OSWAAL BOOKS®

LEARNING MADE SIMPLE

CBSE

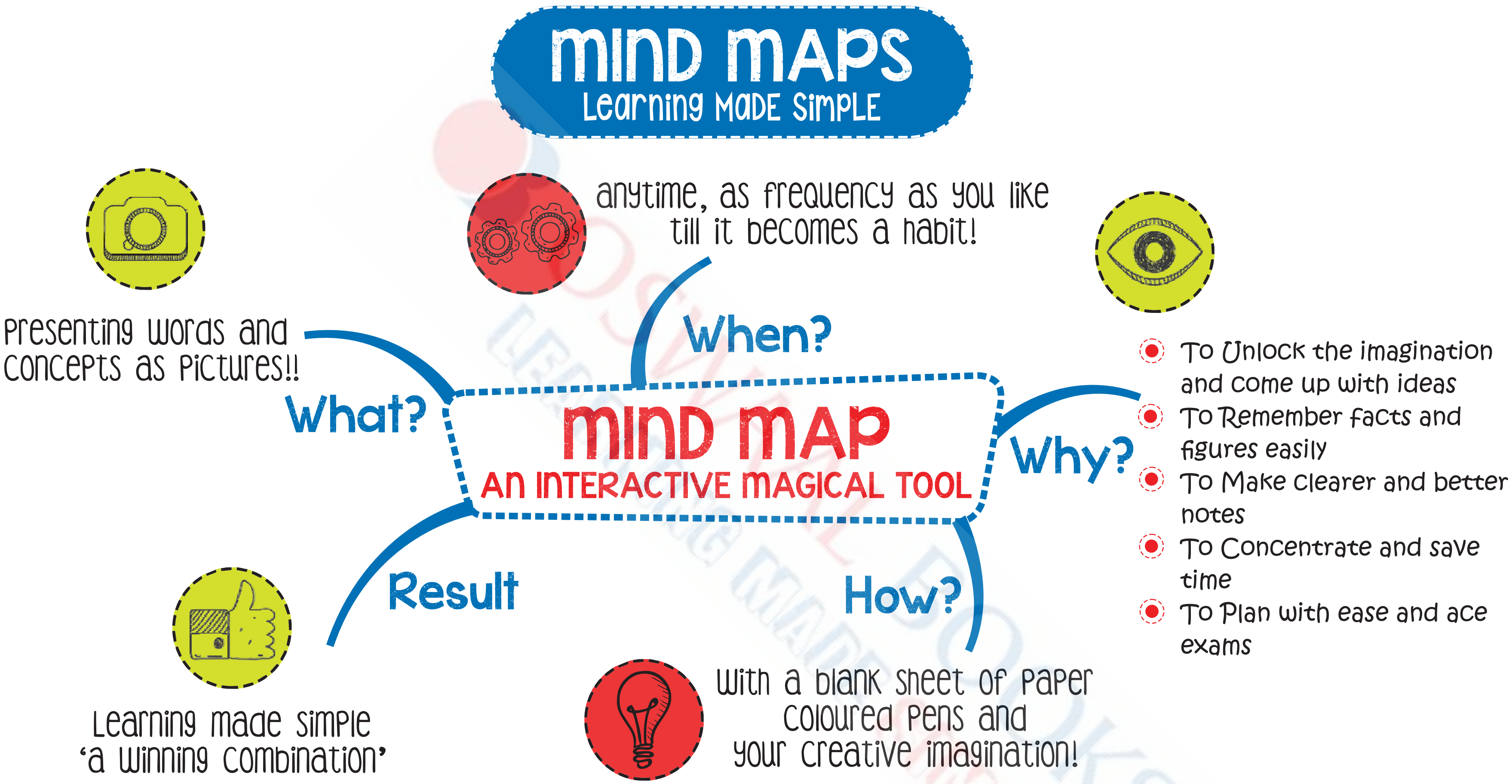
Mind Maps

CLASS 12

MATHEMATICS

Prepare, Revise & Practice Online on www.Oswaal360.com or on

To know about more useful books *click here*



What are Associations?

It's a technique connecting the core concept at the Centre to related concepts or ideas. Associations spreading out straight from the core concept are the First Level of Association. Then we have a Second Level of Association emitting from the first level and the chronology continues. The thickest line is the First Level of Association and the lines keep getting thinner as we move to the subsequent levels of association. This is exactly how the brain functions, therefore these Mind Maps. Associations are one powerful memory aid connecting seemingly unrelated concepts, hence strengthening memory.

Relations and Functions

Types of Relations

Reflexive relation
A relation $R : A \to A$ is reflexive if $aRa \ \forall \ a \in A$

Symmetric relation
A relation $R : A \to A$ is symmetric if $aRb \Rightarrow bRa \ \forall \ a, b \in A$

Transitive relation
A relation $R : A \to A$ is transitive if aRb and $bRc \Rightarrow aRc \ \forall \ a,b,c \in A$.

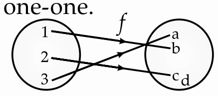
(Reflexive + Symmetric + Transitive →)

Equivalence relation
(If a relation has reflexive, symmetric and transitive relations) *e.g.*, Let T = the set of all triangles in a plane and $R : T \to T$ defined by $R = \{(T_1, T_2)\} : T_1$ is congruent to $T_2\}$.Then, R is equivalence.

Types of Functions

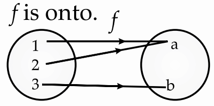
One-one (injective)
$f : X \to Y$ is one-one if $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \ \forall \ x_1, x_2 \in X$. Otherwise, f is many- one,

f is one-one.



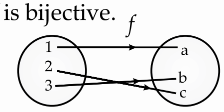
Onto (surjective)
$f : X \to Y$ is onto if every $y \in Y, \exists \ x \in X$ such that $f(x) = y$, Then f is surjective

f is onto.



Bijective
$f : X \to Y$ is both one-one and onto, then f is bijective.

f is bijective.



Composition of functions and Invertible functions

Composition of functions
The composition of functions $f : A \to B$ and $g : B \to C$ is denoted by gof, and is defined as $gof : A \to C$ given by $gof(x) = g(f(x)) \ \forall x \in A$. *e.g.* let $A = N$ and $f, g : N \to N$ such that $f(x) = x^2$ and $g(x) = x^3 \ \forall \ x \in N$. Then $gof(2) = g(f(2)) = g(2^2) = 4^3 = 64$.

Invertible functions
A function $f : X \to Y$ is invertible, if $\exists$ a function $g : Y \to X$ such that $gof(x) = I_X$ and $fog(y) = I_Y$.

Then, g is the inverse of f. If f is invertible, then it is both one-one and onto and vice-versa.

eg. If $f(x) = x$ and $f : N \to N$, then f is invertible.

Theorem 1 : If $f : X \to Y, g : Y \to Z$ and $h : Z \to S$ are functions, then $ho(gof) = (hog)of$.

