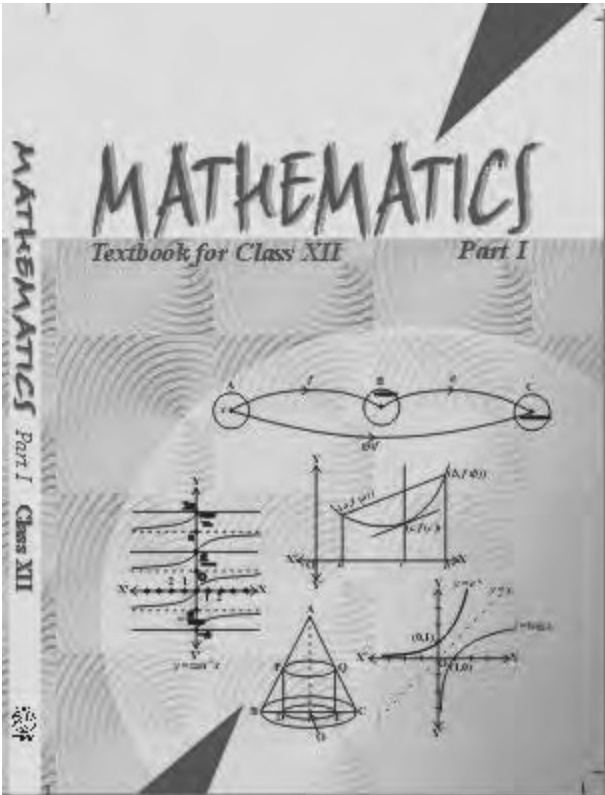


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Contents

PART I

Foreword

v

Preface

vii

1.

Relations and Functions

1

1.1

Introduction

1

1.2

Types of Relations

2

1.3

Types of Functions

7

1.4

Composition of Functions and Invertible Function

12

1.5

Binary Operations

19

2.

Inverse Trigonometric Functions

3 3

2.1

Introduction

33

2.2

Basic Concepts

33

2.3

Properties of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

42

3.

Matrices

56

3.1

Introduction

56

3.2

Matrix

56

3.3

Types of Matrices

61

3.4

Operations on Matrices

65

3.5

Transpose of a Matrix

83

3.6

Symmetric and Skew Symmetric Matrices

85

3.7

Elementary Operation (Transformation) of a Matrix

90

3.8

Invertible Matrices

91

4.

Determinants

103

4.1

Introduction

103

4.2

Determinant

103

4.3

Properties of Determinants

109

4.4

Area of a Triangle

121

4.5

Minors and Cofactors

123

4.6

Adjoint and Inverse of a Matrix

126

4.7

Applications of Determinants and Matrices

133

xiv

5.

Continuity and Differentiability

147

5.1

Introduction

147

5.2

Continuity

147

5.3

Differentiability

161

5.4

Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

170

5.5

Logarithmic Differentiation

174

5.6

Derivatives of Functions in Parametric Forms

179

5.7

Second Order Derivative

181

5.8

Mean Value Theorem

184

6.

Application of Derivatives

194

6.1

Introduction

194

6.2

Rate of Change of Quantities

194

6.3

Increasing and Decreasing Functions

199

6.4

Tangents and Normals

206

6.5

Approximations

213

6.6

Maxima and Minima

216

Appendix 1: Proofs in Mathematics

247

A.1.1 Introduction

247

A.1.2 What is a Proof?

247

Appendix 2: Mathematical Modelling

256

A.2.1 Introduction

256

A.2.2 Why Mathematical Modelling?

256

A.2.3 Principles of Mathematical Modelling

257

Answers

268



Chapter 1

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

There is no permanent place in the world for ugly mathematics It may be very hard to define mathematical beauty but that is just as true of beauty of any kind, we may not know quite what we mean by a beautiful poem, but that does not prevent us from recognising one when we read it. — G. H. HARDY

1.1 Introduction

Recall that the notion of relations and functions, domain, co-domain and range have been introduced in Class XI along with different types of specific real valued functions and their graphs. The concept of the term ‘relation’ in mathematics has been drawn from the meaning of relation in English language, according to which two objects or quantities are related if there is a recognisable connection or link between the two objects or quantities. Let A be the set of students of Class XII of a school and B be the set of students of Class XI of the same school. Then some of the examples of relations from A to B are

(i) $\{(a, b)$

$A \times B$: a is brother of $b\}$,

Lejeune Dirichlet

✂

(ii) $\{(a, b)$

$A \times B$: a is sister of $b\}$,

(1805-1859)

✂

(iii) $\{(a, b)$

$A \times B$: age of a is greater than age of $b\}$,

✂

(iv) $\{(a, b)$

$A \times B$: total marks obtained by a in the final examination is less than

✂

the total marks obtained by b in the final examination},

(v) $\{(a, b) A \times B$: a lives in the same locality as $b\}$. However, abstracting from

✂

this, we define mathematically a relation R from A to B as an arbitrary subset

of $A \times B$.

If $(a, b) \in R$, we say that a is related to b under the relation R and we write as



$a R b$. In general, $(a, b) \in R$, we do not bother whether there is a recognisable



connection or link between a and b . As seen in Class XI, functions are special kind of relations.

In this chapter, we will study different types of relations and functions, composition

of functions, invertible functions and binary operations.

2

MATHEMATICS

1.2 Types of Relations

In this section, we would like to study different types of relations. We know that a

relation in a set A is a subset of $A \times A$. Thus, the empty set and $A \times A$ are two



extreme relations. For illustration, consider a relation R in the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ given by

$R = \{(a, b) : a - b = 10\}$. This is the empty set, as no pair (a, b) satisfies the condition $a - b = 10$. Similarly, $R = \{(a, b) : |a - b| = 0\}$ is the whole set $A \times A$, as all pairs



(a, b) in $A \times A$ satisfy $|a - b| = 0$. These two extreme examples lead us to the



following definitions.

Definition 1 A relation R in a set A is called *empty relation*, if no element of A is

related to any element of A , i.e., $R =$

$A \times A$.



Definition 2 A relation R in a set A is called *universal relation*, if each element of A is related to every element of A , i.e., $R = A \times A$.

Both the empty relation and the universal relation are some times called *trivial*

relations.

Example 1 Let A be the set of all students of a boys school. Show that the relation R

in A given by $R = \{(a, b) : a \text{ is sister of } b\}$ is the empty relation and $R = \{(a, b) : \text{the}$



difference between heights of a and b is less than 3 meters} is the universal relation.

Solution Since the school is boys school, no student of the school can be sister of any

student of the school. Hence, $R = \emptyset$, showing that R is the empty relation. It is also



obvious that the difference between heights of any two students of the school has to be

less than 3 meters. This shows that $R = A \times A$ is the universal relation.



Remark In Class XI, we have seen two ways of representing a relation, namely

roaster method and set builder method. However, a relation R in the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

defined by $R = \{(a, b) : b = a + 1\}$ is also expressed as $a R b$ if and only if $b = a + 1$ by many authors. We may also use this notation, as and when convenient.

If $(a, b) \in R$, we say that a is related to b and we denote it as $a R b$.



One of the most important relation, which plays a significant role in Mathematics,

is an *equivalence relation*. To study equivalence relation, we first consider three

types of relations, namely reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Definition 3 A relation R in a set A is called

(i) *reflexive*, if $(a, a) \in R$, for every $a \in A$,



(ii) *symmetric*, if $(a, b) \in R$ implies that $(b, a) \in R$, for all $a, b \in A$.

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2



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1 ✂

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2 ✂

(iii) *transitive*, if $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$ implies that $(a, c) \in R$, for all $a, b, c \in A$.

1

2



2

3 ✂

1

3 ✂

1

2*

a

A.

3 ∞

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

3

Definition 4 A relation R in a set A is said to be an *equivalence relation* if R is

reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Example 2 Let T be the set of all triangles in a plane with R a relation in T given by

$R = \{(T, T) : T \text{ is congruent to } T\}$. Show that R is an equivalence relation.

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2

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Solution R is reflexive, since every triangle is congruent to itself. Further,

$(T, T) \in R$

T is congruent to T

T is congruent to T

$(T, T) \in R$. Hence,

1

2



1

2 †

2

1 †

2

1



R is symmetric. Moreover, $(T, T), (T, T) \in R$

T is congruent to T and T is

1

2

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congruent to T

T is congruent to T

$(T, T) \in R$. Therefore, R is an equivalence

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relation.

Example 3 Let L be the set of all lines in a plane and R be the relation in L defined as

$R = \{(L, L) : L \text{ is perpendicular to } L\}$. Show that R is symmetric but neither

1

2

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2

reflexive nor transitive.

Solution R is not reflexive, as a line L can not be perpendicular to itself, i.e., $(L, L) \notin R$

1

1

1

R. R is symmetric as $(L, L) \notin R$



1

2



L is perpendicular to L



1

2

L is perpendicular to L



2

1

(L, L) R.



2

1



R is not transitive. Indeed, if L is perpendicular to L and

1

2

Fig 1.1

L is perpendicular to L, then L can never be perpendicular to

2

3

1

L. In fact, L is parallel to L, i.e., (L, L) R, (L, L) R but (L, L) R.

3

1

3

1

2



2

3



1

3



Example 4 Show that the relation R in the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ given by $R = \{(1, 1), (2, 2),$

$(3, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3)\}$ is reflexive but neither symmetric nor transitive.

Solution R is reflexive, since $(1, 1), (2, 2)$ and $(3, 3)$ lie in R . Also, R is not symmetric,

as $(1, 2) \in R$ but $(2, 1) \notin R$. Similarly, R is not transitive, as $(1, 2) \in R$ and $(2, 3) \in R$



but $(1, 3) \notin R$.



Example 5 Show that the relation R in the set \mathbf{Z} of integers given by

$$R = \{(a, b) : 2 \text{ divides } a - b\}$$

is an equivalence relation.

Solution R is reflexive, as 2 divides $(a - a)$ for all a

$\in \mathbf{Z}$. Further, if $(a, b) \in R$, then



2 divides $a - b$. Therefore, 2 divides $b - a$. Hence, $(b, a) \in R$, which shows that R is



symmetric. Similarly, if $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$, then $a - b$ and $b - c$ are divisible by

\times

\times

2. Now, $a - c = (a - b) + (b - c)$ is even (Why?). So, $(a - c)$ is divisible by 2. This shows that R is transitive. Thus, R is an equivalence relation in \mathbf{Z} .

4

MATHEMATICS

In Example 5, note that all even integers are related to zero, as $(0, \pm 2), (0, \pm 4)$

etc., lie in R and no odd integer is related to 0, as $(0, \pm 1), (0, \pm 3)$ etc., do not lie in R .

Similarly, all odd integers are related to one and no even integer is related to one.

Therefore, the set E of all even integers and the set O of all odd integers are subsets of

\mathbf{Z} satisfying following conditions:

(i) All elements of E are related to each other and all elements of O are related to

each other.

(ii) No element of E is related to any element of O and vice-versa.

(iii) E and O are disjoint and $\mathbf{Z} = E \cup O$

O.

⊠

The subset E is called the *equivalence class containing zero* and is denoted by

[0]. Similarly, O is the equivalence class containing 1 and is denoted by [1]. Note that

[0] [1], [0] = [2 r] and [1] = [2 r + 1], $r \in \mathbf{Z}$. Infact, what we have seen above is true

⊠

⊠

for an arbitrary equivalence relation R in a set X. Given an arbitrary equivalence

relation R in an arbitrary set X, R divides X into mutually disjoint subsets A called

A_i

partitions or subdivisions of X satisfying:

(i) all elements of A_i are related to each other, for all i .

A_i

(ii) no element of A_i is related to any element of A_j , $i \neq j$.

A_i

j



(iii)

$A = X$ and $A A = , i j.$



j

i

j



The subsets A are called *equivalence classes*. The interesting part of the situation

i

is that we can go reverse also. For example, consider a subdivision of the set \mathbf{Z} given

by three mutually disjoint subsets A_1, A_2 and A_3 whose union is \mathbf{Z} with

1

2

3

$A_1 = \{ x \in \mathbf{Z} : x \text{ is a multiple of } 3 \} = \{ \dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \}$

1



$$A = \{ x \in \mathbf{Z} : x - 1 \text{ is a multiple of } 3 \} = \{ \dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \}$$

2



$$A = \{ x \in \mathbf{Z} : x - 2 \text{ is a multiple of } 3 \} = \{ \dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \}$$

3



Define a relation R in \mathbf{Z} given by $R = \{ (a, b) : 3 \text{ divides } a - b \}$. Following the arguments similar to those used in Example 5, we can show that R is an equivalence

relation. Also, A coincides with the set of all integers in \mathbf{Z} which are related to zero, A

1

2

coincides with the set of all integers which are related to 1 and A coincides with the

3

set of all integers in \mathbf{Z} which are related to 2. Thus, $A = [0]$, $A = [1]$ and $A = [2]$.

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In fact, $A = [3r]$, $A = [3r + 1]$ and $A = [3r + 2]$, for all $r \in \mathbf{Z}$.

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Example 6 Let R be the relation defined in the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ by

$R = \{(a, b) : \text{both } a \text{ and } b \text{ are either odd or even}\}$. Show that R is an equivalence relation. Further, show that all the elements of the subset $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ are related to each

other and all the elements of the subset $\{2, 4, 6\}$ are related to each other, but no

element of the subset $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ is related to any element of the subset $\{2, 4, 6\}$.

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

5

Solution Given any element a in A , both a and a must be either odd or even, so that $(a, a) \in R$. Further, $(a, b) \in R$

both a and b must be either odd or even



$(b, a) \in R$. Similarly, $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$

all elements a, b, c , must be



either even or odd simultaneously

$(a, c) \in R$. Hence, R is an equivalence relation.



Further, all the elements of $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ are related to each other, as all the elements

of this subset are odd. Similarly, all the elements of the subset $\{2, 4, 6\}$ are related to

each other, as all of them are even. Also, no element of the subset $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ can be

related to any element of $\{2, 4, 6\}$, as elements of $\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ are odd, while elements

of $\{2, 4, 6\}$ are even.

EXERCISE 1.1

1. Determine whether each of the following relations are reflexive, symmetric and

transitive:

(i) Relation R in the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 13, 14\}$ defined as

$$R = \{(x, y) : 3x - y = 0\}$$

(ii) Relation R in the set \mathbf{N} of natural numbers defined as

$$R = \{(x, y) : y = x + 5 \text{ and } x < 4\}$$

(iii) Relation R in the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ as

$$R = \{(x, y) : y \text{ is divisible by } x\}$$

(iv) Relation R in the set \mathbf{Z} of all integers defined as

$$R = \{(x, y) : x - y \text{ is an integer}\}$$

(v) Relation R in the set A of human beings in a town at a particular time given by

(a) $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ and } y \text{ work at the same place}\}$

(b) $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ and } y \text{ live in the same locality}\}$

(c) $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ is exactly } 7 \text{ cm taller than } y\}$

(d) $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ is wife of } y\}$

(e) $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ is father of } y\}$

2. Show that the relation R in the set \mathbf{R} of real numbers, defined as

$R = \{(a, b) : a \leq b\}$ is neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.



3. Check whether the relation R defined in the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ as

$R = \{(a, b) : b = a + 1\}$ is reflexive, symmetric or transitive.

4. Show that the relation R in \mathbf{R} defined as $R = \{(a, b) : a \leq b\}$, is reflexive and



transitive but not symmetric.

5. Check whether the relation R in \mathbf{R} defined by $R = \{(a, b) : a \leq b\}$ is reflexive,



symmetric or transitive.

6

MATHEMATICS

6. Show that the relation R in the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ given by $R = \{(1, 2), (2, 1)\}$ is

symmetric but neither reflexive nor transitive.

7. Show that the relation R in the set A of all the books in a library of a college,

given by $R = \{(x, y) : x \text{ and } y \text{ have same number of pages}\}$ is an equivalence relation.

8. Show that the relation R in the set $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ given by

$R = \{(a, b) : |a - b| \text{ is even}\}$, is an equivalence relation. Show that all the elements of $\{1, 3, 5\}$ are related to each other and all the elements of $\{2, 4\}$ are

related to each other. But no element of $\{1, 3, 5\}$ is related to any element of $\{2, 4\}$.

9. Show that each of the relation R in the set $A = \{x \in \mathbf{Z} : 0 \leq x < 12\}$, given by

\sphericalangle

\curvearrowright

\curvearrowleft

(i) $R = \{(a, b) : |a - b| \text{ is a multiple of } 4\}$

(ii) $R = \{(a, b) : a = b\}$

is an equivalence relation. Find the set of all elements related to 1 in each case.

10. Give an example of a relation. Which is

(i) Symmetric but neither reflexive nor transitive.

(ii) Transitive but neither reflexive nor symmetric.

(iii) Reflexive and symmetric but not transitive.

(iv) Reflexive and transitive but not symmetric.

(v) Symmetric and transitive but not reflexive.

11. Show that the relation R in the set A of points in a plane given by

$R = \{(P, Q) : \text{distance of the point P from the origin is same as the distance of the}$

$\text{point Q from the origin}\}$, is an equivalence relation. Further, show that the set of

all points related to a point P (0, 0) is the circle passing through P with origin as



centre.

12. Show that the relation R defined in the set A of all triangles as $R = \{(T_1, T_2) : T_1$

is

similar to $T_2\}$,

is

equivalence relation. Consider three right angle triangles T_1

with

sides

3, 4, 5, T_2 with sides 5, 12, 13 and T_3 with sides 6, 8, 10. Which

of

the

triangles among T_1, T_2 and T_3 are related?

1

2

3

13. Show that the relation R defined in the set A of all polygons as $R = \{(P, P) :$

1

2

$P \text{ and } P \text{ have same number of sides}\},$ is an equivalence relation. What is the

1

2

set of all elements in A related to the right angle triangle T with sides 3, 4 and 5?

14. Let L be the set of all lines in XY plane and R be the relation in L defined as

$R = \{(L, L) : L \text{ is parallel to } L\}.$ Show that R is an equivalence relation. Find

1

2

1

2

the set of all lines related to the line $y = 2x + 4.$

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

15. Let R be the relation in the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ given by $R = \{(1, 2), (2, 2), (1, 1), (4,4),$

$(1, 3), (3, 3), (3, 2)\}$. Choose the correct answer.

(A) R is reflexive and symmetric but not transitive.

(B) R is reflexive and transitive but not symmetric.

(C) R is symmetric and transitive but not reflexive.

(D) R is an equivalence relation.

16. Let R be the relation in the set \mathbf{N} given by $R = \{(a, b) : a = b - 2, b > 6\}$. Choose the correct answer.

(A) $(2, 4) R$

(B) $(3, 8) R$

(C) $(6, 8) R$

(D) $(8, 7) R$



1.3 Types of Functions

The notion of a function along with some special functions like identity function, constant

function, polynomial function, rational function, modulus function, signum function *etc.*

along with their graphs have been given in Class XI.

Addition, subtraction, multiplication and division of two functions have also been

studied. As the concept of function is of paramount importance in mathematics and

among other disciplines as well, we would like to extend our study about function from

where we finished earlier. In this section, we would like to study different types of

functions.

Consider the functions f, f, f and f given by the following diagrams.

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In Fig 1.2, we observe that the images of distinct elements of X under the function

1

f are distinct, but the image of two distinct elements 1 and 2 of X under f is same, 1

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namely b . Further, there are some elements like e and f in X which are not images of 2

any element of X under f , while all elements of X are images of some elements of X

1

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3

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under f . The above observations lead to the following definitions:

3

Definition 5 A function $f: X$

Y is defined to be *one-one* (or *injective*), if the images



of distinct elements of X under f are distinct, i.e., for every $x, x' \in X, f(x) = f(x')$

implies $x = x'$

1

2

implies $x = x'$. Otherwise, f is called *many-one*.

1

2

The function f and f in Fig 1.2 (i) and (iv) are one-one and the function f and f 1

4

2

3

in Fig 1.2 (ii) and (iii) are many-one.

Definition 6 A function $f: X$

Y is said to be *onto* (or *surjective*), if every element



of Y is the image of some element of X under f , i.e., for every $y \in Y$, there exists an



element x in X such that $f(x) = y$.

The function f and f in Fig 1.2 (iii), (iv) are onto and the function f in Fig 1.2 (i) is 3

4

1

not onto as elements e, f in X are not the image of any element in X under f

.

2

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1

8

MATHEMATICS

Fig 1.2 (i) to (iv)

Remark $f: X$

Y is onto if and only if Range of $f = Y$.



Definition 7 A function $f: X$

Y is said to be *one-one* and *onto* (or *bijective*), if f is



both one-one and onto.

The function f in Fig 1.2 (iv) is one-one and onto.

4

Example 7 Let A be the set of all 50 students of Class X in a school. Let $f: A$

\mathbb{N} be



function defined by $f(x) =$ roll number of the student x . Show that f is one-one but not onto.

Solution No two different students of the class can have same roll number. Therefore,

f must be one-one. We can assume without any loss of generality that roll numbers of

students are from 1 to 50. This implies that 51 in \mathbf{N} is not roll number of any student of

the class, so that 51 can not be image of any element of X under f . Hence, f is not onto.

Example 8 Show that the function $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} , given by $f(x) = 2x$, is one-one but not



onto.

Solution The function f is one-one, for $f(x) = f(x) \implies 2x = 2x$

$x = x$. Further,

1

2



1

2 †

1

2

f is not onto, as for $1 \in \mathbf{N}$, there does not exist any x in \mathbf{N} such that $f(x) = 2x = 1$.



RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

9

Example 9 Prove that the function $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$, given by $f(x) = 2x$, is one-one and onto.



Solution f is one-one, as $f(x) = f(y)$

$$2x = 2y$$

$x = y$. Also, given any real

1

2



1

2 †

1

2

y

y

y

number y in \mathbb{R} , there exists

in \mathbb{R} such that $f(x)$

$= y$.

Hence, f is onto.

2

2

2

Fig 1.3

Example 10 Show that the function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

given by $f(1) = f(2) = 1$ and $f(x) = x - 1$,



for every $x > 2$, is onto but not one-one.

Solution f is not one-one, as $f(1) = f(2) = 1$. But f is onto, as given any $y \in \mathbb{N}$, $y \neq 1$,

✂

☆

we can choose x as $y + 1$ such that $f(y + 1) = y + 1 - 1 = y$. Also for $y = 1 \in \mathbb{N}$, we

✂

have $f(1) = 1$.

Example 11 Show that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} ,



defined as $f(x) = x^2$, is neither one-one nor onto.

Solution Since $f(-1) = 1 = f(1)$, f is not one-one. Also, the element -2 in the co-domain \mathbf{R} is

not image of any element x in the domain \mathbf{R}

(Why?). Therefore f is not onto.

Example 12 Show that $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} , given by



$f(x) = x + 1$, if x is odd,

$f(x) = x - 1$, if x is even



is both one-one and onto.

Fig 1.4

10

MATHEMATICS

Solution Suppose $f(x) = f(x)$. Note that if x is odd and x is even, then we will have 1

2

1

2

$x + 1 = x - 1$, i.e., $x - x = 2$ which is impossible. Similarly, the possibility of x being 1

2

2

1

1

even and x being odd can also be ruled out, using the similar argument. Therefore,

2

both x and x must be either odd or even. Suppose both x and x are odd. Then

1

2

1

2

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

$$x + 1 = x + 1$$

$x = x$. Similarly, if both x and x are even, then also

1

2 †

1

2

†

1

2

1

2

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

$$x - 1 = x - 1$$

$x = x$. Thus, f is one-one. Also, any odd number

1

2

†

1

2

†

1

2

$2r + 1$ in the co-domain \mathbf{N} is the image of $2r + 2$ in the domain \mathbf{N} and any even number $2r$ in the co-domain \mathbf{N} is the image of $2r - 1$ in the domain \mathbf{N} . Thus, f is onto.

Example 13 Show that an onto function $f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ is always one-one.



Solution Suppose f is not one-one. Then there exists two elements, say 1 and 2 in the

domain whose image in the co-domain is same. Also, the image of 3 under f can be

only one element. Therefore, the range set can have at the most two elements of the

co-domain $\{1, 2, 3\}$, showing that f is not onto, a contradiction. Hence, f must be one-one.

Example 14 Show that a one-one function $f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ must be onto.



Solution Since f is one-one, three elements of $\{1, 2, 3\}$ must be taken to 3 different

elements of the co-domain $\{1, 2, 3\}$ under f . Hence, f has to be onto.

Remark The results mentioned in Examples 13 and 14 are also true for an arbitrary

finite set X , i.e., a one-one function $f: X$

X is necessarily onto and an onto map



$f: X$

X is necessarily one-one, for every finite set X . In contrast to this, Examples 8



and 10 show that for an infinite set, this may not be true. In fact, this is a characteristic

difference between a finite and an infinite set.

EXERCISE 1.2

1

1. Show that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined by $f(x) =$

is one-one and onto,



x

where \mathbf{R} is the set of all nonzero real numbers. Is the result true, if the domain



R is replaced by **N** with co-domain being same as **R** ?



2. Check the injectivity and surjectivity of the following functions:

(i) $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} given by $f(x) = x^2$



(ii) $f: \mathbf{Z}$

\mathbf{Z} given by $f(x) = x^2$



(iii) $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by $f(x) = x^2$



(iv) $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} given by $f(x) = x^3$



(v) $f: \mathbf{Z}$

\mathbf{Z} given by $f(x) = x^3$



3. Prove that the Greatest Integer Function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given by $f(x) = [x]$, is neither



one-one nor onto, where $[x]$ denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to x .

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

11

4. Show that the Modulus Function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given by $f(x) = |x|$, is neither one-



one nor onto, where $|x|$ is x , if x is positive or 0 and $|x|$ is $-x$, if x is negative.

5. Show that the Signum Function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given by



1



, if x

0

$f(x)$



0, if $x \neq$



0



-1, if $x \neq 0$



is neither one-one nor onto.

6. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $B = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and let $f = \{(1, 4), (2, 5), (3, 6)\}$ be a function from A to B . Show that f is one-one.

7. In each of the following cases, state whether the function is one-one, onto or

bijjective. Justify your answer.

(i) $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined by $f(x) = 3 - 4x$



(ii) $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined by $f(x) = 1 + x^2$



8. Let A and B be sets. Show that $f: A \times B$

$B \times A$ such that $f(a, b) = (b, a)$ is



bijection function.

$n \dagger$



1, if n is odd



2

9. Let $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} be defined by $f(n) =$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



n



, if n is even



2

State whether the function f is bijective. Justify your answer.

10. Let $A = \mathbb{R} - \{3\}$ and $B = \mathbb{R} - \{1\}$. Consider the function $f: A$

B defined by



x



2

$f(x) =$

. Is f one-one and onto? Justify your answer.



x

3 



11. Let $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} be defined as $f(x) = x^4$. Choose the correct answer.



(A) f is one-one onto

(B) f is many-one onto

(C) f is one-one but not onto

(D) f is neither one-one nor onto.

12. Let $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} be defined as $f(x) = 3x$. Choose the correct answer.



(A) f is one-one onto

(B) f is many-one onto

(C) f is one-one but not onto

(D) f is neither one-one nor onto.

12

MATHEMATICS

1.4 Composition of Functions and Invertible Function

In this section, we will study composition of functions and the inverse of a bijective

function. Consider the set A of all students, who appeared in Class X of a Board

Examination in 2006. Each student appearing in the Board Examination is assigned a

roll number by the Board which is written by the students in the answer script at the

time of examination. In order to have confidentiality, the Board arranges to deface the

roll numbers of students in the answer scripts and assigns a fake code number to each

roll number. Let B \mathbb{N} be the set of all roll numbers and C

\mathbb{N} be the set of all code

†

†

numbers. This gives rise to two functions $f: A$

B and $g: B$

C given by $f(a) =$ the



roll number assigned to the student a and $g(b) =$ the code number assigned to the roll number b . In this process each student is assigned a roll number through the function f

and each roll number is assigned a code number through the function g . Thus, by the

combination of these two functions, each student is eventually attached a code number.

This leads to the following definition:

Definition 8 Let $f: A$

B and $g: B$

C be two functions. Then the composition of



f and g , denoted by $g \circ f$, is defined as the function $g \circ f: A$

C given by



$$g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)),$$

$x \in A$.



Fig 1.5

Example 15 Let $f: \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$\{3, 4, 5, 9\}$ and $g: \{3, 4, 5, 9\}$

$\{7, 11, 15\}$ be



functions defined as $f(2) = 3, f(3) = 4, f(4) = f(5) = 5$ and $g(3) = g(4) = 7$ and $g(5) = g(9) = 11$. Find gof .

Solution We have $gof(2) = g(f(2)) = g(3) = 7, gof(3) = g(f(3)) = g(4) = 7, gof(4) = g(f(4)) = g(5) = 11$ and $gof(5) = g(5) = 11$.

Example 16 Find gof and fog , if $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} and $g: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} are given by $f(x) = \cos x$



and $g(x) = 3x^2$. Show that $gof = fog$.



Solution We have $gof(x) = g(f(x)) = g(\cos x) = 3(\cos x)^2 = 3\cos^2 x$. Similarly, $fog(x) = f(g(x)) = f(3x^2) = \cos(3x^2)$. Note that $3\cos^2 x \cos 3x^2$, for $x = 0$. Hence,



$g \circ f \circ g$.



RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

13

7

$3x + 4$



3

Example 17 Show that if f :



\mathbb{R}

\mathbb{R}

is defined by $f(x)$

and



5 ①



5①

5x ☆ 7



7x † 4



3 ↗



7

g :



R

R

is defined by $g(x)$

, then $f \circ g = I$ and $g \circ f = I$, where,



5 



5 

5 x

A

B



3



3

7



$A = \mathbf{R} -$

, $B = \mathbf{R} -$



; $I(x) = x,$

$x \in A, I(x) = x,$

$x \in B$ are called identity



50



A



B



5 ②

†

†

†

functions on sets A and B, respectively.

Solution We have

$(3x \times$

×

4)

7

×

×

4

$3x$

$21x \clubsuit 28 \clubsuit 20x \clubsuit 28$

$41x$

×

×

4

x

x

(5 x

7) ⊕

+

gof(x)

g

+

⊕

=

⊕

⊕

x

+

+

x

5 x

7 ⊕

(3 x

$$15x \clubsuit 20 \clubsuit 15x \clubsuit 21$$

41

×

+

+

+

×

4)

5

×

+

3

×

(5x

7) ⊕

+

+

+

(7x ×

×

4)

3

×

×

4

7 x

21 x † 12 † 20 x ☆ 12

41 x

×

×

4

×

×

(5 x

3) †

+

Similarly, $fog(x)$

f

+

+

=

+

+

x

+

+

×

$5x$

$3+$

$(7x$

$35x + 20 + 35x + 21$

41

×

+

+

+

×

4)

5

×

+

7

×

(5 x

3) +

+

+

+

Thus, $gof(x) = x$,

$x \in B$ and $fog(x) = x$,

$x \in A$, which implies that $g \circ f = I$

✓

✓

B

✓

✓

and $f \circ g = I$.

A

Example 18 Show that if $f: A$

B and $g: B$

C are one-one, then $g \circ f: A$

C is

◆

◆

◆

also one-one.

Solution Suppose $g \circ f(x) = g \circ f(x)$

1

2

$$g(f(x)) = g(f(x))$$



1

2

$f(x) = f(x)$, as g is one-one



1

2

$x = x$, as f is one-one



1

2

Hence, $g \circ f$ is one-one.

Example 19 Show that if $f: A$

B and $g: B$

C are onto, then $g \circ f: A$

C is



also onto.

Solution Given an arbitrary element $z \in C$, there exists a pre-image y of z under g

✓

such that $g(y) = z$, since g is onto. Further, for $y \in B$, there exists an element x in A

✓

14

MATHEMATICS

with $f(x) = y$, since f is onto. Therefore, $gof(x) = g(f(x)) = g(y) = z$, showing that gof is onto.

Example 20 Consider functions f and g such that composite gof is defined and is one-one. Are f and g both necessarily one-one.

Solution Consider $f: \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ defined as $f(x) = x$,

x and

✌️

$g: \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ as $g(x) = x$, for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and $g(5) = g(6) = 5$.

✌️

Then, $gof(x) = x$

x , which shows that gof is one-one. But g is clearly not one-one.

Example 21 Are f and g both necessarily onto, if gof is onto?

Solution Consider $f: \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $g: \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ defined



as $f(1) = 1, f(2) = 2, f(3) = f(4) = 3, g(1) = 1, g(2) = 2$ and $g(3) = g(4) = 3$. It can be seen that gof is onto but f is not onto.

Remark It can be verified in general that gof is one-one implies that f is one-one.

Similarly, gof is onto implies that g is onto.

Now, we would like to have close look at the functions f and g described in the

beginning of this section in reference to a Board Examination. Each student appearing

in Class X Examination of the Board is assigned a roll number under the function f and

each roll number is assigned a code number under g . After the answer scripts are

examined, examiner enters the mark against each code number in a mark book and

submits to the office of the Board. The Board officials decode by assigning roll number

back to each code number through a process reverse to g and thus mark gets attached

to roll number rather than code number. Further, the process reverse to f assigns a roll

number to the student having that roll number. This helps in assigning mark to the

student scoring that mark. We observe that while composing f and g , to get gof , first f and then g was applied, while in the reverse process of the composite gof , first the

reverse process of g is applied and then the reverse process of f .

Example 22 Let $f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{a, b, c\}$ be one-one and onto function given by



$f(1) = a, f(2) = b$ and $f(3) = c$. Show that there exists a function $g: \{a, b, c\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$



such that $gof = I$ and $fog = I$, where, $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $Y = \{a, b, c\}$.

X

Y

Solution Consider $g: \{a, b, c\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ as $g(a) = 1, g(b) = 2$ and $g(c) = 3$. It is



easy to verify that the composite $gof = I$ is the identity function on X and the composite

X

$fog = I$ is the identity function on Y .

Y

Remark The interesting fact is that the result mentioned in the above example is true for an arbitrary one-one and onto function $f: X$

Y . Not only this, even the converse



is also true, i.e., if $f: X$

Y is a function such that there exists a function $g: Y$

X



such that $gof = I$ and $fog = I$, then f must be one-one and onto.

X

Y

The above discussion, Example 22 and Remark lead to the following definition:

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

Definition 9 A function $f: X$

Y is defined to be *invertible*, if there exists a function



$g: Y$

X such that $gof = I$ and $fog = I$. The function g is called the *inverse of f* and



X

Y

is denoted by f^{-1} .

Thus, if f is invertible, then f must be one-one and onto and conversely, if f is one-one and onto, then f must be invertible. This fact significantly helps for proving a

function f to be invertible by showing that f is one-one and onto, specially when the

actual inverse of f is not to be determined.

Example 23 Let $f: \mathbf{N}$

Y be a function defined as $f(x) = 4x + 3$, where,



$Y = \{ y \in \mathbf{N} : y = 4x + 3 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbf{N} \}$. Show that f is invertible. Find the inverse.



Solution Consider an arbitrary element y of Y . By the definition of Y , $y = 4x + 3$, $(y \in Y)$

for some x in the domain \mathbb{N} . This shows that x

. Define $g : Y$

\mathbb{N} by



4

$(y$

3)

$(4x + 3)$

$g(y)$

. Now, $g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)) = g(4x + 3) =$

and




x



4

4

$(y \in Y)$

4 (y 



+

3)

$$f \circ g(y) = f(g(y)) = f$$

$= y - 3 + 3 = y$. This shows that $g \circ f = I$

+

+

⊗

☆

3

N



4



4

and $f \circ g = I$, which implies that f is invertible and g is the inverse of f .

Y

Example 24 Let $Y = \{ n^2 : n \in \mathbb{N} \} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. Consider $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow Y$

as $f(n) = n^2$. Show that



f is invertible. Find the inverse of f .

Solution An arbitrary element y in Y is of the form n^2 , for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This



implies that $n =$

\sqrt{y} . This gives a function $g: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$,

defined by $g(y) =$

\sqrt{y} . Now,



$g \circ f(n) = g(n^2) =$

$\sqrt{n^2} =$

n

and $f \circ g(y) = f(\sqrt{y}) =$

y

, which shows that



y



y



$g \circ f = I$ and $f \circ g = I$. Hence, f is invertible with $f^{-1} = g$.

\mathbf{N}

\mathbf{Y}

Example 25 Let $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{R} be a function defined as $f(x) = 4x^2 + 12x + 15$. Show that



$f: \mathbf{N}$

S , where, S is the range of f , is invertible. Find the inverse of f .



Solution Let y be an arbitrary element of range f . Then $y = 4x^2 + 12x + 15$, for some $y \times 6 \times 3$



x in \mathbf{N} , which implies that $y = (2x + 3)^2 + 6$. This gives



x

, as $y \geq 6$.



2

16

MATHEMATICS

$y \geq 6$ ≥ 3



Let us define $g : S$

\mathbf{N} by $g(y) =$

.



2

Now

$$g \circ f(x) = g(f(x)) = g(4x^2 + 12x + 15) = g((2x + 3)^2 + 6)$$

$$(2x + 3)^2 + 6 - 6 = 3$$

⓪

+

+

$$2x + 3 = 3$$

+

=

⊗

☆



x

2

2

2

✓

y

6

3 ✓

2

y

6

3



and

$$f \circ g(y) = f \times$$

\times

\times

3 \times

\times

\oplus

\oplus

\times

\times

\times

\times

6

\oplus

2

\oplus

\oplus

2

\oplus

2

2

=

y

$$= y - 6 + 6 = y.$$

◆

$$6 \blacklozenge 3 \blacklozenge 3$$

◇

$$6 \blackstar$$

$$y \blacklozenge 6$$

◇

6

⊠

⊠

⊠

⊠

⊠

⊠

⊠

Hence,

$gof = I$ and $fog = I$. This implies that f is invertible with $f^{-1} = g$.

\mathbf{N}

\mathbf{S}

Example 26 Consider $f: \mathbf{N}$

$\mathbf{N}, g: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} and $h: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{R} defined as $f(x) = 2x$,



$g(y) = 3y + 4$ and $h(z) = \sin z$,

x, y and z in \mathbf{N} . Show that $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$.



Solution We have

$$h \circ (g \circ f)(x) = h(g \circ f(x)) = h(g(f(x))) = h(g(2x))$$

$$= h(3(2x) + 4) = h(6x + 4) = \sin(6x + 4)$$

\mathbf{N}



$x \star$.

$$\text{Also, } ((h \circ g) \circ f)(x) = (h \circ g)(f(x)) = (h \circ g)(2x) = h(g(2x))$$

$$= h(3(2x) + 4) = h(6x + 4) = \sin(6x + 4),$$

$x \in \mathbb{N}$.



This shows that $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$.

This result is true in general situation as well.

Theorem 1 If $f: X$

$Y, g: Y$

Z and $h: Z$

are functions, then



$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$.

Proof We have

$h \circ (g \circ f) (x) = h(g \circ f(x)) = h(g(f(x))), x \in X$



and

$(h \circ g) \circ f(x) = h \circ g(f(x)) = h(g(f(x))), x \in X$.



Hence,

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f.$$

Example 27 Consider $f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{a, b, c\}$ and $g: \{a, b, c\}$

$\{\text{apple, ball, cat}\}$



defined as $f(1) = a, f(2) = b, f(3) = c, g(a) = \text{apple}, g(b) = \text{ball}$ and $g(c) = \text{cat}$.

Show that f, g and $g \circ f$ are invertible. Find out f^{-1}, g^{-1} and $(g \circ f)^{-1}$ and show that $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

17

Solution Note that by definition, f and g are bijective functions. Let

$f^{-1}: \{a, b, c\}$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $g^{-1}: \{\text{apple, ball, cat}\}$

$\{a, b, c\}$ be defined as



$f^{-1}\{a\} = 1, f^{-1}\{b\} = 2, f^{-1}\{c\} = 3, g^{-1}\{\text{apple}\} = a, g^{-1}\{\text{ball}\} = b$ and $g^{-1}\{\text{cat}\} = c$.

It is easy to verify that $f^{-1} \circ f = I$

$$f \circ f^{-1} = I$$

$$g^{-1} \circ g = I$$

$$\text{and } g \circ g^{-1} = I,$$

$$\{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\{a, b, c\}$$

$$\{a, b, c\}$$

D

where, $D = \{\text{apple, ball, cat}\}$. Now, $g \circ f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{\text{apple, ball, cat}\}$ is given by



$g \circ f(1) = \text{apple}$, $g \circ f(2) = \text{ball}$, $g \circ f(3) = \text{cat}$. We can define

$$(g \circ f)^{-1}: \{\text{apple, ball, cat}\}$$

$\{1, 2, 3\}$ by $(g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{apple}) = 1$, $(g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{ball}) = 2$ and



$(g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{cat}) = 3$. It is easy to see that $(g \circ f)^{-1} \circ (g \circ f) = I$ and

$$\{1, 2, 3\}$$

$(g \circ f) \circ (g \circ f)^{-1} = I$. Thus, we have seen that f , g and $g \circ f$ are invertible.

D

Now, $f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}(\text{apple}) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\text{apple})) = f^{-1}(a) = 1 = (g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{apple})$
 $f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}(\text{ball}) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\text{ball})) = f^{-1}(b) = 2 = (g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{ball})$ and $f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}(\text{cat}) = f^{-1}(g^{-1}(\text{cat})) = f^{-1}(c) = 3 = (g \circ f)^{-1}(\text{cat})$.

Hence $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

The above result is true in general situation also.

Theorem 2 Let $f: X$

Y and $g: Y$

Z be two invertible functions. Then $g \circ f$ is also



invertible with $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$.

Proof To show that $g \circ f$ is invertible with $(g \circ f)^{-1} = f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}$, it is enough to show that $(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) \circ (g \circ f) = I$ and $(g \circ f) \circ (f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) = I$.

X

Z

Now,

$$(f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) \circ (g \circ f) = ((f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) \circ g) \circ f, \text{ by Theorem 1}$$

$$= (f^{-1} \circ (g^{-1} \circ g)) \circ f, \text{ by Theorem 1}$$

$$= (f^{-1} \circ I) \circ f, \text{ by definition of } g^{-1}$$

Y

$$= I.$$

X

Similarly, it can be shown that $(g \circ f) \circ (f^{-1} \circ g^{-1}) = I$.

Z

Example 28 Let $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Determine whether the functions $f: S$

S defined as



below have inverses. Find f^{-1} , if it exists.

(a) $f = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$

(b) $f = \{(1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 1)\}$

(c) $f = \{(1, 3), (3, 2), (2, 1)\}$

Solution

(a) It is easy to see that f is one-one and onto, so that f is invertible with the inverse f^{-1} of f given by $f^{-1} = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\} = f$.

(b) Since $f(2) = f(3) = 1$, f is not one-one, so that f is not invertible.

(c) It is easy to see that f is one-one and onto, so that f is invertible with $f^{-1} = \{(3, 1), (2, 3), (1, 2)\}$.

18

MATHEMATICS

EXERCISE 1.3

1. Let $f: \{1, 3, 4\}$

$\{1, 2, 5\}$ and $g: \{1, 2, 5\}$

$\{1, 3\}$ be given by



$f = \{(1, 2), (3, 5), (4, 1)\}$ and $g = \{(1, 3), (2, 3), (5, 1)\}$. Write down $g \circ f$.

2. Let f, g and h be functions from \mathbf{R} to \mathbf{R} . Show that

$$(f + g) \circ h = f \circ h + g \circ h$$

$$(f \cdot g) \circ h = (f \circ h) \cdot (g \circ h)$$

3. Find $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$, if

(i) $f(x) = |x|$ and $g(x) = |5x - 2|$

1

(ii) $f(x) = 8x^3$ and $g(x) = 3$

x .

$(4x$

3)

2

2

4. If $f(x) =$

, x

, show that $f \circ f(x) = x$, for all x

. What is the



(6 x

3



4)

3

inverse of f ?

5. State with reason whether following functions have inverse

(i) $f: \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$\{10\}$ with



$f = \{(1, 10), (2, 10), (3, 10), (4, 10)\}$

(ii) $g: \{5, 6, 7, 8\}$

$\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with



$g = \{(5, 4), (6, 3), (7, 4), (8, 2)\}$

(iii) $h: \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$\{7, 9, 11, 13\}$ with



$$h = \{(2, 7), (3, 9), (4, 11), (5, 13)\}$$

x

6. Show that $f: [-1, 1]$

\mathbf{R} , given by $f(x) =$

is one-one. Find the inverse



$(x \in \mathbf{R} \mid 2)$

of the function $f: [-1, 1]$

Range f .



x

$2y$

(Hint: For $y \in \text{Range } f$, $y = f(x) =$

, for some x in $[-1, 1]$, i.e., $x =$

)



x

(1 † y)

†

2

7. Consider $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by $f(x) = 4x + 3$. Show that f is invertible. Find the



inverse of f .

8. Consider $f: \mathbf{R}$

$[4, \infty)$ given by $f(x) = x^2 + 4$. Show that f is invertible with the

+ 🙌



inverse f^{-1} of f given by $f^{-1}(y) =$

y

, where \mathbf{R} is the set of all non-negative

†

4

+

real numbers.

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

19

9. Consider $f: \mathbf{R}$

$[-5, \infty)$ given by $f(x) = 9x^2 + 6x - 5$. Show that f is invertible

+ 🙌



y

6

1 ✂



with $f^{-1}(y) =$

.



3



10. Let $f: X$

Y be an invertible function. Show that f has unique inverse.



(Hint: suppose g and g are two inverses of f . Then for all $y \in Y$,

1

2



$f \circ g(y) = 1(y) = f \circ g(y)$. Use one-one ness of f .

1

Y

2

11. Consider $f: \{1, 2, 3\}$

$\{a, b, c\}$ given by $f(1) = a, f(2) = b$ and $f(3) = c$. Find



f^{-1} and show that $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$.

12. Let $f: X$

Y be an invertible function. Show that the inverse of f^{-1} is f , i.e.,



$$(f^{-1})^{-1} = f.$$

1

13. If $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} be given by $f(x) =$

$3 - x$

$(3 - x)$

, then $f \circ f(x)$ is



x)



1

(A)

3

(B) $x + 3$

(C) x

(D) $(3 - x) + 3$.

x

$4x$



4

14. Let $f: \mathbf{R} \rightarrow$



\mathbf{R} be a function defined as $f(x) =$

. The inverse of



3

$3x \times 4$



4

f is the map $g: \text{Range } f$

$\mathbf{R} \rightarrow$



given by

\times



\oplus

$3 \oplus$

$+$

\otimes

$3 y$

$4 y$

(A)

$g(y)$

(B)

$g(y)$

\oplus

\oplus

3

$4 \times 3 y$

\times

$4 y$

$4 y$

$3y$

(C)

$g(y)$

(D)

$g(y)$



3

$4 \Leftrightarrow 3y$



$4y$

1.5 Binary Operations

Right from the school days, you must have come across four fundamental operations

namely addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. The main feature of these

operations is that given any two numbers a and b , we associate another number $a + b$

or $a - b$ or ab or

$\frac{a}{b}$, $b \neq 0$. It is to be noted that only two numbers can be added or

b



multiplied at a time. When we need to add three numbers, we first add two numbers

and the result is then added to the third number. Thus, addition, multiplication, subtraction

20

MATHEMATICS

and division are examples of binary operation, as 'binary' means two. If we want to

have a general definition which can cover all these four operations, then the set of

numbers is to be replaced by an arbitrary set X and then general binary operation is

nothing but association of any pair of elements a, b from X to another element of X .

This gives rise to a general definition as follows:

Definition 10 A binary operation on a set A is a function : $A \times A$

A . We denote



(a, b) by $a b$.



Example 29 Show that addition, subtraction and multiplication are binary operations

on \mathbf{R} , but division is not a binary operation on \mathbf{R} . Further, show that division is a binary operation on the set \mathbf{R} of nonzero real numbers.

Solution

$+$: $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} is given by



(a, b)

$a + b$



$-$: $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} is given by



(a, b)

$a - b$



\times : $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} is given by



(a, b)

ab



Since '+', '-' and '×' are functions, they are binary operations on \mathbf{R} .

a

But : $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given by (a, b)

, is not a function and hence not a binary

÷



b

a

operation, as for $b = 0$,

is not defined.

b

a

However, $: \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given by (a, b)

is a function and hence a

\div



b

binary operation on \mathbf{R} .

Example 30 Show that subtraction and division are not binary operations on \mathbf{N} .

Solution $- : \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} , given by (a, b)

$a - b$, is not binary operation, as the image



of $(3, 5)$ under $'-'$ is $3 - 5 = - 2 \notin \mathbf{N}$. Similarly, $: \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} , given by (a, b)

$a b$



3

is not a binary operation, as the image of $(3, 5)$ under is $3 \cdot 5 =$

\mathbf{N} .



5

Example 31 Show that

$: \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by (a, b)

$a + 4b^2$ is a binary



operation.

Solution Since carries each pair (a, b) to a unique element $a + 4b^2$ in \mathbf{R} ,
is a binary



operation on \mathbf{R} .

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

21

Example 32 Let P be the set of all subsets of a given set X . Show that : $P \times$
 P

P



given by (A, B)

$A \cap B$ and : $P \times P$

P given by (A, B)

A B are binary



operations on the set P.

Solution Since union operation carries each pair (A, B) in $P \times P$ to a unique element



A

B in P,

is binary operation on P. Similarly, the intersection operation carries



each pair (A, B) in $P \times P$ to a unique element $A B$ in P , is a binary operation on P .



Example 33 Show that the

$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by (a, b)

$\max \{a, b\}$ and the



$\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by (a, b)

$\min \{a, b\}$ are binary operations.



Solution Since

carries each pair (a, b) in $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$ to a unique element namely



maximum of a and b lying in \mathbf{R} ,

is a binary operation. Using the similar argument,



one can say that

is also a binary operation.



Remark

$$(4, 7) = 7,$$

$$(4, -7) = 4,$$

$$(4, 7) = 4 \text{ and}$$

$$(4, -7) = -7.$$



When number of elements in a set A is small, we can express a binary operation on



the set A through a table called the *operation table* for the operation . For example



consider $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then, the operation

on A defined in Example 33 can be expressed

by the following operation table (Table 1.1) . Here,

$$(1, 3) = 3,$$

$$(2, 3) = 3,$$

$$(1, 2) = 2.$$

Table 1.1

Here, we are having 3 rows and 3 columns in the operation table with (i, j) the

entry of the table being maximum of i th and j th elements of the set A. This can be

generalised for general operation : $A \times A$

A. If $A = \{ a , a , \dots , a \}$. Then the



1

2

n

operation table will be having n rows and n columns with (i, j) th entry being $a a$.

i 

j

Conversely, given any operation table having n rows and n columns with each entry

being an element of $A = \{ a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \}$, we can define a binary operation :
 $A \times A \rightarrow A$

1

2

n



given by a_{ij} = the entry in the i th row and j th column of the operation table.

i 

j

One may note that 3 and 4 can be added in any order and the result is same, i.e.,

$3 + 4 = 4 + 3$, but subtraction of 3 and 4 in different order give different results, i.e.,

$3 - 4 \neq 4 - 3$. Similarly, in case of multiplication of 3 and 4, order is immaterial, but



division of 3 and 4 in different order give different results. Thus, addition and

multiplication of 3 and 4 are meaningful, but subtraction and division of 3 and 4 are

meaningless. For subtraction and division we have to write 'subtract 3 from 4', 'subtract

4 from 3', 'divide 3 by 4' or 'divide 4 by 3'.

22

MATHEMATICS

This leads to the following definition:

Definition 11 A binary operation on the set X is called *commutative*, if $a b = b a$,



for every $a, b \in X$.



Example 34 Show that $+$: $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} and \times : $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} are commutative binary



operations, but $-$: $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} and $:\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} are not commutative.



\div



Solution Since $a + b = b + a$ and $a \times b = b \times a$, $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$, '+' and '×' are



commutative binary operation. However, '-' is not commutative, since $3 - 4 \neq 4 - 3$.



Similarly, $3 - 4 \neq 4 - 3$ shows that '-' is not commutative.

\div



\div

\div

Example 35 Show that $:\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined by $a b = a + 2 b$ is not commutative.



Solution Since $3 4 = 3 + 8 = 11$ and $4 3 = 4 + 6 = 10$, showing that the operation



is not commutative.

If we want to associate three elements of a set X through a binary operation on X ,

we encounter a natural problem. The expression $a b c$ may be interpreted as



$(a b) c$ or $a (b c)$ and these two expressions need not be same. For example,



$(8 - 5) - 2$ $8 - (5 - 2)$. Therefore, association of three numbers 8, 5 and 3 through



the binary operation 'subtraction' is meaningless, unless bracket is used. But in case

of addition, $8 + 5 + 2$ has the same value whether we look at it as $(8 + 5) + 2$ or as

$8 + (5 + 2)$. Thus, association of 3 or even more than 3 numbers through addition is

meaningful without using bracket. This leads to the following:

Definition 12 A binary operation : $A \times A$

A is said to be *associative* if



$$(a b) c = a$$

$$(b c),$$

$a, b, c, A.$



Example 36 Show that addition and multiplication are associative binary operation on

\mathbf{R} . But subtraction is not associative on \mathbf{R} . Division is not associative on \mathbf{R} .

Solution Addition and multiplication are associative, since $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ and $(a \times b) \times c = a \times (b \times c)$

$a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}$. However, subtraction and division are not



associative, as $(8 - 5) - 3 = 8 - (5 - 3)$ and $(8 \cdot 5) \cdot 3 = (5 \cdot 3) \cdot 8$.



Example 37 Show that : $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by $a \cdot b$

$a + 2 \cdot b$ is not associative.



Solution The operation is not associative, since



$$(8 + 5) + 3 = (8 + 10) + 3 = (8 + 10) + 6 = 24,$$



while

$$8 + (5 + 3) = 8 + (5 + 6) = 8 + 11 = 8 + 22 = 30.$$



Remark Associative property of a binary operation is very important in the sense that

with this property of a binary operation, we can write $a a$

... a which is not

1

2



n

ambiguous. But in absence of this property, the expression $a a \dots a$ is ambiguous 1

2 



n

unless brackets are used. Recall that in the earlier classes brackets were used whenever

subtraction or division operations or more than one operation occurred.

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

23

For the binary operation ‘+’ on \mathbf{R} , the interesting feature of the number zero is that

$a + 0 = a = 0 + a$, i.e., any number remains unaltered by adding zero. But in case of multiplication, the number 1 plays this role, as $a \times 1 = a = 1 \times a$,

a in \mathbf{R} . This leads

to the following definition:

Definition 13 Given a binary operation $\cdot : A \times A$

A , an element $e \in A$, if it exists,



is called *identity* for the operation \cdot , if $a \cdot e = a = e \cdot a, a \in A$.



Example 38 Show that zero is the identity for addition on \mathbf{R} and 1 is the identity for

multiplication on \mathbf{R} . But there is no identity element for the operations

$- : \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} and $: \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} .



Solution $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ and $a \times 1 = a = 1 \times a, a \in \mathbf{R}$ implies that 0 and 1 are



identity elements for the operations '+' and '×' respectively. Further, there is no element

e in \mathbf{R} with $a - e = e - a$,

a . Similarly, we can not find any element e in \mathbf{R} such that



$a e = e a$,

a in \mathbf{R} . Hence, '-' and ' ' do not have identity element.



Remark Zero is identity for the addition operation on \mathbf{R} but it is not identity for the addition operation on \mathbf{N} , as $0 \notin \mathbf{N}$. In fact the addition operation on \mathbf{N} does not have



any identity.

One further notices that for the addition operation $+$: $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} , given any



$a \in \mathbf{R}$, there exists $-a$ in \mathbf{R} such that $a + (-a) = 0$ (identity for '+') = $(-a) + a$.



1

Similarly, for the multiplication operation on \mathbf{R} , given any $a \neq 0$ in \mathbf{R} , we can choose



a

1

1

in \mathbf{R} such that $a \times$

$= 1$ (identity for '×') =

$\times a$. This leads to the following definition:

a

a

Definition 14 Given a binary operation $\star : A \times A$

A with the identity element e in A ,



an element $a \in A$ is said to be *invertible* with respect to the operation \circ , if there exists



an element $b \in A$ such that $a \circ b = e = b \circ a$ and b is called the *inverse of a* and is



denoted by a^{-1} .

Example 39 Show that $-a$ is the inverse of a for the addition operation '+' on \mathbf{R} and 1 is the inverse of $a \neq 0$ for the multiplication operation '×' on \mathbf{R} .

a



Solution As $a + (-a) = a - a = 0$ and $(-a) + a = 0$, $-a$ is the inverse of a for addition.

1

1

1

Similarly, for $a \neq 0$, $a \times$

$= 1 =$

$\times a$ implies that

is the inverse of a for multiplication.



a

a

a

24

MATHEMATICS

Example 40 Show that $-a$ is not the inverse of $a \in \mathbf{N}$ for the addition operation $+$ on



1

\mathbf{N} and

is not the inverse of $a \in \mathbf{N}$ for multiplication operation \times on \mathbf{N} , for $a \neq 1$.

a



Solution Since $-a \notin \mathbf{N}$, $-a$ can not be inverse of a for addition operation on \mathbf{N} ,



although $-a$ satisfies $a + (-a) = 0 = (-a) + a$.

1

Similarly, for $a \neq 1$ in \mathbf{N} ,

\mathbf{N} , which implies that other than 1 no element of \mathbf{N}



a^{-1}

has inverse for multiplication operation on \mathbf{N} .

Examples 34, 36, 38 and 39 show that addition on \mathbf{R} is a commutative and associative

binary operation with 0 as the identity element and $-a$ as the inverse of a in \mathbf{R}

a .

EXERCISE 1.4

1. Determine whether or not each of the definition of given below gives a binary



operation. In the event that is not a binary operation, give justification for this.



(i) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define by $a \cdot b = a - b$



(ii) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define by $a \cdot b = ab$



(iii) On \mathbf{R} , define by $a \cdot b = ab^2$



(iv) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define by $a \cdot b = |a - b|$



(v) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define by $a \cdot b = a$



2. For each binary operation defined below, determine whether is commutative



or associative.

(i) On \mathbf{Z} , define $a \cdot b = a - b$



(ii) On \mathbf{Q} , define $a \cdot b = ab + 1$



ab

(iii) On \mathbf{Q} , define $a \cdot b =$



2

(iv) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define $a \cdot b = 2ab$



(v) On \mathbf{Z}^+ , define $a \cdot b = ab$



a

(vi) On $\mathbf{R} - \{-1\}$, define $a \cdot b =$



$b \cdot -1$

3. Consider the binary operation

on the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ defined by



a

$b = \min \{a, b\}$. Write the operation table of the operation



RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

25

4. Consider a binary operation on the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ given by the following



multiplication table (Table 1.2).

(i) Compute $(2 \ 3) \ 4$ and $2 \ (3 \ 4)$



(ii) Is commutative?



(iii) Compute $(2 \ 3) \ (4 \ 5)$.



(Hint: use the following table)

Table 1.2

5. Let

be the binary operation on the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ defined by



$a b = \text{H.C.F. of } a \text{ and } b$. Is the operation same as the operation defined



in Exercise 4 above? Justify your answer.

6. Let be the binary operation on \mathbf{N} given by $a b = \text{L.C.M. of } a \text{ and } b$. Find



(i) $5 \ 7, 20 \ 16$

(ii) Is commutative?



(iii) Is associative?

(iv) Find the identity of in \mathbf{N}



(v) Which elements of \mathbf{N} are invertible for the operation ?



7. Is defined on the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ by $a b = \text{L.C.M. of } a \text{ and } b$ a binary



operation? Justify your answer.

8. Let be the binary operation on \mathbf{N} defined by $a b = \text{H.C.F. of } a \text{ and } b$.



Is commutative? Is associative? Does there exist identity for this binary



operation on \mathbf{N} ?

9. Let be a binary operation on the set \mathbf{Q} of rational numbers as follows:



(i) $a b = a - b$

$$(ii) \ a \ b = a^2 + b^2$$



$$(iii) \ a \ b = a + ab$$

$$(iv) \ a \ b = (a - b)^2$$



$$ab$$

$$(v) \ a \ b =$$

$$(vi) \ a \ b = ab^2$$



$$4$$



Find which of the binary operations are commutative and which are associative.

10. Show that none of the operations given above has identity.

11. Let $A = \mathbf{N} \times \mathbf{N}$ and be the binary operation on A defined by



$$(a, b) (c, d) = (a + c, b + d)$$



MATHEMATICS

Show that is commutative and associative. Find the identity element for on



A, if any.

12. State whether the following statements are true or false. Justify.

(i) For an arbitrary binary operation on a set \mathbf{N} , $a a = a$

$a \mathbf{N}$.



(ii) If is a commutative binary operation on \mathbf{N} , then $a (b c) = (c b) a$



13. Consider a binary operation on \mathbf{N} defined as $a * b = a^3 + b^3$. Choose the



correct answer.

(A) Is both associative and commutative?



(B) Is commutative but not associative?



(C) Is associative but not commutative?



(D) Is neither commutative nor associative?



Miscellaneous Examples

Example 41 If R and R' are equivalence relations in a set A , show that $R \cap R'$ is

1

2

1 

2

also an equivalence relation.

Solution Since R and R are equivalence relations, $(a, a) \in R$, and $(a, a) \in R$

$a \in A$.

1

2



1



2



This implies that $(a, a) \in R$

$\in R$,

a , showing R

R is reflexive. Further,



1

2

1

2

$(a, b) \in R$

$\in R$

$(a, b) \in R$ and $(a, b) \in R$

$(b, a) \in R$ and $(b, a) \in R$

+

+

+

-

1

2

-

1

-

2

-

1

-

2

$(b, a) \in R$

R , hence, R

R is symmetric. Similarly, $(a, b) \in R$

R and



1

2

1

2



1

2

$(b, c) R$

R

(a, c)

R and (a, c)

R

$(a, c) R$

R . This shows that



1 

2



1



2



1 

2

R

R is transitive. Thus, R

R is an equivalence relation.

1 

2

1 

2

Example 42 Let R be a relation on the set A of ordered pairs of positive integers

defined by $(x, y) R (u, v)$ if and only if $xv = yu$. Show that R is an equivalence relation.

Solution Clearly, $(x, y) R (x, y)$,

$(x, y) \in A$, since $xy = yx$. This shows that R is

⋈

reflexive. Further, $(x, y) \in R (u, v)$

$$xv = yu$$

$uy = vx$ and hence $(u, v) \in R (x, y)$. This

†

†

shows that R is symmetric. Similarly, $(x, y) \in R (u, v)$ and $(u, v) \in R (a, b)$ $xv = yu$ and

†

a

a

b

a

$$ub = va$$

xv

xv

$xb = ya$ and hence $(x, y) R (a, b)$. Thus, R

\curvearrowright

yu

\curvearrowright

yu

\dagger

\dagger

\dagger

u

u

v

u

is transitive. Thus, R is an equivalence relation.

Example 43 Let $X = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$. Let R be a relation in X given

1

by $R = \{(x, y) : x - y \text{ is divisible by } 3\}$ and R be another relation on X given by 1

2

$R = \{(x, y) : \{x, y\} = \{1, 4, 7\}\} \text{ or } \{x, y\}$

$\{2, 5, 8\}$ or $\{x, y\}$

$\{3, 6, 9\}$. Show that

2

†

†

†

$R = R$.

1

2

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

27

Solution Note that the characteristic of sets $\{1, 4, 7\}$, $\{2, 5, 8\}$ and $\{3, 6, 9\}$ is

that difference between any two elements of these sets is a multiple of 3. Therefore,

$(x, y) \in R$

$x - y$ is a multiple of 3

$\{x, y\} \in \{1, 4, 7\}$ or $\{x, y\} \in \{2, 5, 8\}$

∞

1 †

†

†

†

or $\{x, y\} \{3, 6, 9\}$

$(x, y) R$. Hence, $R R$. Similarly, $\{x, y\} R$

$\{x, y\}$

†

†

✂

2

1 †

2

✂

2 †

$\{1, 4, 7\}$ or $\{x, y\} \{2, 5, 8\}$ or $\{x, y\} \{3, 6, 9\}$

$x - y$ is divisible by

†

†

†

†

3

$\{x, y\} \in R$. This shows that $R \subseteq R$. Hence, $R = R$.

