emptyset$ and in this case $P(\emptyset) = 0$

Baye's Theorem and its Application

(1) Theorem of Total Probability

Let $E_1, E_2, ..., E_n$ be mutually exclusive and exhaustive events associated with a random experiment and let E be an event that occurs with some E_i . Then,

$$P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(E/E_i) \cdot P(E_i)$$

(2) Baye's Theorem

Let E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n be mutually exclusive and exhaustive events associated with a random

experiment and let E be an event that occurs with some E_i . Then,

$$P\left(\frac{E_i}{E}\right) = \frac{P\left(\frac{E}{E_i}\right) \cdot P(E_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(E/E_i) \cdot P(E_i)} ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

Probability Distribution

(1) If a random variable X takes the values $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ with respective probabilities $p_1, p_2, ..., p_n$ then the probability distribution of X is given by

X	x_1	x_2	x_3	•••	•••	x_n
P(X)	p_1	p_2	p_3		•••	p_n

The above probability distribution of X is defined only when

(i) Each
$$p_i \ge 0$$
; (ii) $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$.

(2) The mean of X, denoted by μ , is defined as

$$\mu = E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$$

(3) The variance, denoted by σ^2 , is defined as

$$\sigma^2 = \left(\sum x_i^2 p_i - \mu^2\right)$$

(4) The S.D. is given by $\sigma = \sqrt{Variance}$.

Binomial Distribution

(1) **Bernoulli's Theorem**

Let there be n independent trials in an experiment and let the random variable X denote the number of successes in these trials. Let the probability of getting a success in a single trial be p and that of getting a failure be q so that p + q = 1. Then,

$$P(X = r) = {}^{n}_{r}C.p^{r}.q^{n-r}$$

The probability distribution of X may be expressed as

X	0	1	•••	•••	•••	r
P(X)	q^n	npq^{n-1}	•••	•••	•••	$\binom{n}{r}C.p^r.q^{n-r}$

This distribution is called a binomial distribution.

(2) Condition for the Applicability of a Binomial Distribution

- The experiment is performed for a finite and fixed number of trials.
- Each trial must give either a success or a failure.
- The probability of a success in each trial is the same.
- (3) The mean of binomial distribution is given by $\mu = np$.
- (4) The variance of binomial distribution is given by $\sigma^2 = npq$.

- (5) The S.D. of binomial distribution is given by $\sigma = \sqrt{npq}$
- (6) The recurrence relation for a Binomial Distribution

$$P(r+1) = \frac{(n-r)}{(r+1)} \cdot \frac{p}{q} \cdot P(r)$$

TRIGONOMETRY

Sin

tan

Associated Angles

How to find sin 960°, cos 960°, tan 960° etc.?

(i) Find out the quadrant.

(ii) If n is even multiple of $\frac{\pi}{2}$, then the t

– ratio will be same as given otherwise the t

- ratio will be its compliment.

N. B.: The rotation must be ACW always.

Compound Angles

 $(1)\sin(A \pm B) = \sin A \cos B \pm \cos A \sin B$

 $(2)\cos(A \pm B) = \cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$

 $(3)\sin(A+B)\sin(A-B) = (\sin A)^2 - (\sin B)^2 = (\cos B)^2 - (\cos A)^2$

 $(4)\cos(A+B)\cos(A-B) = (\cos A)^2 - (\sin B)^2 = (\cos B)^2 - (\sin A)^2$

(5) $tan(A \pm B) = \frac{tan A \pm tan B}{1 \mp tan A tan B}$

(6) $\cot(A \pm B) = \frac{\cot A \cot B \mp 1}{\cot B \pm \cot A}$

(7) $tan(A + B + C) = \frac{tan A + tan B + tan C - tan A tan B tan C}{1 - tan A tan B - tan B tan C - tan C tan A}$

Transformation of Sum and Products

(1) $\sin C + \sin D = 2\sin \frac{C+D}{2}\cos \frac{C-D}{2}$

(2) $\sin C - \sin D = 2\cos \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{C-D}{2}$

 $(3)\cos C + \cos D = 2\cos\frac{C+D}{2}\cos\frac{C-D}{2}$

 $(4)\cos C - \cos D = 2\sin\frac{C+D}{2}\sin\frac{D-C}{2}$

 $(5) 2 \sin A \cos B = \sin(A+B) + \sin(A-B)$

 $(6) 2\cos A\sin B = \sin(A+B) - \sin(A-B)$

(7) $2\cos A\cos B = \cos(A + B) + \cos(A - B)$

(8) $2 \sin A \sin B = \cos(A - B) - \cos(A + B)$

Multiple Angles

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

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

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

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

(5) $\tan A = \frac{1-\cos 2A}{\sin 2A} = \frac{\sin 2A}{1+\cos 2A}$

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

$$(7)\cos 3A = 4\cos^3 A - 3\cos A$$

(8)
$$\tan 3A = \frac{3 \tan A - \tan^3 A}{1 - 3 \tan^2 A}$$

Sub-multiple Angles

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

(2)
$$\sin 36^\circ = \cos 54^\circ = \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{10 - 2\sqrt{5}}$$

(3)
$$\sin 54^\circ = \cos 36^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{5}+1}{4}$$

(4)
$$\sin 72^\circ = \cos 18^\circ = \frac{1}{4}\sqrt{10 + 2\sqrt{5}}$$

Trigonometric Equations

(1) (i) If
$$\sin \theta = 0$$
, then $\theta = n\pi$

(ii) If
$$\sin \theta = \sin \alpha$$
, then $\theta = n\pi + (-1)^n \alpha$

(2) (i)
$$\cos \theta = 0$$
, then $\theta = (2n + 1)\frac{\pi}{2}$

(ii)
$$\cos \theta = \cos \alpha$$
, then $\theta = 2n\pi \pm \alpha$

(3) (i)
$$\tan \theta = 0$$
, then $\theta = n\pi$

(ii)
$$\tan \theta = \tan \alpha$$
, then $\theta = n\pi + \alpha$

Inverse Circular Function

Principle Value $\rightarrow \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$

(1)
$$\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = x$$
; $\cos(\cos^{-1} x) = x$; $\tan(\tan^{-1} x) = x$

(2)
$$\sin^{-1}(-x) = -\sin^{-1}x$$
; $\cos^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \cos^{-1}x$; $\tan^{-1}(-x) = -\tan^{-1}x$;

$$\cot^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \cot^{-1}x$$
; $\csc^{-1}(-x) = -\csc^{-1}x$; $\sec^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \sec^{-1}x$.

(3)
$$\sin^{-1} x = \csc^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$$
; $\cos^{-1} x = \sec^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$; $\tan^{-1} x = \cot^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$ when $x > 0$ &

$$\tan^{-1} x = \cot^{-1} \frac{1}{x} - \pi \text{ when } x < 0.$$

(4) (i)
$$\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2} \ (-1 \le x \le 1)$$

(ii)
$$\tan^{-1} x + \cot^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2} \ (-\infty < x < \infty)$$

(iii)
$$\sec^{-1} x + \csc^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2} \ (x \le -1, \ or, \ x \ge 1)$$

(5)
$$\tan^{-1} x \pm \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x \pm y}{1 \mp xy}\right)$$
 [At principal value]

(6)
$$\sin^{-1} x \pm \sin^{-1} y = \sin^{-1} (x\sqrt{1-y^2} \pm y\sqrt{1-x^2})$$
 [At principal value]

$$(7) \cos^{-1} x \pm \cos^{-1} y = \cos^{-1} (xy \mp \sqrt{(1-x^2)(1-y^2)})$$
 [At principal value]

(8) 2
$$\tan^{-1} x = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1-x^2}{1+x^2} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2x}{1-x^2} \right)$$

RELATION AND FUNCTION

RELATION

Cartesian Product: $A \times B = \{(x, y) : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}.$

Relation:-

A relation R is a set of ordered pairs. A relation R from a set A to a set B is a subset of $A \times B$.

Mathematically, we can write $aRb \forall a, b \in R$.

Inverse Relation:-

If A & B be two sets and R be the relation from A to B,

then the inverse relation R^{-1} of R is a relation from B to A defined by

 $R^{-1} = \{(b, a) : (a, b) \in R, a \in A, y \in B\}.$

Classification of Relations:-

(1) Reflexive Relation:-

Let ρ be a relation on A. ρ is said to be reflexive if $(a, a) \in \rho \forall a \in A$.

(2) Symmetric Relation:-

A relation ρ on a set A is said to be symmetric if $(a, b) \in \rho \Longrightarrow (b, a) \in \rho$,

where, $a, b \in A$.

A relation ρ is said to be an anti – symmetric relation if $(a, b) \in \rho \& (b, a) \in \rho$

 $\Rightarrow a = b \text{ when } a, b \in A.$

(3) Transitive Relation:-

A relation ρ on a set A is said to be transitive if $(a,b) \in \rho \& (b,c) \in \rho$

 \Rightarrow $(a.c) \in \rho \ \forall a, b, c \in A$.

(4) Equivalent Relation:-

A relation ρ is said to be an equivalent relation if ρ is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

FUNCTION

Real Function:-

Let R be the set of all real numbers and let X and Y be any two non — empty subsets of R.

Then, a rule f which associates to each $x \in X$, a unique real number $f(x) \in Y$,

is called a real function from X to Y and we write, $f: X \to Y$.

Constant Function: $f(x) = c \ \forall x \in R$.

Identity Function: $f(x) = x \ \forall x \in R$.

Modulus Function: f(x) = |x| = x, when $x \ge 0$

$$= -x$$
, when $x < 0$.

Reciprocal Function: $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

Signum Function:- $f(x) = \frac{|x|}{x} = 1$, when x > 0= 0, when x = 0= -1, when x < 0.

Square Root Function:- $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$.

Step/Box/Greatest Integer Function: f(x) = [x]. e.g.[2.01] = 2,[2.9] = 2.

Exponential Function: $f(x) = e^x$.

Logarithmic Function: $f(x) = \log x$.

Polynomial Function: $f(x) = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} x^1 + a_n$.

Rational Function: $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$, where p(x) & q(x) are polynomials and $q(x) \neq 0$.

<u>Trigonometric Function:</u> $f(x) = \sin x \cdot \cos x \cdot \tan x \ etc.$

<u>Periodic Function:</u> A function f(x) is said to be periodic with period T,

$$if f(x + T) = f(x) \forall x.$$

Inverse Function:- If f(y) = x, then $y = f^{-1}(x)$.

Even Function: A function f(x) is said to be even if $f(-x) = f(x) \forall x$.

Odd Function: A function f(x) is said to be odd if $f(-x) = -f(x) \ \forall x$.

DIFFERENTIATION

LIMIT:-

(1) Significant of $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = l$

 $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = l$ indicates that the variable x takes the values > a or < a but $\neq a$.

l is the limiting value of f(x).

- (2) ' $\lim_{x\to a+} f(x)$ ' is called the right hand limit of f(x) at x=a.
- (3) ' $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x)$ ' is called the left hand limit of f(x) at x=a.
- (4) Existence of $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$

 $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$ exists if both $\lim_{x\to a+} f(x)$ & $\lim_{x\to a-} f(x)$ exists and $\lim_{x\to a+} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a-} f(x)$.

