

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

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UG TRB cos 2x = cos 2x=Sin 2x 2023-2024 =2; 2 = 0 = (K; F; F; FZ) 1-tgx + 5 sim(x+y)= Sin < COSY+COSX SINY 26ccosod ZI=V~2 DIRAY BR colax tgx.cotgx = 1 Sand sin2x = 2sinx.cosx Sux LA.1 tyx colors I sinkly)=sinxcorrects siny A+B+C= 8 34-77+12C=193 12-2-32++ 1+O 18AK 5-3C-16

UNIT I Algebra & Trigonometry

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INDEX UNIT - I - ALGEBRA AND TRIGONOMETRY S.No. P. No. Topic 1 1.1 **Polynomial Equations** 1.2 Imaginary and Irrational roots 2 1.3 Relation between roots and coefficients symmetric function of roots in 9 terms of coefficient 1.4 Transformation of Equation: 12 **Reciprocal Equation** 15 1.5 Increase or Decrease the roots of given equation 23 1.6 1.7 Removal of a term 24 1.8 Descartes's rule of signs 27 1.9 Approximate solution of roots of polynomial by Horner's method 29 Newton's Raphson's Method of cubic polynomial 31 1.10 Summation of series using Binomial 35 1.11 1.12 Exponential and Logarithmic series 38 Logarithmic series 41 1.13 1.14 Symmetric 45 Skew symmetric: 45 1.15 Definition of Hermition 49 1.16 Definition of skew – Hermition 1.17 50 Orthogonal matrix $\Rightarrow AA^T = A^T A = I$ 1.18 51 1.19 Unitary matrix: 52 Eigen values 1.20 52 Eigen vectors 55 1.21 1.22 Cayley - Hamilton Theorem: 57

1.23	Similar Matrices	59
1.24	Diagonalization of matrices	60
1.25	Diagonalisation of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -5 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$	60
1.26	Prime Number:	63
1.27	Composite Number:	63
1.28	Number of primes	64
1.29	Divisor of a given Number N	64
1.30	Highest Power of prime number P contained in n!	73
1.31	Application of Maxima and Minima	75
1.32	General Fermat's Theorem	76
1.33	Wilson's Theorem:	78
1.34	Expansions of power of six n x, cos nx, tan nx	81
1.35	Expansion of $\cos^n \theta$, where n is a positive integer	83
1.36	Expansion of $\sin^n \theta$, in series of multiplies of θ when n is positive integer	86
1.37	Expansion of $\sin^7 \theta$ in series sines of multiples of θ	87
1.38	Summation of C + is method	99
1.39	Expand $\sin 70$ in powers of $\cos \theta$ and $\sin \theta$. Reduce that	102
1.40	Hyper polic function	111
1.41	Relation between circular and Hyperbolic function	116
1.42	Inverse Hyperbolic Function	119
1.43	Logarithm of a complex number:	123
1.44	Principal values and general values	129
1.45	Multiple Choice Question	135

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UG TRB – MATHEMATICS – 2023-24 UNIT – I

ALGEBRA & TRIGONOMETRY

<u>1.1. Polynomial Equations:</u>

 $f(x) = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + a_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + a_n$

• Where n is a positive integers and $a_0, a_1, ..., a_n$ constant is called polynomial in x of nth degree, if $a_0 \neq 0$.

Fundamental Theorem of Algebra

- 1. Every polynomial equation of the nth degree has n and only n roots.
- 2. If f(x) = 0 is an equation of odd degree then it has at least one real roots.

Whose sign opposite to that of the last term.

- 3. If f(x)=0 is an even degree another constant terms is negative. The equation has atleast one positive root and atleast one negative root.
- 4. If f(x) = 0 has no real root between a and b (a < b), then f(a) and f (b) are same sign.

Exercises

1. Find the coefficient of x^n in the expansion of e^{a+bx} .

(A)
$$\frac{e^{a} \cdot e^{b}}{n!}$$
 (B) $\frac{e^{a} \cdot e^{n}}{n!}$ (C) $\frac{e^{a} \cdot e^{n}}{a!}$ (D) $\frac{e^{a} \cdot e^{n}}{b!}$

2. The expansion of $\log(1+x)$ is

(A)
$$\log(1 + x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots$$
 (B) $\log(1 + x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots$



 $= a \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$

(C) $\log(1 + x) = x - \frac{x}{3}$	$\frac{3}{3!} + \cdots$	(D) None of these	2
The number of primes i	S		
(A) finite	(B) prime	(C) infinite	(D) None of these
Every polynomial equation	tion $f(x) = 0$ has	s atleast one root real or	
(A) imaginary	(B) real	(C) algebraic	(D) complex
2. Imaginary and	l Irrationa	<u>1 Roots</u>	
Solve $x^4 + 4x^3 + 5x^2 + $	2x - 2 = 0, solv	e -1+i is a root.	
ution:		C	
Given $-1+i$ is a root,			
-1-i is also a root.			
[x - (-1 + i)][x - (-1 + i)]	1-i] = (($x+1$))-i)((x+1)+i)	
$= (x+1)^2 - i^2$			
$= (x+1)^2 + 1$			
$=x^{2}+2x+1+1$			
$=x^2+2x+2$			
When the polynomial is	divided by x^2 -	+2x+2. The remainder is	zero.
Equating the co-efficien	t of x^3 - term of	f both side	
$\therefore x^4 + 4x^3 + 5x^2 + 2x - 2$	$= \left(x^2 + 2x + 2\right)$	$\left(x^2 + ax - 1\right)$	
2+ <i>a</i> =4	*		im
a=4-2			
a = 2			173 -
$\therefore f(x) = (x^2 + 2x + 1)$	$2)(x^2+2x-1)$		
$\therefore x^2 + 2x - 1 = 0$			
$-b\pm\sqrt{b^2-4ac}$			

$$a \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4(-1)}}{2(1)}$$
$$= \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{8}}{2}$$
$$= \frac{-2 \pm 2\sqrt{2}}{2}$$
$$= \frac{2(-1 \pm \sqrt{2})}{2}$$
$$= -1 \pm \sqrt{2}$$

