

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 1: NUMBER & ALGEBRA

ARITHMETIC & GEOMETRIC PROGRESSIONS

A.P.: common difference between consecutive terms, d

1st term: a , common difference: d

No. of terms: n , last term: l

$$u_n = a + (n-1)d$$

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

To prove A.P.: show $u_{n+1} - u_n = d$

$$\text{or } u_n - u_{n-1} = d$$

G.P.: common ratio between consecutive terms, r

1st term: a , common ratio: r

No. of terms: n

$$u_n = ar^{n-1}$$

$$S_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r} = \frac{a(r^n-1)}{r-1}$$

Sum to infinity $S_{\infty} = \frac{a}{1-r}$ exists only if $|r| < 1$.

Use of GDC to generate and sum sequences, including recursive functions

Applications: compound interest, annual depreciation, population growth.

SIGMA NOTATION

Used in summation: $\sum_{r=0}^n$ $\begin{matrix} n \rightarrow \text{ending term} \\ r=0 \rightarrow \text{starting term} \end{matrix}$

Try to write out terms in sum to see the relationship / pattern (if AP/GP/otherwise)

Examples: A.P. $\sum_{r=1}^5 kr + d$

$$\sum_{r=1}^5 (2r+3) = 5+7+9+11+13$$

A.P.: 1st term $a=5$, $d=2$, $n=5$

G.P. $\sum_{r=1}^5 k^{r+d}$

$$\sum_{r=2}^7 3^r = 9+27+\dots+3^7$$

G.P.: 1st term $a=9$, $r=3$, $n=6$

Sum of constant terms

$$\sum_{r=1}^n k = \underbrace{k + k + \dots + k}_{n \text{ "k"s}} = nk \quad (\text{no. of terms} \times \text{constant})$$

No. of terms in sum = Top - bottom + 1

$$\text{e.g. } \sum_{r=n}^m \sim = m - n + 1$$

EXPONENTS & LOGARITHMS

Definition: $\log_a y = x \Rightarrow y = a^x$

Laws of Logarithms:

$$(1) \log_a m + \log_a n = \log_a mn$$

$$(2) \log_a m - \log_a n = \log_a \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)$$

$$(3) \log_a m^n = n \log_a m$$

$$(4) \log_a 1 = 0$$

$$(5) \log_a a = 1$$

$$(6) a^{\log_a x} = x$$

$$(7) \text{Change of base: } \log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log_b a}$$

Recall: $\ln e = 1$

$$\ln e^x = x, \quad x \ln e = x$$

Laws of Exponents:

$$(1) x^n \cdot x^m = x^{m+n}$$

$$(2) (x^n)^m = x^{nm}$$

$$(3) (xy)^n = x^n y^n$$

$$(4) \left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^n = \frac{x^n}{y^n}$$

$$(5) \frac{x^m}{x^n} = x^{m-n}$$

$$(6) x^0 = 1$$

PERMUTATIONS & COMBINATIONS

No. of ways to choose r objects from n

$$= {}^n C_r = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

No. of ways to permute r objects from n

$$= {}^n P_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

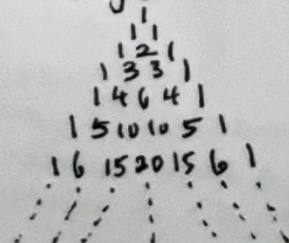
BINOMIAL THEOREM (POSITIVE INDEX)

$$(a+b)^n = a^n + {}^n C_1 a^{n-1} b + {}^n C_2 a^{n-2} b^2 + \dots + b^n$$

General term $T_{r+1} = {}^n C_r a^r b^{n-r}$

$$\text{where } {}^n C_r = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

Pascal's Triangle & Binomial Coefficients



Useful for Paper 1

Note: Symmetry!

BINOMIAL THEOREM (NEGATIVE / FRACTIONAL INDEX)

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

Infinite series
Valid only for $|x| < 1$. where $n \in \mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{Z}^-$

Useful: $(1-x)^{-1} = 1+x+x^2+\dots+x^r+\dots$ for $|x| < 1$

Results: $(1+x)^{-1} = 1-x+x^2-\dots+(-1)^r x^r+\dots$ for $|x| < 1$

Ascending powers of x :

$$(1+x)^{p/q} = (1 + \frac{x}{1})^{p/q} = 1 + \frac{p}{q}x + \dots$$

Descending powers of x :

$$(1+ax)^{p/q} = (ax(1+\frac{1}{ax}))^{p/q} = (ax)^{p/q}(1+\frac{1}{ax})^{p/q}$$

PARTIAL FRACTIONS

"Cover-Up" Rule: 1) Let $\frac{ax+b}{(x-p)(x-q)} = \frac{A}{x-p} + \frac{B}{x-q}$

2) Sub. $x=p$ into LHS, covering up $(x-p)$ factor

$$A = \frac{ap+b}{p-q}$$

3) Similarly, sub. $x=q$ into LHS, covering $(x-q)$

$$B = \frac{aq+b}{q-p}$$

PROOFS

1) Direct proof

2) Indirect proof - Proof by Contrapositive

To prove "If P , then Q ", we will prove

"If not Q , then not P ."

3) Indirect proof - Proof by Contradiction

Example: Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

(i) Suppose $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, i.e. $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$ where p and q have no common factors.

$$(ii) p = \sqrt{2}q \Rightarrow p^2 = 2q^2$$

p^2 is a multiple of 2, and so p is a multiple of 2

i.e. $p = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$(iii) 2k = \sqrt{2}q \Rightarrow 4k^2 = 2q^2$$

$$\Rightarrow q^2 = 2k^2$$

q^2 is a multiple of 2, and so q is a multiple of 2.

(iv) p and q have common factor of 2 (contradiction)

$\therefore$ Thus $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

4) Disproving a statement using a Counter-example.

MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

- A type of proof

- Possible non-exhaustive topics:

Summation, Divisibility, Inequalities,

Differentiation, Complex No.s, Trigonometry

- Ensure proper presentation!

Example:

Let P_n be the proposition that

$$\sum_{r=1}^n 2^r = 2^{n+1} - 2 \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$n=1: LHS = 2^1 = 2$$

$$RHS = 2^{1+1} - 2 = 4 - 2 = 2$$

Since $LHS = RHS$, P_1 is true. ✓

$n=k$: Assume P_k is true for some $n=k$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

i.e. $\sum_{r=1}^k 2^r = 2^{k+1} - 2$ is true. ✓

$n=k+1$: To prove P_{k+1} is true:

i.e. $\sum_{r=1}^{k+1} 2^r = 2^{k+2} - 2$ is true.

$$LHS = \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} 2^r$$

$$= \sum_{r=1}^k 2^r + 2^{k+1} \quad (\text{using Induction Hypothesis})$$

$$= 2^{k+1} - 2 + 2^{k+1}$$

$$= 2(2^{k+1}) - 2$$

$$= 2^{k+2} - 2 = RHS \quad \checkmark$$

Thus P_{k+1} is true whenever P_k is true.

Since P_1 is true and P_k is true $\Rightarrow P_{k+1}$ is true,

by Mathematical Induction, P_n is true

for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ i.e. $\sum_{r=1}^n 2^r = 2^{n+1} - 2$ is true. $\square$

SOLUTION OF SYSTEMS OF LINEAR EQUATIONS

Manual ref $\rightarrow$ upper triangular matrix

Make these entries zeroes (row operations)

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} * & * & * & * \\ 0 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & * & * \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{For Para 2 GDC ref}$$

(A) Unique solutions $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & a \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & c \end{pmatrix}$ (intersect at a point)

(B) Infinitely many solutions $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & a \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ (intersect at a line)

(C) No Solutions $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & a \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & b \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$ (System is inconsistent)

$\rightarrow$ 3 planes do not intersect

COMPLEX NUMBERS

Definition: $i^2 = -1$ or $i = \sqrt{-1}$

$z = x + iy$ where $\text{Re}(z) = x$, $\text{Im}(z) = y$

Conjugate of z : $z^* = x - iy$

Addition & Subtraction

$$z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1) + (x_2 + iy_2) \\ = (x_1 + x_2) + i(y_1 + y_2)$$

$$z_1 - z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1) - (x_2 + iy_2) \\ = (x_1 - x_2) + i(y_1 - y_2)$$