Theorem 2 : Let $f : X \to Y$ and $g : Y \to Z$ be two invertible functions, then gof is invertible with $(gof)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Inverse Trigonometric Functions

Trigonometric functions

(i) sin : $R \to [-1,1]$

(ii) cos : $R \to [-1,1]$

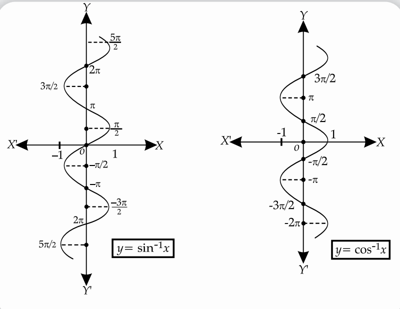
(iii) tan : $R - \left\{x : x = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}, n \in Z\right\} \to R$

(iv) cot : $R - \{x : x = n\pi, n \in Z\} \to R$

(v) sec : $R - \left\{x : x = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}, n \in Z\right\} \to R - (-1,1)$

(vi) cosec : $R - \{x : x = n\pi, n \in Z\} \to R - (-1,1)$

Graphs of trigonometric functions



Principal value branch and principal value

The range of an inverse trigonometric function is the principal value branch and those values which lies in the principal value branch is called the principal value of that inverse trigonometric function

If $x > = 0$	If $x > 0$
$0 \le \sin^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \le \sin^{-1} x < 0$
$0 \le \cos^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{\pi}{2} < \cos^{-1} x \le \pi$
$0 \le \tan^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \le \tan^{-1} x < 0$
$0 \le \cot^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{\pi}{2} < \cot^{-1} x < \pi$
$0 \le \sec^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{\pi}{2} < \sec^{-1} x \le \pi$
$0 \le \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$	$-\frac{\pi}{2} \le \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x < 0$

$\sin^{-1}x \ne (\sin x)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sin x}$ and same for other trigonometric functions.

Domain and range of inverse trigonometric functions

(i) $y = \sin^{-1}x$. Domain = $[-1,1]$, Range = $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$

(ii) $y = \cos^{-1}x$. Domain = $[-1,1]$ Range = $[0, \pi]$

(iii) $y = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1}x$. Domain = $R-(-1,1)$, Range = $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] - \{0\}$

(iv) $y = \sec^{-1}x$. Domain = $R-(-1,1)$, Range = $[0, \pi] - \left\{\frac{\pi}{2}\right\}$

(v) $y = \tan^{-1}x$. Domain = R, Range = $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

(vi) $y = \cot^{-1}x$. Domain = R, Range = $(0, \pi)$.

Some important relations

(i) $y = \sin^{-1}x \Rightarrow x = \sin y$

(ii) $x = \sin y \Rightarrow y = \sin^{-1}x$

(iii) $\sin(\sin^{-1}x) = x, -1 \le x \le 1$

(iv) $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x, \frac{-\pi}{2} \le x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$

(v) $\sin^{-1}\frac{1}{x} = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1}x$

(vi) $\cos^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \cos^{-1}x$

(vii) $\cos^{-1}\frac{1}{x} = \sec^{-1}x$

(viii) $\cot^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \cot^{-1}x$

(ix) $\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{x} = \cot^{-1}x, x > 0$

(x) $\sec^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \sec^{-1}x$

(xi) $\sin^{-1}(-x) = -\sin^{-1}x$

(xii) $\tan^{-1}(-x) = -\tan^{-1}x$

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

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

(xv) $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1}x + \sec^{-1}x = \frac{\pi}{2}, |x| \ge 1$

(xvi) $\tan^{-1}x + \tan^{-1}y = \tan^{-1}\frac{x+y}{1-xy}, xy < 1$

(xvii) $2\tan^{-1}x = \tan^{-1}\frac{2x}{1-x^2}, -1<x<1$

(xviii) $\tan^{-1}x - \tan^{-1}y = \tan^{-1}\frac{x-y}{1+xy}, xy > 1$

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

How to understand Mind Map?
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Matrices

Definition and its types

A matrix of order $m \times n$ is an ordered rectangular array of numbers or functions having 'm' rows and 'n' columns. The matrix $A=[a_{ij}]_{m\times n}$, $1 \le i \le m$, $1 \le j \le n$; $i, j \in N$ is given by

$$A=\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots a_{2n} \\ a_{m_1} & a_{m_2} & \dots a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times n}$$

- Column matrix : It is of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix}_{m\times 1}$
- Row matrix : It is of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix}_{1\times n}$
- Square matrix : Here, $m = n$ (no. of rows = no. of columns)
- Diagonal matrix : All non-diagonal entries are zero i.e $a_{ij} = 0 \forall i \ne j$
- Scalar matrix : $a_{ij} = 0, i \ne j$ and $a_{ij} = k$ (Scalar), $i = j$, for some constant k.
- Identity matrix : $a_{ij} = 0, i \ne j$ and $a_{ij} = 1, i = j$
- Zero matrix : All elements are zero.

Transpose of a Matrix

If $A=[a_{ij}]_{m\times n}$, then its transpose $A' = (A^T) = [a_{ji}]_{n\times m}$ i.e. if $A = (2 \;\; 1)$ then $A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

Also, $(A')' = A$, $(kA)' = kA'$, $(A+B)' = A'+B'$, $(AB)' = B'A'$.

- A is symmetric matrix if $A=A'$ i.e. $A'=A$.
- A is skew – symmetric if $A = -A'$ i.e. $A' = -A$.
- A is any square matrix, then–

$$A = \frac{1}{2}\{(A + A') + (A - A')\} = \text{sum of a symmetric and a skew-symmetric matrix.}$$

($A + A'$ → S.M; $A - A'$ → Skew S.M.)

For example if $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 8 \\ 6 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$, then $A = \frac{1}{2}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 7 \\ 7 & 4 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$.

Equality of two matrices

$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = B$ if, A and B are of same order and $a_{ij} = b_{ij} \;\forall\; i$ and j; $i, j \in N$

Operations on matrices

Addition

If A, B are two matrices of same order, then $A+B=\begin{bmatrix} a_{ij}+b_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$. The addition of A and B follows: $A+B = B+A$, $(A+B)+C = A+(B+C)$, $-A = (-1)A$, $k(A+B) = kA + kB$, k is scalar and $(k+1)A = kA + IA$, k and I are constants.

- If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ then $A + B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 5 \\ -2 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$
- If $A = [2\;3]_{1\times 2}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}_{2\times 1}$, then $AB = [2\times 4 + 3\times 5] = [23]_{1\times 1}$

Multiplication

If $A=[a_{ij}]_{m\times n}$ and $B=[b_{jk}]_{n\times p}$, then $AB = C = [C_{ik}]_{m\times p}$, $[C_{jk}] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}b_{jk}$. Also, $A(BC) = (AB)C$, $A(B+C) = AB + AC$ and $(A+B)C = AC + BC$, but $AB \ne BA$ (always).

