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Engineering Mathematics for GATE 2018 and ESE 2018 Prelims

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Preface

Over the period of time the GATE and ESE examinations have become more challenging due to increasing number of candidates. Though every candidate has ability to succeed but competitive environment, in-depth knowledge, study guidance and good resource material is required to achieve their goal.



B. Singh (The Author)

The new edition of **Engineering Mathematics for GATE 2018 and ESE 2018 Prelims** has been thoroughly revised, updated and corrected. The whole book has been divided into two parts as follows.

I have the desire to serve student community by way of providing good source of study and study guidance. I have the utmost belief and confidence that this book will be useful to GATE and ESE examinees. Any suggestions for the improvement of this book are most welcome.

B. Singh (The Author)
Chairman and Managing Director
B2B Education Group

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1

Linear Algebra

1.1 Introduction

Linear Algebra is a branch of mathematics concerned with the study of vectors, which are linear combinations of basis vectors. It is a special case of linear algebra and is used to solve problems involving vectors. The study of linear algebra is closely related to the study of linear transformations, which are represented by matrices. Linear algebra is a fundamental tool in many areas of mathematics, including physics, engineering, and computer science. It is also a key component of many other areas of mathematics, including algebra, geometry, and analysis.

Linear algebra and matrix theory is a subject that has found many applications in science and has provided a framework for many branches of engineering and physical sciences. The linear algebra and matrix algebra is the foundation of many of these sciences and is used to solve problems in many areas of science. It is also a key component of many other areas of mathematics, including algebra, geometry, and analysis. The study of linear algebra and matrix theory is a fundamental tool in many areas of mathematics, including physics, engineering, and computer science.

In this chapter, we shall discuss matrix algebra and its applications in solving linear systems of equations involving $AX = B$ and in finding the eigenvalue of $AX = \lambda X$.

1.2 Algebra of Matrices

1.2.1 Definition of Matrix

A rectangular array of numbers arranged in the form of a rectangular array having m rows and n columns is called a matrix of order $m \times n$.

If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then any one of its elements is denoted by a_{ij} , where $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

$$A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The rows and the columns are called the rows and columns of the matrix.

1.2.2 Special Types of Matrices

1. **Square Matrix** – A matrix in which the number of rows is equal to the number of columns is called a square matrix. A square matrix of order n is denoted by $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$. The elements a_{ij} ($i = j$) ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n$) are called **DIAGONAL ELEMENTS** and the line along which the diagonal elements lie is called the **DIAGONAL** or **PRINCIPAL DIAGONAL** or **axis**. The elements a_{ij} ($i \neq j$) are called **off-diagonal elements** or **non-diagonal elements**.

$$\text{Example: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{is a square matrix}$$

NOTE

A square element a_{ij} of a square matrix A is called a 'principal sub-matrix' if its diagonal

elements are also the diagonal elements of A . So, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ is a principal sub-matrix of the matrix A given above. In $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ it is not.

2. **Diagonal Matrix:** A square matrix in which all or diagonal elements are zero is called a diagonal

matrix. The diagonal elements may or may not be zero. $\begin{cases} \lambda_1 = 0, & i = 1, 2, 3 \\ \lambda_2 = 1, & i = 1 \end{cases}$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ is a diagonal matrix.

The above matrix can also be written as $A = \text{diag}\{5, 3, 8\}$.

Properties of Diagonal Matrix:

$$\text{diag}\{x, y, z\} + \text{diag}\{p, q, r\} = \text{diag}\{x+p, y+q, z+r\}$$

$$\text{diag}\{x, y, z\} \times \text{diag}\{p, q, r\} = \text{diag}\{xp, yq, zr\}$$

$$(\text{diag}\{x, y, z\})^n = \text{diag}\{x^n, y^n, z^n\}$$

$$(\text{diag}\{x, y, z\})^0 = \text{diag}\{1, 1, 1\}$$

$$(\text{diag}\{x, y, z\})^{-1} = \text{diag}\{x^{-1}, y^{-1}, z^{-1}\}$$

$$\text{Eigenvalues of } \text{diag}\{x, y, z\} \text{ are } x, y, z.$$

$$\text{Determinant of } \text{diag}\{x, y, z\} = \text{diag}\{x, y, z\} = xyz$$

3. **Scalar Matrix:** A scalar matrix is a diagonal matrix with all diagonal elements being equal.

$$\begin{cases} \lambda_1 = k, & i = 1, 2, 3 \\ \lambda_2 = k, & i = 1 \end{cases}$$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ is a scalar matrix.

4. **Unit Matrix or Identity Matrix:** A square matrix in which every diagonal element is 1 and each of other non-diagonal elements are zero is called Unit matrix or Identity matrix (denoted by I_n). Unit matrix is always square.

Thus scalar matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ satisfies the relation $a_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$ and $a_{ii} = 0$ when $i = j$. $\begin{cases} \lambda_1 = 3, & i = 1 \\ \lambda_2 = 3, & i = 2 \end{cases}$

Example: $I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ For this, $I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Properties of Identity Matrix:

(i) An identity element of a system, or his scalar multiplicative identity

$$(ii) \quad AI = IA = A$$

$$(iii) \quad I^2 = I$$

$$(iv) \quad I^{-1} = I$$

$$(v) \quad |I| = 1$$

3. **Null Matrix:** A square matrix whose every element is zero is called null matrix.

Null matrix is denoted by O but matrix order may vary where $O_p = O_q = O_{pq}$

$$\text{Example: } O_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad O_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, O_{2 \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Null Matrix:

$$(i) \quad A + O = O + A = A$$

(ii) O is additive identity

$$(iii) \quad A + (-A) = O$$

6. **Upper Triangular Matrix:** A square matrix whose elements below the diagonal elements

a_{ij} are 0, i.e. $a_{ij} = 0$ whenever $i > j$

A is denoted by U .

The diagonal and upper off diagonal elements may or may not be zero.

$$a_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{if } i > j$$

$$a_{ij} \neq 0 \quad \text{if } i \leq j$$

$$\text{Example: } U = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 5 & -7 \\ 0 & 3 & 8 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

7. **Lower Triangular Matrix:** A square matrix whose elements above the diagonal elements are zero and are called a_{ij} whenever $i < j$. The diagonal and lower off diagonal elements may or may

$$\text{not be zero. } a_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{if } i < j$$

$$a_{ij} \neq 0 \quad \text{if } i \geq j$$

A is denoted by L .

$$\text{Example: } L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

8. **Idempotent Matrix:** A matrix is called Idempotent if $A^2 = A$

$$\text{Example: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ are examples of idempotent matrices}$$

9. **Involuntary Matrix:** A matrix A is called involuntary if $A^2 = I$.

$$\text{Example: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is involutory also } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is involuntary since } A^2 = I$$

10. Nilpotent Matrix A matrix A is said to be nilpotent of class n if $A^n = 0$ (a 0 of $n^2 + 2n + 1$ order) and $A^{n-1} \neq 0$ (a 0 of $n^2 + 2n$ order).

Example: The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is nilpotent class 3, as $A^3 = 0$ i.e. $A^3 = 0$ (0 of 9 order).

11. Singular matrix If the determinant of a square matrix A , then matrix is called as singular matrix.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

It's determinant is not zero, matrix A is non-singular matrix.

It's determinant is zero, matrix A is singular matrix.

1.2.3 Equality of Two Matrices

Two matrices $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are said to be equal if

1. Both have equal rows.
2. The elements in the corresponding places of two matrices are equal i.e. $a_{ij} = b_{ij}$ for both i and j simultaneously.

Example: Let, $\begin{bmatrix} x+y & z-2 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 10 \\ 3 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$

Then $x+y = 0$, $z-2 = 5$, $2 = 2$, $5 = 5$ and $3 = 3$.

$\Rightarrow x = -3$, $y = 3$, $z = 7$ and $q = 7$.

1.2.4 Addition of Matrices

Two matrices A and B are eligible for addition only if they both have equal rows and equal columns. If A and B are matrices of the type $m \times n$ then $A+B$ is obtained by adding corresponding elements of A and B . That is, $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ & $B = [b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then $A+B = [a_{ij} + b_{ij}]_{m \times n}$.

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$A+B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 7 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 10 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Matrix Addition:

1. Matrix addition is commutative: $A+B = B+A$.
2. Matrix addition is associative: $(A+B)+C = A+(B+C)$.
3. The existence of additive identity: 0 to be $m \times n$ matrix with all its elements are zero. Then, $A+0 = 0+A = A$ for every $m \times n$ matrix A .
4. Existence of additive inverse: Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$.
 Then the negative of matrix A is called $(-a_{ij})_{m \times n}$ and is denoted by $-A$.
 \Rightarrow Matrix $-A$ is said to be inverse of A . Because, $(A)+(-A) = 0 = A+(-A)$. Here 0 is $m \times n$ matrix of order $m \times n$.
5. Cancellation law holds good for $m \times n$ of two for cancellation, where X is $m \times n$.
 $A+X = B+X \Rightarrow A = B$
 $X+A = X+B \Rightarrow A = B$
6. The equation $A+X = 0$ has a unique solution if the set of rows of A is linearly

1.2.5 Subtraction of Two Matrices

If A and B are $m \times n$ matrices, then we define $A - B = A + (-B)$.

Thus, to find $A - B$ is done by subtracting each element in B from the corresponding element in A .

NOTE: Subtraction is not commutative. For example, $A - B \neq B - A$.

1.2.6 Multiplication of a Matrix by a Scalar

If A be any $m \times n$ matrix, k any real number and scalar multiplication of A by k is denoted by kA and is defined as the multiplication of every element in A by k .

⇒ If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, then $kA = [ka_{ij}]_{m \times n}$.

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 8 & 9 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } 3A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 9 & 12 \\ 15 & 18 & 21 \\ 24 & 27 & 30 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Multiplication of a Matrix by a Scalar:

1. Scalar multiplication is distributive over the addition of matrices. $3(A + B) = 3A + 3B$
2. Scalar multiplication is associative. $k_1(k_2A) = (k_1k_2)A$ e.g. $2(3A) = 6A$
3. Multiplication by zero gives zero matrix. $A \cdot 0 = 0$ or $0 \cdot A = 0$
4. $A \cdot (-k) = (-k)A$ e.g. $A \cdot (-3) = (-3)A$ or $(-3)A = (-3)A$

1.2.7 Multiplication of Two Matrices

If $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ and $B = [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$ then AB exists when the number of columns in A is equal to the number of rows in B .

Then $AB = [c_{ij}]_{m \times p}$ where $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}$ is called the **dot product** of the i th row of A and j th column of B and we write $AB = BA$.

Properties of Matrix Multiplication:

1. Matrix multiplication is not commutative. In fact, the order of multiplication is so important that the product of two will also exist. For example, $[a_{ij}]_{m \times n} \cdot [b_{ij}]_{n \times p}$ exists but $[b_{ij}]_{n \times p} \cdot [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$ does not exist even when $m = p$ and $n = n$.
2. Matrix multiplication is associative. For example, suppose $A = AB = (AB)C$ where A, B and C are $m \times n, n \times p$ and $p \times q$ respectively.
3. Matrix multiplication is distributive with respect to addition of matrices. $A(B + C) = AB + AC$
4. The equation $AB = 0$ does not necessarily imply that one or both of A and B are zero matrices. For example, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

5. In the case of matrix multiplication, if $AB = 0$ does not necessarily imply $A = 0$ or $B = 0$ in fact $AB = 0$ may occur when

5. $B = 0$ or A is a singular matrix as the following examples show below:

$$AB = 0 \Rightarrow B = 0 \text{ (if } A \text{ is non-singular matrix)}$$

$$BA = 0 \Rightarrow B = 0 \text{ (if } A \text{ is non-singular matrix)}$$

1.2.8 Trace of a Matrix

Let A be a square matrix of order n . The sum of the elements along the principal diagonal is called the trace of A denoted by $\text{tr}(A)$.

$$\text{Trace of } A = |A| = a_{11} \text{ then } \text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn}$$

$$\text{Ex: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } \text{Trace}(A) = \text{Tr}(A) = 1 + 3 + 5 = 9$$

Properties of Trace of a Matrix

Let A and B be two square matrices of order n and λ be a scalar. Then,

1. $\text{tr}(\lambda A) = \lambda \text{tr}(A)$
2. $\text{tr}(A + B) = \text{tr}(A) + \text{tr}(B)$
3. $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ (if A , B and AB are defined)

1.2.9 Transpose of a Matrix

Let $A = [a_{ij}]_{m \times n}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ be a matrix of order $m \times n$. The matrix obtained by interchanging the rows and columns of A is called the transpose of A and is denoted by A^T .

$$\text{Ex: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } A^T = A' = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = [1 \ 2 \ 3]$$

$$\text{Then } C = [1 \ 2 \ 3]^T = (1 \ 2 \ 3)^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Transpose of a Matrix:

Let A and B be Transpose of A and B respectively then

1. $(A^T)^T = A$
2. $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
3. $(\lambda A)^T = \lambda A^T$, where λ is any complex number
4. $(A^T)^T = A$
5. $(A^T)^T = A$

1.2.10 Conjugate of a Matrix

The matrix obtained from given matrix A by replacing it's elements by the corresponding conjugate value of A is called the conjugate of A and is denoted by A^* .

$$\text{Example: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3i & 4 & 7i & 8 \\ -2 & & 6 & 9 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^* = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -3i & 4 & -7i & 8 \\ -2 & & 6 & 9 & -i \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Conjugate of a Matrix:

If A and B are the conjugates of A' and B' respectively, then:

1. $\overline{(A')^T} = A$
2. $\overline{(A+B')} = A + B$
3. $\overline{(A'B')} = A'B$, where A and B are complex numbers
4. $\overline{(A'B)} = \overline{A'}B'$, A and B are complex numbers
5. $A = A'$ is a real matrix
6. $A = -A'$ is a purely imaginary matrix

1.2.11 Transposed Conjugate of Matrix

The transpose of the conjugate of a matrix is called transposed conjugate of A and is denoted by A^{t*} .

$A^{t*} = (A')^T$ is a scalar for $n \times n$ matrix A .

Example: If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

then A' we find $A' = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

then $A^{t*} = (A')^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Some properties of A^{t*} & A' are the transposed conjugates of A and A' respectively then

1. $A^{t*}A = A$
2. $\overline{(A+B')} = A + B$
3. $\overline{(A'B')} = A'B$, where A and B are complex numbers
4. $\overline{(A'B)} = \overline{A'}B'$

1.2.12 Classification of Real Matrices

Real matrices can be classified into following types based on the relationship between A' and A .

1. Major

1. Symmetric Matrices ($A' = A$)
2. Anti-Symmetric Matrices ($A' = -A$)
3. Orthogonal Matrices ($A' = A^{-1}$ or $A'A = I$)

2. Symmetric Matrix: A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is said to be symmetric if its (i, j) th element is same as its (j, i) th element i.e., $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i & j .

The symmetric matrix, $A' = A$.

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Here, symmetric, i.e., $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$ for all i & j and $A' = A$.

Note: For any matrix A ,

(a) $A'A$ is always a symmetric matrix

(ii) $A + A^T$ is always symmetric matrix

Note: If A and B are symmetric then

(a) $A + B$ and $A - B$ are also symmetric

(b) AB and BA need not be symmetric

2. **Skew Symmetric Matrix:** A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is called skew symmetric or anti-symmetric if the (i, j) th element of A is $-a_{ji}$ i.e.,

It is skew symmetric, only $A^T = -A$

A skew symmetric matrix is represented in the legend

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & 3 \\ -2 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is skew-symmetric matrix

Note: For any matrix A , the matrix $A - A^T$ is skew-symmetric

3. **Orthogonal Matrix:** A square matrix A is said to be orthogonal if

$A^T = A^{-1}$ i.e., $AA^T = A^T A = I$. Thus A will be an orthogonal matrix if $AA^T = I = A^T A$

Example: The unitary matrix is orthogonal since $A^T = A^{-1} = I$

Note: Rows in orthogonal matrix are

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Row } 1 = i \\ & \text{Row } 2 = j \\ & \text{Row } 3 = k \\ & \text{Row } 4 = i^2 = -j \\ & \text{Row } 5 = j^2 = i \\ & \text{Row } 6 = k^2 = -i \end{aligned}$$

So the 6×6 unitary or orthogonal matrix has a unit value of 1

1.2.13 Classification of Complex Matrices

Complex matrix can be classified as follows according to the relation between A and A^H

1. Hermitian Matrix ($A^H = A$)
2. Anti-Hermitian Matrix ($A^H = -A$)
3. Unitary Matrix ($A^H = A^{-1}$ or $AA^H = I$)
4. Hermitian Matrix A is Hermitian and sufficient condition for a matrix A to be Hermitian is that $A^H = A$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1-i \\ 1+i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is a Hermitian matrix.

5. **Skew-Hermitian Matrix:** A necessary and sufficient condition for a matrix A to be skew Hermitian is $A^H = -A$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1-i \\ 1+i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is skew Hermitian

6. **Unitary Matrix:** A complex matrix is said to be unitary if

$$A^H = A^{-1}$$

Multiplying both sides by A we get on the one side AB and on the other BA as given below:

As we are given $AB = BA$ so $BA = AB$

$$A^2B = A \cdot A^2B$$

Example: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 & -1 & -1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a square matrix of order 4, so it is

1.3 Determinants

1.3.1 Definition

Let $a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{21}, a_{22}$ be any four numbers. The symbol $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}$ represents the number $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$.

and is called the second order determinant. The numbers $a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{21}, a_{22}$ are called the elements of the determinant and the number $a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$ is called the value or determinant.

1.3.2 Minors, Cofactors and Adjoint

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{array}$$

Consider the determinant

Deleting the row and column containing the element a_{ij} from the second order determinant, the obtained is called the minor of the element a_{ij} and is denoted by M_{ij} .

Example: The Minor of element $a_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{13} \\ a_{31} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = M_{12}$.

Similarly Minor of element $a_{21} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = M_{21}$.

1.3.3 Cofactors

The minor M_{ij} multiplied by $(-1)^{i+j}$ is called the cofactor of element a_{ij} . We shall use the letter C_{ij} for the cofactor of corresponding double letter.

Example: Cofactor of $a_{12} = C_{12} = (-1)^{1+2} M_{12}$.

Cofactor of element $a_{21} = C_{21} = (-1)^{2+1} M_{21} = -\begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}$

By similar way $a_{31} = C_{31} = \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix}$

We define for any matrix the sum of the products of the elements of any row or column with the corresponding cofactors is equal to the determinant of the matrix.

Example II

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then,

$$\det(A) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |A| &= (1 \times 5 \times 9) + (2 \times 6 \times 7) + (3 \times 4 \times 8) \\ &= (1 \times 5 \times 9) + (2 \times 6 \times 7) + (3 \times 4 \times 8) \\ &= (1 \times 5 \times 9) + (2 \times 6 \times 7) + (3 \times 4 \times 8) \end{aligned}$$

1.3.4 Adjoint

When all the elements of a matrix A are replaced by its cofactors, then the matrix so obtained is called the adjoint, known as adjoint or written as A^* .

$$A_{ij} = C_{ji}$$

$$\text{Adj}(A) = (C_{ji})^T$$

Properties of adjoint matrix $\text{Adj}(A)$ are:

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{Adj}(A) \quad |A| \neq 0$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{Adj}(A)$$

1.3.5 Determinant of order n

A determinant of order n has n rows and n columns (i.e. $n \times n$ elements).

A determinant of order n is said to be a square matrix if n is a positive integer, i.e. $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & & & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider a_{ij} in A where $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ is equal to 1. If i is the column index of order n (i.e. i is the row index of order n), then the row and column index of a_{ij} is j .

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{Adj}(A) \quad |A| \neq 0 \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{Adj}(A) \quad |A| \neq 0 \quad A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{Adj}(A) \quad |A| \neq 0$$

The value of A^{-1} can be expressed using row or column.

1.3.6 Properties of Determinants

- The value of a determinant does not change when rows and columns are interchanged (i.e. $|A| = |A^T|$).
- If any row or column of A is all zeros, then $|A| = 0$.
Similarly, if any row or column of A is all zeros, then $|A| = 0$.
- If any two rows or columns of a matrix A are identical then $|A| = 0$.
- If any two rows or columns of a matrix A are identical, then the value of determinant obtained is 0.

4. If A is a $n \times k$ matrix and B is a $k \times n$ matrix, then AB multiplied by some scalar λ is the same as λ multiplied by AB . That is, $\lambda(AB) = (\lambda A)B = A(\lambda B)$.
5. (a) If A is a $n \times n$ square matrix and I is a $n \times n$ identity matrix, then $IA = A$ and $AI = A$.
 (b) If A is a $n \times m$ matrix and B is a $m \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ square matrix and BA is a $m \times m$ square matrix. In general, $AB \neq BA$.
 (c) If A is a $n \times m$ matrix and B is a $m \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ square matrix and BA is a $m \times m$ square matrix. In general, $AB \neq BA$.
 (d) If A is a $n \times m$ matrix and B is a $m \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ square matrix and BA is a $m \times m$ square matrix. In general, $AB \neq BA$.

Example:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \\ a_7 & a_8 & a_9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 7a_1 &= 7a_1 + 0a_2 + 0a_3 = 7a_1 \\ 7a_2 &= 7a_2 + 0a_3 = 7a_2 \\ 7a_3 &= 7a_3 + 0a_4 = 7a_3 \\ 7a_4 &= 7a_4 + 0a_5 = 7a_4 \\ 7a_5 &= 7a_5 + 0a_6 = 7a_5 \\ 7a_6 &= 7a_6 + 0a_7 = 7a_6 \end{aligned}$$

where $7a_1, 7a_2, 7a_3, 7a_4, 7a_5, 7a_6$ are scalars of matrix A and $7a_1, 7a_2, 7a_3, 7a_4, 7a_5, 7a_6$ are scalars.

6. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix.

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

7. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix.

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof of (a): } AB &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Proof of (b): } AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Therefore, } AB &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

8. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix. If A is a $n \times n$ matrix and B is a $n \times n$ matrix, then AB is a $n \times n$ matrix.

1.4 Inverse of Matrix

The inverse of a matrix A (also the square matrix) (A^{-1}) is given by the formula

$$A^{-1} = \frac{\text{Adj}(A)}{|A|}$$

Inverse of matrix always exists.

1.4.1 Adjoint of a Square Matrix

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be any square matrix. The transpose A' of the matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$, formed by disposing the rows of A as columns, is called the adjoint of A . A and A' is denoted as $\text{adj} A$ or A^* .

$$\text{Ex: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Adj}(A) = [a_{ji}] = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties of Adjoint:

$$(1) \text{ If } A \text{ is a square matrix, then } \text{Adj}(\text{Adj } A) = A \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Adj}(A^T) = (A^T)^T = A$$

where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

1.4.2 Properties of Inverse

- (1) $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$ if $A \neq 0$
- (2) A and B are inverses of each other if $AB = BA = I$
- (3) $(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- (4) $(A^2)^{-1} = A^{-1} B^{-1}$ if A, B are invertible
- (5) If A is an $n \times n$ singular matrix, then $(A^{-1})^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$
- (6) If A is an $n \times n$ singular matrix, then $(A^{-1})^T = (A^{-1})^{-1}$
- (7) If A is a 3×3 matrix, then its adjoint of A is given as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{(ad-bc)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

1.5 Rank of A Matrix

Rank is defined for any matrix $A_{m \times n}$ (order not square).

Some Important concepts

- (1) **Submatrix of a Matrix** Suppose A is any matrix of the type $m \times n$. Then a new matrix obtained by taking some rows and some columns from A is called submatrix of A .
- (2) **Rank of a Matrix** A number is said to be the rank of a matrix A if it possesses the following properties:
 - (a) There is submatrix of order r having all its minors of order r non-zero.
 - (b) If the matrix A contains any square submatrix of order $(r+1)$ and above, then all the elements of such a matrix will be zero.

The highest property (a) and (b) gives the definition of the rank of a matrix as the order of the largest non-zero minor.

Notes

- (a) The rank of a matrix is $\leq \min(m, n)$ where m and n are the rows and columns.
- (b) The zero matrix of any order is called a zero matrix. It is a matrix which is not equal to zero.
- (c) The rank of transpose of a matrix is same as the rank of matrix i.e. $\text{rank}(A^T) = \text{rank } A$.

- a) For each matrix A and B determine the following properties: rank, nullity, determinant, number of linearly independent columns, and rows.
- b) For any matrix A and B find $A+B$ and $A-B$.
Is $A+B$ invertible? Is $A-B$ invertible?
- c) For any A find $A^T A$ and $A A^T$.
Are $A^T A$ and $A A^T$ invertible?
- d) Rank of any A is $\leq \min\{\text{number of rows, number of columns}\}$.
Establish for A and B a lower bound for $\text{rank}(A+B)$.
- e) Establish that for a column vector x and a row vector y , $x y^T$ is a projection onto the line through x and $y^T x$ is a scalar. For what values of x and y is $x y^T$ the zero matrix?
- f) A line through x and y is called the line through x and y .
The defining property of the line was characterized in exercise 1g). Now consider $x y^T$ as a $n \times n$ matrix. Is there a linear map from the column space of $x y^T$ to the column space of $x y^T$ which is the identity? In other words, is the number of linearly independent columns of $x y^T$ equal to the number of linearly independent rows of $x y^T$?
- g) For a matrix A consider $A A^T$ and $A^T A$. What are the ranks of $A A^T$ and $A^T A$?
- h) For a matrix A consider $A A^T$ and $A^T A$. What are the nullities of $A A^T$ and $A^T A$?

1.5.1 Elementary Matrices

Keywords: culture, team, performance, high-stress, organizational, social, cognitive, stress

1.5.2 Results

1. Elton John's "Smile" and "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971)
2. "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) and "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) by Elton John, featuring a new piano and a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano.
3. Elton John's "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) and "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) by Elton John, featuring a new piano and a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano.
4. Elton John's "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) and "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) by Elton John, featuring a new piano and a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano.
5. Elton John's "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) and "Smiling Through the Rain" (1971) by Elton John, featuring a new piano and a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano. Elton John's new piano is a new piano.

1.6 Sub-Spaces : Bases and Dimension

1.6.1 Introduction

Analysis can be helpful to police a case with considerable agency. If a court or arbitrator has a well-developed and ordered set of criteria, the arbitrator can generally be said to have proceeded in a fairly unbiased and logical way in his or her judgments. The degree of a decision-maker's reliance on a set of criteria is a good indicator.

1.6.2 Vector

Definition 1 A *strongly* (weakly) *maximal* (sub)modular set S is a (sub)modular set which is not properly contained in any (sub)modular set.

column matrix. A vector whose components belong to a field F is said to be vector. A vector space is a field of scalars (numbers) as well as a set of vectors and that the two operations addition and multiplication.

Linear vector space: The set of all vectors over a field F (to be denoted by $V(F)$) is called the vector space over F . The elements of the field F will be known as scalars. Usually, the vector space

1.6.3 Linearly dependent and Linearly Independent Sets of Vectors

1.6.3.1 Linear dependence and Independence of vector

Vectors (column) $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$ are said to be dependent.

1. If the vectors (row) $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ are linearly dependent.
2. If there are X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n initial vectors such that $k_1 X_1 + k_2 X_2 + \dots + k_n X_n = 0$ (the zero vector) where k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n are not all zero.

1.6.3.2 Dependence / Independence of vector by matrix method

1. If the rank of the matrix of the given vectors is equal to number of vectors then the vectors are linearly independent.
2. If the rank of the matrix of the given vectors is less than the number of vectors then the vectors are linearly dependent.

1.6.3.3 A vector as a Linear Combination of a Set of Vectors

Definition: A vector X which can be expressed in the form $X = k_1 X_1 + k_2 X_2 + \dots + k_n X_n$ is said to be a linear combination of the set $\{X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n\}$.

Example: Given any two non-zero vectors, show that at least one member of them is a linear combination of the other.

Example:

1. Show that the vectors $[1, 2, 3], [2, -3, 0]$ are linearly independent.
2. Show that the vector $[0, 0, 0]$ is any of the zero vector, is a linearly dependent.

Solution:

1. Consider the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The vector A is 2×3 matrix. The rank of A is 2.

$$2 = 2 \Rightarrow \text{rank} = 2 \Rightarrow \text{rank} = \text{number of columns}$$

As $\text{rank} = 2$, $X_1 = 1$ and $X_2 = 2$ are linearly independent. $X_3 = 3$ is a linear combination of X_1 and X_2 .

2. Let $X = [0, 0, 0]$. It will be a zero vector. Consider $k_1 X_1 + k_2 X_2 + \dots + k_n X_n = 0$ where k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n are some arbitrary values of the scalars. For example $k_1 = 0$ and $k_2 = 0$.

1.6.4 Some properties of linearly Independent and Dependent Sets of Vectors

- It should be understood that these are vectors of a given vector space $V(F)$.
- 1. If $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$ are linearly independent then the set $\{X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n\}$ is linearly dependent or have

$$\begin{aligned} X_3 &= k_1 X_1 + k_2 X_2 + \dots + k_n X_n \\ \Rightarrow k_1 X_1 + k_2 X_2 - X_3 + \dots + k_n X_n &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Associated with the norm criteria, the following theorem states that a normed linear space is a Hilbert space.

$$\|x\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \|x\|$$

1. A set $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is linearly independent iff $\|x_i - x_j\| = \|x_i - x_j\|$, for all i, j elements of $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$.
2. Every sequence of linearly independent set is linearly dependent.
3. If every linearly independent set every subset of it linearly independent is linearly independent.

1.6.5 Subspaces of an N -vector space V_N

Definition: A given nonempty set S of vectors of V_N is called a subspace of V_N if when

1. x, y are elements of S , then $x + y$ is also a member of S .
2. x is a member of S , and α is a scalar, then αx is also a member of S .

Simply, we may say that a set S is a subspace of V_N if it has the same $\{x, y\}$ behavior that characterizes "addition" and "multiplication with scalars".

Every subspace of V_N is a linear vector space using the product of a vector with the scalar zero.

Example: $S = \{x, y, z\}$ is a subspace of V_3 . Since $x + y = z$ and $x + z = y$ is not a part of V_3 is not a subspace.

1.6.5.1 Construction of Subspaces

Theorem 1: The set of all linear combinations of a given set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ of V_N

Def. 1: A subspace Spanned by a Set of Vectors. A subspace which arises as a collection of linear combinations of a given set of vectors $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is said to be spanned by the given set of vectors.

Def. 2: Basis of a Subspace. A set of vectors is said to be a basis of a subspace S if

1. S is a subspace spanned by the set, and
2. the set is linearly independent.

If a subspace is spanned by the set of vectors

$$e_1 = [1, 0, \dots, 0], e_2 = [0, 1, \dots, 0], \dots, e_n = [0, 0, \dots, 1]$$

is a basis of the vector space V_N for $N = 1$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0, \dots, x_n = 0$$

the set $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is linearly independent and a n -vector

$$\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$$

of V_N is expressed as

$$\vec{x} = x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + \dots + x_n e_n$$

Theorem 2: A basis of a subspace S can always be selected from a set of vectors which span S .

$$\dim S = \dim \vec{x}$$

A set of vectors which span a subspace S

is a set of linearly independent, then it is a basis of S or S is linearly dependent. Then are members of the set, a linear combination of the remaining members. Finding the minimal set of a vector set of a subspace S .

Confirming if the set of vectors is linearly independent, consider a set of vectors \vec{x} of S .

NOTE: If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n is every subspace S of V_N possesses a basis of n or the number of vectors in every basis of S is the same.

1.6.6 Row and column spaces of a matrix. Row and column ranks of a Matrix

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix over a field F .

Each of the m rows of A is a string of n elements in F , hence each row is an n -tuple (member of F^n).

The subspace spanned by the rows of A is a subspace of F^n called the **Row space** of the matrix A . Any member of the row space is a string of n elements in F , hence each row is an n -tuple of F^n .

The subspace spanned by the columns of A is a subspace of F_m is called the **Column space** of the matrix A .

The dimension of the row and column spaces of matrix A are respectively called the **Row rank** and the **Column rank** of the matrix.

Theorem 1: For multiplication of a matrix A with a vector x with n components, x must be a vector.

In a similar manner, we must have that each column of A with m components, A must be a vector, after the column rank of a matrix.

1.6.6.1 Equality of row rank, column rank and rank

Theorem 2: The row rank of a matrix is the same as its rank.

Theorem 3: The column rank of a matrix is the same as its rank.

Corollary 1: The rank of a matrix is equal to the maximum number of linearly independent rows or columns or the maximum number of its linearly independent columns. Thus a matrix of rank r has r rows of linearly independent rows (the r rows of the r th row of the other rows (columns)), and linearly independent columns.

Corollary 2: The rows and columns of a matrix are linearly independent, if and only if they are independent, and the other way round.

1.6.6.2 Connection between Rank and Span

Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix $A = [A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n]$, where A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are linearly independent vectors in F_m and A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are linearly independent vectors in F_n . Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be linearly independent vectors in F_m and A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be linearly independent vectors in F_n . Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be linearly independent vectors in F_m and A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be linearly independent vectors in F_n .

Example: Check the vectors $[1, 2, -4], [2, 3, 1], [3, -2, 5]$ over F^3 .

Solution:

$$\text{Step 1: Construct matrix } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 2: Find its rank

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1 \rightarrow R_3 - 3R_1 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & -1 & 9 \\ 0 & -8 & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 - 8R_2 \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -4 \\ 0 & -1 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

\therefore rank = 3

\therefore The vectors are linearly independent and hence a basis.

Example: Check if the vectors $[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6]$ and $[7, 8, 9]$ over F^3 .

Solution:

$$\text{Step 1: } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solve } A\mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 7 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 7 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 \\ 7x_1 + 3x_2 + 3x_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Solve } \mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{Solve } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

So the vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ span a subspace of \mathbb{R}^3 and do not span \mathbb{R}^3 .

1.6.7 Orthogonality of Vectors

- Two vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are orthogonal if $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ and the dot product $\mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_2 = 0$.

Example: The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal.

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} &= 0 \\ 2 \times 1 + 0 \times 2 + 3 \times 1 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example: The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal since

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}^T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= 1 \times (-2) + 2 \times 1 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

example: The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ are not orthogonal since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \times 1 + 2 \times 2 + 3 \times 3 = 14 \neq 0$$

- Three vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ and \mathbf{x}_3 are orthogonal if each $\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j = 0$ and they are linearly independent.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_2 &= 0 \\ \mathbf{x}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_3 &= 0 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \cdot \mathbf{x}_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example: The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal since

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{are } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- If $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$, each of which is in \mathbb{R}^n , are orthogonal, then they are surely linearly independent and hence span \mathbb{R}^n are the standard basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

Example: The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal and hence are linearly independent and hence span \mathbb{R}^3 . They form a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 .

The vectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal and hence are linearly independent and span \mathbb{R}^2 and form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

4. If set of vectors X, Y, Z, W are linearly independent then are
 (a) orthogonal set
 (b) each vector is orthogonal to
 The two conditions may be false or true or

$$X \cdot Y = 0, Y \cdot Z = 0, Z \cdot W = 0, W \cdot X = 0$$

As we know, orthogonal vectors X, Y, Z, W are linearly independent. So, we can say that they are linearly independent by taking (1). Furthermore, $\{X, Y, Z, W\}$

Example: the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$, $\{2, 1, -1\}$ and $\{3, -3, 1\}$ are linearly independent vectors for \mathbb{R}^3 , are they also pairwise orthogonal and hence a linearly independent set. Answer is no.

To check if a set is an orthogonal set in \mathbb{R}^3 , we need to check each vector for its length

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 4 + 9} = \sqrt{14}$$

$$\|y\| = \sqrt{4 + 1 + 10} = \sqrt{15}$$

$$\|z\| = \sqrt{9 + 9 + 1} = \sqrt{19}$$

For a set of orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{R}^3 \propto \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \right\}, \left\{ \frac{2}{\sqrt{15}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{15}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{15}} \right\}$ and $\left\{ \frac{3}{\sqrt{19}}, \frac{3}{\sqrt{19}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{19}} \right\}$

1.7 System of Equations

1.7.1 Homogenous Linear Equations

Suppose,

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= 0 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \text{... (1)}$$

If a system of homogeneous equations in unknown x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$O = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a matrix, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a column matrix and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a column matrix. The system of equations $Ax = b$ is called a linear matrix equation.

$$AX = 0 \quad (1)$$

The matrix A is called coefficient matrix of the system of equation (1).

The set $X = \{x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0, \dots, x_n = 0\} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is always a solution of equation (1).

k is a positive integer denoting number of solutions (usually n).

Again suppose X and Y are two solutions of (1). Then their linear combination $\alpha_1 X + \alpha_2 Y$ where α_1 and α_2 are any arbitrary numbers, is also solution of (1).

1.7.1.1 Important Results

The number of linearly independent solutions of the homogeneous linear equations in n variables, $AX = 0$, is $n - \text{rank}(A)$ where $\text{rank}(A) \leq n$.

$n - \text{rank}(A)$ is called dimension of null space of A .

1.7.1.2 Some Important results regarding nature of solutions of equation $AX = 0$

Suppose there are m equations in n unknowns. Then the coefficient matrix A will be of the form $m \times n$. Let $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A) = Q$ then system of equations in n unknowns has been reduced to Q equations.

Case 1: Inconsistency: The system $AX = b$ has no homogeneous system and such a system is always inconsistent. (Inconsistent system for $X = [0, 0, 0, \dots, 0]$ always satisfies the homogeneous system).

Case 2: Consistent Unique Solution: If $m = n$, the equations $AX = 0$ will have only the trivial solution $X = [0, 0, 0, \dots, 0]$.

Note: This is true as $|A| \neq 0$ as A is non-singular.

Case 3: Consistent Infinite Solution: If $m < n$ then there are infinite independent homogeneous solutions. Any linear combination of these infinite solutions will also be a solution of $AX = 0$. Thus in this case, the equation $AX = 0$ will have infinite solutions.

Note: This is true as $|A| = 0$ as A is singular matrix.

1.7.2 System of Linear Non-Homogeneous Equations

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_{11}x + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

If a system of linear homogeneous solutions in unknowns x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n

$$\text{For example } X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \dots & x_n \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where a_{ij} is the element a_{ij} of A and x_i is the variable. The above set of equations is called a linear homogeneous equation if $b_i = 0$.

Any set of values of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n which satisfy all these equations is called a solution of the system. When the system of equations has one or more solutions, the equations are said to be consistent; otherwise they are said to be inconsistent.

$$\text{Formally } A \cdot X = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

It is often convenient to write the given system as $AX = B$.

Condition for Consistency: The system of equations $AX = B$ is consistent if and only if $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B)$ where $A|B$ is the augmented matrix $[A \ B]$ and $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(B)$.

Case 1: Inconsistent: If $\text{rank}(A) < \text{rank}(A|B)$, the system $AX = B$ has no solution. We say the given system is inconsistent.

Case 2: Consistent systems: If $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B) = r$. The system has one or more solutions. We say that the rank of the system is r . Now we discuss two

Case 2: Consistent Unique Solution: If $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B) = n$ (number of the unknown variables of the system), then the system $AX = B$ has one and only one solution (unique solution).

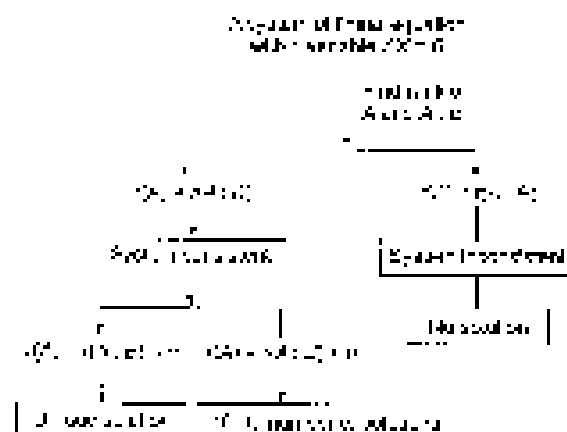
Case 3: Consistent Infinite solution: If $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B) = r < n$. Then the system is consistent and has infinite number of solutions.

For example we can say the following:

1. If $\text{rank}(A) < \text{rank}(A|B)$, then system has no solution.
2. If $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B) = n$, then system has unique solution.
3. If $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A|B) = r < n$, then system has infinite solutions.

The set of all values of x which satisfy the system of linear equations is called the solution set of the system.

Case 1: Elimination method: Each equation is written in the form of $a_1x + a_2y + \dots + a_nz = b$ and then by subtracting the first equation from the other we get the row of A .



1.7.3 Homogeneous Polynomials

Thermal conductivity values are presented in Figure 14 for the two different cases.

Two variables: $x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = 25$ is

Parameters: $\alpha^0 = 1$, $\beta^0 = 1$, $\gamma^0 = 1$, $\delta^0 = 1$, $\epsilon^0 = 1$, $\zeta^0 = 1$, $\eta^0 = 1$

$$r_{\text{eff}} = Q_0 \cdot \frac{1}{\rho_0} \cdot \frac{1}{\rho_0}$$

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$$= \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \\ \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \beta_3 \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 & \gamma_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sigma_{1,1} \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_{1,2} \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_{1,3} \sigma_1^2 + 12\sigma_{1,4} + 2\sigma_{1,5} + 18\sigma_{1,6} + \sigma_{1,7} + \sigma_{1,8} + 9\sigma_{1,9} + 9\sigma_{1,10}$$

DATE: 10/10/88 BY: JAL

2001B.7. Class: $y = 3x - 0.1x^2$, $x = 0$

DATE: 11/11/2011

11. Answer Verbal Ability 10. - 3,775 Q.

$$L_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad \text{for } \beta = v/c$$

$$12) \quad \frac{1}{2} (4 + 2) = 3 \rightarrow 3 \times 10^3 = 3000$$

• The coefficient of x^2 is $\frac{1}{2}$ and the coefficient of x is $\frac{1}{2}$. The coefficient of x^2 is $\frac{1}{2}$.

$$X^TAX = c_0x^2 + c_1xy + c_2y^2 + \beta_1x + \beta_2y + \beta_3x^2y + \beta_4xy^2 + \beta_5x^2y^2 + \beta_6xy^3 + \beta_7x^3y^2 + \beta_8x^4y + \beta_9x^5y^2 + \beta_{10}x^6y^3 + \beta_{11}x^7y^4 + \beta_{12}x^8y^5 + \beta_{13}x^9y^6 + \beta_{14}x^{10}y^7 + \beta_{15}x^{11}y^8 + \beta_{16}x^{12}y^9 + \beta_{17}x^{13}y^{10} + \beta_{18}x^{14}y^{11} + \beta_{19}x^{15}y^{12} + \beta_{20}x^{16}y^{13} + \beta_{21}x^{17}y^{14} + \beta_{22}x^{18}y^{15} + \beta_{23}x^{19}y^{16} + \beta_{24}x^{20}y^{17} + \beta_{25}x^{21}y^{18} + \beta_{26}x^{22}y^{19} + \beta_{27}x^{23}y^{20} + \beta_{28}x^{24}y^{21} + \beta_{29}x^{25}y^{22} + \beta_{30}x^{26}y^{23} + \beta_{31}x^{27}y^{24} + \beta_{32}x^{28}y^{25} + \beta_{33}x^{29}y^{26} + \beta_{34}x^{30}y^{27} + \beta_{35}x^{31}y^{28} + \beta_{36}x^{32}y^{29} + \beta_{37}x^{33}y^{30} + \beta_{38}x^{34}y^{31} + \beta_{39}x^{35}y^{32} + \beta_{40}x^{36}y^{33} + \beta_{41}x^{37}y^{34} + \beta_{42}x^{38}y^{35} + \beta_{43}x^{39}y^{36} + \beta_{44}x^{40}y^{37} + \beta_{45}x^{41}y^{38} + \beta_{46}x^{42}y^{39} + \beta_{47}x^{43}y^{40} + \beta_{48}x^{44}y^{41} + \beta_{49}x^{45}y^{42} + \beta_{50}x^{46}y^{43} + \beta_{51}x^{47}y^{44} + \beta_{52}x^{48}y^{45} + \beta_{53}x^{49}y^{46} + \beta_{54}x^{50}y^{47} + \beta_{55}x^{51}y^{48} + \beta_{56}x^{52}y^{49} + \beta_{57}x^{53}y^{50} + \beta_{58}x^{54}y^{51} + \beta_{59}x^{55}y^{52} + \beta_{60}x^{56}y^{53} + \beta_{61}x^{57}y^{54} + \beta_{62}x^{58}y^{55} + \beta_{63}x^{59}y^{56} + \beta_{64}x^{60}y^{57} + \beta_{65}x^{61}y^{58} + \beta_{66}x^{62}y^{59} + \beta_{67}x^{63}y^{60} + \beta_{68}x^{64}y^{61} + \beta_{69}x^{65}y^{62} + \beta_{70}x^{66}y^{63} + \beta_{71}x^{67}y^{64} + \beta_{72}x^{68}y^{65} + \beta_{73}x^{69}y^{66} + \beta_{74}x^{70}y^{67} + \beta_{75}x^{71}y^{68} + \beta_{76}x^{72}y^{69} + \beta_{77}x^{73}y^{70} + \beta_{78}x^{74}y^{71} + \beta_{79}x^{75}y^{72} + \beta_{80}x^{76}y^{73} + \beta_{81}x^{77}y^{74} + \beta_{82}x^{78}y^{75} + \beta_{83}x^{79}y^{76} + \beta_{84}x^{80}y^{77} + \beta_{85}x^{81}y^{78} + \beta_{86}x^{82}y^{79} + \beta_{87}x^{83}y^{80} + \beta_{88}x^{84}y^{81} + \beta_{89}x^{85}y^{82} + \beta_{90}x^{86}y^{83} + \beta_{91}x^{87}y^{84} + \beta_{92}x^{88}y^{85} + \beta_{93}x^{89}y^{86} + \beta_{94}x^{90}y^{87} + \beta_{95}x^{91}y^{88} + \beta_{96}x^{92}y^{89} + \beta_{97}x^{93}y^{90} + \beta_{98}x^{94}y^{91} + \beta_{99}x^{95}y^{92} + \beta_{100}x^{96}y^{93} + \beta_{101}x^{97}y^{94} + \beta_{102}x^{98}y^{95} + \beta_{103}x^{99}y^{96} + \beta_{104}x^{100}y^{97} + \beta_{105}x^{101}y^{98} + \beta_{106}x^{102}y^{99} + \beta_{107}x^{103}y^{100} + \beta_{108}x^{104}y^{101} + \beta_{109}x^{105}y^{102} + \beta_{110}x^{106}y^{103} + \beta_{111}x^{107}y^{104} + \beta_{112}x^{108}y^{105} + \beta_{113}x^{109}y^{106} + \beta_{114}x^{110}y^{107} + \beta_{115}x^{111}y^{108} + \beta_{116}x^{112}y^{109} + \beta_{117}x^{113}y^{110} + \beta_{118}x^{114}y^{111} + \beta_{119}x^{115}y^{112} + \beta_{120}x^{116}y^{113} + \beta_{121}x^{117}y^{114} + \beta_{122}x^{118}y^{115} + \beta_{123}x^{119}y^{116} + \beta_{124}x^{120}y^{117} + \beta_{125}x^{121}y^{118} + \beta_{126}x^{122}y^{119} + \beta_{127}x^{123}y^{120} + \beta_{128}x^{124}y^{121} + \beta_{129}x^{125}y^{122} + \beta_{130}x^{126}y^{123} + \beta_{131}x^{127}y^{124} + \beta_{132}x^{128}y^{125} + \beta_{133}x^{129}y^{126} + \beta_{134}x^{130}y^{127} + \beta_{135}x^{131}y^{128} + \beta_{136}x^{132}y^{129} + \beta_{137}x^{133}y^{130} + \beta_{138}x^{134}y^{131} + \beta_{139}x^{135}y^{132} + \beta_{140}x^{136}y^{133} + \beta_{141}x^{137}y^{134} + \beta_{142}x^{138}y^{135} + \beta_{143}x^{139}y^{136} + \beta_{144}x^{140}y^{137} + \beta_{145}x^{141}y^{138} + \beta_{146}x^{142}y^{139} + \beta_{147}x^{143}y^{140} + \beta_{148}x^{144}y^{141} + \beta_{149}x^{145}y^{142} + \beta_{150}x^{146}y^{143} + \beta_{151}x^{147}y^{144} + \beta_{152}x^{148}y^{145} + \beta_{153}x^{149}y^{146} + \beta_{154}x^{150}y^{147} + \beta_{155}x^{151}y^{148} + \beta_{156}x^{152}y^{149} + \beta_{157}x^{153}y^{150} + \beta_{158}x^{154}y^{151} + \beta_{159}x^{155}y^{152} + \beta_{160}x^{156}y^{153} + \beta_{161}x^{157}y^{154} + \beta_{162}x^{158}y^{155} + \beta_{163}x^{159}y^{156} + \beta_{164}x^{160}y^{157} + \beta_{165}x^{161}y^{158} + \beta_{166}x^{162}y^{159} + \beta_{167}x^{163}y^{160} + \beta_{168}x^{164}y^{161} + \beta_{169}x^{165}y^{162} + \beta_{170}x^{166}y^{163} + \beta_{171}x^{167}y^{164} + \beta_{172}x^{168}y^{165} + \beta_{173}x^{169}y^{166} + \beta_{174}x^{170}y^{167} + \beta_{175}x^{171}y^{168} + \beta_{176}x^{172}y^{169} + \beta_{177}x^{173}y^{170} + \beta_{178}x^{174}y^{171} + \beta_{179}x^{175}y^{172} + \beta_{180}x^{176}y^{173} + \beta_{181}x^{177}y^{174} + \beta_{182}x^{178}y^{175} + \beta_{183}x^{179}y^{176} + \beta_{184}x^{180}y^{177} + \beta_{185}x^{181}y^{178} + \beta_{186}x^{182}y^{179} + \beta_{187}x^{183}y^{180} + \beta_{188}x^{184}y^{181} + \beta_{189}x^{185}y^{182} + \beta_{190}x^{186}y^{183} + \beta_{191}x^{187}y^{184} + \beta_{192}x^{188}y^{185} + \beta_{193}x^{189}y^{186} + \beta_{194}x^{190}y^{187} + \beta_{195}x^{191}y^{188} + \beta_{196}x^{192}y^{189} + \beta_{197}x^{193}y^{190} + \beta_{198}x^{194}y^{191} + \beta_{199}x^{195}y^{192} + \beta_{200}x^{196}y^{193} + \beta_{201}x^{197}y^{194} + \beta_{202}x^{198}y^{195} + \beta_{203}x^{199}y^{196} + \beta_{204}x^{200}y^{197} + \beta_{205}x^{201}y^{198} + \beta_{206}x^{202}y^{199} + \beta_{207}x^{203}y^{200} + \beta_{208}x^{204}y^{201} + \beta_{209}x^{205}y^{202} + \beta_{210}x^{206}y^{203} + \beta_{211}x^{207}y^{204} + \beta_{212}x^{208}y^{205} + \beta_{213}x^{209}y^{206} + \beta_{214}x^{210}y^{207} + \beta_{215}x^{211}y^{208} + \beta_{216}x^{212}y^{209} + \beta_{217}x^{213}y^{210} + \beta_{218}x^{214}y^{211} + \beta_{219}x^{215}y^{212} + \beta_{220}x^{216}y^{213} + \beta_{221}x^{217}y^{214} + \beta_{222}x^{218}y^{215} + \beta_{223}x^{219}y^{216} + \beta_{224}x^{2$$

14 3 41-047811 16 10

1.8 Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

[illegible]

1.3.1 Definitions

7. $\Gamma = \text{Hom}(A, B)$ is the characteristic matrix of A , where Γ is the unique $n \times n$ matrix with $\text{rank}(\Gamma) = 1$.

$$\left| \mu - \gamma_1 \right| = \left| \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & \alpha_1 & \dots & \alpha_n \\ \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \dots & \alpha_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_n & \alpha_n & \dots & \alpha_n \end{array} \right|$$

(ii) \mathcal{A}^n is called "transcendentally algebraic" if \mathcal{A}^n is a finite-dimensional algebra over \mathbb{C} . In this case, \mathcal{A}^n is called "transcendentally algebraic" if \mathcal{A}^n is a finite-dimensional algebra over \mathbb{C} . In this case, \mathcal{A}^n is called "transcendentally algebraic" if \mathcal{A}^n is a finite-dimensional algebra over \mathbb{C} .

Characteristic Roots: The roots of the characteristic equation are called "characteristic roots" or "eigenvalues". Integral roots are "eigenvalues of integer values". The matrix A of the set of equations (1) is called the "spectrum of A ".

If a matrix A is unitary and $A^{-1} = A^H$, then $A^{-1}A = A^HA = I$, the identity matrix. For a unitary matrix A , $A^{-1} = A^H$ and $A^H A = I$, which are eigenvalue equations.

Characteristic Vectors: If A is a matrix with n columns and rows, then it may be possible to find a vector X such that $AX = \lambda X$ and the scalar λ is called the eigenvalue of A and X is called the eigenvector of A .

1.8.2 Some Results Regarding Characteristic Roots and Characteristic Vectors

1. If λ is an eigenvalue of a matrix A , then λ^n is an eigenvalue of A^n and λ^{-1} is an eigenvalue of A^{-1} .
2. If λ is an eigenvalue of a matrix A and λ is a root of the characteristic equation of A , then λ is called a characteristic root of A and λ is an eigenvalue of A .
3. If λ and μ are characteristic roots of a matrix A , then λ and μ are separate roots of the characteristic equation of A .
4. In matrix A , if λ is a root and μ is a characteristic eigenvalue, then λ and μ are not necessarily independent eigenvalues. However, if λ is an eigenvalue and $\lambda \neq \mu$, then λ and μ are not necessarily independent eigenvalues.
5. The matrix $A = A^H$ is called a Hermitian matrix or a real matrix.
6. The matrix $A = -A^H$ is called an anti-Hermitian matrix or a real matrix or a real matrix.
7. The matrix $A = A^H$ is called a Hermitian matrix or a real matrix.
8. The characteristic roots of a Hermitian matrix are real and the characteristic roots of an anti-Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary.
9. The characteristic roots of a Hermitian matrix are real and the characteristic roots of an anti-Hermitian matrix are purely imaginary.

1.8.3 Process of Finding the Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of a Matrix

Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be a square matrix of order n . The characteristic equation of A is given by $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$. The eigenvalues of A are the roots of the characteristic equation. The eigenvectors of A are the vectors X such that $AX = \lambda X$.

If λ_1 is an eigenvalue of A , the corresponding eigenvector X_1 is given by the non-zero vector $X_1 = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]^T$ satisfying the equation $(A - \lambda_1 I)X_1 = 0$.

1.8.4 Properties of Eigen-Values

1. If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A , then $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A^n .
2. The eigenvalues of A^{-1} are the reciprocals of the eigenvalues of A .
3. If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A then $\frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \frac{1}{\lambda_2}, \dots, \frac{1}{\lambda_n}$ are the eigenvalues of A^{-1} .
4. If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A , then $\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \dots, \lambda_n^2$ are the eigenvalues of A^2 .
5. If $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of A , then $\frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \frac{1}{\lambda_2}, \dots, \frac{1}{\lambda_n}$ are the eigenvalues of A^{-1} .
6. The eigenvalues of A are the eigenvalues of A^H .
7. The eigenvalues of A are the eigenvalues of A^H .

1. Eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 7$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$ and eigenvectors are
2. Eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and eigenvalue is zero if $\lambda = 0$ (if $\lambda = 0$).
3. The eigenvectors and eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 7$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$ and eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.
4. The eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 7$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$ and eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.
5. The eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 7$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$ and eigenvectors are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

1.8.5 The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

The Cayley-Hamilton Theorem is a theorem in linear algebra that states that every square matrix A satisfies its own characteristic equation. The theorem is named after Arthur Cayley and Sir William Rowan Hamilton.

Statement of the Theorem: Let A be a square matrix. Then A satisfies its own characteristic equation.

The characteristic equation of A is $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$. If A is a square matrix, then the characteristic equation is

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^n + c_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + \dots + c_1\lambda + c_0 = 0 \quad (1)$$

NOTE: When a matrix A satisfies its own characteristic equation, the characteristic equation is replaced by $A^n + c_{n-1}A^{n-1} + \dots + c_1A + c_0I = 0$, where I is the identity matrix of order n .
Also, the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem is also known as the Cayley-Hamilton Theorem.

1.8.5.1 Finding Inverse of a Matrix by using Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Example: Find the inverse of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic equation of A is

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 3 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (1-\lambda)(4-\lambda) - 6 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 10 = 0$$

By Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

$$A^2 - 5A + 10I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 - 5A = -10I$$

On multiplying both sides by A^{-1}

$$A - 5I = -10A^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow A - 5I = -10A^{-1}$$

1.8.5.2 Finding Higher Powers of a Matrix in Terms of Its Lower Powers

Example 1 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, Express A^3 as a linear polynomial in A .

Solution: Here, $\det A = 0$

$$A^2 - 2A - 3I = 0$$

By Cayley-Hamilton theorem,

$$A^2 - 2A - 3I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 - 2A = 3I \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Let A is a matrix of order n . Then A satisfies the characteristic polynomial of degree n .

Here, since A is 2×2 matrix, we can write the characteristic polynomial of degree 2. Let the characteristic polynomial of A be given below:

$$\lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 10 = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$A^2 - 3A + 10I = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Substituting the value of I from eqn (1), we get

$$A^2 - 3A + 10 \left(\frac{A^2 - 2A}{3} \right) = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } A^2 = 3A - 10I \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Again, we substitute eqn (4) in eqn (3) to get,

$$A^2 - 3 \left(\frac{A^2 - 2A}{3} \right) + 10I = 3A - 2A + 10I$$

$$\text{Now, } A^2 = 3A - 10I \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Again, substituting eqn (5) in eqn (3), we get

$$A^2 - 3(3A - 10I) + 10I = 3A - 9A + 30I + 10I$$

Where I is identity matrix.

1.8.5.3 Expressing Any Matrix Polynomial in A of size $n \times n$ as a Polynomial of Degree $(n - 1)$ in A by Using Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

Example 2 Express A^3 as a polynomial of A . $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ Matrix A is invertible polynomial in A .

Example 3 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ Express $A^3 - 3A^2 + 3A - 2I$ as a linear polynomial in A .

Solution: First, find the characteristic polynomial of A .

In this case,

$$A - \lambda I = \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= (2-\lambda)(2-\lambda)$$

$$= \lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3$$

Let the characteristic equation of A is $|\lambda I - A| = 0$

$$\text{Thus, } \lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Step 2: By Cayley-Hamilton theorem, matrix A satisfies the equation (1). Therefore, $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 3 = 0$ can be

$$A^2 - 4A + 3I = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 = 4A - 3I \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Step 3: Find the $\det(A - \lambda I)$ and find all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. In this case,

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det$$

$$\rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 2-\lambda & 3 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = (2-\lambda)(2-\lambda)$$

$$2^2 - 3\lambda + \lambda^2 - 4 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{3^2 + 4}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{17}}{2} \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \frac{3 + \sqrt{17}}{2}, \lambda_2 = \frac{3 - \sqrt{17}}{2}$$

$$= 2.561 + 1.79i, \lambda_2 = 2.561 - 1.79i$$

$$= 2.561 + 1.79i, \lambda_2 = 2.561 - 1.79i$$

which are the eigenvalues of A .

1.8.6 Similar Matrices

Let matrices A and B are said to be similar if there exists a nonsingular matrix P such that $B = P^{-1}AP$.

1.8.6.1 Properties of Similar Matrices

1. A is always similar to A .

Proof: Since $A = I^{-1}AI$, where I is nonsingular, therefore A is similar to A .

2. If A is similar to B then B is also similar to A .

Proof: If A is similar to B then $B = P^{-1}AP$ where P is nonsingular.

Then multiplying above equation by P and multiplying by P^{-1} we get $BP = P^{-1}AP \cdot P = P^{-1}A(P \cdot P) = P^{-1}A \cdot I = P^{-1}A$.

So B is similar to A .

3. If A is similar to B and B is similar to C then A is similar to C .

Proof: A is similar to $B \Rightarrow B = P^{-1}AP$ (1)

B is similar to $C \Rightarrow C = Q^{-1}BQ$ (2)

Substituting (1) and (2) we get

$$C = Q^{-1}BQ = Q^{-1}P^{-1}APQ$$

Let $Q \cdot P = R$, we get $C = R^{-1}A \cdot R$ that means A is similar to C .

4. Showing properties 1, 2 and 3 we have already found the similarity relation between matrices A relative, symmetric and Hermitian and their eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

5. Similar matrices have the same eigenvalues.

1.8.7 Diagonalisation of a Matrix

Finding the matrix P that diagonalises a given matrix A and D is called P as the diagonalising matrix. A is said to be diagonalisable if A is similar to a diagonal matrix D such that,

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

where D is a diagonal matrix.

Condition for a Matrix to be Diagonalisable:

1. A is square and splits into product of two non-singular matrices if it still has some left zero eigenvalues (independent eigenvectors).
2. A is $n \times n$ matrix is diagonalisable if and only if A has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

This is because for a matrix A to have n independent eigenvectors, the matrix A must have n linearly independent eigenvectors (although the concept of linearly independent vectors is not defined for non-square matrices).

When A is symmetric, $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$ where A^T is a diagonal matrix with entries being the main values of A as its diagonal elements. Also the corresponding matrix A can be obtained by substituting λ_i in place of these elements and the eigenvalues of A .

Practical application of Diagonalization:

One of the excellent applications is in computing the powers of a matrix efficiently.

If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ then $A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$

The above property makes it easy to compute the high powers of a matrix A without computing A^2, A^3, A^4, \dots etc. (Way too time-consuming).

■■■■■



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

- Q.1** Given $\text{Matrix}[X] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ where k is a scalar.
 (a) $k = 1$
 (b) $k = 2$
 (c) $k = 3$
 (d) $k = 4$
 [CE, GATE-2000, 1 mark]

- Q.2** On a Cartesian coordinate system a parabola $y = 2x^2 + px + q$ passes through the points $(-1, 0)$ and $(0, 0)$.
 (a) $p = 2, q = 0$
 (b) $p = 2, q = 1$
 (c) $p = 1, q = 0$
 (d) $p = 1, q = 1$
 [ME, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

- Q.3** Consider the following system of linear equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & -12 \\ 1 & 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 Note that the coefficients of the variables in the equations are linearly dependent. For how many values of x, y, z does the system of equations have infinitely many solutions?
 (a) 0
 (b) 1
 (c) 2
 (d) infinitely many
 [CS, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

- Q.4** For a matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ the eigen values are
 (a) 3 and 0
 (b) 3 and 1
 (c) 3 and 2
 (d) 2 and 0
 [ME, GATE-2003, 1 mark]

- Q.5** For what value of k will the matrix given below be invertible?

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 2 \\ 12 & 6 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

 (a) 4
 (b) 6
 (c) 8
 (d) 16
 [ME, ESE-2004, 2 marks]

- Q.6** Let A, B, C, D be 4×4 matrices with non zero determinants, if $ABCD = I$ then $D^{-1}B^{-1}$ is
 (a) $C^{-1}A^{-1}$
 (b) CA
 (c) AD
 (d) none of the above
 [CE, GATE-2004, 1 mark]

- Q.7** For a key stream k the following linear equations are solved

$$\begin{aligned} x + 3y &= 1 & x + y &= 2 & x + 3y &= 1 \\ x + 2y &= 1 & x + y &= 2 & x + 3y &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

 (a) infinitely many
 (b) no solution
 (c) unique
 (d) none
 [CS, ESE-2004, 2 marks]

- Q.8 The eigen values of matrix is $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- (a) are 1 and 4 (b) are -1 and 2
(c) are 2 and 4 (d) are 1 and -4
[CE, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

- Q.9 The eigen values of the given matrix given

$$\text{Matrix: } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) 5 (b) 7
(c) 9 (d) 10
[MC, GATE-2004, 1 mark]

- Q.10 Consider matrix $A = [A_{ij}]_{n \times n}$, $A_{ij} = 0$ if $i \neq j$. The element A_{ii} is called as
- (a) off-diagonal (b) diagonal
(c) diagonal (d) δ_{ij}
[CE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

- Q.11 Given matrix and matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad AA^T = B$$

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (b) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (d) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.12 If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, then $\det(A - I) =$
- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) 2 (d) 3
[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.13 Let, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ z & w \end{bmatrix}$
- Then (a) $x = \frac{1}{12}$ (b) $x = \frac{3}{20}$
(c) $y = \frac{1}{20}$ (d) $y = \frac{11}{20}$
[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.14 Consider a non-homogeneous system of linear equations representing matrix A only an invertible matrix system such a system will be
- (a) consistent having a unique solution
(b) consistent having many solutions
(c) inconsistent having a unique solution
(d) inconsistent having no solution
[CE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

- Q.15 A 3×3 matrix A and A^{-1} is an invertible system of linear equations. The highest coefficient of A is
- (a) 1 (b) 2
(c) 3 (d) 4
[MC, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

- Q.16 For matrix equation $AX = B$, where A is the following is a necessary condition for the existence of solution is that A is a vector
- (a) Augmented matrix $[A, B]$ must not have rank less than P
(b) Vector must be zero vector
(c) Matrix P must be square
(d) Matrix P must be 4×4 matrix
[CE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

- Q.17 Consider the following system of equations in three variables x_1, x_2 and x_3
- $$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 &= 1 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 + 5x_3 &= 2 \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

[02. 04. 2005. 21:41:21]

	5	3	2	0
	3	5	5	0
DEGREE	5	3	2	1
	3	5	3	1

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & (2) \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ (3) \quad & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & (4) \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

HAL 5/1 = 2005. 2 weeks

	x	y	z
2.10 \rightarrow 16	0	2	1.000 1000
	0	0	1

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{b) } \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{c) } \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$
$$I = E, \Delta T = -2.105, 2.119 \text{ K}$$

Q.22 Given that $\sin^{-1} \frac{4}{5} = \frac{2\pi}{3}$, find $\cos^{-1} \frac{3}{5}$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{b)} & \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{t} \right) \\ \text{c)} & \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{t^2} \right) \end{array}$$
$$I = 0.34 \text{ A} = 340 \text{ mA}$$

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 0120-11F 3M 1471F

ISS 031F-5005, 2 014-kg

Let \mathcal{H} be a homogeneous \mathcal{P} -complex of degree j in equilibrium, $\mathcal{H}^j = \mathcal{H}^j_{\text{eq}}$. Then $\mathcal{H}^j_{\text{eq}}$ is a complex of the form $\mathcal{H}^j_{\text{eq}} = \mathcal{H}^j_{\text{eq}} \oplus \mathcal{H}^j_{\text{eq}}$.

03, 17, 11, 1414-1418:

$$\mathbf{J}_1 = \mathbf{J}^T = \mathbf{J} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{J}_1 \mathbf{J}_1^T = \mathbf{J}_1^T \mathbf{J}_1 = \mathbf{I} \quad (2.10)$$

[ICF, G4TF-2006, 2-15-15]

Case	Time	Size	Time	Size
1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
2	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

	USA	Japan	UK
1981	100	100	100
1982	100	100	100
1983	100	100	100

	Yield (%)	[α_D^{20}] (c = 1)	[n_D^{20}] (d = 4 mm)
IbA	68.9	+17.5	1.4580
C	—	—	—

	2000	2001	01
01	2000	2001	01
	01	01	

	sinh	cosh
sinh	cosh	sinh
cosh	sinh	cosh

14F. GATE-TO-CE 2 (PHASE)

Q.24 Which list of properties is necessary for an augmented matrix to be in row echelon form?

- II, III, IV
 A. Singular matrix
 B. Hermitian matrix
 C. Not symmetric
 D. Sub-diagonal matrix
 E. All
 1. Determinant is non-zero
 2. Determinant is non-zero
 3. Determinant is 0
 4. Leading zeros are not allowed
 5. Leading zeros are not allowed

Choose

- A 3 3 0 0
 B 3 1 4 2
 C 2 2 4 1
 D 3 2 2 4
 E 3 4 2 2

[VU, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.25 The augmented matrix $\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{array} \right]$

- (a) 0
 (b) 2

- (c) 1
 (d) 3

[CU, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.26 $\vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are linear

vectors. An orthogonal set of vectors having a spanned by them is $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w}$

- (a) $\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- (c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

- (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

[IIT, GATE 2006, 2 marks]

Q.27 The following matrix is non-singular then the solution to $Ax = b$ is

(a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -17 \\ 31 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

[CU, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.28 Let the system defined by the set of equations $4x + 2y + 3z = 1$, $2x + y + 2z = 3$

is

(a) $x = 3, y = 1, z = 4.3$

(b) $x = 1, y = -3, z = 2$

(c) $x = 1, y = 1, z = 1$

(d) not system

[CU, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.29 The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ has eigen values

consequently the corresponding $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$ is

- (a) 2
 (b) 3

- (c) 4
 (d) 5

[CU, GATE 2006, 2 marks]

Q.30 For a given matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ the eigen

values are $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ then the eigen values are

(a) $\lambda_1 = 5$

(b) $\lambda_2 = 5$

(c) $\lambda_3 = 5$

(d) $\lambda_4 = 5$

[CU, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.31 Eigen values of matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ are 5 and 1.

Then the eigen values of $P(A)$ will be

(a) 1 and 2

(b) 1 and 4

(c) 5 and 1

(d) 2 and 3

[ME, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.32 The eigen values and the corresponding eigenvectors of a matrix are given as:

Eigen value: Eigen vector

$$\lambda_1 = 3 \quad v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_2 = 4 \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Form matrix A

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(a)} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} & \text{(b)} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{(c)} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} & \text{(d)} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

[CE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.33 [A] Consider matrix A and B which are symmetric matrices with elements a_{ij} and b_{ij} respectively. The element difference of the matrices is defined as $[C] = [a_{ij}] - [b_{ij}]$ and $[C] = [c_{ij}] = [A] - [B]$, respectively. Which of the following statements is TRUE?

- (a) $[A]$ and $[B]$ are symmetric
- (b) $[A]$, $[B]$ and $[C]$ are symmetric
- (c) $[A]$ and $[B]$ are symmetric and $[C]$ is symmetric
- (d) $[A]$ is symmetric and $[B]$ is skew-symmetric

[CE, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.34 The matrix of the linear transformation T is

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{(a)} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \text{(b)} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{(c)} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \text{(d)} \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.35 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a vector normed space. Then which $A \in M(X)$?

- (a) normed space
- (b) not normed
- (c) semi-normed
- (d) not normed

[EE, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.36 It is given that X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is a $M \times n$ matrix, orthogonal vectors. For the given, the vector u is spanned by the n vectors X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n as $u = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$.

- (a) $2u$
- (b) $2u + 1$
- (c) $2u$
- (d) $2u + 1$ members of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n

[LG, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.37 Consider the set of column vectors defined by $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$, $x = x_1 = x_2 = 0$, where $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is a vector. Which of the following is TRUE?

- (a) $\{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4)\}$ is a basis for the subspace X .
- (b) $\{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4)\}$ is a linearly dependent set, but it does not span X as it is linearly independent.
- (c) It is a vector space over \mathbb{R} .
- (d) None of the above.

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.38 For all x values of x and y , the following are the exact solutions of differential equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x + y + z &= 0 \\ x + 2y + 3z &= 0 \\ x + 2y + 3z &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

- (a) $z = 0$
- (b) $z = 0$
- (c) $z = 0$
- (d) $z = 0$

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.39 The matrix of the transformation T is given as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) 0
- (b) 2
- (c) 1
- (d) 1

[ME, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.40 For each x is a vector, a vector x is a vector product of x and x , where $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is a matrix of vectors. For x is a vector and x is a vector.

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) $x = 1$
- (b) $x = 1$
- (c) $x = 1$
- (d) $x = 1$

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.41 For the matrix of the transformation T is given as

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For the matrix T is given as

- (a) 1
- (b) 2
- (c) 1
- (d) 1

[CE, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

- Q.42 The square matrix A is real and symmetric then
 (a) $\det(A) = 0$
 (b) $\det(A) < 0$
 (c) $\det(A) > 0$ and positive
 (d) $\det(A) < 0$ and non-negative
 (e) $\det(A)$ is either 0 or $\det(A) > 0$
 [ME, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Statement for Linked Answer Question 43 and 44
 Suppose A and B are symmetric real square matrices of order n and m respectively, such that $2n < m$ and

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Q.43 A symmetric relation
 (a) $A = B = CA^{-1}$ (b) $A = B = CA + CA^2$
 (c) $(A + C)(A + C) = I$ (d) $A = CA^2 = I$
 [EE, GATE-2017, 2 marks]

- Q.44 If A is a
 (a) 5×4 matrix (b) 4×5 matrix
 (c) 3×4 matrix (d) 4×3 matrix
 [EE, GATE-2017, 2 marks]

- Q.45 The product of matrices A and B is
 (a) 0 (b) 0^T
 (c) $0^T 0^T$ (d) 00^T
 [CE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

- Q.46 A 3×3 matrix A is real symmetric and satisfying matrix equation $A^2 + 2A + I = 0$, then the number of linearly independent columns of $A^2 + 2A + I$ is
 (a) 2 (b) 3
 (c) 4 (d) 5
 [EE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

- Q.47 If the rank of a 3×3 matrix A is 4, then which of the following statements is correct?
 (a) A will have a linearly independent row and four linearly independent columns
 (b) A will have four linearly independent rows and four linearly independent columns
 (c) A will have four linearly independent rows and four linearly independent columns
 (d) A will have four linearly independent rows and four linearly independent columns
 [EE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

- Q.48 The following simultaneous equations
 $x + y + z = 1$
 $x + 2y + 3z = 2$
 $x + 3y + 4z = 3$

- (i) x has a unique solution for y and z
 (a) 2 (b) 3
 (c) 4 (d) 5
 [CE, GATE-2019, 2 marks]

- Q.49 For the values of x and y , the following system of equations has a unique solution
 $x + 2y = 4$ and $x + y = 4$ (a) $x + 2y = 4$
 (b) $x + y = 4$ (c) $x + 2y = 4$
 [ML, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

- Q.50 The system of linear equations
 $x + 2y = 2$
 $2x + y = 3$
 has
 (a) unique solution
 (b) no solution
 (c) an infinite number of solutions
 (d) exactly two solutions
 [EE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

- Q.51 The following system of equations
 $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1$
 $x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 4$
 $x_1 + 4x_2 + 6x_3 = 4$
 has a unique solution. The number of values of x_1 is
 (a) 0
 (b) 1
 (c) 2
 (d) 3
 [EE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

- Q.52 The eigenvalues of the matrix $P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ are
 (a) 1 and 3 (b) 3 and 1
 (c) 2 and 4 (d) 4 and 2
 [CE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.53 The eigenvalues of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are
 (a) 1 and 2 (b) 1 and 3
 (c) 1 and 4 (d) 1 and 5
 [ME, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.64 How many orthogonal matrices of order eight have value 1?

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \text{ and } \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

- (a) one (b) two
(c) three (d) four

[CS, GATE-2000, 2 marks]

Q.65 If matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ has one eigen value equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, then

- (a) the sum of both the eigen values is four (b) $\frac{1}{2}$ is λ_1
(c) $\lambda_2 = 2$ (d) one

[ML, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.66 All the four eigen values of the 2×2 matrix

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_3 & \alpha_4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 are non-zero and their product value is zero. Which of the following statements is true?

- (a) $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = 1$
(b) $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = 0$
(c) $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = 1$
(d) $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 = 0, \alpha_3 \alpha_4 = 1$

[EE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.67 The matrix A is a symmetric matrix of order 4. If diagonal is

$$20A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

of A is a identity matrix, then the norm of matrix A will be

- (a) $(2^2 - 2 + 1)$ (b) $(2^2 + 1 + 1)$
(c) $(2^2 + 2 + 1)$ (d) $-(2^2 - 2 + 2)$

[EE, GATE-2003, 1 mark]

Q.68 $A \times (B \times C) = (A \times B) \times C$ holds for

- (a) $A^T = B^T$ (b) $A^T = C^T$
(c) $B^T = C^T$ (d) $A^T = B^T$

[SE, GATE-2009, 1 mark]

Q.69 For matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ the increase of the

matrix A of $\lambda = 1$ is the inverse of the matrix A , $[A]^{-1} = [A]^T$. The value of λ is given by

$$(a) -\frac{2}{3}$$

$$(c) \frac{3}{5}$$

$$(b) -\frac{5}{3}$$

$$(d) \frac{4}{5}$$

[ML, GATE-2009, 1 mark]

Q.90 The eigen values of matrix A and B are equal to $\lambda_1 = 2$ and $\lambda_2 = 3$ respectively. Eigen values are

- (a) 10 and 1 (b) 4 and 1
(c) 4 and 5 (d) 10 and 2

[FE, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.69 The eigen values of the following matrix are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ -3 & -1 & 6 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) 2, 1 and 3 (b) 3, 1 and 0 (c) 2, 1 and 3
(d) 5, 5, 5 (e) 3, 4 and 5

[EE, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q.82 The inverse of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(e) \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{14} \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.83 For the given matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

which of the following is true?

- (a) A_1 and B_1 are orthogonal, A_2 and B_2 are not
(b) A_1 and B_1 are orthogonal, A_2 and B_2 are not

(c) Both are orthogonal

(d) All the given options are false

(e) All the given options are true

[EE, GATE-2015, 2 marks]

Q.54 Given, eigen values of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

is

(a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

[MP, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.55 For given matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

(a) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 3$ $\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 2$ $\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

[EE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.56 For given matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 3$

(a) always zero

(b) always non-negative

(c) always non-zero negative

(d) always zero

[PG, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q.57 Given the following matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

The eigen values of A are λ_1 and λ_2 then

(a) $\lambda_1 = 4$, $\lambda_2 = 10$ (b) $\lambda_1 = 3$, $\lambda_2 = 0$

(c) $\lambda_1 = 2$, $\lambda_2 = 5$ (d) $\lambda_1 = 2$, $\lambda_2 = 10$

[CS, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.58 Given the following system of equations

$$2x_1 - x_2 + x_3 = 0$$

$$x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

The solution set

(a) unique solution

(b) no solution

(c) infinite number of solutions

(d) no solution [MC, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.59 The system of equations

$$x + y + z = 2$$

$$x + 4y + 6z = 10$$

$$x + 4y + 6z = 4$$

has no solution if values of λ are given by

(a) $\lambda = 1$, $\mu = 20$ (b) $\lambda = 0$, $\mu = 20$

(c) $\lambda = 3$, $\mu = 20$ (d) $\lambda = 0$, $\mu = 2$

[EC, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.60 Eigen values of a real symmetric matrix are

(a) real

(b) negative

(c) real

(d) complex

[MP, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

Q.61 Solve the matrix as given below

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

What are the following values of μ and η for which the value of μ is equal to values of η is

(a) $\mu = 4$, $\eta = 2$

(b) $\mu = 5$, $\eta = 2$

(c) $\mu = 3$, $\eta = 2$

(d) $\mu = 2$, $\eta = 3$

[CS, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.62 The eigen values of matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ are

(a) 2.42209 and 0.57791

(b) 3.5 and -3.5

(c) 4.79 and 0.21

(d) 0.21 and 0.57

[TF, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.63 $x + 2y - z = 4$

$$2x + y - 3z = 5$$

$$x + 2y - z = 1$$

The solution of the above given system is

(a) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 1$, $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = 1$ (b) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 1$, $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = 1$ (c) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 1$, $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = 1$ (d) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 1$, $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = 1$ (e) $\lambda = 1$ and $\eta = 1$, $\mu = 1$ and $\nu = 1$

[MP, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.64 For the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\lambda = 1$

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

The eigen values of A_1 and A_2 are

(a) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

(b) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

(c) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

(d) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

(e) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

[CS, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.65 For the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ the eigen values are

(a) 1 and 3 and 1 and 3

(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

(d) $\sqrt{3}$

(e) $\sqrt{3}$

(f) $\frac{\sqrt{10}}{-1}$

(g) $\sqrt{10}$

(h) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

(i) $\sqrt{2}$

(j) $\sqrt{2}$

(k) $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$

(l) $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$

[ME, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.76 Given that

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & 6 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

find $3A + 2I$

(a) $-5A + 2I$

(b) $-5A + 6I$

(c) $-5A + 5I$

(d) $-5A + 6I$

[FE, FE, IN, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.77 There are three matrices A (4×2), B (2×4) and C (1×1). The minimum number of operations to compute the matrix product

[CE, GATE-2018, 1 Mark]

Q.78 Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix and λ be an eigenvalue of A . It is given that $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ and $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$, where I is the identity matrix. Using the above property, the determinant of the matrix is given below:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) 2

(b) 0

(c) 1

(d) 18

[EC, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.79 Which one of the following does NOT hold

(a) $x^2 = x^2$

(b) $x^2 = x^2$

(c) $x^2 = x^2$

(d) $x^2 = x^2$

(e) $x^2 = x^2$

(f) $x^2 = x^2$

(g) $x^2 = x^2$

(h) $x^2 = x^2$

(i) $x^2 = x^2$

(j) $x^2 = x^2$

(k) $x^2 = x^2$

(l) $x^2 = x^2$

(m) $x^2 = x^2$

(n) $x^2 = x^2$

(o) $x^2 = x^2$

(p) $x^2 = x^2$

(q) $x^2 = x^2$

(r) $x^2 = x^2$

(s) $x^2 = x^2$

(t) $x^2 = x^2$

(u) $x^2 = x^2$

(v) $x^2 = x^2$

(w) $x^2 = x^2$

(x) $x^2 = x^2$

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

(z) $x^2 = x^2$

(aa) $x^2 = x^2$

(ab) $x^2 = x^2$

(ac) $x^2 = x^2$

(ad) $x^2 = x^2$

(ae) $x^2 = x^2$

(af) $x^2 = x^2$

(ag) $x^2 = x^2$

(ah) $x^2 = x^2$

(ai) $x^2 = x^2$

(aj) $x^2 = x^2$

(ak) $x^2 = x^2$

(al) $x^2 = x^2$

(am) $x^2 = x^2$

(an) $x^2 = x^2$

(ao) $x^2 = x^2$

(ap) $x^2 = x^2$

(aq) $x^2 = x^2$

(ar) $x^2 = x^2$

(as) $x^2 = x^2$

(at) $x^2 = x^2$

(au) $x^2 = x^2$

(av) $x^2 = x^2$

(aw) $x^2 = x^2$

(ax) $x^2 = x^2$

(ay) $x^2 = x^2$

(az) $x^2 = x^2$

(ba) $x^2 = x^2$

(bb) $x^2 = x^2$

(bc) $x^2 = x^2$

(bd) $x^2 = x^2$

(be) $x^2 = x^2$

(bf) $x^2 = x^2$

(bg) $x^2 = x^2$

(bh) $x^2 = x^2$

(bi) $x^2 = x^2$

(bj) $x^2 = x^2$

(bk) $x^2 = x^2$

(bl) $x^2 = x^2$

(bm) $x^2 = x^2$

[CE, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.80 The dimension of the null space of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 is

(a) 2

(b) 1

(c) 3

(d) 0

[IN, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.81 Choose the CORRECT set of functions, all of which are linearly dependent

(a) $\sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x$

(b) $\sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x$

(c) $\sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x$

(d) $\sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x$

[ME, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.82 Find the value of $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 7 \\ x_2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(a) no solution

(b) any real value $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 7 \\ x_2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) no real value solution

(d) multiple solutions [FE, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.83 One particular value of x is corresponding to the

one eigen value of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is

(a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

[IN, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.84 The eigen values of the symmetric matrix are

(a) complex with non-zero real and imaginary parts

(b) complex with zero real and non-zero imaginary parts

(c) real

(d) pure imaginary

[ME, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.85 A matrix has eigen values -1 and -2 . It is

corresponding eigenvectors $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

respectively. Then matrix is

- (a) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ (b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$
 (c) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$ (d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

[B, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.86 The matrix represents the following matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 12 & 7 \\ 2 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) 2 (d) 3

[C, GATE-2015, 1 Mark]

Q.87 Two matrices $[A]_{m \times n}$, $[B]_{n \times l}$, $[C]_{l \times m}$, and $[D]_{m \times m}$ are given. Matrices B and C are symmetric.

Following statements are made with respect to these matrix

- (i) Matrix product, $[C][A][B][D]$ is scalar.
 (ii) Matrix product $[D]^2[B][C]$ always gives 0.
 (iii) Reference to above statements, which of the following is/are correct?
 (a) Statement (i) is true only.
 (b) Statement (ii) is true only.
 (c) Both the statements are true.
 (d) Both the statements are false.

[C, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.88 Given the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = 2I - A$$

$$A^{-1} =$$

[C, GATE-2017, 1 Mark]

Q.89 With reference to the Cartesian Coordinate (x, y) system, the vertices of a triangle have the following coordinates: $A(1, 0)$, $B(2, 0)$, $C(0, 2)$. Δ_1 is a triangle with vertices $A(1, 0)$, $B(2, 0)$, $P(1, 1)$. Δ_2 is a triangle with vertices $A(1, 0)$, $B(2, 0)$, $Q(1, 2)$. The area of the triangle is equal to

$$(a) \frac{3}{4}$$

$$(c) \frac{3}{4}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(d) \frac{5}{2}$$

[C, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.90 Which one of the following is/are correct. Identify the right answer. Select multiple choice and

- (a) $5A + 3B = 3B + 5A$
 (b) $A + 3B = 3B + A$
 (c) $5(A + 3B) = 5A + 3(B + A)$
 (d) $(5 + 3)A = 5A + 3A$

[B, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.91 Which one of the following statements is/are correct with reference to matrices?

- (a) All the elements are added.
 (b) All the eigen values are equal.
 (c) All the eigen values are different.
 (d) Sum and the difference are zero.

[C, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.92 Two matrices of the form $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}$ are given as A and B respectively. If

- (a) $A^2 = 0$
 (b) $A^2 = A$
 (c) $A^2 = A^T + A^T + A^T$
 (d) $A^2 = 2A^T$

[B, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.93 Which one of the following statement is/are correct with reference to

- (a) If A is symmetric, the eigen values of A are all real elements.
 (b) If A is symmetric, the eigen values of A are always real values.
 (c) If A is real, the eigen values of A and A^T are always identical.
 (d) If A is real, the eigen values of A are always the eigen values of A are all positive.

[C, GATE-2014, 2 Marks]

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q.94 The characteristic matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & \lambda - 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & \lambda - 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

[C, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q. 107 One of the eigen values of matrix $\begin{bmatrix} -5 & 7 \\ -9 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$ is _____

- (a) $\frac{-7}{2}$ (b) $\frac{2}{3}$
(c) $\frac{2}{-1}$ (d) $\frac{7}{1}$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q. 108 A system matrix X is given by $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -4 \\ 2 & 4 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

The absolute value of the sum of the maximum eigen value of X with its corresponding λ is _____

[IE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q. 109 A set $\{x, y, z\}$ forms a solution for a pair of $A = 2$ eigen value of complex polynomial. The positive eigen value x is _____

[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q. 100 The value of the product of the eigen values corresponding to any one of the non-zero values of x, y, z is given by positive definite matrix A is _____

[CS, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q. 110 The value of the eigen values of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is _____ [CS, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q. 111 Only one of the following statements is FULLY correct, select only 1 & give mark for the correct one. (matrix is positive definite symmetric of the order $n \times n$, a is eigen value & x is corresponding value)

- (a) If n is odd, the matrix is positive, a is negative just not positive
(b) If n is even, the matrix is positive, a is always just not positive
(c) If n is odd, the matrix is positive, a is always just not positive
(d) If n is even, the matrix is positive, a is always just not positive

[CS, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q. 112 The eigen value of the determinant $\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 0 & 2 \end{vmatrix}$ is _____

one of the right answer of the following statements regarding the eigen value of the determinant is 2014-15?

- (a) Absolute value of the eigen value is always 2
(b) Eigen value is always 2 and sign is always positive
(c) Absolute value of the eigen value is always 2 and sign is always positive
(d) Eigen value is always 2 and sign is always positive

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q. 113 A matrix A is given by $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 & 10 \\ 2 & 9 & 12 \\ 10 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$

1. Add the value of the second row to the first row
2. Subtract the first column from the first column

The determinant of the new matrix is _____

[CS, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q. 114 For $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, the determinant of A^2 is _____

- (a) 5 (b) 4
(c) 1 (d) 0

[CS, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q. 115 The given matrix $B = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ where

$\lambda = \sqrt{14}$ is the eigen value of matrix B

(a) $\lambda = 3$ is the eigen value of matrix B
(b) $\lambda = 4$ is the eigen value of matrix B

(c) $\lambda = 5$ is the eigen value of matrix B
(d) $\lambda = 6$ is the eigen value of matrix B

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.116 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$, then $\det A$

(a) 0 and $\det A = 1$ are rank of A is 1

(b) 0 and $\det A = 1$ are rank of A is 2

(c) 1 and $\det A = 0$ are rank of A is 1

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.117 For what values of λ the following set of linear equations will have no solution:

$$2x + 3y = 5$$

$$3x + 4y = 7$$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.118 We have a set of 5 linear equations in 3 unknowns. Which of the following statements is/are correct?
(a) The rank of the coefficient matrix is 3.
(b) The rank of the coefficient matrix is 2.
(c) The equations are linearly dependent.
(d) All equations are not satisfied, for any value of x, y, z .

(a) and (b) are correct.

(c) and (d) are correct.

(b) and (c) are correct.

(a) and (d) are correct.

Rank of the coefficient matrix is 2.

(a) and (b) are correct.

(c) and (d) are correct.

[EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.119 Given the system of linear equations

$$x + 2y + 3z = 4$$

$$x + 2y + 4z = 5$$

$$2x + 4y + 6z = 8$$

For what value of λ the system has no solution?

[EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.120 The following system has infinite solutions,

$$2x + 3y + 4z = 0$$

$$3x + 4y + 5z = 0$$

$$4x + 5y + 6z = 0$$

For what value of λ the system has no solution?

$$(a) \lambda = 1, \mu = 0, \nu = 0$$

$$(b) \lambda = 1, \mu = 0, \nu = 1$$

$$(c) \lambda = 1, \mu = 1, \nu = 0$$

$$(d) \lambda = 1, \mu = 1, \nu = 1$$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.121 Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix with $\det(A) = 5$. Then $\det(A^{-1})$ is independent of n and is equal to

$$(a) 5$$

$$(b) 1$$

$$(c) 1/5$$

$$(d) 1/5^n$$

[EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.122 The eigen values of the matrix A are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(a) -5 \text{ and } 2$$

$$(c) 0 \text{ and } 2$$

$$(b) -3 \text{ and } 3$$

$$(d) 1 \text{ and } 2$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.123 The eigen values of A are 2×2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

[EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.124 The value of a matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$(a) 1$$

$$(b) \text{Eigen value of the matrix } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

[EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.125 The eigen values of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q.126 The eigen values of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are

(a) Eigen values of A are 1, 1, 1. The eigen values of A are 1, 1, 1.

$$(b) \lambda = 1, 2, 3$$

$$(c) \lambda = 1, 2, 3$$

$$(d) \lambda = 1, 2, 3$$

$$(e) \lambda = 1, 2, 3$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.127 The eigenvalues of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are

(a) $0, 1$ (b) $0, 2$ (c) $1, 2$ (d) $1, 3$
 (e) $2, 3$ (f) $3, 4$
 (g) $4, 5$ (h) $5, 6$
 (i) $6, 7$ (j) $7, 8$
 (k) $8, 9$ (l) $9, 10$
 (m) $10, 11$ (n) $11, 12$
 (o) $12, 13$ (p) $13, 14$
 (q) $14, 15$ (r) $15, 16$
 (s) $16, 17$ (t) $17, 18$
 (u) $18, 19$ (v) $19, 20$
 (w) $20, 21$ (x) $21, 22$
 (y) $22, 23$ (z) $23, 24$
 (aa) $24, 25$ (ab) $25, 26$
 (ac) $26, 27$ (ad) $27, 28$
 (ae) $28, 29$ (af) $29, 30$
 (ag) $30, 31$ (ah) $31, 32$
 (ai) $32, 33$ (aj) $33, 34$
 (ak) $34, 35$ (al) $35, 36$
 (am) $36, 37$ (an) $37, 38$
 (ao) $38, 39$ (ap) $39, 40$
 (aq) $40, 41$ (ar) $41, 42$
 (as) $42, 43$ (at) $43, 44$
 (au) $44, 45$ (av) $45, 46$
 (aw) $46, 47$ (ax) $47, 48$
 (ay) $48, 49$ (az) $49, 50$
 (ba) $50, 51$ (bb) $51, 52$
 (bc) $52, 53$ (bd) $53, 54$
 (be) $54, 55$ (bf) $55, 56$
 (bg) $56, 57$ (bh) $57, 58$
 (bi) $58, 59$ (bj) $59, 60$
 (bk) $60, 61$ (bl) $61, 62$
 (bm) $62, 63$ (bn) $63, 64$
 (bo) $64, 65$ (bp) $65, 66$
 (bq) $66, 67$ (br) $67, 68$
 (bs) $68, 69$ (bt) $69, 70$
 (bu) $70, 71$ (bv) $71, 72$
 (bw) $72, 73$ (bx) $73, 74$
 (by) $74, 75$ (bz) $75, 76$
 (ca) $76, 77$ (cb) $77, 78$
 (cc) $78, 79$ (cd) $79, 80$
 (ce) $80, 81$ (cf) $81, 82$
 (cg) $82, 83$ (ch) $83, 84$
 (ci) $84, 85$ (cj) $85, 86$
 (ck) $86, 87$ (cl) $87, 88$
 (cm) $88, 89$ (cn) $89, 90$
 (co) $90, 91$ (cp) $91, 92$
 (cq) $92, 93$ (cr) $93, 94$
 (cs) $94, 95$ (ct) $95, 96$
 (cu) $96, 97$ (cv) $97, 98$
 (cw) $98, 99$ (cx) $99, 100$
 (cy) $100, 101$ (cz) $101, 102$
 (da) $102, 103$ (db) $103, 104$
 (dc) $104, 105$ (dd) $105, 106$
 (de) $106, 107$ (df) $107, 108$
 (dg) $108, 109$ (dh) $109, 110$
 (di) $110, 111$ (dj) $111, 112$
 (dk) $112, 113$ (dl) $113, 114$
 (dm) $114, 115$ (dn) $115, 116$
 (do) $116, 117$ (dp) $117, 118$
 (dq) $118, 119$ (dr) $119, 120$
 (ds) $120, 121$ (dt) $121, 122$
 (du) $122, 123$ (dv) $123, 124$
 (dw) $124, 125$ (dx) $125, 126$
 (dy) $126, 127$ (dz) $127, 128$
 (ea) $128, 129$ (eb) $129, 130$
 (ec) $130, 131$ (ed) $131, 132$
 (ee) $132, 133$ (ef) $133, 134$
 (eg) $134, 135$ (eh) $135, 136$
 (ei) $136, 137$ (ej) $137, 138$
 (ek) $138, 139$ (el) $139, 140$
 (em) $140, 141$ (en) $141, 142$
 (eo) $142, 143$ (ep) $143, 144$
 (eq) $144, 145$ (er) $145, 146$
 (es) $146, 147$ (et) $147, 148$
 (eu) $148, 149$ (ev) $149, 150$
 (ew) $150, 151$ (ex) $151, 152$
 (ey) $152, 153$ (ez) $153, 154$
 (fa) $154, 155$ (fb) $155, 156$
 (fc) $156, 157$ (fd) $157, 158$
 (fe) $158, 159$ (ff) $159, 160$
 (fg) $160, 161$ (fh) $161, 162$
 (fi) $162, 163$ (fj) $163, 164$
 (fk) $164, 165$ (fl) $165, 166$
 (fm) $166, 167$ (fn) $167, 168$
 (fo) $168, 169$ (fp) $169, 170$
 (fq) $170, 171$ (fr) $171, 172$
 (fs) $172, 173$ (ft) $173, 174$
 (fu) $174, 175$ (fv) $175, 176$
 (fw) $176, 177$ (fx) $177, 178$
 (fy) $178, 179$ (fz) $179, 180$
 (ga) $180, 181$ (gb) $181, 182$
 (gc) $182, 183$ (gd) $183, 184$
 (ge) $184, 185$ (gf) $185, 186$
 (gg) $186, 187$ (gh) $187, 188$
 (gi) $188, 189$ (gj) $189, 190$
 (gk) $190, 191$ (gl) $191, 192$
 (gm) $192, 193$ (gn) $193, 194$
 (go) $194, 195$ (gp) $195, 196$
 (gq) $196, 197$ (gr) $197, 198$
 (gs) $198, 199$ (gt) $199, 200$
 (gu) $200, 201$ (gv) $201, 202$
 (gw) $202, 203$ (gx) $203, 204$
 (gy) $204, 205$ (gz) $205, 206$
 (ha) $206, 207$ (hb) $207, 208$
 (hc) $208, 209$ (hd) $209, 210$
 (he) $210, 211$ (hf) $211, 212$
 (hg) $212, 213$ (hh) $213, 214$
 (hi) $214, 215$ (hj) $215, 216$
 (hk) $216, 217$ (hl) $217, 218$
 (hm) $218, 219$ (hn) $219, 220$
 (ho) $220, 221$ (hp) $221, 222$
 (hq) $222, 223$ (hr) $223, 224$
 (hs) $224, 225$ (ht) $225, 226$
 (hu) $226, 227$ (hv) $227, 228$
 (hw) $228, 229$ (hx) $229, 230$
 (hy) $230, 231$ (hz) $231, 232$
 (ia) $232, 233$ (ib) $233, 234$
 (ic) $234, 235$ (id) $235, 236$
 (ie) $236, 237$ (if) $237, 238$
 (ig) $238, 239$ (ih) $239, 240$
 (ii) $240, 241$ (ij) $241, 242$
 (ik) $242, 243$ (il) $243, 244$
 (im) $244, 245$ (in) $245, 246$
 (io) $246, 247$ (ip) $247, 248$
 (iq) $248, 249$ (ir) $249, 250$
 (is) $250, 251$ (it) $251, 252$
 (iu) $252, 253$ (iv) $253, 254$
 (iw) $254, 255$ (ix) $255, 256$
 (iy) $256, 257$ (iz) $257, 258$
 (ja) $258, 259$ (jb) $259, 260$
 (jc) $260, 261$ (jd) $261, 262$
 (je) $262, 263$ (jf) $263, 264$
 (jg) $264, 265$ (jh) $265, 266$
 (ji) $266, 267$ (jj) $267, 268$
 (jk) $268, 269$ (jl) $269, 270$
 (jm) $270, 271$ (jn) $271, 272$
 (jo) $272, 273$ (jp) $273, 274$
 (jq) $274, 275$ (jr) $275, 276$
 (js) $276, 277$ (jt) $277, 278$
 (ju) $278, 279$ (jv) $279, 280$
 (jw) $280, 281$ (jx) $281, 282$
 (jy) $282, 283$ (jz) $283, 284$
 (ka) $284, 285$ (kb) $285, 286$
 (kc) $286, 287$ (kd) $287, 288$
 (ke) $288, 289$ (kf) $289, 290$
 (kg) $290, 291$ (kh) $291, 292$
 (ki) $292, 293$ (kj) $293, 294$
 (kk) $294, 295$ (kl) $295, 296$
 (km) $296, 297$ (kn) $297, 298$
 (ko) $298, 299$ (kp) $299, 300$
 (kq) $300, 301$ (kr) $301, 302$
 (ks) $302, 303$ (kt) $303, 304$
 (ku) $304, 305$ (kv) $305, 306$
 (kw) $306, 307$ (kx) $307, 308$
 (ky) $308, 309$ (kz) $309, 310$
 (la) $310, 311$ (lb) $311, 312$
 (lc) $312, 313$ (ld) $313, 314$
 (le) $314, 315$ (lf) $315, 316$
 (lg) $316, 317$ (lh) $317, 318$
 (li) $318, 319$ (lj) $319, 320$
 (lk) $320, 321$ (ll) $321, 322$
 (lm) $322, 323$ (ln) $323, 324$
 (lo) $324, 325$ (lp) $325, 326$
 (lq) $326, 327$ (lr) $327, 328$
 (ls) $328, 329$ (lt) $329, 330$
 (lu) $330, 331$ (lv) $331, 332$
 (lw) $332, 333$ (lx) $333, 334$
 (ly) $334, 335$ (lz) $335, 336$
 (ma) $336, 337$ (mb) $337, 338$
 (mc) $338, 339$ (md) $339, 340$
 (me) $340, 341$ (mf) $341, 342$
 (mg) $342, 343$ (mh) $343, 344$
 (mi) $344, 345$ (mj) $345, 346$
 (mk) $346, 347$ (ml) $347, 348$
 (mo) $348, 349$ (mp) $349, 350$
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 (mu) $354, 355$ (mv) $355, 356$
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 (my) $358, 359$ (mz) $359, 360$
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 (nc) $362, 363$ (nd) $363, 364$
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 (nw) $380, 381$ (nx) $381, 382$
 (ny) $382, 383$ (nz) $383, 384$
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 (oc) $386, 387$ (od) $387, 388$
 (oe) $388, 389$ (of) $389, 390$
 (og) $390, 391$ (oh) $391, 392$
 (oi) $392, 393$ (oj) $393, 394$
 (ok) $394, 395$ (ol) $395, 396$
 (om) $396, 397$ (on) $397, 398$
 (oo) $398, 399$ (op) $399, 400$
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 (qy) $456, 457$ (qz) $457, 458$
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 (rg) $464, 465$ (rh) $465, 466$
 (ri) $466, 467$ (rj) $467, 468$
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 (ro) $470, 471$ (rp) $471, 472$
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 (rs) $474, 475$ (rt) $475, 476$
 (ru) $476, 477$ (rv) $477, 478$
 (rw) $478, 479$ (rx) $479, 480$
 (ry) $480, 481$ (rz) $481, 482$
 (sa) $482, 483$ (sb) $483, 484$
 (sc) $484, 485$ (sd) $485, 486$
 (se) $486, 487$ (sf) $487, 488$
 (sg) $488, 489$ (sh) $489, 490$
 (si) $490, 491$ (sj) $491, 492$
 (sk) $492, 493$ (sl) $493, 494$
 (so) $494, 495$ (sp) $495, 496$
 (sq) $496, 497$ (sr) $497, 498$
 (ss) $498, 499$ (st) $499, 500$
 (su) $500, 501$ (sv) $501, 502$
 (sw) $502, 503$ (sx) $503, 504$
 (sy) $504, 505$ (sz) $505, 506$
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 (tc) $508, 509$ (td) $509, 510$
 (te) $510, 511$ (tf) $511, 512$
 (tg) $512, 513$ (th) $513, 514$
 (ti) $514, 515$ (tj) $515, 516$
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 (to) $518, 519$ (tp) $519, 520$
 (tq) $520, 521$ (tr) $521, 522$
 (ts) $522, 523$ (tt) $523, 524$
 (tu) $524, 525$ (tv) $525, 526$
 (tw) $526, 527$ (tx) $527, 528$
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 (ue) $534, 535$ (uf) $535, 536$
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 (uq) $544, 545$ (ur) $545, 546$
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 (uu) $548, 549$ (uv) $549, 550$
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 (uy) $552, 553$ (uz) $553, 554$
 (va) $554, 555$ (vb) $555, 556$
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 (ve) $558, 559$ (vf) $559, 560$
 (vg) $560, 561$ (vh) $561, 562$
 (vi) $562, 563$ (vj) $563, 564$
 (vk) $564, 565$ (vl) $565, 566$
 (vo) $566, 567$ (vp) $567, 568$
 (vq) $568, 569$ (vr) $569, 570$
 (vs) $570, 571$ (vt) $571, 572$
 (vu) $572, 573$ (vv) $573, 574$
 (vw) $574, 575$ (vx) $575, 576$
 (vy) $576, 577$ (vz) $577, 578$
 (wa) $578, 579$ (wb) $579, 580$
 (wc) $580, 581$ (wd) $581, 582$
 (we) $582, 583$ (wf) $583, 584$
 (wg) $584, 585$ (wh) $585, 586$
 (wi) $586, 587$ (wj) $587, 588$
 (wk) $588, 589$ (wl) $589, 590$
 (wo) $590, 591$ (wp) $591, 592$
 (wq) $592, 593$ (wr) $593, 594$
 (ws) $594, 595$ (wt) $595, 596$
 (wu) $596, 597$ (wv) $597, 598$
 (ww) $598, 599$ (wx) $599, 600$
 (wy) $600, 601$ (wz) $601, 602$
 (xa) $602, 603$ (xb) $603, 604$
 (xc) $604, 605$ (xd) $605, 606$
 (xe) $606, 607$ (xf) $607, 608$
 (xg) $608, 609$ (xh) $609, 610$
 (xi) $610, 611$ (xj) $611, 612$
 (xk) $612, 613$ (xl) $613, 614$
 (xo) $614, 615$ (xp) $615, 616$
 (xq) $616, 617$ (xr) $617, 618$
 (xs) $618, 619$ (xt) $619, 620$
 (xu) $620, 621$ (xv) $621, 622$
 (xw) $622, 623$ (xx) $623, 624$
 (xy) $624, 625$ (xz) $625, 626$
 (ya) $626, 627$ (yb) $627, 628$
 (yc) $628, 629$ (yd) $629, 630$
 (ye) $630, 631$ (yf) $631, 632$
 (yg) $632, 633$ (yh) $633, 634$
 (yi) $634, 635$ (yj) $635, 636$
 (yk) $636, 637$ (yl) $637, 638$
 (yo) $638, 639$ (yp) $639, 640$
 (yq) $640, 641$ (yr) $641, 642$
 (ys) $642, 643$ (yt) $643, 644$
 (yu) $644, 645$ (yv) $645, 646$
 (yw) $646, 647$ (yx) $647, 648$

- Q.137 If the vector $\vec{a} = (1, 0, 2)$, $\vec{b}_1 = (3, -1, 2)$ and $\vec{b}_2 = (-2, 1, 1)$ form a orthogonal basis of \mathbb{R}^3 . If the direction cosines of \vec{a} , then the vector $\vec{a} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ is then direction cosines

$$(a) \vec{a} = -\frac{2}{3}\vec{b}_1 + 3\vec{b}_2 + \frac{11}{3}\vec{b}_3$$

$$(b) \vec{a} = \frac{5}{3}\vec{b}_1 + 3\vec{b}_2 + \frac{11}{3}\vec{b}_3$$

$$(c) \vec{a} = -\frac{2}{3}\vec{b}_1 + 3\vec{b}_2 + \frac{11}{3}\vec{b}_3$$

$$(d) \vec{a} = \frac{5}{3}\vec{b}_1 + 3\vec{b}_2 + \frac{11}{3}\vec{b}_3$$

[EC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

- Q.138 Consider the following linear system

$$x + 3y + 2z = 1$$

$$2x + 5y + 3z = 2$$

$$3x + 7y + 4z = 3$$

The system is consistent if the direction cosines are equal to

$$(a) \cos \alpha = \cos \beta = \cos \gamma \quad (b) \cos \alpha + \cos \beta + \cos \gamma = 1$$

$$(c) 2\cos \alpha + \cos \beta + \cos \gamma = 3 \quad (d) \cos \alpha + \cos \beta + \cos \gamma = 0$$

[CL, GATE-2018 : 2 Marks]

- Q.139 The solution to the system of equations is

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(a) \vec{a} = \vec{b}$$

$$(b) \vec{a} = \vec{c}$$

$$(c) \vec{a} = \vec{b} + \vec{c}$$

$$(d) \vec{a} = \vec{b} - \vec{c}$$

[ME, GATE-2019 : 1 Mark]

- Q.140 Consider the systems each consisting of three equations in three variables

(I) If $a \neq 0$, then at least one system has a solution

(II) If $a = 0$, then none of these systems has a solution

(III) If $a = 0$, then there exists a system which has a solution

Which of the following is CORRECT?

$$(a) \text{ Only II is correct}$$

$$(b) \text{ Only I and III are correct}$$

$$(c) \text{ Only III is correct}$$

$$(d) \text{ None of them is correct}$$

[CS, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.141 The matrix A corresponding to a linear system is given by the differential equation $\dot{x} = Ax$

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(d) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.142 Consider a system of homogeneous linear equations in three variables $ax + by + cz = 0$ with $a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 0$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.143 The solution to each of the system of the

$$\text{matrix } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is } \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(a) \vec{x} = \vec{y}$$

$$(b) \vec{x} = -\vec{y}$$

$$(c) \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$(d) \vec{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \vec{y}$$

[ME, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.144 Consider a 2×2 system with

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where \vec{x} is a vector. The eigen values of the matrix A are λ_1 and λ_2 . Then, $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 =$

$$(a) 1$$

$$(b) -1$$

$$(c) 0$$

$$(d) \infty$$

$$(e) 10$$

$$(f) 0$$

[EC, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

- Q.145 Two eigen values of a 3×3 real matrix A are $1 + \sqrt{2}i$ and 3 . The determinant of A is _____.

[SSC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.146 Consider the differential equation $\dot{x} = Ax$ with initial conditions $x(0) = x_0$. Suppose x_0 and A are given vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$ and the corresponding real eigen values $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ respectively. The time response $x(t)$ of the system due to initial condition $x_0 = 0$ is

$$(a) e^{At}x_0$$

$$(b) e^{At}x_0$$

$$(c) e^{At}x_0$$

$$(d) e^{At}x_0 + e^{At}x_0$$

[EE, GATE-2019 : 2 Marks]

Q.147 Let x be a vector in \mathbb{R}^n and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric positive definite matrix. Then the eigen values and eigen vectors of the matrix A^{-1} will be respectively as

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}, \dots, \lambda_n^{-1} & \quad x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \\ \lambda_1^{-2}, \lambda_2^{-2}, \dots, \lambda_n^{-2} & \quad x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \end{aligned}$$

[IL, GATE-2013: 2 Marks]

Q.148 For a matrix A with eigenvalues 2, 1, 0

$$\text{where } A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

[MF, GATE-2016: 2 Marks]

Q.149 The adjoint of a matrix M is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 7 & 7 & 13 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then its _____ value is _____

[EC, GATE-2016: 1 Mark]

Q.150 Consider $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ where x_1, x_2, x_3

are values of x and y are values of $Ax = 3x$ is

[IL, GATE-2016: 2 Marks]

Q.151 Suppose the eigen values of matrix A are $1, 2, 3$. The determinant of A^{-1} is

[IS, GATE-2013: 1 Mark]

Q.152 A 3×3 matrix A is such that, $A^2 = A$. For its eigen values λ is

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= 1, -1 \\ \lambda &= 0.5, 0.5, 0.5 \\ \lambda &= 0, 0.5, 0.5 \\ \lambda &= 0, 1, 1 \end{aligned}$$

[EF, GATE-2013: 1 Mark]

Q.153 A sequence of x is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 1, x_2 = 1, x_3 = 2 \\ x_n &= 2x_{n-1} + x_{n-2} \quad n \geq 4 \end{aligned}$$

Then if x is defined as $x(n) = 1, x(2) = 1$ and $x(n) = 2x(n-1) + x(n-2)$ the value of $x(12)$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2013: 2 Marks]

Q.154 Let A be a $n \times n$ real matrix whose symmetric

matrix is rank $\leq n-1$. $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2 = 0$. Consider the following statements

- The eigen value of A is 0 .
- The eigen values of A are all non-zero.

Which of the above statements about eigen values of A are necessary (N) and/or

- Both (i) and (ii) are valid.
- None of (i) and (ii) are valid.

[IS, GATE-2017: 2 Marks]

Q.155 The determinant of a 2×2 matrix is 1 and eigen value of the matrix is 2 . The other eigen value is _____

[ML, GATE-2017: 1 Mark]

Q.156 Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 7 \\ 7 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$. If x and y are values corresponding to eigen values λ_1 and

$$\lambda_2 \text{ and } y_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 19 \\ 1 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } y_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_2 & 60 \\ 70 \end{bmatrix}$$

respectively then value of $\lambda_1 \lambda_2$

[ML, GATE-2017: 2 Marks]

Q.157 The second eigen value of the matrix A is

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- 3
- 2
- 0
- 1

[MF, GATE-2017: 1 Mark]

Q.158 Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

Then p is the following statements about A is INCORRECT

- The inverse of A is $p(A)$.
- A is diagonal.
- The rank of A is equal to its trace.
- All eigen values of A are distinct.

[MF, GATE-2017: 2 Marks]

Q.109 The eigenvalues of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 5 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

(a)

(b) $-1, 0, 0$

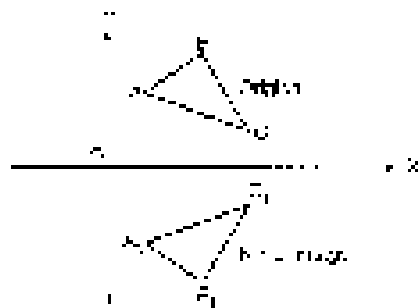
(c) $-1, 4, 5$

(d) $1, 5, 5$

(e) $1, 4, 5$

[N, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.100 The figure shows a shape ABCD. The mirror image $A_1B_1C_1D_1$ of ABCD across the line XY is shown. The coordinates of the vertices of the original shape ABCD are $(1, 2), (3, 4)$



(a) $(1, 0)$

(b) $(3, 2)$

(c) $(3, 1)$

(d) $(1, 1)$

(e) $(3, 0)$

(f) $(1, 2)$

(g) $(3, 3)$

(h) $(1, 3)$

[IN, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.101 The eigenvalues of the matrix given below are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a) $0, -1, -5$

(b) $0, -2, -3$

(c) $0, 1, 2$

(d) $0, 1, 3$

[FE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.102 The matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 0 & 1 \\ 7 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ has three distinct

1

eigenvalues and one of its eigenvectors is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Which of the following can be the other eigenvectors of A?