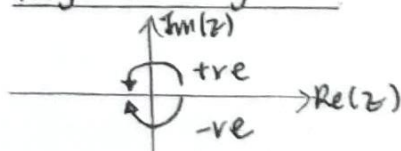
Multiplication & Division

$$z_1 \times z_2 = (x_1 + iy_1)(x_2 + iy_2) \\ = x_1x_2 + i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1) + i^2y_1y_2 \\ = (x_1x_2 - y_1y_2) + i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)$$

$$\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \text{multiply by conjugate} \\ \text{of denominator} \end{array} \\ = \frac{x_1 + iy_1}{x_2 + iy_2} \times \frac{x_2 - iy_2}{x_2 - iy_2}$$

→ "real-ise" the denominator

Argand Diagram

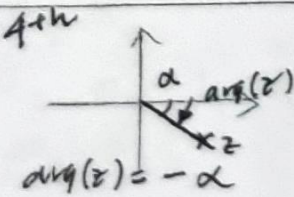
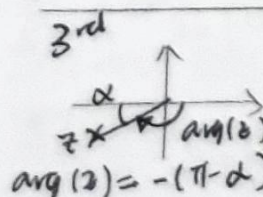
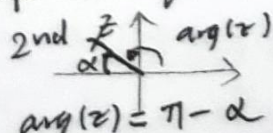
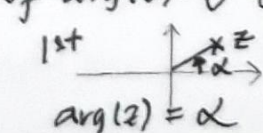


$$|z| = r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \text{modulus of } z$$

$\arg(z) = \theta =$ angle z makes with reference to positive real axis
↳ positive (clockwise sense)

Range of θ : $-\pi < \arg(z) \leq \pi$

Always sketch Argand diagram in order to get the correct value of $\arg(z) = \theta$ (it depends on quadrant)



3 FORMS OF COMPLEX NUMBERS

1) Cartesian Form

$$z = x + iy \text{ where } \text{Re}(z) = x, \text{Im}(z) = y$$

2) Modulus-Argument/Polar Form

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \quad (\text{Trigo}) \\ = r \text{cis } \theta \text{ where } r = |z| \text{ (modulus)} \\ \text{and } \theta = \arg(z) \text{ (argument)}$$

3) Euler (Exponential) Form

$$z = re^{i\theta} \text{ where } r = |z|, \theta = \arg(z)$$

Need to know how to convert between forms.

Geometrical Interpretation

* Complex Number $i = e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}$

Multiplication by $i \rightarrow iz$ is a $\frac{\pi}{2}/90^\circ$ anti-clockwise rotation of the complex number z about the origin.

* Complex Number $1+i = \sqrt{2}e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}}$

Multiplication by $(1+i) \rightarrow (1+i)z$ is a $\frac{\pi}{4}/45^\circ$ anti-clockwise rotation of the complex number z about the origin and a scale factor of $\sqrt{2}$.

Use of GDC

GDC may be used to calculate modulus, argument, & operations of complex numbers in P2 & P3.

Properties of Modulus & Argument

For $z = x + iy = r \text{cis } \theta$

(a) $|z^*| = |z|$

(b) $\arg(z^*) = -\arg(z)$

(c) $|z|^2 = z z^* = z^* z$

Then $z^* = x - iy = r \text{cis } (-\theta)$

For $z_1 = r_1 \text{cis } \theta_1$ and $z_2 = r_2 \text{cis } \theta_2$

(a) $|z_1 z_2| = r_1 r_2 = |z_1| |z_2|$

(b) $\arg(z_1 z_2) = \theta_1 + \theta_2 = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$

(c) $\left| \frac{z_1}{z_2} \right| = \frac{r_1}{r_2} = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|}$

(d) $\arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \theta_1 - \theta_2 = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2)$

DE MOIVRE'S THEOREM

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

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

i.e. $|z^n| = r^n = |z|^n$

and $\arg(z^n) = n\theta = n \arg(z)$

Expressing $\sin n\theta$, $\cos n\theta$, $\tan n\theta$

- in terms of $\sin \theta$, $\cos \theta$, $\tan \theta$

- use Binomial Expansion

$$\cos 5\theta = \operatorname{Re}(\cos 5\theta + i \sin 5\theta)$$

$$= \operatorname{Re}(c + is)^5 \text{ letting } c = \cos \theta, s = \sin \theta$$

$$= \operatorname{Re}(c^5 + 5ic^4s - 10c^3s^2 - 10ic^2s^3 + 5cs^4 + is^5)$$

$$= c^5 - 10c^3s^2 + 5cs^4$$

Similarly, $\sin 5\theta = \operatorname{Im}(c + is)^5$

$$= 5c^4s - 10c^2s^3 + s^5$$

$$\tan 5\theta = \frac{\sin 5\theta}{\cos 5\theta} = \frac{5c^4s - 10c^2s^3 + s^5}{c^5 - 10c^3s^2 + 5cs^4} \quad \text{divide throughout by } c^5$$

$$= \frac{5 \tan \theta - 10 \tan^3 \theta + \tan^5 \theta}{1 - 10 \tan^2 \theta + 5 \tan^4 \theta}$$

Expressing $\sin n\theta$, $\cos n\theta$

- in terms of multiple angles of sine & cosine

$$z + \frac{1}{z} = 2\cos \theta \quad \text{and} \quad z - \frac{1}{z} = 2i \sin \theta$$

$$z^n + \frac{1}{z^n} = 2\cos n\theta \quad \text{and} \quad z^n - \frac{1}{z^n} = 2i \sin n\theta$$

$$(2\cos \theta)^5 = (z + \frac{1}{z})^5$$

$$32\cos^5 \theta = z^5 + 5z^3 + 10z + 10(\frac{1}{z}) + 5(\frac{1}{z^3}) + (\frac{1}{z^5})$$

$$= (z^5 + \frac{1}{z^5}) + 5(z^3 + \frac{1}{z^3}) + 10(z + \frac{1}{z})$$

$$= 2\cos 5\theta + 10\cos 3\theta + 20\cos \theta$$

$$\therefore \cos^5 \theta = \frac{1}{16} (\cos 5\theta + 5\cos 3\theta + 10\cos \theta)$$

$$(2i \sin \theta)^5 = (z - \frac{1}{z})^5$$

$$32i \sin^5 \theta = z^5 - 5z^3 + 10z - 10(\frac{1}{z}) + 5(\frac{1}{z^3}) - (\frac{1}{z^5})$$

$$= (z^5 - \frac{1}{z^5}) - 5(z^3 - \frac{1}{z^3}) + 10(z - \frac{1}{z})$$

$$= 2i \sin 5\theta - 10i \sin 3\theta + 20i \sin \theta$$

$$\therefore \sin^5 \theta = \frac{1}{16} (\sin 5\theta - 5\sin 3\theta + 10\sin \theta)$$

ROOTS OF UNITY

Solutions of $z^n = 1$.

Form n-sided polygon with internal radius 1 with angle $\frac{2\pi}{n}$ between adjacent vertices

1. Write 1 as e^{i0} .

2. Add $2k\pi$ to argument where $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ (n values of k)

3. Take power $\frac{1}{n}$ on both sides.

4. List values of roots for each value of k.

Example: $z^5 = e^{i0}$

$$z^5 = e^{i(2k\pi)}, k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$$

$$(z^5)^{\frac{1}{5}} = e^{i(\frac{2k\pi}{5})}, k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2$$

$$\therefore z = e^{i0}, e^{i(\pm \frac{2\pi}{5})}, e^{i(\pm \frac{4\pi}{5})}$$

SOLUTION OF $z^n = x + iy$

1. Convert $x + iy \rightarrow re^{i\theta}$

2. Add $2k\pi$ to argument where $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ (n values of k)

3. Take power $\frac{1}{n}$ on both sides

4. List values of roots for each value of k.

Example: $z^3 = 2 + 2i$

$$z^3 = 2\sqrt{2} e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4})}$$

$$z^3 = 2\sqrt{2} e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + 2k\pi)}, k = 0, \pm 1$$

$$(z^3)^{\frac{1}{3}} = (2^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{i(\frac{\pi}{4} + 2k\pi)})^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$\therefore z = 2^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i\frac{\pi}{6}}, 2^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i(\frac{3\pi}{2})}, 2^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i(\frac{5\pi}{6})}$$

CONJUGATE ROOTS OF EQUATIONS

For polynomial equations with all real coefficients, if complex roots occur, they occur in conjugate pairs.

