Rules of Sets: Commutative law: AUB = BUA A B = B A

Associative law: AU(BUC) = (AUB)UC

A (B C) = (A B) C

Distributive law: $AU(B \ C) = (AUB)$ (AUC)

A (BUC) = (A B)U(A C)

DeMargones law: $(AUB)^1 = A^1 \quad B^1 \quad (A \quad B)^1 = A^1 \cup B^1$ Relationship between number of elements of the sets:

n(A) + n(B) = n(AUB) + n(A B)

n(A) = n(AUB) + n(A B) - n(B) n(B) = n(AUB) + n(A B) - n(A)

n(AUB) = n(A) + n(B) - n(A B) n(A B) = n(A) + n(B) - n(AUB)

Series & Sequence Formulae		r!	
	ARTHMETI	GEOMETRI	HARMONIC
	C SERIES	C SERIES	SERIES
STANDAR D FORM	a,a+d,a+2d,,	a,ar,ar²,ar³,	$\frac{1}{a}$, $\frac{1}{a+d}$, $\frac{1}{a+2d}$,
GENERAL FORM	2,4,6,8, 1.4.7.10,	2,4,8, 1,3,9,27,	$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$ $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{2}, \dots$
n th TERM	T _n = a+ (n-1) d	T _n = ar ⁿ⁻¹	$T_n = \frac{1}{a + (n-1)d}$
MEAN	$A = \frac{a+b}{2}$	G = ab	$H = \frac{2ab}{a+b}$
SUM OF n TERMS	$S_n = \frac{n[2a+(n-1)]d}{2}$	1) $S_n = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}$ 2) $S_n = \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}$ 3) $S_\infty = \frac{a}{1 - r}$ So	r>1 r<1 um of ∞ terms

Meaning of ⁿP_r: Types of Arrangements of r things out of n things.

$$n! = 1x2x3x4x5x.....x n$$
 $5! = 5x4x3x2x1$ ${}^{n}P_{r} = = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$ ${}^{n}P_{n} = n!$ ${}^{n}P_{1} = n$ ${}^{n}P_{0} = 1$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \underline{Meaning~of~^nC_r} \colon & Types~of~selections~of~r~things~out~of~n~things. \\ {}^nC_r = = & \frac{n!}{(n-r)!\,r!} & {}^nC_n = 1 & {}^nC_1 = n & {}^nC_0 = 1 \\ & {}^nC_r = {}^nC_{n-r} & {}^nC_r = & \frac{np_r}{r!} \end{array}$$

Probability: The chance of happening of an event when expressed quantitatively is called probability.

Random experiment: A random experiment is one in which the exact outcome cannot be predicted. However, one can list all the possible outcomes of the random experiment. For eg: *Tossing a coin * Throwing a die*Drawing a card from a well shuffled pack of cards

<u>Sample point & Sample space</u>: The set of all possible outcomes of a randomexperiment is called a sample space. It is generally denoted by S. (i) $S = \{H, T\}$ (ii) $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ sample space: Each element or member of a sample space is

calleda sample point. (i) H and T are sample points.

(ii) 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 are sample points.

Event: every subset of the sample space is called an event. Probability of an event: Probability of an event is a ratio of the number of elementary events favourable to the event E to the total number of elementary events in the sample space.

Probability of an event = No of events favourable t o the event Total no of elementary events in sample space

$$P(A) = \underline{n(A)}$$

Note: 0 P(A) 1 Probability of an event

can be any fraction from 0 to 1, including 0 and 1. sure or certain event : An event of a random experiment is called a sure or certain event if any one of its elements will surely occur in any trial of the experiment. Probability of sure event is 1. impossible event :An event which will not occur on any account in any trial of the experiment is called an impossible event. Probability of an impossible event is 0.

Complementary events: Suppose we throw a die once. Consider the two events,

(i) getting an even number $E = \{2, 4, 6\}$

(i i) getting an odd number $E = \{1, 3, 5\}$

Compare the two events, "getting an odd number "and "not geting an even number"we observe that event E1 occurs only when event E2 doesnot occur and vice versa. These two events E1 and E2 are called complementary events.