†

✂

1

2 †

1

1

2

Example 44 Let $f: X$

Y be a function. Define a relation R in X given by



$R = \{(a, b) : f(a) = f(b)\}$. Examine if R is an equivalence relation.

Solution For every $a \in X$, $(a, a) \in R$, since $f(a) = f(a)$, showing that R is reflexive.

✂

✂

Similarly, $(a, b) \in R$

$$f(a) = f(b)$$

$$f(b) = f(a)$$

$(b, a) \in R$. Therefore, R is

✂

†

†

†

✂

symmetric. Further, $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$

$$f(a) = f(b) \text{ and } f(b) = f(c)$$

$f(a)$



$= f(c)$

$(a, c) \in R$, which implies that R is transitive. Hence, R is an equivalence



relation.

Example 45 Determine which of the following binary operations on the set \mathbf{N} are

associative and which are commutative.

$(a \star b)$

(a) $a \star b = 1$

$a, b \in \mathbf{N}$

(b) $a \star b =$

$a, b \in \mathbb{N}$



2



Solution

(a) Clearly, by definition a

$$b = b$$

$$a = 1,$$

$$a, b$$

\mathbb{N} . Also



$(a b) c = (1 c) = 1$ and $a (b c) = a (1) = 1, a, b, c \in \mathbf{N}$. Hence



R is both associative and commutative.

$a \otimes b$

$b \otimes a$

(b) $a b =$

$= b a$, shows that is commutative. Further,



2

2



a 



b



$a b) c =$



$c.$



2



a 



$b \Rightarrow$



✓

✓

c

2

$a \Leftrightarrow b \Leftrightarrow$

×

×

$2c$

=

.

×

2

4

b

c

But

$$a(b c) = a$$



2 



$$b \oplus c$$

$$a \oplus$$

$$2 a \oplus b \oplus c$$

$$a \oplus b \oplus 2 c$$

=

2

in general.

+

+

2

4

4

Hence, is not associative.



28

MATHEMATICS

Example 46 Find the number of all one-one functions from set $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ to itself.

Solution One-one function from $\{1, 2, 3\}$ to itself is simply a permutation on three

symbols 1, 2, 3. Therefore, total number of one-one maps from $\{1, 2, 3\}$ to itself is

same as total number of permutations on three symbols 1, 2, 3 which is $3! = 6$.

Example 47 Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then show that the number of relations containing $(1, 2)$

and $(2, 3)$ which are reflexive and transitive but not symmetric is four.

Solution The smallest relation R containing $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 3)$ which is reflexive and

1

transitive but not symmetric is $\{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3), (1, 2), (2, 3), (1, 3)\}$.
Now, if we add

the pair $(2, 1)$ to R to get R , then the relation R will be reflexive, transitive
but not

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symmetric. Similarly, we can obtain R and R by adding $(3, 2)$ and $(3, 1)$
respectively,

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4

to R to get the desired relations. However, we can not add any two pairs out
of $(2, 1)$,

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$(3, 2)$ and $(3, 1)$ to R at a time, as by doing so, we will be forced to add the
remaining

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third pair in order to maintain transitivity and in the process, the relation
will become

symmetric also which is not required. Thus, the total number of desired
relations is four.

Example 48 Show that the number of equivalence relation in the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ containing

$(1, 2)$ and $(2, 1)$ is two.

Solution The smallest equivalence relation R containing $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 1)$ is $\{(1, 1),$

1

$(2, 2), (3, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1)\}$. Now we are left with only 4 pairs namely $(2, 3), (3, 2),$

$(1, 3)$ and $(3, 1)$. If we add any one, say $(2, 3)$ to R , then for symmetry we must add

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$(3, 2)$ also and now for transitivity we are forced to add $(1, 3)$ and $(3, 1)$. Thus, the only

equivalence relation bigger than R is the universal relation. This shows that the total

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number of equivalence relations containing $(1, 2)$ and $(2, 1)$ is two.

Example 49 Show that the number of binary operations on $\{1, 2\}$ having 1 as identity

and having 2 as the inverse of 2 is exactly one.

Solution A binary operation on $\{1, 2\}$ is a function from $\{1, 2\} \times \{1, 2\}$ to $\{1, 2\}$, i.e.,



a function from $\{(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 2)\}$

{1, 2}. Since 1 is the identity for the



desired binary operation ,

$(1, 2) = 2, (2, 1) = 2$ and the only choice



left is for the pair $(2, 2)$. Since 2 is the inverse of 2, i.e., $(2, 2)$ must be equal to 1. Thus,



the number of desired binary operation is only one.

Example 50 Consider the identity function $I : \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} defined as $I(x) = x$

$x \in \mathbf{N}$.

\mathbb{N}



\mathbb{N}

+



Show that although I is onto but $I + I : \mathbb{N}$

\mathbb{N} defined as

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}



$(I + I)(x) = I(x) + I(x) = x + x = 2x$ is not onto.

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

Solution Clearly I is onto. But $I + I$ is not onto, as we can find an element 3

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{N}

in the co-domain \mathbf{N} such that there does not exist any x in the domain \mathbf{N} with

$$(I + I)(x) = 2x = 3.$$

\mathbf{N}

\mathbf{N}

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

29

Example 51 Consider a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = \sin x$ and

$g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $g(x) = \cos x$. Show that f and g are one-one, but $f + g$ is not



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$g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

given by $g(x) = \cos x$. Show that f and g are one-one, but $f + g$ is not



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one-one.

Solution Since for any two distinct elements x and x in $\mathbb{R} - \{0, \infty\}$, $\sin x \sin x$ and 1

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$\cos x \cos x$, both f and g must be one-one. But $(f + g)(0) = \sin 0 + \cos 0 = 1$ and 1 

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$(f+g) \dagger$



= sin

. Therefore, $f+g$ is not one-one.



cos



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2



Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 1

1. Let $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} be defined as $f(x) = 10x + 7$. Find the function $g: \mathbf{R}$

R such



that $g \circ f = f \circ g = 1$.

R

2. Let $f: W$

W be defined as $f(n) = n - 1$, if n is odd and $f(n) = n + 1$, if n is



even. Show that f is invertible. Find the inverse of f . Here, W is the set of all whole numbers.

3. If $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} is defined by $f(x) = x^2 - 3x + 2$, find $f(f(x))$.



x

4. Show that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

$\{x \in \mathbf{R} : -1 < x < 1\}$ defined by $f(x)$

,



$$1 \times |x|$$

$x \in \mathbf{R}$ is one one and onto function.



5. Show that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} given by $f(x) = x^3$ is injective.



6. Give examples of two functions $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{Z} and $g: \mathbf{Z}$

\mathbf{Z} such that $g \circ f$ is



injective but g is not injective.

(Hint : Consider $f(x) = x$ and $g(x) = |x|$).

7. Give examples of two functions $f: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} and $g: \mathbf{N}$

\mathbf{N} such that $g \circ f$ is onto



but f is not onto.

$x \times 1$ if $x \neq 1$

\times

1

(Hint : Consider $f(x) = x + 1$ and $g(x) = x + 1$ if $x \neq 1$

$+$

8. Given a non empty set X , consider $P(X)$ which is the set of all subsets of X .

30

MATHEMATICS

Define the relation R in $P(X)$ as follows:

For subsets A, B in $P(X)$, $A R B$ if and only if $A \subseteq B$. Is R an equivalence relation

$+$

on $P(X)$? Justify your answer.

9. Given a non-empty set X , consider the binary operation : $P(X) \times P(X)$

$P(X)$



given by $A \cdot B = A \cup B$

A, B in $P(X)$, where $P(X)$ is the power set of X.



Show that X is the identity element for this operation and X is the only invertible

element in $P(X)$ with respect to the operation .



10. Find the number of all onto functions from the set $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ to itself.

11. Let $S = \{a, b, c\}$ and $T = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Find F^{-1} of the following functions F from S

to T, if it exists.

(i) $F = \{(a, 3), (b, 2), (c, 1)\}$

(ii) $F = \{(a, 2), (b, 1), (c, 1)\}$

12. Consider the binary operations : $\mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} and $\circ : \mathbf{R} \times \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined as



$a b = |a - b|$ and $a \circ b = a,$

$a, b \in \mathbf{R}$. Show that \circ is commutative but not



associative, \circ is associative but not commutative. Further, show that

$a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}$,



$a (b \circ c) = (a \circ b) \circ (a \circ b)$. [If it is so, we say that the operation distributes



over the operation \circ]. Does \circ distribute over \circ ? Justify your answer.



13. Given a non-empty set X , let $\circ : P(X) \times P(X)$

$P(X)$ be defined as



$$A \circ B = (A - B) \cup (B - A),$$

$A, B \in \mathcal{P}(X)$. Show that the empty set is the



identity for the operation and all the elements A of $\mathcal{P}(X)$ are invertible with



$A^{-1} = A$. (Hint : $(A -) (- A) = A$ and $(A - A) (A - A) = A A =$).



14. Define a binary operation on the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ as



$a \circ b, \text{ if } a \circ b$ ☎



$$a \dagger b \dagger \star a \sphericalangle b \Rightarrow 6 \text{ if } a \sphericalangle b \text{ } \textcircled{6}$$



Show that zero is the identity for this operation and each element a of the set is

invertible with $6 - a$ being the inverse of a .

15. Let $A = \{-1, 0, 1, 2\}$, $B = \{-4, -2, 0, 2\}$ and $f, g : A$

B be functions defined



1

by $f(x) = x^2 - x$, $x \in A$ and $g(x)$

$x \in A$. Are f and g equal?



$2x$



1,



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Justify your answer. (Hint: One may note that two functions $f : A$

B and



$g : A$

B such that $f(a) = g(a)$

$a \in A$, are called equal functions).



16. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then number of relations containing $(1, 2)$ and $(1, 3)$ which are

reflexive and symmetric but not transitive is

(A) 1

(B) 2

(C) 3

(D) 4

17. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$. Then number of equivalence relations containing $(1, 2)$ is

(A) 1

(B) 2

(C) 3

(D) 4

RELATIONS AND FUNCTIONS

31

18. Let $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} be the Signum Function defined as



1, x

0

$f(x)$



0, x ✂



0



$\textcircled{0}$ 1,

$x \dagger 0$



and $g: \mathbf{R}$

R be the Greatest Integer Function given by $g(x) = [x]$, where $[x]$ is



greatest integer less than or equal to x . Then, does $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ coincide in $(0, 1]$?

19. Number of binary operations on the set $\{a, b\}$ are

(A) 10

(B) 16

(C) 20

(D) 8

Summary

In this chapter, we studied different types of relations and equivalence relation,

composition of functions, invertible functions and binary operations. The main features

of this chapter are as follows:

Empty relation is the relation R in X given by $R = X \times X$.



Universal relation is the relation R in X given by $R = X \times X$.



Reflexive relation R in X is a relation with $(a, a) \in R$ for all $a \in X$.



Symmetric relation R in X is a relation satisfying $(a, b) \in R$ implies $(b, a) \in R$.



Transitive relation R in X is a relation satisfying $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$



implies that $(a, c) \in R$.



Equivalence relation R in X is a relation which is reflexive, symmetric and



transitive.

Equivalence class $[a]$ containing $a \in X$ for an equivalence relation R in X is



the subset of X containing all elements b related to a .

A function $f: X$

Y is *one-one* (or *injective*) if



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

$$x = x$$

$$x, x \in X.$$

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1

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A function $f: X$

Y is *onto* (or *surjective*) if given any $y \in Y, x \in X$ such



that $f(x) = y$.

A function $f: X$

Y is *one-one and onto* (or *bijjective*), if f is both one-one



and onto.

The *composition* of functions $f: A$

B and $g : B$

C is the function



$g \circ f : A$

C given by $g \circ f(x) = g(f(x))$

$x \in A$.



A function $f : X$

Y is *invertible* if $g : Y$

X such that $g \circ f = I$ and



X

$$f \circ g = I.$$

Y

A function $f: X$

Y is *invertible* if and only if f is one-one and onto.



32

MATHEMATICS

Given a finite set X , a function $f: X$

X is one-one (respectively onto) if and



only if f is onto (respectively one-one). This is the characteristic property of a

finite set. This is not true for infinite set

A **binary operation** on a set A is a function from $A \times A$ to A .



An element $e \in X$ is the **identity** element for binary operation $: X \times X$

X ,



if $a e = a = e a$

$a \in X$.



An element $a \in X$ is *invertible* for binary operation $\cdot : X \times X$

X , if



there exists $b \in X$ such that $a b = e = b a$ where, e is the identity for the



binary operation . The element b is called *inverse* of a and is denoted by a^{-1} .



An operation on X is *commutative* if $a b = b a$
 a, b in X .



An operation on X is *associative* if $(a b) c = a (b c)$ a, b, c in X .



Historical Note

The concept of function has evolved over a long period of time starting from

R. Descartes (1596-1650), who used the word ‘function’ in his manuscript

“*Geometrie*” in 1637 to mean some positive integral power x^n of a variable x

while studying geometrical curves like hyperbola, parabola and ellipse.
James

Gregory (1636-1675) in his work “*Vera Circuli et Hyperbolae Quadratura*”

(1667) considered function as a quantity obtained from other quantities by successive use of algebraic operations or by any other operations. Later G. W.

Leibnitz (1646-1716) in his manuscript “*Methodus tangentium inversa, seu de*

functionibus” written in 1673 used the word ‘function’ to mean a quantity varying

from point to point on a curve such as the coordinates of a point on the curve, the

slope of the curve, the tangent and the normal to the curve at a point.
However,

in his manuscript “*Historia*” (1714), Leibnitz used the word ‘function’ to mean

quantities that depend on a variable. He was the first to use the phrase ‘function

of x ’. John Bernoulli (1667-1748) used the notation x for the first time in 1718 to



indicate a function of x . But the general adoption of symbols like f , F , , ... to



represent functions was made by Leonhard Euler (1707-1783) in 1734 in the first

part of his manuscript “*Analysis Infinitorum*”. Later on, Joseph Louis Lagrange

(1736-1813) published his manuscripts “*Theorie des fonctions analytiques*” in

1793, where he discussed about analytic function and used the notion $f(x)$, $F(x)$, (x) etc. for different function of x . Subsequently, Joseph Fourier



(1805-1859) gave the definition of function which was being used till the set

theoretic definition of function presently used, was given after set theory was

developed by Georg Cantor (1845-1918). The set theoretic definition of function

known to us presently is simply an abstraction of the definition given by Dirichlet

in a rigorous manner.

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Chapter 2

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC

FUNCTIONS

Mathematics, in general, is fundamentally the science of self-evident things. — FELIX KLEIN

2.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1, we have studied that the inverse of a function f , denoted by f^{-1} , exists if f is one-one and onto. There are many functions which are not one-one, onto or both and hence we can not talk of their inverses. In Class XI, we studied that trigonometric functions are not one-one and onto over their natural domains and ranges and hence their inverses do not exist. In this chapter, we shall study about the restrictions on domains and ranges of trigonometric functions which ensure the existence of their inverses and observe their behaviour through graphical representations. Besides, some elementary properties will also be discussed. The inverse trigonometric functions play an important

Arya Bhatta

(476-550 A. D.)

role in calculus for they serve to define many integrals.

The concepts of inverse trigonometric functions is also used in science and engineering.

2.2 Basic Concepts

In Class XI, we have studied trigonometric functions, which are defined as follows:

sine function, i.e., $\sin : \mathbf{R}$

$[-1, 1]$



cosine function, i.e., $\cos : \mathbf{R}$

$[-1, 1]$



tangent function, i.e., $\tan : \mathbf{R} - \{x : x = (2n + 1)$

$, n$

$\mathbf{Z}\}$

\mathbf{R}

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cotangent function, i.e., $\cot : \mathbf{R} - \{x : x = n, n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$

\mathbf{R}



secant function, i.e., $\sec : \mathbf{R} - \{x : x = (2n + 1)\pi/2, n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$

\mathbf{Z}

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$

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cosecant function, i.e., $\operatorname{cosec} : \mathbf{R} - \{x : x = n\pi, n \in \mathbf{Z}\}$

\mathbf{Z}

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$



MATHEMATICS

We have also learnt in Chapter 1 that if $f: X$

Y such that $f(x) = y$ is one-one and



onto, then we can define a unique function $g: Y$

X such that $g(y) = x$, where $x \in X$



and $y = f(x)$, $y \in Y$. Here, the domain of $g = \text{range of } f$ and the range of $g = \text{domain of } f$.



The function g is called the inverse of f and is denoted by f^{-1} . Further, g is also one-one and onto and inverse of g is f . Thus, $(f^{-1})^{-1} = f$.

We also have $(f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(y) = x$ and

$(f \circ f^{-1})(y) = f(f^{-1}(y)) = f(x) = y$ Since the domain of sine function is the set of all real numbers and range is the

closed interval $[-1, 1]$. If we restrict its domain to



, then it becomes one-one

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and onto with range $[-1, 1]$. Actually, sine function restricted to any of the intervals

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etc., is one-one and its range is $[-1, 1]$. We can,



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therefore, define the inverse of sine function in each of these intervals. We denote the

inverse of sine function by \sin^{-1} (arc sine function). Thus, \sin^{-1} is a function whose

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domain is $[-1, 1]$ and range could be any of the intervals



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or



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, and so on. Corresponding to each such interval, we get a *branch* of the



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function \sin^{-1} . The branch with range

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is called the *principal value branch*,



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2 **x**



whereas other intervals as range give different branches of \sin^{-1} . When we refer

to the function \sin^{-1} , we take it as the function whose domain is $[-1, 1]$ and range is



. We write $\sin^{-1} : [-1, 1]$



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From the definition of the inverse functions, it follows that $\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = x$

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if $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ and $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x$ if

$x \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$. In other words, if $y = \sin^{-1} x$, then

+

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$x = \sin y$

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$\sin y = x$.

Remarks

(i) We know from Chapter 1, that if $y = f(x)$ is an invertible function, then $x = f^{-1}(y)$.

Thus, the graph of \sin^{-1} function can be obtained from the graph of original function by interchanging x and y axes, i.e., if (a, b) is a point on the graph of sine function, then (b, a) becomes the corresponding point on the graph of inverse

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 35

of sine function. Thus, the graph of the function $y = \sin^{-1} x$ can be obtained from

the graph of $y = \sin x$ by interchanging x and y axes. The graphs of $y = \sin x$ and $y = \sin^{-1} x$ are as given in Fig 2.1 (i), (ii), (iii). The dark portion of the graph of $y = \sin^{-1} x$ represent the principal value branch.

(ii) It can be shown that the graph of an inverse function can be obtained from the

corresponding graph of original function as a mirror image (i.e., reflection) along

the line $y = x$. This can be visualised by looking the graphs of $y = \sin x$ and $y = \sin^{-1} x$ as given in the same axes (Fig 2.1 (iii)).

Fig 2.1 (i)

Fig 2.1 (ii)

Fig 2.1 (iii)

Like sine function, the cosine function is a function whose domain is the set of all

real numbers and range is the set $[-1, 1]$. If we restrict the domain of cosine function

to $[0, \pi]$, then it becomes one-one and onto with range $[-1, 1]$. Actually, cosine function



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MATHEMATICS

restricted to any of the intervals $[-\pi, 0]$, $[0, \pi]$, $[\pi, 2\pi]$ etc., is bijective with range as



$[-1, 1]$. We can, therefore, define the inverse of cosine function in each of these

intervals. We denote the inverse of the cosine function by \cos^{-1} (arc cosine function).

Thus, \cos^{-1} is a function whose domain is $[-1, 1]$ and range

could be any of the intervals $[-\pi, 0]$, $[0, \pi]$, $[\pi, 2\pi]$ etc.



Corresponding to each such interval, we get a branch of the

function \cos^{-1} . The branch with range $[0, \pi]$ is called the *principal*



value branch of the function \cos^{-1} . We write

$$\cos^{-1} : [-1, 1]$$

$$[0, \pi].$$



The graph of the function given by $y = \cos^{-1} x$ can be drawn in the same way as discussed about the graph of $y = \sin^{-1} x$. The graphs of $y = \cos x$ and $y = \cos^{-1} x$ are given in Fig 2.2 (i) and (ii).

Fig 2.2 (i)

Fig 2.2 (ii)

Let us now discuss $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$ and $\sec^{-1} x$ as follows:

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Since, $\operatorname{cosec} x =$

, the domain of the cosec function is the set $\{ x : x \in \mathbf{R} \text{ and}$

$\sin x$



$x \in n\pi, n \in \mathbf{Z}$ and the range is the set $\{y \in \mathbf{R}, y \geq 1 \text{ or } y \leq -1\}$ i.e., the set



$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$. It means that $y = \operatorname{cosec} x$ assumes all real values except $-1 < y < 1$ and is not defined for integral multiple of π . If we restrict the domain of cosec function to



$(\pi/2, \pi) - \{0\}$, then it is one to one and onto with its range as the set $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$.
Actually,



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cosec function restricted to any of the intervals

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$-\{0\}$,



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etc., is bijective and its range is the set of all real numbers $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$.



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INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 37

Thus $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1}$ can be defined as a function whose domain is $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$ and range could

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be any of the intervals

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function corresponding to the range



$\{0\}$ is called the *principal value branch*



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of cosec⁻¹. We thus have principal branch as



cosec⁻¹ : $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$

,

{0}



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The graphs of $y = \text{cosec } x$ and $y = \text{cosec}^{-1} x$ are given in Fig 2.3 (i), (ii).

Fig 2.3 (i)

Fig 2.3 (ii)

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Also, since $\sec x =$

, the domain of $y = \sec x$ is the set $\mathbf{R} - \{x : x = (2n + 1)\pi\}$

,

$\cos x$

$\neq 0$

$n \in \mathbf{Z}$ and range is the set $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$. It means that \sec (secant function) assumes



all real values except $-1 < y < 1$ and is not defined for odd multiples of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

. If we

restrict



restrict the domain of secant function to $[0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup (\frac{3\pi}{2}, \pi]$ - $\{ \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2} \}$,

then it is one-one and onto with



range

is

MATHEMATICS

its range as the set $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$. Actually, secant function restricted to any of the

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intervals $[-, 0] - \{$
 $\}, [0,] - \infty$



, $[, 2] - \{$
 $\}$ etc., is bijective and its range



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is $\mathbf{R} - \{-1, 1\}$. Thus \sec^{-1} can be defined as a function whose domain is $\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$ and

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range could be any of the intervals $[-, 0] - \{$
 $\}, [0,] - \{$
 $\}, [, 2] - \{$
 $\}$ etc.



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Corresponding to each of these intervals, we get different branches of the function \sec^{-1} .



The branch with range $[0, \pi) - \{\frac{\pi}{2}\}$ is called the *principal value branch* of the



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function \sec^{-1} . We thus have



$\sec^{-1} : \mathbf{R} - (-1,1)$

$[0, \pi) - \{\frac{\pi}{2}\}$



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The graphs of the functions $y = \sec x$ and $y = \sec^{-1} x$ are given in Fig 2.4 (i), (ii).

Fig 2.4 (i)

Fig 2.4 (ii)

Finally, we now discuss \tan^{-1} and \cot^{-1}

We know that the domain of the tan function (tangent function) is the set



$\{ x : x \in \mathbf{R} \text{ and } x \neq (2n + 1)\pi$

$, n \in \mathbf{Z} \}$ and the range is \mathbf{R} . It means that tan function



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is not defined for odd multiples of π .

If we restrict the domain of tangent function to

$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 39



, then it is one-one and onto with its range as \mathbf{R} . Actually, tangent function



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restricted to any of the intervals

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etc., is bijective



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and its range is \mathbf{R} . Thus \tan^{-1} can be defined as a function whose domain is \mathbf{R} and

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range could be any of the intervals

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and so on. These



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intervals give different branches of the function \tan^{-1} . The branch with range

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is called the *principal value branch* of the function \tan^{-1} .

We thus have



$\tan^{-1} : \mathbf{R}$

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†

†

The graphs of the function $y = \tan x$ and $y = \tan^{-1} x$ are given in Fig 2.5 (i), (ii).

Fig 2.5 (i)

Fig 2.5 (ii)

We know that domain of the cot function (cotangent function) is the set

$\{ x : x \in \mathbf{R} \text{ and } x \neq n\pi, n \in \mathbf{Z} \}$ and range is \mathbf{R} . It means that cotangent function is not



defined for integral multiples of π . If we restrict the domain of cotangent function to



$(0, \pi)$, then it is bijective with and its range as \mathbf{R} . In fact, cotangent function restricted



to any of the intervals $(-\pi, 0)$, $(0, \pi)$, $(\pi, 2\pi)$ etc., is bijective and its range is \mathbf{R} . Thus



\cot^{-1} can be defined as a function whose domain is the \mathbf{R} and range as any of the

40

MATHEMATICS

intervals $(-\pi, 0)$, $(0, \pi)$, $(\pi, 2\pi)$ etc. These intervals give different branches of the



function \cot^{-1} . The function with range $(0, \pi)$ is called the *principal value branch* of



the function \cot^{-1} . We thus have

$\cot^{-1} : \mathbf{R}$

(0,)



The graphs of $y = \cot x$ and $y = \cot^{-1} x$ are given in Fig 2.6 (i), (ii).

Fig 2.6 (i)

Fig 2.6 (ii)

The following table gives the inverse trigonometric function (principal value

branches) along with their domains and ranges.



\sin^{-1}

:

$[-1, 1]$



,



2 2 †



cos-1



[-1, 1]

[0,]



cosec-1




R - (-1,1)

- {0}



,



22 



sec-1

∴

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$

$[0,] - \{ \}$



2



\tan^{-1}

:

R

,

✂

×

2

2 **×**

×

×

\cot^{-1}

:

R

(0,)

✂

☎

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 41

Note

1

1. $\sin^{-1} x$ should not be confused with $(\sin x)^{-1}$. In fact $(\sin x)^{-1} =$

and

$\sin x$

similarly for other trigonometric functions.

2. Whenever no branch of an inverse trigonometric functions is mentioned, we

mean the principal value branch of that function.

3. The value of an inverse trigonometric functions which lies in the range of principal branch is called the *principal value* of that inverse trigonometric functions.

We now consider some examples:



1 ✂

Example 1 Find the principal value of \sin^{-1}

.



2 📞



1



1 ∞

Solution Let \sin^{-1}

$= y$. Then, $\sin y =$

.



2 

2



We know that the range of the principal value branch of \sin^{-1} is

and



,



22



1



1

sin



. Therefore, principal value of \sin^{-1}

is



4 ✓

2

4

⓪

2 †

✓

×

×

✂

1

Example 2 Find the principal value of \cot^{-1}

✂

✂

3 ☎

⓪

†

×

✂

1 ∞

Solution Let \cot^{-1}

$= y$. Then,

3 



1



2



$\cot y$



$= \cot$

= cot



cot 



3



3



3 ✦



3 ×

We know that the range of principal value branch of \cot^{-1} is $(0, \pi)$ and



2



1 ✂

★ 1



2 ✎

\cot



. Hence, principal value of \cot^{-1}

is



3 ✓

3

3



3 †



EXERCISE 2.1

Find the principal values of the following:



3 ★



1 ✕

1. \sin^{-1}

2. \cos^{-1}

3. cosec⁻¹ (2)



2 🤔



2 ★



1 🏠

4. tan⁻¹ (

5. cos⁻¹

6. $\tan^{-1}(-1)$



3)



2 

42

MATHEMATICS

2

1



7. \sec^{-1}

8. $\cot^{-1}(3)$

9. $\cos^{-1} \dagger$



3 ✂



2 ✂



10. cosec⁻¹ ()



2

Find the values of the following:



1



1 ✂



1



1 ✖

11. $\tan^{-1}(1) + \cos^{-1}$

$+ \sin^{-1}$



12. \cos^{-1}

$+ 2 \sin^{-1}$



2 ✖



2 ✓



2 📝



2 ✓



13. If $\sin^{-1} x = y$, then



(A) $0 < y$

(B) $\frac{\pi}{2}$



$y < \frac{\pi}{2}$



2

2

+

+

(C) $0 < y <$

(D) ✖

✖

y ✖

x

2

2

14. \tan^{-1}

1

3

\sec ✖

is equal to

✖

✖

2

✖

✖

2

x

(A)

(B)

x

(C)

(D)

x

+

x

3

3

3

2.3 Properties of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

In this section, we shall prove some important properties of inverse trigonometric

functions. It may be mentioned here that these results are valid within the principal

value branches of the corresponding inverse trigonometric functions and wherever

they are defined. Some results may not be valid for all values of the domains of inverse

trigonometric functions. In fact, they will be valid only for some values of x for which

inverse trigonometric functions are defined. We will not go into the details of these

values of x in the domain as this discussion goes beyond the scope of this text book.

Let us recall that if $y = \sin^{-1} x$, then $x = \sin y$ and if $x = \sin y$, then $y = \sin^{-1} x$. This is equivalent to



$\sin(\sin^{-1}$



$x) = x, x \in [-1, 1]$ and $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x, x$



,



2 ☆

☆

☆

Same is true for other five inverse trigonometric functions as well. We now prove

some properties of inverse trigonometric functions.

1

1. (i) \sin^{-1}

= $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x, x \geq 1$ or $x \leq -1$

x

☆

☆

×

×

×

1

(ii) \cos^{-1}

= $\sec^{-1} x, x \geq 1$ or $x \leq -1$

x

☆

☆

×

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 43

1

(iii) \tan^{-1}

$= \cot^{-1} x, x > 0$

x

To prove the first result, we put $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x = y$, i.e., $x = \operatorname{cosec} y$

1

Therefore

$= \sin y$

x

1

Hence

\sin^{-1}

$= y$

x

1

or

$$\sin^{-1}$$

$$= \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$$

x

Similarly, we can prove the other parts.

$$\mathbf{2. (i) \sin^{-1} (-x) = -\sin^{-1} x, x \in [-1, 1]}$$



$$\mathbf{(ii) \tan^{-1} (-x) = -\tan^{-1} x, x \in \mathbb{R}}$$



$$\mathbf{(iii) \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} (-x) = -\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x, |x| \leq 1}$$



Let $\sin^{-1} (-x) = y$, i.e., $-x = \sin y$ so that $x = -\sin y$, i.e., $x = \sin (-y)$.

Hence

$$\sin^{-1} x = -y = -\sin^{-1} (-x)$$

Therefore

$$\sin^{-1} (-x) = -\sin^{-1} x$$

Similarly, we can prove the other parts.

3. (i) $\cos^{-1}(-x) = -\cos^{-1}x, x \in [-1, 1]$



(ii) $\sec^{-1}(-x) = -\sec^{-1}x, |x| \geq 1$



(iii) $\cot^{-1}(-x) = -\cot^{-1}x, x \in \mathbb{R}$



Let $\cos^{-1}(-x) = y$ i.e., $-x = \cos y$ so that $x = -\cos y = \cos(-y)$



Therefore

$$\cos^{-1}x = -y = -\cos^{-1}(-x)$$



Hence

$$\cos^{-1}(-x) = -\cos^{-1}x$$



Similarly, we can prove the other parts.

4. (i) $\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x =$

, $x \in [-1, 1]$

$\frac{\pi}{2}$



(ii) $\tan^{-1} x + \cot^{-1} x =$

, $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$\frac{\pi}{2}$



(iii) $\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x + \sec^{-1} x =$

, $|x| \geq 1$

2



Let $\sin^{-1} x = y$. Then $x = \sin y = \cos$



y



2



-1

Therefore

$\cos^{-1} x =$

=



$\sin^{-1} x =$

y



x

2

2

44

MATHEMATICS

Hence

$$\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = 2$$

Similarly, we can prove the other parts.

$x + y$

5. (i) $\tan^{-1} x + \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \frac{x+y}{1-xy}$

, $xy < 1$

$1 - xy$

$$x - y$$

$$(ii) \tan^{-1} x - \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1}$$

$$, xy > -1$$

$$1 + xy$$

$$2x$$

$$(iii) 2\tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1}$$

$$, |x| < 1$$

$$2$$

$$1 - x$$

Let $\tan^{-1} x = \alpha$ and $\tan^{-1} y = \beta$. Then $x = \tan \alpha$, $y = \tan \beta$

†

⊗

†

⊗

$$\tan \alpha \otimes \tan \beta$$

$$x \otimes y$$

Now

tan(



)

tan



tan

xy

x < y

This gives

+ = tan-1



xy

x + y

Hence

$$\tan^{-1} x + \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \frac{x+y}{1-xy}$$

In the above result, if we replace y by $-y$, we get the second result and by replacing y by x , we get the third result.

$$2x$$

$$6. (i) 2 \tan^{-1} x = \sin^{-1}$$

$$\frac{2x}{1+x^2}, |x| < 1$$

$$2$$



$$\frac{1+x}{1+x^2}$$

$$2$$

$$\frac{1-x}{1+x^2}$$

$$(ii) 2 \tan^{-1} x = \cos^{-1}$$

$$\frac{1-x^2}{1+x^2}, x \geq 0$$

$$2$$



$$\frac{1+x}{1+x^2}$$

$$2x$$

$$(iii) 2 \tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1}$$

$$\frac{2x}{1-x^2}, -1 < x < 1$$

$$2$$

$$1 - x$$

Let $\tan^{-1} x = y$, then $x = \tan y$. Now

$$2x$$

$$2 \tan y$$

$$\sin^{-1}$$

$$2$$

$$= \sin^{-1}$$

$$2$$

$$1$$

$$1 \approx \tan y$$

↩

$$x$$

$$= \sin^{-1}(\sin 2y) = 2y = 2 \tan^{-1} x$$

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 45

$$2$$

$$2$$

$$1x$$

$$1 \approx \tan y$$

Also \cos^{-1}

$$= \cos^{-1}$$

$$= \cos^{-1}(\cos 2y) = 2y = 2 \tan^{-1} x$$

2

2

1

$$1 \approx \tan y$$

✂

x

(iii) Can be worked out similarly.

We now consider some examples.

Example 3 Show that

1

1

(i) \sin^{-1}

2

†

†

x

$$2x - 1$$

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

†

†

x

ⓞ

ⓞ

2

2

1

(ii) \sin^{-1}

2

†

$x \dagger 1$

$2x 1$

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

†

x



2

Solution

(i) Let $x = \sin \frac{\pi}{6}$. Then $\sin^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{6}$. We have



\sin^{-1}

2

2

$2x - 1$

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



x



$$= \sin^{-1}(2 \sin \cos) = \sin^{-1}(\sin 2) = 2$$



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

(ii) Take $x = \cos$, then proceeding as above, we get, \sin^{-1}

2

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



$$2x \rightarrow x$$



1

-1 2

-1 3

Example 4 Show that \tan^{-1}



\tan



\tan

2

11

4

Solution By property 5 (i), we have

1

2

1

2



2 11

\oplus 1

3



15

L.H.S. =

-1

-1

tan

-1

1

= tan

= R.H.S.

×

tan

×

tan

✓

tan

2

11

1

2

20

4

$1 \times x$

2 11

+

$\cos x$

Example 5 Express

+

+

+

+ 1

\tan

,

in the simplest form.

★

☆

$x \star$

+

$1 \sin x \star$

2

2



Solution We write



$2x$

$2x$

\cos

\sin



$\star 1$

$\cos x$

-1

2

2

tan

*

tan

1 sin x

☆

☆

*

*

☆

*

*

2 x

2 x

x

x

☆

cos

sin

2sin

COS



2

2

2

2 *

46

MATHEMATICS

x

x

x

x

COS

SIN

COS

sin



-1



2

2  

2

2

= tan



x

x 



2

cos

sin



2

2 †



x



x

x


cos

sin




1  tan



-1 

2

2 

-1 

2 

= tan

× tan




x

x 



x 

 1 \checkmark tan



cos

sin



2



2

2 ×



-1 ×



x ×



x

= tan

tan



4

2 ✿



4

2

Alternatively,



2 x

sin

x

sin



-1 ☆

$\cos x$ ☆

-1



2



-1



2

\tan

\tan

tan



1 sin x *



2 x

1 ☆ cos

☆

x

1 ☆ cos

☆

*

*

*

*

*

2

*

*

2



$2x$

$2x$

$2\sin$

COS



-1

4



4



= tan



2



2 x

2sin



4



x

-1

-1

2



2 x *

= tan

cot



tan

tan



4



2

4



-1



x



x ✕

= tan

tan

+

⊕

✱

✱

⊕

4

2 ⊕

⊕

✦

4

2

◇

★

☆

⊗

-1 ●

1

Example 6 Write \cot



, $|x| > 1$ in the simplest form.



2



x



1

Solution Let $x = \sec \theta$, then

2

x



2

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



1



θ

1

Therefore,

-1

cot

= cot⁻¹ (cot) = = sec⁻¹ x, which is the simplest form.



2

x

1

3



3 x x

-1

2 x



1

Example 7 Prove that tan⁻¹ x + tan

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

$$\Rightarrow |x|$$



$$2 \text{ } \textcircled{C}$$

$$1$$

$$1$$



$$3 x$$

$$3$$



$$x$$



Solution Let $x = \tan \theta$. Then $\theta = \tan^{-1} x$. We have



$$3$$

3



3 x x ✂



3tan ☆



tan



R.H.S. =

-1

-1

tan



tan

2



2



1



3 x

1 ~~2~~ 3 tan



= tan⁻¹ (tan 3) = 3 = 3 tan⁻¹ x = tan⁻¹ x + 2 tan⁻¹ x



2 x

$$= \tan^{-1} x + \tan^{-1} 1$$

$$2 = \text{L.H.S. (Why?)}$$

$$1 \neq x$$

Example 8 Find the value of $\cos(\sec^{-1} x + \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x)$, $|x| \leq 1$



Solution We have $\cos(\sec^{-1} x + \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x) = \cos$



$$= 0$$



$$2 \Rightarrow$$



EXERCISE 2.2

Prove the following:

$$1. 1$$

$$1. 3\sin^{-1} x = \sin^{-1}(3x - 4x^3), x \in [-1, 1]$$



,

×

×

×

2 2 **×**

+

+

1

2. $3\cos^{-1} x = \cos^{-1} (4x^3 - 3x), x$

✓

, 1 ×

×

×

2

×

+

+

2

+

7

+

1

3. tan-1

1

1

+

tan

+

tan

11

24

2

1

1

31

⊕ 1

1

⊕

⊕ 1

4.

$2 \tan$



\tan



\tan

2

7

17

Write the following functions in the simplest form:

2

$\star 1$

1

\tan



x

5.

1

1

1

tan

, $x > 0$

6.

, $|x| > 1$



2

x

x

1



x

x



☆ 1

$1 - \cos x$

7.

\tan

, $x <$

8.

1

\cos

\sin

\tan

, $x <$

☆

$1 - \cos x$ ☆

*

*

⊛

⊛

☆

☆

$$\cos x * \sin x$$

*

*

*

*

*

48

MATHEMATICS

1

x

9.

\tan

$$, |x| < a$$

2

2

$$a \approx x$$

2

3

☆

a

a



≈ 1

$3axx$

10.

\tan

, $a > 0$;



x 



3

2

a

$3ax \dagger$

3

3



Find the values of each of the following:



1 🙌

11.

-1

-1

tan

$2 \cos 2 \sin$



12. $\cot (\tan^{-1} a + \cot^{-1} a)$



2 



2

1 

-1

2 x

-1 1

y 



13.

tan

sin



cos

, $|x| < 1, y > 0$ and $xy < 1$

+

2

2

2

1 x

1

y ✦

+

+

+

+

+

-1 1

-1

✦

14. If $\sin \sin$

✦

$\cos x$

1



, then find the value of x



5



$-1 x \star 1$

$-1 x \star 1$



15. If \tan

, then find the value of x



\tan



$x \star 2$

$x \star 2$

4

Find the values of each of the expressions in Exercises 16 to 18.

-1 *

2☆

16.

sin

sin

*

17.

-1

3

tan

tan *

✿

✿

*

3 *

★

⊛

4 ☆



-1 3

-1 3 ✦

18.

tan sin



cot



5

2 ☆



★1

7

19.

$\cos * \cos$

*

is equal to

*

6 *

7

5

☆

☆

☆

☆

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

6

6

3

6

20.



* 1

1

sin

is equal to



sin (



)

3

2 *



1

1

1

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D) 1

2

3

4

21.

$\sec 1$

1

\tan

3

\cot^2

is equal to

Ⓐ

Ⓑ 3

☆

(A)

(B)

(C) 0

(D)



2 3



2

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 49

Miscellaneous Examples

1

3 ~~3~~

Example 9 Find the value of $\sin(\sin$

)

5

1

3 ~~3~~

3 ~~3~~

Solution We know that

$\sin x \leq 1$

$\sin(\sin x)$

. Therefore, $\sin^{-1}(\sin x)$

) 



x

5

5

3 





+

+

But

, which is the principal branch of $\sin^{-1} x$

+



,

5



22 🖱



3

2



3✂

2✂



However

sin (

)

and



$\sin(\frac{\pi}{2})$

) \sin

5

5

5

5

✓

22 ×

×

×

+

+

+

× 1

3

1

×

2

2

Therefore

\sin (sin

) + \sin (sin

) +

5

5

5

1 3

1 8

1 84

Example 10 Show that \sin



\sin



\cos

5

17

85

Solution Let

1 3

\sin

and

1 8

sin



y



x

5

17

3

8

Therefore

$\sin x$

and $\sin y$



5

17

9

4

Now

2

$\cos x$

(Why?)

+

$1 + \sin x + 1 +$

+

25

5

2

64

15

and

$\cos y + 1 + \sin y + 1 +$

+

289

17

We have

$$\cos(x - y) = \cos x \cos y + \sin x \sin y$$

4

15

3

8

84

=



5

17

5

17

85

Therefore



◆ 1

84

$$x + y + \cos$$



85



3

8

84

Hence

1

1

1

sin



sin



cos

5

17

85

50

MATHEMATICS

12

4

63

Example 11 Show that

1

1

1

sin



cos



tan



13

5

16

12

4

63

Solution Let

1

1

1

sin



,

x

cos



y , tan



z

13

5

16

12

4

63

Then

$\sin x \approx$

$, \cos y \approx$

,

$\tan z \approx$

13

5

16

5

3

12

3

Therefore

$\cos x \approx$

$, \sin y \approx$

$, \tan x \approx$

and $\tan y \approx$

13

5

5

4

12

3

$\tan x$

+

63

5

4

ⓞ

$\tan y$

We have

$\tan(x$

+

+

⊗

ⓞ

ⓞ

y)

1

12 3

16

+

$\tan x \tan y$

1 ⊗

⊗

5

4

Hence

$\tan(x \leftarrow y) \rightleftarrows \text{✌} \tan z$

i.e.,

$\tan(x + y) = \tan(-z)$ or $\tan(x + y) = \tan(-z)$



Therefore

$x + y = -z$ or $x + y = -z$



Since

x, y and z are positive, $x + y - z$ (Why?)



-1 12

-1 4

-1 63

Hence

$x + y + z =$ or \sin



\cos



\tan



13

5

16

-1

a



$$a \cos x + b \sin x$$



Example 12 Simplify $\tan x$

, if

$$\tan x > -1$$



$$b \cos x + a \sin x$$

b



Solution We have,

$$a \cos x$$



a



$$b \sin x$$

$$\tan x$$



-1



$a \cos x b \sin x$

tan



-1

$b \cos x$



b



= tan



-1

tan



$b \cos x + a \sin x$ ✦

$b \cos x$



a



$a \sin x$



✦ 1

$\tan x$



b



$b \cos x$



a

a

=

-1

-1

tan

=

-1

tan



x



$\tan(\tan x)$

b

b

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 51

Example 13 Solve $\tan^{-1} 2x + \tan^{-1} 3x = 4$

Solution We have $\tan^{-1} 2x + \tan^{-1} 3x = 4$

-1 ✂

$2x \ 3x$ ✂



or

\tan

=



$1 \ 2x \ 3x$ ⓪

4

+

+

+

✂

-1 ☆

$5x$



i.e.

tan

=



2

16x 🙌

4



5x

Therefore

2 = tan



1

1

4



6x

or

$$6x^2 + 5x - 1 = 0 \text{ i.e., } (6x - 1)(x + 1) = 0$$

1

which gives

$$x =$$

$$\text{or } x = -1.$$

6

Since $x = -1$ does not satisfy the equation, as the L.H.S. of the equation becomes

1

negative, x

is the only solution of the given equation.

✓

6

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 2

Find the value of the following:

$$-1$$

$$13 \checkmark$$

$$-1 \times$$

7 ✓

×

×

×

1.

cos

cos

2.

tan

tan

×

6 ✗

×

+

6 ✗

+

+

+

Prove that

-1 3

-1 24

-1 8

-1 3

-1 77

3.

2sin

4.

sin

+

sin

✓

tan

✓

tan

5

7

17

5

36

-1 4

-1 12

-1 33

-1 12

-1 3

-1 56

5.

cos

6.

cos

+

sin

✓

sin

+

cos

✓

cos

5

13

65

13

5

65

-1 63

-1 5

-1 3

7.

tan



sin



cos

16

13

5

-1 1

1



1

1



1

1



1

8.

tan



tan



tan



tan



5

7

3

8

4

MATHEMATICS

Prove that

$$-1$$

$$1$$

$$-1 \leq 1$$

$$x$$

9.

$$\tan$$

$$x$$

$$\cos$$



$$, x [0, 1]$$



$$2$$



$$1$$

x 🕒

†

†

†

✳️

x

x 🖱️

✓

✓

✗

👉

👉

✌️

x

10.

-1

1 sin

1 sin

cot

, $x \neq 0$,



\times



$+$

4



$1 \sin x$

$1 \sin x$

$+$



2



1



1

x

$1 - x$



1

11.

-1

-1

\tan

,

[Hint: Put $x = \cos 2$]



$x \div 1$




cos

x



1

x

1 x 

2



4

2



9 ✓

9



1

9



2 2

12.

1

1



sin



sin

8

4

3

4

3

Solve the following equations:

$$\tan^{-1} \frac{1-x}{1+x}$$

$$1$$

$$-1$$

13. $2 \tan^{-1} (\cos x) = \tan^{-1} (2 \operatorname{cosec} x)$

14.

\tan



\tan

$$x, (x \neq 0)$$

$$1 \pm x$$

$$2$$

15. $\sin (\tan^{-1} x), |x| < 1$ is equal to

$$x$$

$$1$$

$$1$$

$$x$$

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

2

1

2

1

2

1

2

1 ☆ x

☆

x

⊛

x

⊛

x

☆

16. $\sin^{-1}(1-x) - 2 \sin^{-1} x =$

, then x is equal to

2

1

1

1

(A) 0,

(B) 1,

(C) 0

(D)

2

2

2

1



x

★ 1

x

y

17.

tan



tan

is equal to

☆

$y *$

$x ☆ y$

*

*

◆

3 ☆

(A) ☆

(B) ☆

(C) ☆

(D)

2

3

4

4

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS 53

Summary

The domains and ranges (principal value branches) of inverse trigonometric

functions are given in the following table:

Functions

Domain

Range

(Principal Value Branches)



$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$

$$[-1, 1]$$

,



2

2 †



$$y = \cos^{-1} x$$

$$[-1, 1]$$

$[0,]$



$$y = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$$

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$



$- \{0\}$



2

2 



$$y = \sec^{-1} x$$

$\mathbf{R} - (-1, 1)$

$[0,] - \{ \}$



2



$$y = \tan^{-1} x$$

R



,



2 2 ✕



$$y = \cot^{-1} x$$

R

(0,)



1

$\sin^{-1} x$ should not be confused with $(\sin x)^{-1}$. In fact $(\sin x)^{-1} =$

and

$\sin x$

similarly for other trigonometric functions.

The value of an inverse trigonometric functions which lies in its principal value branch is called the *principal value* of that inverse trigonometric functions.

For suitable values of domain, we have

$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$

$$x = \sin y$$

$$x = \sin y$$

$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$



$$\sin (\sin^{-1} x) = x$$

$$\sin^{-1} (\sin x) = x$$

1

\sin^{-1}

$$= \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$$

$$\cos^{-1} (-x) = -\cos^{-1} x$$

x



1

\cos^{-1}

$= \sec^{-1} x$

$\cot^{-1} (-x) = -\cot^{-1} x$

x

⊠

1

\tan^{-1}

$= \cot^{-1} x$

$\sec^{-1} (-x) = -\sec^{-1} x$

x

⊠

54

MATHEMATICS

$\sin^{-1} (-x) = -\sin^{-1} x$

$\tan^{-1} (-x) = -\tan^{-1} x$

↪

$\tan^{-1} x + \cot^{-1} x =$

$\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} (-x) = -\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$

2



$$\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x =$$

$$\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x + \sec^{-1} x =$$

2

2

x

$2x$



y

$$\tan^{-1} x + \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1}$$

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

1

2

$1 \oplus x$



xy

$x \odot y$

$$\tan^{-1} x - \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \frac{x - y}{1 + xy}$$

$2x$

2

$1 \mp x$

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

$= \cos^{-1}$

2

1

2

$1 \mp x$

\mp

x

Historical Note

The study of trigonometry was first started in India. The ancient Indian Mathematicians, Aryabhatta (476 A.D.), Brahmagupta (598 A.D.), Bhaskara I

(600 A.D.) and Bhaskara II (1114 A.D.) got important results of trigonometry. All

this knowledge went from India to Arabia and then from there to Europe. The

Greeks had also started the study of trigonometry but their approach was so

clumsy that when the Indian approach became known, it was immediately adopted

throughout the world.

In India, the predecessor of the modern trigonometric functions, known as the sine of an angle, and the introduction of the sine function represents one of

the main contribution of the *siddhantas* (Sanskrit astronomical works) to mathematics.

Bhaskara I (about 600 A.D.) gave formulae to find the values of sine functions

for angles more than 90° . A sixteenth century Malayalam work *Yuktibhasa* contains a proof for the expansion of $\sin(A + B)$. Exact expression for sines or

cosines of 18° , 36° , 54° , 72° , etc., were given by Bhaskara II.

The symbols $\sin^{-1} x$, $\cos^{-1} x$, etc., for arc $\sin x$, arc $\cos x$, etc., were suggested by the astronomer Sir John F.W. Herschel (1813) The name of Thales

(about 600 B.C.) is invariably associated with height and distance problems. He

is credited with the determination of the height of a great pyramid in Egypt by

measuring shadows of the pyramid and an auxiliary staff (or gnomon) of known

height, and comparing the ratios:

H

$$h = \tan(\text{sun's altitude})$$

S

s

Thales is also said to have calculated the distance of a ship at sea through the proportionality of sides of similar triangles. Problems on height and distance

using the similarity property are also found in ancient Indian works.

—

—



Chapter 3

MATRICES

The essence of Mathematics lies in its freedom. — CANTOR

3.1 Introduction

The knowledge of matrices is necessary in various branches of mathematics. Matrices

are one of the most powerful tools in mathematics. This mathematical tool simplifies

our work to a great extent when compared with other straight forward methods. The

evolution of concept of matrices is the result of an attempt to obtain compact and

simple methods of solving system of linear equations. Matrices are not only used as a

representation of the coefficients in system of linear equations, but utility of matrices

far exceeds that use. Matrix notation and operations are used in electronic spreadsheet

programs for personal computer, which in turn is used in different areas of business

and science like budgeting, sales projection, cost estimation, analysing the results of an

experiment *etc.* Also, many physical operations such as magnification, rotation and

reflection through a plane can be represented mathematically by matrices.
Matrices

are also used in cryptography. This mathematical tool is not only used in certain branches

of sciences, but also in genetics, economics, sociology, modern psychology and industrial

management.

In this chapter, we shall find it interesting to become acquainted with the fundamentals of matrix and matrix algebra.

3.2 Matrix

Suppose we wish to express the information that Radha has 15 notebooks. We may

express it as [15] with the understanding that the number inside [] is the number of

notebooks that Radha has. Now, if we have to express that Radha has 15 notebooks

and 6 pens. We may express it as [15 6] with the understanding that first number

inside [] is the number of notebooks while the other one is the number of pens possessed

by Radha. Let us now suppose that we wish to express the information of possession

MATRICES 57

of notebooks and pens by Radha and her two friends Fauzia and Simran which

is as follows:

Radha

has

15

notebooks

and

6 pens,

Fauzia

has

10

notebooks

and

2 pens,

Simran

has

13

notebooks

and

5 pens.

Now this could be arranged in the tabular form as follows:

Notebooks

Pens

Radha

15

6

Fauzia

10

2

Simran

13

5

and this can be expressed as

or

Radha

Fauzia

Simran

Notebooks

15

10

13

Pens

6

2

5

which can be expressed as:

In the first arrangement the entries in the first column represent the number of

note books possessed by Radha, Fauzia and Simran, respectively and the entries in the

second column represent the number of pens possessed by Radha, Fauzia and Simran,

58

MATHEMATICS

respectively. Similarly, in the second arrangement, the entries in the first row represent

the number of notebooks possessed by Radha, Fauzia and Simran, respectively. The

entries in the second row represent the number of pens possessed by Radha, Fauzia

and Simran, respectively. An arrangement or display of the above kind is called a

matrix. Formally, we define matrix as:

Definition 1 A *matrix* is an ordered rectangular array of numbers or functions. The

3



A

, B

, C



3.5

-1

2



0

5



$\cos x$

$\sin x \Rightarrow 2$

$\tan x$



5



3

6



3

5



7 

In the above examples, the horizontal lines of elements are said to constitute, **rows**

of the matrix and the vertical lines of elements are said to constitute, **columns** of the matrix. Thus A has 3 rows and 2 columns, B has 3 rows and 3 columns while C has 2

rows and 3 columns.

3.2.1 Order of a matrix

A matrix having m rows and n columns is called a matrix of *order* $m \times n$ or simply $m \times n$ matrix (read as an m by n matrix). So referring to the above examples of matrices, we

have A as 3×2 matrix, B as 3×3 matrix and C as 2×3 matrix. We observe that A has $3 \times 2 = 6$ elements, B and C have 9 and 6 elements, respectively.

In general, an $m \times n$ matrix has the following rectangular array:

or $A = [a]$

, $1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n, i, j \in \mathbb{N}$

ij $m \times n$

\times

\times

\times

\times

\oplus

Thus the i th row consists of the elements $a_{i1}, a_{i2}, a_{i3}, \dots, a_{in}$, while the j th column

a_{i2}

a_{i3}

a_{in}

consists of the elements $a_{1j}, a_{2j}, a_{3j}, \dots, a_{mj}$,

a_{1j}

a_{2j}

a_{3j}

a_{mj}

In general a_{ij} is an element lying in the i th row and j th column. We can also call a_{ij}

it as the (i, j) th element of A . The number of elements in an $m \times n$ matrix will be equal to mn .

Note In this chapter

1. We shall follow the notation, namely $A = [a]$

to indicate that A is a matrix

$ij m \times n$

of order $m \times n$.

2. We shall consider only those matrices whose elements are real numbers or

functions taking real values.

We can also represent any point (x, y) in a plane by a matrix (column or row) as



$x \begin{matrix} \times \\ \times \\ \times \end{matrix}$

(or $[x, y]$). For example point P(0, 1) as a matrix representation may be given as



$y \begin{matrix} \times \\ \times \\ \times \end{matrix}$



0

P



or [0 1].



☆ 1



Observe that in this way we can also express the vertices of a closed rectilinear

figure in the form of a matrix. For example, consider a quadrilateral ABCD with vertices

A (1, 0), B (3, 2), C (1, 3), D (-1, 2).

Now, quadrilateral ABCD in the matrix form, can be represented as

A

B

C D

A ✕ 1

0+

1 3

1

B + 3

2+



1

X



or

Y



0 2

3

2✓

C + 1

3+

×

×

2 🖌️ 4

D + 1

2+

+

+

+

4 × 2

Thus, matrices can be used as representation of vertices of geometrical figures in

a plane.

Now, let us consider some examples.

Example 1 Consider the following information regarding the number of men and women

workers in three factories I, II and III

Men workers

Women workers

I

30

25

II

25

31

III

27

26

Represent the above information in the form of a 3×2 matrix. What does the entry

in the third row and second column represent?

60

MATHEMATICS

Solution The information is represented in the form of a 3×2 matrix as follows:

30

25✂

A

✂

25

31✂



27

26✂



The entry in the third row and second column represents the number of women

workers in factory III.

Example 2 If a matrix has 8 elements, what are the possible orders it can have?

Solution We know that if a matrix is of order $m \times n$, it has mn elements. Thus, to find all possible orders of a matrix with 8 elements, we will find all ordered pairs of natural

numbers, whose product is 8.

Thus, all possible ordered pairs are (1, 8), (8, 1), (4, 2), (2, 4)

Hence, possible orders are $1 \times 8, 8 \times 1, 4 \times 2, 2 \times 4$

1

Example 3 Construct a 3×2 matrix whose elements are given by a

.

†

$| i † 3 j |$

ij

2

⊗

a

a

11

12 ☆

Solution In general a 3×2 matrix is given by A

☞

a

a ☞ .

✌

21


22



a

a

31

32 



1

Now

a

, $i = 1, 2, 3$ and $j = 1, 2$.



$|i \Rightarrow 3j|$

ij

2

1

1

5

Therefore

a

$a \dagger$

$|1 \dagger 3 \blacktriangleleft 2|$

\dagger

$|1 \dagger 3 \blacktriangleleft 1| \dagger 1$

11

\dagger

2

12

2

2

1

1

1

a

a

†

| 2 † 3 ⇐ 2 | † 2

†

| 2 † 3 ⇐ 1 |

21

†

2

2

22

2

1

1

3

a

a

⇒

$$|3 \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \\ \rightarrow \end{matrix} 3 \checkmark 2|$$



$$|3 \begin{matrix} \leftarrow \\ \rightarrow \end{matrix} 3 \checkmark 1| \Rightarrow 0$$

31



2

32

2

2



5

1



2 X



1



Hence the required matrix is given by A

.

x

2

x

2

x

x

3 x

x

0

x

+

2 +

MATRICES 61

3.3 Types of Matrices

In this section, we shall discuss different types of matrices.

(i) Column matrix

A matrix is said to be a *column matrix* if it has only one column.

0 ✂

✂

3 ✂



For example, A



1 ✂ is a column matrix of order 4×1 .



1/



2 ✂



In general, $A = [a]$

is a column matrix of order $m \times 1$.

$ij m \times 1$

(ii) Row matrix

A matrix is said to be a *row matrix* if it has only one row.



1

For example, B

5 2 3

is a row matrix.



2



1



4

In general, $B = [b]$

is a row matrix of order $1 \times n$.

ij

$1 \times n$

(iii) Square matrix

A matrix in which the number of rows are equal to the number of columns, is

said to be a *square matrix*. Thus an $m \times n$ matrix is said to be a square matrix if $m = n$ and is known as a square matrix of order ‘ n ’.

3



1

0 ✓



3



For example A



3 2

$1 \times$ is a square matrix of order 3.



2

×

✓

4

3

1 ×

⇒

×

✗

In general, $A = [a_{ij}]$

is a square matrix of order m .

$i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$

Note If $A = [a_{ij}]$ is a square matrix of order n , then elements (entries) $a_{11}, a_{12}, \dots, a_{nn}$

11

22

nn

+

1

3

+

+

1 +

are said to constitute the *diagonal*, of the matrix A. Thus, if A

+

2

4

1 + .

+

+

+

+

+

3

5

6 +

+

+

Then the elements of the diagonal of A are 1, 4, 6.

MATHEMATICS

(iv) Diagonal matrix

A square matrix $B = [b]$

is said to be a *diagonal matrix* if all its non

ij $m \times m$

diagonal elements are zero, that is a matrix $B = [b]$

is said to be a diagonal

ij

$m \times m$

matrix if $b = 0$, when ij .

ij



1.1 0

0



1 0

For example, $A = [4]$, B

, C



, are diagonal matrices



0

2

0 🙌



0

2†



0

0

3 ✌️



of order 1, 2, 3, respectively.

(v) Scalar matrix

A diagonal matrix is said to be a *scalar matrix* if its diagonal elements are equal,

that is, a square matrix $B = [b]$

is said to be a scalar matrix if

$$ij \ n \times \ n$$

$$b = 0, \text{ when } ij$$

$$ij$$



$$b = k, \text{ when } i = j, \text{ for some constant } k.$$

$$ij$$

For example



3

0

0 



1

0

A = [3], B



, C × ✓ 0

3

0



0

1†

✓

✓

†

†

0

0

3

×

×

are scalar matrices of order 1, 2 and 3, respectively.

(vi) **Identity matrix**

A square matrix in which elements in the diagonal are all 1 and rest are all zero

is called an *identity matrix*. In other words, the square matrix $A = [a]$

is an

ij

$n \times n$

1 if

i

\times

j

identity matrix, if a_{ij}

.

\times

$\oplus 0$

if

$i \oplus j$

\oplus

We denote the identity matrix of order n by I . When order is clear from the

n

context, we simply write it as I .

\oplus

1

0

$0 \oplus$

\oplus

\oplus

\times

1

0

0

1

0

For example [1],

,

are identity matrices of order 1, 2 and 3,



0

1



0

0

1 ✦



respectively.

Observe that a scalar matrix is an identity matrix when $k = 1$. But every identity

matrix is clearly a scalar matrix.

MATRICES 63

(vii) **Zero matrix**

A matrix is said to be *zero matrix* or *null matrix* if all its elements are zero.

0

0

0

0

0



For example, $[0]$,

,

, $[0, 0]$ are all zero matrices. We denote



0

0✂



0

0

0✂



zero matrix by O . Its order will be clear from the context.

3.3.1 Equality of matrices

Definition 2 Two matrices $A = [a]$ and $B = [b]$ are said to be equal if

ij

ij

(i) they are of the same order

(ii) each element of A is equal to the corresponding element of B , that is $a = b$ for ij

ij

all i and j .

2

3

3

~~2~~

2 3

✂

2

~~3~~

✂

For example,

and

are equal matrices but

and

are

✂

~~0 1~~

✂

0 1 ✂



0

1 ✂



0 1 ✂



not equal matrices. Symbolically, if two matrices A and B are equal, we write $A = B$.

x

y

†

†

1.5

0 †

†

†

If z

a

⊠

2

6 ☆

⊠

☆

, then $x = -1.5, y = 0, z = 2, a = 6, b = 3, c = 2$



b

c



3

2 ☆



$x \text{ } \img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="145 95 175 115"/> 3$

$z \text{ } \img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="145 137 175 157"/> 4$

$2y \text{ } \img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="165 180 195 195"/> 7$

0

6

$3y \text{ } \img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="165 302 195 317"/>$



$2 \text{ } \img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="145 468 175 483"/>$

Example 4 If 

6

$a 1$

$0 \checkmark$



6

$\img alt="pencil icon" data-bbox="125 793 155 808"/> 3$

2 c  2 ✓



b

3

21

0



2 *b*

4

21

0 ✓



Find the values of a , b , c , x , y and z .