USEFUL RESULTS

$$e^{i0} + 1 = e^{i0} + e^{i0}$$

$$= e^{i0/2} (e^{i0/2} + e^{-i0/2}) = e^{i0/2} 2\cos \frac{\theta}{2}$$

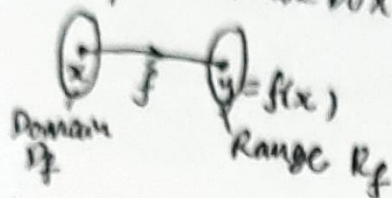
$$e^{i0} - 1 = e^{i0} - e^{i0}$$

$$= e^{i0/2} (e^{i0/2} - e^{-i0/2}) = e^{i0/2} 2i \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 2: FUNCTIONS

FUNCTIONS

- Concept: "black box"



- Presentation: $f: x \mapsto$ or $f(x) =$

- Range of function $R_f \rightarrow$ look at y-values

ODD/EVEN FUNCTIONS

- Odd function: symmetry about origin

$$f(-x) = -f(x)$$

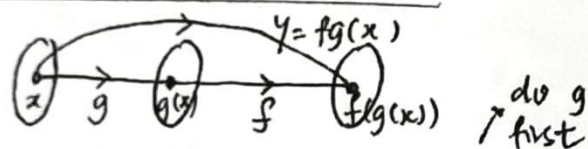
Examples: $y = x^3$, $y = \sin x$

- Even function: symmetry about y-axis

$$f(x) = f(-x)$$

Examples: $y = x^2$, $y = \cos x$

COMPOSITE FUNCTIONS



- Composite function $y = f(g(x))$

- Domain of $fg =$ Domain of g

- Composite function $y = f(g(x))$ exists only if $R_g \subseteq D_f$

- Range of $fg =$ Range of f when the Domain of f is restricted to Range of g .

$\rightarrow$ or find range by sketching $y = fg(x)$.

ONE-TO-ONE FUNCTIONS

- Check if function is one-to-one by using Horizontal Line Test:

Any line $y = k$, $k \in$ Range of f , cuts the graph of $y = f(x)$ at one point only.

- Just need any counter-example to disprove.

INVERSE FUNCTIONS

- Inverse function $y = f^{-1}(x)$ exists only if $y = f(x)$ is one-to-one.

- How to find inverse functions:

(1) Let $y = f(x)$.

(2) Make x the subject of the formula.

(3) Change all y 's to x in final form.

- Check that $D_f = R_{f^{-1}}$ and $R_f = D_{f^{-1}}$

Example:

Find the inverse of $f(x) = (x-2)^2 + 5$, $x \leq 2$

$$(1) y = (x-2)^2 + 5$$

$$(2) (x-2)^2 = y - 5$$

$$x - 2 = \pm \sqrt{y - 5}$$

$$x = 2 \pm \sqrt{y - 5}$$

$$(3) f^{-1}(x) = 2 \pm \sqrt{x - 5}$$

But D_f is $x \leq 2$

$$R_{f^{-1}} = D_f \Rightarrow x \leq 2$$

$$\therefore f^{-1}(x) = 2 - \sqrt{x - 5}$$

$$x \geq 5 (\because D_{f^{-1}} = R_f)$$

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN f AND f^{-1}

$y = f^{-1}(x)$ is a reflection of $y = f(x)$ about the line $y = x$.

$$D_f = R_{f^{-1}} \text{ and } R_f = D_{f^{-1}}$$

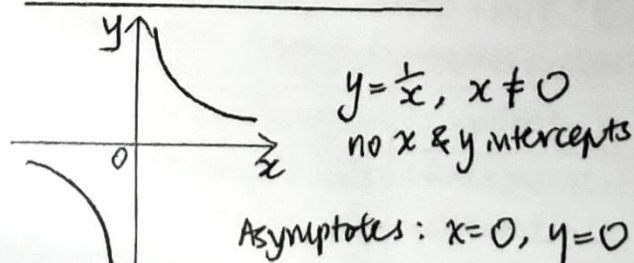
SELF-INVERSE FUNCTION

A self-inverse function is one which is the inverse of itself,

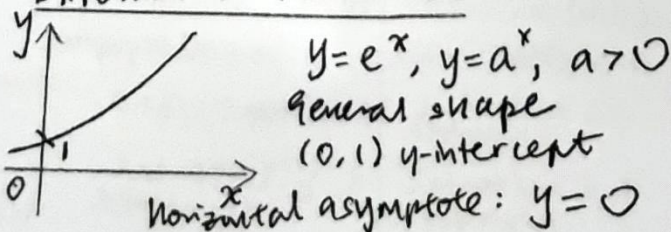
$$\text{i.e. } f^{-1}(x) = f(x).$$

Example: $f(x) = \frac{x}{x-1}$, $x > 1$

RECIPROCAL FUNCTION

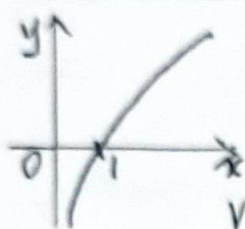


EXPONENTIAL FUNCTION



HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 2: FUNCTIONS (cont'd)

LOGARITHMIC FUNCTION



$$y = \log_a x, x > 0$$

$$y = \ln x, x > 0$$

x-intercept: (1, 0)

Vertical asymptote: $x = 0$

NOTE: For $0 < x < 1$, y-values are negative.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPONENTIAL & LOGARITHMIC

$$a^x = e^{x \ln a}$$

$$\log_a a^x = x$$

$$a^{\log_a x} = x, x > 0$$

$$e^{\ln x} = x, x \ln e = x$$

- $y = \ln x$ and $y = e^x$ are inverse functions

- Their graphs are reflections in the line $y = x$.

GRAPHING TECHNIQUES

- Use of GPC to sketch, zoom in, zoom out, key in domain of graph, find min/max/intersections/intercepts, horizontal/vertical asymptotes, symmetry, consider domain/range.

- Restrict domain of graph in plotting

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GRAPHS OF FUNCTIONS

1) $y = |f(x)|$ - keep 1st & 2nd quadrants
- reflect 3rd & 4th quadrants about x-axis.

2) $y = f(|x|)$ - keep 1st & 4th quadrants
- Reflect about y-axis.

3) $y = \frac{1}{f(x)}$ given $y = f(x)$
Plotting reciprocal graph with original graph

$y = f(x)$	$y = \frac{1}{f(x)}$
$f(x)$ increases	$\frac{1}{f(x)}$ decreases
$f(x)$ decreases	$\frac{1}{f(x)}$ increases
(a, b) maximum	(a, $\frac{1}{b}$) minimum
(a, b) minimum	(a, $\frac{1}{b}$) maximum
x-intercept: $x = a$	$x = a$ vertical asymptote
$x = a$ vertical asymptote	x-intercept: $x = a$
$y = k$ horizontal asymptote	$y = \frac{1}{k}$ horizontal asymptote

4) $y = (f(x))^2$ given $y = f(x)$.
All y-values are squared.

$y = f(x)$	$y = (f(x))^2$
$f(x)$ increases	$(f(x))^2$ increases
$f(x)$ decreases	$(f(x))^2$ decreases
$b > 0$:	$b > 0$:
(a, b) maximum	(a, b^2) maximum
(a, b) minimum	(a, b^2) minimum
$b < 0$:	$b < 0$:
(a, b) maximum	(a, b^2) minimum
(a, b) minimum	(a, b^2) maximum
$x = a$ vertical asymptote	$x = a$ vertical asymptote
$y = b$ horizontal asymptote	$y = b^2$ horizontal asymptote

Note: $f(x) > 1$, then $f(x) < (f(x))^2$
 $0 < f(x) < 1$, then $f(x) > (f(x))^2$

5) $y = f'(x)$ given $y = f(x)$ (inverse)

- Consider gradient of $y = f(x)$ by drawing tangents to curve at different points.

- $f'(x) = 0$ at min/max turning points.

TRANSFORMATION OF GRAPHS

(1) Translations: $y = f(x) \pm b$ (up/down)

$$y = f(x \pm a) \text{ (left/right)}$$

(2) Reflections: $y = -f(x)$ (in x-axis)

$$y = f(-x) \text{ (in y-axis)}$$

(3) Vertical stretch with scale factor p :

$$y = p f(x)$$

(4) Horizontal stretch with scale factor $\frac{1}{q}$:

$$y = f(qx)$$

(5) Remember: "x is a rebel!"

(6) Composite transformations:

$$\text{Order: } y = c f(bx + a) + d$$

Know how to geometrically describe transformations!

1. MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 2: FUNCTIONS (cont'd)

RATIONAL FUNCTIONS

$$y = \frac{ax+b}{cx+d}$$

How to find asymptotes of rational functions

(1) Long division / "create denominator in numerator"

(2) $y = k + \frac{c}{cx+d}$ } this is a proper fraction
 degree of numerator < degree of denominator
 Horizontal asymptote: $y = k$ vertical asymptote: $x = -\frac{d}{c}$

Example: $y = \frac{x+7}{2x-5}$

(1) $y = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(2x-5) + \frac{19}{2}}{2x-5} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{19}{2(2x-5)}$

(2) Horizontal asymptote: $y = \frac{1}{2}$

vertical asymptote: $x = \frac{5}{2}$

You may go on to find x/y intercepts for sketch.