Note: $P(E_1) + P(E_2) = 1$

Mutually exclusive events: Two or more events are said to be mutually exclusive if the occurance of one event prevents or excludes the occurance of other event. if E_1 and E_2 are two mutually exclusive events, then E_1 $E_2 = __if E_1$ and E_2 are two mutually exclusive events, then $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2)$. This result is known as the addition rule of probability. Relationship between expressions and their H.C.F & L.C.M: Product of any two expressions is equal to the product of their L.C.M & H.C.F. If H and L are H.C.F & L.C.M of two expressions A and B, then we have the following relations: 1) A X B = H X L

2) A = $\frac{HXL}{B}$ 3) B = $\frac{HXL}{A}$ 4) H = $\frac{AXB}{L}$ 4) L = $\frac{AXB}{H}$ rationalisation of surds : Conversion of surd from irrational form into rational form by multipling with suitable surd is called rationalisation of surd

Note: 1) For mononial surds they itself are Rationalising factor. 2) For mononial surds coefficients cannot be taken consideration. 3) For Binonial surds of the form (a+b)

Rationalising factor is in the form (a-b).

sl no	Surd	Rationalising factor	sl no	Surd	Rationalising factor
1	5	5	7	5 - 3	<u>5</u> + <u>3</u>
2	$3\overline{a}$	\overline{a}	8	$6 \ \overline{x} - 4\sqrt{y}$	6√ x + 4√y
3	$\sqrt{x+y}$	$\sqrt{x+y}$	9	$5\overline{a}+3\overline{b}$	5√a - 3√b
4	- 5 x	- x	10	$-10 \ \overline{a} + \overline{b}$	-10 \overline{a} - \overline{b}
5	$4\sqrt{p+q}$	$\sqrt{\mathbf{p}+\mathbf{q}}$	11	- 7 +3 2	- 7-3 2
6	3 + 2	3 - 2	12	$a \overline{a}$	$\sqrt[3]{a^2}$

polynomials: an algebraic expression of the form, $p(x) = a_0 +$ $a_1x^1 + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \cdots + a_nx^n$ in which the variables involved have only non-negative integral exponents is called a polynomial in x. Degree of polynomial: The highest exponent of the variable in a polynomial is called its degree.

Division algorithm for polynomials:

If a and b are any two integers, then a = bq + r, where 0 r b. If p(x) and g(x) are any two polynomials with g(x) 0, then we can always find polynomials q(x) and r(x) such that $p(x) = g(x) \times$ q(x) + r(x), where r(x) = 0 or degree of r(x) < degree of g(x).

 $Dividend = (Divisor \times Quotient) + Remainder$

Quadratic Equations: Standard form of Quadratic equation is $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$. (where a 0)

Standard form of pure Quadratic equation is $ax^2 + c = 0$. If b=0 then Standard form of Quadratic equation becomes $ax^2 + c = 0$.(Called pure Quadratic equation)

If a=0 then Standard form of Quadratic equation becomes bx + c = 0.(Called linear equation)

If b 0 then Standard form of Quadratic equation becomes $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$.(Called Adfected Quadratic equation)

The graph of $y=y^2$ $y=2y^2$ is called narahola

1110	The graph of y = x , y = 2x , is cancel parabola			
	Nature of the roots of Quadratic equation is determined by			
the Descriminant $= b^2 - 4ac$.				
	Value of Descriminant	Nature of the roots		
1	$b^2 - 4ac = 0$	Roots are real & equal.		
2	$b^2 - 4ac > 0$	Roots are real & distinct.		
3	$b^2 - 4ac < 0$	Roots are imaginary		

 $: \mathbf{m} + \mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{b}/\mathbf{a}$ Sum of the roots

Product of the roots: mn = c/aIf m & n are roots, the Quadratic equation is in the form $x^2 - (m+n)x + mn = 0$ **Circles**: Minor segments substends obtuse angles.

Major segments substends acute angles.

semi segments substends right angles.

