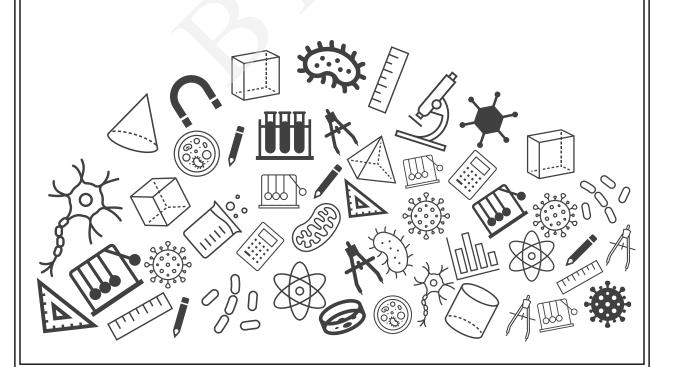


Grade 10 Mathematics Chapter Notes





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Real Numbers



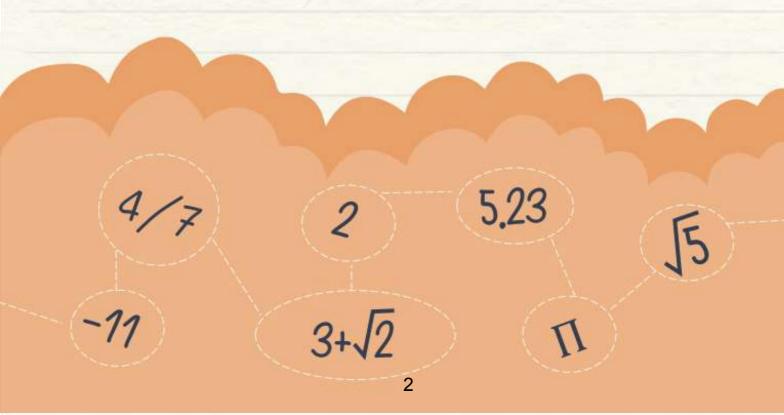




1. Tundamental Theorem of Arithmetic



2. Irrational Numbers





1. Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Every composite number can be expressed as a product of primes, and this factorisation is unique (apart from the order).

- tornole

The prime factorisation of the number 8190 is:

$$8190 = 2^1 \times 3^2 \times 5^1 \times 7^1 \times 13^1$$

4.1 Theorem Based on Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

If a prime number p divides a2, then p divides a, where a is a positive integer.

E tombe

Let us consider, p = 3, a = 9

3 divides 92

3 divides 9.

4.2 Relation between HCF and LCM

For any two positive integers a and b.

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



Note: This relationship only holds good for two numbers.



2. Inhational Numbers

A number 's' is called irrational if it cannot be written in the form $\frac{p}{a}$, where p and q are integers and $q \neq 0$.

Prove that √2 is irrational

Proof: By using method of contradiction

Assume √2 is a rational number.

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$$
 (a and b are co-primes and $b \neq 0$)

$$\Rightarrow b\sqrt{2} = a$$

Squaring both the sides

$$(b\sqrt{2})^2 = a^2$$

 $\Rightarrow 2b^2 = a^2$ (a is an even number)

Let a = 2k (k is an integer) $2b^2 = 4k^2$

$$2b^2 = 4k^2$$

$$\Rightarrow b^2 = 2k^2$$
 (b is an even number)

: a and b have 2 as a common factor.

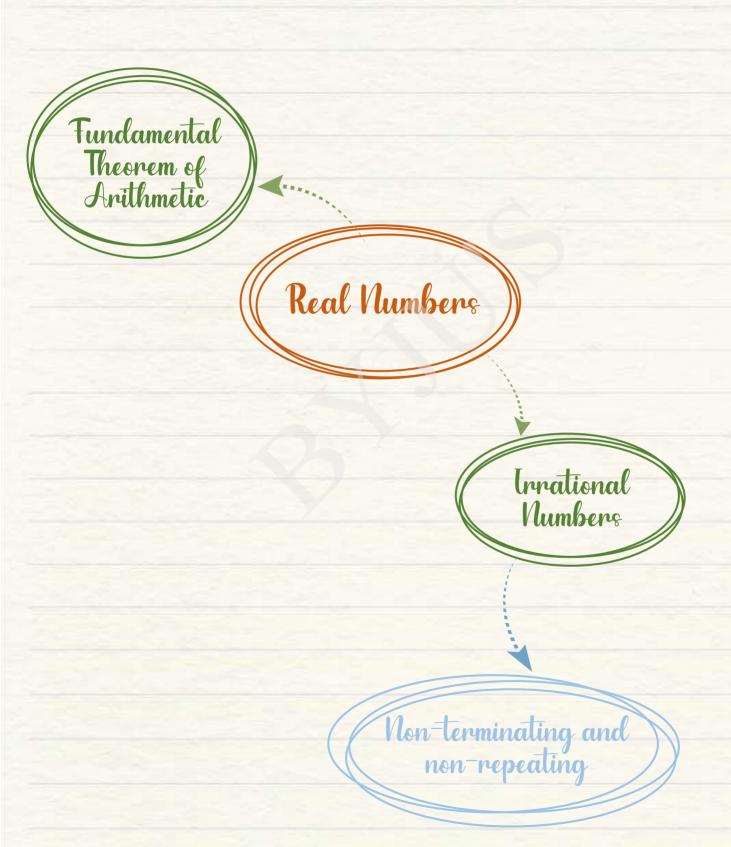
But this contradicts the fact that a and b are co-primes.

This contradiction has arisen because of our incorrect assumption that √2 is rational

Hence √2 is irrational









Polynomials







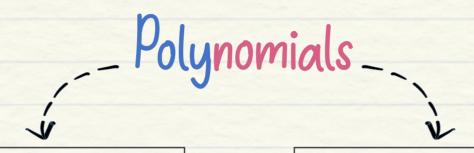


- 1. Polynomials and terms related to it
- 2. Special Types of Polynomials
- 3. Value of a Polynomial at a Point
- --- 4. Zeroes of a Polynomial
 - 5. Relationship between Zeroes and Coefficients of a Polynomial





Polynomials



"Poly" means many

"nomials" means terms

So, polynomials means many terms

Definition of a Polynomial

An algebraic expression in which the variable(s) is / are raised to non-negative integral exponents is called a polynomial.

Standard Form of a Polynomial in x of Degree n

An algebraic expression of the form

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

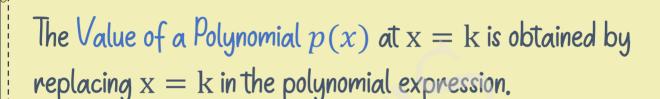
where $a_0, a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ are real numbers and $a_n \neq 0$,

is the standard form of a polynomial in x of degree n.



Terms Related to Polynomials

The Degree of a Polynomial p(x) is the highest exponent to which x is raised.



A real number 'a' is a Zero of a Polynomial p(x) if p(a) = 0.

Frample

Degree = 2.

Value of
$$p(x)$$
 at $x = 1$ is $p(1) = 4(1)^2 - 1 = 3$.

$$p(x)=4x^2-1$$

Zeroes of
$$p(x)$$
 are $\pm \frac{1}{2}$, since $p(\frac{1}{2}) = p(-\frac{1}{2}) = 0$.



Special Types of Polynomials

Based on Number of Terms

1 term \rightarrow Monomial Ex: x, -5y

2 terms \rightarrow Binomial Ex: 2x - 5, 6y + 8

 $3 \text{ terms} \rightarrow \text{Trinomial}$ $\text{Ex: } x^2 - 3x + 2$

Based on Degree

Degree = $1 \rightarrow \text{Linear}$ Ex: 2y - 3

Degree = $2 \rightarrow \text{Quadratic}$ Ex: $4x^2 + 5x - 2$

Degree = $3 \rightarrow \text{Cubic}$ Ex: $8x^3 - 5$



Relationship between Zeroes and : Coefficients of a Polynomial

Quadratic Polynomial

General form:
$$p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$$

Sum of zeroes
$$= \alpha + \beta = \frac{-b}{a}$$

Product of zeroes
$$=$$
 $\alpha \beta = \frac{c}{a}$

Cubic Polynomial

General form:
$$p(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$$

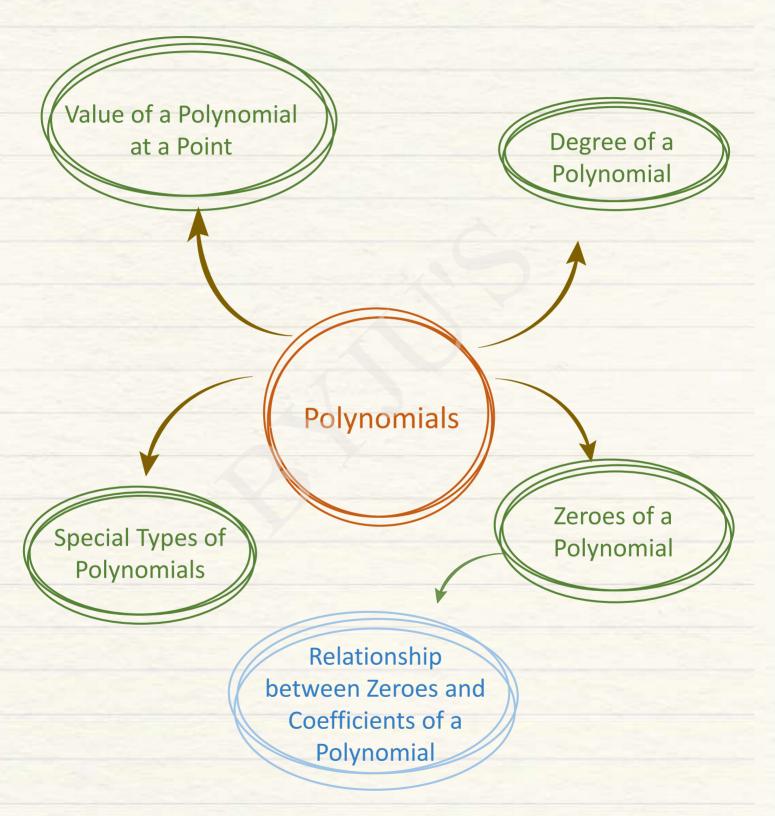
Sum of zeroes
$$= \alpha + \beta + \gamma = \frac{-b}{a}$$

Sum of product of zeroes taken two at a time
$$= \alpha \beta + \beta \gamma + \gamma \alpha = \frac{c}{a}$$

Product of zeroes
$$= \alpha \beta \gamma = \frac{-d}{a}$$









Pair of Linear Equations in Two Variables

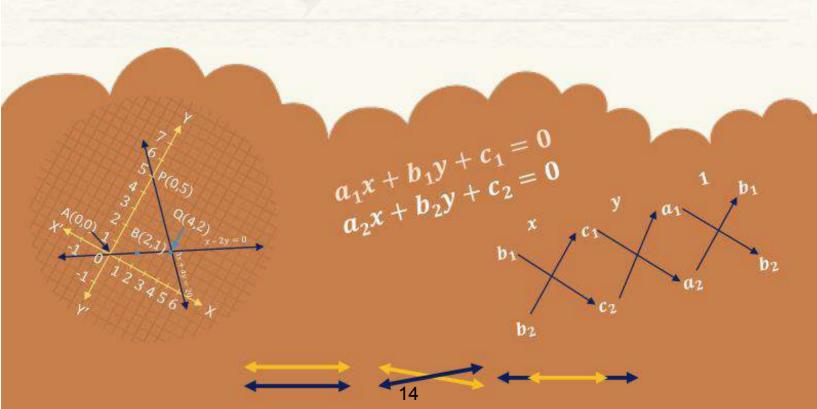








- 1. General Form of a Linear Equation
- 2. Types of Pairs of Linear Equations
- 3. Methods of Solving Pairs of Linear Equations





1. Linear Equations in Two Variables:

General Form

Coefficients
$$ax + by + c = 0$$
 Variables



where, a and b are non-zero real numbers

Pair of Linear Equations in Two Variables

Consider two different equations in x and y,

$$2x + 7y + 5 = 0$$

$$8x + 3y + 3 = 0$$

These two combined are known as pair of linear equations in two variables.