Elementary operations on a matrix

Properties for applying the operations

$R_i \leftrightarrow R_j$ or $C_i \leftrightarrow C_j$

$R_i \to kR_i$ or $C_i \to kC_i$

$R_i \to R_i + kR_j$ or $C_i \to C_i + kC_j$

Inverse of a matrix

If A, B are square matrices such that $AB = BA = I$ then $B = A^{-1}$ i.e., A is the inverse of B and vice-versa.

Inverse of a square matrix, if it exists, is unique

For example: If $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$, then after $R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2$, A becomes $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

If A and B are invertible matrices of the same order, then $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

By elementary transformations, we can convert $A = IA$ to $I = A^{-1}A$.

This is one process of finding the inverse of a given square matrix A.

Trace the Mind Map

- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Determinants

Minors and cofactors of a matrix

Minor of an element a_{ij} in a determinant of matrix A is the determinant obtained by deleting i^{th} row and j^{th} column and is denoted by M_{ij}. If M_{ij} is the minor of a_{ij} and cofactor of a_{ij} is A_{ij} given by $A_{ij} = (-1)^{i+j} M_{ij}$.

- If $A_{3\times3}$ is a matrix, then $|A| = a_{11}.A_{11} + a_{12}.A_{12} + a_{13}.A_{13}$.
- If elements of one row (or column) are multiplied with cofactors of elements of any other row (or column), then their sum is zero. For *e.g.*, $a_{11}A_{21} + a_{12}A_{22} + a_{13}A_{33} = 0$.

e.g., if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, then $M_{11} = 4$ and $A_{11} = (-1)^{1+1}4 = 4$.

Determinant of a square matrix 'A', |A| is given by

(i) if $A = [a_{11}]_{1\times1}$, then $|A| = a_{11}$

(ii) if $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}_{2\times2}$ then $|A| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$

(iii) if $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}_{3\times3}$, then $|A| = a_{11}(a_{22}.a_{33} - a_{23}.a_{32}) - a_{12}(a_{21}.a_{33} - a_{23}.a_{31}) + a_{13}(a_{21}a_{32} - a_{22}a_{31})$

For *eg.* if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, then $|A| = 2 \times 4 - 3 \times 2 = 2$

Properties of |A|

(i) $|A|$ remains unchanged, if the rows and columns of A are interchanged *ie.*, $|A| = |A'|$

(ii) if any two rows (or columns) of A are interchanged, then the sign of $|A|$ changes.

(iii) if any two rows (or columns) of A are identical, then $|A| = 0$

(iv) if each element of a row (or a column) of A is multiplied by B (const.), then $|A|$ gets multiplied by B.

(v) if $A = [a_{ij}]_{3\times3}$ then $|k.A| = k^3|A|$.

(vi) if elements of a row or a column in a determinant $|A|$ can be expressed as sum of two or more elements, then $|A|$ can be expressed as $|B| + |C|$.

(vii) if $R_i \rightarrow R_i + kR_j$ or $C_i = C_i + kC_j$ in $|A|$, then the value of $|A|$ remains same

Adjoint and inverse of a matrix

If $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$, then $Adj\ A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{21} & A_{31} \\ A_{12} & A_{22} & A_{32} \\ A_{13} & A_{23} & A_{33} \end{bmatrix}$, where A_{ij} is the cofactor of a_{ij}.

- $A(adj.A) = (adj.A).A = |A|I$, A – square matrix of order 'n'
- If $|A| = 0$, then A is singular. Otherwise, A is non-singular.
- If $AB = BA = I$, where B is a square matrix, then B is called the inverse of A, $A^{-1} = B$ or $B^{-1} = A$, $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

Inverse of a square matrix exists if A is non-singular *i.e.* $|A| \neq 0$, and is given by

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|}(adj.A)$$

Area of a triangle

If (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2) and (x_3, y_3) are the vertices of triangle, Area of $\Delta = \frac{1}{2}\begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & y_3 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

For eg: if (1, 2), (3, 4) and (–2, 5) are the vertices, then area of the triangle is

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{2}\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \\ -2 & 5 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}|1(4-5) - 2(3+2) + 1(15+8)| = 6 \text{ sq.units.}$$

we take positive value of the determinant because area in write is positive.

Applications of determinants & matrices

- If $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = d_1, a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = d_2, a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = d_3$ then we can write $AX = B$,

where $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{bmatrix}$ $X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \\ d_3 \end{bmatrix}$

- Unique solution of $AX = B$ is $X = A^{-1}B$, $|A| \neq 0$.
- $AX = B$ is consistent or inconsistent according as the solution exists or not.
- For a square matrix A in $AX = B$, if
  - (i) $|A| \neq 0$ then there exists unique solution.
  - (ii) $|A| = 0$ and (adj. A) $B \neq 0$, then no solution.
  - (iii) if $|A| = 0$ and $(adj.A).B = 0$ then system may or may not be consistent.

Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Continuity and Differentiability

Continuous Function

Suppose f is a real function on a subset of the real numbers and let 'c' be a point in the domain of f. Then f is continuous at c if $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = f(c)$

A real function f is said to be continuous if it is continuous at every point in the domain of f.

eg: The function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, $x \neq 0$ is continuous

Let 'c' be any non-zero real number, then $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = \lim_{x\to c} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{c}$. For $c = 0, f(c) = \frac{1}{c}$ So $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = f(c)$ and hence f is continuous at every point in the domain of f.

Algebra of continuous functions

Suppose f and g are two real functions continuous at a real number c, then, $f+g, f-g, f.g$ and $\frac{f}{g}$ are continuous at $x=c[g(c) \neq 0]$.

Differentiability

Suppose f is a real function and c is a point in its domain. The derivative of f at c is $f'(c) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h}$

Every differentiable function is continuous, but the converse is not true.

Chain Rule

if $f = vou$, $t = u(x)$ and if both $\frac{dt}{dx}, \frac{dv}{dt}$ exists, then $\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{dv}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx}$.

Logarithmic differentiation

Let $y = f(x) = [u(x)]^{v(x)}$

$\log y = v(x) \log[u(x)]$

$\frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = v(x) \frac{1}{u(x)} u'(x) + v'(x) \log[u(x)]$

$\frac{dy}{dx} = y\left[\frac{v(x)}{u(x)} u'(x) + v'(x) \log[u(x)]\right]$

e.g. : Let $y = a^x$ Then $\log y = x \log a$

$\frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = \log a$

$\frac{dy}{dx} = y \log a = a^x \log a$.

Derivatives of Implicit functions

If two variables are expressed by some relation then one will be the implicit function of other, is called Implicit function.

For example: Let $y = \cos x - \sin y$, then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \cos x - \frac{d}{dx} \sin y$

or, $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin x - \cos y . \frac{dy}{dx}$ or, $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin x / (1 + \cos y)$, where $y \neq (2n+1)\pi$

Some Standard derivatives

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Mean Value Theorem

If $f : [a, b] \to R$ continuous on $[a, b]$ and such differentiable on (a, b).