Nature of DCT & TCTs:		
	DCT	TCT
Distinct circles	2	2
externally touching circles	2	1
internally touching circles	1	None
intersecting circles	2	None
concentric circles	None	None
length of tangent	$\sqrt{d^2 - (R-r)^2}$	$\sqrt{d^2 - (R+r)^2}$

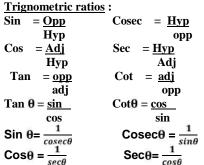
Theorem1: If two triangles are equiangular, then their corresponding sides are proportional.

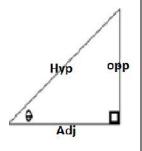
Theorem 2: The areas of similar triangles are proportional to the squares of the corresponding sides.

Theorem 3 (Pythagoras theorem): In a right angled triangle, the Square on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.

Theorem 4: If two circles touch each other, the point of contact and the centres of the circles are collinear.

Theorem 5: The tangents drawn to a circle from an external point are, (i) equal (ii) equally inclined to the line joining the external point and the centre (iii) subtend equal angles at the centre.





 $Tan\theta = \frac{1}{cot\theta}$ Cot $\theta = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$ Trignometric ratios for standard angles:

	0^{0}	30^{0}	45^{0}	60^{0}	90^{0}
Sinθ	0	1 2	$\frac{\overline{1}}{\overline{2}}$	3 2	1
cosθ	1	1 2 3 2	1 2	1 2	0
tanθ	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	1	3	N.D
cosecθ	N.D	2	2	2 <u>3</u>	1
secθ	1	$\frac{\overline{2}}{\overline{3}}$	2	2	N.D
cotθ	N.D	3	1	<u>1</u> <u>3</u>	0

Trignometric simultaneous equatios: $1)\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta = 1$ $2)1+\tan^2\theta=\sec^2\theta$ $3)1 + \cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta$

Trignometric complementary angle ratios:

 $\overline{\sin(90^0 - A)} = \cos A$ $\sin(90^0 - A) = \cos A$ $cosec(90^{\circ} - A) = secA$ $Sec(90^0 - A) = cosecA$ $\cot(90^0 - A) = \tan A$ $\tan(90^0 - A) = \cot A$

Coordinate Geometry: Horizontal line: The line parallel to earth surface is called Horizontal line vertical line: The line perpendicular to horizontal line is called vertical line. <u>slope</u>: The ratio of the vertical distance to the horizontal distance is called slope. Slope = Vertical distance

Horizontal distance

The slope of a line is the tangent of the angle of its inclination. It is generally denoted by (m) = $\tan = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$

*When vertical distance is less than the horizontal distance, slope is less than 1. * When vertical distance is equal to the horizontal distance, slope is equal to 1. * When vertical distance is more than the horizontal distance, slope is more than 1. Slope of a straight line passing through two given points: Slope of a straight line passing through two points \overline{A} (x1, yI)

and B(x2, y2) is given by $m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$

Parallel lines have equal slopes. ($m_1 = m_2$)

If two lines are mutually perpendicular then, the product of their slopes is -1. ($m_1 \times m_2 = -1$)

The equation of a line with slope 'm' and whose y - intercept is 'c' is given by y = mx + c

<u>Distance formula</u>: Distance between two points: Distance between two points (x_1,y_1) & (x_2,y_2) is given by d =

$$(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2$$

<u>Distance of a point in a plane from the origin</u>: Distance of a point (x,y) in a plane from the origin(0,0) is given by d =

 $\overline{x^2 + y^2}$ Section Formula: AB be a line joining the points $A(x_1,y_1)$ and $B(x_2,y_2)$ and point P divides the linesegment AB

inthe ratio m: n then the coordinates of point P is given by

$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{m}\mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{m}\mathbf{x}_1}{\mathbf{m} + \mathbf{n}}, \frac{\mathbf{m}\mathbf{y}_2 + \mathbf{m}\mathbf{y}_1}{\mathbf{m} + \mathbf{n}}$$