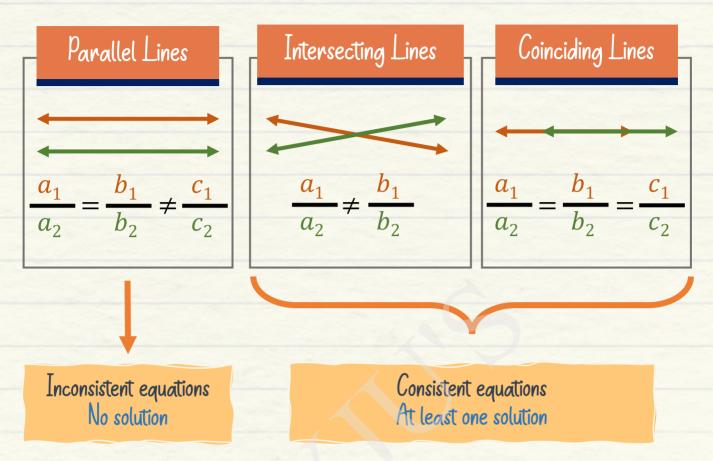
General Form of Pair of Linear Equations in Two Variables

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1 = 0$$

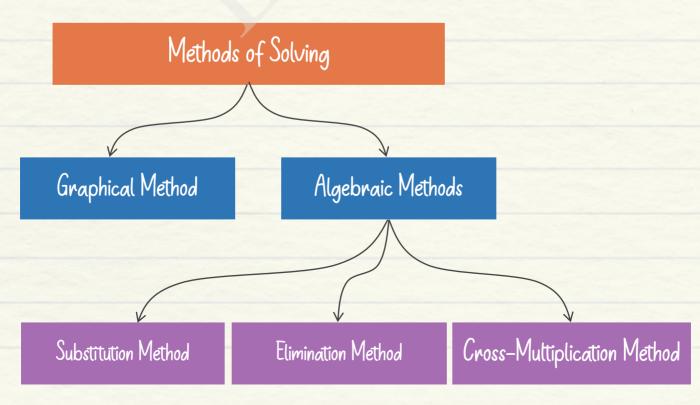
$$a_2x + b_2y + c_2 = 0$$



2. Types of Pains of Linean Equations



3. Methods of Solving Pains of Linear Equations





3.1 Graphical Method



$$2x - 1y = -1 \quad , \quad 3x + 2y = 9$$

Find points to construct lines on a graph paper for the two given equations

To construct a line, we need at least two point of the line, we find the value substituting values of x and y in the two equations.

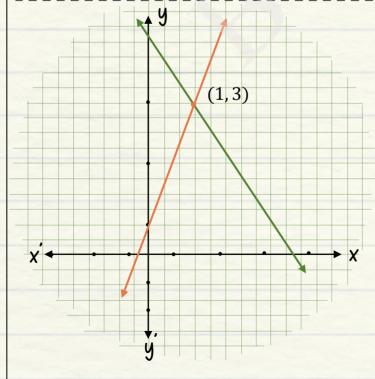
$$2x - 1y = -1$$

x	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	1
у	1	0	3

$$3x + 2y = 9$$

x	0	3	1
у	9 2	0	3

Draw the two line on a graph and mark the points at which they intersect.



The x-coordinate and the y-coordinate of the point at which the two lines intersect is the solution(s) of the pair of equations.



3.2 Substitution Method



$$x + y = 4$$
 , $x - y = 2$



Take one of the equations and move 'y' to LHS and the rest to RHS to get the value of 'y' in terms of 'x'.

$$y = 4 - x$$



Substitute the obtained value of 'y' in the other equation to get the numerical value of 'x'.

$$x - y = 2$$

$$x - (4 - x) = 2$$

$$2x - 4 = 2$$

$$x = 3$$



Now, substitute the obtained value of 'x' in either of the equations to get the value of 'y'.

$$x + y = 4$$
$$3 + y = 4$$
$$y = 1$$



3.3 Elimination Method:



$$3x + 2y = 18 \quad ,$$

$$5x + 4y = 32$$



Note down equations aligned to respective variables as shown.

+3x	+2y	II	+18
+5x	+4y	П	+32

Pick the variable which will be easier to eliminate.

+3 <i>x</i>	+2y	II	+18
+5 <i>x</i>	+4y		+32

Equalise the coefficients of the variable to be eliminated by multiplying every term of the equation with the same number.

+3 <i>x</i> × 2	+2 <i>y</i> × 2	II	+18 × 2
+5 <i>x</i>	+4y		+32

Subtract the second equation from the first equation by reversing all the signs.

+6 <i>x</i>	+4y	Ш	+36
-5x	- 4 <i>y</i>	П	- 32
+x	+0 <i>y</i>	=	+4

Substitute the value of the now known variable into the simpler equation to get the value of the other variable.

We know that,

$$x = 4$$

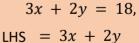
And, $3x + 2y = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 3 \times 4 + 2y = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 12 + 2 = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 2y = 6$
 $\Rightarrow y = 3$

Verify the values obtained for x and y by putting them in the given equations

We know that,

$$x = 4$$

And, $3x + 2y = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 3 \times 4 + 2y = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 12 + 2 = 18$
 $\Rightarrow 2y = 6$
 $\Rightarrow y = 3$



$$= 3x + 2y$$
$$= 3 \times 4 + 2 \times 3$$

$$= RHS$$

$$5x + 4y = 32$$

LHS = $5x + 4y$
= $5 \times 4 + 4 \times 3$

"3x + 2y = 18" and 5x + 4y = 32".

From the above, x = 4 and y = 3.

Therefore, (4,3) is the solution of the

simultaneous equations





General Form of a Linear Equation Types of Pairs of Linear Equations

Pair of Linear Equations in Two Variables

Methods of Solving Pairs of Linear Equations

Graphical Method

Algebraic Method



Quadratic Equations

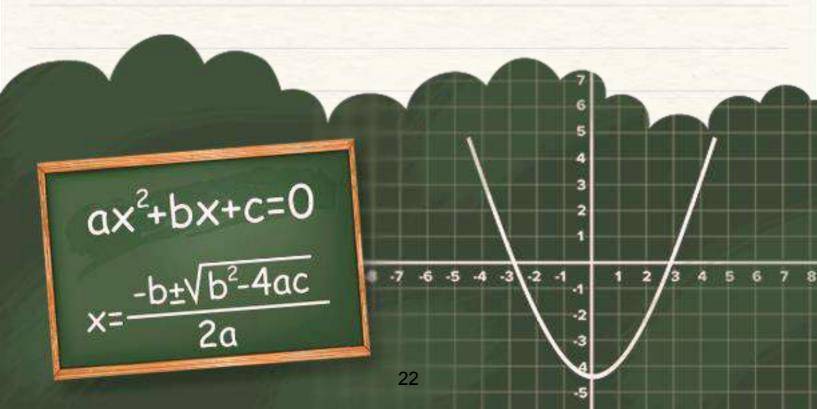




Topics

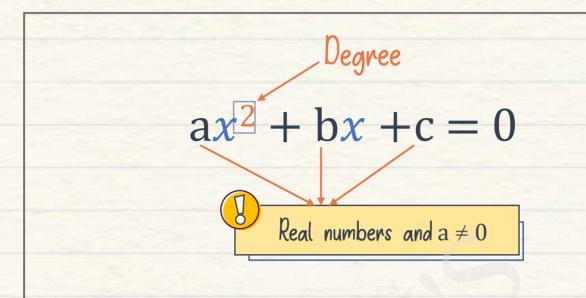


- 1. Standard Form of Quadratic Equations
- 2. Methods to Solve
- 3. Zeroes, Roots and Solutions
- i---- 4. Nature of Roots





Standard Form



Important Terms

Zeroes

Zeroes are for quadratic polynomial p(x)

$$P(x) = (x-2)(x-2)$$

Zeroes, $x = 2 \& 2$

Roots

Roots are for quadratic equation

$$(x-2)(x-2)=0$$

Roots, $x = 2 \& 2$

Solutions

Quadratic equation having equal and identical roots will have a unique solution.

$$(x-2)(x-2)=0$$

 $x=2$ is the solution of the given equation



Methods to Solve Quadratic Equations



Quadratic Formula

Factorization

General form: $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$.

1. Split the middle term.

Product of split
terms =
$$(a \times c)$$

 $9x^2 - 3x - 2 = 0.$

$$9x^2 - 6x + 3x - 2 = 0.$$

2. Factorize the equation

$$3x(3x-2) + 1(3x-2) = 0.$$

$$(3x-2)(3x+1) = 0.$$

3. Equate each factor to $0 \implies (3x-2)(3x+1)=0$

$$x = \frac{2}{3}$$
 or $x = -\frac{2}{3}$



Quadratic Formula

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

Roots
$$(x) = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$
i.e.

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

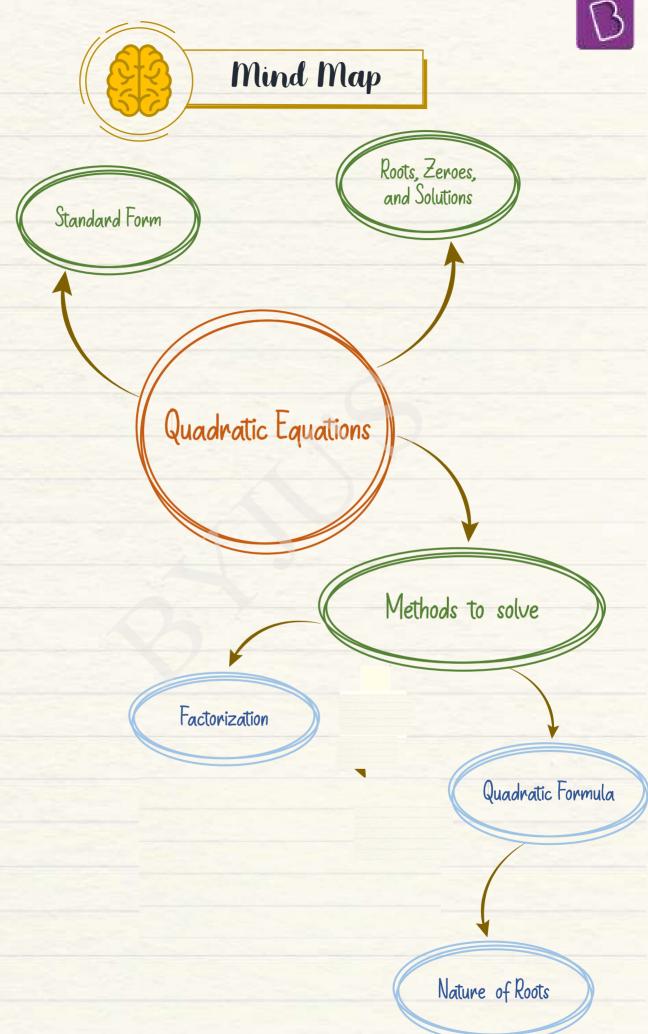
where, $b^2 - 4ac \ge 0$



Quadratic formula is used where factorization method is difficult to apply.

Nature of Roots Discriminant (D) = $b^2 - 4ac^2$. Nature of Roots $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ No Real Type of Roots Real & Distinct Real & Equal Roots Roots Roots $\frac{-b - \sqrt{D}}{2a}$ $-b + \sqrt{D}$ $\frac{-b}{2a}$, $\frac{-b}{2a}$ Not Valid Value of Roots





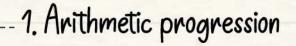


Ahithmetic Proghessions









- 2. Types of an Arithmetic Progression

--- 3. General form of an AP

- 4. nth Term of an AP

5. Sum of first n terms of an AP

6. Arithmetic mean

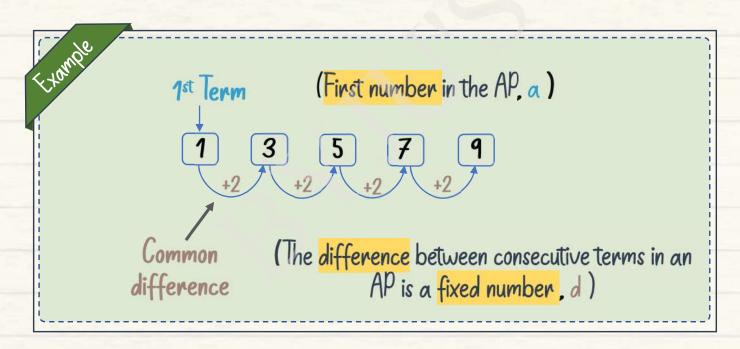


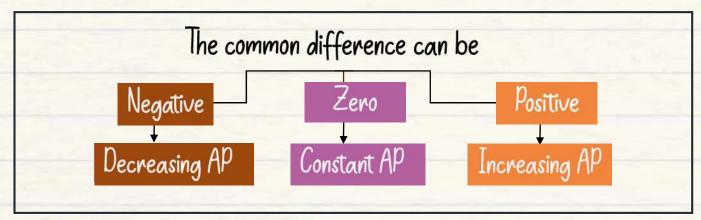


1. Arithmetic Progressions

Definition

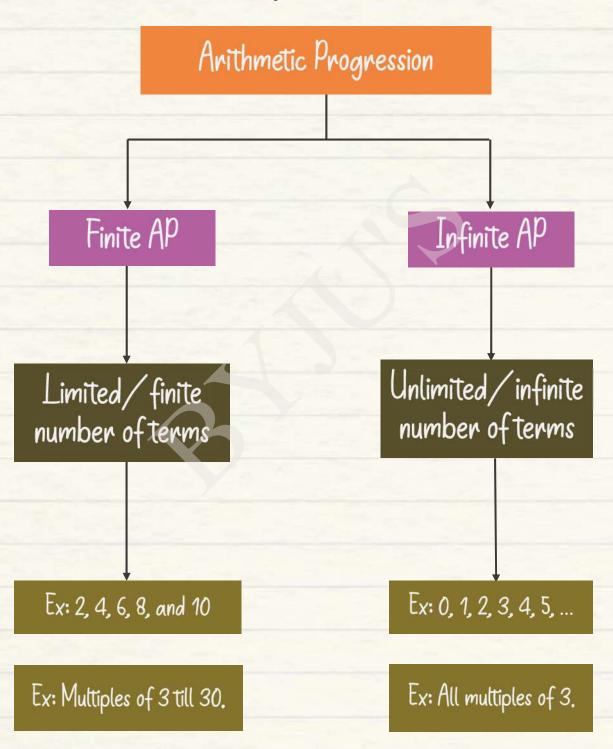
An arithmetic progression is a sequence of numbers in which each term is obtained by adding a fixed number to the preceding term, except the first term.