Solution As the given matrices are equal, therefore, their corresponding elements

must be equal. Comparing the corresponding elements, we get

$$x + 3 = 0,$$

$$z + 4 = 6,$$

$$2y - 7 = 3y - 2$$

$$a - 1 = -3,$$

$$0 = 2c + 2$$

$$b - 3 = 2b + 4,$$

Simplifying, we get

$$a = -2, b = -7, c = -1, x = -3, y = -5, z = 2$$

Example 5 Find the values of a , b , c , and d from the following equation: 2

$$a \times b$$

$$a \times 2b$$

4

3

\times

\div

\div

\div

\div

5 c

d

4 c

3 d \div

1

\div

1 24✂

✕

✕

☎

⓪

☎

⓪

64

MATHEMATICS

Solution By equality of two matrices, equating the corresponding elements, we get

$$2a + b = 4$$

$$5c - d = 11$$

$$a - 2b = -3$$

$$4c + 3d = 24$$

Solving these equations, we get

$$a = 1, b = 2, c = 3 \text{ and } d = 4$$

EXERCISE 3.1

2

5

19

7✂



5




1. In the matrix A

, write:



35

✂ 2

12 



2



3

1

5



- (i) The order of the matrix,
- (ii) The number of elements,
- (iii) Write the elements a, a, a, a, a .

13

21

33

24

23

2. If a matrix has 24 elements, what are the possible orders it can have?
What, if it

has 13 elements?

3. If a matrix has 18 elements, what are the possible orders it can have?
What, if it

has 5 elements?

4. Construct a 2×2 matrix, $A = [a]$, whose elements are given by:

ij

2

(*i*

j)

i

2

(*i*

2*j*)

(i) *a*



a

a



ij

(ii)

(iii)



2

ij

ij

j

2

5. Construct a 3×4 matrix, whose elements are given by:

1

(i) a

(ii) a

✂

⓪

2 i

j

☛

| $\text{👉} 3 i \text{ 🙌 } j$ |

ij

2

ij

6. Find the values of x , y and z from the following equations:

$x \times y \times$

\times

$z \times$

$\times 9 \times$

$x \times$



y

2 

 6

2



4

3 



y

z 



(i)

(ii)

(iii)

$x \times z +$

$5 +$

x

$5 \leftarrow$

1

$5 \leftarrow$

5

z

$xy \leftarrow$

$\leftarrow 5$



8 



y

z 

$$\oplus 7 \oplus$$

×

⊕

+

⊕

+

7. Find the value of a , b , c and d from the equation:

$$a \oplus b$$

$$2a \oplus c$$

+

⊕

◆

⊕

$$1$$

$$5 \diamond$$

◇

★

$$2a$$

$$b$$

$$3c$$

$d \star$



0

13 \star



MATRICES 65

8. $A = [a_{ij}]$

is a square matrix, if

$m \times n$

(A) $m < n$

(B) $m > n$

(C) $m = n$

(D) None of these

9. Which of the given values of x and y make the following pair of matrices equal 0

y ①



2



$3x$

7

5



,



y 1

$23x$ 📞



8

4 ☎

⓪

+

+

+

+

† 1

(A) x

(B) Not possible to find

⊠

, y ⊠ 7

3

2

1


☆

2



(C) $y = 7, x$



(D) x 

, y



3

3

3

10. The number of all possible matrices of order 3×3 with each entry 0 or 1 is:

(A) 27

(B) 18

(C) 81

(D) 512

3.4 Operations on Matrices

In this section, we shall introduce certain operations on matrices, namely, addition of

matrices, multiplication of a matrix by a scalar, difference and multiplication of matrices.

3.4.1 Addition of matrices

Suppose Fatima has two factories at places A and B. Each factory produces sport

shoes for boys and girls in three different price categories labelled 1, 2 and 3. The

quantities produced by each factory are represented as matrices given below:

Suppose Fatima wants to know the total production of sport shoes in each price


category. Then the total production

In category 1 : for boys (80 + 90), for girls (60 + 50)

In category 2 : for boys (75 + 70), for girls (65 + 55)

In category 3 : for boys (90 + 75), for girls (85 + 75)


80  90

60 




50 

This can be represented in the matrix form as $\begin{pmatrix} 80 & 90 \\ 60 & 50 \\ 90 & 75 \end{pmatrix}$

65 55  .



90 75

85 75 



66

MATHEMATICS

This new matrix is the **sum** of the above two matrices. We observe that the sum of

two matrices is a matrix obtained by adding the corresponding elements of the given

matrices. Furthermore, the two matrices have to be of the same order.

a

a

a

b

b

b

11

12

13 ✂



Thus, if A

is a 2×3 matrix and

11

12

13

B

is another



a

a

a 

 b

b

b 



21

22

23



21

22

23 †

†

a † b

a † b

a † b

11

11

12

12

13

13 ↗

2×3 matrix. Then, we define A + B

.




$a \dagger b$

a



b

$a \dagger b$ 



21

21

22

22

23

23 †

In general, if $A = [a]$ and $B = [b]$ are two matrices of the same order, say $m \times n$.

ij

ij

Then, the sum of the two matrices A and B is *defined* as a matrix $C = [c]$

, where

$ij m \times n$

$c = a + b$, for all possible values of i and j .

ij

ij

ij



2

5 1 ↗



3 1 ☆ 1 ⊗

Example 6 Given A

and B



, find $A + B$



1



2

3

0 🙌



2 3



2 ✓

✗

✗


Since A, B are of the same order 2×3 . Therefore, addition of A and B is defined

and is given by



2

3 1

5 1 1 



2

3 1

5

0 

✗

✗

✗

✗

✗

A + B



1 ✓



1 ✓



2

2

3 3

0



0

6

✓

×

×

×

✎

2 ✓

✎

2 ✓

×

×

×

×

Note

⊕

1. We emphasise that if A and B are not of the same order, then $A + B$ is not

1

◆

2

3



2

3

defined. For example if A



, B



then A + B is not defined.



,



1

0+

1



0 1



2. We may observe that addition of matrices is an example of binary operation

on the set of matrices of the same order.

3.4.2 Multiplication of a matrix by a scalar

Now suppose that Fatima has doubled the production at a factory A in all categories

(refer to 3.4.1).

MATRICES 67

Previously quantities (in standard units) produced by factory A were

Revised quantities produced by factory A are as given below:

Boys

Girls

1 2 80

2 60

2 75

2 65 ☎



3 ✂ 2 90

2 85 ☎



160



120 †

This can be represented in the matrix form as 150



130 ☆ . We observe that



180





the new matrix is obtained by multiplying each element of the previous matrix by 2.

In general, we may define *multiplication of a matrix* by a scalar as follows: if

$$A = [a_{ij}]$$

is a matrix and k is a scalar, then kA is another matrix which is obtained

$$[ka_{ij}]$$

by multiplying each element of A by the scalar k .

In other words, $kA = k[a_{ij}]$

$$= [ka_{ij}]$$

, that is, (i, j) th element of kA is ka_{ij}

$$[ka_{ij}]$$

$$[ka_{ij}]$$

$$[ka_{ij}]$$

$$[ka_{ij}]$$

for all possible values of i and j .



1 1.5 🙌

For example, if

A = ✎



5

7

, then

👁️ 3



2

0

5 ✎



3

1 1.5 🙌



9

3

4.5 

3A =



3

5

7

 3



3 5

21

9



2


0

5 



6

0

15 



Negative of a matrix The negative of a matrix is denoted by $-A$. We define

$$-A = (-1)A.$$

68

MATHEMATICS

3

1↔

For example, let

$A =$

, then $-A$ is given by



5

$x↔$



3

1



3

1



$$-A = (-1)A$$

(1)



5

$x \rightarrow$



5

x 



Difference of matrices If $A = [a]$, $B = [b]$ are two matrices of the same order, ij

ij

say $m \times n$, then difference $A - B$ is defined as a matrix $D = [d]$, where $d = a - b$, ij

ij

ij

ij

for all value of i and j . In other words, $D = A - B = A + (-1) B$, that is sum of the matrix A and the matrix $- B$.

1 2

3

3

1



3

Example 7 If A

, then find $2A - B$.



and B



2

3 1



10

2



Solution We have

1 2

3

3



1 3

$$2A - B = 2$$



2 3 1



1 0

2✂



2

4

6

3

1

3



4

6

2 ✂

1

0

2 ✂



2 📞 3

4 ✎ 16 📞 3



1 5 3 ✂



4 1 6

0

2

2 ✂



5

6

0 ✂



3.4.3 Properties of matrix addition

The addition of matrices satisfy the following properties:

(i) **Commutative Law** If $A = [a]$, $B = [b]$ are matrices of the same order, say

ij

ij

$m \times n$, then $A + B = B + A$.

Now

$$A + B = [a] + [b] = [a + b]$$

ij

ij

ij

ij

$$= [b + a] \text{ (addition of numbers is commutative)}$$

ij

ij

$$= ([b] + [a]) = B + A$$

ij

ij

(ii) **Associative Law** For any three matrices $A = [a]$, $B = [b]$, $C = [c]$ of the *ij*

ij

ij

same order, say $m \times n$, $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$.

Now

$$(A + B) + C = ([a] + [b]) + [c]$$

ij

ij

ij

$$= [a + b] + [c] = [(a + b) + c]$$

ij

ij

ij

ij

ij

ij

$$= [a + (b + c)]$$

(Why?)

ij

ij

ij

$$= [a] + [(b + c)] = [a] + ([b] + [c]) = A + (B + C) \quad ij$$

ij

ij

ij

ij

ij

MATRICES 69

(iii) **Existence of additive identity** Let $A = [a]$ be an $m \times n$ matrix and O be an $m \times n$ zero matrix, then $A + O = O + A = A$. In other words, O is the

additive identity for matrix addition.

(iv) **The existence of additive inverse** Let $A = [a]$

be any matrix, then we

ij $m \times n$

have another matrix as $-A = [-a]$

such that $A + (-A) = (-A) + A = O$. So

ij $m \times n$

$-A$ is the additive inverse of A or negative of A .

3.4.4 Properties of scalar multiplication of a matrix

If $A = [a]$ and $B = [b]$ be two matrices of the same order, say $m \times n$, and k and l are *ij*

ij

scalars, then

(i) $k(A+B) = kA + kB$, (ii) $(k+l)A = kA + lA$ (ii) $k(A+B) = k([a] + [b])$

ij

ij

$$= k [a + b] = [k (a + b)] = [(k a) + (k b)]$$

ij

ij

ij

ij

ij

ij

$$= [k a] + [k b] = k [a] + k [b] = k A + k B$$

ij

ij

ij

ij

$$(iii) (k + l) A = (k + l) [a]$$

ij

$$= [(k + l) a] + [k a] + [l a] = k [a] + l [a] = k A + l A$$

ij

ij

ij

ij



8

0 ∞




2

2 ∞

Example 8 If A




4

2  and B



4


2  , then find the matrix X, such that



3

6 



5 1 



$$2A + 3X = 5B.$$

Solution We have $2A + 3X = 5B$

or

$$2A + 3X - 2A = 5B - 2A$$

or

$$2A - 2A + 3X = 5B - 2A$$

(Matrix addition is commutative)

or

$$O + 3X = 5B - 2A$$

($-2A$ is the additive inverse of $2A$)

or

$$3X = 5B - 2A$$

(O is the additive identity)

1

or

$$X = (5B - 2A)$$

3



10 ☆10



16

0



2 ☆



2



80



1

1 ✌️



or

X



5

4

2

2 4

2 ✍️



=

10



8

4



3



3 



25

5 



6

12 



5 1





70

MATHEMATICS



10 ☆



2



10 16

10

3



6

10



0 ✂



1

1

14

=



20 8

10

4 ⓪ = ☎ 12 14 ⓪ = 📠 4



3 ☎



3 📞



3 🗨️



31

7



25 6 5 12 📞



31



† 7



3

3



3

6



5

2

Example 9 Find X and Y, if X

and X

.

X

Y



Y 



0

9 



0

1 



 5

2 



3

6

Solution We have X

.

X



Y  X

Y



X



X



✓ 0

9 ✓

✓

0

1 ✓

X

X

X

X

X

 8

8



8 8

or

$$(X + X) + (Y - Y) =$$



2X



+

→

✓

0 8 ✓

✓ 0

8 ✓

×

×

×

×

1 ✎ 8 8 ✎

✎

4

4

or

X =

✎

✎

2 ✓ 0 8 ✓

✓

0

4 ✓

×

×

×

×

+

5

2 ✚

+

3

6

Also

$$(X + Y) - (X - Y) =$$

✚

+

✚

0

9 ✚

✚

0

1 ♣

♣

♣

♠

♣

♠

5

+

2

4

♣

3

2 ♣

♣

+

6

or


$$(X - X) + (Y + Y) =$$

♣

2Y




0

9 1 



0

10 



1 +2



4 

+ 1

2



or

Y =



2 + 0

10 +

+ 0

5 +



Example 10 Find the values of x and y from the following equation:

x

5

3



7

6

X



4

2



=



7

y

3 ✓

1



2 ✓

15



14 ✓

X

X

✖

X

✖

X

✖

Solution We have

x

5

3

$2x$

10

$3x$



4 



7

6



7

6



4 



2



7

y

3♣

1

♣

2♣

15

✓

14✓

✓

✓

✓

✓

✓

✓

♣

14

$2y \times 6$

1

2

15 14



MATRICES 71

2 x

3

10



2 x

3

6



7

6



7

6



4 ✂

or



2y

6

20



15

2y & 4

15 14



15 14

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

or

$$2x + 3 = 7$$

and

$$2y - 4 = 14$$

(Why?)

or

$$2x = 7 - 3$$

and

$$2y = 18$$

$$4$$

$$18$$

or

$$x =$$

and

$$y =$$

$$2$$

$$2$$

i.e.

$$x = 2$$

and

$$y = 9.$$

Example 11 Two farmers Ramkishan and Gurcharan Singh cultivates only three

varieties of rice namely Basmati, Permal and Naura. The sale (in Rupees) of these

varieties of rice by both the farmers in the month of September and October are given

by the following matrices A and B.

(i) Find the combined sales in September and October for each farmer in each

variety.

(ii) Find the decrease in sales from September to October.

(iii) If both farmers receive 2% profit on gross sales, compute the profit for each

farmer and for each variety sold in October.

Solution

(i) Combined sales in September and October for each farmer in each variety is

given by

72

MATHEMATICS

(ii) Change in sales from September to October is given by

2

(iii) 2% of B =

$$B = 0.02 \times B$$

100

$$= 0.02$$

=

Thus, in October Ramkishan receives Rs 100, Rs 200 and Rs 120 as profit in the

sale of each variety of rice, respectively, and Grucharan Singh receives profit of Rs

400, Rs 200 and Rs 200 in the sale of each variety of rice, respectively.

3.4.5 Multiplication of matrices

Suppose Meera and Nadeem are two friends. Meera wants to buy 2 pens and 5 story

books, while Nadeem needs 8 pens and 10 story books. They both go to a shop to

enquire about the rates which are quoted as follows:

Pen – Rs 5 each, story book – Rs 50 each.

How much money does each need to spend? Clearly, Meera needs Rs $(5 \times 2 + 50 \times 5)$

that is Rs 260, while Nadeem needs $(8 \times 5 + 50 \times 10)$ Rs, that is Rs 540. In terms of

matrix representation, we can write the above information as follows:

Requirements

Prices per piece (in Rupees) Money needed (in Rupees)

5 † 2 † 5 †

✂

50 ✂

✂

260

✂

5



2

5 ∞



8 10



50



8 5 10 50



+

+

+

⊙

+

⊙

+

⊙

+

⊙

+

Suppose that they enquire about the rates from another shop, quoted as follows:

pen – Rs 4 each, story book – Rs 40 each.

Now, the money required by Meera and Nadeem to make purchases will be

respectively Rs $(4 \times 2 + 40 \times 5) = \text{Rs } 208$ and Rs $(8 \times 4 + 10 \times 40) = \text{Rs } 432$

MATRICES 73

Again, the above information can be represented as follows:

Requirements

Prices per piece (in Rupees) Money needed (in Rupees)

2

5

4

$4 \uparrow 2 \uparrow 40 \uparrow 5 \downarrow$

208



8 10✂



40✂



8 4

10 4 0 ✂



432 ✂



Now, the information in both the cases can be combined and expressed in terms of

matrices as follows:

Requirements Prices per piece (in Rupees)

Money needed (in Rupees)

2

5

5

4

5 † 2 † 5 † 50

4 † 2 † 40 † 5

✂

✂

✂

✂

8 10 ✂

✂ 50

40 ✂

✂

8 5

10 5 0 8 4

10 4 0✂

†

†

†

†

†

†

☎

⓪

☎

⓪

☎

⓪

✚

260

208☆

= 540 432



The above is an example of multiplication of matrices. We observe that, for multiplication of two matrices A and B, the number of columns in A should be equal to

the number of rows in B. Furthermore for getting the elements of the product matrix,

we take rows of A and columns of B, multiply them elementwise and take the sum.

Formally, we define multiplication of matrices as follows:

The *product* of two matrices A and B is *defined* if the number of columns of A is

equal to the number of rows of B. Let $A = [a]$ be an $m \times n$ matrix and $B = [b]$ be an ij

jk

$n \times p$ matrix. Then the product of the matrices A and B is the matrix C of order $m \times p$.

To get the (i, k) th element c of the matrix C, we take the i th row of A and k th column ik

of B, multiply them elementwise and take the sum of all these products. In other words,

if $A = [a]$

, $B = [b]$

, then the i th row of A is $[a \ a \ \dots \ a]$ and the k th column of $ij \ m \times \ n$

$jk \ n \times \ p$

$i \ 1$

$i \ 2$

$i \ n$



$b \ 1 \ k$

b



n

$2 \ k$



B is

, then $c = a \ b + a \ b + a \ b + \dots + a \ b =$

$a \ b$

.



ij

jk

ik

$i 1$

$1 k$

$i 2$

$2 k$

$i 3 3 k$

in

nk



$j \times 1$



$b \leftarrow$



$nk \checkmark$

The matrix $C = [c]$

is the product of A and B.

$ik m \times p$

x

2

7 **+**

1 **x** 1 2

For example, if C

+

and D

+

1

1 **+** , then the product CD is defined

+

+

+

+

0

3 4 ✂



5

4+



74

MATHEMATICS

2

7

1

1 2



and is given by CD



1

1 . This is a 2×2 matrix in which each



0

3 4



5

4



entry is the sum of the products across some row of C with the corresponding entries

down some column of D. These four computations are

13



2 ✨

Thus CD 🖱️ 17



13 🙌



6

9 ✨



2

6

0

Example 12 Find AB, if A
and B



2

3 🙌



7

9 8 🙌



Solution The matrix A has 2 columns which is equal to the number of rows of B.

Hence AB is defined. Now

$$6(2) \Leftrightarrow 9(7)$$

$$6(6) \Leftrightarrow 9(9)$$

$$6(0) \Leftrightarrow$$



$$9(8)$$

AB



$$2(2)$$

$$3(7)$$

$$2(6)$$

$$3(9)$$

$$2(0)$$

3(8)×



12



75 117

72



63 36 ✗ 81 0 ✗



72☆



4

21 12

27 0

24 ✌️



25

39

24 ×



MATRICES 75

Remark If AB is defined, then BA need not be defined. In the above example, AB is

defined but BA is not defined because B has 3 column while A has only 2 (and not 3)

rows. If A, B are, respectively $m \times n, k \times l$ matrices, then both AB and BA are defined **if and only if** $n = k$ and $l = m$. In particular, if both A and B are square matrices of the same order, then both AB and BA are defined.

Non-commutativity of multiplication of matrices

Now, we shall see by an example that even if AB and BA are both defined, it is not

necessary that $AB = BA$.

2 3

1

2

3



Example 13 If A




and B




4 5 , then find AB, BA. Show that



4

2 5 



2 1 



AB BA.







Solution Since A is a 2×3 matrix and B is 3×2 matrix. Hence AB and BA are both

defined and are matrices of order 2×2 and 3×3 , respectively. Note that



2 3

2  8  6

3  10  3

0



4 



1

2

3



AB



4 5 ✌️ =

×



×

×

×

×



4

2

5 ✌️

👁️ 8 ➡️ 8 ➡️ 10

👁️ 12 ➡️ 10 ➡️ 5

10

3



2 1 



2 3

2

10



2

21



12



4 + 6

6 +



15

1

2 3



and

BA

4 5



4 20

8 10 12

25  

16



2

37



4

2

5 📞



2 1 †



2



2



11 ✌️



2

4

4

2



Clearly $AB \neq BA$



In the above example both AB and BA are of different order and so $AB \neq BA$.
But



one may think that perhaps AB and BA could be the same if they were of the same

order. But it is not so, here we give an example to show that even if AB and BA are of

same order they may not be same.

0 +

1 +

0 +

1 +

0 +

Example 14 If A

and B

, then AB



.



0

1♣



1

0♣



♠ 1

0♣



0



1

and

BA



. Clearly $AB \neq BA$.



$\times 1$

$0 \times$



Thus matrix multiplication is not commutative.

76

MATHEMATICS

Note This does not mean that $AB = BA$ for every pair of matrices A, B for



which AB and BA , are defined. For instance,



3

0

$\frac{1}{2}$

$\frac{1}{2}$



3

$\frac{1}{2}$



If A

, then $AB = BA =$



, $B =$



0

$2\frac{1}{2}$



0

4†



0

8†



Observe that multiplication of diagonal matrices of same order will be commutative.

Zero matrix as the product of two non zero matrices

We know that, for real numbers a, b if $ab = 0$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$. This need not be true for matrices, we will observe this through an example.

0



3

5



1

Example 15 Find AB , if A



and B

.



0

2

0

0



0 



1 ~~2~~ 3

5 ~~2~~



0

0 ~~2~~

Solution We have AB

.



0

2† 

0†



0

0†



Thus, if the product of two matrices is a zero matrix, it is not necessary that one of

the matrices is a zero matrix.

3.4.6 Properties of multiplication of matrices

The multiplication of matrices possesses the following properties, which we state without

proof.

1. **The associative law** For any three matrices A, B and C. We have

$(AB)C = A(BC)$, whenever both sides of the equality are defined.

2. **The distributive law** For three matrices A, B and C.

(i) $A(B+C) = AB + AC$

(ii) $(A+B)C = AC + BC$, whenever both sides of equality are defined.

3. **The existence of multiplicative identity** For every square matrix A, there

exist an identity matrix of same order such that $IA = AI = A$.

Now, we shall verify these properties by examples.

1

1



1 ✓



1 3 ✓

1 2 3



4 ✓

Example 16 If A



2

0

3 **x** , B

x

0 2 **x**

, find

x

x

and C x

x

2

0

2 1 **x**

x

x

x

x

←

3

1

2

1 4

X

+

X

X

X

X

+

+

X

+

X

+

$A(BC)$, $(AB)C$ and show that $(AB)C = A(BC)$.

MATRICES 77

1

1

1

1 3

1 ✂ 0 ✂ 1 3 ✂




2

4 ✂



2 1 ✂

Solution We have AB 2

0

3  0 2 



2

0 3 6

0 12 



1 18①

+

+

✂

✂

✂

+

☎

①

☎

①

☎

①

☎

①

☎

3

1

2① ☎ 1 4①

☎ 3

0

29

28 ©

115 ©



2 1 🤞

2 ✖ 2

4 ✖ 0

6 ✖ 2

✖

8 ✖

👉

1

1

2

3 ✖

👉

4

🤞

(AB) (C)

1 18

🤞

✌️

1 36

2

0

3 36

4 18 🖋️



0

2

1 🖊️



1 15 ➡️



1 ✕ 30

2 ✕ 0

3 ☆ 30 ☆ 4 ✕ 15 🖋️



4

4

4

7 ✂️

📞 35

2

39

22 🕒

= 📞



📞 31

2

27

11①



13☞

1⊕6

2⊕0

3☆6

4



3

1



2

3

4



Now

BC =



0 2



0

4

0

0

0 4

0

2 🖋️



2

0 ✳️2

1 🖋️



☆ 1

4 



1



8

2



0

☆ 3 ☆ 8

4 ✖ 4 



✂ 7

2

3

1 ✂



4

0

4

2 

= 



 7

2

11

8 ②

+

+

1

1

1

*

→

→

7

2

* 3

1

*

→

Therefore

$$A(BC) = 2$$

0

3



4

0

4

2



3 1

2 7

2



☆11

8 🖊️



7 ✂️ 47

2 ✂️ 0 ✂️ 2

3 4 ✂️ 11

1 ✂️



2 8 ✂️

= 1



4

0

21 4

0 6

6

0 33

2

0

24①



21 4 14

6

0

4

9

4

22

3 2 16 ©



4

4

4



7

35

2

39



22 

=

. Clearly, $(AB) C = A (BC)$



 31

2

27

11 



78

MATHEMATICS

0

6

7 

0

1

1 ✂

2 ✂

Example 17 If $A \cong 6$

0

8 ✂, B

✂

1

0

2 ✂, C

✂

2 ✂



7

8

0 ✂



1

2

0 ✂

✂

3 ✂

⊖

+

+

+

+

+

+

Calculate AC, BC and (A + B)C. Also, verify that (A + B)C = AC + BC

+

0

7

8 ✂

Solution Now, A + B ✂ 5

0

10 🖐️



8

6

0 🖐️



0

7

8 ✚ 2 ✚



0



14

24 ✖

†10 ✖

So

$(A + B) C = \star 5$

0

10 🖱️ ⚡ 2 🖱️



10 ➡️ 0 ➡️ 30 🖱️





0 🖱️ ✨ 3 🖱️



16 ⇌ 12 ⇌ 0 🖱️



28 🖱️



0

6

7

2

0 @12 ⇨

✂

✂

21 ✂

9 ✂

Further

AC = ✂ 6

0

8 ✂ ✂ 2 ✂

✂

12

0 24 ✂

1

✂

2✂



7

8

0 ✂ ✂ 3 ✂



14 16 0 ✂

✂ 30 ✂



0

1

1✕✕ 2✕✕



0



2

3✕✕



1 ✕✕



1

0

2 🖐️ ✨ 2 🖐️



2

0

6 🖐️



8 🖐️

and

BC = ☆





1

2

0  ☆ 3 



2

4  0 



2 🖐️



9 ✚



1 ✚

1



0 ✚

So

$$AC + BC = 1$$



2



8



20



☆ 30

2

28



Clearly,

$$(A + B) C = AC + BC$$

1

2

3

Example 18 If $A \approx 3$

2

$1 \times$, then show that $A^3 - 23A - 40I = O$



4

2

$1 \times$



1



2

$3 \times \dagger 1$

2

$3 \times$

1



9

4

8 \boxtimes

Solution We have

2

A

A.A

\star 3

2

1 \blackleftarrow \star 3

2

1 \blackleftarrow

1



12

8 🖐



☆ 4

2

1 🖐 ☆ 4


2

1 🖐

1



4


6 15 



MATRICES 79

1

2

3  19

4

8 

63

46

69 

So

$$A_3 = A A_2 = \times 3$$

2

$$1 \times 1$$

\times

12

$$8 \times$$

\times

69

6

23 ✂



4

2

1 ✂ 14



6 15 ✂



92

46

63✂

†

†

†

†

†

†

Now

†

63

46

69⌘

† 1

2

3⌘

† 1

0

0⊗

$$A^3 - 23A - 40I = \star 69$$

6

$$23\blacksquare - 23\star 3$$

2

$$1\blacksquare - 40\star 0$$

10



92

46

63



4

2

1



0

0 1 🖱



63

46

69

🖱 23

🖱 46

☞ 69

☞

†

⊠

†

⊠

†

40

0

0 ⊠

= ☆69


6

23 ☛

☆

69

46

23 



0

40

0 



92

46

63



92

46

23



0

0

40



63 23 40

46 46 0

69 69 0

= 69 69 0

6

46

40 23 23 0 ✂



92 92 0

46

46

0

63 23 40✂



0

0

0✂

= ✂0

0

0 🖱️ ➡️ 0



0

0

0 🖱️



Example 19 In a legislative assembly election, a political group hired a public relations

firm to promote its candidate in three ways: telephone, house calls, and letters. The

cost per contact (in paise) is given in matrix A as

Cost per contact



40



Telephone

✓

×

A =

100

Housecall

✓

×

✓

50

×

Letter

×

×

The number of contacts of each type made in two cities X and Y is given by

Telephone

Housecall

Letter

1000

500

5000 ✕



X

B

. Find the total amount spent by the group in the two



✕ 3000

1000 10,000 ✕ ✕ Y



cities X and Y.

80

MATHEMATICS

Solution We have

40,000

50,000

250,000 ✂



X

BA = 120,



000 + 100,000 + 500,000 @ ₹ Y



340,000 ₹



X

= ₹720,000 @ ₹ Y



So the total amount spent by the group in the two cities is 340,000 paise and 720,000 paise, i.e., Rs 3400 and Rs 7200, respectively.

EXERCISE 3.2

2

4

1

3



2

5✂

1. Let A \boxtimes

, B \boxtimes

, C \boxtimes

☎ 3

2①



2

50



3

40



Find each of the following:

(i) $A + B$

(ii) $A - B$

(iii) $3A - C$

(iv) AB

(v) BA

2. Compute the following:

2

2

2

2



a

b

b

c



2 *ab*

2 *bc*



a

b



a

b ✂

(i)

(ii)



b

a ☎



b

a ☎

2

2

2

2

a

c

a

b

2



ac

2



ab



1



4



6 ✓



1

✓

2

7

6 ✓

2

2

2

2

+

$\cos x$

$\sin x$ †

+

$\sin x$

$\cos x$ †

(iii) $\times 8$

5

16 \times

\times

8

0

5 × (iv)

×

⊕

+

⊕

+

⊕

×

×

×

×

2

2

2

2

+

$\sin x$

$\cos x$ ⊕

⊕

$\cos x$

$\sin x$ ✦

✦

✦

✦

✦

×

2

8

5 ✕

×

3

2

4 ✕

✕

✦

✕

✦

3. Compute the indicated products.

✦

1 ✧

a

b

a

b

1 †



2 ✂ 1



2

3



2



(i)

(ii)

[2 3 4]

(iii)



b

a ☎ *b*

a ⓪



2

3 ⓪ ☎ 2

3 1①



3



2

3

4

1



2 1



3

5 ◇



1

0 1 ◇

(iv)



3

4

5☆ ★0

2

4☆

(v)

3 2



★ 1

2 1☆



11 



4

5

6   3

0

5 



2 



3



3

13



(vi)



× 1

0 ×



1

0

2 × ×



3

1 ✕

✕

⊕

MATRICES 81

✂ 1

2

3 ✂

✂

3

1

2 ✂

✂

4

1

2 ✂

4. If A

✂ 5


0

2 **A**, B

✂

4


2

5  and C



0

3

2 , then compute



 1

1

1 



2

0

3 



1

2

3 

+

+

+

+

+

+

(A+B) and (B - C). Also, verify that $A + (B - C) = (A + B) - C$.

+

2

5⌘



2

3

1

1⌘



3

3☛



5

5



1

2

4

1

2

4

5. If A



and B



, then compute $3A - 5B$.



3

3

3 



5

5

5 



7

2 



7

6

2 



2



3

3 🖱



5

5

5 🖱



cos 🖱

sin 🖱

sin 🖱



cos 🖱



6. Simplify \cos 

+ \sin 



\sin

\cos 



\cos

\sin 



7. Find X and Y, if



0 



3

0

(i) $X + Y$

and $X - Y$



X

X

✓

2

5 ✓

✓

0

3 ✓

X

X

X

X

2

3

2



2

(ii) $2X + 3Y$

and $3X$

$2Y$



X

X

X

✓

4

0 ✓

✓

1

5 ✓



X

X

X

X



1

0



3

2+



8. Find X, if Y =

and $2X + Y =$



1

4+



3

2+



1

3+

+

y

0+

+

5

6

9.

+

Find x and y , if 2

+

+

+

0

x+

+

1

2+

+

1

8 



x

z

1

1



3

5

10.

+

Solve the equation for x, y, z and t , if 2

+

3

+

3

+

y

t +

+

0

2 +

+

4

6 ✚



2



1 ✎

1



0 ✎

11. If x

, find the values of x and y .



y

\times

✓

3 ✓

✓

1 ✓

✓

5 ✓

\times

\times

\times

\times

\times

\times

x

y

x 6

4

x ✘



y

12. Given 3



, find the values of x , y , z and w .



z

w ✓



1 2 w ✓



z ✘ w

3 ✓



82

MATHEMATICS




$\cos x$

$\sin x$

$0 <$

13. If $F(x) = \sin x$

$\cos x$

0  , show that $F(x) F(y) = F(x + y)$.



0

0

1 



14. Show that

5

† 1

2

1

2

1

5

1



(i)



6

7 🤞 🤞 3

4 ✌️



3

4 ✌️ ✍️ 6

7 ✌️



1

2

3

✍️ 1



1

0

1



1

0   1

2

3 

(ii) ✓ 0

1

0 ✓ ✓ 0

1

1 ✓



0

1



1 ✓ ✓ 0

1

0 ✓



1

1

0 ✓ ✓ 2

3

4 ✓



2

3

4 ✓ ✓ 1

1

0 ✓

✗

✗

✗

✗

✗

✗

✗

✗

👁

2

0

1 🖋

15. Find $A^2 - 5A + 6I$, if A

✓

2

1

3 ✓

✗

✓

✓

✓

1

1

0 ✓

✎

✗

✗

1

✂


0

2 ✂

16. If A

✂ 0

2

1  , prove that $A^3 - 6A^2 + 7A + 2I = 0$



 2

0

3 



3



2 

 1

0 

17. If A

, find k so that $A^2 = kA - 2I$



and $I =$

4

2 ✌️

0

1 ✌️



0

tan +



2 ♣️

18. If A

and I is the identity matrix of order 2, show that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \tan^{-1} \frac{\cos A - \sin A}{\cos A + \sin A} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - 2A \right) \\
 &= \frac{\pi}{4} - A
 \end{aligned}$$

sin ★



$$I + A = (I - A) \Rightarrow \sin$$

cos 🙌



19. A trust fund has Rs 30,000 that must be invested in two different types of bonds.

The first bond pays 5% interest per year, and the second bond pays 7% interest

per year. Using matrix multiplication, determine how to divide Rs 30,000 among

the two types of bonds. If the trust fund must obtain an annual total interest of:

(a) Rs 1800

(b) Rs 2000

MATRICES 83

20. The bookshop of a particular school has 10 dozen chemistry books, 8 dozen

physics books, 10 dozen economics books. Their selling prices are Rs 80, Rs 60

and Rs 40 each respectively. Find the total amount the bookshop will receive

from selling all the books using matrix algebra.

Assume X , Y , Z , W and P are matrices of order $2 \times n$, $3 \times k$, $2 \times p$, $n \times 3$ and $p \times k$, respectively. Choose the correct answer in Exercises 21 and 22.

21. The restriction on n , k and p so that $PY + WY$ will be defined are:

(A) $k = 3, p = n$

(B) k is arbitrary, $p = 2$

(C) p is arbitrary, $k = 3$

(D) $k = 2, p = 3$

22. If $n = p$, then the order of the matrix $7X - 5Z$ is:

(A) $p \times 2$

(B) $2 \times n$

(C) $n \times 3$

(D) $p \times n$

3.5. Transpose of a Matrix

In this section, we shall learn about transpose of a matrix and special types of matrices

such as symmetric and skew symmetric matrices.

Definition 3 If $A = [a_{ij}]$ be an $m \times n$ matrix, then the matrix obtained by interchanging ij

the rows and columns of A is called the *transpose* of A . Transpose of the matrix A is

denoted by A^T or (A^T) . In other words, if $A = [a_{ij}]$

, then $A^T = [a_{ji}]$

. For example,

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

$ij \ m \times n$

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

$ji \ n \times m$

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

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

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

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

if A



3

1 

, then A



† 1



5 1



0 † 1 ☎



5 ☎ ☆ 2 3



5 ☆ 3 2

3.5.1 Properties of transpose of the matrices

We now state the following properties of transpose of matrices without proof. These

may be verified by taking suitable examples.

For any matrices A and B of suitable orders, we have

(i) $(A^T)^T = A$,

(ii) $(k A) = k A$ (where k is any constant)

†

†

†

†

(iii) $(A + B) = A + B$

(iv) $(A B) = B A$

†

†

†

†

†

†


3

3

2

2



1 2 

Example 20 If A

, verify that



and B 



4

2

0

1



2

4



(i) $(A) = A,$

(ii) $(A + B) = A + B ,$



(iii) $(k B) = k B ,$ where k is any constant.



Solution

(i) We have

3 4 ✂



3

3

2 ✂



3

3

2 ✂



A =

A

3 2

A †

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

A

✂

☎

4

2

00

☎

4

2

00



20



Thus

$(A) = A$



(ii) We have



2

1 2



5

3 \rightarrow 1 4



3

3

2

A =

B =



A B \times



,

4

2

0

1



2 4 



5

4

4



5

5 

Therefore

$$(A + B) = 3 \times 14$$



4

4



34



21



Now

A =

3 2, B+ ✚ ✚1 2,



2 0+



2 4+



5

5✂



So

$$A + B =$$

$$3 \times 14$$



4

4©



Thus

$$(A + B) = A + B$$



(iii) We have

2

❖ 1

2

2 k



k

2 k

$k \mathbf{B} = k$



1



2 4 



k

2 k

4 k ☆

☆

☆

☆

☆

☆

2 $k k$ ☆

☆

2 1 ☆

Then

($k B$) = ☆ $k 2 k$ ☆

k ☆ 1 2 ☆

B

$k *$

$*$

$*$

$*$

$*$

\blacksquare

\star

\star

\star

\star

\star

$2 k 4 k \star$

\star

$2 4 \star$

$*$

\star

$*$

\star

Thus

$$(k B) = k B$$



MATRICES 85



2 

Example 21 If A



4 †

, verify that $(AB) = B A$.



, B † 1 3

6



5 +




Solution We have



2 



4  , B



1 3

6

A =



5 



 2



6

12 ✎



2 ✎

then

AB =



4 ✎ 1 3

= 4

12

✌️ 24

👉 6

×

×

✎

✎

✎

✎

✎

5

15

30 ✎

👉

✎

5 ✎

✓

✓

✓

✓

✎

1 ✎

Now

$$A = [-2 \ 4 \ 5], B$$



3 



6 




1

2



4

5 

B A =  3 †

2

4

5



6

12

15†

(AB)†



6 †

© 12

24

30†



Clearly

$$(AB) = B A$$



3.6 Symmetric and Skew Symmetric Matrices

Definition 4 A square matrix $A = [a]$ is said to be *symmetric* if $A = A$, that is, ij



$[a] = [a]$ for all possible values of i and j .

ij

ji

+

3

2

3 ✚

For example A

✚

2

1.5

1 ✚ is a symmetric matrix as $A = A$

☆

✚

✚

✚

✚

✚

✚

3

1

1 ✚



Definition 5 A square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ is said to be *skew symmetric* matrix if

$a_{ij} = -a_{ji}$

that is $a_{ii} = -a_{ii}$ for all possible values of i and j . Now, if we put $i = j$, we



$a_{ii} = -a_{ii}$

$2a_{ii} = 0$

Therefore $a_{ii} = 0$ for all i 's.

$a_{ii} = 0$

$a_{ii} = 0$

$a_{ii} = 0$

$a_{ii} = 0$

This means that all the diagonal elements of a skew symmetric matrix are zero.

MATHEMATICS

0

e

f

For example, the matrix B is

0

g is a skew symmetric matrix as $B = -B$



f

g

0 ✂

⊗

⊗

+

+

Now, we are going to prove some results of symmetric and skew-symmetric matrices.

Theorem 1 For any square matrix A with real number entries, $A + A^T$ is a symmetric

+

matrix and $A - A^T$ is a skew symmetric matrix.

+

Proof Let $B = A + A^T$, then

+

$$B = (A + A)$$

†

†

†

$$= A + (A) \text{ (as } (A + B) = A + B \text{)}$$

†

†

†

†

†

†

$$= A + A \text{ (as } (A) = A \text{)}$$

†

†

†

$$= A + A \text{ (as } A + B = B + A)$$

†

$$= B$$

Therefore

$B = A + A$ is a symmetric matrix

†

Now let

$$C = A - A^{\dagger}$$

$$C = (A - A) = A - (A) \text{ (Why?)}$$

†

†

†

†

†

†

$$= A - A \text{ (Why?)}$$

†

$$= - (A - A) = - C$$

†

Therefore

$C = A - A$ is a skew symmetric matrix.

†

Theorem 2 Any square matrix can be expressed as the sum of a symmetric and a

skew symmetric matrix.

Proof Let A be a square matrix, then we can write

1

1

A

$(A$

$A)$

⊗

$(A$

A)



2

2

From the Theorem 1, we know that $(A + A)$ is a symmetric matrix and $(A - A)$ is



1

a skew symmetric matrix. Since for any matrix A , $(k A) = k A$, it follows that

$(A$

A)



2

1

is symmetric matrix and

(A

A) is skew symmetric matrix. Thus, any square



2

matrix can be expressed as the sum of a symmetric and a skew symmetric matrix.

MATRICES 87



2

2

4

Example 22 Express the matrix B as the sum of a symmetric and a

3

skew symmetric matrix.



1

2

3



skew symmetric matrix.

Solution Here

2



1

1 🖐️

B = 🖐️ ✖️ 2

3 ✖️ 2 🙌



4

4

3 🙌



3



3

2



2

2 🙌

4 ✂️

3



1

1

3



Let

P =

(B + B)



3

6

2 🕊 =

3

1

,



2

2



2



3

2

6 



3



1

3 🙌



2



3



3

2



2

2 🙌



3

Now

P =



3

1 🙌 = P



2



3



1

3 🙌



2



1

Thus

$P =$

$(B + B)$ is a symmetric matrix.

↔)

2

1



5

0



2

2 🙌

0

1



5 🖐



1

1 🙌



1

Also, let

Q =

(B - B)

1

0

6



0

3 🙌



2

2 🙌



2



🙌 5

6

0 🙌



5



3

0 🙌



2



1

5

0



2

3 🙌



1

Then

Q =



0

3 🙌



Q



2



5



3

0 



2



88

MATHEMATICS

1

Thus

$Q =$

$(B - B^T)$ is a skew symmetric matrix.

2

~~3~~

~~3~~

~~1~~



5

2

0



2

2



2

2 

2

 2



4 



 3

1

Now

P + Q

3

1

0

3



1

3

4①



B

2

2



1

2

3

3

5



1

3①



3

0 \mathbb{C}



2



2



Thus, B is represented as the sum of a symmetric and a skew symmetric matrix.

EXERCISE 3.3

1. Find the transpose of each of the following matrices:



5 🖐

✕

⊕

1

5

6 ⊕

🖐

1 🖐

1 🖋

🖋

1 ✓

(i)

⊕

⊕

🖐

🖐

(ii)

(iii)

3

5

6



2

3x



2 🙌



2

3

1 ✖



1 🙌



✂️ 1

2

3

✂️ 4

1



5 ✂️

2. If A



5

7

9 $\text{\textcircled{C}}$ and B



1

2

0 $\text{\textcircled{C}}$, then verify that

+

+



$\text{\textcircled{C}}$



$\text{\textcircled{C}}$



2

1

1 $\text{\textcircled{C}}$



1

3

10



(i) $(A + B) = A + B$,

(ii) $(A - B) = A - B$



34♦

1



2 1

3. If A

1 2

and B



, then verify that



1

2 3 ☆



0 1



(i) $(A + B) = A + B$

(ii) $(A - B) = A - B$



◁ 2

3



10 ✓

4. If A

, then find $(A + 2B)$



and B ★



1

2 ×



1

2 ×

×

×

×

×

5. For the matrices A and B, verify that $(AB) = B A$, where

✦

✦

✦

✂

0

✂

1 ✂

✂

(i) A

☎

4 ⓪

(ii) A

☎

10

†

, B † 157

†

†

✂

, B

✂ 1

21

☆

✱

✱

✱

☎

©

☎

©

☎

2



3



MATRICES 89



cos


sin ∞

6. If (i) A

, then verify that $A A = I$



sin


cos 

+

+

+

sin 

cos 




(ii) If A

, then verify that $A A = I$



COS

sin 



1



1.5 ×

7.

(i) Show that the matrix A



1

2×1 is a symmetric matrix.

X

✓

X

X

X

5

1

$3 \times$

+

+

0

1 ✓

✓

$1 \times$

(ii) Show that the matrix A

X

1

0

$1 \times$ is a skew symmetric matrix.

X

✓

X

X

X

1

1

$0 \times$

✓

+

+

👉

1

5

8. For the matrix A

👉

, verify that

✌️

✍️

6

7 



(i) $(A + A)$ is a symmetric matrix



(ii) $(A - A)$ is a skew symmetric matrix



0

a

$b \times$

1

1

9. Find

A

A and

A

, when A

×

×

✓

a

0

cX

✦

A

+

✦

+

✦

✦

✦

✦

2

2

✘

✘

✘

b

c

0✘

✓

✓

⊕

+

10. Express the following matrices as the sum of a symmetric and a skew symmetric

matrix:

6

⊕

✦

2

2 ✦

☞

3

5 

(i)

(ii) ★ 2

3

1 ☆



1

1 



2

1

3 ☆



3

3



1 ×



1

5 ✂

(iii) × 2

2

1 ×

(iv)



1

†

20

×

×

†

†

×

4

5

2×

✓

✓

+

+

90

MATHEMATICS

Choose the correct answer in the Exercises 11 and 12.

11. If A, B are symmetric matrices of same order, then $AB - BA$ is a

(A) Skew symmetric matrix

(B) Symmetric matrix

(C) Zero matrix

(D) Identity matrix

cos



sin

12. If A



then $A + A = I$, if the value of is



,

Ⓒ sin

cos †

†

†

☛

☛

(A)

(B)

6

3

3☛

(C)

(D)

☛

2

3.7 Elementary Operation (Transformation) of a Matrix

There are six operations (transformations) on a matrix, three of which are due to rows

and three due to columns, which are known as *elementary operations* or *transformations*.

(i) *The interchange of any two rows or two columns.* Symbolically the interchange

of i th and j th rows is denoted by R

R and interchange of i th and j th column is

i ✌️

j

denoted by C

C .

i ✌️

j



1

3

1



1

2

1 ✎



For example, applying R

R to



A

, we get 1

2

1 .



1



3

1

1 🙌

2



5

6

7 



5

6

7 



(ii) *The multiplication of the elements of any row or column by a non zero number. Symbolically, the multiplication of each element of the i th row by k , where k*

0 is denoted by R

$k \mathbb{R}$.

✕

$i \times$

i

The corresponding column operation is denoted by C

$k \mathbb{C}$

$i \times$

i

◆

1

1

2

◇

1

★

7 ☆

⊕

1

2

1 +

For example, applying C

, to B

, we get ★

☆

+

×

C

3

3

7

⊕

⊗

1

★

☆

⊕ 1

3 1

⊗ 1

3



7 ☆



(iii) *The addition to the elements of any row or column, the corresponding elements of any other row or column multiplied by any non zero number.*

Symbolically, the addition to the elements of i th row, the corresponding elements

of j th row multiplied by k is denoted by R

$$R + k R .$$

$$i \times$$

$$i$$

$$j$$

MATRICES 91

The corresponding column operation is denoted by C

$$C + k C .$$

$$i \star$$

i

j

1

2

1

2



For example, applying R

$R - 2R$, to C

, we get



.

2



2

1



2

1 📞



0

© 5 📞



3.8 Invertible Matrices

Definition 6 If A is a square matrix of order m , and if there exists another square

matrix B of the same order m , such that $AB = BA = I$, then B is called the *inverse*

matrix of A and it is denoted by A^{-1} . In that case A is said to be invertible.

2 📝



3



2

3

For example, let

A =



and B =



be two matrices.



1

2 



1

2 🖊️



2 3

2 🖊️



3 ✚

Now

AB = 1 2 1 2



4 3

6



6

1

0

=



I



2

2

3 4 

 0

1 



1

0

Also

BA =



. Thus B is the inverse of A, in other



I



0

1 



words $B = A^{-1}$ and A is inverse of B, i.e., $A = B^{-1}$

Note



1. A rectangular matrix does not possess inverse matrix, since for products BA

and AB to be defined and to be equal, it is necessary that matrices A and B should be square matrices of the same order.

2. If B is the inverse of A, then A is also the inverse of B.

Theorem 3 (Uniqueness of inverse) Inverse of a square matrix, if it exists, is unique.

Proof Let $A = [a_{ij}]$ be a square matrix of order m . If possible, let B and C be two ij

inverses of A. We shall show that $B = C$.

Since B is the inverse of A

$$AB = BA = I$$

... (1)

Since C is also the inverse of A

$$AC = CA = I$$

... (2)

Thus

$$B = BI = B(AC) = (BA)C = IC = C$$

Theorem 4 If A and B are invertible matrices of the same order, then $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

92

MATHEMATICS

Proof From the definition of inverse of a matrix, we have

$$(AB)(AB)^{-1} = I$$

or

$$A^{-1}(AB)(AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}I$$

(Pre multiplying both sides by A^{-1})

or

$$(A^{-1}A)B(AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}$$

(Since $A^{-1}I = A^{-1}$)

or

$$I B (AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}$$

or

$$B (AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}$$

or

$$B^{-1} B (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$$

or

$$I (AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$$

Hence

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$$

3.8.1 Inverse of a matrix by elementary operations

Let X , A and B be matrices of, the same order such that $X = AB$. In order to apply a

sequence of elementary row operations on the matrix equation $X = AB$, we will apply

these row operations simultaneously on X and on the first matrix A of the product AB

on RHS.

Similarly, in order to apply a sequence of elementary column operations on the

matrix equation $X = AB$, we will apply, these operations simultaneously on X and on the

second matrix B of the product AB on RHS.

In view of the above discussion, we conclude that if A is a matrix such that A^{-1}

exists, then to find A^{-1} using elementary row operations, write $A = IA$ and apply a

sequence of row operation on $A = IA$ till we get, $I = BA$. The matrix B will be the

inverse of A . Similarly, if we wish to find A^{-1} using column operations, then, write

$A = AI$ and apply a sequence of column operations on $A = AI$ till we get, $I = AB$.

Remark In case, after applying one or more elementary row (column) operations on

$A = IA$ ($A = AI$), if we obtain all zeros in one or more rows of the matrix A on L.H.S.,

then A^{-1} does not exist.

Example 23 By using elementary operations, find the inverse of the matrix

1

2

$A =$

⌘

.

⌘

2

1 ↗

⊕

⊙

†

Solution In order to use elementary row operations we may write $A = IA$.

1

2 ↗

1

0 ↗

1

2 ↗

1

0 ↗

or

(applying R

$R - 2R$)

†

A, then

†

A

2 ✨

2

1



2

1 ✂



0

1 ✂

✂ 0

5 ✂



2

1 ✂



MATRICES 93



1

0

1

2



1



or

= \dagger 2

1 \boxtimes

(applying R



R)



A

2

2



0

1 ✂



5



5

5 🖱



1

2 🖊

1

0



5

5 🖋

or



(applying R

R - 2R)



A



1 ✌️

1

2



0

1 ✂️

2

➡️ 1



5

5 



1


2 



5

5 

Thus

$A-1 =$ 



2

 1



5

5 



Alternatively, in order to use elementary column operations, we write $A = AI$, i.e.,

1

2

1

0



= A



2

1 

$\neq 0$

1 ✂

×

☎

⓪

☎

⓪

Applying C

$C - 2C$, we get

2 ✂

2

1

1

0

1

×

2

✂

= A

✂

✂

2

5 ✂

0

1 ✂



1

Now applying C

, we have



C

2 ✌

2

5



2

1



5



1

0 **X** = A



2

1 **+**

1



0



5 



Finally, applying C

$C - 2C$, we obtain

1 

1

2



1

2 

1

0



5

5 



= A 



0

1 ✂

2

1



5

5 



1

2 



5

5 

Hence

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



2

1



5

5



94

MATHEMATICS

Example 24 Obtain the inverse of the following matrix using elementary operations

0

1

2

A

✂ 1

2

3✂.



3 1

1✂



0

1

2

1

0

0✂



Solution Write $A = I A$, i.e.,



1

2

$$3 \times = 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ A$$



0

$$0 \ 1 \times$$



3

1

1 ✂

⊖

+

⊖

+

1

2

3

+

0

1

0

✂

+

or



0

1

2 ✂️

1

0

0 A (applying R

R)



1 🙌

2



0

0 1



3

1

1 



1

2

3

0

1

0 ✂



or



0

1

2 ✂

1

0

0 A (applying R

R - 3R)



3

3

1



0

3

1 



0

5

8 ✂



1

0

1

2



1

0



or



0

1

2 ✂



1

0

0 ✂ A (applying R

R - 2R)



1

1

2



0

3

1



0

5

8 ✂



1

0

1

2



1

0



or



0

1

2 ✂



1

0

0 ✂ A (applying R

R + 5R)



3

3

2



5

3

1



0

0

2 ✂



2

1

0

1

0

1



1

0

$0 \times A$

1

or

$\neq 0$

1

$2 \star = \checkmark$



(applying R

R)

3 

3



2



5

3

1 ×



⊠ 0

0

1 ☆



2

2

2 ×

×

×

1

×

+

1

1 +

1

0

0

+

2

2

2 +

+

+

+

or

+

0

1

2 ✂

1

0

0 A (applying R

R + R)



1

1

3



5

3

1 ✚

✕

✂

0

0

1 ✂

⊖

+

+

✚

✚

2

2

2 ✚

MATRICES 95

1

+

+

1

1

1

0

0



2

2

2 ☆



0

1

0 ✂

or



(applying R

R - 2R)



†

4

3

† 1

A



2

2

3



0

0

1 ✂



5

† 3

1



2

2

2 ✂

1



1

1 †

⊠

2

2

2 ☆

⊠

☆

Hence

$$A^{-1} = †4$$

3

†

1

⊠

☆

⊠

5

3

1 ✨

†

✠

✨

☞

2

2

2 ☞

Alternatively, write $A = AI$, i.e.,

1



0

0



0 1 2 ✎



1



23 = A 0 1 0



0

0 1

3

1 1



1 0

2

0 1 0



2 1 3 ✂

A 1



0

0 ✂

or



(C

C)



1 ✓

2

1



0

0 1



3 1 ✂



1

 0

1

0



0

0 



or



2 1

1 = A 1



0

(C

C - 2C)

× 2



3

3

1



1

0

0

1



3

1



1

0

1

1




0

0



or



2 1 0  = A 1



0

2 

(C

C + C)



3 

3

2



1

 0

0

1



3

2 



1

0 1



1 0

0



2 



1



or



2 1 0 ✂ = A 1 0

(C

C)

✚ 1



X



3

3



2

1

X

1 ✚



3 1 ✂



0

0



2 ✂

96

MATHEMATICS



1 †

1 0

0

✂ 2

1



2



or



$010 \otimes = A1$

0

(C

$C - 2C$)

$\otimes 1$



1

1

2



1 🖐



5 3 1 ✂



0

0



2 🙌



1

1

1

x

1

x

2

2 **x**



0


0 

x

x

or



0 1 0  = A

(C

C + 5C)



4

0

+ 1



X

X

1

1

3




X

5

1 **X**



0

3 1 

✓

✓

X

0

x

+

2

2 +

1

1

⊗

†

1 †

1

☆

2

2

2 ☛

✎


0

0 



or



0 1 0  = A

(C

C - 3C)



4

3

1



2

2

3



5


3



1 



0

0 1 



2

2

2 

1

1

+

x

1 x

x

2

2

2 x

x

x

Hence

$$A^{-1} = +4$$

3

1

+

x

x

x

5

3

1 \times



2

2

2 \div

10



2

Example 25 Find P^{-1} , if it exists, given P



.



5

1♦



10



2♣



1

0

Solution We have $P = I P$, i.e.,



.



P



5

1♦



0

1♦



1



1

1



0☆

1

or



5 ☆ = ☆10



P (applying R

R)

1 🖋️ 10 1



5

0

1



1



MATRICES 97



1

0†



1

1



10



or



5 📞 =

(applying R

R + 5R)



P

2

2

1



1

0

0



1☆



2



We have all zeros in the second row of the left hand side matrix of the above

equation. Therefore, P^{-1} does not exist.

EXERCISE 3.4

Using elementary transformations, find the inverse of each of the matrices, if it exists

in Exercises 1 to 17.

1

1



1

3



2 1



1.

2.

3.



2

3



11



2

7



2

5



2

1 

×

2

3

4.

×

5.

6. 







X

5

7 **X**

7

4

1

3



3 10



4

5



3

1

7.



8.



9.

×

X

5

2×

X

3

4×

X

2

7×

+

+

+

+

+

+

3

2

6



3



6



1 

10.

11.

12.



4

2 

1



2

1

 2



2



3

3 

2

×

2

1

+

×

×

3

13.

×

14.

.

15. ♣2

2

3♠

×

×

×

1

2×

4

2



3

2

2 



1

3



2

0

1



2 A hollow black five-pointed star.



16.



3

0

5 A hollow black five-pointed star.

17. A hollow black five-pointed star.

1

0 ☆



0

1

3



2

5

0 ☆



18. Matrices A and B will be inverse of each other only if

(A) $AB = BA$

(B) $AB = BA = 0$

(C) $AB = 0, BA = I$

(D) $AB = BA = I$

98

MATHEMATICS

Miscellaneous Examples



$\cos n$

$\sin n$



\cos

\sin

Example 26 If A



, then prove that A n



, $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



\sin

\cos



$\sin n$

$\cos n$



Solution We shall prove the result by using principle of mathematical induction.



$\cos n$

$\sin n$



\cos

\sin

We have

$P(n) : \text{If } A$



then $A n$



, $n \in \mathbb{N}$



\sin

cos \odot



+

sin n

cos $n \odot$

+

+

+

+

+



cos

sin \times



cos

sin

$P(1) : A$



, so

1

A ✂



sin

cos \textcircled{C}



sin

cos

†

†

†

†

†

Therefore,

the result is true for $n = 1$.

Let the result be true for $n = k$. So

✂

$\cos k$

$\sin k$

k

✂

✂

cos

sin

$P(k) : A$



, then A ✂



\sin

\cos ⌚



$\sin k$

$\cos k$



Now, we prove that the result holds for $n = k + 1$

$\cos \star$

$\sin \star$

$\cos k \star$

$\sin k$


k



Now

$A k + 1 = A \text{ 🙌 } A \text{ 🖋️ } \sin$

$\cos \text{ 🖋️ } \sin k$

$\cos k$ 




$\cos \cos k - \sin \sin k$

$\cos \sin k$ 



$\sin \cos k$



$=$  $\sin \cos k$

$\cos \sin k$

$\sin \sin k$

$\cos \cos k$ Ⓣ

+

✓

+

✓

+

+

$\cos (\times$

×

×

×

☆

$k \star$)

$\sin (\star$

$k \star$)

$\cos (k$

1) ☆

$\sin(k$

1) ☆



$\sin(\times k$



☆)

$\cos(\star$

$k \star) \Rightarrow$



$\sin (k$

$1) \star$

$\cos (k$

$1) \Rightarrow$



Therefore, the result is true for $n = k + 1$. Thus by principle of mathematical induction, $\cos n \star$

$\sin n \star$



we have A^n

, holds for all natural numbers.



$\sin n$

$\cos n \Rightarrow$



Example 27 If A and B are symmetric matrices of the same order, then show that AB

is symmetric if and only if A and B commute, that is $AB = BA$.

Solution Since A and B are both symmetric matrices, therefore $A = A^T$ and $B = B^T$.

×

×

Let

AB be symmetric, then $(AB)^T = AB$

×

MATRICES 99

But

$(AB)^T = B^T A^T = BA$ (Why?)

†

†

†

Therefore

$BA = AB$

Conversely, if $AB = BA$, then we shall show that AB is symmetric.

Now

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

†

†

†

= B A (as A and B are symmetric)

$$= AB$$

Hence AB is symmetric.

✂

2

1 ✂

✂

5

2 ✂

✂

2 5

Example 28 Let A

, B

, C

✂

. Find a matrix D such that



3

40



7

40



380

†

†

†

†

†

†

$$CD - AB = O.$$

Solution Since A, B, C are all square matrices of order 2, and $CD - AB$ is well

defined, D must be a square matrix of order 2.

⊠

a

b

Let

$D =$

☆

. Then $CD - AB = 0$ gives



c

d 



2

5

a

b

2



1 ☆ ✕ 5

2 ☆

or

= 0



3

8   c

d 



3

4   7

4 



2 *a*




0

0



5 *c*

2 *b* 



5 *d* ☆



3

0 ☆

or


=



3 *a*

8 *c*

3 *b*

8 *d* 



43

22 



0

0 



2 *a*




0

0



5 *c*

3

2 *b* 



5 *d*

or



3 a

8 c

43 3 b 8 d

22 ①



0

0 ①



By equality of matrices, we get

$$2a + 5c - 3 = 0$$

... (1)

$$3a + 8c - 43 = 0$$

... (2)

$$2b + 5d = 0$$

... (3)

and

$$3b + 8d - 22 = 0$$

... (4)

Solving (1) and (2), we get $a = -191$, $c = 77$. Solving (3) and (4), we get $b = -110$, $d = 44$.

✂

a

b

✂

191

110

Therefore

D =



c

d ©



77

44 ©



100

MATHEMATICS

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 3

0 1 ↗

1. Let A

, show that $(aI + bA)^n = a^n I + n a^{n-1} b A$, where I is the identity



0

0



matrix of order 2 and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



1

$n - 1$



$n - 1$

$n - 1$

3

3

3



1 1⊗



2. If A

1

n

n 1



n 1

n 1



1 1  , prove that A

N



3

3

3

, $n \times$



.



1



$n - 1$



$n - 1$

$n - 1$



1 1

3

3

3



3

X 4

1 + 2 n



4 n

3. If A

, where n is any positive



, then prove that A n

1

1



n

1 2 n

x

x

0

+

0

+

integer.

4. If A and B are symmetric matrices, prove that $AB - BA$ is a skew symmetric

matrix.

5. Show that the matrix BAB is symmetric or skew symmetric according as A is

+

symmetric or skew symmetric.

+

0

2 y

z

6. Find the values of x, y, z if the matrix A



x

y

z satisfy the equation



x

y

z



$$AA = I.$$



1

2

$$0 \oplus \dagger 0 \oplus$$

7. For what values of x : $1 \ 2 \ 1 \ \star 2$

0

$$1 \blacksquare \star 2 \blacksquare = 0?$$



1

0

2 ✎ ✖ x ✎



3

1

8. If A



, show that $A^2 - 5A + 7I = 0$.



1

2 ✎



1

0

2♦ ⊕ x♦

9. Find x , if x

5

1◇0

2

1★◇4★

☆

☆

⊗

0

⊕

⊕

◇

★

◇

★

◇

2

0

3★ ⇄ 1★

☆

★

☆

★

MATRICES 101

10. A manufacturer produces three products x, y, z which he sells in two markets.

Annual sales are indicated below:

Market

Products

I

10,000

2,000

18,000

II

6,000

20,000

8,000

(a) If unit sale prices of x , y and z are Rs 2.50, Rs 1.50 and Rs 1.00, respectively, find the total revenue in each market with the help of matrix algebra.

(b) If the unit costs of the above three commodities are Rs 2.00, Rs 1.00 and 50

paise respectively. Find the gross profit.

1



2

3



7

8

9

11. Find the matrix X so that X



4

5

60



2

4

60

†

†

†

†

12. If A and B are square matrices of the same order such that $AB = BA$, then prove

by induction that $(AB)^n = B^n A^n$. Further, prove that $(A^n B)^n = A^n B^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

†

Choose the correct answer in the following questions:



13. If $A =$
is such that $A^2 = I$, then



(A) $1 + 2 +$
 $= 0$

(B) $1 - 2 +$

$$= 0$$



$$(C) 1 - 2 -$$

$$= 0$$

$$(D) 1 + 2 -$$

$$= 0$$



14. If the matrix A is both symmetric and skew symmetric, then

(A) A is a diagonal matrix

(B) A is a zero matrix

(C) A is a square matrix

(D) None of these

15. If A is square matrix such that $A^2 = A$, then $(I + A)^3 - 7A$ is equal to

(A) A

(B) $I - A$

(C) I

(D) $3A$

Summary

A matrix is an ordered rectangular array of numbers or functions.



A matrix having m rows and n columns is called a matrix of order $m \times n$.