Example: $y = \frac{4}{3x-2} = 0 + \frac{4}{3x-2}$

Horizontal asymptote: $y = 0$; vertical asymptote: $x = \frac{2}{3}$

NOTE: You may perform a series of transformations from the reciprocal graph $y = \frac{1}{x}$, $x \neq 0$ to obtain sketch.

REMAINDER & FACTOR THEOREM

If a polynomial $P(x)$ is divided by $(x-a)$, then the remainder is $P(a)$.

If a polynomial $P(x)$ is divided by $(ax-b)$, then the remainder is $P(\frac{b}{a})$, provided $a \neq 0$.

$(x-a)$ is a factor of polynomial $P(x) \Leftrightarrow P(a) = 0$.

* Need to know how to factorize $P(x)$, using long division / synthetic division

* Need to know how to distinguish between the root of a polynomial eqn & a factor of a polynomial.

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ALGEBRA

Every polynomial of degree n has at most n roots.

THEORY OF EQUATIONS

Quadratic equation: $ax^2+bx+c=0$

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

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

Cubic equation: $ax^3+bx^2+cx+d=0$

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

Product of roots $\alpha\beta\gamma = (-1)^3 \frac{d}{a}$

Useful Results:

$\alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \alpha\gamma = \frac{c}{a}$

$\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2 = (\alpha + \beta + \gamma)^2 - 2(\alpha\beta + \beta\gamma + \alpha\gamma)$

To find new cubic polynomial:

(1) Find relation between the new roots (y) and old roots (x).

(2) Substitute $x = f(y)$ into the original polynomial equation

OR: Expand using new roots.

SOLUTION OF POLYNOMIAL INEQUALITIES

TABLE METHOD

Example: $(x+7)(x-2)(x-4) > 0$

-	+	+	+	$x+7$
-	-	+	+	$x-2$
-	-	-	+	$x-4$
-7	+	2	-	4
-	+	-	+	$(x+7)(x-2)(x-4)$

$\therefore$ Solution is $-7 < x < 2$ or $x > 4$

RATIONAL INEQUALITIES

* DO NOT cross-multiply!

* Bring all to LHS

* Apply Table method.

MODULUS INEQUALITIES

* Use of GDC to solve

* Do not need to know analytical methods.

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 3: GEOMETRY & TRIGONOMETRY

VOLUME & SURFACE AREA

3D SOLIDS such as pyramid, cone, sphere, cylinder etc.

CIRCULAR MEASURE

- Radians: $\pi \text{ rad} = 180^\circ$

- chord

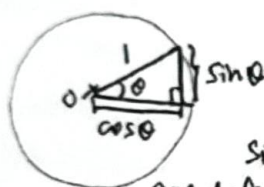
- Sector (slice of pizza)

- Segment (crust)

- Arc length $s = r\theta$

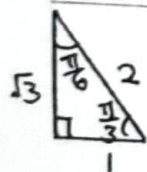
- Area of sector $= \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$

- Area of segment = Area of sector - Area of Δ
 $= \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta - \frac{1}{2}r^2\sin\theta$



Need to know how
 $\sin\theta$, $\cos\theta$, $\tan\theta = \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta}$
 are defined in terms of unit circle.

SPECIAL ANGLES



$$\sin \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

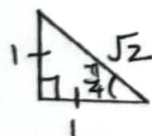
$$\cos \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\cos \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sin \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\tan \frac{\pi}{3} = \sqrt{3}$$

$$\tan \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$



$$\sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \tan \frac{\pi}{4} = 1$$

Need to know these special angles in all other combinations in 2nd/3rd/4th quadrants.

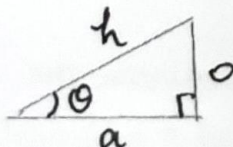
RECIPROCAL TRIGONOMETRIC RATIOS

$$\sec\theta = \frac{1}{\cos\theta} \quad \csc\theta = \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \quad \cot\theta = \frac{1}{\tan\theta}$$

PYTHAGOREAN IDENTITIES

Pythagoras' Theorem

$$o^2 + a^2 = h^2$$



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

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

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

COMPOUND ANGLE IDENTITIES

$$\sin(A+B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

$$\sin(A-B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B$$

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

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

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

DOUBLE ANGLE IDENTITIES

$$\sin 2x = 2 \sin x \cos x$$

$$\cos 2x = 2 \cos^2 x - 1$$

$$= 1 - 2 \sin^2 x$$

$$= \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$$

$$\tan 2x = \frac{2 \tan x}{1 - \tan^2 x}$$

HALF ANGLE IDENTITIES

$$\sin x = 2 \sin \frac{x}{2} \cos \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\cos x = 2 \cos^2 \frac{x}{2} - 1$$

$$= 1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}$$

$$= \cos^2 \frac{x}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\tan x = \frac{2 \tan \frac{x}{2}}{1 - \tan^2 \frac{x}{2}}$$

SOLUTION OF TRIGONOMETRIC EQUATIONS

1. Find basic angle α .

2. Decide which quadrants $\frac{\text{SIA}}{\text{TIC}}$

3. 1st: $x = \alpha$, 2nd: $x = \pi - \alpha$

3rd: $x = \pi + \alpha$, 4th: $x = 2\pi - \alpha$

Examples: $2 \sin x = 1$, $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$

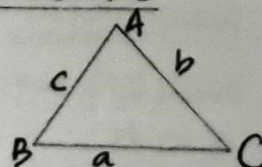
$2 \sin 2x = 3 \cos x$, etc.

SOLUTION OF TRIANGLES

cosine Rule:

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos C$$

$$\text{or } \cos C = \frac{a^2 + b^2 - c^2}{2ab}$$

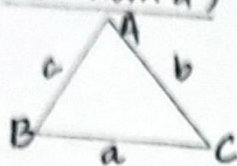


MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 3: GEOMETRY & TRIGONOMETRY

SOLUTION OF TRIANGLES (cont'd)

Sine Rule:

$$\frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}$$

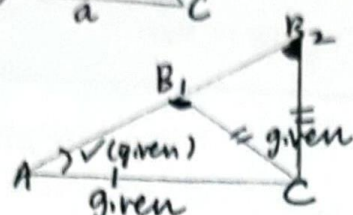


Ambiguous case

Given: AC, BC, $\angle BAC$

2 possible Δ s formed

$\angle B_2 \rightarrow$ acute; $\angle B_1 \rightarrow$ obtuse

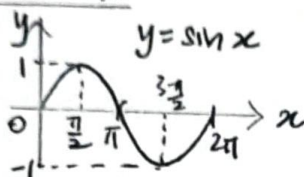


TRIGONOMETRIC GRAPHS

$$y = \sin x$$

$$\text{Period} = 2\pi$$

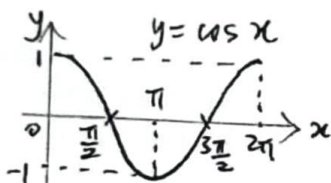
$$\text{Range is } -1 \leq y \leq 1$$



$$y = \cos x$$

$$\text{Period} = 2\pi$$

$$\text{Range is } -1 \leq y \leq 1$$

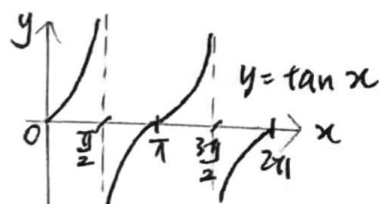


$$y = \tan x$$

$$\text{Period} = \pi$$

$$\text{Range is } \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Asymptotes are } x = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \text{ k odd}$$



TRANSFORMATION OF TRIGO GRAPHS

$$y = a \sin(b(x+c)) + d$$

$$\text{Period of graph} = \frac{2\pi}{b} \text{ (for sin, cos)}$$

$$\text{or } = \frac{\pi}{b} \text{ (for tan)}$$

$$\text{Amplitude (sin, cos)} = a$$

OTHER APPLICATIONS OF TRIGONOMETRY

(1) BEARINGS

- Always draw $\uparrow$ for reference
- clockwise from North (3 digits)

(2) ANGLES OF ELEVATION & DEPRESSION

- Always draw diagram
- look for 90° , use of $\tan \theta$ (usually)

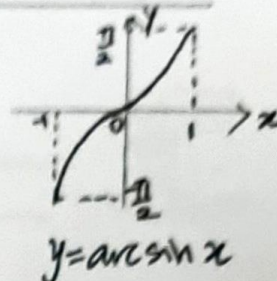
(3) 3D TRIGO - look for 90° , use TOA CAN SOL.