(5) Fundamental Theorems:-

(1)
$$\lim_{x\to a} [f1(x) \pm f2(x) \pm f3(x) \pm \cdots] = \lim_{x\to a} f1(x) + \lim_{x\to a} f2(x) + \cdots$$

(2)
$$\lim_{x\to a} [f1(x).f2(x)...] = \lim_{x\to a} f1(x).\lim_{x\to a} f2(x)...$$

(3)
$$\lim_{x\to a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{\emptyset(x)} \right] = \frac{\lim_{x\to a} f(x)}{\lim_{x\to a} \emptyset(x)} \quad [where, \lim_{x\to a} \emptyset(x) \neq 0]$$

$$(4) \lim_{x \to a} \emptyset \{ f(x) \} = \emptyset \{ \lim_{x \to a} f(x) \}$$

(6) Formulae

(1)
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{x^n - a^n}{x - a} = na^{n-1}$$

(2)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad [x \ in \ radian]$$

(3)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\{1+x\}^n-1}{x} = n$$

(4)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^{x}-1}{x} = 1$$

(5)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\log_e(1+x)}{x} = 1$$

(6)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}} = e$$

(7)
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$$

(8)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{a^{x}-1}{x} = \log_e a \quad (a>0)$$

(7) Some Substitution:-

(1) If
$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$$
, then put $x-a=h$. Then $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)=\lim_{h\to 0} f(a+h)$

(2) If
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x)$$
, then put $\frac{1}{x} = z$. Then $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = \lim_{z\to 0} f\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$

(8) L'Hospital's Rule

If a function is in the form

$$\frac{0}{0}$$
, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, $\infty - \infty$, $0 \times \infty$, 0^{0} , ∞^{0} , 1^{∞} at $x = a$ then $f(x)$ is indeterminate at $x = a$.

Case I $\left(\frac{0}{0}\right)$

If
$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = 0 \& \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = 0$$

then,
$$\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
.

Case II $\left(\frac{\infty}{\infty}\right)$

If
$$\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \infty \& \lim_{x\to a} g(x) = \infty$$

then,
$$\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
.

CONTINUITY & DIFFERENTIABILITY

Continuity:-

f(x) is said to be continuous at x=a if

- (i) f(a) is defined that means f(x) approaches to a definite finite value at x=a
- (ii) $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) exists$
- (iii) $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$

In brief, f(x) is said to be continuous at x=a if

$$\lim_{x \to a+} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a-} f(x) = f(a)$$

If one of the above condition fails, then f(x) is discontinuous at x=a.

If f(x) is continuous at every point in the interval $a \le x \le b$ then f(x) is continuous in the interval $a \le x \le b$.

Differentiability:-

Let the domain of definition of a function f(x) is D & $(a, b) \in D$.

f(x) is said to be differentiable at x=c (where a < c < b) iff

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$
 exists & approaches to a finite value.

Differentiability => Continuity

DERIVATIVES

<u>Definition:</u>- Definition is the process of decreasing of a function.

Mathematically, $\frac{dy}{dx}[or, f'(x)] = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$

Derivative from 1st principle

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

Derivative at a point x=a

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)_{x=a} = f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

 $\lim_{h\to 0+} \frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$ is called the Right Hand Derivative of f(x) at x=a and expressed as Rf'(a) or, f'(a+).

 $\lim_{h\to 0^-} \frac{f(a-h)-f(a)}{-h}$ is called the Left Hand Derivative of f(x) at x=a and expressed as Lf'(a) or, f'(a-).

f'(a) exists if Rf'(a)=Lf'(a).

Formulae:-

$$(1)\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1} \quad [n = rational \ no.]$$

$$(2)\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

$$(3)\frac{d}{dx}(\log x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$(4)\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \log_e a$$

$$(5)\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

$$(6)\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

$$(7)\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$$

$$(8) \frac{d}{dx} (\cot x) = -\cos ec^2 x$$

$$(9) \frac{d}{dx} (\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$$

$$(10)\frac{d}{dx}(cosec\ x) = -cosec\ x\cot x$$

$$(11)\frac{d}{dx}(c)=0$$

$$(12)\frac{d}{dx}[cf(x)] = cf'(x)$$

$$(13)\frac{d}{dx}(e^{mx}) = me^{mx}$$

$$(14)\frac{d}{dx}(a^{mx}) = ma^{mx}\log_e a$$

$$(15)\frac{d}{dx}(\sin mx) = m\cos mx$$

$$(16)\frac{d}{dx}(\cos mx) = -m\sin mx$$

$$(17)\frac{d}{dx}(\tan mx) = m\sec^2 mx$$

$$(18)\frac{d}{dx}(\cot mx) = -mcosec^2mx$$

$$(19)\frac{d}{dx}(\sec mx) = m \sec mx \tan mx$$

$$(20)\frac{d}{dx}(cosec\ mx) = -mcosec\ mx\cot mx$$

(21)
$$\frac{d}{dx} (\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$(22)\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$(23)\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$(24)\frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1}x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

(25)
$$\frac{d}{dx} (\sec^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

(26)
$$\frac{d}{dx}$$
 (cosec⁻¹ x) = $-\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

$$(27)\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u\frac{dv}{dx} + v\frac{du}{dx}$$

$$(28)\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v\frac{du}{dx} - u\frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$$

Chain Rule:-

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dw} \cdot \frac{dw}{dz} \cdot \frac{dz}{dx}$$

INTEGRATION

Definition: Integration is regarded as the inverse of differentiation. It increases a function.

Mathematically, $\frac{d}{dx}[F(x)+c] = f(x)$

&
$$\int f(x)dx = F(x)+c$$

where, c= integration constant.

Formulae:-

$$(1) \int A f(x) dx = A \int f(x) dx$$

(2)
$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + c \quad [n \neq -1]$$

$$(3) \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x + c$$

$$(4) \int e^x dx = e^x + c$$

(5)
$$\int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\log_a a} + c$$
 [$a > 0 \& a \neq -1$]

$$(6) \int \sin x \ dx = -\cos x + c$$

$$(7) \int \cos x \ dx = \sin x + c$$

$$(8) \int \sec^2 x \ dx = \tan x + c$$

$$(9) \int \csc^2 x \ dx = -\cot x + c$$

$$(10) \int \sec x \tan x \ dx = \sec x + c$$

$$(11) \int cosec \ x \cot x \ dx = -cosec \ x + c$$

$$(12) \int \tan x \ dx = \log|\sec x| + c$$

$$(13) \int \cot x \ dx = \log|\sin x| + c$$

(14)
$$\int \sec x \ dx = \log \left| \sec x + \tan x \right| + c = \log \left| \tan \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{x}{2} \right) \right| + c$$

(15)
$$\int \csc x \ dx = \log|\csc x - \cot x| + c = \log|\tan\frac{x}{2}| + c$$

$$(16) \int e^{mx} dx = \frac{e^{mx}}{m} + c$$

$$(17) \int a^{mx} dx = \frac{a^{mx}}{m \log_e a} + c$$

$$(18) \int \sin mx \ dx = -\frac{\cos mx}{m} + c$$

$$(19) \int \cos mx \ dx = \frac{\sin mx}{m} + c$$

$$(20) \int \sec^2 mx \ dx = \frac{\tan mx}{m} + c$$

$$(21) \int \csc^2 mx \ dx = -\frac{\cot mx}{m} + c$$

(22)
$$\int \sec mx \tan mx \ dx = \frac{\sec mx}{m} + c$$

(23)
$$\int cosec \ mx \cot mx \ dx = -\frac{\csc mx}{m} + c$$

$$(24) \int \tan mx \ dx = \frac{1}{m} \log|\sec mx| + c$$

$$(25) \int \cot mx \ dx = \frac{1}{m} \log|\sin mx| + c$$

(26)
$$\int \sec mx \ dx = \frac{1}{m} \log \left| \sec mx + \tan mx \right| + c = \frac{1}{m} \log \left| \tan \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{mx}{2} \right) \right| + c$$

(27)
$$\int cosec \ mx \ dx = \frac{1}{m} \log \left| cosec \ mx - \cot mx \right| + c = \frac{1}{m} \log \left| \tan \frac{mx}{2} \right| + c$$

(28)
$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + c \quad [a \neq 0]$$

(29)
$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 - a^2} dx = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{x - a}{x + a} \right| + c \quad [a \neq 0]$$

(30)
$$\int \frac{1}{a^2 - x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{a + x}{a - x} \right| + c \quad [a \neq 0]$$

(31)
$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + c = -\cos^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + c$$

(32)
$$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} dx = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \frac{|x|}{a} + c = -\frac{1}{a} \csc^{-1} \frac{|x|}{a} + c$$

Integration by parts:-

$$\int uv \, dx = u \int v \, dx - \int \left[\frac{du}{dx} \int v \, dx \right] dx$$

where, u is the 1st function of x & v is the 2nd function of x

How to choose 1st & 2nd function:-

Use this rule-----ILATE

where,

I= inverse function

L= logarithmic function

A= algebraic function

T= trigonometric function

E= exponential function

$$(33) \int e^{ax} \sin bx \, dx = \frac{e^{ax}}{a^2 + b^2} (a \sin bx - b \cos bx) + c = \frac{e^{ax}}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \sin \left(bx - \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a} \right) + c$$

$$(34) \int e^{ax} \cos bx \, dx = \frac{e^{ax}}{a^2 + b^2} (a \cos bx + b \sin bx) + c = \frac{e^{ax}}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \cos \left(bx - \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a} \right) + c$$

$$(35) \int \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} \ dx = \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} \pm \frac{a^2}{2} \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} \right| + c$$

$$(36)\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \ dx = \frac{x}{2}\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} + \frac{a^2}{2}\sin^{-1}\frac{x}{a} + c$$

Definite Integral:-

(1) Definite integral as the limit of a sum

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{h \to 0} h \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} f(a + rh) = \lim_{h \to 0} h \sum_{r=1}^{n} f(a + rh) \text{ [where, nh=b-a]}$$

(2) Fundamental theorem of definite integral

If f(x) is integrable in $a \le x \le b \& f(x) = \emptyset'(x)$ then

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \emptyset(b) - \emptyset(a)$$

Remember: There is no integration constant in definite integrals.

Formulae on Definite Integrals:-

$$(1) \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(z) dz$$

$$(2) \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x) dx$$

$$(3) \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x) dx, \quad a < c < b$$

$$(4) \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx = \int_{0}^{a} f(a - x) dx$$

$$(5) \int_{0}^{na} f(x) dx = n \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx \quad \text{if } f(a + x) = f(x)$$

$$(6) \int_{0}^{2a} f(x) dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx, \quad \text{if } f(2a - x) = f(x) = 0, \quad \text{if } f(2a - x) = -f(x)$$

$$(7) \int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx, \quad \text{if } f(-x) = f(x) \text{ i.e. } f(x) \text{ is an even function}$$

$$= 0, \quad \text{if } f(-x) = -f(x) \text{ i.e. } f(x) \text{ is an odd function.}$$

$$(8) \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(a + b - x)$$

APPLIED CALCULUS

Tangent and Normal

(1) The equation of a tangent to a curve y = f(x) at a point $P(x_1, y_1)$ is given by

$$y - y_1 = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)_{(x_1, y_1)} (x - x_1)$$

(2) The equation of a normal to a curve y = f(x) at a point $P(x_1, y_1)$ is given by

$$y - y_1 = -\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)_{(x_1, y_1)} (x - x_1)$$

(3) The angle of intersection of two curves y = f(x) and y = g(x) is given by

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{f'(x) - g'(x)}{1 + f'(x)g'(x)}$$

Monotonic Functions

Increasing Function: A function f(x) is said to be an increasing function in (a, b) if

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2) \ \forall \ x_1, x_2 \in (a, b).$$

<u>Decreasing Function:</u> A function f(x) is said to be an decreasing function in (a, b) if

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) > f(x_2) \ \forall \ x_1, x_2 \in (a, b).$$

Monotonic Function:-

A function is said to be monotonic in an interval if it is either increasing or decreasing in that interval.