$\begin{bmatrix} a \end{bmatrix}$

is a column matrix.



$\begin{bmatrix} a & \dots & a \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{bmatrix} a \end{bmatrix}$

is a row matrix.



$\begin{bmatrix} a & \dots & a \end{bmatrix}$

An $m \times n$ matrix is a square matrix if $m = n$.



$$A = [a]$$

is a diagonal matrix if $a = 0$, when $i \neq j$.



$i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$

i, j

102

MATHEMATICS

$$A = [a]$$

is a scalar matrix if $a = 0$, when $i \neq j$, $a = k$, (k is some constant), when $i = j$.

i, j



i, j

constant), when $i = j$.

$$A = [a]$$

is an identity matrix, if $a = 1$, when $i = j$, $a = 0$, when $i \neq j$.

$i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

i, j

ij



A zero matrix has all its elements as zero.

$A = [a] = [b] = B$ if (i) A and B are of same order, (ii) $a = b$ for all ij

ij

ij

ij

possible values of i and j .

$$kA = k[a]$$

$$= [k(a)]$$

$ij \ m \times n$

ij

$m \times n$

$$-A = (-1)A$$

$$A - B = A + (-1)B$$

$$A + B = B + A$$

$(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$, where A, B and C are of same order.

$k(A + B) = kA + kB$, where A and B are of same order, k is constant.

$(k + l)A = kA + lA$, where k and l are constant.

n

If $A = [a]$

and $B = [b]$

, then $AB = C = [c]$

, where $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} b_{kj}$

a_{ik}

b_{kj}

$n \times p$

$m \times n$

$m \times p$



i, j

j, k

$j, 1$



(i) $A(BC) = (AB)C$, (ii) $A(B + C) = AB + AC$, (iii) $(A + B)C = AC + BC$

If $A = [a]$

, then A or $A^T = [a]$

a_{ij}



a_{ji}

(i) $(A^T)^T = A$, (ii) $(kA)^T = kA^T$, (iii) $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$, (iv) $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

A is a symmetric matrix if $A = A^T$.

†

A is a skew symmetric matrix if $A = -A^T$.

†

Any square matrix can be represented as the sum of a symmetric and a skew symmetric matrix.

Elementary operations of a matrix are as follows:

(i) R

R or C

C

$i \leftrightarrow j$

j

$i \leftrightarrow j$

j

(ii) R

k R or C

k C

$i \leftrightarrow j$

i

$i \leftrightarrow j$

i

(iii) R

$R + k R$ or C

$C + k C$

$i \star$

i

j

$i \star$

i

j

If A and B are two square matrices such that $AB = BA = I$, then B is the inverse matrix of A and is denoted by A^{-1} and A is the inverse of B .

Inverse of a square matrix, if it exists, is unique.

—

—

ⓐ

ⓐ



Chapter 4

DETERMINANTS

All Mathematical truths are relative and conditional. — C.P. STEINMETZ

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, we have studied about matrices and algebra of matrices. We have also learnt that a system of algebraic equations can be expressed in the form of matrices. This means, a system of linear equations like

$$a x + b y = c$$

1

1

1

$$a x + b y = c$$

2

2

2



a

$b \times x$



c

can be represented as

1

1

1 . Now, this



a

$b \text{ (c) } y \text{ (c)}$

$\text{(c) } c \text{ (c)}$



2

2 ++



2 ++

system of equations has a unique solution or not, is determined by the number $a b - a b$. (Recall that if

1

2

2

1

a

b

1

1

P.S. Laplace

or, $a b - a b 0$, then the system of linear

†

⊗

a

b

1

2

2

1

(1749-1827)

2

2

equations has a unique solution). The number $a b - a b$

1

2

2 1



a

b

which determines uniqueness of solution is associated with the matrix

1

1

A



a

$b \odot$

†

2

2 †

and is called the determinant of A or $\det A$. Determinants have wide applications in

Engineering, Science, Economics, Social Science, *etc.*

In this chapter, we shall study determinants up to order three only with real entries.

Also, we will study various properties of determinants, minors, cofactors and applications

of determinants in finding the area of a triangle, adjoint and inverse of a square matrix,

consistency and inconsistency of system of linear equations and solution of linear

equations in two or three variables using inverse of a matrix.

4.2 Determinant

To every square matrix $A = [a]$ of order n , we can associate a number (real or

ij

complex) called determinant of the square matrix A, where $a = (i, j)$ th element of A.

ij

104

MATHEMATICS

This may be thought of as a function which associates each square matrix with a

unique number (real or complex). If M is the set of square matrices, K is the set of

numbers (real or complex) and $f: M$

K is defined by $f(A) = k$, where $A \in M$ and



$k \in K$, then $f(A)$ is called the determinant of A . It is also denoted by $|A|$ or $\det A$ or .



a

b

a

b



If $A =$

, then determinant of A is written as $|A| =$
 $= \det(A)$

✂

c

$d \dagger$

c

d

†

†

Remarks

- (i) For matrix A, $|A|$ is read as determinant of A and not modulus of A.
- (ii) Only square matrices have determinants.

4.2.1 Determinant of a matrix of order one

Let $A = [a]$ be the matrix of order 1, then determinant of A is defined to be equal to a

4.2.2 Determinant of a matrix of order two

a

a

12 ✂

Let

A =

be a matrix of order 2×2 ,

✂

a

$a \dagger$

\dagger

21

22 \dagger

then the determinant of A is defined as:

$$\det(A) = |A| =$$

$$= a a - a a$$

ⓐ

11 22

21 12

2

4

Example 1 Evaluate

.

$$-1 \ 2$$

$$2$$

$$4$$

Solution We have

$$= 2(2) - 4(-1) = 4 + 4 = 8.$$

$$-1 \ 2$$

$$x$$

$$x \oplus 1$$

Example 2 Evaluate $x - 1 \ x$

Solution We have

$$x$$

$$x \otimes 1 = x(x) - (x+1)(x-1) = x^2 - (x^2 - 1) = x^2 - x^2 + 1 = 1$$

$$x - 1$$

$$x$$

4.2.3 Determinant of a matrix of order 3×3

Determinant of a matrix of order three can be determined by expressing it in terms of

second order determinants. This is known as expansion of a determinant along

a row (or a column). There are six ways of expanding a determinant of order

DETERMINANTS 105

3 corresponding to each of three rows (R₁, R₂ and R₃) and three columns (C₁, C₂ and

C₃)

giving

the same

value

as shown

below.

Consider

the determinant of square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_{3 \times 3}$

where

$a_{11} = a$

$a_{12} = a$

$a_{13} = a$

$a_{21} = 1$

$a_{22} = 1$

$a_{23} = 1$

i.e.,

$$|A| = a$$

a

a

21

22

23

a

a

a

31

32

33

Expansion along first Row (R)

1

Step 1 Multiply first element a of R by $(-1)^{1+1}$ [$(-1)^{\text{sum of suffixes in } a}$ and with the 11]

1

second order determinant obtained by deleting the elements of first row (R) and first

1

column (C) of $|A|$ as a lies in R and C ,

1

11

1

1

a

a

22

23

i.e.,

$(-1)^{1+1} a$

11

a

a

32

33

Step 2 Multiply 2nd element *a* of R by $(-1)^{1+2}$ [(-1)sum of suffixes in *a* 12] and the second 12

1

order determinant obtained by deleting elements of first row (R) and 2nd column (C)

1

2

of $|A|$ as a lies in R and C ,

12

1

2

a

a

21

23

i.e.,

$$(-1)^{1+2} a$$

12

a

a

31

33

Step 3 Multiply third element a of R by $(-1)^{1+3}$ [$(-1)^{\text{sum of suffixes in } a}$ and the second 13]

1

order determinant obtained by deleting elements of first row (R) and third column (C)

1

3

of $|A|$ as a lies in R and C ,

13

1

3

a

a

21

22

i.e.,

$$(-1)^{1+3} a$$

13

a

a

31

32

Step 4 Now the expansion of determinant of A, that is, $|A|$ written as sum of all three

terms obtained in steps 1, 2 and 3 above is given by

a

a

a

a

22

23

1

2

21

23

$$\det A = |A| = (-1)1 + 1 a$$

✂

(-1)

a 12

11

a

a

a

a

32

33

31

33

a

a

1

3

21

22

+ (-1)

a 13 *a a*

31

32

or

$$|A| = a(a a - a a) - a(a a - a a) 11$$

22

33

32

23

12

21

33

31

23

$$+ a (a a - a a)$$

13

21

32

31

22

106

MATHEMATICS

$$= a a a - a a a - a a a + a a a + a a a 11$$

22

33

11

32

23

12

21

33

12

31

23

13

21

32

$- a a a$

... (1)

13

31

22

Note We shall apply all four steps together.

Expansion along second row (R)

2

a

a

a

11

12

13

$$|A| = a$$

a

a

21

22

23

a

a

a

31

32

33

Expanding along R , we get

2

a

a

a

a

2 ~~1~~

12

13

$2 \approx 2$

11

13

$|A| = (-1)$

a

✂

(-1)

a

21

22

a

a

a

a

32

33

31

33

a

a

2×3

11

12

\times

(-1)

$a \ 23 \ a \ a$

31

32

$= -a(a a - a a) + a(a a - a a) \ 21$

12

33

32

13

22

11

33

31

13

$-a(a a - a a)$

23

11

32

31

12

$$|A| = -aaa + aaa + aaa - aaa - aaa 21$$

12

33

21

32

13

22

11

33

22

31

13

23

11

32

$+ a a a$

23

31

12

$= a a a - a a a - a a a + a a a + a a a 11$

22

33

11

23

32

12

21

33

12

23

31

13

21

32

$- a a a$

... (2)

13

31

22

Expansion along first Column (C)

1

a

a

a

11

12

13

$|A| = a$

a

a

21

22

23

a

a

a

31

32

33

By expanding along C , we get

1

a

a

a

a

$1 \approx 1$

22

23

$2 \approx 1$

12

13

$$|A| = a(-1)$$

✂

a

(~~3~~1)

11

21

a

a

a

a

32

33

32

33

a

a

3 ~~3~~ 1

12

13

+ *a*

(-1)

31

a

a

22

23

$$= a(a_2 a_3 - a_3 a_2) - a(a_1 a_3 - a_3 a_1) + a(a_1 a_2 - a_2 a_1) 11$$

22

33

23

32

21

12

33

13

32

31

12

23

13

22

DETERMINANTS 107

$$|A| = a a a - a a a - a a a + a a a + a a a 11$$

22

33

11

23

32

21

12

33

21

13

32

31

12

23

$- a a a$

31

13

22

$= a a a - a a a - a a a + a a a + a a a 11$

22

33

11

23

32

12

21

33

12

23

31

13

21

32

$- a a a$

... (3)

13

31

22

Clearly, values of $|A|$ in (1), (2) and (3) are equal. It is left as an exercise to the

reader to verify that the values of $|A|$ by expanding along R , C and C are equal to the

3

2

3

value of $|A|$ obtained in (1), (2) or (3).

Hence, expanding a determinant along any row or column gives same value.

Remarks

(i) For easier calculations, we shall expand the determinant along that row or column

which contains maximum number of zeros.

(ii) While expanding, instead of multiplying by $(-1)^{i+j}$, we can multiply by +1 or -1

according as $(i+j)$ is even or odd.

2

2

1

1 ✂

✂

(iii) Let A =

and B =

. Then, it is easy to verify that $A = 2B$. Also



4

0 ✂

2

0



$$|A| = 0 - 8 = -8 \text{ and } |B| = 0 - 2 = -2.$$

Observe that, $|A| = 4(-2) = 2^2 |B|$ or $|A| = 2^n |B|$, where $n = 2$ is the order of square matrices A and B .

In general, if $A = k B$ where A and B are square matrices of order n , then $|A| = k^n$

$|B|$, where $n = 1, 2, 3$

1

2

4

Example 3 Evaluate the determinant = -1 3

0 .

+

4

1

0

Solution Note that in the third column, two entries are zero. So expanding along third

column (C), we get

3

-1

3

1

2

1

2

= 4

- 0

+

0

†

4

1

4

1

-1

3

$$= 4(-1 - 12) - 0 + 0 = -52$$

0

$\sin \dagger$

$-\cos \dagger$

Example 4 Evaluate $= -\sin$

.

†

0

$\sin \boxtimes$

†

$$\cos \dagger$$

$$- \sin \ddagger$$

$$0$$

$$108$$

MATHEMATICS

Solution Expanding along R , we get

$$1$$

$$0$$

$$\sin$$

$$- \sin \text{✂}$$

$$\sin$$

$$- \sin \text{✂}$$

$$0$$

$$= 0$$

$$- \sin \text{✂}$$

$$- \cos \text{✂}$$

ⓐ

$$- \sin$$

$$0$$

$\cos \varphi$

0

$\cos \varphi$

$-\sin$

$$= 0 - \sin(0 - \sin \cos) - \cos(\sin \sin - 0)$$

+

+

+

+

+

+

$$= \sin \sin \cos - \cos \sin \sin = 0$$

†

†

†

†

†

†

3

x

3

2

Example 5 Find values of x for which

.

✂

x

1

4

1

3

x

3

2

Solution We have

✂

x

1

4

1

i.e.

$$3 - x^2 = 3 - 8$$

i.e.

$$x^2 = 8$$

Hence

$$x = \pm \sqrt{8}$$

EXERCISE 4.1

Evaluate the determinants in Exercises 1 and 2.

2

4

1.

-5

-1

cos

2

$x - x + 1 x - 1$



- sin

2. (i)

(ii)

sin

$x + 1$

$x + 1$



cos



1

2☆

3. If

$$A =$$

, then show that $|2A| = 4|A|$



4

2 



1


0

1 

4. If

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

1

2  , then show that $|3A| = 27|A|$



0

0

4 \leftarrow

✓

✓

5. Evaluate the determinants

3

-1

-2

3

-4

5

(i)

0

0

-1

(ii)

1

1

-2

3

-5

0

2

3

1

DETERMINANTS 109

0

1

2

2

-1

-2

(iii)

-1 0

-3

(iv)

0

2

-1

-2

3

0

3

-5

0

1

1

-2 ✂

6. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$, find $|A|$

1

-3 ✂, find $|A|$



5

4

-9 ✂



7. Find values of x , if

2

4

$2x$

4

2

3

x

3

(i)

(ii)

†

†

5

1

6

x

4

5

$2x$

5

x

2

6

2

8. If

, then x is equal to

†

18

x

18

6

(A) 6

(B) ± 6

(C) -6

(D) 0

4.3 Properties of Determinants

In the previous section, we have learnt how to expand the determinants. In this section,

we will study some properties of determinants which simplifies its evaluation by obtaining

maximum number of zeros in a row or a column. These properties are true for

determinants of any order. However, we shall restrict ourselves upto determinants of

order 3 only.

Property 1 The value of the determinant remains unchanged if its rows and columns

are interchanged.

a

a

a

1

2

3

Verification Let

$= b$

b

b

1

2

3



c

c

c

1

2

3

Expanding along first row, we get

b

b

b

b

b

b

2

3

1

3

1

2

= a

+

a

+

a

1

2

3

+

c

c

c

c

c

c

2

3

1

3

1

2

$$= a(bc - bc) - a(bc - bc) + a(bc - bc) 1$$

2 3

3

2

2

1

3

3

1

3

1

2

2

1

By interchanging the rows and columns of , we get the determinant



a

b

c

1

1

1

= *a*

b

c

❖ 1

2

2

2

a

b

c

3

3

3

110

MATHEMATICS

Expanding along first column, we get

Ⓢ 1

$$= a(bc - cb) - a(bc - bc) + a(bc - bc)$$

Ⓢ1

1

2

3

2

3

2

1

3

3

1

3

1

2

2

1

Hence

=

\mathcal{C}

\mathcal{C}

1

Remark It follows from above property that if A is a square matrix, then $\det(A) = \det(A^T)$, where $A^T =$ transpose of A.

†

†

Note If $R = i$ th row and $C = i$ th column, then for interchange of row and

i

i

columns, we will symbolically write C

R

$i \leftrightarrow$

i

Let us verify the above property by example.

2

-3

5

Example 6 Verify Property 1 for $n = 6$

0

4

⊗

1

5

-7

Solution Expanding the determinant along first row, we have

0

4

6

4

6

0

= 2

-(-3)

⊗

5

⊗

5

-7

1

-7

1

5

$$= 2(0 - 20) + 3(-42 - 4) + 5(30 - 0)$$

$$= -40 - 138 + 150 = -28$$

By interchanging rows and columns, we get

2

6

1

$$= -3$$

0

5 (Expanding along first column)

⓪ 1

5

4

-7

0

5

6

1

6

1

= 2

-(-3)

✂

5

4

-7

4

-7

0

5

$$= 2(0 - 20) + 3(-42 - 4) + 5(30 - 0)$$

$$= -40 - 138 + 150 = -28$$

Clearly

=

\mathcal{C}

\mathcal{C}

1

Hence, Property 1 is verified.

Property 2 If any two rows (or columns) of a determinant are interchanged, then sign

of determinant changes.

a

a

a

1

2

3

Verification Let = b

b

b

1

2

3

ⓐ

c

c

c

1

2

3

DETERMINANTS 111

Expanding along first row, we get

$$= a (b c - b c) - a (b c - b c) + a (b c - b c)$$

ⓑ

1

2

3

3

2

2

1

3

3

1

3

1

2

2

1

Interchanging first and third rows, the new determinant obtained is given by

c

c

c

1

2

3

$= b$

b

b

1

2

3

Ⓒ 1

a

a

a

1

2

3

Expanding along third row, we get

$$= a(c b - b c) - a(c b - c b) + a(b c - b c)$$

Ⓒ 1

1

2

3

2

3

2

1

3

3

1

3

2

1

1

2

$$= -[a(bc - cb) - a(bc - cb) + a(bc - cb)]$$

1

2

3

3

2

2

1

3

3

1

3

1

2

2

1

Clearly

= -

⊗ 1

⊗

Similarly, we can verify the result by interchanging any two columns.

Note We can denote the interchange of rows by R

R and interchange of

$i \leftrightarrow j$

j

columns by C

C .

$i \leftrightarrow j$

j

2

-3

5

Example 7 Verify Property 2 for = 6

0

4 .

ⓐ

1

5

-7

2

-3

5

Solution = 6

0

4 = - 28 (See Example 6)

ⓑ

1

5 -7

Interchanging rows R and R i.e., R

R , we have

2

3

2 ⊕

3

2

-3

5

= 1

5

-7

⊗1

6

0

4

Expanding the determinant along first row, we have

⊗1

5

-7

1

-7

1

5

= 2

$-(-3)$

✂

5

ⓐ1

0

4

6

4

6

0

$$= 2(20 - 0) + 3(4 + 42) + 5(0 - 30)$$

$$= 40 + 138 - 150 = 28$$

112

MATHEMATICS

Clearly

= -

ⓐ 1

ⓐ

Hence, Property 2 is verified.

Property 3 If any two rows (or columns) of a determinant are identical (all corresponding

elements are same), then value of determinant is zero.

Proof If we interchange the identical rows (or columns) of the determinant , then

$$\mathcal{D}$$

$$\mathcal{D}$$

does not change. However, by Property 2, it follows that has changed its sign

$$\mathcal{D}$$

Therefore

$$= -$$

$$\mathcal{D}$$

$$\mathcal{D}$$

or

$$= 0$$

$$\mathcal{D}$$

Let us verify the above property by an example.

3

2

3

Example 8 Evaluate = 2

2

3

ⓐ

3

2

3

Solution Expanding along first row, we get

$$= 3(6 - 6) - 2(6 - 9) + 3(4 - 6)$$

ⓑ

$$= 0 - 2(-3) + 3(-2) = 6 - 6 = 0$$

Here R and R are identical.

1

3

Property 4 If each element of a row (or a column) of a determinant is multiplied by a

constant k , then its value gets multiplied by k .

a

b

c

1

1

1

Verification Let $= a$

b

c

2

2

2

ⓐ

a

b

c

3

3

3

and be the determinant obtained by multiplying the elements of the first row by k .

ⓐ 1

Then

ka

kb

kc

1

1

1

=

a

b

c

2

2

2

⊗ 1

a

b

c

3

3

3

Expanding along first row, we get

$$= k a (b c - b c) - k b (a c - c a) + k c (a b - b a)$$

⊗ 1

1

2

3

3

2

1

2

3

2

3

1

2

3

2

3

$$= k [a (b c - b c) - b (a c - c a) + c (a b - b a)]$$

1

2

3

3

2

1

2

3

2

3

1

2

3

2

3

$= k \mathcal{O}$

DETERMINANTS 113

ka

kb

kc

a

b

c

1

1

1

1

1

1

Hence

a

b

c

a

b

c

2

2

2

$= k$

2

2

2

a

b

c

a

b

c

3

3

3

3

3

3

Remarks

(i) By this property, we can take out any common factor from any one row or any

one column of a given determinant.

(ii) If corresponding elements of any two rows (or columns) of a determinant are

proportional (in the same ratio), then its value is zero. For example

a

a

a

1

2

3

=

b

b

b

1

2

3

= 0 (rows R and R are proportional)

Ⓒ

1

2

ka

ka

ka

1

2

3

102 18 36

Example 9 Evaluate

1

3

4

17

3

6

102 18 36

6(17)

6(3)

6(6)

17

3 6

Solution Note that

1

3

4

1

3

4

6 1

3

4

0

17

3

6

17

3

6

17

3 6

(Using Properties 3 and 4)

Property 5 If some or all elements of a row or column of a determinant are expressed

as sum of two (or more) terms, then the determinant can be expressed as sum of two

(or more) determinants.

a

a

a

a



a ✂ ✂

a

1

1

2

2

3 ✂ ✂3

1

2

3

1

2

3

For example,

b

b

b

b

b

b



b

b

b

1

2

3

= 1

2

3

1

2

3

c

c

c

c

c

c

c

c

c

1

2

3

1

2

3

1

2

3

a  

a  

a

1

1

2

2

3   3

Verification L.H.S. =

b

b

b

1

2

3

c

c

c

1

2

3

114

MATHEMATICS

Expanding the determinants along the first row, we get

$$= (a +) (b c - c b) - (a +) (b c - b c)$$

ⓐ

1

☆1

2

3

2

3

2

☆2

1

3

3

1

$$+ (a +) (bc - bc)$$

3

☆3

1

2

2

1

$$= a(bc - cb) - a(bc - bc) + a(bc - bc) 1$$

2

3

2

3

2

1

3

3

1

3

1

2

2

1

+

$$(bc - cb) - (bc - bc) + (bc - bc)$$

☆ 1

2

3

2

3

☆ 2

1

3

3

1

☆ 3

1

2

2

1

(by rearranging terms)

a

a

a

1

2

3

1

2

3

$= b$

b

b

$= \text{R.H.S.}$

\therefore

b

b

b

1

2

3

1

2

3

c

c

c

c

c

c

1

2

3

1

2

3

Similarly, we may verify Property 5 for other rows or columns.

a

b

c

Example 10 Show that $a \approx 2x$

$$b \approx 2y$$

$$c \approx 2z \approx 0$$

x

y

z

a

b

c

a

b

c

a

b

c

Solution We have a

$$= a$$

b

$$c \approx 2x$$

$$2y$$

$2z$

\pm

$2x$

$b \pm 2y$

$c \pm 2z$

x

y

z

x

y

z

x

y

z

(by Property 5)

$$= 0 + 0 = 0$$

(Using Property 3 and Property 4)

Property 6 If, to each element of any row or column of a determinant, the equimultiples

of corresponding elements of other row (or column) are added, then value of determinant

remains the same, i.e., the value of determinant remain same if we apply the operation

R

$R + k R$ or C

$C + k C$.

i



i

j

i 

i

j

Verification

a

a

a

1

2

3

$a + k c$

$a \dagger k c$

$a \dagger k c$

1

1

2

2

3

3

Let

$= b$

b

b

1

2

3

and

=

b

b

b

,

\mathcal{O}

$\mathcal{O} 1$

1

2

3

c

c

c

1

2

3

c

c

c

1

2

3

where

is obtained by the operation R

$$R + k R .$$

①

1 

1

3

Here, we have multiplied the elements of the third row (R) by a constant k and

3

added them to the corresponding elements of the first row (R).

1

Symbolically, we write this operation as R

$$R + k R .$$

1 

1

3

DETERMINANTS 115

Now, again

a

a

a

kc

kc

kc

1

2

3

1

2

3

$= b$

b

b

b

b

b

1

2

3

1

2

3

(Using Property 5)

① 1

c

c

c

c

c

c

1

2

3

1

2

3

= + 0

(since R and R are proportional)

①

1

3

Hence

=

ⓐ

ⓐ

1

Remarks

(i) If

is the determinant obtained by applying R

k R or C

k C to the

ⓐ1

i ✂

i

i ✂

i

determinant, then $= k$.

ⓐ

ⓐ1

ⓐ

(ii) If more than one operation like R

$R + kR$ is done in one step, care should be

i ✂

i

j

taken to see that a row that is affected in one operation should not be used in

another operation. A similar remark applies to column operations.

a

$a \rightleftharpoons b$

$a \rightleftharpoons b \rightleftharpoons c$

Example 11 Prove that

3

2 a

3 a

.

✂

2 b

4 $a \rightleftharpoons 3 b \rightleftharpoons 2 c \rightleftharpoons a$

3 a

6 $a \rightleftharpoons 3 b \rightleftharpoons 10 a \rightleftharpoons 6 b \rightleftharpoons 3 c$

Solution Applying operations R

$R - 2R$ and R

$R - 3R$ to the given

$2 \times$

2

1

$3 \times$

3

1

determinant , we have

ⓐ

a

$a \times b$

$a \times b \times c$

$= 0$

a

$2 a \times b$

ⓑ

0

$3 a$

$$7a - 3b$$

Now applying R

$R - 3R$, we get

$$3$$

$$3$$

$$2$$

$$a$$

$$a - b$$

$$a - b - c$$

$$= 0$$

$$a$$

$$2a - b$$

ⓐ

$$0$$

$$0$$

$$a$$

Expanding along C, we obtain

$$1$$

$$a$$

$$2a + b$$

$$= a$$

$$+ 0 + 0$$

ⓐ

$$0$$

$$a$$

$$= a (a^2 - 0) = a (a^2) = a^3$$

116

MATHEMATICS

Example 12 Without expanding, prove that

$$x$$

$$y$$

$$y$$

$$z$$

$$z$$

$$x$$

=

$$z$$

$$x$$

$$y$$

∴

0

⓪

1

1

1

Solution Applying R

R + R to , we get

1

⓪

✂

1

2

$$x \times y \times z$$

$$x \times y \times z$$

$$x \times y \times z$$

=

z

x

y

⓪

1

1

1

Since the elements of R and R are proportional, = 0.

1

3

ⓐ

Example 13 Evaluate

1 *a*

b c

= 1 *b*

c a

ⓑ

1 *c*

a b

Solution Applying R

R – R and R

R – R , we get

2 ✂

2

1

3 ✂

3

1

1

a

b c

= 0

b \ominus *a*

c (*a* \ominus *b*)

ⓐ

0

c \ominus *a*

b (*a* \ominus *c*)

Taking factors (*b* - *a*) and (*c* - *a*) common from R and R₂, respectively, we get 2

3

1

a

b c

$$= (b + a)(c + a) 0$$

1

$$- c$$

⊗

0

1

$$- b$$

$$= (b - a)(c - a)[(-b + c)] \text{ (Expanding along first column)}$$

$$= (a - b)(b - c)(c - a)$$

b

c

a

a

Example 14 Prove that

b

c

a

b

✂

$$4 abc$$

c

c

a

b

$b \times c$

a

a

Solution Let =

b

$c \times a$

b

⓪

c

c

$a \times b$

DETERMINANTS 117

Applying

R

R – R – R to , we get

1 ✂

1

2

3

\mathcal{C}

0

$-2c$

$-2b$

$= b$

c

a

b

\mathcal{C}

c

c

a

b

Expanding along R , we obtain

1

c

b

$$c \cancel{a}$$

✂

$$a$$

$$b$$

$$b$$

$$b$$

$$= 0$$

$$-(-2c)$$

$$\cancel{(-2b)}$$

⓪

$$c$$

$$a$$

$$c$$

$$c$$

✂

$$b$$

$$c$$

$$a \cancel{b}$$

$$= 2c(ab + b^2 - bc) - 2b(bc - c^2 - ac)$$

$$= 2abc + 2cb^2 - 2bc^2 - 2b^2c + 2bc^2 + 2abc$$

$$= 4abc$$

2

3

x

x

1 x

Example 15 If x, y, z are different and

2

3

, then



†

y

y

1

$y \dagger 0$

2

3

z

z

1

z

show that $1 + xyz = 0$

Solution We have

2

3

x

x

$1 + x$

2

3

$= y$

y

$1 + y$

ⓐ

2

3

z

z

$1 \dagger z$

2

2

3

x

x

1

x

x

x

2

2

3

$= y$

y

1

(Using Property 5)

\dagger

y

y

y

2

2

3

z

z

1

z

z

z

2

2

1

x

x

1

x

x

2

2

2

= (1

(Using C

C and then C

C)

†

) 1

y

y † xyz 1

y

y

3 †

2

1 †

2

2

2

1

z

z

1

z

z

2

1

x

x

2

= 1

y

$y(1 \mp xyz)$

2

1

z

z

118

MATHEMATICS

2

1

x

x

=

2

2

1

(Using R

R – R and R

R – R)



$xyz \ 0$

$y \ \times \ x$

$y \ \times \ x$



2

2

1

3

3

1

2

2

0

$z \otimes x$

$z \otimes x$

Taking out common factor $(y - x)$ from R and $(z - x)$ from R , we get

2

3

2

1

x

x

$$= (1 + xyz) (y - x) (z - x) 0$$

1

$y \dagger x$

0

1

$z + x$

$= (1 + xyz) (y - x) (z - x) (z - y)$ (on expanding along C) 1

Since $= 0$ and x, y, z are all different, i.e., $x - y \neq 0, y - z \neq 0, z - x \neq 0$, we get

ⓐ

†

†

†

$$1 + xyz = 0$$

Example 16 Show that

$1 + a$

1

1

⊗

1

1

1

1

1 *b*

1

abc 1



abc † *bc* † *ca* † *ab*



a

b

c ✌️

1

1

1 c



Solution Taking out factors a, b, c common from R_1, R_2 and R_3 , we get

1

2

3

1

1

1



1

a

a

a

1

1

1

L.H.S. = abc



1

b

b

b

1

1

1



1

c

c

c

Applying R

R + R + R , we have

1

1

2

3

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1

1 



1 



1 



a

b

c

a

b

c

a

b

c

1

1

1

= *abc*



1



b

b

b

1

1

1



1

c

c

c

DETERMINANTS 119

1

1

1

1

1

1 ~~1~~ 1

1

1

= *abc* 1+



1



a

b

c



b

b

b

1

1

1



1

c

c

c

Now applying C

$C - C, C$

C - C , we get

2 †

2

1

3 †

3

1

1

0

0

1

1

1 ✂

1

= abc 1+

✂

✂

10



a

b

c 📞



b

1

0 1

c



1

1


1 📞

= *abc* 1 📞



1



1 - 0 



a

b

c  



1

1

1

= *abc* 1+



$$= abc + bc + ca + ab = \text{R.H.S.}$$



a

b

c 



Note Alternately try by applying C

C – C and C

C – C , then apply

1 †

1

2

3 †

3

2



C

$C - aC$.

1 †

1

3

EXERCISE 4.2

Using the property of determinants and without expanding in Exercises 1 to 7, prove

that:

x

a

x

$a \oplus b$

$b \oplus c$

$c \oplus a$

\times

a

1.

y

b

y

2.

$$b \oplus c$$

$$c \oplus a$$

$$a \oplus b \oplus 0$$

X

$$b \times 0$$

z

c

z

$$c \oplus a$$

$$a \oplus b$$

$$b \oplus c$$

X

c

2

7

65

1 bc

$a b \div c$

+

+

3.

3

8

75

4.

1 ca

$b c \div a$

+

0

x

0

+

+

5

9 86

1 ab

$c a \div b$

+

+

$b \times c$

$q \times r$

$y \times z$

a

p

x

5.

$c \times a$

$r \times p$

$z \times x \times 2 b$

q

y

$a \times b$

$p \times q$

$x \times y$

c

r

z

120

MATHEMATICS

2

0

a

b



a

ab

ac

2

2

2

2

6.

a

0

c

ba

$\times b$

$bc \times 4 a b c$

\times

0

7.

b

c

0

2

ca

cb

\times

c

By using properties of determinants, in Exercises 8 to 14, show that:

2

1 a

a

2

8. (i) 1 b

$b \otimes a \otimes b b \otimes c c \otimes a$



2

1 c

c

1

1

1

(ii) a

b

$c \dagger a \boxtimes b b \boxtimes c c \boxtimes a$

$a \star b \star c$

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

3

3

3

a

b

c

2

x

x

yz

2

9.

y

y

$$zx = (x - y)(y - z)(z - x)(xy + yz + zx) 2$$

z

z

xy

$x + 4$

$2x$

$2x$

2

10. (i) $2x$

$x + 4$

$2x \approx 5x$ 🙌 4 4

x



$2x$

$2x$

$x + 4$

$y + k$

y

y

2

(ii)

y

$y + k$

y



k

$$3y \Rightarrow k$$



$$y$$

$$y$$

$$y + k$$

$$a$$

$$b$$

$$c$$

$$2a$$

$$2a$$

$$3$$

11. (i)

$$2b$$

$$b$$

$$c$$

$$a$$

$$2b$$



a 🙌 b 🙌 c



$2c$

$2c$

c

a

b

$x \Leftrightarrow y \Leftrightarrow 2z$

x

y

3

(ii)

z

$y \Leftrightarrow z \Leftrightarrow 2x$

y



$2x \Leftrightarrow y \Leftrightarrow z$



z

x

$z \Rightarrow x \Rightarrow 2y$

DETERMINANTS 121

2

1

x

x

2

2

3

12.

x

1

$x \times 1 \times x$

2

x

x

1

2

2

1 † a ✂ b

2 ab

✂ 2 b

3

13.

2

2

2

2

2 ab

1 ✂ a † b

2 a



1 † a † b



2

2

$2b$

$\times 2a$

$1 \times a \times b$

2

$a \dagger 1$

ab

ac

2

2

2

2

14.

ab

$b \dagger 1$

bc

\times

$1 \dagger a \dagger b \dagger c$

2

ca

cb

$c + 1$

Choose the correct answer in Exercises 15 and 16.

15. Let A be a square matrix of order 3×3 , then $|kA|$ is equal to

(A) $k|A|$

(B) $k^2|A|$

(C) $k^3|A|$

(D) $3k|A|$

16. Which of the following is correct

(A) Determinant is a square matrix.

(B) Determinant is a number associated to a matrix.

(C) Determinant is a number associated to a square matrix.

(D) None of these

4.4 Area of a Triangle

In earlier classes, we have studied that the area of a triangle whose vertices are

1

(x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) and (x_3, y_3) , is given by the expression

$\frac{1}{2} [x_1(y_2 - y_3) + x_2(y_3 - y_1) + x_3(y_1 - y_2)]$

1

1

2

2

3

3

2

1

2

3

2

3

1

$x(y - y)]$. Now this expression can be written in the form of a determinant as 3

1

2

x

y

1

1

1

1

=

x

y

1

... (1)

2

2

†

$2x - y + 1$

3

3

Remarks

(i) Since area is a positive quantity, we always take the absolute value of the determinant in (1).

122

MATHEMATICS

(ii) If area is given, use both positive and negative values of the determinant for calculation.

$$3 \begin{matrix} 2 \\ - \\ 1 \\ - \\ 8 \\ - \\ 4 \\ - \\ 5 \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \times \\ 1 \\ - \\ 4 \\ - \\ 10 \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \text{☎} \end{matrix}$$



$$2 \begin{matrix} \dagger \end{matrix}$$



$$1$$

$$61$$



$$3 \begin{matrix} \times \\ 72 \\ - \\ 14 \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \star \end{matrix}$$



$$2$$

$$2$$

Example 18 Find the equation of the line joining A(1, 3) and B (0, 0) using determinants

and find k if D(k , 0) is a point such that area of triangle ABD is 3sq units.

Solution Let P (x , y) be any point on AB. Then, area of triangle ABP is zero (Why?). So 0

0 1

$$1 \ 1 \ 3 \ 1 = 0$$

$$2 \ x \ y \ 1$$

1

This gives

$$y - 3x = 0 \text{ or } y = 3x,$$



2

which is the equation of required line AB.

Also, since the area of the triangle ABD is 3 sq. units, we have

1

3 1

$$1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 = \pm 3$$

$$2 \ k \ 0 \ 1$$



3 k

This gives,

, i.e., $k = 2$.



3

2

EXERCISE 4.3

1. Find area of the triangle with vertices at the point given in each of the following :

(i) $(1, 0), (6, 0), (4, 3)$

(ii) $(2, 7), (1, 1), (10, 8)$

(iii) $(-2, -3), (3, 2), (-1, -8)$

DETERMINANTS 123

2. Show that points

$A(a, b + c), B(b, c + a), C(c, a + b)$ are collinear.

3. Find values of k if area of triangle is 4 sq. units and vertices are

(i) $(k, 0), (4, 0), (0, 2)$

(ii) $(-2, 0), (0, 4), (0, k)$

4. (i) Find equation of line joining $(1, 2)$ and $(3, 6)$ using determinants.

(ii) Find equation of line joining $(3, 1)$ and $(9, 3)$ using determinants.

5. If area of triangle is 35 sq units with vertices $(2, -6)$, $(5, 4)$ and $(k, 4)$. Then k is (A) 12

(B) -2

(C) $-12, -2$

(D) $12, -2$

4.5 Minors and Cofactors

In this section, we will learn to write the expansion of a determinant in compact form

using minors and cofactors.

Definition 1 Minor of an element a of a determinant is the determinant obtained by

ij

deleting its i th row and j th column in which element a lies. Minor of an element a is ij

ij

denoted by M_{ij} .

ij

Remark Minor of an element of a determinant of order n ($n \geq 2$) is a determinant of



order $n - 1$.

1

2

3

Example 19 Find the minor of element 6 in the determinant

✂

4

5

6

7

8

9

Solution Since 6 lies in the second row and third column, its minor M is given by

23

1

2

M =

= $8 - 14 = -6$ (obtained by deleting R and C in).

23

7

8

2

3



Definition 2 Cofactor of an element a , denoted by A is defined by

i, j

i, j

$A = (-1)^{i+j} M$, where M is minor of a .

i, j

i, j

i, j

i, j

1

-2

Example 20 Find minors and cofactors of all the elements of the determinant $\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$

Solution Minor of the element a is M

i, j

i, j

Here $a = 1$. So $M = \text{Minor of } a = 3$

11

11

11

M = Minor of the element $a = 4$

12

12

M = Minor of the element $a = -2$

21

21

124

MATHEMATICS

M = Minor of the element $a = 1$

22

22

Now, cofactor of a is A . So

ij

ij

$$A = (-1)^{1+1} M = (-1)^2 (3) = 3$$

11

11

$$A = (-1)^{1+2} M = (-1)^3 (4) = -4$$

12

12

$$A = (-1)^2 + 1 \quad M = (-1)^3 (-2) = 2$$

21

21

$$A = (-1)^2 + 2 \quad M = (-1)^4 (1) = 1$$

22

22

Example 21 Find minors and cofactors of the elements a , a in the determinant

11

21

a

a

a

11

12

13

$= a$

a

a

21

22

23

ⓐ

a

a

a

31

32

33

Solution By definition of minors and cofactors, we have

a

a

22

23

Minor of *a* = M =

$$= a a - a a$$

11

11

a

a

22

33

23

32

32

33

Cofactor of $a = A = (-1)^{1+1} M = a a - a a$

11

11

11

22

33

23

32

a

a

12

13

Minor of $a = M =$

$= a a - a a$

21

21

a

a

12

33

13

32

32

33

Cofactor of $a = A = (-1)^{2+1} M = (-1) (a a - a a) = -a a + a a$ 21

21

21

12

33

13

32

12

33

13

32

Remark Expanding the determinant , in Example 21, along R , we have

ⓐ

1

a

a

a

a

a

a

21

22

22

23

21

23

$$= (-1)^{1+1} a$$

$$+ (-1)^{1+2} a$$

$$+ (-1)^{1+3} a a$$

a

ⓑ

11

a

a

12

a

a

13

31

32

32

33

31

33

$= a A + a A + a A$, where A is cofactor of a

11

11

12

12

13

13

ij

ij

= sum of product of elements of R with their corresponding cofactors

1

Similarly, can be calculated by other five ways of expansion that is along R, R,

ⓐ

2

3

C, C and C.

1

2

3

Hence = sum of the product of elements of any row (or column) with their

ⓐ

corresponding cofactors.

Note If elements of a row (or column) are multiplied with cofactors of any other row (or column), then their sum is zero. For example,

DETERMINANTS 125

$$= a A + a A + a A$$

ⓐ

11

21

12

22

13

23

a

a

a

a

12

13

11

13

a

a

$$= a (-1)^{1+1}$$

$$+ a (-1)^{1+2}$$

$+ a (-1)^{1+3} 11$

12

11

a

a

12

a

a

13

32

33

31

33

a

a

31

32

a

a

a

11

12

13

$= a$

a

a

11

12

13 = 0 (since R and R are identical)

1

2

a

a

a

31

32

33

Similarly, we can try for other rows and columns.

Example 22 Find minors and cofactors of the elements of the determinant

2

3

—

5

6

0

4 and verify that $a A + a A + a A = 0$

11

31

12

32

13

33

1

5

7

—

0

4

Solution We have $M =$

$$= 0 - 20 = -20; A = (-1)^{1+1} (-20) = -20$$

11

5

-7

11

6

4

M =

$$= -42 - 4 = -46;$$

$$A = (-1)^{1+2} (-46) = 46$$

12

1

-7

12

6

0

M =

$$= 30 - 0 = 30;$$

$$A = (-1)^{1+3} (30) = 30$$

13

1

5

13

3

—

5

M =

$$= 21 - 25 = -4;$$

$$A = (-1)^{2+1} (-4) = 4$$

21

5

7

—

21

2

5

M =

$$= -14 - 5 = -19;$$

$$A = (-1)^{2+2} (-19) = -19$$

22

1

- 7

22

2

- 3

M =

$$= 10 + 3 = 13;$$

$$A = (-1)^{2+3} (13) = -13$$

23

1

5

23

- 3

5

M =

$$= -12 - 0 = -12;$$

$$A = (-1)^{3+1} (-12) = -12$$

31

0

4

31

126

MATHEMATICS

2

5

M =

$$= 8 - 30 = -22;$$

$$A = (-1)^{3+2} (-22) = 22$$

32

6

4

32

2

- 3

and

M =

$$= 0 + 18 = 18;$$

$$A = (-1)^{3+3} (18) = 18$$

33

6

0

33

Now

$$a = 2, a = -3, a = 5; A = -12, A = 22, A = 18$$

11

12

13

31

32

33

So

$$a A + a A + a A$$

11

31

12

32

13

33

$$= 2(-12) + (-3)(22) + 5(18) = -24 - 66 + 90 = 0$$

EXERCISE 4.4

Write Minors and Cofactors of the elements of following determinants:

2

-4

a

c

1. (i)

(ii)

0

3

b

d

1

0

0

1

0

4

2. (i) 0

1

0

(ii)

3

5

-1

0

0 1

0

1

2

5

3 8

3. Using Cofactors of elements of second row, evaluate = 2

0 1 .

ⓐ

1

2

3

1

x

yz

4. Using Cofactors of elements of third column, evaluate = 1

y

zx .

ⓐ

1

z

xy

a

a

a

11

12

13

5. If $= a$

a

a

21

22

23 and A is Cofactors of a , then value of

is given by

ⓐ

ij

ij

Ⓢ

a

a

a

31

32

33

(A) $a A + a A + a A$

(B) $a A + a A + a A$

11

31

12

32

13

33

11

11

12

21

13

31

(C) $a A + a A + a A$

(D) $a A + a A + a A$

21

11

22

12

23

13

11

11

21

21

31

31

4.6 Adjoint and Inverse of a Matrix

In the previous chapter, we have studied inverse of a matrix. In this section, we shall

discuss the condition for existence of inverse of a matrix.

To find inverse of a matrix A , i.e., A^{-1} we shall first define adjoint of a matrix.

DETERMINANTS 127

4.6.1 Adjoint of a matrix

Definition 3 The adjoint of a square matrix $A = [a]$

is defined as the transpose of

$$ij \ n \times \ n$$

the matrix [A]

, where A is the cofactor of the element a . Adjoint of the matrix A

$$ij \ n \times \ n$$

$$ij$$

$$ij$$

is denoted by $adj \ A$.

$$a$$

$$a$$

$$a$$

$$11$$

$$12$$

$$13 \ \curvearrowright$$

Let

$$A = \curvearrowright a$$

$$a$$

$$a \ \curvearrowright$$

$$21$$

$$22$$

23



a

a

a

31

32

33 



A

A

A

A

A

A

11

12

13 ✂

11

21

31 ✂

Then

adj A = Transpose of \times A

A

$A \times = \times A$

A

A ✂

21

22

23

12

22

32



A

A

A



A

A

A

31

32

33 ✂



13

23

33 ✂



2

3†

Example 23 Find $\text{adj } A$ for $A =$



1

4⊗



Solution We have $A = 4, A = -1, A = -3, A = 2$

11

12

21

22



A

A ✌️



4

-3

11

21



Hence

adj A =

=



A

A ✎




-1

2 ✎



12

22 



Remark For a square matrix of order 2, given by

$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$

a

a

11


12 \dagger

$A = \dagger a$

$a \boxtimes$



21

22 

The *adj* A can also be obtained by interchanging a and a and by changing signs 11

22

of a and a , i.e.,

12

21

We state the following theorem without proof.

Theorem 1 If A be any given square matrix of order n , then

$$A(\text{adj } A) = (\text{adj } A) A =$$

,



where I is the identity matrix of order n

128

MATHEMATICS

Verification

a

a

a

11

12

13

A

A

A



11

21

31 ✂



Let

$A = a$

a

a



21

22

23

, then $\text{adj } A = A$

A

A

12

22

32



A

A

A



a

a

a

31

32

33 ✂



13

23

33 ✂



Since sum of product of elements of a row (or a column) with corresponding

cofactors is equal to $|A|$ and otherwise zero, we have

1

0

0



A

0

0 †



$$A (adj A) = † 0$$

A

$$0 \oplus = A \otimes 0 \quad 1 \otimes = A I$$

+

+

+

+

+

0

0

1

+

0

0

$A \boxtimes$



Similarly, we can show $(adj A) A = A I$

Hence $A (adj A) = (adj A) A = A I$

Definition 4 A square matrix A is said to be singular if $A = 0$.



1

2 🙌

For example, the determinant of matrix $A =$

is zero



4

8 📝



Hence A is a singular matrix.

Definition 5 A square matrix A is said to be nonsingular if $\Delta \neq 0$



1

2



1

2 ✌️

Let

$A =$

. Then $\Delta =$

$$= 4 - 6 = -2 \neq 0.$$



3

4 ✎

3 4



Hence A is a nonsingular matrix

We state the following theorems without proof.

Theorem 2 If A and B are nonsingular matrices of the same order, then AB and BA

are also nonsingular matrices of the same order.

Theorem 3 The determinant of the product of matrices is equal to product of their

respective determinants, that is, $|AB| = |A| |B|$, where A and B are square matrices of

the same order

✓

A

0

0 ✓

Remark We know that $(adj A) A = A I = |A| I$

A

0 ✗

✗

✗

✗

0

0

A \times

\times

\times

DETERMINANTS 129

Writing determinants of matrices on both sides, we have

A

0

0

(*adj* A) A =

0

A

0

0

0

A

1

0

0

3

i.e.

$$|(\text{adj } A)| |A| = |A|^{n-1}$$

1

0

(Why?)

0

0

1

i.e.

$$|(\text{adj } A)| |A| = |A|^{n-1} \quad (1)$$

i.e.

$$|(\text{adj } A)| = |A|^{n-1}$$

In general, if A is a square matrix of order n , then $|\text{adj}(A)| = |A|^{n-1}$.

Theorem 4 A square matrix A is invertible if and only if A is nonsingular matrix.

Proof Let A be invertible matrix of order n and I be the identity matrix of order n .

Then, there exists a square matrix B of order n such that $AB = BA = I$

Now

$AB = I$. So $AB = I$ or $A B = 1$ (since $I = 1$, AB

$A B$)

This gives

A

0. Hence A is nonsingular.



Conversely, let A be nonsingular. Then A 0



Now

$$A (adj A) = (adj A) A = A I$$

(Theorem 1)



1



1

or

A

adj A

adj A ✂



A  I



|A|

†

⊗

|A|

†

†

†

†

†

1

or

AB = BA = I, where B =

adj A

|A|

1

Thus

A is invertible and A⁻¹ =

adj A

|A|

1



3

3☆

Example 24 If $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$



4

3☞, then verify that $A \text{adj } A = |A| I$. Also find A^{-1} .



1



3

4☞



Solution We have $|A| = 1(16 - 9) - 3(4 - 3) + 3(3 - 4) = 10$



130

MATHEMATICS

Now $A = 7, A = -1, A = -1, A = -3, A = 1, A = 0, A = -3, A = 0,$

11

12

13

21

22

23

31

32

$A = 1$

33

✂

7

3

$3 \times$

Therefore

$adj A = \begin{matrix} \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times \\ \times & \times & \times \end{matrix} 1$

1

0 📞



1

0

1 📞



13

3

7

†3

3

†

†

⊗

†

⊗

Now

$$A (\text{adj } A) = 1$$

☆

4

$$3 \leftarrow ☆ 1$$

1

0☛

+

☆

☛

☆

☛

1

☆

3

4☛ ☆ 1

0

1 🖐



7



3 † 3

3



3 0

† 3

0

3⊗

= ☆7

4 3

3  4  0



† 3

0

3 

†

†

†

☆



☆ 7

3 4

3 👉 3 👉 0

3 👉 👉

0

4 🖱

+

+

+

+

👉

✌

✂ 1

0

0

✂

1

0

0



= 0

1

0 = (1) 0 1 0 = A . I



0

0

1



0

0

1 ☎



7

3



7

† 3

3



3



1



1

1

Also

A



1

1

0 =

1



1

0



adj A

A

1



1

0

1☞



1

0

1☞



2

3

1



2✓

Example 25 If $A =$

and B

, then verify that $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

✓

×

1

4 ✗

×

1

3 ✗

☞

☞

×

✗

×

✗

2

3

1

☞

2



1

5 ✓

Solution We have $AB =$



1

4 ✗ × 1

3 ✗ × 5

14 ✕



X

X

X

X

X

X

Since,

$AB = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $(AB)^{-1}$ exists and is given by



1

1

14

1 14



5★



5♣

$(AB)^{-1} =$

$adj(AB)$



AB

11



5

1♣

11 5

1



Further, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Therefore, A^{-1} and B^{-1} both exist and are given by



$1 \Rightarrow 4$



$3 \checkmark$

$\Rightarrow 3$

2

1



$A^{-1} = \Rightarrow$

, B★ ✓

11 × 1

2 ✕

× 1

1 ✕



✕

✕

✕

✕

DETERMINANTS 131

1 3

2

1

1 14



5

✂ 14



5

4



3

Therefore

1

1

BA



1† ① 1

2†

11 ①

5

11 ① 5

1†

✂

✂ 1 †

✂

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

†

Hence $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$

⊠

2

3 ☆

Example 26 Show that the matrix $A =$

satisfies the equation $A^2 - 4A + I = O$,



1

2



where I is 2×2 identity matrix and O is 2×2 zero matrix. Using this equation, find A^{-1} .



2

3 2

3



7 12

Solution We have

2

A

A.A



1

2 1

2



4

7



0

0



7 12 ☆



8 12 ☆



1

0 ☆



Hence

2

A



O



4A  I



4

7 



4

8 



0

1 



0

0



Now

$$A^2 - 4A + I = O$$

Therefore

$$A^2 - 4A = -I$$

or

$$A(A - I) - 4(A - I) = -I(A - I) \text{ (Post multiplying by } A - I \text{ because } |A| \neq 0)$$



or

$$A(A - I) - 4I = -A - I$$

or

$$AI - 4I = -A - I$$

4

0

2

3

2



3☆

or

$$A^{-1} = 4I - A =$$



0

4 🗨️

1

2 🗨️

1

2 🗨️



2

3



✓ 1

Hence

A



1

2 



EXERCISE 4.5

Find adjoint of each of the matrices in Exercises 1 and 2.

1



12✕



1

2✂

1.

2. ✕ 2

3

5✕



3

4†



2

0

1 ✘

✓

⊕

+

Verify $A (\text{adj } A) = (\text{adj } A) A = |A| I$ in Exercises 3 and 4

1 ✓

×

1

2 ✘

×

✘

✂

2

3 ✂

3

0

✓ 2

3.

4. \times

\times

\emptyset

4

6†

✂

✂

†

†

$\times 1$

0

3 \times

†

+

132

MATHEMATICS

Find the inverse of each of the matrices (if it exists) given in Exercises 5 to 11.

†

1

2

3†



1

5



2

2✂



5.

6.

7.

0

2

4



4

3 ☎

3

2 ☎



0

0

5 ☆



1



1

2



2

1

3

† 1

0

0 †



8.

3

3

0

9. 4

10

10. 0

2

👉 3☆



3

2

4



7

2

1



5

2

1☆



1

0

0



11.



0

cos

sin



0

sin

COS 



6

8



3

7X



12. Let $A =$

and $B =$

. Verify that $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1} A^{-1}$.



2

5+



7

9+

+

+

+

+

×

3

1×

13. If $A =$

, show that $A^2 - 5A + 7I = O$. Hence find A^{-1} .

×

1 2+

+

+

+

× 3

2×

14. For the matrix $A =$

, find the numbers a and b such that $A^2 + aA + bI = O$.

× 1

1 ⊕

+

+

†

1

1

1 †

15. For the matrix $A = \boxtimes 1$

2

3 ☆

✌️

⊗

☆

⊗

2

1

3 ☆



Show that $A^3 - 6A^2 + 5A + 11I = O$. Hence, find A^{-1} .

2



1

1 †

16. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

2

1 ☆



1

1

2 ☆



Verify that $A^3 - 6A^2 + 9A - 4I = O$ and hence find A^{-1}

17. Let A be a nonsingular square matrix of order 3×3 . Then $|adj A|$ is equal to

(A) $|A|$

(B) $|A|^2$

(C) $|A|^3$

(D) $3 |A|$

18. If A is an invertible matrix of order 2, then $\det (A^{-1})$ is equal to

1

(A) $\det (A)$

(B)

(C) $\frac{1}{\det (A)}$

(D) 0

$\det (A)$

DETERMINANTS 133

4.7 Applications of Determinants and Matrices

In this section, we shall discuss application of determinants and matrices for solving the

system of linear equations in two or three variables and for checking the consistency of

the system of linear equations.

Consistent system A system of equations is said to be *consistent* if its solution (one

or more) exists.

Inconsistent system A system of equations is said to be *inconsistent* if its solution

does not exist.

Note In this chapter, we restrict ourselves to the system of linear equations

having unique solutions only.

4.7.1 Solution of system of linear equations using inverse of a matrix

Let us express the system of linear equations as matrix equations and solve them using

inverse of the coefficient matrix.

Consider the system of equations

$$a x + b y + c z = d$$

1

1

1

1

$$a x + b y + c z = d$$

2

2

2

2

$$a x + b y + c z = d$$

3

3

3

3



a

b

c ✂



x ✂



d

1

1

1

1 ✂

Let

$A = \{a\}$

b

c \mathbb{R} , X



y \mathbb{R}



and B ✂



d 📞

2

2

2

2



a

b

c 📞



z 📞



d

†

3

3

3 †

†

†

†

3 ☎

†

Then, the system of equations can be written as, $AX = B$, i.e.,

↪

d

↪

a

b

$c \times x$

1

1

1



1 ✂

✂ *a*

b

c ☎ ✂ *y* ☎



d ☎

2

2

2



2



d



a

b

c   *z*

+

3 

+

3

3

3



Case I If A is a nonsingular matrix, then its inverse exists. Now

$$AX = B$$

or

$$A^{-1} (AX) = A^{-1} B$$

(premultiplying by A^{-1})

or

$$(A^{-1}A) X = A^{-1} B$$

(by associative property)

or

$$I X = A^{-1} B$$

or

$$X = A^{-1} B$$

This matrix equation provides unique solution for the given system of equations as

inverse of a matrix is unique. This method of solving system of equations is known as

Matrix Method.

134

MATHEMATICS

Case II If A is a singular matrix, then $|A| = 0$.

In this case, we calculate $(adj A) B$.

If $(adj A) B \neq O$, (O being zero matrix), then solution does not exist and the

✂

system of equations is called inconsistent.

If $(adj A) B = O$, then system may be either consistent or inconsistent according

as the system have either infinitely many solutions or no solution.

Example 27 Solve the system of equations

$$2x + 5y = 1$$

$$3x + 2y = 7$$

Solution The system of equations can be written in the form $AX = B$, where

2

5✂

x^2

1^2

$A =$

$, X^2$

and B^2



3

2^2



y^2

7^2



Now, $A = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, Hence, A is nonsingular matrix and so has a unique solution.

✂

1

2

† 5✂

Note that

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

†

†

†

1

2

† 5✂

1

Therefore

$$X = A^{-1}B = -$$

✂

11 📞 3

2 🕒 📞 7 🕒

+

+

+

+

+

x

1 🗄

☆

33 🗄 ☆ 3

✂

👉

i.e.

= ✖



y ①

11 🙌 11 📝 🙌 1 📝

✖

+

+



Hence

$$x = 3, y = -1$$

Example 28 Solve the following system of equations by matrix method.

$$3x - 2y + 3z = 8$$

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

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

Solution The system of equations can be written in the form $AX = B$, where

3

2



3 ✓



x ✓



8 ✓

A



2

1

$1 \times$, X



$y \times$ and B



1 ×

×



×

×

✓

×

✓

×

✓

×

✓

4

3

2 ×

✓

z ×

✓

4 ×

⇒

×

×

×

×

×

×

We see that

$$A = 3(2 - 3) + 2(4 + 4) + 3(-6 - 4) = -17$$

∴

DETERMINANTS 135

Hence, A is nonsingular and so its inverse exists. Now

$$A = -1,$$

$$A = -8,$$

$$A = -10$$

$$11$$

$$12$$

$$13$$

$$A = -5,$$

$$A = -6,$$

$$A = 1$$

$$21$$

$$22$$

$$23$$

$$A = -1,$$

$$A = 9,$$

$$A = 7$$

$$31$$

$$32$$

$$33$$



$$1$$

$$5$$

$$1 \times$$

$$1$$

Therefore

$$A-1 =$$



$$8$$

6

9 ☎

17 ✂



10

1

7 ☎



† 1



5 †



1 ✂ † 8 ✂

1

So

X =

-1

AB =

☆

8

6

9 ☛ ☆1 ☛

†

†

†

17 ☆

☛

☆

☛

☆

10

1

7 🗨️ ✨4 🗨️

+

👉

✌️

👉

✌️

✂️

17 ✂️

✂️ 1

✂️

x ✂️

✂️

1

i.e.

✂️

y 🗨️ =

✂️

34 🗨️

✂️ 2 📞



17 ✂️



51 📞

✂️ 3



z 





†



†



†

Hence

$x = 1, y = 2$ and $z = 3$.

Example 29 The sum of three numbers is 6. If we multiply third number by 3 and add

second number to it, we get 11. By adding first and third numbers, we get double of the

second number. Represent it algebraically and find the numbers using matrix method.

Solution Let first, second and third numbers be denoted by x, y and z , respectively.

Then, according to given conditions, we have

$$x + y + z = 6$$

$$y + 3z = 11$$

$$x + z = 2y \text{ or } x - 2y + z = 0$$

This system can be written as $A X = B$, where

x



6



1

1

1



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

1

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, X = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

y and $B = 11$




z



0



1

21 



Here A

. Now we find *adj* A



$$1 \ 1 \ \times \ 6 - (0 - 3) \ \times \ 0 - 1 \ \times \ 9 \oplus 0$$



$$A = 1(1 + 6) = 7,$$

$$A = -(0 - 3) = 3,$$

$$A = -1$$

11

12

13

$$A = -(1 + 2) = -3,$$

$$A = 0,$$

$$A = -(-2 - 1) = 3$$

21

22

23

$$A = (3 - 1) = 2,$$

$$A = -(3 - 0) = -3,$$

$$A = (1 - 0) = 1$$

31

32

33

136

MATHEMATICS

7

-3

2 ✂

Hence

$$\text{adj } A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

0

-3 ✂



-1

3

1 ✂



7

-3

2 ✂

1

1

Thus

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{|A|} \text{adj } A$$

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

0

-3

A

9



-1

3

1



Since

$$X = A^{-1} B$$



7

-3

2 + 6

1

X =

†

3

0

-3⊗1

†

1⊗

9 †

⊗

†

⊗

†

-1

3

1 ✖ † 0 ✖



x

42

👉 1



9



33 ✓



0



1

1



y




18

 18 



2 



0 ✓ 0 

or

=

=

=



z

9

9



3





$$\blacktriangleright 6 \checkmark 33 \checkmark 0 \text{✎}$$



Thus

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

EXERCISE 4.6

Examine the consistency of the system of equations in Exercises 1 to 6.

1. $x + 2y = 2$

$$2. 2x - y = 5$$

$$3. x + 3y = 5$$

$$2x + 3y = 3$$

$$x + y = 4$$

$$2x + 6y = 8$$

$$4. x + y + z = 1$$

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

$$6. 5x - y + 4z = 5$$

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

$$2y - z = -1$$

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

$$ax + ay + 2az = 4$$

$$3x - 5y = 3$$

$$5x - 2y + 6z = -1$$

Solve system of linear equations, using matrix method, in Exercises 7 to 14.

$$7. 5x + 2y = 4$$

$$8. 2x - y = -2$$

$$9. 4x - 3y = 3$$

$$7x + 3y = 5$$

$$3x + 4y = 3$$

$$3x - 5y = 7$$

$$10. 5x + 2y = 3$$

$$11. 2x + y + z = 1$$

$$12. x - y + z = 4$$

3

$$3x + 2y = 5$$

$$x - 2y - z =$$

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

2

$$3y - 5z = 9$$

$$x + y + z = 2$$

$$13. 2x + 3y + 3z = 5$$

$$14. x - y + 2z = 7$$

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

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

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

$$2x - y + 3z = 12$$

DETERMINANTS 137

2

-3

5✂

15. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

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

find A^{-1} . Using A^{-1} solve the system of equations

✂

✂

✂

1

1

-2 ✂

Ⓜ

Ⓜ

$$2x - 3y + 5z = 11$$

$$3x + 2y - 4z = -5$$

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

16. The cost of 4 kg onion, 3 kg wheat and 2 kg rice is Rs 60. The cost of 2 kg onion,

4 kg wheat and 6 kg rice is Rs 90. The cost of 6 kg onion 2 kg wheat and 3 kg

rice is Rs 70. Find cost of each item per kg by matrix method.

Miscellaneous Examples

Example 30 If a, b, c are positive and unequal, show that value of the determinant

$$a$$

$$b$$

$$c$$

$$= b$$

$$c$$

a is negative.

