



# CAIE 9709 Paper 3 - Pure Mathematics

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# 1 Algebra

- The modulus function  $|x|$  is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- The division algorithm for polynomials

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} P(x) & = & D(x) & \times & Q(x) & + & R(x) \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ \text{dividend} & = & \text{divisor} & \times & \text{quotient} & + & \text{remainder} \end{array}$$

- The **factor theorem** 因式定理

If for a polynomial  $P(x)$ ,  $P(c) = 0$ , then  $x - c$  is a factor of  $P(x)$ .

If for a polynomial  $P(x)$ ,  $P\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) = 0$ , then  $ax - b$  is a factor of  $P(x)$ .

- The **remainder theorem** 余数定理

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

If for a polynomial  $P(x)$  is divided by  $ax - b$ , the remainder is  $P\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$ .

# 2 Logarithm and Exponentials 对数和指数

- The rules of logarithms If  $y = a^x$ , then  $x = \log_a(y)$ .

$$\log_a(a) = 1, \quad \log_a(1) = 0, \quad \log_a(a^x) = x, \quad a^{\log_a(x)} = x.$$

For  $x > 0$  and  $y > 0$ ,

**Product rule:**  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$

**Division rule:**  $\log_a\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a(x) - \log_a(y)$

**Power rule:**  $\log_a(x)^m = m \log_a(x)$

**Special case of power rule:**

$$\log_a\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\log_a(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \log_a\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^n = -n \log_a(x)$$

- Natural logarithms

Logarithms to the base of e are called natural logarithms.

$e \approx 2.718$

$\ln(x)$  is used to represent  $\log_e(x)$ .

If  $y = e^x$ , then  $x = \ln(y)$ .

All the rules of logarithms apply for natural logarithms.

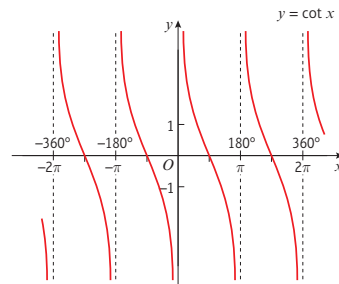
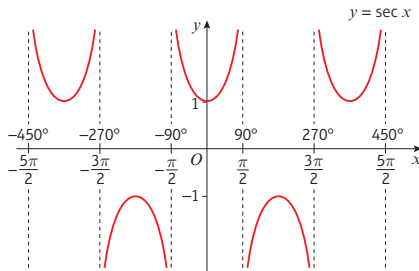
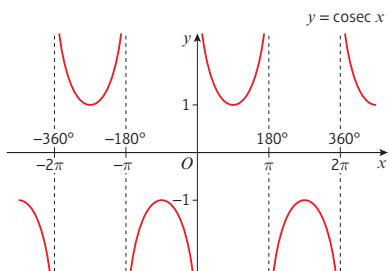
- Transforming a relationship to linear form

Logarithms can be used to convert relationships of the form  $y = kx^n$  and  $y = k(a^x)$  where  $k, a$  and  $n$  are constants, into straight lines of the form  $Y = mX + c$ , where  $X$  and  $Y$  are functions of  $x$  and  $y$ .

- 换元( $e^{2x} - 8e^x + 15 = 0$ )

### 3 Trigonometry 三角函数

- $\csc(x) = \frac{1}{\sin(x)}$ ,  $\sec(x) = \frac{1}{\cos(x)}$ ,  $\cot(x) = \frac{1}{\tan(x)}$



- Trigonometric identities

- $1 + \tan^2(x) = \sec^2(x)$

- $1 + \cot^2(x) = \csc^2(x)$

- Compound angle formula

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

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

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

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

- $\tan(A + B) = \frac{\tan(A) + \tan(B)}{1 - \tan(A) \tan(B)}$

- $\tan(A - B) = \frac{\tan(A) - \tan(B)}{1 + \tan(A) \tan(B)}$

- Double angle formulae

- $\sin(2A) = 2 \sin(A) \cos(A)$

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

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

- Expressing  $a \sin(\theta) + b \cos(\theta)$  in the form  $R \sin(\theta \pm \alpha)$  or  $R \cos(\theta \pm \alpha)$

- ✓  $a \sin(\theta) \pm b \cos(\theta) = R \sin(\theta \pm \alpha)$

- ✓  $a \cos(\theta) \pm b \sin(\theta) = R \cos(\theta \mp \alpha)$

where  $R = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and  $\tan(\alpha) = \frac{b}{a}$ .