(a) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

(b) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(c) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(e) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(f) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(g) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(h) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(i) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(j) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(k) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(l) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(m) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(n) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(o) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(p) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(q) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(r) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(s) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(t) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(u) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(v) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(w) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(x) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(y) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(z) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(aa) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ab) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ac) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ad) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ae) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(af) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ag) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(ah) $\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

[FE, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.103 The rank of the matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(a)

[FE, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.104 Consider the 5 × 2 matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 5 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It is given that the eigenvalues of the matrix are 4 & 5. Then the rank of the matrix is

(a) 2

(b) 0

(c) 5

(d) 2

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.105 The rank of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 10 & 10 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

(a) 0

(b) 1

(c) 2

(d) 3

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.106 Let $P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 12 & 6 \\ 1 & 10 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$

then the rank of the matrix PQ is _____

[CS, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q 167 The characteristic polynomial of 4×3 matrix A over \mathbb{R} is defined as $f(x) = x^3 - 4x^2 + 3x + 12$. If λ is an eigen value of A , then λ is a root of the polynomial $f(x)$. The value of $f(2)$ is

[CS, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q 168 Let a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5 be a 5×1 column vector and

$$\sum_{i=1}^5 a_i x_i = 0 \text{ and } x \text{ is a column vector in } \mathbb{R}^5$$

Consider the set of linear equations

$$Ax = 0$$

where $A = (a_1 \dots a_5)$ and $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix}$. The set

of solutions is

- an empty set
- one solution
- infinite many solutions
- no solution

[CS, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q 169 Consider the following matrix equation $(x^2 + 1) + y$ is constant

$$3x + 2y = 6$$

$$3x + 4y = 7$$

The eigenvalue of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ is

- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

[CS, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q 170 If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ then $A+B$ is equal to

$$(A) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(B) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 10 \\ 12 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(C) \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 8 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(D) \begin{bmatrix} 13 & 32 \\ 16 & 53 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CL, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q 171 The matrix A is given by $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. It denotes the identity matrix which one of the following is not a square

$$(A) 2 \times 2 \text{ and } 3 \times 3 \text{ and } 4 \times 4 \text{ and } 5 \times 5$$

$$(B) 2 \times 2 \text{ and } 3 \times 3 \text{ and } 4 \times 4 \text{ and } 5 \times 5$$

[CL, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q 172 Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. The eigen values

of the matrix A are

(a) Eigen values $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$ are the eigen values of A

(b) Eigen values $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$ are the eigen values of A

(c) Eigen values $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$ are the eigen values of A

(d) Eigen values $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$ are the eigen values of A

[CS, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q 173 The system of the system of equations

$$x + y + z = 4, x + y + z = 6, 2x + y + z = 3$$

$$(A) x = 1, y = 2, z = 1$$

$$(B) x = 1, y = 2, z = 1$$

$$(C) x = 1, y = 2, z = 1$$

$$(D) x = 1, y = 2, z = 1$$

[JEE P Alpha-2017]

Answers Linear Algebra

1. (c) 2. (c) 3. (b) 4. (c) 5. (a) 6. (c) 7. (a) 8. (a) 9. (c)
10. (c) 11. (c) 12. (b) 13. (a) 14. (c) (3/4, 1/4) 15. (b) 16. (a) 17. (b)
18. (c) 19. (a) 20. (a) 21. (b) 22. (c) 23. (c) 24. (a) 25. (a) 26. (a)
27. (b) 28. (b) 29. (a) 30. (c) 31. (a) 32. (c) 33. (c) 34. (a) 35. (c)
36. (c) 37. (c) 38. (a) 39. (b) 40. (c) 41. (c) 42. (a) 43. (a) 44. (a)
45. (b) 46. (c) 47. (a) 48. (c) 49. (c) 50. (a) 51. (c) 52. (b) 53. (b)
54. (a) 55. (c) 56. (a) 57. (c) 58. (a) 59. (c) 60. (a) 61. (c) 62. (c)
63. (a) 64. (c) 65. (c) 66. (a) 67. (c) 68. (a) 69. (c) 70. (a) 71. (a)
72. (b) 73. (a) 74. (c) 75. (c) 76. (c) 77. (c) 78. (a) 79. (a) 80. (c) 81. (a)
82. (c) 83. (c) 84. (c) 85. (c) 86. (c) 87. (c) 88. (c) 89. (b) 90. (a) 91. (a)
92. (c) 93. (b) 94. (c) 95. (c) 96. (a) 97. (c) 98. (a) 99. (c) 100. (c)
101. (c) 102. (a) 103. (c) 104. (a) 105. (c) 106. (a) 107. (a) 108. (c)
109. (c) 110. (c) 111. (c) 112. (a) 113. (c) 114. (a) 115. (a) 116. (c) 117. (c)
118. (c) 119. (c) 120. (c) 121. (a) 122. (c) 123. (a) 124. (a) 125. (b)
126. (c) 127. (c) 128. (a) 129. (c) 130. (c) 131. (a) 132. (a) 133. (a) 134. (a)
135. (c) 136. (c) 137. (c) 138. (a) 139. (a) 140. (c) 141. (a) 142. (c) 143. (a)
144. (c) 145. (c) 146. (c) 147. (c) 148. (c) 149. (a) 150. (c) 151. (a) 152. (c)
153. (c) 154. (a) 155. (c) 156. (c) 157. (c) 158. (c) 159. (c) 160. (c)
161. (c) 162. (c) 163. (a) 164. (c) 165. (c) 166. (c) 167. (c) 168. (c)
169. (c) 170. (a) 171. (c) 172. (c) 173. (c) 174. (c) 175. (c)

Explanations Linear Algebra

1. (c)

Consider that 3 × 3 matrix, such that each positive entry is

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

Since it is 3 × 3 matrix and zero, then $x + y + z = 0$ and $x = 0$

$$x = 0$$

$$y + z = 0$$

$$y = 0$$

$$z = 0 \Rightarrow y = z = 0 = 0$$

∴, $x = y = z = 0$

(c)

Given condition is

$$x + 2y + z = 3$$

$$2x + y + 2z = 5$$

$$x + y + z = 0$$

Given condition is zero, then $x =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x + 2y + z \\ 2x + y + 2z \\ x + y + z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Augmented matrix is $\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 5 \end{array} \right]$

By Gaussian elimination

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 5 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\frac{-2}{1} R_1 \rightarrow R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & -7 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & -7 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{1}{3} R_2 \rightarrow R_2 \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & -7 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow 3R_2 + R_3 \rightarrow R_3$$

$$\Rightarrow R_2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow R_3 = 0$$

Since there is no solution, rank of A is not equal to rank of augmented matrix, hence the system has no solution. The system is inconsistent.

2.

(a)

The augmented matrix for the given system is

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 12 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{2R_2 \rightarrow R_1} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 0 & 2 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

By using Gauss elimination procedure

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 12 \\ 1 & 2 & 9 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 4 & 3 & 12 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1, R_3 - 4R_1} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & -3 & -14 \\ 0 & -5 & -24 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & -5 & -24 \\ 0 & -3 & -14 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{\frac{-1}{5} R_2 \rightarrow R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cc|c} 1 & 2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{24}{5} \\ 0 & -3 & -14 \end{array} \right]$$

Since $\frac{24}{5} \neq \frac{-14}{-3}$, the system has no solution. Hence the system is inconsistent.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{5x + 1}{2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -1/5 \text{ is the solution}$$

There is only one value of x which satisfies the system of Eqs.

4.

(a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } \det(A) = 0$$

$$\text{Where } \det(A) = \text{determinant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 16 - 1 = 15 \neq 0$$

$$(b) \lambda^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4 - \lambda)^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4 - \lambda + 1)(4 - \lambda - 1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (5 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 5 - \lambda = 0 \text{ or } 3 - \lambda = 0$$

5. (a)

$$\text{So, the augmented matrix is } \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1, R_3 - R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3 \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow R_3 + 3R_2 \rightarrow R_3$$

$$\Rightarrow R_2 = 0$$

6. (b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Given } A = B$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B) \Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B)$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B) \Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B)$$

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$$\Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B) \Rightarrow \det(A) = \det(B)$$

8. (c)

Characteristic equation is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 1 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(4-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - [(2)(1)(2)] = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda - 5) = 0$$

Hence, $\lambda = 0$ & 5 are the eigen values

9. (b)

Since $\lambda = 0$ is an eigen value of given matrix, $x = 0$ will be dependent on the other given x where $1 \leq i \leq 7$

10. (a)

With the given ranks we can say that order of matrices are as follows

$$P^T \rightarrow 3 \times 4$$

$$P \rightarrow 4 \times 3$$

$$Q^T P \rightarrow 3 \times 3$$

$$(Q^T P)^T \rightarrow 3 \times 3$$

$$P^T \rightarrow 3 \times 3$$

$$P^P \rightarrow 3 \times 3$$

$$(P^T P)^T (P^T)^T (P^T P)(P^T P)(P^T P)(P^T P) \rightarrow 3 \times 3$$

11. (b)

Formal eigen matrix

$$A A^T = I \Rightarrow \text{eigen value is}$$

$$\lambda = (A A^T)^T = I^T = I$$

12. (b)

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det P = \frac{1}{14} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{14} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 0$$

$$\therefore P^{-1} = \frac{1}{0} = \infty$$

$$\therefore P^{-1} = 0$$

$$(P^{-1})^T (P^{-1}) = (0)^T (0) = (0)(0)$$

$$= 0 \times 0 = 0$$

Since we can say that the rank of P^{-1} is equal to that of P that is rank of $\det(P)$ which is 0, the transpose will be same (i.e. row of $\det(P)$)

$$\text{col. (1, 2, 3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 + 2 = 5$$

$$\text{col. (2, 3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 1$$

$$\text{col. (3, 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{col. (2, 1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(P) = (\det(P^T))^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finding by $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

$$P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -3 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Top row } P^{-1} = 3 - 3 = 0$$

13. (a)

$$[A A^T] = I$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 20 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 20 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = I \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (1)$$

$$30 - 0 = 30 \Rightarrow \frac{30}{2} = 15$$

Also substitute in equation (1) we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{20}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } 15 &= \frac{1}{20} \times 1 \\ &= \frac{1 \times 20}{20} = \frac{20}{20} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

4. (a), (b) and (c) all possible.

In an over determined system having more equations than variables, all three equations will not satisfy simultaneously. Hence the constant will be zero, i.e. no system with solution.

15. (b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, $\det(A) = 0$ (since rank = 1 < no. of columns = 5).
i.e. $\det(A) = 0$ (since based on the rank = 1 < no. of columns = 5).
Hence the rank of $A = 1$ (i.e. $\det(A) = 0$) and since the rank of $A = 1$, hence the system will have infinite solutions. But it is given that the system is consistent. So the maximum rank of A will only be 1.

16. (a)
Rank $A(0)$ = Rank A' since $A(0)$ is a sub-matrix of A and rank $A(0)$ is $R_0 = 2$

17. (b)
The augmented matrix for the given system is

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

Using above information, we can find rank of $A(0)$.

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1, R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 3R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 2R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{Rank}(A(0)) = 3$$

$$\text{Rank}(A') = 2$$

Since Rank $A(0) > \text{Rank}(A')$ = number of variables, The system has no solution.

18. (a)
Find values for eigen values by solving characteristic equation $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} |A - \lambda I| &= \begin{vmatrix} 5-\lambda & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (5-\lambda)(1-\lambda)(2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) \\ &= (5-\lambda)(1-\lambda)(2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) \\ &= 0 \\ &= (5-\lambda)(1-\lambda)(2-\lambda)(1-\lambda) = 0 \\ \lambda &= 5 \neq \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{3}}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Let } \lambda = 5, A - \lambda I = 0$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & -4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & -4 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 0 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + 4R_2} \left[\begin{array}{cccc|c} 2 & 0 & 10 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -4 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} x_1 &= 0 \\ -3x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$x_3 = 3x_2 = 0$$

Solving all the we get $x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0$ & x_1 can be anything.

For eigen vector corresponding to $\lambda = 5$, any x values

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

where x, x_2 may be any real numbers since choice of this eigenvector is not unique with $x_2 = 0$ and $x_3 = 0$, so to be correct we use

Find a x such that x can be chosen as 1 as we need to derive the eigen vector

$$\text{corresponding } \lambda = 5 = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{3}}{2}$$

18. (d)
Find matrix A triangular, the eigen values are the diagonal elements. Hence we can say $\lambda = 0, 2$ and 1 . Corresponding is diagonal $\lambda = -2$ is left of the eigen vector

$$A = 2I(A = I)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2-\lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2-\lambda & 0 \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Putting $\lambda = -2$ in above matrix we get,

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \end{array} \right] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

which gives the condition,

$$4x_1 = 2x_2 = 2x_3 = 0 \quad (i)$$

$$x_2 = 0 \quad (ii)$$

$$x_3 = 0 \quad (iii)$$

Since eq (ii) and (iii) are same we get

$$2x_1 = 2x_2 = 2x_3 = 0 \quad (iv)$$

$$x_3 = 0 \quad (v)$$

From (i) $x_2 = 0$ in eq (iv) we get

$$2x_1 = 2x_2 = 2x_3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = 0 \text{ & } x_2 = 0$$

\therefore Eigen vector is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{ie } x_1, x_2, x_3 = 2\lambda, \lambda, \lambda, \lambda = 2\lambda, \lambda, \lambda, \lambda = 2, 1, 1, 1 \quad 21. \text{ (b)}$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2\lambda \\ \lambda \\ \lambda \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \lambda = \text{Eigs. value of matrix } A$$

20. (a)

$$\text{Thus, the characteristic eqn of } A = \begin{vmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$(4 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 4 - \lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 12 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - 4)(\lambda - 3) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 4 \text{ and } \lambda = 3$$

Corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 4$ we need to find proper vector:

$$\text{The eigen value problem is } (A - \lambda_1 I)X = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 4 - 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 - 4 \end{vmatrix} X = 0$$

Putting $\lambda = 4$

$$\text{we get } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$x_1 - x_2 = 0 \quad (2)$$

Since (1) and (2) are the same relation we have

$$x_1 = -2x_2$$

$$x_1 = -2x_2$$

$$x_1/x_2 = -2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x_1}{x_2} = -2$$

Now for the answers given we look for any

vector with any value for constant $\lambda = 4$

$$\text{Hence } \frac{x_1}{x_2} = -2 \Rightarrow$$

So, we get an eigen vector corresponding to $\lambda = 4$

Now we find eigen vector corresponding to $\lambda = 3$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic equation of the given system is

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$4 - \lambda \quad 2$$

$$1 \quad 3 - \lambda = 0$$

$$(4 - \lambda)(3 - \lambda) - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 4, 3$$

\therefore Eigen values of A are 4 and 3.

20. (a)

Although 2×2 since the corresponding eigen values are $2, 1$ and the corresponding eigen vectors

20. (a)

Method 1:

$$\sin \theta = \sin 0 = 0$$

$$\Delta = \sin 0 \cos 0 = 0$$

$$0 = 0 = 1$$

$$1 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$\text{So } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

According to problem

$$\Delta = 1 = 0$$

$$\text{So } \begin{bmatrix} \sin 0 & \sin 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \sin 0 & \cos 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence we get 1 at position (1, 4) and (2, 5) and 0 at position (1, 5) and (2, 4)

$$I = \Delta = \frac{\sin(0)}{0}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sin 0 & \sin 0 & 0 \\ \sin 0 & \cos 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Method 2:

A easier method for finding Δ is by multiplying the first row of the given matrix (2) and adding finding Δ , which gives the product of the type $\sin \theta$. Again, the answer is not

Using Gauss elimination method

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1, R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, $x_2 = 0$ in the second row gives the simplifying case

$$\begin{aligned} \text{As } x_2 = 0 \text{ and } x_1 = 0 \\ \Rightarrow x_3 = 2 \text{ and } x_4 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

39. (c)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (2-\lambda)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 2$$

Now observe the eigenvalue problem

$$(A - \lambda I)X = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{As } \lambda = 2, \text{ we get}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_2 = 0 \quad (i)$$

$$x_1 = 0 \quad (ii)$$

The eigenvalue is $\lambda = 2$ and $x_1 = x_2 = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

40. (d)

$$\text{The cross product of } \vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

is $\vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$ can be written as

$$\vec{c} \cdot \vec{a} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 0$$

$$= x_2(-1) = -x_2$$

$$= -x_2 = -x_1$$

$$|x_1|$$

$$\text{Now } \vec{c} \cdot \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_3 = -x_1$$

$$\text{Let } \vec{c} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Now } \vec{c} \cdot \vec{c} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_1 \end{bmatrix} = 4$$

$$x_1^2 + x_1^2 + x_1^2 = 4 \Rightarrow 3x_1^2 = 4$$

By putting $x_1 = 2$ and $x_2 = -2$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 4$$

$$4 + 4 + 4 = 12 \neq 4$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 12$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 12$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 12$$

Now we have the other eigenvalue $\lambda = 0$

$$(A - \lambda I)X = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

41. (b)

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1 \Rightarrow x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 1$$

$$\text{Now } x_1 = 2, x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = 2, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 1$$

$$x_3 = 1$$

42. (a)

The eigenvalue of any symmetric matrix is always real

43. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -3-\lambda & 2 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(-3-\lambda)(-\lambda) - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 + 3\lambda - 2 = 0$$

As we calculate equation corresponding to Cayley-Hamilton theorem

$$A^2 + 3A - 2I = 0$$

Multiplying by A on both sides we get

$$A^3 + 3A^2 - 2A = 0$$

$$A^3 = 2A + 3A^2$$

44. (a)

By substitution

$x = 1$ and $y = 2$ and $z = 3$ which has been verified above

$$\Rightarrow A^3 = 3A + 2I$$

$$A^4 = A^3 \times A = (3A + 2I) \times A = 3A^2 + 2A$$

$$= 3A^2 + 12A + 4I$$

$$A^5 = 3A^3 + 12A^2 + 4A$$

$$= 9A + 14I$$

$$A^6 = A^5 \times A$$

$$= (9A + 14I)(3A + 2I) = 0$$

$$= 27A^2 + 42A + 14I$$

$$= 27(3A + 2I) + 42A + 14I$$

$$= 67.5A + 25I$$

$$A^7 = A \times A^6$$

$$A^7 = 200A + 25I$$

$$= 200(A^3 + 12A + 4I)$$

$$= 200(3A + 2I) + 657A$$

$$= 511A + 400I$$

45. (b)

$$100\pi = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2 \times 10$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi (10)^2 \times 10 = 100\pi (10)$$

$$= 10^3$$

48. (a)

Using (a) $AA^T A = A$ is correct

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Given, } AA^T A &= A[(A^T A)^{-1} A] \\ &= A[(A^T A)^{-1} A]A \end{aligned}$$

$$I \Rightarrow AA^T A = A$$

$$\text{Then } A^{-1} = A[(A^T A)^{-1} A]^{-1} A^{-1} = A$$

47. (a)

For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$, matrix is defined such that x is not multiplied linearly independent rows as well as $1/x$ is not independent column as well as x is not multiplied columnwise.

48. (d)

The augmented matrix for given system is

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

Using Gaussian elimination we reduce the given augmented matrix to row echelon form as

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 - R_1, R_3 - R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{y = 0} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\text{From } 1 - x = 7$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A, B) = 3$$

a. Infinite solution

$$= 1 - x = 7 \Rightarrow x(1) = \text{rank}(A) = 3$$

which is not the number of variables

\therefore For $x = 7$, infinite solution is not possible and any other solution is possible

49. (a)

$$\text{Augmented matrix is } \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

For solving given equations on the matrix, we get

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2, R_3 - R_2} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & -1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 & -2 & -3 \\ 0 & 3 & -2 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$\therefore A^{-1} = A^{-1} = 2$ and $A^{-1} = 3$, we can obtain the given solutions.

$\therefore A = 2, A^{-1} = 3$ and $A^{-1} = 2$ then the system will be consistent and will have infinite solutions.

50. (b)

The system is $3x + 4y + z = 1$ and $x + y + z = 0$.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The augmented matrix $[A \mid b]$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.
 $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Reducing each direction of the $[A \mid b]$ as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 4 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now $\text{rank}(A \mid b) = 2$.

\Rightarrow one free variable $x_3 = t$.

$$\text{Let } x_3 = t$$

Then from the second row $x_2 = 1 - 2t$.

Since $\text{Rank}(A \mid b) = \text{rank}(A)$,

the system has no solution.

51. (b)

The augmented matrix is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now solving for x_2 . The $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A \mid b) = 3$.
 \Rightarrow 4 variables and 3 equations exist. Choose free variables to be

52. (b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic eqn is $\det(A - \lambda I)$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 5 \\ 2 & -5-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4-\lambda)(-5-\lambda) - 10 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -\lambda^2 + \lambda - 35 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 5, -3$$

53. (b)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow (1-\lambda)(2-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 1, 2$$

Now the characteristic equation is

$$(1-\lambda)(2-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 2-\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Putting $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$ and $\lambda = 1$,
 $\lambda = 2$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using the value of $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$,
 $\lambda = 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix is diagonal

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

54. (m)

$$\text{Eigen value of } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 1, 0$$

$$\lambda = 1, 0$$

$$\lambda = 1, 0$$

$$\lambda = 1, 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \lambda(1 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 1, -1$$

Since the matrix is skew-symmetric, so all eigen values are

$$0, i, -i$$

Consider the $\lambda(i)$

55. (a)

Sum of the eigen values of matrix is = trace of matrix = sum of diagonal values present in the matrix

$$\therefore 1 + 2 + 3 = 3 + \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$

$$\Rightarrow 6 = 3 + \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$$

$$\therefore \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 6 - 3 = 3$$

60. (a)

$$\text{Since, } \Pi A_1 = 4$$

and hence the eigen values are $\lambda_1 = 4$

$$\Pi A_2 = 10 \Rightarrow \lambda_2 = 10$$

$$\text{Also, } \lambda_1 = \frac{P_1 - Q_1}{P_1 - Q_2} = 2$$

$$\therefore P_1 - Q_1 = 2(P_1 - Q_2)$$

which is satisfying

67. (b)

If there is no equation is

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1 \Rightarrow 0$$

The boundary function is given

$$x = 0, y = 2, z = 0$$

$$x = 0, y = 2, z = 0$$

Multiplying by $\sqrt{2}$ on both sides

$$2x = \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2} = y$$

$$= \sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2} = 2$$

88. (a)

A spring with a mass is subjected to two steady state sinusoidal forces $F_1 \sin pt$ and $F_2 \sin qt$ respectively

89. (a)

$$\text{Hence, } \lambda^2 = \lambda^2 + 1$$

$$\lambda^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{3} \right)^2 + 1^2 & \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \\ \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) & \left(\frac{1}{3} \right)^2 + 1^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic eqn λ_1

$$\lambda^2 - \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) \lambda + \left(\frac{2}{9} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - \left(\frac{2}{3} \right) \lambda + \left(\frac{2}{9} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{1}{3}$$

60. (a)

$$2\lambda_1 + \text{Trace}(A) = -2$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = -2 \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$\Pi A_1 = |A| = -36$$

$$\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = -36 \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Solving (i) and (ii) we get $\lambda_1 = 5$ and

81. (d)

$$\text{Sum of diagonal elements} = \text{Trace}(A) = -1 + -1 + 0 = -2$$

$$\therefore \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = -2$$

$$\text{One of the eigen values} = (18)^{1/2} = 4.24 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 4.24$$

82. (b)

$$\frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2}$$

83. (d)

$$\lambda = 1, 2, 1, \lambda_1 = 4, \lambda_2 = 8$$

$$3x = 2x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_3 = 8$$

$$\text{The augmented matrix is } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Performing row reduction operation we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 12 \\ 2 & 4 & 2 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 12 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \lambda_1 = 4, \lambda_2 = 8$$

So, system is not stable

Since system's rank = 2, so the characteristic equation has two (multiple) non-zero eigen values

64. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic equation of A is

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda - 2 & -2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 1) - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = -1, 4$$

The eigen value problems $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Putting $\lambda = -1$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 - 3x_2 = 0$$

(3)

(4)

So that $x_1 = x_2 = -2$

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_2 = -2x_1 = 2(1, 1)$$

Since $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ is same as $\det(A - \lambda_2 I) = 0$

∴ Two distinct eigen values

65. (c)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ques

Find the rank of the matrix A and the diagonal elements of the matrix A are $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3$ then $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 =$?

Now Rank of A is $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3 = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & \lambda - 2 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & \lambda - 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Putting $\lambda = 1$ we get, the eigen value corresponding to λ_1 eigen value,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

When $\lambda = 2$ we get,

$$x_2 = 0$$

$$x_3 - 2x_1 = 0$$

$$\lambda_3 = 0$$

This value is $x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0, x_1 = 1$

$$\text{So the eigen vector is } x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$$

$$= 1, 0, 0$$

Since none of the eigen values is zero, hence matrix A is invertible and $\det(A) \neq 0$ and $\det(A) \neq 0$, and $\det(A) \neq 0$ eigen value is corresponding to the other Eigen value.

Now corresponding to $\lambda_1 = 2$, we get, by substituting $\lambda = 2$ in the eigen value problem the following set of equations

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which gives the solution

$$x_1 = x_2 = 0$$

$$x_3 = 0$$

$$x_4 = 1$$

$$\text{So that } x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 0, x_4 = 1$$

$$\text{∴ } x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = 0 + 0 + 0 + 1$$

Since none of the eigen values is zero, hence matrix A is invertible and $\det(A) \neq 0$ and $\det(A) \neq 0$, and $\det(A) \neq 0$ eigen value is corresponding to the other Eigen value.

By putting $\lambda = 2$ in the eigen value problem we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$-x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 + 2x_3 = 0$$

$$\text{putting } x_3 = 1 \text{ we get } x_1 = -2 \text{ and } x_2 = -1/2 = 0$$

$$\text{∴ } x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = -1 - 2 + 1$$

[7]

Any 10 marks each part is correct (20, 20, 20)

1. 10 marks. 20. 20 marks each part is correct (20, 20, 20)

66. (c)
The values of x & y are symmetric matrix are either zero or product of x & y .

67. (c)
Partial-differential eqs. $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}(x, y) = 2 - y$
 Another partial eqs. $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}(x, y) = 4 - 2x$
 $\therefore \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(4 - x - 2y) = 0$ (i)
 $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(4 - x - 2y) = 0$ (ii)
 $\therefore 4 - x - 2y = 12$ (i)
 $2y - 5x = 39$ (ii)
 \therefore Solving (i) and (ii) we get $x = -3$ & $y = 10$

68. (a)
The Augmented matrix

$$[A|b] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3}$$

From equation we find value of x & y we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 - 2R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & -7 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{7}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rank $(A) = \text{Rank}(A, b) = 2 < 3$

So, infinite number of solution is a solution is 1

69. (c)
No. of parameters in 14 independent equations is

$$13 \times 1 = 13$$

$$(A|b) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 20 \\ 1 & 4 & 1 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$14 \times 4 = 56$$

$$[A|b] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$rA = 3 \text{ and } p = 20 \text{ then}$$

$$\text{Rank}(A|b) = 3 \text{ and } \text{Rank}(A) = 2$$

$$\therefore \text{Rank}(A|b) > \text{Rank}(A)$$

\therefore No. of solutions is equal to zero because rank $A > \text{Rank}(A|b) > 30$

70. (a)
Eigen values of symmetric matrix are always real

71. (a)
Symmetric matrix in the question is given as $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

72. (c)
Normalized eigen values of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$
 Each eigen value is λ

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3-\lambda & 5 \\ 5 & 0-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda - 3) - 25 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 25 = 0$$

For eigen values λ is

$$\lambda = 3 \pm \sqrt{33}$$

73. (a)
The given system is

$$x + 2y + z = 4$$

$$2x + y + 2z = 0$$

$$x + y + z = 1$$

Use the substitution method to solve

Augmented matrix is

$$[A|b] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \rightarrow R_1 - R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Rank}(A) = 3$$

$$\text{Rank}(A|b) = 3$$

$$\therefore \text{Rank}(A) = \text{Rank}(A|b) = 3$$

System is consistent

$$\text{No. of system is } k = 3 - 2$$

$$\text{Number of solutions } = 1$$

$$k = 1$$

So we have infinite number of solutions.

74. (c)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Equation are the value of x and y are not any value given

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda(\lambda - 1) - 1 = 0$$

$$-(2-2)(2+2) = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 4 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \pm\sqrt{4}$$

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues of A are $\sqrt{4} = 2$ and $-\sqrt{4} = -2$ respectively.

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues of $A^2 = (\sqrt{4})^2$ and $(-\sqrt{4})^2$

$$= 2^2 \text{ and } (-2)^2$$

$$= 4 \text{ and } 4 \text{ and } 4 \text{ and } 4$$

$$= 4 \times 2 + 4 \times 2 = 16\sqrt{2}$$

75. (b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} 5-\lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(5-\lambda)(2-\lambda) - 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 8 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 2, 5$$

Now, to find eigenvectors:

$$[A - \lambda I]x = 0$$

$$\text{For } \lambda = 2, \begin{bmatrix} 5-2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2-2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rank $A - \lambda I = 1 \Rightarrow$ eqn. (2) is redundant

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which gives the equation,

$$3x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$\text{or } x_1 = -\frac{2}{3}x_2 = t$$

Which is the eigenvector x_1

$$x_1 = -\frac{2}{3}x_2 = 0$$

Which is the eigenvector

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, the eigenvector $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

Which is the eigenvector $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1^2+2^2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \end{bmatrix}$$

The other eigenvector can be found by putting the other eigenvalue

$\lambda = 5$ in eigenvector equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} 5-5 & 2 \\ 1 & 2-5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which gives the equation

$$x_1 + 3x_2 = 0$$

$$\text{or } x_1 = -3x_2 = t$$

Which is the eigenvector

$$x_1 = -3x_2 = 1$$

Which is the eigenvector

$$x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Which is the eigenvector

$$\frac{x_2}{\sqrt{10}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Since } \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is the only correct choice}$$

Since the eigenvectors are orthogonal and normalized vectors, which is x_2 .

76. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -5 & -3 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 5\lambda + 6 = 0$$

Characteristic equation of A is

$$\begin{vmatrix} -5-\lambda & -3 \\ 2 & 0-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 5\lambda + 6 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 2\lambda + 6 = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda + 3) + 2(\lambda + 3) = 0$ (Factor by hand)

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda + 3)(\lambda + 2) = 0$$

Multiplying by λ in each case, we have,

$$\lambda^2 = -\lambda^2 - 3\lambda$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 = -\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 6\lambda - 6$$

$$= 9\lambda - 6$$

77. Sol.

The minimum number of operations required is multiple.

$A_{1 \times 2}$ with $B_{2 \times 3}$ is first to compute C and we multiply AC (16) and then C with number of matrices are $4 \times 16 = 64$ as $4 \times 2 \times 4$ for AC and then $4 \times 4 \times 4$ multiplications to multiply AC with B . So total multiplications are 96. It is not valid.

$$1 \times 2 \times 4 + 2 \times 4 \times 4 = 16 + 32 = 48$$

Therefore BOA has minimum of first method. The number of multiplications required would be $2 \times 2 \times 4 \times 1$ to get BO and then BO with A is $4 \times 4 \times 2$ multiplications. So total multiplications are 16. It is best method.

$$2 \times 2 \times 4 + 4 \times 4 \times 2 = 8 + 32 = 40$$

Hence, the minimum of multiplications required to compute BOA is 40 . BOA is best.

78. (b)

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Let the characteristic equation be } |A - \lambda I| \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (1-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - 1 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} + \dots \\ &= 2(1-\lambda)^2(1-\lambda)^2(1-\lambda)^2(1-\lambda)^2 = 2(1-\lambda)^6 \end{aligned}$$

79. (a)

The given matrix can be transformed into the form of given in options (a), (b) and (d) by the following row operation. $R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4 + R_5 + R_6$ any one of these.

Option (b):

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \\ 1 & x & y & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 \\ 1 & x & z^2 & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Option (c):

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Option (d):

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Option (a): We can show this place with a sign which converted into option (a) without doing a single row operation. If x is negative, i.e. sign of x is determined as $x < 0$ then $x < 0$ then

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_1 \leftrightarrow R_2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \\ x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 & x^6 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 & x^4 & x^5 \end{bmatrix}$$

80. (b)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

only $\lambda = 0$ is $\lambda = 0$ Then $A = 0$

\therefore dimension of null space of $A = 3 - 2 = 1$.

81. (a)

Since $\sin 2\theta = \cos 2\theta = 0$ this system has 2 or 3 solutions. It is a linear system of 2 equations in 3 unknowns. There are infinite solutions.

82. (a)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Eq. (1) } 2x_1 + 2x_2 = 7$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 7/2$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = 7/2 - x_2$$

i.e. x_1 and x_2 are not independent variables or solutions.

\Rightarrow Multiple solutions exist here.

83. (a, d)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Eig. value } \lambda &= 1 \text{ and } -1 \\ A - \lambda I &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x = 0$$

$$y = 0$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

$$x^2 = 0$$

$$x = 0$$

\therefore valid eigen vector,

$$x = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & x_1 \\ 0 & -1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

clearly, $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$ and $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

clearly, $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$ and $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0$

Thus, the two eigen values of the given matrix are

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

84. (c)

(i) The eigen values of the matrix $(A^T + A)$ are given by:

(ii) The eigen value of $(A^T + A)$ is given by $(\lambda^T + \lambda)$ and $(\lambda^T - \lambda)$ are the eigen values of A

85. (d)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From equation (i) and (ii), $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 0$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

86. (d)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(i) $(A^T + A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

(ii) $(A^T - A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) $(A^T + A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

So, the eigen values are 0, 0.

87. (b)

So, the eigen values are 0, 0.

(i) $(A^T + A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

(ii) $(A^T - A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(iii) $(A^T + A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

(iv) $(A^T - A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

(v) $(A^T + A) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$

So, the eigen values are 0, 0.

So, the eigen values are 0, 0.

Given: Matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a symmetric matrix. $A^T = A$. So, the eigen values of A are 1 and -1. The eigen values of $A^T + A$ are 2 and 0. The eigen values of $A^T - A$ are 0 and 0. So, the eigen values are 0, 0.

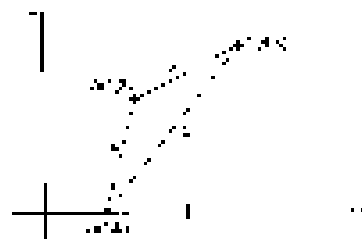
88. (d)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

89. (a)



Area of Portals

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[x(y_1 + y_2) + (y_1 - y_2)(x_1 + x_2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[12 \times 2 + (2 - 0)(0 + 40) \right] = \frac{1}{2} \times 100 = 50 \\
 &= 50
 \end{aligned}$$

90. (d)

$$\begin{aligned}
 (x + y)^2 - x^2 - y^2 &= (x^2 + 2xy + y^2) - x^2 - y^2 \\
 &= x^2 + 2xy + y^2 - x^2 - y^2 + 0 + 0 + 0 \\
 &= 2xy
 \end{aligned}$$

92. (d)

None multiplied with any value.

94. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 6 & 8 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_1 \rightarrow R_2 \quad R_2 \rightarrow R_3$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & -4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Interchanging column 2 and 4 and taking L.H.S. as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -4 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \\ 0 & -2 & 10 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1 \times 1 \times 20 - 0 - 0 - 0$$

$$= 20 - 0 - 0 - 0$$

95. (4)

Let $x = 100$, $y = 80$ and $z = 60$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 0 \\ 2 & 12 & 4 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = (10)^3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 0 \\ 2 & 12 & 4 \\ -3 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Case of common factor is 10.

$$\therefore \text{Det}(A) = (10)^3 \times 10 = 10 \times 10 \times 10 = 1000$$

96. 8a

Determinant of $A = 8$

Determinant of $B = 16$

Determinant of $C = |A| |B|$

$$= 8 \times 16 = 128$$

97. 8a

$$\text{Let, } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 = 9A - 4I$$

$$\text{Given that } |A| = 5 - 16 = -11$$

$$\therefore |A^2| = 11 \times 4 = 44 \Rightarrow |A| = 11$$

8b. (a) x is given positive maximum value of

$$x(14 - 2x) \text{ when } x^2 \text{ when } x = 0.$$

$$\text{Given, } A = 4(14 - x) = 14(2 - x).$$

Maximizing this expression

$$\frac{dA}{dx} = 14 - 2x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 7$$

$$\therefore \text{Max } \frac{d^2A}{dx^2} = -2 < 0$$

4a. (c) x is given maximum value when $x = 4$ and

$$4 \times 14 \times 7 = 392$$

98. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 12 & 10 \\ 2 & 36 & 20 \\ 3 & 45 & 35 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow |A| = 0$$

99. Sol.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 14 & 8 & 18 \\ 14 & -12 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1, R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 14R_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 14 & 0 & 14 \\ 0 & -12 & -28 & -28 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_2 \rightarrow R_2/14$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3 + 12R_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Thus, rank of } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \text{ is } \text{rank}(A) = 2$$

$$\therefore \text{rank}(A) = 2$$

101. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1^2 + 1^2 & 1 + 1 \\ 2 + 2 & 2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence, $\text{rank}(A^2) = \text{rank}(A) = 2$

Case (i)

$$\text{rank}(A) = 0$$

$\Rightarrow A$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ as A has to be null and $\text{rank}(A) = 0$ is also equal to $\text{rank}(A^2) = 0$ as $\text{rank}(A^2) = \text{rank}(A)$

Case (ii)

$$\text{rank}(A) = 1$$

$\Rightarrow A$ cannot be null. So, A has to have at least one 1 in $A^2 = A^2$

$$\text{as } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} A^2$$

For $\text{rank}(A) = 0$, how can we have $\text{rank}(A^2) = 1$ as $\text{rank}(A) = 0$ which means $\det(A) = 0$ as $\det(A) = 0$ so $\text{rank}(A)$ is also < 2 . So, $\text{rank}(A) = 0$ gives < 2 , therefore $\text{rank}(A)$ must be equal to < 2 . Therefore in this case the $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^2)$

Case (iii)

$$\text{rank}(A) = 2$$

For A has to be non-singular, i.e. $\det(A) \neq 0$. Therefore, $\det(A) = \det(A^2)$ as $\det(A) \neq 0$. So, $\text{rank}(A) = 2$

Therefore, in all cases $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^2)$

Therefore, in all cases $\text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^2)$ So, rank of A is A then the rank of A^2 is also A

101. (b)

The augmented matrix for the system is

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 3 & -1 & 3 & 5 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -7 & -3 & 5 \end{array} \right]$$

Now, Rank of matrix is equal to Rank. We can see that the $\text{Rank}(A) = 2$

Hence, $\text{Rank}(A) = \text{Rank}(A) = 2$ which holds dependent on value of $0 < \text{rank}(A) < 2$

Rank $(A) = \text{Rank}(A^2)$ if $\text{rank}(A) = 0$ or $\text{rank}(A) = 2$

Hence, the system is consistent in finite many solutions

102. (a)

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 \end{array} \right] \xrightarrow{R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1, R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1} \left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_2 &\rightarrow R_2 \times (-1) \\ R_2 &\rightarrow R_2 \times 2 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$R_3 \rightarrow R_3/2 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rank $A = \text{Rank}(B) = \text{Rank of } A$ as order of matrix is same number of columns $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(B)$

103. Sol.

Given

$$x + 2y = 1$$

$$2x + 4z = 1$$

$$x + y + z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x + 4z = 0$$

$$x = -2z, z = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -2y = 7z = 0$$

$$2y + 4z = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 2z = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow 2z + 4z = 2$$

$$6z + 2z =$$

$$6z + 7z = 1$$

$$13z = 1$$

$$z = 2$$

$$z = 3$$

$$13z = 13 \times 2 = 26$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 2z = 26$$

$$\Rightarrow x + 2z = 1$$

(P. 103-104)

$$y + z = 1$$

$$z = 1 - y$$

∴ The number of solutions in this case = 0 since $x = 1/2$, $y = 1/2$ and $z = 1/2$ is only solution.

134. (a)

Sum of eigen values = trace of matrix
 $= 210 + 53 + 550 = 813$

135. (c)

5×5 real symmetric matrix is called orthogonal if its eigen values are ± 1 but with respective sign

$$\text{where } \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ is orthogonal}$$

∴ $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = y_1^2 + y_2^2 = 1$ because they are orthogonal.

∴ $x_1^2 = 0$ (since $x_2 \neq 0$)

$$[x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

136. (d)

The characteristic equation $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\text{i.e. } \begin{vmatrix} 5 - \lambda & 2 \\ 20 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (5 - \lambda)(5 - \lambda) - 40 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 10\lambda + 25 - 40 = 0$$

$$\text{or } \lambda^2 - 10\lambda - 15 = 0$$

$$\text{or } \lambda = \frac{10 \pm \sqrt{100 + 60}}{2} = \frac{10 \pm \sqrt{160}}{2} = 5 \pm 2\sqrt{10}$$

∴

Corresponding to $\lambda = 4$, we have

$$[A - \lambda I] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

which gives only one independent equation
 $-2x + 2y = 0$

∴ $\frac{x}{2} = \frac{y}{2}$ gives eigenvector $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Corresponding to $\lambda = -6$,

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

which gives $x = 0$ (only one independent equation)

∴ $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ which gives $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

∴ the eigen values are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

137. Sol.

Characteristic equation is $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} -2 & 0 & -1 \\ 6 & 11 - \lambda & 3 \\ -4 & -11 & 5 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$= -2(55 - 11\lambda - 55 + 3\lambda^2 - 3\lambda) - 1(30 - 33\lambda) = 0$$

$$= -2(3\lambda^2 - 8\lambda - 1) + 3(3\lambda - 10) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -2(3\lambda^2 - 8\lambda - 1) + 9\lambda - 30 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -6\lambda^2 + 16\lambda + 2 + 9\lambda - 30 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -6\lambda^2 + 25\lambda - 28 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -6\lambda^2 + 15\lambda + 10\lambda - 28 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -6\lambda^2 + 25\lambda - 28 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = -1, -2, -3$$

The sum of eigen values is $-1 + (-2) + (-3) = -6$

∴ A and the sum of eigen values is -6

$$= 3 \times -2 = \frac{2}{1} = 6$$

138. Sol.

$$\text{Since } A^{-1} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{sgn}(A) = \text{sgn}(A) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{sgn}(A) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{sgn}(A) = 1$$

Therefore, the positive eigen values of A is 1.

139. Sol.

The set of all the eigen values of the operator are corresponding to the differential equations of second order in pasted 45 items. 1350.

140. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ so } \lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \lambda_3 \\ \lambda_4 \\ \lambda_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A\lambda = \lambda\lambda$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda_3 = \lambda_4 = \lambda_5 = \lambda_6 = \lambda_7$$

(i) $k \neq 0$

$$\det A_1 = x_1 = 0$$

$$x = y = z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x + y = 0,$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -y$$

$$\therefore k = 0$$

$$= \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 = 0,$$

$$= 0 + 0 + 0$$

$$= 0$$

(ii) $k = 0$

\Rightarrow Eigen value $k = 0$

\therefore There are 3 distinct real values $k = 0$

Product of all zero eigen values $0 \times 0 \times 0 = 0$

111. (a)

Since the absolute value is positive, there exist at least one positive eigen value.

Since the matrix is skew-symmetric, when x is positive, negative the value of y will be there. If x is negative, then y will be positive. Hence, at least one eigen value is negative.

112. (a)

Properties of determinant: If any two rows or columns are interchanged, then a sign change of ± 1 will occur in determinant sign changed.

113. Sol.

Since operations 1 and 2 is a elementary operation of the type of $R_1 \rightarrow kR_1$ and $C_1 \rightarrow kC_1$, irrespective of the determinant will be unchanged from the original determinant.

$$\text{As the required determinant} = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 7 & 3 & 105 \\ 12 & 6 & 111 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 4 & 4 \\ 7 & 3 & 105 \\ 12 & 6 & 111 \end{vmatrix} \quad \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 4 & 0 \\ 7 & 3 & 0 \\ 12 & 6 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

As the required determinant $= 0$

114. (a)

Long Method:

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \tan x \\ -\tan x & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\tan x \\ \tan x & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\det A = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \tan x \\ \tan x & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\tan x \\ \tan x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \tan^2 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\tan x \\ \tan x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2 \cos^2 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan x \\ \tan x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } A^{-1}A^{-1} = \frac{1}{4 \cos^4 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan x & 1 & -\tan x \\ \tan x & 1 & \tan x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4 \cos^4 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \tan^2 x & -2 \tan x \\ 2 \tan x & 1 & \tan^2 x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1}A^{-1} = \frac{1}{4 \cos^4 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \tan^2 x & -2 \tan x \\ 2 \tan x & 1 & -2 \tan^2 x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{4 \cos^4 x} & \frac{-2 \tan^2 x}{4 \cos^4 x} \\ \frac{2 \tan x}{4 \cos^4 x} & \frac{1 - 2 \tan^2 x}{4 \cos^4 x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1}A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1 - \tan^2 x}{4 \cos^4 x} & \frac{2 \tan x}{4 \cos^4 x} \\ \frac{2 \tan x}{4 \cos^4 x} & \frac{1 - \tan^2 x}{4 \cos^4 x} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \tan^2 x}{4 \cos^4 x} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \tan x \\ 2 \tan x & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(or)

Short Method:

For $|A| = |A|$ i.e.

$$|A^T A^T| = |A^T| |A^T|$$

$$= |A| \times \frac{1}{|A|} = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{Value } |A^T A^T| = |A| \text{ and } |A| = \frac{1}{|A|}$$

115. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$B = \frac{1}{\Delta} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{24} \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 - 12x + 35 = 0 = 0$$

Orth-1 and 2 satisfy the equation

$$x^2 - 12x + 35 = 0$$

1 and 2 are eigen values = 1 and 2

$$\Rightarrow \text{eigen value sum} = 2$$

123. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 2 \\ 1 & 3-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4-\lambda)(3-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 7\lambda + 12 = 0 \Rightarrow (\lambda - 4)(\lambda - 3) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 4 \text{ or } \lambda = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 3 \text{ or } \lambda = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 3 \text{ or } \lambda = 4$$

Hence eigen value = 2

124. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 3 \\ 1 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 3 \\ 1 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & 3 \\ 1 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2-\lambda}{1} = \frac{3}{4-\lambda} \Rightarrow 2-\lambda = 3 \Rightarrow \lambda = -1$$

125. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 3 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow (1-\lambda)(4-\lambda) - 6 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 2 \text{ or } \lambda = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 2 \text{ or } \lambda = 3$$

$\lambda = 2$ is eigen value of A

126. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Given eigen value $\lambda = 1$

Let X be the vector then $A \cdot X = \lambda X = X$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} X = 0$$

$$\text{rank} = 2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_3 - R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 \\ x_2 \\ x_2 - 2x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

putting $x_2 = 1$ we get $x_1 = -2$ and $x_3 = -1$

$$\therefore \text{eigen vector} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{The area of } \Delta PQR = \frac{1}{12} \times 2 \times 1$$

$$\text{and } \Delta PQR = \frac{1}{12} \times 2 \times 1 = \frac{1}{6}$$

Orthogonal (x, y, z) has the same ratio and therefore it is $(-2, 1, -1)$ or vector

127. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

λ_1 and λ_2 both are eigen value and holds A

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda_1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 3$$

Sum of eigen value

$$= \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 2 + 2 = 4$$

Product of eigen value

$$= \lambda_1 \lambda_2 = 3 \times 1 = 3$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3$$

$$\lambda_2 = 1$$

Let X be the vector

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-\lambda_1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda_1 \end{bmatrix} X = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 2-3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2-3 \end{bmatrix} X = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} X = 0$$

Let $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{6-2}{2} \right)^2 = 27$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3}{2} \times \frac{4}{2} = 27$$

(7)

$$\frac{3}{2} = 17$$

$$\frac{3}{2} = 2$$

$$A - 17 = 0$$

$$\left| \begin{matrix} 3-\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 2-\lambda \end{matrix} \right| = 0$$

$$(3-\lambda)(2-\lambda) - 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 3 \text{ or } 2 \text{ or } 1 \text{ or } 2 \text{ or } 1 = 3$$

Repeating values of λ from options.

By putting option (d) $\frac{14}{5}$ in above equation

$$\text{given value } 5 \times \frac{5}{2}$$

$$\text{Hence value of eigen value is } = \frac{5}{5 \times 5} = 2$$

So option (d) is correct.

129. (b)

For singularity

$$|A| = 0$$

According to properties of eigen value

$$\text{Product of eigen value} = |A| = 0$$

\Rightarrow At least one of the eigen value is zero.

129. (b)

$$\text{Characteristic eq. like } |A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3-\lambda & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & 1-\lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(3-\lambda)(1-\lambda)(2-\lambda) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 3, 1, 2$$

$$\lambda = 3, 1, 2$$

$$(3+1)(1+2)(2+3) = 6 \times 3 \times 6 = 108$$

$$24 = 108 + 11(\lambda + 3)(\lambda + 6)$$

$$= 108 + 11(\lambda^2 + 9\lambda + 18)$$

$$24 = 108 + 11\lambda^2 + 99\lambda + 198$$

$$\lambda^2 + 9\lambda + 11 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{-9 \pm \sqrt{81 - 44}}{2}$$

$$\lambda^2 + 9\lambda + 11 = 0 \quad \text{By quadratic formula}$$

$$\lambda^2 + 9\lambda + 11 = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{-9 \pm \sqrt{81 - 44}}{2} = -2 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$\lambda = -2 \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$22 = \left(3 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + 1 \right) \left(-2 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} - 2 \right) \left(2 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + 3 \right)$$

$$= \left(3 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \right) \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + 1 \right) \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} + 5 \right)$$

$$22 = \frac{2}{5} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$3 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{5}}$$

130. (b)

For matrix containing complex number eigen values are real and odd.

$$A = A^T = (A^T)^T$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 20 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T = (A^T)^T = \begin{bmatrix} 10 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 20 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

By comparing these

$$A = A^T$$

131. (d)

Trace = Sum of eigen values

$$1 + 2 = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow a = 5$$

Trace matrix = Product of eigen values

$$(a-4)(a-7)$$

$$a = 4, a = 7$$

$$a = 5$$

$$\Rightarrow b = 3$$

$$\therefore a = 5, b = 3$$

132. (a)

Orthogonal symmetric

$$A^T = -A$$

133. (c)

Given $\sin A = 1$ or $\sin A = -1$ or $\sin A = 0$

$$\therefore \sin A = 1 \Rightarrow A = 90^\circ \text{ or } 180^\circ$$

$$\therefore \sin A = -1 \Rightarrow A = 270^\circ$$

134. Sol.

$$\text{Trace of } A = 14$$

$$a + b + 2 + 3 = 14$$

143. Sol

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ Eigen values are } 0, 0, 3$$

144. (a)

A Eigen value of A $\lambda = 0$ are positive

$$\lambda = 0$$

$\therefore 2 \times 2$ matrix has two equal eigen value zero

$$\lambda = 1$$

$$1 - \lambda = 0$$

$$2 - \lambda = 0$$

$$3 - \lambda = 0$$

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$$

145. (d)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then λ are the eigen values

$$\lambda^2 - \text{tr}(A)\lambda + \det(A)$$

$$A = (\text{put in the eqn})$$

$$\lambda^2 - \text{tr}(A) = (\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 1) = \lambda^2 - 3\lambda + 2$$

which is possible only when $\lambda = 2$

146. Sol

we eigen value $\lambda = 4$ and $\lambda = 2$ are given and $\lambda = 3$ is not

The find eigen values as the $\lambda = 3$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \det \begin{bmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 - \lambda \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 3)$$

$$= 2 \times 3 = 6$$

148. (e)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigen value $\lambda = 4$ and $\lambda = 2$

Now we find

$$C(A) = \frac{A^2 - 4A + 2I}{A - 4I}$$

Now we use our condition

$$C(A) = A^2 - 4A + 2I$$

$$C(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 2^2 - 4 \times 2 + 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2^2 - 4 \times 2 + 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & 0 \\ 0 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

147. (a)

$$\text{Eigen value of } A^2 = 3A + 4I \text{ are}$$

$$C(A) = 3(A) + 4I \text{ and } 3^2 - 3 \times 3 + 4 = 4 \text{ and } 2^2 - 2 \times 2 + 4 = 4$$

$$\text{Eigen value} = 4, 4$$

$\therefore \lambda = 4$ is the eigen value for A^2 corresponding to $\lambda = 4$ value

Now the λ_1 and λ_2 are eigen value of A corresponding to $\lambda = 4$

For λ_1 and λ_2 are eigen value of $A^2 = 3A + 4I$ corresponding to $\lambda = 4$

148. Sol

$$\text{Characteristic eqn} = \begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(2 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) + 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 2, 2, 3$$

$\lambda = 3$ is the eigen value and Eigen vector

$$\lambda = 2 \text{ Consider } (A - \lambda I)x = 0$$

$$(2 - 2)x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$$

$$x_2 + x_3 = 0 \text{ Take } x_2 = 1 \text{ then } x_3 = -1$$

$$\text{Eigen vector} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \text{Eigen vector is } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Only one is the value of Eigen vector is $\lambda = 2$

$$\text{Characteristic eqn } (A - \lambda I)x = 0 \text{ Eigen vector } \lambda = 2$$

149. Sol

Now we find eigen value as

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 - \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) + 2 = 0$$

$$(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) + 2 = 0$$

$$(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) + 2 = 0$$

$$\lambda = 2, 2, 3$$

$$\lambda = 1$$

150. Sol

Now we find eigen value as $\lambda = 2$ and $\lambda = 3$

$$(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3) = 0 \text{ Eigen value } \lambda = 2$$

$$\frac{(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 3)}{(2 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)} = \frac{2 - 3}{4 - 6}$$

$$\text{Eigen value } \lambda = 2 \text{ and } \lambda = 3$$

151. Sol.

$$\log_3(x) = 1 \Rightarrow x = 3 \Rightarrow x_1 = 1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$\text{Now } \left| \lambda^{-1/2} - \lambda \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda}} - \frac{1}{\lambda} = 0.120$$

152. (c)

By Cayley-Hamilton theorem

$$A^2 - A$$

$$= (1-1)I$$

153. So

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{eigenvalue } \frac{1+2 \pm \sqrt{1+4-4}}{2} = 1$$

$$1+2^2 = 5 \neq 0$$

$$2^2 - 2 + 1 = 0$$

By Cayley-Hamilton Theorem

$$A^2 - A + I = 0$$

$$A^2 = A - I$$

$$A^3 = A^2 - A + I = A - I - A + I = 0$$

$$= 0A + 0I$$

$$A^4 = 0A^3 + 0A^2 = 0$$

$$= 0A^3 + 0A^2 + 0A + 0I = 0A + 0I = 0$$

$$A^5 = 0A^4 + 0A^3 = 0A + 0I = 0$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left| \begin{bmatrix} \lambda-2 & -1200 \\ \lambda-1 & -1400 \end{bmatrix} \right| = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda-1) = 1400$$

154. (a)

Given a random vector X with density property on discrete values x and b certain real values

$$\text{i.e. } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } a, b, c, d \text{ are real values and } a, b, c, d$$

0. Since $|A| = -25$ and sum of trace $|A| = 0$
 $a + d = 0 \Rightarrow a = -d$

From, rank of matrix is 2, so a, b, c, d are all non zero. So solving every 8 possible cases
 $a, b, c, d = 2$

$$A = 2I = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=1}^2 A_{ij} E_{ij}$$

$$A_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \delta_{ij}$$

eigenvalue and E_{ij} are the 2×2 matrices, $E_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$, which means either one eigen value will be zero or $\delta_{ij} = 1$. But eigenvalue example no eigenvalue is equal to zero, so $\delta_{ij} = 1$ from the last eq.

So option (b) is correct

155. Sol.

The polynomial eqn. value of λ is given below. The degree of value of the matrix

$$\lambda = 10 \Rightarrow A_1 = \text{matrix of } |A| = 10$$

$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 25$$

$$10 \times 10 = 100$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 5$$

156. So,

$$\lambda_1 = 72$$

$$\lambda_2 = 75, 80$$

Eigen values of A are λ_1, λ_2

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 150$$

$$\lambda_1/\lambda_2 = -200$$

$$\text{Given } A = \begin{bmatrix} 75 & 0 \\ 0 & 75 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 75 & 0 \\ 0 & 75 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1/\lambda_2 = -200 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = -200 \lambda_2 \Rightarrow \lambda_2 = \frac{150}{-200+1}$$

$$= 75 \lambda_2 \Rightarrow 75(1 + 200) = 15000$$

$$= 75(201) \lambda_2 = 15000$$

$$= 75(201) \lambda_2 = 15000$$

$$= 201 \lambda_2 = 201 \times 75 = 15075$$

157. (b)

Then, if A Eigen values = given from value

$$A(3-5) = 10 \Rightarrow 10$$

$$= (3-5) + 2 = 10 \Rightarrow 2$$

158. (c)

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

(c) So, if A is a vector A and $A^T = A$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c) Since A is a singular, non-invertible matrix, its determinant is zero.

(d) The eigen values

$$P(\lambda) = \begin{vmatrix} \sqrt{2} - \lambda & 3 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & 1 - \lambda & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \sqrt{2} - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \lambda \right) (1 - \lambda) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot 0 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \lambda \right) = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \lambda \right) 2(1 - \lambda) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\left(1 - \lambda \right) \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} - \lambda \right) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 1, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

153. (a)

Characteristic equation is $\lambda(\lambda - 2) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = -1, 5$$

$$0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 6 \quad = 0$$

$$0 \quad -6 \quad 5 \quad \lambda$$

$$0 = 0(\lambda - 5)(\lambda - 6) = 0$$

$$0 = \lambda(\lambda^2 - 11\lambda + 6) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 1$$

$$\lambda = \frac{11 \pm \sqrt{121 - 24}}{2} = \frac{11 \pm 9.5}{2} = 5, 6$$

$$\lambda = 1, 5, 6$$

154. (a)

Coordinates of the point M are

$$= \cos 60^\circ \hat{i} + \sin 60^\circ \hat{j}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \hat{i} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \hat{j}$$

Coordinates of $P = (1, 0)$

Coordinates of A are $(\cos 60^\circ, \sin 60^\circ)$ i.e.,

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos 60^\circ & \sin 60^\circ \\ \sin 60^\circ & \cos 60^\circ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \cos 60^\circ & \sin 60^\circ \\ \sin 60^\circ & \cos 60^\circ \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

155. (a)

The characteristic equation is $\lambda(\lambda - 2) = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -2 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 2) = 0$$

$$\lambda(\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 8) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 0, \lambda = 2, \lambda = 2$$

$$\lambda = 0, 2, 2$$

$$\lambda = 0, 2, 2$$

156. (c)

The given matrix is symmetric and all the eigen values are real. Hence all the eigen values are orthogonal.

$$\text{Hence orthogonal matrix } P \text{ is given by } P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

For corresponding $\lambda_1 = 0$, the vector \vec{a}_1 is given

$$\text{vector is } (0, 0, 0)$$

$$\vec{a}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{a}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

158. Sol.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_1 = A_0 + A$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_1 = A_0 + A_2$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2 = \vec{v}_3$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = \vec{v}_3 \Rightarrow \vec{v}_2 \rightarrow \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_3$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

From last,

$$x = -y + z$$

104. (a)

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 & 3 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda & 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -1-\lambda & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 & 0 & 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

From 1st column, in any row, λ must be zero.

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= 1 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0 \\ \lambda &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

105. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}_1 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \vec{v}_2 &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \\ \vec{v}_3 &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3) \Rightarrow \vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_2 = 3\vec{v}_1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_3 = \vec{v}_1 + \frac{3}{2}\vec{v}_2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Write \vec{v}_3 in Echelon form

with \vec{v}_1 below \vec{v}_3

$$2\vec{v}_3 = 2$$

106. Sol.

$$x = 0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & -2 \\ 4 & 8 & 10 \\ 2 & 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|x - 0| = 0 \Rightarrow |x| = 0$$

So, $|x| = 0$

$$\text{Row } 1 \Rightarrow x + 2y + 3z = 0$$

So, $|x| = 0 \Rightarrow |x| = 0$

107. Sol

$$x^2 + y^2 + 4x^2 + 2y^2 = 1$$

Now, $2x^2 + 2y^2 = 1$ is a circle

$$\text{So, } 2x^2 + 2y^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= 1 + 1 + 2 = 4 \Rightarrow 1 = 0$$

$$= 4 = 0$$

$$\text{So, the equation } x^2 + y^2 = 1 \Rightarrow 1 + 1 = 0$$

Now, we take circle division of 1

$$\frac{x^2 + 4x^2 + 2y^2 + 2y^2}{1 + 2} = 1 + 2 = 3$$

$$\text{Now, } x^2 + 4x^2 + 2y^2 + 2y^2 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

So, the equation is $x^2 + y^2 = 1$, the maximum value of x is 1 .

108. (a)

The equation $|x| = 1$ has two solutions $x = 1$ and $x = -1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

where a_i are column vectors in \mathbb{R}^n and b_i are scalars. If a_i are linearly independent then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i a_i = 0$$

implies the scalar coefficients are not linearly independent and hence

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 0$$

As we have infinitely more equations than λ_i which will be 0, where λ_i denotes i th column of A if A

169. (a)

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$(A - \lambda I) = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\lambda & 2 \\ 2 & 1-\lambda \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$(1-\lambda)(1-\lambda) - 4 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 - 4 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda - 3 = 0$$

170. (a)

$$AB^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 7 & 9 \\ 4 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 38 & 38 \\ 30 & 36 \end{bmatrix}$$

171. (a)

Given that P is inverse of Q

$$P = Q^{-1} \quad \text{or} \quad PQ = I$$

$$PQ = I^{-1}Q \quad \text{or} \quad PQ = PQ^{-1}$$

$$PQ = I \quad \text{or} \quad PQ = I$$

$$\therefore PQ = PQ^{-1} = I$$

172. (a)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = |A| = 1(1) - 4(1) = -3$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 1-3 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\therefore \det(A - \lambda I) = \lambda^2 + 4 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 + 4 = 0 \quad \text{or}$$

$$\lambda = \pm 2i$$

Algebraic multiplicity of eigen value $\pm 2i$ is 1, hence any one independent eigen vector exists.

173. (a)

$$x + y + z = 4 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$y + z = 1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$2x + y + z = 5 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Adding (1) and (2) and (3) gives

$3x + 2z = 4$ and $3x + 2z = 1$ which gives $x = 1$, $z = 1$ and $y = 2$

At optimum, use the substitution $x = 1$, $y = 2$ and $z = 1$ in the objective function. Only (a) satisfies the equation.

■■■■■

2

Calculus

2.1 Limit

2.1.1 Definition

A number L is said to be the limit of a function $f(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$ if for the arbitrary chosen values ϵ (small, however small), but not zero, there exists a corresponding number δ (greater, however small) such that $|f(x) - L|$ is as small as desired for all x such that $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ and $y = f(x)$ is as close to L as desired.

2.1.2 Right and Left Hand Limits

If a function $f(x)$ has a limit L as x tends to a from the right, then L is the right hand limit, denoted by $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and written as,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L \text{ (as } x \rightarrow 0^+ \text{ then } L = 0)$$

Working out the limit of this function is put in a calculator and the answer is 0.

then we have
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 0$$

Similarly, if a function $f(x)$ has a limit L as x tends to a from the left, then L is the left hand limit, denoted by $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ and written as,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \text{ (as } x \rightarrow 0^- \text{ then } L = 0)$$

then we have
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = 0$$

For a function $f(x)$ to have a limit L as $x \rightarrow a$, we need $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$. If this condition is not satisfied, then the limit does not exist. For example, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = M$ and $L \neq M$, then the limit does not exist. For example, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = M$ and $L = M$, then the limit exists and is equal to L .

then
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$$

then
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$$

Limit and limit can be a very difficult concept to understand, but it is a very important concept in calculus.

2.1.3 Various Formulae

Here are some formulae for finding limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \sin^{-1} x &= \sin^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} - \dots \right) \\
 \sin^{-1} x &= \sin^{-1} \left(2 \log_2 2 - \frac{1^2}{2!} (\log_2 2)^2 + \frac{1^4}{3!} (\log_2 2)^4 - \dots \right) \\
 \sin^{-1} x &= \sin^{-1} \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots \right) \\
 \sin x &= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots \\
 \cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots \\
 \tan x &= x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \dots \\
 \log(1+x) &= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad |x| < 1 \\
 \log(1-x) &= -\left(x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots\right) \quad |x| < 1 \\
 \sin^{-1} x &= x + \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{3x^5}{40} + \dots \\
 \sin^{-1} x &= x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots \\
 \sin^{-1} x &= x + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{9} \\
 \log(x+y) &= 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Remember: $\log 1 = 0$; $\log e = 1$; $\log x = x$; $\log 0 = -\infty$

2.1.4 Some Useful Results

$$\begin{aligned}
 1. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} &= 1 & 2. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x &= 1 & 3. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} &= 1 & 4. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + x)^{1/x} &= e \\
 5. \quad \int_0^1 x f(x) dx &= \frac{1}{2} f(0) & 6. \quad \int_0^1 x \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx &= \frac{1}{2} & 7. \quad \int_0^1 x \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.1.5 Indeterminate Forms

A fraction or expression and condition both tend to zero as $x \rightarrow a$ or $x \rightarrow \infty$ or $x \rightarrow 0$ is called an indeterminate form with a value of $0/0$. These are definite values. Other indeterminate forms are ∞/∞ , $0 \times \infty$, $\infty - \infty$, 0^0 , ∞^0 , 0^∞ . Indeterminate form $0/0$ or ∞/∞ forms are not acceptable at first. To find the definite values, we use the L'Hospital's rule.

2.1.5.1 Indeterminate Form $\left(\frac{0}{0} \text{ or } \frac{\infty}{\infty}\right)$

Use L'Hospital's Rule

L'Hospital Rule: If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two functions and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$$

$$\text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty,$$

$$\text{then} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} f(x)}{\frac{d}{dx} g(x)}$$

provided the limits of the RHS exist or $\pm\infty$.

Working Rule: If the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ exists or $\pm\infty$ then find the derivative of the numerator and denominator separately with respect to x and obtain a new fraction. Now as $x \rightarrow a$, it again takes the form $\frac{0}{0}$, or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ or $\frac{-\infty}{\infty}$ or $\frac{\infty}{-\infty}$ or $\frac{-\infty}{-\infty}$. Then can proceed as we did in the above process, and the $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ limit is found and we get the required value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$.

Caution: Before applying L'Hospital's Rule, always check the conditions for $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ to exist or showing it is $\frac{0}{0}$ form or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ form.

2.1.5.2 Indeterminate Form-II ($0 \cdot \infty$)

This form can be easily reduced to the form $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ or $\frac{-\infty}{\infty}$ and then L'Hospital's rule may be applied.

$$\text{Let } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty.$$

Then we can write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{\frac{1}{g(x)}} \right] \text{ or } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{g(x)}{\frac{1}{f(x)}} \right] \text{ as we,$$

now $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{\frac{1}{g(x)}}$ will come in the form $\frac{0}{0}$ or will be in the form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ as required by L'Hospital's rule.

2.1.5.3 Indeterminate Form-III (0^0 or ∞^0 or ∞^∞)

Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ be any one of these conditions

$$\text{then} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)^{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\log f(x)}{\frac{1}{g(x)}}$$

Working on both sides we get

$$\log y = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \log f(x) \cdot g(x)$$

Now $\log y$ at x can have any of the three forms $0 \cdot \infty$ or $\infty \cdot 0$ or $\infty \cdot \infty$ as required by previous cases.

2.2 Continuity

2.2.1 Definition

A function $f(x)$ is called to be continuous at $x = a$ if

- it exists, the value of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ is a finite number and
- the limit of the function $f(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$ exists and is equal to the value of $f(x)$ at $x = a$.

Note: A function $f(x)$ defined on an interval containing a is said to be continuous at $x = a$ if

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

But $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$ if we have $f(a) = f(a) = f(a)$ and $x \rightarrow a$ is the limit of $x = a$.

2.2.2 Continuity from Left and Continuity from Right

Let a function $f(x)$ be defined on an interval $[a, b]$ and $x = a$ be any point in $[a, b]$. We say that a function $f(x)$ is continuous from the left at $x = a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ exists and is equal to $f(a)$. Similarly, $f(x)$ is said to be continuous from the right at $x = a$ if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) \text{ exists and is equal to } f(a)$$

$f(x)$ is continuous from both sides at $x = a$ if it is continuous from the left as well as continuous from right.

2.2.3 Continuity in an Open Interval

A function $f(x)$ is said to be continuous on an interval (a, b) if it is continuous at each point of open interval.

2.2.4 Continuity in a Closed Interval

Let a function $f(x)$ be defined on the closed interval $[a, b]$. $f(x)$ is said to be continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ if it is:

1. continuous from the right at a and
2. continuous from the left at b and
3. continuous at every point in (a, b) .

2.3 Differentiability

Derivative of a function $f(x)$ is defined on an open interval (a, b) in R such that $x_0 \in (a, b)$ for an interval $\delta x \in R$ is said to be differentiable at x_0 if:

$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{f(x_0 + \delta x) - f(x_0)}{\delta x} \right] = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

exists (finite), which is denoted as $f'(x_0)$.

2.3.1 Progressive and Regressive Derivatives

The progressive and regressive derivatives of $f(x)$ at x_0 are given by

$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x_0 + \delta x) - f(x_0)}{\delta x} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(x_0 + \delta x) - f(x_0)}{\delta x}$$

are respectively denoted as $f'_p(x_0)$ and derivative of $f(x)$ at x_0 is given as

$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \delta x) - f(x_0)}{\delta x} \quad \text{is said to be denoted by } f'(x_0) \text{ if } f'_p(x_0) = f'_r(x_0) = f'(x_0)$$

2.3.2 Differentiability in an Open Interval

A function $f(x)$ is said to be differentiable in an open interval (a, b) if it is differentiable at each point of (a, b) .

2.3.3 Differentiability in a Closed Interval

A function f is said to be differentiable in a closed interval $[a, b]$ if it is

- differentiable in (a, b) and $f'(a)$ exists and
- $f'(a)$ is finite and $f'(b)$ exists and
- $f'(a)$ and $f'(b)$ are continuous.

2.3.4 Relationship between Differentiability and Continuity

Theorem: If a function is differentiable along an interval, then necessarily it is also continuous along that interval. In other words, differentiability implies continuity.

Note: The converse of this theorem is false.

i.e. Continuity is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for the existence of a finite derivative (call it $f'(x)$).

i.e. differentiable \Rightarrow continuity

But continuity \nRightarrow differentiable

2.4 Mean Value Theorems

2.4.1 Rolle's Theorem

Let f be a function $f(x)$ such that

- $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$ and $f(a) = f(b)$ and
- $f(x)$ is derivable everywhere in (a, b) then $f'(c) = 0$ and
- $f'(a) = f'(b)$

Here c is a definite real value in (a, b) where $f'(c) = 0$ and $f'(a) = f'(b)$.

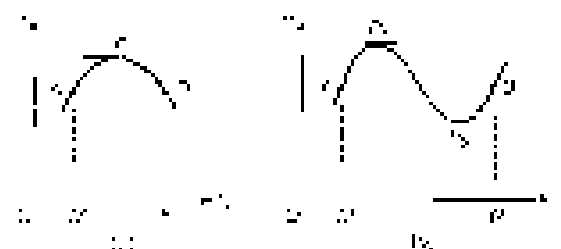
Note: Rolle's theorem will apply only if

- $f(x)$ is a continuous function in the interval $[a, b]$.
- $f(x)$ is derivable everywhere in the interval (a, b) .
- $f(a) = f(b)$.

2.4.2 Geometrical Interpretation

Let a closed interval $[a, b]$ on the x -axis be considered. Let $f(x)$ be a continuous function.

Since $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$, the curve $y = f(x)$ has no jump discontinuities. As $f(a) = f(b)$, the curve starts and ends at the same point $(a, f(a)) = (b, f(b))$. (See Figure (a)).



Then Rolle's theorem asserts, if the AB chord on curve $y = f(x)$ is tangent to the curve at C which is parallel to x -axis, then $f'(c) = 0$ and $f'(a) = f'(b) = 0$ (See figure (a) above).

Their intersection is the line and point where A and B are tangent at which the parallel to AB is shown in Figure 10.10. It is a well-known theorem in geometry that $AB \perp BC$ if and only if $\angle ACB = 90^\circ$. It can be verified that the above condition is equivalent to (a), (b) and (c) as follows.

Remarks:

- The discriminant Δ of any of the three conditions is calculated by the formula
- The converse of Euler's theorem also holds, i.e. if a circle passes through a point, then satisfying all the three conditions is sufficient.

Example 1.

Verify Euler's theorem for the following functions:

- $f(x) = x^2 + x + 8$ in $[1, 2]$,
- $f(x) = 1 + \ln(x) + \sqrt{x}$ in $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = x^2 + 4(1 - 2)^{1/2}$ in $[1, 2]$

Solution:

- Given $f(x) = x^2 + x + 8$ (a)

(i) As $f(x)$ is a polynomial function, it is continuous in $[1, 2]$.

(ii) As being a polynomial function it is derivable in $[1, 2]$.

(iii) $f'(1) = 2 + 1 = 3$, $f'(2) = 4 + 1 = 5$, $f(1) = 9$, $f(2) = 19$, $f(1) + f(2) = 28$.

Thus, all the three conditions of Euler's theorem are satisfied. Therefore, the circle passing through the points $(1, 9)$ and $(2, 19)$ touches the curve $f(x) = x^2 + x + 8$.

Differentiating (i) w.r.t. x we get, $f'(x) = 2x + 1$

$$\text{Now, } f'(c) = 0 \Rightarrow 2c + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow c = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{So, there exists } \frac{1}{f'} \in (-\frac{1}{2}, 2) \text{ such that } \frac{1}{f'(c)} = \frac{1}{28}.$$

Thus, Euler's theorem is verified.

- Given $f(x) = 1 + \ln(x) + \sqrt{x}$ (b)

(i) Since $f(x)$ is a logarithmic function it is continuous in $[1, 2]$.

(ii) As being a polynomial function it is derivable in $[1, 2]$.

(iii) $f'(1) = 1 + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$, $f'(2) = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 2$, $f(1) = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(2) = \frac{5}{2}$.

Thus, all the three conditions of Euler's theorem are satisfied. Therefore, the circle passing through the points $(1, \frac{3}{2})$ and $(2, \frac{5}{2})$ touches the curve $f(x) = 1 + \ln(x) + \sqrt{x}$.

Differentiating (i) w.r.t. x we get

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{2}(2x)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \\ &= \frac{2 + \sqrt{x}}{2\sqrt{x}} = 0 \Rightarrow x = -4 \\ &= \frac{2 + \sqrt{x}}{2\sqrt{x}} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now, } f'(c) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2 + \sqrt{x}}{2\sqrt{x}} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -4$$

So, $c = (-4)$ therefore, $c \in (-4, 2)$

So, there exists $\frac{1}{f'(c)} \in (-4, 2)$ such that $\frac{1}{f'(c)} = \frac{1}{5}$.

Thus, Euler's theorem is verified.

(i) Given $f(x) = (x^2 + 1)(x - 2)$ (1)

(a) $f(x)$ is a polynomial function, it is continuous in $[1, 2]$.

(b) $f(x)$ being a polynomial function is differentiable in $[1, 2]$.

(c) $f(1) = (1 + 1)(1 - 2) = -2$, $f(2) = (4 + 1)(2 - 2) = 0 \Rightarrow f(1) \neq f(2)$

Thus, all the three conditions of Rolle's theorem are satisfied, therefore there exists a real number c in $(1, 2)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.

Differentiating (i) w.r.t. x we get

$$f'(x) = (x^2 + 1)(1 + (x - 2) \cdot 2x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$$

Now $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow 3x^2 - 2x - 1 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{(4) + 4(3)}}{2(3)} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{16}}{6}$$

$$\text{Also } 1 < \frac{2 + \sqrt{16}}{6} = \frac{2 + 4}{6} < 2 \Rightarrow \frac{2}{3} < \frac{2}{6} \text{ and } \frac{2 + \sqrt{16}}{6} \text{ lies in } (1, 2)$$

$$\text{Therefore, we have our } c = \frac{2 + \sqrt{16}}{6} = \frac{2 + 4}{6} = 1 \text{ is not valid}$$

$$\therefore \frac{2 - \sqrt{16}}{6} = 0 \text{ and } \frac{2 + \sqrt{16}}{6} = 1$$

Hence, Rolle's theorem is satisfied.

Example 2,

Verify Rolle's theorem for the following function and the given $[a, b]$ where the derivative vanishes

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x + 5 \sin \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{x}{2} \right) \right]$$

Solution:

(i) Given, $f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x + 5 \sin x$ (1)

(a) $f(x)$ is continuous in $\left[\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2} \right]$

(b) $f(x)$ is differentiable in $\left[\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2} \right]$ and

(c) $f(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 2(\frac{\pi}{2})^2 + 3(\frac{\pi}{2}) + 5 \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = 2 + \frac{3\pi}{2} + 5 = 7 + \frac{3\pi}{2}$

$$f\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) = 2\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^2 + 3\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) + 5 \sin \frac{3\pi}{2} = 9 + \frac{9\pi}{2} - 5 = 4 + \frac{9\pi}{2} = f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Thus, all the three conditions of Rolle's theorem are satisfied, therefore there exists a real and one real

number c in $\left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2} \right)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.

Differentiating (i) w.r.t. x we get

$$f'(x) = 4x + 3 + 5 \cos x$$

Now $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow 4x + 3 + 5 \cos x = 0 \Rightarrow x = -\frac{3 + 5 \cos x}{4}$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{-3 + 5 \cos x}{4} \Rightarrow \frac{4x}{4} = \frac{-3 + 5 \cos x}{4} \Rightarrow 4x = -3 + 5 \cos x \Rightarrow x = \frac{5 \cos x - 3}{4}$$

As the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is singular, $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is the only solution.

∴ the Rank of the coefficient matrix is ≤ 1 .

Example 3.

Find the Rank of the coefficient matrix for the function $f(x, y) = |x - y|$ in $[-\infty, \infty]$.

Solution:

$$\text{Given: } f(x, y) = |x - y| = \begin{cases} x - y & x \geq y \\ y - x & x < y \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{If } x \geq y, \quad f(x) = x - y, \quad x \geq y$$

∴ the condition

(a) $f(x)$ is continuous in $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

(b) Differentiating (1) w.r.t. x gives

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(x - y) = 1$$

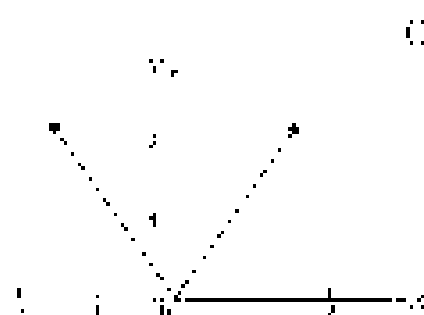
∴ the derivative of $f(x)$ is 1 in $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

∴ $f(x)$ is not differentiable in $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

Thus, the condition (b) of Taylor's theorem is not satisfied, therefore Rank of the coefficient matrix is not applicable to the function $f(x, y) = |x - y|$.

Moreover, if $2x = -y$ and $f(2x) = f(-y) = 3 \Rightarrow f(2x) = 3$, so the condition (c) of Taylor's theorem is not satisfied.

Hence, it is easy to find the graph for the function $f(x, y) = |x - y|$ in $[-\infty, \infty]$, which the graph is plotted in Fig. 2.4.3.



2.4.3 Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem

Let $f(x)$ be a function

1. Continuous over the interval $[a, b]$ and

2. Differentiable in open interval (a, b) i.e. $a < x < b$.

∴ the second condition of the Lagrange's theorem is satisfied then

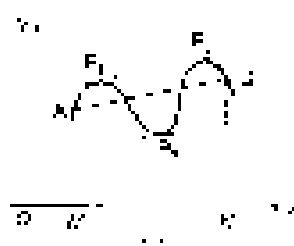
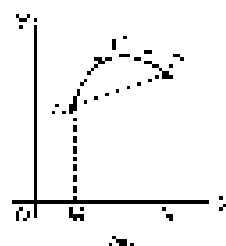
$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

2.4.4 Geometrical Interpretation

Let A, B as the end points of the curve $y = f(x)$ corresponding to the $x = a$ or b as the end points.

Since $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$, the graph of $y = f(x)$ is continuous from A to B . Again, as $f(x)$ is differentiable in (a, b) , the graph of $y = f(x)$ has a tangent at each point between $x = a$ and $x = b$ as shown in Fig. 2.4.4.

∴ as the slope of the tangent at c is $f'(c)$ and the slope of the secant is $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.



For Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem, assume that there is a function satisfying $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ for $a < c < b$. If we differentiate $f(x)$ w.r.t. x in the interval (a, b) , we get $f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$. Hence, the unique value of x is c such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$, as shown in the figure. Lagrange's mean value theorem is also known as

of absolute value theorem or (c) show that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.

Remarks:

1. Example: A car starts from rest and travels for 10 seconds with a constant acceleration of 10 m/s^2 . How far does it travel?
2. The converse of Lagrange's mean value theorem is not true. For example, consider $f(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ as a function of x . It is not a constant and hence, the converse of Lagrange's mean value theorem is not true.

Example 1:

Verify Lagrange's mean value theorem for the following (i) $f(x)$ is the given function and (ii) find the value of c .

(i) $f(x) = x^2 + 2x - 3$ on $[1, 3]$

(ii) $f(x) = \ln x^2$ on $[1, 2]$ where $x \in (1, 2)$

Solution:

(i) Given $f(x) = x^2 + 2x - 3$

(i) $f(x)$ being a polynomial function is continuous on $[1, 3]$

∴ (i)

(ii) $f(x)$ being a polynomial function is differentiable on $[1, 3]$

Thus, both the conditions of Lagrange's mean value theorem are satisfied. The mean value exists and is unique. ∴ $f(x)$ is in $[1, 3]$. So, let's find:

$$f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

$$f'(x) = 2x + 2 = 2(6) + 2 = 14, \quad f'(x) = 2x + 2 = 14$$

Differentiating $f(x)$ w.r.t. x we get

$$f'(x) = 2x + 2 \Rightarrow f'(x) = 2x + 2$$

$$\therefore \quad f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = 14 + 2 = \frac{f(3) - f(1)}{3 - 1} = \frac{f(3) - f(1)}{2} = 14 + 2 = 16$$

$$\therefore \quad 2x + 2 = 16 \Rightarrow x = 7$$

Thus, there exists $c = 7$ in $(1, 3)$ such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.

Verify Lagrange's mean value theorem for the function $f(x) = 5$

(i) Given $f(x) = x^2 + 2x - 3$ on $[1, 3]$

(i) $f(x)$ being a polynomial function is continuous on $[1, 3]$

(ii) $f(x)$ being a polynomial function is differentiable on $[1, 3]$

Thus, both the conditions of Lagrange's mean value theorem are satisfied. ∴ $f(x)$ is in $[1, 3]$. So, let's find:

$$\therefore \quad f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

$$f'(x) = 2x + 2 = 2(6) + 2 = 14, \quad f'(x) = 2x + 2 = 14$$

Differentiating $f(x)$ w.r.t. x we get

$$f'(x) = 2x + 2 \Rightarrow f'(x) = 2x + 2$$

$$\therefore \quad f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = 14 + 2 = 16$$

Solution:

Given $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ for $x \in [1, 4]$ (1)

(a) $f(x)$ is continuous in $[1, 4]$.

(b) Differentiating (1) with respect to x ,

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^{-2/3} = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}}x \neq 0$$
 (2)

\Rightarrow The derivative of (1) does not exist at $x = 0$.

\Rightarrow (a) and (b) are not satisfied.

Thus, the condition (i) of Lagrange's mean value theorem is not satisfied by the function $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ for $x \in [1, 4]$ and hence Lagrange's mean value theorem is not applicable to the given function $f(x) = x^{1/3}$.
 Here, we see Lagrange's mean value theorem is not applicable with the given function $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ for $x \in [1, 4]$.

Conclusion: i.e., $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} \neq 0$

Also, $f'(x) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} \neq 0$ for $x \in [1, 4] \Rightarrow f'(x) \neq 0$ for $x \in [1, 4]$.

$$\therefore f'(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} = \frac{x^{1/3} - 1}{x - 1} = \frac{2}{2^3} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} = \frac{1}{1} = \sqrt[3]{x^2} = \frac{1}{27} \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{27}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{27} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} = \frac{1}{1} \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{27} \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x) = 1$$

Thus, we find, at the given point $x = \frac{1}{27}$ for $x \in [1, 4]$ we get $f'(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$.

It is clear that the converse of Lagrange's mean value theorem was not true.

24.3 Some applications of Lagrange's Mean Value theorem

- (1) $f(x)$ is like $g(x)$;
- (2) continuous in $[a, b]$;
- (3) differentiable in (a, b) ;
- (4) $f'(x) > 0$ or $f'(x) < 0$ then $f(x)$ is strictly increasing (or) decreasing in $[a, b]$.

Proof: Let $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$ such that $x_1 < x_2$ or $x_2 < x_1$ then $f(x)$ should satisfy condition of Lagrange's mean value theorem in (x_1, x_2) i.e., $f'(x) > 0$ or $f'(x) < 0$ then we can obtain the following result.

$$f'(x) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_2 - x_1)f'(x) = f(x_2) - f(x_1)$$

$$\text{But } f'(x) > 0 \text{ for } x \in (a, b) \Rightarrow f(x) > 0 \text{ at all } x \in (a, b). \text{ And } x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow x_2 - x_1 > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_2 - x_1)f'(x) > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_2) > f(x_1) \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \text{ such that } x_1 < x_2 \in (a, b)$$

Hence $f(x)$ is strictly increasing in $[a, b]$.

3. If f has an n th derivative,
 - (a) f is continuous in a, b
 - (b) f is differentiable
 - (c) f' is differentiable and f'' is a $(n-1)$ th order continuous function in a, b
 - (d) f' is continuous and f'' is a $(n-2)$ th order continuous function in a, b

2.4.6 Some Important Deductions from Mean Value Theorems

1. If f and g are such that $f(x)$ is non-decreasing and $g(x)$ is non-increasing, then $f(x)g(x)$ is non-increasing in a, b and $f(x)g(x)$ is non-decreasing in a, b .
2. If f and g are two functions such that $f(x) = \phi(x)$ throughout the interval a, b then $f'(x) = \phi'(x)$ throughout the interval a, b .
3. If $f(x) > 0$
 - (a) f is increasing in a, b
 - (b) f is decreasing in a, b
 - (c) f is increasing in a, b
 - (d) f is decreasing in a, b
4. If $f(x) > 0$ and $f'(x) > 0$ then f is strictly increasing function in the closed interval a, b and if $f'(x) < 0$ then f is strictly decreasing function in the closed interval a, b .

2.4.7 Some Standard Results on Continuity and Differentiability of Commonly used Functions

If f and g are continuous in the following cases regarding commonly used functions, then f and g are continuous in a, b and f and g are differentiable in a, b .

1. $f(x) = x^n$ is continuous and differentiable everywhere ($f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$).
2. Any polynomial function is continuous and differentiable everywhere.
3. The exponential function $f(x) = e^x$ and $f(x) = e^{-x}$ as well as $\log x$ and $\log a/x$ are continuous and differentiable everywhere.
4. $f(x) = \sin x$ is a periodic function and $f(x) = \cos x$ is a periodic function and both are continuous and differentiable everywhere.
5. $f(x) = \sinh x$ and $f(x) = \cosh x$ are continuous and differentiable everywhere.
6. $f(x) = \tanh x$ is continuous and differentiable everywhere.
7. $f(x) = \coth x$ is continuous and differentiable everywhere.
8. If f and g are continuous functions in a, b and f and g are differentiable in a, b then $f(x)g(x)$ is continuous and differentiable in a, b .

2.5 Computing the Derivative

Rules of Differentiation:

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f'(x) \quad \text{(Sum rule)}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f'(x) \quad \text{(Difference rule)}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f'(x) \quad \text{(Product rule)}$$

$$\left(\frac{f}{g} \right)' = \frac{f'g - fg'}{g^2} \quad \text{(Quotient rule)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) \quad \text{(Chain rule)}$$

Using the above rules, we can differentiate with respect to x any function $f(x)$.

The following table shows some of the derivatives of common functions.

$\frac{d}{dx}$	$\frac{d}{dx}$
$\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$	$\frac{d}{dx} x^{-1} = -x^{-2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$
$\frac{d}{dx} \log_e x = \frac{1}{x}$	$\frac{d}{dx} \log_e x^n = \frac{1}{x}$
$\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x \log_e e$	$\frac{d}{dx} \log_e e^x = \frac{1}{e^x} \cdot e^x = 1$
$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$

$\frac{d}{dx}$	$\frac{d}{dx}$
$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$
$\frac{d}{dx} \csc x = -\csc x \cot x$	$\frac{d}{dx} \cot x = -\csc^2 x$

Worked examples illustrate the results obtained by using these shortcuts with the purpose of illustrating how they are applied. In some cases, we have given a more advanced example of the application of the rules.

1. Differentiation by substitution
2. Implicit differentiation
3. Logarithmic differentiation
4. Parametric differentiation

2.5.1 Differentiation by Substitution

There are many problems in the various chapters of this book that can be solved by using the technique of substitution. In this section, we shall consider the technique of substitution in the following cases:

- I. Let $y = f(x)$ be a function of x and let $u = g(x)$ be a function of x such that $y = f(g(x))$. Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.
- II. Let $y = f(u)$ be a function of u and let $u = g(x)$ be a function of x such that $y = f(g(x))$. Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.
- III. Let $y = f(u)$ be a function of u and let $u = g(x)$ be a function of x such that $y = f(g(x))$. Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.
- IV. Let $y = f(u)$ be a function of u and let $u = g(x)$ be a function of x such that $y = f(g(x))$. Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.
- V. Let $y = f(u)$ be a function of u and let $u = g(x)$ be a function of x such that $y = f(g(x))$. Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.

Example:

Find the derivative of the following functions by using the technique of substitution.

$$(i) y = \sin \left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2} \right)$$

$$(ii) y = \cos \left(\frac{x^2-1}{x} \right)$$

$$(iii) y = \tan \left(\frac{x-x^2}{x+x^2} \right)$$

$$(iv) y = \sec \left(\frac{x^2+1}{x} \right)$$

Solution:

$$(i) \text{ Let } u = \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$$

$$\therefore y = \sin \left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2} \right) \text{ Let } u = \frac{2x}{1+x^2} \text{ then } y = \sin u$$

Then $y = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{2 \tan \theta}{1 + \tan^2 \theta} \right)$ as $\sin^{-1}(\sin 2\theta) = 2\theta$
 $2 \tan \theta$ is differentiated w.r.t. x we get

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{4}{x^2}} = \frac{x}{x^2 - 4}$$

(ii) Let $y = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x^2 + 2}{x^2 + 4} \right)$ as $\cos^{-1} 1 = 0$ i.e. $0 = \tan^{-1} 0$

Then $y = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x^2 + 2 \cos^2 \theta}{x^2 + 4} \right)$

$$= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\cos 2\theta + 1}{2} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2 \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} + 1}{2} \right)$$

$$= \cos^{-1} \left(\cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2(1 - \frac{4}{x^2})}$$

(iii) Let $y = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x - \frac{1}{x}}{x + \frac{1}{x}} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1} \right)$

Let $x = \tan \theta$ i.e. $\theta = \tan^{-1} x$

Then $y = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\tan^2 \theta - 1}{1 + \tan^2 \theta} \right)$
 $= \cos^{-1} (\cos 2\theta) = \cos^{-1} (\cos (\pi - 2\theta))$
 $= \pi - 2\theta = \pi - 2 \tan^{-1} x$ Differentiating w.r.t. x we get

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2 - 2 \times \frac{1}{1 + x^2} = \frac{2}{x^2}$$

(iv) Let $y = \tan^{-1} (x^2 - x^3 + x^4)$

Let $x = \tan \theta$ i.e. $\theta = \tan^{-1} x$

Then $y = \tan^{-1} (x^2 - x^3 + x^4)$
 $= \tan^{-1} (\tan^2 \theta - \tan^3 \theta + \tan^4 \theta)$
 $= \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} - \frac{\sin^3 \theta}{\cos^3 \theta} + \frac{\sin^4 \theta}{\cos^4 \theta} \right)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1 + \sec \theta}{\sec \theta} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\frac{1 + \sec \theta}{\frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2}}}{\frac{\sec \frac{\theta}{2}}{\frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2}}} \right) = \tan^{-1} \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2} \right) \\
 &= \tan^{-1} \left(\tan \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2} \right) \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2} \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sec^{-1} x. \text{ Differentiating w.r.t. } x \text{ we get} \\
 \frac{dy}{dx} &= 0 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{1+x^2} \right) = \frac{1}{2(1+x^2)}
 \end{aligned}$$

2.5.2 Implicit Differentiation

A function is said to be defined implicitly if it is not in the form

$$y = f(x) = f(x^2) = f(x^3) = f(\sqrt{x}) \text{ etc.} \quad (1)$$

It is said to be defined explicitly in terms of x and we write $y = f(x)$ where

$$f(x) = f(x^2) = f(x^3) = f(\sqrt{x}) \text{ etc.}$$

However, if a function is not explicitly in the form

$$x^2 y^2 + 8x^2 y^2 + 7y = 8x^2 + 3 = 0 \quad (2)$$

then $y = f(x)$ can't be expressed explicitly in terms of x . But still the value of y depends upon the value of x and hence we can find an implicit function $y = f(x)$ satisfying equation (2) or there may be two or more than two such satisfying solutions (3).

For example, let us consider equation

$$x^2 + y^2 - 25 = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{and } x^2 + y^2 - 25 = 0 \quad (5)$$

In equation (4), y may be expressed explicitly in terms of x by $y = \pm \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and in this case we have two functions $y = f_1(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and $y = f_2(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$ which are called f_1 and f_2 defined as $y(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$ and $f_2(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$ which satisfy equation (4).

In equation (5), there are no real solutions that satisfy it.

In general, if a function, or say that is an implicit function, is not an explicit function or is not an algebraic function or is not a function (with regard to the derivative) with respect to x by the process called implicit differentiation. On the other hand, an implicit function or equation has a derivative with respect to x and the function is called an implicit function or a function of x and y and is denoted by the function $f(x, y)$.

Example 1:

Find $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$ where $x^2 + 2y = 0$ and $x = 10$.

Solution:

Given, $x^2 + 2y = 0$ (1)

Keeping in mind that y is a function of x , differentiating both sides w.r.t. x we get

$$2x + 2 \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \right) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = -x$$

$$\Rightarrow (x - y) \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = -2x - y$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{2x + y}{x - y}$$

Example 2.

If $x^{\lambda y} + y^{\lambda x} = e^{\lambda x}$ find $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$

Solution:

Given, $x^{\lambda y} + y^{\lambda x} = e^{\lambda x}$ (1)

Differentiating both sides of (1) w.r.t. y (treating x as a function of y), we get,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} x^{\lambda y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} y^{\lambda x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} e^{\lambda x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^{\lambda y}} \times \lambda y \times x^{\lambda y} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{x^{\lambda y}}{x^{\lambda y}} = \frac{e^{\lambda x}}{x^{\lambda y}}$$

Example 3.

If $\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} y = \pi$, find $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$

Solution:

Given, $\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} y = \pi$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x (treating y as a function of x), we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \sin^{-1} x + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cos^{-1} y = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \times 1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \times \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \times \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{-\sqrt{1-y^2}}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

Example 4.

If $y = \sqrt[3]{\cos x + 1} \sqrt[3]{x+1} = \sqrt[3]{(\cos x + 1)(x+1)}$, then $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} =$?

Solution:

Given, $y = \sqrt[3]{(\cos x + 1)(x+1)}$

$\Rightarrow y^3 = (\cos x + 1)(x+1)$

$\Rightarrow y^3 - y = \cos x + 1$

Differentiating w.r.t. x , we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} y^3 - \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = -\sin x + 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3y^2 \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = -\sin x$$

2.5.3 Logarithmic Differentiation

It is difficult to differentiate a function of several variables, especially logarithmic function. Therefore, we use a special method logarithmic differentiation. This is useful for the following types of function y .

1. When the given function is product of some functions, then the logarithm converts the product into a sum and this utilizes the differentiation.
2. When there is function of x in exponent, then the given function is in the form $f(x)^{g(x)}$.

For example, if y was given as a function of x in the form

For $y = x^x$, taking logarithm in both sides, we get

or $y = x^x$ and differentiating with x , we get

$$\frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(x^x \log x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = y \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^x \log x) = x^x \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^x \log x)$$

Example 1.

Differentiate the following function w.r.t. x

$$y = x^x$$

$$(x > 0, x \neq 1)$$

Solution:

$$(a) \text{ Let, } y = x^x$$

Taking log on both sides, we get

$$\log y = x \log x$$

Differentiating with x , we get

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = y(1 + \log x) = x^x(1 + \log x)$$

$$(b) \text{ Let } y = \sin(x^x) \text{, differentiating w.r.t. } x, \text{ we get}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x^x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^x)$$

Now $\frac{d}{dx}(x^x)$ is the expression of x^x already in part (a).

$$\text{So, } \frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(x^x) \cdot x^x(1 + \log x)$$

Example 2.

$$\text{Let } y = e^{x^x}, \text{ then } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y^2 x}{x + \log x}$$

Solution:

$$\text{Given } y = e^{x^x} \text{ taking log on both sides, we get}$$

$$\log y = \log(e^{x^x}) \Rightarrow \log y = x^x \log e \Rightarrow \log y = x^x$$

$$\Rightarrow y + \log y = x$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 + \log x) y = x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} = \frac{1}{-\log y} \text{ Differentiating with respect to } y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1 + (\log y)^{-1} \times (-1/y)}{(-\log y)^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{y} - \frac{\log y}{y}}{(\log y)^2} = \frac{1 - \log y}{y(\log y)^2}$$

2.5.4 Derivatives of Functions in Parametric Forms

If any given two curves such that both x and y are defined as a function of a third variable (say t), i.e., $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$ then these functions are called parametric functions and the third variable is called the parameter.

In order to find the derivatives of functions in parametric form, we use the formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} \\ \text{or} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} \quad \left[\text{provided } \frac{dx}{dt} \neq 0 \right] \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.

$$t = \sin \theta \text{ and } y = \sin 2\theta \text{ find } \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ at } \theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

Solution:

$$\text{Given } x = \sin \theta \text{ and } y = \sin 2\theta \text{ when } \theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

Differentiating both with respect to θ ,

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = \cos \theta$$

and

$$\frac{dy}{d\theta} = 2 \cos \theta = 2 \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{6} \right) = 2 \cos 30^\circ$$

We are to find

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{d\theta}}{\frac{dx}{d\theta}}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2 \cos \theta}{\cos \theta} = \frac{2 \cos \frac{\pi}{6} \cos 30^\circ}{\cos 30^\circ} = 2 \cos 30^\circ$$

$$\therefore \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}} = 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{6} = 1$$

Example 2.

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{t^2}{1+t^2} \text{ and } y = t^2$$

Solution:

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{t^2}{1+t^2} \text{ and } y = t^2 \text{ so that } \frac{dy}{dt} \text{ is found.}$$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x we get

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(1-x^2) \cdot 6x^2 - x^3 \cdot 2x}{(1-x^2)^2} = \frac{6x^2}{(1-x^2)^2}$$

and $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ if

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x^2}{(1-x^2)^2}$$

Work now on

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x^2}{(1-x^2)^2} \times \frac{1}{6x^2} = \frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2} > 0$$

2.6 Applications of Derivatives

There are two main ways to doing these questions:

1. Increase (decrease) and/or turning points
2. Max/min problems
 - (a) Relative maximum/minimum
 - (b) Applied maximum/minimum
3. Taylor's and Maclaurin Series Expansion Functions
4. Series reformulation of $f(x)$

2.6.1 Increasing and Decreasing Functions

Let f be a real-valued function defined on an interval I of the real line. Let a and b be any two points in I such that $a < b$.

and

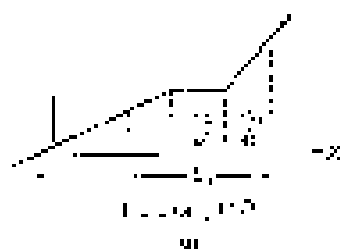
$$f(a) < f(b) \Rightarrow f \text{ is strictly increasing on } I$$

and f is called a strictly increasing function (a monotonically increasing function) in I if

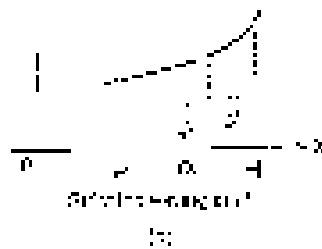
and

$$f(a) \leq f(b) \Rightarrow f \text{ is non-decreasing on } I$$

(i)



(ii)



Let f be any function and $a < b$ be any two points in an interval I , a subset of \mathbb{R} .

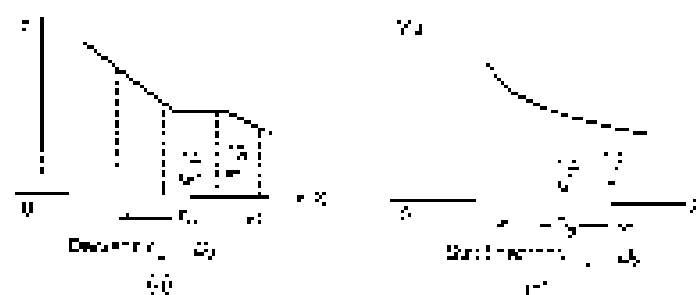
(i) if

$$f(a) < f(b) \Rightarrow f \text{ is strictly increasing on } I$$

and f is called a strictly decreasing function (a monotonically decreasing function) in I if

and

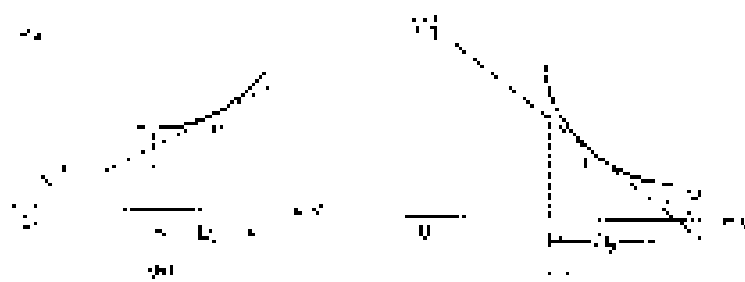
$$f(a) \geq f(b) \Rightarrow f \text{ is non-increasing on } I$$



2.6.1.1 Conditions for an Increasing or a Decreasing Function

How do we know how to use derivative of a function to determine where it is increasing and where it is decreasing?

We know that the derivative (if it exists) at a point on a curve represents the slope of the tangent to the curve at that point.



Mathematically, we observe that if the slope (representing the first derivative) of $f(x)$ is positive (larger) in the sub-interval (a, b) of $[a, b]$ and then an acute angle with the positive direction of x -axis, then the function $y=f(x)$ is increasing on $[a, b]$.

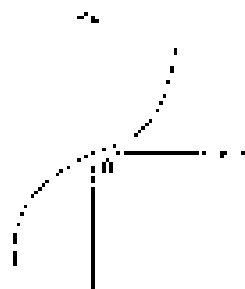
Analogously, the slope (that is, we see that the slope (representing the first derivative) of $f(x)$ is negative (smaller) in the sub-interval (a, b) of $[a, b]$ and then an obtuse angle with the positive direction of x -axis, then the function $y=f(x)$ is decreasing on $[a, b]$.

2.6.1.1.1 Example: Consider the function $f(x) = x^2$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

A portion of the graph is shown in figure 2.6.1.3 as a strictly increasing function. Here $f'(x) = 2x$ and $a = 0$, $b = 1$. At the point a , the tangent of $y = f(x)$ is not shown in figure.

Then, we have:

1. A function $f(x)$ (increasing) in (a, b) (subset of $[a, b]$) then $f'(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.
2. A function $f(x)$ (decreasing) in (a, b) (subset of $[a, b]$) then $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.



Conversely, a function $f(x)$ is called strictly decreasing when its rate of change (i.e., value of a positive and decreasing, when its rate of change is negative). We shall discuss this in next section.

Theorem 1: If a function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then it is strictly increasing if:

1. If the derivative $f'(x) > 0$ then the function $f(x)$ is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$.
2. If $f'(x) < 0$ and $x \in (a, b)$, then the function $f(x)$ is strictly decreasing on $[a, b]$.

Theorem 2: If a function f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a) < f(b)$ then

- (i) $f(x) < f(b)$ at all x in $[a, b]$ then f is strictly increasing on $[a, b]$
- (ii) $f(x) > f(a)$ at all x in $[a, b]$ then f is strictly decreasing on $[a, b]$

Remark: The form $f(a) < f(b)$ or $f(a) > f(b)$ is a special case for Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem.

Corollary: If a function f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a) = f(b)$ then

- (i) $f(x)$ is constant on $[a, b]$ except for an at most finite number of points where $f'(x) = 0$. The hypothesis is not satisfied in $[a, b]$.
- (ii) $f(x)$ is constant on $[a, b]$ except for an at most finite number of points where $f'(x) = 0$. The hypothesis is not satisfied in $[a, b]$.

Example 1:

Prove that the function $f(x) = 2x + 1$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} .

Solution:

Given $f(x) = 2x + 1$, $f(a) = 2a + 1$, $f(b) = 2b + 1$

Since f is continuous on \mathbb{R} , therefore for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Therefore, the given function $f(x)$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} .

Since the given function is strictly increasing, $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Is $f'(x) > 0$ given in our case? This gives $f'(x) = 2 > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Example 2:

Prove that the function e^x is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} .

Solution:

Let $f(x) = e^x$, $f(a) = e^a$, $f(b) = e^b$

$f(x)$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} if $f'(x) > 0$

$$f'(x) = e^x > 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$\Rightarrow f(x)$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R}

Example 3:

Prove that $\frac{2}{x} + 3$ is a strictly decreasing function.

Solution:

Let $f(x) = \frac{2}{x} + 3$, $f(a) = \frac{2}{a} + 3$, $f(b) = \frac{2}{b} + 3$

$$f'(x) = -\frac{2}{x^2} < 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (except } x = 0 \text{)}$$

$\Rightarrow f(x)$ is strictly decreasing on \mathbb{R} (except $x = 0$)

$f'(x) < 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ (except $x = 0$)

\Rightarrow the given function is strictly decreasing

Example 4:

Prove that $f(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x - 5$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} .

Solution:

Given $f(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x - 5$, $f(a) = 3a^3 - 15a^2 + 18a - 5$

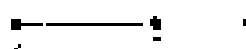
Let $f(x) = 3x^3 - 15x^2 + 18x - 5$, $f(b) = 3b^3 - 15b^2 + 18b - 5$

$$f'(x) = 9x^2 - 30x + 18 = 9(x^2 - 3x + 2) = 9(x-1)(x-2)$$

$\Rightarrow f'(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow f(x)$ is strictly increasing function on \mathbb{R}

Using the first derivative test, find the local extrema of the following function.



In the above graph, identify the test number in the two regions with $f'(x) > 0$ and $f'(x) < 0$.
 i.e. $(-2, 0)$ and $(0, 2)$.

Now we find $f'(0) = 3(0)^2 - 2(0) = 0$ which is positive and $f'(x)$ is negative in $(-2, 2)$ which is $f'(x) < 0$. Therefore it is strictly increasing.

Therefore the test region $(-2, 0)$ and $(0, 2)$ the function is strictly decreasing and in the test region $(-2, 0)$, the function is strictly increasing. This is shown in the following diagram with $f'(x) > 0$ in the region of increasing and $f'(x) < 0$ in the region of decreasing.



In the test region $(-2, 0)$ the function is strictly increasing and in the region $(0, 2)$ the function is strictly decreasing. $x = 0$ is the local maximum.

(c) Given $f(x) = -x^3 + 3x^2 - 5x + 1$, $f'(x) = 0$

Differentiating with x we get,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= -3x^2 + 6x - 5 = 0 \\ &= 3x^2 - 6x + 5 = 0 \\ &= 3x^2 - 2(3x) + 5 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Putting $f'(x) = 0$ i.e. $-3x^2 + 6x - 5 = 0$

$\Rightarrow 3x^2 - 6x + 5 = 0$

$\Rightarrow x = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{36 - 60}}{6} = \frac{6 \pm \sqrt{-24}}{6}$ is the critical point.

Using the second derivative test, find the nature of the following point.



In the critical point, since $f''(x)$ is not zero, the test is not applied when $x = -1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{24}}{6}$ or $x = -1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}$ and $f''(x) = -6x + 6$.

(a) $x = -1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}$ and $x = -1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}$.

Now we find $f''(-1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}) = -6(-1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}) + 6 = 12 - 2\sqrt{6}$ which is positive and $f''(-1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}) = 12 + 2\sqrt{6}$ which is negative and $f''(x) < 0$ which is strictly increasing.

The function is strictly increasing in the interval $(-1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, -1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3})$ the function is strictly decreasing and in the interval $(-1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, -1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3})$ the function is strictly increasing. This is shown in the following diagram with $f''(x) > 0$ in the region of increasing and $f''(x) < 0$ in the region of decreasing.



In the interval $(-1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, -1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3})$ the function is strictly increasing and in the region $(-1 + \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, -1 - \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3})$ the function is strictly decreasing. $x = -1$ is the local maximum.

2.6.2 Relative or Local Maxima and Minima (of function of a single independent variable)

Definition: A function $f(x)$ is said to be a local relative maximum at $x = c$ if there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $f(c) \geq f(x)$ for all values of x in the interval $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

A function $f(x)$ is said to be a local relative minimum at $x = c$ if there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $f(c) \leq f(x)$ for all values of x in the interval $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

Maximum & Minimum values of a function along the whole closed interval are a term of values and the end values of the interval are called as local maxima and minima.

Maximum value of a function is called as extreme value. Also turning points.

2.6.21 Properties of Relative Maxima and Minima

1. A function has a minimum or maximum at a point where the second derivative is positive or negative.
2. Maximum and minimum values must also be locally.
3. The end points of a closed interval will have a local maximum.
4. A function $y = f(x)$ has a minimum at $x = a$, if $f(x)$ has a higher value than $f(a)$ for x near a .
5. A function $y = f(x)$ has a maximum at $x = a$, if $f(x)$ has a lower value than $f(a)$ for x near a .
6. If the second derivative is zero at a point where a function has a local maximum or minimum, then $f''(x) = 0$.

2.6.22 Conditions for Maximum or Minimum Values

A necessary condition that a function has a maximum or minimum at $x = a$ is that $f'(a) = 0$.

2.6.23 Definition of Stationary Values

A function $f(x)$ is said to be stationary at $x = a$ if $f'(a) = 0$.

For a function $f(x)$ to have a minimum or maximum at $x = a$ it must be stationary at $x = a$.

2.6.24 Sufficient Conditions of Maximum or Minimum Values

There is a minimum at $f'(a) = 0$ if $f''(a) > 0$ and $f'(a)$ is negative.

Similarly, there is a maximum at $f'(a) = 0$ if $f''(a) < 0$ and $f'(a)$ is positive.

Note: If $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) = 0$, then we say $x = a$ is a point of inflection. A minimum or maximum of $f(x)$ is not a local one if $f'(a) = 0$. In such a case, it is required that $f'(x)$ be positive or negative for $x < a$ and $f'(x)$ be negative or positive for $x > a$.

For a local minimum $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) > 0$ and for a local maximum $f'(a) = 0$ and $f''(a) < 0$. If $f''(a) = 0$, then $f'(x)$ must be positive or negative for $x < a$ and $f'(x)$ must be negative or positive for $x > a$.

2.6.25 Working rule for Maxima and Minima of $f(x)$

1. Find the stationary points.
2. Solve the working equation for x . It leads to $dy/dx = 0$. Then $f(x)$ is stationary at $x = a$.
 $f''(a) > 0$ then $f(x)$ has a minimum at $x = a$.
 $f''(a) < 0$ then $f(x)$ has a maximum at $x = a$.
3. Find $f'(x)$ and substitute in the working equation $f''(a) = 0$.
 If $f''(a) > 0$ then $f(x)$ has a minimum at $x = a$.
 If $f''(a) < 0$ then $f(x)$ has a maximum at $x = a$.
4. If $f''(a) = 0$, find $f'''(a)$ and $f''(a) = 0$.
 If $f'''(a) > 0$ then $f(x)$ has a minimum at $x = a$.
 If $f'''(a) < 0$ then $f(x)$ has a maximum at $x = a$.
 If $f'''(a) = 0$, then $f(x)$ has a point of inflection at $x = a$.
 If $f'''(a) = 0$, then $f(x)$ has a point of inflection at $x = a$.
 If $f'''(a) = 0$, then $f(x)$ has a point of inflection at $x = a$.

2.6.3 Working Rules for Finding (Absolute) Maximum and Minimum in Range $[a, b]$

If a function $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$ and $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$, then the (absolute) maximum and minimum values of $f(x)$ are given by the following rules:

1. Evaluate $f(x)$ at the end points $x = a$ and $x = b$.
2. Evaluate $f(x)$ at the stationary points $x = a$ and $x = b$.
3. Find the value of $f(x)$.

Then the maximum and minimum values should be found at the endpoints, and the interior relative extrema. The absolute maximum of the given function is

Example 1.

Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of

(a) $f(x) = 2x^3 - 9x^2 + 12x - 3$ on $[0, 3]$

(b) $f(x) = 12x^{3/4} - 8x^{1/4}$ on $[-1, 1]$

Also find points of inflection on 90° and 30° arc.

Solution:

(a) Given $f(x) = 2x^3 - 9x^2 + 12x - 3$ on $[0, 3]$

It is a continuous function on $[0, 3]$, thus it is a closed interval.

Therefore, it will have a local

$$f'(x) = 2 \cdot 3x^2 - 9 \cdot 2x + 12 = 6x^2 - 18x + 12$$

Now $f''(x) = 12x - 18$

$f''(x) = 0 \Rightarrow 12x - 18 = 0$

$\Rightarrow 12x = 18 \Rightarrow x = \frac{3}{2}$

$\Rightarrow x = \frac{3}{2}$ is a local maximum.

$\Rightarrow x = \frac{3}{2}$ is a local maximum.

At $x = 0$ and $x = 3$, the values are 0 and 3 respectively. Therefore, the

At $x = 0$, $f(0) = 2 \cdot 0^3 - 9 \cdot 0^2 + 12 \cdot 0 - 3 = -3$ and at $x = 3$, $f(3) = 2 \cdot 3^3 - 9 \cdot 3^2 + 12 \cdot 3 - 3 = 3$

At $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 2 \cdot (\frac{3}{2})^3 - 9 \cdot (\frac{3}{2})^2 + 12 \cdot \frac{3}{2} - 3 = 0$ and at $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 0$

At $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 0$

At $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 0$ and at $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 0$ and at $x = \frac{3}{2}$, $f(\frac{3}{2}) = 0$

The absolute maximum value is 3 and the absolute minimum value is -3. The interval of maximum is 3 and the period of maximum is 0.

(b) Given, $f(x) = 12x^{3/4} - 8x^{1/4}$ on $[-1, 1]$

Therefore, it will have a local

$$f'(x) = 12 \cdot \frac{3}{4} x^{-1/4} - 8 \cdot \frac{1}{4} x^{-3/4} = 9x^{-1/4} - 2x^{-3/4} = \frac{9x^{3/4} - 2x^{1/4}}{x^{1/4}}$$

Now $f''(x) = 0$

$$\frac{9x^{3/4} - 2x^{1/4}}{x^{1/4}} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow 9x^{3/4} - 2x^{1/4} = 0$

$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{8}$

At $x = \frac{1}{8}$, $f(\frac{1}{8}) = 12 \cdot (\frac{1}{8})^{3/4} - 8 \cdot (\frac{1}{8})^{1/4} = 0$ and at $x = \frac{1}{8}$, $f(\frac{1}{8}) = 0$

At $x = \frac{1}{8}$, $f(\frac{1}{8}) = 0$ and at $x = \frac{1}{8}$, $f(\frac{1}{8}) = 0$ and at $x = \frac{1}{8}$, $f(\frac{1}{8}) = 0$

$$f'(x) = 9x^{-1/4} - 2x^{-3/4} = 9x^{3/4} - 2x^{1/4} = 12x^{1/4} - 8x^{1/4} = 4x^{1/4}$$

$$= 4x^{1/4} - 8x^{1/4} = -4x^{1/4} = -4x^{1/4}$$

$$f''(x) = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4}$$

$$f''(x) = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4}$$

$$f''(x) = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4} = -4x^{-3/4}$$

Therefore, the absolute maximum value is 13 and the absolute minimum value is $-\frac{5}{2}$. The point of

$$\text{maximum is } \text{when } p(x) \text{ is } 1 \text{ or } x = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example 3.

A given function $y = f(x)$ is such that $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 12x + 8$ starts its maximum value when x lies between 2 and 4. Find the value of $f(x)$.

Solution:

$$\text{Let } f'(x) = 3x^2 - 12x + 8 \quad (1)$$

is differentiated to get $f''(x) = 6x - 12$.

And setting $f''(x) = 0$ we get

$$6x - 12 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 6x = 12 \Rightarrow x = 2 \text{ or } x = 4$$

Since maxima is $\frac{1}{2}$ in between of maximum value lies between 2 and 4 so actual maxima

$$\Rightarrow x = 2 \text{ or } x = 4 \text{ will be } f(2) \text{ or } f(4)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(2) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(4) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2 \text{ or } x = 4$$

2.6.4 Taylor's and Maclaurin's Series Expansion of Functions

2.6.4.1 Taylor's Series

Let $f(x)$ and its derivatives $f'(x)$ etc. values be continuous in $[a, b]$, $b > a$, and $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists for every value of x in $[a, b]$, $a < x < b$, then we get exact expansion under $f(x)$ as $f(x) =$

$$f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_n \quad (2)$$

with R_n is called remainder term and $f^{(n)}(a)$ is called n th derivative of the remainder R_n being $\frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}$ for $x \in [a, b]$.

$$\text{Consider the function } f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

where R_n is denoted as

$$f(x) - f(a) = f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n \quad (3)$$

1. $f(x) = f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(n)}(a)$ are continuous in $[a, b]$, $b > a$, $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists for every value of x in $[a, b]$.

$$2. \text{ And satisfies } \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{(n+1)!} = f^{(n+1)}(a) = 0$$

$$3. \text{ And } f(x) = f(a) = f'(a) = \dots = f^{(n)}(a)$$

By using (3) we can get the value of R_n as follows, and therefore there exists a real number θ $0 < \theta < 1$ such that $f(x) - f(a) = f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$

Substituting this value of R_n in (2), we get (1).

Case 1: taking $n = 1$ in (1), we get the announced integral equation. \square **Maclaurin's theorem**

Case 2: taking $a = 0$ and $b = x$ in (1), we get

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n \quad (11)$$

which is your task as an exercise. \square **Example 14.1.1** (Exercise 14.1.1) \square

Example

If $f(x) = \log(1+x)$ use Taylor's theorem, show that for $x > 0$

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3(1+\theta)^3}$$

Solution:

So we can write $\log(1+x) = \int_0^x \left(1 - \frac{t}{1+t}\right) dt$ for $x > 0$.