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

e.g. Let $f(x) = x^2$ defined in the interval [2, 4].

Since $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous in [2, 4] and differentiable in (2, 4) as $f'(x) = 2x$ defined in (2, 4).

So, $f'(c) = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} = \frac{16-4}{4-2} = 6$

$2c = 6$

$c = 3 \in (2, 4)$

Rolle's theorem

If $f : [a, b] \to R$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b). such that $f(a) = f(b)$, then $\exists$ some c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.

Second order derivative

Let $y = f(x)$ then $\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$, if $f'(x)$ is differentiable, then $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{d}{dx} f'(x)$ *i.e.*,

$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f''(x)$ is the second order derivative of y *w.r.t.x*.

eg : if $y = 3x^2 + 2$, then $y' = 6x$ and $y'' = 6$.

Derivatives of functions in parametric form

Let $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ be two functions of parameter 't'.

Then, $\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt}$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}}$ $\left(\frac{dx}{dy} \neq 0\right)$

Thus, $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)}$ (provided $f'(t) \neq 0$)

eg : if $x = a\cos\theta$, $y = a\sin\theta$ then $\frac{dx}{d\theta} = -a\sin\theta$ and

$\frac{dy}{d\theta} = a\cos\theta$, and so $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta} = -\frac{a\cos\theta}{a\sin\theta} = -\cot\theta$.

Trace the Mind Map

- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Applications of Derivatives

Rate of change of quantities

If a quantity 'y' varies with another quantity x so that $y = f(x)$, then $\frac{dy}{dx} = [f'(x)]$ represents the rate of change of y w.r.t x and $\left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{x=x_0} (f'(x_0))$ represents the rate of change of y w.r.t. x at $x = x_0$

If 'x' and 'y' varies with another variable 't' *i.e.*, if $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$, then by chain rule $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \Big/ \frac{dx}{dt}$, if $\frac{dx}{dt} \neq 0$.

eg: if the radius of a circle, r = 5 cm, then the rate of change of the area of a circle per second w.r.t 'r' is – $\left.\frac{dA}{dr}\right|_{r=5} = \frac{d}{dr}(\pi r^2)|_{r=5} = 2\pi r|_{r=5} = 10\pi$

Increasing and decreasing functions

A function f is said to be
(i) increasing on (a,b) if $x_1 < x_2$ in $(a,b) \Rightarrow f(x_1) \le f(x_2) \forall x_1, x_2 \in (a,b)$, and
(ii) decreasing on (a, b) if $x_1 < x_2$ in $(a,b) \Rightarrow f(x_1) \ge f(x_2) \forall x_1, x_2 \in (a,b)$

If $f'(x) \ge 0 \forall x \in (a,b)$ then f is increasing in (a,b) and if $f'(x) \le 0 \forall x \in (a,b)$, then f is decreasing in (a,b)
eg: Let $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x$, $x \in R$, then $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 4 = 3(x-1)^2 + 1 > 0 \forall x \in R$.
So, the function f is strictly increasing on R.

Equation of tangent to the curve

The equation of the tangent at (x_0, y_0), to the curve $y = f(x)$ is given by $(y - y_0) = \left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{(x_0, y_0)} (x - x_0)$ if $\frac{dy}{dx}$ does not exist at (x_0, y_0), then the tangent at (x_0, y_0) is parallel to the y–axis and its equation is $x = x_0$.
If tangent to a curve $y = f(x)$ at $x = x_0$ is parallel to x–axis, then $\left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{x=x_0} = 0$.

Equation of the normal to the curve

The equation of normal at (x_0, y_0) to the curve $y = f(x)$ is $y - y_0 = -\frac{1}{\left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{(x_0, y_0)}} (x - x_0)$
if $\frac{dy}{dx}$ at (x_0, y_0) is zero, then equation of the normal is $x = x_0$. If $\frac{dy}{dx}$ at (x_0, y_0) does not exist, then the normal is parallel to x-axis and its equation is $y = y_0$ eg: Let $y = x^3 - x$ be a curve, then the slope of the tangent to $y = x^3 - x$ at $x = 2$ is $\left.\frac{dy}{dx}\right|_{x=2} = 3x^2 - 1|_{x=2} = 3.2^2 - 1 = 11$,
The equation of normal will be $x + 11y - 68 = 0$

Approximations

Let $y = f(x)$; Δx be a small increment in 'x' and Δy be the small increment in y corresponding to the increment in 'x', *i.e.* $\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$. Then, Δy is given by $dy = f'(x)dx$ or $dy = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)\Delta x$, is approximation of Δy when $dx = \Delta x$ is relatively small and denote by $dy \approx \Delta y$.

e.g., Let us approximate $\sqrt{36.6}$. To do this, we take $y = \sqrt{x}$, $x = 36$, $\Delta x = 0.6$ then $\Delta y = \sqrt{x + dx} - \sqrt{x}$

$= \sqrt{36.6} - \sqrt{36}$

$= \sqrt{36.6} - 6 \quad \Rightarrow \sqrt{36.6} = 6 + dy$

Now, dy is approximately Δy and is given by

$dy = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)\Delta x = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}(0.6) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{36}}(0.6) = 0.05$. So, $\sqrt{36.6} \approx 6 + 0.05 = 6.05$.

Maxima and Minima

A point C in the domain of 'f' at which either $f'(C) = 0$ or is not differentiable is called a critical point of f.

Second derivative test

Let f be a function defined on given interval, f is twice differentiable at C. Then
(i) $x = C$ is a point of local maxima If $f'(C) = 0$ and $f''(C) < 0$, $f(C)$ is local maxima of f.
(ii) $x = C$ is a point of local minima if $f'(C) = 0$ and $f''(C) > 0$. $f(C)$ is local minima of f.
(iii) The test fails if $f'(C) = 0$ and $f''(C) = 0$

First derivative test

Let f be continuous at a critical point C in open interval. Then
(i) if $f'(x) > 0$ at every point left of C and $f'(x) < 0$ at every point right of C, then 'C' is a point of local maxima.
(ii) If $f'(x) < 0$ at every point left of C and $f'(x) > 0$ at every point right of C, then 'C' is a point of local minima.
(iii) If $f'(x)$ does not change sign as 'x' increases through C, then 'C' is called the point of inflection.

Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Integrals

Integration

It is the inverse of differentiation. Let, $\frac{d}{dx}F(x)=f(x)$. Then, $\int f(x)dx=F(x)+c$,'c': constant of integral. These integrals are called indefinite or general integrals. Properties of indefinite integrals are

(i) $\int[f(x)\pm g(x)]dx=\int f(x)dx\pm\int g(x)dx$, (ii) $\int kf(x)dx=k\int f(x)dx$,

eg : $\int(3x^2+2x)dx=x^3+x^2+c$, where c is real.