2. Types of an Arithmetic Progression





3. General Form of an AP



A sequence of the form

 \star a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d, a + 4d and so on,

where a is the first term and d is the common difference.

1.nth Term of an AP:

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

where a is the first term,

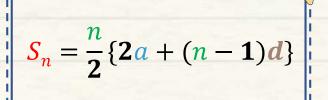
d is the common difference

n is the number of terms in the sequence and

 a_n is the nth term.



5. Sum of First n Terms in an AP



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

(When first term (a) and common difference (d) are known)

(When first term (a) and last term (l) are known)

where n is the number of terms in the sequence and S_n is the sum of first n terms

b.Anithmetic Mean

$$b = \frac{a+c}{2}$$

If a, b and c are in AP, then,

b is the arithmetizemean of a and c.



Important Formulae



nth Term of an AP	$a_n = a + (n-1)d$
Sum of first n terms in an AP (Where first term (a) and common difference (d) are known)	$S_n = \frac{n}{2} \{ 2\alpha + (n-1)d \}$
Sum of first n terms in an AP (Where first term (a) and last term (1) are known)	$S_n = \frac{n}{2}(a+l)$
Arithmetic Mean (b) (a, b and c are in AP)	$b=\frac{a+c}{2}$



Tips/Points to be Remembered

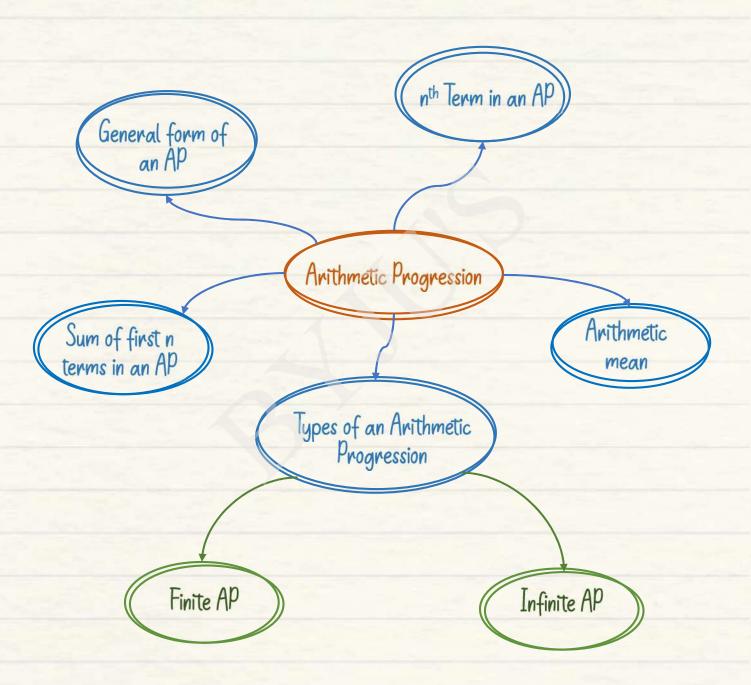
While solving questions containing consecutive terms, following assumptions can be made to simplify:

NUMBER OF TERMS	CONSECUTIVE TERMS	FIRST TERM	COMMON DIFFERENCE
3	(a - d), a, (a + d)	(a-d)	d
4	(a-3d), (a-d), (a+d), (a+3d)	(a - 3d)	2 <i>d</i>
5	(a - 2d), (a - d), a, (a + d), (a + 3d) 33	(a - 2d)	d



Mind Map







Thiangles





Topics

- 1. Similar Triangles

2. Criteria of Similarity of Triangles

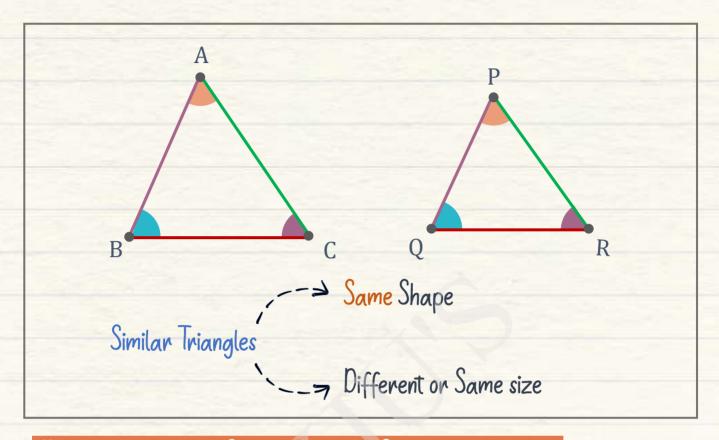
--- 3. Pythagoras Theorem

-- 4. Basic Proportionality Theorem





Similar Triangles



Relation between Corresponding Sides and Angles

- ★ Two triangles are similar, if
 - * Their corresponding angles are equal.

$$\angle A = \angle P$$

$$\angle B = \angle Q$$

$$\angle C = \angle R$$

* Their corresponding sides are in the same ratio.

$$\frac{AB}{PQ} = \frac{BC}{QR} = \frac{CA}{RP} = k$$

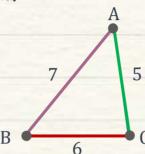


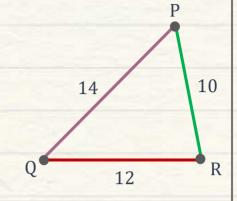
Criteria for Similarity of Triangles

Side-Side-Side (SSS)

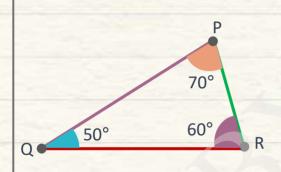
Corresponding sides are proportional.

$$\frac{AB}{PQ} = \frac{BC}{QR} = \frac{CA}{RP}$$





Angle-Angle-Angle (AAA)/Angle-Angle (AA)





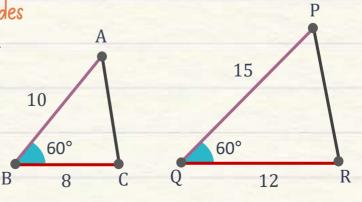
- Corresponding angles are equal.
- Triangles are similar even if a pair of corresponding angles are equal.

Side-Angle-Side (SAS)

Pair of adjacent corresponding sides are proportional and one angle is equal.

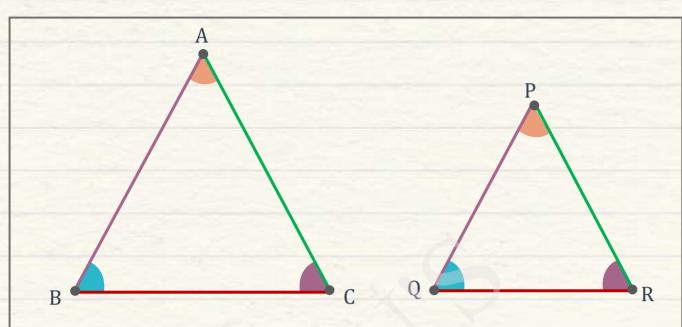
$$\frac{AB}{PQ} = \frac{BC}{QR} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\angle B = \angle Q$$





Ratio of Aneas of Similar Thiangles



Ratio of Area of Similar Triangles

$$\frac{\text{Area}(\Delta ABC)}{\text{Area}(\Delta PQR)} = \left(\frac{AB}{PQ}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{BC}{QR}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{CA}{RP}\right)^2$$

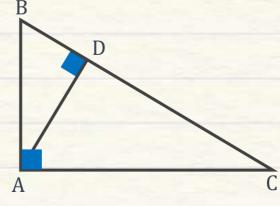
Properties of Right-Angled Triangles

Similarity of triangles when a perpendicular is drawn from the vertex of the right angle.

 $\triangle ABC \sim \triangle ADC \sim \triangle ADB$ (AA Similarity)

All the three triangles have:

- * A right-angle.
- * A common angle.





Basic Proportionality Theorem



If a line is drawn parallel to one side of a triangle to intersect the other two sides in distinct points, then the other two sides are divided in the same ratio.

Proof:

Area of $\triangle APQ = \frac{1}{2} \times AP \times QN$

Area of $\triangle PBQ = \frac{1}{2} \times PB \times QN$

Area of $\triangle APQ = \frac{1}{2} \times AQ \times PM$

Area of $\triangle QCP = \frac{1}{2} \times QC \times PM$

Now,
$$\frac{\text{Area of } \Delta \text{ APQ}}{\text{Area of } \Delta \text{ PBQ}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times \text{AP} \times \text{QN}}{\frac{1}{2} \times \text{PB} \times \text{QN}} = \frac{\text{AP}}{\text{PB}} \dots (1)$$

Similarly

Similarly,
$$\frac{\text{Area of } \Delta \text{ APQ}}{\text{Area of } \Delta \text{ QCP}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times \text{AQ} \times \text{PM}}{\frac{1}{2} \times \text{QC} \times \text{PM}} = \frac{\text{AQ}}{\text{QC}} \dots (2)$$

The triangles drawn between the same parallel lines and on the same base have equal areas.

: Area of $\triangle PBQ = Area of \triangle QCP \dots (3)$

From (1), (2) and (3)
$$\frac{AP}{PB} = \frac{AQ}{QC}$$



Converse of Basic Proportionality Theorem



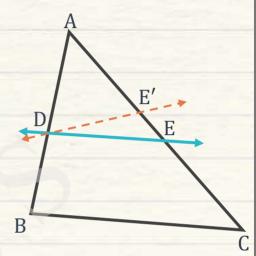
If a line divides any two sides of a triangle in the same ratio, then the line is parallel to the third side.

Proof:

If
$$\frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AE}{EC}$$
, then DE || BC.

Suppose a line DE, intersects the two sides of a triangle AB and AC at D and E, such that;

$$\frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AE}{EC} \dots (1)$$



Assume DE is not parallel to BC. Now, draw a line DE' parallel to BC. Hence, by Basic Proportionality Theorem,

$$\frac{AD}{DB} = \frac{AE'}{E'C}....(2)$$

From eq. 1 and 2, we get

$$\frac{AE}{EC} = \frac{AE'}{E'C}$$

Adding 1 on both the sides

$$\frac{AE}{EC} + 1 = \frac{AE'}{E'C} + 1$$
 $\frac{AE+EC}{EC} = \frac{AE'+E'C}{E'C}$

$$\frac{AC}{EC} = \frac{AC}{E'C}$$
 200 So, $EC = E'C$

This is possible only when E and E' coincides.

But DE' || BC

Properties of Right-Angled Triangles

Pythagoras Theorem



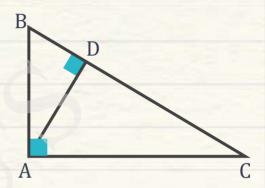
In a right-angled triangle, the square of the hypotenuse side is equal to the sum of squares of the other two sides.