Theorem 1:- If f(x) be a function continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b) then

$$f'(x) > 0 \ \forall \ x \in (a,b) \implies f(x) \text{ is increasing in } (a,b)$$
.

Theorem 2:- If f(x) be a function continuous on [a,b] and differentiable on (a,b) then

$$f'(x) < 0 \ \forall \ x \in (a,b) \implies f(x)$$
 is decreasing in (a,b) .

Maxima and Minima

Working Rule (2nd Derivative Test)

(i) Find f'(x).

(ii) Solve f'(x)=0. Let its roots be a,b,c etc. Then, these are the candidates for maxima & minima. Let x=c be one of its points.

(iii) Find f''(c).

Now, if f''(c)<0, then x=c is a point of local maxima

if f''(c)>0, then x=c is a point of local minima

if f''(c)=0, then use the 1^{st} derivative test.

Working Rule (1st Derivative Test)

- (i) Find f'(x).
- (ii) Solve f'(x)=0. Let its roots be a,b,c etc. Then, these are the candidates for maxima & minima. Let x=c be one of its points.
- (iii) Determine the sign of f'(x) for values of x slightly < c and that for values of x slightly > c.

Area of Bounded Regions

Theorem 1:-

Let f(x) be continuous & finite in [a,b]. Then,

The area bounded by the curve y=f(x), the X-axis & the ordinates x=a & x=b, is equal to $\int_a^b y dx$.

Mathematically,

$$\int_{a}^{b} y \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

Theorem 2:-

Let f(y) be continuous & finite in [a,b]. Then,

The area bounded by the curve x=f(y), the Y-axis and the absicca y=c, y=d is equal to $\int_{c}^{d} x \, dy$.

Mathematically,

$$\int_{C}^{d} x \, dy = \int_{C}^{d} f(y) dy$$

Rolle's and Lagrange's Theorem

Rolle's Theorem:-

Let f(x) be a real valued function, defined in the closed interval [a,b] such that

- (i) f(x) is continuous in [a,b]
- (ii) f(x) is differentiable in [a,b]
- (iii) f(a)=f(b)

Then, there exists a real number c in (a,b) such that f'(c)=0.

Lagrange's MVT:-

Let f(x) be a real function such that

- (i) f(x) is continuous in [a,b]
- (ii) f(x) is differentiable in (a,b)

Then, there exists a real number $c \in (a,b)$ such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a}$

Dynamics

(1) The displacement x, velocity v & acceleration f at t times for a particle moving in a straight line.

Then,
$$v = \frac{dx}{dt} \& f = \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = v \frac{dv}{dx}$$

(2) Formulae of motion along a straight line of a particle with uniform acceleration

(i)
$$v = u + ft$$

(ii)
$$s = ut + \frac{1}{2}ft^2$$

(iii)
$$v^2 = u^2 + 2fs$$

(iv)
$$s_t = u + \frac{1}{2}f(2t - 1)$$

where, u=initial velocity of the particle

v=final velocity of the particle

s=distance covered by the particle upto t times

 s_t =distance covered by the particle at t-th sec

(3) Average velocity of a particle at any instant= $\frac{1}{2}$ (Initial velocity + Final velocity).

$$\therefore V = \frac{1}{2}(u+v)$$

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION

Serial no.	Form	Substitution	Full Differential
1.	$dx \pm dy$	$x \pm y = v$	$d(x \pm y)$
2.	x dx + y dy	$x^2 + y^2 = v$	$\frac{1}{2}d(x^2+y^2)$
3.	x dy + y dx	xy = v	d(xy)
4.	x dy - y dx	y = vx	$x^2d(\frac{y}{x})$
5.	ydx - xdy	x = vy	$y^2d(\frac{x}{y})$
6.	$\frac{xdy - ydx}{xy}$	$\log \left \frac{y}{x} \right = v$	$d(\log \left \frac{y}{x} \right)$
7.	$\frac{xdy - ydx}{x^2 + y^2}$	$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = v$	$d(\tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x})$
8.	$\frac{ydx - xdy}{x^2 + y^2}$	$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = v$	$d(\tan^{-1}\frac{x}{y})$
9.	$\frac{xdy - ydx}{\sqrt{1 - x^2y^2}}$	$\sin^{-1}(xy) = v$	$d(\sin^{-1}xy)$
10.	$\frac{xdx + ydy}{x^2 + y^2}$	$x^2 + y^2 = v$	$\frac{1}{2}d(\log x^2+y^2)$

Order of Differential Equation:-

Highest order derivative in a differential equation.

Degree of Differential Equation:-

Power of highest order derivative in a differential equation.

Techniques of solving a Differential Equation

$$\underline{\text{Type 1:-}} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$

$$dy = f(x)dx$$

$$\underline{\text{Type 2:-}} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = P(x)Q(y)$$

$$\frac{dy}{Q(y)} = P(x)dx$$

$$\underline{\text{Type 3:-}} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = P(x + y)$$

Let,
$$x + y = v$$
 so that $\left(1 + \frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{dv}{dx}$

<u>Type 4:-</u> $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f(x,y)}{g(x,y)}$ [Homogeneous function]

Let,
$$y = vx$$
 so that $\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$

$$\underline{\text{Type 5:-}} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

(i) Find I. F. =
$$e^{\int P(x)dx}$$

(ii) The solution is
$$y \times (I.F.) = \int [Q(x) \times (I.F.)] dx + C$$

Type 6:-
$$\frac{dx}{dy} + P(y)x = Q(y)$$

(i) Find I. F. =
$$e^{\int P(y)dy}$$

(ii) The solution is
$$x \times (I.F.) = \int [Q(y) \times (I.F.)] dy + C$$

CO-ORDINATE GEOMETRY

Cartesian & Polar Co-ordinates

(1) Basic Form:-

Cartesian co-ordinate $\rightarrow (x, y)$

Polar co-ordinate $\rightarrow (r, \theta)$

(2)
$$x = r \cos \theta$$
, $y = r \sin \theta$

&
$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
, $\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$

- (3) Distance between $P(x_1, y_1) \& Q(x_2, y_2)$ is $PQ = \sqrt{(x_2 x_1)^2 + (y_2 y_1)^2}$
- (4) The co ordinate of R which divides PQ internally (or, externally) in the ratio m: n is $\left(\frac{mx_2 \pm nx_1}{m+n}, \frac{my_2 \pm ny_1}{m+n}\right)$
- (5) The mid point of $P(x_1, y_1) \& Q(x_2, y_2)$ is $\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}\right)$
- (6) The centroid of $\triangle ABC$ with vertices $A(x_1, y_1), B(x_2, y_2) \& C(x_3, y_3)$ is $\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3}{3}, \frac{y_1 + y_2 + y_3}{3}\right)$
- (7) The area of $\triangle ABC$ is

$$= \frac{1}{2}|y_1(x_2 - x_3) + y_2(x_3 - x_1) + y_3(x_1 - x_2)| unit^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}|x_1(y_2 - y_3) + x_2(y_3 - y_1) + x_3(y_1 - y_2)| unit^2$$

(8) Three points $A(x_1, y_1)$, $B(x_2, y_2)$ & $C(x_3, y_3)$ will be collinear if

$$y_1(x_2-x_3) + y_2(x_3-x_1) + y_3(x_1-x_2) = 0$$

Straight Line

- (1) The gradient (or, slope) of a straight line in the direction of positive X-axis with angle θ is $m=\tan\theta$.
- (2) The slope of a straight line joining the points $A(x_1, y_1) \& B(x_2, y_2)$ is $m = \frac{y_1 y_2}{x_1 x_2}$
- (3) (i) $y = 0 \rightarrow equation \ of \ X axis$

(ii)
$$y = b \rightarrow || X - axis$$

(iii)
$$x = 0 \rightarrow equation \ of \ Y - axis$$

(iv)
$$x = a \rightarrow || Y - axis$$

(4) Forms of straight line

- (i) General form: ax + by + c = 0 [a & b must not be zero simultaneously]
- (ii) Slope intercept form: y = mx + c
- (iii) $Point slope form: y y_1 = m (x x_1)$

(iv)
$$Two - point form: \frac{y-y_1}{x-x_1} = \frac{y_1-y_2}{x_1-x_2}$$

(v) Intercept form:
$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$$

(vi) Symmetrical form:
$$\frac{y-y_1}{\sin \theta} = \frac{x-x_1}{\cos \theta} = r$$

(vii) Normal form: $x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha = p$, (p > 0)

where, m = slope

c = y - intercept

a = x - intercept

b = y - intercept

 θ = inclination of the straight line

 $r = distance\ between\ (x, y) \&\ (x_1, y_1)$

 α = the inclination of the straight line with the \perp from origin in the direction of positive X-axis.

 $p = \bot$ distance of the straight line from origin

- (5) The equation of the straight line passes through the intersecting point of $a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0$ & $a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$ is $a_1x + b_1y + c_1 + k(a_2x + b_2y + c_2) = 0$ [where, $k \neq 0$, ∞].
- (6) Three lines will be concurrent if one of these three lines passes through the intersecting point of other two lines.
- (7) The angle between two straight lines $y = m_1x + c_1 \& y = m_2x + c_2$ is φ .

Then,
$$\tan \varphi = \left| \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right|$$

- (8) If two straight lines $y = m_1 x + c_1 \& y = m_2 x + c_2$ are $\| \cdot \|$, then $m_1 = m_2$
- (9) The equation of $\|$ line of the straight line ax + by + c = 0 is ax + by + k = 0 [where, k = constant].
- (10) If two straight lines $y = m_1x + c_1 \& y = m_2x + c_2$ are \perp , then $m_1m_2 = -1$
- (11) The equation of \perp on the straight line ax + by + c = 0 is bx ay + k = 0 [where, k = constant].

(12)

The two points $P(x_1, y_1)$ & $Q(x_2, y_2)$ will be situated in the same side of the straight line ax + by + c = 0 if the expressions $(ax_1 + by_1 + c)$ & $(ax_2 + by_2 + c)$ have same sign. Otherwise, P & Q will be situated in the opposite side of the line ax + by + c = 0.

(13) If $c \& (ax_1 + by_1 + c)$ have same sign, then

 $P(x_1, y_1)$ will be situated in the side of the line ax + by + c = 0 in which the origin (0,0) exists.

Otherwise, $P(x_1, y_1)$ will be situated in the opposite side of the line ax + by + c = 0 in which the origin (0,0) exists.

(14) The \perp distance from the external point $P(x_1, y_1)$ to the line ax + by + c = 0 is $\frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + c|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}.$

(15) The equation of bisectors of angles between two given straight lines

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0 \& a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$$
 are

$$\frac{a_1x + b_1y + c_1}{\sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2}} = \pm \frac{a_2x + b_2y + c_2}{\sqrt{a_2^2 + b_2^2}}$$

If $c_1 \& c_2$ have same sign, then (+ve) sign is taken, otherwise (-ve) sign is taken.

(16) The distance between two \parallel lines is $\frac{|c-k|}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}}$.

