

# Normal Maths Pure Notes

## Algebraic Expressions

$$a^m \times a^n = a^{m+n}, \quad a^m \div a^n = a^{m-n}, \quad (a^m)^n = a^{mn}, \quad (ab)^n = a^n b^n$$

$$x^2 - y^2 = (x+y)(x-y), \quad a^{\frac{1}{m}} = \sqrt[m]{a}, \quad a^{-m} = \frac{1}{a^m}, \quad a^{\frac{m}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{a^m}, \quad a^0 = 1$$

$$\sqrt{ab} = \sqrt{a} \times \sqrt{b}, \quad \sqrt{\frac{a}{b}} = \frac{\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{b}}$$

Fractions in the form  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}$  multiply by  $\frac{\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{a}}$

Fractions in the form  $\frac{1}{a+\sqrt{b}}$  multiply by  $\frac{a-\sqrt{b}}{a-\sqrt{b}}$

Fractions in the form  $\frac{1}{a-\sqrt{b}}$  multiply by  $\frac{a+\sqrt{b}}{a+\sqrt{b}}$

## Quadratics

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

$$ax^2 + bx + c = a\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{4a}\right)$$

if  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c = 0$   
 $b^2 - 4ac = \text{'discriminant'}$

if  $f(x) = a(x+p)^2 + q$

there is a turning point  
at  $(-p, q)$

$b^2 - 4ac < 0$  : no real roots

$b^2 - 4ac = 0$  : one repeated real root

$b^2 - 4ac > 0$  : two distinct real roots

## Equations and Inequalities

The solutions of a pair of simultaneous equations represent the points of intersection of their graphs. If  $y > f(x)$  or  $y < f(x)$  the line is dotted, if  $y \geq f(x)$  or  $y \leq f(x)$  then the graph is a solid line.

## Graphs and Transformations

The graphs  $y = \frac{k}{x}$  and  $y = \frac{k}{x^2}$  have asymptotes at  $x=0$  and  $y=0$

$y = f(x+a)$  = translation  $-a$   
in  $x$ -axis

$y = af(x)$  = stretch factor  $a$   
in  $y$ -axis

$y = -f(x)$  reflection in  
 $x$ -axis

$y = f(ax)$  = translation  $a$   
in  $y$ -axis

$y = f(ax)$  = stretch factor  $\frac{1}{a}$   
in  $x$ -axis

$y = f(-x)$  reflection in  
 $y$ -axis

## Straight-Line Graphs

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

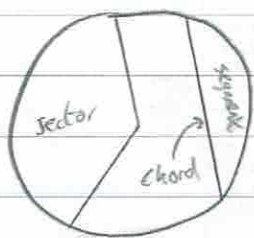
a perpendicular line  $-\frac{1}{m}$

$$\text{distance between two points: } d = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

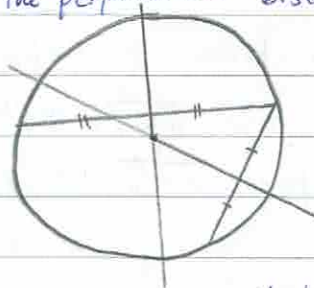
## Circles

$$\text{m.d.point} = \left( \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{circle: } (x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = r^2$$



The perpendicular bisector of a chord will go through the centre of a circle.



To find the centre of a circle given

3. points find the two perpendicular bisectors of two chords and find where they meet.

## Algebraic Methods

You can prove a statement is true by deduction. This is starting from known factors or definitions, then using logical steps to reach the desired conclusion.

- In a proof:
- State any information or assumptions you are using
  - Show every step of your proof clearly
  - Make sure that every step follows from the last
  - Make sure you have covered all possible cases
  - Write a statement of proof at the end

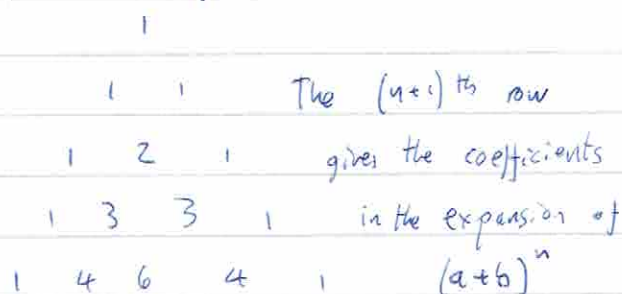
- To prove an identity:
- Start with the expression on one side of the identity
  - Manipulate that expression algebraically until it matches the other side
  - Show every step

You can prove a statement by exhaustion. This is breaking it into smaller cases and proving them separately.