By Maclaurin's theorem, we get a suitable P_2 and also

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2} f''(0) + \frac{x^2}{3} f'''(\theta) \quad (12)$$

$$\text{for } f(x) = \log(1+x) \quad f'(0) = 1$$

$$\text{and } f''(0) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2} \quad f'''(0) = 1$$

$$f''(0) = -\frac{1}{1+\theta^2} \quad f'''(0) = 1$$

$$\text{and } f'''(\theta) = \frac{2}{(1+\theta)^3} \quad f'''(\theta) = \frac{2}{(1+\theta)^3}$$

$$\text{thus using (12) we get } \log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3(1+\theta)^3} \quad (13)$$

Since $x > 0$ and $0 < \theta < x$

$$0 < 1 - \theta < 1 - \theta^2 < 1 - \theta^3 \quad \frac{1}{1-\theta^3} < 1$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{1-\theta^3} < \frac{1}{1-\theta^3} \left(\frac{x^2}{1-\theta^3} \right) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3}$$

$$\text{Hence } \log(1+x) < x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3} \quad \text{for } x > 0 \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

18.4.1 Maclaurin's Series

If $f(x) \in C^\infty$ the expansion of $f(x)$ at $x = 0$ is

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \dots \quad (1)$$

For the successive derivatives of all orders and the remainder R_n in (1) on page 124 let us assume $x = \theta$, then the Maclaurin's formula can be used to develop the series (1).

Example:

Using Maclaurin's series, expand the function $y = \sin^{-1} x$ containing x^5 .

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \sin^{-1} x & y(0) &= 0 \\ y' &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \dots & y'(0) &= 1 \\ y'' &= \frac{1}{2} \times 2x \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = x(1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}x(1+x^2) & y''(0) &= 0 \\ y''' &= \frac{1}{2} \times 2x \times (1-x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{2} \times 2x^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(1+x^2) + \frac{3}{2}x^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{3}{2}x^3 & y'''(0) &= \frac{1}{2} \\ y^{(4)} &= \frac{1}{2}(1+x^2) \times \frac{1}{2}(1-x^2)^{-\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{9}{2}x^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(1+x^2)(1+x^2) + \frac{9}{2}x^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4}(1+2x^2+x^4) + \frac{9}{2}x^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{9}{2}x^2 & y^{(4)}(0) &= 0 \\ y^{(5)} &= \frac{1}{4} \times 2x \times \frac{1}{2}(1+x^2) + \frac{9}{2} \times 2x \\ &= \frac{1}{4}x(1+x^2) + 9x \\ &= \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{1}{4}x^3 + 9x \\ &= \frac{37}{4}x + \frac{1}{4}x^3 & y^{(5)}(0) &= \frac{37}{4} \end{aligned}$$

and so on

Substituting the values of $y(0), y'(0)$ etc. in the Maclaurin's series we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^{-1} x &= 0 + x + \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{1}{24} \times \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{1}{120} \times \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{1}{720} \times \frac{x^9}{9!} + \dots \\ &= x + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{3x^5}{16} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

2.6.4.3 Expansion by Use of Known Series

When the expanded function satisfies the required conditions, we then consider it by using the already given formulas:

$$1. \quad e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

$$2. \quad \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$3. \quad \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$4. \quad \cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$5. \quad \sinh x = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots$$

$$6. \quad \sinh^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots$$

$$7. \quad \ln x = (x-1) - \frac{(x-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(x-1)^3}{3} - \dots$$

$$8. \quad \cosh^{-1} x = x + \frac{x^3}{2} + \frac{x^5}{24} + \dots$$

$$9. \quad \log(1+x) = \frac{x}{1} - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \quad 10. \quad \log(1-x) = -\frac{x}{1} - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots$$

Example:

Expand $\sin^{-1} x$ by Maclaurin's series or show that $\sin^{-1} x$ contains x^6 .

Solution:

$$\text{We have, } \sin^{-1} x = x + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{3}{160}x^5 + \frac{5}{672}x^7 + \frac{35}{16128}x^9 + \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \ln \left| x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right| - \frac{1}{2} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right) - \frac{1}{8} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right)^2 - \frac{1}{24} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right)^3 \\ &= \ln \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right) - \frac{1}{8} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right)^2 - \frac{1}{24} \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right)^3 \\ &= \ln \left(x - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

Ölversch. x

$$\partial_t = \partial_{t'}$$

11

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52. 35720, 34113

$$f(x) = f(x + \pi - 2\alpha) \quad f(\alpha) = 0$$

$$P_{\text{max}} = 710.38 \text{ W} = 394 \text{ W} + 316.38 \text{ W} = 394 \text{ W} + 0.316 \text{ kW} = 0.710 \text{ kW}$$

21 : 4 4

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$$e^{x^2} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots$$

2.6.5 Slope Determination of Line

- * The authors have developed a digital field application to measure α - β unsaturation.

21-09-2019

2. If an line is perpendicular to the hypotenuse of a right triangle, then the line divides the triangle into two triangles that are similar to the original triangle and to each other.

Abstract

3. The calculations are also used to find the effect of a unit change in the independent variable on the dependent variable.

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{dV}{d\theta} \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \right) \frac{d\theta}{dt} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sin^3 \theta} \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

2.7 Partial Derivatives

2.7.1 Definition of Partial Derivative

A determination of a number of essential properties of ellipsoids obtained with maximum efficiency of bending of the elastic cantilever. It is established that partial sensitivity of the cantilever to bending is a sensitive indicator of the more important properties of viscoelastic material. Partial differential equation

The symbols α and β are used to denote the pillars (alpha) and the columns (beta) heights, are respectively called perpendicularity errors and tilt (see figs. 10 and 11).

(b) The following are the elements of the set S of all $n \times n$ matrices A such that $A^2 = A$ and $A \neq 0$.

2.7.2 Second order partial differential coefficients

[illegible]

Now we $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$, $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$, $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)$ and second order partial derivatives of u and these are respectively denoted by $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$.

Note: If $u = f(x, y, z)$ and its partial derivatives are continuous, the order of differentiation is immaterial i.e.

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y \partial x}$$

2.7.3 Homogeneous Functions

An expression in which every term is of the same degree is called homogeneous function. Thus $u(x, y, z) = x^2y^3 + y^2z^2 + x^2z^2 + y^2z^2 = x^2y^3 + y^2z^2$ is a homogeneous function of third degree. These can be written as:

$$x^2y^3 + y^2z^2 = x^2\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^3 + y^2\left(\frac{z}{x}\right)^2 = x^2\left[\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2\left(\frac{z}{x}\right)\right] = x^2f\left(\frac{y}{x}, \frac{z}{x}\right)$$

where $f\left(\frac{y}{x}, \frac{z}{x}\right) = \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{y}{x}\right)^2\left(\frac{z}{x}\right)$ is the function of $\frac{y}{x}$.

Note: This is what is called a homogeneous function. It is a function of $\frac{y}{x}$ and $\frac{z}{x}$ only and not of x, y and z itself.

Therefore, if $u(x, y, z) = f(x, y, z)$ is the function of $f(x, y, z)$ a homogeneous of degree n then $u(x, y, z)$ is called a homogeneous function.

Note: For a homogeneous function of the third degree all its partial derivatives of the second degree are homogeneous functions of the first degree.

2.7.4 Euler's Theorem on homogeneous functions

If u is a homogeneous function of the third degree, i.e. if

$$u = f\left(\frac{x}{y}, \frac{y}{z}\right) \quad \text{then} \quad x \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + z \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = 3u$$

Note: Euler's Theorem can be extended to a homogeneous function of any number of variables. That is

If $u = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a homogeneous function of n variables and its degree is n , then $x_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_1} + x_2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_2} + \dots + x_n \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_n} = nu$

Example:

Ex: $u = x^2y + y^2z + 3x^2yz$ is a homogeneous function of degree 3.

Solution:

$$\text{Now,} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2xy + 3y^2z \quad \text{and}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = x^2 + 2yz + 3x^2z$$

$$\text{Now,} \quad x \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + z \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} = x(2xy + 3y^2z) + y(x^2 + 2yz + 3x^2z) + z(3x^2y)$$

$$= 2x^2y + 3xy^2z + x^3 + 2y^2z + 3x^2yz + 3x^2yz$$

$$= 3u$$

So, Euler's theorem is satisfied and u is a homogeneous function of degree 3.

2.8 Total Derivatives

If $z = f(x, y)$ (where $dx = dx_1$ and $dy = dy_1$),

$$\text{then, } \frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

Then $\frac{dz}{dt}$ is called the total differential coefficient of z with respect to ratio $\frac{dx}{dt}$ and $\frac{dy}{dt}$ are partial derivatives of z .

It may be written as $f(x, y)$ where x and y are functions of some variable t when

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{dz}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dz}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

This result can be extended to any number of variables.

Corollary 1: If z is a function of several variables x, y and z is a function of t , then

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

Corollary 2: If $z = f(x, y)$ and $x = f(t, y)$ and $y = f_1(t, y_1, t_1)$, then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

Corollary 3: If x and y are connected as an eq. of t and $z = f(x, y)$, then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt}$$

2.9 Maxima and Minima (of Function of Two Independent Variables)

2.9.1 Definitions

Let $f(x, y)$ be any function of two independent variables and suppose to assign numerical values of these variables in the neighbourhood of a point (x_0, y_0) of the region.

Then $f(x_0, y_0)$ is said to be maximum or minimum value of $f(x, y)$ existing at (x_0, y_0) if $f(x, y) \leq f(x_0, y_0)$ or $f(x, y) \geq f(x_0, y_0)$ for all sufficient small independent values of x and y , and (x_0, y_0) is called the point of local maxima or minima.

2.9.2 Necessary Conditions

The necessary conditions that $f(x, y)$ should have maximum or minimum at (x_0, y_0) are

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} = 0 \text{ and } \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} = 0$$

2.9.3 Sufficient Condition for Maxima or Minima

$$H = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{vmatrix}_{(x_0, y_0)} > 0 \text{ and } \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} < 0 \text{ or } \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \right|_{(x_0, y_0)} < 0$$

Case 1: If $f(x, y)$ have a maximum at a point (x_0, y_0) , then $H < 0$. **Case 2:** If $f(x, y)$ has minimum at a point (x_0, y_0) , then $H > 0$ (negative or positive).

Case 2(a): If $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is a function of x then $\int y \frac{dy}{dx} = x, y = 0$ if $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ i.e. $x = x_0, y = 0$ is a particular solution.

Case 3: If $m = 0$ the case is similar to case 2(a) but $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is a function of y instead of x and $\int y \frac{dy}{dx} = x, y = 0$ is a particular solution. If $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ i.e. $y = y_0$ is a particular solution only when $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$.

2.10 Theorems of Integral Calculus

- The integral of a sum of several functions and/or other scalar functions is the sum of the integral of each function.

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

- The integral of a sum of differential of a function and/or other scalar functions is the sum of the integral of each function.

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

2.10.1 Fundamental Formulae

- $\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
- $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x|$
- $\int \sin x dx = -\cos x$
- $\int \cos x dx = \sin x$
- $\int \tan x dx = \ln|\sec x|$
- $\int \sec x dx = \ln|\sec x + \tan x|$
- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} x$
- $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x$
- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} dx = \sinh^{-1} x$
- $\int \cosh x dx = \sinh x$
- $\int \sinh x dx = \cosh x$

2.10.2 Useful Trigonometric Identities

	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	π
\sin	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	0
\cos	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	-1
\tan	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	∞	$-\sqrt{3}$	-1	0

- $\sin(-x) = -\sin x$
- $\cos(-x) = \cos x$
- $\sin(x+y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$
- $\sin(x-y) = \sin x \cos y - \cos x \sin y$
- $\cos(x+y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$
- $\cos(x-y) = \cos x \cos y + \sin x \sin y$

$$7. \quad \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \sin x$$

$$8. \quad \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$$

$$9. \quad \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) = \cos x \quad \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$$

$$(1) \quad \sin(\pi - x) = \sin(x) \quad \sin(\pi + x) = -\sin x$$

$$(2) \quad \sin(\pi + x) = -\sin(x) \quad \sin(\pi - x) = \sin x$$

$$(3) \quad \sin(2\pi - x) = -\sin(x) \quad \sin(2\pi + x) = \sin x$$

$$10. \quad \sin(x + \pi) = \frac{\sin x + \sin \pi}{1 + \sin x \sin \pi}$$

$$\sin(x - \pi) = \frac{\sin x - \sin \pi}{1 - \sin x \sin \pi}$$

$$11. \quad \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} - x\right) = \frac{1 - \tan x}{1 + \tan x}$$

$$12. \quad \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + x\right) = \frac{1 + \tan x}{1 + \tan x}$$

$$13. \quad \sin(x + y) = \frac{\sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y}{\cos x \cos y + \sin x \sin y}$$

$$14. \quad \sin(x - y) = \frac{\sin x \cos y - \cos x \sin y}{\cos x \cos y + \sin x \sin y}$$

$$15. \quad \sin 2x = 2 \sin x \cos x = \frac{2 \sin x}{1 + \cos^2 x}$$

$$16. \quad \sin 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x = 2 \cos^2 x - 1 = 1 - 2 \sin^2 x = \frac{\cos^2 x}{1 + \sin^2 x}$$

$$18. \quad \tan 2x = \frac{2 \tan x}{1 - \tan^2 x}$$

$$19. \quad \sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$$

$$20. \quad \cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$$

$$21. \quad \sin^2 x = \cos^2 x - \cos^2 x$$

2.10.3 Methods of Integration

There are four basic methods of integration by which we can solve the integral of a function. We will now study each of these methods in detail.

1. **Integration by substitution:** Let u be the variable of integration. Then, we can use the following method to integrate a function $f(x)$.

$$f(x) = \int f(u) du \quad \text{if } u = g(x) \text{ and } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x) \text{ then } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x) \text{ and } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x)$$

$$f(x) = \int f(u) du \quad \text{if } u = g(x) \text{ and } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x) \text{ then } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x) \text{ and } \frac{du}{dx} = g'(x)$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = \phi(x) \cdot \phi'(t) = \phi(x) \cdot \phi'(t) \cdot \phi'(x) = \phi'(x)$$

$$\text{Then again } z = \int \phi'(x) \cdot \phi'(t) \cdot \phi'(x) \, dx$$

Rule to Remember:

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\phi(x) \cdot \phi'(t) \right] =$$

$$\phi'(x) \cdot \phi'(t) = 1$$

$$\text{and } \phi'(t) = e^t$$

where $\phi(x), t \in \mathbb{R}$ (the real domain) and $\phi'(x)$ will be positive.

Three Forms of Integrals:

$$\text{a) } \int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} \, dx = \log f(x)$$

$$\text{but } f'(x) = \text{differentiating we get } f'(x) \cdot dx = df$$

$$= \int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} \, dx = \int \frac{df}{f} = \log f + \log C$$

Thus, the integrals having the form $\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$ always satisfied the differential equation $\frac{df}{f} = \log f + \log C$

Example:

$$\int \frac{4x^3}{x^4 + 9} \, dx = \log(x^4 + 9) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Ans: Let } f(x) = x^4 + 9$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(x) \, dx = df$$

$$\text{ii) } \text{then } df = \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right) \cdot dx \Rightarrow \text{but } f = \log f + \log C$$

Some important Formulas Based on the Above Form:

$$\text{i) } \int \tan x \, dx = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \, dx = - \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \, dx$$

$$= - \log |\cos x|$$

$$= \log |\sec x|$$

$$= \log \sec x$$

$$\text{ii) } \int \cot x \, dx = \log |\cos x|$$

$$\text{iii) } \int \sec x = \log |\tan x + \sec x|$$

$$\text{iv) } \int \csc x = \log \left| \tan \frac{x}{2} \right|$$

$$\text{v) } \int f(x) \cdot g(x) \, dx = \frac{f(x) \cdot g(x)}{n+1} \quad \text{where } n \neq -1$$

If the integrand is in the product of two functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ then we have to select one of the functions as the derivative of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ to obtain the integral we multiply $f(x)$ by only a differentiable function $g(x)$. This is known as partial formula.

Formulae:

$$(i) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \frac{f(x)g(x)}{g(x)} - \int \frac{f'(x)g(x)}{g(x)} dx$$

$$(ii) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

$$(iii) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

$$(iv) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

$$(v) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

$$(vi) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

$$(vii) \int \frac{f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \left[f(x)g'(x) - \int f'(x)g'(x) dx \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)}$$

2. Integral of the product of two functions

Integration by parts: Let u and v be two functions of x . Then we have the following formula:

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = u \cdot v - \int \frac{du}{dx} \cdot v dx \quad (1)$$

Integrating both sides of (1) with respect to x , we have

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

$$\Rightarrow \int u \cdot \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \cdot \frac{du}{dx} dx \quad (2)$$

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

$$\text{Therefore, we have } \int u \cdot \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \cdot \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

The choice of either function to be u or v in (2) will be discussed separately in a separate program by parts.

Ex: A. E method to solve this.

Let $f(x) = x^2$

(i) Algebraic function (e.g. x^2, x^3, x^4, \dots)

(ii) Logarithmic function (e.g. $\ln x, \log x$)

(iii) Any basic functions (e.g. $\sin x, \cos x$)

(iv) Trigonometric functions (e.g. $\sin x, \cos x$)

(v) Exponential function (e.g. e^x)

Ex: Choose the two functions from the list in (i)-(v). Let u be the first one and v be the second one.

Formulae Based Upon Above Method:

$$(i) \int x^n \ln x dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \ln x - \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)^2} + C$$

$$(2) \int \frac{x^2 \cos x}{x^3 + 1} dx = \frac{x^2}{x^3 + 1} (\cos x) \frac{dx}{dx} - \frac{1}{3} \frac{d}{dx} (x^3 + 1) \left(\frac{x^2}{x^3 + 1} \right)$$

Integration by Partial Fractions

$$(3) \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 2} dx = \int \frac{1}{(x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})} dx$$

$$\frac{1}{x^2 - 2} = \frac{1}{(x - \sqrt{2})(x + \sqrt{2})} = \frac{A}{x - \sqrt{2}} + \frac{B}{x + \sqrt{2}}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 - 2} dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \left[\frac{\ln}{x - \sqrt{2}} - \frac{\ln}{x + \sqrt{2}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} [\ln(x - \sqrt{2}) - \ln(x + \sqrt{2})] = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \ln \frac{x - \sqrt{2}}{x + \sqrt{2}}$$

$$\text{Hence } \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 2} dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \ln \frac{x - \sqrt{2}}{x + \sqrt{2}} \quad x > \sqrt{2}$$

$$(4) \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} dx = \int \frac{1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)} dx$$

$$\text{In the case } \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{x - 1}{x + 1} \quad x < -1$$

The following are commonly used integrals derived directly using the first derivative of equation.

$$(a) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{1} \right)$$

$$(b) \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} dx = \ln \left| \frac{x - 1}{x + 1} \right|$$

$$(c) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} dx = \ln \left| \frac{x - \sqrt{2}}{x + \sqrt{2}} \right|$$

$$(d) \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 2} dx = \ln \left| \frac{x - \sqrt{2}}{x + \sqrt{2}} \right| = \ln \left| \frac{x - \sqrt{2}}{x + \sqrt{2}} \right|$$

$$(e) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} dx = \ln \left| \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \right|$$

$$(f) \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 2} dx = \ln \left| \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \right| = \ln \left| \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \right| = \ln \left| \frac{x}{\sqrt{2}} \right|$$

$$(g) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| \frac{x}{1} \right|$$

$$(h) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| \frac{x}{1} \right| = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| \frac{x}{1} \right|$$

$$(i) \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| \frac{x}{1} \right| = \frac{1}{2} \ln \left| \frac{x}{1} \right|$$

$A = 0$ has a minimum value of 0 at $x = 0$.

$$(3) \quad \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin(2x) \cos(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(3x)}{3} - \frac{\sin(x)}{1} \right]_0^{\pi/2}$$

At $x = \pi/2$, $\sin(3x) = \sin(3\pi/2) = -1$ and $\sin(x) = 1$ (both negative terms).

$$\sin(3x) = -1$$

$$\sin(x) = 1 \quad \text{both negative terms}$$

$$\sin(x) = 1$$

$$\left[\frac{-1}{3} - 1 \right] = -\frac{4}{3}$$

(3) \Rightarrow option (c)

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin^2 x = \frac{2}{3} \cos^2 x = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} \right) = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} \right) = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} \right) = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} \right)$$

2.11 Definite Integrals

$\int_a^b f(x) dx = [F(x)]_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$ where $F(x)$ is the antiderivative of $f(x)$ and a and b are the limits of integration.

\Rightarrow option (c) \Rightarrow (c) is the right.

2.11.1 Fundamental Properties of Definite Integrals

- (1) We have $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$, the value of a definite integral changes its sign if the limits of integration are reversed. (Antiderivative of $f(x)$ is $F(x)$).

$$\text{For } \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad \int_b^a f(x) dx = F(a) - F(b)$$

$$\text{For } \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = F(a) - F(a) = 0$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^a f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) + F(a) - F(b) = 0$$

- (2) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$ (changing sign) \Rightarrow If the limits of integration are reversed, the value of the integral changes its sign.

$$(3) \quad \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

Note 1: The property of definite integral given in (3) is called the additivity of integration.

Note 2: If $f(x)$ is a function of x and a, b, c are constants, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$.

$$\text{For ex. } \int_0^2 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 f(x) dx \quad \int_0^2 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 f(x) dx$$

$$(4) \quad \text{We have } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$(5) \quad \text{We have } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Proof: Let $I = \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx$

Since $x \rightarrow -x \Rightarrow dx = -dx$ and $f(x) = f(-x)$ when $x \rightarrow -x$

$$= \int_a^0 f(x) (-dx) + \int_0^a f(x) (-dx) = \int_0^a f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx$$

∴ $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$ (if $f(x)$ is an even function in $f(x)$)

Odd and Even function

(i) A odd function if $f(-x) = -f(x)$

(ii) A even function if $f(-x) = f(x)$

∴ $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$ if $f(x)$ is even

∴ $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$ if $f(x)$ is odd

Corollary: $\int_0^a f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(ax) dx = \int_1^a f(x) dx$

∴ $\int_0^a f(x) dx = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^1 f(x) dx$

∴ $\int_1^a f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$

(if $f(x)$ is odd) $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$

∴ $\int_0^a f(x) dx = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^1 f(x) dx$

Example 1.

Evaluate the following definite integrals

(a) $\int_{-2}^2 (x+2) dx$ (b) $\int_1^2 (x-x^2) dx$

Solution:

(a) Since $(x+2) = x+2$ ∴ $x+2$ is a linear

∴ $\frac{1}{2} x^2 + 2x = \frac{1}{2} (x^2) + 2(x)$

∴ $\frac{1}{2} x^2 + 2x = \frac{1}{2} (x^2) + 2(x)$

∴ $\frac{1}{2} x^2 + 2x = \frac{1}{2} (x^2) + 2(x)$

∴ $\int_{-2}^2 (x+2) dx = \int_{-2}^2 (x+2) dx = \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 + 2x \right]_{-2}^2$

(Property 3)

$$= \left[\frac{1}{2} (2^2) + 2(2) \right] - \left[\frac{1}{2} (-2)^2 + 2(-2) \right] = \left[\frac{1}{2} (4) + 4 \right] - \left[\frac{1}{2} (4) - 4 \right] = 4 + 4 = 8$$

$$= 8$$

(b) Since $(x-x^2) = x-x^2$ ∴ $x-x^2$ is a linear

∴ $\frac{1}{2} x^2 - \frac{1}{3} x^3 = \frac{1}{2} (x^2) - \frac{1}{3} (x^3)$

∴ $\int_1^2 (x-x^2) dx = \int_1^2 (x-x^2) dx = \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 - \frac{1}{3} x^3 \right]_1^2$

(Property 3)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_1^{\infty} (x^2 - 1 + 3x) dx + \int_0^1 (x^2 + x - 5) dx \\
 &= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} - x + \frac{3}{2}x^2 \right]_1^{\infty} + \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^2}{2} - 5x \right]_0^1 \\
 &= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - 5x \right]_1^{\infty} \\
 &= \left(\frac{\infty^3}{3} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - 5 \right) - \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} - 5 \right) = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2

Evaluate the following definite integrals:

(a) $\int_1^2 f(x) dx$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x+1 & x < 2 \\ x+1 & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$ (b) $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos x dx$ (c) $\int_0^1 \sin x dx$

Solution:

(a) It is given that the function $f(x)$ is discontinuous at $x = 2$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \int_1^2 f(x) dx &= \int_1^2 f(x) dx + \int_2^2 f(x) dx && \text{(Property 2)} \\
 &= \int_1^2 (2x+1) dx + \int_2^2 (x+1) dx \\
 &= \left[x^2 + x \right]_1^2 + \left[\frac{x^2}{2} + x \right]_2^2 \\
 &= (4+2) - (1+1) + \left[\frac{1}{2} + 1 \right] - \left[\frac{4}{2} + 2 \right] = 6 - 3 + \frac{3}{2} - 4 = \frac{3}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) It is given that $\frac{1}{x}$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos x dx &= \int_{-\pi}^0 \cos x dx + \int_0^{\pi} \cos x dx \\
 &= \left[\sin x \right]_{-\pi}^0 + \left[\sin x \right]_0^{\pi} \\
 &= \left(\sin 0 - \sin(-\pi) \right) + \left(\sin \pi - \sin 0 \right) \\
 &= (0 - (-1)) + (0 - 0) = 1 + 1 = 2
 \end{aligned}$$

(c) It is given that $\sin x$ is continuous at $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and $x = \frac{3\pi}{2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x dx + \int_{\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{3\pi}{2}} \sin x dx + \int_{\frac{3\pi}{2}}^{\pi} \sin x dx \\
 &= \left[-\cos x \right]_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} + \left[-\cos x \right]_{\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{3\pi}{2}} + \left[-\cos x \right]_{\frac{3\pi}{2}}^{\pi} \\
 &= (-\cos \frac{\pi}{2} + \cos 0) + (-\cos \frac{3\pi}{2} + \cos \frac{\pi}{2}) + (-\cos \pi + \cos \frac{3\pi}{2}) \\
 &= (0 + 1) + (0 + 0) + (1 + 0) = 2
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1+x}{1-x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1-x}{1+x} \right) - \frac{x^2}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{3} = 1$$

Example 3.

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be defined as $f(x) = \sin x$ and $g(x) = \cos x$.

$$\text{eg. } \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 f(x) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin x dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 g(x) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos x dx$$

Solution:

$$\text{(a) Let } f(x) = \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 (1 - \cos 2x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 dx - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 dx - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos 2x dx$$

$$\text{(b) Let } f(x) = \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx$$

$$\text{(c) Let } f(x) = \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx$$

$$\text{(d) Let } f(x) = \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx$$

$$\text{(e) Let } f(x) = \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} x^2 \cos^2 x dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = \cos 0 = 1 \\
 &= \left[\sin x \right]_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = 1 \left[\sin x \right]_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \left[\sin \frac{\pi}{2} \right] - \left[\sin 0 \right] = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.

Evaluate the integral $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin x}{2 \sin x + \cos x} dx$

Solution:

Let
$$I = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin x}{2 \sin x + \cos x} dx \quad (1)$$

Then by using property (i) we get

$$I = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x \right)}{2 \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x \right) + \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x \right)} dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\cos x}{2 \cos x - \sin x} dx \quad (2)$$

On adding (1) and (2) we get

$$2I = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin x - \cos x}{2 \sin x + \cos x} dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{-1}{2} dx = -\frac{1}{2} \left[x \right]_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = -\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Example 5.

Evaluate the following definite integrals:

(a) $\int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) dx$

(b) $\int_0^1 x \ln \log \log x dx$

Solution:

(a) Let
$$I = \int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) dx = \int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) dx \quad (1)$$

Then by using property (ii) we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{1-(1-x)}{1-x} \right) dx = \int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right) dx \\
 &= \int_0^1 x \ln \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right) dx = \int_0^1 x \ln x dx - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \ln x - \int \frac{x^2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx \right]_0^1 - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \left[x^2 \ln x - \int x dx \right]_0^1 - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \left[x^2 \ln x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \left[1 \ln 1 - \frac{1}{2} \right] - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \\
 &= -\frac{1}{8} - \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

(a) Let
$$I = \int_0^1 x \ln (1-x) dx \quad (2)$$

Then by using property 4L we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Ex.} \quad I &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \left(x^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x \right) \right) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \left(\ln x^2 + \ln \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x \right) \right) dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (\ln x + 2 \ln x) dx = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln \pi - \frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln 2 - \left(\frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln \pi \right) = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{\pi^2}{2} \ln \pi \quad \text{[Using (3)]} \\
 \Rightarrow \quad I &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow \quad I &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.

Find the following definite integral $\int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \cos x dx$

Solution:

$$I = \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln(1 - \sin^2 x) dx \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Then by using property 1L we get

$$I = \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln(1 - \sin^2 x) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln(1 - \cos^2 x) dx \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Adding (1) and (2) we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 2I &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (\ln(1 - \sin^2 x) + \ln(1 - \cos^2 x)) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln(1 - \sin^2 x) dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln(\sin^2 x) dx = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \sin x dx \\
 \Rightarrow \quad I &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \sin x dx
 \end{aligned}$$

or $I(x) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \sin x = I(\pi - x) = \ln \sin(\pi - x) = \ln \sin x$ [By using property 5L we get

$$I = -\int_0^{\pi/2} \ln \sin x dx = -I \Rightarrow \frac{I}{2} = -I \Rightarrow I = 0$$

2.12 Applications of Integration

Generally three areas where integration is applied

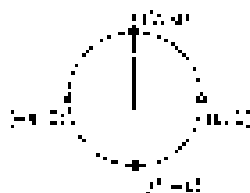
1. Area of curves
2. Length of curves
3. Volume of solids

2.12.1 Preliminary: Curve Tracing

In algebra, the derived formulae are essential to solve any problem. Similarly in calculus, the tools to solve the problems are the derived formulae. Here are some of the derived formulae.

Circles: Cartesian Form:

1. $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ is a circle with centre (0, 0) and radius 5.

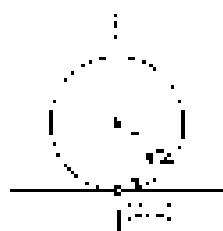


2. $(x - 3)^2 + (y - 2)^2 = 25$ is a circle with centre (3, 2) and radius 5.

**Polar Form:**

1. $r = 2$ is a circle with centre (0, 0) and radius 2.

2. $r = 4 \sin \theta$ is a circle with centre $(\frac{2}{1}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ and radius $\frac{2}{1}$.



3. $r = 2 \cos \theta$ is a circle with centre $(\frac{2}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ and radius $\frac{2}{2}$.

**Parabolas:**

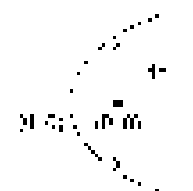
1. $y^2 = 4ax$ is a parabola with vertex at (0, 0) and focus at (a, 0) and directrix $x = -a$.



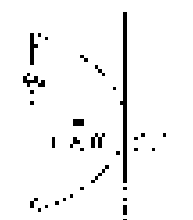
8. $y' = 4xy$: parabola with vertex at $(0, 0)$ and $(0, 0.5)$ and direction 45°



9. $y' = 4xy$: parabola with vertex at $(0, 0)$ and $(0, 0.5)$ and direction 45°



10. $y' = 4xy$: parabola with vertex at $(0, 0)$ and $(0, 0.5)$ and direction 45°

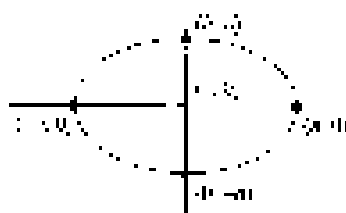


11. $(x - 3)^2 + (y - 4)^2 = 4$: circle with centre at $(3, 4)$ and radius 2 and direction 45°



Ellipse:

1. $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$: ellipse with centre at $(0, 0)$ and major axis $2a$ and minor axis $2b$

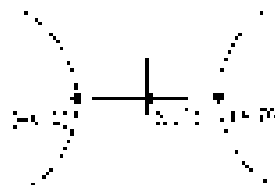


2. $\frac{(x - 3)^2}{2^2} + \frac{(y - 4)^2}{3^2} = 1$: ellipse with centre at $(3, 4)$ and major axis $2a = 6$ and minor axis $2b = 4$

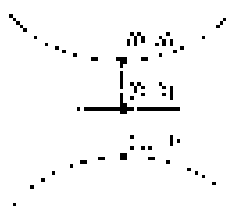


Hyperbola:

1. $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ Hyperbola with vertices at $(\pm a, 0)$ and co-vertices at $(0, \pm b)$



2. $\frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2} = 1$ Hyperbola with vertices at $(0, \pm b)$ and co-vertices at $(\pm a, 0)$

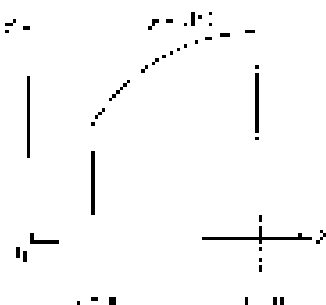


2.12.2 Areas of Cartesian Curves

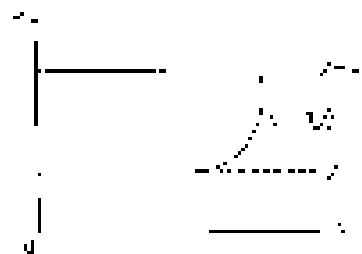
Theorem:

1. Area bounded by $y = f(x)$ or $y = g(x)$, the x -axis and the ordinates $x = a$, $x = b$ is

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



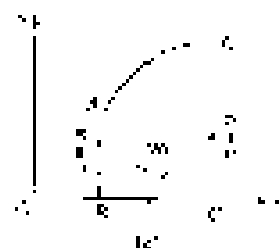
2. In a Cartesian plane y is the third coordinate system of the first quadrant. The curve $y = f(x)$, the y -axis and the ordinates $y = a$, $y = b$ is $\int_a^b f(y) dy = \int_a^b f(y) dy$ as shown in figure below.



Note: 1. The area bounded by $y = f(x)$, the x -axis and $x = a$ is the area under the curve.

The process of finding the area of plane surface is called quadrature.

Note: 2) Sign of an area, for area which is purely a distance is the same as the area of vector (or the area of a triangle is always positive) (7) and for area whose boundary is determined in the clockwise direction (or the area is negative) is taken as negative (or vice versa).



In fig. 1.10 (a) the area is given by $\int_0^3 y \, dx$ where y is a function of x in the first case. $A = \int_0^3 y \, dx$ and in case (b) $A = -\int_0^3 y \, dx$. In other direction

For which a normal line in such direction may be drawn at the given point, then area may be evaluated separately with the normal as parameter. (or) by adding the above

Example:

Find the area of the region bounded by the parabola $x^2 = 8y$ the line $x = 4$ and $y = 0$.

Solution:

$$\text{Given parabola } x^2 = 8y \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{and the straight line } x = 4 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{and } y = 0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{--- } y = \frac{x^2}{8} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Substituting the value of y from (4) in (1) we get,

$$x^2 = x^2 + 0$$

$$\text{or } x^2 - x^2 = 0$$

$$\text{or } 0 = 0, \text{ for } x = 0$$

$$\text{or } x = 0, \text{ for } x = 0$$

Thus (1) and (4) intersect at (0, 0) and (4, 2) and (2) and (3) intersect at (4, 0) and (4, 2).

∴ Required area = (Area of the parabola) + (area of the rectangle) and

and a rectangle $(4 \times 2) = 8$ = Area bounded by parabola (1) and

the line (2) and (3).

$$= \int_0^4 y \, dx + \text{area of rectangle}$$

$$= \int_0^4 \frac{x^2}{8} \, dx + \int_0^4 2 \, dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{24} + 2x \right]_0^4$$

$$= \frac{1}{24} (64 + 0) + (8 - 0) = 8$$



2.12.3 Areas of Polar Curves

Theorem: Area bounded by the curve $r = f(\theta)$ and the radial line $\theta = \alpha$ to

$\theta = \beta$ is given by

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f^2(\theta) d\theta$$

Example:

Find masses and centre of mass of area $r = \sqrt{2}$ and $r = 2 \cos \theta$

Solution:

The curve $r = \sqrt{2}$ is a circle

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \sqrt{2} \text{ and} \\ \therefore r^2 &= 2 \text{ or } x^2 + y^2 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore R$

$\therefore C$

(i) represents a circle with a radius of $\sqrt{2}$ and radius is $\sqrt{2}$

(ii) represents a circle with a radius of $\cos \theta$ with the centre at the origin

The polar graph shown in Fig. 19.9 is a loop of the circle $r = 2 \cos \theta$ with the following data:

$$r = \sqrt{2} \text{ is a circle with radius } = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

(i) $r = \sqrt{2}$ is a circle

(ii) $r = 2 \cos \theta$ is a circle with a radius of $\cos \theta$ with the centre at the origin

$\therefore r = \sqrt{2}$ is a circle with a radius of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

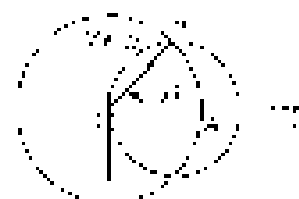
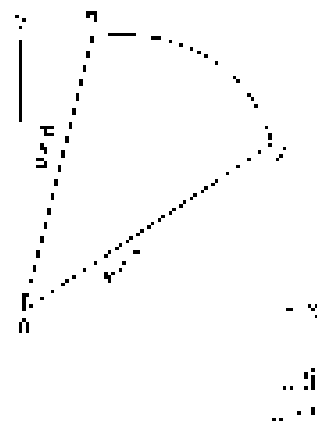
$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_{\sqrt{2}}^{2 \cos \theta} r^2 dr d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{r^3}{3} \right]_{\sqrt{2}}^{2 \cos \theta} d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{(2 \cos \theta)^3}{3} - \frac{(\sqrt{2})^3}{3} \right] d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{8 \cos^3 \theta}{3} - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \right] d\theta$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^3 \theta d\theta - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta = \frac{8}{3} \left[\frac{\sin \theta}{1} - \frac{\cos \theta}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \left[\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2}$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} \left[\frac{\sin \theta}{1} - \frac{\cos \theta}{3} \right]_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \left[\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{8}{3} \left[\frac{1}{1} - \frac{0}{3} \right] - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} - 0 \right]$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} \left[1 - 0 \right] - \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} - 0 \right] = \frac{8}{3} - \frac{2\sqrt{2}\pi}{3}$$



2.12.4 Derivative of arc Length d

Theorem: If r is a curve $r = f(\theta)$, then

$$\frac{ds}{d\theta} = \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta} \right)^2}$$

Proof: $r = f(\theta)$, $\frac{dr}{d\theta} = f'(\theta)$, $r = f(\theta)$ and $\frac{dr}{d\theta} = f'(\theta)$ are the coordinates of the point P on the curve. Let P be a point on the curve $r = f(\theta)$.

Draw OP , OM and ON as shown in Fig. 19.10.

$\therefore P$ is the point on the curve $r = f(\theta)$.

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

or

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{e. } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= -1 \left[\frac{dz}{dx} \right]^2 \\ \text{f. } \left[\frac{dz}{dx} \right]^2 &= \frac{(6x - 5z)^2}{(3x - 2z)^2} = \left(\frac{6x - 5z}{3x - 2z} \right)^2 \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]^2 \end{aligned}$$

Letting $y = y(x, z) \Rightarrow y'(x, z) = 0$

$$\left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right]^2 = -1 \left[\frac{dz}{dx} \right]^2 + \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]^2 \quad \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right]^2 = \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]^2 - \left[\frac{dz}{dx} \right]^2 = 1$$

It increases as x increases. Figure shows, dy/dx is positive.

Then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]^2}$ along with the sign between the two sides. (i)

Case 1. If the equation of the curve be $y = f(x)$ then

$$\text{a. } \frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{dy}{dz} \right]^2} \quad \text{if } y' > 0 \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Case 2. If the equation of the curve is parametric form $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2}} \cdot \frac{dy}{dt} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{dy}{dt} \right]^2 + 1} \\ \text{b. } \frac{dy}{dx} &= \sqrt{\left[\frac{dy}{dt} \right]^2 + 1} \quad \text{if } \frac{dy}{dx} > 0 \quad \text{--- (iii)} \end{aligned}$$

2.12.5 Lengths of Curves

Theorem: Let $y = f(x)$ be a curve on the curve $y = f(x)$ between the points where $x = a$ and $x = b$

$$s = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right]^2} dx$$

The length of the arc of $y = f(x)$ between the points where $x = a$ and $x = b$ is

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right]^2} dx$$

Let $y = f(x)$ be a curve on the curve $x = f(y)$ between the points where $y = a$ and $y = b$ is

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{dx}{dy} \right]^2} dy$$

along $y = 0$ of the part of the curve $z = f(x, y)$ above the plane $z = 0$ and $f(x, y) \geq 0$.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_0^t f(x, y) dx = \int_0^t \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) dy$$

Example:

Find the c.m. of $f(x, y) = 16 - x^2$ the parabola. Let A be the area under the curve between $x = -2$ and $x = 2$ in the xy -plane.

Solution:

Let A be the area under $f(x, y)$ in the xy -plane. Let \bar{x} and \bar{y} be the c.m. of A and \bar{x}_0 and \bar{y}_0 be the c.m. of the curve.

Then, $\bar{x} = \bar{x}_0$ and

$$\bar{y}_0 = \frac{\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}}{\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}} = \frac{0}{-2x} = -\frac{1}{2x}$$

$$\bar{x} = \bar{x}_0 = \frac{1}{A} \int_{-2}^2 \int_0^{16-x^2} \left(1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) dx dy = \frac{1}{A} \int_{-2}^2 \left(\int_0^{16-x^2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dy \right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{A} \int_{-2}^2 \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) (2x) dx = \frac{1}{A} \int_{-2}^2 \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (32x^2 + x^3) \right) dx = \frac{1}{A} \left[64x + \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-2}^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{A} \left[\frac{64 \times 2 + \frac{8}{3}}{2} - \left(\frac{64 \times (-2) + \frac{-8}{3}}{2} \right) \right]$$

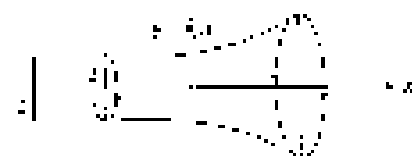
$$= \frac{1}{A} \left[\frac{128 + \frac{8}{3}}{2} + \frac{128 - \frac{8}{3}}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{A} \left[\frac{256 + \frac{16}{3}}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{A} \left[128 + \frac{8}{3} \right] = \frac{384 + 8}{3A} = \frac{392}{3A}$$



2.12.6 Volumes of Revolution

1. **Revolution about y -axis:** The volume of the solid generated by revolving about the y -axis of the area bounded by the curve $x = f(y)$, the y -axis and the ordinates $y = a$ and $y = b$ is $2\pi \int_a^b y f(y) dy$.
 or about the curve $y = f(x)$ between the ordinates $x = a$ and $x = b$ is $2\pi \int_a^b x f(x) dx$.

or



Example:

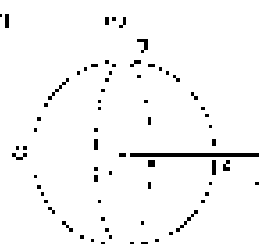
Find the volume of the solid generated.

Solution:

The solid generated by revolving the region bounded by the curve $x = 4 - y^2$ about the y -axis is shown in the figure.

2. If $y = 2\sqrt{x}$, the volume of solid obtained by revolving the curve about the y -axis is

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Volume of the solid} &= \pi \int_0^4 y^2 dx \quad (\text{By the disk method}) \\ &= \pi \int_0^4 4x dx = 4\pi \int_0^4 x dx \\ &= 4\pi \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^4 = 2\pi (x^2) \Big|_0^4 = 2\pi (16 - 0) = 32\pi \end{aligned}$$



2. Revolution about the y -axis. In this case, x and y interchange, i.e., we use that the volume of the solid generated by the revolution about the y -axis of the area bounded by the curve $y = 2\sqrt{x}$, the y -axis and the line $y = 4$ is 32π units³.



Example:

Find the volume of the horn-shaped solid formed by the revolution about the y -axis of the area bounded by $y = 4 - x^2$ and the y -axis.

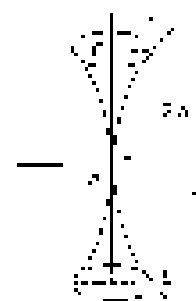
Solution:

Given parabola is $y = 4 - x^2$

It is a parabola and it is symmetric with the y -axis. For the solid of revolution, $x = 2$ (Figure)

\therefore Required volume = $\pi \int_0^4 x^2 dy$ (Volume generated by $\pi x^2 dy$)
 For volume about the y -axis, $x = 2 - y$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \pi \int_0^4 (2 - y)^2 dy = \pi \int_0^4 \frac{(2 - y)^3}{-3} dy \\ &= \frac{\pi}{3} \left[\frac{(2 - y)^3}{-3} \right]_0^4 = \frac{\pi}{9} (3^3 - 2^3) = \frac{125\pi}{9} \end{aligned}$$



2.13 Multiple Integrals and Their Applications

- Area Integrals
- Change in the coordinates
- Double integrals in polar coordinates
- Area of a closed plane curve
- Triple integrals

2.13.1 Double Integrals

The definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is defined as the limit of the sum

$$f(x_0) \Delta x + f(x_1) \Delta x + \dots + f(x_{n-1}) \Delta x,$$

where $n \rightarrow \infty$ and each sub-interval $\Delta x_{i-1} = x_i - x_{i-1}$ tends to zero. A double integral can be defined in two different ways.

Consider a region R in the xy -plane bounded by a closed curve C in the xy -plane. Let the region R be divided into n sub-regions $\Delta A_1, \Delta A_2, \dots, \Delta A_n$ by a partition P in the xy -plane. Let $f(x, y)$ be a function over ΔA_i . Then the sum

$$f(x_1, y_1) \Delta A_1 + f(x_2, y_2) \Delta A_2 + \dots + f(x_n, y_n) \Delta A_n \rightarrow \iint_R f(x, y) dA$$

is called the sum. Here x_i, y_i are the number of sub-regions of the region R in the xy -plane. Let $f(x, y)$ be a function over R . Then the double integral of $f(x, y)$ over the region R is denoted as $\iint_R f(x, y) dA$.

$$\text{Eg:} \quad \iint_R (x + y) dA = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i) \Delta A_i \quad (1)$$

The double integral is used to find the volume under a surface $z = f(x, y)$ over a region R in the xy -plane. It is also used to find the mass of a lamina R with a density function $\rho(x, y)$ over a region R in the xy -plane.

For a region R in the xy -plane, the double integral $\iint_R f(x, y) dA$ is denoted as

as follows:

1. When x_1, x_2 are functions of y and y_1, y_2 are constants, $f(x, y)$ is integrated with respect to x between x_1 and x_2 and then the result is integrated with respect to y between y_1 and y_2 .

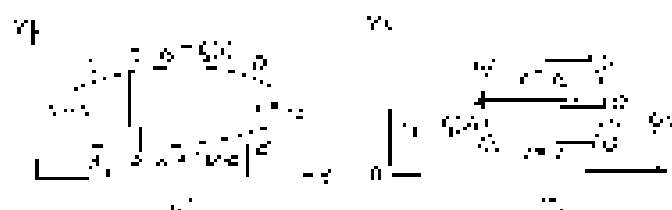
$$I = \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x, y) dx dy$$

where $\int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x, y) dx$ is the integral with respect to x and y is constant.

Eg: In the figure below, the region R is bounded by the two curves $y_1 = 0$ and $y_2 = 1 - x^2$. The region R is a region in the xy -plane.

The double integral of $f(x, y)$ over the region R is denoted as $\iint_R f(x, y) dA$. The region R is a region in the xy -plane. The double integral of $f(x, y)$ over the region R is denoted as $\iint_R f(x, y) dA$.

The double integral of $f(x, y)$ over the region R is denoted as



2. When x_1, x_2 are constants and y_1, y_2 are functions of x , $f(x, y)$ is integrated with respect to y between y_1 and y_2 and then the result is integrated with respect to x between x_1 and x_2 .

$$I = \int_0^4 \left| \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x}} 2x \sqrt{4-x} \, dx \right| dx \quad \text{where } x \text{ goes from } x_1 \text{ to } x_2 \text{ and } y \text{ from } y_1 \text{ to } y_2$$

Eq. (3)

$$\text{Hence, if } y \text{ goes from } y_1 \text{ to } y_2 \text{ and } x \text{ from } x_1 \text{ to } x_2, \text{ then } dA = dx \, dy$$

For example, let us find

For the rectangle, we consider that the region is bounded, one edge at $x = 0$, the other at $x = 4$, the other two parallel to y -axis, at the distance y_1 and y_2 from x -axis.

For the rectangle, the region is defined as follows:

- a. x goes from x_1 to x_2 and y goes from y_1 to y_2 (for example, x from 0 to 4 and y from 0 to 4)

(i) x goes from x_1 to x_2 and y goes from y_1 to y_2 (for example, x from 0 to 4 and y from 0 to 4)

(ii) y goes from y_1 to y_2 and x goes from x_1 to x_2 (for example, x from 0 to 4 and y from 0 to 4)

For example, let us find the area of the rectangle bounded by $x = 0$, $x = 4$, $y = 0$ and $y = 4$. We first integrate with respect to y and then with respect to x .

Example:

$$\text{Find the value of } \int_0^4 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x}} 2x \sqrt{4-x} \, dx \, dy$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^4 \left(\int_0^{\sqrt{4-x}} 2x \sqrt{4-x} \, dx \right) dy = \int_0^4 \left(\int_0^{\sqrt{4-x}} 2x \sqrt{4-x} \, dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_0^4 \left(x^2 \sqrt{4-x} - \frac{x^3}{3} \sqrt{4-x} \right) dy = \int_0^4 \left(x^2 \sqrt{4-x} - \frac{x^3}{3} \sqrt{4-x} \right) dy \\ &= \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} = 2 - \frac{8}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

2.13.2 Change of order of Integration

A double integral can be evaluated by the change of order of integration or change of limits of integration. When a region is bounded by some fixed curves, the region of integration and the order of integration are decided. If we decide the order of integration, the limits of integration will change and the order of integration will change accordingly. We will discuss the change of order of integration.

The change of order of integration is required when the limits of integration of a double integral are such that we can make them easier.

Example:1

Find the area of the region in the first quadrant

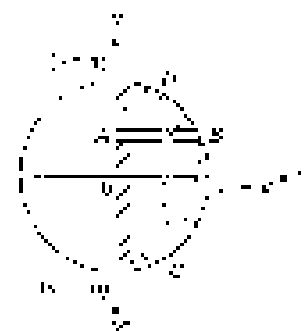
$$I = \int_0^4 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x}} 2x \sqrt{4-x} \, dx \, dy$$

Solution:

The boundary of the region AB is $y = 0$ to $y = \sqrt{4-x}$.

Consider the region AB is $y = 0$ to $y = \sqrt{4-x}$ as the boundary of the region. The region is bounded by $x = 0$ to $x = 4$ and $y = 0$ to $y = \sqrt{4-x}$. The region is bounded by $x = 0$ to $x = 4$ and $y = 0$ to $y = \sqrt{4-x}$.

or



This can be expressed in the form $dy = g(x) dx$

$$x = \int_{-1}^0 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \frac{1}{x^2} dx dy$$

The order of integration can be changed in order to integrate with respect to y first. The limits of integration are $x = -\sqrt{1-y^2}$ to $x = \sqrt{1-y^2}$ and $y = 0$ to $y = 1$ and the integral with respect to y is $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dy = 0$ for $x = \pm \sqrt{1-y^2}$ due to the odd function. The only contribution to the integral is from $y = 0$ to $y = 1$ and the integral is $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dy = \frac{1}{x}$.

$$x = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

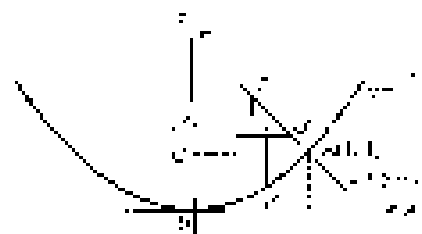
$$x = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{\sqrt{1-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \frac{1}{x^2} dx dy = 0$$

Example 2

Change the order of integration of the $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \frac{1}{x^2} dx dy$ and evaluate the integral.

Solution:

As a first step, draw a first sketch of the region of integration which extends from $y = 0$ to $y = 1$ and $x = 0$ to $x = \sqrt{1-y^2}$. The region is shaded in the figure. The region is bounded by the curve $x = \sqrt{1-y^2}$ and the y -axis. The region is shown in the figure.



On changing the order of integration, we integrate with respect to x first and then y . The region is divided into two parts: the region OAB and the region ABC . The region OAB is bounded by the x -axis and the line $x=1$. The region ABC is bounded by the line $x=1$ and the curve $x=\sqrt{1-y^2}$.

For the region OAB , the limits of integration are $x = 0$ to $x = 1$ and $y = 0$ to $y = 1$. For the region ABC , the limits of integration are $x = 1$ to $x = \sqrt{1-y^2}$ and $y = 0$ to $y = 1$.

$$x = \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \frac{1}{x^2} dx dy$$

For the region OAB , the limits of integration are $x = 0$ to $x = 1$ and $y = 0$ to $y = 1$. For the region ABC , the limits of integration are $x = 1$ to $x = \sqrt{1-y^2}$ and $y = 0$ to $y = 1$.

$$x = \int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \frac{1}{x^2} dx dy$$

$$x = \int_0^1 \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_0^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy + \int_0^1 \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \right) \right] dy + \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} \right] dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy + \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \right] + \left[\frac{\pi}{2} \right] = \frac{3}{2}$$

2.13.3 Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates

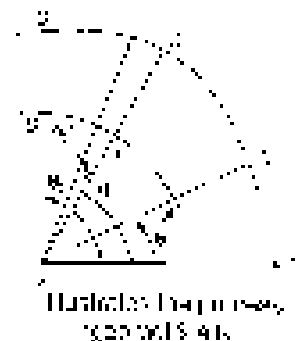
To evaluate $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} R(r, \theta) r dr d\theta$, the diagram below is seen with $r = 0$

and $r = 2\cos\theta$ (represented by the $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi/2$ lines). From $\theta = 0$, θ_1 is the angle, θ_2 is the angle of point θ_1 , θ_3 is the angle.

Here $\theta_1 = 0$ and $\theta_2 = \pi/2$ and $\theta_3 = \pi/2$ is the angle of the point $\theta_3 = 0$ and $\theta_4 = \pi/2$ is the angle of the point $\theta_4 = 0$.

For $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} R(r, \theta) r dr d\theta$, the diagram below is seen with $r = 0$ and $r = 2\cos\theta$ (represented by the $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi/2$ lines).

The value of the double integral is the area of the region. The value of the integral is the area of the region. The value of the integral is the area of the region.



Example:

Calculate $\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} R(r, \theta) r dr d\theta$ over the region R in the polar coordinate system.

Solution:

Given curve $r = 2\cos\theta$

and $\theta = 0$ to $\theta = \pi/2$

and the region R is shown in the diagram below. The region R is the region of integration.

The region R is the region of integration. The region R is the region of integration. The region R is the region of integration.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} R(r, \theta) r dr d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[\frac{1}{2} R(r, \theta) r^2 \right]_0^{2\cos\theta} d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} R(r, \theta) (2\cos\theta)^2 d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} R(r, \theta) 4\cos^2\theta d\theta \end{aligned}$$

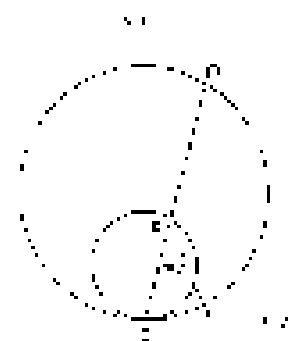
Using double integral

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2\theta d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left[\theta + \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} + 0 \right] = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

Area $R = \frac{\pi}{4}$

$$\text{So } \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} R(r, \theta) r dr d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{4} \right]$$

$$\text{So, the area of the region } R = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{8} \approx 0.3927$$

**2.13.4 Area Enclosed by Plane Curves**

The area enclosed by curves $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ in the Cartesian coordinate system is given by the double integral

$$\int_a^b \int_{f(x)}^{g(x)} dy dx$$



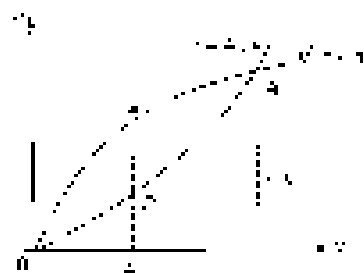
Example

Find the volume between the cylinder $y = 2\cos x$ and $z = 4\cos x - \frac{16}{3}x^2$.

Solution:

The equation $y = 2\cos x$ and $z = 4\cos x - \frac{16}{3}x^2$ intersect at $x = \pm\pi/4$ and $x = 3\pi/4$ and $x = 5\pi/4$. An upper bound is obtained on the interval $[-\pi/4, \pi/4]$ and $[3\pi/4, 5\pi/4]$ and a lower bound is obtained on the interval $[\pi/4, 3\pi/4]$ and $[5\pi/4, 7\pi/4]$. Hence, the volume is

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \int_{\frac{16}{3}x^2}^{4\cos x} 2\cos x \, dz \, dx \\ &= \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} (8\cos x - \frac{32}{3}x^2) \, dx \\ &= \left[8\sin x - \frac{32}{9}x^3 \right]_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \\ &= \frac{32}{2}\sqrt{2} - \frac{16}{9}\sqrt{2} = \frac{16}{3}\sqrt{2}. \end{aligned}$$



2.13.5 Triple Integrals

Consider a function $w(x, y, z)$ defined on some part of the xyz -space. This region of space is given in rectangular volume $R = [x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2] \times [z_1, z_2]$ and $\Delta x = \Delta y = \Delta z = \Delta V$. Consider the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^N w(x_i, y_i, z_i) \Delta V.$$

Then, if ΔV is small, the expression above is \approx the volume integral of $w(x, y, z)$ over the region R is denoted by

$$\iiint_R w(x, y, z) \, dV.$$

The volume element dV is $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$ and the volume integral

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \int_{z_1}^{z_2} w(x, y, z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

is a volume integral of w over the volume of the region R . If $w(x, y, z) = 1$, the volume integral is the volume of the region R and is denoted as follows:

First dz is fixed and integrated with z between the limits z_1 and z_2 , keeping x and y fixed. The resulting expression is integrated with y between the limits y_1 and y_2 , keeping x fixed. The result is then finally integrated with x between x_1 and x_2 .

$$V = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \int_{z_1}^{z_2} 1 \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

It is also important to remember that the order and location of the volume element matters.

The order of integration may be different for different parts of this

Example 1

$$\text{Evaluate } \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y + z) \, dz \, dy \, dx.$$

Solution:

The given function is homogeneous and hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_1^2 \int_1^2 \left[(x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} - xy \right] dx dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \int_1^2 \left[(x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{1}{2}xy \right] dx dy = \int_1^2 \left[\frac{2}{5}(x^2 + y^2)^{\frac{5}{2}} + \frac{1}{4}x^2y \right]_1^2 dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \left[\frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{5}{2} + y^2 \right)^{\frac{5}{2}} + \frac{y^2}{2} \right] dy = \left[\frac{2}{7} \left(\frac{5}{2} + y^2 \right)^{\frac{7}{2}} + \frac{y^3}{6} \right]_1^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2

Evaluate $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} x^2 \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2} dy dx / \pi$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{We have, } I &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 \left[\int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} x^2 \sqrt{1-x^2-y^2} dy \right] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{3} (1-x^2-y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int_0^1 \left[\int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (1-x^2-y^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} dy \right] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (1-x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left[\frac{2}{3} (1-x^2-y^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 (1-x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} (1-x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 (1-x^2)^3 dx = \frac{1}{3} \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \frac{x^9}{9} - \frac{x^{11}}{11} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} \right) \end{aligned}$$

2.14 Vectors

2.14.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with vectors and scalar fields in 3 space and extends the standard vector algebra to include cross and dot products and other quantities. This covers the algebra and calculus of these vector functions in the scalar instrument theory of physics and engineering, such as mechanics, fluid dynamics and electricity and magnetism. The physical motivation for these is given in the text and examples of applications of systems of vector functions are given. The chapter also covers the operations of differentiation and integration of vector fields and the applications of these to physics and engineering.

We first explain the standard vector operations with vectors and then we discuss differential calculus applied to vector fields and integral calculus applied to vector fields. The chapter also covers the applications of these to physics and engineering. The chapter also covers the applications of these to physics and engineering.

We first explain the standard vector operations with vectors and then we discuss differential calculus applied to vector fields and integral calculus applied to vector fields. The chapter also covers the applications of these to physics and engineering.

Example:

Two points are origin O and A .

The vector \vec{r}_1 with initial point $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and terminal point $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ has the components

$$x_1 = 0, \quad y_1 = 2, \quad z_1 = 1; \quad x_2 = -1, \quad y_2 = -1, \quad z_2 = 2. \quad \text{Find } \vec{r}_1.$$

Solution:

Then,

$$\vec{r}_1 = (x_2 - x_1, y_2 - y_1, z_2 - z_1)$$

$$= (-1 - 0, -1 - 2, 2 - 1) = (-1, -3, 1)$$

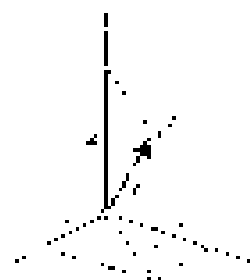
Two more points $A, B(x_2, y_2, z_2)$ are initial point of \vec{r}_2 and \vec{r}_3 respectively. Let initial point of \vec{r}_2 be $A(1, 2, 3)$.

We choose the origin $O(0, 0, 0)$ as the initial point of \vec{r}_2 and \vec{r}_3 respectively. Let initial point of \vec{r}_3 be $B(2, 1, 1)$. Then initial point of \vec{r}_2 and \vec{r}_3 are $A(1, 2, 3)$ and $B(2, 1, 1)$ respectively. Then initial point of \vec{r}_2 and \vec{r}_3 are $A(1, 2, 3)$ and $B(2, 1, 1)$ respectively. This suggests that we can determine each vector in terms of its components as follows:

2.14.5 Position Vector

In three-dimensional system being given, the position vector of a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ is the vector with its tail at the origin $O(0, 0, 0)$ and the tip at point A . Also, the initial point O is $(0, 0, 0)$.

Let \vec{r} be the position vector of a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and the terminal point A . Then corresponding coordinates of A are x_1, y_1, z_1 . If we write $\vec{r} = x_1\hat{i} + y_1\hat{j} + z_1\hat{k}$, then the components of \vec{r} are x_1, y_1, z_1 . This proves



Position vector of a point $A(x_1, y_1, z_1)$

2.14.5.1 Vectors as Ordered Triples of Real Numbers

Theorem: A fixed origin O in a 3D system being given, and a vector \vec{r} is fully determined by its direction and its corresponding coordinates x_1, y_1, z_1 . Conversely, to each ordered triple of real numbers (x_1, y_1, z_1) there corresponds a unique vector $\vec{r} = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ in 3D space. In this ordered triple (x_1, y_1, z_1) , the first number x_1 is the x -component of \vec{r} , which has length $|x_1|$ in the direction

of the x -axis. A vector equation $\vec{r} = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ is equivalent to a three equations $x_1 = x_1, y_1 = y_1, z_1 = z_1$ for the components.

As we have seen, our definition of vectors as a row of three real numbers (x_1, y_1, z_1) is equivalent of the definition of vectors as a row of three real numbers (x_1, y_1, z_1) in 3D space. This suggests that we can determine each vector in terms of its components as follows:

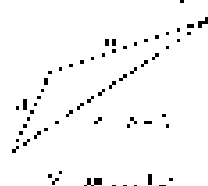
2.14.6 Vector Addition, Scalar Multiplication

As we have seen, we suggested a geometric interpretation of vectors that are provided by the laws of vector addition and scalar multiplication.

2.14.6.1 Definitions:

Addition of Vectors: The sum of two vectors $\vec{a} = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$ and $\vec{b} = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$ is obtained as follows:

$$\vec{a} + \vec{b} = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2, z_1 + z_2)$$



$\vec{a} + \vec{b} = \vec{a} + \vec{b}$

Geometrically, adding two vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} is done by the tip of \vec{a} as the terminal point of \vec{b} . Then $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$ is the vector from the initial point of \vec{a} to the terminal point of \vec{b} .

Figure 2.14.6.1 illustrates the vector addition parallelogram rule by which we obtain the resultant vector \mathbf{c} from two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

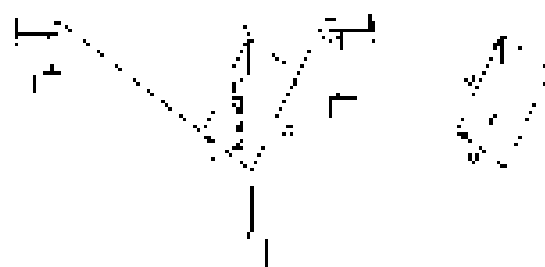


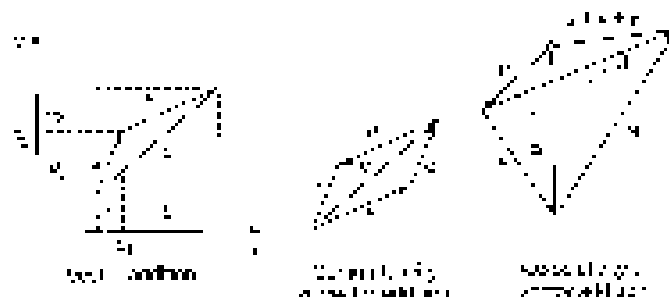
Figure 2.14.6.1: Vector addition

Figure 2.14.6.2 illustrates the triangle rule for the algebraic addition of vectors. (The geometric way for addition of vectors is the same thing.)

Main properties of vector addition (also immediately known to be true using the unit vectors)

- $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{a}$ (commutative)
- $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$ (associative)
- $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$
- $\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{0}$

where $\mathbf{0}$ is the zero vector having the length 0 and the magnitude opposite to that of \mathbf{a} .



Property (1) above indicates that $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$ (we can group \mathbf{a} with \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{a} with \mathbf{c} and similarly for sums of more \mathbf{a} 's and \mathbf{b} 's). Also notice that $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{a}$ can be written $2\mathbf{a}$, and so on. The last property (4) above suggests the existence of the opposite vector $-\mathbf{a}$ for vector \mathbf{a} (note the multiplication of vectors by a scalar -1 in fact).

2.14.6.2 Definition: 2

Scalar Multiplication (Multiplication by a Number): The scalar $k\mathbf{a}$ is any new vector $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and any scalar k (a real number) is a vector obtained by multiplying each component of \mathbf{a} by k .

$$k\mathbf{a} = (ka_1, ka_2, ka_3)$$

Observe that if $k = 0$ then $k\mathbf{a}$ will be the zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ (a vector of the zero length) no matter how many components \mathbf{a} has, and if $k = 1$ then $k\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$ and if $k = -1$ then $k\mathbf{a} = -\mathbf{a}$ for both.



Figure 2.14.6.3: Scalar multiplication by a positive scalar k



Figure 2.14.6.4: Scalar multiplication by a negative scalar $-k$

Example:

Vector Addition and Multiplication by Scalars.

Find the product of given coordinate system is

$$\vec{a} = -4\hat{i} + \hat{j}, \text{ and } \vec{b} = \left[\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \right]$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1st} \quad \vec{a} &= -4\hat{i} + \hat{j}, \quad \vec{b} = \left[\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \right] \quad \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \left[\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \right] \cdot \left[-4\hat{i} + \hat{j} \right] \text{ and} \\ 2\text{nd} \quad \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} &= -4\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} + 5\hat{j} \cdot \hat{j} = -4(0) + 5(1) = 5 \quad \therefore \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 5 \end{aligned}$$

2.14.7 Unit Vectors

Any vector of unit length is called unit vector \hat{i} , \hat{j} and \hat{k} the magnitude of specific unit vector, where \hat{i} is along x , \hat{j} along y and \hat{k} along z axis

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{i} &= \frac{1}{|\vec{a}|} \vec{a} = \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|} \\ \hat{i} &= \cos \theta_x + j \sin \theta_x \end{aligned}$$

Also every unit vector satisfies

2.14.7.1 Representation of Vectors in Terms of \hat{i} , \hat{j} and \hat{k}

$$\vec{a} = a_x \hat{i} + a_y \hat{j} + a_z \hat{k} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{a} = a_x \hat{i} + a_y \hat{j}$$

1. To represent vector \vec{a} in terms of unit vector in the x , y and z direction or the area of a Cartesian coordinate system

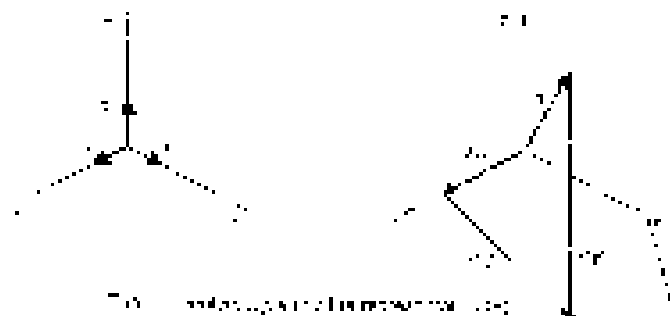


Fig. 2.14 and 2.15 Representation of vector

$$\vec{a} = 1\hat{i} + 2\hat{j} \quad \vec{b} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} \quad \vec{c} = 5\hat{i} + 6\hat{j}$$

Also, length of vector $\vec{a} = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2} = 2.24$ and $\vec{b} = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$ and $\vec{c} = \sqrt{5^2 + 6^2} = 7.81$

Example:

$\vec{a} = 2$ is value for vector

Solution:

$$\text{In previous example we have } \vec{a} = 2\hat{i} \quad \text{and } \vec{b} = \left[\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \right]$$

$$\text{As } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 2\hat{i} \cdot \left[\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \right] = 2\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} + 10\hat{i} \cdot \hat{k} = 0 \quad \text{and } \hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = 0 \quad \text{and } \hat{i} \cdot \hat{k} = 0$$

2.14.8 Length and Direction of Vectors

Any vector \vec{a} may be written as a scalar ($|\vec{a}|$) \times unit vector in direction of \vec{a}

$$\vec{a} = |\vec{a}| \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}$$

1. To find the length of vector \vec{a} $\frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}$ is unit vector in direction of \vec{a}

Example 1.

Express \vec{r} in the standard form of length and direction

$$\vec{r} = 3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j}$$

Solution:

$$|\text{Length of } \vec{r}| = |\vec{r}| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2}$$

$$\text{Required unit vector} = \frac{\vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} = \frac{3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j}}{5} = \frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j}$$

$$\therefore \vec{r} = 5\left(\frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j}\right) = 3\hat{i} - 4\hat{j} = 5\left(\frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j}\right)$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence, } \frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j} = \frac{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2}}{\sqrt{3^2 + 4^2}} \left(\frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j}\right) = 1$$

Since $\frac{3}{5}\hat{i} - \frac{4}{5}\hat{j}$ is a unit vector.

Example 2.

Express \vec{r} in the standard form of $\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$

Solution:

$$\text{The required vector} = \frac{\vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} = \frac{x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\hat{i} + \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}\hat{j}$$

Example 3.

Find unit vector tangent to the curve

$$\vec{r} = \frac{2t^2}{3}\hat{i} + \frac{1}{2}3t\hat{j} \text{ at } t = 1$$

Solution:

Unit vector tangent to curve:

$$\vec{r} = \left[\frac{2t^2}{3}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{2}t\hat{j} \right] = \frac{4}{3}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{2}\hat{j}$$

Any vector with element \hat{i} can be written as

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j}$$

$$|\vec{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{13}$$

A unit vector in the direction of \vec{r}

$$\frac{\vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|} = \frac{4\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}}{\sqrt{13}} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j}$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence, } \frac{4}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j}$$

is the unit vector tangent to the curve, but it opposite to \vec{r} is not a

Unit vector normal to curve

$$\vec{r} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j}$$

Any vector normal to \vec{r} is given by $\vec{r} \times \vec{r}$ as perpendicular of the vector

$$\left(\frac{4}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j} \right) \times$$

$$\text{So vector } \vec{m} \text{ is } \vec{m} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\hat{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\hat{j} \text{ and } \frac{3}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j}$$

$$\text{And } \vec{n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{i} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{13}}\hat{j} \text{ is the direction of the normal to the plane, the required direction is}$$

2.14.9 Inner Product (Dot Product)

We shall now discuss multiplication of two vectors. Let us consider the following two vectors as shown by the following figure.

Definition: Inner Product (Dot Product) of Vectors

If \vec{a} and \vec{b} are two vectors product of \vec{a} and \vec{b} is called dot product and is denoted by $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$. The magnitude of the angle is denoted by θ as shown.

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

The angle θ is always a vector with a fix direction which depends on the direction of the two particles as shown by the following figure.



If two vectors $\vec{a} = [a_1, a_2, a_3]$ and $\vec{b} = [b_1, b_2, b_3]$ are

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_3 b_3$$

can also be written as

Since the value of θ may be positive, zero, or negative it may be the inner product. The case that the inner product is zero is called orthogonal vectors. It is given as follows $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$

is called the vector orthogonal to a vector if $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$. For the value of θ equal to 90° and 270° the value of $\cos \theta$ is zero. Therefore, the vectors are orthogonal. For the value of θ equal to 0° and 180° the value of $\cos \theta$ is ± 1 ($\cos 0^\circ = 1$ and $\cos 180^\circ = -1$). This gives the following important theorem.

Theorem:1 (Orthogonality)

The inner product of two nonzero vectors is zero if and only if the vectors are orthogonal.

Length and Angle in Terms of Inner Product: Let \vec{a} and \vec{b} be such that $\vec{b} = a \cos \theta$ and $a = |\vec{a}|$

$$a = \frac{|\vec{a}|}{\cos \theta}$$

From (1) and (2) we obtain the following relation between the vectors

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

Example:

The inner product of two vectors $\vec{a} = [1, 2]$ and $\vec{b} = [3, -2]$ is equal to the value of $\cos \theta$ is given by

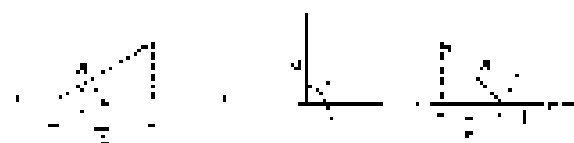
Solution:

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 1 \times 3 + 2 \times (-2) = -1$$

$$|\vec{a}| = \sqrt{a^2} = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

Let θ be the angle of inclination of the line along which the projection is made. Then the vector \vec{a} is equally divided into two parts, OP and PQ where $OP = PQ$. This and the following figure show the vector \vec{a} divided into two parts OP and PQ which are mathematically expressed as follows:

Vector Projection: OP is the vector projection of \vec{a} on the line OX as shown.



$$a = OP + PQ$$

\Rightarrow Projection of vector \vec{a} on the line OX is equal to vector OP in direction of \vec{a} .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proj. } \vec{a} &= |\vec{a}| \cos(\theta) \left[\frac{1}{1} \right] \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{3 \times 1 + 4 \times 0 + 0 \times 0}{1} = 3 \end{aligned}$$

So, the projection of \vec{a} on OX is 3. Hence, the component of vector \vec{a} in the direction of \vec{a} is equal to 3, as required in the question.

Example:

Vector projection of \vec{a} on another vector \vec{b}

Find the vector projection of \vec{a} on \vec{b} where $\vec{a} = 3\hat{i} - 2\hat{j} + 4\hat{k}$ and $\vec{b} = 2\hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$.

Solution:

$$\text{Proj. } \vec{a} = \left[\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|^2} \right] \vec{b} = \left[\frac{(3\hat{i} - 2\hat{j} + 4\hat{k}) \cdot (2\hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k})}{(2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2)} \right] (2\hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}) = \frac{8}{25} (2\hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}) = \frac{16}{25} \hat{i} + \frac{8}{25} \hat{j} + \frac{8}{25} \hat{k}$$

2.14.10 Vector Product (Cross Product)

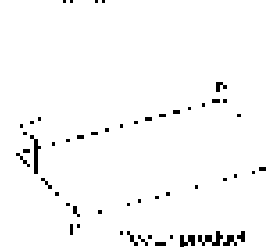
The vector product is denoted by $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ and is a vector. For instance, in a motion of a rotating body, the result is a product of the angular velocity and the vector. This is called vector product of two vectors or the cross product.

Definition: Vector product (Cross product)

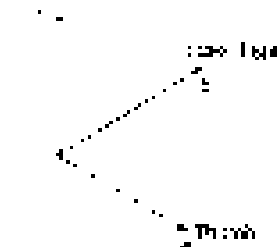
The vector product (cross product) $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ of two vectors $\vec{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$ and $\vec{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$ is defined as

$\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = (a_2 b_3 - a_3 b_2)\hat{i} + (a_3 b_1 - a_1 b_3)\hat{j} + (a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1)\hat{k}$. So, $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ was a three-dimensional system, with \hat{i} , \hat{j} , and \hat{k} as a three-dimensional sequential Cartesian coordinate system.

Let $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{c}$



Let $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{c}$



$\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ will have the same or opposite direction as \vec{c} if one of these vectors is the zero vector, then $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} = \vec{0}$. In any other case, $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} \neq \vec{0}$ for the angle.

$$\mathbf{r} = 12\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$$

Find the area of the parallelogram T (Figure 2.14.10.2) and find its direction cosines (p.e. the angles between \mathbf{n} and \mathbf{i} , \mathbf{j}). The direction cosines of a vector are the cosines of the angles that it makes with the x , y , and z axes. The direction cosines are denoted by α , β , and γ and are related to the direction cosines by the following equation:

$$\text{In components, } \mathbf{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z) = \alpha\mathbf{i} + \beta\mathbf{j} + \gamma\mathbf{k}$$

$$2. \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = 2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - 2\mathbf{k}$$

Use the direction cosines of the vectors \mathbf{v}_1 , \mathbf{v}_2 , and \mathbf{v}_3 to find the area of the parallelogram T and its direction cosines.

In terms of determinants:

$$v_1 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & 1 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}, \quad v_3 = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 2 & 3 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

Let $\mathbf{v}_1 = (v_{11}, v_{12}, v_{13})$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (v_{21}, v_{22}, v_{23})$, and $\mathbf{v}_3 = (v_{31}, v_{32}, v_{33})$ be the vectors in the form of the following:

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & v_{13} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & v_{23} \\ v_{31} & v_{32} & v_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

Use the following formula to find the magnitude of the vector \mathbf{v} in terms of its components:

2.14.10.3 Finding a Unit Vector Perpendicular to two Given Vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b}

A unit vector perpendicular to two plane vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is given by

$$\mathbf{c} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|}$$

Example 1

Find a unit vector perpendicular to the vectors $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$.

Solution:

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i}(16 - 15) - \mathbf{j}(12 - 10) + \mathbf{k}(9 - 8) = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

Example 2

Find a unit vector perpendicular to the vectors $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$.

Solution:

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i}(16 - 15) - \mathbf{j}(12 - 10) + \mathbf{k}(9 - 8) = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

A unit vector perpendicular to both \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is

$$\mathbf{c} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{1^2 + (-2)^2 + 1^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$$

The unit vector perpendicular to both \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is $\mathbf{c} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}(\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$.

Example 3.

The vector \vec{r} originates from the origin O and $\vec{r} = 3\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}$ and $\vec{s} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}$ represent the P1 and P2 points.

(a) Find the area of ΔOS .

(b) The parallelogram formed by \vec{r} , \vec{s} and $\vec{r} + \vec{s}$ as co-terminous.

Solution:

Given $\vec{r} = 3\hat{i} + 2\hat{j}$ and $\vec{s} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}$ and $\vec{r} + \vec{s} = 5\hat{i} + 5\hat{j}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \vec{r} \times \vec{s} &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (3 \times 3 - 2 \times 2)\hat{k} = (9 - 4)\hat{k} = 5\hat{k} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \vec{r} \times \vec{s} \right| = \sqrt{5^2} = 5 \text{ units}$$

$$\therefore \text{Area of } \Delta OS = \frac{1}{2} \left| \vec{r} \times \vec{s} \right| = \frac{1}{2} \times 5 \text{ sq. units} = \frac{5}{2} \text{ sq. units.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Area of parallelogram formed by } \vec{r} \text{ and } \vec{s} \text{ as co-terminous} \\ = \left| \vec{r} \times \vec{s} \right| = 5 \text{ sq. units} \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.

(a) Find the area of the triangle whose vertices $A(1, 2)$, $B(3, 5)$ and $C(7, 5)$.

Solution:

Let the vectors \vec{r} and \vec{s} represent the sides AB and AC of a triangle.

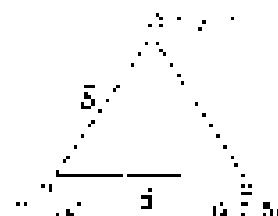
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} &= \vec{AB} = \vec{PB} - \vec{PA} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} \\ \vec{s} &= \vec{AC} = \vec{PC} - \vec{PA} = 6\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} \\ &= 2(3\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \vec{r} \times \vec{s} &= \vec{AB} \times \vec{AC} = \vec{PB} \times \vec{PC} = 4\hat{k} \\ &= 4 - 5\hat{k} + 6\hat{k} - 3\hat{k} = 2\hat{k} = 2 \text{ units} \end{aligned}$$

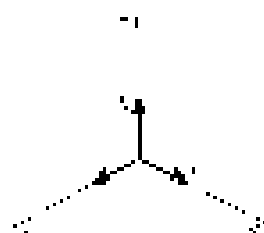
$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \vec{r} \times \vec{s} &= \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 6 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = (2 \times 3 - 3 \times 6)\hat{k} = -12\hat{k} \\ &= -6(2\hat{k}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \vec{r} \times \vec{s} \right| = \sqrt{(-12)^2} = 12 \text{ units}$$

$$\therefore \text{The area of } \Delta ABC = \frac{1}{2} \times 12 = 6 \text{ sq. units}$$



2.14.10.2 Vector Products of the Standard Basis Vectors



Using the right-hand rule (illustrated in the diagram below), the definition of vector products gives you the useful formulae for the product of two standard basis vectors (right-hand coordinate system):

$$i \times j = k$$

$$j \times k = i$$

$$k \times i = j$$

$$j \times i = -k$$

$$k \times j = -i$$

$$i \times k = -j$$

2.14.10.3 General Properties of Vector Products

Vector Product has the property that for every vector \mathbf{r}

$$(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{i}) \cdot \mathbf{i} = (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{j}) \cdot \mathbf{j} = (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0$$

$\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r}$ is a vector with associated vector equation, with

$$\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r} - (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r} - (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r}$$

It is not commutative (i.e. anti-commutative) means

$$\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{s} = -\mathbf{s} \times \mathbf{r}$$

It is distributive, that is

$$\mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{t}) = (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{s}) + (\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{t})$$

where the parentheses cannot be omitted

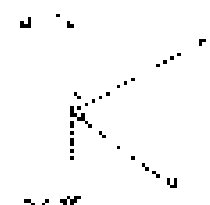


Fig. 2.14.10.3

2.14.11 Scalar Triple Product

The scalar triple product of three vectors \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} is denoted

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}), \mathbf{a}_1 \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{a}_3 \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{b} \cdot (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{a}), \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{b}_3 \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}), \mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{c}_2 \mathbf{c}_3$$

\mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are in the xy -plane and \mathbf{c} is parallel to the z -axis, then $\mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$

We get a scalar if \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} are in the xy -plane. To find the scalar $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{c}_1 \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{c}_2 \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{c}_3 \mathbf{k})$. For this the scalar product is a scalar (number)

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c} = a_1 c_1 + a_2 c_2 + a_3 c_3$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

The expression is the $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ with the expression of \mathbf{b} in the xy -plane (i.e. $\mathbf{b} = b_1 \mathbf{i} + b_2 \mathbf{j}$)

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Geometric Interpretation of Scalar Triple Products

The absolute value of the scalar triple product is the volume of the cube spanned with \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} as edge vectors (i.e. $|\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})| = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| |\mathbf{c}| \cos \theta$ where θ is the angle between \mathbf{a} and $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$).

A thin wire bent in this shape [shown in figure] is kept in a uniform electric field E in the xy -plane. Find a condition on a, b, c and d for equilibrium.

Solution: Let us assume

$$[x, y, z] = [x_1, y_1, z_1]$$

coordinates of the end of wire. The potential due to electric field E (in xy -plane) can be taken as $V = Ex$. Therefore, the potential is,

$$V = (Ex)_1 - (Ex)_2 = E(x_1 - x_2)$$

Proof:
$$V = \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & z_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & z_2 \\ x_3 & y_3 & z_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } V = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 - x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$$

For equilibrium, the net force on each end of the thin wire must be zero. The induced electric field is,

$$E_{\text{induced}} = -\frac{dV}{dx} = -E$$

hence $E_{\text{induced}} = -E$. $E_{\text{induced}} = E$ (in xy -plane)

∴ The value of the induced electric field depends upon the sign of the charges, i.e., x_1 is at a positive end of the section of wire and x_2 is at a negative end of the section of wire and vice versa.

$$E_{\text{induced}} = -E \Rightarrow E_{\text{induced}} = E$$

Example

A tetrahedron is determined by the vertices $A(0, 0, 0)$, $B(1, 0, 0)$ and $C(0, 1, 0)$.

Find its volume. (with respect to origin) and Centroid and the axes

$A = (0, 0, 0)$ and $B = (1, 0, 0)$, $C = (0, 1, 0)$.



Solution:

The volume of the parallelepiped with the same vertices as the tetrahedron is 6 times the volume of the tetrahedron.

$$V = \frac{1}{6} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{6} (1 \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot 0) = \frac{1}{6}$$

The value of the determinant indicates that the volume of the tetrahedron is $\frac{1}{6}$ of the volume of the parallelepiped.

∴ The volume of the tetrahedron is $\frac{1}{6}$ of the volume of the parallelepiped.

Testing Linear Independence of 3 Vectors using Scalar Triple Product:

Three vectors a, b, c are linearly independent if and only if the scalar triple product is non-zero. If the scalar triple product is zero, the vectors are linearly dependent. If the scalar triple product is non-zero, the vectors are linearly independent.

$$[a, b, c] = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$$

is satisfied, then a, b, c are linearly independent. If the scalar triple product is zero, the vectors are linearly dependent. If the scalar triple product is non-zero, the vectors are linearly independent.

Now three vectors a, b, c are linearly independent if and only if the scalar triple product is non-zero. If the scalar triple product is zero, the vectors are linearly dependent. If the scalar triple product is non-zero, the vectors are linearly independent.

Example 1

Scalar function (F) of three-dimensional space;

Solution:

The distance of the point P from a fixed point P_0 is called a scalar function. We know that in a rectangular coordinate system, the coordinates of the point P are (x, y, z) . Then the distance of the point P from the point P_0 having coordinates (x_0, y_0, z_0) is given by the following formula:

$$r(P) = r(x, y, z) = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2}$$

where x, y, z are the coordinates of P and x_0, y_0, z_0 are given coordinates of the point P_0 . For example, if the point P is the origin O of the coordinate system, then the coordinates of P_0 will be general origin, but $r(O)$ will be the distance of the point P from the origin O of the coordinate system. The distance of the point P from the point P_0 is a scalar function because the value will be a scalar value for each point P in the space.

Example 2

Vector field (Velocity field);

Solution:

At any instant the velocity vectors \vec{v} of all particles moving constitute a vector field. The associated velocity field at the instant t may be called a *velocity field* or *velocity space* having the position of the particle (x, y, z) as

$$\vec{v}(x, y, z) = v_x(x, y, z)\vec{i} + v_y(x, y, z)\vec{j} + v_z(x, y, z)\vec{k} = v(x, y, z)\vec{r}$$

where x, y, z are the coordinates of the point P of the particle and \vec{r} is the position vector of the particle. We assume a vector field to be a velocity field or velocity space if the velocity vectors \vec{v} are all in the same direction and magnitude in the positive z -direction. Then $v_x = v_y = v_z = 0$

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ v \end{pmatrix} = v\vec{k} \quad \text{where } v = v(x, y, z) \neq 0$$

An example of a rotating body and the corresponding velocity field are shown in Figure 20.6a. Also shown is a vector velocity space for the rotating body of the

Figure 20.6a: Rotating body

Figure 20.6b: Velocity space

Vector Calculus: We show examples that the analysis of vector fields, such as divergence, curl, and other fields, can be used to find the vector field in a given region and also a very important role in the vector calculus.

Convergence: A sequence of vectors $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3, \dots$ is said to converge if there is a vector \vec{a} such that,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \vec{a}_n = \vec{a} \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{a}$$

\vec{a} is called the limit or limit vector and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \vec{a}_n = \vec{a}$$

continuous, the limit of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ as t approaches a is the same as the limit of each of the components of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ as t approaches a .

Similarly, a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of a real variable t will be said to have the limit \mathbf{L} as t approaches a if $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined in some neighbourhood of a (possibly except at a) and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \|\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{L}\| = 0.$$

Then we write $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{L}$.

Continuity: A vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is said to be continuous at $t = a$ if $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is defined in some region R of \mathbb{R}^1 and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(a).$$

Now if a mass moves in a 3-D system, we may write

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = [x(t), y(t), z(t)] = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}.$$

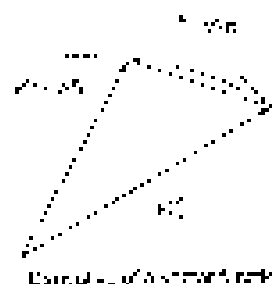
Each of x , y , and z is a scalar function of t . In three dimensions we continue as in 2-D. We now state the most important of these relations.

2.14.13.1 Derivative of a Vector Function

A vector function is said to be differentiable at a point if it is taking the form

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{\Delta t}$$

reads the vector $\mathbf{r}(t)$ is called the derivative of $\mathbf{r}(t)$. See Figure above. The vector in this figure is the limit of the difference of the vectors $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t)$ and $\mathbf{r}(t)$ as Δt approaches 0. The independent variable t is a scalar containing units of Δt .



If a vector function consists of three scalar functions, we may differentiate each of these functions separately. Their components are x , y , and z and their derivatives $\frac{dx}{dt}$, $\frac{dy}{dt}$, and $\frac{dz}{dt}$ are the components of the derivative.

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \left[\frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{dy}{dt}, \frac{dz}{dt} \right]$$

It follows that all the rules of differentiation corresponding to scalar functions are valid for vectors.

$$\frac{d}{dt}(c\mathbf{r}) = c\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \quad (\text{c constant})$$

$$(u \pm v)' = u' \pm v' \text{ and in particular,}$$

$$(\mathbf{r} \pm \mathbf{s})' = \mathbf{r}' \pm \mathbf{s}' \text{ and } \mathbf{r}' \pm \mathbf{s}'$$

$$(\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{s})' = \mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{s}'$$

$$(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s})' = \mathbf{r}' \cdot \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s}' \quad (\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s}' + \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{r}') = \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s})$$

The general rule for vectors must be carefully examined because of the differentiation of a scalar function.

Example 1:

Derivative of a vector function of constant length.

Solution:

Let $\mathbf{r}(t)$ be a vector function whose length is constant, i.e., $\|\mathbf{r}(t)\| = a$. Then $\|\mathbf{r}\|^2 = a^2$ or $\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r} = a^2$.

Let $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$, $a^2 = a^2$, $a = a$, by differentiation. This gives the following result: The derivative of a vector function $\mathbf{r}(t)$ of constant length is either $\mathbf{0}$ or a vector perpendicular to $\mathbf{r}(t)$.

2.14.13.2 Partial Derivatives of a Vector Function

Consider a vector field \mathbf{r} as a function of x, y, z and differentiate it with respect to each of the variables, as pointed out as follows. Suppose that the components of vector \mathbf{r} are

$$\mathbf{r} = [x, y, z], \quad \mathbf{r}_1 = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$$

and differentiate functions of variables x, y, z . Then the partial derivative of vector \mathbf{r} is denoted by $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial x}$ and is defined as follows: if \mathbf{r} is

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}$$

$$\text{Similarly, } \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial z} = \mathbf{k}.$$

Example:

Q1

$$\mathbf{r}(x, y) = x \cos y\mathbf{i} + x \sin y\mathbf{j} = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k}$$

Solution:

For

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial x} = \cos y\mathbf{i} + \sin y\mathbf{j}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial y} = -x\mathbf{j}$$

We have explained the basic applications of derivatives of vector functions with the help of set in the next sections.

2.14.14 Gradient of a Scalar Field

We shall see the various uses of the vector field in applications related to the physical world and more so in physics. This is also called as a *scalar field* because scalar field can be transferred easily. The relation between the scalar field ϕ is represented completely by the gradient $\nabla \phi$. Here the gradient is a gradient vector (or) gradient.

Definition of Gradient: The gradient of a scalar field ϕ is a vector function $\nabla \phi$. The vector function is denoted by

$$\nabla \phi = \mathbf{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

Here we must know that ϕ is a scalar field, hence becomes a scalar. Here is only scalar plus distance, hence we obtained the $\nabla \phi$ a vector quantity.

$$\nabla = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}$$

Here we can write ∇ and ϕ as

$$\text{gradient} = \nabla \phi = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}\mathbf{k}$$

For example, if $\phi = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$, then $\text{grad } \phi = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}$.

We shall see that gradient is a vector, so the gradient is field in terms of components. Here, a length and direction is important in the Cartesian choice of Cartesian coordinates. But before we see how the gradient, related to $\nabla \phi$, is a length of the vector along the field direction of the ∇ vector, we see that it is a vector given by the ∇ is a vector, so, as we know from calculus, the idea of a vector is that it is a quantity that has both a magnitude and a direction. So, the concept of a vector is a vector.

2.14.15 Directional Derivative

The rate of change of f at (x_0, y_0, z_0) in the direction given by the unit vector \mathbf{u} is denoted $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ or $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$. The direction is denoted \mathbf{u} (a unit vector), and defined by Figure 2.

$$2. \quad D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \frac{df}{ds} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{u}h) - f(0)}{h} \quad (\mathbf{u} = \text{direction vector, } |\mathbf{u}| = 1)$$

where \mathbf{u} is a unit vector pointing in the direction of interest (Fig. below).

The coordinates (x, y, z) of the coordinates are (x_0, y_0, z_0) and \mathbf{u} is a unit vector. Then the h is the quantity

$$h = \sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 + (z - z_0)^2} = |\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0| = |\mathbf{r}|$$

\mathbf{r}_0 is the position vector of P_0 . The unit vector \mathbf{u} has the length $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$ and $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0|}$. The function $f(x, y, z)$ is the value of the function at the point (x, y, z) and $f(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ is the value of the function at the point (x_0, y_0, z_0) . The unit vector \mathbf{u} is the direction of the vector $\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0$ and the length of \mathbf{u} is 1.

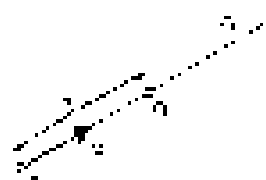


Figure 2. Directional Derivative

$$3. \quad D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \frac{df}{ds} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}u_x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}u_y + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}u_z$$

where $u_x = \frac{\partial x}{\partial s}$, $u_y = \frac{\partial y}{\partial s}$, and $u_z = \frac{\partial z}{\partial s}$ are the direction cosines of \mathbf{u} . The direction cosines are the cosines of the angles between \mathbf{u} and the x , y , and z axes. The direction cosines are denoted u_x , u_y , and u_z .

$$4. \quad D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \frac{df}{ds} = \frac{df}{dr} \frac{dr}{ds} \quad (\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r})$$

where \mathbf{r} is the position vector of P and \mathbf{u} is the unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{r} .

$$5. \quad D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \frac{df}{ds} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}|} \frac{df}{dr} \quad \text{where } \frac{df}{dr} = \frac{df}{ds} \frac{ds}{dr} \quad (\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r})$$

Example

Gradient, Directional Derivative

Find $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$ the directional derivative of $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ at the point $P_0(1, 1, 1)$ in the direction of the vector $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1, 1, 1)$.

Solution:

We obtain $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z) = (1, 1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(1, 1, 1)$, and $f = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} D_{\mathbf{u}}f &= \frac{df}{ds} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{df}{dr} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (2x + 2y + 2z) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (2 + 2 + 2) = \frac{6}{\sqrt{3}} = 2\sqrt{3} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the directional derivative of f at P_0 in the direction of \mathbf{u} is $2\sqrt{3}$.

2.14.16 Gradient Characterizes Maximum Increase

Theorem 1 (Gradient, Maximum Increase)

Let $f(x, y, z) = f(x, y, z)$ be a scalar field having continuous first partial derivatives. Then $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\nabla f}{|\nabla f|}$ is a unit vector pointing in the direction of maximum increase of f at the point $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0)$.

From our Theorem 2, gradient normal vector of the surface at point P is normal to the surface at point P . i.e.,

$$\vec{v} = \left[\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right]_{(x,y,z)} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \hat{j}$$

is the direction vector.

2.14.17 Vector Fields that are Gradients of a Scalar Field ("Potential")

Some vector fields have the advantage that they can be written as the "gradient" of a scalar field, which can be handled more easily. Such a vector field is given by a vector function $\vec{v}(\vec{r})$ which is obtained as the gradient of a scalar function, say, $\psi(\vec{r})$, i.e., $\vec{v}(\vec{r}) = \nabla \psi(\vec{r})$. The scalar function $\psi(\vec{r})$ is called a "potential function" or a "potential" of $\vec{v}(\vec{r})$. Such a $\vec{v}(\vec{r})$ and the corresponding vector fields are called conservative because in such a vector field, energy is conserved, and is conserved by flowing path from one point to another, in the case of a conservative flow from a point to another point in the domain of $\vec{v}(\vec{r})$.

2.14.18 Divergence of a Vector Field

Mathematicians, engineers and mathematicians in engineering and physics are quite interested in divergence of a vector field. Having a scalar field gradient, we can now talk about divergence. It is our "divergence" section.

Let us give the definition of a vector field \vec{v} in terms of a 3-dimensional coordinate system with $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$ as the unit vectors. Then the function

$$\text{div } \vec{v} = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}$$

is called the divergence of \vec{v} or the divergence of the vector field defined by \vec{v} . And our common notation for divergence is $\nabla \cdot \vec{v}$.

$$\text{div } \vec{v} = \nabla \cdot \vec{v}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot \left(v_x \hat{i} + v_y \hat{j} + v_z \hat{k} \right) = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}$$

where a "dividing" index "vector" (∇) is in the form of a derivative partial derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ or $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ or $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$. This is a convenient notation, but nothing more. Note that ∇ is a vector, but $\nabla \cdot \vec{v}$ is a scalar quantity, ∇ means the vector gradient.

Example:

$$\vec{v} = (x^2y - 2xy^2)\hat{i} + y^2\hat{j}$$

$$\text{div } \vec{v} = 2xy + 2y - 2xy = 2y$$

The divergence of \vec{v} at the divergence is an important analytical meaning. Clearly, the values of \vec{v} function that characterizes a physical or geometrical property must be independent of the particular \vec{v} (e.g., \vec{v} and \vec{w}), that is, the values must be the same for the two vector fields \vec{v} and \vec{w} at the same point.

Theorem 1 (Invariance of The Divergence)

1. The values of $\text{div } \vec{v}$ depends only on the point in space (e.g., (x, y, z)), not on the particular \vec{v} (i.e., other variables).

Now, let us turn to the more interesting case that is a "getting a lot" for the significance of the divergence.

If ψ is a scalar differentiable scalar function, then

$$\text{grad } \psi = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \hat{i} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \hat{j} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \hat{k}$$

$$= \frac{\partial \Delta_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \Delta_2}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial z}, \quad \text{where}$$

$$\Delta_1 = (u_1)^2 - v_1^2 - w_1^2$$

$$\text{and} \quad \Delta_2 = (u_2)^2 + v_2^2 - (w_2)^2.$$

This last identity is verified by the direct calculation of the identity and is in fact equal to

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Delta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Delta}{\partial y^2}.$$

If we calculate both expressions, the identity is immediately verified, we get

$$\frac{\partial \Delta_1}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \Delta_2}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial x}.$$

Now we let $u = u(x, y, z)$ and $v = v(x, y, z)$ and we get

$$\text{curl } u = \nabla^2 (u) = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$$

$$2. \quad \text{e.} \quad \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \rho g (p) = 0$$

Let p denote the unknown function of the coordinates. The conservation of mass of the continuity equation of the fluid is given by

$$\text{If the fluid velocity has a divergence that is not zero, } \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \text{ and the continuity equation is}$$

$$3. \quad \text{f.} \quad \text{curl } u = 0$$

If the velocity is constant, we get the fluid is incompressible, the equation (6) becomes

$$4. \quad \text{g.} \quad \text{curl } u = 0$$

This relation is verified for a fluid of constant density. It requires a further condition that the pressure of the fluid is constant. In general, the velocity is not zero. For example, in the flow of a fluid in a pipe, the velocity is not zero.

For a fluid in motion, the velocity is not zero. For example, in the flow of a fluid in a pipe, the velocity is not zero.

If the velocity is constant, we get the fluid is incompressible, the equation (6) becomes

2.14.19 Deriv of a Vector Field

Gradient and divergence are easily in connection with the curl of a vector field and the divergence of a vector field.

Let $u = u(x, y, z)$ be a vector field. Then we have, and let

$$\text{curl } u = \nabla \times u = u_1 + u_2 + u_3$$

we differentiate with respect to the coordinates

$$\text{curl } u = \nabla \times u = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\text{curl } u = \left[\left(\frac{\partial u_3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u_2}{\partial z} \right) i + \left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial u_3}{\partial x} \right) j + \left(\frac{\partial u_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y} \right) k \right]$$

(vector), the curl of the vector function of the curl of the vector field is denoted by

curl of curl of the vector field is denoted by $\text{curl}(\text{curl} \mathbf{A}) = \text{grad}(\text{div} \mathbf{A}) - \text{grad}(\text{grad} \cdot \mathbf{A})$ (curl & divergence of curl is zero)

Example 1.

What is curl of \mathbf{A} if \mathbf{A} is an Cartesian coordinates

$$\mathbf{A} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$$

Then it gives

$$\begin{aligned}\text{curl } \mathbf{A} &= \nabla \times \mathbf{A} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x^2 & y^2 & z^2 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= -2z\mathbf{i} + 2x\mathbf{j} + 2y\mathbf{k}\end{aligned}$$

The curl vector is denoted in many applications. For an homogeneous fluid, speed vector \mathbf{v} (where $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(x, y, z)$) is used to find curl in rotation.

Example 2.

Rotation of a rigid body: Relation to the curl

1. The motion of a rigid body B about a fixed axis is analogous to the rotation of a vector with ω given in the direction of the axis of rotation, where ω is the angular speed or the rotation, and \mathbf{v} is a directed velocity $\mathbf{v} = \omega \times \mathbf{r}$ (where ω is the angular velocity in the direction of \mathbf{v}). The velocity field of the motion is denoted as $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r})$ and is

$$\mathbf{v} = \omega \times \mathbf{r}$$

where \mathbf{r} is the position vector of a moving point with respect to a Cartesian coordinate system and ω is the angular velocity. \mathbf{r} is the position vector of the moving Cartesian coordinates $\mathbf{r}(x, y, z)$.

$$\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k} \quad \text{and } \mathbf{v} = \omega \times \mathbf{r}$$

Let us take axis of rotation is the z -axis. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v} &= \omega \times \mathbf{r} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 0 & 0 & \omega \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} \\ &= -\omega y\mathbf{i} + \omega x\mathbf{j}\end{aligned}$$

and therefore, $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ -\omega y & \omega x & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 2\omega\mathbf{k}$

where $\mathbf{A} = 2\omega\mathbf{k}$

2.

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 2\omega\mathbf{k}$$

Because \mathbf{v} is the velocity of a rigid body, the curl of the velocity field has the direction of the axis of rotation and magnitude $\omega = \frac{1}{2}$ of the angular velocity ω of the rotation.

But the curl result does not depend on the position because $\mathbf{v} = \omega \times \mathbf{r}$ and \mathbf{r} is a vector in xyz -space.

For any \mathbf{v} which is a uniquely differentiable vector function \mathbf{v}

3.

$$\text{curl}(\text{grad } \phi) = 0$$

as can be easily verified by the following relations (see Example 1)

$$\text{grad } \phi = \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}\mathbf{k} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{curl grad } \phi &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \phi & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \phi \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \phi & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \phi & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \phi \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{i} \cdot 0 - \mathbf{j} \cdot 0 + \mathbf{k} \cdot 0 = \mathbf{0}.\end{aligned}$$

Here, “curl grad of ϕ ” is equal to “curl of grad of ϕ ,” i.e., curl of the curl of ϕ . So, when we say “curl of grad of ϕ ,” we also say “curl of curl of grad of ϕ ,” i.e., curl of grad of grad of ϕ . In such a case, we can use some other notations instead of “grad of ϕ ,” it is usually called as “scalar ϕ .”

Now, if $\phi = 0$, then ϕ is to be called as a scalar field.

Example:

The problem is “what is curl of the field in the vector of any case example this section is not provided and we have to do it by $\phi = \sin x + \cos y$. A scalar or scalar field is obtained by dividing ϕ by ϕ .”

Then, if ϕ is a scalar field, then the curl of ϕ is a vector field, i.e., the curl of a scalar field is a vector field.

2.14.19.1 curl of $\phi = 0$

If a scalar field ϕ is a function of three variables, then the curl of ϕ is a vector field, i.e., the curl of ϕ is a vector field. The curl of ϕ is a vector field, i.e., the curl of ϕ is a vector field.

Let,

$$\begin{aligned}\phi &= \phi(x, y, z) \\ \text{curl } \phi &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \phi_x & \phi_y & \phi_z \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \phi_x & \phi_y & \phi_z \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ \phi_x & \phi_y & \phi_z \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{i} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial y} \right) - \mathbf{j} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial z} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z \partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y} - \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{0}.\end{aligned}$$

The curl of a scalar field ϕ is a vector field, i.e., the curl of ϕ is a vector field. The curl of ϕ is a vector field, i.e., the curl of ϕ is a vector field.

Theorem 1 (Invariance of The Curl)

The curl of a vector field \mathbf{F} is independent of the particular choice of Cartesian coordinate system.

2.14.19.1 Important Repeated Operations by Nabla Operator (∇)

$$\nabla \cdot \nabla \phi = \nabla^2 \phi = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}$$

3. $\text{curl } \mathbf{f} = \nabla \times \mathbf{f} = 0$
4. $\text{div } \mathbf{f} = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \phi) = 0$
5. $\text{curl } \mathbf{f} = \text{grad } \phi \Rightarrow \nabla \times \mathbf{f} = \nabla \phi \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{f} = \nabla \cdot \nabla \phi = \nabla^2 \phi$
6. $\text{grad } \phi = \text{curl } \mathbf{f} \Rightarrow \nabla \phi = \nabla \times \mathbf{f} \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \nabla \phi = \nabla^2 \phi = 0$

2.14.20 Vector Integral Calculus: Integral Theorems

2.14.20.1 Line Integral

The second class of integrals is line integrals, a generalisation of a definite integral.

1. $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is a line integral of the function $f(x)$ along the region defined by varying x from a to b . The line integral of a scalar function gives a definite value, i.e. result of a definite curve. Consider a path in the xy -plane from $(a, 0)$ to $(b, 0)$ as shown in the figure below. The line integral is written as $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ or $\int_C f(x) dx$ where C is a path or line representation.

2. $\mathbf{r}(t) = [x(t), y(t), z(t)] = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$ ($a \leq t \leq b$)

We can think of a definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as $\int_C f(x) dx$ where C is a terminal point. C is now a curve. The direction (sense) in which t increases is called the positive direction on C . We can think of the direction t as dx as in the figure (a). The curve is a unit circle (figure b) showing dx and dy . Then C is a circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$. We call C a unit circle if C has a unique tangent at each of its points where it exists (i.e. where it is not a cusp or corner) and is increasing C .

The line integral $\int_C f(x) dx$ is represented as $\int_a^b f(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} dt$ and the derivative $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dx(t)}{dt}$ is called a continuous derivative as long as dx/dt exists for every point of C .



2.14.20.2 Definition and Evaluation of Line Integrals

A line integral $\int_C f(x) dx$ is the line integral along a curve C defined by

$$\int_C f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} dt$$

where a and b are such that $a \leq t \leq b$ and $(x(t), y(t), z(t)) = \mathbf{r}(t)$ for $a \leq t \leq b$. Let us see

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C f(x) dx &= \int_a^b f(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} dt = \int_a^b f(x(t)) \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right) dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(x(t)) \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right) dt = \int_a^b f(x(t)) \left(\frac{dx}{dt} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dt} \mathbf{j} + \frac{dz}{dt} \mathbf{k} \right) dt \end{aligned}$$

If the value of integrating C in (2) is a definite value, then instead of

$$\int_a^b f(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} dt$$

We use definite integral in (2) as the definite integral of a function f taken over the interval $[a, b]$ on the t -axis in the positive direction (the direction of increasing t). This definite integral is called a line integral and given as $\int_C f(x) dx$ because the value of f increases continuously.

Example 1.

Find the value of the line integral $\int_C (x + y) dx + (y - x) dy$ over C with the initial point $(0, 0)$ and the final point $(1, 1)$ as shown in figure (a) as shown below.

Solution:



We begin by noting that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t)) = (\cos t, \sin t, t) \quad (0 \leq t \leq \pi/2)$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = (-\sin t, \cos t, 1) \quad \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \sqrt{2}$$

By differentiation

$$\mathbf{r}''(t) = (-\cos t, -\sin t, 0)$$

So by (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \mathbf{r}(t) \, dt &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos t, \sin t, t) \sqrt{2} \, dt = \sqrt{2} \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos t, \sin t, t) \, dt \\ &= \sqrt{2} \left(\sin t, -\cos t, \frac{1}{2}t^2 \right) \Big|_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= \sqrt{2} \left(1, -2, \frac{\pi^2}{8} \right) = \left(\sqrt{2}, -2\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi^2\sqrt{2}}{8} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.

Line Integral in space.

Evaluate the line integral in space of the vector field $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ over the helical curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t) \quad (0 \leq t \leq \pi/2) \quad \text{where } \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z) \text{ and } \mathbf{r}'(t) = (-\sin t, \cos t, 1) \text{ where } 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2.$$

Solution:

$$\text{We have } \mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t) \quad \mathbf{r}'(t) = (-\sin t, \cos t, 1)$$

Thus

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = \mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t) \quad \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \, dt &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos t, \sin t, t) \sqrt{2} \, dt \\ &= \sqrt{2} \left(\sin t, -\cos t, \frac{1}{2}t^2 \right) \Big|_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= \sqrt{2} \left(1, -2, \frac{\pi^2}{8} \right) = \left(\sqrt{2}, -2\sqrt{2}, \frac{\pi^2\sqrt{2}}{8} \right) \end{aligned}$$

1. **Choice of representation:** The choice of $\mathbf{r}(t)$ will depend on the particular vector field representation of \mathbf{F} . In our example, we have $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$.
2. **Choice of path:** Again, the choice will depend on the vector field. In our example, the path is the helical curve $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t)$.

Example 3.

Dependence of a line integral on path (same endpoints)

Evaluate the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$, where $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (2y + x^2)\mathbf{j} + (2z)\mathbf{k}$ along two different paths with the same initial point $A(0, 0, 0)$ and the same terminal point $B(1, 1, 1)$, namely Fig. 1(a) and Fig. 1(b) (see Ex. 2).

(a) C_1 is the straight line segment, $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, t, t)$, $0 \leq t \leq 1$. Get $d\mathbf{r}$ as

$$\text{If } \mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k} = (t, t, t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1,$$

Solution:

(a) By substituting \mathbf{r} into \mathbf{F} we obtain $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = (2t + t^2)\mathbf{i} + (2t + t^2)\mathbf{j} + (2t)\mathbf{k}$. We also need

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} = (1, 1, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad dt = dt.$$

Now evaluate along a straight line

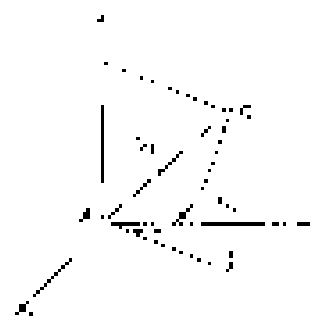
$$\begin{aligned} \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_0^1 \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt = \int_0^1 (2t + t^2 + 2t + t^2 + 2t) dt \\ &= \int_0^1 (5t + t^2) dt = \left[\frac{5}{2}t^2 + \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_0^1 = \frac{8}{6} \end{aligned}$$

(b) Similarly, by substituting $\mathbf{r}(t)$ and by evaluating \mathbf{F} and $d\mathbf{r}$ in the line integral we get

$$\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^1 \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt = \int_0^1 (2e^{2t} + t^2 + 2e^{2t}) dt = \left[\frac{2}{3}e^{3t} + \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_0^1 = \frac{8}{3}.$$

Both results are different, although the endpoints are the same. This shows that the value of the integral $\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ generally depends strongly on the choice of the path C joining the path's endpoints. The only way to avoid this problem is to use

Conservative vector fields (see Sec. 2.14.20.4). This is a good question in connection with physical applications. The answer is yes, as we shall see in the next section.



2.14.20.3 General Properties of the Line Integral (3)

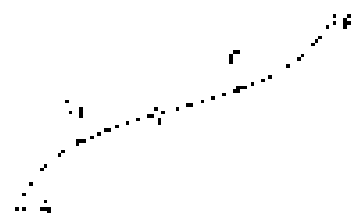
Some important properties of line integrals are collected as follows in the corresponding formulae for the integrals

$$\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt \quad (\text{Parametric})$$

$$\int_{C_1 \cup C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

$$\int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = - \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot (-d\mathbf{r})$$

where in the first two above the paths C_1 and C_2 are related as in Fig. 1(a) and Fig. 1(b) (the first is counter-clockwise C_1 (Fig. 1(a)), the second formula shows the orientation of C_2 is the same as that of C_1 (Fig. 1(b)) and the integral along C_2 is reversed). The value of the line integral is multiplied by



2.14.20.4 Line Integrals Independent of Path

$$\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \dots$$

as defined in the integrals from a certain fixed point A over a path C . The value of such an integral generally depends not only on \mathbf{F} and A , but also on the path C along which we integrate. This can be seen in Example 3 in the last section. It is also the question of how to get independent of path, so that we get the same value in integrating from A to B along any path C . This is of great impor-

2. The vector potential \vec{A} is the scalar potential of an irrotational field \vec{A} is gradient of some function and more formally we can state as follows:

The above condition can be solved more easily as

$$\begin{aligned}\int \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} &= \int (A_x dx + A_y dy + A_z dz) = \int (2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2) dz \\ &= 2z^3 + 2z^3 + 2z^3 = 6z^3 + C_1 + C_2 + C_3 = 18\end{aligned}$$

A very easy way solving this problem is to use the property of line integral, shown above.

The line integral is constant for the same

$$\int \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int (A_x dx + A_y dy + A_z dz) = \int (2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2) dz$$

• The line integral is constant for the same magnetic field

$$\int \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int (A_x dx + A_y dy + A_z dz) = \int (2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 + 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2) dz$$

3. **Potential theory** is a branch of vector calculus. It is a branch of physics that is concerned with the study of scalar and vector fields and their potential. It is a branch of physics that is concerned with the study of scalar and vector fields and their potential.

Example 2:

Find the vector potential \vec{A} if the magnetic field is

Find the vector potential

$$\vec{B} = \nabla \times (\vec{A}) = \nabla \times (A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k})$$

From $\vec{B} = \nabla \times (\vec{A})$, we can find \vec{A} by using the following method: \vec{A} is a vector field and \vec{B} is a vector field.

Solution:

Let us assume the vector potential is

$$\vec{A} = A_x \hat{i} + A_y \hat{j} + A_z \hat{k} \quad \vec{B} = B_x \hat{i} + B_y \hat{j} + B_z \hat{k} \quad \vec{C} = C_x \hat{i} + C_y \hat{j} + C_z \hat{k}$$

We will use the following vector calculus identities to find \vec{A} from \vec{B} and \vec{C} .

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

$$\vec{A} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{A} \quad \vec{B} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \vec{C} \cdot \nabla = \nabla \cdot \vec{C}$$

Theorem 7 (Independence of path)

The line integral of a vector field \vec{F} is independent of the path if the vector field is conservative.

Proof: Let us assume the vector field \vec{F} is conservative. Then, we can write $\vec{F} = \nabla \phi$ for some scalar function ϕ .

Let us consider two paths C_1 and C_2 connecting two points A and B . Then, we can write the line integrals of \vec{F} over C_1 and C_2 as

$$\int_{C_1} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{C_1} \nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A) \quad \int_{C_2} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{C_2} \nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$$

Since the two line integrals are equal, the line integral of \vec{F} is independent of the path.

Conversely, if the line integral of a vector field \vec{F} is independent of the path, then \vec{F} is conservative.

Let us consider a vector field \vec{F} in a region R . Let us assume that \vec{F} is conservative. Then, we can write $\vec{F} = \nabla \phi$ for some scalar function ϕ .

Let us consider a closed curve C in the region R . Then, we can write the line integral of \vec{F} over C as

$$\int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_C \nabla \phi \cdot d\vec{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A) = 0$$

Since the line integral of \vec{F} over any closed curve is zero, \vec{F} is conservative.