Proof:

△ADB ~ △ABC

$$\therefore \frac{AD}{AB} = \frac{AB}{AC}$$
 (corresponding sides of similar triangles)

$$AB^2 = AD \times AC \dots (1)$$



Also, \triangle ADC \sim \triangle ABC

$$\therefore \frac{CD}{BC} = \frac{BC}{AC} \text{ (corresponding sides of similar triangles)}$$

$$BC^2 = CD \times AC \dots (2)$$

$$(1) + (2)$$

$$AB^2 + BC^2 = AD \times AC + CD \times AC$$

$$AB^2 + BC^2 = AC (AD + CD)$$

Since,
$$AD + CD = AC$$

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



Converse of Pythagoras Theorem



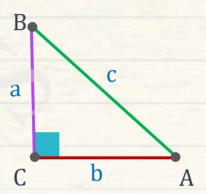
If the square of the length of the longest side of a triangle is equal to the sum of the squares of the other two sides, then the triangle is a right triangle.

Proof:

Construct another triangle, $\triangle EGF$, such as AC = EG and BC = FG.

In <u>AEGF</u>, by Pythagoras Theorem:

$$EF^2 = EG^2 + FG^2 = b^2 + a^2$$
(1)



In ABC, by Pythagoras Theorem:

$$AB^2 = AC^2 + BC^2 = b^2 + a^2$$
(2)

From (1) and (2)

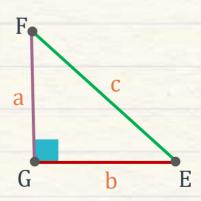
$$EF^2 = AB^2$$

$$EF = AB$$

$$\Rightarrow \triangle$$
 ACB $\cong \triangle$ EGF (By SSS)

$$\Rightarrow \angle C$$
 is right angle

∴ △ABC is a right triangle.





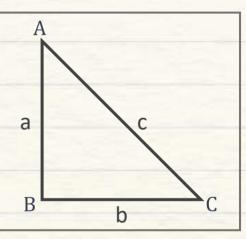
Important Theorems and Formulae



Pythagoras Theorem

★ In a right-angled triangle, the square of the hypotenuse side is equal to the sum of squares of the other two sides.

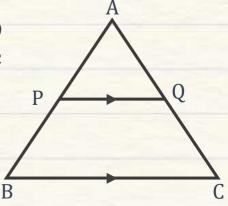
$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$



Basic Proportionality Theorem

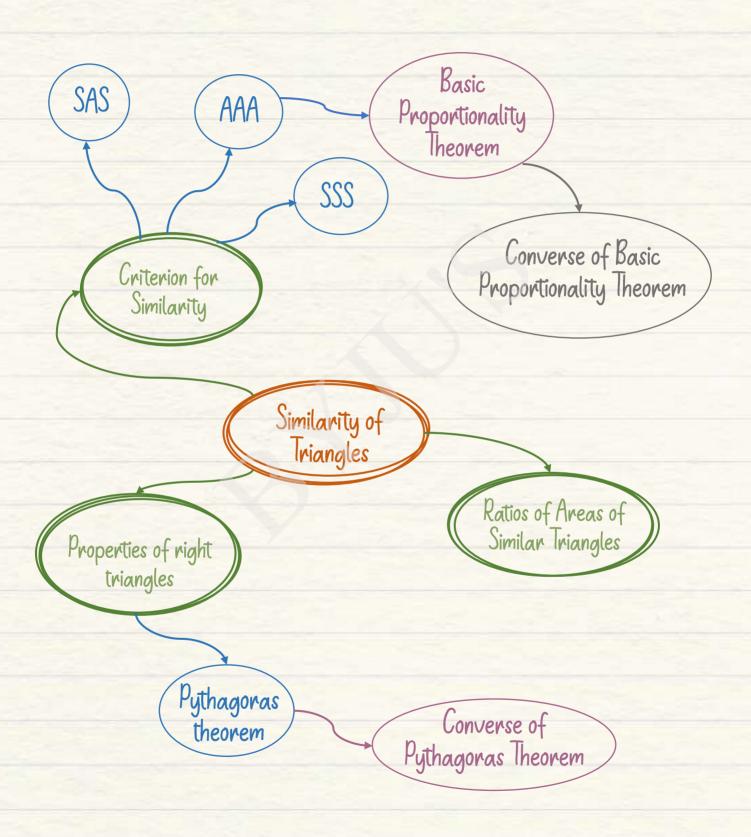
If a line is drawn parallel to one side of a triangle to intersect the other two sides in distinct points, then the other two sides are divided in the same ratio.

$$| PQ | | BC, \quad \frac{AP}{PB} = \frac{AQ}{QC} |$$











Coordinate Geometry







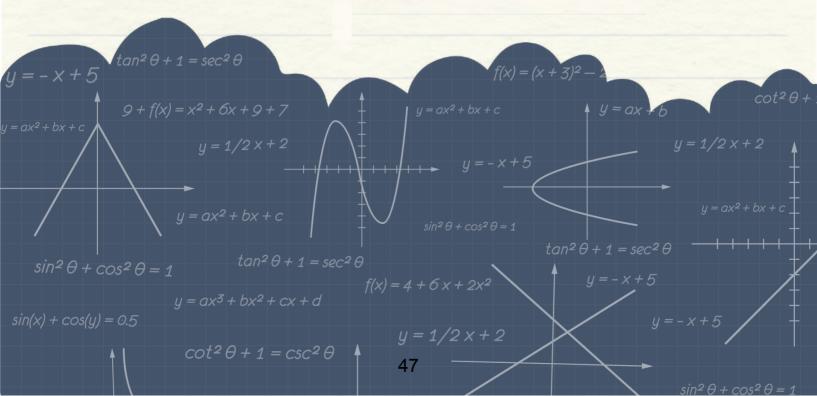




2. Distance Formula

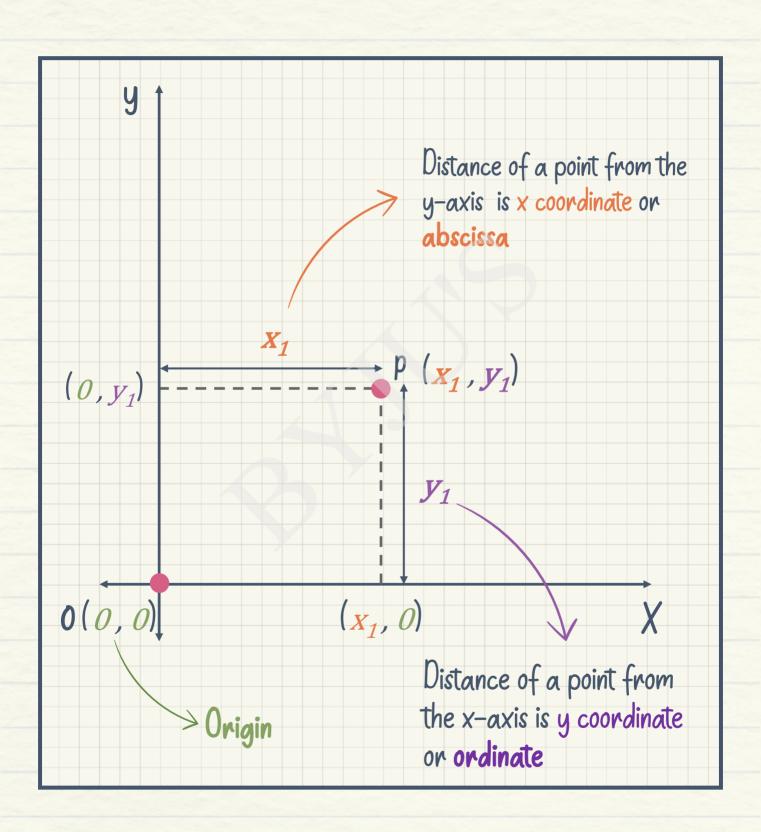
3. Section Formula

3.1 Mid-Point Formula



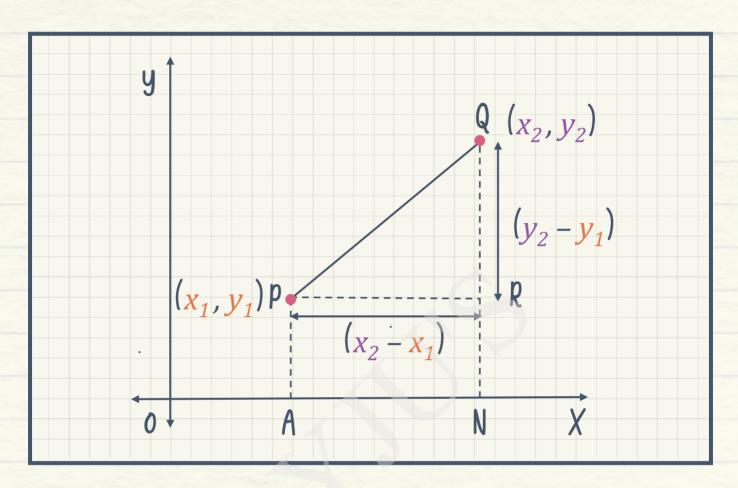


Fundamentals:





Distance Formula



Steps to Derive

Using Pythagoras theorem:

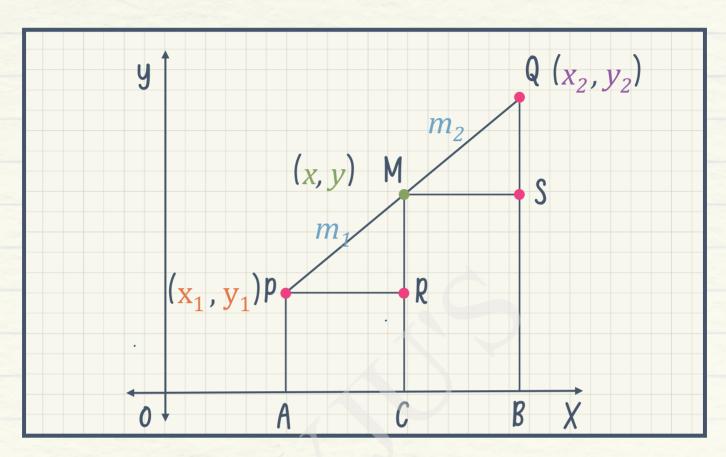
$$PQ = \sqrt{(PR)^2 + (QR)^2}$$

Now, PR =
$$(x_2 - x_1)$$
 and QR = $(y_2 - y_1)$

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



Section Formula



Steps to Derive

 \triangle PRM ~ \triangle MSQ (Similar triangles)

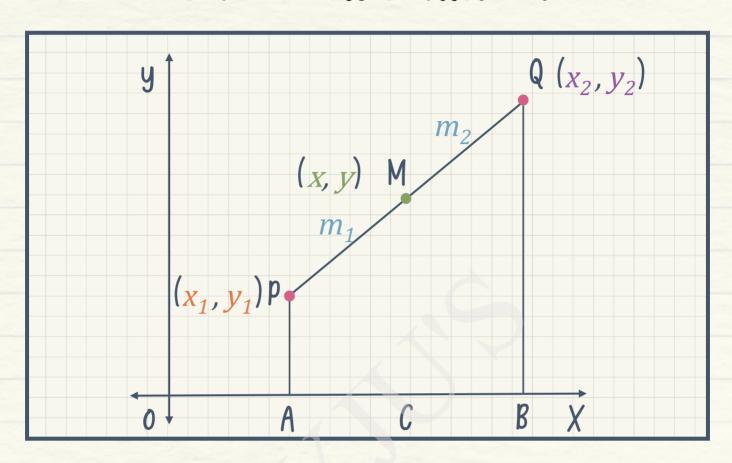
$$\frac{PM}{MQ} = \frac{PR}{MS} = \frac{RM}{SQ}$$

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{x - x_1}{x_2 - x} = \frac{y - y_1}{y_2 - y}$$

On solving for x and y separately:

$$M(x, y) = \left(\frac{m_1 x_2 + m_2 x_1}{m_1 + m_2}, \frac{m_1 y_2 + m_2 y_1}{m_1 + m_2}\right)$$

Mid-Point Formula



Steps to Derive

Section Formula

$$M(x, y) = \left(\frac{m_1 x_2 + m_2 x_1}{m_1 + m_2}, \frac{m_1 y_2 + m_2 y_1}{m_1 + m_2}\right)$$