INVERSE TRIGO FUNCTIONS

$$x \mapsto \arcsin x$$

$$\text{Domain} = [-1, 1]$$

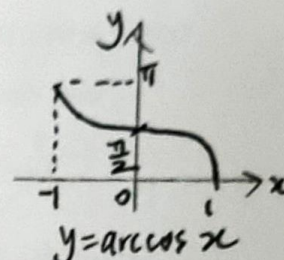
$$\text{Range} = \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$$



$$x \mapsto \arccos x$$

$$\text{Domain} = [-1, 1]$$

$$\text{Range} = [0, \pi]$$



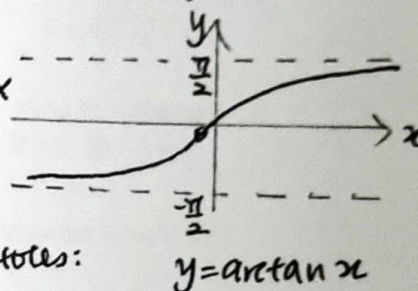
$$x \mapsto \arctan x$$

$$\text{Domain} = \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Range} = \left]-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right[$$

Horizontal asymptotes:

$$x = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$$



* Need to know the domains, principal ranges and graphs for the above 3 inverse trigo functions.

NOTE: Graphs have to be one-to-one for inverse functions to exist. Principal ranges ensure that.

IMPORTANT TRIGO RELATIONSHIPS

$$\cos \theta = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$$

$$\sin \theta = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$$

$$\tan \theta = \cot\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$$

$$\sin(\pi - \theta) = \sin \theta$$

$$\cos(\pi - \theta) = -\cos \theta$$

$$\tan(\pi - \theta) = -\tan \theta$$

$$\sin(\pi + \theta) = -\sin \theta$$

$$\cos(\pi + \theta) = -\cos \theta$$

$$\tan(\pi + \theta) = \tan \theta$$

$$\sin(2\pi - \theta) = -\sin \theta$$

$$\cos(2\pi - \theta) = \cos \theta$$

$$\tan(2\pi - \theta) = -\tan \theta$$



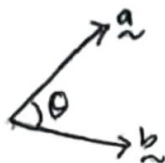
TOPIC 4: VECTORS – SUMMARY OF FORMULAE

1. Unit Vectors

$$\hat{a} = \frac{\underline{a}}{|\underline{a}|}$$

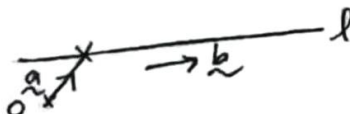
2. Scalar or Dot Product

$$\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b} = |\underline{a}| |\underline{b}| \cos \theta$$



3. Equation of lines

$$l: \underline{r} = \underline{a} + t\underline{b}, t \in \mathbb{R}$$



(a) Vector equation of line: $l: \underline{r} = \underline{a} + t\underline{b}, t \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow l: \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$

(b) Parametric equation of line: $x = a_1 + tb_1, y = a_2 + tb_2, z = a_3 + tb_3, t \in \mathbb{R}$

(c) Cartesian equation of line: (make t the subject of the formula and equate from parametric)

$$\frac{x - a_1}{b_1} = \frac{y - a_2}{b_2} = \frac{z - a_3}{b_3}$$

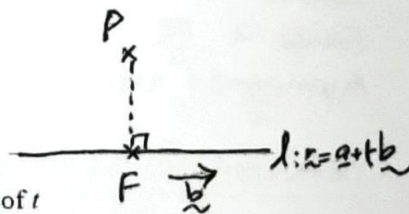
4. Finding Foot of Perpendicular from point to line

(i) F lies on the line $l: \underline{OF} = \underline{a} + t\underline{b}$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}$

(ii) Find the vector $\underline{PF}$: $\underline{PF} = \underline{OF} - \underline{OP} = \underline{a} + t\underline{b} - \underline{p}$

(iii) Use the fact that $\underline{PF} \cdot \underline{b} = 0$: $[\underline{a} + t\underline{b} - \underline{p}] \cdot \underline{b} = 0 \Rightarrow$ find value of t

(iv) Substitute value of t to find coordinates of F .



5. Parallel, Intersecting or Skew Lines

(i) Check for parallel lines (if direction vectors are parallel, then parallel)

(ii) If non-parallel, check for intersection

- Use GDC to solve system of linear equations (rref)

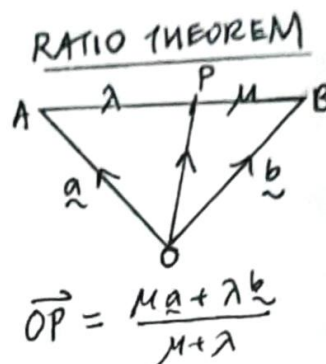
- Solving manually: use 2 of 3 equations, check 3rd equation for consistency

- Find coordinates of point of intersection

(iii) If non-parallel and non-intersecting, then SKEW lines.

6. Vector ^{or} Cross Product

$\underline{a} \times \underline{b} = |\underline{a}| |\underline{b}| \sin \theta \hat{n}$ where $\hat{n}$ is a unit vector perpendicular to both $\underline{a}$ and $\underline{b}$.



COLLINEARITY

3 points A, B, C are collinear
if $\vec{AB} = k\vec{AC}$, $k \in \mathbb{R}$

COPLANAR

4 points A, B, C, D are coplanar
if $\vec{AB} \cdot (\vec{AC} \times \vec{AD}) = 0$

7. Formulae for Vector Product

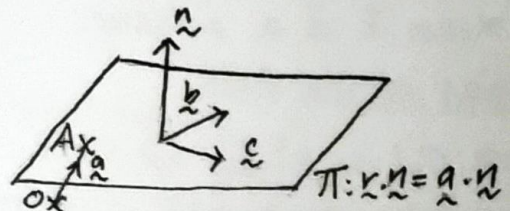
- (i) Area of triangle $= \frac{1}{2} |\underline{a} \times \underline{b}|$
- (ii) Area of parallelogram $= |\underline{a} \times \underline{b}|$
- (iii) Volume of parallelepiped $= |\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})|$
- (iv) Volume of tetrahedron $= \frac{1}{6} |\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})|$

8. Equation of planes

$$\Pi: \underline{r} \cdot \underline{n} = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{n} = d$$

(a) (Normal) Vector equation of plane:

$$\Pi: \underline{r} \cdot \underline{n} = \underline{a} \cdot \underline{n} = d \Rightarrow \underline{r} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix} = an_1 + bn_2 + cn_3 = d$$



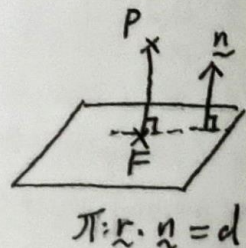
(b) Cartesian equation of plane: $ax + by + cz = d$

(c) Vector equation of plane: (where $\underline{b}$ and $\underline{c}$ are non-parallel vectors in the plane)

$$\Pi: \underline{r} = \underline{a} + \lambda \underline{b} + \mu \underline{c}, \quad \lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{R}$$

9. Finding Foot of Perpendicular from point to plane

- (i) F lies on the plane $\Pi: \underline{OF} \cdot \underline{n} = d$
- (ii) Find the equation of the line PF: $\underline{l}: \underline{r} = \underline{p} + t\underline{n}, t \in \mathbb{R}$
- (iii) F lies on the line PF: $\underline{OF} = \underline{p} + t\underline{n}$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}$
- (iv) Use the fact that $\underline{OF} \cdot \underline{n} = d: (\underline{p} + t\underline{n}) \cdot \underline{n} = d \Rightarrow$ find value of t
- (v) Substitute value of t to find coordinates of F.