Q.E.D.



FIGURE 7.1

Work, Conservative and Nonconservative (Dissipative) Physical Systems: First, from the discussion of materials, define $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ as the coordinate vector field of a force \mathbf{F} in the 3D coordinate space.

A force \mathbf{F} is said to be conservative if \mathbf{F} is irrotational or curl-free, i.e., $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$. In this case, the components are equal, i.e., $F_x = -F_y$ and $F_y = -F_x$. Theorem 15.2.1 states that if \mathbf{F} is irrotational and \mathbf{F} is the gradient of a potential function ϕ , i.e., $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$, then the work done by \mathbf{F} on a particle moving from point A to point B is $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$. If \mathbf{F} is not irrotational, then the work done by \mathbf{F} is not path-independent and hence \mathbf{F} is not conservative.

Physically, $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$ means that the addition of a force \mathbf{F} does not change the mechanical energy of a particle. In this case, the mechanical energy $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \phi$ is constant along the path. If \mathbf{F} is not irrotational, then the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path.

Physically, if \mathbf{F} is not irrotational, then the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path. In this case, the mechanical energy E is not constant along the path.

Exactness and Independence of Path: A vector field $\mathbf{F} = (P, Q, R)$ is said to be exact if $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$. In this case, the work done by \mathbf{F} on a particle moving from point A to point B is $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$. If \mathbf{F} is not exact, then the work done by \mathbf{F} is not path-independent.

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times (P, Q, R) = \mathbf{0}$$

where the vector $\mathbf{F} = (P, Q, R)$ is the gradient of a scalar function ϕ , i.e., $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$.

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi = \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} \right)$$

where ϕ is the scalar function $\phi(x, y, z)$ and ∇ is the gradient operator.

$$\mathbf{F} = (P, Q, R) = \nabla \phi$$

Comparing the components of the vector field \mathbf{F} with the components of the gradient of ϕ , we get the following conditions for the exactness of \mathbf{F} :

$$P_x = Q_y, \quad P_z = R_x, \quad Q_z = R_y$$

where $P_x = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}$, $Q_y = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}$, $P_z = \frac{\partial P}{\partial z}$, $R_x = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x}$, $Q_z = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}$, and $R_y = \frac{\partial R}{\partial y}$.

$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$$

where ϕ is the scalar function $\phi(x, y, z)$ and ∇ is the gradient operator. In this case, the work done by \mathbf{F} on a particle moving from point A to point B is $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$.

The exactness of a vector field \mathbf{F} is a necessary condition for the existence of a scalar potential function ϕ such that $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$. If \mathbf{F} is not exact, then the work done by \mathbf{F} is not path-independent.

For example, the vector field $\mathbf{F} = (y, -x, 0)$ is not exact because $\nabla \times \mathbf{F} = (0, 0, 1) \neq \mathbf{0}$. In this case, the work done by \mathbf{F} on a particle moving from point A to point B is $\int_A^B \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \phi(B) - \phi(A)$.

is finite in \mathbb{R}^3 (Fig. 10.4). Let the corner of a cube with side square diagonal, traversed in a not simply connected.

The scalar order can be determined as follows or expressed in the following.

Theorem 3 (Criterion for exactness and independence of path)

Let F_1, F_2, F_3 be the line integral

$$\int_C P(x, y, z) dx + Q(x, y, z) dy + R(x, y, z) dz$$

be continuous and have continuous partial derivatives in some \mathbb{R}^3 space. Then

(a) The scalar is the response of path in $\mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow$ closed the differential, which is having a cyclic form.

$$F = \oint_C P dx + Q dy + R dz = 0$$

(b) The path is independent of the closed curve (closed form) $F = 0$, which gives

$$\text{that } \text{curl } F = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\text{curl } F = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\text{or } \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

Let C_1 and C_2 in \mathbb{R}^3 and C_1 is simply connected then $\oint_{C_1} F = 0$ independent of path in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Proof:

(a) Let the pathing in \mathbb{R}^3 closed curve path in \mathbb{R}^3 then $F = 0$ and $\oint_C F = 0$ and

$$\text{curl } F = \text{curl } F = 0 \quad \text{so the } F(x, y, z)$$

(b) The proof of the converse is as follows. Let $F = 0$ and $\text{curl } F = 0$.

Comment: It is the path in the plane

$$\int_C P(x, y) dx + Q(x, y) dy$$

(c) The scalar is the response of $F(x, y, z)$ which is the scalar in \mathbb{R}^3

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z}$$

Example

Find the exact and independent of path. Use the theorem as a guide.

Solving (a) shows that the differential is an exact differential if and

$$F = \int_C (2xy^2 + x^2 + 2xyz) dy + (2x^2y + y^3 + 2xy^2) dx$$

× exact, so that we have the exact differential path in the plane. Let us find the value of F from $A(0, 0)$ to $B(1, 1)$ and $C(2, 1)$.

If we take the following function to evaluate the flux of the vector field $\vec{F} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ through the unit sphere, then we have that the normal vector to the sphere is $\vec{n} = \vec{r}$ and the vector function is $\vec{F} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$.

$$1 \quad d\vec{r} = \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial \vec{r}}{\partial z} dz \quad \text{Where } \vec{r} = (x, y, z)$$

Theorem 1 (Divergence Theorem of Gauss)

Let S be a surface in \mathbb{R}^3 and let \vec{F} be a vector field on S .

1. The surface S is oriented by a unit normal vector field \vec{n} on S .
 2. The vector field \vec{F} is continuous on S .
 3. The region V enclosed by S is a volume V in \mathbb{R}^3 .
 4. The vector field \vec{F} is continuous on V .
 5. The vector field \vec{F} is continuous on ∂V .

$$2 \quad \iint_S \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \iiint_V \text{div} \vec{F} \, dV$$

where \vec{F} is a vector field and $\text{div} \vec{F}$ is the divergence of \vec{F} (see Fig. 16.1).

Consider the components using $\vec{F} = (F_x, F_y, F_z)$ and $d\vec{r} = (dx, dy, dz)$.

$$3 \quad \iint_S \left(\frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \right) \vec{n} \cdot d\vec{r} = \iint_S (F_x dx + F_y dy + F_z dz)$$

$$\text{where } \iint_S \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = \iint_S (F_x dx + F_y dy + F_z dz)$$

Equation (3) gives the relation

$$4 \quad \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \right) dx + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \right) dy + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \right) dz = \iint_S (F_x dx + F_y dy + F_z dz)$$

Example:

Evaluate the surface integral by the divergence theorem.

Let us prove the divergence theorem, if S is a closed surface in \mathbb{R}^3 by transforming to a more integral system.

$$5 \quad V = \iiint_V (x^2 dx + y^2 dy + z^2 dz)$$

where S is the closed surface and the region $V = \{(x, y, z) \mid 0 \leq x \leq a, 0 \leq y \leq b, 0 \leq z \leq c\}$ and the boundary $S = \{(x, y, z) \mid x = a, y = b, z = c\}$.

Solution:

1. Differentiate

$$\vec{r}_1 = x\vec{i}, \vec{r}_2 = y\vec{j}, \vec{r}_3 = z\vec{k}$$

then $d\vec{r}_1 = dx\vec{i}$

$$d\vec{r}_2 = dy\vec{j}, d\vec{r}_3 = dz\vec{k}$$

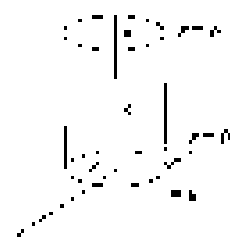
Introducing polar coordinates (r, θ, ϕ) where $x = r \cos \theta \sin \phi$, $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$ and $z = r \cos \phi$ and the volume element $dV = r^2 \sin \phi \, dr \, d\theta \, d\phi$.

$$6 \quad V = \iiint_V (x^2 dx + y^2 dy + z^2 dz)$$

$$= \int_0^a \int_0^b \int_0^c (x^2 dx + y^2 dy + z^2 dz)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^a \int_0^b (x^3 + y^3 + z^3) \, dy \, dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^a \int_0^b (x^3 + y^3 + z^3) \, dy \, dz = \frac{1}{4} \pi a^4$$



$$= \iint_D (-2 - 3x + 2 + 2x + 2y - 1) dx dy$$

where $x = \cos \theta$, $y = \sin \theta$, and $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$. We obtain, putting $\vec{r}(\theta) = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ in polar coordinates as $\vec{r}(t) = (t \cos \theta, t \sin \theta)$, the integral of the vector field over the circle is 0. For the same reason, we can also find $\oint_C \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$. Integrating with the new parametrization, we obtain a zero result, as $\oint_C \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \vec{r}(\theta) \cdot \vec{r}'(\theta) d\theta = 0$, as $\vec{r}(\theta) \cdot \vec{r}'(\theta) = 0$, as shown in Exercise 1. Exercise 1

Example 2.

Green's theorem in the plane as a special case of Stokes's theorem.

Let $\vec{r} = (x, y, z) = (x, y, 0)$ be a vector field in the plane. Find the circulation of the vector field \vec{r} around the square with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(1, 0)$, $(1, 1)$, and $(0, 1)$ in the xy -plane, and compare your result with the value obtained by Green's theorem using the parametrization of the square as a unit circle.

$$(\text{a) } \oint_C \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \oint_C (x dx + y dy) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial y}$$

Solution:

Having the formula for the vector field in hand,

$$\iint_D \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial G}{\partial x} \right) dx dy = \oint_C \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \oint_C (x dx + y dy)$$

This is a special case of Green's theorem, which takes the specific form of Stokes's theorem.

■ ■ ■ ■



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

Q.1 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{2x} - 1}{x}$ is equal to

- (a) 0 (b) ∞
(c) 1 (d) $-\infty$

[ME, GATE-2002, 1 mark]

Q.2 In a data file, the time along with date ($S_1 = 1-4$) ($S_2 = 4$) ($S_3 = 20$) is 2003/02/2000, then the value of the date is (date = 4) is given by

- (a) 2 (b) 5
(c) 7 (d) 9

[CE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

Q.3 The value of function $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{n+1} - x^n}{2x^{n+1} - x^n}$ is

- (a) 2 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\frac{1}{3}$ (d) ∞

[OS, GATE-2004, 1 mark]

Q.4 $y = y(x)$ is a function, $y(0) = 1$, $y'(x) = y(x)(1 - y(x))$. Then $y(2)$ will be equal to

- (a) $\ln\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$ (b) $1 + \ln\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$
(c) $\ln\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$ (d) $1 + \ln\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)$

[ME, GATE-2004, 1 mark]

Q.5 The function $y(x) = 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ is a function

- (a) $x = 2$ only (b) $x = 0$ only
(c) $x = 3$ only (d) none of these

[CE, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.6 The value of a CLP (continuous) function $f(x)$ is given by

$f(x) = \frac{2x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} \sin(x) + \cos(x)$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ is value of the function

- (a) $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (b) $\frac{\pi}{3}$
(c) $\frac{3\pi}{4}$ (d) $\frac{\pi}{4}$

[ME, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.7 The angle between two unit vectors coplanar with \hat{i} and \hat{j} is (a) 90° (b) 45° (c) 135° (d) 225°

- (a) 0 (b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$
(c) $\frac{\pi}{4}$ (d) $\frac{3\pi}{4}$

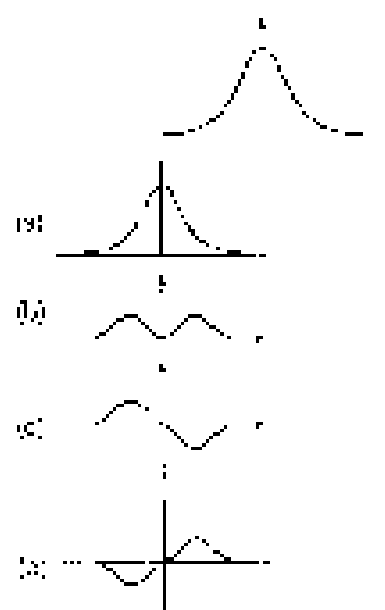
[ME, GATE-2004, 1 mark]

Q.8 A car engine accelerates from its stationary position to 30 km/h in 10 s. Assuming constant acceleration, the speedometer at a certain time during acceleration reads 60 km/h.

- (a) 2 (b) 4 mph
(c) 75 km/h (d) 150 km/h

[CE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.9 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is



[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

Q.12 The dynamometer is represented by a mass suspended by a spring of 1 m radius having

- (a) 100 (b) 1000
(c) $\frac{100}{\pi}$ (d) $\frac{100}{\pi^2}$

[ME, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.11 For the function $f(x) = x^3 + 5$, the maximum average slope is equal to

(a) 3 (b) 4
(c) 6 (d) 5

[EE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

- Q.12 If $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^n$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} S = 10$, then

(a) 12 (b) 14
(c) 12 (d) 14

[EE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

- Q.13 If $\int_0^1 x f(x) dx = 1$ and $\int_0^1 x^2 f(x) dx = 2$, then

$$\int_0^1 x^3 f(x) dx = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\int_0^1 x^4 f(x) dx = \frac{5}{2}$$

(a) 4 (b) 18
(c) 5 (d) 5

[ME, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

- Q.14 A vector field \vec{F} is defined by $\vec{F} = x^2 y \hat{i} + x^2 y \hat{j} + x^2 y \hat{k}$. The value of $\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ over the curve C is

(a) $6\pi^2$ (b) $2\pi^2$
(c) π^2 (d) 1

[ME, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.15 For the vector field $\vec{F} = \frac{y}{x^2} \hat{i} + \frac{y^2}{x} \hat{j}$, magnitude of $\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ over the unit circle is

(a) $\frac{12}{\sqrt{2}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
(c) $\sqrt{2}$ (d) $\frac{6}{\sqrt{2}}$

[EE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.16 The line integral $\int_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ at the vector $\vec{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 y \hat{i} + 2x^2 y \hat{j} + x^2 y \hat{k}$ over the curve C is

(a) 2
(b) 2
(c) 2
(d) correct answer not available

[ME, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.17 value of the integral $\int_0^1 \log(x) \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\frac{2}{3}$ (d) $\frac{5}{3}$

[EE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

- Q.18 Which of the following is correct?

(a) $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$
(b) $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$
(d) $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$

[ME, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

- Q.19 If $\vec{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2}{y^2} \hat{i} + \frac{y^2}{x^2} \hat{j} + \frac{z^2}{x^2} \hat{k}$, then $\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$ is

(a) 10 (b) 20
(c) 30 (d) 40

[ME, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.20 As x increases from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$, the function

(a) increases monotonically
(b) decreases monotonically
(c) increases to a maximum value and then decreases
(d) decreases to a minimum value and then increases

[EE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.21 Evaluate $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x} dx$ and hence find $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x} dx$

(a) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}$

[ME, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.22. $\text{Tr}(A+B) = \int_0^1 (x^2 + 2x + 1) dx$

- (a) 1/2 (b) 3/8
(c) 1/6 (d) 3/2

[EC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.23. What is the value of $\sin^{-1}(\cos 2\pi)$?

- (a) 0.21π (b) 0.54π
(c) 0.7π (d) 1.24π

[EC, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.24. The expression of $y = \int_0^1 e^{x^2} (1 - 2x^2) dx$ is written in decimal equal to

- (a) $\int_0^1 x e^{x^2} (1 - 2x^2) dx$
(b) $\int_0^1 x e^{x^2} (1 - 2x) dx$
(c) $\int_0^1 3x e^{x^2} (1 - 2x) dx$
(d) $\int_0^1 x e^{x^2} (1 - 2x) dx$

[IL, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

Q.25. A circle $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ is divided into two parts by a horizontal line $y = p$ where $p < r$. The ratio of the area of the upper part to the area of the lower part is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
(c) $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi}$ (d) 2

[EE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.26. The constant derivative of

- (a) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(b) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(c) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(d) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$

[CL, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.27. Find the relative extreme value

- (a) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(b) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(c) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$
(d) $y = 2x^2 + 3x^2 + 4x^2 + 5x^2$

[MC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.28. $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{F})$ and $\nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})$ are equal to

- (a) $\nabla \times \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})$ (b) $\nabla^2 \mathbf{F} = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})$
(c) $\nabla^2 \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F}$ (d) $\nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) = \nabla^2 \mathbf{F}$

[EC, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.29. $\iint (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot d\mathbf{S}$ where \mathbf{F} is a vector, would be

- (a) $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ (b) $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$
(c) $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ (d) $\oint \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$

[EC, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.30. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} =$

- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) 1/2 (d) 1/3

[MF, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.31. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} =$

- (a) 1 (b) 1
(c) 2 (d) not defined

[EC, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.32. The minimum value of $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ is

- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) 2 (d) infinity

[MC, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.33. The derivative of $\sin^{-1} x$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$

[EC, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.34. Consider the function $f(x) = x^2 + 1$. The maximum value of $f(x)$ in the closed interval $[4, 12]$ is

- (a) 3 (b) 6
(c) 12 (d) infinity

[EC, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

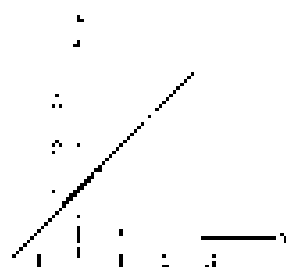
Q.35 For $\sin^{-1}x$ the best approximation around $x=2/3$

- (a) $2/3 + 10x^2$
 (b) $1-x$
 (c) $2/3 + 2(2/3 - x)^2$
 (d) x^2

[EE, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.36 The following plots show a function $y = f(x)$ and its second derivative $y = f''(x)$. The value of the integral

$$I = \int_0^3 f'(x) dx$$



- (a) 6
 (b) 2
 (c) 4.0
 (d) 1.0

[EC, GATE-2007, 1 mark]

Q.37 The scalar triple product by the vectors \vec{a}, \vec{b} and \vec{c} is

- (a) $\int_0^1 (2-x) \cdot (2-x) \cdot (2-x) dx$
 (b) $\int_0^1 (2-x) \cdot (2-x) \cdot (2-x) dx$
 (c) $\int_0^1 (2-x) \cdot (2-x) \cdot (2-x) dx$
 (d) $\int_0^1 (2-x) \cdot (2-x) \cdot (2-x) dx$

[ME, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.38 Let \vec{x} and \vec{y} be two vectors in a 3 dimensional space and \vec{z} is perpendicular to \vec{x} and \vec{y} . Then

- (a) the determinant $\begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & z_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & z_2 \\ x_3 & y_3 & z_3 \end{vmatrix}$ is zero
 (b) \vec{x} and \vec{y} are linearly independent
 (c) \vec{x} and \vec{y} are linearly dependent
 (d) \vec{x} and \vec{y} are linearly independent
 (e) \vec{x} and \vec{y} are linearly dependent
 (f) \vec{x} and \vec{y} are linearly independent

[EE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.39 A velocity vector $\vec{v} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ is

- (a) $\vec{v} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ and magnitude is $\sqrt{50}$
 (b) $\vec{v} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ and magnitude is $\sqrt{50}$
 (c) $\vec{v} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ and magnitude is $\sqrt{50}$
 (d) $\vec{v} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$ and magnitude is $\sqrt{50}$

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.40 For a function $y = f(x)$ given by $y = x^2 + 2x + 1$, what is the second derivative y'' at $x=1$ and $y=2$?

- (a) $2xy$
 (b) $2x^2 + 2$
 (c) $2x^2 + 2$
 (d) $2x^2 + 2$

[CE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.41 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1-x}{1+x}$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (b) $\frac{1}{3}$
 (c) $\frac{1}{4}$
 (d) $\frac{1}{5}$

[ME, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.42 If $\vec{a} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} + 4\hat{k}$ and $\vec{b} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$

- (a) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 32$
 (b) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 32$
 (c) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 32$
 (d) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 32$

[EE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.43 Consider function $f(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ the area under the curve between $x=0$ and $x=2$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (c) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.44 A function $f(x)$ is defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ the area under the curve between $x=0$ and $x=2$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (c) $\frac{1}{2}$
 (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.45 Let \vec{a} and \vec{b} be two vectors in a 3 dimensional space and \vec{c} is perpendicular to \vec{a} and \vec{b} . Then

- (a) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$
 (b) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$
 (c) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$
 (d) $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 0$

[ME, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q 46 A rectangular sheet of material would have only one corner at $(0, 0)$ if the corner points separation, according to corner = 0

- (a) $\sin(x)$ (b) $\cos(x)$
(c) $\cos(x)$ (d) $\sin(x)$

[EC, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q 47 The total corner separation of $\sin(x)$ is 0.1, equal the point $x = \pi$ the separation of $\sin(x)$ is

- (a) $\cos(x)$ (b) $\sin(x)$
(c) $\sin(x)$ (d) $\cos(x)$

[EC, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

Q 48 Let $f = 1.5 \cos(x)$ and $g = 2.5 \sin(x)$

- (a) 0 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) 1 (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

[MF, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q 49 Which of the following integral is correct?

- (a) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos(x) dx$ (b) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin(x) dx$
(c) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos(x) dx$ (d) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin(x) dx$

[MF, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q 50 The length of the curve $y = \frac{2}{3}x^{3/2}$ between $x = 0$

- and $x = 1$ is
(a) 0.5 (b) 0.7
(c) 1 (d) 1.5

[MF, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q 51 The value of the integral of the function $f(x, y) = xy^2$ over the region $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ is

- (a) 0.5 (b) 0.7
(c) 1 (d) 1.5

[EC, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

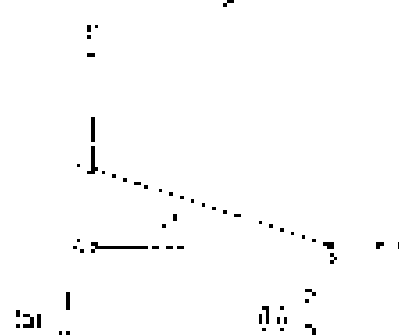
Q 52 The value of $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin(x) dx$ is

- (a) 0.5 (b) 0.7
(c) 1 (d) 1.5

[EC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q 53 Consider the shaded area in Fig. 1.24 and find

the value of $\sin(\theta)$



- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{2}{3}$
(c) $\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$

[MF, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q 54 The value of the product of the number of sides of a regular polygon, the angle subtended between two vertices is

- (a) 2 (b) 50
(c) 30 (d) 120

[EC, GATE-2000, 2 marks]

Q 55 The value of $\sin(\theta)$ of the vector \vec{r} is

- (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}$

[MF, GATE-2009, 1 mark]

Q 56 The directional derivative of the scalar function $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ at the point $P = (1, 1, 1)$ in the direction of the vector $\vec{r} = 3\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 5\hat{k}$

- (a) 1 (b) 2
(c) 3 (d) 4

[MF, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q 57 Consider plane P and Q in the xy -plane with $P = (1, 0)$ and $Q = (0, 1)$. The line segment

$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$ is equal to

- (a) 0.5 (b) 1
(c) 1.5 (d) 2

(a) 0.5 (b) 1 (c) 1.5 (d) 2

[EC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.58 The identity between the origin and a point (x, y) is 1 if the angle $\theta = 0^\circ$ and

- (a) $\frac{x^2}{2}$ (b) $\frac{x^2}{y}$
(c) \sqrt{x} (d) $y^2 + 2$

[ME, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.59 A cubic polynomial is characterised by

- (a) can possibly have more than one real zero
(b) may have at least two complex conjugate zeros
(c) can have at most 4 complex conjugate zeros
(d) will always have an equal number of real and complex zeros

[EE, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q.60 The Taylor series expansion of $\frac{e^x - 1}{x}$ at $x = 0$ is

- (a) $1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{6} + \dots$ (b) $1 + \frac{(x-1)^2}{3} + \dots$
(c) $1 + \frac{(x-1)^2}{3} + \dots$ (d) $1 + \frac{(x-1)^2}{3} + \dots$

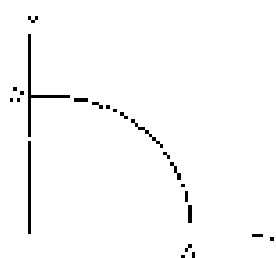
[EE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.61 $\int_0^{\pi/4} \frac{1 - \tan x}{1 + \tan^2 x} dx$ is equal to

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$
(c) $\ln 2$ (d) $\ln 4$

[CS, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q.62 A path in the complex plane is a circle and radius is shown in the figure. The area of $(x + jy)$ plane is $\frac{1}{2}$ times the area of a circle of radius $x + jy$ is



- (a) $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} \pi$
(c) $\frac{\pi}{4}$ (d)

[ME, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.63 The area enclosed between the curve $y = 4 - x^2$ and $y = x^2$ is

- (a) $\frac{16}{3}$ (b) $\frac{32}{3}$
(c) $\frac{32}{3}$ (d) $\frac{16}{3}$

[SE, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q.64 A point (x, y) is in the domain of $f(x, y)$ if $(x - 1)^2 + (y - 1)^2 \leq 1$. Given the two conditions, the y -range of the values of x is

- (a) $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$
(b) $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$
(c) $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$
(d) $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$

[EE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.65 For a vector field $\vec{A}(x, y, z) = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$, the gradient of the scalar field $\phi = x + y + z$ is

- (a) $\vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$ (b) $\vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$
(c) $\vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$ (d) $\vec{A} + \vec{B} + \vec{C}$

[CS, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q.66 For a scalar field $\phi(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$, the directional derivative of ϕ at $(1, 1, 1)$ in the direction of the vector $\vec{r} = \hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

[CS, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q 67 The convergence of the vector field

$$4xz^2 \hat{i} - 2xy^2 \hat{j} + y^2 \hat{k}$$
 at point (1, 1, 1) is equal to

- (a) 2 (b) 1
(c) 3 (d) 0

[ME, GATE-2009, 1 mark]

Q 68 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \int_0^x \frac{e^t - 1}{t} dt$ is

- (a) 0.2 (b) 1
(c) 0.5 (d) 0

[CE, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q 69 Value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x} \right)^x$ is

- (a) 0 (b) e^{-1}
(c) e^{-2} (d) 1

[SE, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q 70 The function $y = f(x) = 3x$

- (a) is differentiable everywhere and differentiable function
(b) is continuous everywhere differentiable everywhere except $x = 0$
(c) is continuous everywhere and differentiable everywhere except $x = 0$
(d) is continuous function except $x = 0$ and differentiable everywhere

[ME, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q 71 Given function $f(x, y) = x^2 + 2y^2 - 4x - 4y + 5$

- (a) The optimal value of $f(x, y)$
(b) is a minimum value of 100
(c) is a maximum value of 100
(d) is an infimum value of 33
(e) is a maximum value of 33

[CE, GATE-2013, 2 marks]

Q 72 If $f(x) = \sin x$ and $g(x) = \frac{4x}{1+x^2}$

- (a) is minimum
(b) is decreasing
(c) is point of inflection
(d) is maximum

[EE, GATE-2015, 2 marks]

Q 73 $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 1$ has a root

- (a) maximum value = 9
(b) minimum value = 9
(c) maximum value = 0
(d) minimum value = 0

[SE, GATE-2013, 2 marks]

Q 74 The value of the integral $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$

- (a) $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (b) $\pi/2$
(c) π (d) π

[ME, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q 75 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x \cos x dx$ is

- (a) $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$
(c) π (d) π

[EE, GATE-2013, 1 mark]

Q 76 A cable of length 100 m is suspended between two points at the same level. The distance between the supports is 80 m. The sag at the mid span is x . The equation of the parabola is $y = 4x^2 + 100$. And x is the horizontal coordinate and y is the vertical coordinate with origin at the lowest point of the cable. The expression for the cable length is

(a) $\int_0^{100} \sqrt{1 + 64 \frac{y^2}{100^2}} dy$ (b) $\int_0^{100} \sqrt{1 + 64 \frac{y^2}{100^2}} dy$

(c) $\int_0^{100} \sqrt{1 + 64 \frac{y^2}{100^2}} dy$ (d) $\int_0^{100} \sqrt{1 + 64 \frac{y^2}{100^2}} dy$

[CE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q 77 The function $y = \sqrt{x} - \ln x$ has a local maximum at

- (a) 0.5 (b) $\pi/2$
(c) $\ln 2$ (d) $\ln 2$

[ME, GATE-2013, 1 mark]

- 2.3

1000

Figure 1

101

$$v_{\pm} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4\alpha}}{1 - \alpha} \right)^{1/2}$$

- 1.1.7.2

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Q.89 The sequence $\{1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$ is a) where

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ -1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

(a) convergent

(b) periodic

(c) oscillatory

(d) constant

[IEE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.90 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1 + \cos x}{2} \right)^n$ is

(a) 0

(b) 1

(c) $\frac{1}{2}$

(d) 2

[MF, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.91 Consider a function $f(x) = [x]$ where $[x]$ is the greatest integer $\leq x$. Then $f'(x) = 0$ for a

(a) continuous and differentiable

(b) non-continuous and differentiable

(c) continuous and non-differentiable

(d) non-continuous and non-differentiable

[ME, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.92 $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is a vector $(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ is

(a) an eigenvalue of the matrix A

(b) orthogonal

(c) a particular vector

[ML, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.93 The maximum value of

$$f(x) = x^3 - 9x^2 + 24x + 5 \text{ in the interval } [0, 10]$$

(a) 21

(b) 28

(c) 41

(d) 43

[FC, ESE, IIS, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.94 One of the function $f(x) = \sin x$ in the interval $[0, \pi]$ is $f(x) = 1$. The minimum value of $f(x)$ is

(a) One only

(b) One only

(c) Two, one and two

(d) Two, one and two

[OS, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.95 The infinite series $x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$

converges to

(a) $\ln x$

(b) x

(c) $\ln x + 1$

(d) $1 - \ln x$

[IEE, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.96 The direction of the vector \vec{r} is $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ is

(a) \vec{i}

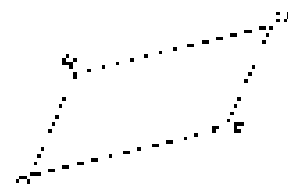
(b) \vec{j}

(c) \vec{k}

(d) \vec{r}

[MF, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.97 For the point program (PP) shown in the figure $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ and $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$. The value of \vec{r} is



(a) $2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$

(b) $2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$

(c) $2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$

(d) $2\vec{i} + 3\vec{j} + 4\vec{k}$

[IEE, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.98 Let $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ and $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$. The value of \vec{r} is

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{j}$$

(a) \vec{r}

$$(b) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{j}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{j}$$

(d) \vec{r}

$$(e) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\vec{j}$$

[ME, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.99 The direction of the vector \vec{r} is $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ and $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$. The value of \vec{r} is

(a) \vec{r}

(b) \vec{r}

(c) \vec{r}

(d) \vec{r}

[IEE, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.100 The value of the following function is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x-1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \frac{x+1}{2} & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x-1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \frac{x+1}{2} & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

91. $f(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1-t}{1+t^2} dt$

102. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} \int_0^x t \cos t dt$

[CS, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.104. A function $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ is assumed to be an open mapping. $f(1) = 2$. An element y in the range of f is

(A) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$

(B) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$

(C) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$

(D) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2$

[CE, GATE-2012, 2 Marks]

Q.108. A polynomial $f(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ is
(A) of modulus 2 irreducible
(B) irreducible
(C) non-quadratic reducible
(D) irreducible mod 2
(E) irreducible mod 2 and 3 irreducible mod 3

[CC, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.103. The value of $\int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx$ is

(A) 0

(B) $\frac{\pi}{2}$

(C) $\frac{\pi}{2}$

(D) $\frac{\pi}{2}$

[CE, GATE-2012, 2 Marks]

Q.104. The value of the definite integral $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$ is

(A) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(B) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{2}{3}$

(C) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{1}{3}$

(D) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{1}{3}$

(E) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{2}{3}$

[MA, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.105. The dual of the gradient of the scalar field defined by $f(x, y, z) = 3x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$ is
(A) $4x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$
(B) $4x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$
(C) $4x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$
(D) $4x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$
(E) $4x^2 + 5y^2 + 4z^2$

[EE, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.106. The value of $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx$ is

(A) $-\cos x + \sin x$

(B) $-\cos x$

(C) $-\cos x$

(D) $-\cos x$

(E) $-\cos x$

[FI, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.107. The value of $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$ is

(A) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{2}{3}$

(B) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{1}{3}$

(C) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{1}{3}$

(D) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

(E) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

[CG, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.109. The value of $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$ is

(A) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{2}{3}$

(B) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{1}{3}$

(C) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{1}{3}$

(D) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

(E) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

[MA, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.109. Given a vector field $\mathbf{F} = x^2 \mathbf{i} + y^2 \mathbf{j} + z^2 \mathbf{k}$

the line integral $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ evaluated along a

segment of the curve $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

(A) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(B) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(C) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(D) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(E) $-\frac{1}{2}$

[EE, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.110. The value of the definite integral $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$ is

(A) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{2}{3}$

(B) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{1}{3}$

(C) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{1}{3}$

(D) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

(E) $-\frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

[MF, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.111 Consider a vector field $Z(x, y)$ in a closed loop

that is given by $Z(x, y)$ can be expressed as

(a) $\oint_C (x + y) \vec{a}_\phi$ over the closed surface bounded by a loop

(b) $\oint_C (x + y) \vec{a}_\phi$ over the closed volume bounded by a loop

(c) $\oint_C (x + y) \vec{a}_\phi$ over the open volume bounded by a loop

(d) $\oint_C (x + y) \vec{a}_\phi$ over the open surface bounded by a loop

[EC, GATE-2013 : 1 Mark]

Q.112 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$ equals

- (a) ∞ (b) 0
(c) $\frac{1}{2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{4}$

[CE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.113 The expression $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$ is equal to

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y$ (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{dy}{dx}$
(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$ (d) ∞

[CE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.114 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{y - \sin x}{x - \cos x}$

- (a) 0 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\frac{1}{3}$ (d) non defined

[ME, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.115 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{e^x - 1}{\sin(x)} \right]$ equals

- (a) 0 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) 1 (d) $\frac{1}{3}$

[ME, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.116 The value of $\left[\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{x} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$
(c) 0 (d) ∞

[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.117 The differential equation for differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + ky = \lambda_0 e^{kx} \quad \lambda_0 \neq 0$$

- (a) $\lambda_0 = 0$ (b) $\lambda_0 \neq 0$
(c) $\lambda_0 = 0$ (d) $\lambda_0 \neq 0$

[CE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.118 Let $f(x)$ be a function of x given

- (a) the function $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$,
(b) the function $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$,
(c) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$,
(d) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$

(a) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$,
(b) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$,
(c) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$,
(d) the limit of the function $f(x)$ exists at $x = 0$

[ME, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.119 Consider the continuous function $f(x)$ given by

(a) $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(b) $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(c) $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(d) $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$

(a) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(b) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(c) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(d) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$

[CE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.120 Let $f(x)$ be a function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x) & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \cos(x) & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

where $f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x) & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \cos(x) & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$ and $f(x)$ is defined for all x in the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$.

Let $f(x)$ be a function defined for all x in the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$. Let $f(x)$ be a function defined for all x in the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$.

(a) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(b) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(c) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(d) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$

(a) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(b) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(c) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$,
(d) There exists a function $f(x)$ such that $f(x) = \sin(x)$ and $f(x) = \cos(x)$ are both continuous at $x = 0$

(a) Only (b) Only
(c) Both (a) and (b) (d) Neither (a) nor (b)

[CE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.121 The function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ has a local maximum at $x = -1$. The value of $f(-1)$ is _____.
[CE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.122 If $y = 14$ is the solution of $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$, then the boundary conditions $y = 0$ at $x = 0$ and $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ at $x = 1$, (1, 2) = _____.
[EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.123 For a given function $f(x)$ is the smoothest and $f'(x)$ is the steepest. So, a function $f(x)$ is said to have maximum smoothness if the angle between the tangent and the normal is _____.
(a) 45° (b) 30°
(c) 60° (d) 90°
[FE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.124 If $u = xy \ln x$, $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$
(a) $x \ln x + y = 0$ (b) $y \ln x = x \ln y$
(c) $x \ln y = x \ln x$ (d) $y \ln y = x \ln x$
[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.125 If $f(x) = x^2 + 2x$, the minimum value of the function is the value of x is _____.
(a) 9° (b) 9
(c) $1 + 2$ (d) $1 + 3$
[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.126 Minimum of the total value of function $f(x) = 12x^2 + 2x + 1$ is _____.
(a) $1/12$ (b) $1/6$
(c) $1/4$ (d) $1/3$
[EE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.127 The maximum value of the function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[FE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.128 Let $f(x)$ be the function $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$.
(a) $f = 10, 4$ (b) $f = 10, 2$
(c) $f = 10$ (d) $f = 10, 3$
[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.129 The maximum value of the function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.130 The maximum value of $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
[EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.131 The value of $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[ME, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.132 The value of $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
[CE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.133 The value of $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[CE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.134 The maximum value of the function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.135 The value of the function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[ME, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.136 The value of the function $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval $(-3, 3)$ is _____.
(a) 90 (b) 25
(c) 10 (d) 32
[EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

$$(b) \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 x \sin y \right) dy = (c) \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 y \sin x \right) dx$$

$$(d) \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 x \sin y \right) dy = (e) \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^1 y \sin x \right) dx$$

[EE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.137 A differential equation of second order with constant coefficients $(\frac{d}{dx})^2 y + \lambda(\frac{d}{dx})y + \mu y = 0$ and $5\lambda^2 - 4\mu = 0$

$$\lambda^2 + 3\lambda + 5 \text{ and } 5\lambda^2 - 4\mu = 0$$

(a) The characteristic roots are equal

(b) The characteristic roots are equal

(c) The roots are likely to be equal

(d) The roots are not equal

[ME, 2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.138 A system $\dot{x} = Ax$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

$$(b) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

$$(d) \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

[ME, 2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.139 The system $\dot{x} = Ax$ is

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} x, \text{ then } \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

$$(a) \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

$$(b) \lambda = 2, \mu = 2$$

[ME, 2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.140 Let $x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$ and $y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} y_1(t) \\ y_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$ be two independent signals and suppose the input signal $y(t) = 1 - 3 + y_2 - 2x_1$ and the output $x(t) =$

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 1 \\ x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 1 \\ x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(b) \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 1 \\ x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 + 1 \\ x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

[EE, 2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.141 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n$ is equal to

$$(a) e^{-1}$$

$$(b) e^{-1}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.142 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2}$ is

$$(a) 0$$

$$(b) 0$$

$$(c) 0$$

[ME, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

$$Q.143 \text{ The value of } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{x^2} \text{ is}$$

[ME, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

$$Q.144 \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$(a) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{3}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

$$Q.145 \text{ The value of } \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$(a) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{3}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.146 A function $f(x)$ and A denote the area of the triangle bounded by the line $y = x$, the x -axis, and the y -axis. Then, which of the following statements are correct?

$$(1) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(2) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(3) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(4) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(5) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

$$(6) \text{ The area is } \frac{1}{2}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.147 A function $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ is defined on the interval $[0, 1]$. The value of the definite integral $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ is

$$(a) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(d) \frac{1}{3}$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.148 Which of the following is not a necessary and sufficient condition for a point x_0 to be a minimum?

$$(a) f'(x_0) = 0 \text{ and } f''(x_0) > 0$$

$$(b) f'(x_0) = 0 \text{ and } f''(x_0) < 0$$

$$(c) f'(x_0) = 0 \text{ and } f''(x_0) < 0$$

$$(d) f'(x_0) = 0 \text{ and } f''(x_0) < 0$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.148. $\sin x = 0$ the function $\cos x = -1$ has

- (a) a minimum
(b) a maximum
(c) a point of inflection
(d) neither a maximum nor a minimum

[MCQ, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.149. The sum of the degree of numerator & degree of denominator is 5, then the maximum possible value of degree of denominator is

(a) 5

[EF, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.151. Which one of the following graphs describes the function $y = \sin^2(x - \pi)$



[MCQ, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.152. The maximum value of a function f is 100, whose vertices lies on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 100$. Then

(a) $f(0) = 100$

[MCQ, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.153. The curve $x^2 + y^2 + y^2 + x^2 + 2x + 2y = 0$ represents a circle. The radius of the circle is equal to the radius of the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ when the circle is

(a) $x = 2$

(b) $x = -2$

(c) $x = y = 2$

(d) $x = y = -2$

[MCQ, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.154. The parametric equations $x = \cos\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$, $y = \frac{1}{t}$ at $t = \pi$ are

(a) $(-1, \pi)$ or $\left(\frac{1}{\pi}, \pi\right)$

(b) $\frac{1}{\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{\pi}} \sin\left(\pi - \frac{1}{\pi}\right) + \frac{1}{\pi} e^{\frac{1}{\pi}}$

(c) $\frac{1}{\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{\pi}} \sin\left(\pi - \frac{1}{\pi}\right) + \frac{1}{\pi} e^{\frac{1}{\pi}}$

(d) $\frac{1}{\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{\pi}} \sin\left(\pi - \frac{1}{\pi}\right) + \frac{1}{\pi} e^{\frac{1}{\pi}}$

(e) $\frac{1}{\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{\pi}} \sin\left(\pi - \frac{1}{\pi}\right) + \frac{1}{\pi} e^{\frac{1}{\pi}}$

[MCQ, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.155. Consider an ellipse having slope of the major axis $2\sqrt{2}$ and $b = 4$, where a and b are semi-major and semi-minor axes respectively. The area of the ellipse is $\frac{1}{2} \pi ab$ and the area of the ellipse is $\frac{1}{2} \pi ab$ and the area of the ellipse is $\frac{1}{2} \pi ab$. The value of a is

[MCQ, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.156. Consider a circle of radius r and center (h, k) in the Cartesian plane. The area of the circle is

(a) πr^2 (b) πr^2 (c) πr^2 (d) πr^2

The length of the arc is

[MCQ, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.157. The value of $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ is $\sin\theta$ for all θ . The value of $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ is $\sin\theta$ for all θ . The value of $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ is $\sin\theta$ for all θ .

[EF, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.158. The value of $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ is $\sin\theta$ for all θ . The value of $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ is $\sin\theta$ for all θ .

(a) $\int_0^{\pi} \cos x dx$ (b) $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx$

(c) $\int_0^{\pi} \cos x dx$ (d) $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx$

[MCQ, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.159. The differential equation $y' = y^2$ has a solution $y = \frac{1}{x}$ for all $x \neq 0$. The value of y is

(a) $y = \frac{1}{x}$ (b) $y = \frac{1}{x}$ (c) $y = \frac{1}{x}$ (d) $y = \frac{1}{x}$

[MCQ, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.160 If a vector $\vec{M}(y, z) = 2y^2\vec{i} + 4yz\vec{j} + y^2z\vec{k}$,
 $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ is

- (a) $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{M} = 0$ (b) $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{M} = 2y^2$
 (c) $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{M} = 4yz$ (d) $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{M} = 3y^2$

[ME, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.161 Let \vec{a} and \vec{b} be any non-zero vectors and \vec{c} a unit vector. If \vec{c} is perpendicular to $\vec{a} + \vec{b}$ and $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$, then the direction of \vec{c} is along

- (a) $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) + \vec{b} \times (\vec{c} \times \vec{a})$
 (b) $\vec{a} \times \vec{b} \times \vec{c}$
 (c) $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) + \vec{b} \times (\vec{c} \times \vec{a})$
 (d) $\vec{a} \times (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) + \vec{b} \times (\vec{c} \times \vec{a})$

[ME, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.162 The magnitude of the directional derivative of the function $u(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2$ at the point $(1, 1, 1)$ in the direction $\vec{a} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(\vec{i} + \vec{j} + \vec{k})$ is

- (a) $\sqrt{2}$ (b) $\sqrt{3}$
 (c) $\sqrt{4}$ (d) $\sqrt{5}$

[IN, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.163 The value of $\vec{r} \cdot \nabla(\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r})$ is (a) \vec{r}

(b) $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}$ (c) $2\vec{r}$ (d) $2\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.164 The surface integral $\int_S (\vec{r} \cdot \vec{n}) dS$ over the sphere given by $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ is

(a) 36π (b) 18π (c) 9π (d) 4.5π

[ME, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.165 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{60x^2 + 41}{x^2 + 1} =$

(a) 41 (b) 40 (c) 42 (d) 43

[CS, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.166 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1} =$

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[CS, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.167 A vector field \vec{F} is given by $\vec{F} = yz\vec{i} + xz\vec{j} + xy\vec{k}$. Consider the triangle ΔPQR on the curve $x = y^2 = z^2$. The curve is parametrized as follows

$$\begin{cases} x = t \\ y = t^2 \quad \text{for } t \in [0, 2] \\ z = 2t^2 \end{cases}$$

Find the value of the integral $\oint_C \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r}$

(a) $-\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $-\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $-\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $-\frac{1}{8}$

[ME, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.168 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 2}} \right) =$

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[IN, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.169 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{60x^2 + 41}{x^2 + 1} =$

- (a) 41 (b) 40 (c) 42 (d) 43

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[MC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.170 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 2}} =$

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[ME, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.171 What is the value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 2}}$?

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[CL, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.172 Given the following are functions defined on \mathbb{R}

(i) $f(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (ii) $g(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

(iii) $h(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (iv) $i(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

(v) $j(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (vi) $k(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

(vii) $l(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (viii) $m(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

(ix) $n(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (x) $o(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

(xi) $p(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$ (xii) $q(x) = x^2 + 4x + 4$

[CS, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.173 The value of x for which the function

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3x + 5}{x^2 - 3x + 4}$$

is not continuous is/are

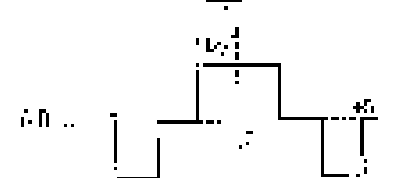
- (a) 4 and 1 (b) 4 and 3
(c) 4 and 2 (d) 4 and 1

[MF, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.174 On a coordinate plane, $f(x)$ versus x is shown below.



Suppose $F(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$ and f is the function shown above. Which of the following is $f'(F(x))$?



[EG, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.175 Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial and $g(x) = f(x) \cos x$ is periodic. If the degree of $f(x) = f(x)$ is 10, then the degree of $g(x) = f(x) \cos x$ is _____.

[OS, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.176 As x varies from $-\pi$ to π , which one of the following describes the behaviour of the function $f(x) = x^2 - 3x^2 + 1$?

- (a) $f(x)$ is symmetrically
(b) $f(x)$ increases from $x = -\pi$ to $x = 0$ and then decreases
(c) $f(x)$ increases from $x = -\pi$ to $x = 0$ and then increases and decreases
(d) $f(x)$ increases from $x = -\pi$ to $x = 0$ and then decreases

[EG, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.177 Let $f(x) = (1 - x)^2$. If $f(x)$ has a local maximum at $x = 1$, then the value of $f'(x)$ is _____.

[IN, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.178 The maximum value obtained by the function $f(x) = x^2 - 10x + 10$ is (a) 10 (b) 15 (c) 20 (d) 25

[LC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.179 The minimum value of the function $f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 12$ is _____.

- (a) 2 (b) 3 (c) 4 (d) 5
(e) 6 (f) 7 (g) 8 (h) 9

[NE, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.180 The quadratic equation of

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 5$$

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 5$$

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 5$$

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 5$$

[OF, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.181 The angle θ increases in the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ and $y = 1$ at point $(1, \sqrt{3})$ is _____.

- (a) 30° (b) 45° (c) 60° (d) 90°

[CF, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.182 How many distinct values of x satisfy the equation $\sin(x) = \cos(x)$, where x is in radians?

- (a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 (d) 4

[EG, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.193 The value of the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ where $f(x)$

is a circle of radius $\frac{1}{\sqrt{e}}$ and $g(x)$ is _____.

where $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ and C is the unit circle centered at the origin of x and y axes. (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{e}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{e}$ (c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{e}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{e}$

[MF, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.194 A straight line on the form $y = mx + c$ passes through the origin and the point $(1, \frac{1}{e})$. The value of c is _____.

[IN, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

$$Q.186 \text{ The value of } \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \text{ is } \frac{1}{2} \ln 2.$$

[EG, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.186 The value of $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dx dy$ is _____

- (a) $\frac{\pi}{4}$ (b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$
(c) $\frac{3\pi}{4}$ (d) 1

[CE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.187 A vector \vec{r} has a constant magnitude with slope $\tan \alpha$, $2x + 3y + z = 0$ and $x = 3$. The value of $\text{div}(\vec{r})$ at the origin under the above conditions is _____

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.188 The area under the curve $y = \tan^{-1} x$ from $x = 0$ to $x = 1$ is _____

[EE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.189 The value of $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1-x+y) dx dy$ with x, y in the domain $0 \leq x \leq 1$ and $0 \leq y \leq 1$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.190 Suppose the curve $y = \sin x$ is defined as the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the Cartesian coordinate system. The value of $\int_0^{\pi/2} (x \sin x - y^2) dx$ is equal to _____

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.191 The area of the right triangle bounded by the line $y = x^2 + 1$ and the straight line $x = 2$ is _____

- (a) $\frac{3\pi}{8}$ (b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$
(c) $\frac{10}{3}$ (d) $\frac{1}{6}$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.192 The region specified by $|x| \leq 2$, $0 \leq y \leq 2$, $\frac{2}{y} \leq x \leq \frac{5}{y}$ is a rectangle, the area of the rectangle is _____

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.193 Consider the second-order vector

$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ in Cartesian coordinates where x, y, z are constant when the components $\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}$ are in spherical coordinates. The divergence of \vec{r} is _____

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.194 The value of the vector product $\vec{a} \times \vec{b}$ where $\vec{a} = 3\vec{i} + 4\vec{j}$ and $\vec{b} = 2\vec{i} - 3\vec{j}$ is _____

- (a) $6\vec{i} - 2\vec{j} + 0\vec{k}$ (b) $0\vec{i} + 1\vec{j} - 3\vec{k}$
(c) $3\vec{i} + 0\vec{j} + 20\vec{k}$ (d) $0\vec{i} + 0\vec{j} + 5\vec{k}$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.195 Which one of the following is a simply connected region in the Cartesian plane?

- (a) $x^2 + y^2 = 0$
(b) The region enclosed by the parabola $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 1$
(c) The region enclosed by the parabola $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 1$
(d) The region enclosed by the parabola $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 1$
(e) The region enclosed by the parabola $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 1$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.196 The value of the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$$

is _____

- (a) 0 (b) 2
(c) 1 (d) 4

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.197 The value of the integral of the vector \vec{r} over the curve C is _____

$\vec{r} = 5x\vec{i} + 3y\vec{j} + 2z\vec{k}$ where C is the curve $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ in the first octant.

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.198 A vector field is conservative if and only if

$\text{div}(\vec{r}) = 0$ and $\text{curl}(\vec{r}) = 0$ where \vec{r} is the vector field.

$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ is equal to _____

- (a) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ (b) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

- (c) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ (d) $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.199 The divergence of the vector $\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.200 Evaluate $\iiint_R 6xz^2 \, dx \, dy \, dz$ over the surface

S of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8$, where

$x = 2, y = 2, z = 2, x = 2, y = 2, z = 0$ is the cut-out surface. In fact, notice

[MF, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.201 The value of $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{2x - \sin(x)}{x} \, dx$ is

- (a) 0 (b) 3
(c) 1 (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[MF, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.202 A lamina is bounded by

$$y = \cos\left(\frac{3x}{2}\right), \frac{3x}{2} = \pi \text{ and } \frac{3x}{2} = 0 \text{ in the range}$$

($x, y \geq 0$) is rotated about the y -axis by 2π . The area of the surface generated is

- (a) $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (b) π
(c) 2π (d) 4π

[MF, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.203 The line vector $\vec{r} = 2xz\vec{i} + 3yz\vec{j} + 4yz\vec{k}$ has

$$\text{value of } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(\vec{r} \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \right) = \quad$$

[ML, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.204 If \vec{a} is a unit vector and \vec{b} is a vector such that

$$(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{a} = 1 \text{ and } (\vec{a} + \vec{b}) \cdot \vec{b} = 0$$

[IN, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.205 The angle between two vectors $\vec{x}_1 = 15\vec{i} + 10\vec{j}$

and $\vec{x}_2 = -15\vec{i} + 10\vec{j}$ is equal to

[N, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.206 Let x and y be integer satisfying the following conditions

$$2x + y = 84$$

$$x + 2y =$$

The value of $\log_2(x + y) \times$

[FF, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.207 Let $\vec{r} = 2y\vec{i} + x\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ and $\vec{a} = 4\vec{i} + 5\vec{j}$. The value

$$\text{of } \vec{a} \cdot \left(\vec{r} \times \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} \right) \text{ is equal to}$$

(Give the answer up to three decimal places)

[CL, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.208 Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1} + 2x$ and $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + 2x + 2$

Consider the composition of two g.f.s $(f \circ g)(x) = 2017$. The number of solutions of

$(f \circ g)(x)$ is present in the interval $(-\infty, 0)$ is

$$\text{(a) } 0 \quad \text{(b) } 1$$

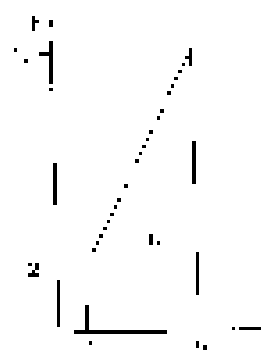
$$\text{(c) } 2 \quad \text{(d) } 4$$

[EF, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.209 Let $I = \iint_R e^{x^2+y^2} \, dx \, dy$, where R is the region

shown in the figure and $\pi \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$. The value of I is equal to

(Give the answer up to two decimal places)



[EE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.210 A function $f(x) = x$ defined as $f(x) =$

$$\begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

and $g(x)$ is defined as $g(x) = 1007$

(a) $f(x)$ is NOT differentiable at $x = 1$ for any values of a and b .

(b) $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = 1$ for all values of a and b .

(c) $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = 1$ for all values of a and b if $a + b = 0$.

(d) $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = 1$ for all values of a and b .

[EF, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.211 The smaller angle (in degree) between the vectors $\vec{a} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$ and $\vec{b} = y\vec{i} + z\vec{j} + 0\vec{k}$

is

[CL, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q.212 The minimum value of $\sin x + \frac{1}{x}$ is $-\frac{1}{2}$ in the interval $-\pi < x < \pi$ occurs at $x =$ _____

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.213 The value of $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dx dy$ is _____

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dx dy \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2+y^2} dy dx$$

are

(a) same and equal to 0.5

(b) same and equal to 0.6

(c) different but same numerically

(d) different but same numerically

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.214 The vector function

$$\vec{r} = x_1(\vec{e}_1 + 2\vec{e}_2 + 3\vec{e}_3) + x_2(\vec{e}_1 + 2\vec{e}_2 + 3\vec{e}_3)$$

is irrotational when the values of the constants x_1, x_2 and x_3 respectively are

(a) 0.1, 0.5, 0.5 (b) 0.1, 0.1, 0.1

(c) 0.1, 0.25, 0.5 (d) 0.1, 0.1, 0.1

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.215 Let $z = f(x+iy) = u(x,y) + i v(x,y)$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$

real and i , u and v are harmonic conjugates. If $u(0,0) = 1$ and $v(0,0) = 0$, then the value of $f(0)$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.216 Let $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x$ be real valued function. From among the following, choose the Taylor series expansion of $f(x)$ around $x=0$ which includes all terms whose coefficients are equal to 0.

$$(a) 1 + x + x^2 + \dots \quad (b) 1 + x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots$$

$$(c) 1 + x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \dots \quad (d) 1 + x + 2x - 7x + \dots$$

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.217 A three dimensional region R of unit volume is described by

$$x^2 + y^2 \leq z^2 \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1$$

where $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ and the volume of R is $\frac{1}{6}$ unit. Then the value of $\int_R z^2 dz$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

$$Q.218 If $f(x) = \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ and $f'(x) = 0$$$

$$\left[\cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) \right] \text{ then the values of } x \text{ are}$$

and x are 0 and π

$$(a) \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ and } \frac{3\pi}{2} \quad (b) \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ and } \pi$$

$$(c) \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ and } 0 \quad (d) \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ and } \frac{3\pi}{2}$$

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

$$Q.219 \text{ The value of } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$$

(a) ∞ (b) ∞ (c) ∞

(d) Does not exist

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.220 Let $w = f(x, y)$ where x and y are functions of t . Then according to the chain rule, $\frac{dw}{dt}$ is equal

to $\frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt}$

$$(a) \frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \quad (b) \frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

$$(c) \frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \quad (d) \frac{dw}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dw}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q.221 The divergence of the vector field $\vec{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\vec{r}$ at $(1, 1, 1)$ is _____

[EC, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

- Q.222 The length of the vector \vec{r} is $\sqrt{2}$ and the angle it makes with the x -axis is 45° . The coordinates of the length vector are (x, y, z)

(a) $(1, 1, 1)$ (b) $(1, 1, 1)$ (c) $(1, 1, 1)$ (d) $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$

[EC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

- Q.223 Consider the following definite integral

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

The value of the integral is

(a) $\frac{x^3}{36}$

(c) $\frac{x^2}{12}$

(b) $\frac{x^3}{72}$

(d) $\frac{x^3}{6^4}$

[CE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.224 Two cars A and B are moving in straight tracks vertically (i) car A starts from rest and moves with constant acceleration a during the time. The expressions for (i) the distance travelled by A and (ii) A's time taken to travel the distance are given as

(i) $s = 20t$

(ii) $t = 0.05s^2$

With the help of both the expressions above, calculate value of a

(a) 10 km/s^2 or 10 m/s^2

(b) 10 km/s^2 or 10 m/s^2

(c) 50 km/s^2 or 50 m/s^2

(d) 50 km/s^2 or 50 m/s^2

[CE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.225 $\int_0^1 \frac{1+\cos x}{1+x} dx$ is equal to _____

[CE, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.226 The value of the integral of the function

$$f(x) = \int_0^{2x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} dt$$

(a) $x = 1$

(b) $x = -1$

(c) $x = 0$

(d) $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

[BSE-Prelim-2017]

Q.227 The value of the integral $\int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{2}{2+\sin t} \right)^2 dt$ is

(a) $\frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$

(b) $2\sqrt{2}\pi$

(c) $\sqrt{2}\pi$

(d) 2π

[BSE-Prelim-2017]

◆◆◆◆◆

Answers		Calculus	
1. (c)	2. (c)	3. (c)	4. (a)
5. (c)	6. (c)	7. (c)	8. (c)
9. (c)	10. (b)	11. (b)	12. (c)
13. (c)	14. (c)	15. (c)	16. (c)
17. (c)	18. (c)	19. (c)	20. (a)
21. (c)	22. (c)	23. (b)	24. (c)
25. (c)	26. (c)	27. (c)	28. (c)
29. (c)	30. (c)	31. (c)	32. (b)
33. (c)	34. (c)	35. (c)	36. (b)
37. (c)	38. (c)	39. (c)	40. (c)
41. (c)	42. (c)	43. (c)	44. (c)
45. (c)	46. (c)	47. (b)	48. (c)
49. (c)	50. (c)	51. (c)	52. (c)
53. (c)	54. (c)	55. (c)	56. (c)
57. (c)	58. (c)	59. (c)	60. (c)
61. (c)	62. (c)	63. (c)	64. (c)
65. (c)	66. (c)	67. (c)	68. (c)
69. (c)	70. (c)	71. (c)	72. (c)
73. (c)	74. (c)	75. (c)	76. (c)
77. (c)	78. (c)	79. (c)	80. (c)
81. (c)	82. (c)	83. (c)	84. (c)
85. (c)	86. (c)	87. (c)	88. (c)
89. (c)	90. (c)	91. (c)	92. (c)
93. (c)	94. (c)	95. (c)	96. (c)
97. (c)	98. (c)	99. (c)	100. (c)
101. (c)	102. (c)	103. (c)	104. (c)
105. (c)	106. (c)	107. (c)	108. (c)
109. (c)	110. (c)	111. (c)	112. (c)
113. (c)	114. (c)	115. (c)	116. (c)
117. (c)	118. (c)	119. (c)	120. (c)
121. (c)	122. (c)	123. (c)	124. (c)
125. (c)	126. (c)	127. (c)	128. (c)
129. (c)	130. (c)	131. (c)	132. (c)
133. (c)	134. (c)	135. (c)	136. (c)
137. (c)	138. (c)	139. (c)	140. (c)
141. (c)	142. (c)	143. (c)	144. (c)
145. (c)	146. (c)	147. (c)	148. (c)
149. (c)	150. (c)	151. (c)	152. (c)
153. (c)	154. (c)	155. (c)	156. (c)
157. (c)	158. (c)	159. (c)	160. (c)
161. (c)	162. (c)	163. (c)	164. (c)
165. (c)	166. (c)	167. (c)	168. (c)
169. (c)	170. (c)	171. (c)	172. (c)
173. (c)	174. (c)	175. (c)	176. (c)
177. (c)	178. (c)	179. (c)	180. (c)
181. (c)	182. (c)	183. (c)	184. (c)
185. (c)	186. (c)	187. (c)	188. (c)
189. (c)	190. (c)	191. (c)	192. (c)
193. (c)	194. (c)	195. (c)	196. (c)
197. (c)	198. (c)	199. (c)	200. (c)
201. (c)	202. (c)	203. (c)	204. (c)
205. (c)	206. (c)	207. (c)	208. (c)
209. (c)	210. (c)	211. (c)	212. (c)
213. (c)	214. (c)	215. (c)	216. (c)
217. (c)	218. (c)	219. (c)	220. (c)
221. (c)	222. (c)	223. (c)	224. (c)
225. (c)	226. (c)	227. (c)	228. (c)

$$\text{cash} = \frac{0.999 \times 0.770}{1.5 \times 0.808} \\ = 0.97 \mu$$

$$\therefore \beta = 10\%$$

9. (d)

Since the car has the diesel engine, it has a circular and elliptical trajectory, travelling along the horizontal surface.

At any instant t is θ rad from

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \theta &= \frac{v}{R\omega} = \frac{360 - 300}{R \times 0} = \frac{1280 - 0}{18 \times 0} \text{ rad/sec} \\ &= \frac{320}{18} \times 0.986 \\ &= \frac{280}{9} = \frac{3600}{1200} \text{ kmph} = 120 \text{ kmph} \end{aligned}$$

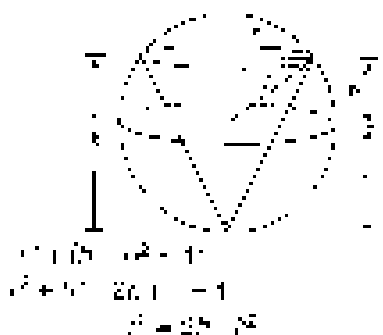
where $\theta(t)$ is the speed of the diesel engine.

10. (c)

Given function has negative slope, and the two slopes are equal, so the slope of the curve is equal to 0.



10. (d)



centre of the circle $(h, k) = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$

$$r = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow 2h - r^2 = \frac{1}{2} (2h^2 - r^2)$$

$$\frac{dr}{dh} = \frac{1}{2} (2h - r^2)$$

$$\frac{dr}{dh} = 0 \quad \text{At } r=0 \text{ and } h=0$$

$$r^2 - 2h^2 = 0$$

$$h^2 - 2r^2 = 0$$

$$h = \frac{4}{3} r$$

$$r = \frac{3}{2} (h - 2r^2)$$

$$r = 0, \quad h = \frac{4}{3} \times 0 = 0 \text{ m/min}$$

$$h = \frac{4}{3}, \quad r = -\frac{4}{3} \times 0 = 0 \text{ m/min}$$

$$\therefore \text{Volume of the cylinder} = \frac{4}{3}$$

11. (a)

$$f(x) = x^2 + x^3$$

$$f'(x) = 2x^2 + 3x^2 = 5x^2$$

$$\text{Putting } f'(x) = 0$$

$$5(2x^2 + 3x^2) = 0$$

$$5x^2(2+3) = 0$$

$$x = 0 \text{ or } x = -5 \text{ or } x = 5 \text{ are the stationary points}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } f''(x) &= 6x + 6 = 6(1 + 2x) \quad f''(x) = 6(1 + 2x) \\ &= 6(1 + 2(-5)) = 6(-9) \\ &= -54 < 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$x = -5 \text{ is a local maximum}$$

$$\text{Since } f''(x) = 2(1 + 2x) = 0 \text{ we have a minimum}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now at } x = 5 \quad f''(x) &= 6(1 + 2(5)) = 6(11) \\ &= 66 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{At } x = 5 \text{ we have a minimum}$$

12. (c)

$$\delta = \frac{1}{2} \pi \times 100$$

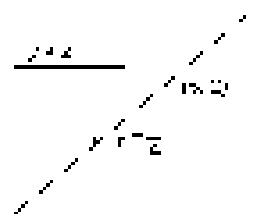
$$= \left| \frac{f''(x)}{f'(x)} \right| = \left| \frac{f''(x)}{f'(x)} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2} \right| = 0$$

13. (a)

$$\text{Area} = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \theta_1 \theta_2 d\theta_1 d\theta_2$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2}{4}$$



Now

$$z = \int_0^x \frac{dy}{1+y^2} = \tan^{-1} x$$

$$x = \tan z$$

14. (a)

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = x, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = y$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = 0$$

At $(1, 1)$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = 0$$

$$\Delta^2 u = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 1 + 1 = 2 > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 1$$

$$\Delta^2 u = 2 > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 1$$

$$\Delta^2 u = 2 > 0$$

15. (a)

$$u = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{y^2}{2}$$

and

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 1$$

At $(1, 1)$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 1$$

$$\Delta^2 u = 2 > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 1$$

$$\Delta^2 u = 2 > 0$$

16. (a)

$$f(x, y, z) = 2x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

At $(1, 1, 1)$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 4, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2, \quad \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} = 2$$

$$\Delta^2 f = 4 + 2 + 2 = 8 > 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 4x = 4, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y = 2, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 2z = 2$$

$$\Delta^2 f = 8 > 0$$

17. (a)

Green's Theorem:-

$$\oint_C (P dx + Q dy) = \int_R \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx dy$$

$$P = x^2, \quad Q = y^2$$

$$\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\oint_C (x^2 dx + y^2 dy) = \int_R (0 - 0) dx dy = 0$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = x, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = y$$

Solving (1) & (2), we get $x = y = 1$

$$x = \frac{1}{y}, \quad y = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{y^2}, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{y^2}, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{y^2}, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

18. (a)

A line graph and a parabola $y = x^2 + 11x + 18$ intersect at

9. (b)

$$L_1: y = \frac{2x^2 - 7x + 3}{x^2 - 3x + 3}$$

$$L_2: y = \frac{2x^2 - 7x + 3}{x^2 - 3x + 3}$$

$$L_3: y = \frac{2x^2 - 7x + 3}{x^2 - 3x + 3}$$

20. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2(1-x^2)}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^2}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{2x(1-x^2) - x^2(2x)}{(1+x^2)^3} = \frac{2x(1-3x^2)}{(1+x^2)^3}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{2(1-3x^2) - 6x^2(1+x^2)}{(1+x^2)^4} = \frac{2(1-9x^2)}{(1+x^2)^4}$$

29. (a)

$$\iint_D (7 - x^2) \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (7 - x^2) \, dx \, dy \quad (\text{does not exist})$$

30. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 11x + \frac{1}{x^2}}{x^2 + 11x + \frac{1}{x^2}}$$

This is of the form $\left(\frac{\infty}{\infty}\right)$

Applying L'Hopital's rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 11x + \frac{1}{x^2}}{x^2 + 11x + \frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x + 11 - \frac{2}{x^3}}{2x + 11 - \frac{2}{x^3}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x + 11 - \frac{2}{x^3}}{2x + 11 - \frac{2}{x^3}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

31. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{\frac{1}{2} \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{\frac{1}{2} \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$

32. (a)

$$\text{Given, } y = x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x \quad \text{At } x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = 2 \text{ which is the}$$

slope of the tangent line at $x = 0$

$$\text{or } x = 0, y = 0$$

$$\text{substitute } x = 0 \text{ in } [1, 5]$$

it holds satisfied for every value of x in the interval

$$\text{At } x = 0 \text{ and } y = 1$$

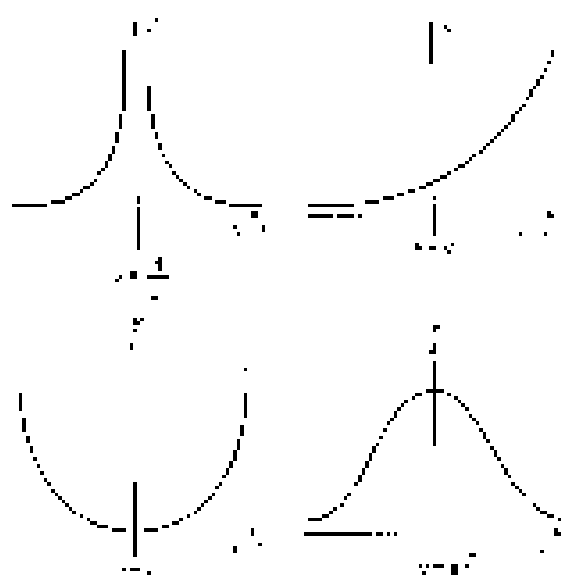
$$y = 1$$

$$\text{At second end point } x = 5$$

$$y = 25$$

So absolute minimum value of function is 1 at $x = 0$.

33. (a)

Function g is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ is uniformly bounded

34. (a)

$$g(x) = 2x^2 = 2 - 12 + 12x - 21$$

$$f(x) = 3x^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2$$

$$g\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2 - 12 + 6 = 0$$

$$\text{So at } x = \frac{1}{2},$$

where f and g intersect at $(\frac{1}{2}, 2)$ In x range $[0, 4]$

$$\text{Now } f(0) = 0$$

$$f(4) = 12$$

So maximum value in range $[0, 4]$ is 12.

35. (a)

The Taylor's series expansion of $f(x)$ at $x = 2$ is

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

For first approximation we use $x = 2$ and $f(2) = 3$ (known value)

$$f(2) = f'(2) = (2 - 2)f'(2)$$

$$\text{Hence, } f(2) = 3 \text{ and } f'(2) = 0$$

$$\therefore f(x) = 3 + f''(2) \frac{(x-2)^2}{2!} = 3 + \frac{f''(2)}{2}(x-2)^2$$

36. (b)

Lagrange's theorem says f and g are continuous in $[a, b]$

$$f = x + 1$$

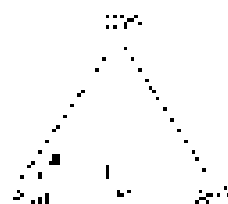
$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_1^2 x^2 dx = \int_1^2 (x+1) dx \\
 &= \left(\frac{x^2}{2} + x \right) \Big|_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}(2+1) = \frac{3}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

37. (a)

From the given $\vec{AB} = \vec{a}$ and $\vec{AC} = \vec{b}$

$$\vec{AD} = \frac{(\vec{a} + \vec{b})}{2} \quad |\vec{AD}| = AD = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Area of } \Delta ABC &= \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} a b \sin \theta \quad \theta = \angle BAC \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} a b \cdot \frac{AD}{\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} = \frac{1}{2} a b \times \frac{2AD}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

for above to hold $\vec{AD} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{a} + \vec{b})$ is correct.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Area of } \Delta ABC &= \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} \times \vec{b}| \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} |\vec{a} + \vec{b} \times \vec{a} + \vec{a} \times \vec{b}|
 \end{aligned}$$

which is correct.

38. (b)

$$(i) \quad \vec{r} = \frac{x\vec{i} + y\vec{j}}{y^2 + z^2}$$

$$(ii) \quad \vec{r} = \frac{x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{x_1\vec{i} + y_1\vec{j}}{x_1^2 + y_1^2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{x_2\vec{i} + y_2\vec{j}}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{x_3\vec{i} + y_3\vec{j}}{x_3^2 + y_3^2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{x_4\vec{i} + y_4\vec{j}}{x_4^2 + y_4^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (c) \quad \vec{r} &= \frac{x^2\vec{i} + y^2\vec{j} + z^2\vec{k}}{x_1^2 + y_1^2 + z_1^2 + x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2} \\
 &= \frac{x_1^2\vec{i} + y_1^2\vec{j} + z_1^2\vec{k}}{x_1^2 + y_1^2 + z_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2\vec{i} + y_2^2\vec{j} + z_2^2\vec{k}}{x_2^2 + y_2^2 + z_2^2} \\
 &= \frac{x_1^2\vec{i} + y_1^2\vec{j} + z_1^2\vec{k}}{r_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2\vec{i} + y_2^2\vec{j} + z_2^2\vec{k}}{r_2^2} \\
 &= \frac{x_1\vec{r}_1}{r_1} + \frac{x_2\vec{r}_2}{r_2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now, } \vec{r} = \vec{0}$$

$$\text{So, } x_1\vec{r}_1 = \vec{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x_1}{r_1} = \frac{r_1}{r_1}$$

= vector of \vec{r}_1 and \vec{r}_1 is the line joiningto the origin and \vec{r}_1 So, the direction is \vec{r}_1 i.e. the direction is \vec{r}_1

However, notice that here since

 $\vec{r} = \frac{x_1\vec{r}_1}{r_1} + \frac{x_2\vec{r}_2}{r_2}$ cannot be negativeSo, the direction is \vec{r}_1 and \vec{r}_2

39. (d)

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k} \Rightarrow \vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k} \Rightarrow \vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k} \Rightarrow \vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

40. (a)

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

41. (b)

$$(x-3) = 0, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

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$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x=3, y=0$$

43. (b)

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x) &= (x^2 - 1) \\ f_2(x) &= (x^2 - 1) \times 3x = 3x(x^2 - 1) = f \\ y &= 0 \Rightarrow 3x(x^2 - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0, \pm 1 \\ f_1(0) &= 1, f_2(0) = 3 \Rightarrow -4 \times 1 \\ &= -4, f_2(1) = 3 \times 1 = 3 \Rightarrow -4(1^2 - 1) \\ &= -4(0) = 0 \\ f_1(2) &= -16 \times 1 = -16, f_2(2) = 12 \times 1 = 12 \\ f_1(3) &= -18(9) = -162 \times 1 \\ &\quad (\text{since } f_1(3) = 8) \\ f_1(4) &= -3(16) = -48 \times 1 \\ &\quad (\text{since } f_1(4) = 4) \end{aligned}$$

\therefore There is only one maximum lying between 0 and 1.

44. (d)

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 3x^3 - 18x^2 + 24x - 2 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 9x^2 - 36x + 24 = 0 \\ 3x^2 - 4x + 4 &= 0 \\ \text{or } 12x^2 - 48x + 48 &= 0 \\ x^2 - 4x + 4 &= 0 \\ x &= \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 16}}{2} \\ &= \frac{4 \pm 0}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = 2 \\ \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= 6x - 36 = 6(2) - 36 \\ &= 12 - 36 = -24 < 0 \end{aligned}$$

\therefore There are no extreme in this function.

45. (a)

(a) mean and standard deviation

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x - a_i) \\ \text{where } f_i &= \frac{f(x_i)}{h} \\ f'(x) &= e^x, f'(2) = e^2 \\ \text{ADDITIONALY } f'(x - 2) &= f'_x = \frac{f'(x)}{e^2} = \frac{e^x}{e^2} \end{aligned}$$

46. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \text{Then } f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x^2}{3} - \frac{x^4}{5} + \frac{x^6}{7} - \dots \right) \\ \cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \text{So, } \sin x \text{ and } \cos x \text{ have only even powers of } x \\ \text{Similarly, } f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} - \dots \right) \\ \cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \\ \text{So, } \sin x \text{ and } \cos x \text{ have odd powers of } x \\ \therefore \text{ correct answer is (a).} \end{aligned}$$

47. (b)

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= x^2 - 3x + 4 \\ \text{We still have to expand } (x^2 - 3x + 4)^3 \\ \text{Let's use our expansion: } (a+b+c)^3 = a^3 + b^3 + c^3 \\ &+ 3(a^2b + a^2c + ab^2 + ac^2 + b^2c + bc^2) + 6abc \\ \text{Now put } a = x^2, b = -3x, c = 4 \\ f(x) &= (x^2)^3 + (-3x)^3 + 4^3 + \frac{3(x^2 - 3x)^3}{2} + \frac{3(x^2 - 3x)^2}{2} + \frac{3(x^2 - 3x)}{2} + \frac{3(4)^2}{2} + \frac{3(4)^2}{2} + \frac{3(4)^2}{2} \\ &= x^6 - 27x^3 + 64 + \frac{3(x^4 - 9x^3 + 27x^2 - 27x)}{2} + \frac{3(x^4 - 6x^3 + 9x^2)}{2} + \frac{3(x^2 - 6x + 9)}{2} + \frac{3(16)}{2} + \frac{3(16)}{2} + \frac{3(16)}{2} \\ &= x^6 - 27x^3 + 64 + \frac{3x^4 - 27x^3 + 81x^2 - 81x}{2} + \frac{3x^4 - 18x^3 + 27x^2}{2} + \frac{3x^2 - 18x + 27}{2} + 24 + 24 + 24 \\ &= x^6 - 27x^3 + 64 + \frac{3x^4 - 27x^3 + 81x^2 - 81x + 3x^4 - 18x^3 + 27x^2 + 3x^2 - 18x + 27}{2} + 72 \\ &= x^6 - 27x^3 + 64 + \frac{6x^4 - 45x^3 + 108x^2 - 78x + 27}{2} + 72 \\ &= x^6 - 27x^3 + 64 + 3x^4 - \frac{45}{2}x^3 + 54x^2 - 39x + \frac{27}{2} + 72 \\ &= x^6 + 3x^4 - \frac{45}{2}x^3 + 54x^2 - 39x + \frac{147}{2} \end{aligned}$$

48. (c)

$$\begin{aligned} y &= e^x \\ \text{Then } y \text{ is constant, } y' &= 0 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= e^x e^x = e^{2x} \\ \text{For } x = 2, \text{ we have } y' &= e^{2(2)} = e^4 \\ \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} &= \frac{d}{dx}(e^{2x}) = 2e^{2x} = 2e^{2(2)} = 2e^4 \end{aligned}$$

at $x = 0$ is $2(1) = 2$

So, $f'(x) = x + 2(1 - 2 \sin x) = 1$

43. (a)

Change (a) $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx = \log \sqrt{2}$

Change (b) $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^2 + 1} = \frac{\pi}{4}$

Change (c) $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$

Integrating by parts taking $u = \ln x$ and $dv = x dx$
we get, $du = \frac{1}{x} dx$ and $v = \frac{x^2}{2}$

(a) $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \ln x \right]_0^1 - \int_0^1 \frac{x^2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx = \frac{x^2}{2} \ln x - \frac{x^2}{4} \Big|_0^1 = -\frac{1}{4}$

Now $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \ln x - \frac{x^2}{4} \right]_0^1 = -\frac{1}{4}$

Change (a) $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \left[\tan^{-1} x \right]_0^1 = \tan^{-1} 1 - \tan^{-1} 0 = \frac{\pi}{4}$

Since only (a) is true, (a) is the answer

45. (a)

$$y = \frac{2}{5}x^{5/2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^{3/2}$$

Length of the curve is given by

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + x^3} dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + x^3} dx = 1.42$$

51. (a)

Radius of the right circle for point $(2, 0)$ is $(2 - 0)$

$$y - 0 = \frac{0 - 0}{(1 - 0)}(x - 0)$$

at $x = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} 0(2 - 0) &= 4x^2 + 12y^2 \\ &= 4x^2 + 12(2)^2 = 4x^2 + 48 \end{aligned}$$

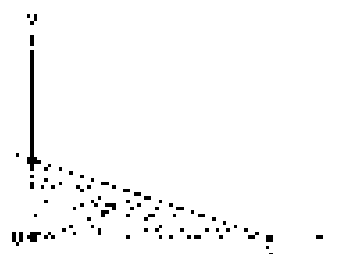
$$\int_0^1 (4x^2 + 48) dx = \left[\frac{4x^3}{3} + 48x \right]_0^1 = \frac{4}{3} + 48 = 50\frac{2}{3}$$

$$= 50\frac{2}{3} = 23$$

52. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (3 + x^2 y) dx dy &= \int_0^1 \left[3y + \frac{x^3 y}{3} \right]_0^1 dy \\ &= \frac{y}{3} \left[3 + x^3 \right]_0^1 \Big|_0^1 = 10/3 \end{aligned}$$

53. (a)



Line equation is $y = -\frac{1}{2}x + 1$ with x -intercept = 2 and y -intercept = 1 is

$$\frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{1} = \frac{2 - y}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow x + 2y = 2 - y$$

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{2-3y} x^2 dx dy = \int_0^1 \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^{2-3y} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 (2 - 3y)^3 dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 (2 - 3y)^2 dy = \frac{1}{3}$$

Area of the region is $\frac{1}{3}$ sq. unit

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{2-3y} (2 - 3y) dx dy = \frac{1}{3}$$

54. (a)

$$\sin \theta = 0$$

$$\sin \theta = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 0, \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 0, \pi$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 0, \pi \Rightarrow \theta = 0$$

So, $\theta = 0$ and $\theta = \pi$ are the values

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 2\pi$$

55. (d)

$$\begin{aligned} d(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) &= d(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(y^2) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(z^2) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

56. (b)

$$\text{grad } f = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right) = (2x, 2y, 2z) = 4x\mathbf{i} + 4y\mathbf{j} + 4z\mathbf{k}$$

at point $P(1, 2, 3)$, $\text{grad } f = 2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$

Let us calculate the direction of $\text{grad } f$ at $P(1, 2, 3)$ in direction of vector $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ given as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|} \cdot \text{grad } f &= \left(\frac{3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{50}} \right) \cdot (2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{50}} (6 + 16 + 30) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

57. (b)

In this, we have to show that our value is exact. So, the value of the line integral is independent of θ .

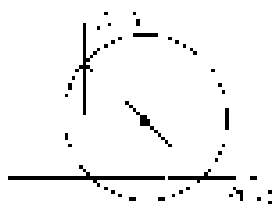
$$= 2 \int_0^{2\pi} (x \cos \theta - y \sin \theta) d\theta$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{2\pi} x \cos \theta - 2 \int_0^{2\pi} y \sin \theta d\theta$$

$$= 2 \left[x \sin \theta + y \cos \theta \right]_0^{2\pi} = 0$$

$$= 0 \quad \text{Hence, it is independent of } \theta$$

$$[\text{value at } \theta = 0 = \text{value at } \theta = 2\pi = 0 = 0 = 0]$$



58. (a)

Let the point be (x, y, z) on surface $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ and distance from origin = r

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + 1 - x^2 - y^2} = 1$$

$$= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1 + xy$$

$$[\text{since } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1 \text{ is given}]$$

This distance is smallest when it is minimum we need to find minima of $r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + 1 + xy$

$$\text{Let } f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + 1 + xy$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + y$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y + x$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2x + y = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x + 2y = 0$$

Solving simultaneously we get

$$x = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad y = 0$$

is the only solution and at $(0, 0, 1)$ is the only valid endpoint.

$$\text{Here, } f = \frac{4xy}{x^2 + y^2} = 0$$

$$g = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 1$$

$$h = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = 2$$

$$\Delta f = g + h = 1 + 2 = 3 > 0$$

So, here $\Delta f > 0$, then it is a maximum or minimum exists and $(0, 0)$

Now since $r = 2 > 0$, so this is not a $(0, 0)$ point $\Rightarrow x = 0, y = 0$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{0 + 0} = 0$$

So, the point $(0, 0) = (0, 0)$ is not valid

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 > 0 \quad (0, 0)$$

$$\text{Then } \Delta f = g + h = 1 + 2 = 3 > 0$$

So, it is an area of convexity (0) .

59. (a)

An n^{th} degree polynomial has exactly $n - 1$ turns and therefore can have a maximum of $n - 1$ extrema. Also an n^{th} degree polynomial has at most n roots (turning points). For each polynomial, degree of turns is even or odd? extrema and turning points are not the same as crossings.

60. (b)

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x + 4$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 + 4x + 3$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(3x^2 + 4x + 3 \right) = 6x + 4$$

$$f'''(x) = \frac{d}{dx} (6x + 4) = 6$$

$$f''(0) = 4 > 0$$

$$= 1 + \frac{6}{3!} + \frac{4}{2!} + \frac{3}{1!} + \dots$$

61. (c)

$$\text{Find } \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = \left[-\cos x \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= -\cos \pi - (-\cos 0)$$

$$= -(-1) - (-1)$$

$$\text{Given, (c) } \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx =$$

$$= -\cos x \Big|_0^{\pi}$$

$$= -\cos \pi - (-\cos 0)$$

$$= -(-1) - (-1)$$

$$= 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$= 2$$

$$= 2$$

$$= 2$$

$$= 2$$

$$= 2$$

62. (a)

$$\text{Let } x = r \cos \theta$$

$$y = r \sin \theta$$

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\sqrt{16-y^2}} r \, dr \, d\theta$$



$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[\frac{r^2}{2} \right]_0^{\sqrt{16-y^2}} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{2\pi} (16 - y^2) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{2\pi} 16 d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \times 16 \times 2\pi$$

$$= 8\pi$$

$$= 8\pi$$

63. (c)

$$\text{Curve 1: } y^2 = 4x$$

$$\text{Curve 2: } y^2 = 9x$$

$$\text{Intersection point: } 4x = 9x$$

$$y^2 = 4x = 9x$$

$$y^2 = 4 \times 9 \Rightarrow y^2 = 36 \Rightarrow y = \pm 6$$

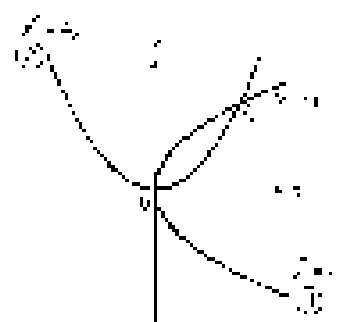
$$\text{Substituting } y = 6 \text{ in } y^2 = 4x$$

$$36 = 4x \Rightarrow x = 9$$

$$\text{The intersection point is } (9, 6) \text{ and } (9, -6)$$

$$\text{The area enclosed between curves 1 and 2 is}$$

$$\text{given by}$$



$$A = \int_0^9 (3\sqrt{x} - 2\sqrt{x}) dx$$

$$= \int_0^9 \sqrt{x} dx$$

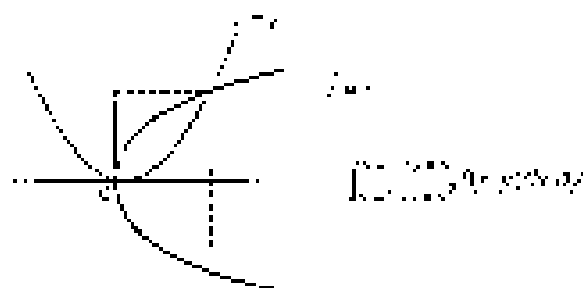
$$= \left[\frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \right]_0^9$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \times 27 = 18$$

Attaching the same amount of wire have been obtained by bringing a wire of length 34 ft over

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Required Area} &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} dy \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2y}} dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\sqrt{2y} \right]_0^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\end{aligned}$$

64. (a)



65. (b)

$$\begin{aligned}x &= 2t + 2t^2 + \frac{1}{2}t^3 \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= 2 + 4t + \frac{3}{2}t^2 \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= 2 + 4t + \frac{3}{2}t^2 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 1\end{aligned}$$

The gradient at $P(2, 1)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}&= 2(2) + 4(1) + \frac{3}{2}(1)^2 = 4 + 4 + \frac{3}{2} = 8 + \frac{3}{2} = \frac{19}{2}\end{aligned}$$

66. (b)

$$z_x = -\frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{2y} + \frac{1}{2z}$$

Hence $z = x^2 + y^2 + 2z^2$

$$z = 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2$$

$$z = 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2 \Rightarrow z(1 - 2z) = 2x^2 + 2y^2 \Rightarrow z = 1 - 2z$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{1}{3}$$

The maximum temperature in the box is $\frac{1}{3}$ at $(0, 0, \frac{1}{3})$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3} = 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Let } \text{grad } z &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x^2 + 2y^2 + 2z^2}} (2x, 2y, 2z) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1, 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\end{aligned}$$

67. (a)

Vector field,

$$F = 2xz\mathbf{i} + 2xy\mathbf{j} + y^2\mathbf{k}$$

$$F = 2xz\mathbf{i} + 2xy\mathbf{j} + y^2\mathbf{k}$$

Div F at $(1, 1, 1)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Div } F &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(2xy) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(y^2) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(2xz) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(2xy) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(y^2) \\ &= 2z + 2x + 0 \\ &= 2(1) + 2(1) + 0 = 4\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } \text{Div } F \text{ at } (1, 1, 1) = 4$$

68. (a)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) &= -\frac{1}{x^2} \\ \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x^2} \right) &= -\frac{2}{x^3} \\ \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x^3} \right) &= -\frac{3}{x^4}\end{aligned}$$

69. (b)

$$\begin{aligned}\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right) &= \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right) \\ &= \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right) \\ &= \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)\end{aligned}$$

70. (a)

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 2x + 2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 2 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Hence } y &= 2x + 2 \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 2\end{aligned}$$

Since $z = 2x$ and $2x = 2$ are asymptotes, these give a hyperbola with centre at the origin $(0, 0)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Let } \text{L.H.S.} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Hence } \text{R.H.S.} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

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

$$\text{Hence } \text{L.H.S.} = \text{R.H.S.} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Hence } \text{L.H.S.} = \text{R.H.S.} = \frac{1}{2}$$

is a function of x and y is a function of x .

The area $Q = 3y$ and $Q = 8$ are constant. The area is differentiable.

$$\text{and } dQ/dx = \frac{dQ}{dy} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\text{Now } Q = \frac{8}{3}, \text{ then } dQ/dx = -\frac{8}{3}$$

$$8/3 = 8 \cdot 1/4 \cdot dy/dx \Rightarrow dy/dx = 1/3$$

$$dy/dx = 1/3$$

$$\therefore \text{The function } Q \text{ is not differentiable at } x = \frac{8}{3}$$

Ans. (a) The area of the triangle is $Q = \frac{1}{2}xy$.

$$\text{So, } dQ/dx = \frac{1}{2}y$$

71. (a)

$$2x^2y + 4xz^2 + 6xy + 8xz + 9y + 10z = 0$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = 9y + 8$$

$$\frac{dy}{dz} = 10y + 8$$

$$\text{Putting } \frac{dx}{dy} = 9y + 8 \text{ and } \frac{dy}{dz} = 10y + 8$$

$$8x + 8 = 0 \text{ and } 12y + 4 = 0$$

$$\text{Given } x = 1 \text{ and } y = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\left(1, \frac{1}{3}\right) \text{ is the only stationary point.}$$

$$r = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = 8$$

$$s = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = 0$$

$$t = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = 10$$

$$\text{So, } \Delta = r = 8 > 0, \Delta = 12 > 0$$

$$\Delta = 8$$

$$\text{Since } \Delta > 0,$$

$$\text{we have a local maximum at } \left(1, \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

$$\text{also since } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = 8 > 0 \text{ the point}$$

$$\left(1, \frac{1}{3}\right) \text{ is a point of minima.}$$

For this we get $x = 1$

$$\left(1, \frac{1}{3}\right) = 4 \times 1 + 3 \times \frac{1}{3} + 1 \times 1 + 4 \times \frac{1}{3} + 8 = \frac{19}{3}$$

$$\text{So the value of } Q \text{ is } \frac{19}{3} \text{ at } \left(1, \frac{1}{3}\right)$$

72. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x} = \frac{x^2}{x} + \frac{1}{x} = x + \frac{1}{x}$$

$$f(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2x} + \dots$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2x} + \dots$$

$$f(1) = 2, f(2) = 2, f(3) = 2$$

$$\therefore f(x) \text{ has a maximum.}$$

73. (a)

$$y = x^{1/2}$$

Using log on both sides,

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \log x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{2x}$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2x}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2x} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2x} = 0 \Rightarrow x = \infty \text{ is the only point.}$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} + (1 - \log x) \cdot \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} (1 - \log x) = \frac{1}{x^2} (1 - \log x)$$

$$\left[\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right]_{x=\infty} = \frac{1}{\infty^2} (1 - \log \infty) = \frac{1}{\infty^2} < 0$$

$$\text{So, at } x = \infty, \text{ we have a maximum.}$$

74. (c)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} &= \left[\tan^{-1} x \right]_0^1 \\ &= \tan^{-1}(1) - \tan^{-1}(0) \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} - \left[\frac{-\pi}{2} \right] = \pi \end{aligned}$$

76. (b)

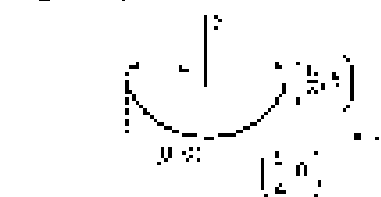
$$I = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 dx dy$$

Integrating by parts:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } u &= x^2, \\ dv &= y^2 dy \\ du &= 2x dx \\ v &= \int y^2 dy = \frac{y^3}{3} \\ \therefore \int u dv &= uv - \int v du \\ \therefore \int x^2 y^2 dy &= x y^3 - \int y^3 dx \\ &= x y^3 - \frac{y^3}{4} x^4 + C \\ \therefore \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 dx &= \left[x y^3 - \frac{y^3}{4} x^4 \right]_0^1 \\ &= \left(y^3 - \frac{y^3}{4} \right) - \left(0 - \frac{0}{4} \right) \\ &= \frac{3}{4} y^3 \end{aligned}$$

76. (d)

Let the volume $V = V(x)$ whose $y = y + x + y = 2x$ is given by



$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2} dx$$

$$\text{here, } y = 4x^2 \quad \therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 8x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 8x \\ \therefore y &= 0 \text{ at } x = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } y = 4 \text{ at } x = \frac{1}{2}$$

\therefore we can take from equation (1) by substituting $x = 0$ and $x = \frac{1}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{1}{2} (\text{length of arc}) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - (8x)^2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - 64x^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Length of arc} = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - 64x^2} dx$$

77. (a)

The volume of solid generated by the curve $y = x^2$ as it revolves about the y -axis is given by the volume of the solid generated by the curve $y = x^2$ as it revolves about the y -axis.

$$V = \pi \int_0^1 x^4 dx$$

$$\text{Here } x = 1, y = 1 \text{ and } y = 0, x = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Volume} &= \pi \int_0^1 x^4 dx \\ &= \pi \left[\frac{x^5}{5} \right]_0^1 = \frac{\pi}{5} \left[1^5 - 0^5 \right] \\ &= \frac{\pi}{5} [1 - 0] = \frac{\pi}{5} \end{aligned}$$

78. (c)

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 dx dy$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int_0^1 \left[\frac{x^3 y^2}{3} \right]_0^1 dy &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^1 y^2 dy \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{y^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{9} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$P = Q: y = 1, x = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$Q = \vec{r} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{\sqrt{3}} \quad \text{or } Q = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (A \cdot x^2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} x^2 \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\text{Hence, } P = 3, \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = 4$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^5 (2 + \sqrt{x}) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \cdot dx &= \int_0^5 \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + 1 \right) \cdot dx \\ &= \frac{2}{\frac{1}{2}} x^{\frac{1}{2}+1} + x = 4 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}+1} + \frac{25}{1} \\ &= \frac{2}{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{25}{1} = 2 + 25 = 27 \end{aligned}$$

$$G = 2x + \frac{1}{x^2}, \quad dx = 0$$

$$\int_0^5 A \cdot dx = \int_0^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot x^2 \cdot dy = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \cdot (3) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{9}$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^5 A \cdot dx &= \frac{1}{9} (A \cdot dx) = \frac{1}{9} (A \cdot dx) = \frac{1}{9} (A \cdot dx) = \frac{1}{9} (A \cdot dx) \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{27} = \frac{1}{27} \end{aligned}$$

18. (c)

$$\text{Vector vector} = \vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

The scalar product is given by the relation

$$= (x \cdot \sqrt{3})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial z} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \end{aligned}$$

At (1, 1, 1) or substituting $x = 1, y = 1$ and $z = 1$,
 we get $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$

50. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\text{or } \vec{r} = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right) \cdot (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot x^2 + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \cdot y^2 + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \cdot z^2 \\ &= 2x + 2y + 2z = 6 \end{aligned}$$

19. (d)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x} = 1$$

69. (a)

$$\text{If } \vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} \text{ then } \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{y^2} + \frac{1}{z^2} \right) \quad \text{or } \frac{1}{2}$$

Since the limit is in form of $\frac{0}{0}$, we can use

l'Hôpital's rule (or L'Hôpital's rule) and get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x}{1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x} = 1$$

68. (b)

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 3$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0$$

or $x_1 = 3 - x_2 - x_3$ (substitute part)

$$x_1 = 3 - x_2 - x_3$$

$$\text{or } x_1 = 3 - x_2 - x_3$$

So, the matrix is given by

91. (b)

$$\text{or } x = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} \right)$$

55. (d)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos x + 13 \sin x) \cdot e^x &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} \right) \cdot e^x \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{2} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot e^x = \frac{1}{4} e^x \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + 1 \right) \left(\sin x + \cos x \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

84. (b)



→ curve starts at the origin and goes up to $\pi/4$ and stays positive till $\pi/2$ → $\sin \theta$ [from 0 to $\pi/2$] → sine wave goes from 0 to 1 → $\sin 2\theta$

85. (b)

$$y' = 1 - y - \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^3}{6} - \dots$$

(4) Maclaurin's series expansion

93. (a)

The area enclosed is shown by the shaded part.
The equation of the circle O is $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ as by giving



$$x^2 = 25$$

and $y^2 = 25$ simultaneously

$$\Rightarrow x = \pm 5$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin^{-1} \frac{y}{5} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad y = \pm 5$$

Now, $x = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$ which is at $O(0,0)$

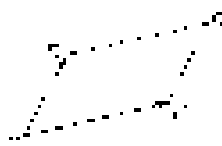
and $y = 4 \Rightarrow x = 3$ which is at $P(3,4)$

Similarly at $Q(4,3)$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 4 \times 3 \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 4 \times 3 \right)$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} x & y \\ 3 & 4 \end{array} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{array} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{array} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

97. (a)



The area of the parallelogram $ABCD$ is given by the cross product of the vector \vec{AB} and \vec{AD} :

$$= |\vec{AB} \times \vec{AD}|$$

$$\vec{AB} = \vec{B} - \vec{A}$$

$$\vec{AD} = \vec{D} - \vec{A}$$

$$\vec{AB} \times \vec{AD} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = (\hat{i} + \hat{j}) - (2\hat{k} - 2\hat{k})$$

$$|\vec{AB} \times \vec{AD}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 1^2 + 0^2} = \sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2}$$

98. (a)

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{area} = \frac{d^2}{dx} + \frac{dy}{dy} + \frac{dz}{dz}$$

$$= 2x\hat{i} + 2y\hat{j} + 2z\hat{k}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0 \right)$$

$$y = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{z}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{z}{\sqrt{2}} = 0 \Rightarrow z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$y = 0 \Rightarrow z = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow z = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

There is a circle of radius $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ at $y = 1$

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2 = \frac{1}{2} \pi \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

99. (a)

$$|A| = 3 \times 3$$

$$\Rightarrow A = 3 \times \frac{1}{3}$$

$$A \cdot A = 3 \times 3 \times \frac{1}{3} = 3$$

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow A \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + c^2 & ab + be + cf \\ ad + bd + cd & ae + be + cf \\ ag + bg + cg & ah + bh + ch \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + c^2 & ab + be + cf \\ ad + bd + cd & ae + be + cf \\ ag + bg + cg & ah + bh + ch \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A \cdot A = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + c^2 & ab + be + cf \\ ad + bd + cd & ae + be + cf \\ ag + bg + cg & ah + bh + ch \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + c^2 & ab + be + cf \\ ad + bd + cd & ae + be + cf \\ ag + bg + cg & ah + bh + ch \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} a^2 + b^2 + c^2 & ab + be + cf \\ ad + bd + cd & ae + be + cf \\ ag + bg + cg & ah + bh + ch \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

100. (a)

$$\begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x+1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ x-4 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (x-4) = -4$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x+1) = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \text{ does not exist}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x-4) = -4$$

So f is continuous at $x = 0$.

option (a) is correct.

101. (b)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 10x + 10$$

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

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

which is defined open interval $x \in (1, 5)$ So $1 < x < 5$

$$1 < 20 < \frac{dy}{dx} < 10$$

102. (d)

Using Sarrus rule

$$\begin{vmatrix} x^3 & x^2 & x \\ x^2 & x & 1 \\ x^2 & x & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\text{Using } A = \frac{2x^2x - x^2x}{x}$$

So not to check the direction of the arrows and sign change in the direction. So, always the positive and one negative term will.

103. (a)

$$\text{Let } 2x = r$$

$$3x = r^2$$

$$3x = \frac{r^2}{2}$$

$$x = \frac{r}{2} \quad r = \frac{r}{2}$$

$$3 = 0 \quad r = 0$$

$$x = \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t \sin^2 t \, dt = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t (2 \sin t \cos t) \, dt$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^3 t \sin t \, dt$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t \sin t \, dt$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \left[\frac{\cos^3 t}{3} \right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{1}{3}$$

104. (c)

$$y = \int_0^x \sqrt{t} \, dt$$

$$x = \sqrt{y} \quad dy = \sqrt{x} \, dx$$

$$dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{y}} \, dy \quad dy = \int \sqrt{y} \, dy = \frac{y^{3/2}}{3/2}$$

$$\int y \, dy = \frac{y^2}{2} = \frac{y^2}{2}$$

$$\int_0^1 y \, dy = \left[\frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

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

$$= \frac{2}{3} y^{3/2} - \frac{2}{3} y^{1/2} \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} y^{3/2} - \frac{2}{3} y^{1/2}$$

105. (d)

Let A (matrix) & B (matrix) $A+B$ is scalar
 $A+B = I$

106. (a)

$$y = A = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$y = A = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$y = A = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

116. (b)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x} \right)^x = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{1}{x} \right) \cdot x} = e^{-1} = \frac{1}{e}$$

117. (d)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \log x - \frac{1}{2} x^2$$

118. (d)

Δf is continuous at $x = 0$

$$f(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{2} \log x \right) = f(0)$$

119. (a)

91. As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$, $g(x)$ cannot be $\frac{1}{x}$ or $\frac{1}{x^2}$ as they

don't have limit at $x = 0$

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + h(x) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ is not possible}$$

As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = 0$ for some values of x

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + h(x) \text{ for some } g(x) = 0$$

92. $g(x) = 0$ for $x > 0$ and $g(x) = 0$ for $x < 0$

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + h(x) \text{ for some } g(x) = 0$$

93. We cannot say whether the function is odd or even as $f(0) = 0$

94. As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$, $g(x)$ cannot be $\frac{1}{x}$ or $\frac{1}{x^2}$ as they

don't have limit at $x = 0$

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + h(x) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ is not possible}$$

As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = 0$ for some values of x

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + h(x) \text{ for some } g(x) = 0$$

95. The differential equation $y'' + y = 0$ would be

homogeneous if $y = 0$ is a solution of the equation

120. (c)

$$f(x) = \begin{vmatrix} \sin x & \cos x & \sin x \\ \sin(x/2) & \cos(x/2) & \sin(x/2) \\ \sin(x/3) & \cos(x/3) & \sin(x/3) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$f(0) = 0$$

Since $f(0) = 0$, $f(x)$ is a homogeneous function of order 0, and $f(x)$ will become same.

$$f(x) = f(0)$$

Since we put $x = 0$ in above $f(x)$, $f(0)$ will be $\begin{vmatrix} \sin 0 & \cos 0 & \sin 0 \\ \sin(0/2) & \cos(0/2) & \sin(0/2) \\ \sin(0/3) & \cos(0/3) & \sin(0/3) \end{vmatrix}$

Since $f(0) = 0$, $f(x)$ is a homogeneous function of order 0, and $f(x)$ will become same. Since we put $x = 0$ in above $f(x)$, $f(0)$ will be $\begin{vmatrix} \sin 0 & \cos 0 & \sin 0 \\ \sin(0/2) & \cos(0/2) & \sin(0/2) \\ \sin(0/3) & \cos(0/3) & \sin(0/3) \end{vmatrix}$

Since all the three coefficients of Helly's theorem are satisfied, the conclusion of Helly's theorem is $0 \leq x \leq 1$

$$f(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 \\ 1 & x \end{vmatrix} \text{ and } f(0) = 0 \text{ and } f(1) = 0$$

has the element

$$f(x) = \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 \\ 1 & x \end{vmatrix} \text{ and } f(0) = 0 \text{ and } f(1) = 0$$

It is a linear function only way for it to also be 0 at $x = 0$ and $x = 1$ is if $f(x) = 0$ for all x in $[0, 1]$ which is possible only if $f(x)$ is a constant function and $f(x) = 0$ for all x in $[0, 1]$ is the only possibility.

121. (b)

$$f(x) = x \sin x$$

$$f'(x) = x \cos x + \sin x$$

$$f''(x) = (x \cos x + \sin x) + \cos x$$

$$f''(x) = x \cos x + 2 \cos x$$

$$\Rightarrow x \cos x + 2 \cos x = 0 \Rightarrow x \cos x = -2 \cos x$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -2$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -2$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -2$$

122. (d)

$$f'(x) = 0$$

$$f''(x) = 0$$

$$f'''(x) = 0$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 0$$

123. (c)



$$f(x) = \sqrt{1+x^2}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$x^2 - y^2 = 2x \quad \text{and} \\ y^2 - x^2 = 2xy$$

Also, $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \times 2x$

$$x^2 = \frac{dy}{dx}(y^2 - 2xy)$$

Let, $y(x) = x^2 + \int_0^x (y^2 - 2xy) dx$

$$f(x) = \int_0^x (2x^2 - 6x^2) dx$$

$$f(x) = 0$$

Also, $3x^2 = 1$

$$x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, 0$$

At $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$, $f(x) = 0$

∴ A solution curve is $y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

∴ $y^2 = x^2 - \frac{2x^2}{3} = \frac{x^2}{3}$

$$y = \pm \frac{x}{\sqrt{3}}$$

$$\text{Hence, } y = \pm \sqrt{x^2}$$

$$y = \pm x$$

121. (c)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin(xy) + \frac{dy}{dx}xy$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y(1 + xy^2 - 1)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = xy(xy^2 - \frac{xy}{xy})$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -x(1 + xy^2) + 1$$

Hence, $\frac{d(xy^2)}{dx} = \frac{d(xy^2)}{dx}$

122. (a)

$$y(x) = x^2 e^x$$

$$y'(x) = x^2 + 2x = 3$$

$$x^2 + 2x = 3$$

∴ $x = -1$ (reject) or $x = 1$ (accept) or $x = -3$ (reject)
Hence, rather than the given answer,

Max. we need a dependence on $x = 1$, we have
the maximum value of y is $3e$ (not).

$$f'(x) = x^2 + 2x + 2x^2$$

$$= 2x^2 + 2x + 2 = 0$$

$$f'(x) = 0 \text{ which is } x = 0$$

∴ $x = 0$ is the only local max.

Hence, the value is

$$f(0) = 1 \times 0^2 = 0$$

128. (c)

$$y_{n+1} = (x + 1)^{2n} = (x^2 + 1)^n$$

∴ y_{n+1} is even if $y_n = 1$ or $y_n = -1$ (even)

value is 0 when $x = 1$

127. (b)

$$Q(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 10, \quad x = -3, 0$$

$$Q'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 4$$

$$Q'(x) = 0 \text{ at } x = 2, 0$$

∴ local points are $x = 2, 0$

$$Q(-3) = 27 - 27 + 12 - 10 = 10$$

$$Q(0) = 0 - 0 + 0 - 10 = -10$$

$$Q(3) = 27 - 27 + 12 - 10 = 10$$

Hence, the maximum value is -10 at $x = 0$.

129. (a)

$$f(x) = e^x + 3x^2$$

$$f'(x) = e^x + 6x$$

∴ $f(x)$ is maximum at $f'(x) = 0$

$$f'(x) = 0 = e^x + 6x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow e^x = -6x^2$$

$$4e^x = 1$$

$$x = \pm 2\sqrt{e}$$

125. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \quad x > 0$$

$$\frac{1-x}{1+x} = 1$$

$$\frac{x}{1+x} = 0$$

$$x = 0$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}$$

$$f'(x) = -1 < 0$$

∴ $f(x)$ is decreasing at $x = 0$

$$f(x) = \log(1-x) \quad 0 < x < 1$$

$$f'(x) = 0$$

130. Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= 2x^2 - 3y^2 - 12z + 8 \\ Q_x &= 4x - 12z + 8 \\ Q_y &= -6y \\ Q_z &= -12 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 4x - 12z + 8 &= 0 \\ -6y + 8 &= 0 \\ -12z + 8 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence critical points are $(0, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3})$.So all the local extrema values of Q at these points

$$\begin{aligned} Q(0, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) &= 2 \\ Q(0, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) &= 2 \\ Q(0, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) &= 2 \\ Q(0, \frac{4}{3}, \frac{2}{3}) &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

131. (b)

$$f = \frac{1}{2} (x^2 - y^2) + \frac{1}{2} (x^2 - y^2) = 1$$

$$\text{Then } (x, y, z) = (x, y, 0)$$

$$\text{Let } x = 2, z = 1 \Rightarrow \cos 2 = 2 \Rightarrow x = 1$$

$$\therefore f = \frac{1}{2} (x^2 - y^2) = 1$$

$$\therefore f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (x^2 - y^2)$$

$$f_x(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (2x) = x$$

$$f_y(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} (-2y) = -y$$

$$\therefore f_x = 0, f_y = 0$$

132. Sol.

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0$$

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$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0$$

133. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx &= \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0 \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x dx = 0 \end{aligned}$$

134. (b)

$$f = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_x &= 2x \\ f_y &= 2y \\ f_z &= 2z \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_x &= 2x \\ f_y &= 2y \\ f_z &= 2z \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So } f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

$$\int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

135. (b)

$$\int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$\int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dx dy dz$$

$$\therefore \frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{2y}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{2y}$$

$$x = -\frac{1}{2} \ln y$$

$$x = -\frac{1}{2} \ln y \quad y = 1$$

$$\text{d} \Rightarrow x = -\frac{1}{2} \ln y$$

$$u = -\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{y^2 - 1}{2} \right] = -\frac{y^2 - 1}{4}$$

$$\nabla \times (\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) = \nabla \times \left[\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \mathbf{u} \, dy \right]$$

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{y}$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} = 2 \sin x$$

$$x = 0 \Rightarrow y = 2 \quad x = \pi \Rightarrow y = 4$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} \int_2^4 \sin x \, dy \, dx = \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} 2 \sin x \, dx$$

137. (b)

$$\text{For } \mathbf{A} \text{ to represent } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \text{ then } \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$$

also,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \text{adj } \mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 3 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{A}$$

i.e. \mathbf{A} is their own adjoint (noted by $\mathbf{A} = \text{adj } \mathbf{A}$)

138. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k} = 2x\hat{i} + 2y\hat{j} + 2z\hat{k}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2z)$$

$$= 2 \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2z) \right]$$

$$= 2 \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2z) \right]$$

$$= 2 \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (2z) \right]$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = 2(1+1+1) = 6$$

$$\therefore \nabla \cdot \vec{r} = 6$$

$$= 2(1+1+1) = 6$$

139. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z)$$

$$= 1+1+1 = 3$$

$$\therefore \nabla \cdot \vec{r} = 3$$

140. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z)$$

$$= 1+1+1 = 3$$

$$= 2(1+1+1) = 6$$

$$\therefore \nabla \cdot \vec{r} = 6$$

For \mathbf{A} to be \mathbf{A}^T and \mathbf{A}^{-1}

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

141. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z)$$

which is the same as $\nabla \cdot \vec{r}$ To convert this to $\frac{1}{r}$ form, we have

$$= \frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (z) \right)$$

$$\therefore \nabla \cdot \frac{1}{r} = -\frac{1}{r^3}$$

133. (a) 1. (b) 0. (c) 0. (d) 0.

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x - \frac{1}{x^2}}{x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x^3 - \frac{1}{x}}{x^4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{6x^2}{4x^3} = 2 \\ & \text{So } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x - \frac{1}{x^2}}{x^2} = 2 \end{aligned}$$

142. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^{i+1} x^i}{2i^2} \\ & \text{put } q = x \rightarrow 0 \\ & \text{we get } \frac{0}{0} \text{ form} \\ & \text{using L'Hôpital's rule} \\ & \rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x(-1)^{i+1} x^{i-1}}{4i^2} \\ & \rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-1)^{i+1} x^i}{2i^2} \\ & \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-1)^{i+1} x^i}{i^2} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-1)^{i+1} x^i}{i^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \times -\frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

143. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{x+1} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{x+1-2x}{2x(x+1)} \right) = \frac{0}{0} \text{ form}$$

(Note: Since the limit is in an indeterminate form, we will have to use L'Hôpital's rule.)

144. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{1/x} \\ \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \log x^{1/x} \\ \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \log x \\ \text{As } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \log x & \text{ is an indeterminate form} \\ \text{So } \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \log x \\ \log y &= 0 \Rightarrow y = 1 \end{aligned}$$

145. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + 2x)^{1/x} \\ \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \log (1 + 2x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log (1 + 2x)}{x} \end{aligned}$$

As we have $\frac{0}{0}$ form, we apply L'Hôpital's rule

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{2}{1+2x} \\ \Rightarrow \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x}{x(1+2x)} \end{aligned}$$

Again we get $\frac{0}{0}$ form, we apply L'Hôpital's rule

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{2}{x^2 + 2x + 1} \\ \log y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{x} = 2 \\ \Rightarrow y &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

146. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

Statement 1: f is continuous on $(-\infty, \infty)$. (False)
Check: as $x \rightarrow 0$, $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$.

We need to check continuity at $x = 0$.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} \Rightarrow f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x^2}} = x^2$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$$

Let $y = \frac{1}{x}$, then $x = \frac{1}{y}$.

As $x \rightarrow 0$, $y \rightarrow \infty$.

Statement 2: f is not bounded on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \infty$, we say that the function is not bounded.

So, Statement 2 is false.

Statement 3: f is not continuous at 0.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \left| \frac{1}{x^2} \right| = \frac{1}{x^2} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{0} = \infty \end{aligned}$$

So f is not continuous at 0.

So, Statement 3 is false.

147. (a)

Given: $f(x) = 1$, $g(x) = x$. Both functions are continuous.

By L'Hôpital's mean value theorem,

$$f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{1 - 1}{2 - 1} = 0$$

$$-2x = 2x + 2$$

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

$$\text{As } x = -1, \quad y = -\frac{1}{2}$$

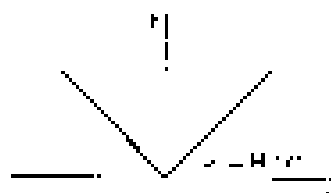
148. (d)

As, $f(x)$ is continuous at x_0

$$\therefore f(x_0) = 0$$

$$\text{As } f(x_0) = 1$$

149. (a)



150. Sol.

$$\text{Given, } A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Given } \lambda = -2$$

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

Now since λ^2 is not a negative maximum derivative of λ occurs when $\lambda^2 = 2$ So we need to find λ by

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 2 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 2 &= 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda}(\lambda^2) = 2\lambda = 0$$

 $\Rightarrow \lambda = 0$ is the only stationary point

$$\text{Since } \left| \frac{d^2}{d\lambda^2}(\lambda^2) \right|_{\lambda=0} = 2 > 0$$

we have a minimum at $\lambda = 0$ For $\lambda = 0$, the corresponding value of $\lambda = 2$ Whether λ is maximum or minimum

$$|A - \lambda I| = 2 - \lambda = 0$$

151. (b)

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + x - 1$$

$$f'(x) = 4x + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$= 2\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) - 1 = -1$$

Putting $x = 0$, we get

$$f(0) = -1 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

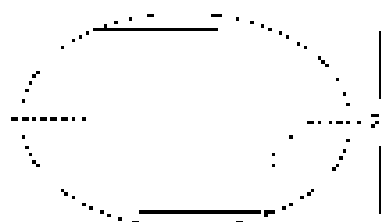
$$f(x) = e^x(1 - 2x) \Rightarrow f'(x) = e^x(1 - 2x + 2)$$

$$f'(x) = 0, f'(x) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{So we have no turning}$$

$$f(x) = 1 - 2x \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \text{So we have a maximum}$$

Only since (6) gives a single real maximum $x = \frac{1}{2}$ and hence the value of $f(x) = 1$

152. Sol.



$$b^2 = a^2 - c^2$$

$$a^2 + b^2 = 1$$

Another thing

$$2x - 2y = 4xy$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or } x &= 2xy + y^2 \\ &= 2x^2y^2 + y^2 \\ &= 2x^2y^2 + y^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 &= x^2 + y^2 \\ \text{or } x &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(4x^3 + x^4) = 0$$

$$12x + 4x^3 = 0$$

$$\text{We get } x = 1 - \frac{1}{x^3}$$

$$y = 1 - \frac{1}{x^3}$$

$$\text{Now } 4x - 2y = 4 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^3} = \frac{1}{x^3} - 1$$

153. (a)

For a function $f(x)$,

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} \right)^2 f(x) = f''(x) = 0$$

and not otherwise

$$= \frac{d}{dx}(4x - 4x) = 0$$

Therefore condition for

$$2x = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2$$

100. Sol.

$$\sin \theta \cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\sin 2\theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \sin 45^\circ$$

$$\therefore \sin 2\theta = \sin 45^\circ = \sin \alpha$$

Direction vector

$$= (4i - 15j + 6k) \quad i^2 + j^2 + k^2$$

$$= \frac{4^2 + 15^2 + 6^2}{\sqrt{36}} = \frac{241}{6}$$

$$= \frac{241}{6} = 40.16$$

101. (a)

$$\text{Curl vector} = \begin{vmatrix} i & j & k \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ x^2 & yz^2 & z^3 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(yz^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(yz^3) \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(yz^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(yz^3) \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(yz^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(yz^3) \right]$$

$$= (z^2 - 3yz^2) \quad i, j, k \quad k\vec{r} = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Curl } \vec{r} = (z^2 - 3yz^2) \vec{k}$$

$$\text{Curl} = (z^2 - 3yz^2) \vec{k} = -3z$$

101. (a)

$$\vec{r} = \text{Curl } \vec{r} = 0$$

(c) is correct answer.