You can prove a statement is not true by a counter-example.

## The Binomial Expansion

Pascal's triangle



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

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

$$\text{general term} = \binom{n}{r} a^{n-r} b^r$$

## Trigonometric Ratios

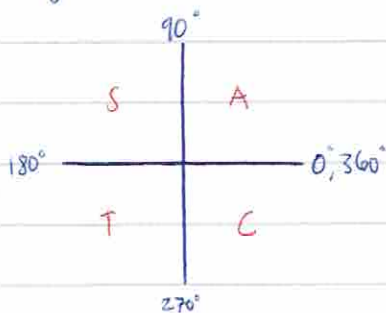
$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos A$$

$$\cos A = \frac{b^2 + c^2 - a^2}{2bc}$$

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

$$\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} ab \sin C$$

## Trigonometric identities and equations



$$\sin 30 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\cos 30 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\tan 30 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$$

$$\sin 45 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$\cos 45 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$\tan 45 = 1$$

$$\sin 60 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\cos 60 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\tan 60 = \sqrt{3}$$

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

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$$

principle value = angle the calc. gives

## Vectors

Any vector is equivalent to ~~adding a negative vector~~  $\lambda \underline{a}$  if it's parallel to  $\underline{a}$ . To multiply a column vector by a scalar multiply each component by the scalar. To add two column vectors add the  $x$  and  $y$  components.

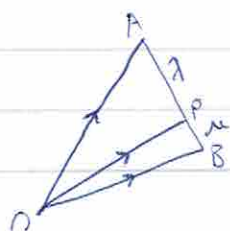
$$\begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} r \\ s \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p+r \\ q+s \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix} = p\mathbf{i} + q\mathbf{j}$$

A unit vector is a vector of length 1.

$$|\underline{a}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

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



$$\begin{aligned} \overrightarrow{OP} &= \overrightarrow{OA} + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda+\mu} \overrightarrow{AB} \\ &= \overrightarrow{OA} + \frac{\lambda}{\lambda+\mu} (\overrightarrow{OB} - \overrightarrow{OA}) \end{aligned}$$

if  $\underline{a}$  and  $\underline{b}$  are non-parallel and

$$p\underline{a} + q\underline{b} = r\underline{a} + s\underline{b}$$

$$p=r, q=s$$



## Differentiation

The gradient of a curve at a given point is defined as the gradient of the tangent to the curve at that point.

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

$$y = ax^n, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = anx^{n-1}$$

The function  $f(x)$  is increasing if  $f'(x) \geq 0$

The function  $f(x)$  is decreasing if  $f'(x) \leq 0$

Type of stationary point	$f'(x-h)$	$f'(x)$	$f'(x+h)$
Local maximum	+	0	-
Local min	-	0	+
Point of inflection	+	0	+
	-	0	-

or

$f''(a) = 0$ : max/min/inflect.

if  $f''(a) > 0$ : ~~maximum~~ <sup>minimum</sup>     $f''(a) < 0$ : maximum

## Integration

Area =  $\int_a^b y \cdot dx$  (will be negative if below x-axis)

## Exponentials and Logarithms

if  $y = e^{kx}$   
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = ke^{kx}$

if  $\log_a n = x$   
 $n = a^x$

$$\log x + \log y = \log xy$$

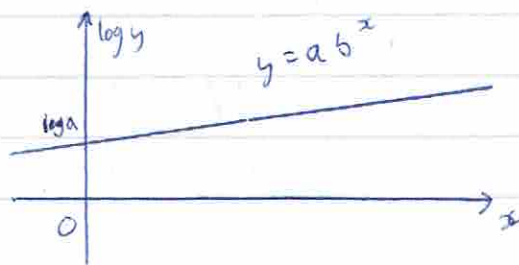
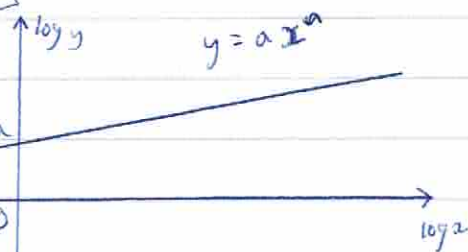
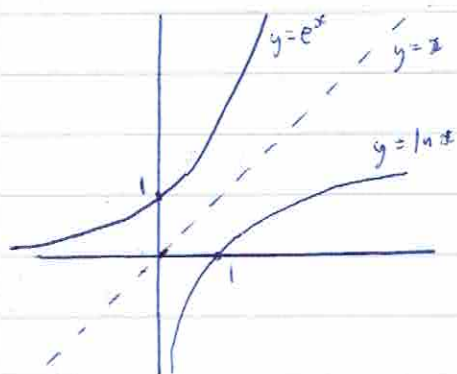
$$\log x - \log y = \log \frac{x}{y}$$