10. Angles Formulae (for acute angle, mod numerator)

- (i) Angle between two lines: $\cos \theta = \frac{|\underline{b}_1 \cdot \underline{b}_2|}{|\underline{b}_1| |\underline{b}_2|}$
- (ii) Angle between line and plane: $\sin \theta = \frac{|\underline{b} \cdot \underline{n}|}{|\underline{b}| |\underline{n}|}$
- (iii) Angle between two planes: $\cos \theta = \frac{|\underline{n}_1 \cdot \underline{n}_2|}{|\underline{n}_1| |\underline{n}_2|}$

Distance from O to Π

Plane equation $\Pi: \underline{r} \cdot \underline{n} = d$

Distance from O to Π

$$\text{is } \frac{|d|}{|\underline{n}|}$$

11. Intersection of 3 Planes: (use GDC ref to solve)

- (a) Unique solution (point of intersection $\rightarrow$ must find coordinates)
- (b) Infinite number of solutions (line of intersection $\rightarrow$ find vector equation of line)
- (c) No solution (last row is not all zeroes)

GDC syntax

ref MENU 7 1 1

lin solve MENU 3 2

DISTANCE BETWEEN PARALLEL PLANES

$$\Pi_1: \underline{r} \cdot \underline{n} = d_1$$

$$\Pi_2: \underline{r} \cdot \underline{n} = d_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Distance between } \Pi_1 \text{ \& } \Pi_2 \\ = \frac{|d_1 - d_2|}{|\underline{n}|} \end{aligned}$$

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 4: STATISTICS & PROBABILITY

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

POPULATION VS SAMPLE

MEAN μ VS $\bar{x}$

VARIANCE σ^2 VS s^2

CORRELATION COEFFICIENT ρ VS r

CALCULATION OF $\bar{x}$ AND σ_x

Sample mean $\bar{x}$ is a measure of location of the data.

Variance σ_x^2 or s^2 (or SD σ_x / s) is a measure of spread of the data.

* CALCULATION USING GDC

Key in data (use mid-class interval for grouped data)

MENU **+** **1** **1**

One-variable statistics

Read off $\bar{x}$ (sample mean) and σ_x (sample standard deviation)

* CALCULATION USING FORMULAE

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{n} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{x} = \frac{\sum f_i x_i}{\sum f_i}$$

$$\sigma_x^2 = \frac{\sum x^2 - n\bar{x}^2}{n} = \frac{\sum x^2 - \frac{(\sum x)^2}{n}}{n} = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}$$

$$= \frac{\sum f_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{\sum f_i} = \frac{\sum f_i x_i^2}{n} - \bar{x}^2$$

* MEAN, MEDIAN and MODE

Need to know each of the above measures of central tendency

* GDC - BOX PLOTS

1) "Lists & spreadsheets"

2) Key in data

3) Highlight data (A $\rightarrow$ $\blacktriangle$)

4) **MENU** **3** **9** Quick Graph

5) **DOC** **5** **8** Ungroup

6) **MENU** **1** **2** Boxplot



Outliers
beyond
 $Q_3 + 1.5 \times IQR$
 $Q_1 - 1.5 \times IQR$

SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

(1) PROBABILITY SAMPLING

- Simple random sampling
- Stratified random sampling
- Systematic sampling

(2) NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING

- Quota sampling
- Convenience sampling

* Know how to describe each method and briefly mention pros & cons.

CORRELATION & REGRESSION

Population product moment correlation coefficient

$$\rho = \frac{\text{Cov}(X, Y)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X)} \sqrt{\text{Var}(Y)}}$$

$\rho > 0$ As x increases, y increases

$\rho < 0$ As x increases, y decreases

$\rho = 0$ No linear correlation between x & y

(1) If X, Y are independent, then $\rho = 0$

(2) If X, Y are linearly related, then $\rho = \pm 1$

Sample product moment correlation coefficient

$$r = \frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sqrt{(\sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2)(\sum y_i^2 - n\bar{y}^2)}}$$

* Line of y on x : $y - \bar{y} = b(x - \bar{x})$

$$\text{where } b = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2}$$

* Line of x on y : $x - \bar{x} = d(y - \bar{y})$

$$\text{where } d = \frac{\sum x_i y_i - n\bar{x}\bar{y}}{\sum y_i^2 - n\bar{y}^2}$$

* Both regression lines pass through $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$

* Relation: $r^2 = bd$

* GDC: **MENU** **+** **1** **3**

MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 4: STATISTICS & PROBABILITY

LINEAR REGRESSION (cont'd)

- Comment on validity of regression lines in predicting data (Extrapolation?)
- Comment on sign and strength of correlation coefficient r .

Range of $ r $	Adjective (Strength)
$ r = 1$	perfect
$0.95 \leq r < 1$	very strong
$0.87 \leq r < 0.95$	strong
$0.5 \leq r < 0.87$	moderate
$0.1 \leq r < 0.5$	weak
$0 \leq r < 0.1$	no

PROBABILITY

Definition: $P(A) = \frac{n(A)}{n(E)}$

where E is the sample space.

$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ for any event A

Complement: $P(A') = 1 - P(A)$

Can use P & C to calculate $n(A)$ & $n(E)$

Addition Law:

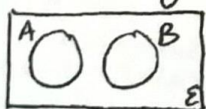
$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

Mutually Exclusive events are events that cannot occur simultaneously.

i.e. $P(A \cap B) = 0$

So we have

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$



Conditional Probability:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

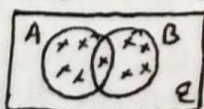
a problem of reduced sample space

Look out for "given"/condition in qn.

Bayes' Theorem:

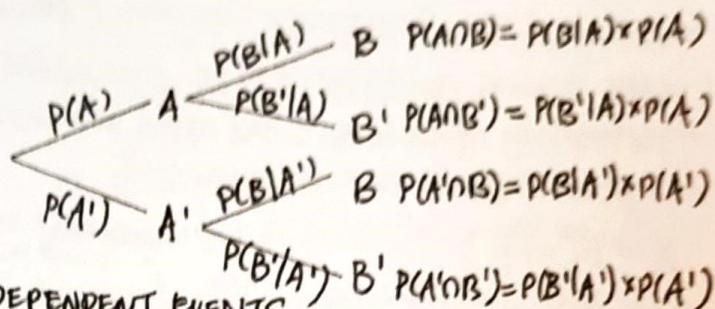
$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(B_i) \times P(A|B_i)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(B_i) \times P(A|B_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^m P(B_i) \times P(A|B_i)}$$

Exhaustive events include all possible outcomes in the sample space E . $P(A \cup B) = 1$



Probability Tree Diagrams:

Sum across branches add up to 1.
Second event branches $\rightarrow$ conditional probability (and beyond)



INDEPENDENT EVENTS

Events A & B are independent if

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B); P(A|B) = P(A) \text{ or } P(B|A) = P(B)$$

Total Probability Theorem:

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^m P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^m P(B_i) \times P(A|B_i)$$

for $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_m$ mutually exclusive exhaustive events.

DISCRETE RANDOM VARIABLE

X is a discrete random variable if it can only assume discrete values and $\sum_{\text{all } x} P(X=x) = 1$.

EXPECTATION (DRV)

$$\text{Mean } E(X) = \sum_{\text{all } x} x P(X=x)$$

$$E(g(X)) = \sum_{\text{all } x} g(x) P(X=x)$$

VARIANCE (DRV)

$$E(X^2) = \sum_{\text{all } x} x^2 P(X=x)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$$

PROBABILITY DENSITY FUNCTION (pdf)

$$f(x) = P(X=x)$$

CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION (CDF)

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x_n) = \sum_{x=x_1}^{x_n} P(X=x)$$

LINEAR TRANSFORMATIONS on X

$$E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$$

$$\text{Var}(aX+b) = a^2 \text{Var}(X)$$

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 4: STATISTICS & PROBABILITY

BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

X is a Binomial random variable if

- total of n repeated trials
- each trial has 2 outcomes: "success"/"failure"

(Success is what you define it to be - Mrs Koozem)

- probability of success is the same in each trial
- repeated trials are independent

$$X \sim B(n, p)$$

pdf $P(X=k) = {}^n C_k p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$, $k=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

bounded by 0 and n

CDF $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \sum_{k=0}^x {}^n C_k p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$, $x=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

$E(X) = np$, $Var(X) = npq = np(1-p)$

*USE OF GDC

(1) $P(X=k) \rightarrow y = \text{binompdf}(n, p, k)$

MENU **5** **5**

(2) $P(a \leq X \leq b) \rightarrow y = \text{binomcdf}(n, p, a, b)$

(3) To find MODE (most likely value) for X

Graphs: $y = \text{binompdf}(n, p, x)$

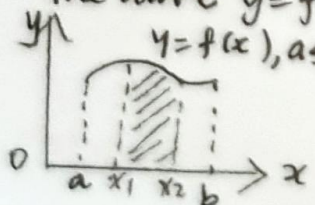
Table: Scroll to find value(s) of x with highest probability value

(4) To find no. of trials n given $P(X \leq x) = k$

$n \rightarrow \text{invBinomN}(k, p, x)$

CONTINUOUS RANDOM VARIABLE

Probability is represented by area under the curve $y=f(x)$ for continuous random variable X .