102. (a)

$$\vec{r} = x^2 + y^2$$

$$\vec{r} = x^2 + y^2 = 5 \text{ at } (1, 2) \quad \vec{r} \rightarrow (1, 2)$$

Normal at axis line,

$$\vec{r} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) = 2x + 2y$$

$$\vec{r} = 2x + 2y$$

$$\text{Normal vector } \vec{r} = 2x + 2y$$

Magnitude of vector is $\sqrt{2^2 + 2^2} = 2\sqrt{2}$

$$\text{at } (1, 2) \vec{r} = 2\sqrt{2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) = 2x + 2y$$

$$\vec{r} = (2i + 2j)$$

$$\left| \vec{r} \right| = \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2} = 2\sqrt{2}$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{2i + 2j}{2\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

∴ Magnitude of vector is

$$= (2i + 2j) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}$$

102. Sol.

$$\int_0^1 (3-4x^2) dx + 14x \text{ (area)} = 14$$

Condition of region is $xy = 0$, $x = 1$, and

$$x + y = 1$$

Hence $\vec{r} = 14$ is correct

$$\vec{r} = \int_0^1 (3-4x^2) dx$$

$$\int_0^1 \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) dx$$

$$\vec{r} = 2x - 4x^2$$

$$\vec{r} = 2x - 4x^2$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\vec{r} = \int_0^1 (3-4x^2) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 10x dx$$

$$\vec{r} = 10 \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} (10(1-0))$$

$$\vec{r} = \frac{1}{2} (10(1-0)) = 5$$

102. Sol.

Using triple integral $\vec{r} = 14$ is correct

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (3-4x^2) dx = \int_0^1 (3-4x^2) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (10(1-0))$$

$$\vec{r} = 5$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (10(1-0)) = 5$$

165. Sol.

$$\int_0^1 x(1-x)^4 dx$$

$$\text{Let } 1-x = t \Rightarrow dx = -dt$$

$$\text{So the above int. is } \int_{1-x}^{1-x=0} \frac{1-t^5}{t^5} dt = 1$$

166. Sol.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin x - 1}{x-1}$$

$$\text{Let } x-1 = t \Rightarrow \sin x = 1$$

$$\text{For the required int. is } \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1-t^2}{t} = 0$$

167. Sol.

$$\int_0^1 xy dx = \int_0^1 (xy^2 + 2xy + 3y^2)x$$

$$= \int_0^1 (xy^3 + 2xy^2 + 3xy) dx$$

$$\int_0^1 3xy^2 dx = 3x^2 y^2$$

$$\text{Given int. is } = 3x^2 y^2 - 2x^2 y + 3x^2$$

$$= 3x^2 y^2 \Big|_0^1 - 2x^2 y + 3x^2$$

$$= 3(1) - 2(1) + 3(1)$$

$$= 3(2) - 2 = 7/2$$

168. Sol.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1}{x^2-1}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1 - 1}{(x^2-1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2-1}{(x^2-1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-1} + 1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-1} + 1} = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

169. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln(1-4x)}{x^2-1} = 0/0 \text{ form}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{2x} = \frac{1}{2}$$

170. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1}{x^2-1}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}{(\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2-1-1}{(\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2-2}{(\sqrt{x^2-1} - 1)(\sqrt{x^2-1} + 1)}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-1} + 1} = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

171. (b)

$$\text{a) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} \Big|_{y=x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2+x^2} = 1/2$$

$$\text{b) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} \Big|_{y=0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{x^2+0} = 0$$

$$\text{c) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} \Big|_{y=1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x^2+1} = 0$$

$$\text{d) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} \Big|_{y=x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3}{x^2+x^4} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} \Big|_{y=x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^4}{x^2+x^6} = 0$$

$$\text{and depends on } n$$

172. (b)

Let $x = x_1$ be a root of $p(x) = 0$. Then $p(x_1) = 0$.

Q. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

R. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

Q. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

R. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

Q. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

R. If $q(x)$ is a multiple of $p(x) = 0$, then $q(x_1) = 0$.

173. (c)

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3x}{x^2 + 1} \quad \text{is not constant}$$

when

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

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

$$x = -1$$

174. (a)

$f(x) = 5x^2 + 10x + 3$ is a parabola

$f'(x) = 10x + 10$ when $x = 0$

∴ $f'(0)$ is the slope of the tangent

$$f'(0) = 10 \times 0 + 10 = 10 > 0$$

∴ $f(x)$ is increasing at $x = 0$

175. (b)

If $f(x) = 9x^2 + 6x + 10$

$$f'(x) = 18x + 6 \quad \text{At } x = 0, \quad f'(0) = 6$$

$$f''(x) = 18 \quad \text{At } x = 0, \quad f''(0) = 18 > 0$$

$$f'(0) + f''(0) = 6 + 18 = 24 > 0 \quad \text{Q.1}$$

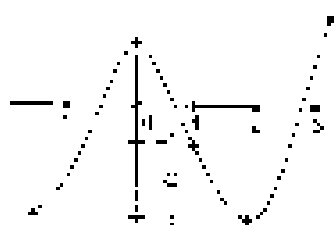
$$\text{Now } g(x) = f(x) = 9x^2 + 6x + 10 \quad \text{Q.2}$$

$$g'(x) = f'(x) = 18x + 6 \quad \text{At } x = 0, \quad g'(0) = 6$$

$$g''(0) = f''(0) = 18 > 0$$

$$\text{Clearly } g'(0) + g''(0) = 6 + 18 = 24 > 0$$

176. (b)



$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 1$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x$$

$$f'(x) = 0$$

$$3x(x - 2) = 0$$

$$x = 0, 2$$

$$f''(x) = 6x - 6$$

At

$$x = 0$$

$$f''(0) = -6 < 0 \quad \text{concave down}$$

$$x = 2$$

$$f''(2) = 6 > 0 \quad \text{concave up}$$

177. (d)

$$3x^2 - 2x^3 - x^4 = 0 \quad \text{At } x = 0$$

$$f'(x) = 6x - 4x^2$$

At $x = 1$ and $x = 2$

$$f'(1) = 0$$

$$3x^2 - 4x^2 = 0$$

$$2x^2 - 4x = 0$$

$$x = 0, 2$$

$$f''(1) = 6 - 4 = 2 > 0$$

$$\text{At } x = 0, \quad f''(0) = 0$$

$$\text{At } x = \frac{3}{2}, \quad f''\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 6 - 4\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = 3 > 0 \quad \text{concave up}$$

$$\text{At } x = -1, \quad f''(-1) = 6 - 4 = 2 > 0$$

$$\text{At } x = -2, \quad f''(-2) = 6 - 4 = 2 > 0$$

∴ $x = -1$ is an inflection point with $f''(-1) > 0$

178. (d)

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 2$$

$$f''(x) = 6x - 6 \quad \text{At } x = 1, \quad f''(1) = 0$$

$$\text{At } x = 1, \quad f'(1) = 3(1)^2 - 6(1) + 2 = -1$$

$$\text{only } x = \frac{1}{3} \text{ is in } [0, 2]$$

$$f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 0$$

$$f\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = 0$$

$$\left[f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right), \frac{2}{3}\right] = \left[0, \frac{2}{3}\right]$$

Maximum value is 0.

179. (d)

$$f(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 - 4 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \pm 2 \quad \text{At } x = 2, \quad f'(x) = 2x = 4$$

$$f''(2) = 2 > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) \text{ is minimum at } x = 2$$

$$f(2, 12) = 4(2) + 2 = 10$$

∴ Minimum value is 10. At $x = 0$ and

180. (b)

T is quadratic in x (i.e. value of $f(x)$ at the end of $x = 0$ is

$$f(x) = 10 \left(1 + \frac{1}{10}x\right) + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$= 10 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$= 10 + 2 = 12$$

181. (d)

Given : $\vec{r}(t) = 3\cos t\hat{i} + 3\sin t\hat{j}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt} = -3\sin t\hat{i} + 3\cos t\hat{j}$$

$$|\frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}| = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{ds}{dt} \right]_{t=0} = 3 = 3(180^\circ)$$

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{ds}{dt} \right]_{t=0} = 3 \Rightarrow \pi = \pi$$

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{3} \times 360^\circ \times \pi = 360^\circ$$

$$\tan \theta = \left| \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right| = \left| \frac{\frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1 + 1} - 1}{\frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1 + 1} + 1} \right| = \left| \frac{m_1 - 1}{m_1 + 1} \right| = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \frac{\pi}{2} = 90^\circ$$

182. (c)



Area shaded is

183. Sol.

$$\int_0^1 (x^2 + 5) dx = \int_0^1 (x^2 + 5) dx$$

$$= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + 5x \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} + 5$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + 5 = \frac{16}{3}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + 5 = \frac{16}{3}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = 1 - \frac{y^2}{3}$$

$$= \int_0^1 (1 - \frac{y^2}{3}) dy$$

$$= \left[y - \frac{y^3}{9} \right]_0^1 = \frac{8}{9}$$

$$= \left[\frac{4}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{4}{3} = 1.33$$

184. Sol.

$$y = 2x - 1$$

Passing through (3, 5)

$$5 = 2(3) - 1 \Rightarrow 5 = 5$$

$$y = 2x - 1$$

Passing through (2, 3)

$$3 = 2(2) - 1 \Rightarrow 3 = 3$$

$$y = 2x - 1$$

185. Sol.

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} dx = \left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} \right]_0^1$$

$$= \left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} \right]_0^1 = -2(1-0) = -2$$

186. (a)

$$\int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos x}} dx = \left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos x}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \left[-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos x}} \right]_0^{\pi} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos \pi}} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos x}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

Using the identity

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

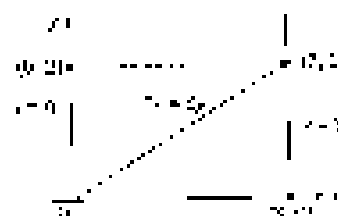
Using the identity

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi} = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

187. Sol.



$$\begin{aligned}
 2. \text{Ans.} &= \iint_D xy \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} xy \, dx \, dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{2} x^2 (y-x) \right]_0^{1-y} dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} y^2 - \frac{1}{2} y^3 \right) dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left(y - \frac{1}{2} y^2 \right) dy \\
 &= \left[\frac{1}{2} y^2 - \frac{1}{6} y^3 \right]_0^1 \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

189. 190.

Parabola: $xy^2 = 4y$

$$y = \frac{4}{x} \quad \text{or, at extreme } y = 2$$

Orthocentre of triangle is at (0, 0)

$$\frac{x^2}{6} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2.5 \text{ cm, } y = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence area of triangle} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{9} \text{ sq. unit}$$

$$= 2 \int_0^1 y \left(\frac{4}{y} - \frac{y^2}{3} \right) dy = \frac{8}{3} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{22}{9} \text{ square units}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \left(\frac{2}{3} - \frac{2}{9} \right) = \frac{2}{9} = 22.22 \text{ square}$$

189. Sol.

$$x = 0, y = 0$$

$$y = 10 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{area} = 10 \times 10$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{10} \int_0^{10} (\sin 2x + \sin 2y) \, dx \, dy$$

$$= 2 \int_0^{10} \left[-\frac{1}{2} \cos 2x + \frac{1}{2} \cos 2y \right]_0^{10} dy$$

$$= \frac{2}{2} \left[\int_0^{10} (\cos 2x - \cos 2y) \, dy \right] \int_0^{10} \left[\frac{\sin 2x}{2} + \frac{\sin 2y}{2} \right] dy$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{10} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\cos 2x - \sin 2x) \right] dy \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{10} (\cos 2x - \sin 2x) \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\sin 2x + \cos 2x) \right]_0^{10} = 0.23 + 0.11
 \end{aligned}$$

190. Sol.

Use Green's theorem

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_C x^2 dy + y^2 dx &= \iint_D \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^2 y + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} y^2 x \right) dx \, dy \\
 &= \iint_D 2xy + 2xy \, dx \, dy = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

191. (a)

Orthocentre of triangle is at (0, 0)

$$y = \frac{4}{x} \quad \text{or, at extreme } y = 2$$

$$\frac{x^2}{6} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2.5 \text{ cm, } y = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Hence area of triangle} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{9} \text{ sq. unit}$$

$$= 2 \int_0^1 y \left(\frac{4}{y} - \frac{y^2}{3} \right) dy = \frac{8}{3} - \frac{2}{9} = \frac{22}{9} \text{ square units}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{2} (\cos 2x + \cos 2y) \right) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2} (\sin 2x + \sin 2y) \right]_0^{10} = 0.23 + 0.11$$

192. Sol.

$$V = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} dz \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \left[\frac{1}{2} z^2 \right]_0^{1-x-y} dy \, dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \frac{1}{2} (1-x-y)^2 dy \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{3} (1-x)^3 - \frac{1}{6} (1-x)^2 \right]_0^1 = 0.125 - 0.0625 = 0.0625$$

193. Sol.

$$r = 2 \cos \theta \quad \text{or } r^2 = 4 \cos^2 \theta$$

$$V = \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2 \cos \theta} r^2 \, dr \, d\theta = \int_0^{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_0^{2 \cos \theta} d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi} \frac{8}{3} \cos^3 \theta \, d\theta = \frac{8}{3} \int_0^{\pi} \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} \int_0^{\pi} (1 - \sin^2 \theta) \, d\theta$$

Use the formula: $\sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2}$

$$\therefore V = \frac{8}{3} \int_0^{\pi} \left(1 - \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} \right) d\theta$$

194. (d)

We know that \vec{r} is the position vector

$$(\vec{r})^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 0$$

So, $\text{mag}(\vec{r})$ is 0 for all particularpoints (x, y, z) on a sphere of radius

198. (a)

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$\text{where } \vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k} \text{ and } \vec{r} = \vec{0}$$

$$x = y = z = 0$$

(i) \vec{r} is parallel to \vec{r} in every vector

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i}$$

in the Cartesian coordinate system

$$x_1 = 2000$$

$$x_2 = 2000$$

$$x_3 = 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 2000^2 = 2000000$$

Hence, the correct answer is

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} \times 1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

199. (d)

$$\vec{r} = (x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}) = 2x\vec{i} - y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

$$= \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \left(\frac{1^3}{3} - \frac{0^3}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$x = 1, y = 0, z = 0 \Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

$$dx = dy = dz = 0$$

$$d\vec{r} = 2x dx - y dy + z dz$$

$$= \int_0^1 (2x^2 dx - 0 + 0) = \left[\frac{2x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \int_0^1 2x^2 dx = \left[\frac{2x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \frac{2x^3}{3} - \frac{1x^3}{3} = \frac{x^3}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} = 0.67$$

199. (b)

$$\text{mag}(\vec{r}) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = e^{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

$$\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_0^1 x dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\text{So, } \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$d\vec{r} \cdot d\vec{r} = 0$$

$$\int_0^1 x dx = \int_0^1 (x + 0) dx$$

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

198. (b)

$$\vec{r} = x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k}$$

$$\text{So, } \vec{r} = \frac{d}{dt}(x\vec{i} + y\vec{j} + z\vec{k})$$

$$= \vec{i} + \vec{j} + \vec{k}$$

200. (a)

$$\vec{r} = (x + y\vec{i} + z\vec{j}) = (x + y + z)\vec{i}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x + y + z) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(y) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(z)$$

$$= 1 + 0 + 0 = 1$$

By Gauss divergence theorem

$$\iiint_V \nabla \cdot \vec{r} dV = \iint_S \vec{r} \cdot d\vec{S} = \iiint_V 1 dV$$

= 72 where V is volume of cube $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8$

$$= 2 \left[\frac{1}{2} \pi (3\sqrt{2})^3 \right] = 288\pi$$

201. (d)

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{10 - 3t}{t} = \frac{10 - 0}{0} = \frac{10}{0}$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{3t^2 - 333t + 1}{t} = \frac{0}{0} = \frac{0}{0}$$

$$= 0 - 333 = -333$$

202. (c)

$$x = 100 \left(\frac{30}{2} \right), y = 50 \left(\frac{30}{2} \right)$$

$$x = y = 1500$$

Therefore $1500 < 1500$ or $1500 > 1500$

$$1500 < 1500 \quad \text{or} \quad 1500 > 1500$$

$$1500 < 1500 \quad \text{or} \quad 1500 > 1500$$

$$\text{So, } 1500 < 1500$$

Hence, we will get a value for x and y as 1500where x is less than 1500 , we get a value for y as 1500

$$= 1500 \times 1500 = 2250000 = 2.25 \times 10^6$$

2.11. Sol.

∴ it is the angle between

$$2x - y - 3 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x + y = 0$$

$$6x + 3y + 6 = 0 \quad 2y = -2x \Rightarrow$$

$$x \neq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{2x_2 - 3x_1 - 3x_2}{\sqrt{2^2 + 1^2} \sqrt{3^2 + 1^2}} = \frac{0}{\sqrt{5} \sqrt{10}}$$

$$x_1 = 0, \quad x_2 = 1, \quad x_3 = 1, \quad x_4 = -1$$

$$x_5 = 2, \quad x_6 = -1, \quad x_7 = 2, \quad x_8 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0 \\ \sqrt{1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) - \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) \frac{(1^2 + 1^2 - 1 - 1)}{\sqrt{2}} &= \frac{(1^2 + 1^2 - 1 - 1)}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1 - 1 + 2}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$y = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = 45^\circ \text{ or } \pi/4$$

2.12. Sol.

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right)$$

$$C_2 = \frac{1}{2} (\cos^2 \frac{\pi}{4} - 1) = \frac{1}{2} (-1)$$

$$C_3 = \frac{1}{2} (-1 - 1) = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad x = -1$$

$$C_4 = 2$$

$$\text{At } x = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow \text{max}$$

$$\text{At } x = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow \text{max}$$

$$\text{Minimum value of } \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow \text{max}$$

$$\text{Minimum of } \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4}$$

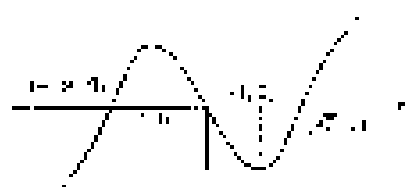
$$\text{Minimum of } \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{Hence the minimum value of } \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 1 \right) = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{Also graph of the function will be the}$$

$$y = x^2$$



2.13. (c)

$$\text{required } I_1 = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(x+y)^2} dx dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left[-\frac{1}{(x+y)} \right]_0^1 dy = \int_0^1 \left(-\frac{1}{1+y} + \frac{1}{y} \right) dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{1+y} \right) dy = \left[\ln y - \ln(1+y) \right]_0^1$$

$$= \left(\ln 1 - \ln 2 \right) - \left(\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \ln y - \ln 1 \right) = -\ln 2$$

and integral

$$I_2 = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(x+y)^2} dx dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left[-\frac{1}{(x+y)} \right]_0^1 dy = \int_0^1 \left(-\frac{1}{1+y} + \frac{1}{y} \right) dy$$

$$= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{1+y} \right) dy = \left[\ln y - \ln(1+y) \right]_0^1$$

$$= \left(\ln 1 - \ln 2 \right) - \left(\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \ln y - \ln 1 \right) = -\ln 2$$

Option (c) is correct.

2.14. (b)

$$r = 0, \quad \theta = 0, \quad \phi = 0, \quad \psi = 0, \quad \chi = 0, \quad \dots$$

$$\psi = 0, \quad \phi = 0, \quad \chi = 0, \quad \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{1}{y} \right) = -\frac{1}{y^2} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\frac{1}{z} \right) = -\frac{1}{z^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} \left(-\frac{1}{y^2} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2 y^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} \left(-\frac{1}{y^2} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2 y^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} \left(-\frac{1}{y^2} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2 y^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

2.15. So

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [2(-2) + 4(5) + 3(-3) - 2(1)(-2)] = 25 \text{ sq. units}$$

$$= \int_0^1 (1 - 6x + 3x^2) dx = 1 - 3 \text{ sq. units}$$

$$= \int_0^1 (-3x + 3x^2) dx$$

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

216. (a)

$$\text{Area} = 0$$

$$y = 4 - x^2$$

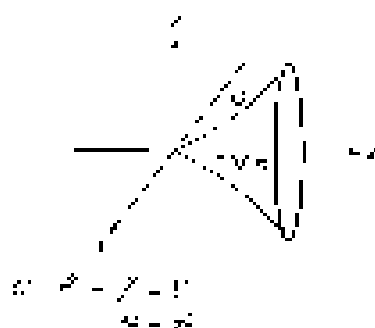
$$= \left[1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} + \dots \right] \left[1 - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2} - \frac{x^6}{3} + \dots \right]$$

$$= 1 - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^2}{2} - x^4 + \dots = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{6} - \frac{x^6}{6} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^6}{6} + \dots = \frac{x^2}{6} - \frac{x^4}{6} + \frac{x^6}{12} - \frac{x^8}{35} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{7}{2} x^2 \right)$$

217. Sol



Here, region A is equal to B.

$$\text{Area of region A} = \int_0^{\theta} r^2 \sin^2 \phi d\phi$$

Here, θ is angle of circle A, circle B which is given by

$$r\theta = \sqrt{r^2 - r^2 \cos^2 \theta}$$

$$\sqrt{r^2 \cos^2 \theta} = r^2 \cos^2 \theta = \theta$$

or $\cos \theta = \sqrt{\theta}$ (using θ)

$$= \int_0^{\theta} r^2 \sin^2 \phi d\phi = \int_0^{\theta} r^2 \cos^2 \phi d\phi = \frac{\pi}{4} = 0.7854$$

219. (a)

$$\text{Given, } y = 4 + 3 \sqrt{\frac{\pi x}{2}} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$y \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = \sqrt{2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\int_0^1 y dx = \frac{2\pi}{3} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Now we need to find Area B

$$y(x) = 4 + 3 \sqrt{\frac{\pi x}{2}}$$

$$y \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = 4 + 3 \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \times \frac{1}{2} = \sqrt{2}$$

$$= \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{\pi}{2} = 2\pi$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \pi$$

$$\text{Now } \int_0^1 y dx = \left[4x + 3 \sqrt{\frac{\pi x^3}{2}} \right]_0^1$$

$$= 4 + 3 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \pi = 2\pi$$

$$\int_0^1 y dx = \int_0^1 \left(4 + 3 \sqrt{\frac{\pi x}{2}} \right) dx$$

$$= \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{\pi}{2} + 3 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \pi = \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \times \pi$$

Adding (1) and (2) and

$$\int_0^1 y dx = \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{3}{2} \times \pi = 2\pi$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} \times \pi = 2\pi = \frac{3\pi}{2}$$

$$\text{Put } R = \frac{4}{2} \times \pi = 2\pi$$

$$\text{So } R = \frac{4}{2} \times \pi = 2\pi$$

219. (b)

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \cos \theta &= 1 \text{ or } \cos \theta = 1 \Rightarrow \theta = 0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

3

Differential Equations

3.1 Introduction

Differential equations are fundamental in engineering. With an adequate knowledge of the physical laws and relationships between physical quantities, we can mathematically formulate differential equations.

The branch of mathematics which deals with problems in which a function or representation of a function is to be determined from a given set of physical conditions is known as differential equations. The mathematical model for a set of differential equations is constructed from a set of differential conditions and is used to determine the system response. We shall also study typical differential equations known as (a) ordinary differential equations and (b) partial differential equations.

3.2 Differential Equations of First Order

3.2.1 Definitions

A differential equation is an equation which involves derivatives and differential coefficients of a function y . The following are a few examples of differential equations.

$$(a) \quad x^2 y' + y^2 = 1$$

$$(c) \quad \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2y = 0$$

$$(b) \quad y = y(x) \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$$

$$(d) \quad \left[y - \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} = x \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$(e) \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} + xy = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$$

$$(f) \quad x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = yz$$

$$(g) \quad \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = x^2 \frac{d^4 y}{dx^4}$$

An ordinary differential equation is that in which all the differential coefficients of a function are with respect to a single independent variable. Thus (a)–(d) are ordinary differential equations. A differential equation such as a system of ordinary differential equations.

A partial differential equation is that in which the function contains two or more independent variables and the differential coefficients with respect to any of them. The equations (e) and (f) are partial differential equations.

The order of a differential equation is the order of the highest differential coefficient. The degree of a differential equation is the degree of the highest derivative occurring in the differential equation when expressed in the form of a polynomial equation in the derivatives of the function.

Thus from the examples above

(a) is of the first order and first degree

(b) is of the first order and first degree

(c) is of the second order and first degree

(d) is of the second order and first degree

$$(b) \text{ A series of gradients with } (x) \left| \left(\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt \right)' \right| < \left| \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)' \right|$$

(c) A differential equation with a 10th degree

3.2.2 Solution of a Differential Equation

A solution (particular) of a differential equation is a function which satisfies the differential equation and all the conditions.

$$\text{Consider } y' = 2x \quad (1)$$

$$\text{A solution of (1) is } \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x \quad (2)$$

The general or complete solution of (1) is the differential equation which contains an arbitrary constant. The particular solution of (1) is the function which satisfies the differential equation (1) and the conditions.

For a particular solution of a differential equation, the conditions are given by the initial conditions.

A particular solution of a differential equation is a function which satisfies the differential equation and the initial conditions.

$$\text{For example } y' = 2x \quad (3)$$

Let $y = 0$ when $x = 0$. The general solution of (3) is $y = x^2 + C$. The particular solution of (3) is $y = x^2$.

A differential equation is a function which satisfies the differential equation and the conditions. The general solution of a differential equation is a function which satisfies the differential equation and the conditions. The particular solution of a differential equation is a function which satisfies the differential equation and the conditions.

3.2.3 Equations of the First Order and First Degree

The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

1. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

2. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

3. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

4. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

For a first order differential equation, the conditions may be given by the initial conditions.

3.2.3.1 Variables Separable

The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$. The first order differential equations are of the form $y' = f(x, y)$.

$$\text{For example, let } y' = f(x, y) \quad (4)$$

Example 1.

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

Solution:

$$\text{For equation (i) } \frac{dy}{dx} = x(y + 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y+1} = x \, dx$$

$$\text{Integrating, we get } \int \frac{dy}{y+1} = \int (x + x^2) dx + c$$

$$\ln y = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + c$$

$$\ln y = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + c \quad [c = \ln c]$$

NOTE



1. In the example (i), we have found the solution of a differential equation by putting it in the form of a separable form. Such cases are allowed and are made.
2. **Initial value problem:** A differential equation together with an initial condition is called an initial value problem. It is of the form given in the example (ii). The solution $y(x) = 0$ for the example (ii) does not satisfy the initial condition. It is used to determine the value of the initial value of the parameter c such that the solution of the differential equation satisfies the condition. The required differential equation is then solved by an integrating factor method.

Example 2.

$$\text{Given } (x^2 + y^2 + 1) \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

Solution:

$$\text{Putting } x^2 + y^2 + 1 = v \text{ we get } \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy$$

$$\text{A. The differential equation becomes } \frac{dv}{dx} = 1 + v^2 \text{ or } \frac{dv}{1+v^2} = dx$$

$$\text{Integrating both sides, we get } \int \frac{dv}{1+v^2} = \int dx + c$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan^{-1} v = x + c$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan^{-1} (x^2 + y^2 + 1) = x + c$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 + 1 = \tan(x + c)$$

$$\text{where } c = \tan^{-1}(x + c)$$

$$\Rightarrow c = \tan^{-1}(x + c)$$

$$\Rightarrow c = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\text{Hence the solution is } x^2 + y^2 + 1 = \tan(x + \frac{\pi}{4})$$

Note: Solution of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)g(y) + h(x)$ can be obtained by the variable separable method by using $u = g(y) + h(x)$.

3.3.3 Homogeneous Equations

$$\text{Homogeneous differential equation of the form } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f_1(x,y)}{f_2(x,y)}$$

where f_1 and f_2 are polynomials in x and y of the same degree is called a homogeneous equation.

Homogeneous Functions: An expression of the form $ax^2 + by^2$ or $xy^2 + y^3$ or $x^2y + xy^2$ or $xy^2 + y^3 + x^2y$ is called homogeneous of degree n if each term is homogeneous in that it has degree n . Thus, $ax^2 + by^2$ is homogeneous of degree 2, $xy^2 + y^3 + x^2y$ is homogeneous of degree 3.

The homogeneous function $Q(x, y)$ which can be expressed in the form $Q(x, y) = x^n Q(y/x)$ is called a homogeneous function of degree n in x and y . Similarly, the function $Q(y/x)$ is called a homogeneous function of degree n in y/x .

To solve homogeneous equation

1. Put $y = vx$, $\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$
2. Substitute the value of v in the original equation.

Example

$$\text{Solve } (y^2 + x^2) dx - 2xy dy = 0$$

Solution:

$$\text{As an equation of } y \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y^2 + x^2}{2xy} \text{ it is homogeneous in } x \text{ and } y. \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{Let } y = vx, \text{ then } \frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$$

$$\therefore \text{By (1) we have } v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \left(v + \frac{1}{v} \right)$$

$$\therefore \left(\frac{dv}{dx} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(v + \frac{1}{v} \right) - v = \left(\frac{1}{2v} - \frac{v}{2} \right)$$

Factorizing both sides

$$\frac{dv}{1-v^2} \cdot v = - \frac{dx}{x}$$

Integrating both sides

$$\frac{dv}{1-v^2} = - \int \frac{dx}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{v}$$

$$\text{or } \frac{1}{2} \ln(1-v^2) = - \ln x + c = - \ln \frac{x}{e^c} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{or } \ln(1-v^2) = \ln \left(\frac{e^c}{x} \right)$$

$$\therefore 1-v^2 = \frac{e^c}{x}$$

Replacing v by $\frac{y}{x}$ we get

$$1 - \left(\frac{y}{x} \right)^2 = \frac{e^c}{x}$$

$$\text{or } x^2 - y^2 = e^c$$

$$\therefore \left| x - \frac{y}{2} \right|^2 + \left| y \right|^2 = \frac{e^{2c}}{2}$$

The general solution consists of a family of circles $x^2 - y^2 = e^c$

center at the origin i.e. $\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{y}{2} \right)$ and radius = $\frac{e^c}{2}$. Thus

center of the circle is $(0, 0)$

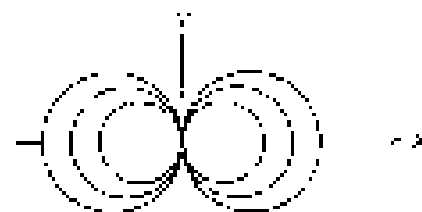


Fig. 9.10: Family of hyperbolas

189 : 75511111 01110111 1111

Figure 1

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \omega \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \quad \text{at } x = 2$$

• <http://www.ijerph.com>

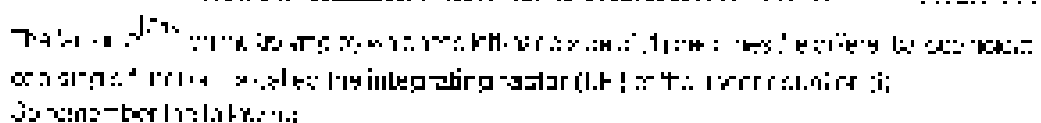
$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} \dot{\theta}^2 \right) = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\theta}^2$$

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$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V(\mathbf{r}) \psi$$

$$E_{\text{R}} = 120 \text{ MJ kg}^{-1} = 4.114 \times 10^{11} \text{ J kg}^{-1}$$


14 - 15.

$$\text{vcl.f} = \left[\frac{1}{\alpha} \right] \cdot \text{M} \cdot \alpha$$

[illegible]

$$y' = 14, y'' = \frac{1}{y} - y' = 0$$

$$= \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{y}}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{\pi}{n} \right)$$

0.5 to release only

Example

Solve $\frac{dy}{dx} = y + y^2$

Solution.

Letting $y = g(t)$ such that

$$t = \frac{1}{y^2} \Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{t} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{t} \Rightarrow 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx}$$

$$\Rightarrow 2y \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ becomes } -\frac{1}{2} \frac{dt}{dx} \Rightarrow -4$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = y + y^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y + y^2} = dx$$

where $y = g(t)$ and $t = \frac{1}{y^2}$

$$t = \frac{1}{y^2} \Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{The value of } t \text{ is } 2 \Rightarrow t = \frac{1}{y^2} \Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$y = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow y = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \Rightarrow y = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\Rightarrow y^2 = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow y = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

3.23.6 Exact Differential Equations

- Definition.** A differential equation of the form $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ is said to be exact if all terms involved in the exact differential of some function $\phi(x, y)$, i.e., $d\phi = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}dy = 0$, is equal to the terms in $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$.
- Theorem.** The necessary and sufficient condition for the differential equation $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ to be exact is

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

- Method of solution.** Let us assume that $\phi(x, y)$ is a function such that $M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0$ becomes

$$d\phi = \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}dy \right) = 0$$

$$\text{Integrating} \Rightarrow \int \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}dx = \phi(x, y)$$

$$\text{But } \phi(x, y) = \int M(x, y)dx \text{ and } \phi(x, y) = \int N(x, y)dy \text{ and constant}$$

$$\therefore \text{The solution of } M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0 \text{ is}$$

$$\phi(x, y) = \int M(x, y)dx + \int N(x, y)dy = 0$$

$$\text{If above condition is not satisfied, i.e., } \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

NOTE: While finding $\int M(x, y)dx$ treat y as constant (as y is not being integrated) while respectively $\int N(x, y)dy$ treat x as constant.

Example:

$$\text{Solve } (x^2 + 2xy^2)dx + (2x^2y + y^3)dy = 0$$

Solution:

Step 1: Test for exactness:

$$\text{Here } M = x^2 + 2xy^2 \text{ and } N = 2x^2y + y^3$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 2xy = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

Thus the equation is exact, and we get an exact

$$\int (x^2 + 2xy^2)dx + \int (\text{terms not containing } x)dy = c$$

$$\text{which is } \int (x^2 + 2xy^2)dx + \int y^3dy = c$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^2y^2}{2} + \frac{y^4}{4} = c$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{4}(3x^3 + 4x^2y^2 + y^4) = c$$

3.3.3.7 Equations Reducible To Exact Equations

Sometimes a differential equation need not be exact, but can be made exact by multiplying by a suitable factor called an integrating factor. The rule for finding integrating factor of a differential equation is given in theorems 1 and 2 below.

In the equation $Mdx + Ndy = 0$

Theorem 1: If $\frac{\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}}{N}$ is a function of x only = $f(x)$, & $\int f(x)dx = F(x)$, then $e^{F(x)}$ is an integrating factor.

Theorem 2: If $\frac{\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}}{M}$ is a function of y only = $g(y)$, then $e^{\int g(y)dy}$ is an integrating factor.

Example 1.

$$\text{Solve } (2 + 3 \sin^2 y)dx + x \cos^2 y dy = 0 \quad \text{H(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{y}{x}$$

Solution:

$$\text{Step 1: Here } M = 2 + 3 \sin^2 y \text{ and } N = x \cos^2 y$$

$$\text{Step 2: Test for exactness } \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 6 \sin y \cos y \text{ and } \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \cos^2 y$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

and hence, equation is not exact. So we have to find integrating factor by using either theorem 1 or theorem 2.

Step 3: Find integrating factor by using theorem 1

$$\text{Let } \frac{\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}}{N} = \frac{6 \sin y \cos y - \cos^2 y}{x \cos^2 y} = \frac{f}{x}$$

Example 1.

Find the orthogonal trajectory of family of curves $xy = c$ (constant).

Solution:

$$\text{Equation of a curve} \quad xy = c \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Differentiate with 'x'

$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

$$\text{So we replace } \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ by } -\frac{dx}{dy}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad x \frac{dx}{dy} = -y$$

$$\text{So we solve separately} \quad \int x dx = \int y dy$$

$$\frac{x^2}{2} = \frac{y^2}{2} + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad x^2 - y^2 = 2C \text{ is the required orthogonal trajectory of given family of curves}$$

3.24.2 Orthogonal trajectory of polar curves**Example 2.**

Find the orthogonal trajectory of family of curves $r = a \sin \theta$

Solution:

$$\text{Equation of a curve} \quad r = a \sin \theta \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Differentiate with 'theta'

$$r \frac{dr}{d\theta} = a \cos \theta \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Divide Equation (1) by Equation (2)

$$\frac{a \sin \theta}{r} = \frac{a \cos \theta}{r \frac{dr}{d\theta}} \Rightarrow \cos \theta \frac{dr}{d\theta} = r \sin \theta$$

$$\frac{dr}{d\theta} = r \tan \theta \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Differential equation represents family of curves

$$\text{We take } \frac{dr}{d\theta} = r \tan \theta \Rightarrow \frac{dr}{r} = \tan \theta d\theta$$

$$\int \frac{dr}{r} = \int \tan \theta d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln r = -\ln \cos \theta$$

$$\ln r = -\ln \cos \theta$$

$$\ln r = -\ln \cos \theta \Rightarrow \ln r = \ln \sec \theta$$

$$\ln r = \ln \sec \theta \Rightarrow r = \sec \theta$$

>

is the required orthogonal trajectory

3.2.4.3 Newton's Law of Cooling

Definitions

Apply Newton's Law of Cooling (discussed in Example 3) to find the time it takes for an object to reach a certain temperature and determine why it is?

1. differential equation: $\frac{dT}{dt} = -k(T - T_a)$

2. type of DE possible: $\frac{dT}{dt} = -k(T - T_a) \Rightarrow \int \frac{dT}{T - T_a} = \int -k dt$

3. $\Rightarrow \ln|T - T_a| = -kt + \ln|C|$
 $T - T_a = Ce^{-kt}$

4. same solution of Section 3.2.4.2 (cooling)

Example 3:

A piece of metal at 80°C is placed in 20°C fluid. The temperature of the metal is 60°C after 10 minutes and 40 minutes later it is 40°C.

Solution:

According to Newton's Law of Cooling

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = -k(T - 40)$$

$$\int \frac{dT}{T - 40} = \int -k dt$$

1. $\Rightarrow \ln|T - 40| = -kt + \ln|C|$

2. $\Rightarrow T - 40 = Ce^{-kt}$

3. $T_1 = 80$ at $t = 10$ min (substitution)

4. $80 - 40 = Ce^{-k(10)}$

5. $40 = Ce^{-10k}$

6. $40 = 20e^{-10k} \Rightarrow 2 = e^{-10k}$

7. $\ln 2 = \ln e^{-10k} \Rightarrow \ln 2 = -10k$

8. $\Rightarrow k = -\frac{1}{10} \ln 2$
 9. $\Rightarrow T - 40 = C e^{-\frac{1}{10} \ln 2 t}$
 10. $\Rightarrow T - 40 = C (2)^{-t/10} \Rightarrow T = 40 + C (2)^{-t/10}$

3.2.4.4 Law of Growth

The law of the change amount of a substance with respect to time is directly proportional to the amount of substance present.

1. $\frac{dy}{dt} = ky$

$$\frac{dy}{y} = k dt \Rightarrow \ln|y| = kt + \ln|C|$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int k dt$$

$$\ln|y| = kt + \ln|C|$$

2. $\Rightarrow y = Ce^{kt}$ where C is an initial growth

$$\begin{aligned} \text{5. For } x(t) &= 100e^{0.05t} + \frac{2}{9} \\ \text{For } x &= 100 \text{ calculate } t(t) \end{aligned} \quad (3.3.1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} 100 &= 100e^{0.05t} + \frac{2}{9} \\ \frac{2}{9} &= 100e^{0.05t} - 100 \\ \frac{2}{9} &= 100(e^{0.05t} - 1) \\ \frac{2}{900} &= e^{0.05t} - 1 \\ \frac{2}{900} + 1 &= e^{0.05t} \\ \ln\left(\frac{2}{900} + 1\right) &= 0.05t \end{aligned}$$

3.3 Linear Differential Equations (Of n^{th} Order)

3.3.1 Definitions

Linear differential equations are those in which the dependent variable or derivatives occur only to the first degree & also not put together. E.g. general linear differential equation of n^{th} order is of the form

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = a_n(x) = f$$

where a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are functions of x only.

Linear Differential Equations with Constant Coefficients are of the form

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots$$

where a_1, a_2, \dots, k_1 are constants and y is the value of each x & k_1, k_2, \dots are less than unity. The study of differential equations is widely used in various other engineering problems.

1. Theorem: If y_1, y_2 are any two solutions of the equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots \quad y_2 = 0 \quad (3.3.2)$$

Then $y_1 + c y_2 = c y_2$ is also a solution.

$$\text{Since } y_2 \text{ is a solution of the homogeneous eqn } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots \quad (3.3.3)$$

2. Given the general solution of the differential equation already obtained contains a binary constant c for each linear equation. Let if $y_1 = y_2 = y_3 = \dots = y_n$ are the homogeneous solutions of (3.3.1) then $y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots y_n = 0$ is a n -th order complete solution.
3. $y_p = 0$ is a particular solution of

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots \quad (3.3.4)$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots = X \quad (3.3.5)$$

$$\text{Adding (3.3.4) & (3.3.5) } y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots y_n + \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + a_2 y + \dots = k_1 y + \dots = X$$

Total result $y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots y_n = 0$ is the complete solution of (3.3.1).

The complete differential homogeneous function (C.D.H.F) $y_1 y_2 y_3 \dots y_n = 0$ is a particular solution of (3.3.1).

Then a complementary $(C.F.)$ of (i) is $y = C.F. + P.I.$

Now, let us solve a question. In what way will finding C.F. be a simple process and what method can be used to find the complementary function $C.F.$?

Operator Method Using $\frac{1}{D^2}, \frac{D^2}{D^2}, \frac{D^3}{D^2}$ etc., we find

$\frac{D^2}{D^2} = D^2 \frac{D^0}{D^2} = D^2 \left(\frac{D^2}{D^2} \right) = D^2 y = 0$ The equation (i) becomes $y'' = 0$ which is $y'' = 0$

$$y'' = 0 \Rightarrow y' = C_1 \Rightarrow y = C_2 x + C_1$$

$$\therefore y = C_1 x + C_2 \quad \text{where } C_1, C_2 \text{ are constants}$$

where $C.F. = C_1 x + C_2$ and C_1, C_2 are constants $\therefore C.F.$

Now, we can be started for the complementary function and as we have a differential equation $y'' = 0$ we can find the complementary function by using the following method

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = C_1 \Rightarrow y = C_2 x + C_1 \\ \therefore y = C_1 x + C_2 \end{aligned}$$

3.3.2 Rules for Finding The Complementary Function

$$\text{Now, we consider } \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + p_1 \frac{dy}{dx} + p_2 y = 0 \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

where p_1, p_2 are constants

Then we let $y = e^{mx}$ in (8)

$$(m^2 + p_1 m + p_2)e^{mx} = 0 \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

If y has an arbitrary constant m we have

$$m^2 + p_1 m + p_2 = 0 \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

is called the auxiliary equation (A.E.). Let m_1, m_2 be the roots of the equation (10)

Case-I: If the roots be real and different, then (9) is equivalent to

$$(m^2 - m_1 m - m_2 m + m_1 m_2) = 0 \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

Now (11) will be satisfied by taking $y = (m - m_1)(m - m_2) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = m_1 y = 0$

\therefore the solution is $y = e^{m_1 x} + e^{m_2 x}$

\therefore the solution is $y = C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_2 x}$

While y is the function of (8) can be solved by any other method as follows by the standard of

$$(5-6) \quad y'' + 1(y' - y) = 0 \quad \text{Let } y = e^{mx} \Rightarrow y' = m e^{mx} \Rightarrow y'' = m^2 e^{mx}$$

$$\text{Thus, the complete solution is } y = C_1 e^{0x} + C_2 e^{0x} = C_1 e^{0x} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

Case-II: If the roots are equal i.e. $m_1 = m_2$ then (9), becomes

$$y = C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 e^{m_1 x} = C_1 e^{m_1 x}$$

$$y = C_1 e^{m_1 x} + C_2 x e^{m_1 x} + C_3 e^{m_1 x}$$

where $C_1 = C_2 = C_3$ are arbitrary constants

has only $n - 1$ arbitrary constants and is, therefore, not the complete solution of (3). In this case, we proceed as follows:

The sum of the complete solution corresponding to the repeated root is the particular solution of (2) $\Rightarrow y_p(x) + y_h(x) = 0$

$$\text{Putting } y_p(x) = z, \text{ then we get } (D - \alpha_1)^2 z = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{dz}{dx} - \alpha_1 z = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{This is separable linear ODE and } z = e^{\alpha_1 x}$$

$$\therefore \text{The solution is } y_p(x) = z_1 e^{-\alpha_1 x} = x e^{\alpha_1 x}$$

$$\text{Thus, } (D - \alpha_1)^2 y = 0 \Rightarrow y = x e^{\alpha_1 x} \text{ or } \frac{dy}{dx} - \alpha_1 y = x e^{\alpha_1 x} \quad (3)$$

As α_1 is real $y = e^{\alpha_1 x}$, the solution of (3) is

$$y e^{-\alpha_1 x} = \int x e^{\alpha_1 x} e^{-\alpha_1 x} dx = \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow y = (x + \alpha) e^{\alpha_1 x} = y_2 e^{\alpha_1 x}$$

Thus the complete solution of (1) is $y = (x + \alpha) e^{\alpha_1 x} = y_2 e^{\alpha_1 x} = -y_1 e^{\alpha_1 x}$

If, however, the A.E. exhibits a repeated $(\alpha_1 + i\beta_1, \alpha_1 - i\beta_1)$ then the complete solution is

$$y = (x + \alpha_1 + i\alpha_2) e^{(\alpha_1 + i\beta_1)x} + (x + \alpha_1 - i\alpha_2) e^{(\alpha_1 - i\beta_1)x}$$

Case III. If one pair of roots be imaginary, i.e.

$$\alpha_1 = 0 + i\beta_1$$

$$\alpha_2 = 0 - i\beta_1$$

Then the complete solution is

$$\begin{aligned} y &= (x + \alpha_1 + i\alpha_2) e^{(\alpha_1 + i\beta_1)x} + (x + \alpha_1 - i\alpha_2) e^{(\alpha_1 - i\beta_1)x} \\ &= e^{i\beta_1 x} (x + \alpha_1 + i\alpha_2) + e^{-i\beta_1 x} (x + \alpha_1 - i\alpha_2) \\ &= e^{i\beta_1 x} (x + \alpha_1 + i\alpha_2) + e^{-i\beta_1 x} (x + \alpha_1 - i\alpha_2) \\ &\quad + i\alpha_2 [e^{i\beta_1 x} - e^{-i\beta_1 x}] + i\alpha_2 [e^{i\beta_1 x} - e^{-i\beta_1 x}] \\ &= 2x \cos \beta_1 x + 2\alpha_1 \cos \beta_1 x + 2i\alpha_2 \sin \beta_1 x + 2i\alpha_2 \sin \beta_1 x \\ &= 2x \cos \beta_1 x + 2\alpha_1 \cos \beta_1 x + 4i\alpha_2 \sin \beta_1 x = -y_1 \cos \beta_1 x \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } \alpha_1 = \alpha + i\alpha_2$$

$$\text{and } \alpha_2 = \alpha_1 - i\alpha_2$$

Case IV. If two pair of imaginary roots be roots i.e.

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 0 + i\beta_1$$

$$\alpha_3 = \alpha_4 = 0 - i\beta_1$$

then we have in the complete solution

$$y = e^{i\beta_1 x} (x + \alpha_1 + i\alpha_2) (x + \alpha_3 + i\alpha_4) e^{-i\beta_1 x} = -y_1 \cos \beta_1 x$$

3.3.3 Inverse Operator

Let \mathcal{L} be a linear operator $\frac{1}{\mathcal{L}}$ is the functional inverse containing arbitrary constants and is often associated with \mathcal{L} by the use of \mathcal{L}^{-1} .

$$\text{i.e. } \left\{ \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\mathcal{L}} \right) \right\} = x$$

Take $y = \frac{1}{y_1} X$ and use the relation $y_1(x) = X e^{ax}$ to transform the equation into a linear equation.

Observe that y_1 and y_2 are solutions of (1) and (2).

$$a. \quad \frac{d}{dx} y_1 = -y_1 e^{ax}$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{1}{y_1} X = v$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{d}{dx} v = -av$$

$$\text{So } \frac{dv}{v} = -a dx$$

$$a \log v + c_1 = -x \quad v = \int x dx$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{1}{y_1} X = \int x dx$$

$$b. \quad \frac{1}{y_2} X = v \Rightarrow \int x \cos ax$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{d}{dx} v = v \quad (3)$$

Operating by $(D - a)$

$$(D - a) \frac{1}{y_2} X = (D - a)v$$

$$a. \quad v = \frac{dy}{dx} - ay = v, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} - ay = X$$

which is a linear differential equation.

∴ I.F. being e^{-ax} is solution is

$$v e^{-ax} = \int X e^{-ax} dx$$

which when being added to (3) gives the complete solution.

$$\text{Thus } \frac{d}{dx} v = v = e^{ax} \int X e^{-ax} dx$$

3.3.4 Rules For Finding The Particular Integral

$$\text{For } (D^2 + pD + q)y = R, \quad \frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\text{where } R \text{ is a function of } x, (D^2 + pD + q)y = R \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$\therefore \quad P = \frac{1}{D^2 + pD + q} R = \frac{1}{D^2 + pD + q} (a_0 x^m + a_1 x^{m-1} + \dots + a_n) x^n$$

Case I. When $x = e^{ax}$

$$\text{Then } \frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R$$

$$\frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R$$

$$\frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R$$

$$\frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R$$

$$\frac{D^2 y}{D^2} + p \frac{Dy}{D} + qy = R$$

$$(2x + 1)y'' + y_1'(x) = (x^2 + 1)y' + (1 - x)y$$

is $\frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$

According to the above,

$$\frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$$

or $y'' = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$

$y' = 2x + 1$

so $\frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$ provided $f(x) \neq 0$ (1)

If $f(x) = 0$, the above relation is not applicable to the

If $f(x) \neq 0$, the above relation is,

$$y_1'(x) = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$$
 (2)

If $f(x) = 0$, the above relation is not applicable to the $\frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} = \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2}$ provided $f(x) \neq 0$ (3)

and so on.

Example 1.5.1.1

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 10\frac{dy}{dx} + 25y = 2e^x$$

Solution:

$$(D^2 + 10D + 25)y = 2e^x$$

auxiliary equation is $D^2 + 10D + 25 = 0$ or $D = -5 \pm 0i$
 $C_1 = 10, C_2 = 10$ and $C_3 = 10$

$$y = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 10D + 25)} 2e^x = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 10D + 25)} 2e^x = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 10D + 25)} 2e^x$$

the complete solution is $y = (C_1 + C_2)e^{-5x} + \frac{2e^x}{12}$

Example 2.1.1.1

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 2e^x$$

Solution:

$$(D^2 + 4D + 4)y = 2e^x$$

A.E. is $D^2 + 4D + 4 = 0$ or $D = -2 \pm 0i$ or $D = -2$

$$C_1 = 10, C_2 = 10$$

$$y = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 4D + 4)} 2e^x = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 4D + 4)} 2e^x = \frac{1}{(D^2 + 4D + 4)} 2e^x$$

the complete solution is $y = (C_1 + C_2)e^{-2x} + \frac{2e^x}{12}$

Case II. When $k = \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta)$ or $\sin(\alpha_1 + \beta)$,

$$\frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta), \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0 \quad \dots (3)$$

If $\alpha_1 + \beta = 0$, the denominator becomes zero as we know,

$$\therefore \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta) \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0 \quad \dots (4)$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta) \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0 \text{ as we know}$$

$$\text{Since } \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta) \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0,$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta) \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0,$$

$$\text{If } \alpha_1 + \beta = 0, \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \sin(\alpha_1 + \beta) = \frac{1}{(a^2 - x^2)} \times (\alpha_1 + \beta) \text{ provided } \alpha_1 + \beta \neq 0 \text{ as we know}$$

Example 1.34

$$(2x + 4)y' = \sin 2x$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Auxiliary equation } (2x + 4)y' &= \sin 2x \\ y' &= \frac{\sin 2x}{2x + 4} \\ y &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\sin 2x}{x + 2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\sin 2x}{x + 2} dx \\ y &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\sin 2x}{x + 2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\sin 2x}{x + 2} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Comparing with } y' = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \text{ we get } f(x) = \sin 2x, g(x) = x + 2$$

Example 2.71

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

Solution:

$$\text{Auxiliary equation } m^2 + m + 1 = 0$$

$$m = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{-3}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$y = e^{\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}x}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} e^{\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}x} = \frac{1}{2} e^{\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}x}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} e^{\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}x} = \frac{1}{2} e^{\frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}x}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \ln 2 \approx -0.1732 \text{ (bits/symbol)}$$

Сур: 4-а нийлэг

$$f = \exp \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2}{1} - \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 = 0.3466$$

Example 5.5.4.8.

15-1, 2-3

Swilans

12-11-2013

0.3180 = 31.4 %

1. $\frac{1}{2}$

$\frac{1}{2} \pi \leq \theta \leq \frac{3}{2} \pi$, $\frac{1}{2} \pi \leq \theta \leq \frac{3}{2} \pi$

$$J_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos \alpha \, d\alpha = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin 2\pi = 0$$

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$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln x^2 - \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

Case III. $474.3 - 2.1$

der:

$$F = \frac{1}{\Delta \bar{y}_0} \sigma = \left[\frac{1}{\Delta \bar{y}_0} \right] \left[\frac{1}{\Delta \bar{y}_0} \right] \sigma$$

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This book is published by the University of Illinois Press, 601 S. East St., Urbana, IL 61801.

example 1.5.2

we have $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{2x}{t^3} = 0$ and

Solutions:

Cost manager + supervisor = 16% 50 - j x =

$$\Gamma = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i (x^2 + 2x + 1)^i = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 1} (x^2 - 2x + 1)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(1-\alpha) \leq \alpha \leq \frac{1}{2}(1+\alpha)$$

$$\frac{1}{\gamma} \ln \left(\frac{\lambda_0 + \beta}{\lambda_0 - \beta} \right) = \ln \left(\frac{1 + \beta/\lambda_0}{1 - \beta/\lambda_0} \right)$$

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

Conclusions: The results of this study are in accordance with the

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5913 - 5914 547-31

Quesada, M. J., 2004. *El agua en Chile*. Santiago: Editorial del Financiero.

[illegible]

2125 = 1100 - 1100

15. 491 = 2050 - 400

By equating both sides of (10),

$$(12) \cdot (10)(e^{2x}) = \frac{1}{(10)(1)} e^{2x}(20 - 20)$$

$$e^{2x} = \frac{1}{(10)(1)} e^{2x}(20 - 20)$$

dividing both sides by e^{2x} , $10 - 2(1) = 0$

or $8 = 0$ \Rightarrow $\frac{1}{(10)(1)} e^{2x}$

or $8 = 0$ \Rightarrow $\frac{1}{(10)(1)} e^{2x}$

or $8 = 0$ \Rightarrow $\frac{1}{(10)(1)} e^{2x}$

Example 1: Solve

$$(7x^2 - 4x + 4)y' = x^2 e^x$$

Solution:

$$(7x^2 - 4x + 4)y' = x^2 e^x$$

or $(7x^2 - 4x + 4) \frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 e^x$ \Rightarrow $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2 e^x}{(7x^2 - 4x + 4)}$

$$dy = \frac{x^2 e^x}{(7x^2 - 4x + 4)} dx$$

$$y = \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(7x^2 - 4x + 4)} dx = \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(7x^2 - 4x + 4)} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(x^2 - \frac{4}{7}x + \frac{4}{7})} dx = \frac{1}{7} \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(x^2 - \frac{4}{7}x + \frac{4}{7})} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{7} \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(x^2 - \frac{4}{7}x + \frac{4}{7})} dx = \frac{1}{7} \int \frac{x^2 e^x}{(x^2 - \frac{4}{7}x + \frac{4}{7})} dx$$

Example 2: Solve

$$(2x^2 - 5x + 3)y' = x^2 \cos 2x$$

Solution:

$$(2x^2 - 5x + 3)y' = x^2 \cos 2x$$

$$(2x^2 - 5x + 3) \frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 \cos 2x$$

$$(2x^2 - 5x + 3) \frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 \cos 2x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)}$$

$$y = \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx$$

$$= \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx = \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx$$

$$= \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx = \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx$$

$$= \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx = \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx$$

$$= \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx = \int \frac{x^2 \cos 2x}{(2x^2 - 5x + 3)} dx$$

$$= \int_0^x (2 \sin 2x - 3 \cos 2x) = \frac{e^x}{20} (2 \sin 2x + 3 \cos 2x)$$

$$y = (1 - e^{-x})^2 + \frac{e^x}{20} (2 \sin 2x + 3 \cos 2x)$$

Case V: When x is any other function of x .

Hint: $P = \frac{1}{ADQ} \frac{dQ}{dx}$

E: $Q(x) = (D - \alpha_1)(D - \alpha_2) \dots (D - \alpha_n) = 0$ (finding its characteristic eq).

$$Q(x) = (x^2 - \alpha_1 x + \frac{\alpha_1^2}{4}) (x^2 - \alpha_2 x + \frac{\alpha_2^2}{4}) \dots$$

E: $P = \int \frac{A}{(x^2 - \alpha_1 x + \frac{\alpha_1^2}{4})} + \frac{A_2}{(x^2 - \alpha_2 x + \frac{\alpha_2^2}{4})} + \dots$

$$A_1(x^2 - \alpha_1 x + \frac{\alpha_1^2}{4}) + A_2(x^2 - \alpha_2 x + \frac{\alpha_2^2}{4}) + \dots = A$$

$$= A_1 e^{\alpha_1 x} \int e^{-\alpha_1 x} A dx + A_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} \int e^{-\alpha_2 x} A dx + \dots = A_1 e^{\alpha_1 x} \int A e^{-\alpha_1 x} dx + \dots$$

Obs: The method is applicable for constant, the above, be employed for the differential equation and given $x = x$.

3.3.5 Summary: Working Procedure to Solve The Equation:

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + p \frac{dy}{dx} + qy = r + k_1 y \frac{dy}{dx} + k_2 y \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = x$$

1. Write the eq. in the form x

$$y'' + p_1 y' + \dots + p_n y + k_1 y = x$$

Step I: To Find the Complementary Function

1. Write the A.E.

$$y'' + p_1 y' + \dots + p_n y = 0 \text{ and}$$

2. Solve the A.E. as follows

Case I: A.E.	Case II:
1. p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots are all distinct roots	$y = e^{p_1 x} + p_2 e^{p_2 x} + \dots + p_n e^{p_n x}$
2. p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots are real and equal roots	$y = (p_1 + x p_2) e^{p_1 x} + \dots + p_n e^{p_n x}$
3. $p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, \dots$ are real and equal roots	$y = (p_1 + x p_2 + x^2 p_3) e^{p_1 x} + \dots + p_n e^{p_n x}$
4. $p_1 = \beta + i \alpha, p_2 = \beta - i \alpha, p_3, p_4, \dots$ are real roots	$y = e^{\beta x} [p_1 \cos \alpha x + p_2 \sin \alpha x] + p_3 e^{p_3 x} + \dots$
5. $p_1 = \alpha + i \beta, p_2 = \alpha + i \beta, p_3, p_4, p_5, \dots$ are real roots	$y = e^{\alpha x} [p_1 + x p_2] \cos \beta x + p_3 e^{p_3 x} + \dots$

Step II: To Find the Particular Integral

From Equation (1), we have $y'' + a_1 y' + a_2 y = f(x)$

$$= \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x)$$

where $D = \frac{d}{dx}$

P.I. = $\frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x) = A_1$ where $f(x) = C_1$

$$= \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_1 \quad \text{put } D = 0 \quad \text{and } D^2 = 0 \text{ in } (D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{a_2} C_1 = \frac{C_1}{a_2} \quad \text{as } D = 0 \quad \text{and } D^2 = 0 \text{ in } (D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)$$

and so on.

where $A_2 = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x) = C_2$

$$f(x) = C_2 \cos x \text{ or } C_2 \sin x, C_2 = \text{const.}$$

2. When $f(x) = \sin x$ or $\cos x$ then $f(x) = C_2$

$$P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x) = C_2 \sin x \text{ or } C_2 \cos x$$

or $P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_2 \sin x$

$$= \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_2 \sin x = C_2 \sin x$$

or $P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_2 \cos x = C_2 \cos x$

$$= \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_2 \cos x = C_2 \cos x$$

or $P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} C_2 \sin x = C_2 \sin x$

and so on.

where $A_3 = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x) = C_3$

$$f(x) = C_3 \cos x \text{ or } C_3 \sin x, C_3 = \text{const.}$$

3. When $f(x) = x^n$ or $x^n \sin x$ or $x^n \cos x$ then

$$P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} f(x) = C_3 x^n$$

To evaluate $\frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} [f(x)]$ in according to the method of undetermined coefficients and compare with both sides.

1. When $f(x) = x^n$ where n is a non-negative integer.

$$P.I. = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} x^n = \frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} x^n$$

and then evaluate $\frac{1}{(D^2 + a_1 D + a_2)} x^n$ by using binomial expansion

5. Given A and \mathbf{p} , find \mathbf{p}_1 and \mathbf{p}_2 :

$$\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rescale $\frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} \mathbf{p}_1$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{21}} \mathbf{p}_2$ so that the two operators each have a norm of 1 and are orthogonal.

$$\mathbf{Q} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{Z} = \sqrt{5} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{y}$$

Step III: find the complex \mathbf{z} values for the O.S. is $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{P}^{-1} \mathbf{p}$.

3.4 Two Other Methods of Finding \mathbf{P}_1 .

3.4.1 Method of Variation of Parameters

The method of variation of parameters applies to equation $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = X$

$$y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = X \quad (3.4.1)$$

where p, q and X are functions of x . Assume

$$\mathbf{P}_1 = -y_1 \int \frac{y_2 y_2'}{W} dx + y_2 \int \frac{y_1 X'}{W} dx \quad (3.4.2)$$

$$\text{and } y_1, y_2, y_3 \text{ are the solutions to } y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0 \quad (3.4.3)$$

$$\text{where } W = \begin{vmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ y_1' & y_2' \end{vmatrix} \text{ is called the Wronskian of } y_1, y_2.$$

Example 1.

Using the method of variation of parameters solve

$$y'' - y' = \cos x$$

Solution.

Given the homogeneous equation $y'' - y' = 0$, $y_1 = 1$, $y_2 = x$.

(a) Find \mathbf{P}_1 :

$$\begin{aligned} W(y_1, y_2) &= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & x \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 \\ \frac{1}{W} \times \text{O.S.} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x \end{bmatrix} \times \cos x + y_2 \sin x \end{aligned}$$

(a) Find \mathbf{P}_2 :

Here $y_1 = \cos x$, $y_2 = \sin x$ and $X = \cos x$

$$W = \begin{vmatrix} y_1 & y_2 \\ y_1' & y_2' \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos x & \sin x \\ -\sin x & \cos x \end{vmatrix} = \cos^2 x + \sin^2 x = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}_2 &= -y_1 \int \frac{y_2 X'}{W} dx + y_2 \int \frac{y_1 X}{W} dx \\ &= -\cos x \int \frac{\sin x \cos x \cos x}{1} dx + \sin x \int \frac{\cos x \cos x \cos x}{1} dx \\ &= -\cos x \int \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x dx + \sin x \int \frac{1}{2} \cos 2x dx \\ &= -\cos x \left(\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \sin 2x \right) + \sin x \left(\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \cos 2x \right) \\ &= -\cos x \left(\frac{1}{4} \sin 2x \right) + \sin x \left(\frac{1}{4} \cos 2x \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Therefore O.S. is } y = \cos x \left(\frac{1}{4} \sin 2x \right) + \sin x \left(\frac{1}{4} \cos 2x \right) + \cos x \left(\frac{1}{4} \sin 2x \right) + \sin x \left(\frac{1}{4} \cos 2x \right) = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x + \frac{1}{2} \cos 2x$$

3.5 Equations Reducible to Linear Equation with Constant Coefficient

Definition:

Now, we shall define the differential equation with variable coefficient as follows. When an equation is reducible to a linear equation with constant coefficient by suitable substitution.

Let us study the following examples.

Example 1: The given

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (1+x) \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0 \quad (1)$$

can be solved by the method of differential equation with variable coefficient.

Sol: Let $y = u(x)$ then

$$\text{Let } y = u \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} \quad \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2}$$

$$\text{— } \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right] = \frac{1}{dx} \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right] \frac{dx}{dx} \\ &= \frac{1}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right] \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right] \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right] \frac{dx}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2}$$

$$\text{Similarly } x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = x^2 \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} = 2x \frac{du}{dx} - u \text{ and so on.}$$

Substituting the above values in differential equation, it can be reduced to a linear equation with constant coefficients by the method of variable coefficient.

Example 1:

$$\text{Consider the differential equation } x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0$$

While the standard form of the differential equation is $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$, the considered form of the differential equation is

$$\text{Let } y = u \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} \quad \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2}$$

Solution: (a)

$$\therefore \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0 \quad \text{and } p(x) = 1, q(x) = -1$$

Therefore, the characteristic equation is $m^2 + m - 1 = 0$ and its roots are

$$\therefore m = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1+4}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

$$\therefore m_1 = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}, m_2 = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

Solve the differential equation

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = 0 \quad (x > 0) \quad \text{and} \quad y(1) = 0, \quad y(4) = 0$$

Answer: $y = C_1 \sqrt{x} + C_2 \sqrt{x} \ln x$ and $y = 0$ for all x

Alternative Solution

$$x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = 0$$

$$(x^2 D + xD - 4)y = 0$$

$$[0(0-1) - 4]y = 0$$

$$[-4]y = 0$$

$$y'' - y' = 0$$

$$\text{Partial solution } y'' - y' = 0$$

$$y' = 0$$

$$y = C_1 e^{0x} = C_1$$

Partial soln

$$y = C_1 e^{0x} + C_2 x^{0x} = C_1 e^0 + C_2 x^0 = C_1 + C_2$$

General solution $y = C_1 + C_2 x$

□□□□



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

Q.1 The solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 = 1/x$$

$$\text{is } y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$(b) y = \frac{-x}{x^2 + C}$$

(c) xy^2

(d) $xy^2 + C$ (where C is an arbitrary constant)

[JEE GATE 2003, 2 marks]

Q.2 Suppose that in a reaction compound and the concentration of A can be related using an Arrhenius type equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = -kT$ where k is the reaction rate constant ($k = 9 \times 10^4 \text{ J/mol}$). The standard solution is

$$(a) y = 9 \times 10^4 \quad (b) y = \frac{9 \times 10^4}{x}$$

$$(c) y = 9 \times 10^4 x^2 \quad (d) y = 9 \times 10^4 x$$

[JEE GATE 2004, 2 marks]

Q.3 The following differential equation has

$$y \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right| = x \left| \frac{dy}{dx} \right| + y^2 = 0$$

(a) degree = 2, order = 1

(b) degree = 4, order = 3

(c) degree = 1, order = 2

(d) (b) and (c) order = 0

[JEE GATE 2005, 1 mark]

Q.4 The solution of the differential equation

$$2xy = 3C, \quad dy = 1/x$$

$$(a) y(1) = x_1 y^2 \quad (b) y(1) = x_1 y^3$$

$$(c) y(1) = x_1 y^4 \quad (d) y(1) = x_1 y^5$$

[JEE GATE 2005, 1 mark]

Q.5 The differential equation $y = x^2$ and the equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4(y - x^2)^2$$

$$(a) \frac{dy}{dx} + (y - x^2)^2 = 0$$

$$(b) \frac{dy}{dx} - (y - x^2)^2 = 0$$

$$(c) \frac{dy}{dx} - (y - x^2)^2 = 0$$

$$(d) \frac{dy}{dx} + (y - x^2)^2 = 0$$

[JEE GATE 2005, 2 marks]

- [illegible]

Statement for Item 4 Answer Questions 7 and 8
to complete #4-6 in this direction: direction: a guide

- $\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} = -6 \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} + 6z$, if $(x, y) = (-2, 0)$; $a_2 = 2$.
- Q.7 The curve passes through $(-3, 4)$ and $(3, 4)$.
 (a) $a = 3$, $b = 9$ (b) $a = 3$, $b = 4$
 (c) $a = 4$, $b = 3$ (d) $a = 4$, $b = 9$
- [MC, GATE-2005, 2 marks]
- Q.8 Which of the following is a solution of the differential equation $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} - 2 \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + (1-u) = 0$?
 (a) e^{-x} (b) $x e^{2x}$
 (c) $e^{-x} x$ (d) $2e^x$
- [MC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]
- Q.9 A solution of the following differential equation is
 given by $\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} + 3 \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} + 2y = 0$.
 (a) $y = e^{-x} - e^{-2x}$ (b) $y = e^{-x} + e^{-2x}$
 (c) $y = e^{-x} - e^{-3x}$ (d) $y = e^{-x} + e^{-3x}$
- [EC, GATE-2003, 1 mark]

- Q.10) A vehicle with an engine that is rated to produce 100000 watt-hours of energy is used to drive a 1000-watt pump that takes 100000 watt-hours of energy to pump 100000 litres of water. How long will it take to pump 100000 litres of water?
- (a) 1 month (b) 2 months
(c) 3 months (d) 4 months
- [JEE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Find the solution of the differential equation
- $$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = x^{-1} \text{ with } y(1) = 1$$
- (a) $(1 + 2x^2)e^{-x^2}$ (b) $(1 + 2x^2)e^{x^2}$
 (c) $(1 + x^2)e^{-x^2}$ (d) $(1 + x^2)e^{x^2}$
- MF GATE-2005, (inward)

- 0.12 Find $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ if $4\frac{dy}{dx} + y = -x^2$, the particular integral is
- (a) $\frac{1}{3}x^3$ (b) $\frac{1}{3}x^2$
(c) $3x^3$ (d) $3x^2 - 2x + 2$
- [M.E. GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q. 8 The degree of the differential equation
- $$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 1 \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 0?$$
- (A) 6 (B) 7
(C) 8 (D) 9
- CE, GATE-2007, 1 mark**

- Q.14 Find the orthonormal basis for $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}$ where coordinate (x, y, z)
- So $\vec{u} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ So $\vec{u} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$
- So $\vec{v} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$ So $\vec{v} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$
- [CL 651E 2007, 1 mark]

- D.17. The set of all functions $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $f(x+y) = f(x)f(y)$ is denoted by \mathcal{F} .
 (a) $f(x) = 2x$ and $f(x) = 0$ are solutions.
 (b) $f(x) = 1$ and $f(x) = 2^x$ are solutions.
 (c) $f(x) = 1$ and $f(x) = 2^x$ are solutions.
 (d) $f(x) = 1$ and $f(x) = 2^x$ are solutions.
- [M. G. 11, 1987, 5 marks]

- Q.18 A body, comprised of 800 cells, has a 50% probability of surviving each year. The average number of 5000 years of the life span of the body is:
 (a) 10,000 (b) 5,000
 (c) 35,700 (d) 4500
- [CET GUJ 2017, 2 marks]

- 0.17 Solve for $\frac{dy}{dx}$ if $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$ and $y = \sqrt{3}$ at $x = 1$.
- (a) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1$ (b) $\frac{dy}{dx} = -1$ (c) $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3$ (d) $\frac{dy}{dx} = -3$
- 12B, 12C13-2008, 2 marks

Q.18 Which of the following is a solution of the

differential equation $x \frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy^2 + 1$?

(a) $xy = 3e^x$ (b) $xy = 2e^{x^2}$

(c) $xy = \frac{3}{2}e^x$ (d) $xy = 8e^x$

[EC, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.19 The general solution of $x \frac{dy}{dx} = y - 1$ is

(a) $y = \frac{1}{2} \log x + \frac{1}{2} \log y$

(b) $y = \frac{1}{2} \log x$

(c) $y = \frac{1}{2} \log y$

(d) $y = \frac{1}{2} \log x^2$

[CF, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.20 Given that $f(1) = 3$, and $f_1(1) = 1$, $f_2(1) = 2$ then

$f_3(1) =$

(a) 0.96

(b) 1.16

(c) 1.18

(d) 0.98

[ME, GATE-2002, 1 mark]

Q.21 It is given that $y(x) = 2x^2 + 1$ and $y'(x) = 4x$. Then $y''(2) =$

(a) 0

(b) 4

(c) 0.02

(d) 1.5

[ME, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.22 The order of the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 + e^{2x} + 1$$

(a) 1

(b) 2

(c) 3

(d) 4

[EC, GATE-2000, 1 mark]

Q.23 Solution of the differential equation

$$2x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

(a) ellipse

(b) circle

(c) parabola

(d) hyperbola

[CF, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

Q.24 Match List-I with List-II and select the correct answer using the codes given below. List-I

A. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x}$

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

List-II

1. Circle

2. Straight line

3. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{y}$

4. Hyperbola

D. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x}$

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	4	3	2	1
(b)		3	1	4
(c)	4	1	3	2
(d)	1	2	4	3

[EC, GATE-2000, 2 marks]

Q.25 The solution of $x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 1$ with the condition

(a) $\frac{y}{x} = 1$

(b) $y = \frac{x^2}{2} + 1$

(c) $y = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{1}{x}$

(d) $y = \frac{x^2}{2} + 1$

(e) $y = \frac{x^2}{2} + 1$

[ME, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

Q.26 The order and degree of the Bernoulli equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4 \sqrt{y} \frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 = 0$$

(a) 2 and 2

(b) 2 and 3

(c) 2 and 3

(d) 3 and 1

[EC, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q.27 The Bernoulli equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = \frac{1}{x} y^2$ is

(a) separable homogeneous ordinary differential equation

(b) homogeneous nonlinear ordinary differential equation

(c) homogeneous linear ordinary differential equation of first order

(d) homogeneous linear ordinary differential equation of first order

[ME, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q.28 The solution of the differential equation

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

(a) $y = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{2x}$

(b) $y = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{2x}$

(c) $y = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{2x}$

(d) $y = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{2x}$

[ME, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

- Q.20 Solve the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 5 \frac{dx}{dy} + 3x - 1$ with the condition $y(0) = 1$ and $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = 0$ for $x > 0$ is
- (a) $y(x) = 3e^{5x} - 1$ (b) $y(x) = 3e^{5x} - 1$
 (c) $y(x) = -5x^2 + 2e^{-x}$ (d) $y(x) = x^2 - 3e^{-x}$
 [ESE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

- Q.21 A function $y(x)$ satisfies the differential $y' = 2y$
 $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ and $y(0) = 1$ and $y'(0) = 0$. The boundary condition $y(1) = K$ and $y'(1) = 0$. The solution to this system is
- (a) $y(x) = e^{2x} \cos x$
 (b) $y(x) = e^{2x} \sin x$
 (c) $y(x) = K \exp(x - 1)$
 (d) $y(x) = K \exp(x - 1)$
 [EC, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

- Q.22 Consider the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = (1 + y)^2 e^x$. The solution with initial condition is
- (a) $y = \ln \left(\frac{e^x}{2} + 3 \right) e^x$
 (b) $y = \ln \left(\frac{e^x}{2} + 1 \right) e^x$
 (c) $y = \ln \left(\frac{e^x}{2} + 1 \right) e^x$
 (d) $y = \ln \left(\frac{e^x}{2} + 2 \right) e^x$
 [MP, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

- Q.23 With A as a constant, the solution provided by the first order differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 + A$ is
- (a) $\frac{1}{y} + x^2 = 0$ (b) $\frac{1}{y} + x^2 = A$
 (c) $-3x^2 = A$ (d) $-3x^2 = 0$
 [ESE, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

- Q.24 The solution to the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2y$, $y(1) = 1$ is
- (a) $y = e^{2x}$ (b) $y = 2e^{2x}$
 (c) $y = e^{2x}$ (d) $y = e^{2x}$
 [EC, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

- Q.24 The solution of the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + y = x$ with the condition $y(1) = 1$, $x > 1$ is
- (a) $y = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$ (b) $y = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$
 (c) $y = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$ (d) $y = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$
 [CE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

- Q.25 The solution of the boundary value problem $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0$ for the boundary condition $y = 1$ at $x = 0$
- (a) $y = e^{-2x}$ (b) $y = 2e^{-x}$
 (c) $y = 1/2 e^{2x}$ (d) $y = 2e^{2x}$
 [CE, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

- Q.26 With initial condition $y(1) = 0.5$, the solution to the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = y + 1$ is
- (a) $y = e^x - \frac{1}{2}$ (b) $y = e^x - \frac{1}{2}$
 (c) $y = e^x - \frac{1}{2}$ (d) $y = e^x - \frac{1}{2}$
 [EC, EE, IN, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

- Q.27 The partial differential equation $\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} + x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2}$ is a
- (a) Irregular equation of second order
 (b) Linear second order partial differential equation of second order
 (c) Irregular equation of second order
 (d) Non-linear equation of second order
 [MP, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

- Q.28 The type of the second differential equation $y'' = \frac{y^2}{x^2} - 1$
- (a) Periodic (b) Linear
 (c) Hyperbolic (d) Non-linear
 [IN, GATE-2013, 1 mark]

- Q.29 The solution to the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ (where x is constant) is
- (a) boundary condition $y(0) = 1$ and $y'(0) = 0$ is

$$(b) u = -\frac{1}{1-x^2} \quad (b) v = 1 + \frac{1-x^{2n+1}}{1-x^2}$$

$$(c) u = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{x^{2n+1}}{1-x^2} \quad (d) v = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1-x^{2n+1}}{1-x^2}$$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.40 The maximum value of the solution of the differential equation $y''(1+y') = 0$ with the condition $y(0) = 1$ and $y'(0) = 1$ is $\frac{1}{2}$.

$$(a) \frac{1}{2} \quad (b) \frac{1}{3} \\ (c) \frac{1}{4} \quad (d) \frac{1}{5}$$

[MC, GATE-2013 : 2 Marks]

Q.41 A system consists of a spring with constant $k=100 \text{ N/m}$, a mass $m=1 \text{ kg}$ and a differential equation has an exact solution given by $y(t) = \frac{1}{2}t$ when the spring constant is k and the mass is $m=100$. If the mass is changed to the system, so that the solution becomes $\frac{1}{2}t^2$ for $t \geq 0$, we need to

- (a) change the half-spring constant with the spring force constant k
 (b) change the half-spring constant k and the spring force constant k
 (c) change the half-spring constant k and the spring force constant k

(d) change the half-spring constant to $\frac{1}{2}k$ and the spring force constant to $\frac{1}{2}k$

(e) the general solution is $y(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2$ and the force constant is $\frac{1}{2}k$

[MC, GATE-2013 : 2 Marks]

Q.42 The matrix A is such that $\frac{dy}{dt} = Ay$ and

$$\text{and } \frac{dy}{dt} = 4y - 3x + 3$$

$$(a) \frac{dy}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(b) \frac{dy}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(c) \frac{dy}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 4 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(d) \frac{dy}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 3 \\ 1 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.43 The general solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2y^2 + y^2 + x^2 + 1 \text{ is constant is}$$

$$(a) x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$(b) x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

$$(c) x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

$$(d) x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.44 The solution of the differential equation $y'' + y' = 0$

$$(a) y = \cos x + \sin x, \quad (b) y = e^x$$

$$(c) y = 1 + e^x, \quad (d) y = e^x$$

$$(e) y = 1 + e^x, \quad (f) y = e^x$$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.45 Which ODE of the following is a homogeneous differential equation? (a) $y'' + y' = 0$ (b) $y'' + y' = 1$ (c) $y'' + y' = x$ (d) $y'' + y' = y$

$$(a) \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2, \quad (b) \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

$$(c) \frac{dy}{dx} + y = x^2, \quad (d) \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.46 The solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x \text{ where } y(1) = 1 \text{ and } y(2) = 1 \text{ is}$$

$$(a) y = 1 + x^2$$

$$(b) y = 1 + x^2 + \frac{1}{x} \text{ and } y = \frac{2}{x}$$

$$(c) y = 1 + x^2 + \frac{1}{x} \text{ and } y = \frac{2}{x}$$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.47 The characteristic numbers $\lambda_1 = 1$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$ of the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \lambda_1 y + \lambda_2 y = 0$$

$$\text{is } (a) \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 0, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0 \text{ and } (b) \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 1, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0$$

$$W(t) = \frac{y(t)}{x(t)} = \frac{y'(t)}{x'(t)} = 1 - e^{t/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} W(1) &= 1 - e^{1/2} \\ W(2) &= 1 - e^{1/4} \end{aligned}$$

[VF, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.48 The characteristic equation of the differential

$$\text{equation } \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\alpha \frac{dx}{dt} + \beta = 0 \text{ is } 2\lambda^2 + 2\lambda + 1 = 0$$

Then the value of α is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} &= 1 & \text{(b)} &= 0 \\ \text{(c)} &= -1 & \text{(d)} &= 1/2 \end{aligned}$$

[FC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.49 The characteristic equation of the homogeneous solution

$$\text{of linear PDE is } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + 1 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} &= e^{y^2} & \text{(c)} &= e^{y^2} - 2e^{xy} \\ \text{(b)} &= e^{xy} + 2e^{y^2} & \text{(d)} &= 2e^{xy} \end{aligned}$$

[FC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.50 Consider $y'' + y = 1$ is a differential equation

$$\text{where } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 1 \text{ where } y = 0 \text{ When the homogeneous solution is zero, the particular solution is } y = 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} &= e^x & \text{(b)} &= e^x \\ \text{(c)} &= 2e^x & \text{(d)} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

[FE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.51 Consider the following differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -2xy \text{ with condition } y = 2 \text{ at } x = 0$$

The value of y at $x = 3$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} &= 2e^9 & \text{(b)} &= 2e^3 \\ \text{(c)} &= 2e^{18} & \text{(d)} &= 2e^6 \end{aligned}$$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.52 Consider the following differential equation

$$x(y^2 - 2xy) + x^2 \left(\frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 + y - 2xy \right) + \frac{x^3}{2}$$

Which of the following is the correct initial condition for the given differential equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} &= \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y^2}{x} = 0 & \text{(b)} &= \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y^2}{x} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(c)} &= x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 & \text{(d)} &= x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.53 Consider the following second order linear differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -2y^2 - 2y - 1$$

The boundary conditions are $y(0) = 0$ and $y(1) = 2$, $y'(1) = 2$ The value of y at $x = 1$ is _____

[CE, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.54 A differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 12x - 2$ is applicableover the interval $0 \leq x \leq 10$, then $y(0)$ is _____

[FE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.55 The general solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1 - \cos 2y}{1 + \cos 2x}$$

$$\text{(a)} \sin y - \cos x = \cos x \sin 2x \sin 2y$$

$$\text{(b)} \sin y - \cos x = \cos x \sin 2x \sin 2y$$

$$\text{(c)} \sin y + \cos x = \cos x \sin 2x \sin 2y$$

$$\text{(d)} \sin x + \cos y = \cos x \sin 2x \sin 2y$$

[CE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

Q.56 A solution of the ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0 \text{ is a curve for } y(0) = 2 \text{ and}$$

$$y'(0) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}. \text{ The value of } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \text{ at } x = \frac{\pi}{4} \text{ is } \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

[EE, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.57 The solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + 2 \frac{y}{x} = 2 \sin x, y(1) = 1, y(0) = 1$$

$$\text{(a)} 12 = 9e^2$$

$$\text{(b)} 12 = 9e^2$$

$$\text{(c)} 12 = 9e^2$$

$$\text{(d)} 12 = 9e^2$$

[CE, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.58 Consider the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0, y(0) = 2, y'(0) = 2$$

Find $y = 100$, where $x = 2.19$, the value of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ is _____

[FC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.59 Find the solution of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 4x$ with $y(0) = 0$ and $y(1) = 1$.

Find $y(x)$ in given conditions $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 4x$.

(a) $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x$ (b) $y = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + x^3)$

(c) $y = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - x^3)$ (d) $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + x^3$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.60 A function $y(x)$ satisfying $y(0) = 0$ and $y(1) = 2$ is a solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} - y = 0. \text{ Then } y(2) \text{ is}$$

- (a) $3e^1$ (b) $3e^2$
(c) $7e$ (d) $7e^2$

[FF, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.61 The solution of the differential equation, $\cos x \cdot y'' + 2 \sin x \cdot y' = y(y^2 - 1)$ with initial conditions $y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 1$ is a function $y = f(x)$ is an increasing,

- (a) odd function (b) even function
(c) $f(x) = 1$ for $x > \pi$ (d) $f(x) < 0$

[FF, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.62 $y = y(x)$ is a solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{y \cdot x}{x^2 + y^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0 \text{ with initial condition } y(2) = 0$$

and $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=2} = 1$. Then the value of $y(1)$ is ____

[FF, IIT-JEE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.63 The value of $\int_0^1 x \cos(x^2) dx$ is equal to _____

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 12, \frac{dy}{dx} + 30y = 0, y(0) = 1 \text{ and}$$

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = -30.$$

- (a) $10^{-1} \sin 30x^2$ (b) $10^{-1} \cos 30x^2$
(c) $10^{-1} \sin 30x^2$ (d) $10^{-1} \cos 30x^2$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.64 The value that satisfies the boundary value problem

$$y'' + 2y' = 2, y(0) = 0, y\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sqrt{e} \text{ is } y\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \text{ is}$$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.65 The general solution of the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + y \tan x = \sec^3 x$ is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y \tan x = \sec^3 x$$

$$(a) \int (y_1 - y_2) dx = y_2 \sin x + c_1 \cos x + c_2$$

$$(b) \int (y_1 - y_2) dx = y_2 \cos x + c_1 \sin x + c_2$$

$$(c) \int (y_1 - y_2) dx = y_2 \cos x + c_1 \sin x + c_2$$

$$(d) \int (y_1 - y_2) dx = y_2 \sin x + c_1 \cos x + c_2$$

[MC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.66 Consider the differential equation $y'' + 16y = 0$ with

$y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 0$ and conditions $y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 0$. The value of $y(x)$ is

[MC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.67 The differential equation $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 16y + 1$ has $f(x)$

with two boundary conditions $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ at

$$(a) \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ at } x = 0, \pi$$

- (a) no solution
(b) exactly two solutions
(c) exactly one solution
(d) infinite many solutions

[FF, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.68 Consider the differential equation

$$y'' + 2y' + 2y = 0 \text{ with } y(0) = 0 \text{ and } y(\pi) = 2\pi$$

and $y(\pi) = 2\pi$ is a differential equation with two boundary conditions

- (a) $y(0) = 0$ (b) $y(\pi) = 2\pi$
(c) $y(0) = 2\pi$ (d) $y(\pi) = 0$

[MC, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.63 The general solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{dy}{dx} - 2y = 0$$

is (where A is a constant) (a) $y = A + x$ (b) $y = A + x^2$

(c) $y = A^2 + 2x + x^2$ (d) $y = A^2 + 2x$

(e) $y = A^2 + 2x^2 + x^2$ (f) $y = A^2 + 2x$

(g) $y = A^2 + 2x + x^2$ (h) $y = A^2 + 2x^2$

(i) $y = A^2 + 2x + x^2$ (j) $y = A^2 + 2x^2$

[IIT, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.70 Which of the following satisfies a boundary value problem for the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (x - y)^2$$

where $x = 0, y = 0$ and $x = 1$

(a) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$ (b) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$

(c) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$ (d) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$

(e) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$ (f) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$

(g) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$ (h) $y = 1 - x + e^{x-1}$

[IIT, GATE EC-7 : 2 Marks]

Q.71 Consider the following second order differential equation

$$y'' - 4y' + 2y = 2x^2$$

Its characteristic differential equation is

(a) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$ (b) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$

(c) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$ (d) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$

(e) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$ (f) $r^2 - 4r + 2 = 0$

[IIT, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.72 The solution of the equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2y - 1$ with $y = 1$ at $x = 0$ is

(a) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$

(b) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$ (c) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$

(d) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$ (e) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$

(f) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$ (g) $y = 1 + e^{2x}$

[IIT, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.73 A particle of mass 2 kg is moving with velocity of 10 m/s . A force $F(t) = 3t^2$ (in N) is applied on it. The distance travelled by the particle in 5 s is _____ [IIT, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.74 The particular integral of $y''(x - y - 2y) = 2x + 3$ is $y = A + Bx + Cx^2$

(a) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$ (b) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$

(c) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$ (d) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$

(e) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$ (f) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$

(g) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$ (h) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$

(i) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$ (j) $A = 1, B = 1, C = 1$

[IIT, GATE-2017]

Q.75 The particular solution of the differential equation $y'' + y = 0$ is $y = A \sin x + B \cos x$ where A and B are constants. The value of A and B is _____

(a) $A = 1, B = 0$ (b) $A = 0, B = 1$

(c) $A = 1, B = 1$ (d) $A = 1, B = 1$

(e) $A = 1, B = 1$ (f) $A = 1, B = 1$

(g) $A = 1, B = 1$ (h) $A = 1, B = 1$

(i) $A = 1, B = 1$ (j) $A = 1, B = 1$

[IIT, GATE-2017]

■■■■

Answers Differential Equations

1. (c)	2. (a)	3. (c)	4. (a)	5. (a)	6. (a)	7. (b)	8. (b)	9. (b)
10. (c)	11. (a)	12. (b)	13. (a)	14. (b)	15. (b)	16. (b)	17. (b)	18. (b)
19. (c)	20. (a)	21. (a)	22. (a)	23. (a)	24. (a)	25. (a)	26. (a)	27. (a)
28. (a)	29. (a)	30. (a)	31. (a)	32. (a)	33. (a)	34. (a)	35. (a)	36. (a)
37. (a)	38. (a)	39. (a)	40. (a)	41. (a)	42. (a)	43. (a)	44. (a)	45. (a)
46. (a)	47. (a)	48. (a)	49. (a)	50. (a)	51. (a)	52. (a)	53. (a)	54. (a)
55. (a)	56. (a)	57. (a)	58. (a)	59. (a)	60. (a)	61. (a)	62. (a)	63. (a)
64. (a)	65. (a)	66. (a)	67. (a)	68. (a)	69. (a)	70. (a)	71. (a)	72. (a)
73. (a)	74. (a)	75. (a)	76. (a)	77. (a)	78. (a)	79. (a)	80. (a)	81. (a)

Explanations Differential Equations

1. (a)

Given differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 - 6$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-dy}{y^2} = dx$$

On integrating, we get

$$\int \frac{dy}{y^2} = \int dx$$

$$\frac{-1}{y} = x + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} = -x - C$$

2. (c)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -x^2$$

Here, the equation is homogeneous

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -x^2 dx$$

Integrating both sides

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int -x^2 dx$$

$$\ln y = -\frac{x^3}{3} + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln y = -\frac{x^3}{3} + C$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} = e^{\frac{x^3}{3} - C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{\frac{x^3}{3} - C}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} = e^{\frac{x^3}{3} - C}$$

3. (b)

Given a regular differential equation: $\sin x = 2$

Regular means all angles are defined for

So, $\sin x = 1$

4. (a)

Given, $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + 1$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{y} = 2x + 1$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int (2x + 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln y = x^2 + x + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{x^2 + x + C} = e^{x^2 + x} \cdot e^C$$

$$\text{putting } e^C = C_1$$

$$y = C_1 e^{x^2 + x}$$

Now putting initial condition $y(0) = 1$

$$1 = C_1 e^{0+0} = C_1$$

$$\Rightarrow C_1 = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{ solution } y = e^{x^2 + x}$$

$$\text{So } y(1) = e^{1+1} = e^2$$

5. (a)

$$\text{Given, } \frac{dy}{dx} = y(x^2 + 1) \quad y(0) = 1$$

$$\text{putting } x = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 = y(0^2 + 1)$$

$$\frac{dy}{y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \cdot \frac{dx}{dx}$$

So it requires given initial condition, so

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

Integrating by $\int \frac{1}{1 + x^2} = \tan^{-1} x$, we get

$$\ln y = \tan^{-1} x + C$$

$$\text{now using } y(0) = 1 \Rightarrow \ln 1 = C$$

$$\frac{dy}{y} = \tan^{-1} x + C = 0$$

So it is known that $\tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1} 0$ and $\tan^{-1} 0 = 0$ (a) (b) (c)

6. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{2x} = \sqrt{2} \cdot x^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$dy = \sqrt{2} x^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{dy} = \int \sqrt{2} x^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The exponents are all equal to

$$2 = 2 \Rightarrow n = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$2 = -1 + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\therefore y = C_1 x^{-1 + \frac{1}{2}} = C_1 x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= C_1 e^{-j\omega t} + C_2 e^{+j\omega t}$$

$$e^{-j(\cos 4x - \sin 4x)}$$

$$C_1 \sin(4x) + C_2 \cos(4x)$$

$$= C_1' (\cos(4x) + \sin(4x)) + C_2'$$

$$\sin(4x)$$

$$\therefore C_1 + C_2 = C_2' \text{ and } (C_1 - C_2') = C_1'$$

$$2 = C_1' + C_2' \text{ and } 4 = C_1' + 4C_2'$$

$$\text{dividing by 2}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = C_1' + C_2' \text{ and } 2 = C_1' + 4C_2'$$

$$\Rightarrow C_2' = 1$$

$$\frac{C_1'}{C_2'} = \frac{2 - 4C_2'}{C_2'} = \frac{2 - 4(1)}{1} = -2$$

$$C_1 = -2C_2 = -2 \times 1 = -2$$

$$y(x) = C_1 \sin(4x) + C_2 \cos(4x)$$

$$= -2 \sin(4x) + \cos(4x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -8 \sin(4x)$$

$$\therefore 1 + 4C_2 = 0 \Rightarrow C_2 = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$4C_1 = C_2$$

$$C_1 = \frac{C_2}{4} = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\therefore C_1 = -1 \text{ and } C_2 = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$y = -\sin(4x) - \frac{1}{4} \cos(4x)$$

7. (c)

Given conditions

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} - 6y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D^2 + D - 6)y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D^2 + 3D - 2)y = 0$$

$$\text{Characteristic eq. } \lambda^2 + 3\lambda - 2 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = -2$$

So the solution is

$$y = p e^{\lambda_1 x} + q e^{\lambda_2 x} = p e^x + q e^{-2x}$$

$$\text{Given that } y(0) = 1 \Rightarrow p + q = 1 \Rightarrow p = 1 - q$$

$$\text{Also } y'(0) = 2 \Rightarrow p - 2q = 2 \Rightarrow 1 - q - 2q = 2 \Rightarrow -3q = 1 \Rightarrow q = -\frac{1}{3}$$

8. (c)

Given conditions

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D^2 + 4D + 4)y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + 2)^2 y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + 2)y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (D + 2)y = 0$$

$$D^2 + 4D + 4 = 0$$

$$D = -2, -2$$

$$\therefore y = C_1 e^{-2x} + C_2 x e^{-2x}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = (C_1 + C_2 x) e^{-2x}$$

$$\text{put } x = 0, y = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1 e^{-2 \times 0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{the only answer in the required form is } y = 1 e^{-2x}$$

$$\text{So } C_1 = 1 \text{ and } C_2 = 0$$

9. (b)

$$A = 2, B = 3, C = 4$$

$$(2) + (3) + (4) = 9$$

$$B = 3, C = 4$$

$$\therefore A = 2, B = 3, C = 4$$

10. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4x$$

or

$$\text{where } y = \frac{4}{3} x^3$$

$$y = 4x^3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4x^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 4x^2$$

Substituting $y = 4x^3$ in eqn

$$4x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 4(4x^3)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 4x$$

$$\therefore y = 2x^2 + C$$

Using eqn (2) we get

$$y = 4x^3 = 0$$

$$\therefore y = 4x^3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 4x^3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$\therefore y = 4x^3 = 0$$

(c)

Given $y = 3x^2 + 2x$

$$y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

$$\therefore y = 3x^2 + 2x$$

11. (b)

Given equation

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

This is a Bernoulli's differential equation (of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n$)

Integrating factor

$$IF = x^{\log x + 1}$$

$$\text{So the given eq.} = \int \frac{dy}{dx} IF dx + y$$

$$y x^{\log x + 1} = \int x^{\log x + 1} y^2 dx + C$$

$$y x^{\log x + 1} = C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = C x^{-(\log x + 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow y^2 = C^2 x^{-2}$$

\Rightarrow

So the solution is

$$y x^{\log x + 1} = C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = C x^{-(\log x + 1)}$$

12. (a)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y'' + y' + 2y = 0$$

Particular integral

$$y = \frac{1}{(D^2 + D + 2)} 3e^{2x}$$

$$\text{Now since } \frac{1}{(D^2 + D + 2)} e^{2x} = \frac{1}{(D^2 + D + 2)}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{(D^2 + D + 2)} \frac{e^{2x}}{(2^2 + 2 + 2)} = \frac{e^{2x}}{6} = \frac{y_1}{6}$$

13. (a)

Let $y = u$ and differentiate w.r.t. x the power of x is less than derivative of x then the same can be taken out outside and then after differentiate w.r.t. x for power

Here $y = u$ is the degree is 1, which is power

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx}$$

14. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2$$

This is a differential equation

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

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

$$\Rightarrow \log y = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C} = e^{\frac{x^2}{2}} \cdot e^C$$

$$y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C}$$

$$\text{So } y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C}$$

$$y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C} \text{ and } y = e^{\frac{x^2}{2} + C}$$

15. (a)

$$\text{Given } \frac{dy}{dx} = y^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y^2} = \int dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} = x + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\text{So } y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{x + C}$$

16. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y(1 - y)$$

(This is a Bernoulli's equation)

This is a Bernoulli's equation (of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)y^n$)

$$\frac{dy}{y(1 - y)} = dx$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y(1 - y)} = \int dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln(y - 1) = x + C_1$$

$$\Rightarrow y - 1 = C e^x \text{ (where } C = e^{C_1})$$

$$y = 1 + C e^x$$

given $Q_0 = 50^\circ\text{C}$

Newton's Law $\frac{dQ}{dt} = Q_0 - Q$

$$Q_0 = 25 + 10e^t$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dt} = 25 + 10e^t - Q$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dt} + Q = 25 + 10e^t$$

Integrating both sides

$$Q = 400^\circ\text{C}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dQ}{dt} = 25 + 10e^t - 400$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dQ}{dt} = -\frac{3}{2}$$

Now $\frac{dQ}{dt} = 50^\circ\text{C}$ i.e.,

$$Q = 25 + 10e^t - 50 = 25 + 35(4.73)^t$$

Now substituting $t = 2$, $\frac{3}{2}$ in the eqn. (1)

$$Q = 25 + 35 \times \left(\frac{19}{17}\right)^2$$

$$= 50.4220^\circ\text{C}$$

17. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-x}{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow y dy = -x dx$$

$$\int y dy = \int -x dx$$

$$\frac{y^2}{2} = -\frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$x = 1$$

$$y = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) = -\frac{1}{2} + C$$

$$C = 1$$

$$\therefore \text{Substituting } \frac{y^2}{2} = -\frac{x^2}{2} + 1$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2$$

18. (b)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 3x$$

$$\frac{dy}{y} = 3x dx$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int 3x dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln y = \frac{3x^2}{2} + C$$

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

$$\Rightarrow y = e^{\frac{3x^2}{2}} \times e^C \quad (e^C = \text{const.})$$

19. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 3$$

$$y = 3 - y + y = 3$$

$$\therefore \text{Integrating factor}$$

$$y = e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx} = e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx}$$

$$= e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx}$$

$$= e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx}$$

$$\therefore \text{Integrating factor} = e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx}$$

20. (b)

$$x + 3y = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Integrating factor}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

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$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

21. (a)

$$x^2 + y^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

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$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{x}{y^2} dx$$

22. (b)

$$\therefore \text{Integrating factor} = e^{\int (3 - y + y) dx}$$

23. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 3$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 3$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \quad & 2xy \, dy = -2x^2 dx \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \int 2xy \, dy = \int -2x^2 dx \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \frac{2}{2} y^2 = -\frac{2x^3}{2} + C \\ \Rightarrow \quad & xy^2 + x^3 = C \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \left(\frac{1}{2}x \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) = C \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \left(\frac{1}{2}x \right) + \left(\frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) = 1 \end{aligned}$$

∴ It is the equation of a circle of radius 1.

24. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{A.} \quad & \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} \\ & \frac{dy}{y} = \frac{dx}{x} \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \int \frac{dy}{y} = \int \frac{dx}{x} \\ & \log y = \log x + \log c + \log x \\ & y = cx^2 \quad \text{Equation of a parabola.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{B.} \quad & \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} \\ & \frac{dy}{y} = \frac{dx}{x} \Rightarrow \int \frac{dy}{y} = \int \frac{dx}{x} \\ & \log y = \log x + \log c \\ & \log y - \log x = \log c \\ & \log \frac{y}{x} = \log c \\ & \frac{y}{x} = c \quad \text{Equation of a straight line.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C.} \quad & \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x}{y}, \quad dy = x \, dx \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \int y \, dy = \int x \, dx \\ & \frac{y^2}{2} = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{C}{2} \Rightarrow x^2 - y^2 = C \\ & \frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad \text{Equation of a hyperbola.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{D.} \quad & \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} \Rightarrow \int y \, dy = \int x \, dx \\ & \frac{1}{2} \frac{y^2}{1} = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{C}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{y^2}{2} = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{C}{2} \Rightarrow x^2 - y^2 = C \quad \text{Equation of a hyperbola.}$$

25. (a)

Given differential equation is

$$\begin{aligned} & -\frac{dy}{dx} = y + x^2 \\ \Rightarrow \quad & \frac{dy}{dx} + \left(\frac{y}{x} \right) = -x^2 \quad \text{--- (i)} \end{aligned}$$

Standard form of (i) is $dy + P \, dx = Q \, dx$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P \, y = Q \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

where P and Q are functions of x only and dx is given by

$$f(x) = \int Q(x) \, dx + C$$

where, integrating factor $I = e^{\int P \, dx}$.
Here in equation (i),

$$P = \frac{1}{x} \text{ and } Q = -x^2$$

$$I = e^{\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx} = e^{\log x} = x$$

$$\text{So, eq. (i) } \Rightarrow x^2 \, dx = 0$$

$$dx = \frac{dx}{x} = 0$$

given condition

$$f(1) = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$\text{now put } x = 1, y = \frac{b}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{b}{2} + 1 = \frac{1}{b} + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad 0 = \frac{b}{b} - \frac{1}{b} = 1$$

$$\text{Therefore } y = \frac{x^2}{b} + 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad y = \frac{x^2}{b} + \frac{1}{b}$$

26. (a)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4 \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + y^2 = 0$$

Removing the square root

$$\left[\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \right]^2 = 4 \left[\left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 + y^2 \right]$$

27. (a) Second order ordinary linear differential equation

The degree of the highest derivative is 2

27. (a)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2xy^3} = 0 \text{ Find a set } \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] \text{ and take}$$

constant, and the product is $\frac{dy}{dx}$ and
viewed in the following equation

28. (a)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \frac{dy}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{or } = 0$$

$$dx = dy = 0$$

$$(2) \quad 5(15 - 2) = 0$$

$$0 = -3 \text{ or } 0 = 2$$

$$\therefore 5(15 - 2) = 5(15 - 2) + 5(2)$$

28. (b)

$$\text{Given } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 1 = 0 \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$dy = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$(2 - 25 - 2) = 0$$

$$(2 + 1)(2 + 2) = 0$$

$$2 = 2 \text{ or } 2 = 2$$

$$\therefore \text{Solution is } x = 0, 2 \text{ or } 2$$

$$\text{Given } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\text{We have } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2(1 - 2) = 4(1 - 2)$$

$$\text{If we } \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] = 0 \text{ and } y = 0$$

$$2(1 - 2) = 0 \quad \text{or } 2 = 0$$

$$\text{For } y = 0 \text{ and } y = 0 \text{ we have } y = 0 \text{ and } y = 0$$

$$\text{So } y = 0 \text{ and } y = 0 \text{ we have } y = 0 \text{ and } y = 0$$

29. (d)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{or } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Solution is } y = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$y(0) = 0 \text{ or } y(0) = 0$$

$$y(0) = 0 \text{ or } y(0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{The solution is } y = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

31. (d)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\text{or } y = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$y = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

32. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\int dy = \int 0 dx$$

$$y = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

33. (d)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

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$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

$$\text{If we } \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ or } y = 0$$

34. (d)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = x - y(x) = 1$$

This is a linear differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$

$$\text{Let } P = \frac{1}{x} \text{ and } Q = x$$

\Rightarrow Integrating factor

$$= x^{1+1} = x^2 = e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx} = e^{\ln x} = x$$

Solution is

$$y(x) = \int (Q(x)P(x))dx + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \int (x-x)dx + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \int 0 dx + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\text{We've } y(1) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1^2}{2} + \frac{C}{1} = 1 \Rightarrow C = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{So the solution is } y = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{1}{x}$$

35. (d)

$$\text{Given } \frac{dy}{dx} - 2y = 1 \text{ and } y(1) = 2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2y + 1$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int (-2)dy$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln y = -2x + C$$

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

$$y(1) = e^{-2} \cdot e^C = 2 \Rightarrow e^C = 2e^2$$

$$\text{So, } y = \frac{2}{9}e^{-2x} = \frac{2}{9}e^{-2 \ln 3} = \frac{2}{9}e^{\ln 9} = \frac{2}{9} \cdot 9 = 2$$

36. (c)

The given differential equation

$$\left(\frac{dy}{dx} + y \right) = \text{derivative of } y \text{ divided by } \frac{1}{y} \text{ and}$$

we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = 1$$

which is a linear differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

$$\text{Let } P = \frac{1}{x} \text{ and } Q = 1$$

Integrating factor

$$= \int P(x)dx$$

$$= e^{\int \frac{1}{x} dx} = x$$

Factor is

$$y(x) = \int (Q(x)P(x))dx + C$$

$$y(x) = \int (1-x)dx + C$$

$$y(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$x = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{C}{1} = 1$$

$$\text{Put } x = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{C}{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow C = 1$$

$$\text{So } y = \frac{1}{2} \text{ is the solution}$$

37. (d)

In the equation, dependent variable is y and x is independent variable. A general differential equation for homogeneous is order 2.

38. (c)

Given differential equation

$$(D^2 + 2D)y = 0$$

It is linear differential equation with constant coefficient.

\therefore General solution is

$$y = C_1 e^{-x} + C_2$$

It is given by

$$y(0) = 1 \Rightarrow C_1 + C_2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow C_1 = 1 - C_2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\therefore y(1) = C_1 e^{-1} + C_2 e^1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - C_2 = 2 \Rightarrow C_2 = -1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Put } C_2 = -1 \text{ in (1)}$$

$$\text{We get, } C_1 + C_2 = 1 \Rightarrow C_1 = 1 - C_2$$

$$\text{So, } C_1 = 1 \text{ and } C_2 = 0$$

$$y = C_1 + C_2 e^{-x} \quad C_1 = C_2 e^{x^2} \quad 42. (b)$$

$$C_2 = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \quad y = C = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$y = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

43. (d)

$$\sin(\theta/2) = 2$$

$$\theta + \theta^2 = 2$$

$$\therefore \theta = 1 \quad \theta^2 = 1$$

$$\therefore y = C_1 e^x + C_2 e^{-x}$$

$$= A \cos x + B \sin x$$

$$y(0) = 1$$

$$\therefore 1 = A \cos(0) + B \sin(0)$$

$$A = 1$$

$$y' = -A \sin x + B \cos x$$

$$y'(0) = 0$$

$$\therefore 0 = -A \sin(0) + B \cos(0)$$

$$\therefore B = 0$$

$$y(x) = \cos x = \cos x$$

(b) $y = \cos x$

$$y' = -\sin x = -\sin x = 0$$

$$\therefore \sin x = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

$$\therefore y = \cos 0$$

$$y' = -\sin 0 = 0$$

$$\therefore y = \cos 0 = 1$$

$$\therefore \sin 45^\circ = \cos 45^\circ = \cos 45^\circ = \sin 45^\circ$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

44. (d)

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

Integrating factor $= e^{\int \sin x dx}$ and both sides are \times by

$$\sin x \Rightarrow y \sin x + \cos x = \frac{x^2}{\sin x}$$

$$\cos x \Rightarrow y \cos x + \sin x = \frac{x^2}{\cos x}$$

$$\therefore y \cos x = \frac{x^2}{\cos x} + \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

Taking natural log both sides we have

$$\ln y = \ln \left(\frac{x^2}{\cos x} + \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \right)$$

So if we want $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ then both are same that is $\frac{x^2}{\cos x} = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$ or $x^2 = \sin x$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$$

45. (b)

$$z = x + iy$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = 1 + i \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dz}{dx} = 1 + i \cos x$$

$$\therefore \frac{dz}{dx} = 1 + i \cos x = \int dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{2} \int \cos x \left(\frac{z}{2} \right) dx = y + i$$

$$\therefore \ln \left(\frac{z}{2} \right) = y + i$$

$$\therefore \ln \left(\frac{z}{2} \right) = y + i$$

46. (b)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy = 0$$

(c)

$$y = e^{2x^2} = e^{2x^2}$$

Substituting in the differential equation (c)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy = 0$$

(c) The given differential equation is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy = 0$$

$$y = e^{2x^2}$$

47. (a)

General form of linear differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q \text{ where } P \text{ and } Q \text{ are functions of } x.$$

It is of the form $y' + Py = Q$

46. (a)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -\omega^2 x$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dt^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - \omega^2 x = 0$$

$$(\lambda^2 + \omega^2)x = 0$$

Auxiliary equation is $\lambda^2 + \omega^2 = 0 \Rightarrow$

$$\lambda = \pm i\omega$$

$$x = C_1 \cos \omega t + C_2 \sin \omega t \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$y(t) = -\frac{1}{\omega} x + c \Rightarrow y = -\frac{1}{\omega} x + c$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{\omega} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\omega C_1 \sin \omega t + \omega C_2 \cos \omega t \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

$$y(0) = -\frac{1}{\omega} x(0) + c \Rightarrow y = 0 \Rightarrow c = \frac{1}{\omega} x$$

$$= \frac{30}{\omega} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\omega} C_2 = \frac{1}{\omega}$$

$$\therefore C_2 = 30 \Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{\omega} (1 - \cos \omega t)$$

47. (a)

Given differential equation is homogeneous

$$x'' + 11x' + 10x = 0$$

Its solution is

$$x'' + 11x' + 10x = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda^2 + 11\lambda + 10 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = -1, -10$$

$$x_1(t) = C_1 e^{-t}$$

$$x_2(t) = C_2 e^{-10t}$$

$$\therefore x(t) = C_1 e^{-t} + C_2 e^{-10t}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(0) = \cos t \Rightarrow \text{Apply } \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} = 0$$

$$x'(t) = 0 = -C_1 \sin(t) - 10C_2 \sin(10t) \quad \text{--- (i) } C_1 = 0, C_2 = 0$$

$$\frac{dx_2(t)}{dt} = C_2 \cos t$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dx_2(t)}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} = C_2 = 1$$

$$\therefore x(t) = e^{-10t}$$

$$W(t) = \begin{vmatrix} x_1(t) & x_2(t) \\ x_1'(t) & x_2'(t) \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= e^{-t} - 10e^{-10t}$$

$$|W(t)| = 9e^{-10t}$$

$$W(t) = \cos^{-1}(1 - e^{-9t})$$

48. (a)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 16x = \frac{dx}{dt} + 2 \Rightarrow x = 2$$

The characteristic equation is given by

$$\lambda^2 + 16 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 4i$$

$$x_1, x_2 = \frac{-0 \pm \sqrt{0 - 4(16)}}{2}$$

Since λ_1 and λ_2 are complex

$$x_1 = \lambda_2$$

$$\frac{-0 \pm \sqrt{0 - 4(16)}}{2} = \frac{-0 \pm \sqrt{0 - 64}}{2}$$

$$(4i)^2 + 16 = 0 \Rightarrow 16i^2 + 16 = 0$$

$$\sqrt{16i^2 + 16} = 0$$

$$4i^2 + 4 = 0$$

$$-4 + 4 = 0$$

$$0 = 0$$

49. (a)

Given differential equation is given as

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\lambda \frac{dx}{dt} + \lambda^2 x = 0$$

$$\lambda = 0, \infty \Rightarrow 0$$

Since $\lambda = 0$ is RHS term $\lambda^2 x = 0$ is zero and hence we can't find it

$$\therefore \lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 = 0$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{dx}{dt} = 0$$

$$\text{So, } (\lambda^2 + 2\lambda + 1)x = 0$$

$$\therefore (\lambda + 1)^2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \lambda = -2e^{-t} + 1 \cos t$$

50. (a)

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \lambda \frac{dx}{dt} + x = 0$$

$$\text{Let } x = e^{\lambda t} \Rightarrow \lambda^2 + \lambda + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} = \lambda \Rightarrow 0 = \frac{d}{dt}$$

$$\sqrt{\lambda^2 + \lambda + 1} = 0$$

$$(\lambda + 1)^2 + 3 = 0$$

$$|64 - 1 - 3 = 62| = 0$$

$$64 - 3 = 61 \Rightarrow 61 = 0$$

$$64 - 1 = 63 \Rightarrow 0$$

$$\lambda = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 = -1$$

$$C_1 > 0 \Rightarrow 1 < 0, \text{ if}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Soln (a) } y &= C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 e^{-2x} \\ &= C_1 e^{2x} - C_2 e^{-2x} \\ &= C_1 \frac{e^x}{e^{-x}} - C_2 \frac{e^x}{e^x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Case independent of } x \Rightarrow \frac{1}{e^{-x}} = \frac{1}{e^x}$$

$$\text{Another independent of } x \Rightarrow x = y$$

51. (c)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -5x$$

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int -5x dx$$

$$\ln y = -\frac{5x^2}{2} + C$$

$$\text{At } x = 0, y = 2$$

$$y = 2$$

$$\ln 2 = C$$

$$\text{So, } \ln y = -\frac{5x^2}{2} + \ln 2$$

$$y^{\frac{1}{2}} = e^{-\frac{5x^2}{2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{y} = e^{-5x^2}$$

$$y = e^{5x^2}$$

$$\text{At } x = 3, y = 2 \times 2$$

$$y = 2 \times 2$$

52. (c)

$$\text{At } x = 0, y = 1 \times \frac{2}{1} = 2, \text{ at } x = 1, y = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2}{x} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2}{x} \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{4}{x}$$

$$\text{Let } y = u^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 2u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$2u \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{4}{x} \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{2}{xu}$$

$$\text{At } x = 1, y = 1 \Rightarrow u = 1$$

$$\frac{du}{u} = \frac{2}{x} \Rightarrow \ln u = 2 \ln x$$

$$u = \frac{2x}{x} = 2x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x \Rightarrow y = x^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \Rightarrow y = \ln x + C$$

Integrating both sides,

$$\ln y = \ln x + C \Rightarrow y = x e^C$$

$$y = \frac{e^{2000x}}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 1000 \frac{y}{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow xy \times \frac{dy}{y} = 1000 dx$$

53. Sol.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -12x^2 - 24x - 36$$

Integrating w.r.t. x we get,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -12x^2 - 24x - 36$$

Integrating both sides we get,

$$y = -12 \times \frac{x^3}{3} - 24 \times \frac{x^2}{2} - 36 \times x + C_1$$

$$\text{At } x = 0, y = 5$$

$$\Rightarrow C_1 = 5$$

$$\text{At } x = 5, y = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 = -10 - 60 - 180 + C_1 + C_2$$

$$2 \times 5 = 2 + 6 - 2 - 10 + C_2$$

$$C_2 = 10$$

$$y = 10$$

$$\Rightarrow y = -x^3 - 12x^2 - 36x + 10$$

$$\text{At } x = 1$$

$$y = -1 - 12 - 36 + 10 = -39$$

54. Sol.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy$$

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

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

$$\ln y = x^2 + C_1$$

$$\text{At } x = 0, y = 1.05$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{1}{y} \right) = -x^2$$

$$\frac{1}{y} = e^{-x^2}$$

$$y = e^{x^2} \quad \text{---(1)}$$

$$\text{At } x = 2, y = 1.05 \Rightarrow 1.05 = e^{4}$$

$$10 = e^{4 \times 2.303}$$

$$10 = 10.2303$$

$$C = 1.05$$

$$y = (1.05) e^{x^2} \quad \text{---(2)}$$

$$\text{At } x = 1$$

$$y = 1.05 \times 10^{0.4605} = 1.052$$

55. (c)

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{y}{x} \\ \frac{dy}{y} &= \frac{dx}{x} \\ \ln y &= \ln x + \ln C \\ \ln y &= \ln Cx \\ y &= Cx\end{aligned}$$

56. Sol.

$$\begin{aligned}2x + y^2 + 4 &= 0 \\ y^2 &= -2x - 4 \\ y &= \pm \sqrt{-2x - 4}\end{aligned}$$

Given, $y(0) = 2$

$$\Rightarrow y = \sqrt{-2x - 4}$$

$$y' = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{-2x - 4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{-2x - 4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow dx = -\sqrt{-2x - 4} dy$$

Now solving this differential equation

$$dx = -\sqrt{-2x - 4} dy$$

$$dx = -\sqrt{-2x - 4} dy$$

Substituting $z = -2x - 4$

$$dz = -2 dx$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{dz}{2} = -\sqrt{z} dy$$

$$\frac{dz}{\sqrt{z}} = -2 dy$$

$$2\sqrt{z} = -2y + C$$

$$\sqrt{z} = -y + C$$

57. (c)

$$x^2 + 2y + 1 = 0$$

$$y = -\frac{x^2 + 1}{2}$$

$$y' = -x$$

$$y'' = -1$$

$$y''' = 0$$

Therefore, $C = 1$, $C_1 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow y' = -x + C_1$$

58. Sol.

$$x^2 + 3y + 2 = 0$$

$$y = -\frac{x^2 + 2}{3}$$

$$y' = -\frac{2x}{3}$$

$$y'' = -\frac{2}{3}$$

$$C_1 + C_2 = 0$$

$$C = C_2 = 0$$

$$\text{Therefore } C = \frac{1(2+2)}{2+2} = C_2 = \frac{2(2)}{2+2}$$

$$y' = \left(\frac{2x}{2+2} \right) = \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) x$$

59. (c)

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y} = \frac{dx}{x}$$

$$\ln y = \ln x + \ln C$$

$$y = Cx$$

$$y = C_1 e^{1/C_2}$$

$$y = C_1 e^{1/C_2}$$

Given, $y(0) = 1$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = C_1 e^{1/C_2}$$

$$C_1 = C_2$$

Also, curve passes through the point

$$(1, 1) = C_1 e^{1/C_2} = C_1 e^{1/C_1}$$

$$\frac{1}{1} = C_1 e^{1/C_1}$$

$$1 = C_1 e^{1/C_1}$$

Therefore, $C_1 = 1$, $C_2 = 1$

$$\Rightarrow y = 1 \cdot e^{1/1} = e$$

$$\Rightarrow y = e$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 1.5(x - 0.7)$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 1.5(x - 0.7)$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 1.5(x - 0.7)$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 1.5(x - 0.7)$$

60. (c)

Auxiliary equation

$$m^2 + 2m + 3 = 0$$

$$m = -1 \pm i\sqrt{2}$$

$$y = (C_1 + iC_2)e^{-x}$$

$$y' = -y$$

$$y = 1$$

$$y = 1 + iC_2e^{-x}$$

$$y' = -y$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 + iC_2)e^{-x} = -y$$

$$y = 0$$

$$y = 1 + iC_2e^{-x}$$

$$y' = -y$$

61. (a)

Differential equation

$$y''(1 + 2xy') + y(1) = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } (1 + 2xy') \frac{dy}{dx} + y(1) = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{So } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-y(1 + 2xy')}{(1 + 2xy')^2}$$

$$\text{Separating, } y(1 + 2xy') = 0$$

$$\text{So } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-y}{(1 + 2xy')}$$

$$\text{So } dx = -\frac{dy}{1 + 2xy'}$$

62. Sol.

$$\text{A.P. } u_1 = 4m + 1, u_2 = 0$$

$$u = 1, 2$$

$$r = (u_2 - u_1)e^{1/n}$$

$$r(1) = 0 = u_2 = 0$$

$$\therefore C_2 = 2^4$$

$$r = C_2 e^{2/n} + 2C_1 e^{2/n}$$

$$r(1) = 1$$

$$C_2 = 1$$

$$r = 1e^{2/n}$$

$$r(1) = 1e^{2/2} = 2$$

63. (a)

$$x^2 = 12, y = 12x^2 = 6$$

$$y(1) = 6, y' = 12x$$

$$D = 1, 2$$

$$r = (u_2 - u_1)e^{1/n}$$

$$r = (12 - 6)e^{1/2} = 6e^{1/2}$$

$$r(1) = 12 = u_2 = 6$$

$$C_2 = 1$$

$$r = 12e^{1/2} + C_1 e^{1/2} = 6e^{1/2}$$

$$r(1) = 36$$

$$36 = 6e^{1/2} + C_1$$

$$-36 = -12 = C_1$$

$$C_2 = 18$$

$$\therefore r = 6e^{1/2} + 18e^{1/2} = 24e^{1/2}$$

$$r = (24e^{1/2})e^{1/2}$$

64. Sol.

$$17x^2 + 2xy = 0$$

$$x^2 + 2 = 0$$

$$u = 1, 2$$

$$r = (u_2 - u_1)e^{1/n} = 2e^{1/2}$$

$$u = 0$$

$$r = 2e^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{1}{17x^2} = \frac{2}{17e^{1/2}}$$

$$x^2 = \frac{2e^{1/2}}{17e^{1/2}} = \frac{2e^{1/2}}{17}$$

$$C_2 = 1, 2$$

$$\therefore y = 2e^{1/2} = 2$$

$$\frac{1}{17x^2} = \frac{2e^{1/2}}{17e^{1/2}} = \frac{2}{17} = 1$$

65. (a)

$$\text{D.E. is } (x^2 - 2y^2) \frac{dy}{dx} - 3x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$x^2 = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

$$= 16(16 - 3) = 15$$

$$= 16(16 - 3) = 15$$

$$= 16(16 - 3) = 15$$

$$\text{So } H = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2y^2} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2 + 2y^2} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) = \frac{dy}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + 2y^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{35}{2x^2} \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + 2y^2} \right) = \frac{35}{2x^2} \left(\frac{1}{x^2 + 2y^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{35}{x^2} - \frac{3}{y} \right) \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$= 35 \left(\frac{1}{2x^2} - \frac{3}{2y} \right) = 35 \left(\frac{1}{2x^2} - \frac{3}{2y} \right)$$

66. (94.08)

The differential equation is $(3y''/y)' = 2/(y+1)$

The auxiliary equation is

$$2m^2 - 2 = 0$$

$$m^2 + 1 = 0$$

$$m = \pm i$$

So the general solution is $y = C_1 e^{ix} + C_2 e^{-ix}$ given $\log y(0) = 1$

$$\therefore \log y = 1$$

$$y = 10e^{1/2}$$

$$y(0) = 10e^{1/2}$$

$$10e^{1/2} = C_1 + C_2$$

$$C_1 = 10e^{1/2}$$

$$C_2 = 0$$

$$\therefore y = 10e^{1/2} e^{ix} = 10e^{1/2} e^{ix}$$

$$\text{where } x = 10e^{1/2} \log y = 10e^{1/2} \log y$$

4

Complex Functions

4.1 Introduction

Many engineering problems may be treated and solved by the methods involving real numbers and complex numbers. There are two kinds of real and plane. The first is the complex algebraic equations, in which some equations involve complex numbers as coefficient. This includes many applications to electrical circuits or mechanical vibrating systems.