Circle

- (1) Forms of Circle:-
 - (i) $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$; centre \rightarrow (0,0), radius \rightarrow a
 - (ii) Parametric equation: $x = a \cos \theta$; $y = a \sin \theta$
 - (iii) Centre radius form: $(x \alpha)^2 + (y \beta)^2 = a^2$; centre $\rightarrow (\alpha, \beta)$, radius $\rightarrow a$
 - (iv) General form: $x^2 + y^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$; centre $\to (-g, -f)$,

 $radius \rightarrow \sqrt{g^2 + f^2 - c}, \ x - intercept \rightarrow 2\sqrt{g^2 - c}, \ y - intercept \rightarrow 2\sqrt{f^2 - c}.$

If c = 0, the circle passes through the origin;

if f = 0, its centre lies on the X - axis, if g = 0, its centre lies on the Y - axis.

(2) Equation of the circle with the join of two points $(x_1, y_1) & (x_2, y_2)$ as diameter is

$$(x-x_1)(x-x_2) + (y-y_1)(y-y_2) = 0$$

- (3) Any point on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ is $(a \cos \theta, b \sin \theta)$.
- (4) The equation of the concentric circle with the circle $x^2 + y^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$ is

$$x^2 + v^2 + 2ax + 2fv + c' = 0$$

(5) Let's consider two circles ----

$$x^2 + y^2 + 2g_2x + 2f_2y + c_2 = 0 \dots (ii)$$

- (i) The equation of the circle passes through the intersecting points of (i) & (ii) is $x^2 + y^2 + 2g_1x + 2f_1y + c_1 + k(x^2 + y^2 + 2g_2x + 2f_2y + c_2) = 0$ $[k \neq -1]$
- (ii) The equation of the common chord of (i) & (ii) is $2(g_1 g_2)x + 2(f_1 f_2)y + (c_1 c_2) = 0$
- (iii) The condition that the two circle (i) & (ii) will cut orthogonally is $2g_1g_2 + 2f_1f_2 = c_1 + c_2$

$$x^{2} + y^{2} + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$$
 and the line $ax + by + c = 0$ is
$$x^{2} + y^{2} + 2gx + 2fy + c + k(ax + by + c) = 0$$
 [where $k = constant$].

(7) The position of a point
$$P(x_1, y_1)$$
 w.r.t. the circle $x^2 + y^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$

If
$$x_1^2 + y_1^2 + 2gx_1 + 2fy_1 + c > 0$$
, then outside the circle

= 0, then on the circle

< 0, then inside the circle

(8) (i) The equation of tangent to the circle
$$x^2 + y^2 = a^2$$
 at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is
$$xx_1 + yy_1 = a^2$$
 & its length is
$$\sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2 - a^2}.$$

(ii) The equation of tangent to the circle
$$x^2 + y^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$$
 at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $xx_1 + yy_1 + g(x + x_1) + f(y + y_1) + c = 0$ & its length is $\sqrt{x_1^2 + y_1^2 + 2gx_1 + 2fy_1 + c}$.

(9) (i) The equation of normal to the circle
$$x^2 + y^2 = a^2$$
 at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $xy_1 - x_1y = 0$.

(ii) The equation of normal to the circle
$$x^2 + y^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0$$
 at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $(x_1 + g)(y - y_1) = (y_1 + f)(x - x_1)$.

(10) (i) If the circle
$$(x - \alpha)^2 + (y - \beta)^2 = a^2$$
 touches $X - axis$, then its equation will be $(x - \alpha)^2 + (y - a)^2 = a^2$.

(ii) If the circle
$$(x - \alpha)^2 + (y - \beta)^2 = a^2$$
 touches $Y - axis$, then its equation will be $(x - a)^2 + (y - \beta)^2 = a^2$.

(iii) If the circle
$$(x - \alpha)^2 + (y - \beta)^2 = a^2$$
 touches both the axes, then its eqn will be $(x - a)^2 + (y - a)^2 = a^2$.

(11) Two circles will touch each other externally if

the distance between their centres = $r_1 + r_2$.

(12) Two circles will touch each other internally if

the distance between their centres = $r_1 - r_2$.

Parabola

a = distance between vertex to focus & a > 0

Equation	<u>Vertex</u>	<u>Axis</u>	<u>Focus</u>	Length of Latus Rectum	Equation of Directrix	Vertices of Latus Rectum
$y^2 = 4ax$	(0,0)	+ve X - axis	(a, 0)	4 <i>a</i>	x + a = 0	$(a,\pm 2a)$
$y^2 = -4ax$	(0,0)	$-ve\ X - axis$	(-a, 0)	4 <i>a</i>	x-a=0	$(-a,\pm 2a)$

$x^2 = 4ay$	(0,0)	$+ve\ Y-axis$	(0, a)	4 <i>a</i>	y + a = 0	(±2a, a)
$x^2 = -4ay$	(0,0)	$-ve\ Y - axis$	(0, -a)	4 <i>a</i>	y - a = 0	$(\pm 2a, -a)$
$(y-\beta)^2 = 4a(x-\alpha)$	(α,β)	$\parallel X - axis$	$(a + \alpha, \beta)$	4 <i>a</i>	$x + a = \alpha$	$(\alpha + a, \beta \pm 2a)$
$(x-\alpha)^2$ $= 4a(y-\beta)$	(α,β)	Y-axis	$(\alpha, \alpha + \beta)$	4 <i>a</i>	$y + a = \beta$	$(\alpha \pm 2a, \beta + a)$

- (1) The parabola $x = ay^2 + by + c$ ($a \neq 0$) is || to X axis
- (2) The parabola $y = px^2 + qx + r (p \neq 0)$ is || to Y axis
- (3) The parametric of $y^2 = 4ax$ is $(at^2, 2at)$
- (4) The position of a point $P(x_1, y_1)$ w.r.t $y^2 = 4ax$

If
$$y_1^2 - 4ax_1 > 0$$
, then outside the parabola

- = 0, then on the parabola
- < 0, then inside the parabola
- (5) The equation of tangent of the parabola $y^2 = 4ax$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $yy_1 = 2a(x + x_1)$.
- (6) The equation of normal of the parabola $y^2 = 4ax$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $y_1(x x_1) + 2a(y y_1) = 0$.

Ellipse

- (1) If P(x,y) be a point on the foci S & S', then SP = a ex; S'P = a + ex; SP + S'P = 2a.
- (2) The equation of auxiliary circle of $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ ($a^2 > b^2$) is $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$.
- (3) Any point on the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ $(a^2 > b^2)$ is $(a\cos\theta, b\sin\theta)$.
- (4) The position of a point $P(x_1, y_1)$ w.r.t the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ $(a^2 > b^2)$

If
$$\frac{{x_1}^2}{a^2} + \frac{{y_1}^2}{b^2} - 1 > 0$$
, then outside the ellipse

- = 0, then on the ellipse
- < 0, then inside the ellipse
- (5) The equation of tangent of the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $\frac{xx_1}{a^2} + \frac{yy_1}{b^2} = 1$.
- (6) The equation of normal of the ellipse $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $b^2 x_1 (y y_1) = a^2 y_1 (x x_1)$.

<u>Form</u>	x^2 y^2	x^2 y^2	$(x-\alpha)^2$ $(y-\beta)^2$	$(x-\alpha)^2$ $(y-\beta)^2$
	$\begin{vmatrix} \overline{a^2} + \overline{b^2} \\ = 1 (a^2 > b^2) \end{vmatrix}$	$\overline{b^2}^+ \overline{a^2}$ = 1 (a ² > b ²)	$\frac{a^2}{a^2} + \frac{b^2}{b^2}$ = 1 ($a^2 > b^2$)	$\frac{a^2}{b^2} + \frac{a^2}{a^2} = 1 (a^2 > b^2)$
<u>Centre</u>	(0,0)	(0,0)	(α, β)	(α, β)

<u>Foci</u>	(±ae,0)	$(0, \pm ae)$	$(\alpha \pm ae, \beta)$	$(\alpha, \beta \pm ae)$
Eccentricity (e)		V	$e = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$	$e = \sqrt{1 - \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$ $\frac{2b^2}{a^2}$
Length of	$2b^2$	$2b^2$	$2b^2$	$2b^2$
<u>Latus</u>	a	\overline{a}	\overline{a}	\overline{a}
Rectum				
Length of	2 <i>a</i>	2 <i>a</i>	2 <i>a</i>	2 <i>a</i>
Major axis				
Length of	2 <i>b</i>	2 <i>b</i>	2 <i>b</i>	2 <i>b</i>
Minor axis				
Equation of	y = 0	x = 0	$y = \beta$	$x = \alpha$
Major axis				
Equation of	x = 0	y = 0	$x = \alpha$	$y = \beta$
Minor axis				
Equation of	$x \pm \frac{a}{e} = 0$	$y\pm\frac{a}{e}=0$	$x + \frac{\alpha}{-} = \alpha$	$y \pm \frac{a}{e} = \beta$
the Directrix	n = e	y = e	$x \pm \frac{\pi}{e} = \alpha$	$y = e^{-p}$
<u>Vertices of</u>	$\left(\begin{array}{cc} b^2 \end{array}\right)$	$\left(\pm \frac{b^2}{a}$, $ae\right)$	$\left(\alpha + ae_{1}\beta \pm \frac{b^{2}}{a}\right)$	$\left(\alpha \pm \frac{b^2}{a}, \beta + ae\right)$
<u>Latus</u>	$\left(\begin{array}{c} \left(ae,\pm\frac{a}{a}\right) \end{array}\right)$	$\left(\pm \frac{\pi}{a}, ae\right)$	$\left(\alpha + ae, p \pm \overline{a}\right)$	$\left(\alpha \pm \frac{\pi}{a}, \beta + ae\right)$
<u>Rectum</u>	` '	`	$(\alpha - ae, \beta \pm \frac{b^2}{a})$	b^2
	$\left(-ae,\pm\frac{a}{a}\right)$	$\left(\pm \frac{b^2}{a}, -ae\right)$	$\left(\alpha - ae, \beta \pm \frac{1}{a}\right)$	$\left(\alpha \pm \frac{b^2}{a}, \beta - ae \right)$
<u>Parametric</u>	$(a\cos\theta,b\sin\theta)$	$(b\cos\theta, a\sin\theta)$	$(\alpha + a\cos\theta, \beta + b\sin\theta)$	$(\alpha + b\cos\theta, \beta + a\sin\theta)$
	$-\pi < \theta \le \pi$	$-\pi < \theta \le \pi$	$-\pi < \theta \le \pi$	$-\pi < \theta \le \pi$

 $(\alpha \pm a, \beta)$

 $(\alpha, \beta \pm a)$

 $(0,\pm a)$

 $(\pm a,0)$

Hyperbola

<u>Vertices</u>

<u>Form</u>	$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$	$\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1$	$\frac{(x-\alpha)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y-\beta)^2}{b^2} = 1$
<u>Centre</u>	(0,0)	(0,0)	(α, β)
<u>Vertices</u>	$(\pm a,0)$	$(0,\pm a)$	$(\alpha \pm a, \beta)$
<u>Foci</u>	(±ae,0)	(0, ±ae)	$(\alpha \pm ae, \beta)$
Eccentricity (e)	$e = \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$	$(0, \pm a)$ $(0, \pm ae)$ $e = \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$ $\frac{2b^2}{a}$ $2a$	$e = \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2}{a^2}}$ $\frac{2b^2}{a}$ $2a$
Length of Latus	$2b^{2}$	$2b^{2}$	$2b^2$
Rectum	\overline{a}	$\frac{}{a}$	$\frac{}{a}$
Length of	2 <i>a</i>	2 <i>a</i>	2 <i>a</i>
Transverse axis			
Length of	2 <i>b</i>	2 <i>b</i>	2 <i>b</i>
Conjugate axis			
Equation of	y = 0	x = 0	$y = \beta$
Transverse axis			
Equation of	x = 0	y = 0	$x = \alpha$
Conjugate axis			
Equation of	$x\pm\frac{a}{e}=0$	$y \pm \frac{a}{e} = 0$	$x \pm \frac{a}{e} = \alpha$
<u>Directrix</u>	e	e	e
Vertices of	b^2	b^2	b^2
<u>Latus Rectum</u>	$\left(ae,\pm\frac{b^2}{a}\right)$	$\left(\pm \frac{b^2}{a}, ae\right)$	$\left(\alpha + ae, \beta \pm \frac{b^2}{a}\right)$

	$\left(-ae_1\pm\frac{b^2}{a}\right)$	$\left(\pm \frac{b^2}{a}, -ae\right)$	$\left(\alpha - ae, \beta \pm \frac{b^2}{a}\right)$
<u>Parametric</u>	$(a \sec \theta, b \tan \theta)$	$(b \tan \theta, a \sec \theta)$	$(\alpha + a \sec \theta, \beta + b \tan \theta)$

- (1) If P(x,y) be a point on the foci S & S', then SP = ex a; S'P = ex + a; SP S'P = 2a.
- (2) Any point on the hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ is $(a \sec \theta, b \tan \theta)$.
- (3) The rectangular hyperbola is $x^2 y^2 = a^2$.