$\int_a^b f(x) dx = 1$

$P(x_1 \leq X \leq x_2) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx$

*point probabilities $P(X=x) = 0$

EXPECTATION (CRV)

Mean $E(X) = \int_a^b x f(x) dx$

$E(g(X)) = \int_a^b g(x) f(x) dx$

VARIANCE (CRV)

$E(X^2) = \int_a^b x^2 f(x) dx$

$Var(X) = E(X^2) - (E(X))^2$

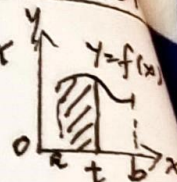
MODE(CRV)

value of X for which $f(x)$ is greatest in range of X .

CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION

$F(t) = P(X \leq t) = \int_a^t f(x) dx$

$= 1 - \int_t^b f(x) dx$

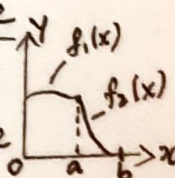


pdf $f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \rightarrow \text{CDF}$

MEDIAN $m: \int_a^m f(x) dx = 0.5$ or $F(m) = 0.5$

*Multi-part pdf Example

pdf $f(x) = \begin{cases} f_1(x), & 0 \leq x < a \\ f_2(x), & a \leq x \leq b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$



CDF:

$F_1(x) = \int_0^x f_1(x) dx$

$F_2(x) = \int_a^x f_2(x) dx + F_1(a)$

OR $= 1 - \int_x^b f_2(x) dx$

*Combine 2 functions & present final answer.

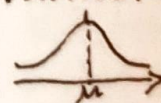
NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

- a continuous random variable

$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

μ Mean = Median = Mode

Symmetry about $x = \mu$



(a) Calculation of Probability

$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

$P(a \leq X \leq b) \rightarrow \text{normcdf}(a, b, \mu, \sigma)$

*key in 1000/-1000 for " ∞ "/" $-\infty$ "

(b) Calculation of Boundary

$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$

Boundary value $a \rightarrow \text{invnorm}(\text{area value}, \mu, \sigma)$



*always use Left hand value of area.

(c) Calculation of Unknown μ, σ

Need to standardize using

$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$

Convert: $P(X \leq x_1) = a$

$P(Z \leq \frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma}) = a$

$\frac{x_1 - \mu}{\sigma} \rightarrow \text{invnorm}(a, 0, 1)$

Form simultaneous equations to solve for unknown.

MENU **3** **2** solve in GDC.

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 5: CALCULUS

LIMITS & FIRST PRINCIPLES

As $x \rightarrow a$, $f(x) \rightarrow l$.

Equivalently, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = l$

Algebra of limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$, where c is a constant
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c \times f(x) = c \times \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
provided the limits exist
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)]^n = [\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)]^n$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x)$ provided $f(x)$ is continuous at $x=a$.

Useful techniques for Rational Functions

- Long division $\rightarrow$ proper fraction
- Divide throughout by highest power in denominator

L'Hôpital's Rule (please state when using)

- If (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$ or $\pm \infty$
 (b) $g'(x) \neq 0$ for every $x \in]a, b[\setminus \{c\}$
 (c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists,

then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

Special case (when $f \times g = 0 \times \infty$)

- write $f \times g$ as $\frac{f}{\frac{1}{g}}$ or $\frac{g}{\frac{1}{f}}$

Example: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x e^x = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^{-x}}$

$\star$ L'Hôpital's rule $\star = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(-e^{-x})}$
 $= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-x} = 0$

Special case (usually for e)

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x))$ if f is continuous at $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$.

Example: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{\ln(x^{\frac{1}{x}})} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{\frac{1}{x} \ln(x)}$
 $= e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \ln(x)} = e^0 = 1$

First Principles Differentiation

Derivatives from "first principles"

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- (1) Always write down $f(x)$ and $f(x+h)$
- (2) Simplify and expand in order to "cancel" h in denominator in expression.
- (3) Substitute $h=0$ into expression
- (4) Check by differentiating original $f(x)$.

Example: Find $f'(x)$ for $f(x) = x^3$ by using first principles.

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \quad \text{step 1} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+h)^3 - x^3}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 + 3hx^2 + 3h^2x + h^3 - x^3}{h} \quad \text{step 2} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 3x^2 + 3hx + h^2 \quad \text{step 3} = 3x^2 \end{aligned}$$

Step 4: $y = x^3$, $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2$

EQUATION OF TANGENTS & NORMALS

$y = f(x)$

- (1) Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ or $f'(x)$.
- (2) Substitute x value to find (a) Gradient (b) y -value.
- (3) Use $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$ to find equation

NOTE: Read question properly.

Gradient of normal, $m_{\text{normal}} = \frac{-1}{m_{\text{tangent}}}$

INCREASING/DECREASING FUNCTIONS

A function $f(x)$ is an increasing function

if $\frac{dy}{dx} > 0$ or $f'(x) > 0$.

A function $f(x)$ is a decreasing function

if $\frac{dy}{dx} < 0$ or $f'(x) < 0$.

HIGHER DERIVATIVES

2nd derivative: $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = f''(x)$

3rd derivative: $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right) = f'''(x)$

n th derivative: $\frac{d^ny}{dx^n} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{d^{n-1}y}{dx^{n-1}} \right) = f^{(n)}(x)$

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 5: CALCULUS (cont'd)

COMMON FORMS (INTEGRALS)

$$(1) \int f(x) [f(x)]^n dx = \frac{[f(x)]^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

$$(2) \int f(x) e^{f(x)} dx = e^{f(x)} + C$$

$$(3) \int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \ln|f(x)| + C$$

INTEGRATION BY SUBSTITUTION

$$(1) \text{ Let } u=f(x) \Rightarrow x=f^{-1}(u)$$

$$(2) \text{ Find } \frac{dx}{du}$$

$$(3) \int_{x_1}^{x_2} g(x) dx = \int_{u_1}^{u_2} g(f^{-1}(u)) \left(\frac{dx}{du}\right) du$$

replace x by $f^{-1}(u)$

$$(4) \text{ Integrate in new variable, } u$$

$$(5) \text{ Definite integral} \rightarrow \text{get numerical answers}$$

$$\text{Indefinite integral} \rightarrow \text{back-substitute}$$

$$\text{Final answer to } x$$

INTEGRATION BY PARTS

$\int$ Log $\int$ Inverse trig $\int$ Algebra $\int$ Trigo $\int$ Exponential

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = [uv] - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

$$(1) \text{ Identify L.I.A.T.E.}$$

$$(2) \text{ Choose } u, \text{ the other part is } \frac{dv}{dx}$$

write down $\frac{du}{dx}$ and v .

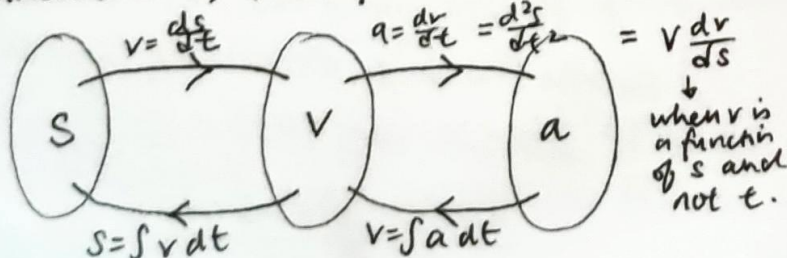
$$(3) \text{ Apply formula.}$$

Examples: $\int x \sin x dx$, $\int \ln x dx$, $\int \arcsin x dx$

Repeated integration by parts: $\int x^2 \sin x dx$, $\int e^x \sin x dx$

KINEMATICS

Displacement s , Velocity v , Acceleration a



Velocity-Time $v-t$ Graph

- gradient $a = \frac{dv}{dt}$

- area under graph = displacement

- min/max velocity at $a=0$

$$\text{Average speed} = \frac{\text{Total Distance}}{\text{Total Time}} = \frac{\int |v| dt}{t}$$

Speed (scalar) = $|v|$

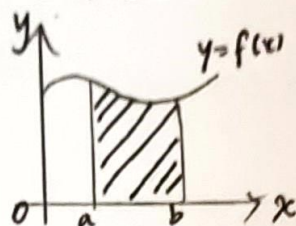
Distance (scalar)

$$= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |v| dt$$

AREAS & VOLUMES OF REVOLUTION

* Always sketch the graphs first!