The second kind consists of more advanced problems formulated in accordance with the theory of complex algebraic functions—complex function theory or complex analysis. For short, we will be concerned with the second kind, presenting a basic minimum description of the theory and results in accordance with the category.

Complex analysis has importance in many engineering disciplines. For example, in the field of electrical engineering, the following are methods:

1. The solution of many problems in analytic functions are with the aid of the basic concepts of real independent variables. For example, two dimensional electrostatic field problems can be treated by the use of conformal mappings and analytic functions.
2. Most physical problems in engineering and sciences are analyzed in terms of z and \bar{z} and then usually the unknowns are solved in terms of z by making use of power series and the theory of Taylor series and Laurent series. Complex integration can be the powerful tool in calculating complex-valued integrals and integrals of real functions.

4.2 Complex Functions

Let us say z is a complex variable $z = x + jy$ in a given region R , we have one or more values of w in R such that we obtain some complex function of z denoted with $w = f(z)$, $f(x, y)$, $f(x + jy, y)$. (where x and y are real numbers of z only).

For each value of z there are one or more values of w that we obtain in R a single-valued function of z (there was a multi-valued function). For example, the multi-valued function $w = \sqrt{z}$ is a multi-valued function of z . For example, a single-valued point of z is $z = 1$ and the value of $w = \sqrt{z}$ has two values $\sqrt{1} = \pm 1$ which corresponds to $z = 1$.

4.2.1 Exponential Function of a Complex Variable

When we consider a real variable x with the exponential function

$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

Similarly, we define a complex variable function of a complex variable $z = x + jy$ as

$$\text{and } e^{z^2} = 1 + \frac{z}{1!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} + \dots \quad (4.1)$$

For $z = x + jy$ we get $z^2 = x^2 - y^2 + 2jxy$

$$e^{z^2} = 1 + \frac{x^2 - y^2 + 2jxy}{1!} + \frac{(x^2 - y^2 + 2jxy)^2}{2!} + \frac{(x^2 - y^2 + 2jxy)^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{2} + \frac{r^4}{4} - \dots\right) \left(\frac{1}{r} + \frac{r^3}{3} - \frac{r^5}{5} + \dots\right)$$

$$= 0.595 - 0.517$$

Thus $e^{\pi} = e^{-\pi} = e^{\pi}(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi)$

Also $e + i\pi = e(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi) = -e$

\therefore Exponential of $i(\pi + 2\pi n) = e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta$

4.2.2 Circular Function of a Complex Variable

Def. 1 $e^{iz} = \cos z + i \sin z$

Def. 2 $e^{-iz} = \cos z - i \sin z$

\therefore Circular functions of real angle z can be written as

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \text{ And vice versa.}$$

For the sake of convenience, we will use functions of imaginary variable z in the form

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} \text{ And } z = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

with cosine z as x and y as their respective products.

Cor. 1. Euler's Theorem. By definition

$$e^{iz} + e^{-iz} = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2} + \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i} = e^{iz} \quad \text{where } z = i = iy$$

Also we know that $e^{iz} = \cos y + i \sin y$ where y is real

Thus $e^{iz} = \cos 0 + i \sin 0$, where 0 is real number. This is called Euler's formula.

Cor. 2. De Moivre's theorem for complex numbers.

Whether z is real or complex, we have

$$(e^{iz})^n = (e^{iz})^n = (e^{iz})^n = e^{inz} = \cos nz + i \sin nz$$

Thus De Moivre's theorem is also valid for (complex angles).

4.2.3 Hyperbolic Functions

Def. 1. A bi-valued function,

(a) $\frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}$ is defined as hyperbolic sine and written as $\sinh z$

(b) $\frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$ is defined as hyperbolic cosine and written as $\cosh z$.

$$\text{Thus,} \quad \sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2} \text{ and } \cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$$

$$\text{Consequently} \quad \sinh z = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z} = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}, \cosh z = \frac{1}{\sinh z} = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{e^z - e^{-z}}$$

$$\sinh z = \frac{1}{\cosh z} = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}, \cosh z = \frac{1}{\sinh z} = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{e^z - e^{-z}}$$

Get, $\sinh 0 = 0$, $\cosh 0 = 1$ and $\sinh \pi = 0$

2. Def. 1. z is a between hyperbolic and circular functions

$$\text{3. Get for all real } x \neq 0, \sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \text{ and } \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$z = \cosh w = \frac{e^w + e^{-w}}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sinh w &= \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{2i} = \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{2i} \quad [e^{i\pi} = e^{-i\pi} = -1] \\ &= \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{2i} = i \frac{e^{iw} - e^{-iw}}{2} = i \sinh w.\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{If } w = i\pi, \quad \cosh w = \frac{e^{i\pi} + e^{-i\pi}}{2} = \frac{-1 + (-1)}{2} = -1$$

$$\text{Then,} \quad \sinh w = i \sinh \pi \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\cosh \pi = \cosh w \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Then,} \quad \sinh \pi = \sinh w \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{Con,} \quad \sinh \pi = i \sinh w \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\cosh \pi = \cosh w \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$\sinh \pi = i \sinh w \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

4.2.4 Inverse Hyperbolic Functions

Let $\cosh w = z$, then w is called the hyperbolic arc cosine of z or $\cosh^{-1} z$. Similarly we define $\sinh^{-1} z$, $\tanh^{-1} z$, etc.

The inverse hyperbolic functions and their principal values are given and, but we shall not discuss them properly here.

4.2.5 Logarithmic Function of a Complex Variable

- Let $z = x + iy$ and $w = u + iv$ be a value of z and w respectively. Let $z = e^w$ be a value of z and w respectively. Let $z = e^w$ be a value of z and w respectively.

$$\text{Let } z = e^w \quad \text{--- (1)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (14)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (15)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (16)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (17)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (18)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (19)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (20)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (21)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (22)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (23)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (24)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (25)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (26)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (27)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (28)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (29)}$$

$$\log z = u + iv \quad \text{--- (30)}$$

(c) Two and imaginary part of $f(z) = f(x + iy)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(z) &= f(x + iy) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y) \quad \left| \begin{aligned} f'(z) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} u + i \frac{\partial}{\partial x} v \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) \frac{dz}{dz} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) \end{aligned} \right. \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z)
 \end{aligned}$$

where $A = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(z)$ and $B = \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} (u + i v) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} f(z)$

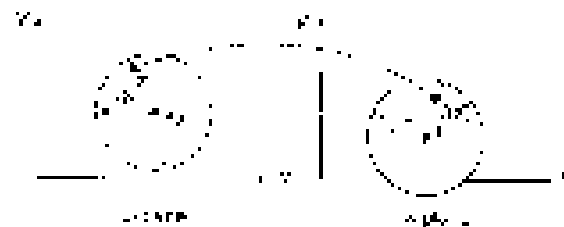
4.3 Limit of a Complex Function

A function $w = f(z)$ is said to tend to limit A as z approaches z_0 if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for every z satisfying $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$, $|f(z) - A| < \epsilon$.

$$|f(z) - A| < \epsilon \quad \text{for } 0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$$

For every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that for every z satisfying $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$, $|f(z) - A| < \epsilon$. In symbols, we write $\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = A$.

The definition of limit though an abstract one, is very useful in many cases. It is a useful tool in many cases, especially in the study of the properties of functions of a complex variable.



Continuity of $f(z)$. A function $w = f(z)$ is said to be continuous at $z = z_0$ if

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} f(z) = f(z_0)$$

where $f(z_0)$ is the value of $f(z)$ at $z = z_0$. If $f(z)$ is continuous at every point of the domain, it is said to be continuous in the domain.

A function $w = f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ is said to be continuous at $z = z_0 = x_0 + i y_0$ if $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are also continuous at $z = z_0$, i.e., $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0, y \rightarrow y_0} u(x, y) = u(x_0, y_0)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0, y \rightarrow y_0} v(x, y) = v(x_0, y_0)$. Then $f(z)$ is said to be continuous at $z = z_0$.

4.4 Singularity

A point at which a function $f(z)$ is not analytic is called a singular point or singularity point. Example: $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$.

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z} \quad \text{is not analytic at } z = 0 \quad \text{as } \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{z} = \infty$$

4.4.1 Isolated Singular Point

$z = z_0$ is a singularity of $f(z)$ if there is no other singularity in a small circle around z_0 (i.e., $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$). Then z_0 is called an isolated singularity of $f(z)$. Example: $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ has an isolated singularity at $z = 0$.

Let us consider the function $f(z) = \frac{1}{(z^2 - 3)}$, we have a double singularity at $z = \pm \sqrt{3}$.

$$\text{The Laurent series } \frac{1}{z^2 - 3} = \frac{1}{z^2} \left(1 + \frac{3}{z^2} + \frac{9}{z^4} + \dots \right) = \frac{1}{z^2} \left[1 + \frac{3}{z^2} + \dots \right]$$

Here $z = 0$ is a removable singularity.

4.4.2 Essential Singularity

Let $f(z)$ be the function having pole $z = a$ of order m , then

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{(z-a)^m} \left(a_0 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2 + \dots \right) = \frac{1}{(z-a)^m} \left(\frac{1}{z-a} + \frac{1}{(z-a)^2} + \dots \right)$$

If m is finite, we can expand the function in a power series and observe no essential singularity.

4.4.3 Removable Singularity

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-a)^n$$

$$= a_0 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2 + \dots$$

4.4.4. The coefficients of negative powers are zero. Hence $z = a$ is not a removable singularity. It can be made analytic by modifying the function $f(z)$ to $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z)$ as a .

$$\text{Example: } f(z) = \frac{8(z^2 - 2)}{(z - 2)} \text{ has a removable singularity at } z = 2$$

4.4.4 Steps to Find Singularity

Step-I: If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z)$ exists and is finite then $z = a$ is a removable singularity.

Step-II: If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z)$ does not exist, then $z = a$ is an essential singularity.

Step-3: If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z)$ is infinite, then $z = a$ is a pole. If $\lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \infty$, then the order of the pole is same as the number of negative power terms in the Laurent expansion of $f(z)$.

4.5 Derivative of $f(z)$

Let $w = f(z)$ be a single valued function of z where $z = x + iy$. Then, the derivative $\frac{dw}{dz}$ is defined to be

$$\frac{dw}{dz} = \frac{dw}{d(x+iy)} = \frac{1}{2i} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$



a series of infinitesimal and mutually perpendicular differential elements, which are represented here.

Suppose that a field $Q(x, y, z)$ is independent of z (Figure shown). The continuity equation for a steady flow along a curved path in the given region is, as mentioned before, a balance between a discharge q per unit thickness δx and a discharge $q + \delta q$ per unit thickness $\delta x + \delta x$ at the other end of the element. The latter is given by the following theorem.

Theorem: The necessary and sufficient condition for a scalar function $\phi = \phi(x, y, z)$ to be a field value Q in a region R is—

$$1. \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = Q, \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 0 \quad \text{throughout } R, \text{ if } Q \text{ and } \phi \text{ in } R$$

$$2. \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2}, \quad \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x \partial y}$$

Then the only field value Q satisfying the conditions is a field Q that is a scalar.

4.6 Analytic Functions

4.6.1 Analytic Functions

A function $f(z)$ which is single-valued and possesses a unique derivative with respect to z at all points of a region R is called an analytic or regular function in that region.

A point z_0 at which an analytic function $f(z)$ exists is called a derivative at that z_0 given point of the function.

Thus, if we have a complex-valued function $f(z)$ of a complex variable z , then $f(z)$ is analytic at a point z_0 if it has a unique derivative at that point. Then the Cauchy-Riemann equations

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad (1)$$

are satisfied as necessary conditions for the scalar function $f(z) = u + jv$ to be a solution in the complex field of a vector, where by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial z} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - j \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + j \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + j \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) = f_1 + j f_2 \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

The real and imaginary parts of an analytic function are called conjugate functions. The relation between conjugate functions is given by the Cauchy-Riemann equations.

Cauchy-Riemann Equations in Polar form

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} &= -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial v}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial \theta} &= r \frac{\partial v}{\partial r} \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.

$$f(z) = z^2 \text{ is analytic.}$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \quad & z = x + iy \\ \Rightarrow \quad & z^2 = (x + iy)^2 = x^2 - y^2 + 2ixy = u + iv \\ \Rightarrow \quad & u = x^2 - y^2 \text{ and } v = 2xy \\ \Rightarrow \quad & u_x = 2x, \quad u_y = -2y, \quad v_x = 2y, \quad v_y = 2x \\ \Rightarrow \quad & u_x = v_y \text{ and } u_y = -v_x \end{aligned}$$

∴ $f(z) = z^2$ is analytic because the partial derivatives are continuous and $f'(z)$ exists. Hence $f(z)$ is analytic every z .

Example 2.

If $w = \log z$, find the partial derivatives of the real and imaginary.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } w &= u + iv = \log(x + iy) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log(x^2 + y^2) + i \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \\ \text{∴ } u &= \frac{1}{2} \log(x^2 + y^2), \quad v = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

Since the Cauchy-Riemann equations are satisfied for $z \neq 0$, the function is analytic everywhere except at $z = 0$. Hence u is a harmonic function and $\nabla^2 u = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} &= -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \\ &= -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} = -\frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} = -\frac{xy}{(x + iy)(x - iy)} \\ &= -\frac{y}{x - iy} = \frac{1}{x + iy} = \frac{1}{z} \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

∴ The set of values has derivative of a function of complex variable is identical to that of the derivative of a function of real variable. Hence the usual differentiation for complex functions is the same as for real variables. Thus if a complex function is once known to be analytic, it can be differentiated just as if it were a real function.

4.3.2 Harmonic Functions

Any function which satisfies Laplace equation is known as harmonic function.

If $u(x, y)$ is a scalar field then u is called a harmonic function.

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0 \qquad \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Differentiating with x

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2}$$

Similarly, we get,

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

Therefore, $u(x, y)$ and $v(x, y)$ are harmonic functions.

4.0.3 Orthogonal Curves

Two curves are said to be orthogonal if at every point where they intersect, the tangents at each of their point of intersection are perpendicular.

If the polar coordinates (r, θ) of points in a field, the curves are also perpendicular.

If we analytically represent $f(x) = c$ and $g(y) = c$ as two families of curves, then $f(x) = c_1$ and $g(y) = c_2$ which form an orthogonal pair

$$f(x, y) = c_1$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial f / \partial y}{\partial f / \partial x} = -m_1 \quad (597)$$

$$-m_1 \cdot m_2 = -1$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot m_2 = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \cdot (-1) = -1$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = - \frac{\partial f / \partial y}{\partial f / \partial x} = -m_2 \quad (598)$$

So orthogonal if $m_1 \cdot m_2 = - \left(\frac{\partial f / \partial y}{\partial f / \partial x} \right) \times \left(\frac{\partial f / \partial x}{\partial f / \partial y} \right)$

which is the form of a negative function

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f / \partial y}{\partial f / \partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

which $m_1 \cdot m_2 = -1$

\Rightarrow This means if $f(x) = c_1$ and $g(y) = c_2$ are orthogonal.

4.7 Complex Integration

4.7.1 Line integral in the complex plane

As we observe we distinguish between definite integrals and indefinite integrals in a conventional way. In definite integrals we have definite limits and we evaluate the area under the curve. But in an indefinite integral we have no definite limits and we only find the function.

$$\int_a^b f(z) dz = F(b) - F(a) \quad \text{[Theorem 2]} \quad \text{[Theorem 1]}$$

Theorem 1: (Indefinite Integration of analytic functions)

Let $f(z)$ be analytic in a simply connected domain D . As z varies in D , $f(z)$ takes simple connected paths since D is simply connected. We define a function $F(z)$ in D as follows: Let z_0 be any point in D . Then the integral $\int_{z_0}^z f(z) dz$ in the domain D is unique, and any two values $F(z_1)$ and $F(z_2)$ of $F(z)$ at $F(z_1) = \int_{z_0}^{z_1} f(z) dz$ and $F(z_2) = \int_{z_0}^{z_2} f(z) dz$ differ by a constant.

$$\text{or,} \quad \frac{d}{dz} \int_{z_0}^z f(z) dz = f(z) \quad \text{[Theorem 1]} \quad \text{[Theorem 2]}$$

(The above theorem is the z -analogue of Theorem 1.1, since we can take z as a real variable x .)

This theorem will be a basis for the next section.

Simply connectedness is a key essential in Theorem 1, as we shall see in Example 1. Since analytic functions are differentiable everywhere, and since differentiable functions are path independent, finding $F(z)$ for a given $f(z) = f(x + iy)$ by the present method is straightforward.

If $f(z)$ is analytic in a domain D , then $f(z)$ is analytic in D (which is a simply connected domain).

Example 1. $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} (1 - 0) = \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3}$

Example 2. $\int_0^1 \cos x dx = \sin x \Big|_0^1 = \sin 1 - \sin 0 = \sin 1 = 0.8415$

Example 3. $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{3} (1 - 0) = \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3}$

Since $f(z)$ is analytic in D , we have

4.3.4 Second Method: Use of a Representation of the Path

Let $f(z)$ be analytic in a domain D in the z -plane, except for any point z_0 in D .

Theorem 2: (Integration by the use of the path)

Let C be a curve in the z -plane, represented by $z = \gamma(t)$, where $a \leq t \leq b$, $\gamma(t)$ is a continuous function of t . Then

$$\int_C f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \gamma'(t) dt \quad \text{[Theorem 2]} \quad \text{[Theorem 1]}$$

Proof: Let $w = f(z)$ be a function in the w -plane. Then $w = f(z) = f(\gamma(t)) = f(x + iy) = u + iv$. Now, $dz = dx + i dy$. So, $f(z) dz = (u + iv)(dx + i dy) = (u dx - v dy) + i(v dx + u dy)$.

So, $\int_C f(z) dz = \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy) = \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy) = \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy)$.

So, according to (5),

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy) &= \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy) \\ &= \int_a^b (u dx - v dy) + i \int_a^b (v dx + u dy) \end{aligned}$$

Steps in applying Theorem 2

1. Represent the path C in the form $z(t), a \leq t \leq b$.
2. Calculate the derivative $z'(t) = dz/dt$.
3. Substitute $z(t)$ for every z in the integrand $f(z)$ to obtain $f(z(t))$.
4. Integrate $f(z(t))z'(t)$ over from a to b .

Example 1: A basic result: Integral of $f(z) = z$ and the left-hand rule

We do a change of path along the unit circle, clockwise, and use Theorem 2 to find the value of $\int_{\gamma} z dz$ for γ as in Fig. 1.10.

$$\text{Ans:} \quad \int_{\gamma} z dz = -\pi i \quad \text{if } \gamma \text{ is the unit circle, clockwise.} \quad (1.10.1)$$

This is a very important result that we shall need below.

Solution: We may represent the circle as $z(t) = e^{it}$ in the form

$$z(t) = \cos t + i \sin t = e^{it} \quad (1.10.2)$$

with $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ (the clockwise direction corresponds to t decreasing from 2π to 0). By differentiation,

$z'(t) = dz/dt = i e^{it} = i z(t)$, so $z'(t) = i z(t)$ and (1.10.1) becomes

$$\int_{\gamma} \frac{z}{z} dz = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{it} i e^{it} dt = i \int_0^{2\pi} e^{2it} dt = -\pi i$$

Q.E.D. (or just by using $z(t) = \cos t + i \sin t$).

Simple connectedness is essential in Theorem 1. Consider (1.10.1) if γ is a circle (or any closed loop) γ with $z_1 = z_0$ and $\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 0$ (say $f(z) = z$ or $f(z) = 1/z$). For any simple closed loop γ in a domain D in the complex plane, $z = 0$ or the Theorem 1 does not apply. It may be enough to take a circle γ in an annulus $\{z : r_1 < |z| < r_2\}$, $0 < r_1 < r_2 < \infty$. Then γ is not simply connected.

Example 2: Integral of integer powers

Let $f(z) = z^n$, where n is an integer $\neq -1$, $z_0 = 0$ is a point. Find the contour γ as in Fig. 1.10.1 and find the integral over γ of $f(z)$ (Fig. 1.10.2).

Solution: We may represent γ in the form

$$z(t) = z_0 + \rho e^{it} \quad \text{if } t \in [0, 2\pi] \quad \text{if } z_0 \neq 0$$

For $z_0 = 0$

$$z(t) = z_0 + \rho e^{it} = \rho e^{it} \quad \text{if } z_0 = 0 \quad \text{if } z_0 \neq 0$$

and so for

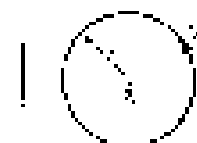
$$\int_{\gamma} z^n dz = \int_0^{2\pi} \rho^n e^{in t} \rho e^{it} dt = \rho^{n+1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(n+1)t} dt$$

By the Fundamental Theorem, this equals

$$\rho^{n+1} \left[\frac{1}{i(n+1)} e^{i(n+1)t} \right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{\rho^{n+1}}{i(n+1)} \left[e^{i(n+1)2\pi} - e^{i(n+1)0} \right]$$

But $e^{i2\pi} = 1$

If $n \neq -1$, we have $e^{i2\pi(n+1)} = 1$ and $i(n+1) \neq 0$. We have zero and the integral must be zero. The key integral is zero. Because we integrate around γ a whole 2π equal to i (added once around γ in the counterclockwise direction).



$$(7) \quad \oint_C (z - z_0) \sqrt{z} dz = \frac{12\pi}{1} \quad \begin{matrix} (z_0 = 0) \\ (C) = \text{circle of radius } 1 \end{matrix}$$

Dependence on path becomes very important. How to integrate a given function $f(z)$ from a point z_0 to a point z_1 along a curve. The integral in general involves a path which is a curve in a complex plane. The integral depends not only on the endpoints of the path but in general also on the path itself. For an example,

Example 3. Integral of a non-analytic function. Dependence on path

Integrate $f(z) = \bar{z}z$ ($z = x + iy$) from 1 to $2i$:

(a) Along C_1 in Fig. below;

(b) along C_2 consisting of C_1 and C_3 .

Solution:

(a) $\bar{z}z$ can be represented by $f(z) = 1 + 2i\bar{z}$ along C_1 since $2i(1) = 2i$ and $1(2i) = 2i$. Given a solution

$$\int_C \bar{z}z dz = \int_C (1 + 2i\bar{z}) dz = \frac{1}{2}z^2 + 2i \int_C \bar{z} dz = \frac{1}{2}(2i)^2 + 2i \int_C \bar{z} dz$$

(b) Along C_2 we have

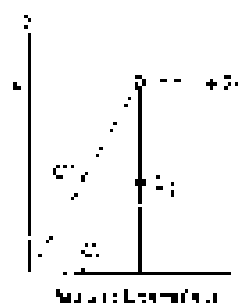
$$C_1: z(t) = t, \quad \bar{z}(t) = 1, \quad 1 \leq t \leq 1 + i(t) = i(t) = i, \quad (0 \leq t \leq 1)$$

$$C_2: z(t) = 1 + it, \quad \bar{z}(t) = 1 - i(t), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1, \quad (1 \leq z \leq 2i)$$

We take $dz = i dt$ (along the path C_2), we can write C_1 and C_2 as follows:

$$\int_C \bar{z}z dz = \int_{C_1} \bar{z}z dz + \int_{C_2} \bar{z}z dz = \int_0^1 (1) dt + \int_0^1 (1 - it)(i) dt = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}i$$

Note that this result differs from the result in (a).



4.8 Cauchy's Theorem

If $f(z)$ is an analytic function and C is a continuous closed oriented (i.e. clockwise or anticlockwise C) then $\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$

Writing $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ and noting that $dz = dx + i dy$

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = \oint_C (u dx - v dy) + i \oint_C (v dx + u dy) \quad (4.1)$$

Since $f(z)$ is analytic, therefore, $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$ and $\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$ are also continuous. The required result is proved.

Cauchy's Theorem can be extended to (i) giving

$$\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right] dz dz = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z} \right] dz dz \quad (1)$$

Now $\frac{\partial u}{\partial \bar{z}}$ is analytic and necessarily zero by Cauchy-Riemann equations. Hence the integral of the two-variable integrals in (1) is identically 0.

$$\text{Hence} \quad \int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = 0.$$

Def. 1: The Cauchy problem is solved for a function u if the conditions (1) are satisfied and the $\bar{\partial}$ -operator applied to u is identically zero and after applying $\bar{\partial}$ to (1) we get

Obs. 2: Extension of Cauchy's theorem: If u is analytic in the region D , then we can simply choose

$$u(z) = 0 \text{ and } \bar{\partial} u = 0 \text{ then } \int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = \int_{\partial D} 0 dz = 0$$

Suppose $u(z) = 0$ in the interior of the region D . Then $\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = 0$ and the $\bar{\partial}$ -operator applied to u is identically zero. Hence $\bar{\partial} u = 0$ and $\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = 0$.

$$\text{Hence} \quad \int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = \int_{\partial D} 0 dz = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\partial} u = 0$$

But, since the integral $\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = 0$ and $\bar{\partial} u = 0$, we get

$$\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = \int_{\partial D} 0 dz = 0.$$

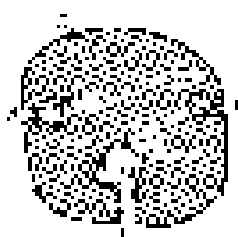
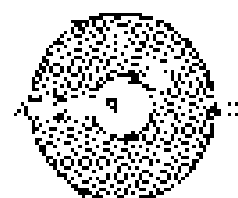
Now, along the direction of boundary ∂D of D and transposing, we get

$$\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = \int_{\partial D} 0 dz = 0$$

which is $u(z) = 0$ in the interior of D .

In D_0 and D_1 , we can choose any closed curves with $\bar{\partial} u = 0$ and hence, for

$$\int_{\partial D} u(z) dz = \int_{\partial D} 0 dz = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\partial} u = 0$$



4.9 Cauchy's Integral Formula

If u is analytic within some closed curve and z_0 is a point within it, then

$$u(z_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0}$$

Consider the curve ∂D of D and let z_0 be a point within D and let $z = z_0 + \rho e^{i\theta}$ be a point on ∂D and radius ρ is small enough so that z_0 is inside D .

Now $\frac{1}{z - z_0}$ is analytic in D and hence we can use $\bar{\partial}$ and ∂ as shown by Cauchy's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} &= \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} \\ &= \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} = \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{For any point } z_0 \\ \text{in } D \text{ and } \partial D \text{ is a closed curve} \end{array} \right.$$

$$= \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} = \int_{\partial D} \frac{u(z) dz}{z - z_0} \quad (1)$$

1. If C is a contour, say the circle C defined by the point a , it is easy to see that a different expression

$$\int_C f(z) dz = f(a) \int_C dz = 2\pi f(a) = f(a) \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{z-a} dz = 2\pi f'(a)$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad f'(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{z-a} dz \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

which is the desired result with $f'(a) = f'(a)$, i.e. $f'(a)$.

Cor. When $f(z)$ is any function defined on C ,

$$f'(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{f(z)}{z-a} \right) dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f'(z)}{z-a} dz \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Similarly,} \quad f''(a) = \frac{2!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f''(z)}{(z-a)^2} dz \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{and in general,} \quad f^{(n)}(a) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f^{(n)}(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

The Cauchy results (2)-(4) tell us that for any function $f(z)$ which can be a single on the simple closed curve C that this value of the function and all its derivatives can be obtained by a value of $f(z)$ by itself. We have established a remarkable fact that an analytic function possesses derivatives of all orders and these are themselves all analytic.

4.10 Series of Complex Terms

1. **Taylor's series:** If $f(z)$ is any function defined on C and a is any point on C , then for z inside C ,

$$f(z) = f(a) + f'(a)(z-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(z-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(z-a)^n + \dots \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

2. **Laurent's series:** If $f(z)$ is a single on the ring $a < |z-a| < b$ (where a and b are constants with $a < b$) and C_1 is a circle with $|z-a| = r$ such that $a < r < b$ and z is in C_1

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(z-a)^n + \dots + b_1(z-a)^{-1} + b_2(z-a)^{-2} + \dots$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz$$

where a_n may be found by using (5).

$$\text{Obs. 1. As } f(z) \text{ is analytic inside } C_1 \text{ then } a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^{n+1}} dz = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

$$\text{However, if } f(z) \text{ is analytic inside } C_1 \text{ then } a_n = 0, \quad a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C_1} \frac{f(z)}{(z-a)^0} dz = \frac{f(a)}{1}$$

and Laurent's series reduces to Taylor's series.

Obs. 2. In order to Taylor's or Laurent's series, we simply expand the function in power of finding a_n by using the integration which is a complicated.

Obtain a series (convergent and divergent) of the function $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$ in the neighbourhood of $z = 0$ for $|z| < 1$. Hence find the Laurent series of $f(z)$ in the neighbourhood of $z = 0$ for $|z| > 1$.

4.11 Zeros and Singularities or Poles of an Analytic Function

4.11.1 Zeros of an Analytic Function

Definition: A zero of an analytic function $f(z)$ is a value of z for which $f(z) = 0$.

If $f(z)$ is analytic in the neighbourhood of a point $z = a$ then by Taylor's theorem

$$f(z) = a_0 + a_1(z-a) + a_2(z-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(z-a)^n + \dots \quad \text{where } a_0 = \frac{f(a)}{0!}$$

If $a_0 = 0 = a_1 = \dots = a_{n-1} = 0$ but $a_n \neq 0$ then $f(z)$ is said to have a zero of order n at $z = a$.

When $n = 1$ then $f(z)$ is said to be simple in the neighbourhood of $z = a$ ($f'(z) \neq 0$ at $z = a$).

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) &= a_n(z-a)^n + a_{n+1}(z-a)^{n+1} + \dots \\ &= (z-a)^n \{a_n + \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

where $\{a_n + \dots\} = g(z) = a_n + a_{n+1}(z-a) + \dots$

Then a is a zero of order n in the neighbourhood of $z = a$.

Example 1.

Poles and Essential singularities

Theorem 4.11

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-1)^2} = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{(z-1)^2}$$

Proof: expand $\frac{1}{(z-1)^2}$ in a series and collect the terms. $f(z)$ has a pole of order 2 at $z = 1$ and a simple pole at $z = 0$.

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z} \left(\frac{1}{z-1} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{2z^2} + \dots$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} g(z) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{1}{(z-1)^{n+2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{z^3} + \frac{1}{2z^2} + \frac{1}{6z} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Note: The classification of singularities as poles and essential singularities is not merely a technical matter, because the behaviour of a function in the neighbourhood of a zero or a pole is quite different from that of a non-singular point.

Example 2.

Find the singularities of the following functions

$$(i) f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-2)^2} \quad (ii) f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \quad (iii) f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 2z + 2}$$

Example 3.

Find the singularities of the following functions

$$(i) f(z) = \frac{1 - \sin z}{z} \quad (ii) f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} \quad (iii) f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 2z + 2}$$

Solution:

(a) Here $z = 0$ is a singularity

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } \frac{1}{z^3} &= \frac{1}{z^3} \left[1 - \left(\frac{z}{3} + \frac{z^2}{6} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \frac{z^4}{24} + \dots \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{z^3} - \frac{z^0}{6!} - \frac{z^1}{7!} - \dots \end{aligned}$$

Since there are no negative powers of z in the expansion, $z = 0$ is a removable singularity.

(b) $f(z) = \sin \frac{1}{z-2} = \sin \frac{1}{z-2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{z-2} + \frac{1}{2(z-2)^2} + \dots \right)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (1 + 2) \left(\frac{1}{z-2} + \frac{1}{2(z-2)^2} + \frac{1}{6(z-2)^3} + \dots \right) \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{2(z-2)^2} + \frac{1}{6(z-2)^3} + \frac{1}{24(z-2)^4} + \frac{1}{120(z-2)^5} + \dots \right) \\ &= \left(-\frac{5}{z} + \frac{1}{2z^2} + \frac{1}{6z^3} + \frac{1}{24z^4} + \dots \right) \\ &= \left(-\frac{5}{z-2} + \frac{1}{(z-2)^2} + \frac{1}{2(z-2)^3} + \dots \right) \end{aligned}$$

Since there are infinite number of terms in the expansion, $z = 0$ is a pole of order 1 & $z = 2$ is an essential singularity.

(c) Poles of $f(z) = \frac{1}{\cos z - \sin z}$ are given by equating the denominator to zero, i.e. by $\cos z = \sin z$ or $z = 0, \pi, 2\pi, \dots$ or $z = (2n+1)\pi/2$. Clearly $z = \pi/2$ is a simple pole of $f(z)$.

4.12 Residues

In case of $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-a}$ in the expansion of $f(z)$ around the isolated singularity a , the coefficient of $(z-a)^{-1}$ is the residue of $f(z)$ at a . For $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-a}$, $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-a} = \frac{1}{(z-a)^1}$, $a_1 = \frac{1}{1!} = 1$. The residue of $f(z)$ at $z = a$ is 1.

$$\text{Since, } a_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \left((z-a) \frac{1}{(z-a)^{1+1}} \right)$$

$$\therefore a_1 = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{(z-a)^2}$$

$$\therefore \int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{Res } f(z) \quad \text{On two sides} \quad (1)$$

4.12.1 Residue Theorem

If $f(z)$ is analytic in a region R except at a finite number of any isolated points within R , then $\int_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times$ sum of the residues at the singular points within R .

Let $f(z)$ is analytic in the region R except at z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n be isolated points such that $f(z)$ is analytic in the neighbourhood of z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n together with C form a multiply connected region within R as shown.



Example 4. Calculate the value of the integral

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \sqrt{z} dz &= \int_{\gamma_1} \sqrt{z} dz + \int_{\gamma_2} \sqrt{z} dz + \dots + \int_{\gamma_N} \sqrt{z} dz \\ &= 2\pi i \left[\operatorname{Res}_{z=0} \sqrt{z} + \operatorname{Res}_{z=\infty} \sqrt{z} + \dots + \operatorname{Res}_{z=\infty} \sqrt{z} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (4.12.1)$$

which is the desired result.

4.12.2 Calculation of Residues

1. If $f(z)$ has a simple pole at $z = z_0$, then

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z). \quad (4.12.2)$$

Let us illustrate with the case $z = 0$.

$$f(z) = \sqrt{z} = (x + iy)^{1/2} = x^{1/2} (1 + i^2 y^2/x^2)^{1/2} = x^{1/2} (1 - y^2/x^2)^{1/2}.$$

Multiplying integrand by $z - 0 = z$ and

$$z \sqrt{z} dz = x^{3/2} (1 - y^2/x^2)^{1/2} dx + i y^{3/2} (1 - y^2/x^2)^{1/2} dy.$$

Taking $y = 0 \Rightarrow x = z$ we get

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} [z \sqrt{z}] = 0 = \operatorname{Res}_{z=0} \sqrt{z}.$$

2. Another formula for (4.12.2)

Let $f(z) = \frac{g(z)}{h(z)}$ with $g, h \in \mathbb{C}[z]$, $h'(z_0) \neq 0$, $h(z_0) = 0$ and $g(z_0) \neq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For } \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{(z - z_0) g(z)}{h(z)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{(z - z_0) g(z) - (z - z_0) h(z)}{(z - z_0) h'(z) + (z - z_0)^2 h''(z) + \dots} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{h(z) g'(z) - h'(z) g(z)}{(z - z_0) h'(z) + (z - z_0)^2 h''(z) + \dots} \quad \text{since } g(z_0) \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{For } \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} (z - z_0) f(z) = \frac{h(z) g'(z)}{h'(z)}$$

3. If $f(z)$ has a pole of order m at $z = z_0$ then

$$\operatorname{Res}_{z=z_0} f(z) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \lim_{z \rightarrow z_0} \frac{d^{m-1}}{dz^{m-1}} [(z - z_0)^m f(z)]$$

Qba. In many cases, the residue of a pole $z = z_0$ can be found, by pulling $z = z_0 + \delta$ in the expansion (4.12.1) where $|\delta| < \delta_0$ is small.



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

- Q.1. Consider the function $f(z)$ defined by the integral

$$f(z) = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{iz} \cos \theta d\theta$$
 Then, the value of $f(z)$ is zero for $z =$

$$z = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{iz} \cos \theta d\theta$$

Choose the plausible value. Here, z is not a real number. $i = \sqrt{-1}$. Angle θ is given in radian.

- (a) $z = 2\pi$ (b) $z = 2\pi i$ (c) $z = 0$ (d) $z = 0$ (e) $z = 0$ (f) $z = 0$ (g) None of these

[EC, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

- Q.2. If y is given by integral from 0 to x of $\frac{1}{1+t^2}$ then y is given by $\tan^{-1} x$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$. Then y is given by $\tan^{-1} x$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

$$y = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt = \tan^{-1} x$$

(a) $\frac{2x}{31} - 4x$ (b) $\frac{x}{3} - 8x$

(c) $\frac{4x}{31} - 6x$ (d) x

[CL, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.3. The value of the contour integral $\int_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz$ is (a) $2\pi i$ (b) 0 (c) 2π (d) 0

[EC, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.4. The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ is $\tan^{-1} x$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$. Then y is given by $\tan^{-1} x$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

(a) $\frac{2x}{31} - 4x$ (b) $\frac{x}{3} - 8x$

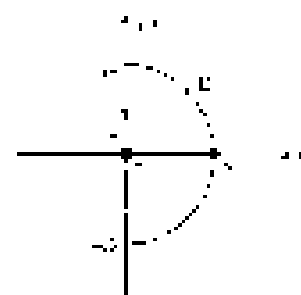
(c) $\frac{4x}{31} - 6x$ (d) x

[EE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.5. If the value of the contour integral $\int_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz$ is $2\pi i$, then the value of $\int_C \frac{1}{z} dz$ is

$$\int_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz = 2\pi i$$

$$\int_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 0$$



- (a) 2π
(b) 0

- (c) $2\pi i$
(d) 0

[EC, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.6. The integral $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ is $\tan^{-1} x$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

- (a) 2π (b) 0
(c) $2\pi i$ (d) 0

[MF, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

- Q.7. The value of the contour integral $\int_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz$ is $2\pi i$ for x in the interval $(-\infty, \infty)$.

$$\int_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz = 2\pi i$$

- (a) 2π (b) 0
(c) $\frac{1}{2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[FO, GATE-2000, 2 marks]

- Q.8. An analytic function $f(z)$ of a complex variable $z = x + iy$ is expressed as $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ where $u = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2)$ and $v = xy$. The function $f(z)$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + ixy$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) - ixy$

(c) $\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + ixy$ (d) $\frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) - ixy$

[MC, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

Q.9 The value of the integral $\int_{\gamma} \frac{z \cos(2/z)}{z^2 + 1} dz$ for the closed curve given by $|z| = 1$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}i$
(c) $\frac{5}{2}$ (d) $\frac{5}{2}i$

[CE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

Q.10 The branch of $\log z$ such that $\frac{z-1}{z^2+1}$ has angular branch

- (a) 0 and 1 (b) 0 and 2
(c) 0 and 4 (d) 0 and 6

[CE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.11 If $f(z) = f_0(z) + f_1(z) + f_2(z) + \dots + f_n(z) + \dots$ and $\int_{|z|=1} \frac{1-f(z)}{z} dz = 12$

then

- (a) $2\pi f_0$ (b) $2\pi(f_0 + f_1)$
(c) $2\pi f_1$ (d) $2\pi(f_1 + f_2)$

[EE, GATE-2008, 1 mark]

Q.12 The modulus of the complex number $\left[\frac{3+4i}{1-2i} \right]^2$ is

- (a) 5 (b) 25
(c) $10\sqrt{5}$ (d) 10

[ML, GATE-2010, 1 mark]

Q.13 The locus of z of a complex number

$$f(z) = \frac{1-z}{(z-1)^2 + 2}$$

is a circle with

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ and 1 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ and -1

- (c) $\frac{1}{2}$, 0 and $\frac{5}{2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2}$, -5 and $\frac{5}{2}$

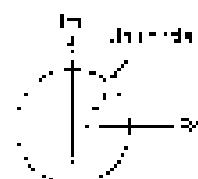
[EC, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.14 The mapping w from $z = x + iy$ to $w = u + iv$ is given by $u = 3x^2 - 3y^2$. An appropriate corresponding choice of constant is

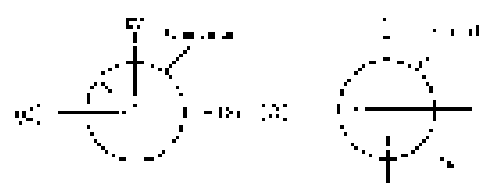
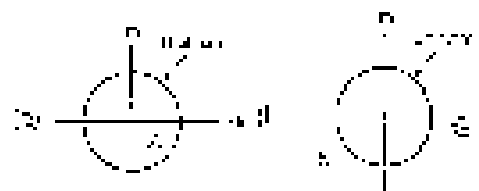
- (a) $3x^2 - 3y^2 = 1$ (b) $3x^2 - 3y^2 = 3$
(c) $3x^2 - 3y^2 = 9$ (d) $3x^2 - 3y^2 = 6$

[CE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.15 A point has been plotted in the z -plane as shown in the figure below



Then $\arg(z)$ is



[EE, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

Q.16 The value of the expression $\int_{\gamma} \frac{z-1}{z^2+4z+13} dz$ where γ is the circle

is the value

- (a) 2π (b) 12π
(c) 4π (d) 8π

[EC, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

Q.17 If $z = 2 + i$ then the value of $z^2 + 1$ is

- (a) e^{-2} (b) e^2
(c) y (d) 1

[EC, IIT-M, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.18 Given $f(z) = \frac{1}{z-1} + \frac{2}{z-13}$ if f is a function

then the sequence of points z_n is

the value of $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz$ is

- (a) 2 (b) 1
(c) 1 (d) 2

[EC, EE, IN, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.19 Evaluate contour integral with $\gamma = \sqrt{-1}$ and

(a) $z = 1$

(b) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$

(c) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right), \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$

(d) $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$

[FE, GATE-2010 : 1 Mark]

Q.20 The complex function $z \mapsto (z + \sqrt{z})^2$ maps a region in the complex plane onto the complex plane. The image of the unit circle under this mapping is a closed curve.

(a) $\text{Re}(z) = 2$ (b) $\text{Im}(z) = 2$

(c) $\text{Im}(z) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$ (d) $\text{Re}(z) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$

[IN, GATE-2013 : 1 mark]

Q.21 $\oint_{\gamma} \frac{z^2 - 1}{z^4} dz$ has value which is close around the circle $|z| = 2$ at $z = \sqrt{-1}$ is

(a) -4π

(b) 4π

(c) $2 + \pi$

(d) $2 + 2\pi$

[FE, GATE-2010 : 2 Marks]

Q.22 $z = \frac{2 - \sqrt{2}}{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ can be expressed as

(a) $0.5 + 0.5i$

(b) $-0.5 + 0.5i$

(c) $0.5 - 0.5i$

(d) $0.5 + 0.5i$

[GE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.23 An analytic function of a complex variable $z = x + iy$ is expressed as $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$, where $u = \sqrt{-1}$. If $u(x, y) = 4xy$, then $v(x, y)$ must be

(a) $4x^2 + y^2 + \text{constant}$

(b) $4x^2 - y^2 + \text{constant}$

(c) $-4x^2 + y^2 + \text{constant}$

(d) $-4x^2 - y^2 + \text{constant}$

[MF, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.24 An analytic function of a complex variable $z = x + iy$ is expressed as $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$, where $u = \sqrt{-1}$. If $u(x, y) = 4x^2 + y^2$ then expression for $v(x, y)$ in terms of x, y is the general form can be written as

(a) $4y^2 - x^2$

(b) $4x^2 - y^2$

(c) $2xy - x^2$

(d) $4x^2 - y^2 + c$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.25 The argument of the complex number $\frac{1+i}{1-i}$ is π is

(a) π

(b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$

(c) $\frac{\pi}{4}$

(d) π

[MC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.26 If z is any point in the complex plane satisfying $|z - \sqrt{-1}| = 1$, $|z - i| = 2$, $|z - 1| = 1$. Consider the function $f(z) = z^2$ where z denotes the complex conjugate of z . The $f(z)$ maps 3 distinct values of z to the following three values

(a) $1, i, 1 + i$

(b) $1, i, 1 + \sqrt{-1}$

(c) $1, i, 1 + i^2$

(d) $1, i, 1 + \sqrt{-1} + i$

[FE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.27 If f is analytic with zeros complex number

(a) where $z = \sqrt{-1}$, are

(b) all are imaginary

(c) are all real negative

(d) all are on circle

(e) $z = 1, i, 1 + \sqrt{-1}$ are

[FE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.28 The real part of an analytic function $f(z)$ where $z = x + iy$ is given by $u(x, y)$. The imaginary part of $f(z)$ is

(a) $u(x, y) + i$

(b) $u(x, y) + i^2$

(c) $-u(x, y)$

(d) $-u(x, y) + i$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.29 If z is a complex variable, the value of $\frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{z}}$ is

(a) $-0.511 + 1.57i$

(b) $-0.511 + 1.57i$

(c) $0.511 + 1.57i$

(d) $0.511 + 1.57i$

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

- Q.30) The value of line integral $\int_C f(z) dz$ is $\int_0^{\pi} 1$ in the counter-clockwise direction around $|z-1|=1$ is-
- (a) π (b) 3
(c) 0 (d) 2π
- [EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

- Q.31) The Taylor series expansion of $f(z) = 2\cos z$ is
- (a) $2 - 2z + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots$
(b) $2 - 2z + z^2 - \frac{z^3}{2} + \dots$
(c) $2 + 2z + \frac{z^2}{2} + \frac{z^3}{6} + \dots$
(d) $2 - 2z + z^2 + \frac{z^3}{2} + \dots$
- [EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

- Q.32) The series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (n+1)(n+2) \dots$
- (a) diverges (b) \sqrt{e}
(c) 2 (d) 0
- [EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

- Q.33) Given two complex numbers $z = 3 + 4i$ and $w = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + 2i$ the argument of $\frac{z}{w}$ is equal to
- (a) 2 (b) $\frac{\pi}{2}$
(c) $\frac{\pi}{4}$ (d) $\frac{3\pi}{4}$
- [ME, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

- Q.34) Given $f(z) = y(1-z)$ where y, z are complex valued functions of a complex variable z which one of the following statements is TRUE?
- (a) $f(z)$ is differentiable at z_0 then $g(z) = y(z)$ is also differentiable at z_0
(b) If $f(z)$ and $h(z)$ are differentiable at z_0 , then $f(z) + h(z)$ is differentiable at z_0
(c) If $f(z)$ is continuous at z_0 , then $f(z)$ is differentiable at z_0
(d) If $f(z)$ is differentiable at z_0 , then z_0 are its isolated singular points
- [EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

- Q.35) Let $f(z) = y(z)$ be a complex variable function and contour integration is performed along the unit circle in a clockwise direction. One of the following statements is NOT TRUE?
- (a) The residue of $\frac{z^7}{z^2+1}$ at $z = 1/\sqrt{2}$ is 0
(b) $\oint_C z^2 dz = 0$
(c) $\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 1$
(d) $\oint_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz = 1$
- Any of (a) and (c) are false and any of (b) and (d) are true
- [EE, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

- Q.36) Let $g(z) = \frac{z^2-5}{z^2-2}$ and $f(z_0) = g(z_0)$ for all $z_0 \neq z_0$, $z = 2 \pm i$. Then $g(z)$ is then equal to
- (a) $z^2 - 5$ (b) $z^2 - 2$
- [EC, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

- Q.37) The value of $\oint_C dz$ where the contour is the unit circle in a clockwise sense
- (a) 2π (b) π
(c) $2\pi i$ (d) πi
- [IK, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

- Q.38) The value of the contour integral around the unit circle in a clockwise sense $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C (1+z) dz$ is
- [EC, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

- Q.39) If C is a circle of radius r with centre z_0 in the complex plane and $f(z)$ is a non-zero analytic function
- then $\oint_C \frac{f'(z)}{f(z)} dz = 2\pi i n$
- (a) Any (b) 0
(c) $\frac{2\pi i}{r}$ (d) Any
- [EC, GATE-2015 : 1 Mark]

- Q.40) Sketch the following complex plane function
- $$w(z) = \frac{z}{(z-1)(z+2)}$$
- What of the following is true of the function $w(z)$ in the above function?

(a) 1

(b) $\frac{5}{16}$

(c) 2

(d) 8

[CE, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.41 The magnitude of $z = 1$ in the function $f(z)$ has a pole of order n at $z = 1$ is

(a) $1 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$

(b) $2z + 1$

(c) $\frac{1}{z}$

(d) $\frac{1}{2z - 1}$

(e) $\frac{1}{z - 2}$

(f) $\frac{1}{2z - 1}$

[IN, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.42 Consider the complex valued function $f(z) = 2z^2 - 1$, $z \in \mathbb{C}$ has a branch cut along which $f(z)$ is not analytic when the function $f(z)$ is analytic?

(a) $z = 0$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.43 $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is a complex function of $z = x + iy$ where u and v are real valued functions of x and y . If u is harmonic, then v is harmonic if and only if u and v are constant.

(a) $u = v = \text{constant}$

(b) $u = v = \text{variable}$

(c) $u + v + w = \text{constant}$

(d) $u^2 + v^2 = \text{constant}$

[ME, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.44 A function for the complex variable $z = x + iy$ is $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ where $u(x, y) = 2xy$ and $v(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$. The value of $f(z)$ at the point $z = 1 + i$ is

[ME, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.45 Consider the function $f(z) = z + \bar{z}$ where z is a complex variable and \bar{z} denotes its complex conjugate. Which of the following is true?

(a) $f(z)$ is analytic everywhere

(b) $f(z)$ is analytic at $z = 0$ only

(c) $f(z)$ is not continuous but analytic

(d) $f(z)$ is not continuous but analytic

[EC, GATE-2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.46 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$$

is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

(b) $\frac{1}{2}$

(c) $\frac{1}{2}$

(d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[ME, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.47 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$$

is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

(b) $\frac{1}{2}$

(c) $\frac{1}{2}$

(d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.48 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

[IN, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.49 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$$

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.50 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

(b) $\frac{1}{2}$

(c) $\frac{1}{2}$

(d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 2 Marks]

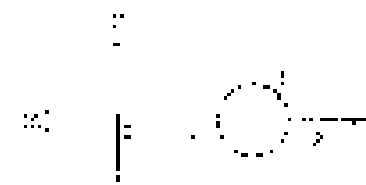
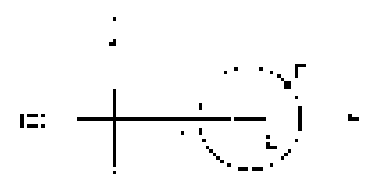
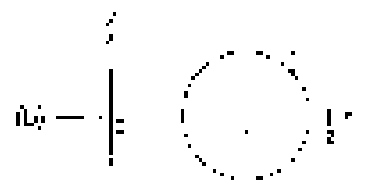
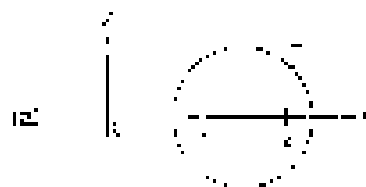
Q.51 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EC, GATE-2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.52 The value of $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral and is called a $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}$ integral.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$



[ME, GATE-2015 : 2 Marks]

Q.53 If $u, v : (x^2 + y^2 + 1) + i(x^2 - y^2 + 2xy)$ is a complex analyticfunction of $z = x + iy$, then $u(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$, then(a) $x = -1, y = 1$ (b) $x = -1, y = 2$ (c) $x = 1, y = 2$ (d) $x = 3, y = 2$

[ME, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.54 $\cos^{-1} x = y$ where $x = \sqrt{2}$ then $\overline{\cos y} =$ (a) $\cos y$ (b) $\cos \bar{y}$ (c) $\sin y$ (d) $\sin \bar{y}$

[PY, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.55 The value of the contour integral in the complex plane is

$$\oint \frac{z^2 - 2z + 3}{z - 2} dz$$

along the contour $|z| = 2$ taken counter-clockwise is(a) $10\pi i$ (b) 2 (c) $14\pi i$ (d) $4\pi i$

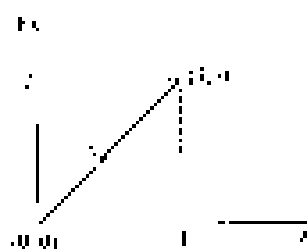
[PY, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.56 For a complex number $z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}i$, $z^2 + 2z$

is

(a) $-2i$ (b) -1 (c) 1 (d) $2i$

[E, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.57 Consider the integral $I = \int_0^1 (t^2 + it) dt$ where $i = \sqrt{-1}$. The value is given in the figure givenThe value of I is(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{3}{2}$ (c) $\frac{3}{2}$ (d) $\frac{4}{5}$

[E, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.58 For a complex number z , $\overline{\cos z} =$

$$\cos z = \frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz})$$

is

(a) $\frac{-1}{27}$ and $\frac{1}{27}$ (b) $\frac{1}{125}$ and $\frac{-1}{125}$ (c) $\frac{1}{27}$ and $\frac{1}{27}$ (d) $\frac{1}{125}$ and $\frac{1}{125}$

[PY, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.59 An integral $I = \int_0^1 (x^2 + 1) dx$ is given in the figure given

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

If $f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$, then $f(1) =$ (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ (c) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$

[PY, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.60 If $z = x + jy$ represents the complex variable, then the function

Given $u = (x^2 - y^2) - \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$, then the function is

a

(i) $-2xy - \frac{j}{x^2 + y^2} + C$

(ii) $2xy + \frac{j}{x^2 + y^2} + C$

(iii) $-2xy + \frac{j}{x^2 + y^2} + C$

(iv) $2xy + \frac{j}{x^2 + y^2} + C$

[ESE Pre: mg 2017]

Q.61 The value of $\eta(z) = \frac{z^2}{(z-1)(z-2)(z-3)}$ at $z=0$

is

(i) 0

(ii) 1

(iii) $\frac{10}{3}$

(iv) $\frac{27}{16}$

[ESE Prelims-2017]

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Answers: Second Order Linear Partial Differential Equations

1. (a) 2. (a) 3. (b) 4. (b) 5. (b) 6. (c) 7. (a) 8. (a) 9. (a)
 10. (b) 11. (b) 12. (c) 13. (c) 14. (c) 15. (b) 16. (c) 17. (b) 18. (a)
 19. (a) 20. (b) 21. (b) 22. (a) 23. (c) 24. (a) 25. (b) 26. (c) 27. (b)
 28. (a) 29. (a) 30. (c) 31. (a) 32. (b) 33. (c) 34. (c) 35. (b) 36. (a)
 37. (c) 38. (a) 39. (a) 40. (a) 41. (b) 42. (a) 43. (b) 44. (b) 45. (a)
 46. (b) 47. (a) 48. (a) 49. (a) 50. (c) 51. (a) 52. (a) 53. (a) 54. (b)
 55. (b) 56. (b) 57. (c) 58. (c) 59. (a) 60. (a) 61. (a) 62. (a) 63. (a)

Explanations: Second Order Linear Partial Differential Equations

1. (a)

$$\int \sec x dx = \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} \right) dx$$

The poles are at

$$z = (a_1 - i\alpha_1)z + \dots + (a_n - i\alpha_n)z^2 + \alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2$$

None of these gives us a circle for unit circle

$$|z| = 1$$

Hence, sum of residues at poles = 0

∴ angular part of $\oint_C dz = 0$ since

$$f = 2\pi i \left(\text{sum of residues of } f(z) \text{ at } n \text{ poles} \right)$$

$$= 2\pi i \times 0 = 0$$

2. (a)

By Cauchy's integral theorem

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz$$

$$\text{i.e. } \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z-a} dz = 2\pi i f(a)$$

$$\text{Here } \oint_C \frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} dz$$

Applying Cauchy's Integral Theorem (a)

$$(z - i) = 0 \Rightarrow z = i$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} 2\pi i \left(\frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} \right) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} 2\pi i \left(\frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} \right) = \frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} 2\pi i \left(\frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} \right) = \frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i}$$

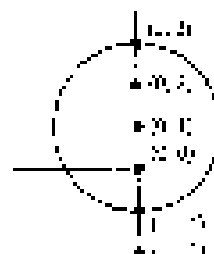
$$\frac{z^3 - 3i}{z - i} = 4\pi i$$

3. (d)

$$\frac{1}{z^2 - 4} = \frac{1}{(z+2)(z-2)}$$

Poles (2, -2) are outside the circle $|z - 1| = 2$ only pole (0 = 2) is outside the circle $|z - 1| = 2$

∴ no contribution from pole (0 = 2)


 $\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{Residue at poles which are inside } C$

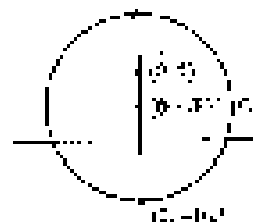
$$= 2\pi i \text{Res}(f(z)) = 2\pi i \left(\frac{1}{z+2} \right)_{z=0} = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

4. (b)

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 - 1} = \frac{1}{(z-1)(z+1)}$$

Poles are at $z = 1, -1$ and $0 \neq 1$

$$\left(z - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$



$$\frac{1}{z - \frac{1}{2}}$$

and value of $z = 2 + 1.732i$ on the line is
 (2) $\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ and (3) $\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ are the
 values.

So, $1 = 2e^{i\theta}$ for $\theta = \arg\left(\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = \pi$

5. (a)

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz = \oint_{|z|=R} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz$$

$$= 2\pi i \times \text{Sum of residues}$$

poles $z = \pm i$ are inside the circle $|z| = R$, $R > 1$
 Hence,

residue at $z = i$ is

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow i} \frac{(z-i)}{(z-i)(z+i)} \cdot \frac{1}{z^2 + 1}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} dz = 2\pi i \times \frac{1}{2} = \pi$$

6. (a)

$$f(z) = \frac{\cos z}{z}$$

we know poles at $z = 0$ and $z = \pm \pi$ there are
 poles on the path where

• Residue at $z = 0$ is

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} (z-0) f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \cos z = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(z) dz = 2\pi i \times \text{residue at } z = 0$$

$$= 2\pi i \times 1 = 2\pi i$$

7. (a)

Since $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} (z-z)^n f(z)$ is finite and non zero

$f(z)$ has a pole of order n at $z = \infty$

Hence by $z = \infty$ we can take a pole at $z = 0$
 as

$$\text{Res } f(z) = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \left[\frac{d^{n-1}}{dz^{n-1}} (z-z)^n f(z) \right]_{z=0}$$

Here $n = 2$ (pole of order 2) and $n = 2$

$$\therefore \text{Res } f(z) = \frac{1}{1!} \left[\frac{d}{dz} (z-z^2 f(z)) \right]_{z=0}$$

$$= \left[\frac{d}{dz} (z-z^2) \left(\frac{1}{z-z^2} \right) \right]_{z=0}$$

$$= \left[\frac{d}{dz} \left(\frac{1}{1-z} \right) \right]_{z=0} = \left[\frac{d}{dz} (1-z)^{-1} \right]_{z=0}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} (1-z)^{-1} = \frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$$

8. (a)

$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1}$ is a rational function

\therefore find it by the Cauchy's theorem equation

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} \quad (i)$$

$$\text{and } f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} \quad (ii)$$

Here $z = \pm i$ are poles

$\Rightarrow z_1 = i$ and $z_2 = -i$

Now substituting z_1 and z_2 in (i) we get

$$f_1 = \frac{1}{i^2 + 1} \quad (iii)$$

$$\text{and } f_2 = \frac{1}{(-i)^2 + 1} \quad (iv)$$

Adding (iii) and (iv) we can now get the
 value as

$$f_1 = f_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{df}{dz} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int dz = \int y dy$$

$$z = \frac{1}{2} + i \ln y \quad (v)$$

from (v) we have

$$y = e^{2z} \quad (vi)$$

Since $y = 10$ we have,

$$y = 10$$

Substituting in (vi) we get,

$$e^{2z} = 10$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dz}{dz} = 10$$

$$\Rightarrow \int dz = \int 10 dz$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{10}{2} + c$$

Now substitute it in (v) we get,

$$y = \frac{e^{2z}}{z} = \frac{e^{2 \times \frac{10}{2} + c}}{\frac{10}{2} + c} = \frac{e^{10 + 2c}}{5 + c}$$

9. (a)

$$\text{ie, } z = \int \frac{\cos(2x)}{\cos(x) + 1} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{|z|=2} \frac{8xy(2xz)}{(z^2-3)^2} dz$$

Since $|z| = 1/2$ is nowhere in $|z| = 1$ (the closed disk on which we can use Cauchy's integral theorem), and since that

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \left(\frac{8xz}{z^2-3} \right)$$

$$\text{where } \frac{8xz}{z^2-3} = \frac{\cos(\pi/2)z}{(z^2-3)}$$

[Notice that $\cos(\pi/2)$ is exactly 0 for all z inside $|z| = 1$]

$$\therefore \quad f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{0z}{(z^2-3)} = \frac{0}{z^2(z^2-3)}$$

19. (d)

$$f(z) = \frac{z-1}{z^2-2} = \frac{z-1}{z^2-2^2} = \frac{z-1}{(z-1)(z+1)}$$

\therefore The only left-hand pole is at $z = -1$.

21. (d)

$$f(z) = 2 + 3/z + 2/z^2$$

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$$

\therefore we have a simple closed curve enclosing

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}_z \oint_C \frac{f(z)}{z} dz &= 2\pi i (\text{residues of } f(z)/z) = 0 \\ &= 2\pi i (-1 + 2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Since } f(z) = 2 + 3/z + 2/z^2 \Rightarrow f'(z) = -3/z^2$$

$$\therefore \quad f'(z) = -2\pi i (1 - 0)$$

*2. (b)

$$\begin{aligned} z &= \frac{z-1}{1-z} = \frac{(3+4i)(1-z)}{1-z} = 2(1-z) \\ &= \frac{6+4i}{1} = 6+4i \\ &= -\sqrt{6^2+4^2} e^{i\theta} = -e^{i\theta} \end{aligned}$$

*2. (c)

$$f(z) = \frac{1-2z}{2z^2-4(1-z)}$$

$$\text{poles are } z = 1/z = 1 \text{ and } z = -1/2$$

Residue at $z = 1$

$$\text{residue} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1) \frac{1-2z}{2z^2-4(1-z)} = 0$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{1-2z}{4(1-z)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Residue at $z = -1/2$

$$\text{residue} = \lim_{z \rightarrow -1/2} (z+1/2) \frac{1-2z}{2z^2-4(1-z)}$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow -1/2} \frac{1-2z}{4(1-z)} = 1$$

Residue at $z = 2$

$$\text{residue} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} (z-2) \frac{1-2z}{2z^2-4(1-z)} = 0$$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 2} \frac{1-2z}{4(z-1)} = -\frac{3}{2}$$

\therefore The values of the poles are $\frac{1}{2}, 1$ and $-\frac{3}{2}$.

14. (d)

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 9 + 4iz \\ y &= 2x^2 - 3y^2 \end{aligned}$$

In order to be analysed we need Cauchy-Riemann conditions

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad (2)$$

From (1) we see

$$0 = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \partial v = \int 0 dy$$

$$v = f(x) + C$$

$$\therefore \quad v = 2xy + 3x^2 \quad (3)$$

Now applying eq. (2) on (3) we see

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (2xy + 3x^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Curl } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} = 0 \quad \text{Curl } 0 = 0$$

By assumption,

$$u_1 = u_2 = u^2 = u$$

Substituting equation (iii)

$$u = 3u^2 + 6u - 3u^2 = 6u$$

$$\Rightarrow u = 3u^2 + 6u$$

15. (d)

$$\text{Let } z = x + iy$$

Show z is given and determine if z is in 1 quadrant, 2 and 3 and both $-\infty$ and

$$0 < \arg z < \pi$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{x + iy}$$

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{x - iy}{x^2 + y^2} = \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} - i \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}$$

Since $x > 0$ and

$$\frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} > 0$$

$$\frac{-y}{x^2 + y^2} < 0$$

So $\frac{1}{z}$ is in IV quadrant

$$\frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} e^{i\theta} \quad \left| \frac{1}{z} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

$$\text{Since } \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} e^{i\theta}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} > 0$$

So $\frac{1}{z}$ is in the first quadrant & constant

18. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-2x+2}}{(x^2+2x+2)} dx \\ &= 2e \int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-2x}}{(x^2+2x+2)} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Put } u = \frac{-2x-2}{(x^2+2x+2)} \Rightarrow u = \frac{-2}{x+1}$$

$$2 + 4x + 2 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{-4 \pm \sqrt{16-20}}{2} = \frac{-4 \pm 2i}{2} \\ &= -2 \pm i \end{aligned}$$

Since the complex conjugate roots $|x| = 1$

So $f(z)$ is analytic in the circle $|z| = 1$

$$\text{Value of } \eta(z) = 2\pi i(n) = 0$$

19. (a)

$z = x + iy$ is in second quadrant,

$$x = -1 \times \frac{\pi}{2} = -\pi \quad \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

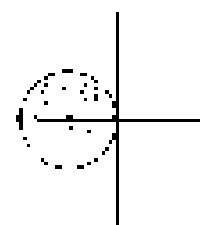
$$\text{Now } |z| = 1 = (e^{i\theta})^2 = e^{2i\theta} = e^{i\pi}$$

19. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Given, } f(z) &= \frac{1}{z^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{(z+i)(z-i)} = \frac{(z+i)}{(z+i)(z-i)} \\ &= \frac{1}{(z-i)(z+i)} \end{aligned}$$

So we get $a = i$ and $b = -i$ i.e. $(-i, 0)$ and $(i, 0)$

Then figure as given $z = 1$



We see that $z = 1$ is inside the circle, because $|z| < 1$ and since the value

is not a fraction, we get

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz = \text{Residue of } f(z) \text{ at } z = i \text{ and } z = -i$$

$$\text{So the integral is } \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz = \text{Residue of } f(z) \text{ at } z = i \text{ and } z = -i$$

The residue of $f(z)$ at $z = i$ is $\frac{1}{(i-i)(i+i)} = \frac{1}{2i}$

$$\text{The residue at } z = -i \text{ is } \frac{1}{(-i+i)(-i-i)} = \frac{1}{-2i}$$

19. (b)

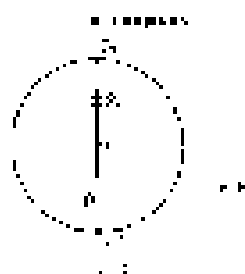
$$\begin{aligned}
 w &= \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\
 &= \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) \\
 \Rightarrow 0 &= \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\
 &= \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \\
 &= \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

20. (d)

$$\begin{aligned}
 z &= \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} \\
 \text{Then } \log z &= \log e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} = i\frac{2\pi}{3} \\
 \therefore \quad z &= e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} \\
 e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} &= 1 \\
 \therefore \quad z &= \frac{e^{i\frac{2\pi}{3}} - 1}{i} = 2
 \end{aligned}$$

21. (a)

$$\frac{z^2 - 4}{z^2 + 1} = \frac{z^2 - 4}{z^2 - 2(iz - 2)}$$

By Cauchy's theorem $\oint_C f(z) dz = 0$ and $\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz = 2\pi i$ from figure of $f(z) = \frac{z^2 - 4}{z^2 + 1}$ we see that no circle is inside C_0 We take $C_1 = 2i$ to avoid 0

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \int_C \frac{z^2 - 4}{z^2 + 1} dz &= 2\pi i \cdot \text{Res } f(2i) \\
 &= 2\pi i \cdot \left(\frac{(2i - 2)(2i^2 - 4)}{(1 + 2i)(2i - 2i)} \right) \\
 &= 2\pi i \cdot \left(\frac{(2i)^2 - 4}{2i - 2i} \right) = -2\pi i
 \end{aligned}$$

22. (b)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{(2-3i)}{(1-i)^2} &= \frac{(2-3i)}{(-2+2i)} \times \frac{(1-i)}{(1-i)} \\
 &= \frac{(2-2+1i-3)}{(2-2i)} = \frac{-1+1i}{2i} \\
 &= i(-1+i)
 \end{aligned}$$

23. (a)

Apply Cauchy-Riemann condition

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 2y$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2x$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow v = x^2 + f(y)$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = (x + f'(y)) = 2x$$

$$\therefore f'(y) = x^2 + \text{constant}$$

$$\therefore v = x^2 + y^2 + \text{constant}$$

24. (a)

Apply Cauchy-Riemann condition

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \text{ and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

$$u = x - y^2$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 1, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -2y$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow v = 2xy + f(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 2y + f'(x)$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 2y + f'(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow 2xy = (x - 1)(2y + 1) + 2$$

$$\therefore v = 2xy + 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \operatorname{Re} z &= (u-v)' = u' - v' = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \dots \\ &= 2 + 8v - v^2 - \frac{v^3}{2} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

32. (d)
Given

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sol.} \quad f(z) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} z^n \\ &= \frac{1}{0!} + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots \\ &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Also we know that $e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Put } z &= 1 \text{ in above expansion} \\ e^1 &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \dots \\ e &= 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{24} + \dots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

33. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 &= 2 - \sqrt{-3}i; z_2 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + 2i \\ \arg(z_1) &= \theta_1 = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\operatorname{Im}(z_1)}{\operatorname{Re}(z_1)} \right) = \theta_1 = 29^\circ \\ \arg(z_2) &= \theta_2 = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\operatorname{Im}(z_2)}{\operatorname{Re}(z_2)} \right) = \theta_2 = 30^\circ \\ \arg \left(\frac{z_1}{z_2} \right) &= \theta_1 - \theta_2 = \arg(z_1) - \arg(z_2) = 29^\circ - 30^\circ \end{aligned}$$

35. (d)

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Re} z_1 &= 2 = u, \operatorname{Im} z_1 = 3 = v \\ \operatorname{Re} z_2 &= 1 = u, \operatorname{Im} z_2 = 0 \\ \frac{u_1}{a_1} &= \frac{u_2}{a_2} = \frac{u}{a} \\ \frac{v_1}{b_1} &= \frac{v_2}{b_2} = \frac{v}{b} \quad \text{Proportional} \\ \Rightarrow z & \text{ is an analytic function} \end{aligned}$$

36. Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} u(x, y) &= \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 0 \Rightarrow u = A_1 x + A_2 y + A_3 \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = A_2 = 2y \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} &= 2y \\ v &= yx + A_4 \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} &= x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 10 \\ x &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 10 \end{aligned}$$

37. (b)

Given $\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz$ where C is the unit circle. By Cauchy's integral theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz &= \text{Residue of } f(z) \text{ at } z=0 \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \times 2\pi i \text{ (residue at } z=0) \\ \oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz &= 2\pi i \text{ is the case for } f(z) \\ \text{So, residue at } z=0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\oint_C \frac{1}{z} dz \right] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$3: \oint_C \frac{1}{z^2} dz = 2\pi i \times 0 = 0$$

39. Sol.

$$f(z) = \frac{z+2}{z}$$

Since there is no pole inside $|z|=2$, so Residue at pole is 0.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz = 0$$

39. (b)

Residue at regular point

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(z)}{z-a} &= \frac{f(z)}{z-a} = \frac{f(z)}{z-a} \\ \left(\frac{f(z)}{z-a} \right)' &= \frac{f'(z)}{z-a} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

41. (a)

$f(z)$ has a pole at $z=1$. So Residue of $f(z)$ at $z=1$

$$= \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)f(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{z^2} = \frac{1}{2^2}$$

7-Substn of $z = 1$ in (1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{z^2} \right)' (z - 2)^2 dz \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{2(z - 2)}{(z - 1)^2} \\
 &= \frac{-2}{(z - 1)^2} = -1
 \end{aligned}$$

41. (a)

$$\begin{aligned}
 3z &= -1(1 - z) = -1 + z \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 - z} = \frac{1}{1 - z} = \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

42. Sol.

$$C(z) = 2z^2 - 3z + 2$$

Given 1st order system,

with 1st order discrete system as

Since z^{-1} is shift in time and no change in analysis.

2nd order system where

$C(z) = 2z^2 + 3z + 2$ is original

system $z = 0$

43. (a)

$$L = 20\%$$

$$u_1 = 20\% \quad u_2 = 20\%$$

Assume (a)

$$V_1 = -20\% \quad V_2 = -20\%$$

$$V_3 = 20\%$$

(b) Equations are satisfied only when $n = 1$

44. Sol.

Given 1st order system

$$u_1 = 20\% \quad u_2 = 20\%$$

$$V_1 = -20\% \quad V_2 = -20\%$$

$$V_3 = 20\%$$

$$V_4 = 20\%$$

$$V_5 = 20\% \quad V_6 = 20\%$$

$$V_7 = 20\%$$

$$V_8 = 20\%$$

$$V_9 = 20\%$$

45. (b)

$$C(z) = z^2 - 2z$$

$C(z) = 2z$ is continuous system

$$u_1 = 20\% \quad u_2 = 20\%$$

$$V_1 = -20\% \quad V_2 = -20\%$$

$$V_3 = 20\% \quad V_4 = 20\%$$

(c) Equations not satisfied

(d) No characteristic

46. (a)

$$\int_1^2 \frac{dx}{x^2 - 3x + 2}$$

$$= \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{(x-1)(x-2)}$$

$x = 1$ is integrand partial

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

Partial and $\frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x-2}$

$$= \frac{-2 - x^2 - 2}{2} = \frac{-x - 4}{2} = -\frac{x}{2} - 2$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

49. Sol.

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2}{(z-1)^4} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \left(\frac{z^2-1}{(z-1)^4} + \frac{1}{(z-1)^4} \right) dz$$

Residue at $z=1$ is

$$\text{Residue is } = \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{1}{(z-1)^4} \right)$$

$$\text{pole} = 4 \Rightarrow \text{Residue is}$$

$$\text{Res} = \frac{1}{3!} \frac{1}{(z-1)^4}$$

$$\text{Res Value} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6!} = \frac{1}{720} \frac{z^2-1}{(z-1)^4} = \frac{z^2-1}{720}$$

Residue at $z=1$ is

By Cauchy's theorem as

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \times 2\pi i \times f(z) =$$

50. Sol.

$$f = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$= \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$f(z) = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$f(z) = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$f(z) = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \times \frac{2\pi i \times f(z)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 2\pi i \times f(z) = \pi i f(z)$$

51. (b)

(a) $z=0$ is a node

$$\text{So } f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\text{So } f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} = \frac{1}{z^2} \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

52. Sol.

$$\text{Res} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\text{Residue at } z=1 = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

53. (b)

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

Residue at $z=1$ is

$$\text{Res} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\text{Res} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

Residue at $z=1$ is

$$\text{Res} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

Residue at $z=1$ is

54. (b)

Open set U is an open set

$$f(z) = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} = \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

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$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

55. (b)

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{z^2-1}{z^2-1} dz$$

5

Probability and Statistics

5.1 Probability Fundamentals

5.1.1 Definitions

Sample Space and Event (Event): An outcome of whose occurrence is unpredictable with certainty. A finite experiment is called a random experiment. The model, all outcomes of the experiment that may be known to the experimenter, is called the set of all possible outcomes. A known finite set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is known as the sample space or event. Let the event denoted by S . So, the sample space is

1. If the outcome of an experiment consists of the determination of the sex of a newborn child, then $S = \{g, b\}$ where 'g' stands for 'girl' and 'b' stands for 'boy' (girl and a boy).
2. If the outcome of an experiment consists of the number of a single die, then $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.
3. If the outcome of an experiment is the order of line in a race, among five persons having different ages $(1 = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$, then $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ permutations of $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$.

The outcome $\{2, 3, 1, 5, 4\}$ means, for instance, that a number 2 race car came in first, 3 in the race car then, then 1, 5, 4 in the order of a race.

Any subset A of the sample space is known as event. That is, an event is a set consisting of some or all of the possible outcomes of the experiment. For example, in the above example, let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and some notable events are

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 &= \{1, 2, 3\} \\ E_2 &= \{5, 6\} \\ E_3 &= \{1, 4, 5, 6\} \end{aligned}$$

where E_1 is the event that the sum of the numbers is 7, then we say that the event occurred. Similarly, E_2 .

Since E_1 and E_2 are disjoint events, they may be mutually used as a group to find the probability of occurrence of a particular event.

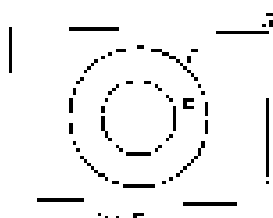
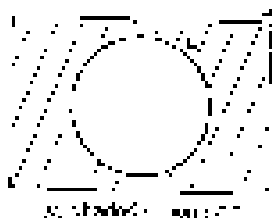
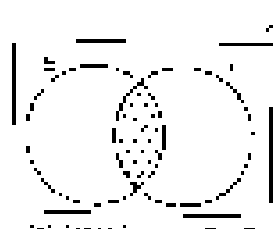
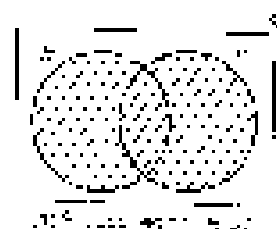
Example 1: By throwing a die, the outcomes 1, 2 are events E_1 and E_2 as shown below as shown.

In this example, if $E_1 = \{1\}$ and $E_2 = \{2\}$, then E_1 is the event that 1 is rolled and E_2 is the event that 2 is rolled.

Similarly, if $E_3 = \{2, 4\}$ and $E_4 = \{1, 3, 5, 6\}$, then E_3 is the event that 2 or 4 is rolled. However, a sample space in simple terms. Compound events may consist of more than one outcome. Such as $E_1 = \{1, 2, 3\}$ is an event. $E_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ is an event. We say that E_1 has appeared in the first roll of the die.

For any two events E_1 and E_2 , a sample space S , we define the new event $E_1 \cup E_2$ to consist of all outcomes that are either in E_1 or in E_2 or in both E_1 and E_2 . That is, the event $E_1 \cup E_2$ will occur if either E_1 or E_2 or both occur. For instance, in the above example (1) if event $E_1 = \{1, 2\}$ and $E_2 = \{2, 4\}$, then $E_1 \cup E_2 = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$.

Take a fair die with faces numbered 1 to 6 and let E_1 be the event E_1 is a multiple of 3 and E_2 be the event E_2 is a multiple of 2. Similarly, for any two events E_1 and E_2 we may define the new event $E_1 \cap E_2$ called **Intersection** of E_1 and E_2 as the set of all outcomes that are common to both E_1 and E_2 .



5.1.2 Types of Events

5.1.2.1 Complementary Event

The event A^c is called complementary event of the event A . That is, event A^c is complementary to A but not A .
 Examples: (a) A coin is tossed. $A = \{H\}$ (Head) $A^c = \{T\}$ (Tail) (b) $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ (Odd no.) $A^c = \{5, 6\}$.

5.1.2.2 Equally Likely Events

Two events A and B are equally likely if

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For example: } & A = \{1, 2, 3\} \\ & B = \{4, 5, 6\} \\ \text{are equally likely since } & P(A) = P(B) = 1/2 \end{aligned}$$

5.1.2.3 Mutually Exclusive Events

Two events A and B are mutually exclusive if $A \cap B = \phi$ (i.e., when A and B happen at the same time, no outcome is common to both A and B). (i.e., no sample point common).

5.1.2.4 Collectively Exhaustive Events

Two events A and B are collectively exhaustive if $A \cup B = S$ (i.e., together, A and B include all possible outcomes). $P(A \cup B) = P(S) = 1$.

5.1.2.5 Independent Events

Two events A and B are independent if

$$\begin{aligned} & P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \\ \text{Also } & P(A^c \cap B) = P(A^c) \cdot P(B) \text{ and } P(A \cap B^c) = P(A) \cdot P(B^c) \end{aligned}$$

Whenever A and B are independent, what happens if A and B are dependent? The word collectively exhaustive is not a good possibility, as assuming A is not affected by whether event B has occurred or not, and vice versa. (i.e., if A is dependent on B , then B is also dependent on A).

5.1.3 DeMorgan's Law

$$1. \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right)^c = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i^c \qquad 2. \left(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i \right)^c = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i^c$$

PROBLEM

PROBABILITY: Solution:

Example: $(E_1, E_2, E_3) = (E_1^c)^2 = E_3^2$
 $(E_1, E_2, E_3) = (E_1^c, E_2, E_3)$

Note that E_1 and E_2 are not exhaustive for E_3 nor E_1

and E_2 is the even either E_1 or E_2 (or both)

Example: - two system and failure probability of system F for E_1

if $P(E_1) = P(E_2) = 0.4$ and $P(E_3) = 0.1$ then $P(F) = 0.9$

5.1.4 Approaches to Probability

There are 3 approaches to probability: Analytical, Experimental

1. Classical Approach:

$$P(A) = \frac{n(A)}{n(S)} = \frac{r}{R}$$

In this case, number of ways an event can happen is the number of ways a sample space can happen. This is the probability of the event. Consider success outcomes and all outcomes are mutually exclusive.

Example 1:

Find all possible outcomes of a coin flip (H/T) and a die roll (1-6), and find the probability of rolling a 1 and a head (H, 1).

Solution:

$$P(H, 1) = \frac{n(H, 1)}{n(S)}$$

For the event:

$$n(H, 1) = 1 \text{ (ways to get H and 1)} = 1$$

$$n(S) = 12 \text{ (all possible outcomes)} = 12$$

So

$$P(H, 1) = \frac{n(H, 1)}{n(S)} = \frac{1}{12} = 0.083$$

Example 2:

From the following table find the probability of drawing red chips from the event.

$$\frac{\text{Number of red chips}}{\text{Total number of chips}} = \frac{10}{20} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Solution:

$$P(R) = \frac{n(R)}{n(S)} = \frac{10}{20} = 0.5$$

By the addition rule: $P(R) = 0.5$

$$P(R) = \frac{n(R)}{n(S)} = \frac{10}{20} = 0.5$$

5.1.5 Axioms of Probability

Consider a sample space S and a set A of events E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n in the sample space. The probability of a sample $P(E_i)$ is defined and the axioms of probability are:

Axiom-1: $P(E_i) \geq 0$

Axiom-2: $P(S) = 1$

Axiom-3: For any two events E_1 and E_2 in the sample space S , $P(E_1 \cup E_2) = P(E_1) + P(E_2) - P(E_1 \cap E_2)$

For $E_1 = \{E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n\}$

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

Example: $P(A|B) = P(A \cap B)/P(B)$ where $P(B) \neq 0$ as in only example.

5.1.6 Rules of Probability

The basic axioms of probability can be interpreted as the following two involving of these concepts and A can be completed.

Rule 1:

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) \quad \text{where } A \cap B = \emptyset$$

That is, two sets (events) which are mutually exclusive (probability).

For mutually sets

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

That is, two sets (events) which are mutually exclusive.

Rule 2:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B|A) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B)$$

where $P(A|B)$ represents the conditional probability of A given B and $P(B|A)$ represents the conditional probability of B given A.

(i) $P(A)$ and $P(B)$ are called the marginal probabilities of events A and B. That is, A and B are independent.

(ii) $P(A \cap B)$ is called the joint probability of A and B.

(iii) If A and B are independent events, then the joint probability

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

and where A and B = random sets.

$$P(A|A) = P(A)$$

and $P(B|B) = P(B)$

$$P(A|A) = P(A) \quad \text{and} \quad P(B|B) = P(B)$$

where $P(A)$ and $P(B)$ are called the marginal probabilities of events A and B.

(iv) If A and B are independent events, then $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$ and $P(B|A) = P(B)$.

(v) The events A and B are independent.

Example: A and B are independent.

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

and

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

and

$$P(A|B) = P(A)$$

and

$$P(B|A) = P(B)$$

That is, A and B are independent.

where $P(A)$ and $P(B)$ are called the marginal probabilities of events A and B.

where $P(A)$ and $P(B)$ are called the marginal probabilities of events A and B.

Rule 3: Conditional probability

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

where $P(A|B)$ represents the conditional probability of A given B and $P(B)$ represents the probability of B.

and

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

$P(A|B)$ is called the conditional probability of A given B.

then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \mathbf{A}^T$.

Let \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} be two square matrices of the same order and let \mathbf{A}^{-1} exist.

It is proved that the inverse of \mathbf{A}^{-1} is \mathbf{A} , i.e. $\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}$.

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \mathbf{A} \quad \text{and} \quad (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = \mathbf{I} - (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T \mathbf{B}$$

(ii) $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$ and $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$.

Rule 4: Inverse of the Inverse is the Matrix

Suppose \mathbf{A}^{-1} is the inverse of \mathbf{A} .

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}$$

By using a property of the transpose in a probability matrix

$$(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = (\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A})^T = \mathbf{I}^T = \mathbf{I}$$

By interchanging \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{A}^{-1} in the above we get

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{-1} = \frac{(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1})^T}{(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T} = \mathbf{A}$$

Rule 5: Rule of Total Probability

Consider an event T which occurs via two different events A and B during a year. As the distribution of T is given and is already associated with A and B , then T may be represented by taking T as class T .

$$P(T) = P(T|A) + P(T|B)$$

$$P(T) = P(T|A) + P(T|B)$$

Now the probability of T is given by using the total probability as

$$P(T) = P(A) \cdot P(T|A) + P(B) \cdot P(T|B) = P(A) \cdot P(T|A) + P(B) \cdot P(T|B)$$

which is the total probability.

Suppose we observe the data with an event T , given that the event T has already occurred, what is the probability of A occurring given T or B occurring given T if we have no other knowledge (the conditional case).

Example:

Q. In a two-way table, the probability of getting a grade of A is given as follows. See if you can find the probability of getting a grade of A given that the student is a girl.

or, find the probability of A given B if the student is a girl. See if you can find the probability of getting a grade of A given that the student is a boy.

Q. What is the probability that the student is a girl if he has A ?

Q. Given that the student has A , what is the probability that he is a boy or a girl?

Solution:

Let A = Student is a boy and B = Student is a girl.

$$\begin{array}{c} P(A) = 0.35 \\ \swarrow \searrow \\ P(B) = 0.25 \end{array}$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{0.2 \times 0.7}{0.25} = 0.56$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{0.2 \times 0.7}{0.25} = 0.56$$

5.2 Statistics

5.2.1 Introduction

Statistics is a branch of mathematics which gives us the tools to deal with large quantities of data and derive meaningful conclusions about the data. In doing, it makes use of some standard measures and concepts. It is generally used to make statistical inference in other words, using statistics we can summarise large quantities of data by a few selected statistics.

Two descriptive measures that are used for the statistical data are:

1. Measure of central tendency
2. Measure of dispersion

These two descriptive measures that give us the average value of data and also help to understand the nature of the data and the spread of data from the average value are called the statistics.

The location measure characterises the data in a point and is very different from the central tendency value. In other words, location measures and describes the location of data. The largest value is called the maximum among all the data items.

Mean, Median and Mode are some examples of statistical location measures.

Standard deviation, variance and coefficient of variation are examples of dispersion measures.

How do we study each of these statistical measures in greater detail?

5.2.2 Arithmetic Mean

5.2.2.1 Arithmetic Mean for Raw Data

The formula for calculating the arithmetic mean for raw data is: $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$

\bar{x} = arithmetic mean

\sum = addition (i.e. sum of all observations)

n = number of observations

Example

The number of students who took part in sports is given as 2, 3, 5, 7, 4, 6, 7, 8.

Calculate the average number of students.

Solution

\bar{x} = arithmetic mean here is 5.5, i.e. the total number of students made part of sports are

$$0 + 2 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 4 + 6 + 7 + 8 = 42$$

Number of students $n = 10$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x_i}{n} = \frac{42}{10} = 4.2$$

5.2.2.1 The Arithmetic Mean for Grouped Data (Frequency Distribution)

The formula for calculating the arithmetic mean for frequency distribution is also known as the formula for location of frequency:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum fx_i}{\sum f}$$

Example:

Find the mean of the following data by a frequency mean or a grouped frequency. The data on height of 200 students of a school is given below. The class size and frequency are given in the following table.

Height (cm)	Frequency (f)	Height of class (C) (cm)	f × C
150-160	5	155	775
160-170	15	165	2475
170-180	35	175	6125
180-190	40	185	7400
190-200	35	195	6825
200-210	25	205	5125
210-220	20	215	4300
220-230	10	225	2250
230-240	5	235	1175
Total	200		43050

Solution:

With class frequency, the frequency mean of a data is the sum of each class multiplied by the class value divided by the total of the frequency of all classes or $\frac{\sum fC}{\sum f}$ of the classes.

$$\therefore \text{The mean} = \frac{\sum fC}{\sum f} = \frac{43050}{200} = 215.25$$

5.1.3 Median

A frequency mean is not convenient for a distribution which is skewed and irregular distribution. The median is the best measure of central tendency in such cases.

In the case of median in a normal distribution, the distribution of the data is symmetric and the value which is equal to the number of values greater than the median is equal to the total average. Another way of explaining it is that the value which is equal to the value of the frequency of the data divided by two is the median. The median is the value which divides the data into two equal parts. For the median, the number of values greater than the value which is equal to the number of all the data is the same as

5.1.3.1 Median for Raw Data

Suppose that there are n data, $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ arranged in ascending order as

$$x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3 \leq \dots \leq x_n$$

So, the median value (or) Median = the $\frac{n+1}{2}$ th value.

However, if n is even, we have two middle values

$$\text{Median} = \frac{x_{\frac{n}{2}} + x_{\frac{n}{2}+1}}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{x_{\frac{n+1}{2}} + x_{\frac{n+2}{2}}}{2}$$

Example:

Find the median of the following data: 150, 155, 160, 165, 170, 175, 180, 185, 190, 195, 200, 205, 210, 215, 220, 225, 230, 235, 240.

Solution:

Arranging the data in ascending order, we have 150, 155, 160, 165, 170, 175, 180, 185, 190, 195, 200, 205, 210, 215, 220, 225, 230, 235, 240.

Two middle values will be 190 and 195.

$$\therefore \text{Median} = \frac{190 + 195}{2} = 192.5$$

5.2.3.2 Median for Grouped Data

- Identify the median class (or class containing the middle observation) $\left(\left(\frac{N}{2} + 1 \right)^{\text{th}} \text{ observation} \right)$ in the given data showing the frequency with the cumulative frequency is equal to or greater than $\frac{N+1}{2}$. Here, $N = \sum f_i$ = frequency of observations.
- Obtain Median as follows:

$$\text{Median} = L + \frac{\left(\frac{N}{2} - F \right)}{f} \times h$$

- Where,
- L = Lower limit of median class
 - N = Total number of observations
 - F = Cumulative frequency of the class immediately preceding the median class
 - f = Frequency of median class
 - h = Width of median class

Example:

The school has is calculating using the marks obtained by students in an exam

Marks Range	Number of Students	Cumulative Frequency
0-20	7	7
20-40	6	13
40-60	10	23
60-80	15	38
$\Sigma f_i = 38$	20	50

Solution:

$$\therefore \frac{N}{2} = \frac{38}{2} = 19$$

The class 60-80, with the cumulative frequency of 38 is the median class.

$$\text{Median} = \frac{N}{2} + \frac{\left(\frac{N}{2} - F \right)}{f} \times h = 60 + \frac{(19 - 23)}{15} \times 20 = 57.33 \approx 57.3$$

- Median marks of the class is approximately 57.3.
- Let us confirm the calculation by the other method that is 57.3 median.

5.2.4 Mode

Mode is defined as the value of the variable which occurs most frequently.

5.2.4.1 Mode for Raw Data

Mode is the most frequently occurring observation in the data. That is data with highest frequency is called Mode. There are three types of measures of central tendency, that is, (i) arithmetic mean, (ii) median and (iii) mode. (i) and (ii) are measures of location, and (iii) is measure of dispersion.

Example:

For the marks of the data set, 45, 30, 75, 80, 50, 70, 80

Solution:

1. Arrange the numbers in order: 10, 10, 10, 20, 30, 30, 30, 40
2. Note the middle value (frequency table)

10	3
20	2
30	3
40	1

Since 30 is the data with maximum frequency, mode is 30. The second mode is not there.

5.2.4.2 Mode for Grouped Data

Mode of a data set for which the frequency is maximum. The values of the grouped data set which fall in the class with the highest frequency are known as the modal class.

1. Identify the class with the highest frequency as modal class.
2. Calculate its mode as

$$\text{Mode} = L + \frac{f_1 - f_0}{2f_1 - f_0 - f_2} \times h$$

Where

L = Lower limit of modal class

f_0 = Frequency immediately preceding modal class

f_1 = Frequency of the modal class

f_2 = Frequency immediately succeeding modal class

h = Class interval

Example:

Given following is the frequency distribution of marks obtained in a test. Find the modal class and mode.

Percentage	Frequency
0-10	8
10-20	12
20-30	15
30-40	18
40-50	22
50-60	25
60-70	18
70-80	7
Total	115

Solution:

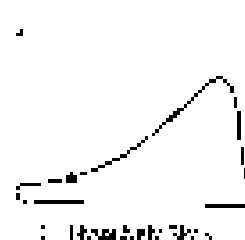
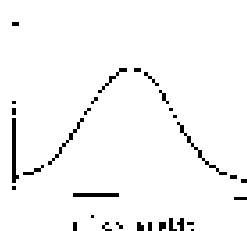
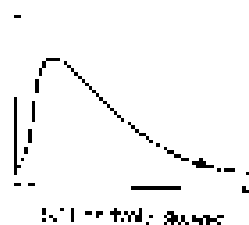
Since 18% is the highest frequency, the modal class is 40-50.

Here $L = 40$, $f_0 = 18$, $f_1 = 22$, $f_2 = 25$, $h = 10$

$$\text{Mode} = 40 + \frac{22 - 18}{2(22) - 18 - 25} \times 10 = 43.8 \text{ (approx.)}$$

5.2.5 Properties Relating Mean, Median and Mode

1. $\text{Mode} + \text{mode} - \text{median} = 3 \times \text{mean}$
where μ = approximate value of mode, \bar{x} = sample mean, \bar{y} = sample median.
2. There are a number of formulae derived for this.
Possibly a good, eye-ball estimate can give you skewed distribution.



(a) Left-skewed or negative skew

Mean < Median < Mode

(b) Symmetric distribution

Mean = Median = Mode

(c) Right-skewed or positive skew

Mean < Median < Mode

5.2.6 Standard Deviation

Standard Deviation is a measure of dispersion or spread of a series of data.

It is the square root of the mean of the squares of the deviations of the values of the variate from the mean or expected value. It is given as the square root of the variance.

The positive square root of the variance is called the **Standard Deviation** of the given series.

5.2.6.1 Standard Deviation for Raw Data

Suppose x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are the values of the variate with mean \bar{x} .

$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$ is the standard deviation of the values of the variate x , then

$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$ is the variance of the variate x .

$$\therefore \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - n\bar{x}^2 \quad \therefore \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n} - \bar{x}^2 = \sigma^2$$

This formula also can be written as follows by taking the square root on both sides and require sigma.

Standard deviation of the variate x is given by

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n} - \bar{x}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}{n} - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n}\right)^2}$$

Example:

Calculate the standard deviation of the marks in exam with 80, 50 and 70, 60, 40, 50 and 60 marks.

Solution:

Students	Marks	x_i^2
1	80	6400
2	50	2500
3	70	4900
4	60	3600
5	40	1600
6	50	2500
7	60	3600

Thus,

$$n = 9$$

$$\text{Sample Standard Deviation } (s) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{13 \times 10000 - (1300)^2}{8}}$$

$$8.162$$

$$\text{Variance } (s^2) = 66.63$$

5.2.6.2 Standard Deviation for Grouped Data

Calculate the standard deviation for grouped data in the following example.

Example

Each day, a class of 100 students is asked to report the number of hours they spend studying each day.

Solution:

Height (x)	Frequency (f)	Mean value (x)	Frequency (f)	$\sum fx$	$\sum fx^2$
32.5 – 35.0	10	33.75	10	775.00	47250.00
35.0 – 37.5	20	36.25	20	1525.00	110625.00
37.5 – 40.0	30	38.75	30	2362.50	214687.50
40.0 – 42.5	15	41.25	15	1106.25	90637.50
42.5 – 45.0	10	43.75	10	637.50	50625.00
45.0 – 47.5	10	46.25	10	637.50	50625.00
47.5 – 50.0	5	48.75	5	243.75	10937.50
50.0 – 52.5	5	51.25	5	256.25	11328.125
class			50	10675.00	108175.875

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum fx}{\sum f} = \frac{10675}{50} = 213.5$$

$$\text{mean, } \bar{x} = \bar{x}_1 = 213.5$$

Therefore, the standard deviation is given by

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum f(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n-1}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{10675^2 - \frac{(\sum fx)^2}{n}}{n-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{100 \times 6109.375 - (10675)^2}{100}}$$

$$26.9$$

$$\text{Variance } (s^2) = 723.61$$

5.2.7 Variance

The square of standard deviation is called as variance (s^2).

So, $s = 10$, then variance = $s^2 = 100$

Also, if $s = 10$, then $s^2 = 100$ and so, standard deviation = $\sqrt{\text{variance}} = \sqrt{100} = 10$

The square of standard deviation is called as the variance.

5.2.8 Coefficient of Variation

The standard deviation is an absolute measure of dispersion and hence can not be used to compare variability of variables with different means.

To compare variability of variables and achieve comparable measure of dispersion, coefficient of variation (CV) is used.

$$CV = \frac{\sigma}{\mu}$$

where μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation of the data set.

CV is a dimensionless and is expressed as,

$$CV\% = \frac{\sigma}{\mu} \times 100$$

When comparing the CVs, the data set with higher value of CV is more variable than the other and is called as a data set with higher value of CVs.

For example;

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & \mu & \sigma \\ \hline \text{Data set 1} & 50 & 10 \\ \hline \text{Data set 2} & 100 & 20 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Although σ of data set 2 is double that of data set 1, the CVs of both sets are equal and hence the variability is same as seen by the fact that $\sigma = 20$ for CV of 10% while $\sigma = 20$ for CV of 20%.

Secondly, variability between two data sets (for the data set, variability is the density of the data set) can be compared as follows.

5.3 Probability Distributions

5.3.1 Random Variables

The frequency of occurrence of a particular phenomenon is known as probability. It is a measure supported on the outcome of an event.

For example, if the probability of a particular event occurring is 0.5, then the event will occur in the sequence of two trials. The sequence of two trials will give the same result, i.e., either the event will occur or it will not occur (i.e., (0, 1) or (1, 0) or (0, 0) or (1, 1)).

Also, in probability, we may be interested in the value of the probability of occurrence and hence a set about the value of the probability, which is the expected value of the probability. A set of values of the probability of occurrence is known as random variable.

Because the value of a random variable is determined by the outcome of an experiment, we may assign probability to the possible values of a random variable.

Types of Random Variable: For a random variable, two types are considered.

Discrete Random Variables: A discrete random variable is a variable that can take only discrete values.

Example: A person can be 20, 21, 22, etc. A discrete random variable is a variable that can take only discrete values. For example, if a person is 20, 21, 22, etc., then the value of the variable is one of these values.

Continuous Random Variables: A continuous random variable is a variable that can take any value in a continuous range of values.

Example: A person's height is a continuous variable. A person's height may be 1.70, 1.75, 1.80, etc., and all such values are possible.

5.3.1.1 Probability Density Function (PDF)

(a) The probability density function (PDF) of a continuous random variable is

$$1. \quad f(x) \geq 0 \quad 2. \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1 \quad 3. \quad P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

5.3.1.2 Probability Mass Function (PMF)

(a) The probability mass function (PMF) of a discrete random variable is

$$1. \quad p(x) = P(X=x) \quad 2. \quad p(x) \geq 0 \quad 3. \quad \sum_{x=-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) = 1$$

5.3.2 Distributions

A random variable can be discrete distribution or a continuous distribution (based on a discrete random variable or continuous distribution) based on a real-valued random variable.

Examples of discrete distributions are Bernoulli, Poisson and Binomial distributions.

Examples of continuous distributions are Normal, Gamma and Lognormal distributions.

5.3.2.1 Properties of Discrete Distribution

$$X(0) = 1$$

$$E(X) = \sum x p(x)$$

$$E(X^2) = \sum x^2 p(x) = E(X) + \sum x^2 p(x) - E(X)^2$$

The variance of a discrete random variable is given by $\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$.

5.3.2.2 Properties of Continuous Distribution

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

$$E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

$$E(X^2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx$$

$$E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \right)^2$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \right)^2$$

5.4 Types of Distributions

Discrete Distributions

1. Bernoulli Distribution
2. Binomial Distribution
3. Poisson Distribution
4. Geometric Distribution
5. Negative Binomial

58.3.1 General Discrete Distribution

Let X be a discrete random variable.

A table of possible values of x versus corresponding probability values and a normalised probability distribution table.

Example:

Let X be a number of failures and single probabilities.

Then probability distribution is given as follows:

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
$P(X=x)$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$

In this case $P(X)$ is same for all values of x and is known as x as following distribution.

For example, let both same 1, 2 numbers are chosen at random from 1 to 10.

Then a probability distribution is given as follows as shown.

x	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$P(X=x)$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$

Note: The sum of all probabilities is equal to 1.

are probability distribution table.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P(X=x_i) = 1$$

in the case of single x is

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$P(X=x)$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$	$\frac{1}{10}$

$$\text{Hence, } \sum_{i=1}^{10} P(X=x_i) = \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = 1$$

From the table we can compute the following:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X=1) &= \frac{1}{10} \\ P(X=2) &= \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{1}{5} \\ P(X=3) &= \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{3}{10} \\ P(X=4) &= \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} = \frac{2}{5} \end{aligned}$$

Another approach, we can calculate the cumulative probability distribution as

$$F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(X=x_i)$$

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = [P(X=1) + P(X=2) + \dots + P(X=x)]$$

$F(x)$ is the cumulative probability of x and $F(x)$ is the sum of all values of $P(X=x_i)$ for $x_i \leq x$.
Sometimes, it is written as $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$.

σ_y^2 represents the variance of y for the n th measurement value x_n of x .

Now $\sigma_y^2 = \sigma_y^2(x)$ and let it be denoted by $f(x)$ then $f(x)$ is

Also expected value or expectation of y for x can be expressed as follows:

$$E(y|x) = E(y)f(x)$$

For example,

$$E(y|x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i f(x_i) = E(x) = \mu = 20 \times \frac{1}{2} = 10$$

By the same logic, standard deviation is

$$\sigma_y = \sigma(y|x) = \sigma(y|x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2} = 10$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_y^2 = f(x) &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 f(x_i) - [E(y|x)]^2 \\ &= \left[\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \right] - \left[20 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \right]^2 = 2.917 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sigma_y = \sqrt{2.917} = 1.708$$

Properties of Expectation and Variance

If x and y are two random variables then the following properties

$$E(ax + by) = aE(x) + bE(y) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Var}(ax + by) = a^2 \text{Var}(x) + b^2 \text{Var}(y) \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Cov}(ax + by, cx + dy) = aE(x) + bE(y) \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Cov}(ax + by, cx + dy) = a^2 \text{Cov}(x, x) + b^2 \text{Cov}(y, y) + 2ac \text{Cov}(x, y) \quad (4)$$

where $\text{Cov}(x, y)$ represents the covariance of x and y and

If x and y are independent, then $\text{Cov}(x, y) = 0$ and the above formula reduces to

$$\text{Cov}(ax + by, cx + dy) = a^2 \text{Cov}(x, x) + b^2 \text{Cov}(y, y) \quad (5)$$

For example from above formula we can say

$$\text{Cov}(x, x) = \text{Cov}(y, y) = \text{Var}(x) = \text{Var}(y)$$

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = \text{Cov}(y, x)$$

$$\text{Cov}(x, x) = \text{Var}(x) = \sigma_x^2 = \text{Cov}(y, y) = \sigma_y^2$$

Formula for calculating covariance between x and y

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = E(xy) - E(x)E(y)$$

If x and y are independent $E(xy) = E(x)E(y)$

$$\text{Cov}(x, y) = 0$$

3.3.3.2 Binomial Distribution

Assumes that n trials of an experiment are conducted and a fixed probability of success p exists in each trial.

Suppose that in n trials, x is the number of successes. In probability, parameters n and p are called n and p respectively.

x represents the number of successes that occur in n trials, therefore will be denoted by a random variable X where $X \sim B(n, p)$.

The Bernoulli trial is a procedure that experiment performed success and failure outcomes:

1. Only 2 outcomes are possible success and failure.
2. Probability of success (denoted by p) is same for all trials.
3. The trials are statistically independent. The outcome of one trial does not influence subsequent trials in the series.

These assumptions are satisfied in following types of problems:

- (i) Success or failure.
- (ii) Success or failure.
- (iii) Number of replacement items in a production.
- (iv) Number of defective items in a production.

The probability of having x successes from n trials given by the binomial distribution formula,

$$P(X = x) = {}^nC_x p^x q^{n-x} \quad \text{where}$$

Where n is the probability of success in any trial and $q = 1 - p$ is the probability of failure.

Example 1,

1. Five persons are asked the probability of getting exactly 2 successes.

Solution:

$$P(X = 2) = {}^5C_2 (0.4)^2 (0.6)^3 = 0.2304$$

Example 2,

It is known that 10% are produced by a defective part and the life span of the assembly is of exponentially distributed. The life span of the assembly is 1000 hours and the mean time to failure is 1000 hours. The probability of defective part is 0.1. What is the probability of defective part?

Solution:

If X is the number of defective parts in a production, then X is a binomial variable with parameters $n = 10$, $p = 0.1$. Hence, the probability that a package will be defective is,

$$\begin{aligned} P(X < 5) &= 1 - P(X \geq 5) = 1 - P(X = 5) + P(X = 6) + \dots + P(X = 10) \\ &= 1 - \left[{}^{10}C_5 (0.1)^5 (0.9)^5 + {}^{10}C_6 (0.1)^6 (0.9)^4 + \dots + {}^{10}C_{10} (0.1)^{10} (0.9)^0 \right] \\ &= 0.9694 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, 96.94% of packages will be non-defective.

For Binomial Distribution

$$\text{Mean} = n(p) = np$$

$$\text{Variance} = n(p)(1-p) = npq$$

Determine Relation

For binomial distribution, we have

$$P(X) = {}^nC_x p^x q^{n-x} \quad (1)$$

$$P(X+1) = {}^nC_{x+1} p^{x+1} q^{n-x-1} \quad (2)$$

By dividing (1) by (2), we get

$$\frac{P(X)}{P(X+1)} = \frac{{}^nC_x p^x q^{n-x}}{{}^nC_{x+1} p^{x+1} q^{n-x-1}}$$

$$\frac{P(1)}{P(0)} = \frac{3 \times 10}{2 \times 10}$$

$$P(1) = \frac{3 \times 10}{2 \times 10} P(0)$$

Example 3:

100 items with 20% defective are inspected and 10 items are drawn randomly from it.

Solution:

$$N = 100, n = 10, K = 20, k = 0$$

So, the total 100 = 40 acceptable (A) &

$$60 = 20\% \times 100 = 20 \times 10 \times 100 = 2000$$

So, 40 acceptable items (A) = 2000

5.3.2 Hypergeometric Distribution

If the probability is sampled from a finite population of the assumption of binomial distribution gets violated and hence binomial distribution is not used. In such case, hypergeometric distribution is used. This probability is used in case of sampling without replacement method from the population.

Example:

There are 10 members in a club, of which 5 are active and 4 are of age below 10. A committee of 3 is chosen from them. What is the probability that exactly 2 are active & 1 is below 10?

Solution:

The above problem is solved by hypergeometric distribution as follows:
 5 active and 5 below 10.

$$N = 10, n = \frac{5 \times 5}{100} = 0.5$$

The above problem can be generalized into distribution form by taking the number of defective as k and n .

Then probability is as follows:

$$P(X = k) = \frac{{}^n C_k \times {}^{N-n} C_{n-k}}{{}^N C_n}$$

This is the hypergeometric distribution in above problem.

For above problem, we can get into the following

$$P(X = 1) = \frac{{}^5 C_1 \times {}^5 C_2}{{}^{10} C_3}$$

$$P(X = 1) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + \frac{{}^5 C_0 \times {}^5 C_2}{{}^{10} C_3} + \frac{{}^5 C_1 \times {}^5 C_1}{{}^{10} C_3}$$

$$P(X \geq 1) = 1 - P(X = 0) = 1 - \left[\frac{{}^5 C_0 \times {}^5 C_3}{{}^{10} C_3} \right]$$

The above problem is similar but you can observe that there are always 50% defective.

Consider 10 objects from which 5 are defective and 5 are not defective.

If 3 objects are drawn randomly, what is the probability that 2 objects are defective and 1 is not?