Its transverse axis $\rightarrow X - axis$; Conjugate axis $\rightarrow Y - axis$

Eccentricity $\rightarrow \sqrt{2}$; Length of $T - axis \& C - axis \rightarrow 2a$.

- (4) The two hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \& \frac{y^2}{b^2} \frac{x^2}{a^2} = 1$ are conjugate to each other. Eccentricity $\to b^2 = a^2(e_1^2 - 1)$; $a^2 = b^2(e_2^2 - 1)$.
- (5) The position of a point $P(x_1, y_1)$ w.r.t. the hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$

If $\frac{{x_1}^2}{a^2} - \frac{{y_1}^2}{b^2} - 1 > 0$, then inside the hyperbola

= 0, then on the hyperbola

< 0 , then outside the hyperbola

- (6) The equation of tangent of the hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $\frac{xx_1}{a^2} \frac{yy_1}{b^2} = 1$.
- (7) The equation of normal of the hyperbola $\frac{x^2}{a^2} \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ at $P(x_1, y_1)$ is $b^2 x_1 (y y_1) + a^2 y_1 (x x_1) = 0$.

Classification of Curves:-

Let us consider a second degree curve in x, y as

 $ax^2 + 2hxy + by^2 + 2gx + 2fy + c = 0...(i)$ [at least one of a, h, b is non – zero constant]

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix} = abc + 2fgh - af^2 - bg^2 - ch^2$$

Identification of Curves:-

The above equation (i) represents

- (i) A parabola if $\Delta \neq 0 \& h^2 = ab$.
- (ii) An ellipse if $\Delta \neq 0 \& h^2 < ab$.
- (iii) A hyperbola if $\Delta \neq 0 \& h^2 > ab$.
- (iv) A pair of straight lines if $\Delta = 0 \& h^2 \ge ab$.
- (v) A unique point if $\Delta = 0 \& h^2 < ab$.

(vi) A circle if $a = b \neq 0$, $h = 0 \& (g^2 + f^2 - ac) > 0$ i.e., a = b > 0, $h = 0 \& (a^2c - ag^2 - af^2) < 0$.

3-D GEOMETRY

Fundamentals of 3-D Geometry

(1) Distance between two points $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is

$$PQ = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}.$$

(2) The co-ordinate of the point R which divides the join of the points

 $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ internally in the ratio m:n are

$$\left(\frac{mx_2 + nx_1}{m + n}, \frac{my_2 + ny_1}{m + n}, \frac{mz_2 + nz_1}{m + n}\right).$$

(3) The co-ordinate of the point R which divides the join of the points

 $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ externally in the ratio m:n are

$$\left(\frac{mx_2 - nx_1}{m - n}, \frac{my_2 - ny_1}{m - n}, \frac{mz_2 - nz_1}{m - n}\right).$$

(4) The co-ordinates of the mid point of PQ are

$$\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}, \frac{z_1 + z_2}{2}\right)$$

(5) If $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$, $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ and $C(x_3, y_3, z_3)$ be the vertices of $\triangle ABC$, then the coordinates of the centroid G of $\triangle ABC$ are

$$\left(\frac{x_1+x_2+x_3}{3}, \frac{y_1+y_2+y_3}{3}, \frac{z_1+z_2+z_3}{3}\right).$$

- (6) (i) Equation of XY plane is z = 0.
 - (ii) Equation of YZ plane is x = 0.
 - (iii) Equation of ZX plane is y = 0.
- (7) (i) If a point lies on XY plane, then its co ordinates are (x, y, 0).
 - (ii) If a point lies on YZ plane, then its co ordinates are (0, y, z).
 - (iii) If a point lies on ZX plane, then its co ordinates are (x, 0, z).
- (8) (i) Direction cosines of X axis are 1,0,0.
 - (ii) Direction cosines of Y axis are 0,1,0.
 - (iii) Direction cosines of Z axis are 0,0,1.
- (9) If l, m, n be the direction cosines of any line, then $l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 1$.
- (10) $l = \cos \alpha$, $m = \cos \beta$, $n = \cos \gamma$.
- (11) $\cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \beta + \cos^2 \gamma = 1$.
- (12) If a, b, c be three numbers proportional to the actual direction cosines

l, *m*, *n* of a straight line, then

$$\frac{l}{a} = \frac{m}{b} = \frac{n}{c} = \pm \frac{\sqrt{l^2 + m^2 + n^2}}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

(13)
$$l = \pm \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$
; $m = \pm \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$; $n = \pm \frac{c}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$.

- (14) The direction cosines of the join of the two points $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ are $\frac{x_2-x_1}{PO}, \frac{y_2-y_1}{PO}, \frac{z_2-z_1}{PO}$.
- (15) The direction ratios of the line joining two points $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ are $x_2 x_1, y_2 y_1, z_2 z_1$.
- (16) If θ be the angle between two lines, then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\sum a_1 a_2}{\sqrt{\sum a_1^2} \sqrt{\sum a_2^2}}.$$
 [where, $a_1 = l_1$, m_1 , n_1 ; $a_2 = l_2$, m_2 , n_2].

$$\cos \theta = l_1 l_2 + m_1 m_2 + n_1 n_2; \ \sin \theta = \sqrt{\sum (m_1 n_2 - m_2 n_1)^2}$$

(17) Two lines with direction cosines l_1 , m_1 , n_1 & l_2 , m_2 , n_2 will be parallel if

$$\frac{l_1}{l_2} = \frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{n_1}{n_2}.$$

- (18) Two lines with direction cosines l_1 , m_1 , n_1 & l_2 , m_2 , n_2 will be perpendicular if $l_1l_2 + m_1m_2 + n_1n_2 = 0$.
- (19) If $\vec{r} = a\hat{\imath} + b\hat{\jmath} + c\hat{k}$, then direction ratios of r are a, b, c.
- (20) The projection of line segment joining $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ on a line whose direction cosines are l, m, n is given by

$$l(x_2-x_1)+m(y_2-y_1)+n(z_2-z_1).$$

Straight Line in Space

- (1) If a line passes through a point with position vector $\overrightarrow{r_1}$ and it is parallel to \overrightarrow{m} then its vector equation is $\overrightarrow{r} = \overrightarrow{r_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{m}$
- (2) If a line passes through a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and it has d.r.'s a, b, c then its cartesian equations are

$$\frac{x-x_1}{a} = \frac{y-y_1}{b} = \frac{z-z_1}{c}$$

(3) If a line passes through two points having $p.v.'s \overrightarrow{r_1}$ and $\overrightarrow{r_2}$, then its vector equation is

$$\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{r_1} + \lambda (\overrightarrow{r_2} - \overrightarrow{r_1})$$

(4) If a line passes through two points $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ then its cartesian equations are

$$\frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{y - y_1}{y_2 - y_1} = \frac{z - z_1}{z_2 - z_1}$$

(5) The condition for three given points $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$, $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ and $C(x_3, y_3, z_3)$ to be collinear is that

$$\frac{x_3 - x_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{y_3 - y_1}{y_2 - y_1} = \frac{z_3 - z_1}{z_2 - z_1}$$

(6) Three points A, B and C with p, v.' s \vec{a} , \vec{b} and \vec{c} respectively are collinear if f there exist scalars d_1 , d_2 , d_3 not all zero such that

$$d_1\vec{a} + d_2\vec{b} + d_3\vec{c} = \vec{0}$$
 and $d_1 + d_2 + d_3 = 0$

(7) If θ is the angle between the lines $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{r_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{m_1}$ and $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{r_2} + \mu \overrightarrow{m_2}$ then

$$\cos\theta = \frac{|\overrightarrow{m_1}.\overrightarrow{m_2}|}{|\overrightarrow{m_1}||\overrightarrow{m_2}|}$$

(8) If θ is the angle between the lines whose cartesian equations are

$$\frac{x - x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y - y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z - z_1}{c_1}$$
 and $\frac{x - x_2}{a_2} = \frac{y - y_2}{b_2} = \frac{z - z_2}{c_2}$ then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{|a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + c_1 c_2|}{\left(\sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2 + c_1^2}\right) \left(\sqrt{a_2^2 + b_2^2 + c_2^2}\right)}$$

(9) The shortest distance between two skew (non – coplanar) lines $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{b_1}$ and $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_2} + \mu \overrightarrow{b_2}$ is given by

$$d = \left| \frac{(\overrightarrow{a_2} - \overrightarrow{a_1}) \cdot (\overrightarrow{b_1} \times \overrightarrow{b_2})}{|\overrightarrow{b_1} \times \overrightarrow{b_2}|} \right|$$

If the lines intersect each other then the shortest distance between them is zero.

(10) The distance between two parallel lines $\vec{r} = \vec{a_1} + \lambda \vec{b}$ and $\vec{r} = \vec{a_2} + \mu \vec{b}$ is given by

$$D = \left| \frac{\vec{b} \times (\vec{a_2} - \vec{a_1})}{\vec{b}} \right|$$

(11) The shortest distance between two skew lines

$$\frac{x - x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y - y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z - z_1}{c_1}$$
 and $\frac{x - x_2}{a_2} = \frac{y - y_2}{b_2} = \frac{z - z_2}{c_2}$ is given by

$$SD = \frac{\begin{vmatrix} x_2 - x_1 & y_2 - y_1 & z_2 - z_1 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}}{\sqrt{[(a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)^2 + (b_1c_2 - b_2c_1)^2 + (c_1a_2 - c_2a_1)^2]}}$$

The two lines mentioned above will intersect if SD = 0, i.e.,

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_2 - x_1 & y_2 - y_1 & z_2 - z_1 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

The Plane

- (1) The general equation of a plane is ax + by + cz + d = 0. The d.r.'s of the normal to the plane are a,b,c.
- (2) The equation of the plane passing through the point $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ is $a(x x_1) + b(y y_1) + c(z z_1) = 0$.
- (3) If a plane makes intercepts a, b and c with the X axis, Y axis and Z axis respectively, then its equation is $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$.
- (4) The equation of a plane passing through three points $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$, $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ and $C(x_3, y_3, z_3)$ is given by

$$\begin{vmatrix} x - x_1 & y - y_1 & z - z_1 \\ x_2 - x_1 & y_2 - y_1 & z_2 - z_1 \\ x_3 - x_1 & y_3 - y_1 & z_3 - z_1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

(5) (i) Let a plane be at a distance p from the origin and let \hat{n} be a unit vector perpendicular to the plane.