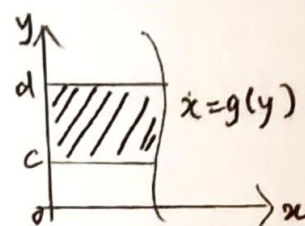
$$(1) \text{ Area under curve (between curve \& x-axis)}$$



$$\text{Area} = \int_a^b y dx$$

$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

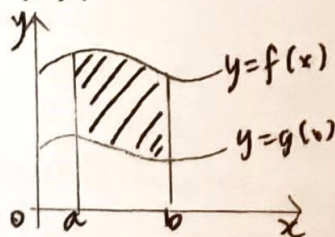
$$(2) \text{ Area under curve (between curve \& y-axis)}$$



$$\text{Area} = \int_c^d x dy$$

$$= \int_c^d g(y) dy$$

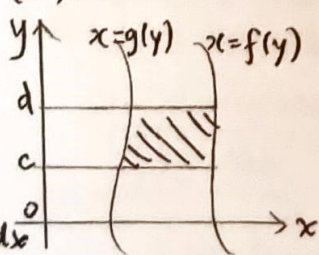
$$(3) \text{ Area between 2 curves (x-axis)}$$



$$\text{Area} = \text{Top} - \text{Bottom}$$

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

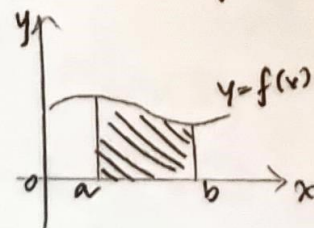
$$(4) \text{ Area between 2 curves (y-axis)}$$



$$\text{Area} = \text{Right} - \text{Left}$$

$$= \int_c^d f(y) - g(y) dy$$

$$(5) \text{ Volume of solid of revolution (x-axis)}$$

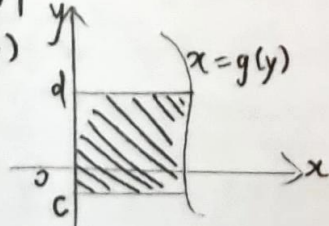


$$\text{Volume}$$

$$= \pi \int_a^b y^2 dx$$

$$= \pi \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx$$

$$(b) \text{ Volume of solid of revolution (y-axis)}$$



$$\text{Volume}$$

$$= \pi \int_c^d x^2 dy$$

$$= \pi \int_c^d (g(y))^2 dy$$

12. MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 5: CALCULUS (cont'd)

DERIVATIVES

$y = f(x)$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin x$	$\cos x$
$\cos x$	$-\sin x$
$\tan x$	$\sec^2 x$
e^x	e^x
$\ln x$	$\frac{1}{x}$
$\sec x$	$\sec x \tan x$
$\csc x$	$-\csc x \cot x$
$\cot x$	$-\csc^2 x$
a^x	$a^x \ln a$
$\log_a x$	$\frac{1}{x \ln a}$
$\arcsin x$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
$\arccos x$	$\frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
$\arctan x$	$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$

CHAIN RULE

$$y = f(u(x)) \quad , \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = f'(u) \times \frac{du}{dx}$$

PRODUCT RULE

$$y = uv$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = uv' + vu' \quad \text{or} \quad u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

QUOTIENT RULE

$$y = \frac{u}{v}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{vu' - uv'}{v^2} = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$$

RATE OF CHANGE

Use of chain rule to link variables

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dx} \times \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dA} \times \frac{dA}{dx} \times \frac{dx}{dt}$$

STATIONARY POINTS

- Occur at $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ or $f'(x) = 0$

- Determine the nature of stationary points

1st Derivative Test:

x	a^-	a	a^+
$\frac{dy}{dx}$	$+$	0	$-$

$\Rightarrow \max$

x	a^-	a	a^+
$\frac{dy}{dx}$	$-$	0	$+$

$\Rightarrow \min$

2nd Derivative Test:

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0 \Rightarrow \max$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0 \Rightarrow \min$$

CONCAVITY

- Concave upwards

If $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is increasing, i.e. $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0$

- Concave downwards

If $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is decreasing, i.e. $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0$

POINTS OF INFLEXION

- Definition: the point at which concavity changes

- Usually $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$ at the point

- Confirm by considering

x	a^-	a	a^+
$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$	$+$	0	$-$

OR

x	a^-	a	a^+
$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$	$-$	0	$+$

- $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ must change sign across the point.

- If $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$, then stationary point of inflexion.

- If $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \neq 0$, then non-stationary point of inflexion.

IMPLICIT DIFFERENTIATION

(1) Apply $\frac{d}{dx}$ to both sides of equation.

(2) Terms in $y \rightarrow$ differentiate as usual but multiply by $\frac{dy}{dx}$

(3) Make $\frac{dy}{dx}$ the subject of the formula.

CHAIN RULE FOR HIGHER DERIVATIVES

Question wants you to find $\frac{d^2y}{dt^2}$ but $\frac{dy}{dt}$ is an expression in terms of x , not t .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} &= \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right) \rightarrow \text{an expression in } x, \text{ not } t \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right) \times \frac{dx}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

INDEFINITE INTEGRATION

Refer to table of derivatives.

Remember to add "+c" for arbitrary constant.
Do NOT confuse integration with differentiation!

DEFINITE INTEGRALS

$$\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x)$$

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

lower limit
upper limit

NOTE: Paper 2/3 questions which do not ask for exact answers, use fpc!

$$\boxed{\text{MENU}} \quad \boxed{4} \quad \boxed{12} \quad \text{or} \quad \int_0^0 0 \, dx$$

HL MATHEMATICS ANALYSIS & APPROACHES - TOPIC 5: CALCULUS (cont'd)

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

- Solve by integration
- Know the difference between general solution (tc) and particular solution.

(1) Direct Integration

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$

$$y = \int f(x) dx$$

(2) Variable Separable

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)g(y)$$

$$\int \frac{1}{g(y)} \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int f(x) dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{g(y)} dy = \int f(x) dx$$

Example: $3x \frac{dy}{dx} = 5y^2$

$$\int \frac{1}{y^2} dy = \frac{5}{3} \int \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$-\frac{1}{y} = \frac{5}{3} \ln|x| + C$$

$$y = -\frac{1}{\frac{5}{3} \ln|x| + C}$$

(3) Homogeneous Differential Equations

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) \quad (x \text{ \& } y \text{ terms are of the same degree})$$

Steps: (a) Let $y = vx$

$$(b) \frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$$

(c) Change DE in x & y to DE in x & v

Example: (d) Back substitute: $v = \frac{y}{x}$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x+2y}{x}$$

$$v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{x+2vx}{x}$$

$$v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = 1+2v$$

$$x \frac{dv}{dx} = 1+v$$

$$\int \frac{1}{1+v} dv = \int \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$\ln|1+v| = \ln|x| + C$$

$$1+v = Ax$$

$$1 + \frac{y}{x} = Ax$$

$$y = Ax^2 - x$$

(4) Integrating Factor

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x) \quad \text{mixture of } x \text{ \& } y \text{ terms: } P(x)y$$

Steps: (a) Integrating factor $I(x) = e^{\int P(x) dx}$

(b) Multiply throughout by $I(x)$

$$\Rightarrow LHS = \frac{d}{dx}(I(x)y), \quad RHS = Q(x)I(x)$$

(c) Integrate both sides directly w.r.t. x .

(4) Integrating Factor (cont'd)

Example: $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3x^2y = 6x^2$

$$I(x) = e^{\int 3x^2 dx} = e^{x^3}$$

$$e^{x^3} \frac{dy}{dx} + 3x^2 e^{x^3} y = 6x^2 e^{x^3}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{x^3} y) = 6x^2 e^{x^3}$$

$$\int \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x^3} y) dx = \int 6x^2 e^{x^3} dx$$

$$e^{x^3} y = 2e^{x^3} + C \Rightarrow y = 2 + Ce^{-x^3}$$

EULER'S METHOD

* know how to use GDC "lists & spreadsheets"

* refer to pg 64-68 in Y6 Guidebook

* For marking, show table from GDC

Euler's method can be improved by reducing step size.

MACLAURIN'S SERIES

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \dots$$

where $f^{(n)}(0)$ is the n^{th} derivative of $f(x)$ evaluated at $x = 0$.

Standard Maclaurin's Expansions Formula Booklet

$$(1) e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$(2) \ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

$$(3) \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$(4) \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

$$(5) \arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

* Recall $\odot$ apple concept

* Maclaurin's series can be used to

- evaluate limits

- solve differential equations