†

$$c$$

$$a$$

$$b$$

Solution Applying C

C + C + C to the given determinant, we get

$$1 \quad \dagger$$

$$1$$

$$2$$

$$3$$

$$a$$

$$1 \quad b$$

c

†

$b \dagger c$

b

c

$= a$

$= (a + b + c) \dagger c$

a

†

$b \dagger c$

c

a

†

a

$\dagger a$

b

†

$$b \dagger c$$

$$a$$

$$b$$

$$1$$

$$b$$

$$c$$

$$= (a + b + c) 0$$

$$c - b$$

$$a - c \text{ (Applying R}$$

$$\text{R} - \text{R} \text{ ,and R}$$

$$\text{R} - \text{R})$$

$$2 \dagger$$

$$2$$

$$1$$

$$3 \dagger$$

$$3$$

$$1$$

$$0$$

$$a - b$$

$$b - c$$

$$= (a + b + c) [(c - b)(b - c) - (a - c)(a - b)] \text{ (Expanding along C) } 1$$

$$= (a + b + c)(-a^2 - b^2 - c^2 + ab + bc + ca) 1$$

–

=

$$(a + b + c)(2a^2 + 2b^2 + 2c^2 - 2ab - 2bc - 2ca) 2$$

1

–

=

$$(a + b + c) [(a - b)^2 + (b - c)^2 + (c - a)^2]$$

2

which is negative (since $a + b + c > 0$ and $(a - b)^2 + (b - c)^2 + (c - a)^2 > 0$)

138

MATHEMATICS

Example 31 If a, b, c , are in A.P, find value of

$$2y$$

$$45y$$

7

8y

a

3y

5 6y 8 9y

b

4y

6

7y

9 10y

c

Solution Applying R

R + R - 2R to the given determinant, we obtain

1 ✂

1

3

2

0

0

0

$$3y^2 + 5y + 8y + b = 0 \quad (\text{Since } 2b = a + c) \quad 4y^2 + 6$$

$$7y^2 + 9y + c$$

Example 32 Show that

$$2$$

$$y^2 + z$$

$$xy$$

$$zx$$

×

⊗

$$2$$

=

$$xy$$

$$x$$

$$= 2xyz(x + y + z)^3$$

+

$$z$$

yz



2

xz

yz

$x + y$



Solution Applying R

$x R, R$

$y R, R$

$z R$ to and dividing by xyz , we get

1 ✂

1

2 ✂

2

3 ✂

3

⊗

2

2

2

$x y z$

$x y$

$x z$

+

+

+

1

2

2

2

=

xy

$y x z$

yz

†

†

†

⊙

xyz

2

2

2

xz

yz

zx

y

†

†

†

Taking common factors x, y, z from C and C , respectively, we get

1

2

3

2

2

2

$y \dagger z$

x

x

⊗

⊗

xyz

2

2

2

=

y

$x \dagger z$

y



xyz

2

2

2

z

z

$x \dagger y$



Applying C

$C - C, C$

$C - C$, we have

2 ✂

2

1

3 ✂

3

1

2

2

2

2

2

y ✌ z

x - y ✌ z

x ✂ y ✌ z



2

2

2

=

y

x ✌️ z



y

0



2

2

2

z

0

x ✌️ y

-z



Taking common factor $(x + y + z)$ from C and C , we have

2

3

2

$$y \times z$$

$$x - y \times z$$

$$x - y \times z$$

✂

✂

✂

= (

2

$$(x + y + z)^2$$

y

$$x \times z - y$$

0

✂

⊙

2

z

0

$$x \times y - z$$

✂

Applying R

R - (R + R), we have

$$1 \times$$

1

2

3

$$2yz$$

$$-2z$$

$$-2y$$

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

2

y

$$x \times y + z$$

0

⓪

2

z

0

$$x \dagger y - z$$

1

†

1

Applying C

(C +

C) and C

, we get

⊗

C ☆

C †

2 ✂

2

y

1

3

⊣

3

1 ✎

z



2 yz

0

0

2

y

= (x + y + z)²

2

y

x z



z

2

z

2

z

x

y



y

Finally expanding along R , we have

1

$$= (x + y + z)^2 (2yz) [(x + z)(x + y) - yz] = (x + y + z)^2 (2yz) (x^2 + xy + xz)$$



$$= (x + y + z)^3 (2xyz)$$

—

—



1

1


$$2 \Rightarrow 2$$

0

$$1 \Rightarrow$$

Example 33 Use product $\Rightarrow 0$

2

3 ✓ 

—

9

2

3 ✓

—

to solve the system of equations



✓



✓

—

—



3

2

4 ✓  6

1

2 ✓

✓

×

✓

×

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

$$2y - 3z = 1$$

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

×

1

-1

$$2 \times \times - 2$$

0

1 ×

Solution Consider the product **×**0

2

$$-3 \oplus \times 9$$

2

-3+

x

+

x

+

x

3

-2

4+ x 6

1

-2+

+

+

+

+

140

MATHEMATICS

2

9

+

1

0

0



12

0

2 ✂ 2

1 ✂



3 4 ✂



= 📞 0 18 18

0

4 3

0 6

6@ = ☆0 1 0



0

0

1



6 18 24

0

4

4

3 6 8 0



- 1



1

1

2 



2


0

1 

Hence

 0


2

- 3 



9

2

- 3 











-

-



3

2

4 



6

1

2 



Now, given system of equations can be written, in matrix form, as follows



1



1

-1

2   x 



0

2

$$-3 \Rightarrow y = \star 1$$






2



3

-2

4   z 



× 1

x

1

-



1



2

0

1



1

2 X



1



or



$y = \oplus 0$

2

3 +



$1 \oplus = \clubsuit 9$

2

3 \heartsuit

1 \heartsuit

—



z

—



2



6

1

2



3



× 2

4+



2+



2 ✂ 0 ✂



2 ✂



0 ✂

= 📞 9

26 ①



50 ①



614 ①



30 ①



Hence

$$x = 0, y = 5 \text{ and } z = 3$$

Example 34 Prove that

$$a \star bx$$

$$c \star dx$$

$$p \star qx$$

$$a$$

$$c$$

$$p$$

$$2$$

$$= ax$$



$$b$$

$$cx \star d$$

$$px \star q$$

$$(1 x) b$$

$$d$$

q



u

v

w

u

v

w

Solution Applying R

R – x R to , we get

1



1

2

2

2

2

$a(1 \star x)$

$c(1 \star x)$

$p(1 \star x)$

=

$ax \star b$

$cx \star d$

$px \star q$

\star

u

v

w

a

c

p

2

$= (1 \star x) ax \star b$

$cx \star d$

$px \star q$

u

v

w

DETERMINANTS 141

Applying R

R - x R, we get

2 ✂

2

1

a

c

p

2

= (1 x) *b*

d

q

⓪

u

v

w

Miscellaneous Exercises on Chapter 4

x

sin ✂

cos ✂

1. Prove that the determinant $-\sin$
 is independent of .



$-x$

1



\cos

1

x

2

2

3

a

a

bc

1 a

a

2. Without expanding the determinant, prove that

2

2

3

b

b

ca

b

b .



1

2

2

3

c

c

ab

1 *c*

c

$\cos \alpha \cos \beta$

$\cos \alpha \sin \beta$

$-\sin \alpha$

3. Evaluate

$-\sin$

.

†

\cos †

0

$\sin \otimes \cos$ †

$\sin \otimes \sin$ †

$\cos \otimes$

4. If a , b and c are real numbers, and

$b \dagger c$

$c \dagger a$

$a \dagger b$

$= c$

$= 0,$

†

a

$$a \dagger b$$

$$b \dagger c$$

ⓐ

$$a \dagger b$$

$$b \dagger c$$

$$c \dagger a$$

Show that either $a + b + c = 0$ or $a = b = c$.

$$x \dagger a$$

$$x$$

$$x$$

5. Solve the equation

$$x$$

$$x$$

$$, a 0$$

†

$$a$$

x



0



x

x

$x \dagger a$

2

2

a

bc

$ac c$



6. Prove that 2

2

a

ab

b

ac

$$= 4 a^2 b^2 c^2$$



2

2

ab

b

bc

c



3

- 1

1 



1

2

2

- 

- 1



7. If $A^{-1} = -15$

6

5



and $B^{-1} = 1$

3

0, find AB



5

-2

2 



0

-2

1 



142

MATHEMATICS

1

2

-

1 

8. Let $A = \infty 2$

-

3

1 ✂ . Verify that



1

1

5 ✂



(i) $[\text{adj } A]^{-1} = \text{adj } (A^{-1})$

(ii) $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$

x

y

$x \dagger y$

9. Evaluate

y

$x \dagger y$

x

$x \dagger y$

x

y

1

x

y

10. Evaluate 1

$x \dagger y$

y

1

x

$x + y$

Using properties of determinants in Exercises 11 to 15, prove that:

2

\dagger

\dagger

\dagger

\boxtimes

\star

11.

2

$$= (-)(-)(-)(++)$$



2



2

3

x

x

1

px



12.

2

3

y

y

1

$py = (1 + pxyz) (x - y) (y - z) (z - x)$, where p is any scalar.



2

3

z

z

1

pz



$3a$

$-a + b$

$-a + c$

13.

$-b$

$= 3(a + b + c) (ab + bc + ca)$



a

$3b$

$$-b \boxplus c$$

$$-c \boxplus a$$

$$-c + b$$

$$3c$$

$$1$$

$$1$$

$$\sin \leftarrow$$

$$\cos \leftarrow$$

$$\cos$$

+

$$p$$

$$1 \boxplus p \boxplus q$$



14.

2

3

sin ✓

cos ✓

cos ✓

×



✓

0

†

$2p$

$$4 + 3p + 2q = 1$$

15.



3

6

sin ✗

cos ✗

cos

†

$$3p + 10 + 6p + 3q$$

✕

➤

✓

✎

✎

16. Solve the system of equations

2

3

10

✕

✕

✕

4

x

y

z

DETERMINANTS 143

4

6

5

—

✂

1

x

y

z

6

9

20

—

✂

2

x

y

z

Choose the correct answer in Exercise 17 to 19.

17. If a, b, c , are in A.P, then the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 2 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 3 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 2 & a \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 3 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 4 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 2 & b \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 4 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 5 \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 2 & c \\ & \end{vmatrix}$$

(A) 0

(B) 1

(C) x

(D) $2x$



x

0

0

18. If x, y, z are nonzero real numbers, then the inverse of matrix A



0

y

0† is

†

ℓ

†

ℓ

0

0

$z†$

†

⊗

⊗ 1

⊗ 1

⊗

x

0

0



x

0

0



(A)

☆ 1

☆ 1

(B) xyz 0

y

0



0

y

0 🖊️



☆ 1



1

0

0

z

0

0

z



1

0

0



x

0

0 



1

1

(C)



0

y

0 ✓

(D)

⓪

0

1

0 †

xyz ✓

✓

xyz ⓪

†

⓪

0

0

1

✓

0

0

$z \checkmark$

†

×

×

†

⊠

1

$\sin X$

⊠

1 ⊠

19. Let $A = \checkmark \sin$

1

$\sin \checkmark$, where 0

2 . Then

X

X

X

+

+

+

+

✓

✓

✓

1

sin

1 ✓

X

X

X

X

X

(A) Det (A) = 0

(B) Det (A) (2,)



(C) Det (A) (2, 4)

(D) Det (A) [2, 4]



144

MATHEMATICS

Summary

Determinant of a matrix $A = [a]$

is given by $| a | = a$

11 1×1

11

11



a

a

Determinant of a matrix

11

12

A



is given by



a

a Ⓣ



21

22 †

a

a

11

12

A ✂

$$= a a - a a$$

a

a

11

22

12

21

21

22



a

b

c

1

1

1 \oplus

Determinant of a matrix A



a

b

c is given by (expanding along R)



2

2

2

1



a

b

c

3

3

3 



a

b

c

1

1

1

b

c

a

c

a

b

2

2

2

2

2

2

A  *a*

b

c  *a*



b



c

2

2

2

1

1

1

b

c

a

c

a

b

3

3

3

3

3

3

a

b

c

3

3

3

For any square matrix A , the $|A|$ satisfy following properties.

$|A| = |A^T|$, where A^T = transpose of A .



If we interchange any two rows (or columns), then sign of determinant changes.

If any two rows or any two columns are identical or proportional, then value

of determinant is zero.

If we multiply each element of a row or a column of a determinant by constant

k , then value of determinant is multiplied by k .

Multiplying a determinant by k means multiply elements of only one row (or one column) by k .

If

3

$A = [a_{ij}]$

, then $k \cdot A = kA$

$i, j = 1, 2, 3$

If elements of a row or a column in a determinant can be expressed as sum of two or more elements, then the given determinant can be expressed as sum of two or more determinants.

If to each element of a row or a column of a determinant the equimultiples of

corresponding elements of other rows or columns are added, then value of determinant remains same.

DETERMINANTS 145

Area of a triangle with vertices (x_1, y_1) , (x_2, y_2) and (x_3, y_3) is given by

1

2

2

3

3

x

y

1

1

1

1

✂

✂

x

y

1

2

2

$2 \times y \ 1$

3

3

Minor of an element a of the determinant of matrix A is the determinant

ij

obtained by deleting i th row and j th column and denoted by M .

ij

Cofactor of a of given by $A = (-1)^{i+j} M$

ij

ij

ij

Value of determinant of a matrix A is obtained by sum of product of elements

of a row (or a column) with corresponding cofactors. For example,

$$A = a_{11}A_{11} + a_{12}A_{12} + a_{13}A_{13}.$$

11

11

12

12

13

13

If elements of one row (or column) are multiplied with cofactors of elements

of any other row (or column), then their sum is zero. For example, $a_{11}A_{21} + a_{12}A_{22} + a_{13}A_{23} = 0$

11

21

12

$$A + a_{11}A_{21} = 0$$

22

13

23



A

A

A



a

a

a

11

12

13

11

21

31

If A



a

a

a † then *adj* A



, where A is

†

A

A

A †

†

,

21

22

23

12

22

32

ij

⓪

†

⓪

†

⓪

A

A

A

⓪

a

a

a

31

32

33 †

†

13

23

33 †

†

⊗

⊗

cofactor of a_{ij}

$A (adj A) = (adj A) A = |A| I$, where A is square matrix of order n .

A square matrix A is said to be singular or nonsingular according as

$|A| = 0$ or $|A| \neq 0$.

☆

If $AB = BA = I$, where B is square matrix, then B is called inverse of A .

Also $A^{-1} = B$ or $B^{-1} = A$ and hence $(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$.

A square matrix A has inverse if and only if A is nonsingular.

-1

1

A

☛

$(adj A)$

A

If

$$a x + b y + c z = d$$

1

1

1

1

$$a x + b y + c z = d$$

2

2

2

2

$$a x + b y + c z = d ,$$

3

3

3

3

then these equations can be written as $A X = B$, where



a

b

c 🙌



x 🙌



d

1

1

1

1 🙌

A 🖋️ a

b

c 🖋️, $X =$ 🖋️ y 🖋️



and $B =$ 🖋️ d 🖋️

2

2

2

2



a

b

c



z



d



3

3

3 



3 



146

MATHEMATICS

Unique solution of equation $AX = B$ is given by $X = A^{-1} B$, where A

.



0

A system of equation is consistent or inconsistent according as its solution exists or not.

For a square matrix A in matrix equation $AX = B$

(i) $|A| \neq 0$, there exists unique solution



(ii) $|A| = 0$ and $(adj A) B \neq 0$, then there exists no solution



(iii) $|A| = 0$ and $(adj A) B = 0$, then system may or may not be consistent.

Historical Note

The Chinese method of representing the coefficients of the unknowns of several linear equations by using rods on a calculating board naturally led to the

discovery of simple method of elimination. The arrangement of rods was precisely

that of the numbers in a determinant. The Chinese, therefore, early developed the

idea of subtracting columns and rows as in simplification of a determinant

‘ *Mikami, China, pp 30, 93.*

Seki Kowa, the greatest of the Japanese Mathematicians of seventeenth

century in his work ‘ *Kai Fukudai no Ho*’ in 1683 showed that he had the idea of

determinants and of their expansion. But he used this device only in eliminating a

quantity from two equations and not directly in the solution of a set of simultaneous

linear equations. ‘T. Hayashi, “*The Fakudoi and Determinants in Japanese Mathematics,*” in the proc. of the Tokyo Math. Soc., V.

Vendermonde was the first to recognise determinants as independent functions.

He may be called the formal founder. Laplace (1772), gave general method of

expanding a determinant in terms of its complementary minors. In 1773 Lagrange

treated determinants of the second and third orders and used them for purpose

other than the solution of equations. In 1801, Gauss used determinants in his

theory of numbers.

The next great contributor was Jacques - Philippe - Marie Binet, (1812) who

stated the theorem relating to the product of two matrices of m -columns and n -

rows, which for the special case of $m = n$ reduces to the multiplication theorem.

Also on the same day, Cauchy (1812) presented one on the same subject. He

used the word 'determinant' in its present sense. He gave the proof of multiplication

theorem more satisfactory than Binet's.

The greatest contributor to the theory was Carl Gustav Jacob Jacobi, after this the word determinant received its final acceptance.



Chapter 5

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

The whole of science is nothing more than a refinement of everyday thinking.” — *ALBERT EINSTEIN*

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is essentially a continuation of our study of differentiation of functions in Class XI. We had learnt to differentiate certain functions like polynomial functions and trigonometric functions. In this chapter, we introduce the very important concepts of continuity, differentiability and relations between them. We will also learn differentiation of inverse trigonometric functions. Further, we introduce a new class of functions called exponential and logarithmic functions. These functions lead to powerful techniques of differentiation. We illustrate certain geometrically obvious conditions through differential calculus. In the process, we will learn some fundamental theorems in this area.

Sir Issac Newton

5.2 Continuity

(1642-1727)

We start the section with two informal examples to get a feel of continuity. Consider

the function

1, if $x < 0$

∞

0

$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 2, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$

†

This function is of course defined at every point of the real line. Graph of this function is given in the Fig 5.1. One can deduce from the graph that the value of the function at *nearby* points on x -axis remain *close* to each other except at $x = 0$. At the points near and to the left of 0, i.e., at points like $-0.1, -0.01, -0.001$, the value of the function is 1. At the points near and to the right of 0, i.e., at points like $0.1, 0.01$,

Fig 5.1

MATHEMATICS

0.001, the value of the function is 2. Using the language of left and right hand limits, we

may say that the left (respectively right) hand limit of f at 0 is 1 (respectively 2). In

particular the left and right hand limits do not coincide. We also observe that the value

of the function at $x = 0$ coincides with the left hand limit. Note that when we try to draw

the graph, we cannot draw it in one stroke, i.e., without lifting pen from the plane of the

paper, we can not draw the graph of this function. In fact, we need to lift the pen when

we come to 0 from left. This is one instance of function being not continuous at $x = 0$.

Now, consider the function defined as

1

↗

, if x

0

$f(x) = 2$, if $x > 0$

↘

This function is also defined at every point. Left and the right hand limits at $x = 0$

are both equal to 1. But the value of the function at $x = 0$ equals 2 which does not coincide with the common value of the left and right hand limits. Again, we note that we cannot draw the graph of the function without lifting the pen. This is yet another instance of a function being not continuous at $x = 0$.

Naively, we may say that a function is continuous at a fixed point if we can draw the graph of the function *around* that point without

Fig 5.2

lifting the pen from the plane of the paper.

Mathematically, it may be phrased precisely as follows:

Definition 1 Suppose f is a real function on a subset of the real numbers and let c be a point in the domain of f . Then f is continuous at c if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

$$x \in \mathcal{D} f$$

More elaborately, if the left hand limit, right hand limit and the value of the function

at $x = c$ exist and equal to each other, then f is said to be continuous at $x = c$. Recall that if the right hand and left hand limits at $x = c$ coincide, then we say that the common

value is the limit of the function at $x = c$. Hence we may also rephrase the definition of continuity as follows: *a function is continuous at $x = c$ if the function is defined at*

$x = c$ and if the value of the function at $x = c$ equals the limit of the function at

*$x = c$. If f is not continuous at c , we say f is *discontinuous* at c and c is called a *point of discontinuity* of f .*

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

149

Example 1 Check the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = 2x + 3$ at $x = 1$.

Solution First note that the function is defined at the given point $x = 1$ and its value is 5.

Then find the limit of the function at $x = 1$. Clearly

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x + 3) = 2(1) + 3 = 5$$

x

1

x

1

Thus

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 5 = f(1)$$

x

1

Hence, f is continuous at $x = 1$.

Example 2 Examine whether the function f given by $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

Solution First note that the function is defined at the given point $x = 0$ and its value is 0.

Then find the limit of the function at $x = 0$. Clearly

2

2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0 = f(0)$$

$$x \rightarrow 0$$

$$x \rightarrow 0$$

Thus

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0 = f(0)$$

x

0

Hence, f is continuous at $x = 0$.

Example 3 Discuss the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = |x|$ at $x = 0$.

Solution By definition

⊙

x , if $x \neq 0$

⊕

0

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

☆

Clearly the function is defined at 0 and $f(0) = 0$. Left hand limit of f at 0 is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (-x) = 0$$

x

0

x

0

↩

↩

Similarly, the right hand limit of f at 0 is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0$$

x

0 

x

0 



Thus, the left hand limit, right hand limit and the value of the function coincide at

$x = 0$. Hence, f is continuous at $x = 0$.

Example 4 Show that the function f given by

3




$x \leq 3$, if $x >$



0

$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$,

if $x >$ 



0



is not continuous at $x = 0$.

MATHEMATICS

Solution The function is defined at $x = 0$ and its value at $x = 0$ is 1. When $x \neq 0$, the

\neq

function is given by a polynomial. Hence,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) =$$

3

3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x + 3) = 0 + 3 = 3$$

$x \rightarrow 0$

0

$x \rightarrow 0$

Since the limit of f at $x = 0$ does not coincide with $f(0)$, the function is not continuous at $x = 0$. It may be noted that $x = 0$ is the only point of discontinuity for this function.

Example 5 Check the points where the constant function $f(x) = k$ is continuous.

Solution The function is defined at all real numbers and by definition, its value at any

real number equals k . Let c be any real number. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} k = k$$

x

c

x

c

Since $f(c) = k = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ for any real number c , the function f is continuous at $x = c$

every real number.

Example 6 Prove that the identity function on real numbers given by $f(x) = x$ is continuous at every real number.

Solution The function is clearly defined at every point and $f(c) = c$ for every real number c . Also,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c$$

x

$x \rightarrow c$

$+$

c

Thus, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = c = f(c)$ and hence the function is continuous at every real number.

x

c

Having defined continuity of a function at a given point, now we make a natural

extension of this definition to discuss continuity of a function.

Definition 2 A real function f is said to be continuous if it is continuous at every point in the domain of f .

This definition requires a bit of elaboration. Suppose f is a function defined on a

closed interval $[a, b]$, then for f to be continuous, it needs to be continuous at every point in $[a, b]$ including the end points a and b . Continuity of f at a means $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$

x

a^+

\boxtimes

and continuity of f at b means

$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$

—

$x \boxtimes b$

Observe that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^+} f(x)$ do not make sense. As a consequence x

a



$x \neq b$



of this definition, if f is defined only at one point, it is continuous there, i.e., if the

domain of f is a singleton, f is a continuous function.

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

151

Example 7 Is the function defined by $f(x) = |x|$, a continuous function?

Solution We may rewrite f as

x , if $x \geq$



0

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



By Example 3, we know that f is continuous at $x = 0$.

Let c be a real number such that $c < 0$. Then $f(c) = -c$. Also $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} (-x) = -c$.

(Why?)

†

$x) \dagger - c$

x

$x \dagger c$

†

c

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$,

f is continuous at all negative real numbers.

☆

$f(c)$

$x \dagger c$

Now, let c be a real number such that $c > 0$. Then $f(c) = c$. Also $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c$.

(Why?)

x

$x \neq c$

+

c

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

, f is continuous at all positive real numbers. Hence, f

☆

$f(c)$

$x \neq c$

is continuous at all points.

Example 8 Discuss the continuity of the function f given by $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 1$.

Solution Clearly f is defined at every real number c and its value at c is $c^3 + c^2 - 1$. We also know that

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) =$

3

2

3

2

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x^3 + x^2 - 1) = c^3 + c^2 - 1$

x

$x \rightarrow c$

+

c

Thus $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

, and hence f is continuous at every real number. This means

+

$f(c)$

$x \rightarrow c$

f is a continuous function.

1

Example 9 Discuss the continuity of the function f defined by $f(x) =$

, $x > 0$.



x

Solution Fix any non zero real number c , we have

1

1

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$



$x \rightarrow c$

$x \rightarrow c$

c

1

Also, since for $c \in D_f$, $f(c)$

, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

and hence, f is continuous



$f(c)$



c

$x \rightarrow c$

at every point in the domain of f . Thus f is a continuous function.

152

MATHEMATICS

We take this opportunity to explain the concept of *infinity*. This we do by analysing

1

the function $f(x) =$

near $x = 0$. To carry out this analysis we follow the usual trick of

x

finding the value of the function at real numbers *close* to 0. Essentially we are trying to

find the right hand limit of f at 0. We tabulate this in the following (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1

x

1

0.3

0.2

$0.1 = 10^{-1}$

$0.01 = 10^{-2}$

$0.001 = 10^{-3}$

10^{-n}

$f(x)$

1

3.333...

5

10

100 = 102

1000 = 103

10 n

We observe that as x gets closer to 0 from the right, the value of $f(x)$ shoots up higher. This may be rephrased as: the value of $f(x)$ may be made larger than any given number by choosing a positive real number *very close* to 0. In symbols, we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = +\infty$$

$$x \rightarrow 0$$

(to be read as: the right hand limit of $f(x)$ at 0 is plus infinity). We wish to emphasise that +

is NOT a real number and hence the right hand limit of f at 0 does not exist (as

Ⓢ

a real number).

Similarly, the left hand limit of f at 0 may be found. The following table is self

explanatory.

Table 5.2

x

- 1

- 0.3

-0.2

-10^{-1}

-10^{-2}

-10^{-3}

-10^{-n}

$f(x)$

-1

$-3.333\dots$

-5

-10

-102

-103

-10^{-n}

From the Table 5.2, we deduce that the value of $f(x)$ may be made smaller than any given number by choosing a negative real number *very close* to 0. In symbols, we write

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -\infty$



†

x

0†



(to be read as: the left hand limit of $f(x)$ at 0 is minus infinity). Again, we wish to emphasise that $-\infty$ is NOT a real number and hence the



left hand limit of f at 0 does not exist (as a real number). The graph of the reciprocal function given in Fig 5.3 is a geometric representation of the above mentioned facts.

Fig 5.3

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

153

Example 10 Discuss the continuity of the function f defined by

x

2, if $x < 1$

$<$

1

$f(x) = x + 2$, if $x < 1$

$+$

Solution The function f is defined at all points of the real line.

Case 1 If $c < 1$, then $f(c) = c + 2$. Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x + 2) = c + 2$

$= c + 2$

$x \rightarrow c$

$x \rightarrow c$

Thus, f is continuous at all real numbers less than 1.

Case 2 If $c > 1$, then $f(c) = c - 2$. Therefore,

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

$(x - 2) = c - 2 = f(c)$

$+$

\lim

$x \rightarrow c$

$$x \neq c$$

Thus, f is continuous at all points $x > 1$.

Case 3 If $c = 1$, then the left hand limit of f at

$x = 1$ is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} (x - 2) = 1 - 2 = -1$$

x

1

+

x

1

+

The right hand limit of f at $x = 1$ is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x + 2) = 1 + 2 = 3$$

x

1

x

$1 \star$

+

+

Since the left and right hand limits of f at $x = 1$

Fig 5.4

do not coincide, f is not continuous at $x = 1$. Hence

$x = 1$ is the only point of discontinuity of f . The graph of the function is given in Fig 5.4.

Example 11 Find all the points of discontinuity of the function f defined by

$x \rightarrow 2$, if $x \rightarrow 2$



1



$f(x) =$

0, if $x \rightarrow 1$



1



$x \leq 2$, if $x > 1$

✓

Solution As in the previous example we find that f

is continuous at all real numbers $x \neq 1$. The left

×

hand limit of f at $x = 1$ is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} (x + 2) = 1 + 2 = 3$$

×

—

x

1

×

x

1

×

The right hand limit of f at $x = 1$ is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x - 2) = 1 - 2 = -1$$

←

x

1 ✧

x

1 ✧

†

†

Since, the left and right hand limits of f at $x = 1$ do not coincide, f is not continuous at $x = 1$. Hence $x = 1$ is the only point of discontinuity of f . The graph of the function is given in the Fig 5.5.

Fig 5.5

154

MATHEMATICS

Example 12 Discuss the continuity of the function defined by

x

2, if $x \neq$

✂

0

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 2 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$



x

2, if $x = 0$



Solution Observe that the function is defined at all real numbers except at 0. Domain

of definition of this function is

$D = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x < 0\}$ and

1 \dagger

2

1



$D = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x > 0\}$

2



Case 1 If $c \in D$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

$$(x + 2)$$



lim



1

$$x \rightarrow c$$

$$x \rightarrow c$$

$= c + 2 = f(c)$ and hence f is continuous in D .

1

Case 2 If $c \in D$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

$$(-x + 2)$$



lim



2

$$x \rightarrow c$$

$$x \rightarrow c$$

$= -c + 2 = f(c)$ and hence f is continuous in D .

2

Since f is continuous at all points in the domain of f , we deduce that f is continuous. Graph of this function is given in the Fig 5.6. Note that to graph

Fig 5.6

this function we need to lift the pen from the plane of the paper, but we need to do that only for those points where the function is not defined.

Example 13 Discuss the continuity of the function f given by

x , if $x > 0$



0



$$f(x) = 2$$

x , if $x < 0$



0



Solution Clearly the function is defined at

every real number. Graph of the function is given in Fig 5.7. By inspection, it seems prudent to partition the domain of definition of f into three disjoint subsets of the real line.

Let

$$D = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x < 0\}, D = \{0\} \text{ and}$$

1



2

Fig 5.7

$$D = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x > 0\}$$

3



Case 1 At any point in D , we have $f(x) = x^2$ and it is easy to see that it is continuous 1

there (see Example 2).

Case 2 At any point in D , we have $f(x) = x$ and it is easy to see that it is continuous 3

there (see Example 6).

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

Case 3 Now we analyse the function at $x = 0$. The value of the function at 0 is $f(0) = 0$.

The left hand limit of f at 0 is

2

2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} x = 0 = 0$$

—

$x \rightarrow 0$

$x \rightarrow 0$

The right hand limit of f at 0 is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0$$

x

$0 =$

x

$0 =$



Thus $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$

$= f(0)$ and hence f is continuous at 0. This means that f is

①

0

$x \in \mathbb{R}$

continuous at every point in its domain and hence, f is a continuous function.

Example 14 Show that every polynomial function is continuous.

Solution Recall that a function p is a polynomial function if it is defined by

$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$ for some natural number n , $a_0 \neq 0$ and $a_i \in \mathbf{R}$. Clearly

1

n

$n + 1$

$i + 1$

function is defined for every real number. For a fixed real number c , we have

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} p(x) = p(c)$

$x \rightarrow c$

By definition, p is continuous at c . Since c is any real number, p is continuous at every real number and hence p is a continuous function.

Example 15 Find all the points of discontinuity of the greatest integer function defined

by $f(x) = [x]$, where $[x]$ denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to x .

Solution First observe that f is defined for all real numbers. Graph of the function is given in Fig 5.8. From the graph it looks like that f is discontinuous at every integral

point. Below we explore, if this is true.

Fig 5.8

156

MATHEMATICS

Case 1 Let c be a real number which is not equal to any integer. It is evident from the graph that for all real numbers *close* to c the value of the function is equal to $[c]$; i.e., $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$

. Also $f(c) = [c]$ and hence the function is continuous at all real



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [x] = [c]$$

x

c

x

c

numbers not equal to integers.

Case 2 Let c be an integer. Then we can find a sufficiently small real number

$r > 0$ such that $[c - r] = c - 1$ whereas $[c + r] = c$.

This, in terms of limits mean that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = c - 1, \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = c$$

x

c^-

x

c^+



Since these limits cannot be equal to each other for any c , the function is discontinuous at every integral point.

5.2.1 Algebra of continuous functions

In the previous class, after having understood the concept of limits, we learnt some

algebra of limits. Analogously, now we will study some algebra of continuous functions.

Since continuity of a function at a point is entirely dictated by the limit of the function at

that point, it is reasonable to expect results analogous to the case of limits.

Theorem 1 Suppose f and g be two real functions continuous at a real number c .

Then

(1) $f + g$ is continuous at $x = c$.

(2) $f - g$ is continuous at $x = c$.

(3) $f \cdot g$ is continuous at $x = c$.

⊙

f

(4)

+

is continuous at $x = c$, (provided $g(c) \neq 0$).

⊖

+

g

⊗

⊛

Proof We are investigating continuity of $(f + g)$ at $x = c$. Clearly it is defined at $x = c$. We have

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f + g)$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)]$

(by definition of $f + g$)

⊞

$g(x)]$

□

$g)(x)$

x

c

x

c

$= \lim f(x)$

(by the theorem on limits)

□

$\lim g(x)$

x

c

x

c

$= f(c) + g(c)$

(as f and g are continuous)

$= (f+g)(c)$

(by definition of $f+g$)

Hence, $f+g$ is continuous at $x=c$.

Proofs for the remaining parts are similar and left as an exercise to the reader.

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

157

Remarks

(i) As a special case of (3) above, if f is a constant function, i.e., $f(x) = c$ for some

†

real number c , then the function $(\alpha \cdot f)$ defined by $(\alpha \cdot f)(x) = \alpha \cdot f(x)$ is also

†

†

†

†

continuous. In particular if $\alpha = -1$, the continuity of f implies continuity of $-f$.

†

(ii) As a special case of (4) above, if f is the constant function $f(x) = c$, then the

†

function

defined by $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$



is also continuous wherever $g(x) \neq 0$. In

g

g



$g(x)$

1

particular, the continuity of f implies continuity of

.

g

The above theorem can be exploited to generate many continuous functions. They

also aid in deciding if certain functions are continuous or not. The following examples

illustrate this:

Example 16 Prove that every rational function is continuous.

Solution Recall that every rational function f is given by

$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$

$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$

, $q(x) \neq 0$

$q(x)$

where p and q are polynomial functions. The domain of f is all real numbers except points at which q is zero. Since polynomial functions are continuous (Example 14), f is continuous by (4) of Theorem 1.

Example 17 Discuss the continuity of sine function.

Solution To see this we use the following facts

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$

$x \rightarrow 0$

We have not proved it, but is intuitively clear from the graph of $\sin x$ near 0.

Now, observe that $f(x) = \sin x$ is defined for every real number. Let c be a real number. Put $x = c + h$. If x

c we know that h

0. Therefore

$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(c+h) = \sin c$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \sin c$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x$

x

$$x \rightarrow c$$

*

$$c$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(c + h)$$

$$h \rightarrow 0$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [\sin c \cos h + \cos c \sin h]$$

$$h \rightarrow 0$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [\sin c \cos h] + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [\cos c \sin h]$$

$$h \rightarrow 0$$

$$h \rightarrow 0$$

$$= \sin c + 0 = \sin c = f(c)$$

Thus $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ and hence f is a continuous function.

$$x \rightarrow c$$

158

MATHEMATICS

Remark A similar proof may be given for the continuity of cosine function.

Example 18 Prove that the function defined by $f(x) = \tan x$ is a continuous function.

$\sin x$

Solution The function $f(x) = \tan x =$

. This is defined for all real numbers such

$\cos x$

that $\cos x \neq 0$, i.e., $x \neq (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2}$

. We have just proved that both sine and cosine

∞

∞

2

functions are continuous. Thus $\tan x$ being a quotient of two continuous functions is

continuous wherever it is defined.

An interesting fact is the behaviour of continuous functions with respect to composition of functions. Recall that if f and g are two real functions, then

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$$

is defined whenever the range of g is a subset of domain of f . The following theorem

(stated without proof) captures the continuity of composite functions.

Theorem 2 Suppose f and g are real valued functions such that $(f \circ g)$ is defined at c .

If g is continuous at c and if f is continuous at $g(c)$, then $(f \circ g)$ is continuous at c .

The following examples illustrate this theorem.

Example 19 Show that the function defined by $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$ is a continuous function.

Solution Observe that the function is defined for every real number. The function

f may be thought of as a composition $g \circ h$ of the two functions g and h , where $g(x) = \sin x$ and $h(x) = x^2$. Since both g and h are continuous functions, by Theorem 2, it can be deduced that f is a continuous function.

Example 20 Show that the function f defined by

$$f(x) = |1 - x + |x||,$$

where x is any real number, is a continuous function.

Solution Define g by $g(x) = 1 - x + |x|$ and h by $h(x) = |x|$ for all real x . Then $(h \circ g)(x) = h(g(x))$

$$= h(1 - x + |x|)$$

$$= |1 - x + |x|| = f(x)$$

In Example 7, we have seen that h is a continuous function. Hence g being a sum

of a polynomial function and the modulus function is continuous. But then f being a

composite of two continuous functions is continuous.

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

159

EXERCISE 5.1

1. Prove that the function $f(x) = 5x - 3$ is continuous at $x = 0$, at $x = -3$ and at $x = 5$.

2. Examine the continuity of the function $f(x) = 2x^2 - 1$ at $x = 3$.

3. Examine the following functions for continuity.

1

(a) $f(x) = x - 5$

(b) $f(x) = x^5$

2

$x \neq 25$

(c) $f(x) =$

(d) $f(x) = |x - 5|$

$x \neq 5$

4. Prove that the function $f(x) = xn$ is continuous at $x = n$, where n is a positive integer.

5. Is the function f defined by

x , if $x \leq$



1

$f(x) = 5$, if $x > 1$



continuous at $x = 0$? At $x = 1$? At $x = 2$?

Find all points of discontinuity of f , where f is defined by

$$|x| \leq 3, \text{ if } x \in \mathbb{R}$$



3

$$2x + 3, \text{ if } x \in \mathbb{R}$$



2

6.

$$f(x)$$

7.

$$f(x)$$



$$2x,$$

$$\text{if } x \leq 3$$



$$x < 3$$



† $2x \boxtimes 3$, if $x > 2$

†

👉 $6x \boxtimes 2$, if $x \leq 3$

✓

+

x

✓

$|x|$, if x

, if $x \neq 0$

×

×

0

8.

$f(x)$

9.

$f(x)$

⊕

⊕

⊕

$|x|$

\times

\times

x

\times

0, if x

\oplus

$\clubsuit 1,$

if $x \oplus 0$

\times

0

\oplus

\blacklozenge

x

3

\diamond

1, if $x \star$

\star

$x \star 3$, if $x \ast$

\ast

2



1



10.

$f(x)$

$f(x)$



11.



2



x



2



1, if x ★

x ✱ 1,

if x ✱



2



1



10



x



1, if $x \neq$



1

12.

$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ x, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$

$x,$

if $x < 0$



1

13. Is the function defined by

$x \neq 5$, if $x \neq$



1

$f(x) \neq x \neq 5$, if $x \neq 1$



a continuous function?

160

MATHEMATICS

Discuss the continuity of the function f , where f is defined by

2,

x if $x \neq$



0



3, if 0

x 1

14.

$f(x)$



15.

$f(x)$



0,

if $0 \leq x \leq$



1



4, if $1 \leq x \leq$



3



5, if $3 \leq$

$x \leq 10$



4,

x if $x > 1$

†



 2,

if x



1

16.

$f(x)$



2,

x if

1 



x 1



2,

if $x \leq 1$

+

17. Find the relationship between a and b so that the function f defined by
 $ax \leq 1$, if $x \leq 1$

↔

3

$f(x) = \begin{cases} ax \leq 1, & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ bx \leq 3, & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$

×

is continuous at $x = 3$.

18. For what value of is the function defined by

×

2

×

+

$(x + 2x)$, if $x > 1$

+

0

$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2x, & \text{if } x > 1 \\ 4x + 1, & \text{if } x \leq 1 \end{cases}$

if $x \neq$



0



continuous at $x = 0$? What about continuity at $x = 1$?

19. Show that the function defined by $g(x) = x - [x]$ is discontinuous at all integral points. Here $[x]$ denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to x .

20. Is the function defined by $f(x) = x^2 - \sin x + 5$ continuous at $x = ?$



21. Discuss the continuity of the following functions:

(a) $f(x) = \sin x + \cos x$

(b) $f(x) = \sin x - \cos x$

(c) $f(x) = \sin x \cdot \cos x$

22. Discuss the continuity of the cosine, cosecant, secant and cotangent functions.

23. Find all points of discontinuity of f , where



$\sin x$, if $x \neq$



0

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



24. Determine if f defined by



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



is a continuous function?

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

25. Examine the continuity of f , where f is defined by

$$\sin x$$

$$\cos x, \text{ if } x \neq$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$0$$

$$f(x) = k, \text{ if } x = 0,$$

$$\text{if } x \neq 0$$

$$k$$

Find the values of k so that the function f is continuous at the indicated point in Exercises 26 to 29.

$k \cos x$, if $x \neq$

+

+

⊗



⊗

+

☆

$2x$

2

26.

$f(x)$

at $x =$



2

3,

if x

†

⊠

👉

⊠

✌️

2

2

†

kx , if x ✎

⊠

2

27.

$f(x)$ 🖱

at $x = 2$

👉

3,

if $x \Rightarrow$



2



$kx \Rightarrow 1$, if $x \Rightarrow \checkmark$



28.

$f(x) \times$

at $x =$



$\cos x$,

if x



$kx \text{ ✚ } 1$, if $x \text{ ✚}$



5

29.

$f(x)$ is

at $x = 5$

3



x

5, if $x \neq 5$



30. Find the values of a and b such that the function defined by

5,

if $x \neq$



2

$f(x)$



$ax + b$, if $2 \leq x \leq$



10



21,

if $x \neq 10$



is a continuous function.

31. Show that the function defined by $f(x) = \cos(x^2)$ is a continuous function.

32. Show that the function defined by $f(x) = |\cos x|$ is a continuous function.

33. Examine that $\sin |x|$ is a continuous function.

34. Find all the points of discontinuity of f defined by $f(x) = |x| - |x + 1|$.

5.3. Differentiability

Recall the following facts from previous class. We had defined the derivative of a real

function as follows:

Suppose f is a real function and c is a point in its domain. The derivative of f at c is defined by

$$f(c + h) - f(c)$$

lim

$h \rightarrow 0$

h

162

MATHEMATICS

d

provided this limit exists. Derivative of f at c is denoted by $f'(c)$ or $(f'(x))|_c$. The

⊠

dx

function defined by

$$f(x+h) - f(x)$$

$$f'(x) = \lim$$

h

0

h

wherever the limit exists is defined to be the derivative of f . The derivative of f is d

dy

denoted by $f'(x)$ or

$(f'(x))$ or if $y = f(x)$ by

or y . The process of finding

⊠

dx

dx

⊠

derivative of a function is called differentiation. We also use the phrase *differentiate*

$f(x)$ with respect to x to mean *find* $f'(x)$.

⊠

The following rules were established as a part of algebra of derivatives:

(1) $(u \pm v)' = u' \pm v'$

⊠

⊠

⊠

(2) $(uv)' = u'v + uv'$ (Leibnitz or product rule)

⊠

⊠

⊠

$u \cdot \mathcal{C}$

$u \cdot v$

⊠

†

uv

(3)



, wherever $v \neq 0$ (Quotient rule).



2



v

v

The following table gives a list of derivatives of certain standard functions:

Table 5.3

$f(x)$

x^n

$\sin x$

$\cos x$

$\tan x$

$f'(x)$

nx^{n-1}

$\cos x$

$-\sin x$

$\sec^2 x$

⊠

Whenever we defined derivative, we had put a caution *provided the limit exists*.

Now the natural question is; what if it doesn't? The question is quite pertinent and so is

$f(c+h) \approx f(c)$

its answer. If \lim

does not exist, we say that f is not differentiable at c .

h

0

h

In other words, we say that a function f is differentiable at a point c in its domain if both $f'(c)$

$f'(c)$

$$h \approx f(c)$$



$$h) \approx f(c)$$

lim

and lim

are finite and equal. A function is said

—

h

0

h

h

0 \Rightarrow

h

to be differentiable in an interval $[a, b]$ if it is differentiable at every point of $[a, b]$. As in case of continuity, at the end points a and b , we take the right hand limit and left hand limit, which are nothing but left hand derivative and right hand derivative of the function

at a and b respectively. Similarly, a function is said to be differentiable in an interval (a, b) if it is differentiable at every point of (a, b) .

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

Theorem 3 If a function f is differentiable at a point c , then it is also continuous at that point.

Proof Since f is differentiable at c , we have

$$f(x) \approx f(c)$$

lim

✂

$$f'(c)$$

x

c

$$x \approx c$$

But for $x \approx c$, we have

☎

$$f(x) \approx f(c)$$

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

$$\cdot (x - c)$$

$$x \approx c$$

$$f(x) \dagger$$

⊠

$$f(c)$$

Therefore

$\lim [f(x)]$

$= \lim$

$(x \dagger c) \star$

\dagger

$f(c)]$

x

x



$\dagger c$



$x \dagger c$



c



$f(x) \Rightarrow$



$f(c)$

or

$$\lim [f(x)]$$

lim



$$\lim [(x \Rightarrow c)]$$



$$\lim [f(c)] =$$

x



c

$$x \textcircled{c}$$

$$x \textcircled{c}$$

$$x \textcircled{c}$$

$$x \textcircled{c}$$



c



$$= f(c) \cdot 0 = 0$$

X

or

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

$$x \rightarrow c$$

Hence f is continuous at $x = c$.

Corollary 1 Every differentiable function is continuous.

We remark that the converse of the above statement is not true. Indeed we have

seen that the function defined by $f(x) = |x|$ is a continuous function. Consider the left hand limit

$$f(0 + h) \rightarrow f(0)$$

✂

h

lim

✂

✂

✂ 1

—

h

0

h

h

The right hand limit

$f(0^+)$

$h \rightarrow f(0)$

h

lim



1

h

0^+

h

h

$f(0^+ h) \rightarrow f(0)$

Since the above left and right hand limits at 0 are not equal, lim

h

0

h

does not exist and hence f is not differentiable at 0. Thus f is not a differentiable

function.

5.3.1 Derivatives of composite functions

To study derivative of composite functions, we start with an illustrative example. Say,

we want to find the derivative of f , where

$$f(x) = (2x + 1)^3$$

164

MATHEMATICS

One way is to expand $(2x + 1)^3$ using binomial theorem and find the derivative as

a polynomial function as illustrated below.

d

d

$$f(x)$$

3

=

$$(2x + 1)^3$$

3

dx

dx



d

3

2

$=$

$(8x^3 - 12x^2 + 6x - 1)$

dx

$= 24x^2 + 24x + 6$

$= 6(2x + 1)^2$

Now, observe that

$f(x) = (h \circ g)(x)$

where $g(x) = 2x + 1$ and $h(x) = x^3$. Put $t = g(x) = 2x + 1$. Then $f(x) = h(t) = t^3$. Thus df

$dh dt$

$=$

$6(2x + 1)^2 = 3(2x + 1)^2 \cdot 2 = 3t^2 \cdot 2 =$



dx

$dt dx$

The advantage with such observation is that it simplifies the calculation in finding

the derivative of, say, $(2x + 1)^{100}$. We may formalise this observation in the following

theorem called the chain rule.

Theorem 4 (Chain Rule) Let f be a real valued function which is a composite of two

dt

dv

functions u and v ; i.e., $f = v \circ u$. Suppose $t = u(x)$ and if both and

exist, we have

dx

dt

df

$dv dt$

+

⊗

dx

$dt dx$

We skip the proof of this theorem. Chain rule may be extended as follows. Suppose

f is a real valued function which is a composite of three functions u , v and w ; i.e., $f = (w \circ u) \circ v$. If $t = v(x)$ and $s = u(t)$, then df

$$d(w \circ u) dt$$

$$dw ds dt$$

+

⊗

+

⊗

⊗

$$dx$$

$$dt$$

$$dx$$

$$ds$$

$$dt dx$$

provided all the derivatives in the statement exist. Reader is invited to formulate chain

rule for composite of more functions.

Example 21 Find the derivative of the function given by $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$.

Solution Observe that the given function is a composite of two functions. Indeed, if

$$t = u(x) = x^2 \text{ and } v(t) = \sin t, \text{ then}$$

$$f(x) = (v \circ u)(x) = v(u(x)) = v(x^2) = \sin x^2$$

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

165

dv

dt

Put $t = u(x) = x^2$. Observe that

$\cos t$ and

$2x$ exist. Hence, by chain rule

dt

dx

df

$dv dt$

=

\cdot

$\cos t \cdot 2x$

dx

$dt dx$

It is normal practice to express the final result only in terms of x . Thus

$df =$

2

$$\cos t \approx 2x \approx 2x \cos x$$

$$dx$$

Alternatively, We can also directly proceed as follows:

$$dy$$

$$d$$

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

$$(\sin x^2)$$

☆

$$dx$$

$$dx$$

$$d$$

$$= \cos x^2$$

$$(x^2) = 2x \cos x^2$$

$$dx$$

Example 22 Find the derivative of $\tan(2x + 3)$.

Solution Let $f(x) = \tan(2x + 3)$, $u(x) = 2x + 3$ and $v(t) = \tan t$. Then $(v \circ u)(x) = v(u(x)) = v(2x + 3) = \tan(2x + 3) = f(x)$ dv

2

Thus f is a composite of two functions. Put $t = u(x) = 2x + 3$. Then $\sec t$ and

dt

dt

exist. Hence, by chain rule



2

dx

df

$dv dt$

2



$2 \sec(2x) \cdot 2$

dx

$dt dx$

Example 23 Differentiate $\sin(\cos(x^2))$ with respect to x .

Solution The function $f(x) = \sin(\cos(x^2))$ is a composition $f(x) = (w \circ v \circ u)(x)$ of the three functions u, v and w , where $u(x) = x^2$, $v(t) = \cos t$ and $w(s) = \sin s$. Put dw

ds

dt

$t = u(x) = x^2$ and $s = v(t) = \cos t$. Observe that $\cos s$,

and

$2x$

†

$\sin t$

ds

dt

dx

exist for all real x . Hence by a generalisation of chain rule, we have

df

$$dw ds dt = (\cos s) \cdot (-\sin t) \cdot (2x) = -2x \sin x^2 \cdot \cos(\cos x^2)$$

⊗

†

†

dx

$ds dt dx$

166

MATHEMATICS

Alternatively, we can proceed as follows:

$$y = \sin(\cos x^2)$$

dy

d

d

Therefore

$$\sin(\cos x^2) = \cos(\cos x^2)$$

$$(\cos x^2)$$

dx

dx

dx

d

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

$$(x^2)$$

dx

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

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

EXERCISE 5.2

Differentiate the functions with respect to x in Exercises 1 to 8.

1. $\sin(x^2 + 5)$

2. $\cos(\sin x)$

3. $\sin(ax + b)$

$\sin(ax \text{ \& } b)$

4. $\sec(\tan(x))$

5.

6. $\cos x^3 \cdot \sin^2(x^5)$

$\cos(cx^2 + d)$

7.

2

$2 \cot x$

8. \cos

x



9. Prove that the function f given by

$$f(x) = |x - 1|, x \in \mathbf{R}$$



is not differentiable at $x = 1$.

10. Prove that the greatest integer function defined by

$$f(x) = [x], 0 < x < 3$$

is not differentiable at $x = 1$ and $x = 2$.

5.3.2 Derivatives of implicit functions

Until now we have been differentiating various functions given in the form $y = f(x)$.

But it is not necessary that functions are always expressed in this form. For example,

consider one of the following relationships between x and y :

$$x - y = 0$$



$$x + \sin xy - y = 0$$

In the first case, we can *solve for* y and rewrite the relationship as $y = x$. In



the second case, it does not seem that there is an easy way to *solve for* y . Nevertheless,

there is no doubt about the dependence of y on x in either of the cases. When a

relationship between x and y is expressed in a way that it is easy to *solve for* y and write $y = f(x)$, we say that y is given as an *explicit function* of x . In the latter case it

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

167

is implicit that y is a function of x and we say that the relationship of the second type, above, gives function *implicitly*. In this subsection, we learn to

differentiate implicit

functions.

dy

Example 24 Find

if $x - y =$.

dx

†

Solution One way is to solve for y and rewrite the above as

$$y = x - \dagger$$

dy

But then

$$= 1$$

dx

Alternatively, *directly* differentiating the relationship w.r.t., x , we have

d

d

(x

$y)$

\neq

$=$

dx

dx

$d \neq$

Recall that

means to differentiate the constant function taking value

dx

\dagger

everywhere w.r.t., x . Thus

d

d

(x)

$= 0$

\neq

(y)

dx

dx

which implies that

dy

dx

=



1

dx

dx

dy

Example 25 Find

, if $y + \sin y = \cos x$.

dx

Solution We differentiate the relationship directly with respect to x , i.e.,

dy

d

d

=

$(\cos x)$



$(\sin y)$

dx

dx

dx

which implies using chain rule

dy

$$dy = -\sin x$$



$\cos y$ \textcircled{C}

dx

dx

dy

$\sin x$

This gives

$$= \dagger$$

dx

$1 \dagger \cos y$

where

y

$(2n + 1)$



168

MATHEMATICS

5.3.3 Derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions

We remark that inverse trigonometric functions are continuous functions, but we will

not prove this. Now we use chain rule to find derivatives of these functions.

Example 26 Find the derivative of f given by $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x$ assuming it exists.

Solution Let $y = \sin^{-1} x$. Then, $x = \sin y$.

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we get

dy

$$1 = \cos y \, dx$$

dy

1

1

which implies that

=

✂

dx

1

$\cos y$

$\cos(\sin$

$x)$

Observe that this is defined only for $\cos y \neq 0$, i.e., $\sin^{-1} x \neq$

$\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \dots$, i.e., $x \neq \pm 1$,

✂

📞

, ✂

✂

✂

2 2

i.e., $x \in (-1, 1)$.

©

To make this result a bit more attractive, we carry out the following manipulation.

Recall that for $x \in (-1, 1)$, $\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = x$ and hence

⓪

$$\cos^2 y = 1 - (\sin y)^2 = 1 - (\sin(\sin^{-1} x))^2 = 1 - x^2$$

Also, since y

†

, $\cos y$ is positive and hence $\cos y =$

2

1 ✎ x

☆

, †

†

†

✕

⓪

22 🖱

👉

✌

Thus, for $x \in (-1, 1)$,



dy

1

1



2

dx

$\cos y$

$1 \Leftrightarrow x$

Example 27 Find the derivative of f given by $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$ assuming it exists.

Solution Let $y = \tan^{-1} x$. Then, $x = \tan y$.

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we get

dy

$1 = \sec^2 y \, dx$

which implies that

dy

1

1

1

1



2



2



1



2

2

dx

$\sec y$

$1 \sqrt{\tan y}$

$1 \sqrt{(\tan (\tan$

$x))$

$1 \sqrt{x}$

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

Finding of the derivatives of other inverse trigonometric functions is left as exercise.

The following table gives the derivatives of the remaining inverse trigonometric functions

(Table 5.4):

Table 5.4

$f(x)$

$\cos^{-1} x$

$\cot^{-1} x$

$\sec^{-1} x$

$\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$

1

1

1



≈ 1

$f(x)$

2



2

$1 x$

2

1

2

x

$x \cup 1$

\cap

x

x

$x \cap 1$

Domain of f

$(-1, 1)$

R

$(-, -1) (1,)$

$(-, -1) (1,)$

Ⓒ

†

Ⓒ

Ⓒ

†

Ⓒ

⊗

EXERCISE 5.3

dy

Find

in the following:

dx

1. $2x + 3y = \sin x$

2. $2x + 3y = \sin y$

3. $ax + by^2 = \cos y$

4. $xy + y^2 = \tan x + y$

5. $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 100$

$$6. x^3 + x^2y + xy^2 + y^3 = 81$$



$$2x \star$$

$$7. \sin^2 y + \cos xy =$$

$$8. \sin^2 x + \cos^2 y = 1$$

$$9. y = \sin^{-1}$$



2

$$1x \rightarrow$$



3

1

1



$$3x \rightarrow x \rightarrow$$

10. $y = \tan^{-1}$

, \times

\times

x \times

✓

2

1 3 x ✓

3

3

↔

\times

\times

2

+

+

⊕

⊕ 1

1

x

11.

$y \clubsuit \cos$

$, 0 \clubsuit x \clubsuit$



1

2

1 \spadesuit



$x \star$

2



$\oplus 1$

1 x

12.

$y \clubsuit \sin$

$, 0 \clubsuit x \clubsuit$



1

2

1 ✦

✧

$x \star$

⊛

☆

☆ 1

2 x

13.

$y \star \cos$

, ☆ 1 ☆ x ☆ 1

☆

2

*

1 x ☆

*

*

*1

2

1

1

14.

y

X

X

X

X

*

sin

$2x - 1$

,

x

*

*

2

2

1 †

1



1

15.

$y \star \sec \star$

$, 0 \star x$

2



$2x$

1 



2

170

MATHEMATICS

5.4 Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

Till now we have learnt some aspects of different classes of functions like polynomial

functions, rational functions and trigonometric functions. In this section, we shall

learn about a new class of (related) functions called exponential functions and logarithmic functions. It needs to be emphasized that many statements made in this section are motivational and precise proofs of these are well beyond the scope of this text.

The Fig 5.9 gives a sketch of

$$y = f(x) = x, y = f(x) = x^2, y = f(x) = x^3$$

1

2

3

and $y = f(x) = x^4$. Observe that the curves

4

get steeper as the power of x increases.

Steeper the curve, faster is the rate of growth. What this means is that for a fixed increment in the value of $x (> 1)$, the

Fig 5.9

increment in the value of $y = f(x)$ increases as n increases for $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$.
It is n

conceivable that such a statement is true for all positive values of n , where $f(x) = x^n$.

n

Essentially, this means that the graph of $y = f(x)$ leans more towards the y -axis as n

increases. For example, consider $f(x) = x^{10}$ and $f(x) = x^{15}$. If x increases from 1 to 10

15

2, f increases from 1 to 210 whereas f increases from 1 to 215. Thus, for the same

10

15

increment in x , f grow faster than f .

15

10

Upshot of the above discussion is that the growth of polynomial functions is dependent

on the degree of the polynomial function – higher the degree, greater is the growth.

The next natural question is: Is there a function which grows faster than any polynomial

function. The answer is in affirmative and an example of such a function is

$$y = f(x) = 10x.$$

Our claim is that this function f grows faster than $f(x) = xn$ for any positive integer n .

n

For example, we can prove that $10x$ grows faster than f

$(x) = x100$. For large values

100

of x like $x = 103$, note that $f(x) = (103)100 = 10300$ whereas $f(103) =$

3

10

100

10

$= 101000$.

Clearly $f(x)$ is much greater than f

(x) . It is not difficult to prove that for all

100

$x > 103, f(x) > f(x)$. But we will not attempt to give a proof of this here. Similarly, by 100

choosing large values of x , one can verify that $f(x)$ grows faster than $f(x)$ for any n

positive integer n .

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

171

Definition 3 The exponential function with positive base $b > 1$ is the function

$$y = f(x) = b^x$$

The graph of $y = 10^x$ is given in the Fig 5.9.

It is advised that the reader plots this graph for particular values of b like 2, 3 and 4.

Following are some of the salient features of the exponential functions:

(1) Domain of the exponential function is \mathbf{R} , the set of all real numbers.

(2) Range of the exponential function is the set of all positive real numbers.

(3) The point $(0, 1)$ is always on the graph of the exponential function (this is a

restatement of the fact that $b^0 = 1$ for any real $b > 1$).

(4) Exponential function is ever increasing; i.e., as we move from left to right, the

graph rises above.

(5) For very large negative values of x , the exponential function is very close to 0. In

other words, in the second quadrant, the graph approaches x -axis (but never meets it).

Exponential function with base 10 is called the *common exponential function*. In

the Appendix A.1.4 of Class XI, it was observed that the sum of the series

1

1

1

...

1!

2!

is a number between 2 and 3 and is denoted by e . Using this e as the base we obtain an extremely important exponential function $y = ex$.

This is called *natural exponential function*.

It would be interesting to know if the inverse of the exponential function exists and

has *nice* interpretation. This search motivates the following definition.

Definition 4 Let $b > 1$ be a real number. Then we say logarithm of a to base b is x if $bx = a$.

Logarithm of a to base b is denoted by $\log a$. Thus $\log a = x$ if $bx = a$. Let us

b

work with a few explicit examples to get a feel for this. We know $2^3 = 8$. In terms of

logarithms, we may rewrite this as $\log 8 = 3$. Similarly, $10^4 = 10000$ is equivalent to

2

saying $\log 10000 = 4$. Also, $625 = 5^4 = 25^2$ is equivalent to saying $\log 625 = 4$ or

10

5

$\log 625 = 2$.

25

On a slightly more mature note, fixing a base $b > 1$, we may look at logarithm as

a function from positive real numbers to all real numbers. This function, called the

logarithmic function, is defined by

$\log : \mathbf{R}^+$

\mathbf{R}

b

†

x

$\log x = y$ if $b^y = x$

†

b

172

MATHEMATICS

As before if the base $b = 10$, we say it is *common logarithms* and if $b = e$, then we say it is *natural logarithms*. Often natural logarithm is denoted by \ln . *In this chapter, $\log x$ denotes the logarithm function to base e , i.e., $\ln x$ will be written as simply $\log x$.* The Fig 5.10 gives the plots of logarithm function to base 2, e and 10. Some of the important observations about the logarithm function to any base $b > 1$ are listed below:

Fig 5.10

(1) We cannot make a meaningful definition of logarithm of non-positive numbers

and hence the domain of log function is \mathbf{R}^+ .

(2) The range of log function is the set of all real numbers.

(3) The point (1, 0) is always on the graph of the log function.

(4) The log function is ever increasing,

i.e., as we move from left to right

the graph rises above.

(5) For x very near to zero, the value

of $\log x$ can be made lesser than any given real number. In other words in the fourth quadrant the graph approaches y -axis (but never meets it).

(6) Fig 5.11 gives the plot of $y = e^x$ and $y = \ln x$. It is of interest to observe that the two curves are the mirror

Fig 5.11

images of each other reflected in the line $y = x$.

Two properties of ‘log’ functions are proved below:

(1) There is a standard change of base rule to obtain $\log p$ in terms of $\log p$.
Let

a

b

$\log p = \frac{\log p}{\log a}$, $\log p = \frac{\log p}{\log b}$ and $\log a = \frac{\log a}{\log a}$. This means $a = p^{\log a}$, $b^{\log p} = p$ and $b^{\log a} = a$.

a



b



b



Substituting the third equation in the first one, we have

$$(b^x)^y = b^{xy} = p$$

Using this in the second equation, we get

$$b^x = p = b^{xy}$$

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

173

which implies

=

or $x = y$. But then



$\log p$

$\log p =$

b

a

$\log a$

b

(2) Another interesting property of the log function is its effect on products.
Let

$\log pq = .$ Then $b^{\otimes} = pq$. If $\log p =$ and $\log q =$, then $b^{\text{📞}} = p$ and $b^{\text{✌}} = q$.

b



b



b

But then ***b***



$$\otimes = pq = b^{\text{📞}} b^{\text{✌}} = b^{\text{📞}}$$



which implies $= +$, i.e.,



$$\log pq = \log p + \log q$$

b

b

b

A particularly interesting and important consequence of this is when $p = q$.
In

this case the above may be rewritten as

$$\log p^2 = \log p + \log p = 2 \log p$$

b

b

b

An easy generalisation of this (left as an exercise!) is

$$\log p^n = n \log p$$

b

for any positive integer n . In fact this is true for any real number n , but we will

not attempt to prove this. On the similar lines the reader is invited to verify

x

$\log b$

$$= \log x - \log y$$

y

b

b

Example 28 Is it true that $x = e \log x$ for all real x ?

Solution First, observe that the domain of log function is set of all positive real numbers.

So the above equation is not true for non-positive real numbers. Now, let $y = e^{\log x}$. If $y > 0$, we may take logarithm which gives us $\log y = \log (e^{\log x}) = \log x \cdot \log e = \log x$. Thus $y = x$. Hence $x = e^{\log x}$ is true only for positive values of x .