Some standard integrals

(i) $\int x^n dx=\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}+c, n\neq-1$ like, $\int dx=x+c$

(ii) $\int\cos x\,dx=\sin x+c$ (iii) $\int\sin x\,dx=-\cos x+c$

(iv) $\int\sec^2 x\,dx=\tan x+c$ (v) $\int\text{cosec}^2 x\,dx=-\cot x+c$

(vi) $\int\sec x\tan x\,dx=\sec x+c$ (vii) $\int\text{cosec}\,x\cot x\,dx=-\text{cosec}\,x+c$

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

(x) $\int\frac{dx}{1+x^2}=\tan^{-1}x+c$ (xi) $\int\frac{dx}{1+x^2}=-\cot^{-1}x+c$

(xii) $\int e^x dx=e^x+c$ (xiii) $\int a^x dx=\frac{a^x}{\log a}+c$

(xiv) $\int\frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}=\sec^{-1}x+c$ (xv) $\int\frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}=-\text{cosec}^{-1}x+c$

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

Integration by partial fractions

A rational function of the form $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}[Q(x)\neq0]=T(x)+\frac{P_1(x)}{Q(x)}$, $P_1(x)$ has degree less than that of $Q(x)$. We can integrate $\frac{P_1(x)}{Q(x)}$ by expressing it in the following forms –

(i) $\frac{px+q}{(x-a)(x-b)}=\frac{A}{x-a}+\frac{B}{x-b}$, $a,b\neq0$.

(ii) $\frac{px+q}{(x-a)^2}=\frac{A}{x-a}+\frac{B}{(x-a)^2}$

(iii) $\frac{px^2+qx+r}{(x-a)^2(x-b)}=\frac{A}{x-a}+\frac{B}{(x-a)^2}+\frac{C}{x-b}$

(iv) $\frac{px^2+qx+r}{(x-a)(x^2+bx+c)}=\frac{A}{x-a}+\frac{Bx+C}{x^2+bx+c}$

(v) $\frac{Px+q}{ax^2+bx+c}=\frac{A\frac{d}{dx}(ax^2+bx+c)}{ax^2+bx+c}+\frac{B}{ax^2+bx+c}$

Second fundamental theorem of integral calculus

Let f be a continuous function of x defined on $[a,b]$ and let F be another function such that $\frac{d}{dx}F(x)=f(x)\forall x\in$ domain of f_1 then $\int_a^b f(x)dx=[F(x)+c]_a^b=F(b)-F(a)$. This is called the definite integral of f over the range $[a,b]$, where a and b are called the limits of integration, a being the lower limit and b be the upper limit.

Example

$$\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4}\sin^2 x\,dx$$
$$=2\int_0^{\pi/4}\sin^2 x\,dx$$
$$=2\int_0^{\pi/4}\left(\frac{1-\cos 2x}{2}\right)dx$$
$$=\int_0^{\pi/4}(1-\cos 2x)dx$$
$$=\left[x-\frac{\sin 2x}{2}\right]_0^{\pi/4}$$
$$=\frac{\pi}{4}-\frac{1}{2}$$

Definite integral as the limit of a sum

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx=(b-a)\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\left[f(a)+f(a+h)+\ldots\ldots+f\left(a+\overline{n-1}h\right)\right]$$

where $h=\frac{b-a}{n}\to0$ as $n\to\infty$

First fundamental theorem of integral calculus

Let the area function be defined by $A(x)=\int_a^x f(x)dx\forall x\geq a$, where f is continuous on $[a,b]$ then $A'(x)=f(x)\forall x\in[a,b]$.

Integration by parts

$$\int f_1(x)f_2(x)dx=f_1(x)\int f_2(x)dx-\int\left[\frac{d}{dx}f_1(x)\int f_2(x)dx\right]dx$$

Integration of some special functions

(i) $\int\frac{dx}{x^2-a^2}=\frac{1}{2a}\log\left|\frac{x-a}{x+a}\right|+c$ (ii) $\int\frac{dx}{a^2-x^2}=\frac{1}{2a}\log\left|\frac{a+x}{a-x}\right|+c$

(iii) $\int\frac{dx}{x^2+a^2}=\frac{1}{a}\tan^{-1}\frac{x}{a}+c$ (iv) $\int\frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2-a^2}}=\log\left|x+\sqrt{x^2-a^2}\right|+c$

(v) $\int\frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}}=\sin^{-1}\frac{x}{a}+c$ (vi) $\int\frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2+a^2}}=\log\left|x+\sqrt{x^2+a^2}\right|+c$.

(vii) $\int\sqrt{x^2-a^2}\,dx=\frac{x}{2}\sqrt{x^2-a^2}-\frac{a^2}{2}\log\left|x+\sqrt{x^2-a^2}\right|+c$.

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

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

Integration by substitution

The method in which we change the variable to some other variable is called the method of substitution. Below problems can be solved by substitution.

$\int\tan x\,dx=\log|\sec x|+c$ $\int\cot x\,dx=\log|\sin x|+c$

$\int\sec x\,dx=\log|\sec x+\tan x|+c$ $\int\text{cosec}\,x\,dx=\log|\text{cosec}\,x-\cot x|+c$.

Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Applications of the Integrals

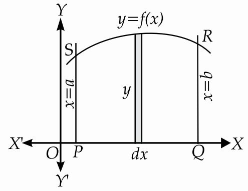
Area under simple curves

The area of the region bounded by the curve $y = f(x)$, x- axis and the lines $x=a$ and $x = b(b > a)$ is given by

$A = \int_a^b y\, dx$ or $\int_a^b f(x)dx$

eg : The area bounded by $y=x^2$, x- $axis$ in I quadrant and the lines $x=2$ and $x=3$ is -

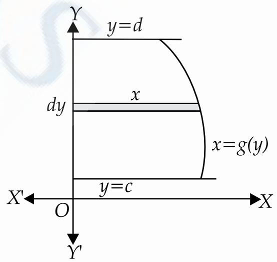
$A = \int_2^3 y\, dx = \int_2^3 x^2\, dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3}\right]_2^3 = \frac{1}{3}(27-8) = \frac{19}{3}$ Sq.units.



The area of the region bounded by the curve $x = f(y)$, $y-axis$ and the lines $y=c$ and $y = d(d > c)$ is given by $A = \int_c^d x\,dy$ or $\int_c^d f(x)dy$

eg : The area bounded by $x = y^3$, $y - axis$ in the I quadrant and the lines $y=1$ and $y=2$ is

$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f^3\, dy = \left[\frac{1}{4}y^4\right]_1^2 = \frac{1}{4}(2^4 - 1^4) = \frac{15}{4}$ Sq. units



Area bounded by two curves

If $f(x) \geq g(x)$ in $[a,c]$ and $f(x) \leq g(x)$ in $[c, b], a < c < b$, then the area is

$A = \int_a^c [f(x) - g(x)]dx + \int_c^b [g(x) - f(x)]dx$

The area of the region enclosed between two curves $y = f(x), y = g(x)$ and the lines $x=a$, $x=b$ is given by $A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)]dx$, where $f(x) \geq g(x)$ in $[a,b]$

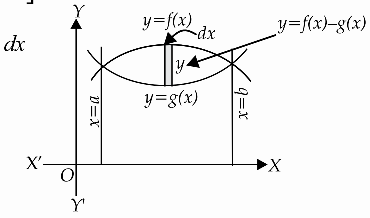
$e.g.$, To find the area of the region bounded by the two parabolas $y = x^2$ and $y^2 = x$, (0,0) and (1,1) are points of intersection of $y = x^2$ and $y^2 = x$ and $y^2 = x \Rightarrow y = \sqrt{x} = f(x)$, and $y = x^2 = g(x)$, where $f(x) \geq g(x)$ in $[0, 1]$.