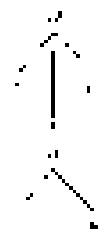


For a given x , the probability is

$$P(X = x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x}$$

The all-generals binomial expansion of $(p+q)^n$ is known as the binomial theorem. It is distributed as follows:

$$(p+q)^n = \sum_{x=0}^n \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x}$$



5.3.3.4 Geometric Distribution

Consider repeating the same series of experiments with a reversed X (success $q = 1 - p$). Let X be the number of trials until the first success. If the trials are successive, the distribution of X is given as follows:

$$\frac{1}{P(X=1)} = \frac{2}{P(X=2)} = \frac{3}{P(X=3)} = \frac{4}{P(X=4)}$$

For a given x , the probability corresponding to the occurrence of x sequential failures followed by a success is

$$P(X = x) = q^{x-1} p \quad x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The geometric distribution is characterized by the following conditions:

Points to Remember:

(a) Geometric distribution is similar to distribution of Lagrange.

$$1. \quad P(X) = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$2. \quad P(X) = \frac{q}{p}$$

$$3. \quad \text{Cumulative distribution } P(X) = 1 - q^n$$

$$4. \quad P(X) = p + q^n$$

Formulation of a composite hypothesis involves the following elementary steps which can be regarded as:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \text{ or } \mu < \mu_0 \text{ or } \mu > \mu_0$$

- Suppose a sample of size n is drawn—assigning to a variable X to perform a hypothesis test.
- Find the rejection rule for a given test A page.
- Find the probability of that A exists in all cases.
- Find the probability of that A exists for a constant α (the number of rejections α) (the α level of testing). Since α is a given constant.

Sol.1

The all-generals binomial with $n = 50$ and $p = 0.6$ (Assume that A is used)

$$(a) \quad \text{Since } p(A) = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{50} = 2\%$$

(b) The only way A exists is that general that A exists in all games. Thus $P = P(X=50) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} p^x q^{n-x} = 0.000001$

(c) Here, n must be an integer.

$$50$$

$$P = 100\% - 0.000001 = 99.9999\%$$

5.3.3 Poisson Distribution

A random variable X is said to be a Poisson variate if $X = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and if X is a Poisson variate, we write $P(X = x) = P(x; \lambda)$.

$$P(x; \lambda) = P = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$$

For Poisson distribution:

$$\text{Mean} = E(X) = \lambda$$

$$\text{Variance} = E(X^2) = \lambda$$

Therefore, expectation and variance of a Poisson variate is both equal to λ . Example 1

Example 1: In a large number of observations of events in an observation period, Poisson variate is obtained for the number of occurrences of events. Find $E(X)$ and $V(X)$.

Solution: Resurrence Relation (r, λ)

$$P(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \quad (1)$$

$$P(x+1) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x+1}}{(x+1)!} \quad (2)$$

By taking (2) by (1)

$$\frac{P(x+1)}{P(x)} = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x+1}}{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x \cdot (x+1)!} = \frac{\lambda}{x+1}$$

$$P(x+1) = \frac{\lambda}{x+1} P(x)$$

Example 1:

A certain type of electronic device has a life span of 4 hours. Assume that the probability that the device will fail in a particular 21 hours is 0.7.

Solution:

Given equation: $x = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours

$\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours

Given $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours

$\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours, $\lambda = 4$ hours

Find the probability that the device will fail within 21 hours ($x = 4$).

$$P(x=4) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \frac{e^{-4} 4^4}{4!} = 0.196$$

Generally, Poisson distribution is used to approximate binomial distribution when n is large and p is very small. For example, if $n = 1000$ and $p = 0.001$, then $np = 1$ and $n(1-p) = 999$. In this case, n is large and p is very small. Hence, we can use Poisson distribution with $\lambda = np$.

Example 2:

A certain company estimates that the number of sales in a 1000 hours is 1000. Assume that the number of sales per hour is 1 and the probability of a sale is 0.001.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= \frac{1}{100} = 0.01, \quad \frac{1}{1000} = \frac{1}{2} \\ \text{Hence } f(x) &= \frac{e^{-0.01} (0.01)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (0.01)^{0.5} \end{aligned}$$

Continuous Distributions:

1. Normal/Gaussian Distribution
2. Exponential Distribution
3. Rayleigh Distribution
4. Gamma Distribution

5.3.3.6 General Continuous Distribution

Let X be a continuous random variable. A continuous function $f(x)$ can be denoted by a probability density function (PDF) which is a continuous function.

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

The expected value = $E(X)$ is given by

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

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2 = \int_a^b x^2 f(x) dx - \left[\int_a^b x f(x) dx \right]^2 \\ \sigma^2 &= E(X^2) - \mu^2 \end{aligned}$$

The cumulative probability function (CDF) is a cumulative distribution function denoted by $F(x)$ where

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

Note: From the CDF function we can get a probability density function by formula as follows:

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

5.3.3.7 Uniform Distribution

In general, we say that X is a uniform random variable with the interval (a, b) if its probability density function is given by

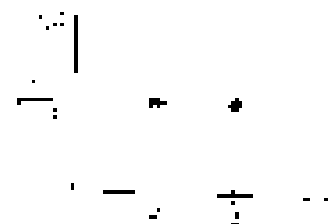
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{for } a < x < b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since $f(x)$ is constant, all values of X between a and b are equally likely to occur.

Graphical Representation:

For Discrete Uniform Distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mean} = E(X) &= \frac{b+a}{2} \\ \text{Variance} = E(X^2) - \frac{b^2 - a^2}{12} \end{aligned}$$



Example:

Let X be a continuous random variable with the probability density function

$$f(x) = kx^2$$

$$0 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$f(x) = 0 \text{ for } x < 0 \text{ or } x > 1$$

Solution:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{10}x^2 \text{ for } 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$P(0 \leq X \leq 1) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{10}x^2 dx = \frac{1}{30}$$

$$P(0 \leq X \leq 1) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{10}x^2 dx = \frac{1}{30}$$

$$P(0 \leq X \leq 1) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{10}x^2 dx = \frac{1}{30}$$

5.3.3.7 Exponential Distribution

A continuous random variable X has probability density function $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$ for $x \geq 0$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{for } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Let X be an exponential random variable with parameter λ . The cumulative distribution function of the exponential random variable is given by:

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt = 1 - e^{-\lambda x} \text{ for } x \geq 0, \lambda > 0$$

for Exponential Distribution:

$$Mean = \frac{1}{\lambda} \text{ for } \lambda > 0$$

$$Variance = \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \text{ for } \lambda > 0$$

Example:

Suppose that the length of a phone call in minutes is an exponential random variable with parameter

$\lambda = \frac{1}{10}$. Then we can answer the following questions for you. Give your answers and explain the meaning of the values.

Find $P(X \leq 10)$ and $P(X > 10)$.

(a) $P(X \leq 10)$ is the probability that

(b) $P(X > 10)$ is the probability that

Solution:

Let X be a random variable with the exponential distribution with parameter $\lambda = \frac{1}{10}$. We have that the probability density function is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \lambda e^{-\lambda x} = \frac{1}{10} e^{-\frac{1}{10}x} \text{ for } x \geq 0 \\ &= 0 \text{ for } x < 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \leq 10) &= F(10) = 1 - e^{-\frac{1}{10} \cdot 10} \\ &= 1 - e^{-1} \approx 1 - 0.3679 = 0.6321 \end{aligned}$$

5.3.3.8 Normal Distribution

Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$ by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad \text{where } \mu = \frac{\sum x_i}{n}$$

The density function for a bell-shaped curve is also given as $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$.

For Normal Distribution:

$$\text{Mean} = \mu(X) = \mu$$

$$\text{Variance} = \sigma(X) = \sigma^2$$

3.3.3.9.1 Standard Normal Distribution

Knowledge for GATE and ESE of a probability and its inverse can only be acquired by understanding the normal distribution and the distribution of a standard normal distribution is $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$. A standard normal distribution is also called as a unit normal.

When a $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ is given, standardisation leads to $N(0, 1)$ problems. We can find a constant z (standard value) giving probability α (area under $N(0, 1)$ from z to ∞) value of

of the standard normal $N(0, 1)$ is illustrated by the following formula value

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Where μ is the standard normal value.

For Standard Normal distribution

$$\mu(X) = \mu(X) = 0$$

$$\sigma(X) = \sigma(X) = 1$$

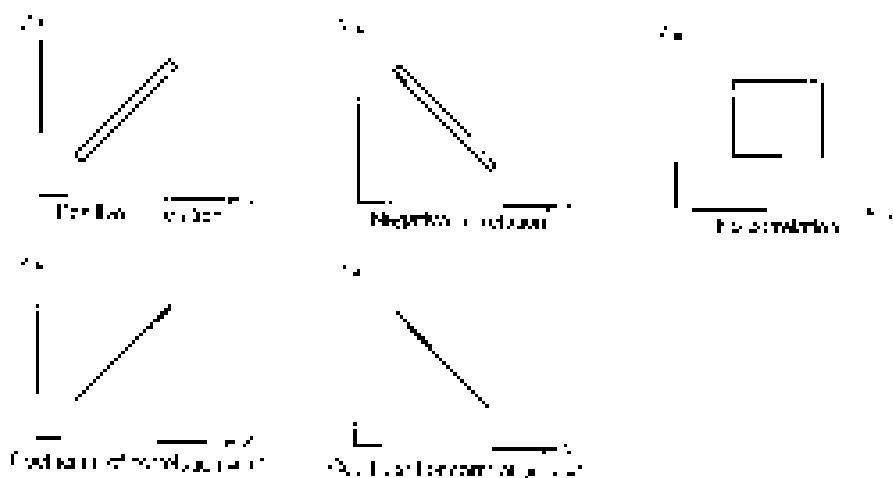
Knowledge extends from standard normal distribution to the $N(0, 1)$ distribution.

Correlation: When we have two variables and data, we can study that if increase in one variable automatically increases or decreases in the other then the variables are said to be correlated.

For instance, the gain of a stock varies with the time in a year.

If two variables vary in such a way that their values always increase, then this is called as a positive correlation.

Scatter Plot diagram: When we plot the corresponding values of two variables, taking a horizontal axis and a vertical axis, we can see the relation of both.



Factorial correlation measures the correlation between two or more different variables simultaneously. Regression coefficient measures the correlation between two variables. The value of regression coefficient is always in the range of -1 to $+1$. The value of correlation coefficient is always in the range of -1 to $+1$.

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

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

The correlation coefficient takes the value

- $+1$ when there is perfect positive correlation.
- -1 when there is perfect negative correlation.
- 0 when there is no correlation.
- $+1$ and -1 when there is perfect correlation.
- -1 and $+1$ when there is perfect correlation.

Regression: It is a statistical diagram in which one variable is given and the other is found. The curve of the scatter diagram is called regression curve and a value of this curve is called the value of regression.

Regression curve is a straight line which is used to find the value of one variable if the value of the other variable is given.

Line of Regression: It is the straight line which is used to find the value of one variable if the value of the other variable is given. It is called the line of regression. The line of regression is called the line of regression.

The regression line is a straight line which is used to find the value of one variable if the value of the other variable is given. It is called the line of regression.

The regression line is a straight line which is used to find the value of one variable if the value of the other variable is given. It is called the line of regression.

The line of regression is given by

$$y = a + bx \quad (1)$$

Since it is the line of regression, it is called the line of regression.

$$y = a + bx$$

where a is the intercept of the line on the y -axis and b is the slope of the line.

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = b = \frac{\sum y_i}{\sum x_i}$$

or

$$\bar{y} = a + b\bar{x} \quad (2)$$

where \bar{x} and \bar{y} are means of x and y respectively.

The line of regression is a straight line.

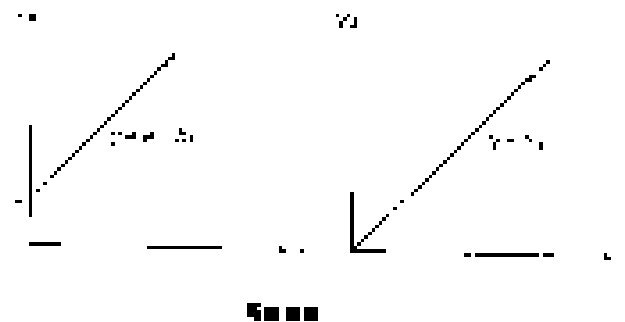
The line of regression is a straight line.

$$y = a + bx$$

$$x = a + by$$

It is shown that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = 0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = 0$.

As the limit of regression coefficient is not expanded through any origin



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

- Q.1 Let $f(x)$ be a function continuous in the interval $[0, 1]$. Given $f(0) = 1$, $f(1) = 1/2$, the values of $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ and $\int_0^1 f'(x) dx$ respectively are
 (a) $1/2, 1/2$ (b) $1/2, 1/3$
 (c) $1/2, 1$ (d) $1/3, 1/2$
 [IES-GATE-2003, 1 mark]
- Q.2 A box contains 10 screws, 3 of which are defective. Two screws are selected at random without replacement. The probability of selecting a defective screw is
 (a) 10% (b) 3%
 (c) 4% (d) None of these
 [CE-GATE-2000, 1 mark]
- Q.3 A box contains 6 dark and 4 light bulbs. Two bulbs are randomly picked one after another from the box without replacement. The probability that both bulbs are dark is
 (a) $\frac{1}{5}$ (b) $\frac{2}{5}$
 (c) $\frac{10}{25}$ (d) $\frac{6}{5}$
 [IIT-JEE-2003, 2 marks]
- Q.4 A person takes a taxi from a bus stand to a railway station at 10 km/h. If he goes by a cycle, he will reach the station 10 minutes earlier. The probability that he will reach the station by cycle is
 (a) $\frac{1}{3}$ (b) $\frac{2}{3}$
 (c) $\frac{1}{2}$ (d) $\frac{3}{4}$
 [IIT-JEE-2003, 2 marks]
- Q.5 A rectangular lamina of size $a \times b$ is cut by a line parallel to the diagonal. The probability of failure of the lamina is 0.2 . Given the size of the lamina is $a = 10$ and $b = 10$, the probability that the lamina is cut by a line parallel to the diagonal is
 (a) 0.2 (b) 0.4
 (c) 0.6 (d) 0.8
 [CE-GATE-2004, 2 marks]
- Q.6 An event A for which the probability of occurrence is 0.5 is repeated n times. The probability of failure of the event A is 0.5 . The probability of failure of the event A is
 (a) 0.5 (b) 0.5^n
 (c) 0.5^n (d) 0.5^n
 [CE-GATE-2004, 2 marks]
- Q.7 The probability of failure of a system is 0.2 . The probability of failure of the system is
 (a) 0.2 (b) 0.2^n
 (c) 0.2^n (d) 0.2^n
 [CE-GATE-2004, 1 mark]

MODE EASY

Probability and Statistics

Q.8 Two events A and B are such that $P(A) = 0.5$ and $P(B) = 0.4$. The probability that both A and B occur is 0.2. The probability that either A or B occurs is

- (a) 0.2 (b) 0.7
(c) 0.9 (d) 0.2

[CS, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.9 From a population consisting of 1000 individuals, a sample of 100 is drawn at random. If all the individuals in the sample are women, the 95% confidence interval for the proportion of women in the population is

- (a) ± 0.05 (b) ± 0.02
(c) ± 0.03 (d) ± 0.01

[AF, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.10 A child is born every 10 days. What is the probability that the 5th child is born in the 10th day? (a) 0.1 (b) 0.01 (c) 0.001 (d) 0.0001

- (a) 0.5 (b) 1
(c) 0.5 (d) 0.5

[CS, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.11 If P and Q are two random events then the following is NOT

- (a) $\text{Probability}(P \cap Q) = \text{Probability}(P) \times \text{Probability}(Q)$
(b) $\text{Probability}(P \cup Q) = \text{Probability}(P) + \text{Probability}(Q)$
(c) P and Q are mutually exclusive if $\text{Probability}(P \cap Q) = 0$
(d) $\text{Probability}(P \cup Q) = \text{Probability}(P) + \text{Probability}(Q)$

[FE, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

Q.12 A binomial distribution has a mean of 10 and a standard deviation of 3. The probability of success is

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{3}$
(c) $\frac{1}{4}$ (d) $\frac{1}{5}$

[FO, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

Q.13 A single die is thrown four times. What is the probability that the sum is either 8 or 9?

- (a) $\frac{1}{8}$
(b) $\frac{1}{4}$

- (c) $\frac{1}{6}$
(d) $\frac{1}{12}$

[MC, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

Q.14 A person is standing in a queue for a ration card. He has a probability of 0.5 of getting a card without a ration card. The probability of getting a card is

- (a) 0.5 (b) 0.2
(c) 0.3 (d) 0.4

[FE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

Q.15 What is the following expression? $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

- (a) The normal distribution curve
(b) The normal distribution curve
(c) The normal distribution curve
(d) The normal distribution curve

[CS, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.16 A binomial distribution has a mean of 10 and a standard deviation of 3. The probability of success is

- (a) 0.5 (b) 0.2
(c) 0.3 (d) 0.4

[MC, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.17 Let X be a continuous random variable. The probability density function of X is given by

- (a) $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ (b) $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$
(c) $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ (d) $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

[CS, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

Q.18 If P and Q are two events such that $P(P \cap Q) = 0.1$ and $P(P \cup Q) = 0.5$, then the probability of P is

- (a) 0.2 (b) 0.3
(c) 0.4 (d) 0.5

[CS, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

$$\delta = \frac{1}{10}$$

$$(a) \frac{1}{5}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{9}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{3}$$

[LC, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.49 A fair coin is tossed n times and the probability of getting exactly 5 heads is $\frac{1}{256}$. Then the probability of getting exactly 6 heads is

$$(a) \frac{1}{64}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{16}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{32}$$

$$(d) \frac{1}{8}$$

[CS, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.50 The probability that a randomly chosen integer is divisible by 3 is $\frac{1}{3}$. The probability that a randomly chosen integer is divisible by 6 is

$$(a) \frac{1}{6}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{12}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(d) \frac{1}{2}$$

[CS, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

Q.51 A fair coin is tossed n times. The probability that the sequence of heads has length at least 1 is

$$(a) \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$(b) \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$$

$$(c) \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$(d) \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$$

[AI, GATE-2011, 1 mark]

Q.52 Consider the three random variables X_1, X_2, X_3 with joint probability density function $f(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ defined over the region R in the (x_1, x_2, x_3) space. The value of $\int_R f(x_1, x_2, x_3) dx_1 dx_2 dx_3$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{4}$ (c) $\frac{1}{8}$ (d) $\frac{1}{16}$

(e) $\frac{1}{32}$ (f) $\frac{1}{64}$ (g) $\frac{1}{128}$ (h) $\frac{1}{256}$

$$(i) \frac{1}{512}$$

$$(j) \frac{1}{1024}$$

[CS, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.53 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \log_e \frac{1}{1-x}$ where the expression is taken as a limit of the form $\frac{0}{0}$.

(a) $\frac{1}{2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{3}$ (c) $\frac{1}{4}$ (d) $\frac{1}{5}$

$$(e) \frac{1}{6}$$

$$(f) \frac{1}{7}$$

$$(g) \frac{1}{8}$$

$$(h) \frac{1}{9}$$

$$(i) \frac{1}{10}$$

$$(j) \frac{1}{11}$$

$$(k) \frac{1}{12}$$

$$(l) \frac{1}{13}$$

$$(m) \frac{1}{14}$$

$$(n) \frac{1}{15}$$

$$(o) \frac{1}{16}$$

$$(p) \frac{1}{17}$$

$$(q) \frac{1}{18}$$

$$(r) \frac{1}{19}$$

$$(s) \frac{1}{20}$$

$$(t) \frac{1}{21}$$

$$(u) \frac{1}{22}$$

$$(v) \frac{1}{23}$$

$$(w) \frac{1}{24}$$

$$(x) \frac{1}{25}$$

$$(y) \frac{1}{26}$$

$$(z) \frac{1}{27}$$

$$(aa) \frac{1}{28}$$

$$(ab) \frac{1}{29}$$

$$(ac) \frac{1}{30}$$

$$(ad) \frac{1}{31}$$

$$(ae) \frac{1}{32}$$

$$(af) \frac{1}{33}$$

$$(ag) \frac{1}{34}$$

$$(ah) \frac{1}{35}$$

$$(ai) \frac{1}{36}$$

$$(aj) \frac{1}{37}$$

$$(ak) \frac{1}{38}$$

$$(al) \frac{1}{39}$$

$$(am) \frac{1}{40}$$

$$(an) \frac{1}{41}$$

$$(ao) \frac{1}{42}$$

$$(ap) \frac{1}{43}$$

$$(aq) \frac{1}{44}$$

$$(ar) \frac{1}{45}$$

$$(as) \frac{1}{46}$$

$$(at) \frac{1}{47}$$

$$(au) \frac{1}{48}$$

$$(av) \frac{1}{49}$$

$$(aw) \frac{1}{50}$$

$$(ax) \frac{1}{51}$$

$$(ay) \frac{1}{52}$$

$$(az) \frac{1}{53}$$

$$(ba) \frac{1}{54}$$

$$(bb) \frac{1}{55}$$

$$(bc) \frac{1}{56}$$

$$(bd) \frac{1}{57}$$

$$(be) \frac{1}{58}$$

$$(bf) \frac{1}{59}$$

$$(bg) \frac{1}{60}$$

$$(bh) \frac{1}{61}$$

$$(bi) \frac{1}{62}$$

$$(bj) \frac{1}{63}$$

$$(bk) \frac{1}{64}$$

$$(bl) \frac{1}{65}$$

$$(bm) \frac{1}{66}$$

$$(bn) \frac{1}{67}$$

$$(bo) \frac{1}{68}$$

$$(bp) \frac{1}{69}$$

$$(bq) \frac{1}{70}$$

$$(br) \frac{1}{71}$$

$$(bs) \frac{1}{72}$$

$$(bt) \frac{1}{73}$$

$$(bu) \frac{1}{74}$$

$$(bv) \frac{1}{75}$$

$$(bw) \frac{1}{76}$$

$$(bx) \frac{1}{77}$$

$$(by) \frac{1}{78}$$

$$(bz) \frac{1}{79}$$

$$(ca) \frac{1}{80}$$

$$(cb) \frac{1}{81}$$

$$(cc) \frac{1}{82}$$

$$(cd) \frac{1}{83}$$

$$(ce) \frac{1}{84}$$

$$(cf) \frac{1}{85}$$

$$(cg) \frac{1}{86}$$

$$(ch) \frac{1}{87}$$

$$(ci) \frac{1}{88}$$

$$(cj) \frac{1}{89}$$

$$(ck) \frac{1}{90}$$

$$(cl) \frac{1}{91}$$

$$(cm) \frac{1}{92}$$

$$(cn) \frac{1}{93}$$

$$(co) \frac{1}{94}$$

$$(cp) \frac{1}{95}$$

$$(cq) \frac{1}{96}$$

$$(cr) \frac{1}{97}$$

$$(cs) \frac{1}{98}$$

$$(ct) \frac{1}{99}$$

$$(cu) \frac{1}{100}$$

$$(cv) \frac{1}{101}$$

$$(cw) \frac{1}{102}$$

$$(cx) \frac{1}{103}$$

$$(cy) \frac{1}{104}$$

$$(cz) \frac{1}{105}$$

$$(da) \frac{1}{106}$$

$$(db) \frac{1}{107}$$

$$(dc) \frac{1}{108}$$

$$(dd) \frac{1}{109}$$

$$(de) \frac{1}{110}$$

$$(df) \frac{1}{111}$$

$$(dg) \frac{1}{112}$$

$$(dh) \frac{1}{113}$$

$$(di) \frac{1}{114}$$

$$(dj) \frac{1}{115}$$

$$(dk) \frac{1}{116}$$

$$(dl) \frac{1}{117}$$

$$(dm) \frac{1}{118}$$

$$(dn) \frac{1}{119}$$

$$(do) \frac{1}{120}$$

$$(dp) \frac{1}{121}$$

$$(dq) \frac{1}{122}$$

$$(dr) \frac{1}{123}$$

$$(ds) \frac{1}{124}$$

$$(dt) \frac{1}{125}$$

$$(du) \frac{1}{126}$$

$$(dv) \frac{1}{127}$$

$$(dw) \frac{1}{128}$$

$$(dx) \frac{1}{129}$$

$$(dy) \frac{1}{130}$$

$$(dz) \frac{1}{131}$$

$$(ea) \frac{1}{132}$$

$$(eb) \frac{1}{133}$$

$$(ec) \frac{1}{134}$$

$$(ed) \frac{1}{135}$$

$$(ee) \frac{1}{136}$$

$$(ef) \frac{1}{137}$$

$$(eg) \frac{1}{138}$$

$$(eh) \frac{1}{139}$$

$$(ei) \frac{1}{140}$$

$$(ej) \frac{1}{141}$$

$$(ek) \frac{1}{142}$$

$$(el) \frac{1}{143}$$

$$(em) \frac{1}{144}$$

$$(en) \frac{1}{145}$$

$$(eo) \frac{1}{146}$$

$$(ep) \frac{1}{147}$$

$$(eq) \frac{1}{148}$$

$$(er) \frac{1}{149}$$

$$(es) \frac{1}{150}$$

$$(et) \frac{1}{151}$$

$$(eu) \frac{1}{152}$$

$$(ev) \frac{1}{153}$$

$$(ew) \frac{1}{154}$$

$$(ex) \frac{1}{155}$$

$$(ey) \frac{1}{156}$$

$$(ez) \frac{1}{157}$$

$$(fa) \frac{1}{158}$$

$$(fb) \frac{1}{159}$$

$$(fc) \frac{1}{160}$$

$$(fd) \frac{1}{161}$$

$$(fe) \frac{1}{162}$$

$$(ff) \frac{1}{163}$$

$$(fg) \frac{1}{164}$$

$$(fh) \frac{1}{165}$$

$$(fi) \frac{1}{166}$$

$$(fj) \frac{1}{167}$$

$$(fk) \frac{1}{168}$$

$$(fl) \frac{1}{169}$$

$$(fm) \frac{1}{170}$$

$$(fn) \frac{1}{171}$$

$$(fo) \frac{1}{172}$$

$$(fp) \frac{1}{173}$$

$$(fq) \frac{1}{174}$$

$$(fr) \frac{1}{175}$$

$$(fs) \frac{1}{176}$$

$$(ft) \frac{1}{177}$$

$$(fu) \frac{1}{178}$$

$$(fv) \frac{1}{179}$$

$$(fw) \frac{1}{180}$$

$$(fx) \frac{1}{181}$$

$$(fy) \frac{1}{182}$$

$$(fz) \frac{1}{183}$$

$$(ga) \frac{1}{184}$$

$$(gb) \frac{1}{185}$$

$$(gc) \frac{1}{186}$$

$$(gd) \frac{1}{187}$$

$$(ge) \frac{1}{188}$$

$$(gf) \frac{1}{189}$$

$$(gg) \frac{1}{190}$$

$$(gh) \frac{1}{191}$$

$$(gi) \frac{1}{192}$$

$$(gj) \frac{1}{193}$$

Q.59 A box contains 3 red balls and 1 black ball. Two balls are taken randomly from the box one after the other without replacement. The probability that the two selected balls are red and one is a black ball is

- (a) $\frac{3}{8}$ (b) $\frac{3}{4}$
(c) $\frac{3}{16}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[ME, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.60 Two dependent random variables X and Y are uniformly distributed in the interval $[1, 2]$. The probability that $X + Y$ is less than 1.5 is

- (a) .34 (b) .33
(c) .14 (d) .25

[EC, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.61 The daily peak flow rate of a fully normally distributed stream has a standard deviation of 1000 cfs and 1.20 cfs, respectively. The probability that the stream discharge will be more than 2000 cfs is

- (a) 0.054 (b) 0.788
(c) 0.788 (d) 0.054

[CE, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.62 A large group of number of trials are made by throwing a coin. Each trial is like success (HT) and failure (TH) is success with probability 0.5. After 100 trials the probability that less than 50% success is observed is less than

- (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ (b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi e}}$
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi e}}$

[IS, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.63 For a value of X such that $\Pr(X) = 0.2$, the probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x}{3} & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

[CE, GATE-2012, 2 Marks]

Q.64 A group of 1000 men says that 70% of them are left-handed. If 10% of the group is left-handed, then $P(X > 10)$ is

- (a) 0.799 (b) 0.5
(c) 0.82 (d) 0

[EE, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.65 A continuous random variable X has a probability density $f(x) = 2 - 6x + x^2$, then $P(X > 1)$ is

- (a) 1/3 (b) 0.5
(c) 0.83 (d) 1

[IE, GATE-2013, 1 mark]

Q.66 Let Z be a normal random variable with mean 1 and standard deviation 4. The probability that Z is

- (a) 0.5
(b) 0.3085 if Z is standardised as $Z/2$
(c) 0.4914 if Z is standardised as $Z/2$
(d) 0

[ME, GATE-2010, 1 Mark]

Q.67 A bank offers a bank account that the daily balance available for withdrawing is a low normal distribution with a mean of Rs. 500 and a standard deviation of Rs. 20. The probability of withdrawing more than a certain amount daily by an individual is 0.05 is

[ME, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.68 A random variable was observed four times in three trials and is observed in the following combinations; (a) and (b) and (c) and (d) and (e) and (f) and (g) and (h) and (i) and (j)

- (a) 1 (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
(c) $\frac{1}{3}$ (d) $\frac{1}{4}$

[IE, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.69 A continuous random variable X is defined. Two points are being drawn from the variable and the mean is found to be 1. The probability of both the points being equal is

- (a) $\frac{1}{25}$ (b) $\frac{45}{125}$
(c) $\frac{85}{25}$ (d) $\frac{1}{5}$

[ME, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.70 A group consists of 2000 men and women and 40% of the group 20% of the men are 5% of the women are married. The person is selected from the group. The probability of the selected person being married is

[ME, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.71 A fair coin is tossed n times. The probability that the difference between the number of heads and tails is $2\sqrt{n}$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ (b) 0
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ (d) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$

[IE, GATE-2014, 2 Marks]

Q.71 Consider a discrete random variable X such that the probability of a failure in a machine during a working day is proportional to the number of hours the machine has been used. Find $P(X=2)$.

[FE, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.72 In a banking system, half of the loaned money is assigned to a bank and the balance with the remaining half goes to other banks equally. The probability of a loan being taken by a bank is $\frac{1}{10}$. Find P .

[CS, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.73 An integer is chosen at random from the numbers 1 to 100. The probability that the last two digits appear in the order 13 and 31

- (a) 0.030 (b) 0.003
(c) 0.030 (d) 0.001

[EC, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.74 Two balls from a bag containing 5 balls are drawn successively with replacement. Each possible pair has a probability of $\frac{1}{10}$ of occurring. The probability that the first ball is red and the second ball is green is $\frac{1}{10}$. The probability that the second ball is green given that the first ball is green is _____.

[EC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.75 For a batch of products, it is known that exactly half the goods are defective, being 20% defective. The value of $P(X=1)$ is _____.

[CS, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.76 The probability of a given position being occupied by a man and 100 boys in a group of 101 is divided by 2. It is _____.

[CS, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks-Ser-2]

Q.77 Let S be a sample space with two mutually exclusive events A and B such that $P(A) = \frac{1}{3}$. If $P(B)$ is the probability of the event A occurring, then $P(A \cap B) = \frac{1}{3} P(A) P(B)$. It is _____.

[CS, 2014 : 2 Marks-Ser-5]

Q.78 In the following, X is a discrete random variable and $P(X=x)$ is denoted by p_x . The following is valid if _____.

$$\frac{p_x}{P(X)} = \frac{p_{x+1}}{P(X+1)} = \frac{p_{x-1}}{P(X-1)}$$

- (a) $P(X) = 1$ (b) $P(X) = 0$
(c) $P(X) = 1$ (d) $P(X) = 0$

[MC, 2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.79 A random variable X has a discrete probability density function $f(x)$ as shown below. The mean value of the variates of the random variable X is _____.

- (a) 1 and 3 (b) 1.5 and 3
(c) 1 and 4 (d) 1.5 and 4

[MC, 2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.80 Suppose a random variable X is a continuous random variable normally distributed with mean μ and standard deviation σ . The probability that X is less than $\mu + \sigma$ is _____.

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.81 The existing system S_1 and proposed system S_2 are compared with 10 parameters. Each system has a 40% chance to be chosen for the system to be adopted. The chosen system is S_1 if the comparison gives a system without a cost. The system S_2 is chosen if the cost of the system S_1 is less than the cost of the system S_2 . The probability that the system S_1 is chosen is _____.

[CS, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.82 An analog-to-digital converter (ADC) converts a continuous signal into a discrete signal. The number of samples in a given range is fixed. The number of samples in a given range is fixed. The probability that the number of samples in a given range is _____.

[CS, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.83 The number of people attending a meeting is a random variable X . The probability of a person attending the meeting is $\frac{1}{10}$. The probability that the number of people attending the meeting is _____.

- (a) 0.001 (b) 0.001
(c) 0.001 (d) 0.001

[MC, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.84 The probability density function of a continuous random variable X is given by $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$. The value of σ is _____.

Q.105 Type-II error in hypothesis testing is

- (a) acceptance of the null hypothesis of null is true and should be rejected
- (b) rejection of the null hypothesis when it is true and should be accepted
- (c) rejection of the null hypothesis when it is false and should be rejected
- (d) acceptance of the null hypothesis when it is false and should be accepted

[CE, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.106 The non-saturated vapour pressure of a liquid at various temperatures are 32, 40, 48, 56, 64, 72, 80 and 88. The molal specific gas constant is R . The molal specific gas constant is _____.

where R is gas constant in cal/mol-K

[Ce, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.107 (a) and (b) are two probability density functions,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - x & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{2}x & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x}{2} & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ having same entropy
- (b) Mean of $h(x)$ is greater than sum of mean of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is same
- (c) Mean of $h(x)$ is greater than sum of mean of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is different
- (d) Mean of $f(x)$ is different, coefficient of skewness of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are same
- (e) Mean of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is different, coefficient of skewness is same

[CE, 2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.108 The axial elongation of a member fixed at both ends under uniformly distributed load is δL . The elongation due to uniformly distributed load is given by two adjacent equal point loads P and P separated by distance $2L$ in the middle of a fixed-fixed member. The correct value of P is given by $\frac{\delta L}{L}$ is equal to _____.

[MF, 2016 : 3 Marks]

Q.109 The average number of a binary digit (bit) information is 2. The mean of the random variable is _____.

[EE, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.110 Bernoulli's Distribution is valid for the binary trials. A person is asked for the distribution of the number of heads in 10 trials. The probability is

- (a) $\binom{10}{k} p^k (1-p)^{10-k}$
- (b) $\binom{10}{k} p^k$
- (c) $\binom{10}{k} p^k (1-p)^{10-k}$
- (d) $\binom{10}{k} p^k$

[MF, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.111 A normally distributed random variable X is given as $X \sim N(0, 1)$ and out of this series, the value of the limit is zero. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) =$ _____.

[CE, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.112 Two random variables X and Y are defined according to

$$X = \cos \theta, Y = \sin \theta, \theta \text{ is a random variable}$$

$$\theta \sim N(0, 2\pi)$$

$$\text{The probability } P(X = 1) \text{ is } \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

[EC, 2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.113 A random variable X is defined as number of successes in 10 trials.

$$f(x) = \frac{0.25^n (1-0.25)^{10-n}}{n!}$$

- (a) $\frac{5}{4}$
- (b) $\frac{1}{2}$
- (c) $\frac{1}{4}$
- (d) $\frac{1}{8}$

[CE, 2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.114 Let the probability density function of a random variable X be given as,

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \sqrt{1-x^2} \quad -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

where $\sqrt{1-x^2}$ is the unit circle function. Then the value of $f(0)$ is given by $\frac{1}{\pi}$ is equal to _____.

- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$
- (b) $\frac{1}{4}$
- (c) $\frac{1}{4}$
- (d) $\frac{1}{2}$

[EE, 2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.115 The mean and variance of a continuous random variable X are 1 and 2 respectively. The value of $P(X < 3)$ is _____

[MF, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.116 Two events are termed simultaneously π -probable if the probability of both occurring is equal to the product of each. If _____

[MF, 2016 : 2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.117 A sample of 10 observations is collected: 1, 15, 17, 19, 18, 11, 9, 1, 3, 7. The standard deviation of this data is _____

- (A) 4 (B) 5
(C) 16 (D) 25

[ME, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.118 A six sided die is rolled a large number of times. The standard deviation of the outcomes is _____

[ML, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.119 Assume that in a city, the probability of a car being damaged is 0.0001. The probability of a car being stolen is 0.0002. The probability of a car being damaged and stolen is 0.00001. Consider a set of 1000 cars of which 1000 are damaged and 1000 are stolen. The expected value of the number of cars that are damaged and stolen is _____

[ML, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.120 An urn contains 5 white balls and 3 black balls. If the balls are drawn without replacement and a white ball is drawn, a prize of Rs. 1000 is awarded. The probability of getting a prize is the value of x where _____

$$(A) \frac{1}{2} \quad (B) \frac{1}{3}$$

$$(C) \frac{2}{3} \quad (D) \frac{5}{6}$$

[PF, 2016 : 2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.121 A random variable has a normal distribution with mean 10 and the standard deviation 2. The value of _____

[Q3, GATE-2017 : 2 Mark]

Q.122 A customer who has to pass through a bank ATM has a 10% probability of being asked to wait in a queue. If asked to wait, the probability of waiting for more than 5 minutes is 0.5. If the customer is not asked to wait, the probability of waiting for more than 5 minutes is 0.1. The probability of a customer waiting for more than 5 minutes is _____

[PF, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.123 The number of parameters in the univariate exponential and Gaussian distributions respectively are _____

- (A) 1 and 2 (B) 2 and 3
(C) 2 and 4 (D) 1 and 1

[PF, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.124 For the random $(X, Y) = (2, 1)$ by 1 by 2 joint normal probability density function $f(x, y)$ and correlation coefficient ρ is _____

- (A) $\rho = 1, \rho = 2$ (B) $\rho = 0.5, \rho = 1$
(C) $\rho = 0, \rho = 1$ (D) $\rho = 1, \rho = 1$

[PF, GATE-2017 : 2 Mark]

■■■■■

9. (c)
 Since all the answers are incorrect
 expected frequency for 'none' level
 $= 2(24 + 2 \times 10) = 68$
 $= 5(20.92) \times 10.47\%$
 Since 2 are distributed incorrectly
 $= 12 \times 0.7 = 8.4$

10. (3)
 All the marks of 100 as per question are given in
 following table.
 The probability distribution is given as follows

$$\frac{f_i}{\sum f_i} = \frac{1}{100} \left| \begin{array}{c} 0.25 \\ 0.34 \\ 0.41 \end{array} \right|$$

Expected marks are given as

$$\begin{aligned} &= 0.25 \times 25 + 0.34 \times 34 \\ &= 0.34 + 11.56 \times 34 \\ &= 39.76 = 40 \text{ Marks} \end{aligned}$$

Total marks were 2500 of 100 students

$$= \frac{1}{100} \times 2500 = \frac{2500}{100} \text{ marks per student}$$

Thus expected marks of 100 students

$$= \frac{2500}{100} \times 0.41 = 10.25 \text{ marks}$$

So answer is 10.25 marks.

11. (a)
 The condition of being 81 weeks and 21 days seems
 as getting away of 2 from each of axes
 Given $\mu = 79, \sigma = 10$
 Applying this number on the table below we
 get

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(X = 71) &= P(Z = -0.8) \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right] \\ &= 0.29 \left[\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} (1 - e^{-x}) dx \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

12. (a)
 If summing distance between two consecutive
 glasses resulting that occurs, probability is 0.0002
 (as per calculation) means that the glasses are placed
 according to Rayleigh distribution with $\lambda = 0.0002$ and
 characteristic function of Rayleigh

$$\lambda = 0.0002 = 0.2$$

Since $\lambda = 0.2$ then $f(x) = 0.2e^{-0.2x}$ for $x > 0$
 (1) Since we know $f(x)$ and λ then we can find

$$\text{E}(X) = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{0.2} = 5 \text{ glasses}$$

So answer is 5 glasses (a)

13. (d)
 The system can be solved by superposition
 contribution solutions.

$$1000 \times 2 = \frac{1000 \times 200}{1000} = 200$$


14. (a)
 = 1 for positive values of (x, y)
 $= 2 - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{8} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times 2\sqrt{2} \\ &= \sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$P_1(X^2 = 4, Y^2 = 4) = P(X^2 = 4, Y^2 = 4)$$

Since x and y are uniformly distributed over $0 \leq x \leq 1$
 and $0 \leq y \leq 2$

$$\text{Probability density function of } x = \frac{1}{2-0} = 1$$

$$\text{Probability density function of } y = \frac{1}{2-0} = 0.5$$

$$P_1(X) = \int_0^1 \sqrt{2} \sqrt{x^2 + 2} dx = \int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 4} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^2 + 4}{2} \right] = 2$$

$$P_2(X) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 \sqrt{2} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} dy = \int_0^2 \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} dy$$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2} \right) \right] = \frac{4}{2} = 2$$

$$\text{E}(X, Y) = \text{E}(X) + \text{E}(Y) = \frac{4}{2} + \frac{4}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

15. (d)
 (a) is false as λ and μ are independent
 $P(X = 0, Y = 0) = P(X = 0) \cdot P(Y = 0)$
 which need not be zero

(b) is false since

$$P(X = 0, Y = 0) = P(X = 0) + P(Y = 0) - P(X = 0, Y = 0)$$

$$= P(X = 0, Y = 0) + P(X = 0, Y = 0)$$

\hat{y} is the same as y (independent and mutually exclusive) and \hat{y} is another y (independent).

Given that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{since } P(\hat{y} = 1) &= 1 \\ &= P(\hat{y} = 0) + P(\hat{y} = 1) \\ &= P(\hat{y} = 0) + P(y) \end{aligned}$$

12. (1)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{A}{B} &= \frac{3}{5} = \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{A}{C} &= \frac{3}{7} = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

and to take a common denominator

$$\frac{A}{\text{common}} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{2}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

13. (a)

Card is spade $\Rightarrow X = 100$

Card is not a spade $\Rightarrow X = 0$ (not spade)

10, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90

90, 30, 40 = 8 ways

$$= 2 \text{ (ways) because } x = 0 \text{ and } y = \frac{100}{80} = \frac{5}{4}$$

So, probability of getting a sum of 8 or 9

$$= \frac{2}{7} \times \frac{3}{2}$$

14. (b)

Card is ace $\Rightarrow (1, 1), (1, 4), (4, 1), (4, 4)$

Face value of each card is $\text{ace} = 1, 4 = 1, 1, 1$

$$\text{So, the probability} = \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

15. (d)

Let X be the number of y which is an even, negatively skewed distribution with a smaller mean

16. (a)

This problem can be solved using binomial probability since output is 0 or 1 (1).

Let the probability of success

$$p = 0.1$$

Probability of success is

$$1 - p = 1 - 0.1 = 0.9$$

Probability of exactly 2 out of 3 chosen items is described

$$= {}^3P_2 \cdot p^2 \cdot q$$

$$= {}^3C_2 \cdot (0.1)^2 \cdot (0.9) = 3 \cdot 0.01 \cdot 0.9$$

17. (a)

This function is expressed in the following form for the dependent variable Z is

$$Z = a + bX + cY + dZ = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$$

18. (d)

(d) is the correct IFS for the dependent

$$f(x) = P(x) = P(x) \cdot P(x)$$

which is given by

(d) is the correct

$$f(x) = P(x) = P(x) \cdot P(x) = P(x)$$

$$= P(x) \cdot P(x) = P(x)$$

(d) is the correct IFS for the dependent and the correct and the correct IFS for the

(d) is the

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

$$\Rightarrow P(x) = P(x) = P(x)$$

which is given by (d) is the

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

$$= P(x) = P(x)$$

$$= P(x) = P(x)$$

19. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt$$

So, the correct

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

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

So, the correct and the correct

the correct is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

So, the correct is the correct and the correct

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

20. (a)

The two sides are called as probability distribution function and the correct and the correct

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_0^1 (1-x) dx - \int_0^1 (1-x) dx \\
 &= \int_0^1 (1-x) dx + \int_0^1 (1-x) dx \\
 &= \left[x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 + \left[x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Blanket is 2×2 m

$$= \sqrt{2 \times 2 \times 2} = \sqrt{8}$$

26. (c)

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx =$$

$$\int_0^1 A e^{1-x} dx = 1$$

$$\int_0^1 A e^{1-x} dx = \int_0^1 A e^{1-x} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{1} e^{1-x} = \frac{A}{1} e^{1-x} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{1} = \frac{1}{e}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{1} = \frac{1}{e}$$

27. (d)

Let the mean and standard deviation of the elements of X be μ_1 and σ_1 respectively and the mean and standard deviation of Y be μ_2 and σ_2 respectively. Given that $\mu_1 = 8$

$$\mu_2 = 20$$

$$\text{and } \sigma_1 = 6$$

$$\sigma_2 = 4$$

From definition of covariance, we have

$$\text{Thus } \rho = \frac{\mu_1 \mu_2 - \sigma_1 \sigma_2}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2}$$

$$\rho = \frac{8 \times 20 - 6 \times 4}{6 \times 4} = \frac{88}{24}$$

Equating the values of ρ we get

$$\frac{88}{24} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \rho = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho = 0.5000 \pm 0.01$$

28. (c)

Number of permutations = 2 factorial = $2! = 2$

Number of permutations with 2 in the second position = $1! \times 1! = 1$

(The first place will be occupied by 1 and the last place will be occupied by 2 and 1! will be remaining in between 1! ways)

Number of permutations with 2 in 3rd position = $1! \times 1! \times 1! = 1$

(If 2 is in the last position of the three numbers and then the remaining 2 places will be remaining 1! number)

A die is rolled 121 times and 1113 outcomes are possible. Find the probability of the sum of the numbers = 400. 11 odd numbers available with sum = 400. So the desired number of permutations will be 113 outcomes will be

$$11 = 1113 \times 11 = 11 \times 11 \times 11 + 11 \times 11 \times 11 + 11 \times 11 \times 11$$

Now the probability of the sum of the numbers is given by

$$\frac{11}{1113 \times 11} = \frac{11 \times 11 \times 11}{1113 \times 11} = 11 \times 11$$

What is the probability of the sum of the numbers is 400? Answer: 1113 and 1113.

29. (c)

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 \text{Row} & \text{Col} \\
 \hline
 1 & 2, 3, 4 \\
 2 & 1, 2, 3, 4 \\
 3 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \\
 4 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 \\
 5 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 \\
 6 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 \\
 7 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 \\
 8 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 \\
 9 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 \\
 10 & 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
 \end{array}$$

And the values are indicated below

$$10! \times 10! = \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16}$$

30. (c)

Let A be the event of rolling a number 1

Let B be the event of rolling a number 2

Given, $P(A) = 0.5$ and $P(B) = 0.5$

$P(A|B) = 0.6$

Find the probability of $P(A|B)$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{0.6}{0.5} = 1.2$$

31. (c)

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$$

39. (a)

It is given that

$$50000 = 0.8 \text{ power}$$

$$\text{Now then, } \frac{50000}{0.8} = 1$$

$$\therefore \frac{0.8 \times 100}{0.8} = \frac{100}{1} = 100$$

$$\therefore \text{If power is power} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 100 = 50$$

Now, it is given that distance = 1000 km

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 \text{ km} = 100$$

$$\text{Now then, } \frac{1000}{100} = \frac{1000}{100} = 10$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

Now then, it is

$$\frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

$$\therefore \frac{1000}{100} = 10 = 100$$

40. (a)

$$\text{Req. prob.} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{Req. prob.} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{Req. prob.} = \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

41. (d)

By using distribution is used then it is problem

$$\text{Now, } \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

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

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

$$\text{Now, } \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

42. (a)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

43. (b)

$$\text{Now, } \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Now then, it is given that

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Now then, it is given that

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Now then, it is given that

44. (a)

Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

45. (a)

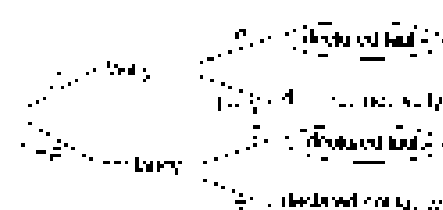
Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

46. (a)



Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

47. (a)

Now then, it is given that

Now then, it is given that

$$= 2, 3, 4, 5 \text{ for } (H, A) \\ = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 \text{ for } (H, B) = 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10$$

$$= 10 \left(\frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \right] + 4 \left(\frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \frac{1}{2} \right] + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right) \\ = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{4}{2} + \frac{4}{2} \\ = 3$$

48. (a)

The four cards are {1, 2, 3, 4, 5}

Sample space = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5} (5 cards)

Since there are 5 cards, the 1 card will have the probability 0.2

i.e. $P(A) = 1/5$ card = 1

$$P(A) = \frac{1}{5}, P(A|B) = \frac{1}{5} \Rightarrow P(A|B) = \frac{P(A)}{P(B)} = \frac{1}{5}$$

49. (a)

Given that a Red is a blue ball

= first ball drawn is a red ball

$$= \frac{4}{5} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{3}{5}$$

50. (a)

Let X denote the number of (1, 2) pairs in a row

sample space = {0, 1, 2, 3} = 4

$$P(X=0) = \frac{15}{60} = \frac{1}{4}$$

51. (a)

Standard deviation is allowed as there is no variable given.

$$S.D. = \sqrt{s_1^2 + s_2^2} = 5$$

$$\Rightarrow s_2^2 = 25$$

The coefficient of variation $C.V. = \frac{s.d.}{\text{mean}}$ is 0.75
 given = first standard deviation is 10 for 25 kg of rice

$$\text{So } \frac{10}{s_1} = 0.75 \Rightarrow s_1 = 13.33$$

So (a) is correct.

52. (a)

$$E(X) = E(Y) = (5, 0)^2 = 5$$

var = $E(Y)$ = the variance of Y Since X and Y are G_1 and G_2 are both with negative $\lambda > 0$

53. (a)

$$P(X=1) = 1 - 0.9 = 0.1$$

$$= 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \right) = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

54. (a)

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow E(Y) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Since X and Y are both G_1 and G_2 are both with negative $\lambda > 0$ Then $E(X) = E(Y) = \frac{1}{2}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

55. (a)

First three is 1, 2 or 3 then 4th is 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

only 10 possible ordered pairs = 10 for the first

(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 5), (1, 6), (1, 7), (1, 8), (1, 9), (1, 10)

5th and 6th, only 9 pairs for 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th

So 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1

57. (a)

The probability distribution is

$$X \sim \frac{1}{10} \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.2 & 0.2 \end{matrix}$$

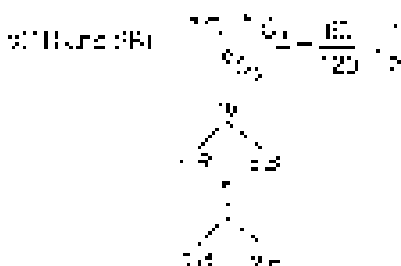
The associated distribution function $F(x)$ is the probability of observing value

$$F(x) = \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.6 & 0.8 & 1.0 \end{matrix}$$

So the answer is (c)

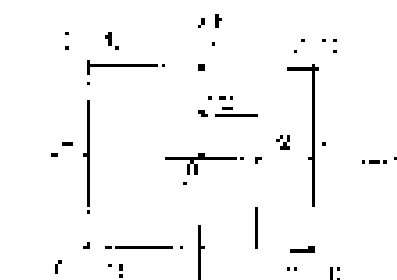
58. (d)

The probability is represented by a following diagram,



59. (b)

A rectangle of size 12 cm by 8 cm is inscribed in a rectangle. The region in which maximum of 2000 \times 10⁶ is exposed to the wind is the shaded region in the following



$$P(\text{max}(x, y) < \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{\text{Area of shaded region}}{\text{Area of the rectangle}} \\ = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \times 2}{2 \times 8} = \frac{3}{16}$$

60. (a)

The surface of capacitor is normally distributed with $\mu = 1000$ mm and $\sigma = 200$ mm

$$\text{So } P(1200) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(1200-1000)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{200 \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{40000}{80000}}$$

Value of $\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}}$ is 0.0039894228

So the value of $P(1200)$ is

$$0.0039894228 \times e^{-0.5} = 0.0024203517$$

So 62% value is observed at 1200 mm from mean

$$P(X < 1200) = \frac{1 - 0.39}{2} = 0.305$$

$$\text{So } P(X < 1200) = 0.305 \times 100 = 30.5\% \approx 30\%$$

With an error of

Guaranteeing accuracy

61. (c)

Probability formula for $P(A \cap B)$ given as

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

Probability of observing value = 8 (given)

Probability of observing value less than 8 can be

$$P(A = 0) + (P(A = 1) + \dots + P(A = 7))$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 2^2}{20} = \frac{8 \times 2}{20} = \frac{16}{20} = \frac{4}{5}$$

So correct option

62. (d)

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$$

$$f(x) = \frac{A}{3} \left[-\frac{1}{2} x^2 + 2x - 2 \right] \Big|_0^1 = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} (x^2 - 4x + 4) \right] \Big|_0^1 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} - 2 + 2 \right) - \left(\frac{1}{2} - 4 + 4 \right) \right] = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} - 1 \right) - \frac{1}{2} (4 - 4 + 4 - 4) \right] = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{3}{2} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (0 - 0) \right] = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{3}{2} - 0 \right) - \frac{1}{2} (0 - 0) \right] = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{3} \times \left[\frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{3}{2} - 0 \right) - \frac{1}{2} (0 - 0) \right] = 1$$

63. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{200 \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-1000)^2}{80000}} \\ = \frac{1}{200 \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(1000-1000)^2}{80000}} = 0.0039894228$$

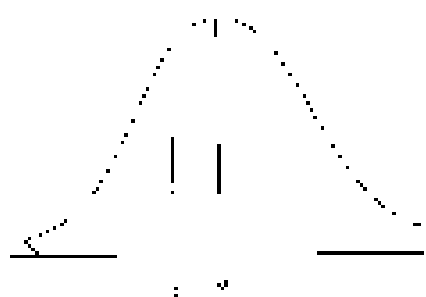
64. (b)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x y \, dx \, dy &= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2} y^2 \, dy \\ &= \frac{1}{6} y^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{6} \times 1 = 0.16\bar{6} \end{aligned}$$

65. (b)

$$\text{Let } x^2 = z \Rightarrow x = \sqrt{z}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \Rightarrow f(\sqrt{z}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} \left| \frac{dz}{dx} \right| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{z}}$$



which is the shaded area in respect to a normal distribution curve with $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma = 1$.

66. Sol.

Given a normally distributed,

$$\mu = \sigma_{100} = 20, \quad \sigma = 5, \quad P(Z > 1.2) = ?$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \left(x - \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \right) = Z \Rightarrow \frac{1}{5} \left(x - \frac{20}{1} \right) = 1.2 \Rightarrow x = 26$$

which is 4 more than 20.

67. (b)

$$P(X) = \frac{n(X)}{n(S)}$$

$$P(X) = \frac{1}{6} \Rightarrow P(X) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(X) = P(X) = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P(X) = \frac{1}{6}$$

68. (a)

$$\text{Required prob} = \frac{20}{100} = \frac{4 \times 5}{20 \times 20} = \frac{1}{10}$$

69. Sol.



$$P(A) = \frac{n(A)}{n(S)} = \frac{20}{100}$$

$$P(B) = \frac{n(B)}{n(S)} = \frac{20}{100}$$

$$\text{Let } P(A \cap B) = x \Rightarrow P(A \cup B) = 20 - x$$

$$P(A \cup B) = 1 - P(\bar{A} \cap \bar{B})$$

$$P(A \cup B) = 1 - 0.8 = 0.2$$

By total probability

Probability of having employee either

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) \Rightarrow 0.2 = 0.2 + 0.2 - x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = 0.8 + \frac{1}{2} x \Rightarrow x = 0.20$$

70. (a)

Let number of goals = x . For a normal distributionwith $\mu = 1.5$ we want the probability between the

critical values are not less than 0.95 and 0.9

$$0.95 \leq P(Z) \leq 0.95$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{x - 1.5}{2} = 1.96 \Rightarrow x = 3.92 \Rightarrow \text{score is greater than 4}$$

∴ which is an impossible event ∴ the assumed distribution is zero

71. Sol.

Let probability of occurrence of 1 is P

∴ with given probability,

$$P = 2P + 3P = 2(1 - P) + 3P = 1$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3}$$

∴ probability of occurrence of 1 is $\frac{1}{3}$ for 3

$$\Rightarrow 3P = \frac{3}{3} = 1 \Rightarrow 0.33\bar{3}$$

72. Sol.

Area of circles $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$ of total area of circle

and $\frac{1}{2}$ of circle have radius $\Rightarrow 70$ and

upper circle is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \pi = \frac{1}{2}$$

Now two circles $\Rightarrow 140$ of the plates of circle

has radius $\Rightarrow 70$

By probability of 2 of plates of circle has

$$\text{area} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow 0.5$$

73. (c)

1 meter steel cable cost = ₹ 12000.
It is used by drilling holes with diameter 12 mm.

$$V_{\text{Cable}} = \left(\frac{\pi \times 1^2}{4} \right) \times \frac{10000}{1000} \quad V_1 = \left(\frac{\pi \times 1^2}{4} \right) \times 10$$

and 1000 holes can be drilled with cable.

So required cable is

$$= \left(\frac{\pi \times \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^2}{4} \right) \times \frac{1}{\frac{\pi}{4}} = \frac{24}{1000} = 0.024$$

74. Sol.

Probability of each (x = 0) = $\frac{1}{6}$

Probability of each (x = 1) = $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{1}{2}$

Total probability (x = 1) = $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{12}$

Required probability = $\frac{4025}{10000} = \frac{1}{6} = 0.1667$

75. Sol.

At A, $\frac{1}{20} = 100\%$

At B, $\frac{1}{20} = 100\%$

Probability of stop = 100%

$$= \frac{A + B}{C} = \frac{100 + 100}{1000} = 100\%$$

∴ x = 100

76. Sol.

$$A_1 = 100$$

Probability of stop at A = 5 or 5 = 100%
Probability of stop at B = 5

$$1 \left[\left(\frac{1}{5} \right) + \left(\frac{100}{5} \right) \right] = \frac{100}{5} + \frac{100}{5} = \frac{100}{5} + \frac{100}{5} = \frac{200}{5} = 40$$

$$\frac{40}{100} = 0.40$$

77. Sol.

Let A and B are mutually exclusive events when $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$

So, we compare the A and B in mutually exclusive.

Now, if we add the A and B is a probability 90% as the A is a probability 60% and B is

$$P(A) = 0.22 = 1 \Rightarrow P(B) = 0.68$$

Now we use derivative $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$

$$= f(x)(1 - f(x))$$

$$\text{Let } f(x) = 1$$

$$\text{Now } f'(x) = f(x) = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = 1 - f$$

$$\text{So } f = 1 - f$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} = 1 - 2f = 0 \Rightarrow f = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{d^2}{dx^2} = 2 \times \left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \right)_{x=1/2}$$

$$= 2 \times 1$$

Now we use $\frac{d^2}{dx^2} = 1$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \right) = 0.5$$

78. (c)

200

$$x = 1000 \times 0.2 \times 0.2 = 200$$

So, we use 200

$$C = \left(\frac{200}{1000} \right) \times \left(\frac{1000}{1000} \right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{200}{1000} \right) \times \left(\frac{1000}{1000} \right) = 0.2 \times 1 = 0.2$$

$$= 0.2 \times 1000 = 200$$

79. (a)

A	B	1	2
P(A)	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	1

$$1 + 1 = 2 \Rightarrow P(A) = \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \right) = 1$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{3}{3} = 1$$

$$P(B) = \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \right) = 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{3}{3} = 1$$

$$\text{Chance} = P(A) = \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \right) = 1$$

80. Sol.

A	B	1	2
P(A)	$\frac{2}{6}$	$\frac{2}{6}$	1

$$C = 2 \times \left(\frac{2}{6} \right) = \frac{4}{6}$$

$$a = \frac{2\pi^2 \times 30}{\pi} = \frac{60}{\pi}$$

$$a = 1 - p = 1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Each of getting red colour is $\frac{1}{3}$ & 3rd trial is success

$$\begin{aligned} &= p^2(1-p) = \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{4}{9}\right) \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{4}{27} \\ &= \left(\frac{4}{9}\right) \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = \frac{4}{27} \\ &= \frac{4}{27} \times \frac{60}{\pi} = \frac{80}{9\pi} \approx 0.289 \end{aligned}$$

81. 30.

The tree diagram of the given is as per below. Required probability:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{10}{20} \times \frac{10}{19} = \frac{100}{380} \\ &= \frac{10}{38} = \frac{5}{19} \end{aligned}$$

82. 30

Given: $x = 5$

$$\begin{aligned} P(x=4) &= P(x=0) \quad (x=1, 2, 3, 4, 5) \\ &= P(x=0) \\ &= \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{0!} = \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} = \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} = \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} \\ &= \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} = \frac{e^{-5} 5^0}{1!} \end{aligned}$$

83. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \frac{5^{-x} x^x}{x!} \\ \text{For } x=1, P(1) &= \frac{5^{-1} 1^1}{1!} = \frac{5^{-1} 1^1}{1!} \\ &= \frac{5^{-1} 1^1}{1!} = \frac{5^{-1} 1^1}{1!} \end{aligned}$$

84. 30

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(0.5 < x < 1.5) &= \int_{0.5}^{1.5} f(x) dx = \int_{0.5}^{1.5} \frac{1}{2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} [x]_{0.5}^{1.5} = \frac{1}{2} [1.5 - 0.5] = \frac{1}{2} [1] = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

85. 30

Probability, $0.5 < x < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{0.5}^1 f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{0.5}^1 \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} [x]_{0.5}^1 = \frac{1}{2} [1 - 0.5] = \frac{1}{2} [0.5] = \frac{1}{4} \end{aligned}$$

86. (a)

normal distribution \Rightarrow mean = 0 & standard deviation = 1

Here, x is the mean. So, the value of the plug is

$$P(x=0) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{0^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

normal distribution \Rightarrow mean = 0 & standard deviation = 1

87. (c)

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

For x

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

(1) Probability of $x=0$

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

88. 30.

$$\begin{aligned} &\begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(x) = P(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = \frac{4!}{x_1! x_2! x_3! x_4!} = \frac{4!}{1! 1! 1! 1!} = 24$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean}(\bar{X}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx = \int_0^1 x(2x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 2x^2 dx = \left[\frac{2x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\therefore \frac{0}{3} < \frac{2}{3} < \frac{4}{3} = 1.333$$

99. (b)

$$P(X = 1) = \frac{16 + 24}{100} = 0.40$$

$$P(X = 2) = 0.29$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean}(\bar{X}) = 1.69$$

$$= \int_0^1 x f(x) dx = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 x f(x) dx = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\therefore \int_0^1 x \cdot \frac{2}{3} dx = \frac{2}{3} \Rightarrow \frac{2}{3} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\therefore \int_0^1 x f(x) dx = 1$$

\therefore This probability is a constant value i.e. 1

$$= \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \Rightarrow 1$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \Rightarrow 0 = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{3} \times 1 = 0.333$$

$$= 0.333$$

$$\therefore \frac{121}{100} = \frac{1}{3} \times 1 = 0.333$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{3} \times 1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

99. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\frac{1}{3} \right]_0^1 &= \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{1}{3} \\ \left[\frac{1}{3} \right]_0^1 &= \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Mean}(\bar{X}) = \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{9}$$

100. Sol.

$$P(X) = 0.3$$

$$P(Y) = 0.7$$

Since all these are independent

\therefore Probability of getting red ball in trial 1 & 2 is

$$\begin{aligned} &= P(X) \times P(Y) = P(X) \times P(Y) \\ &= 0.3 \times 0.7 = 0.21 \times 100 \\ &= 21\% \end{aligned}$$

101. (a)

$$P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

(Since all these are independent)

$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

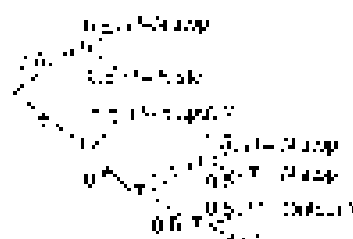
$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

$$= P(X) + P(Y) = P(X) + P(Y) = 0.7$$

102. (a)



The probability of getting success in both the trials is

$P(X) \times P(Y) = 0.3 \times 0.4 = 0.12$

\therefore The probability of getting success in both the trials is

$$= 0.12 \times 100$$

$$= 12\%$$

$$= 0.12 \times 100$$

$$= 12\%$$

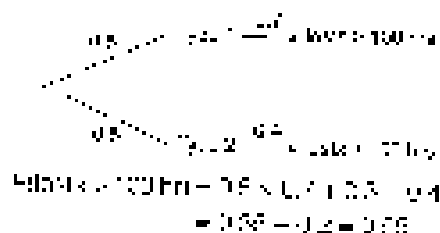
$$= 0.12 \times 100$$

$$= 12\%$$

$$= 0.12 \times 100$$

$$= 12\%$$

103. Sol.



104. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} 10 \times \frac{100}{100} \times \frac{1}{100} &= \frac{100}{100 \times 100} \\ &= \frac{100}{10000} = \frac{1}{100} \end{aligned}$$

105. Sol.

Median speed will be speed of the middle vehicle in order of speed. There are 10 vehicles. 5 vehicles will be greater than the median and 5 will be smaller than the median.

Ascending order of speed: 20, 45, 50, 55, 60, 62, 65, 70, 75, 80.

$$\text{Median speed} = \frac{55 + 60}{2} = 57.5 \text{ km/hr}$$

107. (b)

Mean of $f(x)$ is given

$$\int_{-1}^1 x \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx = \int_{-1}^1 x \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 x dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 x \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{-1}^1 + \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{2}{\pi} \right] = \frac{1}{2}$$

Var. cov. of $f(x) = E(x^2) - E(x)^2$ where

$$E(x^2) = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^3}{\pi} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{\pi} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi + 3}{3\pi} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Var. cov.} = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

Mean, mean of $f(x)$ is $E(x)$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 x \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Mean cov. of $f(x)$ is $E(x^2) - E(x)^2$

$$E(x^2) = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^2 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} x \right) dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Var. cov.} = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

∴ Mean of $f(x)$ is $\frac{1}{2}$ and the var. cov. of $f(x)$ var. cov. is $\frac{\pi}{6}$

108. Sol.

$$p = 0.8, q = 0.2, r = 0.0$$

∴ no. of observations

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= 1 \times 0.8 + 0.2 \times 1 + 0.0 \times 0 = 1.0 \\ \therefore E(X) &= 1.0 \end{aligned}$$

109. Sol.

∴ Poisson distribution,

$$\text{Mean} = \text{Variance} = 2$$

Let the number = $X = 2$

Given the second term is 1/2

$$e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^2}{2!} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\lambda^2 = 2 \Rightarrow \lambda = \sqrt{2}$$

$$P(X=3) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^3}{3!} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\lambda = 2$$

110. (a)

∴ variance of $f(x)$ variance = $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$

Given function = $f(x) = \cos x$

$$\text{Variance of function} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \times \frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

111. Sol.

$$\text{Given } f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x \in [1, \infty)$$

$$= 0 \rightarrow \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{So } \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$$

$$= \left(\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} \right) dx = \left(-\frac{1}{x} \right)_0^1 > 0$$

$$\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{5}{2} = \frac{1}{2} > 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \left(\int_0^1 25 - \frac{3x^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{x^2} \right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{25}{2} - \frac{3}{2} \right) + \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) = 0.9$$

120. (a)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{20}{\sqrt{5}} &= 4\sqrt{5} \cos \theta = \frac{4}{3} \\ \frac{20}{\sqrt{5}} &= 4\sqrt{5} \sin \theta = \frac{8}{3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \frac{5}{10} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{3}{10} \times \frac{5}{5} = \frac{10}{30} = 0.3$$

121. (a)

Given: Poisson distribution $\lambda = 5$ We know: $\mu = \lambda$ in Poisson distribution

$$E(X) = \mu(X) = 5$$

So here $E(X) = \mu(X) = 5$

$$D(X) = \sqrt{\lambda} = \sqrt{(5 - 5)^2}$$

$$= E(X^2) + (X - 5)$$

$$= E(X^2) + 4E(X) = 4$$

But we know $D(X) = \sqrt{\lambda}$ and $D(X) = E(X^2) + (E(X))^2$

$$5 = E(X^2) + 25$$

$$\text{So } E(X^2) = 25 - 5 = 20$$

$$\text{Required value} = 20 + 4 \times 5 = 40 = 54$$

122. (a)

Binomial experiment is a trial or experiment which is independent of previous outcome.

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

123. (b)

or example: (a)

$$f(x) = xe^{-x} \quad x = 0$$

The curve is as follows

It has a slope

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} \right)^2} \quad \text{for } x = \mu$$

The parameters are μ and σ

Therefore, answer is (c)

124. (b)

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin(x) dx = 1$$

$$\int_0^1 (2 - \cos(x)) dx = 1$$

$$\therefore \cos(x) = \frac{\pi x^{1/2}}{2} \bigg|_0^1 = 1$$

$$x = \frac{\pi}{2} = 1$$

Option (a), by replacing the value of $x = 1$

■■■■



Numerical Method

6.1 Introduction

Numerical methods are used to solve equations or problems involving differential equations that can be classified in two types:

1. Analytical Methods
2. Numerical Methods

6.1.1 Analytical Methods

Analytical methods are problems that can be analysed and equation obtained without directly using a computer (you can do it manually). Here are some steps to solve them:

Example 1.

Solve $2x + 3y = 6$ analytically

Analytical solution: $x = -\frac{3y}{2} + \frac{400}{26}$

Example 2.

Find the $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ analytically

Analytical solution: $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \left. \frac{x^3}{3} \right|_0^1 = \frac{1^3}{3} - \frac{0^3}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$

Example 3.

Solve the differential equation

$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + 1$ with condition $y(0) = 3$

Analytical solution: $\int \frac{dy}{dx} = \int (2x + 1) dx$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \frac{2x^2}{2} + \frac{1x}{1} + C \\ y &= x^2 + x + C \\ y(0) &= 3 \\ 3 &= 0 + 0 + C \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore y = x^2 + x + 3$ is the required solution.

6.1.2 Numerical Methods

These are problems that cannot be solved manually or we do not need more results

It is a kind of solution that is obtained using a computer or some formulas (eg. limit superior) obtained using some algorithm or numerical method. Usually, we can find a solution to the problem.

The advantage of numerical methods is that only those procedures will be used when solving problems that cannot be solved analytically or when solving a lot of problems.

or even H_c were not in a suitable form, evaluation of ρ is not straightforward. Whereas numerical methods are used to solve polynomial problems and angles.

Although exact solutions are provided for linear differential equations, and exact solutions are available for nonlinear equations.

With the advent of computers and digital computers, many numerical methods have emerged. A survey of the methods available is given in the book. It will be understood that a person cannot solve all the problems which occur in analysis and mechanics that I have provided before using analytical methods only.

Although Numerical Methods are used in many applications, they are not used in all problems. The following are the problems in which Numerical Methods are used:

1. Solution of systems of linear equations.
2. Solution of algebraic and transcendental equations in one variable.
3. Evaluation of definite integrals.
4. Solution of ordinary differential equations.

The coverage of numerical methods is in accordance with the applications of the subject. The book is divided into four parts: Part I deals with the solution of algebraic and transcendental equations in one variable; Part II deals with the solution of systems of linear equations; Part III deals with the solution of ordinary differential equations; and Part IV deals with the solution of partial differential equations.

6.1.3 Errors in Numerical Methods

1. **Round-off Error:** This is due to the fact that computers have finite capacity for storing numbers. Part of the floating point number is stored in the computer and the other part is lost. This is called round-off error.
2. **Truncation Error:** This occurs due to the fact that the number of terms in the series is finite. The error is called truncation error.

Example:

Taylor's and Maclaurin's Series are used to find the value of the function e^x at $x = 1$ using the first four terms of the series.

Although the series are used in Numerical Methods, they are not exact. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error.

The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error.

The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error.

For example, the solution of the differential equation $y' = y$ with initial condition $y(0) = 1$ is $y = e^x$. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error.

For example, the solution of the differential equation $y' = y$ with initial condition $y(0) = 1$ is $y = e^x$. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error. The error is called truncation error.

$$x_1(x_1 + 3) + x_2 + x_3 = 5$$

$$x_2(x_1 + 3) + x_2 = 2$$

which can be written as follows

$$4x_1 = 0$$

H

$$x_1 = 0$$

... (E)

... (F)

where

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

... (G)

and

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

... (H)

(i) comparing

$$L(R) = n$$

... (I)

It can be

$$R = r$$

... (J)

The identity assumption

$$U = u$$

... (K)

which can be written as follows

$$x_1x_2 = x_1 - x_3$$

$$x_2(x_1 + 3) + x_2 = 2$$

we can be solved for x_2 by the above substitution. On eq. (I) above, the term $x_1(x_1 + 3)$ becomes

$$x_1x_2 = x_1x_2 - x_1x_3 = x_1$$

$$x_2x_2 = x_1x_3 = x_1$$

$$x_2x_3 = x_1$$

we can write above as follows

We can now describe scheme for computing the values of x_1 and x_2 from a single product value, as follows. Consider A, B, C the relation (i.e. data)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 & x_3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_3 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

With regard to the use of the above equations, the main idea is finding the value of both sides as follows

$$x_1 = x_1 - x_1 = 0, x_2 = x_2 - x_2 = 0$$

$$x_2x_2 = x_1$$

or

$$x_2 = \frac{x_1}{x_2}$$

$$x_1x_2 = x_2 = x_2$$

—

$$x_2 = x_2 - x_1x_2$$

$$x_2(x_2 + 1) = x_2$$

—

$$x_2 = x_2 - x_2(x_2 + 1)$$

$$x_2(x_2 + 1) = x_2$$

—

$$x_2 = \frac{x_1}{x_2}$$

$$\lambda_1 u_1 x + \lambda_2 u_2 x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = \frac{\lambda_2}{u_1} \cdot \frac{u_2}{u_2} \cdot u_1$$

$$\text{Using } \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 u_1 u_2 = \lambda_2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 = \frac{\lambda_2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_2 = 2\lambda_1 \quad \text{Using } \lambda_2 = \lambda_1 u_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Let } \lambda_1 = 1 \text{ then } \lambda_2 = 2 \text{ then } \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = 3$$

$$\text{Check if } p, q, r \text{ are}$$

$$\text{then } \lambda_1 u_1 = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{and } \lambda_2 u_2 = 2 \cdot 1$$

Example:

Solve the system

$$2x + 3y + z = 7$$

$$x + 2y + 5z = 18$$

$$x + y + 3z = 6$$

by the cofactor method.

Solution:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] \quad \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{clearly } \lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 3, \lambda_3 = 1$$

$$\text{and } \lambda_1 u_1 = 2, \text{ so that } u_1 = 1/2$$

$$\lambda_2 u_2 + u_3 = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_2 = 3 - \lambda_2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - \lambda_3 = 1/2$$

$$\text{and } \lambda_3 = \lambda_1 = 2$$

$$\text{Let } \lambda_1 = 1 \text{ then } \lambda_2 = 3/2$$

$$\lambda_2 u_2 = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_2 = 6$$

$$\lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + \lambda_1 u_3 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_3 = -7$$

$$\lambda_1 u_1 + \lambda_2 u_2 + \lambda_3 u_3 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_3 = 18$$

Therefore

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 3 & 6 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and hence the given system of equations can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 6 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & -2 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \\ 6 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

so eqn. (3) is given by $x_2 = 6 - 2x_1 - x_3$

$$x_2 = 6 - 2x_1 - x_3 \quad (4)$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \quad \quad x_2 = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\frac{5}{2}(11 - 2x_1 + x_3) + x_3 = 6 \text{ or } 11 - 5$$

and eqn. (2) is also given by eqn. (4) as

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{3}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} X = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

which is reduced by adding eqn. (3) to (2) as

$$x_3 = \frac{8x_1}{5} - \frac{23}{5} \text{ or } x_3 = \frac{8}{5}x_1 - \frac{23}{5}$$

Note: In 2-D, the graphical solution is much more convenient. In 3-D, it is better to use matrix method.

$$\text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

As the order of solving the unknowns in Gauss method is sequential, we can solve for x_1, x_2, x_3 for $a_{11} \neq 0, a_{22} \neq 0, a_{33} \neq 0$ and a_{11}, a_{22} and a_{33} . There is no particular advantage of Gauss method over Cramer's method as it is not clear whether we can take the i th argument as 1.

8.2.2 Gauss-Seidel Method

(i) For each i (i.e. $i = 1, 2, 3$), write the i th equation like

$$(i) \quad x_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} \right)$$

For the i th equation (i.e. $i = 1, 2, 3$), $x_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{a_{ii}} \left(b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{ij} x_j^{(k+1)} - \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} x_j^{(k)} \right)$

method is called the Gauss-Jordan method. (\bar{A}^k, \bar{b}^k) and $(\bar{A}^{k+1}, \bar{b}^{k+1})$ are obtained by interchanging the rows of \bar{A}^{k-1} and \bar{b}^{k-1} such that a_{22}^{k-1} is the largest element in the second column. \bar{A}^{k-1} and \bar{b}^{k-1} are obtained with accuracy $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$. It is checked that the new \bar{A}^{k-1} and \bar{b}^{k-1} are non-singular. If not, an error message is given and the program terminates. If yes, the Gauss-Jordan method is applied. The program is given below.

Remark: It can be proved that the Gauss-Jordan method converges to the exact solution.

6.3 Numerical Solutions of Nonlinear Algebraic and Transcendental Equations by Bisection, Regula-Falsi, Secant and Newton-Raphson Methods

Consider a nonlinear equation $f(x)$ to be solved by the bisection method. Then

$$f(x) = 0 \quad (6.3.1)$$

is to be solved numerically. The bisection method is a simple method for solving nonlinear equations. It is based on the Intermediate Value Theorem. On the other hand, when $f(x)$ is a polynomial of high degree, it is preferable to solve it by the method of finding the roots of the polynomial. The algorithm for finding the roots of a polynomial is given below.

Let $f(x)$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then the roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$. The roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

6.3.1 Roots of Algebraic Equations

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then the roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$. The roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then the roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.2)$$

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n .

1. Choose an initial value x_0 and a final value x_1 such that $f(x_0) \cdot f(x_1) < 0$.
2. Find the midpoint $x_m = (x_0 + x_1)/2$ and evaluate $f(x_m)$.
3. If $f(x_m) = 0$, then x_m is the root of the equation.
4. If $f(x_m) \neq 0$, then replace x_0 or x_1 by x_m and repeat the process.
5. Repeat the process until the root is found.

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n .

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.3)$$

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then the roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.4)$$

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n . Then the roots of $f(x)$ are the solutions of the equation $f(x) = 0$.

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.5)$$

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n .

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.6)$$

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial of degree n .

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \quad (6.3.7)$$

After simplifying results are no longer the Descartes' method results when $x = 0$ or $x = 0$ changes. But not always.

6.3.2 Descartes' Rule of Signs

For equation $f(x) = 0$ with n real roots, n positive roots, and there are n sign changes in $f(x)$ or $f(x)$ has more negative roots than the n - n sign changes in $f(x)$.

- (a) number of $x = 0$ roots is n if n is even, or n is odd
- and number of $x = 0$ roots is n if n is even, or n is odd

Example:

Consider the equation $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 7x^2 - 7x + 2 = 0$.

Solution:

There are four sign changes in $f(x)$, so there are four positive roots.

Apply $f(-x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + 7x^2 - 7x + 2 = 0$ and find the number of sign changes in $f(-x)$. The given equation has four sign changes in $f(x)$, and therefore there are four negative roots. The equation has four roots, all of which are real, and therefore there are four real roots.

6.3.3 Numerical Methods for Root Finding

Root-finding algorithms are used to find the roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method, the Newton-Raphson method, the secant method, and the regula falsi method.

- 1. Bisection Method
- 2. Regula Falsi Method
- 3. Secant Method
- 4. Newton-Raphson Method

6.3.3.1 Bisection Method

The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method. The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method.

Let $f(x)$ be a function $f(x)$ on the interval $[a, b]$. Then $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ have opposite signs. The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method.

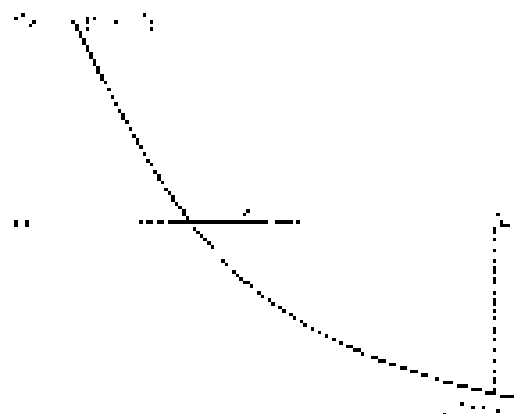
Let $x_0 = a$, and let $x_1 = b$. The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method. The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method.

The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method. The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method.

$$\text{Let } x_0 = a, \text{ and let } x_1 = b. \text{ The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function } f(x) \text{ by using the bisection method.} \quad (1)$$

The bisection method is a simple method for finding roots of a function $f(x)$ by using the bisection method.

the method is known as golden section method.



The next value of x is chosen as x_2 and $x_1 = \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}$ or more generally, $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n + x_1}{2}$.

Example:

Find root of the equation $f(x) = x^3 - x - 1 = 0$.

Solution:

Since $f(x)$ is positive at $x = 1.22$, a section is made between 1 and 2 and the value is taken $x_1 = 1.22$.

Then $f(x_1) = \frac{1.22^3}{3} - \frac{1.22}{1} = -0.384$ which is negative. Hence the interval between 1 and 1.22 and we obtain $x = 1.1$ and $x = 1.22$ as $f(1.1) = -0.584$ which is negative. We therefore consider the interval between 1.22 and 1.1 and take $x_2 = 1.122$ and $f(x_2) = 1.122^3 - 1.122 = 1.575$.

The answer is reported and the successive approximations are $x_1 = 1.0125$, $x_2 = 1.34375$, $x_3 = 1.2921875$ etc.

43.3.3 Regula-Falsi Method

The method starts by taking two guess values, x_1 and x_2 , which are used to draw a secant line, connecting $(x_1, f(x_1))$ and $(x_2, f(x_2))$. The equation of this secant line is used to obtain the next value of x .

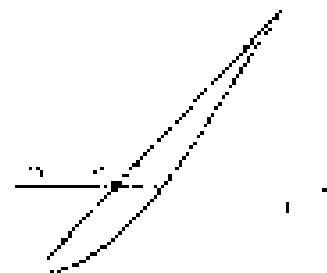
$$x = \frac{x_2 f(x_1) - x_1 f(x_2)}{f(x_1) - f(x_2)}$$

where x is called x_{n+1} and $x_1 = \frac{x_2 f(x_1) - x_1 f(x_2)}{f(x_1) - f(x_2)}$.

Graph of $y = f(x)$ is shown in the figure and the secant line is drawn by $(x_1, f(x_1))$ and $(x_2, f(x_2))$ as the particular example. x_{n+1} is obtained as the value of x as shown in Figure.

Then the interval is chosen as either $[x_1, x_{n+1}]$ or $[x_{n+1}, x_2]$ depending on the sign of $f(x_{n+1})$.

So x_2 becomes x_{n+1} if $f(x_{n+1})$ is positive and x_1 becomes x_{n+1} if $f(x_{n+1})$ is negative.

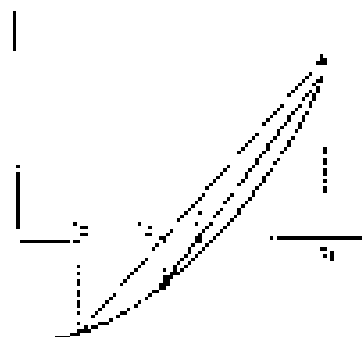


If $f(x_0) = f_0$ is a function, repeated n times, x_0 repeated n times, and the function n again, and so on, and a new value x_1 is calculated for x_0 & f_0 as above.

This is illustrated graphically as follows:

The process of finding a root of an equation is the same as finding a root of a function. The Regula-Falsi method is a root-finding method for finding roots of a function. The function $f(x)$ is plotted on a graph, and the root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.

The Regula-Falsi method is a root-finding method for finding roots of a function. The function $f(x)$ is plotted on a graph, and the root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.



6.3.3.3 Secant Method

The Secant method proceeds similarly to the Regula-Falsi method in the sense that it is a root-finding method for finding roots of a function. The function $f(x)$ is plotted on a graph, and the root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.

$$x_1 = \frac{f_1 - f_0}{f_1 - f_0} x_0$$

$$\text{or more generally } x_2 = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{f_2 - f_1} x_1$$

In the method of the Secant, a function $f(x)$ is plotted on a graph, and the root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.

$$x_2 = \frac{f_2 - f_1}{f_2 - f_1} x_1$$

Let $f(x) = f_0$ be a function, and let x_0 be a point on the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.

6.3.3.4 Newton-Raphson Method

The Newton-Raphson method is a root-finding method for finding roots of a function. The function $f(x)$ is plotted on a graph, and the root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis. The root is found by finding the point where the function crosses the x-axis.

$$f(x) = f_0 = f(x_0) + \frac{f'(x_0)}{1!} (x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!} (x - x_0)^2 + \dots$$

neglecting the higher order terms, the method becomes $f(x) \approx f_0 + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$

$$\text{which we set } f(x) = 0 \text{ and solve for } x$$

A better approximation of the root is given by x_1 where

$$x_1 = x_0 + h = x_0 + \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

Successive approximations are given by x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n and

$$\text{and } x_{n+1} = x_n + \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

which is Newton-Raphson formula.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

So, the Newton-Raphson process starts from an initial value and after convergence.

Derivative of the Maxima-Raphson method also gives a better approximation of the root. Let (x_0, y_0) and the point of intersection of the tangent at x_0 with the curve $y = f(x)$ when extended to the x -axis. The distance x_1 is better for starting x_1 can be used for finding x_2 , and so on. The convergence is better when the roots are complex.

The method also gets applied to the matrix of second order convergence. The number of significant figures increases in each successive iteration of the method.

Following table shows the Newton-Raphson is a very useful and original to the Maxima-Raphson iteration equation for solving this problem.

1. The normal of the circle to the root of the circle is $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - a = 0$

Derivative of circle $f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2} - a$

2. The inverse circle $a(x+1)$ is the root of equation $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - a = 0$

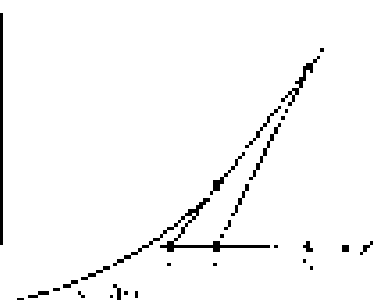
Derivative of circle $f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2} - a(x+1)$

3. The n^{th} root of the plane $x^2 + y^2 = R^2$ is root of equation $f(x) = x^2 - R^2 = 0$

Derivative of circle $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{R^2}{x^3} - R$

Note: The order of Bisection, Regula-Falsi and Secant Method are always the same. The order of the plane is 2.

S. No.	Method	Order
1.	Bisection	1
2.	Regula-Falsi	1
3.	Secant Method	1.62
4.	Newton-Raphson	2



For the interval $[x_1, x_2]$, we calculate similarly

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} y dx = \frac{h}{2} (y_1 + y_2) \quad (3)$$

and so on. For the entire area $[x_0, x_n]$, we have

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_n} y dx = \frac{h}{2} (y_0 + y_n) \quad (4)$$

combining all these expressions, we obtain, we have

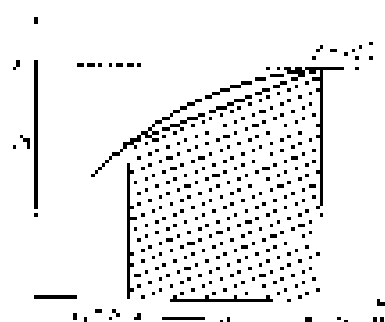
$$\int_{x_0}^{x_n} y dx = \frac{h}{2} (y_0 + 2y_1 + 2y_2 + \dots + y_{n-1} + y_n)$$

which is known as Trapezoidal Rule.

The graph of a function can be plotted on a graph paper and the area under the curve is approximated by straight lines joining the points (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) for x_0 and x_1 such that $x_1 - x_0 = h$ and (x_0, y_0) .

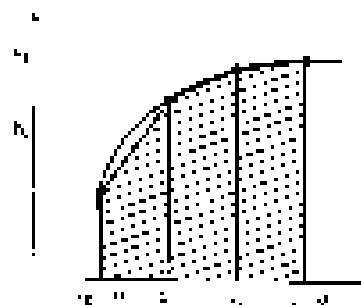
The area covered by the curve $y = f(x)$ is divided into n strips of width h and the area of each strip is approximately calculated by the formula. Areas of Trapeziums are given by

Single Trapezoidal Rule



$$\text{Shaded Area} = \text{Area of Trapezium} = \frac{h}{2} (y_0 + y_1)$$

Compound Trapezoidal Rule with 4 pts and 3 intervals:



$$\text{Shaded Area} = \text{Sum of Areas of 3 trapezium} = \frac{h}{2} (y_0 + y_4)$$

6.4.2 Simpson's Rules

6.4.2.1 Simpson's 1/3 Rule

The rule is derived by putting $n = 2$ in Simpson's formula (6.4.1) by replacing the curve by a series of second degree polynomial arcs without loss of accuracy.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_a^b f(x) &= 2h \left[f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + \frac{1}{6} f(x_2) \right] \\
 &= \frac{h}{3} \left[2 \left(f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + \frac{1}{6} f(x_2) \right) + 2f(x_2) + f(x_3) \right] \\
 &= \frac{h}{3} [4f(x_0) + 8f(x_1) + 5f(x_2) + 2f(x_3)]
 \end{aligned}$$

hence $\int_0^1 \cos x = \frac{5}{3} f_0 + 8f_1 + 5f_2$

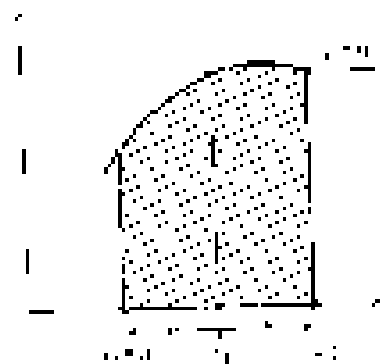
and hence $\int_0^1 f(x) = \frac{5}{3} [1.0 + 8(0.7071) + 5(0.9239)]$

Summing up we obtain

$$\int_0^1 \cos x = \frac{5}{3} [1.0 + 8(0.7071) + 5(0.9239)] = 2.011272 \approx 2.0113$$

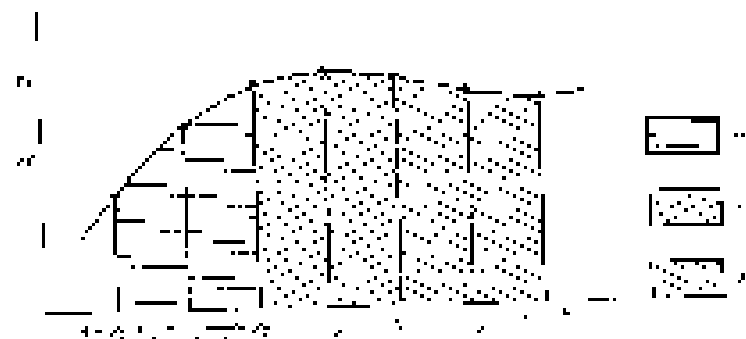
We can improve on Simpson's 1/3 rule or simply "Simpson's rule". This will be useful last time only requires the first and third ordinates and an even number of intervals of width h .

Simple Simpson's Rule.



$$\text{Area of } A_2 = \frac{h}{3} [f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + f(x_2)]$$

Compound Simpson's Rule: (where n is even)



$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx = h \left[\frac{1}{3} + \frac{4}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

64.22 Simpson's 3/8 Rule

Letting $n = 3$, Simpson's formula we observe the following weights. The weights are 1, 3, 3, and 1, and are called

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &= \frac{3h}{8} \left[f(x_0) + 3f(x_1) + 3f(x_2) + f(x_3) \right] \\ &= \frac{3h}{8} \left[f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + f_3 \right] \\ &= \frac{3h}{8} [2f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + f_3]\end{aligned}$$

Similarly $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{3h}{8} [2f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + f_3]$

and so on. Summing up all these we get

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{3h}{8} [2f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + 3f_3 + 3f_4 + 3f_5 + 3f_6 + 3f_7 + 2f_8] = 3h [f_0 + f_8 + 3f_1]$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{3h}{8} [2f_0 + 3f_1 + 3f_2 + 3f_3 + 3f_4 + 3f_5 + 3f_6 + 3f_7 + 2f_8] = 3h [f_0 + f_8 + 3f_1]$$

This is called Simpson's 3/8 rule, which is also used for approximating.

Example:

Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ compute the definite integral $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ using (a) Trapezoidal rule and (b) Simpson's rule. Use $h = 0.5$ and check which rule is more precise.

Solution:

We solve this question by applying Trapezoidal and Simpson's rule with $h = 0.5$.
we solve (a) and (b) as follows.

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \quad \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \quad \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

(a) Trapezoidal rule gives

$$I = \frac{h}{2} [f(0.000) + f(0.500) + 0.5] = 0.6364$$

(b) Simpson's rule gives

$$\frac{h}{3} [f(0.000) + 4f(0.250) + f(0.5)] = 0.6345$$

We further check answer by the analytical method as follows

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \left[\tan^{-1}(x) \right]_0^1 = \tan^{-1}(1) = 0.6333$$

Clearly, Simpson's rule gives the accurate value as compared to Trapezoidal rule.

6.4.3 Truncation Error Formulae for Trapezoidal and Simpson's Rule

Let h be the step size used in integration.

The truncation error for the trapezoidal rule is bounded above by

$$|e_T| \leq -\frac{h^2}{12} f''(\xi)$$

For composite trapezoidal rule with n elements

$$|e_{T(n)}| \leq \frac{h^2}{12} |f''(\xi)|$$

The absolute $|e_T|$ bound for the composite rule is given by

$$\begin{aligned} |e_{T(n)}| &= \max_1^n \left| \frac{h^2}{12} f''(\xi_i) \right| \\ &= \frac{h^2}{12} \max_1^n |f''(\xi_i)| \end{aligned} \quad \text{where } a = \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \dots < \xi_n = b$$

For composite Simpson's rule

$$\begin{aligned} |e_{S(n)}| &= \max_1^n \left| \frac{h^4}{720} f^{(4)}(\xi_i) \right| \\ &= \frac{h^4}{720} \max_1^n |f^{(4)}(\xi_i)| \end{aligned} \quad \text{where } a = \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \dots < \xi_n = b$$

The generalised composite Simpson's rule is also given by

$$|e_S| \leq \frac{h^4}{90} |f^{(4)}(\xi)|$$

For composite Simpson's rule with N_1 intervals, the truncation error bound is given by

$$|e_{S(N_1)}| \leq -\frac{h_1^4}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi_1)$$

where N_1 is number of Simpson's elements

Since, $N_1 = \frac{N_2}{2}$

So, $|e_{S(N_1)}| \leq -\frac{h_1^4}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi_1)$

The absolute truncation error for composite Simpson's rule is given by

$$\begin{aligned} |e_{S(n)}| &= \max_1^n \left| \frac{h^4}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi_i) \right| \\ &= \frac{h^4}{90} \max_1^n |f^{(4)}(\xi_i)| \end{aligned} \quad \text{where } a = \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \dots < \xi_n = b$$

The absolute truncation error and for composite Simpson's rule can be determined as follows

$$\begin{aligned} |e_{S(n)}| &= \max_1^n \left| \frac{h^4}{90} f^{(4)}(\xi_i) \right| = \frac{N^4}{90} \left| \frac{h_1^4}{N^4} f^{(4)}(\xi_i) \right| \\ &= \frac{h^4}{90} \max_1^n |f^{(4)}(\xi_i)| \end{aligned} \quad \text{where } a = \xi_1 < \xi_2 < \dots < \xi_n = b$$

For these limits, $y' = (y - 20)^{1/2}$ has two extreme limits of integration, $y_1 = y_0 + 1$ (where y_0 is the value of y used in the equation) and $y_2 = y_0 + 2$ (where y_0 is the value of y used in the equation). The value of y_0 is the y value at the point of integration. The value of y_1 is the y value at the point of integration. The value of y_2 is the y value at the point of integration.

Important Note:

1. Trapezoidal rule gives exact results while integrating polynomial up to degree = 1.
2. Simpson's rule gives exact results while integrating polynomial up to degree = 2.

6.5 Numerical Solution of Ordinary Differential Equations

6.5.1 Introduction

Analogy methods of solution are applicable to a limited class of Ordinary Differential Equations. The problems of ordinary differential equations are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval. These problems are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval. These problems are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval.

The numerical methods of solution are applicable to a limited class of Ordinary Differential Equations. The problems of ordinary differential equations are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \quad \text{where } x_1 \leq x \leq x_2 \quad (6.5.1)$$

The numerical methods of solution are applicable to a limited class of Ordinary Differential Equations. The problems of ordinary differential equations are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval. These problems are often of the type where the solution is required over a finite interval.

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1. Euler's Method
2. Modified Euler Method
3. Runge-Kutta Method (fourth order Runge-Kutta Method)

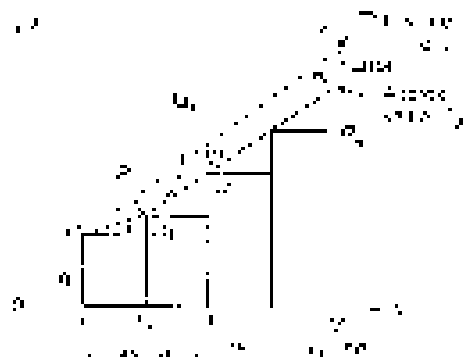
6.5.2 Euler's Method

Consider a Equation, $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ (6.5.2)

Given x_0, y_0 and f_0 (value of f at x_0, y_0), the value of y at x_1 is given by $y_1 = y_0 + f_0 \Delta x$ where Δx is the step size.

For x_1, y_1 and f_1 (value of f at x_1, y_1), the value of y at x_2 is given by $y_2 = y_1 + f_1 \Delta x$ where Δx is the step size. The value of y at x_2 is given by $y_2 = y_1 + f_1 \Delta x$ where Δx is the step size.

$$y_2 = y_1 + f_1 \Delta x = y_0 + f_0 \Delta x + f_1 \Delta x$$



$$= -30 - 5 \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right]_0$$

$$= -30 = 0.60 \times 50$$

Letting the value of x in (1) increase and dy/dx approach 0, the curve through $(0, -30)$ is $20y = 20x - 30$. Then repeating the process, values, we already have an approximation of dy/dx if $x = 10$ is given by

$$y_{10} = -1.30 = 0.13 \times 10 = -1.30$$

By using $x = 10$, we have

$$y_{10} = -1.30 = 0.13 \times 10$$

Here Runge method of finding an approximate solution of (1).

Observe that the method we have adopted is a kind of solution by the tangent line rule. If $y = y_0$ is a given value of y then a line of slope dy/dx at $x = x_0$ is drawn tangent to the solution curve. The next point of the solution curve is marked on the line. The curve is then extended to the next point of the solution curve. The method is repeated until the solution curve is obtained to the required accuracy.

Example:

Using Runge method, find an approximate value of y corresponding to $x = 1$, given that $dy/dx = x + y$ and $y = 1$ when $x = 0$.

Solution:

Between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$, dy/dx is divided into 10 parts. The various values of x are marked as follows:

x	y	$x = 0 + 0.10$	$x = 0 + 0.10 \times 10$	$x = 1$
0	1.00	1.10	$1.0 + 0.0100 = 1.10$	
0.1	1.10	1.21	$1.10 + 0.1100 = 1.21$	
0.2	1.23	1.33	$1.2 + 0.1120 = 1.31$	
0.3	1.38	1.47	$1.3 + 0.1180 = 1.41$	
0.4	1.54	1.63	$1.4 + 0.1240 = 1.52$	
0.5	1.73	1.79	$1.5 + 0.1320 = 1.63$	
0.6	1.94	1.97	$1.6 + 0.1400 = 1.74$	
0.7	2.19	2.18	$1.7 + 0.1490 = 1.84$	
0.8	2.47	2.41	$1.8 + 0.1580 = 1.95$	
0.9	2.79	2.67	$1.9 + 0.1680 = 2.06$	
1.0	3.04			

Thus the required approximate value of y at $x = 1$ is $y = 2.06$.

Observe: In the above example, the true value of y corresponding to $x = 1$ is

$$y = 1e^x - 1 = 1.718$$

where the above method gives $y = 2.06$. In the above example, we have $dy/dx = x + y$ and $y = 1$ when $x = 0$. The above method would have been considerably inaccurate if the slope of the solution curve had been a constant. The Runge method is an extremely efficient procedure for considering an initial value problem.

Example:

Given $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y-4}{x+2}$ with initial condition $y = 0$ at $x = 0$, find y at $x = 1$ using Runge method.

Solution:

We start with $y(0) = 0$ and step size $h = 0.2$, $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y+2}{x} = \frac{y}{x} + 0.2$. The values of y at different x are given as follows:

x	y	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y+2}{x}$	$y_{n+1} = y_n + h \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_n$
0.0	0.000	0.200	$0.000 + 0.2(0.200) = 0.040$
0.2	0.040	0.180	$0.040 + 0.2(0.180) = 0.072$
0.4	0.072	0.161	$0.072 + 0.2(0.161) = 0.098$
0.6	0.098	0.143	$0.098 + 0.2(0.143) = 0.120$
0.8	0.120	0.125	$0.120 + 0.2(0.125) = 0.145$
1.0	0.145		

So we require the approximate value of $y = 0.145$.

6.5.3 Modified Euler's Method

In Euler's method $y_{n+1} = y_n + h \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_n$

In Modified Euler's method $y_{n+1} = y_n + h \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{n+1/2}$ (6)

A modified method where y_n is given and h is the size of the interval x is given and y is not known. So for every x is found by using the modified Euler's method. It is similar to Runge-Kutta method.

In Modified Euler's method, we have y_{n+1} and y_n are given. Let us see an example.

Example:

Using Modified Euler's Method find an approximate value of y at $x = 1$ when $y(0) = 0$, given the ODE $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + y$ and $h = 0.2$ with $x = 0$, and step size $h = 0.2$.

$$y_1 = y_0 + h \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_0$$

$$y_2 = y_1 + h \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_1$$

Solution:

$$\text{Given } y_1 = y_0 \text{ and } h = \frac{y_1 + y_0}{2}$$

Now the value of y is given as follows:

x	y	$\frac{dy}{dx}$	Comments
0.0	0.00	0.00	Initial condition given
0.2	0.04	0.12	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_1 + y_0}{2} = \frac{0.04 + 0.00}{2} = 0.02$
0.4	0.08	0.24	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_2 + y_1}{2} = \frac{0.08 + 0.04}{2} = 0.06$
0.6	0.12	0.36	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_3 + y_2}{2} = \frac{0.12 + 0.08}{2} = 0.10$
0.8	0.16	0.48	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_4 + y_3}{2} = \frac{0.16 + 0.12}{2} = 0.14$
1.0	0.20	0.60	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y_5 + y_4}{2} = \frac{0.20 + 0.16}{2} = 0.18$

So we get approximate value of $y(1) = 0.20$ at $x = 1.0$.

Notice that the same method is given as before Euler's method, given a slightly different h value for given x and $y = 0.20$ at $x = 1.0$.

The advantage of Modified Euler's method is that it is more accurate than Euler's method. It is more stable and gives better results than Euler's method.

A modified Euler's method is given and the value of y is found. It is a good method for finding the value of y at a given x .

6.5.4 Runge-Kutta Method

The Taylor method involves determining an initial condition and a finite number of derivatives to find the higher order derivatives. However, this may be tedious and involves Runge-Kutta method which is an iterative method to solve ordinary differential equations. These methods agree with Taylor series with finite steps and hence they are called Runge-Kutta method and it gives the error of the method. This method is called as Runge-Kutta method and Runge-Kutta method is the Runge-Kutta method of the order and the order respectively.

The fourth order Runge-Kutta method is most commonly used for a system of ordinary differential equations and Runge-Kutta method.

Working rule finding the numerical solution of ordinary differential equation Runge-Kutta method is as follows:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y), \quad y(x_0) = y_0 \text{ is given}$$

Given the necessary

$$k_1 = f(x_0, y_0)$$

$$k_2 = f\left(x_0 + \frac{h}{2}, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}ky_1\right)$$

$$k_3 = f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{2}h, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}ky_2\right)$$

and

$$k_4 = f(x_0 + h, y_0 + ky_3)$$

Find the value

$$y_1 = y_0 + h(k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4)$$

where $x_1 = x_0 + h$ and $y_1 = y_0 + h(k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4)$

Repeat the steps for x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n and y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n

Adv. One of the advantages of Runge-Kutta method is that the operation is carried out with the help of the calculator and hence.

Example:

A body falling from a height of 100 m and find the displacement with time t when $x = 0.2$ given that $\frac{dx}{dt} = 10 - 0.2x$ and $x = 0$ when $t = 0$.

Solution:

Here $x_0 = 0, y = 10, h = 0.2, f(x, y) = 10 - 0.2x$

$$k_1 = f(x_0, y) = 10 - 0.2 \times 0 = 10$$

$$y_1 = y_0 + h\left(k_1 + \frac{1}{2}k_2 + \frac{1}{2}k_3 + k_4\right) = 10 + (0.2 \times 10) = 10.2$$

$$k_2 = f\left(x_0 + \frac{h}{2}, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}ky_1\right) = \frac{1}{2}(10 - 0.2y_1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(10 - 0.2 \times 10.1) = 4.9$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} k_3 &= f\left(x_0 + \frac{h}{2}, y_0 + \frac{1}{2}ky_2\right) = \frac{1}{2}(10 - 0.2y_2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(10 - 0.2 \times 10.1) = 4.9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore \quad y &= \frac{1}{2}(y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(0.0000 + 0.1900 + 0.4880 + 0.3980) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(1.4060) = 0.7030
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Now, } y_4 &= y_3 + h \\
 &= 0.1900 + 1.4060
 \end{aligned}$$

∴ y_4 = required approximate value of y is 1.5960

6.5.5 Stability Analysis

The effect of round off error on the stability of a solution of a differential equation for the interval is said to be the stability of the solution. The stability method will be given for the solution of a second order ordinary differential equation.

Let us consider the following equation

$$y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = q \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Consider the homogeneous eq. as

$$y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = 0$$

Using attached eq. in (1) $y' = y_1$

Is used for the solution for stability in Runge method.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Using the reduction of order } y_2 &= y_1 + \Delta y_1 / \Delta t \\
 &= y_1 + h y_1' \\
 &= y_1 + h y_2
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, consider y_1 and y_2 two given

$$y_1 = 1 + h y_2$$

Now, solve for stability if $|r_1| < 1$

$$|1 + h y_2| < 1$$

$$|y_2 + h y_2'| < 1$$

So, stability for stability is

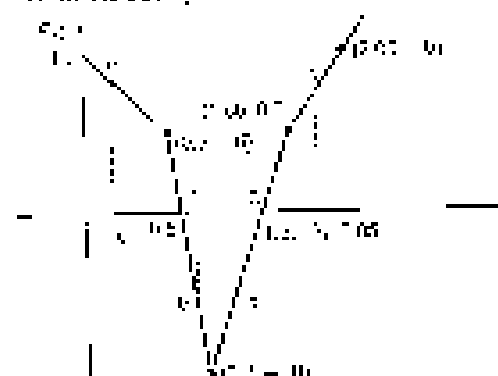
$$h y_2 y_2' < 0$$

□□□□



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

- Q.1. A curve as shown in the figure is plotted using first order time constant type second order plant (unit step input)



we use the following Denominator for the model of $C(s) = 1$ using ω_n and ζ parameters, the values of ω_n and ζ are respectively

- (a) 5 and 0.4 respectively
(b) 0.4 and 5 respectively
(c) 2.1 and 4 respectively
(d) 0.4 and 2 respectively

[CE, GATE-2008, 2 marks]

- Q.2. The frequency of vibration of a cantilever beam is given by

- (a) $\sqrt{EI/m}$ (b) $\sqrt{EI/k}$
(c) $\sqrt{EI/l}$ (d) $\sqrt{EI/\rho}$

[ME, GATE-2003, 1 mark]

Statement for Linked Answer Questions 3 and 4:
A system $G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 1}$ is excited by a unit step

- (a) The Maximum Error of the system is 0.5
(b)

- Q.3. The Modified Rungström algorithm for $\lambda = 1$ gives

$$(a) x_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} x_k + \frac{y}{x_k}$$

$$(b) x_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} x_k + \frac{1}{2} y$$

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

$$(d) x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{y}{x_k^2}$$

[CE, GATE-2006, 2 marks]

- Q.4. The unit step response of a G.O. system is given by

- (a) $2.1e^{-0.5t}$ (b) $0.5e^{-2t}$
(c) $0.5e^{-0.5t}$ (d) $0.5e^{-10t}$

[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.5. Using Routh's method to check the stability of the system $G(s) = \frac{1}{s^3 + 3s^2 + 2s + 1}$ gives the results as follows

- (a) $\sigma_1 = 0.5$ (b) $\sigma_1 = 1.5$
(c) $\sigma_1 = 1.5$ (d) $\sigma_1 = 2$

[ME, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.6. Match List-I with List-II to select the correct answer using the codes given below. (A, B, C, D)

- List-I
A. Rungström-Runge method
B. Rung-Kutta method
C. Simpson's Rule
D. Gauss elimination

- List-II
1. Solving ordinary differential eq.
2. Solving the boundary value problem
3. Solving partial differential eq.
4. Finding the integral
5. Interpolation
6. Calculus and Algebra

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	5	3	1	2
(b)	1	6	4	3
(c)	3	4	5	6
(d)	2	1	2	1

[CE, GATE-2005, 2 marks]

- Q.7. A 2nd degree polynomial, the coefficients of x^2 and $18x + 10$ are 2 respectively, the integral

$$\int_0^2 \frac{1}{x^2 + 18x + 10} dx$$

is equal to $\frac{1}{10} \ln 2$. What is the coefficient of the constant term in the polynomial?

(a) $\frac{1}{9}$

(b) $\frac{4}{3}$

(c) 1

(d) $\frac{2}{3}$

[CL, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

- Q.8 The differential equation $(y^2 + 2) \frac{dy}{dx} + x = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method. The method utilized boundary condition $y = 0$ at $x = 0$. What would be the value of y at $x = 1$?

(a) 1.35

(b) 1.0

(c) 2.0

(d) 1.55

[CL, GATE-2006, 1 mark]

- Q.9 The differential equation of the cylinder

$$y'' + 2y' + 3y = 0 \quad y(0) = 5,$$

has solution $y = e^{ax}$

(a) $a = 2$

(b) $a = 1$

(c) $a = 1$

(d) $a = -3$

[CF, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.10 The differential equation $y'' + 4y = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method. The method utilized boundary condition

$$y' = 0, \quad y = 0 \quad y = 0$$

What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 0$?

(a) $y = \frac{2\sqrt{2} + 3}{3\sqrt{2} + 1}$

(b) $y = \frac{2\sqrt{2} + 4}{2\sqrt{2} + 3}$

(c) $y = \frac{2\sqrt{2} + 3}{2\sqrt{2} + 1}$

(d) $y = \frac{2\sqrt{2} + 3}{2\sqrt{2} + 2}$

[CF, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.11 The equation $y'' + 4y = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method. The method utilized boundary condition $y = 0$ at $x = 0$. What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 1$?

(a) $\frac{2}{3}$

(b) $\frac{1}{3}$

(c) 1

(d) $\frac{2}{3}$

[CL, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.12 Consider the differential equation $y'' + 4y = 0$.

What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 0$?

(a) 1.5

(b) 1.0

(c) 1.8

(d) 1.1

[CF, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.13 A differential equation is solved using the homogeneous method.

What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 0$?

What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 1$?

(a) 1.5

(b) 1.0

(c) 1.8

(d) 1.1

[CL, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.14 The differential equation $y'' + 4y = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method. The method utilized boundary condition $y = 0$ at $x = 0$. What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 1$?

(a) 1

(b) 0

(c) 1

(d) 0

[CL, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.15 The differential equation $y'' + 4y = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method. The method utilized boundary condition $y = 0$ at $x = 0$. What would be the value of y at the boundary $x = 1$?

(a) 1.5

(b) 1.0

(c) 1.8

(d) 1.1

[CL, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.16 The differential equation $y'' + 4y = 0$ is solved using the homogeneous method.

(a) $y = 1$

(b) $y = 0$

(c) $y = 1$

(d) $y = 0$

[CF, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

- Q.17 The Newton Raphson law $x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{7}{x_n} \right)$ converges to a root of the
- equation $x^2 - 7 = 0$
 - equation $x^2 - 14 = 0$
 - equation $x^2 - 7 = 0$
 - equation $x^2 - 14 = 0$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.18 The minimum number of a longer cables to be made if a cable of length $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is to be made is
- 10000
 - 1000
 - 100
 - 10
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.19 Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. The least squares polynomial of degree 2 is given by
- $a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ where $a_2 = \frac{11}{15}, a_1 = \frac{11}{15}, a_0 = \frac{11}{15}$
 - $a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ where $a_2 = \frac{11}{15}, a_1 = \frac{11}{15}, a_0 = \frac{11}{15}$
 - $a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ where $a_2 = \frac{11}{15}, a_1 = \frac{11}{15}, a_0 = \frac{11}{15}$
 - $a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ where $a_2 = \frac{11}{15}, a_1 = \frac{11}{15}, a_0 = \frac{11}{15}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.20 Section Modulus of a beam is given by $Z = \frac{I}{y}$ where I is the moment of inertia and y is the distance from the neutral axis to the extreme fiber. The value of Z for a rectangular beam of width b and height h is
- $\frac{bh^3}{12}$
 - $\frac{bh^3}{24}$
 - $\frac{bh^3}{6}$
 - $\frac{bh^3}{3}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.21 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.22 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.23 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.24 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.25 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

- Q.26 The value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is given by
- $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\frac{1}{3}$
 - $\frac{1}{4}$
 - $\frac{1}{5}$
- (JEE GATE-2008, 2 marks)

Q.26. Factorize the general equation

$$x^2 + y^2 + x + y = 0$$

$$(a) (x+1)(y+1) \quad (b) (x+1)(y+2)$$

$$(c) (x+2)(y+1) \quad (d) (x+2)(y+2)$$

[FE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.27. Solution of differential equation by using the following equations is to be satisfied by applying the Newton-Raphson iterative method

$$\text{equation (i): } 10x_1 - 4x_2 + 0.9 = 0$$

$$\text{equation (ii): } 10x_1^2 - 10x_2 - 0.8x_1 = 0$$

Assuming the initial values: $x_1 = 0$ and $x_2 = 10$ the second iteration is

$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} 11 & -0.9 \\ 0 & -0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad (b) \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -0.7 \\ 0 & -0.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(c) \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -0.9 \\ 10 & -0.8 \end{bmatrix} \quad (d) \begin{bmatrix} 10 & -0.7 \\ 10 & -0.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

[CE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.28. A numerical solution of the value of $f(x)$ is

$x = 1.6$ and $f(x) = 0$ can be obtained using the following method. The starting value is $x = 1.5$ and the iteration is calculated, which is to be used in the next iteration.

$$(a) 0.508$$

$$(b) 0.760$$

$$(c) 0.62$$

$$(d) 0.308$$

[EE, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.29. The integral $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$ can be evaluated by using Simpson's 1/3 rule with equal sub-intervals of length $\frac{1}{4}$ equal to

(a) 1.000 (b) 1.058

$$(c) 1.111$$

$$(d) 1.160$$

[ME, GATE-2011, 2 marks]

Q.30. The error obtained in spatial discretization of the function $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ in the interval [1, 5] by numerical integration is after ____ number of

$$(a) 1$$

$$(b) 2$$

$$(c) 3$$

$$(d) 4$$

[CE, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.31. The volume of $\int_0^{100} (3000x - 0.005x^2) dx$ is given by the following equation. The value of x is given by

$$(a) 0.20$$

$$(b) 0.005$$

$$(c) 0.12$$

$$(d) 0.01$$

[CE, GATE-2012, 1 mark]

Q.32. The value of $\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)$ for continuous function defined in the interval $[0, 100]$ is given by the following formula

$$(a) \frac{1}{x^2} \quad (b) \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x} \quad (c) \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x} \quad (d) \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x^3}$$

Q.33. The values of y_1 and y_2 are 1.5 and 0.5, respectively, for the initial guess. The relative difference between y_1 and y_2 is given by

$$(a) 0.33 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$(b) 33 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$(c) 4.33 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$(d) 4.33 \times 10^{-3}$$

[CE, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.34. When the Runge-Kutta method is applied to solve the equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2 + 1$, the solution at the end of the first iteration with the initial guess value $y_0 = 1.2$ is

$$(a) 1.89$$

$$(b) 0.48$$

$$(c) 0.705$$

$$(d) 1.88$$

[FE, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.35. The numerical method for solving ordinary differential equations of ordinary type is given by

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

[FE, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.36. Method for solving

Numerical Integration Scheme

Order of Fitting Polynomial

1. Simpson's 3/8 Rule

1st Order

2. Trapezoidal Rule

2nd Order

3. Simpson's 1/3 Rule

3rd Order

(a) 1, 2, 3, 4

(b) 2, 3, 4, 1

(c) 1, 3, 2, 4

(d) 3, 4, 2, 1

[ME, GATE-2013, 1 Mark]

Q.36 Which curve is satisfying the differential equation

$$2x^2 + 3xy^2 + 4y^3 = 0 \quad \text{is satisfying Euler's equation?}$$

(A) Homogeneous Euler's Equation (B) Inhomogeneous Euler's Equation

- (a) (A) (b) (B)
(c) (C) (d) (D)

[IN, GATE-2012 : 2 Marks]

Q.37 Match the given data points with the method

Application

P1: Numerical integration

P2: Solution of differential equations

P3: Solution of system of linear equations

M1: Gauss-Jordan elimination

M2: Newton-Raphson Method

M3: Runge-Kutta Method

M4: Simpson's 1/3 Rule

M5: Gauss-Henderson Method

(a) P1 → M3, P2 → M5, P3 → M4, P4 → P2

(b) P1 → M2, P2 → M1, P3 → M4, P4 → P3

(c) P1 → M4, P2 → M1, P3 → M3, P4 → M5

(d) P1 → M5, P2 → P3, P3 → M4, P4 → M2

[EG, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.38 The real root of the equation $x^2 + 2x + 1 = 0$ is approximately (in percentage) _____.