One of the striking properties of the natural exponential function in differential

calculus is that it doesn't change during the process of differentiation. This is captured

in the following theorem whose proof we skip.

Theorem 5

d

(1) The derivative of e^x w.r.t., x is e^x ; i.e.,

$$(e^x)' = e^x.$$

dx

1

d

1

(2) The derivative of $\log x$ w.r.t., x is

; i.e.,

$$(\log x)' =$$

.

x

dx

x

174

MATHEMATICS

Example 29 Differentiate the following w.r.t. x :

(i) e^{-x}

(ii) $\sin(\log x), x > 0$

(iii) $\cos^{-1}(e^x)$

(iv) $e \cos x$

Solution

(i) Let $y = e^{-x}$. Using chain rule, we have

$$dy = x d$$

e

$$(-x) = -e^{-x}$$

✂

dx

dx

(ii) Let $y = \sin(\log x)$. Using chain rule, we have

dy

d

$\cos(\log x)$

$= \cos(\log x) \times$

$(\log x) \times$

dx

dx

x

(iii) Let $y = \cos^{-1}(ex)$. Using chain rule, we have

dy

$\times 1$

x

d

x

$\times e$

$=$

$\frac{1}{e}$

$(e) \frac{1}{e}$

dx

x^2

2

1 ✂ (

)

dx

e

1

x



e

(iv) Let $y = e \cos x$. Using chain rule, we have

$$dy = \cos x$$

\cos



(† \sin) † † (\sin)

x

e

x

$x e$

dx

EXERCISE 5.4

Differentiate the following w.r.t. x :

x

e

3

⊠

1

1.

2.

\sin

x

e

3.

x

e

$\sin x$

2

5

4. $\sin (\tan^{-1} e^{-x})$

5. $\log (\cos ex)$

6.

x

x



...

x

e

e



e

$\cos x$

7.

x

, $x \rightarrow 0$

e

, x

8. $\log(\log x), x > 1$

9.



0

$\log x$

10. $\cos(\log x + ex), x > 0$

5.5. Logarithmic Differentiation

In this section, we will learn to differentiate certain special class of functions given in

the form

$$y = f(x) = [u(x)]^{v(x)}$$

By taking logarithm (to base e) the above may be rewritten as

$$\log y = v(x) \log [u(x)]$$

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

175

Using chain rule we may differentiate this to get

$$1 \frac{dy}{dx}$$

1

$$= u(x) + v(x) \cdot \log [u(x)]$$

⊗

⊗

⊗

$v(x)$

$y dx$

$u(x)$

which implies that

dy



$v(x)$

y

$u(x)$

$v(x) \log u(x) \text{ } \textcircled{C}$



dx



$u(x)$



The main point to be noted in this method is that $f(x)$ and $u(x)$ must always be positive as otherwise their logarithms are not defined. This process of differentiation is

known as *logarithms differentiation* and is illustrated by the following examples:

2

$$(x^3)^4$$

Example 30 Differentiate

w.r.t. x .

2

$$3x^4 x^5$$

2

$$(x^3)^4$$

Solution Let $y =$ ✓

2

$$(3x^2 - 4x + 5)$$

Taking logarithm on both sides, we have

1

$\log y =$

$$[\log(x - 3) + \log(x^2 + 4) - \log(3x^2 + 4x + 5)]$$

2

Now, differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we get

1 dy

1

1

2 x

6 x \star



4



=



×



2

2

$y dx$

2 (x

3)

x

4

3 x

4 x

5 🖱️

×

☆

☆

☆

✌️

✍️

dy

y

1

$2x$

$6x$ ✖️

X

4

x

or

=

+

x

+

2

2

dx

2 (x 3)

x

4

3 *x*

4 *x*

5+



2

1

$(x \clubsuit 3)(x \clubsuit 4)$

1

$2x$

$6x \clubsuit$



4



2



2



2

2

3 x

4 x

5

(x

3)

x

4

3 x

4 x

5★



Example 31 Differentiate ax w.r.t. x , where a is a positive constant.

Solution Let $y = ax$. Then

$$\log y = x \log a$$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we have

$$1 \frac{dy}{y}$$

$$= \log a$$

$$y \frac{dy}{dx}$$

176

MATHEMATICS

$$\frac{dy}{dx}$$

or

$$= y \log a$$

$$dx$$

$$d$$

$$x$$

Thus

$$(a) = ax \log a$$

$$dx$$

$$d$$

$$x$$

$$d$$

$$x \log a$$

$$x \log a d$$

Alternatively

$$(a) =$$

$$(e$$

$$)$$

$$e$$

$$(x \log a)$$

$$dx$$

$$dx$$

dx

$$= ex \log a \cdot \log a = ax \log a.$$

Example 32 Differentiate $x \sin x$, $x > 0$ w.r.t. x .

Solution Let $y = x \sin x$. Taking logarithm on both sides, we have

$$\log y = \sin x \log x$$

$1 \frac{dy}{dx}$

d

d

Therefore

.

$$= \sin x$$

$$(\log x) \frac{d}{dx} \log x$$

$$(\sin x)$$

$y \frac{dx}{dx}$

dx

dx

$1 \frac{dy}{dx}$

1

or

$$= (\sin x)$$



$$\log x \cos x$$

$$y \, dx$$

$$x$$

$$dy$$



$$\sin x$$



or

$$= y$$



$$\cos x \log x$$

$$dx$$



x



$\sin x \times \sin x$



$= x$



$\cos x \log x$



x



$\sin x 1$



\sin



\sin

x

x

$x \rightarrow x$



$\cos x \log x$

dy

Example 33 Find

, if $yx + xy + xx = ab$.

dx

Solution Given that $yx + xy + xx = ab$.

Putting $u = yx$, $v = xy$ and $w = xx$, we get $u + v + w = ab$

du

dw

Therefore

... (1)



0

dx

dx

dx

Now, $u = yx$. Taking logarithm on both sides, we have

$$\log u = x \log y$$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we have

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

177

$1 du$

d

d

$= x$

$$(\log y) \frac{du}{dx} = \log y$$

(x)

$u dx$

dx

dx

$1 dy$

$$= x$$



$$\log y \approx 1$$

$$y \, dx$$

$$du$$



$$x \, dy$$



$$x \dagger x \, dy$$



So

$$= u$$



$$\log y \boxplus y$$



$$\log y \dots (2)$$

dx



$y dx$



$y dx$



Also $v = xy$

Taking logarithm on both sides, we have

$$\log v = y \log x$$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we have

$$1 dv$$

d

dy

$= y$

$(\log x) \checkmark \log x$



$v dx$

dx

dx

1

dy

$= y$



$\log x$

x

dx

dv



y

$dy \times$

So

$= v$



$\log x$

dx

\times

x

$dx \times$

\oplus

\oplus

$y \checkmark y$

$dy \times$

$= x$

... (3)

\times

$\log x$

\times

x

$dx \times$

\oplus

\oplus

Again

$w = xx$

Taking logarithm on both sides, we have

$$\log w = x \log x.$$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. x , we have

$$1 \frac{dw}{w}$$

$$=$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}$$

$$= x$$

$$(\log x) \checkmark \log x \blacktriangleleft$$

$$(x)$$



$$w \frac{dx}{dx}$$

$$=$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}$$

$$1$$

$$= x \blacktriangleleft$$



$$\log x \blacktriangleleft 1$$

$$x$$

$$\frac{dw}{w}$$

i.e.

$$= w (1 + \log x)$$

dx

$$= xx (1 + \log x)$$

... (4)

178

MATHEMATICS

From (1), (2), (3), (4), we have

x

$x dy$



y

dy

y

\log

y

y

x

$$+ xx (1 + \log x) = 0$$




$\log x$



$y dx$

x

dx 



dy

or

$$(x \cdot yx^{-1} + xy \cdot \log x)$$

$$= -xx(1 + \log x) - y \cdot xy^{-1} - yx \log y$$

dx

x

$y - 1$

+

x

dy

+

$[y \log y - y \cdot x$

-

$x(1 - \log x)]$

Therefore

=

dx

$x - 1$

$x \cdot$

+

y

y



$x \log x$

EXERCISE 5.5

Differentiate the functions given in Exercises 1 to 11 w.r.t. x .

$(x \star 1) (x \star 2)$

1. $\cos x \cdot \cos 2x \cdot \cos 3x$

2.

$(x \star 3) (x \star 4) (x \star 5)$

3. $(\log x)\cos x$

4. $xx - 2\sin x$

x



1

1



1



5. $(x + 3)^2 \cdot (x + 4)^3 \cdot (x + 5)^4$

6.



x

$x \boxplus$



x



$x \times$

7. $(\log x) x + x \log x$

8. $(\sin x)^x + \sin^{-1} x$

2

$x \cos x$

$x \times 1$

9. $x \sin x + (\sin x)\cos x$

10.

x

x

2

$x \div 1$

1

11. $(x \cos x)^x + (\sin x)^x$

x

x

dy

Find

of the functions given in Exercises 12 to 15.

dx

12. $xy + yx = 1$

13. $yx = xy$

14. $(\cos x)^y = (\cos y)^x$

15. $xy = e^{(x-y)}$

16. Find the derivative of the function given by $f(x) = (1+x)(1+x^2)(1+x^4)(1+x^8)$ and hence find $f'(1)$.



17. Differentiate $(x^2 - 5x + 8)(x^3 + 7x + 9)$ in three ways mentioned below: (i) by using product rule

(ii) by expanding the product to obtain a single polynomial.

(iii) by logarithmic differentiation.

Do they all give the same answer?

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

179

18. If u , v and w are functions of x , then show that

d

du

dv

dw

$(u \cdot v \cdot w) =$

$v \cdot w + u \cdot$

$\cdot w + u \cdot v$

dx

dx

dx

dx

in two ways - first by repeated application of product rule, second by logarithmic

differentiation.

5.6 Derivatives of Functions in Parametric Forms

Sometimes the relation between two variables is neither explicit nor implicit, but some

link of a third variable with each of the two variables, separately, establishes a relation

between the first two variables. In such a situation, we say that the relation between

them is expressed via a third variable. The third variable is called the parameter. More

precisely, a relation expressed between two variables x and y in the form

$x = f(t), y = g(t)$ is said to be parametric form with t as a parameter.

In order to find derivative of function in such form, we have by chain rule.

dy

$dy dx$

=

dt

$dx dt$

dy

dy



dx

dt

or

=



whenever

$0 <$



dx

dx

dt



+

+

dt

dy

$g ($



$t) \boxtimes$

dy

dx

Thus



as

$g (t) \text{ and}$

[provided $f(t) \neq 0$]



$f ($



$t) \star$



dx

$f(t)$

dt

dt



dy

Example 34 Find

, if $x = a \cos$, $y = a \sin$.



dx

Solution Given that

$$x = a \cos \theta, y = a \sin \theta$$



$$dx$$

$$dy$$

Therefore

$$= -a \sin \theta$$

$$= a \cos \theta$$

$$d$$



$$d$$



$$dy$$

$$dy$$

$$a \cos \theta$$

$$d$$



Hence

=

✓

×

×

×

\cot ✓

dx

dx

×

$a \sin$ ✓

d ✓

180

MATHEMATICS

dy

Example 35 Find

, if $x = at^2, y = 2at$.

dx

Solution Given that $x = at^2, y = 2at$

dx

dy

So

$= 2 at$ and

$= 2 a$

dt

dt

dy

dy

$2 a$

1

dt

Therefore

=

dx

dx

$2 at$

t

dt

dy

Example 36 Find

, if $x = a (+ \sin)$, $y = a (1 - \cos)$.



dx

dx

dy

Solution We have

$= a(1 + \cos)$,

$= a (\sin)$

d



d



dy

dy

$a \sin$

d



Therefore

=



\tan

dx

dx

$a(1 - \cos)$



2

d

dy

Note It may be noted here that

is expressed in terms of parameter only

dx



without directly involving the main variables x and y .

2

2

2

dy

Example 37 Find

3

3

3

, if x

.

Ⓞ

$y \neq a$

dx

Solution Let $x = a \cos 3$, $y = a \sin 3$. Then



2

2

2

2

3

3

x

=

3

3

3

3

$(a \cos \theta) \mp (a \sin \theta)$

θ

y

2

2

2

2

=

3

3

$a (\cos$



$(\sin \theta)$

a

2

2

2

Hence, $x = a \cos \theta$, $y = a \sin \theta$ is parametric equation of a circle

3

3

$x^2 + y^2 = a^2$



dx

dy

Now

$$= -3 a \cos^2 \sin \text{ and}$$

$$= 3 a \sin^2 \cos$$

d



d



CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

181

dy

dy

2

$3 a \sin$

\cos

y

d

Therefore

=

3

✂

✂

✂

$\tan \theta$

dx

2

dx

✂

$3 a \cos$

\sin

x

d

Note Had we proceeded in implicit way, it would have been quite tedious.

✂

EXERCISE 5.6

If x and y are connected parametrically by the equations given in Exercises 1 to 10,

dy

without eliminating the parameter, Find

.

dx

1. $x = 2at, y = at^2$

2. $x = a \cos t, y = b \cos 2t$



4

3. $x = \sin t, y = \cos 2t$

4. $x = 4t, y = t^2$

5. $x = \cos t - \cos 2t, y = \sin t - \sin 2t$




3

$\sin t$

3

$\cos t$

6. $x = a(-\sin t), y = a(1 + \cos t)$ 7. $x =$

, $y =$ 



$\cos 2t$

$\cos 2t$



t 

8.

x

$y = a \sin t$ 9. $x = a \sec t, y = b \tan t$



$a \cos t$ 



$\log \tan 2\star$



10. $x = a (\cos + \sin), y = a (\sin - \cos)$



✌️ 1

✌️ 1

11. If

$\sin t$

\cos



,

t

dy

y

x

a

$y \approx a$

, show that



dx

x

5.7 Second Order Derivative

Let

$y = f(x)$. Then

$dy = f'(x) dx$

... (1)

dx



If $f(x)$ is differentiable, we may differentiate (1) again w.r.t. x . Then, the left hand



$d^2y = f''(x) dx^2$ ✓

side becomes

which is called the *second order derivative* of y w.r.t. x and

$dx \checkmark dx \times$

x

x

2

dy

is denoted by

. The second order derivative of $f(x)$ is denoted by $f''(x)$. It is also 2

x

dx

182

MATHEMATICS

denoted by $D^2 y$ or y'' or y'' if $y = f(x)$. We remark that higher order derivatives may be



2

defined similarly.

2

dy

Example 38 Find

, if $y = x^3 + \tan x$.

2

dx

Solution Given that $y = x^3 + \tan x$. Then

$$dy = 3x^2 + \sec^2 x$$

dx

2

dy

d

2

2

Therefore

=

$$3x^2 + \sec^2 x$$

2

dx

dx

$$= 6x + 2 \sec x \cdot \sec x \tan x = 6x + 2 \sec^2 x \tan x$$

dy

Example 39 If $y = A \sin x + B \cos x$, then prove that

.



$$y = 0$$

2

dx

Solution We have

$$dy = A \cos x - B \sin x$$

dx

2

dy

d

and

=

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

2

dx

dx

$$= -A \sin x - B \cos x = -y$$

2

dy

Hence

$$+ y = 0$$

2

dx

2

dy

dy

Example 40 If $y = 3 e^{2x} + 2 e^{3x}$, prove that

.

⊖

5

†

$$6y \dagger 0$$

2

dx

dx

Solution Given that $y = 3 e^{2x} + 2 e^{3x}$. Then

$$dy = 6 e^{2x} + 6 e^{3x} = 6 (e^{2x} + e^{3x}) dx$$

2

dy

Therefore

$$= 12 e^{2x} + 18 e^{3x} = 6 (2 e^{2x} + 3 e^{3x})$$

2

dx

2

dy

dy

Hence

$$+ 6y = 6 (2 e^{2x} + 3 e^{3x})$$

ⓐ

5

2

dx

dx

$$- 30 (e^{2x} + e^{3x}) + 6 (3 e^{2x} + 2 e^{3x}) = 0$$

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

183

2

dy

dy

Example 41 If $y = \sin^{-1} x$, show that $(1 - x^2)$

x

.

↔

0

2

dx

dx

Solution We have $y = \sin^{-1} x$. Then

dy

1

=

dx

2

$(1 - x^2)$

2

dy

or

$(1-x)$



1

dx

$d \odot$

2

dy

So

(1

$x)$.



0

dx

dx

2

2

dy

$dy d$

2

or

$(1 x)$ ✎



$(1 x)$ ✂ 0



2

dx

$dx dx$

2

2

dy

dy

$2 x$

or

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

\Rightarrow

\Rightarrow

✓

0

2

2

dx

$$dx = 2(1 - x)$$

2

2

dy

dy

Hence

$$(1 - x)$$

x

✂

0

2

dx

dx

Alternatively, Given that $y = \sin^{-1} x$, we have

1

y

, i.e.,

2

2

1

1 \times x

$y \oplus 1$

✓

✗

✗

2

1

1

✗

x

So

2

2

$$(1 - x^2) \cdot 2yy' + y(0 - 2x) = 0$$

1 2

1

Hence

$$(1 - x^2)y' - xy' = 0$$

2

1

EXERCISE 5.7

Find the second order derivatives of the functions given in Exercises 1 to 10.

1. $x^2 + 3x + 2$

2. x^{20}

3. $x \cdot \cos x$

4. $\log x$

5. $x^3 \log x$

6. $e^x \sin 5x$

7. $e^{6x} \cos 3x$

8. $\tan^{-1} x$

9. $\log(\log x)$

10. $\sin(\log x)$

2

dy

11. If $y = 5 \cos x - 3 \sin x$, prove that



$y^2 - 0$

2

dx

184

MATHEMATICS

2

dy

12. If $y = \cos^{-1} x$, Find

in terms of y alone.

2

dx

13. If $y = 3 \cos(\log x) + 4 \sin(\log x)$, show that $x^2 y + xy + y = 0$

2

1

2

dy

dy

14. If $y = A e^{mx} + B e^{nx}$, show that

$(m \neq n)$



$mny \neq 0$

2

dx

dx

2

dy

15. If $y = 500 e^{7x} + 600 e^{-7x}$, show that



49 y

2

dx

2

2

dy



dy

16. If $ey(x+1) = 1$, show that

⓪

†

2

dx

†

dx †

⊗

☆

17. If $y = (\tan^{-1} x)^2$, show that $(x^2 + 1)^2 y + 2x(x^2 + 1) y' = 2$

2

1

5.8 Mean Value Theorem

In this section, we will state two fundamental results in Calculus without proof. We

shall also learn the geometric interpretation of these theorems.

Theorem 6 (Rolle's Theorem) Let $f: [a, b]$

f be continuous on $[a, b]$ and



differentiable on (a, b) , such that $f(a) = f(b)$, where a and b are some real numbers.

Then there exists some c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.



In Fig 5.12 and 5.13, graphs of a few typical differentiable functions satisfying the

hypothesis of Rolle's theorem are given.

Fig 5.12

Fig 5.13

Observe what happens to the slope of the tangent to the curve at various points

between a and b . In each of the graphs, the slope becomes zero at least at one point.

That is precisely the claim of the Rolle's theorem as the slope of the tangent at any

point on the graph of $y = f(x)$ is nothing but the derivative of $f(x)$ at that point.

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

185

Theorem 7 (Mean Value Theorem) Let $f: [a, b]$

f be a continuous function on

†

$[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists some c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$

b

$f(b)$

$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$

b

a

Observe that the Mean Value Theorem (MVT) is an extension of Rolle's theorem.

Let us now understand a geometric interpretation of the MVT. The graph of a function

$y = f(x)$ is given in the Fig 5.14. We have already interpreted $f'(c)$ as the slope of the

⊠

$f(b)$

$f(a)$

tangent to the curve $y = f(x)$ at $(c, f(c))$. From the Fig 5.14 it is clear that

a

is the slope of the secant drawn between $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$. The MVT states that there is a point c in (a, b) such that the slope of the tangent at $(c, f(c))$ is same as the slope of the secant between $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$. In other words, there is a point c in (a, b) such that the tangent at $(c, f(c))$ is parallel to the secant between $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$.

Fig 5.14

Example 42 Verify Rolle’s theorem for the function $y = x^2 + 2$, $a = -2$ and $b = 2$.

Solution The function $y = x^2 + 2$ is continuous in $[-2, 2]$ and differentiable in $(-2, 2)$.

Also $f(-2) = f(2) = 6$ and hence the value of $f(x)$ at -2 and 2 coincide. Rolle’s theorem states that there is a point $c \in (-2, 2)$, where $f'(c) = 0$. Since $f'(x) = 2x$, we

$$2c = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow c = 0$$

$$\therefore c = 0 \in (-2, 2)$$

get $c = 0$. Thus at $c = 0$, we have $f'(c) = 0$ and $c = 0 \in (-2, 2)$.

$$\therefore \text{Rolle's theorem is verified.}$$

$$\square$$

Example 43 Verify Mean Value Theorem for the function $f(x) = x^2$ in the interval $[2, 4]$.

Solution The function $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous in $[2, 4]$ and differentiable in $(2, 4)$ as its derivative $f'(x) = 2x$ is defined in $(2, 4)$.

$$\therefore \text{MVT is verified.}$$

MATHEMATICS

Now,

$f(2) = 4$ and $f(4) = 16$. Hence

$f()$

b

$f(a)$

16 4

✂

✂

6

b

a

4 2

MVT states that there is a point c (2, 4) such that $f(c) = 6$. But $f(x) = 2x$ which

Ⓒ

⊠

⊠

implies $c = 3$. Thus at $c = 3$ (2, 4), we have $f(c) = 6$.

Ⓞ

⊠

EXERCISE 5.8

1. Verify Rolle's theorem for the function $f(x) = x^2 + 2x - 8$, $x \in [-4, 2]$.

Ⓞ

2. Examine if Rolle's theorem is applicable to any of the following functions. Can

you say some thing about the converse of Rolle's theorem from these example?

(i) $f(x) = [x]$ for $x \in [5, 9]$

(ii) $f(x) = [x]$ for $x \in [-2, 2]$

Ⓞ

Ⓞ

(iii) $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ for $x \in [1, 2]$

Ⓞ

3. If $f: [-5, 5]$

\mathbf{R} is a differentiable function and if $f'(x)$ does not vanish

†

✂

anywhere, then prove that $f(-5)f(5)$.



4. Verify Mean Value Theorem, if $f(x) = x^2 - 4x - 3$ in the interval $[a, b]$, where $a = 1$ and $b = 4$.

5. Verify Mean Value Theorem, if $f(x) = x^3 - 5x^2 - 3x$ in the interval $[a, b]$, where $a = 1$ and $b = 3$. Find all $c \in (1, 3)$ for which $f'(c) = 0$.



6. Examine the applicability of Mean Value Theorem for all three functions given in

the above exercise 2.

Miscellaneous Examples

Example 44 Differentiate w.r.t. x , the following function:

1

2

(i)

$3x$

(ii) $\sec x$

-1

e

(iii) $\log(\log x)$

†

$3\cos x$

☎

2 ☎

2

7

$2x \text{ ☎} 4$

Solution

1

1

1

2

†

(i) Let $y = 3x$

=

2

2

$$(3x \star 2) \star (2x \star 4)$$



$$2 \star$$

$$2$$

$$2x \star 4$$

$$2$$

Note that this function is defined at all real numbers x

. Therefore



$$3$$

$$dy$$

$$1$$

$$1$$

$$1$$



$$1$$

$$1$$

$$d$$

$$1$$

2



d

2



2

2

(3 x



2)

(3 x 2)

(2 x 4)

(2 x



4)

dx

2

dx



2 ✓

dx

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

187

1

3

1



1 ✂

2



2

2

(3 x ✂ 2)



(3) ①

(2 x 4)



+

+

4 x

2

+

2x

3

2 x

=



3

2 3 x 🙌 2

2

2

$$2x \text{ 🙌 } 4$$



2

This is defined for all real numbers x

.



3

2

(ii) Let

$\sec x$

$\Leftrightarrow 1$

$y \Leftrightarrow e$



$3\cos$

x

This is defined at every real number in [

. Therefore

$\times 1, 1] \times$

0

✓

✓

dy

2

$\sec x$

d

2

✗

1

✗

$= e$

✗

$(\sec x) \oplus 3 \oplus$

dx

+

2

dx

1

$x \oplus$

\oplus

\oplus

\oplus

2

$\sec x$

\times

d

\times

\times

1

\times

$= e$

\times

$2\sec x$

$(\sec x) \oplus 3 \oplus$

\oplus

\oplus

\oplus

2

dx

1

$x \oplus$

\oplus

\oplus

\oplus

\oplus

\oplus

2

$\sec x$

\times

1

\times

$= 2\sec x (\sec x \tan x) e$

\oplus

3 \oplus

\oplus

2 \oplus

1 \oplus

\oplus

$x \clubsuit$

2

2

$\sec x$



1



$= 2\sec x \tan x e$



3 \diamond



2 \star

1 \diamond



$x \star$

Observe that the derivative of the given function is valid only in [1

as



, 1] × 0

✓

✓

the derivative of $\cos^{-1} x$ exists only in $(-1, 1)$ and the function itself is not defined at 0.

$\log(\log x)$

(iii) Let $y = \log(\log x) =$

(by change of base formula).

7

$\log 7$

The function is defined for all real numbers $x > 1$. Therefore

dy

1

d

=

$(\log(\log x))$

dx

$\log 7 dx$

1

1

d

=



$(\log x)$

$\log_7 \log x \, dx$

1

$= x \log_7 \log x$

188

MATHEMATICS

Example 45 Differentiate the following w.r.t. x .

x^{-1}



$\frac{1}{x}$

2



x

(i) $\cos^{-1}(\sin x)$

(ii)

1

sin

tan



(iii) sin



1 cos x 📞



1 📞 4 x 📞



+

+



Solution

(i) Let $f(x) = \cos^{-1}(\sin x)$. Observe that this function is defined for all real numbers.

We may rewrite this function as

$$f(x) = \cos^{-1}(\sin x)$$



1

= cos

cos



x

2



x

2

Thus

$$f(x) = -1.$$



$\sin x$

(ii) Let $f(x) = \tan^{-1}$



. Observe that this function is defined for all real



$1 - \cos x$



numbers, where $\cos x = -1$; i.e., at all odd multiples of π . We may rewrite this



function as

$1 - \cos x$

$\sin x$

$f(x) = \tan x \sqrt{1 - \cos x}$



x

x

$2 \sin$

\cos



★ 1

2

2

= tan

*

*

2 x

*

2cos

*

*

2

*

*

*

☞

✓

×

×

☞ 1

x

x

= tan

tan

*

x

2 +

+

+

+

+

+

+

2

*

x *

Observe that we could cancel cos

in both numerator and denominator as it

*

2 *

*

*

1

is not equal to zero. Thus $f(x) =$.



2

$x \clubsuit 1$



2

(iii) Let $f(x) = \sin^{-1}$



. To find the domain of this function we need to find all



$1 - 4x \boxplus$



$x \text{ flower } 1$

2

x such that

. Since the quantity in the middle is always positive,

1



1

1 + 4x

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

189

x

2

we need to find all x such that

1, i.e., all x such that $2x + 1 = 1 + 4x$. We



1 + 4x



1

may rewrite this as 2

+ 2x which is true for all x . Hence the function



2x

is defined at every real number. By putting $2x = \tan$, this function may be



rewritten as

$$x \approx 1$$

$$1 \text{ (D)}$$

†



2

$$f(x) = \sin$$

†

$$\star 1$$

$$4x \text{ †}$$



x



$$\text{Pencil } 1$$

2

2

= sin



2 x

✓ 1

2 x



1



2 tan

= sin



2

✦ 1

tan



$$= \sin^{-1} [\sin 2]$$



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



1

d

x

Thus

$$f(x) = 2 \star$$



(2)



2

$$1 \star 2x$$

dx

☆

★

2

x

=

(2) $\log 2$

1 $4x \star$

☆

$x \star 1$

2

$\log 2$

=

1 $\clubsuit 4x$

Example 46 Find $f(x)$ if $f(x) = (\sin x)\sin x$ for all $0 < x < \pi$.

◇

☆

Solution The function $y = (\sin x)\sin x$ is defined for all positive real numbers. Taking logarithms, we have

$$\log y = \log (\sin x)\sin x = \sin x \log (\sin x)$$

$$1 \, dy$$

$$d$$

Then

=

$$(\sin x \log (\sin x))$$

$$y \, dx$$

$$dx$$

$$1$$

$$d$$

$$= \cos x \log (\sin x) + \sin x .$$

☆

$$(\sin x)$$

$$\sin x \, dx$$

$$= \cos x \log (\sin x) + \cos x$$

$$= (1 + \log (\sin x)) \cos x$$

190

MATHEMATICS

$$dy$$

Thus

$$= y((1 + \log(\sin x)) \cos x) = (1 + \log(\sin x)) (\sin x) \sin x \cos x dx$$

dy

Example 47 For a positive constant a find

, where

dx

1

a

t



1

t

y

a

, and x

t



$t \dagger$

\dagger

\dagger

Solution Observe that both y and x are defined for all real $t \geq 0$. Clearly

\boxtimes

1

dy

d

1

t

$d \times$

$1 \times$

=

t

t

\boxtimes

t

$= a$



t



$\log a$



dt



a

dt

$dt \dagger$

$t \dagger$

1

t



1

=

t

a

1



$\log a$

2



t ×

a 1

dx

1 ×



d ⊕

1

Similarly

$= a t$

t

dt

t

dt

t ✚



a 1

1 ☆

☆

☆

☆

1 ☆

= $a t$ ☆

☆

1 *

*

2

t

t *

*

*

*

*

*

*

$dx = 0$ only if $t = \pm 1$. Thus for $t \neq \pm 1$,

dt ☒



1

dy

t *



1

t

a

1



$\log a$

dy

2

dt



$t *$

=



dx

dx

$a 1$



$1 *$



1

$a t *$



1



dt



2

t

$t \otimes$

*

*

*

*

*

*

1

$t \bullet t$

a

$\log a$

=

$a \ 1$

■

1 ○

$a t$



$t \blacktriangledown$



Example 48 Differentiate $\sin^2 x$ w.r.t. $e \cos x$.

du

$du dx$

Solution

/

Let $u (x) = \sin^2 x$ and $v (x) = e \cos x$. We want to find

. Clearly

P

dv

dv / dx

du

dv

$= 2 \sin x \cos x$ and

$$= e \cos x (-\sin x) = -(\sin x) e \cos x$$

dx

dx

CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

191

du

$$2\sin x \cos x$$

$$2\cos x$$

Thus

=

✂

dv

cos

cos

✂

sin

x

x

$x e$

e

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 5

Differentiate w.r.t. x the function in Exercises 1 to 11.

1. $(3x^2 - 9x + 5)^9$

2. $\sin 3x + \cos 6x$

3. $(5x)^3 \cos 2x$

4. $\sin^{-1}(x$

$x), 0 < x < 1$



≈ 1

x

\cos

5.

$2, -2 < x < 2$

$$2x \approx 7$$



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

$$1 \sin x$$

$$1 \sin x$$

$$6 \cot$$

$$, 0 < x <$$



$$1$$

$$2$$



$\sin x \pm 1 \pm$



$\sin x \leftarrow$

7. $(\log x)\log x, x > 1$

8. $\cos (a \cos x + b \sin x)$, for some constant a and b .



3

9. $(\sin x - \cos x) (\sin x - \cos x)$,

x



4

4

10. $xx + xa + ax + aa$, for some fixed $a > 0$ and $x > 0$

2

2

11.

$\leftarrow 3$

x

x

x

, for $x > 3$



$x \sqrt{3}$



dy

12. Find

, if $y = 12(1 - \cos t)$, $x = 10(t - \sin t)$,



t



dx

2

2

dy

13. Find

, if $y = \sin^{-1} x + \sin^{-1}$

2

1

, $-1 < x < 1$



x

dx

14. If $x > 1$

, for $-1 < x < 1$, prove that



$y > 1$, $x > 0$

dy

1



2

dx

1 ✦ x



15. If $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = c^2$, for some $c > 0$, prove that 3

2

2



dy



1



dx



2

dy

2

dx

is a constant independent of a and b .

192

MATHEMATICS

2

dy

$\cos (a$

$y)$

16. If $\cos y = x \cos (a + y)$, with $\cos a \neq 1$, prove that

.



dx

$\sin a$

2

dy

17. If $x = a (\cos t + t \sin t)$ and $y = a (\sin t - t \cos t)$, find

.

2

dx

18. If $f(x) = |x|^3$, show that $f'(x)$ exists for all real x and find it.



d

19. Using mathematical induction prove that

n

$n - 1$

x

for all positive



$nx \in \mathbb{C}$



dx

integers n .

20. Using the fact that $\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$ and the differentiation,

obtain the sum formula for cosines.

21. Does there exist a function which is continuous everywhere but not differentiable

at exactly two points? Justify your answer.

$f(x)$

$g(x)$

$h(x)$

$f^\dagger(x)$

$g^\dagger(x)$

$h^\dagger(x)$

dy

22. If y

, prove that

†

l

m

n

†

l

m

n

dx

a

b

c

a

b

c

2

dy

dy

23. If $y =$

1

$a \cos^2 x$

e

, $-1 < x < 1$, show that

2

2

1

.



x



x



$a y \geq 0$



2

dx

dx

Summary

A real valued function is **continuous** at a point in its domain if the limit of the



function at that point equals the value of the function at that point. A function

is continuous if it is continuous on the whole of its domain.

Sum, difference, product and quotient of continuous functions are continuous.



i.e., if f and g are continuous functions, then

$(f \pm g)(x) = f(x) \pm g(x)$ is continuous.

$(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is continuous.



$f \Rightarrow$

$f(x)$

$(x) \checkmark$

(wherever $g(x) \neq 0$) is continuous.

✂

✓

$g \times$

$g(x)$

✗

✗

Every differentiable function is continuous, but the converse is not true.



CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY

193

Chain rule is rule to differentiate composites of functions. If $f = v \circ u$, $t = u(x)$ dt

dv

and if both

and

exist then

dx

dt

df

$dv dt$

✂

✂

dx

$dt dx$

Following are some of the standard derivatives (in appropriate domains):

d

d

$\textcircled{C} 1$

1

$\textcircled{C} 1$

1

sin

x

cos

x



2

dx

1

2

dx

1 \dagger x



x

d

d



1

1



1

1

tan

x

cot

x



2



dx

1

2

dx

1  x



x

d

d



 1

1



1

1

sec

x

cosec

x



2

dx

x^1

2

dx

$x^1 \checkmark x$



x

d

x

x

d

1

e

$\log x$



e



dx

dx

x

Logarithmic differentiation is a powerful technique to differentiate functions

of the form $f(x) = [u(x)] v(x)$. Here both $f(x)$ and $u(x)$ need to be positive for this technique to make sense.

Rolle's Theorem: If $f: [a, b]$

\mathbf{R} is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable



on (a, b) such that $f(a) = f(b)$, then there exists some c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.



Mean Value Theorem: If $f: [a, b]$

\mathbb{R} is continuous on $[a, b]$ and



differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists some c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.

$$b - a$$

$$f(b) - f(a)$$

$$b - a$$

—

—



Chapter 6

APPLICATION OF

DERIVATIVES

With the Calculus as a key, Mathematics can be successfully applied to the explanation of the course of Nature.” — WHITEHEAD

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 5, we have learnt how to find derivative of composite functions, inverse

trigonometric functions, implicit functions, exponential functions and logarithmic functions.

In this chapter, we will study applications of the derivative in various disciplines, e.g., in

engineering, science, social science, and many other fields. For instance, we will learn

how the derivative can be used (i) to determine rate of change of quantities, (ii) to find

the equations of tangent and normal to a curve at a point, (iii) to find turning points on

the graph of a function which in turn will help us to locate points at which largest or

smallest value (locally) of a function occurs. We will also use derivative to find intervals

on which a function is increasing or decreasing. Finally, we use the derivative to find

approximate value of certain quantities.

6.2 Rate of Change of Quantities

ds

Recall that by the derivative

, we mean the rate of change of distance s with

dt

respect to the time t . In a similar fashion, whenever one quantity y varies with another dy

quantity x , satisfying some rule y

, then

(or $f(x)$) represents the rate of

✂

$f(x)$

dx

✂

dy **⚡**

change of y with respect to x and dx

(or $f'(x)$) represents the rate of change

⊗

✂

0

+

$x \neq 0$

x

of y with respect to x at x

.

+

$x \neq 0$

Further, if two variables x and y are varying with respect to another variable t , i.e., if x

and y

, then by Chain Rule

✂

$g(t)$

✂

$f(t)$

dy

dy

dx

dx

=

, if

+

0

dx

dt

dt

dt

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

195

Thus, the rate of change of y with respect to x can be calculated using the rate of

change of y and that of x both with respect to t .

Let us consider some examples.

Example 1 Find the rate of change of the area of a circle per second with respect to

its radius r when $r = 5$ cm.

Solution The area A of a circle with radius r is given by $A = r^2$. Therefore, the rate



A

d

d

2

of change of the area A with respect to its radius r is given by

(

.



r)

$2r$

dr

dr

dA

When $r = 5$ cm,

. Thus, the area of the circle is changing at the rate of



dr

10 cm²/s.



Example 2 The volume of a cube is increasing at a rate of 9 cubic centimetres per

second. How fast is the surface area increasing when the length of an edge is 10

centimetres ?

Solution Let x be the length of a side, V be the volume and S be the surface area of

the cube. Then, $V = x^3$ and $S = 6x^2$, where x is a function of time t .

V

d

Now

= 9cm³/s (Given)

dt

V

d

d

3

d

3

dx

Therefore

9 =

(x)

(x)

(By Chain Rule)

⊗

dt

dt

dx

dt

2

dx

= 3 x ⊗ dt

dx

3

or

=

... (1)

dt

2

x

dS

d

2

d

2

dx

Now

=

(6 x)

(By Chain Rule)

✂

(6 x) †

dt

dt

dx

dt



3 †

36

$= 12 x \text{ †}$

2



(Using (1))



$x \text{ †}$



x

dS

2

Hence, when

$x = 10 \text{ cm,}$

3.6 cm /s

dt

196

MATHEMATICS

Example 3 A stone is dropped into a quiet lake and waves move in circles at a speed

of 4cm per second. At the instant, when the radius of the circular wave is 10 cm, how

fast is the enclosed area increasing?

Solution The area A of a circle with radius r is given by $A = r^2$. Therefore, the rate



of change of area A with respect to time t is

A

d

d

2

d

2

dr

dr

=

(r)

$$= 2r$$

(By Chain Rule)



$(r) \frac{d}{dt}$

dt

dt

dr

dt



dt

dr

It is given that

$$= 4\text{cm/s}$$

dt

A

d

Therefore, when $r = 10$ cm,

$$= 2 (10) (4) = 80$$



dt

Thus, the enclosed area is increasing at the rate of 80 cm²/s, when $r = 10$ cm.



dy

Note

is positive if y increases as x increases and is negative if y decreases

dx



as x increases.

Example 4 The length x of a rectangle is decreasing at the rate of 3 cm/minute and

the width y is increasing at the rate of 2cm/minute. When $x = 10$ cm and $y = 6$ cm, find the rates of change of (a) the perimeter and (b) the area of the rectangle.

Solution Since the length x is decreasing and the width y is increasing with respect to time, we have

dx

dy

and



2 cm/min



3 cm/min

dt

dt

(a) The perimeter P of a rectangle is given by

$$P = 2(x + y)$$

dP



dx

dy

Therefore

= 2



2 (3 + 2) × 2 cm/min

dt



dt

dt 



(b) The area A of the rectangle is given by

$$A = x \cdot y$$

A

d

dx

dy

Therefore

=



y

$x \propto$

dt

dt

dt

$$= -3(6) + 10(2)$$

(as $x = 10$ cm and $y = 6$ cm)

$$= 2 \text{ cm}^2/\text{min}$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

197

Example 5 The total cost $C(x)$ in Rupees, associated with the production of x units of an item is given by

$$C(x) = 0.005x^3 - 0.02x^2 + 30x + 5000$$

Find the marginal cost when 3 units are produced, where by marginal cost we

mean the instantaneous rate of change of total cost at any level of output.

Solution Since marginal cost is the rate of change of total cost with respect to the

output, we have

$$dC$$

$$2$$

Marginal

cost (MC) =

$$0.005(3x)^2 - 0.02(2x) + 30$$

$$dx$$

$$2$$

When

$$x = 3, MC = 0.015(3)^2 - 0.04(3) + 30$$

$$= 0.135 - 0.12 + 30 = 30.015$$

Hence, the required marginal cost is Rs 30.02 (nearly).

Example 6 The total revenue in Rupees received from the sale of x units of a product

is given by $R(x) = 3x^2 + 36x + 5$. Find the marginal revenue, when $x = 5$, where by marginal revenue we mean the rate of change of total revenue with respect to the

number of items sold at an instant.

Solution Since marginal revenue is the rate of change of total revenue with respect to

the number of units sold, we have

R

d

Marginal Revenue

(MR) =

$6x + 36$

dx

When

$$x = 5, \text{ MR} = 6(5) + 36 = 66$$

Hence, the required marginal revenue is Rs 66.

EXERCISE 6.1

1. Find the rate of change of the area of a circle with respect to its radius r when

(a) $r = 3$ cm

(b) $r = 4$ cm

2. The volume of a cube is increasing at the rate of $8 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. How fast is the surface area increasing when the length of an edge is 12 cm?

3. The radius of a circle is increasing uniformly at the rate of 3 cm/s . Find the rate

at which the area of the circle is increasing when the radius is 10 cm.

4. An edge of a variable cube is increasing at the rate of 3 cm/s. How fast is the

volume of the cube increasing when the edge is 10 cm long?

5. A stone is dropped into a quiet lake and waves move in circles at the speed of

5 cm/s. At the instant when the radius of the circular wave is 8 cm, how fast is

the enclosed area increasing?

198

MATHEMATICS

6. The radius of a circle is increasing at the rate of 0.7 cm/s. What is the rate of

increase of its circumference?

7. The length x of a rectangle is decreasing at the rate of 5 cm/minute and the

width y is increasing at the rate of 4 cm/minute. When $x = 8$ cm and $y = 6$ cm, find the rates of change of (a) the perimeter, and (b) the area of the rectangle.

8. A balloon, which always remains spherical on inflation, is being inflated by pumping

in 900 cubic centimetres of gas per second. Find the rate at which the radius of

the balloon increases when the radius is 15 cm.

9. A balloon, which always remains spherical has a variable radius. Find the rate at

which its volume is increasing with the radius when the later is 10 cm.

10. A ladder 5 m long is leaning against a wall. The bottom of the ladder is pulled

along the ground, away from the wall, at the rate of 2cm/s. How fast is its height

on the wall decreasing when the foot of the ladder is 4 m away from the wall ?

11. A particle moves along the curve $6y = x^3 + 2$. Find the points on the curve at which the y -coordinate is changing 8 times as fast as the x -coordinate.

1

12. The radius of an air bubble is increasing at the rate of

cm/s. At what rate is the

2

volume of the bubble increasing when the radius is 1 cm?

3

13. A balloon, which always remains spherical, has a variable diameter

$(2x + 1)$.

2

Find the rate of change of its volume with respect to x .

14. Sand is pouring from a pipe at the rate of $12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$. The falling sand forms a cone

on the ground in such a way that the height of the cone is always one-sixth of the

radius of the base. How fast is the height of the sand cone increasing when the

height is 4 cm?

15. The total cost $C(x)$ in Rupees associated with the production of x units of an item is given by

$$C(x) = 0.007x^3 - 0.003x^2 + 15x + 4000.$$

Find the marginal cost when 17 units are produced.

16. The total revenue in Rupees received from the sale of x units of a product is

given by

$$R(x) = 13x^2 + 26x + 15.$$

Find the marginal revenue when $x = 7$.

Choose the correct answer in the Exercises 17 and 18.

17. The rate of change of the area of a circle with respect to its radius r at $r = 6$ cm is (A) 10

(B) 12

(C) 8

(D) 11



APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

199

18. The total revenue in Rupees received from the sale of x units of a product is

given by

$R(x) = 3x^2 + 36x + 5$. The marginal revenue, when $x = 15$ is

(A) 116

(B) 96

(C) 90

(D) 126

6.3 Increasing and Decreasing Functions

In this section, we will use differentiation to find out whether a function is increasing or

decreasing or none.

Consider the function f given by $f(x) = x^2, x \in \mathbf{R}$. The graph of this function is a



parabola as given in Fig 6.1.

Values left to origin

Values right to origin

x

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

x

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

-2

4

0

0

3

9

1

1

2

4

2

4

-1

1

1

1

1

1

3

9

2

4

2

4

0

0

2

4

as we move from left to right, the

as we move from left to right, the

height of the graph decreases

height of the graph increases

Fig 6.1

First consider the graph (Fig 6.1) to the right of the origin. Observe that as we

move from left to right along the graph, the height of the graph continuously increases.

For this reason, the function is said to be increasing for the real numbers $x > 0$.

Now consider the graph to the left of the origin and observe here that as we move

from left to right along the graph, the height of the graph continuously decreases.

Consequently, the function is said to be decreasing for the real numbers $x < 0$.

We shall now give the following analytical definitions for a function which is

increasing or decreasing on an interval.

Definition 1 Let I be an open interval contained in the domain of a real valued function

f . Then f is said to be

(i) increasing on I if $x < x$ in I

$f(x) < f(x)$ for all x, x in I .

1

2



1



2

1

2

(ii) strictly increasing on I if $x < x$ in I

$f(x) < f(x)$ for all $x, x \in I$.

1

2



1

2

1

2

200

MATHEMATICS

(iii) decreasing on I if $x < x$ in I

$f(x) > f(x)$ for all x, x I.

1

2



1



2

1

2

(iv) strictly decreasing on I if $x < x$ in I

$f(x) > f(x)$ for all x, x I.

1

2



1

2

1

2

For graphical representation of such functions see Fig 6.2.

Fig 6.2

We shall now define when a function is increasing or decreasing at a point.

Definition 2 Let x be a point in the domain of definition of a real valued function f .

0

Then f is said to be increasing, strictly increasing, decreasing or strictly decreasing at

x if there exists an open interval I containing x such that f is increasing, strictly 0

0

increasing, decreasing or strictly decreasing, respectively, in I .

Let us clarify this definition for the case of increasing function.

A function f is said to be increasing at x if there exists an interval $I = (x - h, x + h)$, 0

0

0

$h > 0$ such that for $x, x \in I$

1

2 

$x < x' \text{ in } I$

$f(x) < f(x')$

1

2

⊖

1

+

2

Similarly, the other cases can be clarified.

Example 7 Show that the function given by $f(x) = 7x - 3$ is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .

Solution Let x and x be any two numbers in \mathbf{R} . Then

1

2

$$x < x$$

$$7x < 7x$$

$$7x - 3 < 7x - 3$$

$$f(x) < f(x)$$

1

2 ⊖

1

2 ⊖

1

2



1

2

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

201

Thus, by Definition 1, it follows that f is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .

We shall now give the first derivative test for increasing and decreasing functions.

The proof of this test requires the Mean Value Theorem studied in Chapter 5.

Theorem 1 Let f be continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) . Then

(a) f is increasing in $[a, b]$ if $f'(x) > 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$



(b) f is decreasing in $[a, b]$ if $f'(x) < 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$



(c) f is a constant function in $[a, b]$ if $f(x) = 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$

✂



Proof (a) Let $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$ be such that $x_1 < x_2$.

1

2 ☎

1

2

Then, by Mean Value Theorem (Theorem 8 in Chapter 5), there exists a point c

between x_1 and x_2 such that

1

2

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1)$$

2

1

✂

2

1

i.e.

$$f(x) - f(x) > 0$$

(as $f(c) > 0$ (given))

2

1

✂

i.e.

$$f(x) > f(x)$$

2

1

Thus, we have

x

$$x \succ f(x)$$

$f(x)$, for all $x, x \in [a, b]$

1

2

1

2

1

2

Hence, f is an increasing function in $[a, b]$.

The proofs of part (b) and (c) are similar. It is left as an exercise to the reader.

Remarks

(i) f is strictly increasing in (a, b) if $f'(x) > 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$



(ii) f is strictly decreasing in (a, b) if $f'(x) < 0$ for each $x \in (a, b)$



(iii) A function will be increasing (decreasing) in \mathbf{R} if it is so in every interval of \mathbf{R} .

Example 8 Show that the function f given by

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x, x \in \mathbf{R}$$



is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .

Solution Note that

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 4$$



$$= 3(x^2 - 2x + 1) + 1$$

$$= 3(x - 1)^2 + 1 > 0, \text{ in every interval of } \mathbf{R}$$

Therefore, the function f is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .

MATHEMATICS

Example 9 Prove that the function given by $f(x) = \cos x$ is

(a) strictly decreasing in $(0, \pi)$



(b) strictly increasing in $(\pi, 2\pi)$, and



(c) neither increasing nor decreasing in $(0, 2\pi)$.



Solution Note that $f'(x) = -\sin x$



(a) Since for each $x \in (0, \pi)$, $\sin x > 0$, we have $f'(x) < 0$ and so f is strictly



decreasing in $(0, \pi)$.



(b) Since for each $x \in (0, 2)$, $\sin x < 0$, we have $f'(x) > 0$ and so f is strictly



increasing in $(0, 2)$.



(c) Clearly by (a) and (b) above, f is neither increasing nor decreasing in $(0, 2)$.



Note One may note that the function in Example 9 is neither strictly increasing in

$[\pi, 2\pi]$ nor strictly decreasing in $[0, \pi]$. However, since the function is continuous at



the end points 0 and , by Theorem 1, f is increasing in $[, 2]$ and decreasing in $[0,]$.



Example 10 Find the intervals in which the function f given by $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 6$ is (a) strictly increasing

(b) strictly decreasing

Solution We have

$$f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 6$$

or

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



Therefore, $f'(x) = 0$ gives $x = 2$. Now the point $x = 2$ divides the real line into two



disjoint intervals namely, $(-\infty, 2)$ and $(2, \infty)$ (Fig 6.3). In the interval $(-\infty, 2)$,

†

†

†

$$f(x) = 2x - 4 < 0.$$

∞

Therefore, f is strictly decreasing in this interval. Also, in the interval $(2,$

$$f(x) > 0$$

†

0

∞

)

and so the function f is strictly increasing in this

Fig 6.3

interval.

Note Note that the given function is continuous at 2 which is the point joining

the two intervals. So, by Theorem 1, we conclude that the given function is decreasing

in $(-\infty, 2]$ and increasing in $[2, \infty)$.



Example 11 Find the intervals in which the function f given by $f(x) = 4x^3 - 6x^2 - 72x + 30$

is (a) strictly increasing (b) strictly decreasing.

Solution We have

$$f(x) = 4x^3 - 6x^2 - 72x + 30$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

203

or

$$f'(x) = 12x^2 - 12x - 72$$



$$= 12(x^2 - x - 6)$$

$$= 12(x - 3)(x + 2)$$

Therefore, $f'(x) = 0$ gives $x = -2, 3$. The



points $x = -2$ and $x = 3$ divides the real line into

three disjoint intervals, namely, $(-\infty, -2)$, $(-2, 3)$



Fig 6.4

and $(3, \infty)$.



In the intervals $(-\infty, -2)$ and $(3, \infty)$, $f(x)$ is positive while in the interval $(-2, 3)$,



$f(x)$ is negative. Consequently, the function f is strictly increasing in the intervals



$(-\infty, -2)$ and $(3, \infty)$ while the function is strictly decreasing in the interval $(-2, 3)$.



However, f is neither increasing nor decreasing in \mathbf{R} .

Interval

Sign of $f'(x)$

Nature of function f



$(-, -2)$

$(-)(-) > 0$

f is strictly increasing



$(-2, 3)$

$(-)(+) < 0$

f is strictly decreasing

$(3,)$

$(+)(+) > 0$

f is strictly increasing



Example 12 Find intervals in which the function given by $f(x) = \sin 3x$, x



$0, \infty$ is



2 †

†

⊠

(a) increasing (b) decreasing.

Solution We have

$$f(x) = \sin 3x$$

or

$$f(x) = 3\cos 3x$$

✂

3 ☆

Therefore, $f(x) = 0$ gives $\cos 3x = 0$ which in turn gives $3x$

☆

(as x

✂

☎

0, ✂

☞

,



2

2



2 +



3



implies $3x$



0,



). So x



and

. The point x



divides the interval $0,$



2 



2 †

6

2

6



into two disjoint intervals $0,$

and



,

.

6 ✘




62 



Fig 6.5



Now, f

for all x



as



and f

for



$(x) \oplus 0$



0,

$0 \div x \div$



$0 \div 3x$



$(x) \div 0$

$6 \times$



6

2



3



all x



as

.




x 



3 x



,

6 2 



6

2

2

2



204

MATHEMATICS



Therefore,



f is strictly increasing in 0 ,
and strictly decreasing in

.



,

6



62 🙌



Also, the given function is continuous at $x = 0$ and x



. Therefore, by Theorem 1,



6



f is increasing on $0,$
and decreasing on

,

.



6 ✓



6 2 ✓



Example 13 Find the intervals in which the function f given by

$$f(x) = \sin x + \cos x, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$$

×

×

×

is strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

Solution We have

$$f(x) = \sin x + \cos x,$$

or

$$f'(x) = \cos x - \sin x$$

+

5 

Now $f'(x) = 0$

gives $\sin x = \cos x$ which gives that $x = \frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{5\pi}{4}$



,

as



$$0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$$

+

$(x) \neq 0$

4

4



5

The points x



and x



divide the interval $[0, 2]$ into three disjoint intervals,



4

4



5



5



namely, 0,

,

,

and

, 2

.

4



4 4 †



4



Fig 6.6



5

Note that

$f(x)$

0 if x

$\leq 0,$

, 2 ☆



4



4



5



or

f is strictly increasing in the intervals $0,$

and

$, 2$

4




4



5

Also

$f(x)$

0 if x 



,



4 4 



5 ∞

or

f is strictly decreasing in

,



4 4 ✂



APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

205

Interval

Sign of $f'(x)$

Nature of function

0, ✂



> 0

f is strictly increasing

4 ☎



5



< 0

f is strictly decreasing



4 4



5



, 2



> 0

f is strictly increasing





EXERCISE 6.2

1. Show that the function given by $f(x) = 3x + 17$ is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .
2. Show that the function given by $f(x) = e^{2x}$ is strictly increasing on \mathbf{R} .
3. Show that the function given by $f(x) = \sin x$ is



(a) strictly increasing in $0,$

(b) strictly decreasing in



2



2



(c) neither increasing nor decreasing in $(0,)$



4. Find the intervals in which the function f given by $f(x) = 2x^2 - 3x$ is

(a) strictly increasing

(b) strictly decreasing

5. Find the intervals in which the function f given by $f(x) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 - 36x + 7$ is (a) strictly increasing

(b) strictly decreasing

6. Find the intervals in which the following functions are strictly increasing or

decreasing:

(a) $x^2 + 2x - 5$

(b) $10 - 6x - 2x^2$

(c) $-2x^3 - 9x^2 - 12x + 1$

(d) $6 - 9x - x^2$

(e) $(x + 1)^3 (x - 3)^3$

$2x$

7. Show that y

, $x > -1$, is an increasing function of x

✘

$\log(1 + x) + 2x$

throughout its domain.

8. Find the values of x for which $y = [x(x - 2)]^2$ is an increasing function.

$4 \sin$

9. Prove that y

⊕

is an increasing function of in $0, \infty$

✂

✎



(2



2



cos



206

MATHEMATICS

10. Prove that the logarithmic function is strictly increasing on $(0, \infty)$.



11. Prove that the function f given by $f(x) = x^2 - x + 1$ is neither strictly increasing nor strictly decreasing on $(-1, 1)$.

12. Which of the following functions are strictly decreasing on $(-\infty, \infty)$?



28

⓪

†

(A) $\cos x$

(B) $\cos 2x$

(C) $\cos 3x$

(D) $\tan x$

13. On which of the following intervals is the function f given by $f(x) = x + 100 + \sin x - 1$

strictly decreasing ?

†

(A) $(0,1)$

(B)

†

⊗

☆

⊗

, ☆

(C)

0,

(D) None of these



2



2 



14. Find the least value of a such that the function f given by $f(x) = x^2 + ax + 1$ is strictly increasing on $(1, 2)$.

15. Let I be any interval disjoint from $(-1, 1)$. Prove that the function f given by

1

$f(x)$

is strictly increasing on I.



$x \Rightarrow x$

16. Prove that the function f given by $f(x) = \log \sin x$ is strictly increasing on $0, \frac{\pi}{2}$



2



and strictly decreasing on $\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi$

, π .



2



17. Prove that the function f given by $f(x) = \log \cos x$ is strictly decreasing on $(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$

+

⊗

⊗

and strictly increasing on $(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi)$

, π .

+

👉

2 👉

👉

✌️

2

👉

✌️

👉

👉

18. Prove that the function given by $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 100$ is increasing in \mathbf{R} .

19. The interval in which $y = x^2 e^{-x}$ is increasing is

(A) $(-\infty, \infty)$

(B) $(-2, 0)$

(C) $(2, \infty)$

(D) $(0, 2)$

†

†

†

6.4 Tangents and Normals

In this section, we shall use differentiation to find the equation of the tangent line and

the normal line to a curve at a given point.

Recall that the equation of a straight line passing through a given point (x_1, y_1)

0

0

having finite slope m is given by

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

0

0

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

207

Note that the slope of the tangent to the curve $y = f(x)$

dy

at the point (x, y) is given by

(

$f($

. So

✂

✂

$x))$

0

0

✂

0

$dx \frac{dy}{dx}(x, y)$

0

0

the equation of the tangent at (x, y) to the curve $y = f(x)$

0

is given by

$$y - y = f'(x)(x - x)$$

0

ⓐ

0

0

Also, since the normal is perpendicular to the tangent,

the slope of the normal to the curve $y = f(x)$ at (x, y) is 0

0

1

Fig 6.7

†

, if $f'(x)$

. Therefore, the equation of the

†

⊗

0

f

0

†

(x)

0

normal to the curve $y = f(x)$ at (x, y) is given by

0

0

1

†

$y - y =$

$(x \dagger x)$

0

0

$f($

†

$x)$

0

i.e.

$(y$

$y)f$

$= 0$



$(x) \rightarrow (x \star x)$

0

0

0

Note If a tangent line to the curve $y = f(x)$ makes an angle with x -axis in the



dy

positive direction, then

.



slope of the tangent  \tan 

dx

Particular cases

(i) If slope of the tangent line is zero, then $\tan = 0$ and so $\theta = 0$ which means the



tangent line is parallel to the x -axis. In this case, the equation of the tangent at

the point (x, y) is given by $y = y$.

0

0

0

(ii) If



, then \tan

, which means the tangent line is perpendicular to the



2

x -axis, i.e., parallel to the y -axis. In this case, the equation of the tangent at (x, y) is given by $x = x$ (Why?).

0

0

0

Example 14 Find the slope of the tangent to the curve $y = x^3 - x$ at $x = 2$.

Solution The slope of the tangent at $x = 2$ is given by

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

2

$$= 3x^2$$

$$1 \oplus$$

+

+

11.

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

+

$$x^2$$

x

$$x^{\sqrt{2}}$$

MATHEMATICS

Example 15 Find the point at which the tangent to the curve y

$$4x$$

has its

∩

$$3 \approx 1$$

$$2$$

slope

.

$$3$$

Solution Slope of tangent to the given curve at (x, y) is

$$dy$$

$$\approx 1$$

$$1$$

$$2$$

=

$$2$$

$$(4x \approx 3) 4$$

dx



2

$4x \approx 3$

2

The slope is given to be

.

3

2

2

So

=

$4x$

3



3

or

$$4x - 3 = 9$$

or

$$x = 3$$

Now y

$$4x$$

. So when $x = 3$, y

.

†

$$4(3) \dagger 3 \dagger 1 \dagger 2$$

✂

$$3 \approx 1$$

Therefore, the required point is $(3, 2)$.

Example 16 Find the equation of all lines having slope 2 and being tangent to the curve

$$2$$

$$y$$

.

†

✂

$$0$$

$$x \star 3$$

Solution Slope of the tangent to the given curve at any point (x, y) is given by

$$\frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$2$$

=

$$\frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$2$$

$$(x - 3)$$

But the slope is given to be 2. Therefore

$$2$$

$$= 2$$

$$2$$

$$(x - 3)$$

or

$$(x - 3)^2 = 1$$

or

$$x - 3 = \pm 1$$

or

$$x = 2, 4$$

Now $x = 2$ gives $y = 2$ and $x = 4$ gives $y = -2$. Thus, there are two tangents to the given curve with slope 2 and passing through the points $(2, 2)$ and $(4,$

– 2). The equation

of tangent through (2, 2) is given by

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

or

$$y - 2x + 2 = 0$$

and the equation of the tangent through (4, – 2) is given by

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

or

$$y - 2x + 10 = 0$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

209

2

2

x

y

Example 17 Find points on the curve

at which the tangents are (i) parallel



1

4

25

to x -axis (ii) parallel to y -axis.

2

2

x

y

Solution Differentiating

with respect to x , we get



1

4

25

x

$$2 y dy = 0$$



2

25 dx

dy

© 25

x

or

=

dx

4

y

(i) Now, the tangent is parallel to the x -axis if the slope of the tangent is zero which

2

2

x

y

† 25

x

gives

. This is possible if $x = 0$. Then

for $x = 0$ gives



1



0

4

y

4

25

$y^2 = 25$, i.e., $y = \pm 5$.

Thus, the points at which the tangents are parallel to the x -axis are $(0, 5)$ and

$(0, -5)$.

(ii) The tangent line is parallel to y -axis if the slope of the normal is 0 which gives

2

2

$4y$

x

y

, i.e., $y = 0$. Therefore,

for $y = 0$ gives $x = \pm 2$. Hence, the



1



0

$25x$

4

25

points at which the tangents are parallel to the y -axis are $(2, 0)$ and $(-2, 0)$.

$x + 7$

Example 18 Find the equation of the tangent to the curve y

at the



$(x + 2)(x + 3)$

point where it cuts the x -axis.

Solution Note that on x -axis, $y = 0$. So the equation of the curve, when $y = 0$, gives $x = 7$. Thus, the curve cuts the x -axis at $(7, 0)$. Now differentiating the equation of the curve with respect to x , we obtain

dy

$$1 + y(2x + 5)$$

=

(Why?)

dx

$$(x + 2)(x + 3)$$

dy

$$1 \neq 0$$

1

✕

or

=

↔

$dx \neq$

$$(5) (4)$$

20

☛

$$(7,0)$$

210

MATHEMATICS

1

Therefore, the slope of the tangent at (7, 0) is

. Hence, the equation of the

20

tangent at (7, 0) is

1

y

0

or

$$20 y - x + 7 = 0$$

✂

(x

7)

20

2

2

Example 19 Find the equations of the tangent and normal to the curve 3

3

$$x^2 + y^2 = 2$$

at (1, 1).

2

2

Solution Differentiating 3

3

x

with respect to x , we get

⊖

$y + 2$

$+ 1$

$+$

1

2

2

dy

3

3

x

= 0



y

3

3

dx

1

dy



y^3

or

=



dx



x 🙌



dy

Therefore, the slope of the tangent at (1, 1) is



.



1



dx   (1,1)

So the equation of the tangent at (1, 1) is

$$y - 1 = -1 (x - 1) \text{ or } y + x - 2 = 0$$

Also, the slope of the normal at (1, 1) is given by

$$\checkmark 1$$

$$= 1$$

slope of the tangent at (1,1)

Therefore, the equation of the normal at (1, 1) is

$$y - 1 = 1 (x - 1) \text{ or } y - x = 0$$

Example 20 Find the equation of tangent to the curve given by

$$x = a \sin^3 t ,$$

$$y = b \cos^3 t$$

... (1)

at a point where t



.