Then, equation of the plane is $\vec{r} \cdot \hat{n} = p$.

- (ii) The cartesian form of equation of this plane is lx + my + nz = p, where l, m, n are the d.c.' s of normal to the plane.
 - (iii) If \vec{n} is a vector normal to a given plane then $\vec{r} \cdot \hat{n} = q$ represents a plane.
 - (iv) The cartesian form is ax + by + cz + d = 0, where a, b, c are the d.r.' s of \vec{n} .
- (6) (i) The vector equation of a plane passing through a point A with p. v. \vec{a} and perpendicular to \vec{n} is $(\vec{r} \vec{a}) \cdot \vec{n} = 0$.
- (ii) The cartesian equation of a plane passing through a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and perpendicular to a line having d.r.'s a,b,c is

$$a(x-x_1) + b(y-y_1) + c(z-z_1) = 0.$$

(7) Distance of a Plane from a point

Vector Form

(i) Let p be the length of perpendicular drawn from a point P with p. v. \vec{a} to the plane $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$. Then,

$$p=\frac{|\vec{a}.\vec{n}-q|}{|\vec{n}|}.$$

(ii) Let p be the length of perpendicular drawn from the origin to the plane $\vec{r}.\,\vec{n}=q.\,Then,$

$$p=\frac{|q|}{|\vec{n}|}.$$

Cartesian Form

(i) Let p be the length of perpendicular drawn from a point $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ to the plane ax + by + cz + d = 0. Then,

$$p = \frac{|ax_1 + by_1 + cz_1 + d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

(ii) Let p be the length of perpendicular drawn from the origin to the plane ax + by + cz + d = 0. Then,

$$p = \frac{|d|}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

(8) Equation of a Plane parallel to a given Plane

Vector Form

Any plane parallel to \vec{r} . $\vec{n}=q_1$ is given by \vec{r} . $\vec{n}=q_2$, where the constant q_2 is determined by a given condition.

Cartesian Form

Any plane parallel to ax + by + cz + d = 0 is given by ax + by + cz + k = 0, where the constant k is determined by a given condition.

(9) Plane passing through the intersection of two planes

Vector Form

The vector equation of a plane passing through the intersection of two planes $\vec{r}.\vec{n_1}=q_1$ and $\vec{r}.\vec{n_2}=q_2$ is given by

$$\vec{r} \cdot (\overrightarrow{n_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{n_2}) = (q_1 + \lambda q_2).$$

Cartesian Form

The equation of a plane passing through the intersection of two planes

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 = 0$$
 and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ is given by
$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 + \lambda(a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2) = 0.$$

(10) Equation of a Plane passing through Three Non-collinear Points

Vector Form

The vector equation of a plane passing through three non — collinear points having $p.v.'s \vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$ is given by

$$(\vec{r}-\vec{a}).[(\vec{b}-\vec{a})\times(\vec{c}-\vec{a})]=0.$$

Cartesian Form

The cartesian equation of a plane passing through three non – collinear points $A(x_1, y_1, z_1), B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ and $C(x_3, y_3, z_3)$ is given by

$$\begin{vmatrix} x - x_1 & y - y_1 & z - z_1 \\ x_2 - x_1 & y_2 - y_1 & z_2 - z_1 \\ x_3 - x_1 & y_3 - y_1 & z_3 - z_1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

(11) Angle between two Planes

Vector Form

The acute angle θ between the planes $\vec{r}.\vec{n_1} = q_1$ and $\vec{r}.\vec{n_2} = q_2$ is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{|\overrightarrow{n_1}.\overrightarrow{n_2}|}{|\overrightarrow{n_1}||\overrightarrow{n_2}|}.$$

- (i) Two planes $\vec{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{n_1} = q_1$ and $\vec{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{n_2} = q_2$ are perpendicular to each other $\iff \overrightarrow{n_1} \cdot \overrightarrow{n_2} = 0$.
- (ii) Two planes $\vec{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{n_1} = q_1$ and $\vec{r} \cdot \overrightarrow{n_2} = q_2$ are parallel to each other $\iff \overrightarrow{n_1} = \lambda \overrightarrow{n_2}$ for some scalar λ .
- (iii) Any plane parallel to $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$ and passing through a point with $p \cdot v \cdot \vec{a}$ is $(\vec{r} \vec{a}) \cdot \vec{n} = 0$.

Cartesian Form

The acute angle θ between the planes $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{|a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + c_1 c_2|}{\left(\sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2 + c_1^2}\right)\left(\sqrt{a_2^2 + b_2^2 + c_2^2}\right)}$$

- (i) Two planes $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ are perpendicular to each other $\Leftrightarrow a_1a_2 + b_1b_2 + c_1c_2 = 0$.
- (ii) Two planes $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1 = 0$ and $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ are parallel to each other $\Leftrightarrow \frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$.
- (iii) The equation of a plane passing through the point (x_1, y_1, z_1) and parallel to the plane ax + by + cz + d = 0 is given by

$$a(x-x_1) + b(y-y_1) + c(z-z_1) = 0.$$

(iv) Any plane parallel to the yz – plane is $x = \lambda$. Any plane parallel to the xz – plane is $y = \lambda$. Any plane parallel to the xy – plane is $z = \lambda$.

(12) Angle between a line and a plane

Vector Form

- (i) If Φ is the angle between the line $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda \vec{b}$ and the plane $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$ then, $\sin \Phi = \frac{|\vec{b} \cdot \vec{n}|}{|\vec{b}||\vec{n}|}$.
- (ii) The line $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda \vec{b}$ is perpendicular to the plane $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$ only when $\vec{b} = t\vec{n}$ for some scalar t.
- (iii) (a) The line $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda \vec{b}$ is parallel to the plane $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$ only when $\vec{b} \cdot \vec{n} = 0$. (b) If the line $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda \vec{b}$ is parallel to the plane $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n} = q$ then the distance between them is $\frac{|\vec{a} \cdot \vec{n} - q|}{|\vec{n}|}$.

Cartesian Form

(i) If Φ is the angle between the line $\frac{x-x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y-y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z-z_1}{c_1}$ and the plane $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ then

$$\sin \Phi = \frac{|a_1 a_2 + b_1 b_2 + c_1 c_2|}{\left(\sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2 + c_1^2}\right)\left(\sqrt{a_2^2 + b_2^2 + c_2^2}\right)}$$

- (ii) The line $\frac{x-x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y-y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z-z_1}{c_1}$ is perpendicular to the plane $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ only when $\frac{a_1}{a_2} = \frac{b_1}{b_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$.
- (iii) The line $\frac{x-x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y-y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z-z_1}{c_1}$ is perpendicular to the plane $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2 = 0$ only when $a_1a_2 + b_1b_2 + c_1c_2 = 0$.

(13) Equation of a Plane passing through a given point and parallel to two given Lines

Vector Form

The vector equation of a plane passing through a point having p.v. \vec{a} and parallel to the vectors \vec{b} and \vec{c} is given by

$$(\vec{r}-\vec{a}).(\vec{b}\times\vec{c})=0.$$

Cartesian Form

The cartesian equation of a plane passing through a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and parallel to two non – parallel lines having d.r.'s b_1, b_2, b_3 and c_1, c_2, c_3 is given by

$$\begin{vmatrix} x - x_1 & y - y_1 & z - z_1 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

(14) Condition for the Coplanarity of two Lines

Vector Form

- (i) Two lines $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{b_1}$ and $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_2} + \lambda \overrightarrow{b_2}$ are coplanar only when $(\overrightarrow{a_2} \overrightarrow{a_1}) \cdot (\overrightarrow{b_1} \times \overrightarrow{b_2}) = 0$.
- (ii) If two lines $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_1} + \lambda \overrightarrow{b_1}$ and $\vec{r} = \overrightarrow{a_2} + \lambda \overrightarrow{b_2}$ are coplanar, then the equation of the plane containing both of these lines is given by

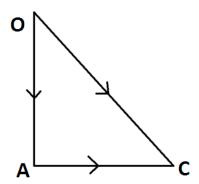
$$[(\vec{r} - \overrightarrow{a_1}).(\overrightarrow{b_1} \times \overrightarrow{b_2}) = 0]$$
 or $[(\vec{r} - \overrightarrow{a_2}).(\overrightarrow{b_1} \times \overrightarrow{b_2}) = 0].$

Cartesian Form

- (i) Two lines $\frac{x-x_1}{a_1} = \frac{y-y_1}{b_1} = \frac{z-z_1}{c_1}$ and $\frac{x-x_2}{a_2} = \frac{y-y_2}{b_2} = \frac{z-z_2}{c_2}$ are coplanar only when $\begin{vmatrix} x_2 x_1 & y_2 y_1 & z_2 z_1 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$
- (ii) The equation of the common plane is $\begin{vmatrix} x x_1 & y y_1 & z z_1 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \text{ or } \begin{vmatrix} x x_2 & y y_2 & z z_2 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$

VECTOR

- (1) The unit vector along $\vec{a} = \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}$.
- (2) Triangle law of addition of vectors



If
$$\overrightarrow{OA} = \vec{a} , \overrightarrow{AC} = \vec{b} , then \vec{a} + \vec{b} = \vec{c}$$

$$\implies \overrightarrow{OA} + \overrightarrow{AC} = \overrightarrow{OC}.$$

- (3) Position vectors
 - (i) The position vector of a point P w.r.t. origin O is \overrightarrow{OP} vector.
 - (ii) If the position vector of P & Q are \vec{a} & \vec{b} respectively w.r.t.origin O, then

$$\overrightarrow{PQ} = \overrightarrow{OQ} - \overrightarrow{OP} = \overrightarrow{b} - \overrightarrow{a} .$$

- (iii) If a point R divides \overline{PQ} internally in the ratio m: n, then the position vector of R will be $\frac{m\vec{b}+n\vec{a}}{m+n}$.
- (iv) If a point R divides \overline{PQ} externally in the ratio m: n, then the position vector of R will be $\frac{m\vec{b}-n\vec{a}}{m-n}$.
- (v) The position vector of the mid point of \overline{PQ} is $\frac{\vec{a}+\vec{b}}{2}$.

(4) If
$$\vec{r} = x\vec{a} + y\vec{b}$$
, then

 $x\vec{a}, y\vec{b} = Vector\ components\ of\ \vec{r}\ along\ \vec{a}\ \&\ \vec{b}.$

 $x, y = Scalar components of \vec{r} along \vec{a} \& \vec{b}$.

(5) **2-Dimensional (2-D)**

If P(x,y) be a point in 2-D plane, then the position vector of P(w,r) is $\overrightarrow{OP} = \overrightarrow{r} = x\hat{\imath} + y\hat{\jmath}$

where, $\hat{i} \& \hat{j}$ are the unit vectors along positive X - axis & Y - axis respectively.

$$|\overrightarrow{OP}| = |\overrightarrow{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
.

 $x\hat{\imath} \& y\hat{\jmath} = Vector\ components\ along\ X - axis\ \&\ Y - axis\ .$

x & y = Scalar components along X - axis & Y - axis.

(6) 3-Dimensional (3-D)

If P(x, y, z) be a point in 3 - D plane, then the position vector of P(x, y, z) be a point in 3 - D plane, then the position vector of P(x, y, z) is $\overrightarrow{OP} = \overrightarrow{r} = x\hat{\imath} + y\hat{\jmath} + z\hat{k}$.

where, \hat{i} , \hat{j} & \hat{k} are the unit vectors along positive X - axis, Y - axis & Z - axis respectively.

$$|\overrightarrow{OP}| = |\overrightarrow{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$
.