### 4 Differentiation

- Product rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx} = uv' + v'u$$

- Quotient rule

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{u}{v} \right) = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2} = \frac{u'v - v'u}{v^2}$$

- Exponential functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}e^{ax+b} = ae^{ax+b} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}e^{f(x)} = f'(x)e^{f(x)}$$

- Logarithmic functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}\ln(x) = \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\ln(ax+b) = \frac{a}{ax+b} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\ln(f(x)) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$$

- Trigonometric functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sin(x) = \cos(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\sin(ax+b) = a\cos(ax+b)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\cos(x) = -\sin(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\cos(ax+b) = -a\sin(ax+b)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\tan(x) = \sec^2(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx}\tan(ax+b) = a\sec^2(ax+b)$$

## 5 Integration

Integration formulae

- P1 basic integration

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1} + c$$

- 

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + c \quad \text{and} \quad \int e^{ax+b} dx = \frac{1}{a}e^{ax+b} + c$$

- 

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + c \quad \text{and} \quad \int \frac{1}{ax+b} dx = \frac{1}{a}\ln|ax+b| + c$$

- 

$$\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + c \quad \text{and} \quad \int \cos(ax+b) dx = \frac{1}{a}\sin(ax+b) + c$$

- 

$$\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + c \quad \text{and} \quad \int \sin(ax+b) dx = -\frac{1}{a}\cos(ax+b) + c$$

- 

$$\int \sec^2(x) dx = \tan(x) + c \quad \text{and} \quad \int \sec^2(ax+b) dx = \frac{1}{a}\tan(ax+b) + c$$

## 6 Numerical solutions of equations 数值方法

- The process of finding a sequence of values that become closer and closer to a point of intersection of  $y = x$  and  $y = F(x)$  is called an iterative process.
- Each time you generate a value of  $x$  you carry out an iteration.
- When the point of intersection is at  $x = \alpha$  and your iterations are values that are getting closer and closer to  $\alpha$ , you are converging to  $\alpha$ .

- Start with  $x_1$ , work out  $F(x_1)$ . Is this accurate enough? Yes  $\rightarrow$  Stop, No  $\rightarrow$  Let  $x_2 = F(x_1)$ , work out  $F(x_2)$ . Is this accurate enough? Yes  $\rightarrow$  Stop, No  $\rightarrow$  Let  $x_3 = F(x_2)$ , work out  $F(x_3)$ . Is this accurate enough? Yes  $\rightarrow$  Stop, No  $\rightarrow$  Let  $x_4 = F(x_3)$ , work out  $F(x_4)$ . Is this accurate enough? Yes  $\rightarrow$  Stop, No  $\rightarrow$  ...  
Let  $x_{n+1} = F(x_n)$ , work out  $F(x_{n+1})$ . Is this accurate enough? Yes  $\rightarrow$  Stop.
- The relationship  $x_{n+1} = F(x_n)$  is called an **iterative formula**.
- The sequence of values of  $x$  given by this formula are called  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ .
- When the value found is accurate enough, then it is usually given a particular name such as  $\alpha$ .
- The success and speed of the iterative process depends on the function chosen for  $F(x_n)$  and the value chosen for  $x_1$ .

## 7 Further Algebra

- Partial fractions

**Case 1:** If the denominator of a proper algebraic fraction has two distinct linear factors, the fractions can be split into partial fractions using the rule

$$\frac{px + q}{(ax + b)(cx + d)} = \frac{A}{ax + b} + \frac{B}{cx + d}$$

**Case 2:** If the denominator of a proper algebraic fraction has a repeated linear factor, the fraction can be split into partial fractions using the rule

$$\frac{px + q}{(ax + b)^2} = \frac{A}{ax + b} + \frac{B}{(ax + b)^2}$$

**Case 3:** If the denominator of a proper algebraic fraction has a quadratic factor of the form  $cx^2 + d$  that cannot be factorised, the fraction can be split into partial fractions using the rule

$$\frac{px + q}{(ax + b)(cx^2 + d)} = \frac{A}{ax + b} + \frac{Bx + C}{cx^2 + d}$$

**Case 4:** If an algebraic fraction is improper we must first express it as the sum of a polynomial and a proper fraction and then split the proper fraction into partial fractions.

- Binomial expansion of  $(1 + x)^n$  for values of  $n$  that are **not positive integers**

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

for  $|x| < 1$ .

- Binomial expansion of  $(a + x)^n$  for values of  $n$  that are **not positive integers**

$$(a + x)^n = a^n \left[ 1 + n \left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^3 + \dots \right] \quad \text{for} \quad \left|\frac{x}{a}\right| < 1$$

## 8 Further Calculus

•

$$\int \frac{kf'(x)}{f(x)} dx = k \ln |f(x)| + c$$

• Integration by substitution 换元法

Substitutions can sometimes be used to simplify the form of a function so that its integral can be easily recognised. When using a substitution, we must ensure that the integral is completely rewritten in terms of the new variable before integrating.