2

Solution Differentiating (1) with respect to t , we get

dx

dy

2

2

and



3



$b \cos t \sin t$



$3 a \sin t \cos t$

dt

dt

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

211

dy

dy

2

dt

~~$3 b \cos$~~

$t \sin t$

b

~~\int~~

$\cos t$

or

\equiv

~~\int~~

dx

dx

2

$3 a \sin t \cos t$

$a \sin t$

dt

Therefore, slope of the tangent at t



is



2



dy

$b \cos$



2



0

dx



$t \in \mathbb{C}$

†

2

$a \sin 2$

Also, when t



, $x = a$ and $y = 0$. Hence, the equation of tangent to the given



2

curve at t



, i.e., at $(a, 0)$ is



2

$y - 0 = 0(x - a)$, i.e., $y = 0$.

EXERCISE 6.3

1. Find the slope of the tangent to the curve $y = 3x^4 - 4x$ at $x = 4$.

x 🙌 1

2. Find the slope of the tangent to the curve y

at $x = 10$.



, x  2

x  2

3. Find the slope of the tangent to curve $y = x^3 - x + 1$ at the point whose x -coordinate is 2.

4. Find the slope of the tangent to the curve $y = x^3 - 3x + 2$ at the point whose x -coordinate is 3.

5. Find the slope of the normal to the curve

3

3

x

at



.



$a \cos \theta$, $y = a \sin \theta$

4

6. Find the slope of the normal to the curve

2

x

at



.



1 $\Rightarrow a \sin \Rightarrow, y \Rightarrow b \cos \Rightarrow$

2

7. Find points at which the tangent to the curve $y = x^3 - 3x^2 - 9x + 7$ is parallel to the x -axis.

8. Find a point on the curve $y = (x - 2)^2$ at which the tangent is parallel to the chord joining the points $(2, 0)$ and $(4, 4)$.

212

MATHEMATICS

9. Find the point on the curve $y = x^3 - 11x + 5$ at which the tangent is $y = x - 11$.

10. Find the equation of all lines having slope -1 that are tangents to the curve

1

y

, $x = 1$.



$x = 1$

11. Find the equation of all lines having slope 2 which are tangents to the curve

1

y

, $x = 3$.



$x = 3$

12. Find the equations of all lines having slope 0 which are tangent to the curve

1

$y =$

.

2

$x = 2$ $x = 3$

2

2

x

y

13. Find points on the curve

at which the tangents are

⊙

†

1

9

16

(i) parallel to x -axis

(ii) parallel to y -axis.

14. Find the equations of the tangent and normal to the given curves at the indicated

points:

(i) $y = x^4 - 6x^3 + 13x^2 - 10x + 5$ at $(0, 5)$

(ii) $y = x^4 - 6x^3 + 13x^2 - 10x + 5$ at $(1, 3)$

(iii) $y = x^3$ at $(1, 1)$

(iv) $y = x^2$ at $(0, 0)$

(v) $x = \cos t, y = \sin t$ at t

†

4

15. Find the equation of the tangent line to the curve $y = x^2 - 2x + 7$ which is (a) parallel to the line $2x - y + 9 = 0$

(b) perpendicular to the line $5y - 15x = 13$.

16. Show that the tangents to the curve $y = 7x^3 + 11$ at the points where $x = 2$ and $x = -2$ are parallel.

17. Find the points on the curve $y = x^3$ at which the slope of the tangent is equal to the y -coordinate of the point.

18. For the curve $y = 4x^3 - 2x^5$, find all the points at which the tangent passes through the origin.

19. Find the points on the curve $x^2 + y^2 - 2x - 3 = 0$ at which the tangents are parallel to the x -axis.

20. Find the equation of the normal at the point (am^2, am^3) for the curve $ay^2 = x^3$.

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

213

21. Find the equation of the normals to the curve $y = x^3 + 2x + 6$ which are parallel to the line $x + 14y + 4 = 0$.

22. Find the equations of the tangent and normal to the parabola $y^2 = 4ax$ at the point $(at^2, 2at)$.

23. Prove that the curves $x = y^2$ and $xy = k$ cut at right angles* if $8k^2 = 1$.

2

2

x

y

24. Find the equations of the tangent and normal to the hyperbola
at the



1

2

2

a

b

point (x, y) .

0

0

25. Find the equation of the tangent to the curve y
which is parallel to the



$3x - 2$

line $4x$

.



$2y - 5 = 0$

Choose the correct answer in Exercises 26 and 27.

26. The slope of the normal to the curve $y = 2x^2 + 3 \sin x$ at $x = 0$ is 1

1

(A) 3

(B)

(C) -3

(D) †

3

3

27. The line $y = x + 1$ is a tangent to the curve $y^2 = 4x$ at the point (A) (1, 2)

(B) (2, 1)

(C) (1, -2)

(D) (-1, 2)

6.5 Approximations

In this section, we will use differentials to approximate values of certain quantities.

Let $f: D$

$\mathbf{R}, D \mathbf{R}$, be a given function



and let $y = f(x)$. Let Δx denote a small



increment in x . Recall that the increment in y corresponding to the increment in x , denoted by Δy , is given by $\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$. We



define the following

(i) The differential of x , denoted by dx , is defined by $dx = \Delta x$.



(ii) The differential of y , denoted by dy , is defined by $dy = f'(x) dx$ or



Fig 6.8



dy


dy



.

x



dx 



*

Two curves intersect at right angle if the tangents to the curves at the point of intersection

are perpendicular to each other.

214

MATHEMATICS

In case $dx = x$ is relatively small when compared with x , dy is a good approximation



of y and we denote it by dy

y .



For geometrical meaning of x , y , dx and dy , one may refer to Fig 6.8.



Note In view of the above discussion and Fig 6.8, we may note that the differential of the dependent variable is not equal to the increment of the variable

where as the differential of independent variable is equal to the increment of the

variable.

Example 21 Use differential to approximate 36.6 .

Solution Take y

. Let $x = 36$ and let $\Delta x = 0.6$. Then



x

$y =$

$x \approx x + \Delta x$ 

$$x \approx 36.6 \quad \text{or} \quad 36 \approx 36.6 \quad \text{or} \quad 6$$



or

$$36.6 = 6 + y$$



Now dy is approximately equal to y and is given by



1

†

$dy \dagger$

1

$dy =$

x

=

$$(0.6) = 0.05$$

(as $y \rightarrow$

x)



(0.6)



dx

2 36



2 x

Thus, the approximate value of 36.6 is $6 + 0.05 = 6.05$.

1

Example 22 Use differential to approximate

3

(25) .

1

Solution Let

3

y

. Let $x = 27$ and let $x = -2$. Then



x

1

1

1

1

1

$y =$

3

3

$(x$

$=$

3

3

3

$(25) \checkmark (27) \Leftrightarrow (25) \checkmark 3$



☛ x)



x



1

or

3

$$(25) = 3 + y$$



Now dy is approximately equal to y and is given by



1

1



dy

$$dy =$$



$$x =$$



3

(as $y \times x$)

$\times 2$)



2



dx



3

$3x$

1

$\times 2$

=

$(\times 2) \times$

\times

\times

0.074

1

27

2

3

3((27))

1

Thus, the approximate value of

3

(25) is given by

$$3 + (-0.074) = 2.926$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

215

Example 23 Find the approximate value of $f(3.02)$, where $f(x) = 3x^2 + 5x + 3$.

Solution Let $x = 3$ and $x = 0.02$. Then



$$f(3.02) = f(x + x) = 3(x + x)^2 + 5(x + x) + 3$$



Note that $y = f(x + x) - f(x)$. Therefore



$$f(x + x) = f(x) + y$$



$$f(x) + f(x)x$$

(as $dx = x$)



or

$$f(3.02)$$

$$(3x^2 + 5x + 3) + (6x + 5)x$$



$$= (3(3)^2 + 5(3) + 3) + (6(3) + 5)(0.02) \text{ (as } x = 3, x = 0.02)$$



$$= (27 + 15 + 3) + (18 + 5)(0.02)$$

$$= 45 + 0.46 = 45.46$$

Hence, approximate value of $f(3.02)$ is 45.46.

Example 24 Find the approximate change in the volume V of a cube of side x meters

caused by increasing the side by 2%.

Solution Note that

$$V = x^3$$

V

d



or

$$dV =$$

$$= (3x^2) dx$$

$$\approx 3x^2 dx$$



$$dx = 0.02x$$



$$= (3x^2)(0.02x) = 0.06x^3 \text{ m}^3$$

(as 2% of x is $0.02 x$)

Thus, the approximate change in volume is $0.06 x^3 \text{ m}^3$.

Example 25 If the radius of a sphere is measured as 9 cm with an error of 0.03 cm,

then find the approximate error in calculating its volume.

Solution Let r be the radius of the sphere and Δr be the error in measuring the radius.



Then $r = 9 \text{ cm}$ and $\Delta r = 0.03 \text{ cm}$. Now, the volume V of the sphere is given by



$V =$

$\frac{4}{3}$

πr^3

or



$\frac{dV}{dr} =$

$4\pi r^2$

or

$\Delta V \approx$

$4\pi r^2 \Delta r$

dr



V

d



2

Therefore

$dV =$

r



$(4\pi r) r$



dr



$$= 4 (9)^2 (0.03) = 9.72 \text{ cm}^3$$

✠

✠

Thus, the approximate error in calculating the volume is 9.72 cm³.

✠

216

MATHEMATICS

EXERCISE 6.4

1. Using differentials, find the approximate value of each of the following up to 3

places of decimal.

(i)

25.3

(ii)

49.5

(iii)

0.6

1

1

1

(iv)

3

(0.009)

(v)

10

(0.999)

(vi)

4

(15)

1

1

1

(vii)

3

(26)

(viii)

4

(255)

(ix)

4

(82)

1

1

1

(x)

2

(401)

(xi)

2

(0.0037)

(xii)

3

(26.57)

1

3

1

(xiii)

4

(81.5)

(xiv)

2

(3.968)

(xv)

5

(32.15)

2. Find the approximate value of $f(2.01)$, where $f(x) = 4x^2 + 5x + 2$.

3. Find the approximate value of $f(5.001)$, where $f(x) = x^3 - 7x^2 + 15$.

4. Find the approximate change in the volume V of a cube of side x metres caused

by increasing the side by 1%.

5. Find the approximate change in the surface area of a cube of side x metres

caused by decreasing the side by 1%.

6. If the radius of a sphere is measured as 7 m with an error of 0.02 m, then find the

approximate error in calculating its volume.

7. If the radius of a sphere is measured as 9 m with an error of 0.03 m, then find the

approximate error in calculating its surface area.

8. If $f(x) = 3x^2 + 15x + 5$, then the approximate value of $f(3.02)$ is (A) 47.66

(B) 57.66

(C) 67.66

(D) 77.66

9. The approximate change in the volume of a cube of side x metres caused by

increasing the side by 3% is

(A) $0.06 x^3 \text{ m}^3$

(B) $0.6 x^3 \text{ m}^3$ (C) $0.09 x^3 \text{ m}^3$ (D) $0.9 x^3 \text{ m}^3$

6.6 Maxima and Minima

In this section, we will use the concept of derivatives to calculate the maximum or

minimum values of various functions. In fact, we will find the ‘turning points’ of the

graph of a function and thus find points at which the graph reaches its highest (or

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

217

lowest) *locally*. The knowledge of such points is very useful in sketching the graph of

a given function. Further, we will also find the absolute maximum and absolute minimum

of a function that are necessary for the solution of many applied problems.

Let us consider the following problems that arise in day to day life.

(i) The profit from a grove of orange trees is given by $P(x) = ax + bx^2$, where a, b are constants and x is the number of orange trees per acre. How many trees per

acre will maximise the profit?

(ii) A ball, thrown into the air from a building 60 metres high, travels along a path

2

x

given by $h(x)$

60

, where x is the horizontal distance from the building

↪

$x \leq 60$

and $h(x)$ is the height of the ball. What is the maximum height the ball will reach?

(iii) An Apache helicopter of enemy is flying along the path given by the curve

$f(x) = x^2 + 7$. A soldier, placed at the point $(1, 2)$, wants to shoot the helicopter when it is nearest to him. What is the nearest distance?

In each of the above problem, there is something common, i.e., we wish to find out

the maximum or minimum values of the given functions. In order to tackle such problems,

we first formally define maximum or minimum values of a function, points of local

maxima and minima and test for determining such points.

Definition 3 Let f be a function defined on an interval I . Then

(a) f is said to have a *maximum value* in I , if there exists a point c in I such that $f(c)$

, for all $x \in I$.



$f(x)$



The number $f(c)$ is called the maximum value of f in I and the point c is called a *point of maximum value* of f in I .

(b) f is said to have a minimum value in I , if there exists a point c in I such that $f(c) \leq f(x)$, for all $x \in I$.



The number $f(c)$, in this case, is called the minimum value of f in I and the point c , in this case, is called a *point of minimum value* of f in I .

(c) f is said to have an extreme value in I if there exists a point c in I such that $f(c)$ is either a maximum value or a minimum value of f in I .

The number $f(c)$, in this case, is called an *extreme value* of f in I and the point c is called an *extreme point*.

Remark In Fig 6.9(a), (b) and (c), we have exhibited that graphs of certain particular functions help us to find maximum value and minimum value at a point. Infact, through

graphs, we can even find maximum/minimum value of a function at a point at which it

is not even differentiable (Example 27).

218

MATHEMATICS

Fig 6.9

Example 26 Find the maximum and the minimum values, if any, of the function f given by

$$f(x) = x^2, x \in \mathbf{R}.$$



Solution From the graph of the given function (Fig 6.10), we have $f(x) = 0$ if $x = 0$. Also

$$f(x)$$

> 0 , for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$.



Therefore, the minimum value of f is 0 and the point of minimum value of f is $x = 0$. Further, it may be observed

from the graph of the function that f has no maximum value and hence no point of maximum value of f in \mathbf{R} .

Fig 6.10

Note If we restrict the domain of f to $[-2, 1]$ only, then f will have maximum value $(-2)^2 = 4$ at $x = -2$.

Example 27 Find the maximum and minimum values of f , if any, of the function given by $f(x) = |x|$, $x \in \mathbf{R}$.



Solution From the graph of the given function

(Fig 6.11), note that

$f(x) \geq 0$, for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$ and $f(x) = 0$ if $x = 0$.



Therefore, the function f has a minimum value 0 and the point of minimum value of f is $x = 0$. Also, the graph clearly shows that f has no maximum value in \mathbf{R} and hence no point of maximum value in \mathbf{R} .

Fig 6.11

Note

(i) If we restrict the domain of f to $[-2, 1]$ only, then f will have maximum value

$$|-2| = 2.$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

219

(ii) One may note that the function f in Example 27 is not differentiable at $x = 0$.

Example 28 Find the maximum and the minimum values, if any, of the function

given by

$$f(x) = x, x \in (0, 1).$$



Solution The given function is an increasing (strictly) function in the given interval

$(0, 1)$. From the graph (Fig 6.12) of the function f , it seems that, it should have the minimum value at a point closest to 0 on its right and the maximum value at a point closest to 1 on its left. Are such points available? Of course, not. It is not possible to locate such points. Infact, if a point x is closest to 0, then

0

$x > 0$

we find

$x > 0$ for all x

. Also, if x is



$(0, 1)$

2

0

1

$x \approx 1$

closest to 1, then 1

for all x

.



$(0, 1)$



$x < 1$

2

1

Fig 6.12

Therefore, the given function has neither the maximum value nor the minimum

value in the interval $(0,1)$.

Remark The reader may observe that in Example 28, if we include the points 0 and 1

in the domain of f , i.e., if we extend the domain of f to $[0,1]$, then the function f has minimum value 0 at $x = 0$ and maximum value 1 at $x = 1$. Infact, we have the following

results (The proof of these results are beyond the scope of the present text)

Every monotonic function assumes its maximum/minimum value at the end points of the domain of definition of the function.

A more general result is

Every continuous function on a closed interval has a maximum and a minimum

value.

Note By a monotonic function f in an interval I , we mean that f is either

†

increasing in I or decreasing in I .

Maximum and minimum values of a function defined on a closed interval will be

discussed later in this section.

Let us now examine the graph of a function as shown in Fig 6.13. Observe that at

points A, B, C and D on the graph, the function changes its nature from decreasing to

increasing or vice-versa. These points may be called *turning points* of the given

function. Further, observe that at turning points, the graph has either a little hill or a little

valley. Roughly speaking, the function has minimum value in some neighbourhood

(interval) of each of the points A and C which are at the bottom of their respective

220

MATHEMATICS

Fig 6.13

valleys. Similarly, the function has maximum value in some neighbourhood of points B

and D which are at the top of their respective hills. For this reason, the points A and C

may be regarded as points of *local minimum value* (or *relative minimum value*) and

points B and D may be regarded as points of *local maximum value* (or *relative maximum*

value) for the function. The *local maximum value* and *local minimum value* of the function are referred to as *local maxima* and *local minima*, respectively, of the function.

We now formally give the following definition

Definition 4 Let f be a real valued function and let c be an interior point in the domain of f . Then

(a) c is called a point of *local maxima* if there is an $h > 0$ such that

$$f(c) \geq f(x), \text{ for all } x \text{ in } (c - h, c + h)$$

†

The value $f(c)$ is called the *local maximum value* of f .

(b) c is called a point of *local minima* if there is an $h > 0$ such that

$$f(c) \leq f(x), \text{ for all } x \text{ in } (c - h, c + h)$$

†

The value $f(c)$ is called the *local minimum value* of f .

Geometrically, the above definition states that if $x = c$ is a point of local maxima of f , then the graph of f around c will be as shown in Fig 6.14(a). Note that the function f is increasing (i.e., $f'(x) > 0$) in the interval $(c - h, c)$ and decreasing (i.e., $f'(x) < 0$) in the

∞

∞

interval $(c, c + h)$.

This suggests that $f'(c)$ must be zero.

∞

Fig 6.14

Similarly, if c is a point of local minima of f , then the graph of f around c will be as shown in Fig 6.14(b). Here f is decreasing (i.e., $f'(x) < 0$) in the interval $(c - h, c)$ and

✂

increasing (i.e., $f'(x) > 0$) in the interval $(c, c + h)$. This again suggest that $f'(c)$ must

✂

✂

be zero.

The above discussion lead us to the following theorem (without proof).

Theorem 2 Let f be a function defined on an open interval I . Suppose $c \in I$ be any

☎

point. If f has a local maxima or a local minima at $x = c$, then either $f'(c) = 0$ or f is not

✂

differentiable at c .

Remark The converse of above theorem need not be true, that is, a point at which the derivative vanishes need not be a point of local maxima or

local minima. For example, if $f(x) = x^3$, then $f'(x)$

∞

$= 3x^2$ and so $f'(0) = 0$. But 0 is neither a point of

∞

local maxima nor a point of local minima (Fig 6.15).

Note A point c in the domain of a function

f at which either $f'(c) = 0$ or f is not differentiable

∞

is called a *critical point* of f . Note that if f is

continuous at c and $f'(c) = 0$, then there exists

∞

an $h > 0$ such that f is differentiable in the interval

Fig 6.15

$(c - h, c + h)$.

We shall now give a working rule for finding points of local maxima or points of

local minima using only the first order derivatives.

Theorem 3 (First Derivative Test) Let f be a function defined on an open interval I .

Let f be continuous at a critical point c in I . Then

(i) If $f(x)$ changes sign from positive to negative as x increases through c , i.e., if

✂

$f(x) > 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the left of c , and $f(x) < 0$ at

✂

✂

every point sufficiently close to and to the right of c , then c is a point of *local maxima*.

(ii) If $f(x)$ changes sign from negative to positive as x increases through c , i.e., if

✂

$f(x) < 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the left of c , and $f(x) > 0$ at

✂

✂

every point sufficiently close to and to the right of c , then c is a point of *local minima*.

(iii) If $f(x)$ does not change sign as x increases through c , then c is neither a point of

✂

local maxima nor a point of local minima. Infact, such a point is called *point of*

inflection (Fig 6.15).

MATHEMATICS

Note If c is a point of local maxima of f , then $f(c)$ is a local maximum value of f . Similarly, if c is a point of local minima of f , then $f(c)$ is a local minimum value of f .

Figures 6.15 and 6.16, geometrically explain Theorem 3.

Fig 6.16

Example 29 Find all points of local maxima and local minima of the function f

given by

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 3.$$

Solution We have

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 3$$

or

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 3 = 3(x - 1)(x + 1)$$

∞

or

$$f'(x) = 0 \text{ at } x = 1 \text{ and } x = -1$$

∞

Thus, $x = \pm 1$ are the only critical points which could possibly be the points of local

maxima and/or local minima of f . Let us first examine the point $x = 1$.

Note that for values close to 1 and to the right of 1, $f(x) > 0$ and for values close

✂

to 1 and to the left of 1, $f(x) < 0$. Therefore, by first derivative test, $x = 1$ is a point

✂

of local minima and local minimum value is $f(1) = 1$. In the case of $x = -1$, note that $f(x) > 0$, for values close to and to the left of -1 and $f(x) < 0$, for values close to and

✂

✂

to the right of -1 . Therefore, by first derivative test, $x = -1$ is a point of local maxima

and local maximum value is $f(-1) = 5$.

Values of x

Sign of $f(x) = 3(x - 1)(x + 1)$

✂

to the right (say 1.1 etc.)

> 0

Close to 1 to the left (say 0.9 etc.)

< 0

to the right (say ≈ 0.9 etc.)



0

Close to -1 to the left (say ≈ 1.1 etc.)



0

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

223

Example 30 Find all the points of local maxima and local minima of the function f

given by

$$f(x) = 2x^3 - 6x^2 + 6x + 5.$$

Solution We have

$$f(x) = 2x^3 - 6x^2 + 6x + 5$$

or

$$f(x) = 6x^2 - 12x + 6 = 6(x - 1)^2$$

✂

or

$$f(x) = 0 \text{ at } x = 1$$

✂

Thus, $x = 1$ is the only critical point of f . We shall now examine this point for local maxima and/or local minima of f . Observe that $f(x) \geq 0$, for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$ and in particular

✂

†

☎

$f(x) > 0$, for values close to 1 and to the left and to the right of 1. Therefore, by first

✂

derivative test, the point $x = 1$ is neither a point of local maxima nor a point of local

minima. Hence $x = 1$ is a point of inflexion.

Remark One may note that since $f(x)$, in Example 30, never changes its sign on \mathbf{R} ,

✂

graph of f has no turning points and hence no point of local maxima or local minima.

We shall now give another test to examine local maxima and local minima of a

given function. This test is often easier to apply than the first derivative test.

Theorem 4 (Second Derivative Test) Let f be a function defined on an interval I and $c \in I$. Let f be twice differentiable at c . Then



(i) $x = c$ is a point of local maxima if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) < 0$



The value $f(c)$ is local maximum value of f .

(ii) $x = c$ is a point of local minima if f'

and $f''(c) > 0$



(c)

0

In this case, $f(c)$ is local minimum value of f .

(iii) The test fails if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) = 0$.



In this case, we go back to the first derivative test and find whether c is a point of

local maxima, local minima or a point of inflexion.

Note As f is twice differentiable at c , we mean



second order derivative of f exists at c .

Example 31 Find local minimum value of the function f

given by $f(x) = 3 + |x|$, $x \in \mathbf{R}$.



Solution Note that the given function is not differentiable

at $x = 0$. So, second derivative test fails. Let us try first

derivative test. Note that 0 is a critical point of f . Now

to the left of 0, $f(x) = 3 - x$ and so $f'(x) = -1 < 0$. Also **Fig 6.17**



224

MATHEMATICS

to the right of 0, $f(x) = 3 + x$ and so $f'(x) = 1 > 0$. Therefore, by first derivative test,



$x = 0$ is a point of local minima of f and local minimum value of f is $f(0) = 3$.

Example 32 Find local maximum and local minimum values of the function f given by

$$f(x) = 3x^4 + 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 12$$

Solution We have

$$f(x) = 3x^4 + 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 12$$

or

$$f(x) = 12x^3 + 12x^2 - 24x = 12x(x-1)(x+2)$$

✂

or

$$f(x) = 0 \text{ at } x = 0, x = 1 \text{ and } x = -2.$$

✂

Now

$$f(x) = 36x^2 + 24x - 24 = 12(3x^2 + 2x - 1)$$

✂

$$f(0)$$

$$\text{✂ } 12 \text{ ✂}$$

☎

☎

⓪

0

†

or

$f''(0)$

†

(1)

$48 > 0$

†

$f''(-2)$

$84 > 0$

⊗

Therefore, by second derivative test, $x = 0$ is a point of local maxima and local

maximum value of f at $x = 0$ is $f(0) = 12$ while $x = 1$ and $x = -2$ are the points of local minima and local minimum values of f at $x = -1$ and -2 are $f(1) = 7$ and $f(-2) = -20$, respectively.

Example 33 Find all the points of local maxima and local minima of the function f

given by

$$f(x) = 2x^3 - 6x^2 + 6x + 5.$$

Solution We have

$$f(x) = 2x^3 - 6x^2 + 6x + 5$$

2

2



$$f'(x) = 6x^2 + 12x + 6 = 6(x^2 + 2x + 1)$$



1)

or



$$f''(x) = 12(x + 1)$$



1)



Now $f'(x) = 0$ gives $x = -1$. Also $f''(-1) = 0$. Therefore, the second derivative test



fails in this case. So, we shall go back to the first derivative test.

We have already seen (Example 30) that, using first derivative test, $x = 1$ is neither

a point of local maxima nor a point of local minima and so it is a point of inflexion.

Example 34 Find two positive numbers whose sum is 15 and the sum of whose

squares is minimum.

Solution Let one of the numbers be x . Then the other number is $(15 - x)$. Let $S(x)$ denote the sum of the squares of these numbers. Then

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

225

$$S(x) = x^2 + (15 - x)^2 = 2x^2 - 30x + 225$$

$$S'(x) = 4x - 30$$



30

or

$$S''(x) = 4$$



15



15

Now $S(x) = 0$ gives x

. Also S



. Therefore, by second derivative



4  0



2



2 



15

test, x

is the point of local minima of S. Hence the sum of squares of numbers is

+

2

15

15

15

minimum when the numbers are

and 15

.

⇒

+

2

2

2

Remark Proceeding as in Example 34 one may prove that the two positive numbers,

k

k

whose sum is k and the sum of whose squares is minimum, are

and

2

2

Example 35 Find the shortest distance of the point $(0, c)$ from the parabola $y = x^2$, where $0 < c < 5$.



Solution Let (h, k) be any point on the parabola $y = x^2$. Let D be the required distance between (h, k) and $(0, c)$. Then

2

2

2

2

D

... (1)



$$(h - 0)^2 + (k - c)^2 = D^2$$

$$h^2 + (k - c)^2 = D^2$$

Since (h, k) lies on the parabola $y = x^2$, we have $k = h^2$. So (1) gives $D^2 = h^2 + (h^2 - c)^2$

2

$$k \times (k \checkmark c)$$

×

$$1 \times 2(k \times c)$$

or

$$D(k) =$$

+

2

$$2k \times (k \times c)$$

$$2c1$$

Now

$$D(k) = 0 \text{ gives } k$$

⇒

+

+

2

$$2c1$$

Observe that when k

⇒

, then $2(k$

, i.e., D

. Also when

$\div (k) \div 0$

\div

\times

c) $\times 10$

\div

2

$2c1$

$2c1$

k

\Rightarrow

, then D

. So, by first derivative test, $D(k)$ is minimum at k

\Rightarrow

.

$\div (k)$

\div

0



2



2

Hence, the required shortest distance is given by

226

MATHEMATICS

2



$2c - 1$

$2c - 1$



$4c - 1$

D



c



2



2



2



2

Note The reader may note that in Example 35, we have used first derivative



test instead of the second derivative test as the former is easy and short.

Example 36 Let AP and BQ be two vertical poles at points A and B, respectively. If AP = 16 m, BQ = 22 m and AB = 20 m, then find the distance of a point R on AB from the point A such that $RP^2 + RQ^2$ is minimum.

Solution Let R be a point on AB such that AR = x m.

Then RB = $(20 - x)$ m (as AB = 20 m). From Fig 6.18, we have

$$RP^2 = AR^2 + AP^2$$

and

$$RQ^2 = RB^2 + BQ^2$$

Fig 6.18

Therefore

$$RP^2 + RQ^2 = AR^2 + AP^2 + RB^2 + BQ^2$$

$$= x^2 + (16)^2 + (20 - x)^2 + (22)^2$$

$$= 2x^2 - 40x + 1140$$

Let

$$S(x) = RP^2 + RQ^2 = 2x^2 - 40x + 1140.$$



Therefore

$$S(x) = 4x - 40.$$



Now $S(x) = 0$ gives $x = 10$. Also $S''(x) = 4 > 0$, for all x and so $S(10) > 0$.



Therefore, by second derivative test, $x = 10$ is the point of local minima of S . Thus, the

distance of R from A on AB is $AR = x = 10$ m.

Example 37 If length of three sides of a trapezium other than base are equal to 10cm,

then find the area of the trapezium when it is maximum.

Solution The required trapezium is as given in Fig 6.19. Draw perpendiculars DP and

Fig 6.19

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

227

CQ on AB . Let $AP = x$ cm. Note that $APD \sim BQC$. Therefore, $QB = x$ cm. Also, by



Pythagoras theorem, $DP = QC =$

2

100

x . Let A be the area of the trapezium. Then

1

$A(x) =$

(sum of parallel sides) (height)



2

1

2



$(2x + 10 + 10)$

$100 \cdot x$



2



2

$(x + 10)$

100 † x



†

(↩️ 2 x)

2

or

A (x) = (x



10)



100

x



2

2 100 ↩️ x

2

$2x$



$10x = 100$

=

2

$100 = x$

Now

$A(x) = 0$ gives $2x^2 + 10x - 100 = 0$, i.e., $x = 5$ and $x = -10$.



Since x represents distance, it can not be negative.

So,

$x = 5$. Now

2

2

$(\sqrt{2x})$

100



$x(\sqrt{4x + 10}) = (\sqrt{2x + 10x + 100})$

2

$2 \sqrt{100x}$

$A(x) =$



2

$100 \sqrt{x}$

3

$2x \times 300x \times 1000$

=

(on simplification)

3

2 2

$(100 \times x)$

3

$2(5) \times 300(5) \times 1000$

×

2250

× 30

or

$$A(5) =$$

×

×

×

0

→

3

75 75

75

2 2

$$(100 \times (5))$$

Thus, area of trapezium is maximum at $x = 5$ and the area is given by

$$A(5) =$$

2

2

$$(5 \times 10) + (5) + 15 + 75 + 75 + 3 \text{ cm}$$

Example 38 Prove that the radius of the right circular cylinder of greatest curved

surface area which can be inscribed in a given cone is half of that of the cone.

Solution Let $OC = r$ be the radius of the cone and $OA = h$ be its height. Let a cylinder with radius $OE = x$ inscribed in the given cone (Fig 6.20). The height QE of the cylinder

is given by

228

MATHEMATICS

QE

EC

=

(since $QEC \sim AOC$)

OA

OC



QE

r

x

or

=

h

r

$h(r$

$x)$

or

QE =

r

Let S be the curved surface area of the given

cylinder. Then

2

$2h$

$\approx xh(r$



$x)$



2

$SS(x) =$



$(rx \approx x)$



r

r

Fig 6.20

2 ✂



h

S \mathcal{O} (*x*) †

(*r* † 2 *x*)



r

or



4 *h*

$S(x)$



r

r

r



r

Now $S(x) = 0$ gives x

. Since $S(x) < 0$ for all x , S



. So x

is a



0



2



$2 \times$

2



point of maxima of S . Hence, the radius of the cylinder of greatest curved surface area

which can be inscribed in a given cone is half of that of the cone.

6.6.1 Maximum and Minimum Values of a Function in a Closed Interval

Let us consider a function f given by

$$f(x) = x + 2, x \in (0, 1)$$

✘

Observe that the function is continuous on $(0, 1)$ and neither has a maximum value

nor has a minimum value. Further, we may note that the function even has neither a

local maximum value nor a local minimum value.

However, if we extend the domain of f to the closed interval $[0, 1]$, then f still may not have a local maximum (minimum) values but it certainly does have maximum value

$3 = f(1)$ and minimum value $2 = f(0)$. The maximum value 3 of f at $x = 1$ is called *absolute maximum* value (*global maximum* or *greatest value*) of f on the interval

$[0, 1]$. Similarly, the minimum value 2 of f at $x = 0$ is called the *absolute minimum* value (*global minimum* or *least value*) of f on $[0, 1]$.

Consider the graph given in Fig 6.21 of a continuous function defined on a closed

interval $[a, d]$. Observe that the function f has a local minima at $x = b$ and local

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

229

Fig 6.21

minimum value is $f(b)$. The function also has a local maxima at $x = c$ and local maximum value is $f(c)$.

Also from the graph, it is evident that f has absolute maximum value $f(a)$ and absolute minimum value $f(d)$. Further note that the absolute maximum (minimum)

value of f is different from local maximum (minimum) value of f .

We will now state two results (without proof) regarding absolute maximum and

absolute minimum values of a function on a closed interval I .

Theorem 5 Let f be a continuous function on an interval $I = [a, b]$. Then f has the absolute maximum value and f attains it at least once in I . Also, f has the absolute minimum value and attains it at least once in I .

Theorem 6 Let f be a differentiable function on a closed interval I and let c be any interior point of I . Then

(i) $f'(c) = 0$ if f attains its absolute maximum value at c .

∞

(ii) $f'(c) = 0$ if f attains its absolute minimum value at c .

∞

In view of the above results, we have the following working rule for finding absolute

maximum and/or absolute minimum values of a function in a given closed interval

$[a, b]$.

Working Rule

Step 1: Find all critical points of f in the interval, i.e., find points x where either f

or f is not differentiable.



(x)

0

Step 2: Take the end points of the interval.

Step 3: At all these points (listed in Step 1 and 2), calculate the values of f .

Step 4: Identify the maximum and minimum values of f out of the values calculated in Step 3. This maximum value will be the absolute maximum (greatest) value of

f and the minimum value will be the absolute minimum (least) value of f .

230

MATHEMATICS

Example 39 Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of a function f given by

$f(x) = 2x^3 - 15x^2 + 36x + 1$ on the interval $[1, 5]$.

Solution We have

$$f(x) = 2x^3 - 15x^2 + 36x + 1$$

or

$$f(x) = 6x^2 - 30x + 36 = 6(x - 3)(x - 2)$$



Note that $f'(x) = 0$ gives $x = 2$ and $x = 3$.

∞

We shall now evaluate the value of f at these points and at the end points of the

interval $[1, 5]$, i.e., at $x = 1$, $x = 2$, $x = 3$ and at $x = 5$. So

$$f(1) = 2(1^3) - 15(1^2) + 36(1) + 1 = 24$$

$$f(2) = 2(2^3) - 15(2^2) + 36(2) + 1 = 29$$

$$f(3) = 2(3^3) - 15(3^2) + 36(3) + 1 = 28$$

$$f(5) = 2(5^3) - 15(5^2) + 36(5) + 1 = 56$$

Thus, we conclude that absolute maximum value of f on $[1, 5]$ is 56, occurring at

$x = 5$, and absolute minimum value of f on $[1, 5]$ is 24 which occurs at $x = 1$.

Example 40 Find absolute maximum and minimum values of a function f given by

4

1

3

3

$$f(x) = 12x^3 - 6x^2, x \in [1$$

∞

, 1]

Solution We have

4

1

$$f(x) =$$

3

3

$$12x + 6x$$

1

2

$$2(8x + 1)$$

or

$$f(x) =$$

3

$$16x + 2$$

+

✂

2

2

3

3

x

x

1

Thus, $f(x) = 0$ gives x

. Further note that $f(x)$ is not defined at $x = 0$. So the

†

✂

✂

8

1

critical points are $x = 0$ and x

. Now evaluating the value of f at critical points

†

8

1

$x = 0$, and at end points of the interval $x = -1$ and $x = 1$, we have

8

4

1

$$f(-1) =$$

3

3

12(1

✂

) ✂ 6(1

✂

)

18

$$f(0) = 12(0) - 6(0) = 0$$

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

231

4

1

1

13

13



9

f



= 12



6



8 ✂



8 🖱



8 🖱



4



4

1

$f(1) =$

3

3

12(1) 🖱 6(1) 🖱 6

Hence, we conclude that absolute maximum value of f is 18 that occurs at $x = -1$

1

⇒ 9

and absolute minimum value of f is

that occurs at x

.



4

8

Example 41 An Apache helicopter of enemy is flying along the curve given by

$y = x^2 + 7$. A soldier, placed at $(3, 7)$, wants to shoot down the helicopter when it is nearest to him. Find the nearest distance.

Solution For each value of x , the helicopter's position is at point $(x, x^2 + 7)$.

Therefore, the distance between the helicopter and the soldier placed at $(3, 7)$ is

2

2

2

$(x$

, i.e.,

2

4

$(x$

.



3) ✓ x



3) ✓ $(x \checkmark 7 \rightleftharpoons 7)$

Let

$$f(x) = (x - 3)^2 + x^4$$

or

$$f(x) = 2(x - 3) + 4x^3 = 2(x - 1)(2x^2 + 2x + 3)$$



Thus, $f(x) = 0$ gives $x = 1$ or $2x^2 + 2x + 3 = 0$ for which there are no real roots.



Also, there are no end points of the interval to be added to the set for which f is zero,



i.e., there is only one point, namely, $x = 1$. The value of f at this point is given by $f(1) = (1 - 3)^2 + (1)^4 = 5$. Thus, the distance between the solidier and the helicopter is

$$f(1)$$

.



5

Note that 5 is either a maximum value or a minimum value. Since

$$f(0) =$$

2

4

(0

,



$$3) \checkmark (0) \times 3 \times 5$$

it follows that 5 is the minimum value of $f(x)$. Hence, 5 is the minimum distance between the soldier and the helicopter.

EXERCISE 6.5

1. Find the maximum and minimum values, if any, of the following functions

given by

$$(i) f(x) = (2x - 1)^2 + 3$$

$$(ii) f(x) = 9x^2 + 12x + 2$$

$$(iii) f(x) = -(x - 1)^2 + 10$$

$$(iv) g(x) = x^3 + 1$$

232

MATHEMATICS

2. Find the maximum and minimum values, if any, of the following functions

given by

(i) $f(x) = |x + 2| - 1$

(ii) $g(x) = -|x + 1| + 3$

(iii) $h(x) = \sin(2x) + 5$

(iv) $f(x) = |\sin 4x + 3|$

(v) $h(x) = x + 1, x \in (-1, 1)$



3. Find the local maxima and local minima, if any, of the following functions. Find

also the local maximum and the local minimum values, as the case may be:

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

(ii) $g(x) = x^3 - 3x$

(iii) $h(x) = \sin x + \cos x, 0 \leq x \leq 2$

(iv) $f(x) = \sin x - \cos x, 0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$

x

2

(v) $f(x) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x + 15$

(vi) $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}$



, $x \neq 0$

2

x

1

(vii) $g(x)$

(viii) $f(x)$

☆

☛

†

$x \neq 1$

x, x

0

†

2

$x \neq 2$

4. Prove that the following functions do not have maxima or minima:

(i) $f(x) = ex$

(ii) $g(x) = \log x$

(iii) $h(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$

5. Find the absolute maximum value and the absolute minimum value of the following

functions in the given intervals:

(i) $f(x) = x^3, x \in [-2, 2]$

(ii) $f(x) = \sin x + \cos x, x \in [0, \pi]$



1

9

(iii) $f(x) =$

2

4x

x, x



2,  (iv)

2

$f(x)$



$(x - 1) \in [3, x[$



$3, 1]$



2



2



6. Find the maximum profit that a company can make, if the profit function is

given by

$$p(x) = 41 - 24x - 18x^2$$

7. Find both the maximum value and the minimum value of

$3x^4 - 8x^3 + 12x^2 - 48x + 25$ on the interval $[0, 3]$.

8. At what points in the interval $[0, 2]$, does the function $\sin 2x$ attain its maximum



value?

9. What is the maximum value of the function $\sin x + \cos x$?

10. Find the maximum value of $2x^3 - 24x + 107$ in the interval $[1, 3]$.

Find the maximum value of the same function in $[-3, -1]$.

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

233

11. It is given that at $x = 1$, the function $x^4 - 62x^2 + ax + 9$ attains its maximum value, on the interval $[0, 2]$. Find the value of a .

12. Find the maximum and minimum values of $x + \sin 2x$ on $[0, 2]$.



13. Find two numbers whose sum is 24 and whose product is as large as possible.

14. Find two positive numbers x and y such that $x + y = 60$ and xy^3 is maximum.

15. Find two positive numbers x and y such that their sum is 35 and the product x^2y^5

is a maximum.

16. Find two positive numbers whose sum is 16 and the sum of whose cubes is

minimum.

17. A square piece of tin of side 18 cm is to be made into a box without top, by

cutting a square from each corner and folding up the flaps to form the box. What

should be the side of the square to be cut off so that the volume of the box is the

maximum possible.

18. A rectangular sheet of tin 45 cm by 24 cm is to be made into a box without top,

by cutting off square from each corner and folding up the flaps. What should be

the side of the square to be cut off so that the volume of the box is maximum ?

19. Show that of all the rectangles inscribed in a given fixed circle, the square has

the maximum area.

20. Show that the right circular cylinder of given surface and maximum volume is

such that its height is equal to the diameter of the base.

21. Of all the closed cylindrical cans (right circular), of a given volume of 100 cubic

centimetres, find the dimensions of the can which has the minimum surface

area?

22. A wire of length 28 m is to be cut into two pieces. One of the pieces is to be

made into a square and the other into a circle. What should be the length of the

two pieces so that the combined area of the square and the circle is minimum?

23. Prove that the volume of the largest cone that can be inscribed in a sphere of

8

radius R is

of the volume of the sphere.

27

24. Show that the right circular cone of least curved surface and given volume has

an altitude equal to 2 time the radius of the base.

25. Show that the semi-vertical angle of the cone of the maximum volume and of

given slant height is

1

\tan

2 .

26. Show that semi-vertical angle of right circular cone of given surface area and

maximum volume is

$$1 \times$$



$$1$$

sin

.



$$3+$$



234

MATHEMATICS

Choose the correct answer in the Exercises 27 and 29.

27. The point on the curve $x^2 = 2y$ which is nearest to the point (0, 5) is

(A) (2, 2, 4)

(B) (2, 2, 0)

(C) (0, 0)

(D) (2, 2)

2

$1 - x^2 - x$

28. For all real values of x , the minimum value of

is

2

$1 - x^2 - x$

1

(A) 0

(B) 1

(C) 3

(D) 3

1

29. The maximum value of

3

$[x(x$

, 0

is



$x \text{ } \text{Ⓢ} \text{ } 1$



1) $\text{Ⓢ} \text{ } 1]$

1

1



1 3

(A)



(B)

(C) 1

(D) 0



3†

2



Miscellaneous Examples

Example 42 A car starts from a point P at time $t = 0$ seconds and stops at point Q. The

distance x , in metres, covered by it, in t seconds is given by

$$2$$

$$t$$

$$x$$

$$t^2$$



$$3$$



Find the time taken by it to reach Q and also find distance between P and Q.

Solution Let v be the velocity of the car at t seconds.

$$t$$

Now

$$x = 2$$

$$t^2 - 2$$



$$3 \Rightarrow$$



$$dx$$

Therefore

$$v =$$

$$= 4t - t^2 = t(4 - t)$$

$$dt$$

Thus, $v = 0$ gives $t = 0$ and/or $t = 4$.

Now $v = 0$ at P as well as at Q and at P, $t = 0$. So, at Q, $t = 4$. Thus, the car will reach the point Q after 4 seconds. Also the distance travelled in 4 seconds is given by

$$2 \checkmark$$

$$4 \checkmark$$



$$2 \checkmark$$

$$32$$

$x]$

$= 4$

2

\times

16

\times

m

$t = 4$

\times

$3 \times$

\times

$3 \times$

\times

\oplus

\times

\oplus

3

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

235

Example 43 A water tank has the shape of an inverted right circular cone with its axis

vertical and vertex lowermost. Its semi-vertical angle is $\tan^{-1}(0.5)$. Water is poured

into it at a constant rate of 5 cubic metre per hour. Find the rate at which the level of

the water is rising at the instant when the depth of water in the tank is 4 m.

r

Solution Let r , h and be as in Fig 6.22. Then \tan



.



h



≈ 1

r

So

= \tan

.



$h \dagger$



But

$$= \tan^{-1}(0.5) \text{ (given)}$$



r

or

$$= 0.5$$

h

h

or

$$r = 2$$

Let V be the volume of the cone. Then

Fig 6.22

3

1

2

1

h

h

V =

r h

h



3

3 🙌 2 📝



12

V

d

3

d ⇨ *h* ✓



dh

Therefore



(by Chain Rule)



dt

dh ✕ 12 ✕ *dt*



$2 dh$

=

h

4

dt

dV

Now rate of change of volume, i.e.,

m^3/h and $h = 4$ m.

+

5

dt

+

2

dh

Therefore

5 =

(4) \times

4

dt

dh

5

35

+

22

or

=

+

m/h

dt

4

88

+

7

+

★

☆

35

Thus, the rate of change of water level is

m/h .

88

Example 44 A man of height 2 metres walks at a uniform speed of 5 km/h away from

a lamp post which is 6 metres high. Find the rate at which the length of his shadow

increases.

236

MATHEMATICS

Solution In Fig 6.23, Let AB be the lamp-post, the lamp being at the position B and let MN be the man at a particular time t and let $AM = l$ metres. Then, MS is the shadow of the man. Let $MS = s$ metres.

Note that

$MSN \sim$

ASB



MS

MN

or

=

AS

AB

Fig 6.23

or

AS = 3 s (as MN = 2 and AB = 6 (given))

Thus

AM = 3 s - s = 2 s. But AM = l

So

$l = 2 s$

dl

ds

Therefore

= 2

dt

dt

dl

5

Since

5 km/h. Hence, the length of the shadow increases at the rate

km/h.

dt

2

Example 45 Find the equation of the normal to the curve $x^2 = 4y$ which passes through the point $(1, 2)$.

Solution Differentiating $x^2 = 4y$ with respect to x , we get

$\frac{dy}{dx}$

x

=

$\frac{dx}{dy}$

2

Let (h, k) be the coordinates of the point of contact of the normal to the curve

$x^2 = 4y$. Now, slope of the tangent at (h, k) is given by

$\frac{dy}{dx}$

h

$\frac{dx}{dy}$

$\frac{dx}{dy}$

=

$\frac{dx}{dy}$

2

$\frac{dx}{dy}$

(h, k)

☎ 2

Hence, slope of the normal at $(h, k) = h$

Therefore, the equation of normal at (h, k) is

Ⓒ 2

$$y - k =$$

$(x$

... (1)

Ⓒ

$h)$

h

Since it passes through the point $(1, 2)$, we have

2

2

2

k

☎

or k

2

... (2)

†

$$(1) \quad x - h = k(y - k)$$



$$(1) \quad x - h = k(y - k)$$

h

h

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

237

Since (h, k) lies on the curve $x^2 = 4y$, we have

$$h^2 = 4k$$

... (3)

From (2) and (3), we have $h = 2$ and $k = 1$. Substituting the values of h and k in (1), we get the required equation of normal as

2

$y - 1$

$$\text{or } x + y = 3$$



(x

2)

2

Example 46 Find the equation of tangents to the curve

$$y = \cos(x + y), -2x^2$$



+

+



that are parallel to the line $x + 2y = 0$.

Solution Differentiating $y = \cos(x + y)$ with respect to x , we have dy



$$\sin(x + y)$$

=

dx

$$1 - \sin(x + y)$$



$$\sin(x + y)$$

or

$$\text{slope of tangent at } (x, y) = 1 - \sin(x + y)$$

Since the tangents to the given curve are parallel to the line $x + 2y = 0$, whose slope 1

is

, we have

2

1



$$\sin(x \oplus y)$$

=

1

2



$$\sin(x \oplus y)$$

or

$$\sin(x + y) = 1$$



or

$$x + y = n + (-1)^n$$

, $n \in \mathbf{Z}$



2



$n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Then

$$y = \cos(x + y) = \cos n$$

$n \in \mathbb{Z}$



(1)



,



2



$= 0$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$



3

Also, since

, we get x

Ⓒ

and x

Ⓒ

. Thus, tangents to the

2

✓

$x \sqrt{2}$

✗

✗

2

2

✓

3

given curve are parallel to the line $x + 2y = 0$ only at points

✗

✗

✗

✗

, $0 \star$ and

, $0 \cdot$

\times

\times



2



\oplus

2

\oplus



Therefore, the required equation of tangents are

238

MATHEMATICS

1

3

$$y - 0 =$$

x



or $2x \otimes 4y \otimes 3\star \blacksquare 0$



$2 \textcircled{0}$

$2 \dagger$



1



and

$y - 0 =$

x

or $2x \sqrt{4y} \times \times \times 0$



$2 \Rightarrow$

$2 \Rightarrow$



Example 47 Find intervals in which the function given by

3^4

4^3

2

36

$f(x) =$

$x \times$

$x \times 3x \oplus$

$x \oplus 11$

10

5

5

is (a) strictly increasing (b) strictly decreasing.

Solution We have

3

4

4 3

2

36

$f(x) =$

$x +$

$x + 3x +$

$x + 11$

10

5

5

3

3

4

2

36

Therefore

$f(x) =$

$(4x) \times$

$$(3x) \times 3(2x) \div$$



10

5

5

6

=

(x

(on simplification)



$$1) (x \div 2) (x \times 3)$$

5

Now $f(x) = 0$ gives $x = 1, x = -2$, or $x = 3$. The



points $x = 1, -2$, and 3 divide the real line into four

disjoint intervals namely, $(-, -2), (-2, 1), (1, 3)$

Fig 6.24



and $(3,)$ (Fig 6.24).



Consider the interval $(-3, -2)$, i.e., when $-3 < x < -2$.

+

+

In this case, we have $x - 1 < 0$, $x + 2 < 0$ and $x - 3 < 0$.

(In particular, observe that for $x = -3$, $f(x) = (x - 1)(x + 2)(x - 3) = (-4)(-1)$

+

$(-6) < 0$)

Therefore,

$f(x) < 0$ when $-3 < x < -2$.

+

+

Thus, the function f is strictly decreasing in $(-3, -2)$.

+

Consider the interval $(-2, 1)$, i.e., when $-2 < x < 1$.

In this case, we have $x - 1 < 0$, $x + 2 > 0$ and $x - 3 < 0$

(In particular, observe that for $x = 0$, $f(x) = (x - 1)(x + 2)(x - 3) = (-1)(2)(-3)$

+

$= 6 > 0$)

So

$f(x) > 0$ when $-2 < x < 1$.



Thus,

f is strictly increasing in $(-2, 1)$.

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

239

Now consider the interval $(1, 3)$, i.e., when $1 < x < 3$. In this case, we have

$x - 1 > 0$, $x + 2 > 0$ and $x - 3 < 0$.

So,

$f(x) < 0$ when $1 < x < 3$.



Thus,

f is strictly decreasing in $(1, 3)$.

Finally, consider the interval $(3, \infty)$, i.e., when $x > 3$. In this case, we have $x - 1 > 0$,



$x + 2 > 0$ and $x - 3 > 0$. So $f(x) > 0$ when $x > 3$.



Thus, f is strictly increasing in the interval $(3, \infty)$.



Example 48 Show that the function f given by

$$f(x) = \tan^{-1}(\sin x + \cos x), x > 0$$

is always an strictly increasing function in \mathbb{R}^+ .



40



Solution We have

$$f(x) = \tan^{-1}(\sin x + \cos x), x > 0$$

1

Therefore

$$f'(x) =$$

$$(\cos x - \sin x)$$



2

$$1 - (\sin x + \cos x)$$

$$\cos x - \sin x$$

=

(on simplification)

$$2 \mp \sin 2x$$



Note that $2 + \sin 2x > 0$ for all x in $0,$

.



$$4 \mp$$



Therefore

$$f(x) > 0 \text{ if } \cos x - \sin x > 0$$



or

$$f(x) > 0 \text{ if } \cos x > \sin x \text{ or } \cot x > 1$$



Now

$$\cot x > 1 \text{ if } \tan x < 1, \text{ i.e., if } 0$$

x



4

Thus

$f(x) > 0$ in $\mathbb{R} \setminus 0, \infty$



40



Hence f is strictly increasing function in $0, \infty$



4 



Example 49 A circular disc of radius 3 cm is being heated. Due to expansion, its

radius increases at the rate of 0.05 cm/s. Find the rate at which its area is increasing

when radius is 3.2 cm.

240

MATHEMATICS

Solution Let r be the radius of the given disc and A be its area. Then

$$A = r^2$$



A

d

dr

or

$$= 2r$$

(by Chain Rule)

dt

dt

dr

Now approximate rate of increase of radius = $dr =$

t

cm/s.

✂

✂

0.05

dt

Therefore, the approximate rate of increase in area is given by

A

d

Ⓜ

dr

Ⓞ

$dA =$

(

$= 2r$

+

t



~~t~~)

dt



dt



$$= 2 (3.2) (0.05) = 0.320 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s} \quad (r = 3.2 \text{ cm})$$



Example 50 An open topped box is to be constructed by removing equal squares from

each corner of a 3 metre by 8 metre rectangular sheet of aluminium and folding up the

sides. Find the volume of the largest such box.

Solution Let x metre be the length of a side of the removed squares. Then, the height

of the box is x , length is $8 - 2x$ and breadth is $3 - 2x$ (Fig 6.25). If $V(x)$ is the volume of the box, then

Fig 6.25

$$V(x) = x(3 - 2x)(8 - 2x)$$

$$= 4x^3 - 22x^2 + 24x$$

2



V (



$$x) \quad 12x \quad 44x \quad 24 \quad 4(x - 3)(3x - 2)$$



2)

Therefore



V (



$$x) \quad 24x$$



44



2

Now

$V(x) = 0$ gives x

. But $x \geq 3$ (Why?)



3,



3

2



2 $\text{\textcircled{C}}$



2

Thus, we have x

. Now V

24



.

×

×

×

×

44 × × 28 ÷ 0

✂

3

†

3 †

†

3 †

☆

☞

☆

☞

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

2

2

Therefore, x

is the point of maxima, i.e., if we remove a square of side

3

3

metre from each corner of the sheet and make a box from the remaining sheet, then

the volume of the box such obtained will be the largest and it is given by

3

2



2 †



2 †



2



2

V

= 4

22

24



3 📞



3 🗨️



3 



3 



200

3



m

27



x

Example 51 Manufacturer can sell x items at a price of rupees 5



each. The



100



x

cost price of x items is Rs

500. Find the number of items he should sell to earn



5



maximum profit.

Solution Let $S(x)$ be the selling price of x items and let $C(x)$ be the cost price of x items. Then, we have

2

x

x x

x

S (x) =

5 +

x + 5 x +

+

100 +

+

+

100

x

and

C (x) =

+

500

5

Thus, the profit function P (x) is given by

2

x

x

$$P(x) = S(x) \oplus C(x) \ominus 5x \oplus$$

\oplus

\oplus

500

100

5

2

24

x

i.e.

$$P(x) =$$

$x \ominus$

\ominus

500

5

100

24

x

or

$$P(x) =$$



5

50

☆ 1

☆ 1

Now $P(x) = 0$ gives $x = 240$. Also P

. So $P \otimes$ (



240) ☆



0



$\otimes(x)$



50

50

Thus, $x = 240$ is a point of maxima. Hence, the manufacturer can earn maximum

profit, if he sells 240 items.

242

MATHEMATICS

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 6

1. Using differentials, find the approximate value of each of the following:

1

1

(a)

17 4



(b)

33 † 5



81 ✂



$\log x$

2. Show that the function given by $f(x)$

has maximum at $x = e$.



x

3. The two equal sides of an isosceles triangle with fixed base b are decreasing at

the rate of 3 cm per second. How fast is the area decreasing when the two equal

sides are equal to the base ?

4. Find the equation of the normal to curve $x^2 = 4y$ which passes through the point $(1, 2)$.

5. Show that the normal at any point to the curve



$$x = a \cos \theta + a \sin \theta, y = a \sin \theta - a \cos \theta$$



is at a constant distance from the origin.

6. Find the intervals in which the function f given by

$$4 \sin x - 2x - x \cos x$$

$$f(x) =$$

$$2 \cos x$$

is (i) increasing (ii) decreasing.

1

7. Find the intervals in which the function f given by

3

$$f(x)$$

is



x

, $x \Rightarrow 0$

3

x

(i) increasing

(ii) decreasing.

2

2

x

y

8. Find the maximum area of an isosceles triangle inscribed in the ellipse



1

2

2

a

b

with its vertex at one end of the major axis.

9. A tank with rectangular base and rectangular sides, open at the top is to be

constructed so that its depth is 2 m and volume is 8 m³. If building of tank costs

Rs 70 per sq metres for the base and Rs 45 per square metre for sides. What is

the cost of least expensive tank?

10. The sum of the perimeter of a circle and square is k , where k is some constant.

Prove that the sum of their areas is least when the side of square is double the

radius of the circle.

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

243

11. A window is in the form of a rectangle surmounted by a semicircular opening.

The total perimeter of the window is 10 m. Find the dimensions of the window to

admit maximum light through the whole opening.

12. A point on the hypotenuse of a triangle is at distance a and b from the sides of the triangle.

2

2

3

Show that the maximum length of the hypotenuse is

3

3

2

(a

b) .

13. Find the points at which the function f given by $f(x) = (x - 2)^4 (x + 1)^3$ has (i) local maxima

(ii) local minima

(iii) point of inflexion

14. Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of the function f given by

$$f(x) = \cos^2 x + \sin x, x \in [0, \pi]$$



15. Show that the altitude of the right circular cone of maximum volume that can be

inscribed in a sphere of radius r is

$\frac{8}{3}r$.

.

3

16. Let f be a function defined on $[a, b]$ such that $f(x) > 0$, for all $x \in (a, b)$.
Then

✂

☎

prove that f is an increasing function on (a, b) .

17. Show that the height of the cylinder of maximum volume that can be inscribed in

2R

a sphere of radius R is

. Also find the maximum volume.

3

18. Show that height of the cylinder of greatest volume which can be inscribed in a

right circular cone of height h and semi vertical angle is one-third that of the

◀

4

3

2

cone and the greatest volume of cylinder is

h



tan \odot

27

Choose the correct answer in the Exercises from 19 to 24.

19. A cylindrical tank of radius 10 m is being filled with wheat at the rate of 314

cubic metre per hour. Then the depth of the wheat is increasing at the rate of

(A) 1 m³/h

(B) 0.1 m³/h

(C) 1.1 m³/h

(D) 0.5 m³/h

20. The slope of the tangent to the curve $x = t^2 + 3t - 8, y = 2t^2 - 2t - 5$ at the point (2, -1) is

22

6

7



6

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

7

7

6

7

244

MATHEMATICS

21. The line $y = mx + 1$ is a tangent to the curve $y^2 = 4x$ if the value of m is

(A) 1

(B) 2

(C) 3

(D) 2

22. The normal at the point $(1,1)$ on the curve $2y + x^2 = 3$ is

(A) $x + y = 0$

(B) $x - y = 0$

(C) $x + y + 1 = 0$

(D) $x - y = 0$

23. The normal to the curve $x^2 = 4y$ passing $(1,2)$ is

(A) $x + y = 3$

(B) $x - y = 3$

(C) $x + y = 1$

(D) $x - y = 1$

24. The points on the curve $9y^2 = x^3$, where the normal to the curve makes equal intercepts with the axes are

8

8



(A)

4,

(B)

4,



3



3 †



3



3 ⌘



(C)

4,

(D)



4,



8 🖱️



8 🖱️



Summary

If a quantity y varies with another quantity x , satisfying some rule y

,



$f(x)$



dy

then

(or f

) represents the rate of change of y with respect to x and

👁️ (x)

dx

dy ✓

dx

(or $f($

) represents the rate of change of y with respect to x at

✘

x)

✓

0

✘

$x \rightarrow 0$

x

x

.

✘

$x \rightarrow 0$

If two variables x and y are varying with respect to another variable t , i.e., if



x

and y

, then by Chain Rule



$g(t)$



$f(t)$

dy

dy

dx

dx

, if

.



0



dx

dt

dt

dt

A function f is said to be



(a) increasing on an interval (a, b) if

$x < x$ in (a, b)

$f(x) > f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

1

2

+

1

+

2

1

2 ✖

APPLICATION OF DERIVATIVES

245

Alternatively, if $f'(x) < 0$ for each x in (a, b)

✂

†

(b) decreasing on (a, b) if

$x < x$ in (a, b)

$f(x) > f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

1

2

Ⓞ

1



2

1

2

Alternatively, if $f(x) > 0$ for each x in (a, b)



The equation of the tangent at (x, y) to the curve $y = f(x)$ is given by

0

dy

y

y



$(x, f(x))$

0

0

$dx \neq 0(x, y)$

0

0

dy

If

does not exist at the point (x, y) , then the tangent at this point is

dx

0

0

parallel to the y-axis and its equation is $x = x$.

0

dy

If tangent to a curve $y = f(x)$ at $x = x$ is parallel to x-axis, then




.



0

0

dx  x  $x = 0$

Equation of the normal to the curve $y = f(x)$ at a point (x, y) is given by

0

$\Rightarrow 1$

$y - y_1$

$(x - x_1)$

0

0

dy

$dx \cdot f'(x, y)$

0

0

dy

If

at the point (x, y) is zero, then equation of the normal is $x = x_1$.

dx

0

0

0

dy

If

at the point (x, y) does not exist, then the normal is parallel to x -axis

dx

0

0

and its equation is $y = y$.

0

Let $y = f(x)$, Δx be a small increment in x and Δy be the increment in y

×

×

corresponding to the increment in x , i.e., $\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$. Then dy

×

×

given by

×

dy

dy

or dy

+

.

+

$\dagger x$

×

$f \times (x) dx$

⊕

$dx \dagger$

⊕

⊕

is a good approximation of y when dx

is relatively small and we denote

⊕

◆

x

×

it by dy

y .

◇

×

A point c in the domain of a function f at which either $f'(c) = 0$ or f is not

∞

differentiable is called a *critical point* of f .

MATHEMATICS

First Derivative Test Let f be a function defined on an open interval I . Let f be continuous at a critical point c in I . Then

(i) If $f'(x)$ changes sign from positive to negative as x increases through c ,

✂

i.e., if $f'(x) > 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the left of c ,

✂

and $f'(x) < 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the right of c ,

✂

then c is a point of *local maxima*.

(ii) If $f'(x)$ changes sign from negative to positive as x increases through c ,

✂

i.e., if $f'(x) < 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the left of c ,

✂

and $f'(x) > 0$ at every point sufficiently close to and to the right of c ,

✂

then c is a point of *local minima*.

(iii) If $f'(x)$ does not change sign as x increases through c , then c is neither

✂

a point of local maxima nor a point of local minima. Infact, such a point is called *point of inflexion*.

Second Derivative Test Let f be a function defined on an interval I and $c \in I$. Let f be twice differentiable at c . Then



(i) $x = c$ is a point of local maxima if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) < 0$



In this case, $f(c)$ is local maximum value of f .

(ii) $x = c$ is a point of local minima if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) > 0$



In this case, $f(c)$ is local minimum value of f .

(iii) The test fails if $f'(c) = 0$ and $f''(c) = 0$.



In this case, we go back to the first derivative test and find whether c is a point of maxima, minima or a point of inflexion.

Working rule for finding absolute maxima and/or absolute minima

Step 1: Find all critical points of f in the interval, i.e., find points x where either $f'(x) = 0$ or f is not differentiable.