 $x\hat{i}, y\hat{j} \& z\hat{k} = Vector\ components\ along\ X - axis, Y - axis\ \&\ Z - axis$.

x, y & z = Scalar components along X - axis, Y - axis & Z - axis.

(7) <u>Direction Ratios & Direction Cosines of a Vector</u>

Consider the vector $\vec{r} = a\hat{\imath} + b\hat{\jmath} + c\hat{k}$

- (i) Then direction ratios of \vec{r} are a, b, c.
- (ii) The direction cosines of \vec{r} are given by

$$l = \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}} \; ; \; m = \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}} \; ; \; n = \frac{c}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}}$$

$$(iii)l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 1.$$

(iv) If $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ be any two points in space then direction ratios of \overrightarrow{AB} are $(x_2 - x_1)$, $(y_2 - y_1)$, $(z_2 - z_1)$ and direction cosines of \overrightarrow{AB} are $\frac{(x_2 - x_1)}{r}$, $\frac{(y_2 - y_1)}{r}$, where $r = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$.

(8) Scalar product / Dot product of vectors

(i) The scalar product of two vectors $\vec{a} \& \vec{b}$, which meets in a point is given by $\vec{a}. \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos \theta$

where θ is the angle between these vectors.

(ii)
$$\hat{\imath}.\hat{\imath} = \hat{\jmath}.\hat{\jmath} = \hat{k}.\hat{k} = 1.$$

(iii)
$$\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = \hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{i} = 0$$
.

(iv)
$$\lambda(a\hat{\imath} + b\hat{\jmath}) = \lambda a\hat{\imath} + \lambda b\hat{\jmath}$$
.

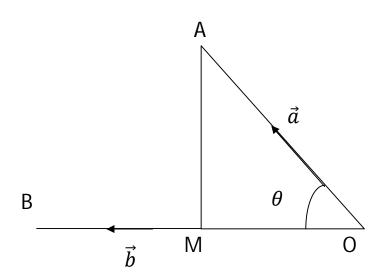
(v) If
$$\vec{a} = \vec{0}$$
 or $\vec{a} = \vec{0}$, we define $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$.

(vi) If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are like (collinear) vectors, we have $\theta = 0$; $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = ab \cos \theta = ab$.

(vii) If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are unlike vectors, we have $\theta = \pi$; $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = ab \cos \theta = -ab$.

(viii) If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are orthogonal vectors, we have $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$; $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = ab \cos \theta = 0$.

(9) **Projection**



Let $\overrightarrow{OA} = \overrightarrow{a}, \overrightarrow{OB} = \overrightarrow{b}$ and $\angle BOA = \theta$; also $AM \perp OB$.

Then, OM is the projection of \vec{a} on \vec{b} .

$$OM = OAcos\theta = |\vec{a}|cos\theta = \frac{\vec{a}.\vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|}.$$

(10) Condition of Perpendicularity

Let $\vec{a} = a_1 \hat{\imath} + a_2 \hat{\jmath} + a_3 \hat{k}$ and $\vec{b} = b_1 \hat{\imath} + b_2 \hat{\jmath} + b_3 \hat{k}$

 \vec{a} will be perpendicular on \vec{b} if \vec{a} . $\vec{b}=0 \iff a_1b_1+a_2b_2+a_3b_3=0$.

(11) Vector product / Cross product of vectors

Let \vec{a} and \vec{b} be two non — zero, non — parallel vectors, and let θ be the angle between them such that $0 < \theta < \pi$.

Then, the cross product of \vec{a} and \vec{b} is defined as $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = (|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\sin\theta)\hat{n}$ where \hat{n} is a unit vector perpendicular to both \vec{a} and \vec{b} .

(i) If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are parallel or collinear, i.e., when $\theta = 0$ or $\theta = \pi$ then, $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$.

(ii) If
$$\vec{a} = \vec{0}$$
 or $\vec{b} = \vec{0}$, we define $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$.

- (iii) For any vector \vec{a} , we have $\vec{a} \times \vec{a} = (|\vec{a}||\vec{a}|\sin 0)\hat{n} = \vec{0}$.
- (iv) The angle θ between two vectors is defined by $\theta = \sin^{-1} \left[\frac{|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|}{|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|} \right]$.
- (v) A unit vector \hat{n} perpendicular to each one of \vec{a} and \vec{b} is given by $\hat{n} = \frac{(\vec{a} \times \vec{b})}{|\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|}$.

(vi)
$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$$
. $\vec{c} = \vec{a}$. $\vec{b} \times \vec{c}$

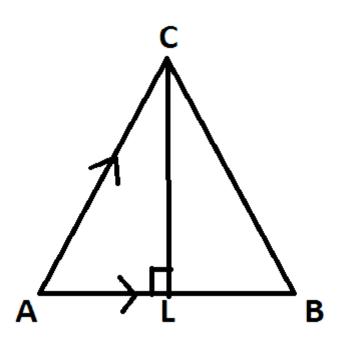
(vii)
$$\vec{b} \times \vec{a} = -(\vec{a} \times \vec{b})$$

(viii)
$$(-\vec{b}) \times \vec{a} = (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) = \vec{b} \times (-\vec{a})$$

(12) Area of Triangle

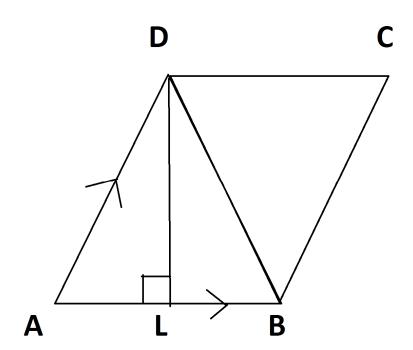
Let us consider $\triangle ABC$ in which $\overrightarrow{AB} = \vec{a} \& \overrightarrow{AC} = \vec{b}$

Area of the $\triangle ABC$ is given by $\frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|$ and it is called vector area of $\triangle ABC$.



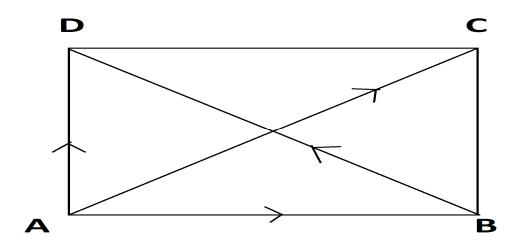
(13) **Area of Parallelogram**

Let us consider $||gm \ ABCD \ in \ which \ \overrightarrow{AB} = \vec{a} \ \& \ \overrightarrow{AC} = \vec{b}$ Area of the $||gm \ ABCD \ is \ given \ by \ |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}|$



(14) Area of Quadrilateral

Area of the quad. ABCD is given by $\frac{1}{2} |\overrightarrow{AC} \times \overrightarrow{BD}|$



(15) Vector product of an orthonormal vector triad

For mutually perpendicular unit vectors $\hat{\imath}$, \hat{k} , we have

(i)
$$\hat{\imath} \times \hat{\imath} = \hat{\jmath} \times \hat{\jmath} = \hat{k} \times \hat{k} = \hat{0}$$

(ii)
$$\hat{\imath} \times \hat{\jmath} = \hat{k}, \hat{\jmath} \times \hat{k} = \hat{\imath}, \hat{k} \times \hat{\imath} = \hat{\jmath}$$

(16) Vector product in terms of componenets

Let $\vec{a} = a_1 \hat{\imath} + a_2 \hat{\jmath} + a_3 \hat{k}$ and $\vec{b} = b_1 \hat{\imath} + b_2 \hat{\jmath} + b_3 \hat{k}$. Then,

$$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{\imath} & \hat{\jmath} & \hat{k} \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

(17) Scalar Triple product

(i)
$$[\vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c}] = (\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{c}$$

 $[\vec{a}\ \vec{b}\ \vec{c}]$ represents the volume of the parallelopiped with coterminous edges $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$ forming a right – handed system.

(ii)
$$(\vec{a} \times \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{c} = (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) \cdot \vec{a} = (\vec{c} \times \vec{a}) \cdot \vec{b}$$

- (iii) The scalar triple product changes in sign but not in magnitude when the cyclic order of vectors is changed, i. e., $[\vec{c}\ \vec{b}\ \vec{a}] = -[\vec{a}\ \vec{b}\ \vec{c}]$
- (iv) The scalar triple product vanishes if any two of its vectors are equal, i. e.,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a} \ \vec{a} \ \vec{b} \end{bmatrix} = 0, \begin{bmatrix} \vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{a} \end{bmatrix} = 0 \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} \vec{b} \ \vec{a} \ \vec{a} \end{bmatrix} = 0.$$

(v) The scalar triple product vanishes if any two of its vectors are parallel or collinear.

Let $\vec{a} || \vec{b}$ or \vec{a} and \vec{b} are collinear. Then, $\vec{a} = m\vec{b}$

$$\therefore \left[\vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c} \right] = \left[m\vec{b} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c} \right] = 0$$

(vi) Scalar triple product in terms of components

Let
$$\vec{a} = a_1 \hat{\imath} + a_2 \hat{\jmath} + a_3 \hat{k}$$
; $\vec{b} = b_1 \hat{\imath} + b_2 \hat{\jmath} + b_3 \hat{k}$ and $\vec{c} = c_1 \hat{\imath} + c_2 \hat{\jmath} + c_3 \hat{k}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

(vii) For any three vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} and \vec{c}

$$\left[\vec{a} + \vec{b} \ \vec{b} + \vec{c} \ \vec{c} + \vec{a}\right] = 2\left[\vec{a} \ \vec{b} \ \vec{c}\right]$$

- (viii) The necessary and sufficient condition for three non zero, non collinear vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} to be coplanar is that $[\vec{a}\ \vec{b}\ \vec{c}] = 0$.
- (ix) For any three vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} , the vectors $(\vec{a} \vec{b})$, $(\vec{b} \vec{c})$ and $(\vec{c} \vec{a})$ are coplanar.

Also,
$$(\vec{a} + \vec{b})$$
, $(\vec{b} + \vec{c})$ and $(\vec{c} + \vec{a})$ are coplanar.