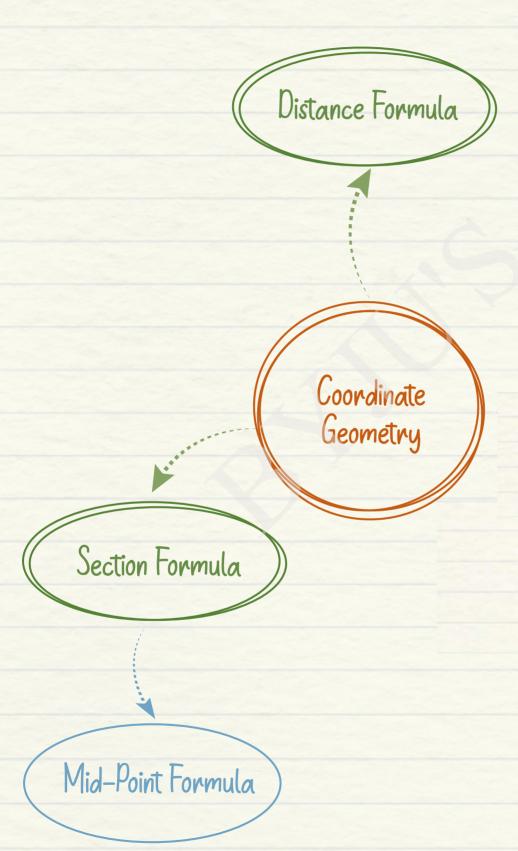
M is the mid point, so $m_1: m_2 = 1:1$

$$\therefore m_1 = 1 \text{ and } m_2 = 1$$

$$M(x, y) = \left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}\right)$$







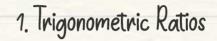


Introduction to Trigonometry







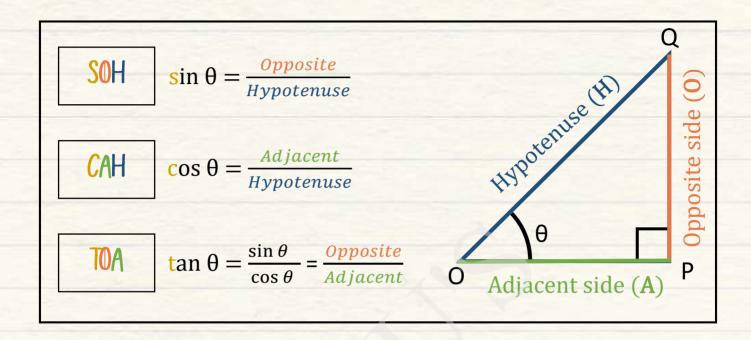


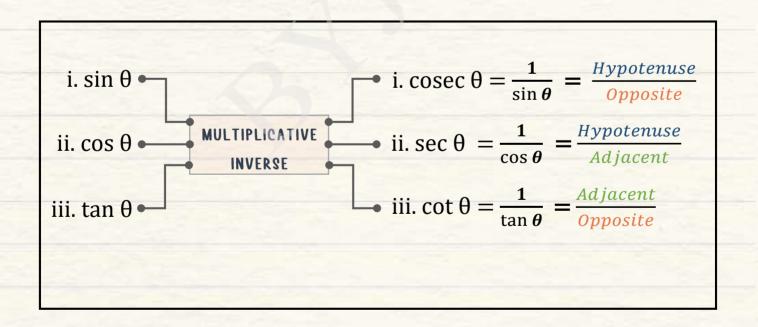


- 2. Trigonometric Ratios of standard angles
- 3. Trigonometric Identities



Trigonometric Katios







Trigonometric Ratios of Standard Angles

 \blacktriangleright With just the values of sin $m{ heta}$, we can calculate all other trigonometric ratios for standard angles.



An idea to learn the sin values

$oldsymbol{ heta}$	0°	30°	45°	60°	90°
1. Write numbers from 0 to 4 in order.	0	1	2	3	4
2. Divide every number by 4	$\frac{0}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{4}{4}$
3. Take the square root of every number	$\sqrt{\frac{0}{4}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{2}{4}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{3}{4}}$	$\sqrt{\frac{4}{4}}$
4. Simplify	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
sin $oldsymbol{ heta}$	sin 0°	sin 30°	sin 45°	sin 60°	sin 90°



Trigonometric Ratios of Standard Angles

Angles Ratios	Logic	0°	30°	45°	60°	90°
sinθ	sinθ	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
cosθ	Reverse sinθ	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
tanθ	$\frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta}$	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	Not defined
cosecθ	$\frac{1}{\sin\theta}$	Not defined	2	$\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	1
secθ	$\frac{1}{\cos\theta}$	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	Not defined
cotθ	$\frac{1}{\tan \theta}$	Not defined	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0



a

b

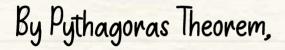
Proof of Trigonometric Identities

In a right - Angled Triangle Δ ABC

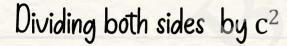
In \triangle ABC we know that

$$\sin\theta = \frac{a}{c}$$
.....1

$$\cos \theta = \frac{b}{c}$$
.....2



$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$



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

$$\frac{a^2}{c^2} + \frac{b^2}{c^2} = 1$$

From 1 and 2,

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



Proof of $1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$

We know that

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

Dividing both the sides by $Cos^2 \theta$

$$\frac{\sin^2\theta}{\cos^2\theta} + \frac{\cos^2\theta}{\cos^2\theta} = \frac{1}{\cos^2\theta}$$



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

Proof of $1 + \cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta$

We know that

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

Dividing both the sides by $\sin^2 \theta$

$$\frac{\sin^2\theta}{\sin^2\theta} + \frac{\cos^2\theta}{\sin^2\theta} = \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta}$$

$$1 + \cot^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta$$

Three Basic Trigonometric Identities

$$\sin^{2}\theta + \cos^{2}\theta = 1$$

$$\sin^{2}\theta = 1 - \cos^{2}\theta$$

$$\cos^{2}\theta = 1 - \sin^{2}\theta$$

$$sec^{2}\theta - tan^{2}\theta = 1$$

$$1 + tan^{2}\theta = sec^{2}\theta$$

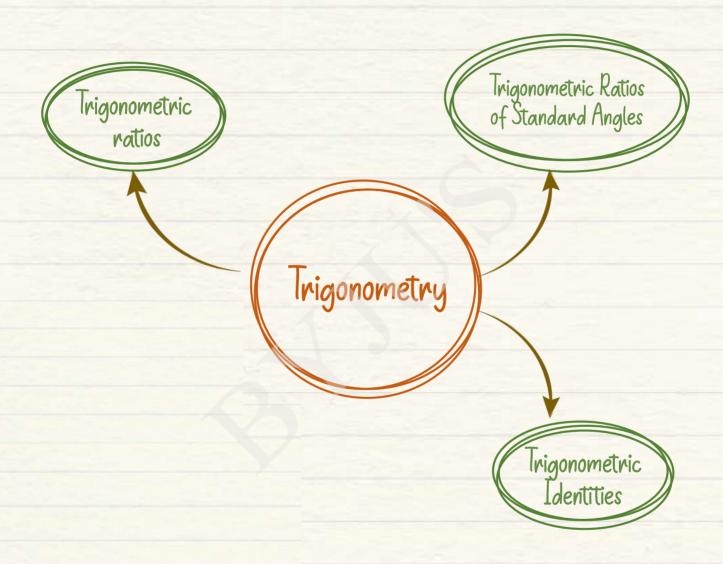
$$sec^{2}\theta - 1 = tan^{2}\theta$$

$$cosec^{2}\theta - cot^{2}\theta = 1$$

 $1 + cot^{2}\theta = cosec^{2}\theta$
 $cosec^{2}\theta - 1 = cot^{2}\theta$









Some Applications of Trigonometry











3. Trigonometric Ratios of Some Common Angles

4. Method of Solving Questions





1. Basic Tehminologies

Line of Sight

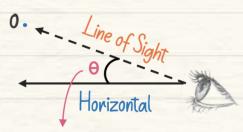
The line drawn from the eyes of an observer to a point on the object viewed.

If the object to be viewed is straight ahead, then the line of sight is the same as the horizontal level.

Angle of Elevation

The angle formed by the line of sight with the horizontal when the point being viewed is above the horizontal level.

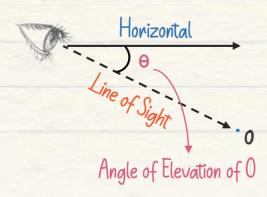
Look Above



Angle of Elevation of O

Angle of Depression

Look Below

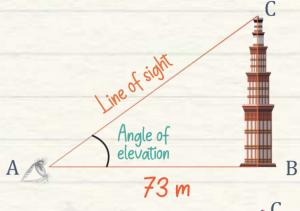


The angle formed by the line of sight with the horizontal when the point being viewed is below the horizontal level.



2. Assumptions Made While Solving

The angle of elevation of the top of the Qutub Minar, 73 m away from its base is 45°.



Steps to Draw the figure:

Step 1

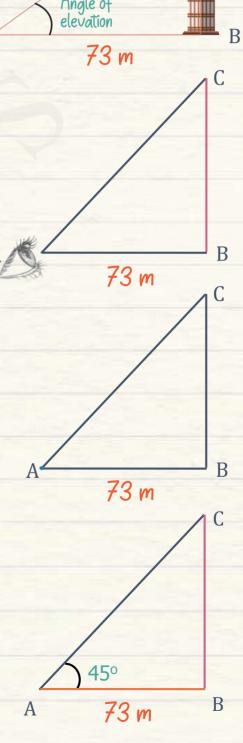
Represent the 3D object by a vertical line.

Step 2

Represent the observer as a point object.

Step 3

Label the angle, height, and distance.





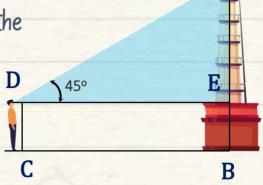
3. Thigonometric Ratios of : Some Common Angles

Angles Ratios	Logic	0°	30°	45°	60°	90°
sinθ	sinθ	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
cosθ	Reverse sinθ	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
tanθ	$\frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta}$	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	Not defined
cosecθ	$\frac{1}{\sin \theta}$	Not defined	2	$\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	1
secθ	$\frac{1}{\cos\theta}$	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	Not defined
cotθ	$\frac{1}{\tan \theta}$	Not defined	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0



4. Method of Solving Questions

An observer 1.5 m tall is 28.5 m away from a chimney. The angle of elevation of the top of the chimney from her eyes is 45°. What is the height of the chimney?



A

E

Steps to Draw the figure:

Step 1

Draw the figure correctly.

Step 2

Identify the unknown length.

$$AB = ?$$

Step 3

Step 4

45°

Use the relevant trigonometric ratios to find these lengths.

$$\tan 45^{\circ} = \frac{AE}{DE}$$

$$1 = \frac{AE}{28.5}$$

$$AE = 28.5 \text{ m}$$

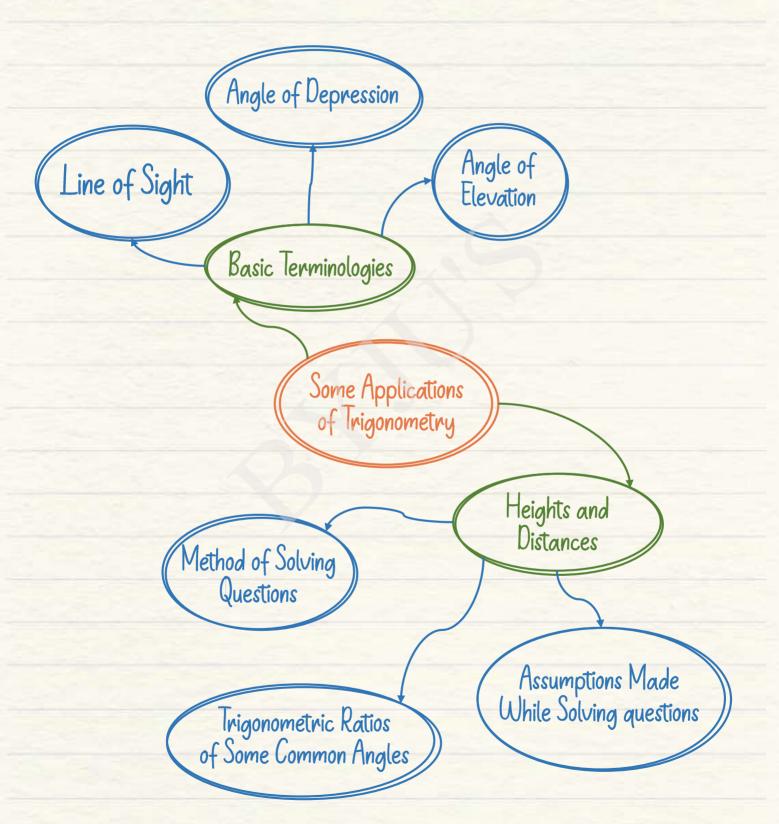
Solve to find the unknown length So, the height of the chimney