Area, $A = \int_0^1 [f(x) - g(x)]dx$

$= \int_0^1 \left[\sqrt{x} - x^2\right] dx$

$= \left[\frac{2}{3}x^{3/2} - \frac{x^3}{3}\right]_0^1$

$= \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ Sq. units.



Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Differential Equations

Definition

An equation involving derivatives of the dependent variable with respect to independent variable (variables) is called a differential equation. If there is only one independent variable, then we call it as an ordinary differential equation. eg: $2\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}+\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)=0$.

Order of a Differential Equation

It is the order of the highest order derivative occurring in the differential equation eg: the order of $\frac{dy}{dx}=e^x$ is one and order of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}+x=0$ is two.

The order of a Differential equation representing a family of curves is same as the number of arbitrary constants present in the equation corresponding to the family of curves. eg: Let the family of curves be $y=mx$, $m=$ constant, then, $y'=m$

$y=y'x \Rightarrow y=\frac{dy}{dx}x \Rightarrow x\frac{dy}{dx}-y=0$.

Degree of a Differential Equation

It is defined if the differential equation is a polynomial equation in its derivatives, and is defined as the highest power (positive integer only) of the highest order derivative.

eg: the degree of $\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^3+\frac{dy}{dx}=0$ is three

Order and degree (if defined) of a differential equation are always positive integers.

Solution of a Differential Equation

A function which satisfies the given differential equation is called its solution. The solution which contains as many arbitrary constants as the order of the differential equation is called a general solution and the solution free from arbitrary constants is called particular solution.

eg: $y=e^x+1$ is a solution of $y''-y'=0$.

Since $y'=e^x$ and $y''=e^x \Rightarrow y''-y'=e^x-e^x=0$.

Formation of Differential Equations

To form a differential equation from a given function, we differentiate the function successively as many times as the no. of arbitrary constants in the given function, and then eliminate the arbitrary constants. eg: Let the function be $y=ax+b$, then we have to differentiate it two times, since there are 2 arbitrary constants a and b. $\therefore y'=a \Rightarrow y''=0$. Thus $y''=0$ is the required differential equation.

Linear Differential Equations

The differential equation of the form $\frac{dy}{dx}+Py=Q$, where P, Q are constants or functions of 'x' only is called a first order linear differential equation. Its solution is given as $ye^{\int P.dx}=\int Q.e^{\int P.dx}dx+c$. eg : $\frac{dy}{dx}+3y=2x$ has solution $ye^{\int 3.dx}=\int 2x.e^{\int 3.dx}dx+c \Rightarrow ye^{3x}=2\int xe^{3x}dx+c$.

Homogeneous Differential Equations

A differential equation which can be expressed in the form $\frac{dy}{dx}=f(x,y)$ or $\frac{dx}{dy}=g(x,y)$, where, $f(x,y)$ and $g(x,y)$ are homogeneous functions of degree zero is called a homogenous differential equation

$eg: (x^2+xy)dy=(x^2+y^2)dx$

To solve this, we substitute $y=vx$. and $\frac{dy}{dx}=v+x\frac{dv}{dx}$

Variable Separation Method

It is used to solve such an equation in which variables can be separated completely. eg : $y\,dx=x\,dy$ can be solved as $\frac{dx}{x}=\frac{dy}{y}$; Integrating both sides $\log x=\log y+\log c \Rightarrow \frac{x}{y}=c \Rightarrow x=cy$, is the solution.

Trace the Mind Map

- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

To know about more useful books *click here*

Vectors

Vector
A quantity that has both magnitude and direction is called a vector. The distance between the initial and terminal points of a vector is called its magnitude. Magnitude of vector $\vec{AB}$ is $|\vec{AB}|$.

Position Vector
Position vector of a point $P\ (x, y, z)$ is $x\hat{i}+y\hat{j}+z\hat{k}$ and its magnitude is $OP(r)=\sqrt{x^2+y^2+z^2}$. eg: Position vector of $P\ (2,3,5)$ is $2\hat{i}+3\hat{j}+5\hat{k}$ and its magnitude is $\sqrt{2^2+3^2+5^2}=\sqrt{38}$.

Direction ratios and direction cosines
The scalar components of a vector are its direction ratios, and represent its projections along the respective axes.

The magnitude (r) direction ratios (a,b,c) and direction cosines (l,m,n) of vector $a\hat{i}+b\hat{j}+c\hat{k}$ are related as:

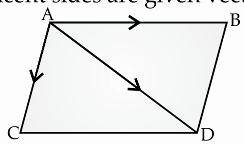
$l=\frac{a}{r}, m=\frac{b}{r}, n=\frac{c}{r}$

eg : If $\vec{AB}=\hat{i}+2\hat{j}+3\hat{k}$, then $r=\sqrt{1+4+9}=\sqrt{14}$

Direction ratios are (1,2,3) and direction cosines are $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}\right)$

Types of Vectors
(i) Zero vector (initial and terminal points coincide)
(ii) Unit vector (magnitude is unity)
(iii) Coinitial vectors (same initial points)
(iv) Collinear vectors (parallel to the same line)
(v) Equal vectors (same magnitude and direction)
(vi) Negative of a vector (same magnitude, opp. direction)

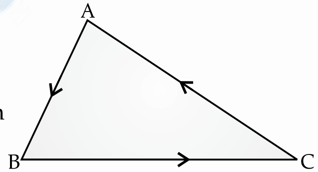
Properties of Vector
The vector sum of two coinitials vectors is given by the diagonal of the parallelogram whose adjacent sides are given vectors.



if $\vec{AB}, \vec{AC}$ are the given vectors, then $\vec{AB}+\vec{AC}=\vec{AD}$

The vector sum of the three sides of a triangle taken in order is $\vec{0}$ *i.e*

if ABC is given triangle, then $\vec{AB}+\vec{BC}+\vec{CA}=\vec{0}$.