 $\underline{Mid\ point\ fomula}$:If P is the midpoint of AB[Here $A(x_1,\!y_1)$ and $B(x_2,y_2)$] then coordinates of $P x_i y =$

This is also called the mid point famula

This is also called the mid point fomula.					
	Un-grouped data	grouped data			
Average,	$\bar{\mathbf{x}} = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{x}}}{\mathbf{N}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{N}}$			
Direct method	$\frac{x^2}{N} - \frac{x}{N}$	$\frac{fx^2}{N} - \frac{fx}{N}^2$			
actual mean method.	d ² N	fd ²			
assumed mean method	$\frac{d^2}{N} - \frac{d}{N}^2$	$\frac{fd^2}{N} - \frac{fd}{N}^2$			
Step deviation method	$\frac{\overline{d^2}}{N} - \frac{d}{N} \overline{^2} X C$	$\frac{fd^2}{N} - \frac{fd}{N}^2 XC$			
variance	$\mathbf{C.v} = \frac{\overline{\sigma \mathbf{X} 100}}{\overline{\mathbf{x}}}$				

Mensuration

vicisul ation				
	LSA	<u>TSA</u>	Volume	
Cylinder	A= 2 rh	A=2 r(r+h)	$V = r^2h$	
Cone	A= rl	A= r (r+l)	$V = \frac{\mathbf{r}^2 \mathbf{h}}{3}$	
Sphere	$A=4 r^2$	$A=4 r^2$	$V = \frac{4 r^3}{3}$	
Hemispher e	$A=2 r^2$	$A=3 r^2$	$V = \frac{2 r^2}{3}$	
Frustrum	(r ₁ +r ₂)l	$[(\mathbf{r}_1 + \mathbf{r}_2)\mathbf{l} + \mathbf{r}_1^2 + \mathbf{r}_2^2]$	$\frac{h(r_1^2 + r_2^2 + r_1r_2)}{3}$	

Identities: $(a+b)^2 = a^2+b^2+2ab$ $(a-b)^2 = a^2+b^2-2ab$ $(a+b+c)^2 = a^2+b^2+c^2+2ab+2bc+2ca$ $a^2-b^2 = (a+b)(a-b)$ $(x+a)(x+b) = x^2+x(a+b)+ab (a+b)^3 = a^3+b^3+3ab(a+b)$ $(a-b)^3 = a^3-b^3-3ab(a-b)$ $a^3+b^3 = (a+b)(a^2+b^2-ab)$ $a^3-b^3 = (a-b)(a^2+b^2+ab)$

 $(x+a)(x+b)(x+c) = x^3+x^2(a+b+c)+x(ab+bc+ca)+abc$ $a^3+b^3+c^3-3abc = (a+b+c)(a^2+b^2+c^2-ab-bc-ca)$

Pythagorean triplets: Set of three natural numbers, which makes a right angled triangle are called are called Pythagorean triplets.

Ex: 1) 3, 4, 52) 5,12, 13 3) 6,8,10 4) 8, 15,17 Basic Proportionality Theorem (B.P.T) or

Thales Theorem: It can be stated as,

"If a straight line is drawn parallel to one side of a triangle, then it divides the other two sides proportionally"

In ABC if DE II BC then $\underline{\mathbf{AD}} = \underline{\mathbf{AE}}$ DB DC



Converse of Thales Theorem: "If a straight line divides two sides of a triangle proportionally, then the straight line is parallel to the third side".

In ABC if
$$\underline{AD} = \underline{AE}$$

DB DC then DE II BC

Corollary of Thales Theorem: If a straight line is drawn parallel to a side of a triangle then the sides of intercepted triangle will be proportional to the sides of the given triangle.

In ABC if DE II BC then AD = AE = DE

AB AC BC

Converse of pythagoras theorem:

"If the square on the longest side of a triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides, then those two sides contain a right angle."

Note:

1 Kunta = 33feetX 33feet

1 Acre = 40 Kuntas

1 Hectare = $100 \text{m X } 100 \text{m} = 10000 \text{m}^2 = 2.5 \text{ Acres}$