[ML, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.39 The function $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ is to be solved using Newton-Raphson method. The initial value x_0 is taken as 1.0. The first two values of x are _____.

[CE, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.40 A function $f(x)$ is defined as $f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x + 1$. The value of $f(1)$ is _____.

$$f(1) = 2(1)^2 + 3(1) + 1 = 6$$

Therefore the value is _____.

- (a) 6 (b) 5

(c) 7 (d) 8

[CS, GATE-2014 (Set-P) : 2 Marks]

Q.41 The value of $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

- (a) 1/3 (b) 1/2

(c) 2/3 (d) 1

[CS, GATE-2014 (Set-P) : 2 Marks]

Q.41 The value of $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

[ML, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.42 The value of $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

(a) 1/3 (b) 1/2 (c) 2/3 (d) 1

[ML, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.43 Using the trapezoidal rule, the value of $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} \left[\frac{1^3}{3} - \frac{0^3}{3} \right] = \frac{1}{9}$$

[ML, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.44 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

(a) 1/3 (b) 1/2 (c) 2/3 (d) 1

Q.45 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

(a) 1/3 (b) 1/2 (c) 2/3 (d) 1

[CS, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.46 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3}$$

(a) 1/3 (b) 1/2 (c) 2/3 (d) 1

(e) 0.25 (f) 0.5

(g) 0.75 (h) 1

[ML, GATE-2014 : 2 Marks]

Q.47 The value of the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ is _____.

(a) 1/3 (b) 1/2 (c) 2/3 (d) 1

[CS, GATE-2014 : 1 Mark]

Q.No	Q.No	Q.No	Q.No	Q.No	379
Q.54	Q.55	Q.56	Q.57	Q.58	
Q.55	Q.56	Q.57	Q.58	Q.59	
Q.56	Q.57	Q.58	Q.59	Q.60	
Q.57	Q.58	Q.59	Q.60	Q.61	
Q.58	Q.59	Q.60	Q.61	Q.62	
Q.59	Q.60	Q.61	Q.62	Q.63	
Q.60	Q.61	Q.62	Q.63	Q.64	
Q.61	Q.62	Q.63	Q.64	Q.65	
Q.62	Q.63	Q.64	Q.65	Q.66	
Q.63	Q.64	Q.65	Q.66	Q.67	
Q.64	Q.65	Q.66	Q.67	Q.68	
Q.65	Q.66	Q.67	Q.68	Q.69	
Q.66	Q.67	Q.68	Q.69	Q.70	
Q.67	Q.68	Q.69	Q.70	Q.71	
Q.68	Q.69	Q.70	Q.71	Q.72	
Q.69	Q.70	Q.71	Q.72	Q.73	
Q.70	Q.71	Q.72	Q.73	Q.74	
Q.71	Q.72	Q.73	Q.74	Q.75	
Q.72	Q.73	Q.74	Q.75	Q.76	
Q.73	Q.74	Q.75	Q.76	Q.77	
Q.74	Q.75	Q.76	Q.77	Q.78	
Q.75	Q.76	Q.77	Q.78	Q.79	
Q.76	Q.77	Q.78	Q.79	Q.80	
Q.77	Q.78	Q.79	Q.80	Q.81	
Q.78	Q.79	Q.80	Q.81	Q.82	
Q.79	Q.80	Q.81	Q.82	Q.83	
Q.80	Q.81	Q.82	Q.83	Q.84	
Q.81	Q.82	Q.83	Q.84	Q.85	
Q.82	Q.83	Q.84	Q.85	Q.86	
Q.83	Q.84	Q.85	Q.86	Q.87	
Q.84	Q.85	Q.86	Q.87	Q.88	
Q.85	Q.86	Q.87	Q.88	Q.89	
Q.86	Q.87	Q.88	Q.89	Q.90	
Q.87	Q.88	Q.89	Q.90	Q.91	
Q.88	Q.89	Q.90	Q.91	Q.92	
Q.89	Q.90	Q.91	Q.92	Q.93	
Q.90	Q.91	Q.92	Q.93	Q.94	
Q.91	Q.92	Q.93	Q.94	Q.95	
Q.92	Q.93	Q.94	Q.95	Q.96	
Q.93	Q.94	Q.95	Q.96	Q.97	
Q.94	Q.95	Q.96	Q.97	Q.98	
Q.95	Q.96	Q.97	Q.98	Q.99	
Q.96	Q.97	Q.98	Q.99	Q.100	

(a) 0
(b) 10

(c) 1.2
(d) 1

[Ma, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.69 The following table is an off-diagonalised Givens rotation matrix G_{ij} with $\theta = 45^\circ$ and the lowest difference between adjacent values of x . The order of the points must be

x	y_1	y_2	y_3	y_4
10.1	1.45	1.2265	1.0000	0.0000
10.2	1.4577	1.2269	0.9999	0.0024
10.3	1.4649	1.2273	0.9998	0.0046
10.4	1.4721	1.2277	0.9997	0.0068
10.5	1.4793	1.2281	0.9996	0.0090
10.6	1.4865	1.2285	0.9995	0.0112
10.7	1.4937	1.2289	0.9994	0.0134
10.8	1.5009	1.2293	0.9993	0.0156
10.9	1.5081	1.2297	0.9992	0.0178
11.0	1.5153	1.2301	0.9991	0.0200

(a) 1

(b) 2

(c) 3

(d) 4

[IN, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.68 One root of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is 1.5. The other root of the characteristic equation is λ . The value of λ is _____ (Use the answer up to two decimal places).

[EE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.70 Solving with $x = 1$, the solution of the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. The other solution of the characteristic equation is λ . The value of λ is _____

[CE, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Q.71 Consider the equation $\frac{1}{x^2} = 2x^2 + 1$ with $x = 0$

and $x = 1$. The x-ordinate of the point of intersection of the two curves, correct to 4 decimal places, is _____

[OF, GATE-2017 : 2 Marks]

Answers Numerical Methods

1. (a) 2. (a) 3. (a) 4. (b) 5. (a) 6. (a) 7. (a) 8. (a) 9. (a)
10. (a) 11. (a) 12. (a) 13. (a) 14. (a) 15. (a) 16. (a) 17. (a) 18. (a)
19. (a) 20. (a) 21. (a) 22. (a) 23. (a) 24. (a) 25. (a) 26. (a) 27. (a)
28. (a) 29. (a) 30. (a) 31. (a) 32. (a) 33. (a) 34. (a) 35. (a)
36. (a) 37. (a) 38. (a) 39. (a) 40. (a) 41. (a) 42. (a) 43. (a)
44. (a) 45. (a) 46. (a) 47. (a) 48. (a) 49. (a) 50. (a) 51. (a)
52. (a) 53. (a) 54. (a) 55. (a) 56. (a) 57. (a) 58. (a) 59. (a)
60. (a) 61. (a) 62. (a) 63. (a) 64. (a) 65. (a) 66. (a) 67. (a) 68. (a)
69. (a) 70. (a) 71. (a) 72. (a) 73. (a) 74. (a) 75. (a) 76. (a)
77. (a) 78. (a) 79. (a) 80. (a) 81. (a) 82. (a) 83. (a) 84. (a)
85. (a) 86. (a) 87. (a) 88. (a) 89. (a) 90. (a) 91. (a) 92. (a)
93. (a) 94. (a) 95. (a) 96. (a) 97. (a) 98. (a) 99. (a) 100. (a)

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= x + x + x - 2x^3 \\
 f(x) &= 3x - 2x^3 \\
 \Rightarrow x_2 + x_3 + x_4 &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \\
 f(x) &= 4 \\
 \Rightarrow 3x - 2x^3 + x_2 &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow 1 - 2x_1 + x_2 &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow x_2 + x_3 &= 0 \quad \text{--- (i)} \\
 f(x) &= 15 \\
 \Rightarrow 3x - 2x^3 + 2x_2 &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow 1 + 2x_1 - 2x_2 &= 0 \\
 \Rightarrow 2x_1 + 2x_2 &= -4 \quad \text{--- (ii)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Solving (i) and (ii)

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_2 &= -0.5, x_3 = 0.5 \\
 \therefore f(x) &= 1 - 0.5 + 0.5^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, equate to 0

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^1 (x^2 - x + 4) dx &= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{4x^2}{2} + 4x \right]_0^1 \\
 &= \frac{32}{3} - 2 = \frac{26}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

Under First Approximate value

$$= \frac{32}{3} - 2 = \frac{26}{3}$$

9. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1.25y^2 \quad (y \neq 0 \text{ else } y)$$

$$y \neq 0$$

It is a separable differential equation. Now, separate the variables and integrate

$$y_1 = -y_2 = 5(x_1 - x_2)$$

$$y_1 = -y_2 + 5(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.5(x_2 - x_1) = y_1 + y_2 = 0$$

Putting $x_1 = 0$ in above equation

$$\Rightarrow 0.5(x_2 - x_1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_2 - x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = x_1$$

$$\Rightarrow x_2 - x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = x_1$$

$$\Rightarrow x_2 = \frac{\sqrt{1.25}}{2 \times 0.5} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = 2$$

10. (a)

Since ϕ is a real function, it satisfies $\phi(x) = \phi(x)^*$. Now, dividing it by $x^2 = 1 + 2ix$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \phi(x) &= \frac{1}{x^2} (x^2 - 2ix - 2) = \frac{1}{x^2} (x^2 - 2ix - 2) \\
 &= \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} = \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} \\
 &= \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} = \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} \\
 &= \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} = \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow \phi(x) &= \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} = \frac{x^2 - 2ix - 2}{x^2} \\
 \text{Let } \phi(x) &= \frac{a}{x} + \frac{b}{x^2} + \frac{c}{x^3} \\
 \therefore \text{The above equation is } \phi(x) = \frac{a}{x} + \frac{b}{x^2} + \frac{c}{x^3}
 \end{aligned}$$

11. (a)

$$y(x) = x^2 + x_1, y(0) = 0$$

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

Now, equate the boundary

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

$$y(x) = x^2 + 4x_1 = 0$$

$$y(x) = x^2 + 4$$

$$y(x) = x_1 = \frac{x^2}{100} - \frac{x^2}{2} = 0$$

$$= \frac{10x^2}{100} - \frac{x^2}{2} = \frac{10x^2}{100} - \frac{x^2}{2} = 0$$

$$y(x) = \frac{x^2}{100} - \frac{x^2}{2} = 0$$

12. (b)

Now

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

$$y(x) = x^2 - 1 + 4x_1 = 0$$

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

$$y(x) = x^2 = 0$$

$$y(x) = y(x) = 12$$

$$\Rightarrow y(x) = \frac{y(x)}{y(x)} = \frac{y}{12} = \frac{y}{12}$$

13. (a)

$$\text{Let } y(x) = x_1 = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{y}{4x} = 0$$

Now, equate the boundary condition

$$y(x) = x_1 = 0 = \frac{y}{4x} = 0$$

$$y = \frac{y}{4x} = 0$$

$$y = \frac{y}{4x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 3x^2 = 4x^2 + 3$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5$$

13. (a)

$$\lambda = \frac{2x-2}{x} = \frac{x}{4}$$

$$f_0 = \sin(\lambda x) = 0$$

$$\left| \frac{f_1 - f_0}{f_0} \right| = \left| \frac{-4.15}{0} \right| \quad f_1 = -4 \left(\frac{2x}{4} \right) = -2.0000$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{4} \right| = 0.25000 \quad f_2 = -2x \left(\frac{f_1}{f_0} \right) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{2} \right| = 0.50000 \quad f_3 = -2x \left(\frac{f_2}{f_1} \right) = 0.75000$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{0.75}{1} \right| = 0.75000 \quad f_4 = -2x(f_3) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{0}{0.75} \right| = 0.00000 \quad f_5 = -2x \left(\frac{f_4}{f_3} \right) = 0.25000$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{0.25}{0.75} \right| = 0.33333 \quad f_6 = -2x \left(\frac{f_5}{f_4} \right) = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{0.5}{1} \right| = 0.50000 \quad f_7 = -2x \left(\frac{f_6}{f_5} \right) = 0.75000$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{0.75}{0.75} \right| = 1.00000 \quad f_8 = -2x \left(\frac{f_7}{f_6} \right) = 0$$

$$\text{Average} = 0.6$$

$$\int_0^{0.75} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} (f_0 + f_8) + (f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_7) \Delta x$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{2} (0 + 0) + \frac{1}{2} (-4.15 + 0 + 0.75 + 0.75 + 0 + 0.25 + 0 + 0.75) \Delta x$$

$$= (0 + 0.75 + 0.75 + 0.25 + 0.75) \Delta x = 0.60000$$

14. (b)

$$\text{At } x_0, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1-x}{x}$$

$$\text{Here } x_0 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1$$

Using Euler's formula

$$y_{i+1} = y_i + h f(x_i, y_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 = 1 + h \left(\frac{1-1}{1} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Similarly } y_2 = \frac{1}{3}, y_3 = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow y_4 = y_3 + h f(x_3, y_3)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_4 = \frac{1}{5} \text{ at } x_4 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow y_5 = \frac{1}{6} \text{ at } x_5 = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow y_6 = \frac{1}{7} \text{ at } x_6 = 4$$

So, the approximate value of y at $x = 4$ is $\frac{1}{7}$.

15. (b)

$$\text{Here } (y')^2 = 1$$

$$f(x) = 1$$

The second slope is given by $f(x_1)$

$$f_0 = y' = \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$

$$f_1(x) = 1$$

$$f_2(x) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{h f_i}{2}$$

$$y_1 = y_0 + \frac{h f_0}{2} = 0 + \frac{1 \times 1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$y_2 = y_1 + \frac{h f_1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1 \times 1}{2} = 1$$

$$\text{Hence } y_2 = 1$$

$$y_3 = \frac{5 \times 1 \times 1}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$$

$$\text{At } x_2 = 4 \text{ is given}$$

$$y_3 = \left[\frac{5}{2} + 2 \right] + 1 = 5$$

16. (c)

The given differential equation

$$y' = 2x$$

With initial condition $x = 0$

$$f(x) = 2x = 2 \times 0 = 0$$

$$f(x) = 2 \times 2 = 4$$

The second slope is given by $f(x_1)$

$$f_0 = y' = \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

$$\Rightarrow y_1 = f(x_0) = y_0 + h f_0$$

$$f(x) = 2 \times 0 = 0$$

∴ The second slope is given by $f(x_1)$

$$f_1 = y' = \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

$$= \frac{e^{2x} \times 2 \times 1 \times 1}{1 + e^{2x}} = 2 \times \frac{e^{2x}}{1 + e^{2x}}$$

17. (c)

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_{11} &= \frac{1}{2} \left(A_1 + \frac{A_2}{\alpha} \right) \\
 \text{At } x=0, y=0 \\
 0 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(2 + \frac{A_2}{\alpha} \right) \\
 0 &= \alpha + \frac{A_2}{\alpha} = \frac{A_2 + \alpha^2}{\alpha} \\
 A_2 &= -\alpha^2 \\
 \alpha^2 &= 9 \\
 \alpha &= 3
 \end{aligned}$$

So the final value of x is 3 and y is 0.
 Correct option is (c).

18. (a)

Let $y = f(x)$ then using integration \int

$$f'(x) = \sec x$$

$$f(x) = \sec x = y = \sec(x-1)$$

$$f'(x) = \sec x = y = \sec(x-1)$$

Since, with $x = 1$, $y = 0$ and $f'(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$, the value of $f'(0)$ is placed $\rightarrow 0 \leq x \leq 2$, occurs at $x = 2$

So

$$\sec x |_{x=2} = \sec(2) = 4.7$$

In case of $f'(x)$ is decreasing i.e. $f'(x)$ is concave

$$\frac{1}{2} \max \{f'(x)\} = y_1$$

So we get minimum of $f(x)$ is y_1

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 A = \int_0^2 f(x) dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 \sec(x-1) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sec x dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\cos x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\cos x} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\ln |1 + \sin x| - \ln |1 - \sin x| \right]_{-1}^1 \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\ln |1 + \sin 1| - \ln |1 - \sin 1| \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Now putting

$$\frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

So we get

$$\frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

Let

$$\frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)$$

So

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_1 &= y_2 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right) = y_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\cos x} + \frac{1}{\cos x} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

20. (d)

$$\text{The circle is } x^2 + y^2 = 16 \Rightarrow r = 4$$

Then Radius = 4 and $\theta = 0$

$$r = \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\cos \theta} = 4$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)$$

So $\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)$

21. (b)

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 (x^2 + 1) dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + x \right]_0^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{8}{3} + 2 \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{8+6}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{14}{3} \right) = \frac{7}{3}$$

$$= \frac{7}{3} = 2.33$$

$$= 2.33$$

22. (d)

$$\text{By vector method } \vec{r} = \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}_1 + \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}_2 \text{ where } \vec{r}_1 \text{ and } \vec{r}_2 \text{ are}$$

equal

So the angle between \vec{r}_1 and \vec{r}_2 is

$$\vec{r} = \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}_1 + \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}_2 \Rightarrow \vec{r} \cdot \vec{r} = \frac{1}{4} (\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2 \cdot \vec{r}_2 + 2 \vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{r}_2)$$

$$r^2 = \frac{1}{4} (r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2 r_1 r_2 \cos \theta)$$

$$r = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{r_1^2 + r_2^2 + 2 r_1 r_2 \cos \theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{16 + 16 + 2 \times 4 \times 4 \cos \theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{32 + 32 \cos \theta} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{32 (1 + \cos \theta)}$$

23. (a)

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = \mathbf{r} = x_1 \mathbf{i} + y_1 \mathbf{j} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 = y_1 = 0 \text{ at } t = 0$$

Find the second derivative

$$\frac{d^2\mathbf{r}}{dt^2} = \mathbf{r} + 9(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{r})\mathbf{r}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_1 = x_1 \mathbf{i} + y_1 \mathbf{j} = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } x_1 = 0, \frac{d^2x_1}{dt^2} = 9(x_1^2 + y_1^2)x_1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_2 = x_1 + t = 0 + 0 = 0$$

$$\text{Similarly, } y_2 = \frac{dy_1}{dt} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{r} = x_1 \mathbf{i} + y_1 \mathbf{j} = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } x_1 = 0, y_1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{r}_1 = x_1 \mathbf{i} + y_1 \mathbf{j} = 0$$

$$\text{Now, } x_1 = 0, y_1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{r}_1 = x_1 \mathbf{i} + y_1 \mathbf{j} = 0$$

24. (d)

Let the xy plane divide the portion by $z = 0$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| = 0$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

Let the portion be divided by

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

Let the portion be divided by

Let the portion be divided by

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| = 0$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right| = 0$$

Let the portion be divided by

25. (a)

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

26. (a)

Let the portion be divided by

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

Let the portion be divided by

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

Let the portion be divided by

27. (a)

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

Let the portion be divided by

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

28. (a)

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1$$

$$x = 5, \quad y_0 = 2, \quad h = 3, \quad n = 2$$

$$f(x) = x - \frac{1}{2x^2}$$

$$f'(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x^3}$$

$$\therefore \quad x_1 = x_0 + \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)} = 2 + \frac{\sqrt{2}-1}{1+\frac{1}{8\sqrt{2}}}$$

$$= 2.034$$

29. (c)

$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot x dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot x dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot x dx$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+1) \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\ln(1+1) - \ln(1) \right] = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$$

30. (b)

If electric field E is applied to plane surface
then $E_1 = E \cos \theta = 1.5$

$$\text{When normal to } xy = \frac{1+\sqrt{3}}{2} \Rightarrow \theta = 30^\circ$$

Normal to xy plane is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(x+y)$ i.e. xy

Now $x_1 = 1$ and $y_1 = 1$

$$\text{and } \theta = 2^\circ \text{ then } E_1 = \frac{E}{\sqrt{2}} = 2$$

Therefore, $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ i.e. $\theta = 45^\circ$ and $x_1 = 1$

and $y_1 = 2$ on other side of plane

$$E_1 = \frac{11.3}{2} = 5.65$$

$$\therefore E = 5.65 \times 2 = 11.3$$

$$E_1 = 2 \Rightarrow \cos \theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

So the electric field is 11.3 and $\theta = 45^\circ$ i.e. $\theta = 45^\circ$ i.e. $\theta = 45^\circ$

31. (d)

Each cell has

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \tan^{-1} x \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \tan^{-1}(1) - \tan^{-1}(0) = \frac{\pi}{4} \text{ radian}$$

So estimate value of π per 3 cells will give

$$\pi = \frac{3}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{\pi}{4} \times 3$$

$$\pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25$$

$\therefore \pi = 2.25$ and $\theta = 45^\circ$ i.e. $\theta = 45^\circ$ i.e. $\theta = 45^\circ$

$$\text{For } \pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25 \text{ and } \theta = 45^\circ$$

$$\text{Then } \pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25$$

$$\pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25$$

$$\pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25$$

$$\pi = \frac{3}{4} \times 3 = 2.25$$

So the estimate value of π is 2.25

Approximate value of π is 2.25

$$= 1 - 11 = -10.999$$

$$= 0.012487 \times 10^3$$

32. (d)

For a function $f(x)$ the error in $f(x)$ is

$$\Delta f(x) = \Delta x$$

$$\Delta f(x) = \Delta x$$

$$\text{Then } \Delta f(x) = 0.01 \text{ and } \Delta x = 0.01$$

For

$$= 0.01 \text{ and } \Delta x = 0.01 \text{ i.e. } \Delta x = 0.01$$

$$2 \times 10^{-3} \times \frac{1000}{1000} = 2 \times 10^{-3}$$

33. (a)

$$f(x) = 3x^2 + 2$$

$$f'(x) = 6x \Rightarrow f'(2) = 12$$

$$f''(x) = 6 \Rightarrow f''(2) = 6$$

$$f'''(x) = 0 \Rightarrow f'''(2) = 0$$

34. (a)

$$\left[\frac{1}{x^2+1} \right]_0^1 = \left[\frac{1}{x^2+1} \right]_0^1 = \left[\frac{1}{x^2+1} \right]_0^1$$

Using value of π is 2.25 i.e. estimate value of

$$\text{the integral } \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (1 + 128x^3 - 2048x^5 + 128x^7) dx = 214.75$$

The exact value is 214.75000.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (x^3 + 9) dx &= \left[\frac{x^4}{4} + 9x \right]_0^1 \\ &= \frac{1}{4} + 9 = 9.25 \\ \therefore \text{Marginal revenue} &= 4000(9.25) = 37,000 \text{ dollars} \\ \text{Total revenue} &= 37,000(2) = 74,000 \end{aligned}$$

38. (a)

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y^2} = 2x dx$$

Integrate both sides

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 1, \quad y = 2, \quad y = \sqrt{2} \\ &= 1 + 2 + 2 = 5 \times 10^4 = 50,000 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} \times 100(2)^2 + 100(2)^2 + 100(2)^2 \\ &= 1 + 100(2 + 2 + 2) = 1 + 600 \times 10 \\ &= 1 + 6000 = 6001 \end{aligned}$$

39. Sol.

$$C_1 = 1, \quad C_2 = 0$$

$$C_3 = 0, \quad C_4 = 0$$

By binomial theorem expansion:

$$C_1 + C_2 = \frac{C_1 C_2}{C_1 + C_2}$$

$$\text{Now } C_1 C_2 = 1 - (1.01) = 0.99$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = \frac{5 \times 10^{-8} + 2 \sin(57.32^\circ) - 1}{5 + 2 \sin(57.32^\circ)}$$

And

$$C_1 = 0.2122 = \frac{5 \times 10^{-8} + 2 \sin(57.32^\circ) - 1}{5 + 2 \sin(57.32^\circ)}$$

0.54%

$$C_2 = 0.54\% = \frac{2 \sin(57.32^\circ) - 2 \cos(211.8^\circ)}{5 + 2 \sin(57.32^\circ)}$$

0.54%

\therefore Two roots are 0.54%

39. Sol.

$$\text{Given } y(x) = 2 - x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} y' &= \frac{dy}{dx} = -2x \quad \text{put } x = 1, y = 1 \\ &= \text{Slope of the tangent line at } (1, 1) \text{ is } -2 \end{aligned}$$

$$y_{x=1} = y_1 = \frac{1 + 2x^2}{1 + x^2}$$

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

39.

$$\text{Now } y_1 = \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x - 1 = 0 \quad 1 - 2x = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{2} \quad y_1 = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \quad x = \frac{1}{2}$$

Put $x = \frac{1}{2}$ in $y = 2 - x^2$

$$y = 2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{7}{4}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \quad x = \frac{1}{2} \quad y = \frac{7}{4}$$

$$\text{And } y = \left[2 - \frac{1 + 2x^2}{1 + x^2} \right]$$

$$\text{Now } y = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \Rightarrow 1 + x^2 = 1 + 2x^2 \Rightarrow x^2 = 1$$

$$x = 1, -1$$

At $x = 1$ and $x = -1$

$$y_2 = \left[2 - \frac{1 + 2x^2}{1 + x^2} \right]$$

$$= \left[2 - \frac{1 + 2x^2}{1 + x^2} \right]_{x=1} = 0.5$$

Similarly, the slope of the tangent line at $x = -1$

is $y_2 = 0.5$.

So, the two stationary points are

$$= \left[\text{Local minimum } (1, 0.5) \text{ and } (-1, 0.5) \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{\text{New value} - \text{Old value}}{\text{New value}} \right]$$

$$= \left[\frac{0.53 - 0.50}{0.50} \right] = 0.06$$

40. Sol.

Given $y = y_0$, using the binomial theorem

$$y = y_0 = \frac{1 + 2x^2}{1 + x^2}$$

$$= 9 \left[\frac{10 \times 3 - 2 \times 10 \times 2}{9 \times 3 \times 3 - 4 \times 10 \times 2} \right]$$

$$\therefore x_1 = 2, x_2 = 6, x_3 = 4, x_4 = 1$$

$x_2 = 2$ is odd +, and $x_3 = 6$ is even +, and $x_4 = 1$ is odd - (as it is odd).

41. Sol

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right| = 0$$

$$I = \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2] = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (2.8183 + 1.0302 + 0.7068 + 1.314) = 1.2312$$

$$I = \frac{0.8}{2} \times 1.2312 = 0.4925$$

42. Sol

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{array} \right| = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \end{array} \right| = 0$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (1 - 0.3333) = 0.1667$$

$$= \frac{2.68}{2} = 1.34$$

43. Sol

$$x_1 = \frac{10 \times 1}{1} = 10, x_2 = \frac{10 \times 1}{2} = 5, x_3 = 2.5$$

$$x_4 = \frac{10 \times 1}{4} = 2.5$$

$$= 0.3333 \times 2.5 = 0.8333$$

$$= 0.8333 \times 2.5 = 2.0833$$

$$= 0.8333 \times 2.5 = 2.0833$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} (10^2 + 5^2 + 2.5^2 + 2.5^2)$$

$$= \frac{100}{2} (10 + 5 + 2 \times 2.5) = 100 \times 10 = 1000$$

44. Sol

$$2x^2 + 3x + 2 = \frac{1}{x^2} \int x^2 dx$$

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{1}{t} \Rightarrow dx = -\frac{1}{t^2} dt$$

For transcendental eq.

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{1}{t^2} \Rightarrow dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$$

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{1}{t^2} \Rightarrow dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$$

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

45. (a)

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

Let $x = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $dx = -\frac{1}{t^3} dt$, then $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$ and $\frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2}$.

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 3, x_4 = 4$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2} (3x^2 - 3x^2 + 3x^2 - 3x^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (3x^2 - 3x^2 + 3x^2 - 3x^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (3x^2 - 3x^2 + 3x^2 - 3x^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (3x^2 - 3x^2 + 3x^2 - 3x^2)
 \end{aligned}$$

40. (5)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \\
 &\text{The matrix is the identity matrix, so the system is already in row echelon form. The solutions are } x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3, x_3 = 4. \\
 &\text{The solution set is } \{(2, 3, 4)\}. \\
 &\text{The solution set is } \{(2, 3, 4)\}. \\
 &\text{The solution set is } \{(2, 3, 4)\}. \\
 &\text{The solution set is } \{(2, 3, 4)\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

41. (8)

The given system of equations is a linear system. The coefficient matrix is $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$. The augmented matrix is $[A | b] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$. The rank of A is 2, and the rank of $[A | b]$ is 3. Therefore, the system has no solution.

42. (8)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

By the quadratic formula,

$$\begin{aligned}
 &x = \frac{-(-2) \pm \sqrt{(-2)^2 - 4(3)(1)}}{2(3)} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 12}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{-8}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{-2}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-2}}{3} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm i\sqrt{2}}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

43. (8)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

By the quadratic formula,

$$\begin{aligned}
 &x = \frac{-(-2) \pm \sqrt{(-2)^2 - 4(3)(1)}}{2(3)} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 12}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{-8}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{-2}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-2}}{3} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm i\sqrt{2}}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

44. (8)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

45. (8)

$$\begin{aligned}
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0 \\
 &3x^2 - 2x + 1 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

46. (2 & 2)

$$\text{The given system of equations is a linear system. The coefficient matrix is } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ The augmented matrix is } [A | b] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & 3 \end{bmatrix}. \text{ The rank of } A \text{ is } 2, \text{ and the rank of } [A | b] \text{ is } 3. \text{ Therefore, the system has no solution.}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &x = \frac{-(-2) \pm \sqrt{(-2)^2 - 4(3)(1)}}{2(3)} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 12}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{-8}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{-2}}{6} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{-2}}{3} \\
 &= \frac{1 \pm i\sqrt{2}}{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

By the quadratic formula, the solutions are $x = \frac{1 \pm i\sqrt{2}}{3}$. The solution set is $\left\{ \frac{1 + i\sqrt{2}}{3}, \frac{1 - i\sqrt{2}}{3} \right\}$.

59. Sol.

THESE ARE THE

$$x = 2x_1 + 2x_2 = 5 \quad (1)$$

$$3x_1 - 2x_2 + x_3 = 1 \quad (2)$$

$$2x_1 + 3x_2 + x_3 = 3 \quad (3)$$

By using the above equations

$$3x_1 = 5 - 2x_2 \quad x_3 = 1$$

$$2x_1 = 3 - 2x_2 - x_3 = 1$$

$$x_1 = \frac{3 - 2x_2 - x_3}{2} \quad (4)$$

$$x_2 = \frac{1 - 3x_3 - x_3}{2} \quad (5)$$

$$x = 2x_2 + 5x_3 = 5$$

$$x_2 = \frac{5 - 5x_3 - x_3}{2} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Put } x_3 = 0 \quad x_1 = 1.5 \text{ and } x_2 = 1.5$$

$$\text{Put } x_3 = 1 \quad x_1 = 0.5 \text{ and } x_2 = 0.5$$

$$\text{Put } x_3 = 2 \quad x_1 = 0.5 \text{ and } x_2 = 1.5$$

$$x_3 = 1.5$$

60. Sol.

$$r(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t \quad \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right)$$

$$= 2 - \frac{3\sqrt{2}}{2} = 1.207$$

$$r'(t) = 3 \sin t \quad r' \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right)$$

$$= 3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = 2.121$$

$$r(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t = 2 - 3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$r(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t = 2 - 3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$\frac{r(t)}{r'(t)} = \frac{1.207}{2.121} = 0.569$$

61. Sol.

$$x(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t$$

$$x'(t) = 3 \sin t$$

$$x''(t) = 3 \cos t$$

$$x'''(t) = 3 \sin t$$

$$x(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t$$

$$x(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t = 2 - 3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$x(t) = 2 - 3 \cos t = 2 - 3 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

62. Sol.

According to Newton-Raphson Method

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

$$x_0 = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$x_1 = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$x_2 = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$x = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$x = 2 - 3 \cos t = 1$$

$$x = 1$$

63. Sol.

By using the above equations

64. Sol.

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{2}$$

By using the above

By using the above

By using the above

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By using the above

$$100 = 20 + x$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 80 \text{ km}$$

$$C = 1 \times \frac{80}{1}$$

$$C_{\text{car}} = \frac{80}{1} = 80\%$$

66. Sol.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1 - 2x + x^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$

Integrate

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \cdot dx = y = x + C$$

$$y_0 = 0, x_0 = 1, y = 0.1$$

$$0.1 = 1 + C$$

$$C = 0.1 - 1 = -0.9$$

$$y = 1 - 0.9 = 0.1$$

$$= 0.1 - 2 \times 0.1 + 0.1^2$$

$$= 0.1 - 0.2 + 0.01 = -0.09$$

$$= 0.1 - 0.2 + 0.01 = -0.09$$

$$= -0.09$$

$$y = x - \frac{1}{2}(1 - x^2)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2}(1 - 1) = 1 - 0 = 1$$

For $x = 0.1$

$$y(0.1) = 0.1 - \frac{1}{2}(1 - 0.1^2) = -0.445$$

$$\Delta y = 1 - 0.1 = 0.9$$

$$\Delta y = 0.9$$

67. (b)

$$z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

By Cayley-Hamilton

$$\left(\frac{dz}{dt} - \lambda \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (1 + 1 + 1)$$

By Cayley-Hamilton

$$\left(\frac{dz}{dt} - \lambda \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (1 + 1 + 1)$$

The all three matrices are the same, so the answer is 30%.

68. (d)

In the following table, we calculate the value of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ at $x = 1$ and $x = 2$ and then we calculate the value of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ at $x = 1.5$. Therefore, the correct answer is (d).

69. Sol.

$$2x = 10^2 - 10^2$$

$$2x = 10^2 - 10^2 = 100 - 100 = 0$$

From the given condition, we can say that the value of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is given by

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

70. Sol.

$$2x = 10^2 - 10^2$$

$$2x = 10^2$$

$$2x = 10^2$$

$$2x = 10^2$$

By Cayley-Hamilton

$$\left(\frac{dz}{dt} - \lambda \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

By Cayley-Hamilton

$$\left(\frac{dz}{dt} - \lambda \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

By Cayley-Hamilton

$$\left(\frac{dz}{dt} - \lambda \right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{10^2}$$

71. Sol.

$$\frac{y_1}{y_2} = 3x^2 + 1$$

$$f(x, y) = 3x^2 + 1$$

$$x_1 = 0$$

$$x_2 = 0$$

$$y_1 = 0$$

$$y_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0, y_1 = 0, y_2 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(3x^2 + 1 \right) = 0 + 0 + 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(3(0)^2 + 1 \right) = 1$$

$$= 1$$

After 10% increase, $1 = 2 \times 10^{-1} = 0.2$

$$\frac{y_1}{y_2} = 3x^2 + 1$$

$$y_1 = (3x^2 + 1)y_2$$

$$\left(\frac{y_1}{y_2} \right) = \frac{3x^2 + 1}{1} = 3x^2 + 1$$

$$y_1 = 1 \left(3x^2 + 1 \right) = 3x^2 + 1$$

$$= 3(0)^2 + 1 = 1$$

After 10% increase, $1 = 2 \times 10^{-1} = 0.2$

$$= 1 + 0.2 = 1.2$$

$$= 1.2$$

■ ■ ■ ■

7.3 Transforms of Elementary Functions

The following table gives the Laplace transform of the following functions:

1. $f(t) = \frac{1}{t}$	$(s > 0)$
2. $f(t) = \frac{t^n}{n!} e^{-at}$ where $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$	$\left[\text{Laplace } \frac{t^n e^{-at}}{n!} \right]$
3. $f(t) = \frac{1}{s-a}$	$(s > a)$
4. $f(t) \sin at = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}$	$(s > 0)$
5. $f(t) \cos at = \frac{s}{s^2 + a^2}$	$(s > 0)$
6. $f(t) \sinh at = \frac{a}{s^2 - a^2}$	$(s > a)$
7. $f(t) \cosh at = \frac{s}{s^2 - a^2}$	$(s > a)$

7.4 Properties of Laplace Transforms

7.4.1 Linearity Property

If a and b are constants and $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ are functions then

$$[af(t) + bg(t)](s) = a f(s) + b g(s) \quad \text{and} \quad [af(t) - bg(t)](s) = a f(s) - b g(s)$$

7.4.2 First Shifting Property

If $f(t) = F(s)$ then

$$f(t)e^{at}(s) = F(s-a)$$

Application of this property leads to the following table of results:

1. $f(t) = 1$	$\left[\text{Laplace } 1 = \frac{1}{s} \right]$
2. $f(t) = t^n$ where $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$	$\left[\text{Laplace } \frac{t^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{s^{n+1}} \right]$
3. $f(t) = e^{at}$	$\left[\text{Laplace } e^{at} = \frac{1}{s-a} \right]$
4. $f(t) = e^{at} \sin bt$	$\left[\text{Laplace } e^{at} \sin bt = \frac{b}{s^2 - a^2 - b^2} \right]$
5. $f(t) = e^{at} \cos bt$	$\left[\text{Laplace } e^{at} \cos bt = \frac{s-a}{s^2 - a^2 - b^2} \right]$
6. $f(t) = e^{at} \sinh bt$	$\left[\text{Laplace } e^{at} \sinh bt = \frac{b}{s^2 - a^2 - b^2} \right]$
7. $f(t) = e^{at} \cosh bt$	$\left[\text{Laplace } e^{at} \cosh bt = \frac{s-a}{s^2 - a^2 - b^2} \right]$

7.4.3 Change of Scale Property

$$L[f(ax)] = \frac{1}{a} L[f(x)] \quad a > 0$$

Proof:

$$L[f(ax)] = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} f(ax) dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-s(x/a)} f(x) \frac{dx}{a}$$

$$= \frac{1}{a} \int_0^\infty e^{-s(x/a)} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{a} L[f(x)]$$

Put $ax = x$

$$\Rightarrow dx = \frac{dx}{a}$$

7.4.4 Existence Conditions

The Laplace transform $L[f(x)]$ exists if $f(x)$ is a function of x which is bounded for $x \rightarrow \infty$ and $f(x)$ is piecewise continuous for $x > 0$. In other words, $f(x)$ must not have any infinite discontinuities.

If $f(x)$ is discontinuous, $L[f(x)]$ still exists provided the exponential limit of $f(x) \cdot e^{-sx}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ is 0.

Example 1: $f(x) = e^{ax}$ does not have the exponential limit and therefore, $L[f(x)]$ does not exist.

Example 2: $f(x) = \sin(x)$ with $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin(x) \cdot e^{-sx} = 0$ with $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{-sx} = 0$. $L[f(x)]$ exists and is $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$. If $f(x)$ is a function which is not continuous, it will have a jump discontinuity at $x = a$.

7.4.5 Transforms of Derivatives1. If $f(x)$ is continuous and $L[f(x)] = F(s)$, then

$$L[f'(x)] = sF(s) - f(0)$$

2. If $f(x)$ is a function of period T , then we can write that

$$L[f'(x)] = sL[f(x)] - f(0) = sL[f(x)] - f(0) = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-sT}}$$

7.4.5.1 Differential Equations, Initial Value Problems

We shall now consider the homogeneous linear differential equation of order n .

We begin with initial value problem

$$\begin{aligned} x'' + ax' + bx &= 0, \quad x(0) = x_0 \\ x'(0) &= x'_0 \end{aligned} \quad (7.4.1)$$

We first convert this differential equation into a matrix differential equation and then use Laplace transform to solve it. We shall use the following notation for the Laplace transform of $x(t)$ and $x'(t)$.

1st Step: Taking Laplace transform of (7.4.1) and using

$$L[x'] = sL[x] - x(0) = sX - x_0$$

Now using (7.4.1) $L[x''] = sL[x'] - x'(0) = s^2L[x] - sx_0 - x'_0$ we get

$$[s^2L[x] - sx_0 - x'_0] + a[sL[x] - x_0] + bL[x] = 0$$

Rearranging $L[x] = \frac{x_0(s + a) + x'_0}{s^2 + as + b}$. The given

$$L[x] = \frac{x_0(s + a) + x'_0}{s^2 + as + b} = \frac{x_0}{s^2 + as + b} + \frac{x'_0}{s^2 + as + b}$$

2nd Step: Inverse Laplace transform. Solving for $x(t)$, we have

$$x(t) = x_0 e^{-at} + \frac{x'_0}{\omega} e^{-at} \sin \omega t + \frac{x_0}{\omega} e^{-at} \cos \omega t$$

2nd Step: take the residue at pole, we get directly as γ . Directly $\gamma = 0.5$. Here we did not use any transfer function.

$$Q(s) = \frac{\gamma}{s^2 + as + b}$$

gives the answer

$$y(s) = (1s + 2)(0.5) + 0.5(s + 2)(0.5) \quad (1)$$

$y(s) = 0.5(s + 2) + 0.25(s + 2) = 0.75(s + 2)$ this is answer.

$$y = \frac{3}{4} = 0.75 \text{ rad/s}$$

or it is written as $\gamma = 0.5$ here but it is decreasing or increasing or decreasing depends on the sign of a and initial conditions.

3rd Step: we reduce (1) directly by partial fraction, we get $0.5(s + 2)$ as a sum of two terms as the procedure you will find in the book. The result $y(s) = 0.75(s + 2)$ is achieved.

Example 1.

Initial problem: Explanation of the basic steps

Given: $y'' + 2y' + 2y = 0$ and $y(0) = 1$, $y'(0) = 1$

Solution:

1st Step:

By taking Laplace transform of (1) and using $y(0) = 1$ and $y'(0) = 1$ we get following Laplace equation

$$s^2 Y(s) - s y(0) - y'(0) + 2(s Y(s) - y(0)) + 2Y(s) = 0 \quad \text{thus } Y(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 2}$$

which is (2)

2nd Step:

The transfer function is $Q = 1/(s^2 + 2s + 2)$ here

$$y = 1/(s^2 + 2s + 2) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 2} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 1 + 1} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1^2}$$

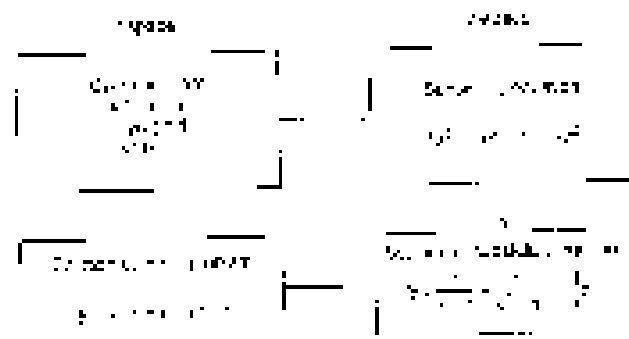
3rd Step:

we apply the value of γ we get the answer by using the above result as follows

$$Q(s) = 1/(s^2 + 2s + 2) = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1^2} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1^2} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1^2}$$

$$y(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 2s + 2} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{(s+1)^2 + 1^2}$$

we follow the below 4 methods of finding partial fraction.



By using the above method.

Comparison with the usual method

The solution can also be obtained by the usual method without using Laplace transform as shown below:

$$y'' + y = 1, \quad y(0) = 1, \quad y(\pi) = 1$$

$$(y^2 + 1)y = 0$$

Auxiliary equation

$$\frac{2y + 1}{y} = 0$$

$$(2y + 1)y = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0$$

$$m_1 = 0 \text{ and } m_2 = 0$$

So, complementary function is

$$y = c_1 + c_2 \sin x$$

Now particular integral

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{2y^2 + 1} \cdot 1$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + y^2} = \frac{1}{1 + \sin^2 x} = \frac{1}{2 + \cos 2x} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\cos 2x}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \frac{e^{2ix} + e^{-2ix}}{2}}$$

So, particular solution is

$$y = c_1 + c_2 \sin x + \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x$$

$$y' = c_2 + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$$

Using initial conditions, $y(0) = 1$ and $y(\pi) = 1$ we get

$$1 = c_1 + c_2 \text{ and } 1 = c_1 - c_2$$

or

$$c_1 = \frac{2}{2} \text{ and } c_2 = -\frac{1}{2}$$

So, Solution

$$y = \frac{2}{2} \cos^2 x - \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2} (\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x) = \frac{1}{2} \cos 2x$$

Which is same as the solution obtained by Laplace transform method.

Note: Laplace transform method has advantages that can be directly obtained and can solve it directly (eg. $\cos x, \sin x$).

7.4.6 Transforms of Integrals

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{ \int_0^t f(x) dx \right\} = \frac{1}{s} f(s)$$

7.4.7 Multiplication By t

$$\mathcal{L}\{t^n f(t)\} = (-1)^n \frac{d^n}{ds^n} [F(s)], \text{ where } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

7.4.8 Division By t

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{ \frac{f(t)}{t} \right\} = \int_s^\infty F(x) dx$$

provided the integral exists.

7.5 Evaluation of Integrals by Laplace Transforms

Example:

Prove that

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-xt} \sin at \, dt$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin at}{t} \, dt$$

$$\text{and } \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-xt} \sin at}{t} \, dt$$

Solution:

(a) $\int_0^1 xe^{x^2} dx$ Let $u = x^2$ then $du = 2x dx$
 Hence by definition

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{e^u}{u^{\frac{1}{2}} + 1} du = \frac{2e}{(e^2 + 1)^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{2 \times 2.7}{(7.39)^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{4}{25}$$

(b) Since, $\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$ and $\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$ then $\sin \theta = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$ and $\cos \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$

∴ $\frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} = \cos \theta$ and $\frac{d(\cos \theta)}{d\theta} = -\sin \theta$ $\Rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos \theta} = \frac{r}{x}$ and $\frac{d\theta}{dy} = \frac{1}{\sin \theta} = \frac{r}{y}$

Hence $\int \frac{\sin \theta}{r} dx = \int \cos \theta \cdot \frac{r}{x} dx$

∴ $\int \cos \theta \cdot \frac{r}{x} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$ when $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

Now $\frac{d(\cos \theta)}{d\theta} = -\sin \theta$ and $\frac{d\theta}{dy} = \frac{r}{y}$

Integrating it with respect to y we get

$$\int \frac{1}{y} \frac{d(\cos \theta)}{d\theta} dy = \int \frac{1}{y} (-\sin \theta) dy = \int \frac{-\sin \theta}{y} dy$$

(c) Since, $\frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} = \cos \theta$ and $\frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{r}{x}$ then $\frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{r}{x}$ and $\frac{d\theta}{dy} = \frac{r}{y}$

∴ $\int \frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} \cdot \frac{r}{x} dx = \int \cos \theta \cdot \frac{r}{x} dx$ by diff. product

Thus $\int \frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} \cdot \frac{r}{x} dx = \frac{1}{x} \cos \theta + C$

Example

Find $\int_0^{\pi} (2 \cos 2\theta) \cdot \frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} d\theta$

Solution:

Since $\frac{d(\sin \theta)}{d\theta} = \cos \theta$ then

$$= 2 \int_0^{\pi} (2 \cos 2\theta) \cdot \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{8}{\pi} \left[\frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} - \frac{\sin 4\theta}{4} \right]_0^{\pi}$$

(Note: $\sin 2\pi = \sin 4\pi = \sin 0 = \sin 2\pi = 0$)

$$= \frac{8}{\pi} \left[\frac{\sin 2\pi}{2} - \frac{\sin 4\pi}{4} - \left(\frac{\sin 0}{2} - \frac{\sin 0}{4} \right) \right] = \frac{8}{\pi} \left[\frac{0}{2} - \frac{0}{4} - \left(\frac{0}{2} - \frac{0}{4} \right) \right] = 0$$

7.6 Inverse Transforms – Method of Partial Fractions

Using Laplace transforms and partial fractions, we can now determine the inverse transform of a given function $F(s)$. We have seen that in 19th century, algebraic division and the partial fraction decomposition techniques were developed to solve problems in differential equations.

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s}\right] = 1$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s}\right] = \frac{1}{s} = e^{0t} = 1$$

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s^2}\right] = \frac{e^{-1}}{s^2} = \frac{e^{-1}}{1!} = 1 \cdot e^{-1}$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2}\right] = \frac{1}{1!} = \frac{1}{1!} = 1$$

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s^3}\right] = \frac{e^{-1}}{2!} = \frac{1}{2!} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^3}\right] = \frac{1}{2!} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s^4}\right] = \frac{e^{-1}}{3!} = \frac{1}{3!} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^4}\right] = \frac{1}{3!} = \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s^5}\right] = \frac{e^{-1}}{4!} = \frac{1}{4!} = \frac{1}{24}$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^5}\right] = \frac{1}{4!} = \frac{1}{24} = \frac{1}{24}$$

$$L\left[\frac{1}{s^6}\right] = \frac{e^{-1}}{5!} = \frac{1}{5!} = \frac{1}{120}$$

$$L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^6}\right] = \frac{1}{5!} = \frac{1}{120} = \frac{1}{120}$$

All these results lead to a general result. The inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^{n+1}}$ is $\frac{1}{n!} t^n$. The corresponding results for the inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^{n+1}}$ are $\frac{1}{n!} t^n$, $\frac{1}{(n-1)!} t^{n-1}$, and $\frac{1}{(n-2)!} t^{n-2}$, etc.

Note on Partial Fractions: It is used to decompose a rational function $F(s)$ into a sum of simpler fractions. The method involves the following steps: (1) Factor the denominator. (2) Write the partial fraction decomposition. (3) Solve for the coefficients. (4) Simplify the result.

1. If the denominator is $(s-a)^n$, then the partial fraction decomposition corresponds to a single fraction of the form $\frac{A}{(s-a)^n}$.
2. If the denominator is $(s-a)^n$, then the partial fraction decomposition corresponds to a sum of n fractions of the form $\frac{A_1}{(s-a)^n} + \frac{A_2}{(s-a)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{(s-a)}$.

$$F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2} = \frac{1}{s^2} = \frac{1}{s^2} = \frac{1}{s^2}$$

3. If the denominator is $(s^2+a^2)^n$, then the partial fraction decomposition corresponds to a sum of n fractions of the form $\frac{A_1 s + B_1}{(s^2+a^2)^n} + \frac{A_2 s + B_2}{(s^2+a^2)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{A_n s + B_n}{(s^2+a^2)}$.

4. If the denominator is $(s^2+a^2)^n$, then the partial fraction decomposition corresponds to a sum of n fractions of the form $\frac{A_1 s + B_1}{(s^2+a^2)^n} + \frac{A_2 s + B_2}{(s^2+a^2)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{A_n s + B_n}{(s^2+a^2)}$.

The above results are known as the partial fraction decomposition.

For a given function $F(s)$, the partial fraction decomposition is a sum of simpler fractions. The method involves the following steps: (1) Factor the denominator. (2) Write the partial fraction decomposition. (3) Solve for the coefficients. (4) Simplify the result. The partial fraction decomposition is used to find the inverse Laplace transform of a function $F(s)$.

7.7 Unit Step Function

At times, the continuous-time functions of which the Laplace transform appears are determined by a continuous periodic waveform in which the waveform is zero, or constant, or has some step function discontinuities, and so forth.

Def. The unit step function, $u(t)$, is defined as follows:

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ 1 & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

where 0 is zero and 1 is one.



7.7.1 Transform of Unit Function

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{u(t)\} &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} dt = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-st} dt \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{s} e^{-st} \right]_0^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{s} e^{-sb} + \frac{1}{s} \right] = \frac{1}{s} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\mathcal{L}\{u(t)\} = \frac{1}{s}$, $\text{Re } s > 0$.

The reader can verify that $\mathcal{L}\{u(t-a)\} = \frac{e^{-as}}{s}$, $\text{Re } s > 0$.

The function $g(t) = u(t) = 1$ is periodic for $t > 0$ and is called a periodic function with period 1 unit.

7.8 Second Shifting Property

Def. Let $g(t) = f(t)u(t)$, then

$$\mathcal{L}\{g(t)\} = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)u(t)\} = e^{-as}\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}.$$

Proof. $\mathcal{L}\{g(t)\} = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)u(t)\} = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t)u(t) dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt$
 $= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}$
 $= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t) dt = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}$

7.9 Unit Impulse Function

The idea of a very large function for a very short time is called an impulse. The function $\delta(t)$ is called the Dirac delta function. The unit impulse function is the Dirac delta function.

The unit impulse function is a continuous function that is zero for $t < 0$ and $t > 0$.

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ \infty & t = 0 \end{cases}$$

When a function $f(t)$ is multiplied by $\delta(t)$, the height of the function is zero and the width is zero, so the area under the curve is zero.

The unit impulse function $\delta(t)$ is a continuous function.

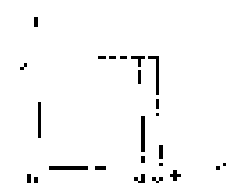
$$\mathcal{L}\{\delta(t)\} = 1$$

(a) $\delta(t)$

(b) $\delta(t-1)$

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\delta(t-a)\} = f(a)$$

(c) $\delta(t)$



As an illustration, a fixed deposit of Rs 10000 for 4 years may be considered as the following case of uniform cash expenditure (assuming the period of the cash withdrawal is equal to $t + \Delta t$):

$$\begin{aligned}d(t) &= 2500 \\&= J\end{aligned}$$

Here $\Delta t = 1$

in years

i.e.,

$$d(t) = WJ(t) = J$$

7.9.1 Transform of Unit Impulse Function

If $f(t)$ be a function of time impulse $\delta(t - 1)$ then

$$\int_0^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t - a) dt = \int_0^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t - 1) dt = (a + \epsilon - a) f(a) \Big|_0^{\infty} = f(a) \text{ where } a > 0 \text{ and } \epsilon \rightarrow 0$$

or δ -function has a unit area

$$\text{As } \epsilon \rightarrow 0 \text{ we get } \int_0^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t) dt = f(0)$$

In particular, putting $\delta(t) = e^{-at}$ and $f(t) = 1$ then

$$\text{we have } \int_0^{\infty} e^{-at} \delta(t) dt = e^{-a \times 0} = 1$$

which is nothing but Laplace

$$L[\delta(t)] = 1 \text{ or } e^{-as}$$

7.10 Periodic functions

If $f(t)$ is a periodic function with period T i.e. $f(t) = f(t + T)$ then

$$f(s) = \frac{\int_0^T e^{-st} f(t) dt}{1 - e^{-sT}}$$

Example:

$f(t) = \begin{cases} \sin t & 0 \leq t < \pi \\ 0 & \pi \leq t < 2\pi \end{cases}$ is a periodic function with time period 2π . Determine the Laplace transform of $f(t)$.

Solution:

The Laplace transform of periodic function

$$\begin{aligned}L[f(t)] &= \frac{1}{e^{sT} - 1} \int_0^T e^{-st} f(t) dt = \frac{1}{e^{s2\pi} - 1} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-st} \sin t dt \\&= \frac{1}{e^{s2\pi} - 1} \left[\frac{e^{-st}}{s^2} \left(-s \cos t + \sin t \right) \right]_0^{2\pi} \\&= \frac{1}{e^{s2\pi} - 1} \left[\frac{e^{-s2\pi}}{s^2} (-s \cos 2\pi + \sin 2\pi) - \frac{1}{s^2} (-s \cos 0 + \sin 0) \right] \\&= \frac{1}{e^{s2\pi} - 1} \left[\frac{e^{-s2\pi}}{s^2} (-s + 0) - \frac{1}{s^2} (-s + 0) \right] = \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{1 - e^{-s2\pi}}{e^{s2\pi} - 1} = \frac{1}{s^2 (1 - e^{-s2\pi})}\end{aligned}$$

7.11 Fourier Transform

Fourier series has a periodic process with a finite period. It is periodic function and is expressed as a continuous function of time. It is denoted by $f(t)$ and $F(\omega)$ is its Fourier transform.

It has a finite period and a finite spectrum. The signal in time and frequency (ω) domain. The series can be generalized for a finite spectrum.

Definition: Let f be a periodic function of period $2L$, then there is a Fourier series representation:

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + b_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right)$$

where the coefficients a_n and b_n are given by the Fourier coefficients:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^L f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

7.12 Dirichlet's Conditions

The Dirichlet conditions for the convergence of a Fourier series are called Dirichlet's conditions:

1. $f(x)$ is periodic, $f(x)$ is bounded
2. $f(x)$ has a finite number of discontinuities in any one period
3. $f(x)$ has a finite number of maxima and minima

7.12.1 Fourier Cosine and Sine Series

If f is an even or odd function of x in $[-L, L]$, then its Fourier series coefficients can be obtained by using the symmetry of the function. The coefficients are:

$$b_n = 0, \quad a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx$$

If f is an odd function of x in $[-L, L]$:

$$a_n = 0, \quad b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

If f is an odd periodic function of period $2L$, the full period series contains only sine terms. If f is an even periodic function, the full series contains only cosine terms.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$$

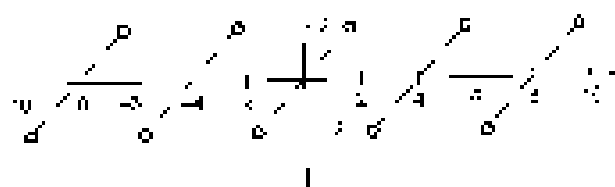
For a half-range sine series determine b_n by

$$b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Example:

Find a half-range cosine for $f(x) = x - 2, x \in [2, 4], f(x + 4) = f(x)$



Solution:

Find Fourier series for $f(x) = 4$, where $0 \leq x \leq 2$

For calculation of average value a_0

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 4 dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[4x \right]_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times 8 = 4$$

The value of each coefficient, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ are

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 4 \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[4x \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \sin n\pi \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2} + \frac{4}{n^2\pi^2} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4}{n\pi} \cos n\pi \right]_0^2 = \left[\frac{4}{n\pi} \cos n\pi - \frac{4}{n\pi} \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since, a_n is a non-zero constant value only for $n=0$. Therefore, the average value of $f(x)$ is $a_0 = 4$ and the value of a_n is zero for all $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$

The coefficients for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ are

$$\begin{aligned} b_n &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 4 \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[4x \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \cos n\pi \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4x}{n\pi} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2} + \frac{4}{n^2\pi^2} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2} \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{4}{n\pi} \sin n\pi \right]_0^2 = \left[\frac{4}{n\pi} \sin n\pi - \frac{4}{n\pi} \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n\pi} [\sin n\pi + \cos n\pi] = \frac{1}{n\pi} \cos n\pi \\ &= \frac{1}{n\pi} [\cos n\pi - \cos 0] = \frac{1}{n\pi} \cos n\pi - \frac{1}{n\pi} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n\pi x}{n\pi} + \frac{4}{2}$$

Example:

Find Fourier series for $f(x) = 3$, $0 \leq x \leq 4$, $f(x+4) = f(x)$. Hence plot the function and give the average value.

Solution:

$$a = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} x^2 dx = \frac{1}{6} \left[x^3 \right]_0^{\pi} = \frac{1}{6} (\pi^3 - 0) = \frac{\pi^3}{6}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = x^2, \quad 0 \leq x < \pi \\ b_1 &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} x^2 \sin \frac{2x}{\pi} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[x^2 \sin \frac{2x}{\pi} - \frac{2x}{\pi} \cos \frac{2x}{\pi} + \frac{2}{\pi^2} \sin \frac{2x}{\pi} \right]_0^{\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[0 - \frac{2}{\pi} \cos 2 \right] = \frac{2}{\pi^2} \left[\cos 2\pi - \cos 0 \right] = 0 \\ b_2 &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} x^2 \sin \frac{4x}{\pi} dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[x^2 \sin \frac{4x}{\pi} - \frac{2x}{\pi} \cos \frac{4x}{\pi} + \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sin \frac{4x}{\pi} \right]_0^{\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[\frac{4}{\pi^2} \sin 4\pi - 0 - 0 - 0 \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{Consequently, } f(x) = \frac{\pi^3}{6} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[0 + 0 \cos \frac{2nx}{\pi} + 0 \sin \frac{2nx}{\pi} \right] = \frac{\pi^3}{6} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 0 = \frac{\pi^3}{6}$$

Comment: Just because a function can be extended to a periodic function, it does not mean that that same function that many terms of the periodic function can be expressed by finitely many terms (usually found in Fourier series), the function may require infinite number of terms (usually expressed by the fact that the Fourier series of a function can be written as the polynomial that converges to the function in many cases etc.).

Example: Find the series for $f(x)$ on 2π given as follows:

$$f(x) = 0 \text{ for } x < 0; f(x) = \sin x \text{ for } 0 \leq x < \pi; f(x) = 0 \text{ for } \pi \leq x < 2\pi.$$

Example: The function $f(x)$ is given as 2π periodic as follows: $f(x) = \cos x$ for $0 \leq x < \pi$ and $f(x) = \sin x$ for $\pi \leq x < 2\pi$. Find the Fourier series for $f(x)$ on 2π given as follows: $f(x) = \cos x$ for $0 \leq x < \pi$ and $f(x) = \sin x$ for $\pi \leq x < 2\pi$.

Solution: The Fourier series of $f(x) = 2\pi$ is given as follows:

7.12.2 The Cosine and Sine Series Extensions

If $f(x)$ is a periodic function continuous on the domain $[0, 2\pi]$ then near $x = 0$ and $x = 2\pi$ we have $f(0) = f(2\pi)$ and $f'(0) = f'(2\pi)$ and $f(x)$ can be extended to a periodic function on $[-\pi, \pi]$ and $f(x)$ can be extended to a periodic function of period 2π as follows: $f(x) = f(x)$ for $x \in [0, 2\pi]$ and $f(x) = f(x - 2\pi)$ for $x \in [2\pi, 4\pi]$, therefore, a 2π periodic function $f(x)$ can be extended to a periodic function on $[-\pi, \pi]$ and $f(x)$ can be extended to a periodic function of period 2π as follows:

Even (cosine series) extension of $f(x)$

Given $f(x)$ defined on $[0, \pi]$ is even extension of $f(x)$ on $[-\pi, \pi]$ is

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & 0 \leq x < \pi \\ f(-x), & -\pi \leq x < 0 \end{cases} \quad F(x + 2\pi) = F(x)$$

where

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(x) dx, \quad \text{and } a_n = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{\pi} dx,$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{\pi} dx, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$b_n = 0, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Odd (sine series) extension of $f(x)$

Given $f(x)$ is defined for $[0, \pi]$ is extended as an odd function $f(x)$ periodic 2π is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & 0 < x < \pi \\ 0 & x = 0, \pi \\ -f(x) & \pi < x < 2\pi \end{cases} \quad f(x + 2\pi) = f(x)$$

Where

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \quad \text{where for}$$

$$a_n = 0 \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Example:

A $f(x) = x$ ($0 < x < \pi$) and its sine series and sine wave is periodic 2π is

Solution:

Given series $f(x) = 1 - \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \cos \frac{n\pi x}{2}$

Sine series $f(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{2}$

□♦♦♦□



Previous GATE and ESE Questions

Q.1 The inverse Laplace transform of a function $f(s)$ will be equal to

- (a) $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma-i\infty}^{\gamma+i\infty} f(s) e^{st} ds$ (b) $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma-i\infty}^{\gamma+i\infty} f(s) ds$
(c) $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma-i\infty}^{\gamma+i\infty} f(s) e^{-st} ds$ (d) $\frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma-i\infty}^{\gamma+i\infty} f(s) ds$

[IE, GATE-2003, 2 marks]

Q.2 Laplace transform of the product of two functions

- (a) $\frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{s^2+1} \right)$ (b) $\frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{s^2+1} \right)$
(c) $\frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{s^2+1} \right)$ (d) $\frac{1}{s} \left(\frac{1}{s^2+1} \right)$

[ME, GATE-2000, 2 marks]

Q.3 A delay of t_0 in a function is defined as

$$f(t-t_0) = \begin{cases} f(t) & \text{for } t > t_0 \\ 0 & \text{for } t < t_0 \end{cases}$$

- (a) $s e^{-st_0}$ (b) $\frac{e^{-st_0}}{s}$
(c) $\frac{e^{-st_0}}{s}$ (d) $\frac{e^{-st_0}}{s}$

[ME, GATE-2004, 2 marks]

Q.4 A solution for the differential equation

$$x'' + 2x' + 2x = 0$$

- (a) $e^{2t} \cos t$ (b) $e^{2t} \sin t$
(c) $e^{-t} \cos t$ (d) $e^{-t} \sin t$

[EC, GATE-2005, 1 mark]

Q.5 If $F(s)$ is the Laplace transform of function $f(t)$,

$$\text{then Laplace transform of } \int_0^t f(t-\tau) d\tau \text{ is}$$

- (a) $\frac{1}{s} F(s)$ (b) $\frac{1}{s} F(s) + F(s)$
(c) $\frac{1}{s} F(s) - F(s)$ (d) $\frac{1}{s} F(s)$

[ME, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

$$\text{Q.6 Laplace } \int_0^t \frac{d^2 f}{dt^2} dt$$

- (a) f (b) $\frac{f}{s}$
(c) $\frac{1}{s}$ (d) $\frac{f}{s}$

[IE, GATE-2007, 2 marks]

Q.7 Laplace transform of function $f(t) = \cos at$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{s^2+a^2}$ (b) $\frac{1}{s^2-a^2}$
(c) $\frac{1}{s^2+a^2}$ (d) $\frac{1}{s^2-a^2}$

[IE, GATE-2009, 2 marks]

Q.8 The inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$ is

- (a) $t \sin t$ (b) $t \cos t$
(c) $\sin t$ (d) $\cos t$

[ME, GATE-2009, 1 mark]

Q.9 The Laplace transform of a function $f(t)$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$ (b) $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$
(c) $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$ (d) $\frac{1}{s^2+1}$

[ME, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

$$\text{Q.10 Given } \int_0^\infty \frac{f(x)}{x^2+1} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ then } f(x) =$$

then, evaluate $f(x)$

- (a) 1 (b) 2
(c) 3 (d) 4

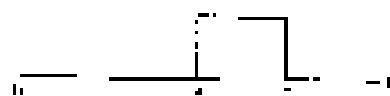
[EC, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Common Data Questions 11 and 12

Given $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2+1}$ for $x > 0$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{f(x)}{x^2+1} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

2000



Q.11. $y(t)$ can be expressed as

- (a) $y(t) = (t+2)e^{-t}$ (b) $y(t) = t \left(1 - \frac{t}{2} \right)$
 (c) $y(t) = t \left(1 - \frac{2}{t} \right)$ (d) $y(t) = t \left(1 - \frac{t}{2} \right)$

[EE, GATE-2010, 2 marks]

Q.12. The Laplace transform of $y(t)$ is

- (a) $\frac{1}{s} [e^{2s} - 1]$ (b) $\frac{1}{s} [e^{2s} - e^{3s}]$
 (c) $\frac{e^{2s}}{s} [1 - e^{3s}]$ (d) $\frac{1}{s} [e^{2s} - e^{3s}]$

[EE, GATE-2015, 2 marks]

Q.13. The Laplace transform of $y(t)$ is given by

- (a) $Y(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 - 1}$ (b) $Y(s) = s^2 \ln s$
 (c) $Y(s) = s^2$ (d) $Y(s) = 1 - e^{-s}$

[ME, GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.14. Consider the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + 2 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + y(t) = 5(t+1)$$

$$y(0) = 0, \quad y'(0) = \frac{dy}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} = 1$$

$$y(t) \text{ tends to } y_{\infty} \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty$$

- (a) $y_{\infty} = 2$ (b) $y_{\infty} = 1$
 (c) $y_{\infty} = 3$ (d) $y_{\infty} = 4$

[EE, IIS GATE-2012, 2 marks]

Q.15. The value of $y(t)$ at $t = 0$ is differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dt} + y = 0 \text{ and the auxiliary equation } m^2 + 2m + 1 = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} \bigg|_{t=0} = 4. \text{ The Laplace transform of } y(t) \text{ is given by}$$

- (a) $\frac{2}{s^2 + 1}$ (b) $\frac{4}{s^2 + 1}$
 (c) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (d) $\frac{2}{s^2 + 1}$

[ME, GATE-2013, 2 Marks]

Q.16. Laplace transform of $\cos(\omega t)$ is $\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$. The Laplace transform of $\sin(\omega t)$ is

- (a) $\frac{s-2}{(s-2)^2 + 1}$ (b) $\frac{s+2}{(s+2)^2 + 1}$
 (c) $\frac{s-2}{(s+2)^2 + 1}$ (d) $\frac{s+2}{(s+2)^2 + 1}$

[MC, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.17. Let $X(s) = \frac{s+2}{s^2 + 12s + 32}$. Let $x(t)$ be a function of t and $x(0) = 1$. Then $x(1)$ is

- (a) 0 (b) 1
 (c) 5 (d) 6

[EE, GATE-2014, 1 Mark]

Q.18. For the differential equation $y'' + 2y' + 2y = 1$, $y(0) = 0$, $y'(0) = 1$, the value of y at $t = 1$ is

$$y = \text{the differential equation } \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + 2 \frac{dy}{dt} + 2y = 1$$

$$y(0) = 0, \quad y'(0) = 1$$

[EC, GATE-2014, 2 Marks]

Q.19. The Laplace transform of $\cos(\omega t)$ is $\frac{s}{s^2 + \omega^2}$. The Laplace transform of $\sin(\omega t)$ is

- (a) $\frac{s-5}{s^2 + 5}$ (b) $\frac{s-5}{s^2 + 25}$
 (c) $\frac{s+5}{s^2 + 25}$ (d) $\frac{s+5}{s^2 + 5}$

[MC, GATE-2015, 1 Mark]

Q.20. The Laplace transform of the function $f(t)$ is given by

$$F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1} \Rightarrow f(t) = \sin t. \text{ The Laplace transform of } f(t) \text{ is}$$

$$f(t) = \sin t \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$$

$$f(t) = \sin t \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$$

$$f(t) = \sin t \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$$

$$f(t) = \sin t \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$$

$$f(t) = \sin t \Rightarrow F(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$$

[MC, GATE-2015, 2 Marks]

Q.21 If $f(t)$ satisfies the following initial value problem
 transform $F(s)$ is obtained

(a) $\int_0^\infty f(t) dt = 1$ (b) $\int_0^\infty f(t) dt = 0$

(c) $\int_0^\infty t f(t) dt = 1$ (d) $\int_0^\infty t f(t) dt = 0$

[ME, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.22 Consider that $\int_0^\infty f(t) dt = 1$ and $f(0) = 1$.
 Then $F(s)$ has absolute minimum at

[ME, 2016 : 2 Marks]

Q.23 Laplace transform of $\sin t$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (b) $\frac{1}{s^2 - 1}$

(c) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (d) $\frac{1}{s^2 - 1}$
 [ME, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.24 Solving the Laplace transform of the continuous
 system using partial fraction method

- (a) time constant method
 (b) terminal method
 (c) complex partial fraction method
 (d) other methods

[ML, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.25 The Laplace transform of $f(t) = \sin t \cos t$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (b) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 2}$

(c) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (d) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 2}$
 [PF, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.26 Consider a 2×2 LTI system characterised by

simultaneous equations $\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \frac{1}{2}y_1 + y_2$ and $\frac{dy_2}{dt} = y_1 + 2y_2$

eigenvalue of the system is the first of $\lambda_1 = 3$ and $\lambda_2 = 0$ where λ_1 denotes the real eigenvalue is

- (a) 3 (b) 0
 (c) 3 (d) 0
 (e) 3 (f) 0
 (g) 3 (h) 0

[PF, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.27 The Fourier transform of $f(t)$ is

$F(\omega) = \frac{1}{\omega^2 + 1}$ and $f(0) = 1$

then $f(t)$ is

[ME, 2016 : 1 Mark]

(a) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$

(c) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$

The complex value of the Fourier series $x[n]$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$

(c) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$ (d) $\frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$

[ME, 2016 : 1 Mark]

Q.28 The Laplace transform of $\sin t$ is

(a) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (b) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$

(c) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$ (d) $\frac{1}{s^2 + 1}$

[ML, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.29 For the function

$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|t|}$ and $f(0) = 1$

then the value of $f(t)$ is

- (a) 1 (b) 2
 (c) 3 (d) 4
 (e) 5 (f) 6

[PBF Problems 2017]

■■■■■

Answers: Transforms

1. (b)	2. (d)	3. (c)	4. (c)	5. (a)	6. (b)	7. (c)
8. (c)	9. (c)	10. (b)	11. (c)	12. (b)	13. (d)	14. (b)
15. (c)	16. (c)	17. (b)	18. (c)	19. (b)	20. (b)	21. (c)
22. (c)	23. (b)	24. (b)	25. (c)	26. (b)	27. (c)	28. (c)

Explanations: Transforms

2. (b)

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin at\} = \frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}$$

3. (c)

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{f(x - a)\} &= \int_0^\infty e^{-st} f(t - a) dt \\ &= \int_0^a e^{-st} \cdot 0 \cdot dt + \int_a^\infty e^{-st} (1 - a) dt \\ &= 0 - \int_a^\infty e^{-st} dt = -\left[\frac{e^{-st}}{-s}\right]_a^\infty = \frac{e^{-as}}{s} \end{aligned}$$

4. (a)

$$x(t) = 2y(t) + 3z(t)$$

Taking \mathcal{L} on both sides

$$\mathcal{L}\{x(t) - 2y(t)\} = \mathcal{L}\{3z(t)\}$$

$$x(s) - 2y(s) = 3z(s)$$

$$z(s) = \frac{1}{3}(x - 2y)$$

$$z(t) = \frac{1}{3}(x - 2y)$$

5. (a)

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t f(x) dx\right] = \frac{1}{s} F(s)$$

Hence, we have

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\int_0^t f(x) dx\right] = \frac{1}{s} F(s)$$

6. (b)

Given,

$$A(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5} = \frac{m}{s + a} + \frac{n}{s + b}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5}\right] &= \int_0^\infty f(s) ds = \int_0^\infty \frac{1 \cdot ds}{s^2 + 6s + 5} \\ &= \left[\tan^{-1} \frac{s + 3}{2}\right]_0^\infty \end{aligned}$$

or by Division

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1 \cdot ds}{s^2 + 6s + 5} = \frac{\pi}{6} \tan^{-1} \frac{3}{5}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{s + 3}{2} \right) \right] = \frac{\pi}{6} \tan^{-1} \frac{3}{5} \quad \text{Hence, (a)}$$

The value of $\tan^{-1} \frac{3}{5}$ is $\tan^{-1} 1$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5} ds = \frac{1}{6} \left[\pi \tan^{-1} \frac{3}{5} + \frac{\pi}{2} \right] \quad \text{Hence, (c)}$$

Hence, a value of $\tan^{-1} \frac{3}{5}$ is $\tan^{-1} 1$ or $\frac{\pi}{4}$

$$\text{Hence, (c)}$$

7. (b)

If $a > 0$ then, we have

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at} \sin t\} = \frac{1}{s^2 + a^2}$$

8. (a)

$$\mathcal{L}\left[\frac{1}{s^2 + 9}\right] = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{s^2 + 9} = \frac{1}{(s + 3i)(s - 3i)} = \frac{1}{6i} \left[\frac{1}{s - 3i} - \frac{1}{s + 3i} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2 + 9}\right] &= \frac{1}{6i} \left[\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s - 3i}\right] - \mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s + 3i}\right] \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{6i} e^{3it} [e^{3it} \sin 3t - e^{-3it} \sin 3t] \end{aligned}$$

Standard formula:

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s - a}\right] = e^{at}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s + a}\right] = e^{-at}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2 + a^2}\right] = \frac{1}{a} \sin at$$

9. (a)

$$f(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5} = \frac{m}{s + a} + \frac{n}{s + b}$$

$$\frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5} = \frac{m}{s} + \frac{n}{s^2} + \frac{p}{s + 5}$$

$$\frac{1}{s^2 + 6s + 5} = \frac{A \cdot s(s + 5) + (s + 5) + B(s + 5)}{s^2 + 6s + 5}$$

Matching coefficients of $s^2 \times s^0$, we have in numerator as

$$4 = 0 + 0 + B \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

$$6 = 0 + 5 + 0 \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Given $\vec{a} = \hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$, $\vec{b} = \hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$ and $\vec{c} = \hat{i} + \hat{j} + \hat{k}$

$$\vec{a} \cdot (\vec{b} \times \vec{c}) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 + 1 + 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 = 0$$

10. (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} = 0$$

Consider

$$\vec{A}(x) = \left[\frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1} \right]$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \vec{A}(x) = \vec{0}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1} \right] = \vec{0}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1} \right] = \vec{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + 1 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

11. (a)

Work and

$$dW = \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{r} = m \vec{g} \cdot d\vec{r} = m \vec{g} \cdot \vec{r}$$

One process (a) and the other (b) has same work

Work done is

Consider path

$$\vec{r}(t) = \left(\frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2} \right)$$

$$\vec{r}(t) = \left(\frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2} \right) = \vec{r}(0)$$

$$\text{and } \vec{r}(t) = \left(\frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2}, \frac{t}{2} \right) = \vec{r}(1)$$

12. (a)

Two independent random variables

$$P(X) = \int_0^1 e^{-x} dx$$

$$P(Y) = \int_0^1 e^{-y} dy = \int_0^1 e^{-x} dx$$

$$P(X) = e^{-x}$$

$$= \int_0^1 e^{-x} dx = \left[-e^{-x} \right]_0^1$$

$$= \left[-e^{-x} \right]_0^1$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x^2} = e^{-x} = e^{-x} \\ &= \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} \end{aligned}$$

13. (a)

$$\vec{A}(x) = \left[\frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1} \right]$$

$$= \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{A}(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{A}(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{A}(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1}$$

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$$\Rightarrow \vec{A}(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}, \frac{4x}{x^2 + 1}$$

14. (a)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

Using Laplace transform

$$s^2 Y(s) + s Y(s) = 0$$

$$Y(s) = \frac{0}{s^2 + s} = 0$$

$$Y(s) = \frac{0}{s^2 + s} = 0$$

$$Y(s) = \frac{0}{s^2 + s} = 0$$

$$Y(s) = \frac{0}{s^2 + s} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

15. (a)

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$x^2 f(x) = 1 + f(x) = 2$$

$$(i) \quad f(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$$

16. (a)

$$\sin^2 \cos^2 y = \frac{1}{16} \left(\frac{1}{y^2} - \frac{1}{y^4} \right)$$

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

$$\therefore f(x) = \sin^2 \cos^2 y = \frac{1}{16} (2^2 - 1) = \frac{3}{16}$$

17. (b)

$$\text{Given: } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 10x + 25}$$

Using partial fraction as

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 10x + 25}$$

$$\therefore f(x) = \frac{1}{(x-5)^2} = \frac{A}{x-5} + \frac{B}{(x-5)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(x-5)^2} = \frac{A(x-5) + B}{(x-5)^2} = \frac{Ax - 5A + B}{(x-5)^2}$$

18. Sol.

Given

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

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 1, y = 2 \quad (1)$$

Integrating both sides, we get $x(y) = y^2(y) = 0$, we get

$$x(y) = y^2(y) = y^2(y) = 4y^2(y) = 0$$

$$(y^2 - 4) + 4y^2 = 2y^2(y^2) + 4y^2$$

$$y^2 - 4 + 4y^2 = 2y^2(y^2) + 4y^2$$

$$y^2 = \frac{y^2 + 4}{y^2 - 4} = \frac{y^2 + 4}{y^2 - 4}$$

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

$$y^2 = y^2 - 2y + 2y + 4$$

$$dx = y^2 dy = \frac{1}{2} (y^2 + 4)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (y^2 + 4)$$

19. (a)

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

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 2x} = \frac{1}{x^2 - 2x} = \frac{1}{x^2 - 2x}$$

20. (c)

$$f(x) = \int_0^x (y) e^{-y} dy$$

$$\left(\int_0^x (y) e^{-y} dy + \int_0^x (y) e^{-y} dy \right)$$

$$= \left[\frac{e^{-y}}{-1} \right]_0^x = \frac{1}{e} e^{-x} = \frac{1}{e}$$

$$= \frac{1}{e} (1 - e^{-x}) = \frac{2}{e} \frac{dy}{dx}$$

21. (b)

$$f(x) = \int_0^x x^2 dx$$

22. Sol.

$$f(x) = 2x^2 - 3x^2 + 1 = 2x^2$$

$$f(x) = 3x^2 - 3x$$

$$f(x) = 1$$

$$x^2 - 3x - 1 = 0 \quad x = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{9 + 4}}{2} = \frac{3 \pm 5}{2} = 4, -1$$

$$f(x) = 1 = 0 \quad x = 2 \quad f(x) = 1$$

$$x = 0 \quad x = 1 \quad f(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = 1, y = 0 \quad x = 1 \quad f(x) = 1$$

$$f(x) = 1, y = 0$$

$$f(x) = 1, y = 0$$

$$f(x) = 1, y = 0$$

23. (a)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$$

24. (b)

Given differential equation is $y'' + y = 0$

So the characteristic equation is

$$y'' + y = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

So the characteristic equation is

24. (a)

$$\text{radius (center of circle)} = \frac{5}{2-1.25}$$

$$\text{circumference} = 2\pi \left(\frac{5}{2-1.25} \right) = \frac{20\pi}{.75} = \frac{80\pi}{3}$$

25. (b)

The given differential

$$dy/dx = \frac{1}{y}(y^2 - 3x^2)$$

$$\text{is separable: } \int \frac{1}{y} dy = \int (y^2 - 3x^2) dx$$

$$\ln y = \frac{1}{3}y^3 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 + C$$

$$\ln y = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$\ln y = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ = \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$\ln y = \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{6} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

27. (a)

$$\text{radius (center of circle)} = \frac{5}{2-1.25}$$

$$\text{circumference} = 2\pi \left(\frac{5}{2-1.25} \right)$$

$$= \frac{20\pi}{.75} = \frac{80\pi}{3}$$

Ans. $\frac{80\pi}{3}$ units

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x + \frac{1}{2} \cos x + \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right]$$

$$\left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x + \frac{1}{2} \cos x + \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right] = 1$$

Ans. $x = 0$ is a point of inflection. The value

$$\text{of the second derivative is } \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right]$$

$$\text{where } y'(x) = \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right] = 0$$

For $x = 0$, $y'(0) = 0$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2} \cos x - \frac{1}{2} \sin x \right] = \frac{1}{8}$$

28. (b)

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$$

$$y'(x) = \frac{1}{2}x$$

Use the chain rule

$$dy/dx = \frac{1}{2}x$$

29. (c)

$$y(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right)$$

$$y' = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$$

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

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

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

Also, since

the function is concave up

$$y'' = \frac{1}{2}x^2 > 0$$

8

Second Order Linear Partial Differential Equations

Introduction

We are about to study a simple type of partial differential equations (PDEs), the second order linear PDEs. Recall that a partial differential equation is any equation involving partial derivatives for two or more independent variables. Therefore, we derive what the classification of second-order PDEs is via the method of using a coordinate system with independent variables. A linear second order linear PDE in 2 variables is

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 u_{xx} &= 0 && \text{One-dimensional heat conduction equation} \\ u'' &= 0 && \text{One-dimensional wave equation} \\ u_{xx} - u_{yy} &= 0 && \text{Two-dimensional Laplace equation} \end{aligned}$$

8.1 Classification of Second Order Linear PDEs

Consider the general form of a second-order linear partial differential equation in 2 variables with constant coefficients

$$a^2 u_{xx} + 2b u_{xy} + c u_{yy} = d u_x + e u_y + f(x, y)$$

For this equation we use some ideas of algebraic discriminant theory. Define Δ and Δ' as $\Delta = b^2 - ac$ and $\Delta' = a^2 u_{xx} + 2b u_{xy} + c u_{yy}$. The classification of the second-order linear partial differential equation is based on

- (i) $\Delta = b^2 - ac > 0$, the equation is called hyperbolic. The most classical example is wave equation $u_{xx} - u_{yy} = 0$ where the equation is called parabolic. The heat conduction equation is a classical example.
- (ii) $\Delta = b^2 - ac = 0$, the equation is called elliptic. The Laplace equation is one such example.

Example:

Consider the one-dimensional heat conduction equation $u_{xx} = u_x + 6u$.

Solution:

It can be written as $u_{xx} - u_x - 6u = 0$. It has coefficients $a = 1$, $b = -1/2$, and $c = -6$ so that $\Delta = b^2 - ac = 1/4 + 6 = 25/4 > 0$. Therefore, the equation is hyperbolic.

8.2 Undamped One-Dimensional Wave Equation; Vibrations of an Elastic String

We consider a homogeneous rectangular elastic string of length l . Suppose the two ends of the string are firmly secured at $x = 0$ and $x = l$ and suppose a harmonic wave $f(x)$ is moving along the string. Then a wave can propagate either to the left or to the right and if y is the displacement of the string from its equilibrium position, the displacement $y(x, t)$ satisfies the wave equation

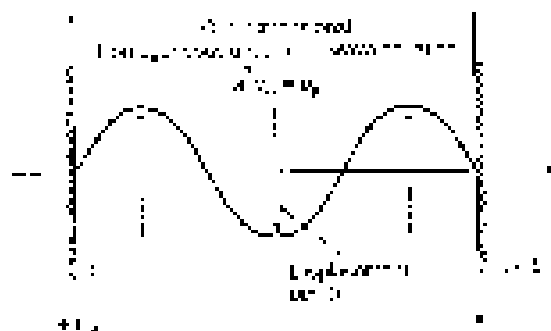
$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

where the constant c^2 is given by the formula $c^2 = \text{elasticity}/\text{mass}$ and is a real property in respect to an elastic wave velocity. If the wave motion is to be a harmonic wave function $y(x, t) = A \sin(kx + \omega t)$, then the length l is determined by the boundary conditions

$$y(0, t) = 0 \text{ and } y(l, t) = 0, \text{ for all } t$$

The two boundary conditions reflect the fact waves of constant length propagate. Therefore, $ky = n\pi$ and $\omega = 2\pi n$ for all n .

The solution satisfies the initial conditions due to the fact that it satisfies the second periodic condition with $n = 0$. The two initial conditions at the x_0 and x_1 both give us a boundary condition on y since $y(x_0) = y(x_1) = 0$ and the string is vibrating vertically in phase. The resulting wave form, or the wave mode is $4\pi x^2$ if x is in phase with the wave.



Hence, what we have is the following initial value problem:

(a) on (a, b) $y'' + \lambda y = 0$, $y(a) = 0$ and $y(b) = 0$

(b) on (a, b) $y'(a) = 0$ and $y'(b) = 0$

(c) on (a, b) $y(a) = y(b) = 1$ and $y'(a) = y'(b) = 0$

We first study (a). $y'' + \lambda y = 0$ has the characteristic equation $\lambda^2 + \lambda = 0$ with roots $\lambda = 0$ and $\lambda = -4\pi^2$. For $\lambda = 0$ the two solutions are $y_1 = x^2$ and $y_2 = x^2$ and the wave equation is $4\pi x^2$.

$$y'' + \lambda y = 0$$

Repeating both sides by x^2 we get

$$\frac{y''}{y} = -\frac{\lambda}{x^2}$$

As in the method of variation of parameters, we consider $y = u(x)v(x)$ and then by using the first variation we get the following equation

$$\frac{y''}{y} = -\frac{\lambda}{x^2} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{y''}{y} = 0 \Rightarrow y'' = 0 \Rightarrow y' = 2x \Rightarrow y = x^2 + C_1x + C_2$$

$$\frac{y''}{y} = \lambda \Rightarrow y'' = \lambda y \Rightarrow y = e^{\sqrt{\lambda}x} + e^{-\sqrt{\lambda}x} + C_1x + C_2$$

The boundary conditions are separated:

$$y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow y(1) = 0 \Rightarrow y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow y(1) = 0$$

$$y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow y(1) = 0 \Rightarrow y(0) = 0 \Rightarrow y(1) = 0$$

As usual, in order to obtain non-trivial solutions we need to choose $y(0) = 0$ and $y(1) = 0$ as the non-trivial boundary conditions. The next step is separation of variables, so we let $y = X(x)T(t)$ and by substituting this into the wave equation with the boundary conditions:

$$X'' + \lambda X = 0, \quad X(0) = 0 \text{ and } X(1) = 0$$

$$T'' + \mu^2 T = 0$$

Then we solve and solve the eigenvalue problem:

$$X'' + \lambda X = 0, \quad X(0) = 0 \text{ and } X(1) = 0$$

For simplicity we solve by taking $\lambda < 0$.

By separation:

$$X = \frac{e^{\sqrt{\lambda}x}}{\sqrt{\lambda}}, \quad T = e^{-\sqrt{\lambda}t}$$

Four functions: $X_n = \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$, $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$

Next, substitute these functions into the boundary condition of the PDE, computing appropriate values for A_n , the constant coefficients.

$$X''(x) + \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2} X = 0$$

The second-order homogeneous linear differential equation with constant coefficients will have solutions that are of the form $e^{\lambda x}$ and $e^{\mu x}$ such that:

$$\lambda = \pm \frac{n\pi i}{L}$$

Thus, the solutions are also harmonic:

$$X_n(x) = A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

Multiplying each term of the PDE by $e^{i\omega t}$ and summing, we find a generalized form of the second-order wave equation with both time and space derivatives:

$$\text{and } \ddot{u}_n = \sum_{n=1}^4 \left[A_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} + B_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right] \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

For each value of n , the corresponding coefficients A_n and B_n solve their own second-order equation $\ddot{u}_n = 0$ and satisfy the initial condition. We then use the technique of separation of the variables $u(x, t) = X(x)T(t)$ to get:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } \ddot{u}_n &= \sum_{n=1}^4 \left[A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right] \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^4 A_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we see that the initial displacement $u(x, 0)$ needs to take Fourier coefficients, since the \cos and \sin are arbitrary. Another Fourier decomposition will be required to find the initial velocity $\dot{u}(x, 0)$. For the well-defined problem, the coefficients $A_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L u(x, 0) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx$ where u_0 are the decomposition of the initial velocity $\dot{u}(x, 0) = g(x)$.

$$A_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L u_0(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx$$

As a final Fourier series sequence of Fourier coefficients, we determine B_n by the initial displacement. They are completely independent of the other sequence A_n , which are determined solely by the initial initial condition, and that is why it is easy to find the Fourier coefficients B_n with respect to the initial velocity $\dot{u}(x, 0) = g(x)$:

$$B_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx + \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L u_0(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx$$

With these results, we get:

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^4 \left[A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \right] \cos \frac{n\pi \omega t}{L}$$

We see the right-hand side has Fourier series for $u(x, 0)$ and $\dot{u}(x, 0)$ and periodicity is seen over $2L$, it represents the right distribution over the entire periodic sequence.

$$c_1(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n A_j e^{\frac{j\pi t}{L}} \sin \frac{j\pi x}{L} = g(x) = \sum_{j=1}^n B_j e^{\frac{j\pi t}{L}}.$$

Comparing the coefficients of the two sides we get, for each j ,

$$c_j \frac{\partial^2 e}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n B_j e^{\frac{j\pi t}{L}} \sin \frac{j\pi x}{L} \right).$$

That is,

$$B_j = \frac{1}{\pi^2} c_j = -\frac{2}{\pi^2} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{j\pi x}{L} dx.$$

As we have seen, all of the boundary values are homogeneous, the other end of the interval is $y = 0$ and hence the B_j are independent of the initial time, say displacement at $t = 0$ is $y(x, 0) = 0$ and $y_t(x, 0) = 45 \sin(x)$ in the initial problem so all the B_j will be 0, hence $B_j = 0$ for every j and hence no boundary value.

Let us take another case and summarize the result in theorems easy-to-remember, when $y(0) = y(L) = 0$.

Special case: Homogeneous initial conditions, non-homogeneous $y(x, 0) = 0$, $y_t(x, 0) = g(x)$.

Since $y(x, 0) = 0$ then $B_j = 0$ for all j .

$$A_j = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L g(x) \sin \frac{j\pi x}{L} dx, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

That is,

$$y(x, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \cos \frac{j\pi t}{L} \sin \frac{j\pi x}{L}.$$

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES

Example

Some wave equation was given by

$$\begin{aligned} y_{xx} &= y_t, & 0 < x < 5, \quad t > 0, \\ y(0, t) &= 0, \quad \text{and} & y(5, t) &= 0, \\ y(x, 0) &= 45 \sin(x) = \sin(5x), & \text{and } y_t(x, 0) &= 0, \\ \text{and } y(x) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Solution:

First, we will let $k^2 = 0$ so, $a = 0$ and $b = 0$.

The general solution, therefore,

$$y(x, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j \cos \frac{j\pi t}{5} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{A_j}{5} \right) \sin \frac{j\pi x}{5}.$$

Since $y(x, 0) = 0$, it must be that all $B_j = 0$. We just have to find A_j . We also use the $y_t(x, 0) = 0$ or already in the form of B_j and a derivative. The above equation was already the corresponding Fourier coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= B_1 = 0, \\ A_1 &= B_1 = 0, \\ A_5 &= B_5 = 0, \\ c_j &= B_j = 0 \text{ for all other } j \text{ (i.e. } j \neq 1, 5, 25, \dots). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the particular solution

$$y(x, t) = 45 \sin(5x) \cos(\pi t) = 45 \sin(5x) \cos(\pi t) = 45 \sin(5x) \cos(\pi t) \text{ or } y(x, t) = 45 \sin(5x) \cos(\pi t).$$

Example:

Solve the mixed boundary value problem

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= 0, & 0 < x < l, \quad t > 0, \\ u(0, t) &= 0, \quad \text{and} & \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(l, t) &= 0, \\ u(x, 0) &= 0, \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(0, t) &= k. \end{aligned}$$

Solution:

As in the previous example, $A = 0$, $\alpha = \beta$, and $\gamma = 0$.

The above problem is solved using

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{l} + B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} e^{-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa t}{l^2}}$$

Here $\phi(x) = 0$, corresponding to $A_n = 0$. We can also find B_n that satisfies boundary conditions. Using a superposition of Fourier series we expand the speed as follows (where $\phi = 0$, $\phi(x) = 0$ and $\phi(x, 0) = 0$):

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^l \phi(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^l 0 \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} dx \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{2k}{n^2 \pi^2} & n = \text{odd} \\ 0 & n = \text{even} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2k}{n^2 \pi^2} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} e^{-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa t}{l^2}} + \frac{2kx}{\pi} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} e^{-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa t}{l^2}}$$

8.2.1 Summary of Wave Equation: Vibrating String Problems

An elastic string of length l is vibrating along the y -axis. Assume a fixed support at $x = 0$, of length h and with a damping γ , governed by the homogeneous one-dimensional wave equation of the vibrating string

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= 0, & 0 < x < l, \quad t > 0, \\ u(0, t) &= 0, \quad \text{and} & \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}(l, t) &= 0, \\ u(x, 0) &= \phi(x), \quad \text{and} & \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(0, t) &= q(t). \end{aligned}$$

The general solution is

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{l} + B_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} e^{-\frac{n^2 \pi^2 \kappa t}{l^2}}$$

The particular solution is found as follows

$$\begin{aligned} B_n &= \frac{2}{l} \int_0^l \phi(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} dx, \quad \text{and} \\ q &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^l q(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{l} dx \end{aligned}$$

The solution $u(x, t)$ has a constant, proportional to the speed of vibration of the string. The vibrating string has the boundary given by $\phi(x) = 0$, and the initial condition is given by $q(x)$.

Exercise:

1. Solve the vibrating string problem if it is given that $u(x, 0) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} &= 0, \quad 0 < x < l, \quad t > 0, \\ u(0, t) &= 0, \quad u(l, t) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

- (a) $y(x, t) = 16 \sin(2\pi t) + 16 \cos(\pi x) + 2 \sin(3\pi t) + \dots$, $y(x, 0) = 0$
 (b) $y(x, 0) = 0$, $y(x, \pi) = 0$
 (c) $y(x, 0) = 0$, $y(x, \pi) = 16 \sin(2\pi) + 16 \sin(3\pi) + 2 \sin(4\pi)$
2. Solve the initial value problem
- $$\begin{aligned} 100 y_{xx} &= y, \quad 0 < x < \pi, \quad t > 0 \\ y(0, t) &= 0, \quad y(\pi, t) = 0 \\ y(x, 0) &= 17x \cos(x) + 2 \sin(2x) + 3 \sin(3x) \\ y_t(x, 0) &= 32 \sin(2x) + 32 \sin(3x) \end{aligned}$$
3. Solve the following problem
- $$\begin{aligned} 4 y_{xx} &= y, \quad 0 < x < \pi, \quad t > 0 \\ y(0, t) &= 0 \text{ and } y(\pi, t) = 1 \\ y(x, 0) &= 1 - x^2 \\ y_t(x, 0) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$
4. Verify that the D'Alembert solution, $y(x, t) = (f(x + at) + f(x - at))/2$, where $f(x) = 0$, is the solution to the initial value problem $y(0, t) = 0$ and $y(x, 0) = f(x)$ on the interval $0 < x < \pi$ and $t > 0$. Was it necessary to check the boundary conditions and the conditions at $x = 0$ and $x = \pi$?
- $$\begin{aligned} y_{xx} &= y, \quad 0 < x < \pi, \quad t > 0 \\ y(0, t) &= 0, \quad y(\pi, t) = 0 \\ y(x, 0) &= f(x), \quad y_t(x, 0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$
5. A string of length π is fixed at both ends and is initially at rest. A string is displaced from its equilibrium position by a function $f(x)$ and is then released. Both ends are fixed and the string is released such that the displacement is zero at $x = 0$ and $x = \pi$. The two ends of the string are released at the same time (i.e. $t = 0$ and $t = \pi$)
- $$\begin{aligned} y_{xx} &= y, \quad 0 < x < \pi, \quad t > 0 \\ y(0, t) &= 0, \quad y(\pi, t) = 0 \\ y(x, 0) &= f(x), \quad y_t(x, 0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$
6. Verify that the steady state displacement $u(x)$ is a solution to the value problem $y_{xx} = -y$ for $0 < x < \pi$

Answers

1. (a) $y(x, t) = 16 \cos(2\pi t) + 16 \sin(\pi x) + 2 \cos(3\pi t) + \dots$, show
 (b) $y(x, 0) = 16 \cos(0) + 16 \sin(\pi) + 2 \cos(3\pi) + \dots = 0$, show
 (c) $y(x, \pi) = 16 \cos(2\pi) + 16 \sin(\pi) + 2 \cos(3\pi) + \dots = 0$, show
5. (a) The general solution is $y(x, t) = 0 + 0 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} + B_n \cos \frac{n\pi t}{L} \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \right)_{t=0} = 0$

The particular solution is found by the formula

$$A_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L f(x) dx, \quad B_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx, \quad B_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L f(x) dx, \text{ and } B_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx$$

6. The steady state displacement $u(x)$ is a solution of $y_{xx} = -y$ for $0 < x < \pi$ and $y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 0$. The boundary conditions are $y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 0$. The initial conditions are $y(x, 0) = f(x)$ and $y_t(x, 0) = 0$. The boundary conditions are $y(0) = 0$ and $y(\pi) = 0$. The initial conditions are $y(x, 0) = f(x)$ and $y_t(x, 0) = 0$.

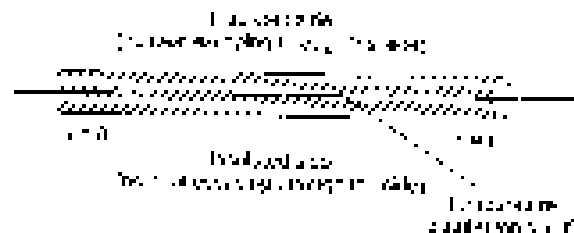
8.3 The One-Dimensional Heat Conduction Equation

Consider a thin rod of length L of uniform cross-section and uniform thermal conductivity k . Suppose that the end of the rod specified by $x = 0$ is insulated, i.e. no heat flows through it. Heat is added possibly at

most likely to occur in the north-south direction of the beam. But the average particle speed $\bar{v} = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$ is constant, so, on average, the speed of motion is along positive x -direction, i.e., along the direction of the magnetic field. So, the direction of the induced current is in the direction of the magnetic field.

$$\vec{B} \cdot \vec{v}_d = B v_d$$

Therefore, the conductivity is the product of the drift velocity v_d and the number of electrons per unit volume n . It is given that, $n = 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and $v_d = 10^6 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$. The resistivity of the bar is



For convenience, the two halves of the bar are of equal length of $l = L/2$ (see Fig. 8.3.1). Then we have

$$\text{area of each half bar} = \frac{A}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{length of each half bar} = \frac{L}{2}$$

$$\text{resistance of each half bar} = \frac{\rho L}{A} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{resistance of the bar} = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

$$\text{the current} = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{V A}{\rho L}$$

8.3.1 Conduction Problem

The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction.

$$B = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

So, the magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction.

$$B = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

We know that the magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction.

$$B = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

Therefore, the magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction. The magnetic field B is in the x -direction.

$$B = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES

Example

Solve the conduction problem.

$$\vec{B} = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

$$\vec{B} = B_0 \hat{x} = B_0 \left(\frac{L}{2} \hat{x} + \frac{L}{2} \hat{x} \right)$$

$$v_{xx}(x, y) = 2i (y+1) \sinh(2ix) = 4i y (y+1).$$

Solution:

Since the characteristic of the homogeneous equation is $\lambda^2 + 1 = 0$, the characteristic roots $\lambda^2 = -1$, therefore the general solution is

$$\begin{aligned} v(x, y) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n e^{-i(n+1/2)x} y^2 \frac{\partial^n}{\partial y^n} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n e^{-i(n+1/2)x} 2i y^{1-n} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial y^n} \end{aligned}$$

So, $v(x, y)$ is a function of y exclusively, and odd order derivatives of y are zero, so calculating some $v(x, y)$ at $y = 2i = 0$

The corresponding initial condition $v(x, 0) = 0$ and $v_y(x, 0) = 1$ can be used to determine the coefficients c_n as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= c_1 = 0 \\ c_2 &= c_3 = -1 \\ c_4 &= c_5 = 1 \\ c_n &= c_{n+1} = 0 \text{ for other } n = 5, 10, \text{ or } 15, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$v(x, y) = 2e^{-3ix/2} (1-y)^2 \sinh(3ix/2) - 2e^{-5ix/2} (1-y)^2 \sinh(5ix/2) + \dots$$

Example

Write the boundary value problem for the Laplace's equation in the unit disk $D = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$ and solve it.

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u &= 0, \quad (x, y) \in D, \quad u(x, y) = 0 \\ u(1, y) &= 0 \text{ and } u(x, 1) = 0 \\ u(0, 0) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Solution

The general solution is

$$u(x, y) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n e^{-i(n+1/2)x} y^{n+1/2}$$

The boundary condition is that both the real and imaginary parts are zero. The above boundary value problem is solved by the method of separation of variables. The boundary value is $c_n = 0$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} f(\theta) \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} dy = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} y \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} dy \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{y^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} dy \right] \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{y^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1 - \cos \theta y}{2} dy \right] \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{y^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} \left(y - \frac{1}{\theta} \sin \theta y \right) \right] = \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{y^2} \sin^2 \frac{\theta y}{2} + \frac{1}{\pi} y \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= -\frac{10}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos(n\pi/4)}{n} = -\frac{10}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right)$$

The resulting series for ψ_0 can be found by taking $\psi_0 = \psi - \psi_1$ for $x \leq 1$, $\psi_0 = \psi - \psi_2$ for $x > 1$:

$$\psi_0 = -\frac{5}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n} \right) \sin n\pi x$$

The infinite series of constants ψ_0 can be expressed in a closed form $f(x)$ by either using a log series

expansion or, if the reader prefers, $\psi_0 = \psi_1 - \frac{1}{2}\psi_1 = \frac{10}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \right)$ = etc. and the expression for ψ_0 is

$$\psi_0 = \psi - \frac{10}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n} \right) \sin n\pi x = \frac{5}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{2}{1 - \sin \pi x} \right)$$

The Steady-State Solution

The steady-state solution, ψ_0 , is a function of position x only, is a plot of the temperature of the upper surface that is independent of time. It represents the solution of the Laplace equation, to find the ψ_0 we must find that ψ_0 is a function of x = constant, which satisfies the Poisson equation. If we let $\psi_0 = \psi_0(x)$ and $\psi_0 = 0$, substituting them into the heat conduction equation, we get

$$\frac{d^2 \psi_0}{dx^2} = 0$$

The differential equation is a second-order differential equation with differential coefficient ψ_0 of a degree less than two:

$$\psi_0(x) = Ax + B$$

The boundary conditions are $\psi_0(0) = \psi_0(1) = 0$ and $\psi_0(0) = \psi_0(1) = T_2$. Applying these conditions, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_0(0) = 0 = A(0) + B = B & \quad \Rightarrow \quad B = 0 \\ \psi_0(1) = 0 = A + B = A & \quad \Rightarrow \quad A = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi_0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\psi_0(x) = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{1} x = T_2$$

Further we can easily satisfy these values of that equation's solution.

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES

Example 1

Find $\psi_0(x, y)$ with each of the following boundary conditions:

1. $\psi_0(0, y) = 30$, $\psi_0(2, y) = 0$
2. $\psi_0(x, 0) = 40$, $\psi_0(x, 2) = 0$, $\psi_0(0, y) = 20$

Solution:

1. We are looking for a function of the form $\psi_0(x, y) = 0$ that satisfies the given boundary conditions. Let the boundary conditions be $\psi_0(0, y) = 30$ and $\psi_0(2, y) = 0$. For ψ_0

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_0(x, 0) = 30 = A(0) + B & \quad \Rightarrow \quad B = 30 \\ \psi_0(2, y) = 0 = A & \quad \Rightarrow \quad A = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The value $\psi_0(x, y) = 30$ is 30.

2. The two boundary conditions are $\psi_0(x, 0) = 40$, $\psi_0(x, 2) = 0$ and $\psi_0(0, y) = 20$, $\psi_0(2, y) = 0$. For ψ_0

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi'(0) &= \varphi_0 = 0 & \Rightarrow \quad \lambda = 0 \\ \text{Q: Let } m &= 25 \text{ m, } \ell = 15 \text{ m, } \text{ and } \varphi_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \varphi(0) = 0 \\ &= & \lambda = 0 \\ \text{Hence, } \varphi(x) &= 0 \quad \forall x. \end{aligned}$$

9.4 Laplace Equation for a Rectangular Region

Consider a rectangular region Ω defined in the plane by the boundary $\partial\Omega$ as depicted below, with boundary conditions φ and its source of heat being φ_0 and φ_1 respectively. The potential function at any point (x, y) within this rectangular region Ω is then described by the Laplace equation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Laplace equation: } & \varphi_x + \varphi_y = 0 & \text{for } x \in \Omega, \text{ for } y \in \Omega \\ \text{boundary conditions: } & \varphi(x, 0) = \varphi_0 \text{ and } \varphi(x, b) = \varphi_1 \\ & \varphi(0, y) = \varphi_2 \text{ and } \varphi(a, y) = \varphi_3 \end{aligned}$$

The separation of variables method finds φ as the sum of solutions φ_1 and φ_2 in the place of (9.3). Let $\varphi = X(x)Y(y)$ and substitution of $\varphi = X(x)Y(y)$ into the Laplace equation gives

$$\begin{aligned} X''Y + XY'' &= 0 \\ X''Y &= -XY'' \end{aligned}$$

Dividing both sides by XY

$$\frac{X''}{X} = -\frac{Y''}{Y}$$

Now, the two dependent variables are separated, the two sides, each is a constant. To separate the variables, taking the two sides to be equal to λ and $-\lambda$ respectively, the equation is now written as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{X''}{X} &= -\frac{Y''}{Y} = \lambda \\ \frac{X''}{X} &= \lambda & \Rightarrow \quad X'' - \lambda X &= 0 & \Rightarrow \quad X'' - \lambda X = 0 \\ -\frac{Y''}{Y} &= \lambda & \Rightarrow \quad Y'' - \lambda Y &= 0 & \Rightarrow \quad Y'' - \lambda Y = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The boundary conditions also separate

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(x, 0) &= \varphi_0 & \Rightarrow \quad X(x)Y(0) &= \varphi_0 \Rightarrow \varphi_0 = 0 & \text{ or } & Y(0) = 0 \\ \varphi(x, b) &= \varphi_1 & \Rightarrow \quad X(x)Y(b) &= \varphi_1 & \Rightarrow \quad X(b) = 0 & \text{ or } & Y(b) = 0 \\ \varphi(0, y) &= \varphi_2 & \Rightarrow \quad X(0)Y(y) &= \varphi_2 & \Rightarrow \quad X(0) = 0 & \text{ or } & Y(y) = 0 \\ \varphi(a, y) &= \varphi_3 & \Rightarrow \quad X(a)Y(y) &= \varphi_3 & \Rightarrow & \text{one of the variables is } 0, \\ X'' - \lambda X &= 0 & \Rightarrow \quad X(0) &= 0 \\ Y'' - \lambda Y &= 0 & \Rightarrow \quad Y(b) &= 0 \text{ and } Y(0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

For the first boundary condition $X(0)Y(y) = \varphi_2$

The first step is to solve the eigenvalue problem. Since the method is searching for a difference between the two sides, first it is to solve equation $X'' = \lambda X$ and then to solve equation $Y'' = -\lambda Y$ and then to solve the boundary conditions

$$X'(0) = 0, \quad X'(b) = 0, \quad X(0) = 0, \quad X(b) = 0$$

However, equation $X'' = \lambda X$ can be a good problem only if λ is not zero and λ is not negative. We have already seen this problem before (see the case $\lambda = 0$ and $\lambda < 0$), so let us consider the case $\lambda > 0$. The eigenvalues of this problem are

$$\lambda = \alpha^2 = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{b^2}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The corresponding eigenfunctions

$$X_n = \cos\frac{n\pi x}{b}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

On the left side, we have two operators, so let's multiply the equation by x to have the equation together in a single bracket like this:

$$x^2 \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} \right) = 1 - 2x^2 \quad (x^2 \neq 0)$$

which means we get rid of $x^2 = \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x^2}$ and the root $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2}$.

Then, the general solution for the equation is given by

$$y = C_1 x^{-\frac{1}{2}} + C_2 x^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

For initial boundary you will get, given

$$y(0) = 1 = C_1 \quad \text{and} \quad y'(0) = 0 \Rightarrow C_2 = 0$$

Therefore, for $x = 1, 2, 3$

$$y = C_1 \left(x^{-\frac{1}{2}} + 2x^{\frac{3}{2}} \right)$$

because of this, y is the particular solution

$$\text{and } y = \frac{5^3 - 5^{-3}}{2}$$

the other two expressions for coefficient C_1 and C_2 by substituting

$$C_1 = C_2 \text{ and } \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)^{\frac{3n}{2}} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

is given with arbitrary function $C_1 = C_2 = C_3$

So, let's find the solution of the wave equation using the set of solutions that satisfies the boundary conditions $x = 0$ and $x = \pi$, given the simplified boundary conditions

$$y(x, 0) = 0 \text{ and } y(x, \pi) = 0, \text{ then } \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = 0 \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$y(x, y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right) \cos \left(\frac{n\pi y}{b} \right)$$

In addition, if $y = 0$ is specified then the boundary conditions are

$$y(x, 0) = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}(x, 0) = 0, \\ y(x, y) = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}(x, y) = 0$$

To find the particular solution we will use $y = 0$ in the boundary condition, namely $y(x, 0) = 0$,

$$y(x, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right) \cos \left(\frac{n\pi y}{b} \right) = 0$$

So, if we use this condition, then we can find y as we have the summation above as the boundary $y = 0$ and $y = \pi$ will be $C_1 = C_2$ and $C_3 = 0$. Therefore, we have found it, it says that the first boundary condition $y(x, 0) = 0$ is satisfied and second boundary condition $y(x, \pi) = 0$ is not satisfied. To be separated into two cases where $y(x, 0) = 0$ and $y(x, \pi) = 0$, the coefficient C_1 of the particular solution will be found by using

$$C_1 \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right) = \frac{1}{2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right)$$

Therefore,

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right)} = \frac{1}{2 \sin \left(\frac{n\pi x}{a} \right)}$$

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Previous JEE and IIT Questions

Q.1 The solution of the given differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{is the line}$$

- (a) $y = \tan^{-1}(x)$ (b) $y = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$
 (c) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x)$ (d) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$
 (e) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x)$ (f) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$
 (g) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x)$ (h) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$
 (i) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x)$ (j) $xy = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$
 [IIT, 2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.2 The general solution of the equation

$$\frac{y^2 dy}{dx^2} + \frac{y^2}{dy^2} = \frac{y^2}{dx^2} + \frac{y^2}{dy^2} = \frac{dy^2}{dx^2} = 0$$

- (a) $y = x$ (b) $y = x^2$
 (c) $y = x^3$ (d) $y = x^4$
 (e) $y = x^5$ (f) $y = x^6$
 (g) $y = x^7$ (h) $y = x^8$
 (i) $y = x^9$ (j) $y = x^{10}$
 [IIT, 2018 : 1 Mark]

Q.3 Consider the following differential equation
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x}$ with the constant $x = 1$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} = 0$$

- (a) $y = x$ (b) $y = x^2$ (c) $y = x^3$ (d) $y = x^4$
 (e) $y = x^5$ (f) $y = x^6$ (g) $y = x^7$ (h) $y = x^8$
 (i) $y = x^9$ (j) $y = x^{10}$
 [IIT, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.4 Consider a function $f(x, y, z)$ given by

$$f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2xyz + 1$$

The partial derivative of the function with respect to x at the point $(1, 1, 1)$ is

[IIT, IIT-JEE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.5 Consider the following differential equation

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0$$

So, the solution to be a circle is expressed in the form of $y = \sin(x)$ is

[IIT, GATE-2017 : 1 Mark]

Q.6 The solution of the following system of linear

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x + y, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = x - y$$

- (a) $x = e^t, y = e^t$ (b) $x = e^t, y = e^{-t}$
 (c) $x = e^t, y = e^{-t}$ (d) $x = e^t, y = e^t$

[IIT, IIT-JEE-2017]

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Answers: Second Order Linear Partial Differential Equations

1. (c) 2. (d) 3. (d) 4. (c)

Explanations: Second Order Linear Partial Differential Equations

1. (d)

$$\text{Tr.M.D. } \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial t^2} = x \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} \quad (1)$$

Solution: (d)

$$z(x, t) = f_1(x) + f_2(x) + f_3(x) + f_4(x)$$

$$\text{Put } x = 1, t = 0$$

$$= 0 = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \quad (2)$$

From equation (1) and (2)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } y = \int_0^1 A(x) \frac{1}{x} dx + \int_0^1 B(x) \frac{1}{x} dx + \int_0^1 C(x) \frac{1}{x} dx \\ = C_1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx + C_2 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx + C_3 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx \\ = C_1 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 + C_2 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 + C_3 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 \end{aligned}$$

$$= C_1 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 + C_2 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 + C_3 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1$$

$$= C_1 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1 + C_2 \left[\ln x \right]_0^1$$

2. (d)

Comparing eq. (1) with standard form, the general form of second order partial differential equation is $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 + dx + ey + f = 0$ where $a = 1, b = 2, c = 1, d = 0, e = 0, f = 0$.
 \therefore It is elliptic equation.

3. (E)

$$u = 10x + 2y^2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 10, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 4$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 10, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 4$$

$$= 10, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = 10, \quad \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 4$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 14$$

4. Sol.

$$x_1 + x_2 = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200, \quad y^2 = 10^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{(2x + 2y^2) - (2x - 2y^2)}{(2x + 2y^2) + (2x - 2y^2)} \\ &= \frac{4y^2}{4x} = \frac{y^2}{x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y^2}{x} \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{y^2} = \frac{dx}{x} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} = \ln x + C$$

5. Sol.

Given that the partial differential equation is separable

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200, \quad y^2 = 10^2$$

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200, \quad y^2 = 10^2$$

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$y^2 = 10^2$$

6. (d)

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$y = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$y = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$x = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$

$$y = 10^2 + 10^2 = 200$$