$$\log(x^k) = k \log x$$

$$\log_a a = 1$$

$$\log_a 1 = 0$$

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



## A-level

### Algebraic Methods

To prove a statement by contradiction, you start by assuming it is not true. You then use logical steps to show that this leads to something impossible.  
↳ rational number =  $\frac{a}{b}$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers with no common factor.

A fraction with two+ linear factors in the denominator can be split into two+ separate fractions. This is called splitting it into partial fractions. If the fraction is proper (numerator has a degree less than the denominator) it can be split into partial fractions of a constant over one of the linear factors. If it is improper (numerator has a degree equal to or larger than the denominator), you can either convert it to a mixed fraction using algebraic division or  $F(x) = Q(x) \times \text{divisor} + \text{remainder}$  or find the form of the partial fractions. This can be done by looking at the degrees of the numerator and denominator. If they are equal, add  $A$  to the partial fractions, if the ~~num~~ <sup>numerator is</sup> one greater add  $Ax + B$  ... etc.

### Functions and Graphs

When  $f(x) \geq 0$ ,  $|f(x)| = f(x)$ . When  $f(x) < 0$ ,  $|f(x)| = -f(x)$ .

If drawing the graph of  $|f(x)|$ , reflect all values below the  $x$ -axis in the  $x$ -axis. If drawing  $f(|x|)$ , reflect all values where  $x > 0$  in the  $y$ -axis (still keeping them on the right side).

A function must have one output for one input, can have many inputs for same output.

$f \circ g(x)$  means apply  $g$  first, then  $f$ .

$f(x)$  is the inverse of  $f^{-1}(x)$ ,  $f \circ f^{-1}(x) = f^{-1} \circ f(x) = x$

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

Domain of  $f(x) = \text{range of } f^{-1}(x)$ , Domain of  $f^{-1}(x) = \text{range of } f(x)$

$f(x+a)$  = horizontal translation of  $-a$

$f(x)+a$  = vertical translation of  $+a$

$f(ax)$  = horizontal stretch of  $\frac{1}{a}$

$af(x)$  = vertical stretch of  $a$

$f(-x)$  = reflection in  $y$ -axis

$-f(x)$  = reflection in  $x$ -axis

## Sequences and Series

Arithmetic: difference between terms is constant

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

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

proof: write out terms, flip, find  $2S_n$ , find  $S_n$

Geometric: common ratio between consecutive terms

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

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

proof: write out terms, write out terms of  $rS_n$ , find  $S_n - rS_n$ , divide by  $(1-r)$

$$S_\infty = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad (|r| < 1)$$

A sequence is:

increasing if  $u_{n+1} > u_n$

decreasing if  $u_{n+1} < u_n$

periodic if it cycles: if  $u_{n+k} = u_n$  ( $k$  = 'order' of the sequence)

## Binomial Expansion

If  $n$  is negative or a fraction<sup>use</sup>:  $(1+x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \dots$   
valid:  $|x| < 1$

if given  $(a+bx)^n$   
do  $= (a(1+\frac{b}{a}x))^n = a^n(1+\frac{b}{a}x)^n$

## Radians

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

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

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

$$\sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$\cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$\tan \frac{\pi}{4} = 1$$

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

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

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

Arc length =  $L = r\theta$

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

Area segment =  $A = \frac{1}{2}r^2(\theta - \sin\theta)$

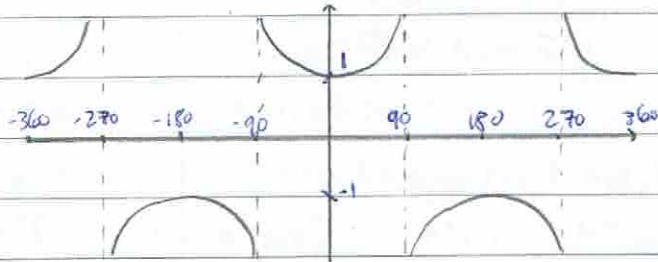
when  $\theta$  is small and in radians:  $\sin\theta \approx \theta$   $\tan\theta \approx \theta$   $\cos\theta \approx 1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2}$