✂

Step 2: Take the end points of the interval.

Step 3: At all these points (listed in Step 1 and 2), calculate the values of f .

Step 4: Identify the maximum and minimum values of f out of the values calculated in Step 3. This maximum value will be the absolute maximum value of f and the minimum value will be the absolute minimum value of f .

—

—

✂

ANSWERS

EXERCISE 1.1

1. (i) Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.
- (ii) Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.
- (iii) Reflexive and transitive but not symmetric.
- (iv) Reflexive, symmetric and transitive.
- (v) (a) Reflexive, symmetric and transitive.
- (b) Reflexive, symmetric and transitive.
- (c) Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

(d) Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

(e) Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

3. Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

5. Neither reflexive nor symmetric nor transitive.

9. (i) $\{1, 5, 9\}$, (ii) $\{1\}$

12. T is related to T .

1

3

13. The set of all triangles

14. The set of all lines $y = 2x + c$, $c \in \mathbf{R}$

✂

15. B

16. C

EXERCISE 1.2

1. No

2. (i) Injective but not surjective

(ii) Neither injective nor surjective

(iii) Neither injective nor surjective (iv) Injective but not surjective

(v) Injective but not surjective

7. (i) One-one and onto

(ii) Neither one-one nor onto.

9. No

10. Yes

11. D

12. A

EXERCISE 1.3

1. $g \circ f = \{(1, 3), (3, 1), (4, 3)\}$

3. (i) $(g \circ f)(x) = |5|x - 2|$, $(f \circ g)(x) = |5x - 2|$

(ii) $(g \circ f)(x) = 2x$, $(f \circ g)(x) = 8x$

4. Inverse of f is f itself

ANSWERS

269

5. (i) No, since f is many-one

(ii) No, since g is many-one.

(iii) Yes, since h is one-one-onto.

2 y

$y \neq 3$

6. f^{-1} is given by $f^{-1}(y) =$

, $y \neq 1$ 7. f^{-1} is given by $f^{-1}(y) =$

1

y



4

11. f^{-1} is given by $f^{-1}(a) = 1, f^{-1}(b) = 2$ and $f^{-1}(c) = 3$.

13. (C)

14. (B)

EXERCISE 1.4

1. (i) No

(ii) Yes

(iii) Yes

(iv) Yes

(v) Yes

2. (i)

is neither commutative nor associative



(ii)

is commutative but not associative



(iii)

is both commutative and associative



(iv)

is commutative but not associative



(v)

is neither commutative nor associative



(vi)

is neither commutative nor associative



3.

1

2

3

4

5



1

1

1

1

1

1

2

1

2

2

2

2

3

1

2

3

3

3

4

1

2

3

4

4

5

1

2

3

4

5

4. (i) $(2 * 3) 4 = 1$ and $2 (3 * 4) = 1$

(ii) Yes

(iii) 1

5. Yes

6. (i) $5 * 7 = 35$, $20 * 16 = 80$

(ii) Yes

(iii) Yes

(iv) 1 (v) 1

7. No

8.

is both commutative and associative; does not have any identity in \mathbf{N}



9. (ii), (iv), (v) are commutative; (v) is associative.

11. Identity element does not exist.

12. (ii) False

(ii) True

13. B

270

MATHEMATICS

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 1

y

7

1.

$g(y)$

2. The inverse of f is f itself



10

3. $x^4 - 6x^3 + 10x^2 - 3x$

8. No

10. $n!$

11. (i) $F^{-1} = \{(3, a), (2, b), (1, c)\}$, (ii) F^{-1} does not exist

12. No

15. Yes

16. A

17. B

18. No

19. B

EXERCISE 2.1

✂

✂

✂

✂

1.

2.

3.

4.

6

6

6

3

2✂



5.

6.

7.

8.

3

4

6

6

3

3

2



9.

10.

11.

12.

4

4

4

3

13. B

14. B

EXERCISE 2.2

1

1

x



5.

$\tan^{-1} x$

6.

$-\sec^{-1} x$

7.

8.

x

2

2

2

4

1 x

1 x



9.

$\sin^{-1} x$

10.

$3 \tan \theta$

11.

12.0

a

a

4

x

1

1

†

y

✂

13.

14.

15.

†

16.

1

5

2

3



xy

17



17.

18.

19. B

20. D

4

6

21. B

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 2

1



1.

2.

13.

x



14.

$x \star$

6

6



4

3

15. D

16. C

17. C

ANSWERS

271

EXERCISE 3.1

5

1. (i) 3×4

(ii) 12

(iii) 19, 35, -5 , 12, 2

2. $1 \times 24, 2 \times 12, 3 \times 8, 4 \times 6, 6 \times 4, 8 \times 3, 12 \times 2, 24 \times 1; 1 \times 13, 13 \times 1$

3. $1 \times 18, 2 \times 9, 3 \times 6, 6 \times 3, 9 \times 2, 18 \times 1; 1 \times 5, 5 \times 1$

9

2



1

9

25

1



2 ✂

4. (i)

(ii)



2 ✂

(iii) ✂ 2

2 ✂



9



8 ✂

2

1

8

18



2



1

1

1

0



2

2 ✖

1



0

1



2



5

3



5. (i)



2

1 ✕ (ii) ✎ 3 2

1

0 ✎



2

2



5 4

3

2



7

5 ✕



4

3



2

2 \boxtimes



6. (i) $x = 1,$

$y = 4,$

$z = 3$

(ii) $x = 4,$

$y = 2,$

$z = 0$ or $x = 2, y = 4, z = 0$

(iii) $x = 2,$

$y = 4,$

$z = 3$

7. $a = 1, b = 2, c = 3, d = 4$

8. C

9. B

10. D

EXERCISE 3.2

✓

1

1 ✓

✓

3

7

1. (i)

$A + B =$

✓

(ii)

$A \oplus B =$

×

×

× 1

7 ×

5

⊕ 3

X

X

X

X

6

11

+

10

⊕

✓

26

✓

8

7

(iii)

3A

C =

✓

(iv)

AB =

✓

(v)

BA =

+

+

×

6

2×

×

1

19×

11

+

2 ✚

X

X

X

X

✚

✚

2

2

✚

(a

b)

(b

c) ✚

✚

✚

+

2 a

2 b

2. (i)

+

(ii)

★

2

2 ☆

⊕

0

2 a ⊕

(a ⊕ c)

(a ⊕

★

b) ☆

⊕

⊕

☆

★

11

✌️

11 0 🖋️

1



1

(iii)

1



6

5

21

(iv)



1 1



5 10

9 



272

MATHEMATICS



2 3

4

2

2



a


b

0



3 



4 1 



3. (i)

(ii)



4

6

8 

(iii)



2

2 

0

a

8 13

9



b 📞



6 9 12



1

2

3

✓ 14

0

42 ×

×

14



6 

(iv)

✘ 18

1 56 ✘

(v)

✘

1

4

5 ✘

(vi)

✘



4

5 

x

x

x

x



✓

x

x 2

2

0

x

22

2

70X

X

X

+

+

+

+

4

1

X 1

X 1

X

✓

X

✓

2

0X

4.

A + B = X9

2

7 X , B C = X 4

13 X

X

X

X

X

X

X

X

3

1

4 X

X

1

2

0X

X

+

+

+

+

+

0

0

0†



1

0✎

5.

⊠

0

0

0☆

6.



0

1



0

0

0☆



2



12 ♣



2

13 ♣



 5

0 



2

0 

5

5

5

5

7. (i)

X

(ii) X ♠

, Y



, Y +



1

4



1

1

11

14



3 ✦



2 ✦



5



5



✌️ 1



1 ✎

8.

X

9. $x = 3, y = 3$

10. $x = 3, y = 6, z = 9, t = 6$

+



2

1



11. $x = 3, y = -4$

12. $x = 2, y = 4, w = 3, z = 1$

1

X 1

X



3 **X**

15.

X

1

1

10 X

17. $k = 1$

X

X

X

X

X

X

5

4

4 X

X

+

+

19. (a) Rs 15000, Rs 15000

(b) Rs 5000, Rs 25000

20. Rs 20160

21. A

22. B

EXERCISE 3.3



1

3

2 *



1

2 



1

1. (i)

5

1 

(ii)

(iii)

5

5

3



2



1



3



6

6

1*

*

*

*

ANSWERS

273

†

0

0

0† † 0

a

b†

✂

4

5

4.

✂

9.



0

0

$0 \star, \boxplus a$

0

$c \star$



1

6 

⊠

☆

⊠

☆

Ⓞ

†

⊠

0

0

0 ☆ ⊠ *b*

c

0☆



3

3 



0

2 

10. (i)

A 



3

1 ✓



2

0 ✓



6



2

2 ⊕



0

0

0 ⊕

(ii)

A

2

3

1 †

0

0

0 †

+

+

+

×

×

+

+

+

+

+

+

2

1

3 †



0

0

0 †



1



5 ✧



5

3

3

0



2

2 ☆



2

2 ☆



1



5



1

2 ✂



0

3



(iii)

A



2

2☆



0

3☆

(iv)

A



2



2



2

2

30



5



✦ 3



2

2 ☆



3

0☆



2



2



11. A

12. B

EXERCISE 3.4



3

1*

1

7



3



1



5

5*



1.

2.

3.



1

2 ✓



2

1 ✓



* 2

1



5

5*



4

3



5



1 



7

3 

4.

5.

6.



5

2 ✓

✓ 1

2

✓ 7

2

✓

×

×

×

×

×

×

2

4

7

✓



10



5



1 



7.

8.

9.



5

3 



2

3 

✓ 3

4 ✓

✓

×

×

×

×

×

×

☆

1

1

*

1

*

☆

3*

*

2 *

10.

11.

*

1

*

12. Inverse does not exist.

*

*

3

*

*

1*

*

2

*

*

2

*

*

2 *



274

MATHEMATICS

2

3 ✂

13.

14. Inverse does not exist.



1

2 ✂



2



3

†

†

2

3

0

†

1

†

⊠

5

5 ☆

⊠

5

5 ☆

3



1

1 



2



4

11

†1

1

15.



0 ☆

16.



17.

15



6

5



5

5



5

25

25 ☆



5

2

2 ✎



2

1

2 ☆



3



1

9 ☆



5

25

25



5

5

5 ☆



18. D

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 3

1

1

1

6.

x ✓ ×

y ✓ ×

z ✓ ×

2

6

3

7. $x = -1$

9.

$x \times \times 4 3$

10. (a) Total revenue in the market - I = Rs 46000

Total revenue in the market - II = Rs 53000

(b) Rs 15000, Rs 17000

1

x

+

2

11.

X

+

13. C

14. B

15. C

+

+

2

0 ✦



EXERCISE 4.1

1. (i) 18

2. (i) 1, (ii) $x^3 - x^2 + 2$

5. (i) -12, (ii) 46, (iii) 0, (iv) 5

6. 0

7. (i)

x

, (ii) $x = 2$

8. (B)



3

EXERCISE 4.2

15. C

16. C

ANSWERS

EXERCISE 4.3

15

47

1. (i)

, (ii)

, (iii) 15

2

2

3. (i) 0, 8, (ii) 0, 8

4. (i) $y = 2x$, (ii) $x - 3y = 0$

5. (D)

EXERCISE 4.41. (i) $M = 3$, $M = 0$, $M = -4$, $M = 2$, $A = 3$, $A = 0$, $A = 4$, $A = 2$

11

12

21

22

11

12

21

22

(ii) $M = d, M = b, M = c, M = a$

11

12

21

22

$A = d, A = -b, A = -c, A = a$

11

12

21

22

2. (i) $M = 1, M = 0, M = 0, M = 0, M = 1, M = 0, M = 0, M = 0, M = 1,$

11

12

13

21

22

23

31

32

33

$A = 1, A = 0, A = 0, A = 0, A = 1, A = 0, A = 0, A = 0, A = 1$

11

12

13

21

22

23

31

32

33

(ii) $M = 11, M = 6, M = 3, M = -4, M = 2, M = 1, M = -20, M = -13, M = 5$

11

12

13

21

22

23

31

32

33

$A = 11, A = -6, A = 3, A = 4, A = 2, A = -1, A = -20, A = 13, A = 5$

11

12

13

21

22

23

31

32

33

3.7

4. $(x - y)(y - z)(z - x)$

5. (D)

EXERCISE 4.5

3

1



11⊠

1 ↻ 3

2



4

2⊠



1.

2.



12

5

1 

5.



3

1 A black icon of a telephone handset.

14 A black icon of a pair of scissors, representing a cut line.

2 A black icon of a telephone handset.



6

2

5 🖱



10



3

0

0



10

2 X

12

1

1



5 

6.

7.

x

0

5

4 

8.



3

1



0 

x

13  3

1 

10 **x**



3 ♣



9

2

3



0

0

2 ♣



2

† 1

0

0

†

†

0

1

×

⊗

⊗

×

1

5

3 ×

× 1

9.

×

4

23

12 \oplus 10. \star 9

2

3 \leftarrow

11.

\star 0

cos \star

sin

\leftarrow

\times

\dagger

\star

3 ✕



☆ 0

sin ★

- cos



6

1

2



1

11

6+



3

4

5

12



1



1 

1

13.

14. $a = -4, b = 1$

15.

A



9

† 1



4 

7 🗨️ 1

3 🖋️

11 ✨



5

3

1 🖋️



276

MATHEMATICS



3

1

1 ✂

1 ✂ 1 3 1 ☎

16.

4

17. B

18. B



1 1

3 ☎



EXERCISE 4.6

1. Consistent

2. Consistent

3. Inconsistent

4. Consistent

5. Inconsistent

6. Consistent

5

12

†

6

† 19

7. $x = 2, y = -3$

8.

x

†

, y

9.

x †

, y

†

†

†

11

11

11

11

1

3

10. $x = -1, y = 4$

11. $x = 1, y$

, z

†

†

†

2

2

12. $x = 2, y = -1, z = 1$

13. $x = 1, y = 2, z = -1$

14. $x = 2, y = 1, z = 3$

0

1



2 🖐



⊠ 2

9

⊠ 23 🖐

15.

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



15

13 🙌



16.

cost of onions per kg \Rightarrow Rs 5

cost of wheat per kg \Rightarrow Rs 8

cost of rice per kg



Rs 8

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 4

9



35 🖱

a



⊗ 2

1

0 🙌

3. 1

5.

x

+

7.

+

3

👉

🙌

👉

1

0 2 🙌

✍️

✍️

9. $-2(x^3 + y^3)$

10. xy

16. $x = 2, y = 3, z = 5$

17. A

18. A

19. D

ANSWERS

277

EXERCISE 5.1

2. f is continuous at $x = 3$

3. (a), (b), (c) and (d) are all continuous functions

5. f is continuous at $x = 0$ and $x = 2$; Not continuous at $x = 1$

6. Discontinuous at $x = 2$

7. Discontinuous at $x = 3$

8. Discontinuous at $x = 0$

9. No point of discontinuity

10. No point of discontinuity

11. No point of discontinuity

12. f is continuous at $x = 1$

13. f is not continuous at $x = 1$

14. f is not continuous at $x = 1$ and $x = 3$

15. $x = 1$ is the only point of discontinuity

2

16. Continuous

17.

a

$b \approx 3$

18. For no value of a , f is continuous at $x = 0$ but f is continuous at $x = 1$ for any

†

value of a .

†

20. f is continuous at $x =$

21. (a), (b) and (c) are all continuous

†

22. Cosine function is continuous for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$; cosecant is continuous except for

✂

$x = n, n \in \mathbf{Z}$; secant is continuous except for $x = (2n + 1)\frac{\pi}{2}$

, $n \in \mathbf{Z}$ and

✂

✂

1) ∞

†

∞

2

cotangent function is continuous except for $x = n, n \in \mathbf{Z}$

†

∞

23. There is no point of discontinuity.

24. Yes, f is continuous for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$

25. f is continuous for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$

∞

∞

3

2

26. $k = 6$

27.

k

28.

k



4



9

29.

k

30. $a = 2, b = 1$

5

34. There is no point of discontinuity.

EXERCISE 5.2

1. $2x \cos(x^2 + 5)$

2. $-\cos x \sin(\sin x)$

3. $a \cos(ax + b)$

2

$\sec(\tan x) \cdot \tan(\tan x) \cdot \sec$

x

4.

$2x$

5. $a \cos(ax + b) \sec(cx + d) + c \sin(ax + b) \tan(cx + d) \sec(cx + d)$ **6.**

$10x^4 \sin x^5 \cos x^5 \cos x^3 - 3x^2 \sin x^3 \sin^2 x^5$

MATHEMATICS

$2 \sin x$

$\sin x$

7.

8.

2

2



$\sin x$

$\sin 2x$

$2x$

EXERCISE 5.3

$\cos x$

2

a



2

1.

2.

3.



3

cos y

2 by \odot sin y



3

2

sec x

(2 x

2

2

(3 x \dagger 2 xy \dagger y)



y)



y

4.

5.

6.



+

x

$(x$

2

2

$(x + 2xy + 3y)$



$2y)$

+

+

$2y - 1$

$y \sin xy$

$\sin 2x$

2

3

7.

8.

9.

10.

$\sin 2y$

2

1

2

$1 \dagger x$

\dagger

x

\mathbb{R}

$x \sin xy$

$\sin 2y$

2

2

\boxtimes

2

\boxtimes

2

11.

2

12.

13.

14.

1

2

1

2

1

2

$1 \rightarrow x$

†

x

†

x

†

x

2

15.



2

$1 \star x$

EXERCISE 5.4

x

$\sin 1$

$e (\sin x$

$e \Leftrightarrow x$



$\cos x)$

1.

, $x n$

$n \mathbf{Z} 2.$

, $x ($



1,1)

2



$\sin x$

2

1

x



x

$\leftarrow 1$

$-x$

3

e

$\cos(\tan$

e

)

3.

2

3

x

$x e$

4.

✓

☛ 2

1

x

✓

e

2

x

3

4

5

5. $-ex \tan ex, x$

e

$(2n-1) \times$

N 6.

x

e

2

x

3 *x*

4



2



3



4



5

x

e

x

x e

x e

$x e$

✕

✕

, n ✕

2

x

e

1

7.

, $x > 0$

8.

, $x > 1$

$x \log x$

4

x

$x e$

($x \sin x$

✕

1



$\log x \cos x)$

9.

10.

$x \div$

$x > 0$



$\sin (\log$

x

e

$x e),$



$, x \div 0$

2

$x (\log x)$



x



ANSWERS

279

EXERCISE 5.5

1. $-\cos x \cos 2x \cos 3x [\tan x + 2 \tan 2x + 3 \tan 3x]$

1

$(x-1)(x$

2)

1

1

1

1

1 ✂



2.



2

(x

3)(x

4)(x

5)  x 1

x 2

x 3

x 4

x^5 ①



$\cos x$ † $\cos x$



3.

$(\log x)$



$\sin x \log (\log x)$



$x \log x$



4. $xx(1 + \log x) - 2\sin x \cos x \log 2$

5. $(x + 3)(x + 4)^2(x + 5)^3(9x^2 + 70x + 133)$

x

1

2

1

1

x

1

1



$x \checkmark 1 \blacktriangleright$

✓

×

✓

$\log x$

6.

x

✓

×

$\log (x \checkmark)$

x

✓

x

×

✓

2

×

×

+

×

2

x

x

1

x

x



7. $(\log x) x^{-1} [1 + \log x \cdot \log (\log x)] + 2 x \log x^{-1} \cdot \log x$

1

8. $(\sin x) x (x \cot x + \log \sin x) +$

2

2

$x \clubsuit x$



$\sin x$

9. $x \sin x$

$\cos x \log x \clubsuit + (\sin x) \cos x [\cos x \cot x - \sin x \log \sin x]$



x



$4x$

10. $x x \cos x [\cos x \cdot (1 + \log x) - x \sin x \log x] -$

2

2

$(x \star 1)$

1

$x \cot x \approx 1 \approx \log (x \sin x)$

11. $(x \cos x) x [1 - x \tan x + \log (x \cos x)] + (x \sin x) x$



2

x



$y \star 1$

x

yx

$y \star y \star x \log y$



$y \log y$



12.

13.



y

x^1

$x \log x$

$x * x \star y \log x *$

\star

$xy \star$

$*$

$*$

$y \tan x$

$y(x * 1)$

\star

$\log \cos y$

14.

15.

$x \tan y$

$x(y * 1)$

\star

$\log \cos x$

3

7



1

2 x

4 x

8 x



16. $(1 + x) (1 + x^2) (1 + x^4) (1 + x^8)$

$; f(1) = 120$



2 ★

4 ★



8

1

x

1

x

1

x

1

x 



$$17. 5x^4 - 20x^3 + 45x^2 - 52x + 11$$

EXERCISE 5.6

b

1

1. $2t^2$

2.

3. $-4 \sin t$

4.



a

2

t

280

MATHEMATICS

$\cos \approx 2\cos 2$



5.

6.

7. $-\cot 3 t$

8. $\tan t$



\cot

$2\sin 2$

2



\sin

b

9.

cosec

10. $\tan \pi$



a

EXERCISE 5.7

1. 2

2. $380x^{18}$

3. $-x \cos x - 2 \sin x$

1

4.

5. $x(5 + 6 \log x)$

6. $2e^x(5 \cos 5x - 12 \sin 5x)$



2

x

$2x$

7. $9e^{6x}(3 \cos 3x - 4 \sin 3x)$

8.



22

$(1 + x)$

(1

$\sin(\log x) \star \cos(\log x)$

†

$\log x)$

9.

10.

⓪

✂

2

2

$(x \log x)$

x

12. $-\cot y \operatorname{cosec}^2 y$

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 5

1. $27(3x^2 - 9x + 5)8(2x - 3)$

2. $3\sin x \cos x (\sin x - 2 \cos^4 x)$

■

x

3.

$3\cos 2x$

$3\cos 2$

$(5x)$

$6\sin 2x \log 5x$



x



1



x

3

x

COS



1

✘

4.

5.

2

3

×

✘

2

1

×

3

2

✘

2

⊞

x

4 ✘ x

2 x ✘

×

7

$(2 \times 7) \times$

\times

\oplus

\oplus

1

$\log x \leftarrow 1$

$\log(\log x)$

6.

7.

$(\log x)$

\leftarrow

\dagger

$, x \dagger 1$

2

✌

x

x



8. $(a \sin x - b \cos x) \sin (a \cos x + b \sin x)$ **9.** $(\sin x - \cos x) \sin x - \cos x$
 $(\cos x + \sin x) (1 + \log (\sin x - \cos x)), \sin x > \cos x$ **10.** $xx (1 + \log x) + ax$
 $a-1 + ax \log a$

2

2

2



2

x



x



11.

$x \oplus 3$

3

x



$2x \log x \star (x^3)x$



$2x \log(x$

$3)$



x



x

3



ANSWERS

281

6

t

3

$\sec t$

12.

\cot

13.0

17.

$, 0 \leq t \leq$

5

2

at

2

EXERCISE 6.1

1. (a) 6 cm²/s

(b) 8 cm²/s

†

†

8

2.

cm²/s

3. 60 cm²/s

4. 900 cm³/s

3

†

5. 80 cm²/s

6. 1.4 cm/s

†

†

7. (a) -2 cm/min

(b) $2 \text{ cm}^2/\text{min}$

1

8

8.

cm/s

9. $400 \text{ cm}^3/\text{s}$

10.

cm/s



3



31

11. (4, 11) and

4,



12. 2 cm³/s



3 †



27

2

1

13.

14.

cm/s

15. Rs 20.967



(2 x 1)

8

48

16. Rs 208

17. B

18. D

EXERCISE 6.2



3



3

4. (a)

,



(b) ✂️ 🙌



,



4



4 †



5. (a) $(-, -2)$ and $(3,)$

(b) $(-2, 3)$



6. (a) Strictly decreasing for $x < -1$ and strictly increasing for $x > -1$

3

3

(b) Strictly decreasing for x

and strictly increasing for x



2

2

(c) Strictly increasing for $-2 < x < -1$ and strictly decreasing for $x < -2$ and $x > -1$

9

9

(d) Strictly increasing for x

and strictly decreasing for x



2

2

282

MATHEMATICS

(e) Strictly increasing in $(1, 3)$ and $(3, \infty)$, strictly decreasing in $(-\infty, -1)$

☆

☆

and $(-1, 1)$.

8. $0 < x < 1$ and $x > 2$

12. A, B

13. D

14. $a = -2$

19. D

EXERCISE 6.3

1

1. 764

2.

3. 11

4. 24

64

a

5. 1

6.

7. $(3, -20)$ and $(-1, 12)$

$2b$

8. $(3, 1)$

9. $(2, -9)$

10. (i) $y + x + 1 = 0$ and $y + x - 3 = 0$

11. No tangent to the curve which has slope 2.

1

12.

y

13. (i) $(0, \pm 4)$ (ii) $(\pm 3, 0)$

✂

2

14. (i) Tangent: $10x + y = 5$;

Normal: $x - 10y + 50 = 0$

(ii) Tangent: $y = 2x + 1$;

Normal: $x + 2y - 7 = 0$

(iii) Tangent: $y = 3x - 2$;

Normal: $x + 3y - 4 = 0$

(iv) Tangent: $y = 0$;

Normal: $x = 0$

(v) Tangent: $x + y$

$= 0$; Normal $x = y$

✂

2

15. (a) $y - 2x - 3 = 0$

(b) $36y + 12x - 227 = 0$

17. $(0, 0), (3, 27)$

18. $(0, 0), (1, 2), (-1, -2)$

19. $(1, \pm 2)$

20. $2x + 3my - am^2(2 + 3m^2) = 0$

21. $x + 14y - 254 = 0, x + 14y + 86 = 0$

22. $ty = x + at^2, y = -tx + 2at + at^3$

xx

yy

$y \otimes y$

$x \otimes x$

0

0

0

0

24.



1,

0

2

2

2

2

a

b

a y

b x

0

0

25. $48x - 24y = 23$

26. D

27. A

EXERCISE 6.4

1. (i) 5.03

(ii) 7.035

(iii) 0.8

(iv) 0.208

(v) 0.9999

(vi) 1.96875

ANSWERS

283

(vii) 2.9629

(viii) 3.9961

(ix) 3.009

(x) 20.025

(xi) 0.06083

(xii) 2.948

(xiii) 3.0046

(xiv) 7.904

(xv) 2.00187

2. 28.21

3. -34.995

4. $0.03 \times 3 \text{ m}^3$

5. $0.12 \times 2 \text{ m}^2$

6. 3.92 m^3

7. 2.16 m^3

†

†

8. D

9. C

EXERCISE 6.5

1. (i) Minimum Value = 3

(ii) Minimum Value = -2

(iii) Maximum Value = 10

(iv) Neither minimum nor maximum value

2. (i) Minimum Value = -1 ; No maximum value

(ii) Maximum Value = 3; No minimum value

(iii) Minimum Value = 4; Maximum Value = 6

(iv) Minimum Value = 2; Maximum Value = 4

(v) Neither minimum nor Maximum Value

3. (i) local minimum at $x = 0$,

local minimum value = 0

(ii) local minimum at $x = 1$,

local minimum value = -2

local maximum at $x = -1$, local maximum value = 2

(iii) local maximum at x

,

local maximum value =



4

2

(iv) local maximum at x



, local maximum value =



4

2

7

local minimum at x



, local minimum value = -



4

2

(v) local maximum at $x = 1$,

local maximum value = 19

local minimum at $x = 3$,

local minimum value = 15

(vi) local minimum at $x = 2$,

local minimum value = 2

284

MATHEMATICS

1

(vii) local maximum at $x = 0$,

local maximum value = 2

2

2 3

(viii) local maximum at x

,

local maximum value =

3

9

5. (i) Absolute minimum value = -8 ,

absolute maximum value = 8

(ii) Absolute minimum value = -1 ,

absolute maximum value = 2

(iii) Absolute minimum value = -10 , absolute maximum value = 8

(iv) Absolute minimum value = 19 ,

absolute maximum value = 3

6. Maximum profit = 49 unit.

7. Minima at $x = 2$, minimum value = -39 , Maxima at $x = 0$, maximum value = 25 .

5✂

8. At x

✂

and

9. Maximum value =

4

4

2

10. Maximum at $x = 3$, maximum value 89; maximum at $x = -2$, maximum value = 139

11. $a = 120$

12. Maximum at $x = 2$, maximum value = 2 ; Minimum at $x = 0$, minimum value = 0

†

†

13. 12, 12

14. 45, 15

15. 25, 10

16. 8, 8

17. 3 cm

18. $x = 5$ cm

1

1

50 3

✂

50 3

21. radius =

✂

cm and height = 2 ∞



cm



112

28~~2~~

22.

cm,

cm 27. A

28. D

29. C



4



4

Miscellaneous Exercise on Chapter 6

1. (a) 0.677

(b) 0.497

3.

b 3 cm²/s

4. $x + y - 3 = 0$

ANSWERS

285

3

3

6. (i) $0 < x <$

and

$< x < 2$

(ii)

✂

x ✂

2

2

†

2

2

7. (i) $x < -1$ and $x > 1$

(ii) $-1 < x < 1$

3 3

8.

ab

9. Rs 1000

4

20

10

11. length =

m, breadth =

m



4



4

2

13. (i) local maxima at $x = 2$

(ii) local minima at $x = 7$

(iii) point of inflection at $x = -1$

5

14. Absolute maximum =

, Absolute minimum = 1

4

3

4 © R

17.

19. A

20. B

21. A

3 3

22. B

23. A

24. A

—

—

†

Appendix 1

PROOFS IN MATHEMATICS

Proofs are to Mathematics what calligraphy is to poetry.

Mathematical works do consist of proofs just as

poems do consist of characters.

— *VLADIMIR ARNOLD*

A.1.1 Introduction

In Classes IX, X and XI, we have learnt about the concepts of a statement, compound

statement, negation, converse and contrapositive of a statement; axioms, conjectures,

theorems and deductive reasoning.

Here, we will discuss various methods of proving mathematical propositions.

A.1.2 What is a Proof?

Proof of a mathematical statement consists of sequence of statements, each statement

being justified with a definition or an axiom or a proposition that is previously established

by the method of deduction using only the allowed logical rules.

Thus, each proof is a chain of deductive arguments each of which has its premises

and conclusions. Many a times, we prove a proposition directly from what is given in

the proposition. But some times it is easier to prove an equivalent proposition rather

than proving the proposition itself. This leads to, two ways of proving a proposition

directly or indirectly and the proofs obtained are called direct proof and indirect proof

and further each has three different ways of proving which is discussed below.

Direct Proof It is the proof of a proposition in which we directly start the proof with

what is given in the proposition.

(i) Straight forward approach It is a chain of arguments which leads directly from

what is given or assumed, with the help of axioms, definitions or already proved

theorems, to what is to be proved using rules of logic.

Consider the following example:

Example 1 Show that if $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$, then $x = 3$ or $x = 2$.

Solution $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$ (given)

248

MATHEMATICS

$(x - 3)(x - 2) = 0$ (replacing an expression by an equal/equivalent expression)

∴

$x - 3 = 0$ or $x - 2 = 0$ (from the established theorem $ab = 0$

either $a = 0$ or

∴

∴

$b = 0$, for a, b in \mathbf{R})

$x - 3 + 3 = 0 + 3$ or $x - 2 + 2 = 0 + 2$ (adding equal quantities on either side of the

∴

equation does not alter the nature of the

equation)

$x + 0 = 3$ or $x + 0 = 2$ (using the identity property of integers under addition)

∴

$x = 3$ or $x = 2$ (using the identity property of integers under addition)

∴

Hence, $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$ implies $x = 3$ or $x = 2$.

Explanation Let p be the given statement " $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$ " and q be the conclusion statement " $x = 3$ or $x = 2$ ".

From the statement p , we deduced the statement r : " $(x - 3)(x - 2) = 0$ " by replacing the expression $x^2 - 5x + 6$ in the statement p by another expression $(x - 3)(x - 2)$ which is equal to $x^2 - 5x + 6$.

There arise two questions:

(i) How does the expression $(x - 3)(x - 2)$ is equal to the expression $x^2 - 5x + 6$?

(ii) How can we replace an expression with another expression which is equal to

the former?

The first one is proved in earlier classes by factorization, i.e.,

$$x^2 - 5x + 6 = x^2 - 3x - 2x + 6 = x(x - 3) - 2(x - 3) = (x - 3)(x - 2).$$

The second one is by valid form of argumentation (rules of logic)

Next this statement r becomes premises or given and deduce the statement s

" $x - 3 = 0$ or $x - 2 = 0$ " and the reasons are given in the brackets.

This process continues till we reach the conclusion.

The symbolic equivalent of the argument is to prove by deduction that p

q



is true.

Starting with p , we deduce p

r

s

...

q . This implies that “ p

q ” is true.



Example 2 Prove that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R}



defined by $f(x) = 2x + 5$ is one-one.

Solution Note that a function f is one-one if

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

$x = x$ (definition of one-one function)

1

2

✂

1

2

Now, given that

$$f(x) = f(x), \text{ i.e., } 2x + 5 = 2x + 5$$

1

2

1

2

$$2x + 5 - 5 = 2x + 5 - 5 \text{ (adding the same quantity on both sides)}$$

✂

1

2

PROOFS IN MATHEMATICS

$$2x + 0 = 2x + 0$$



1

2

$$2x = 2x \text{ (using additive identity of real number)}$$



1

2

2

2

$$x =$$

$$x \text{ (dividing by the same non zero quantity)}$$



1

2

2

2

$$x = x$$



1

2

Hence, the given function is one-one.

(ii) Mathematical Induction

Mathematical induction, is a strategy, of proving a proposition which is deductive in

nature. The whole basis of proof of this method depends on the following axiom:

For a given subset S of \mathbf{N} , if

(i) the natural number $1 \in S$ and



(ii) the natural number $k + 1 \in S$ whenever $k \in S$, then $S = \mathbf{N}$.



According to the principle of mathematical induction, if a statement " $S(n)$ is true

for $n = 1$ " (or for some starting point j), and if " $S(n)$ is true for $n = k$ " implies that " $S(n)$ is true for $n = k + 1$ " (whatever integer $k \geq j$ may be), then the statement is true for any



positive integer n , for all $n \geq j$.



We now consider some examples.

Example 3 Show that if



$$\cos n$$

$$\sin n$$



$$\cos$$

$$\sin$$



$$A =$$

$$, \text{ then } A^n =$$



$$\sin$$

$$\cos \dagger$$



$$\sin n$$

$\cos n$ †

†

✠

☆

✠

☆

Solution We have


$\cos n$ 🖱

$\sin n$ 🖱

🖱

✌

$P(n) : A n = \text{✌} \sin n$

$\cos n$ 



\cos

\sin



We note that

$P(1) : A_1 = \dagger \sin$

$\cos \dagger$



Therefore, $P(1)$ is true.

Assume that $P(k)$ is true, i.e.,



$\cos k$

$\sin k$



$P(k) : A k = \dagger \sin k$

$\cos k$



250

MATHEMATICS

We want to prove that $P(k+1)$ is true whenever $P(k)$ is true, i.e.,

$\cos (k$

1) \sphericalangle

$\sin (k$

1) ✂



$P(k+1) : A^{k+1} = \cos(k+1)$

$\cos(k)$

1) ⊕



Now

$A^{k+1} = A^k \cdot A$

Since $P(k)$ is true, we have

$\cos(k)$



$\cos(k)$

\sin



$\sin k$



$A_{k+1} =$



$\sin k$

$\cos k$



\sin

cos ✌️



cos k ✕ cos ✕ ✌️ sin k ✕ sin ✕

cos k ✕ sin ✕ ⇨ sin k ✕ cos ✕



= ⇨ sin k cos

cos k

sin

sin k

\sin

$\cos k$

COS



(by matrix multiplication)

$\cos (k$

1) \rightarrow

$\sin (k$

1) \rightarrow



= $\sin(k + 1)$

$\cos (k$

1) \rightarrow



Thus, $P(k + 1)$ is true whenever $P(k)$ is true.

Hence, $P(n)$ is true for all $n \geq 1$ (by the principle of mathematical induction).



(iii) Proof by cases or by exhaustion

This method of proving a statement p

q is possible only when p can be split into

✓

several cases, r, s, t (say) so that $p = r$

s

t (where “

” is the symbol for “OR”).

✓

✓

✓

If the conditionals

r

q ;

✓

s

q ;

✓

and

t

q

✓

are proved, then (r

s

t)

q , is proved and so p

q is proved.

✓

✓

✓

✓

The method consists of examining every possible case of the hypothesis. It is

practically convenient only when the number of possible cases are few.

Example 4 Show that in any triangle ABC,

$$a = b \cos C + c \cos B$$

Solution Let p be the statement “ABC is any triangle” and q be the statement

$$“a = b \cos C + c \cos B”$$

Let ABC be a triangle. From A draw AD a perpendicular to BC (BC produced if

necessary).

As we know that any triangle has to be either acute or obtuse or right angled, we

can split p into three statements r , s and t , where

PROOFS IN MATHEMATICS

251

r : ABC is an acute angled triangle with
 C is acute.

†

s : ABC is an obtuse angled triangle with
 C is obtuse.

†

t : ABC is a right angled triangle with
 C is right angle.

†

Hence, we prove the theorem by three cases.

Case (i) When

C is acute (Fig. A1.1).

†

From the right angled triangle ADB ,

$$BD = \cos B$$

AB

i.e.

$$BD = AB \cos B$$

$$= c \cos B$$

From the right angled triangle ADC,

CD

Fig A1.1

$$= \cos C$$

AC

i.e.

$$CD = AC \cos C$$

$$= b \cos C$$

Now

$$a = BD + CD$$

$$= c \cos B + b \cos C \dots (1)$$

Case (ii) When

C is obtuse (Fig A1.2).

†

From the right angled triangle ADB,

$$BD = \cos B$$

AB

i.e.

$$BD = AB \cos B$$

$$= c \cos B$$

From the right angled triangle ADC,

$$CD = AC \cos ACD$$

AC

+

$$= AC \cos (180^\circ - C)$$

$$= -AC \cos C$$

i.e.

$$CD = -AC \cos C$$

$$= -b \cos C$$

Fig A1.2

252

MATHEMATICS

Now

$$a = BC = BD - CD$$

i.e.

$$a = c \cos B - (-b \cos C)$$

$$a = c \cos B + b \cos C \dots (2)$$

Case (iii) When

C is a right angle (Fig A1.3).

†

From the right angled triangle ACB,

$$BC = c \cos B$$

AB

i.e.

$$BC = AB \cos B$$

$$a = c \cos B,$$

and

$$b \cos C = b \cos 90^\circ = 0.$$

Fig A1.3

Thus, we may write

$$a = 0 + c \cos B$$

$$= b \cos C + c \cos B$$

... (3)

From (1), (2) and (3). We assert that for any triangle ABC,

$$a = b \cos C + c \cos B$$

By case (i), r

q is proved.



By case (ii), s

q is proved.



By case (iii), t

q is proved.



Hence, from the proof by cases, (r

s

t)

q is proved, i.e., p

q is proved.



Indirect Proof Instead of proving the given proposition directly, we establish the proof

of the proposition through proving a proposition which is equivalent to the given

proposition.

(i) Proof by contradiction (*Reductio Ad Absurdum*) : Here, we start with the

assumption that the given statement is false. By rules of logic, we arrive at a conclusion contradicting the assumption and hence it is inferred that the assumption

is wrong and hence the given statement is true.

Let us illustrate this method by an example.

Example 5 Show that the set of all prime numbers is infinite.

Solution Let P be the set of all prime numbers. We take the negation of the statement

“the set of all prime numbers is infinite”, i.e., we assume the set of all prime numbers

to be finite. Hence, we can list all the prime numbers as $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_k$ (say).
Note

1

2

3

k

that we have assumed that there is no prime number other than $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots, P_k$.

1

2

3

k

Now consider $N = (P_1 P_2 P_3 \dots P_k) + 1$... (1)

1

2

3

k

N is not in the list as N is larger than any of the numbers in the list.

N is either prime or composite.

PROOFS IN MATHEMATICS

253

If N is a prime, then by (1), there exists a prime number which is not listed.

On the other hand, if N is composite, it should have a prime divisor. But none of the

numbers in the list can divide N , because they all leave the remainder 1. Hence, the

prime divisor should be other than the one in the list.

Thus, in both the cases whether N is a prime or a composite, we ended up with

contradiction to the fact that we have listed all the prime numbers.

Hence, our assumption that set of all prime numbers is finite is false.

Thus, the set of all prime numbers is infinite.

Note Observe that the above proof also uses the method of proof by cases.

(ii) Proof by using contrapositive statement of the given statement

Instead of proving the conditional p

q , we prove its equivalent, i.e.,



$\sim q$

$\sim p$. (students can verify).



The contrapositive of a conditional can be formed by interchanging the conclusion

and the hypothesis and negating both.

Example 6 Prove that the function $f: \mathbf{R}$

\mathbf{R} defined by $f(x) = 2x + 5$ is one-one.



Solution A function is one-one if $f(x) = f(x)$

$x = x$.

2



1

2

Using this we have to show that " $2x + 5 = 2x + 5$ "

" $x = x$ ". This is of the form

1

2



1

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p

q , where, p is $2x + 5 = 2x + 5$ and $q : x = x$. We have proved this in Example 2



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of "direct method".

We can also prove the same by using contrapositive of the statement. Now
 contrapositive of this statement is $\sim q$

$\sim p$, i.e., contrapositive of “ if $f(x) = f(x)$,

\Leftarrow

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then $x = x$ ” is “if $x \neq x$, then $f(x) \neq f(x)$ ”.

1

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1 \vdash 2

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\vdash

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Now

x

x

1 \vdash

2

2 x

$2x$



$1 \vdash$

2

$2x + 5 \quad 2x + 5$



1



2

$f(x)$

$f(x).$



1



2

Since " $\sim q$

$\sim p$ ", is equivalent to " p

q ” the proof is complete.



Example 7 Show that “if a matrix A is invertible, then A is non singular”.

Solution Writing the above statement in symbolic form, we have

p

q , where, p is “matrix A is invertible” and q is “ A is non singular”



Instead of proving the given statement, we prove its contrapositive statement, i.e.,

if A is not a non singular matrix, then the matrix A is not invertible.

254

MATHEMATICS

If A is not a non singular matrix, then it means the matrix A is singular, i.e.,

$$|A| = 0$$

$adj A$

Then

$$A^{-1} =$$

does not exist as $|A| = 0$

$$|A|$$

Hence, A is not invertible.

Thus, we have proved that if A is not a non singular matrix, then A is not invertible.

i.e., $\sim q$

$\sim p$.

✂

Hence, if a matrix A is invertible, then A is non singular.

(iii) Proof by a counter example

In the history of Mathematics, there are occasions when all attempts to find a

valid proof of a statement fail and the uncertainty of the truth value of the statement

remains unresolved.

In such a situation, it is beneficial, if we find an example to falsify the statement.

The example to disprove the statement is called a *counter example*. Since the disproof

of a proposition p

q is merely a proof of the proposition $\sim (p$

$q)$. Hence, this is

✂

✂

also a method of proof.

n

Example 8 For each n , 2

2

1 is a prime ($n \in \mathbf{N}$).



This was once thought to be true on the basis that

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2

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$= 2^2 + 1 = 5$ is a prime.



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$= 2^4 + 1 = 17$ is a prime.



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= $2^8 + 1 = 257$ is a prime.



1

However, at first sight the generalisation looks to be correct. But, eventually it was

5

shown that

2

2

$1 = 2^{32} + 1 = 4294967297$

which is not a prime since $4294967297 = 641 \times 6700417$ (a product of two numbers).

n

So the generalisation “For each n , 2

2

is a prime ($n \in \mathbf{N}$)” is false.



1

5

Just this one example 2

2

is sufficient to disprove the generalisation. This is the



1

counter example.

n

Thus, we have proved that the generalisation “For each n , 2

2

1 is a prime

($n \in \mathbf{N}$)” is not true in general.



PROOFS IN MATHEMATICS

255

Example 9 Every continuous function is differentiable.

Proof We consider some functions given by

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

(ii) $g(x) = e^x$

(iii) $h(x) = \sin x$

These functions are continuous for all values of x . If we check for their differentiability, we find that they are all differentiable for all the values of x . This

makes us to believe that the generalisation “Every continuous function is differentiable”

may be true. But if we check the differentiability of the function given by “ $f(x) = |x|$ ”

†

which is continuous, we find that it is not differentiable at $x = 0$. This means that the

statement “Every continuous function is differentiable” is false, in general. Just this

one function “ $f(x) = |x|$ ” is sufficient to disprove the statement. Hence, “ $f(x) = |x|$ ”

†

†

is called a counter example to disprove “Every continuous function is differentiable”.

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Appendix 2

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING

A.2.1 Introduction

In class XI, we have learnt about mathematical modelling as an attempt to study some

part (or form) of some real-life problems in mathematical terms, i.e., the conversion of

a physical situation into mathematics using some suitable conditions.

Roughly speaking

mathematical modelling is an activity in which we make models to describe the behaviour

of various phenomenal activities of our interest in many ways using words, drawings or

sketches, computer programs, mathematical formulae *etc.*

In earlier classes, we have observed that solutions to many problems, involving

applications of various mathematical concepts, involve mathematical modelling in one

way or the other. Therefore, it is important to study mathematical modelling as a separate

topic.

In this chapter, we shall further study mathematical modelling of some real-life

problems using techniques/results from matrix, calculus and linear programming.

A.2.2 Why Mathematical Modelling?

Students are aware of the solution of word problems in arithmetic, algebra, trigonometry

and linear programming *etc.* Sometimes we solve the problems without going into the

physical insight of the situational problems. Situational problems need physical insight

that is **introduction** of physical laws and some symbols to compare the mathematical

results obtained with practical values. To solve many problems faced by us, we need a

technique and this is what is known as *mathematical modelling*. Let us consider the

following problems:

(i) To find the width of a river (particularly, when it is difficult to cross the river).

(ii) To find the optimal angle in case of shot-put (by considering the variables

such as : the height of the thrower, resistance of the media, acceleration due to

gravity etc.).

(iii) To find the height of a tower (particularly, when it is not possible to reach the top

of the tower).

(iv) To find the temperature at the surface of the Sun.

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 257

(v) Why heart patients are not allowed to use lift? (without knowing the physiology

of a human being).

(vi) To find the mass of the Earth.

(vii) Estimate the yield of pulses in India from the standing crops (a person is not

allowed to cut all of it).

(viii) Find the volume of blood inside the body of a person (a person is not allowed to

bleed completely).

(ix) Estimate the population of India in the year 2020 (a person is not allowed to wait

till then).

All of these problems can be solved and infact have been solved with the help of

Mathematics using mathematical modelling. In fact, you might have studied the methods

for solving some of them in the present textbook itself. However, it will be instructive if

you first try to solve them yourself and that too without the help of Mathematics, if

possible, you will then appreciate the power of Mathematics and the need for

mathematical modelling.

A.2.3 Principles of Mathematical Modelling

Mathematical modelling is a principled activity and so it has some principles behind it.

These principles are almost philosophical in nature. Some of the basic principles of

mathematical modelling are listed below in terms of instructions:

- (i) Identify the need for the model. (for what we are looking for)
- (ii) List the parameters/variables which are required for the model.
- (iii) Identify the available relevant data. (what is given?)
- (iv) Identify the circumstances that can be applied (assumptions)
- (v) Identify the governing physical principles.
- (vi) Identify
 - (a) the equations that will be used.
 - (b) the calculations that will be made.
 - (c) the solution which will follow.
- (vii) Identify tests that can check the
 - (a) consistency of the model.
 - (b) utility of the model.
- (viii) Identify the parameter values that can improve the model.

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MATHEMATICS

The above principles of mathematical modelling lead to the following: steps for

mathematical modelling.

Step 1: Identify the physical situation.

Step 2: Convert the physical situation into a mathematical model by introducing

parameters / variables and using various known physical laws and symbols.

Step 3: Find the solution of the mathematical problem.

Step 4: Interpret the result in terms of the original problem and compare the result

with observations or experiments.

Step 5: If the result is in good agreement, then accept the model. Otherwise modify

the hypotheses / assumptions according to the physical situation and go to

Step 2.

The above steps can also be viewed through the following diagram:

Fig A.2.1

Example 1 Find the height of a given tower using mathematical modelling.

Solution Step 1 Given physical situation is “to find the height of a given tower”.

Step 2 Let AB be the given tower (Fig A.2.2). Let PQ be an observer measuring the

height of the tower with his eye at P. Let PQ = h and let height of tower be H . Let α

be the angle of elevation from the eye of the observer to the top of the tower.

Fig A.2.2

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 259

Let

$$l = PC = QB$$

AC

H h

Now

$$\tan \alpha =$$

$\frac{AC}{PC}$

$\frac{H-h}{l}$

PC

l

or

$$H = h + l \tan \alpha$$

... (1)



Step 3 Note that the values of the parameters h , l and (using sextant) are known to



the observer and so (1) gives the solution of the problem.

Step 4 In case, if the foot of the tower is not accessible, i.e., when l is not known to the observer, let θ be the angle of depression from P to the foot B of the tower. So from



PQB, we have



PQ

h

\tan

or $l = h \cot \theta$



QB

l

Step 5 is not required in this situation as exact values of the parameters h , l , and α

α

are known.

Example 2 Let a business firm produces three types of products P_1 , P_2 and P_3 that

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uses three types of raw materials R_1 , R_2 and R_3 . Let the firm has purchase orders from

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two clients F_1 and F_2 . Considering the situation that the firm has a limited quantity of

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R_1 , R_2 and R_3 , respectively, prepare a model to determine the quantities of the raw

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material R_1 , R_2 and R_3 required to meet the purchase orders.

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Solution Step 1 The physical situation is well identified in the problem.

Step 2 Let A be a matrix that represents purchase orders from the two clients F_1 and F_2

1

F_1 . Then, A is of the form

2

$\begin{pmatrix} P & P & P \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$

1

2

3

$F_2 \vdots \dots$

1

A



F ☆•••👉

2 🗨️



Let B be the matrix that represents the amount of raw materials R₁, R₂ and R₃

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required to manufacture each unit of the products P₁, P₂ and P₃. Then, B is of the form

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R₁ R₂ R₃

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P  •

• •

1



B

P  •

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2



P  •

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3



260

MATHEMATICS

Step 3 Note that the product (which in this case is well defined) of matrices A and B

is given by the following matrix

R R R

1

2

3

F . . .

1

AB



F ✂ . . . 📞

2 Ⓜ



which in fact gives the desired quantities of the raw materials R , R and R to fulfill

1

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the purchase orders of the two clients F and F .

1

2

Example 3 Interpret the model in Example 2, in case

† 3

4

0

10

†

15

6

†

A =

†

, B

⊗

7

9 3 ☆



10



20

0 ☆



✂ 5

12

7 ☆



and the available raw materials are 330 units of R , 455 units of R and 140 units of R .

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Solution Note that

† 3

4

0

10 15

6

†

†

†

AB =

⊗

7

9 3 ☆

10

⊗

20

0✧♣



♣ 5

12

7✧



R

R

R

1

2

3

F 165



247

87

= 1



F 170



220

60 

2 



This clearly shows that to meet the purchase order of F and F , the raw material

1

2

required is 335 units of R , 467 units of R and 147 units of R which is much more than

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the available raw material. Since the amount of raw material required to manufacture

each unit of the three products is fixed, we can either ask for an increase in the

available raw material or we may ask the clients to reduce their orders.

Remark If we replace A in Example 3 by A given by

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✓

9 12

6

A =

×

1

10

×

20

0 ×

×

+

i.e., if the clients agree to reduce their purchase orders, then

+

4

0 +

141



216

78

✚ 9

12

6 ✚

AB =



7

9

3 ✚



1

10



20

0 ✚ ✚



170



220

60☆



❖ 5

12

7❖



MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 261

This requires 311 units of R , 436 units of R and 138 units of R which are well

1

2

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below the available raw materials, i.e., 330 units of R , 455 units of R and 140 units of

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R . Thus, if the revised purchase orders of the clients are given by A , then the firm

3

1

can easily supply the purchase orders of the two clients.

Note One may further modify A so as to make full use of the available raw material.

Query Can we make a mathematical model with a given B and with fixed quantities of

the available raw material that can help the firm owner to ask the clients to modify their

orders in such a way that the firm makes the full use of its available raw material?

The answer to this query is given in the following example:

Example 4 Suppose P , P , P and R , R , R are as in Example 2. Let the firm has

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330 units of R , 455 units of R and 140 units of R available with it and let the amount

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of raw materials R , R and R required to manufacture each unit of the three products

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is given by

R

R R

1

2

3

P ~~3~~

4

0

1



B

P ✂ 7

9

3 📞



2



P ✂ 5 12

7

3



How many units of each product is to be made so as to utilise the full available raw

material?

Solution Step 1 The situation is easily identifiable.

Step 2 Suppose the firm produces x units of P , y units of P and z units of P .
Since 1

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product P requires 3 units of R , P requires 7 units of R and P requires 5
units of R

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(observe matrix B) and the total number of units, of R , available is 330, we
have

1

$$3x + 7y + 5z = 330 \text{ (for raw material R)}$$

1

Similarly, we have

$$4x + 9y + 12z = 455 \text{ (for raw material R)}$$

2

and

$$3y + 7z = 140 \text{ (for raw material R)}$$

3

This system of equations can be expressed in matrix form as

†

3 7

$$5 \text{ † } x \text{ †}$$

$$\text{† } 330 \text{ †}$$

☆

$$4 \ 9 \ 12 \text{ † } ☆ \ y \text{ †}$$

☆

455



0 3 7



14



0



262

MATHEMATICS

Step 3 Using elementary row operations, we obtain

1 0

0

x

20



0 1 0 \times y



35 ✂



0

0 1 ✂ ✂ z ✂



5 ✂

⓪

+

⓪

+

⓪

+

This gives $x = 20$, $y = 35$ and $z = 5$. Thus, the firm can produce 20 units of P, 35

1

units of P and 5 units of P to make full use of its available raw material.

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Remark One may observe that if the manufacturer decides to manufacture according

to the available raw material and not according to the purchase orders of the two

clients F and F (as in Example 3), he/she is unable to meet these purchase orders as

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F demanded 6 units of P where as the manufacturer can make only 5 units of P .

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Example 5 A manufacturer of medicines is preparing a production plan of medicines

M and M . There are sufficient raw materials available to make 20000 bottles of M

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and 40000 bottles of M , but there are only 45000 bottles into which either of the

2

medicines can be put. Further, it takes 3 hours to prepare enough material to fill 1000

bottles of M , it takes 1 hour to prepare enough material to fill 1000 bottles of M and

1

2

there are 66 hours available for this operation. The profit is Rs 8 per bottle for M and

1

Rs 7 per bottle for M . How should the manufacturer schedule his/her production in

2

order to maximise profit?

Solution Step 1 To find the number of bottles of M and M in order to maximise the

1

2

profit under the given hypotheses.

Step 2 Let x be the number of bottles of type M medicine and y be the number of 1

bottles of type M medicine. Since profit is Rs 8 per bottle for M and Rs 7 per bottle

2

1

for M , therefore the objective function (which is to be maximised) is given by

2

$$Z Z (x, y) = 8 x + 7 y$$

†

The objective function is to be maximised subject to the constraints (Refer Chapter

12 on Linear Programming)

$$x \leq 20000$$



$$y \leq 40000$$



x

y

$$45000 \leq$$



... (1)

$$3x$$

$$y \leq 66000$$



$$x \geq 0, y \geq 0$$



Step 3 The shaded region OPQRST is the feasible region for the constraints (1)

(Fig A.2.3). The coordinates of vertices O, P, Q, R, S and T are (0, 0), (20000, 0),

(20000, 6000), (10500, 34500), (5000, 40000) and (0, 40000), respectively.

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 263

Fig A.2.3

Note that

$$Z \text{ at } P(0, 0) = 0$$

$$Z \text{ at } P(20000, 0) = 8 \times 20000 = 160000$$

$$Z \text{ at } Q(20000, 6000) = 8 \times 20000 + 7 \times 6000 = 202000$$

$$Z \text{ at } R(10500, 34500) = 8 \times 10500 + 7 \times 34500 = 325500$$

$$Z \text{ at } S = (5000, 40000) = 8 \times 5000 + 7 \times 40000 = 320000$$

$$Z \text{ at } T = (0, 40000) = 7 \times 40000 = 280000$$

Now observe that the profit is maximum at $x = 10500$ and $y = 34500$ and the

maximum profit is Rs 325500. Hence, the manufacturer should produce 10500 bottles

of M medicine and 34500 bottles of M medicine in order to get maximum profit of

1

2

Rs 325500.

Example 6 Suppose a company plans to produce a new product that incur some costs

(fixed and variable) and let the company plans to sell the product at a fixed price.

Prepare a mathematical model to examine the profitability.

Solution Step 1 Situation is clearly identifiable.

264

MATHEMATICS

Step 2 Formulation: We are given that the costs are of two types: fixed and variable.

The fixed costs are independent of the number of units produced (e.g., rent and rates),

while the variable costs increase with the number of units produced (e.g., material).

Initially, we assume that the variable costs are directly proportional to the number of

units produced — this should simplify our model. The company earn a certain amount

of money by selling its products and wants to ensure that it is maximum. For convenience,

we assume that all units produced are sold immediately.

The mathematical model

Let

x = number of units produced and sold

C = total cost of production (in rupees)

I = income from sales (in rupees)

P = profit (in rupees)

Our assumptions above state that C consists of two parts:

(i) fixed cost = a (in rupees),

(ii) variable cost = b (rupees/unit produced).

Then

$$C = a + bx$$

... (1)

Also, income I depends on selling price s (rupees/unit)

Thus

$$I = sx$$

... (2)

The profit P is then the difference between income and costs. So

$$P = I - C$$

$$= sx - (a + bx)$$

$$= (s - b)x - a$$

... (3)

We now have a mathematical model of the relationships (1) to (3) between the variables x, C, I, P, a, b, s . These variables may be classified as:

independent

x

dependent

C, I, P

parameters

a, b, s

The manufacturer, knowing x, a, b, s can determine P.

Step 3 From (3), we can observe that for the break even point (i.e., make neither profit a

nor loss), he must have $P = 0$, i.e., x

units.

$$s > b$$

Steps 4 and 5 In view of the break even point, one may conclude that if the company

a

produces few units, i.e., less than x

units, then the company will suffer loss

$$s < b$$

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 265

a

and if it produces large number of units, i.e., much more than

units, then it can

$$s > b$$

make huge profit. Further, if the break even point proves to be unrealistic, then another

model could be tried or the assumptions regarding cash flow may be modified.

Remark From (3), we also have

$$dP$$

↔

$$s > b$$

$$dx$$

This means that rate of change of P with respect to x depends on the quantity

$s - b$, which is the difference of selling price and the variable cost of each product.

Thus, in order to gain profit, this should be positive and to get large gains, we need to

produce large quantity of the product and at the same time try to reduce the variable

cost.

Example 7 Let a tank contains 1000 litres of brine which contains 250 g of salt per

litre. Brine containing 200 g of salt per litre flows into the tank at the rate of 25 litres per

minute and the mixture flows out at the same rate. Assume that the mixture is kept

uniform all the time by stirring. What would be the amount of salt in the tank at

any time t ?

Solution Step 1 The situation is easily identifiable.

Step 2 Let $y = y(t)$ denote the amount of salt (in kg) in the tank at time t (in minutes) after the inflow, outflow starts. Further assume that y is a differentiable function.

When $t = 0$, i.e., before the inflow–outflow of the brine starts,

$$y = 250 \text{ g} \times 1000 = 250 \text{ kg}$$

Note that the change in y occurs due to the inflow, outflow of the mixture.

Now the inflow of brine brings salt into the tank at the rate of 5 kg per minute

(as $25 \times 200 \text{ g} = 5 \text{ kg}$) and the outflow of brine takes salt out of the tank at the rate of

y



y

y

25

kg per minute (as at time t , the salt in the tank is kg).



1000†

1000



40

Thus, the rate of change of salt with respect to t is given by

dy

y

$= 5$

(Why?)



dt

40

dy

1

or

$= 5$

... (1)



y

dt

40

266

MATHEMATICS

This gives a mathematical model for the given problem.

Step 3 Equation (1) is a linear equation and can be easily solved. The solution of (1) is

given by

t

t

t

✂

40

40

$y e$

$200 e$

or $y (t) = 200 + C$

40

e

... (2)

✂

C

where, c is the constant of integration.

Note that when $t = 0, y = 250$. Therefore, $250 = 200 + C$

or

$$C = 50$$

Then (2) reduces to

t



$$y = 200 + 50$$

40

e

... (3)

y

t



200

or



40

e

50

t

50

or

40

e

$$= y + 200$$

+

50

+

Therefore

$$t = 40 \log$$

... (4)

$$e^{-\frac{t}{40}} = \frac{y}{200}$$

☞

☞

✌️

Here, the equation (4) gives the time t at which the salt in tank is y kg.

t

Ⓞ

Step 4 Since

40

e

is always positive, from (3), we conclude that $y > 200$ at all times

Thus, the minimum amount of salt content in the tank is 200 kg.

Also, from (4), we conclude that $t > 0$ if and only if $0 < y - 200 < 50$ i.e., if and only if $200 < y < 250$ i.e., the amount of salt content in the tank after the start of inflow and outflow of the brine is between 200 kg and 250 kg.

Limitations of Mathematical Modelling

Till today many mathematical models have been developed and applied successfully

to understand and get an insight into thousands of situations. Some of the subjects like

mathematical physics, mathematical economics, operations research, bio-mathematics

etc. are almost synonymous with mathematical modelling.

But there are still a large number of situations which are yet to be modelled. The

reason behind this is that either the situation are found to be very complex or the

mathematical models formed are mathematically intractable.

MATHEMATICAL MODELLING 267

The development of the powerful computers and super computers has enabled us

to mathematically model a large number of situations (even complex situations). Due

to these fast and advanced computers, it has been possible to prepare more realistic

models which can obtain better agreements with observations.

However, we do not have good guidelines for choosing various parameters / variables

and also for estimating the values of these parameters / variables used in a mathematical

model. Infact, we can prepare reasonably accurate models to fit any data by choosing

five or six parameters *variables*. *We require a minimal number of parameters variables*

to be able to estimate them accurately.

Mathematical modelling of large or complex situations has its own special problems.

These type of situations usually occur in the study of world models of environment,

oceanography, pollution control *etc*. Mathematical modellers from all disciplines —

mathematics, computer science, physics, engineering, social sciences, etc., are involved

in meeting these challenges with courage.

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CONSTITUTION OF INDIA

Part III (Articles 12 – 35)

(Subject to certain conditions, some exceptions
and reasonable restrictions)

guarantees these

Fundamental Rights

Right to Equality

before law and equal protection of laws;

⑨

irrespective of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth;

⑨

of opportunity in public employment;

⑨

by abolition of untouchability and titles.

⑨

Right to Freedom

of expression, assembly, association, movement, residence and profession;

⑨

of certain protections in respect of conviction for offences;

⑨

of protection of life and personal liberty;

⑨

of free and compulsory education for children between the age of six and

⑨

fourteen years;

of protection against arrest and detention in certain cases.

⑨

Right against Exploitation

for prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour;

⑨

for prohibition of employment of children in hazardous jobs.

⑨

Right to Freedom of Religion

freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of

⑨

religion;

freedom to manage religious affairs;

⑨

freedom as to payment of taxes for promotion of any particular religion;

⑨

freedom as to attendance at religious instruction or religious worship in

⑨

educational institutions wholly maintained by the State.

Cultural and Educational Rights

for protection of interests of minorities to conserve their language, script and

⑨

culture;

for minorities to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice.

⑨

Right to Constitutional Remedies

by issuance of directions or orders or writs by the Supreme Court and High

⑨

Courts for enforcement of these Fundamental Rights.