If we have two vectors $\vec{a}=a_1\hat{i}+a_2\hat{j}+a_3\hat{k}$, $\vec{b}=b_1\hat{i}+b_2\hat{j}+b_3\hat{k}$ and λ is any scalar, then-

(i) $\vec{a}\pm\vec{b}=(a_1\pm b_1)\hat{i}+(a_2\pm b_2)\hat{j}+(a_3\pm b_3)\hat{k}$

(ii) $\lambda\vec{a}=(\lambda a_1)\hat{i}+(\lambda a_2)\hat{j}+(\lambda a_3)\hat{k}$

(iii) $\vec{a}.\vec{b}=a_1b_1+a_2b_2+a_3b_3$ and

(iv) $\vec{a}\times\vec{b}=\begin{vmatrix}\hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k}\\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3\\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3\end{vmatrix}$

Cross product of two vectors
$\vec{a}\times\vec{b}=|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\sin\theta\,\hat{n}$, $\hat{n}$ is a unit vector perpendicular to line joining a,b.

Scalar product of two vectors
If $\vec{a}, \vec{b}$ are the vectors and 'θ', angle between them, then their scalar product $\vec{a}.\vec{b}=|\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\cos\theta$

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

Position of vectors
The position vector of a point R dividing a line segment joining P,Q whose position vectors are $\vec{a}, \vec{b}$ resp., in the ratio $m:n$
(i) internally is $\frac{n\vec{a}+m\vec{b}}{m+n}$, (ii) externally is $\frac{m\vec{b}-n\vec{a}}{m-n}$

Unit vector
For a given vector $\vec{a}$, the vector $\hat{a}=\frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}$ gives the unit vector in the direction of $\vec{a}$. *eg* , if $\vec{a}=5\hat{i}$, then $\hat{a}=\frac{5\hat{i}}{|5|}=\hat{i}$, which is a unit vector.

Three Dimensional Geometry

Direction ratios and direction cosines of a line

D. Cs of a line are the cosines of the angles made by the line with the positive direction of the co-ordinate axes. If l, m, n are the D. Cs of a line, then $l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 1$. D. Cs of a line joining $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ are $\frac{x_2-x_1}{PQ}, \frac{y_2-y_1}{PQ}, \frac{z_2-z_1}{PQ}$, where $PQ=\sqrt{(x_2-x_1)^2+(y_2-y_1)^2+(z_2-z_1)^2}$

D.Rs of a line are the no.s which are proportional to the D.Cs of the line if l, m, n are the D.Cs and a, b, c are D.Rs of a line, then

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

Skew lines

These are the lines in space which are neither parallel nor intersecting. They lie in different planes. Angle between skew lines is the angle between two intersecting lines drawn from any point (origin) parallel to each of the skew lines.

Angle between the two lines

if $l_1, m_1, n_1, l_2, m_2, n_2$ are the D.Cs and $a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2$ are the D.Rs of the two lines and 'σ' is the acute angle between them, then

$\cos\theta=|l_1 l_2+m_1 m_2+n_1 n_2|=\left|\frac{a_1 a_2+b_1 b_2+c_1 c_2}{\sqrt{a_1^2+b_1^2+c_1^2}\sqrt{a_2^2+b_2^2+c_2^2}}\right|$

Equation of line Vector in 3D

Vector equation of a line passing through the given point whose position vector is $\vec{a}$ and parallel to a given vector $\vec{b}$ is $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda\vec{b}$

Vector equation of a line which passes through two points whose position vectors are $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ is $\vec{r} = \vec{a} + \lambda(\vec{b}-\vec{a})$

Equation of a line through point (x_1, y_1, z_1) and having D.Cs l, m, n is $\frac{x-x_1}{l}=\frac{y-y_1}{m}=\frac{z-z_1}{n}$ Also, equation of a line that passes through two points is $\frac{x-x_1}{x_2-x_1}=\frac{y-y_1}{y_2-y_1}=\frac{z-z_1}{z_2-z_1}$

Angle between two lines

If 'σ' is the acute angle between $\vec{r}=\vec{a_1}+\lambda\vec{b_1}, \vec{r}=\vec{a_2}+\lambda\vec{b_2}$

then, $\cos\theta=\left|\frac{\vec{b_1}.\vec{b_2}}{|\vec{b_1}|.|\vec{b_2}|}\right|$

if $\frac{x-x_1}{l_1}=\frac{y-y_1}{m_1}=\frac{z-z_1}{n_1}$ and $\frac{x-x_2}{l_2}=\frac{y-y_2}{m_2}=\frac{z-z_2}{n_2}$ are the equations of two lines, then acute angle between them is $\cos\theta=|l_1.l_2+m_1.m_2+n_1.n_2|$

Parallel lines

(i) two skew lines is the line segment perpendicular to both the lines

(ii) $\vec{r}=\vec{a_1}+\lambda\vec{b_1}$ and $\vec{r}=\vec{a_2}+\mu\vec{b_2}$ is $\left|\frac{(\vec{b_1}\times\vec{b_2}).(\vec{a_2}-\vec{a_1})}{|(\vec{b_1}\times\vec{b_2})|}\right|$

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

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

(iv) Distance between parallel lines $\vec{r}=\vec{a_1}+\lambda\vec{b}$ and $\vec{r}=\vec{a_2}+\mu\vec{b}$ is $\left|\frac{\vec{b}\times(\vec{a_2}-\vec{a_1})}{|\vec{b}|}\right|$

Equation of a plane

(i) which is at distance 'd' from origin and D.C.s of the normal to the plane as l,m,n is $lx+my+nz=d$.

(ii) $\perp \vec{r}$ to a given line with D.Rs. A,B,C and passing through (x_1,y_1,z_1) is $A(x-x_1)+B(y-y_1)+C(z-z_1)=0$

(iii) Passing through three non-collinear points (x_1,y_1,z_1) (x_2,y_2,z_2), (x_3,y_3,z_3) is $\begin{vmatrix} x-x_1 & y-y_1 & z-z_1 \\ x_2-x_1 & y_2-y_1 & z_2-z_1 \\ x_3-x_1 & y_3-y_1 & z_3-z_1 \end{vmatrix}=0$.

Vector equation of a plane

(i) which contains three non-collinear points having position vectors $\vec{a}, \vec{b}, \vec{c}$ is $(\vec{r}-\vec{a}).[(\vec{b}-\vec{a})\times(\vec{c}-\vec{a})]=0$.

(ii) That passes through the intersection of planes $\vec{r}.\vec{n_1}=d_1$ & $\vec{r}.\vec{n_2}=d_2$ is $\vec{r}.(\vec{n_1}+\lambda\vec{n_2})=d_1+\lambda d_2$, λ – non-zero constant.

Characteristics of planes

Two lines $\vec{r}=\vec{a_1}+\lambda\vec{b_1}, \vec{r}=\vec{a_2}+\mu\vec{b_2}$ are coplanar if $(\vec{a_2}-\vec{a_1}).(\vec{b_1}\times\vec{b_2})=0$. Equation of a plane that cuts co-ordinate axes at (a,0,0), (0,b,0), (0,0,c) is $\frac{x}{a}+\frac{y}{b}+\frac{z}{c}=1$.