28.5 m

$$AB = (28.5 + 1.5) \text{ m} = 30 \text{ m}.$$









Circles







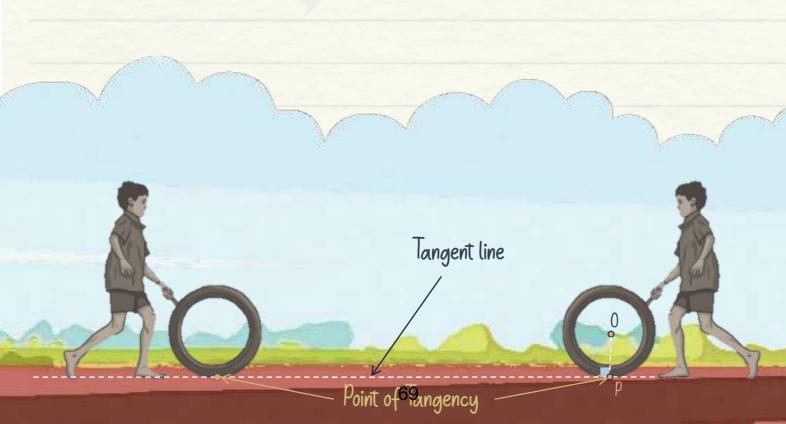
1. Lines related to a Circle

2. Tangents and Secants

3. Number of Tangents

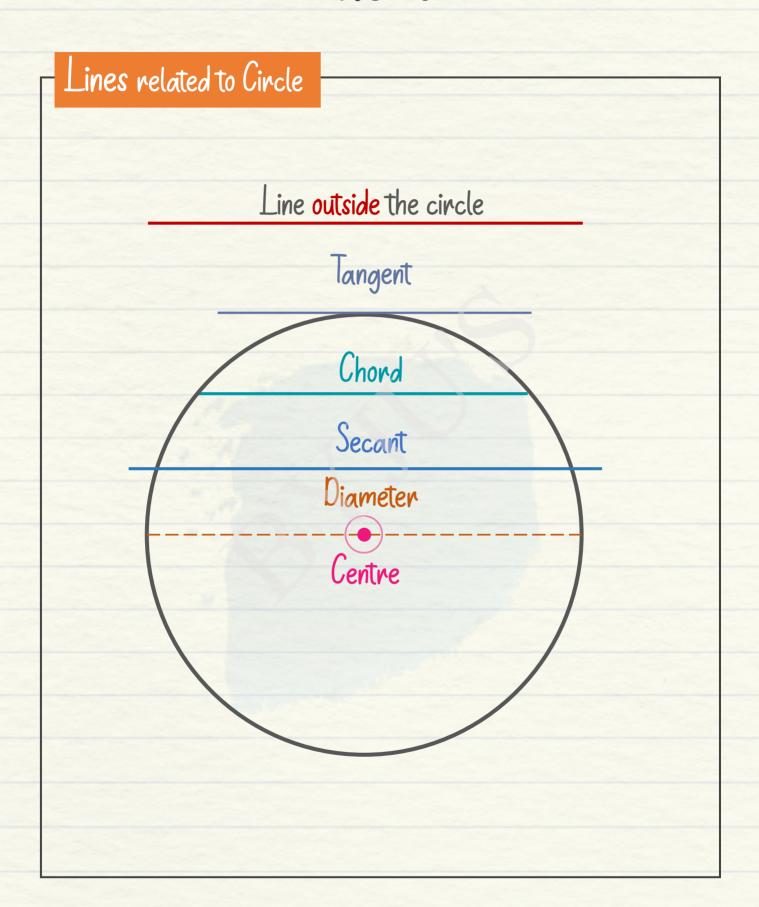
4. Theorems related to a Tangent

5. Important Corollaries



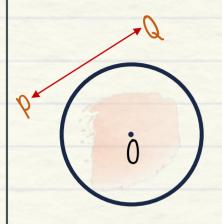


Cincles

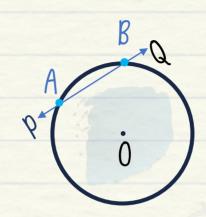




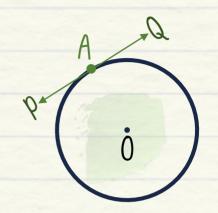
Tangents and Secants



- ◆ Does not touch the circle
- No point of intersection

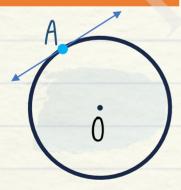


- 2 points of intersection
- ♣ PQ is the secant

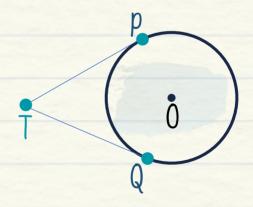


- ★ Touches only at 1 point
- PQ is called tangent

No. of Tangents



For any point on the circumference of a circle, No. of tangents = 1



No. of tangents from an external point to circle = 2



Theorems related to Tangent

Theorem 1

Tangents and Radius

Theorem 2

Tangents from external point

1: Tangents and Radius

Theorem:— The tangent at any point of the circle is perpendicular to the radius through the point of contact.

Hence, PQ 1 OA

Centre Padius PQ is the tangent

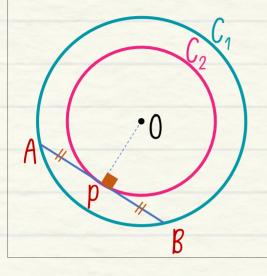
Tangent line



2: langents from external point PT is tangent - at P QT is tangent Theorem :- The lengths at Q of tangents drawn from an external point to a circle are equal. Can be proved in two Hence, PT = QT ways :-Congruence of \$\triangle TOP & \$\triangle TOQ\$ Pythagoras" theorem Tangent line External Point

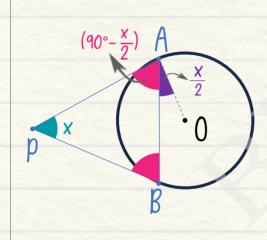


Important Corollaries



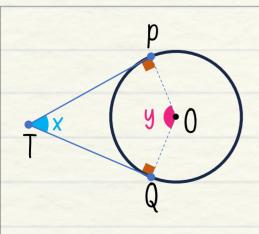
For C_1 and C_2 being concentric circles,

- OP is perpendicular bisector of AB
- AP = PB



PA and PB are 2 tangents drawn from an external point P to a circle with centre at 0,

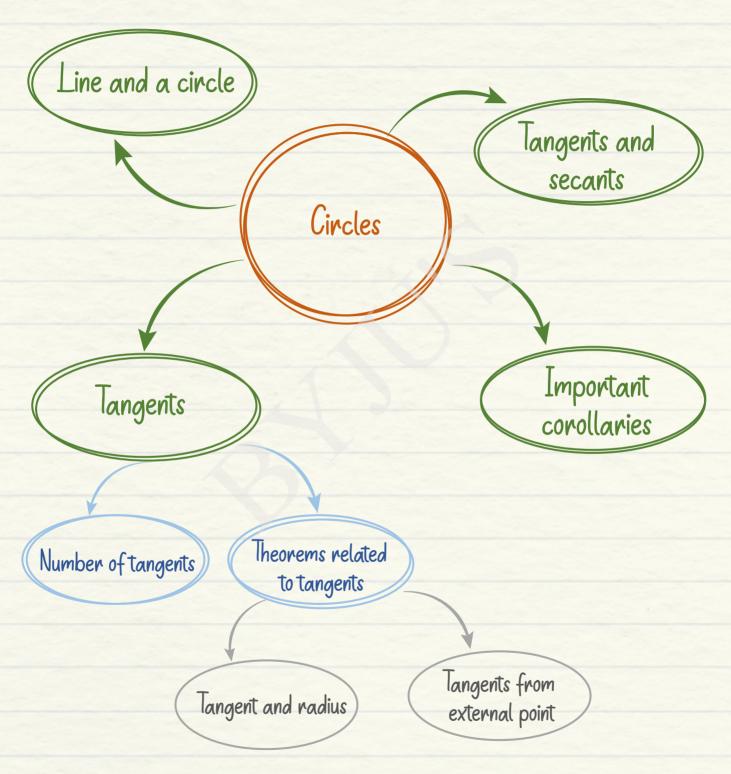
$$\star$$
 \angle PAB = \angle PBA = $(90^{\circ} - \frac{x}{2})$



x and y are supplementaryi.e. x + y = 180°









Areas Related to Circle









- 1. Area of sector
- 2. Area of segment
- 3. Area of combined plane figures

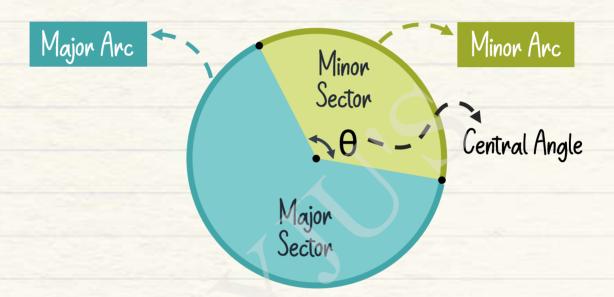




= 1. Area of Sector

Secton

A sector of a circle is the portion of an area enclosed by two radii and an arc.



Area of minor sector

$$\frac{\theta}{360^{\circ}} \times \pi r^2$$

Area of major sector

$$\frac{360^{\circ} - \theta}{360^{\circ}} \times \pi r^2$$

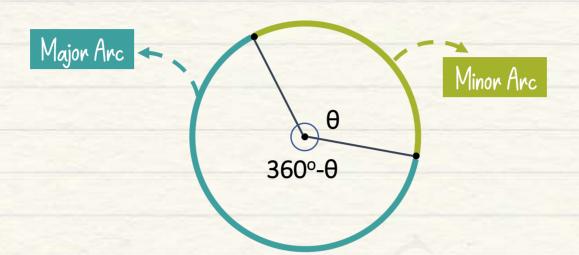


Central angle θ must be in degrees.

If θ is given in radians, multiply it with $\frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi}$ to convert in degrees.



Length of Anc



Length of minor arc =
$$\frac{\theta}{360^{\circ}} \times 2\pi r$$

Length of major arc =
$$\frac{360^{\circ} - \theta}{360^{\circ}} \times 2\pi r$$

2. Area of Segment

Segment

A segment of a circle can be defined as a region bounded by a chord and a corresponding arc lying between the chord's endpoints.

Segment corresponding to major arc called major segment.

Segment corresponding to minor arc called minor segment.



Ahea of Segment

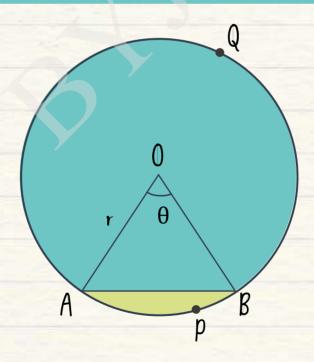
When O is given in degrees,

Area of a segment =
$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \times r^2 \times \left[\left(\frac{\pi}{180^0}\right)\theta - sin\theta\right]$$

When θ is given in radians,

Area of a segment =
$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \times r^2 \left[\theta - \sin\theta\right]$$

Area of major segment = Area of sector $OAQB + Area of \Delta OAB$



Area of minor segment= Area of the sector OAPB-Area of ΔOAB

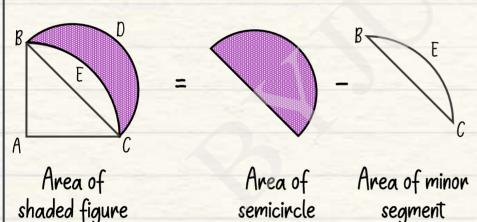


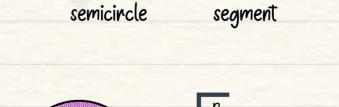
3. Area of Combined Plane Figures:

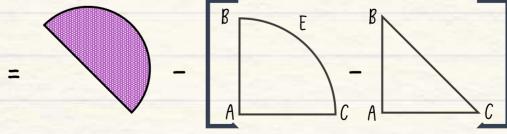
General Formula

Areas of shaded region = Area of entire figure - Area of non shaded region

Example





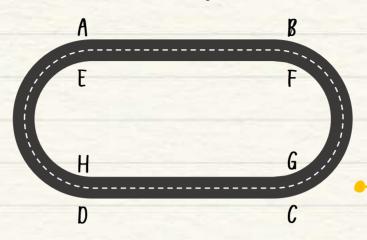


= Area of semicircle - (Area of sector ABEC - Area of DABC)





Find the area of the track.