## Trigonometric Functions

$$\sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}, \quad \operatorname{cosec} x = \frac{1}{\sin x}, \quad \cot x = \frac{1}{\tan x} = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$$

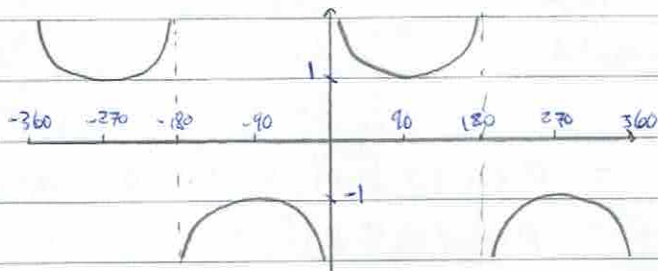
$$y = \sec x$$



$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x \equiv 1$$

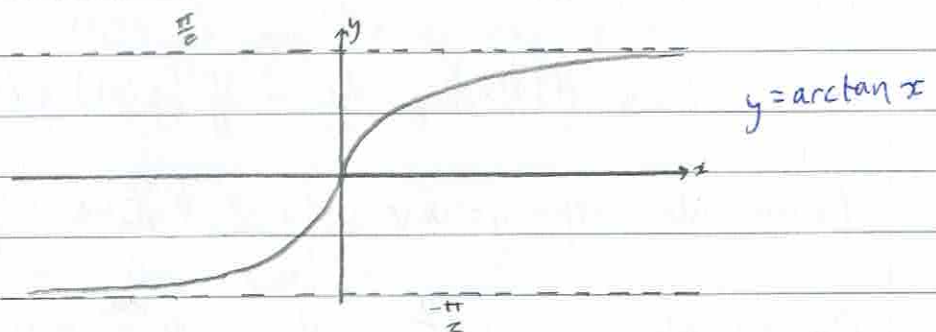
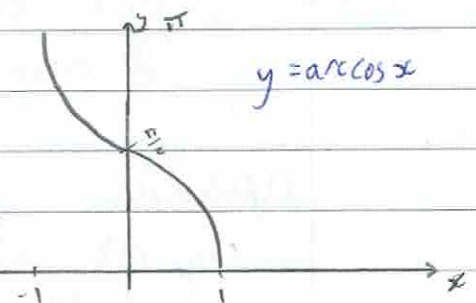
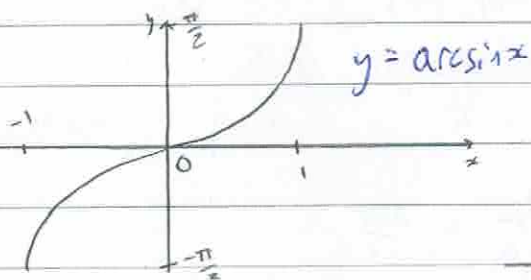
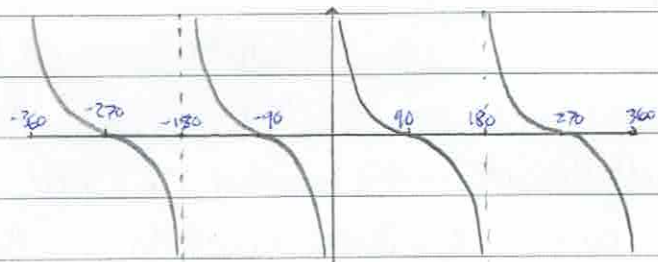
$$1 + \tan^2 x \equiv \sec^2 x$$

$$y = \operatorname{cosec} x$$



$$1 + \cot^2 x \equiv \operatorname{cosec}^2 x$$

$$y = \cot x$$



## Trigonometry and Modelling

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

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

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

$$\sin 2A = 2 \sin A \cos A$$

$$\cos 2A = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 A = 2\cos^2 A - 1 = 1 - 2\sin^2 A$$

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

$$a \sin x \pm b \cos x = R \sin(x \pm \alpha) \quad (R > 0, \text{ then } 0 < \alpha < 90^\circ)$$

$$a \cos x \pm b \sin x = R \cos(x \mp \alpha)$$

$$R = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

## Parametric Equations

A curve can ~~be~~ defined using parametric equations  $x = p(t)$  and  $y = q(t)$ .