• Integrating rational functions

Some rational functions can be split into partial fractions that can then be integrated.

• Integration by parts

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

## 9 Vectors 空间向量

• For position vectors  $\vec{OA} = \mathbf{a}$  and  $\vec{OB} = \mathbf{b}$ ,  $\vec{AB} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$ .

• The magnitude (length or size) is worked out using Pythagoras' theorem: When

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}, \quad |\mathbf{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}.$$

• Two vectors are parallel if one is a scalar multiple of the other.

• Problem solving with angles will involve the use of the **scalar product**. When

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}, \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{b} = b_1\mathbf{i} + b_2\mathbf{j} + b_3\mathbf{k},$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3 = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta)$$

• Vector equation of a line:  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{a} + t\mathbf{b}$ 

• To find the point of intersection or two intersecting lines, solve the parametric equations of the lines simultaneously.

## 10 Differential equations 微分方程

• General procedure to solve a differential equation using the technique of separating the variables

**Step: 1** Separate the variables  $f(y) \frac{dy}{dx} = g(x)$ .

**Step: 2** Integrate both sides

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

to get

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

**Step: 3** Solve to find a general solution.

**Step: 4** Substitute any given conditions to find a particular solution.

**Step: 5** Check your answer by differentiating.

- Other points to remember
  - Take care with **modulus signs** in expressions such as  $\ln |f(x)|$ .
  - When finding a general solution, check to see if any values excluded when the variables are separated are possible solutions.

## 11 Complex Numbers 复数

$$i^2 = -1$$

Cartesian form:  $x + iy$  where  $x$  and  $y$  are real values.

- Arithmetic operations on  $z_1 = a + bi$  and  $z_2 = c + di$ :

**Addition:**  $z_1 + z_2 = (a + c) + (b + d)i$

**Subtraction:**  $z_1 - z_2 = (a - c) + (b - d)i$

**Multiplication:**  $z_1 z_2 = (ac - bd) + (ad + bc)i$

**Division:**  $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{(ac+bd)+(bc-ad)i}{c^2-d^2}$

**Modulus:**  $|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

**Conjugate: 共轭**  $z = a + bi$  and  $z^* = a - bi$  are (complex) conjugates of each other.

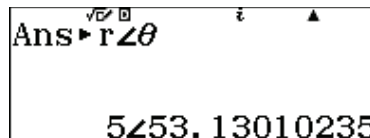
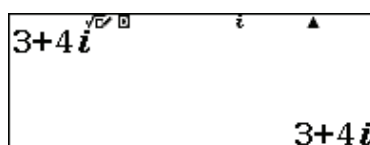
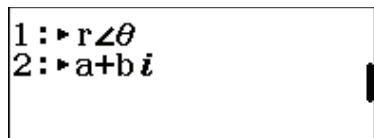
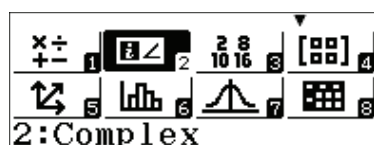
**Argument:** Found using a diagram with  $\tan(\theta) = \frac{y}{x}$ .

$$|z_1 z_2| = r_1 r_2 = |z_1| |z_2| \quad \text{and} \quad \arg(z_1 z_2) = \theta_1 + \theta_2 = \arg(z_1) + \arg(z_2)$$

$$\left| \frac{z_1}{z_2} \right| = \frac{r_1}{r_2} = \frac{|z_1|}{|z_2|} \quad \text{and} \quad \arg\left(\frac{z_1}{z_2}\right) = \theta_1 - \theta_2 = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2)$$

- Polar forms
  - Modulus-argument form:  $r(\cos(\theta) + i \sin(\theta))$
  - Exponential form:  $re^{i\theta}$
- Roots of equations occur in complex conjugate pairs
  - Quadratic equations have 2 real or 2 complex roots of the form  $x \pm iy$  with  $y \neq 0$ .
  - Cubic equations have 3 real or 1 real and 2 complex roots of the form  $x \pm iy$  with  $y \neq 0$ .
  - Quartic equations have 4 real or 2 real and 2 complex roots of the form  $x \pm iy$  with  $y \neq 0$ , or 4 complex roots of the form  $x \pm iy$  with  $y \neq 0$ .
  - The cube roots of one are:

$$z = 1, \quad z = \frac{-1 + i\sqrt{3}}{2}, \quad z = \frac{-1 - i\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$



1:Argument
2:Conjugate
3:Real Part
4:Imaginary Part