(x) For any three vectors $\vec{a}_{i}\vec{b}_{i}\vec{c}_{i}$ $\left[\vec{a}\ \vec{a}+\vec{b}\ \vec{a}+\vec{b}+\vec{c}\right]=0$

STATISTICS

MEAN

- (1) Simple mean, $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$
- (2) Weighted mean, $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum f_i x_i}{\sum f_i}$
- (3) Short cut method: $\overline{x} = A + \frac{\sum f_i d_i}{\sum f_i}$
- (4) Step deviation method: $\bar{x} = A + \frac{\sum f_i u_i}{\sum f_i} \times h$
- (5) Mean of a composite sample = $\frac{n_1\overline{x_1} + n_2\overline{x_2}}{n_1 + n_2}$

where,

n = Total observations

 $x_i = Mid \ values \ of \ the \ class \ intervals$

 f_i = Frequencies of the class intervals

A = Assumed mean

$$d_i = x_i - A$$

$$u_i = \frac{x_i - A}{h}$$

 $h = Width \ of \ each \ class$

<u>MEDIAN</u>

$$Median = l + \frac{\frac{N}{2} - CF}{f_m} \times h$$

where,

l = Lower boundary of median class

N = Total frequency

CF = Cumulative frequency of the class preceeding to the median class

 $f_m = Frequency of the median class$

h = Width of the median class

Quartiles, Deciles & Percentiles

Measure	Discrete series and ungrouped frequency distribution	Grouped frequency distribution
Q_1	size of $\frac{n+1}{4}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{N}{4} - CF}{f_m} \times h$
Q_3	size of $\frac{3(n+1)}{4}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{3N}{4} - CF}{f_m} \times h$
D_1	size of $\frac{n+1}{10}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{N}{10} - CF}{f_m} \times h$
D_7	size of $\frac{7(n+1)}{10}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{7N}{10} - CF}{f_m} \times h$
P_1	size of $\frac{n+1}{100}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{N}{100} - CF}{f_m} \times h$
P_{47}	size of $\frac{47(n+1)}{100}$ th term	$l + \frac{\frac{47N}{100} - CF}{f_m} \times h$

MODE

$$Mode = l + \frac{f_1 - f_0}{2f_1 - f_0 - f_2} \times h$$

where,

l = Lower boundary of modal class

 $f_1 = Frequency of the modal class$

 $f_0 = Frequency \ of \ the \ class \ preceeding \ the \ modal \ class$

 f_2 = Frequency of the class succeeding the modal class

 $h = Width \ of \ the \ modal \ class$

Relation between mean, median and mode

 $Mode = 3 \times (Median) - 2 \times (Mean).$

<u>S.D.</u>

 $Variance = (S.D.)^2$

 $Co-efficient\ of\ variance = \frac{S.\ D.}{Mean} \times 100.$

$$S. D. = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f_i u_i^2}{\sum f_i} - \left(\frac{\sum f_i u_i}{\sum f_i}\right)^2} \times h$$

where,

 $x_i = Mid \ values \ of \ the \ class \ intervals$

 f_i = Frequencies of the class intervals

A = Assumed mean

$$u_i = \frac{x_i - A}{h}$$

h = Width of each class

[N.B.: The S.D. can be determined by three methods explained in mean using simple method & deviation method.]

CORRELATION & REGRESSION

Correlation

(1) Co – variance

$$Cov(x, y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i - \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right) \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i\right)$$

(2)
$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum x_i^2 - \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum x_i\right)^2$$

(3)
$$\sigma_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum y_i^2 - \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum y_i\right)^2$$
 [where, $\sigma = s.d.$]

(4) Correlation co-efficient,

$$r_{xy} = \frac{Cov(x, y)}{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

(5) For any $bi - variate\ data$, $-1 \le r_{xy} \le 1$

(6)
$$r_{xx} = 1 \& r_{x(-x)} = -1$$

(7) If
$$u = ax + b \& v = cy + d$$

then,
$$r_{uv} = \frac{ac}{|a||c|} r_{xy}$$

(8)
$$Var(x + y) = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 + 2\sigma_x\sigma_y r_{xy}$$

(9)
$$Var(x - y) = \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2 - 2\sigma_x\sigma_y r_{xy}$$

$$(10) Var(x + y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{ (x_i + y_i) - \overline{x + y} \}^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{ (x_i - \overline{x}) + (y_i - \overline{y}) \}^2$$

(11) If
$$u = \frac{x - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$$
, $v = \frac{y - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$,

then,
$$r_{xy} = Cov(x, y)$$

(12) If $r_{xy} = \pm 1$, then y is a linear function of x & vice – versa.

(13) If x, y are independent then they are un - correlated.

(14) If
$$u = a_1x + b_1y + c_1$$

$$v = a_2x + b_2y + c_2$$

then,

$$Cov(u, v) = a_1 a_2 Var(x) + (a_1 b_2 + a_2 b_1) Cov(x, y) + b_1 b_2 Var(y)$$

Regression

(1) Regression line of x on y is

$$(x-\bar{x})=b_{xy}(y-\bar{y})$$

where,
$$b_{xy} = r_{xy} \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}$$

(2) Regression line of y on x is

$$(y-\bar{y})=b_{yx}(x-\bar{x})$$

where,
$$b_{yx} = r_{xy} \frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_x}$$

 $[b_{xy}, b_{yx} \rightarrow Regression\ co-efficient]$

(3) The two regression lines intersect at (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) .

(4)
$$b_{xy} = \frac{Cov(x,y)}{\sigma_y^2}$$
, $b_{yx} = \frac{Cov(x,y)}{\sigma_x^2}$

$$(5) b_{xy} = \frac{1}{b_{yx}}$$

(5)
$$b_{xy} = \frac{1}{b_{yx}}$$
 $i.e., b_{xy}b_{yx} = 1.$

(6) The angle between two regression line is $\tan \theta = \left| \frac{1 - r_{xy}^2}{b_{xy} + b_{yx}} \right|$.

Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient

(1) The Spearman rank correlation coefficient is given by

$$r = 1 - \frac{6\sum d^2}{n(n^2 - 1)}.$$

d = difference between the ranks

n = total observations

(2) If there are repeatation of a rank for m items then a correction of the factor

$$\frac{1}{12}(m^3-m)$$
 is needed.

Then the rank will be $r = 1 - \frac{6[\sum d^2 + \frac{1}{12}(m^3 - m)]}{n(n^2 - 1)}$.

BOOLEAN ALGEBRA

The basic function of Boolean Algebra is 1 & 0, i.e. ON - OFF process.

There are basically three logic gates -AND, OR & NOT.

Properties of Boolean Algebra:-

(1) Commutative Property:

$$A + B = B + A$$

$$A.B = B.A$$

(2) Associative Property:

$$A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C$$

$$A.(B.C) = (A.B).C$$

(3) Distributive Property:

$$A + BC = (A + B)(A + C)$$

$$A.(B + C) = A.B + A.C$$

(4) Absorption Law:

$$A + AB = A$$

$$A.(A + B) = A$$

(5) De Morgan's Theorem:

$$\overline{AB} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$$

$$\overline{A + B} = \overline{A}.\overline{B}$$

(6) Involution Law:

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

$$(7) A + 0 = A$$

$$(8) A + 1 = 1$$

$$(9) A + A = A$$

$$(10) A + \overline{A} = 1$$

$$(11) A. 1 = A$$

$$(12) A.0 = 0$$

$$(13) A.A = A$$

$$(14) A. \overline{A} = 0$$

COMMERCIAL MATHEMATICS

(1) Average Due Date

(1)
$$d = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i d_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i}$$

where,

d = equated time

 $P_i = different payments$

 d_i = times counted from the zero date

(2) Zero date + Equated time \rightarrow Average due date.

(2) Discount

(1) $True\ discount,\ TD=Interest\ on\ present\ value\ of\ bill=Pni$

$$(2) A = P + TD$$

$$(3) P = \frac{A}{1+ni}$$

(4) Discounted value = A(1 - ni)

(5)
$$TD = Pni = \frac{Ani}{1+ni}$$

(6) BD = Interest on amount of bill = Ani

$$(7) BD = (1 + ni)TD$$

(8) $Banker's\ gain,\ BG = BD - TD$

(9)
$$BG = Interest \ on \ TD = \frac{A(ni)^2}{1+ni}$$

(10) Amount of bill = $A = \frac{BD \times TD}{BD - TD}$

(3) Annuities

(1) Amount of an annuity, $M = \frac{A}{r}[(1+r)^n - 1]$

(2) Present value of an annuity, $V = \frac{A}{r}[1 - (1+r)^{-n}]$

(3) Amount of an annuity due, $M = \frac{A}{r}(1+r)[(1+r)^n - 1]$

(4) Present value of an annuity due, $V = \frac{A}{r}(1+r)[1-(1+r)^{-n}]$

(5) Amount of deferred annuity, $M = \frac{A}{r}[(1+r)^n - 1]$

(6) Present value of deferred annuity, $V = \frac{A}{r(1+r)^m} [1 - (1+r)^{-n}]$

(7) Amount of sinking fund, $M = \frac{A}{r}[(1+r)^n - 1]$

- (8) Present value of perpetuity, $V = \frac{A}{r}$
- (9) Present value of deferred perpetuity, $V = \frac{A}{r(1+r)^m}$

where, A = Amount of each instalment

 $V = Present\ value\ of\ annuity$

M = Future amount of annuity

 $r = Rate\ of\ interest\ p.\ a.$

n = Number of instalment

m = Payment start after which deferring interval

(4) Application of Derivative in Commerce & Economics

- (1) $Total\ cost,\ TC = C(x)$
- (2) Total fixed cost, $TFC = [C(x)]_{x=0}$
- (3) $Total\ variable\ cost,\ TVC = TC TFC$
- (4) TC = TFC + TVC
- (5) Average cost, $AC = \frac{C(x)}{x}$
- (6) Average fixed cost, $AFC = \frac{TFC}{x}$
- (7) Average variable cost, $AVC = \frac{TVC}{x}$
- (8) AC = AFC + AVC
- (9) $Cost\ function = C(x)$
- (10) Demand function, x = f(p)
- (11) Price function, p = f(x)
- (12) Revenue function, R(x) = px
- (13) Average revenue, $AR = \frac{R(x)}{x} = p$
- (14) Profit function, P(x) = R(x) C(x)
- (15) Average profit, $\frac{P(x)}{x} = \frac{R(x)}{x} \frac{C(x)}{x}$

$$\Rightarrow AP = AR - AC$$

- (16) Breakdown point, R(x) = C(x) i.e., P(x) = 0
- (17) Marginal cost, $MC = \frac{dC}{dx}$
- (18) Marginal revenue, $MR = \frac{dR}{dx} = p\left(1 + \frac{x}{p} \cdot \frac{dp}{dx}\right)$

(19) In purely competitive environment,
$$\frac{dp}{dx} = 0 \implies MR = p = AR$$

(20) In a monopolistic economy,
$$\frac{dp}{dx} < 0 \implies MR < AR$$

(5) Index Number

(1) Simple aggregative method:-

$$P_{01} = \frac{\sum P_1}{\sum P_0} \times 100$$

(2) Simple average of price relatives method:-

$$P_{01} = \frac{1}{N} \sum \left(\frac{P_1}{P_0} \times 100 \right) = \frac{\sum I}{N}$$

(3) Weighted aggregate method:-

$$P_{01} = \frac{\sum P_1 w}{\sum P_0 w} \times 100$$

(4) Weighted aggregate of price relative method:-

$$P_{01} = \frac{\sum Iw}{\sum w}$$

where,
$$I = \frac{P_1}{P_0} \times 100 = Price \ relative$$

$$w = Weight$$

$$P_0 = Base\ price$$

$$P_1 = Current \ price$$

N = Number of items

(6) Moving Averages

If $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ is given annual time series, then

(1) 3-yearly moving averages:-

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3}{3}$$
, $\frac{x_2 + x_3 + x_4}{3}$, $\frac{x_3 + x_4 + x_5}{3}$, which are placed against years 2,3,4,

respectively.

(2) 5- yearly moving averages:-

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5}{5}$$
, $\frac{x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5 + x_6}{5}$, which are placed against years 3,4,....

respectively.

(3) 4- yearly moving averages:-

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4}{4}$$
, $\frac{x_2 + x_3 + x_4 + x_5}{4}$, which are placed against years 2.5,3.5 respectively.

Further, to synchronize time frame for moving averages and original data, we have to average every two moving averages; average of first & second moving average in this case would be placed against $\frac{2.5 + 3.5}{2} = 3rd$ year; average of second & third moving average would be placed against $\frac{3.5 + 4.5}{2} = 4th$ year, and so on.

This is called 4 - yearly centred moving average.