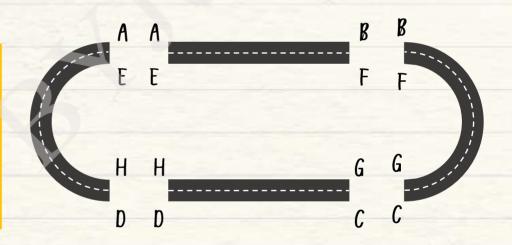




Methodology

Step 1

Simplify the given figure into known standard shapes.



Step 2

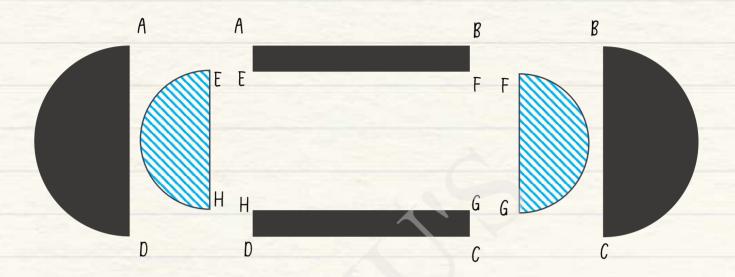
Apply the formula of area on each shape.

- = Area of rectangle ABFE + Area of rectangle HGCD
- + Area of the sidetracks



Step 3

To find the area of the required region, add or subtract the areas of the standard figures as per the requirement.



= Area of rectangle ABFE + Area of rectangle HGCD

+

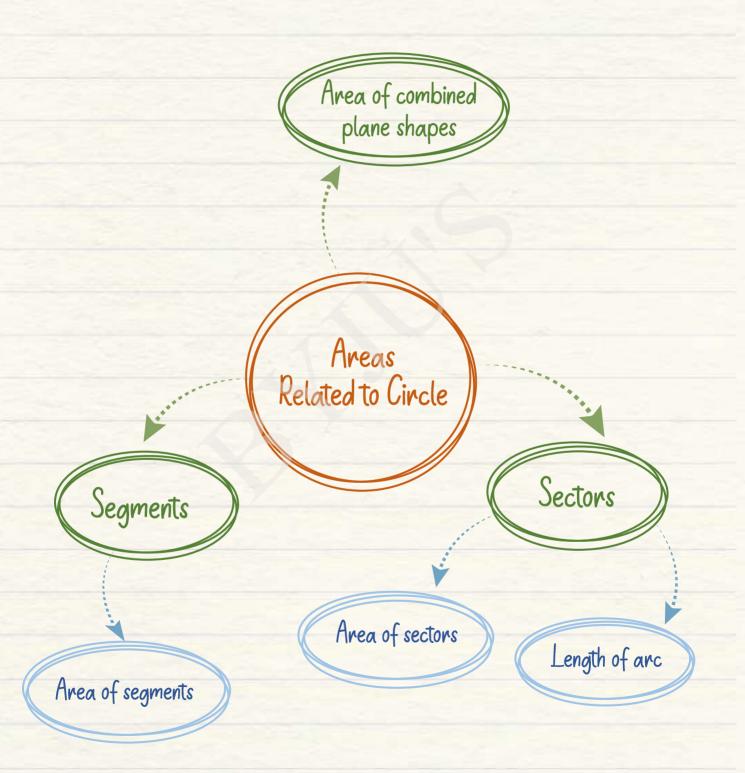
(Area of semicircle with diameter AD - Area of semicircle with diameter EH)

+

(Area of semicircle with diameter BC - Area of semicircle with diameter FG)

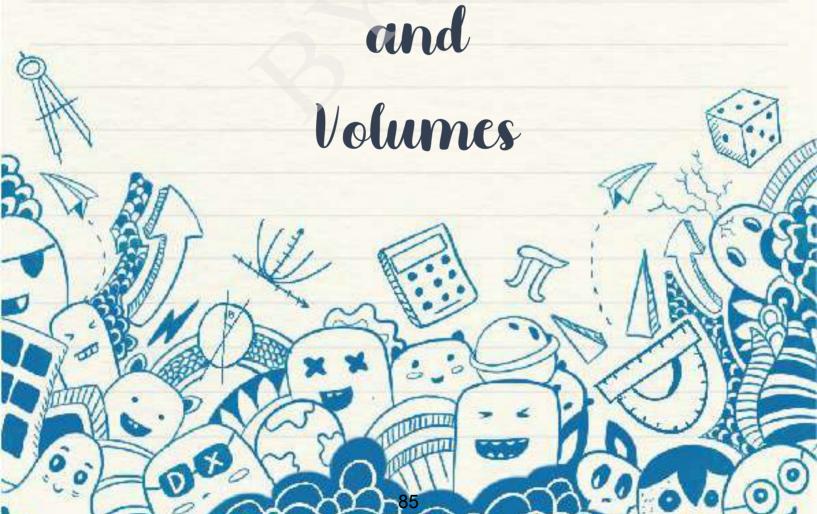






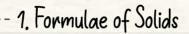


Surface Areas





Topics to be Covened



2. Combination of Solids

3. Surface Area of Combined Solids

4. Volume of Combined Solids

---- 5. Conversion of Solids

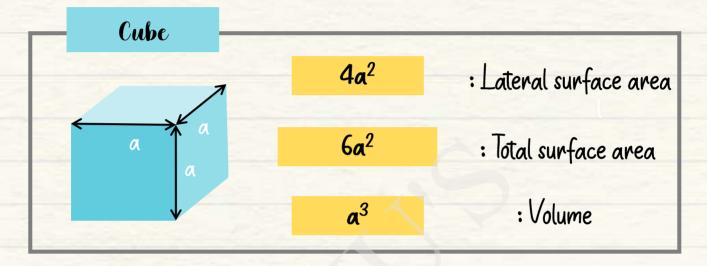


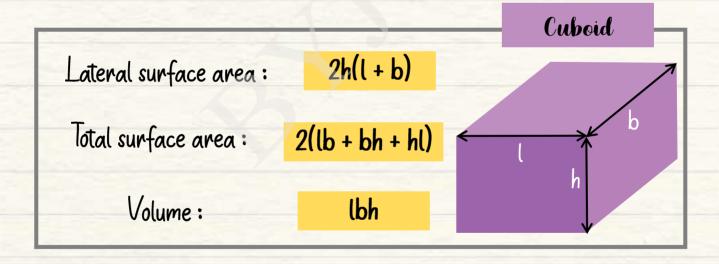


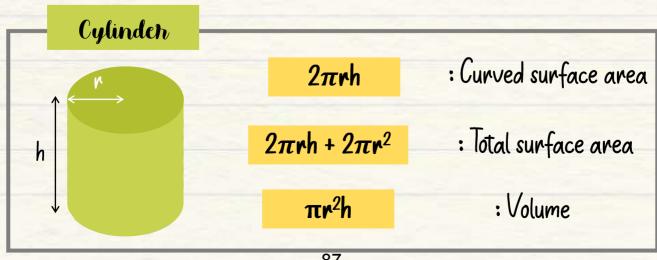


1. Formulae of Solids

Here are surface areas and volumes of few solids before we look at combined solids.

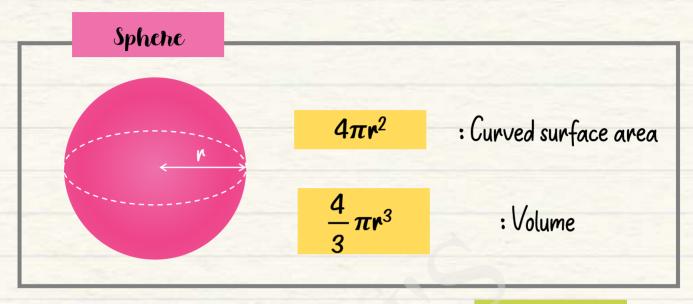




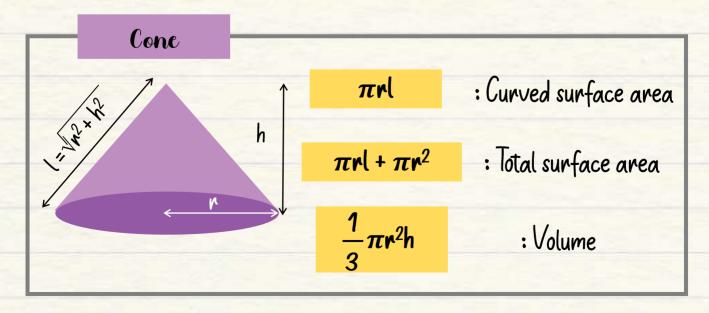




1. Formulae of Solids

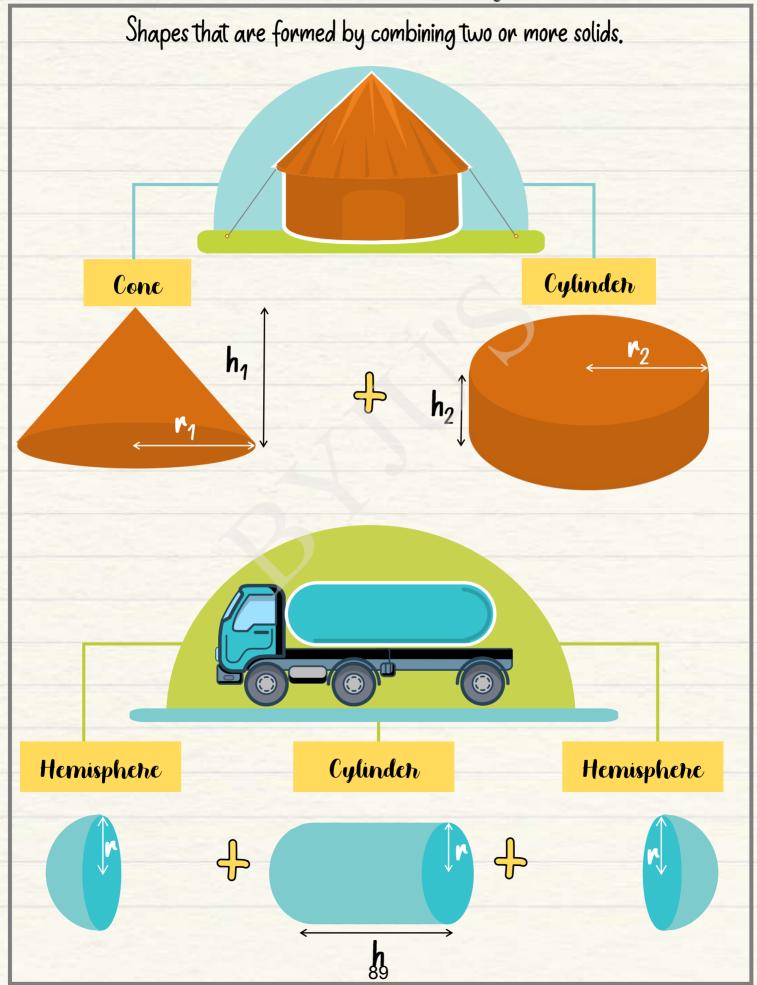


Curved surface area: $2\pi r^2$ Total surface area: $3\pi r^2$ Volume: $\frac{2}{3}\pi r^3$





2. Combination of Solids

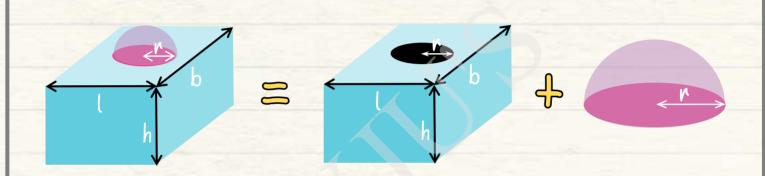




3. Surface Area of Combination of Solids

It is the sum of the surface areas of individual solid"s visible portion, in the given combined solid.

Total Sunface Area



Total surface area of the shape



Total surface area of cuboid

+ Curved surface area of hemisphere

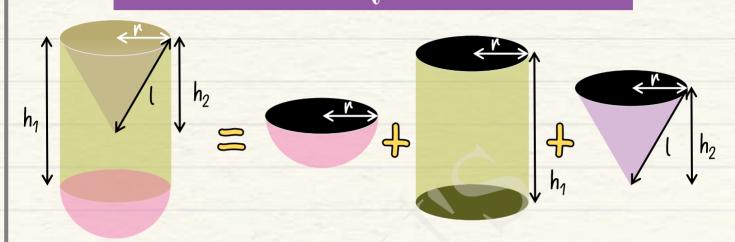
- Base area of hemisphere

$$2(lb + bh + hl) + 2\pi r^2 - \pi r^2$$



3. Surface Area of Combination of Solids

Total Sunface Anea



Total surface area of the shape



Curved surface area of hemisphere
+ Curved surface area of cylinder
+ Curved surface area of cone

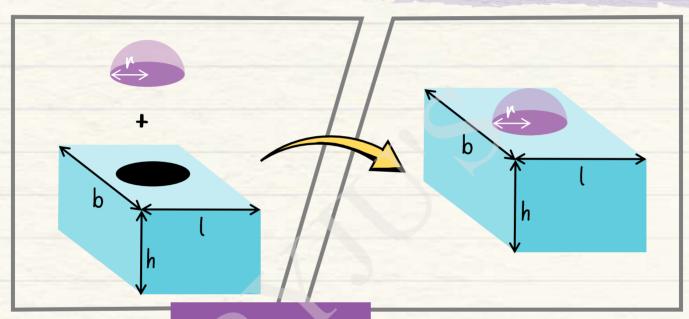
 $2\pi rh_1 + \pi rl + 2\pi r^2$



1. Volume of

Combination of Solids

It is the sum of the volumes of solids that are being combined, and subtraction of the volumes of the solids that are being removed.