You can convert to Cartesian by using substitution.

if  $x = p(t)$  and  $y = q(t)$  and  $y = f(x)$

$f(x)$  domain = range of  $p(t)$

$f(x)$  range = range of  $q(t)$

## Differentiation

Chain rule:  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \times \frac{du}{dx}$

if  $y = (f(x))^n$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = n f'(x) (f(x))^{n-1}$

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

Product rule: if  $y = uv$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = v \frac{du}{dx} + u \frac{dv}{dx}$

Quotient rule: if  $y = \frac{u}{v}$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$



$f(x)$	$f'(x)$
$\sin kx$	$k \cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k \sin kx$
$\tan kx$	$k \sec^2 kx$
$\cot kx$	$-k \operatorname{cosec}^2 kx$
$\sec kx$	$k \sec kx \tan kx$
$\operatorname{cosec} kx$	$-k \operatorname{cosec} kx \cot kx$
$e^{kx}$	$ke^{kx}$
$\ln ax$	$\frac{k}{kx}$
$a^{kx}$	$k \ln a a^{kx}$
$f(y)$	$f'(y) \frac{dy}{dx}$
$y^n$	$ny^{n-1} \frac{dy}{dx}$
$xy$	$x \frac{dy}{dx} + y$

Concave:  $f''(x) \leq 0$

Convex:  $f''(x) \geq 0$

point of inflection =  $f''(x)$  changes sign

### Numerical Methods

If the function  $f(x)$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  have opposite signs then  $f(x)$  has at least one root,  $x$ , which satisfies:  $a < x < b$

To solve an equation of the form  $f(x) = 0$  by an iterative method, rearrange  $f(x) = 0$  into the form  $x = g(x)$  and use the iterative formula  $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$ .

Newton-Raphson formula:  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$

### Vectors

Distance from  $O$  to  $(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

Distance between  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2, z_2) = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2}$

$$\underline{i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{j} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{k} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

If the vector  $\underline{a} = x\underline{i} + y\underline{j} + z\underline{k}$  makes an angle  $\theta_x$  with the positive  $x$ -axis then  $\cos \theta_x = \frac{x}{|\underline{a}|}$

## Integration

$f(x)$	$\int f(x) \cdot dx$
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$x^n$

$\frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C$

By Parts:  $\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$

$e^{kx}$

$\frac{1}{k} e^{kx} + C$

$\int f(x) - g(x) dx = \int f(x) dx - \int g(x) dx$

$\frac{1}{x}$

$\ln|x| + C$

$\cos kx$

$\frac{1}{k} \sin kx + C$

$\int_a^b y \cdot dx \approx \frac{1}{2} h (y_0 + y_n + 2(y_1 + y_2 + \dots))$

$\sin kx$

$-\frac{1}{k} \cos kx + C$

$h = \frac{b-a}{n}$

$\sec^2 kx$

$\frac{1}{k} \tan kx + C$

$\operatorname{cosec}^2 kx$

$-\frac{1}{k} \cot kx + C$

$\sec kx \tan kx$

$\frac{1}{k} \sec kx + C$

$\operatorname{cosec} kx \cot kx$

$-\frac{1}{k} \operatorname{cosec} kx + C$

$f'(ax+b)$

$\frac{1}{a} f(ax+b) + C$

$\tan x$

$\ln|\sec x| + C$

$\cot x$

$\ln|\sin x| + C$

$\sec x$

$\ln|\sec x + \tan x| + C$

$\operatorname{cosec} x$

$-\ln|\operatorname{cosec} x + \cot x| + C$

$k \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$

TRY  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln|f(x)|$

$k f'(x) (f(x))^n$

TRY  $\frac{d}{dx} (f(x))^{n+1}$

If struggling check part a)

↳ might have proved something you can use

By Parts: use when  $y =$  product of algebraic and trig.

product of algebraic and exponential

In function

Substitution: use when  $y =$  product of two algebraic functions

↳ note:  $\frac{du}{dx}$  should cancel out the other part

Reverse chain Rule: use when  $y = f'(x) (f(x))^n$

In Integration = use when  $y = k \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$

Partial fractions = denominator is factorised into linear factors or is quadratic