The distance of a point with position vector $\vec{a}$ from the plane $\vec{r}.\hat{n}=d$ is $|d-\vec{a}.\hat{n}|$ point (x_1,y_1,z_1). The distance from a to the plane $Ax+By+Cz+D=0$ is $\left|\frac{Ax_1+By_1+Cz_1+D}{\sqrt{A^2+B^2+C^2}}\right|$

Trace the Mind Map
- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level

Linear Programming

Definition

A. L.P.P. is one that is concerned with finding the optimal value (max. or min.) of a linear function of several variables (called objective function) subject to the conditions that the variables are non-negative and satisty a set of linear inequalities (called linear constraints). Variables are sometimes called decision variables and are non-negative.

Types of L.P.P.

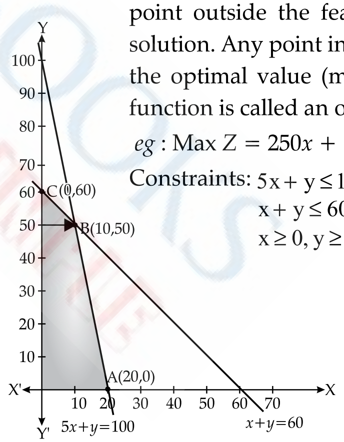
(i) Diet Problems
(ii) Manufacturing Problems
(iii) Transportation Problems

Solution of a L.P.P.

The common region determined by all the constraints including the non-negative constraint $x \geq 0, y \geq 0$ of a L.P.P. is called the feasible region (or solution region) for the problem. Points within and on the boundary of the feasible region represent feasible solutions of the constraints. Any point outside the feasible region is an infeasible solution. Any point in the feasible region that gives the optimal value (max. or min.) of the objective function is called an optimal solution.

eg : Max $Z = 250x + 75y$, subject to the

Constraints: $5x + y \leq 100$
$x + y \leq 60$
$x \geq 0, y \geq 0$ is an L.P.P.



Fundamental Theorems

Theorem I : Let R be the feasible region (convex polygon) for a L.P. and let $Z=ax+by$ be the objective function. When Z has an optimal value (max. or min.), where the variables x,y are subject to the constraints described by linear inequalities, this optimal value must occur at a corner point (vertex) of the feasible region,

Theorem 2: Let R be the feasible region for a L.P.P, and let $Z=ax+by$ be the objective function. If R is bounded then the objective function Z has both a max. and a min. value on R and each of these occurs at a corner point (vertex) of R.

If the feasible region is unbounded, then a max. or a min. may not exist. If it exists, it must occur at a corner point of R.

Corner point method

1. Find the feasible region of the linear programming problem and determine its corner points (vertices) either by inspection or by solving the two equations of the lines intersecting at that point.
2. Evaluate the objective function $Z = ax+by$ at each corner point. Let M and m, respectively denote the largest and smallest values of these points.
3. (i) When the feasible region is **bounded,** M and m are the maximum and minimum values of Z
   (ii) In case, the feasible region is **unbounded**, we have:
4. (a) M is the maximum value of Z, if the open half plane determined by $ax+by>M$ has no point in common with the feasible region. Otherwise, Z has no maximum value.
   (b) Similarly, m is the minimum value of Z, if the open half plane determined by $ax+by<m$ has no point in common with the feasible region. Otherwise, Z has no minimum value.

Trace the Mind Map
‣ First Level ‣ Second Level ‣ Third Level

Probability

Conditional Probability

The probability of the event E is called the conditional probability of E given that F has already occurred, and is denoted by $P(E/F)$. Also,

$$P(E/F)=\frac{P(E\cap F)}{P(F)},P(F)\neq 0.$$

Properties

(i) $0\leq P(E/F)\leq 1,\ P(E'/F)=1-P(E/F)$

(ii) $P((E\cup F)/G)=P(E/G)+P(F/G)-P((E\cap F)/G)$

(iii) $P(E\cap F)=P(E)P(F/E), P(E)\neq 0$

(iv) $P(F\cap E)=P(F)P(E/F), P(F)\neq 0$

eg : if $P(A)=\frac{7}{13}$, $P(B)=\frac{9}{13}$ and $P(A\cap B)=\frac{4}{13}$, then

$$P(A/B)=\frac{p(A\cap B)}{P(B)}=\frac{\frac{4}{13}}{\frac{9}{13}}=\frac{4}{9}.$$

Independent Event

If E and F are independent, then

$P(E\cap F)=P(E)P(F)$, $P(E-F)=P(E)$, $P(F)\neq 0$

and $P(E-F)=P(E)$, $P(F)$, $P(E)\neq 0$.

If A,B,C are mutually independent events then

(i) $P(A\cap B)=P(A).P(B)$

(ii) $P(A\cap C)=P(A).P(C)$

(iii) $P(B\cap C)=P(B).P(C)$

(iv) $P(A\cap B\cap C)=P(A).P(B).P(C)$

Theorem of total probability

Let, $\{E_1, E_2 \ldots.E_n\}$ be a partition of a sample space 'S' and suppose that each of $E_1, E_2, \ldots.E_n$ has non-zero probability. Let 'A' be any event associated with S, then $P(A) = P(E_1)\,P(A/E_1) + P(E_2)\,P(A/E_2) + \ldots + P(E_n)\,P(A/E_n)$.

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}P(E_i)\,P(A/E_i)$$

Bayes' Theorem

If $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_n$ are events which constitute a partition of sample space S, *i.e.*, $E_1, E_2, \ldots E_n$ are pairwise disjoint and $E_1\cup E_2\cup\ldots\cup E_n=S$ and A be any event with non-zero probability,

then $$P(E_i/A)=\frac{P(E_i)P(A/E_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n}P(E_i)P(A/E_i)}, n=1,2,3\ldots\ldots..n$$

Random Variable

Real valued function whose domain is the sample space of a random experiment.

Probability Distribution

The probability distribution of a random variable x is the system of numbers

x: $x_1\ x_2 \ldots\ldots x_n$, $P(x)$: $p_1\ p_2 \ldots\ldots p_n$

where , $p_i>0$,

$\sum_{i=1}^{n}p_i=1, i=1.2, \ldots..,n.$

Mean of a random variable

Let x be *a* random variable whose possible values $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ occur with probabilities $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ resp. Then, mean of

x, $\mu=\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_ip_i$. It is also called the expectation of x, denoted by $E(x)$

Variance and standard deviation

Let x be a random variable whose possible values $x_1\ x_2, \ldots, x_n$ occurs with probabilities $p(x_1), p(x_2), \ldots, p(x_n)$ respectively. Let, $\mu=E(x)$ be the mean of x. The variance of x, var (x) or

$\sigma_x^2=\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-\mu)^2p(x_i)$ or $E(x-\mu)^2$

The non-negative number

$\sigma_x=\sqrt{\text{var}(X)}=\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i-\mu)^2p(x_i)}$ is called the standard deviation of the random variable 'X'. Also, $\text{var}(X)=E(X^2)-[E(X)]^2$ eg: $E(X) = 3$ and $E(X^2) = 10$, then var X= 10–9 = 1 and SD=$\sqrt{1}$=1.

Trace the Mind Map

- First Level
- Second Level
- Third Level