Volume

Volume of cuboid

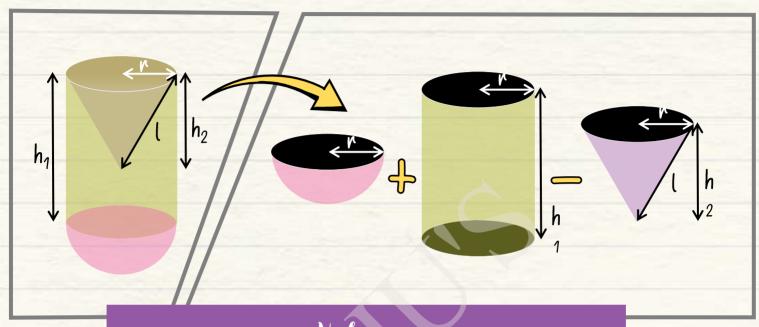


Volume of hemisphere

$$lbh + \frac{2}{3} \pi r^3$$



4. Volume of Combination of Solids



Volume

Volume of the shape



Volume of Cylinder

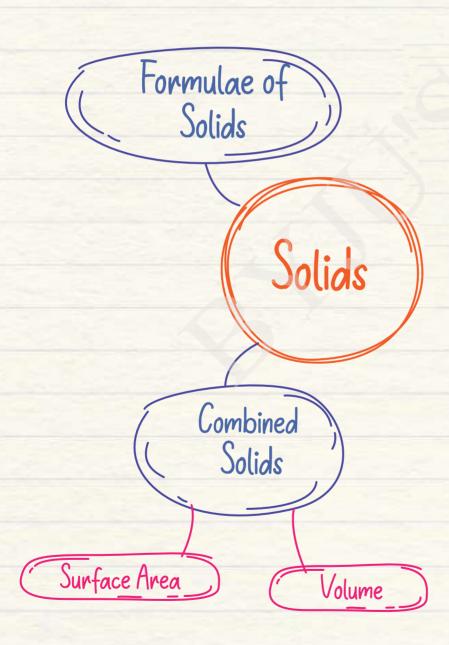
+ Volume of hemisphere

- Volume of cone

$$\pi r^2 h_1 - \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 h_2 + \frac{2}{3} \pi r^3$$



Mind Map





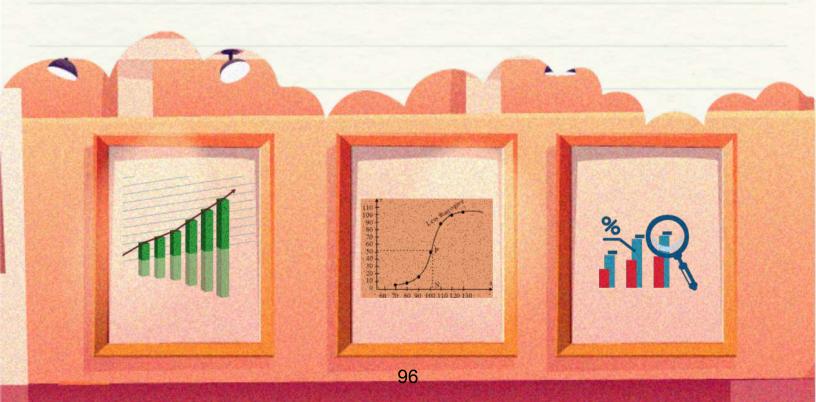
Statistics







2. Cumulative Frequency
---- 3. Median
---- 4. Mode



Mean of Grouped Data

Mean

Mean is a measure of central tendency which gives the average of a data.

Direct Method

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum f_i x_i}{\sum f_i}$$

Class mark
$$(x_i) = \frac{\text{Upper Class Limit} + \text{Lower Class Limit}}{2}$$

Assumed Mean Method

An arbitrary mean 'a' is chosen which is middle of all the values of x.

Step Deviation Method

$$\bar{x} = a + \left(\frac{\Sigma f_i u_i}{\Sigma f_i}\right) \times h$$

Where $u_i = \frac{d_i}{h}$ and h is class size of class interval



Cumulative Frequency

Cumulative frequency is the sum of all the frequencies up to the current point.

Less-than type cumulative frequency table

Marks	Number of students
0-10	5
10-20	3
20-30	4
30-40	3

Marks	Cumulative frequency
Less than 10	5
Less than 20	5 + 3 = 8
Less than 30	8 + 4 = 12
Less than 40	12 + 3 = 15

More-than type cumulative frequency table

Marks	Number of students
0–10	5
10-20	3
20-30	4
30-40	3

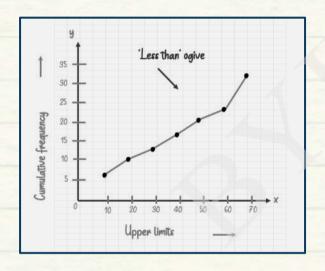
Marks	Cumulative frequency
More than or equal to 0	5
More than or equal to 10	15 – 5 = 10
More than or equal to 20	10 - 3 = 7
More than or equal to 30	7 - 4 = 3



Graphical Representation of Cumulative Frequency Distribution

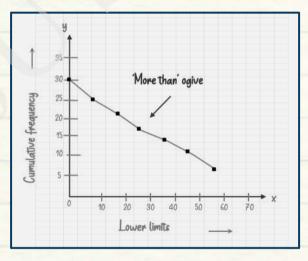
Less than Ogive

To draw the graph of less than ogive, take the upper limits of the class interval and mark the respective less than frequency. Then, join the dots by a smooth curve.



More than Ogive

To draw the graph of more than ogive, take the lower limits of the class interval on the x-axis and mark the respective more than frequency. Then, join the dots by a smooth curve.





Let's say class interval 70-80, the frequencies included in this interval are from $70 \le f < 80$, which means the frequencies corresponding to 80 do not belong to this class interval.

Median of Grouped Data

Algebraic Method

$$\mathsf{Median} = l + \left(\frac{\frac{n}{2} - cf}{f}\right) \times h$$

l = Lower limit of median class

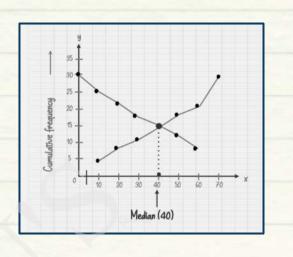
n = Number of observations

f = Frequency of median class

cf = Cumulative frequency of preceding class

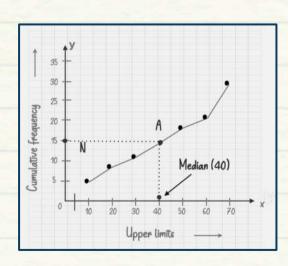
h = Class size

Graphical Method



Median can be obtained by either the less than type or more than type ogive. The given methodology is applicable for both, i.e., less than or more than ogive.

- 1. Find the middle point of total number of cumulative frequency of the given dataset and mark it as Non the y-axis.
- 2. From N, draw a line parallel to X axis to intersect the ogive at point A.
- 3. Drop a perpendicular from A on X axis. This value will represent the median.





Mode of Grouped Data

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

l = lower class limit of the modal class

h = class interval size

 f_1 = frequency of the modal class

 f_0 = frequency of the preceding class

 f_2 = frequency of the succeeding class

Empirical Formula

3 Median = Mode + 2 Mean









PROBABILTY







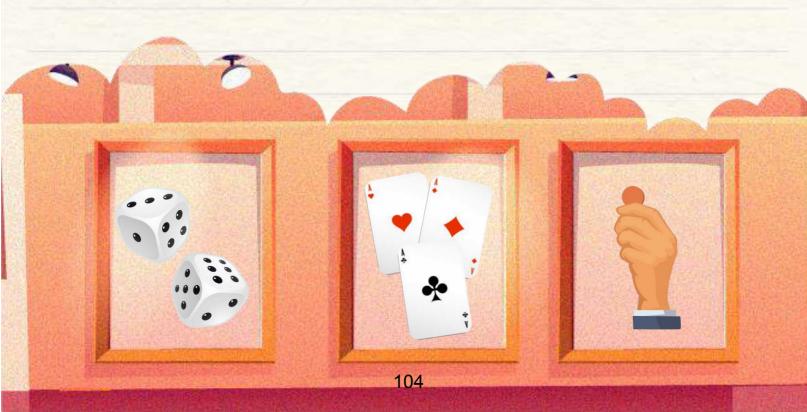


2. Types of Probability

- 2.1 Theoretical Probability

3. Types of Events

4. Important Formulae





1. Basic Terminology

Random Experiment

- * Has more than one possible outcomes.
- * It is impossible to predict any outcome in advance.
- * Examples:



Tossing a coin



Rolling a dice



Drawing a card from a well-shuffled deck

Outcome

- * A possible result of an experiment or a trial.
- * Examples:













Six outcomes for rolling a dice: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6





Two outcomes for coin toss: Heads, Tails

Event

- * A set of one or more outcomes for a random experiment.
- * Example:
 - · Getting a tail when a coin is tossed.
 - Getting an odd number when a dice is rolled.

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2. Types of Probability

Types of Probability

Experimental Probability Theoretical Probability

2.1 Theoretical Probability

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

When a coin is tossed:

- \Rightarrow The probability of getting a head is $\frac{1}{2}$
- The probability of getting a tail is $\frac{1}{2}$





The probability P(E) of an event will be a number such that,

$$0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$$



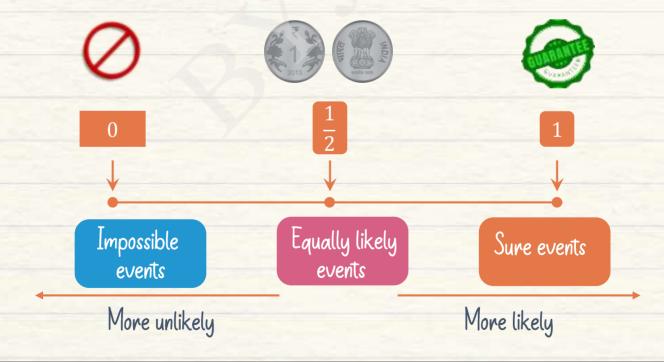
3. Types of Events

Elementary Event

- * Has as only one outcome.
- Sum of all the elementary events for an experiment = 1

Equally likely Event

- When all the outcomes of an experiment have the same chance of occurring.
- Example: Tossing a coin



Impossible Event

- ♦ P(E) = 0.
- * Example: Getting a 7 when rolling a die

Sure/Certain Event

- ❖ P(E) = 1.
- * Example: Christmas being celebrated on the 25th of December



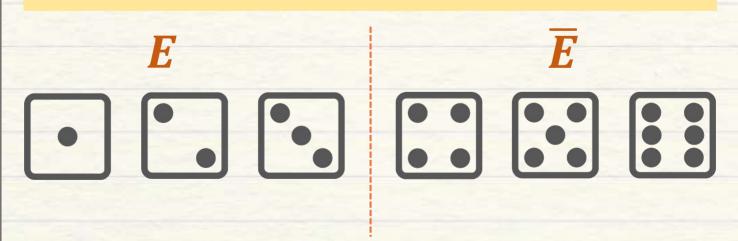
3. Types of Events

Complementary Events

- \clubsuit IF E denotes happening of an event, then \overline{E} denotes NOT happening of that event.
- \clubsuit E and \overline{E} are said to be complementary events.
- \clubsuit \overline{E} is the complement of E.

$$P(\overline{E}) = 1 - P(E)$$

For an event of getting a number less than four on rolling a dice:





1. Important formulae

Theoretical Probability

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

Probability of an event

$$0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$$

For two complementary events, E and \bar{E} ,

$$P(\overline{E}) = 1 - P(E)$$