• The two roots are $\left(-1-\sqrt{2}\right), \left(-1+\sqrt{2}\right)$

Solve: $x^4 - 10x^3 + 26x^2 - 10x + 1 = 0$ given that $2 + \sqrt{3}$ in a root of the equations.

Solu:

• Since,
$$2 + \sqrt{3}$$
 is a roots, $2 - \sqrt{3}$ is also a root.
 $(x - (2 + \sqrt{3}))[x - (2 - \sqrt{3})] = [x(-2 - \sqrt{3})][x(-2 + \sqrt{3})]$
 $= [(x - 2) - \sqrt{3}][(x - 2) + \sqrt{3}]$
 $= (x - 2)^2 - (\sqrt{3})^2$
 $= x^2 - 4x + 4 - 3$
 $= x^2 - 4x + 1$

- When the polynomial is divided by $x^2 4x + 1$ the remainder is zero.
- Equality the co-efficient of x^3 term on both side.

$$\therefore x^{4} - 10x^{3} + 26x^{2} - 10x + 1 = (x^{2} - 4x + 1)(x^{2} - ax + 1)$$

-a - 4 = -10
-a = -10 + 4
-a = -6

$$a = 6$$

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 \therefore The two roots are $(3+2\sqrt{2})$ and $(3-2\sqrt{2})$

Solve: $x^3 - 15x^2 + 71x - 105 = 0$ given that the roots of equation are in A.P.

Soln:

• Let the roots be $\alpha - d, \alpha, \alpha + d$

• Sum of roots
$$= \alpha - d + d + \alpha + d$$

 $\alpha - d + \alpha + \alpha + d = p$

 $=3\alpha$

General formula

 $3\alpha = +15$

 $\alpha = \frac{15}{3}$

 $\alpha = 5$

 $x^{3}-15x+71x-105 = (x-5)(x^{2}+ax+21)$

Since x = 5 is a root, x-5 is a factor of f(x)

• Equating the coefficient of x^2 term in both side

x - 7 = 0x - 3 = 0*x* = 7 x = 3

 \therefore The roots are (3, 5, 7)

a = -15 + 5

a = 10

Alter

Product of root = -(-105)

$$(5-d)(5)(5+d) = -(-105)$$

$$5(5^{2}-d^{2}) = 105$$

$$25-d^{2} = \frac{105}{5}$$

$$25-d^{2} = 21$$

$$d^{2} = 25-21$$

$$d^{2} = 4$$

$$d = \pm 2$$

 \therefore The roots are $\alpha - d, \alpha, \alpha + d$ is

$$\Rightarrow (5-2,5,5+2)$$
$$\Rightarrow (3,5,7)$$

Solve: $x^3 - 19x^2 + 114x - 216 = 0$ given that the roots are in G.P.

Soln.

- Let the roots be $\left(\frac{\alpha}{r}, \alpha, \alpha r\right)$
- Product of the roots = $\frac{\alpha}{r}$, α , $\alpha r = -r$

 $\alpha^{3} = 216$

$$\alpha^3 = 6^3$$

 $\alpha = 6$

• Since x = 6 is a root, (x-6) is a factor $x^3 - 19x^2 + 114x - 216 = (x-6)(x^2 + ax + 36)$

- a 6 = -19 a = -19 + 6 a = -13 $(x^{2} - 13x + 36) = (x - 9)(x - 4)$ (x - 9)(x - 4) = 0x = 9, 4
- \therefore The roots are (6, 4, 9)

Solve: $6x^3 - 11x^2 + 6x - 1 = 0$ given the roots are in H.P.

Soln:

• Put $x = \frac{1}{y}$ $6x^3 - 11x^2 + 6x - 1 = 0$

$$6\left(\frac{1}{y}\right)^{3} - 11\left(\frac{1}{y}\right)^{2} + 6\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) - 1 = 0$$

$$\frac{6}{y^{3}} - \frac{11}{y^{2}} + \frac{6}{y} - 1 = 0$$

$$6 - 11y + 6y^{2} - y^{3} = 0$$

$$y^{3} - 6y^{2} + 11y - 6 = 0$$

Sum of the roots

$$\alpha - d + \alpha + \alpha + d = 6$$
$$3\alpha = 6$$
$$\alpha = \frac{6}{3}$$

 $\alpha = 2$

• Since y = 2 is a root, (y-2) is a factor

 $y^{3}-6y^{2}+11y-6=(y-2)(y^{2}+ay+3)$

• Equating the co-efficient of y^2 terms in both side

$$a-2 = -6$$

$$a = -6+2$$

$$a = -4$$

$$\therefore y^2 - 4y + 3 = 0$$

$$(y-1)(y-3) = 0$$

$$y = 1,3$$

- \therefore The roots are (1, 2, 3)
- The roots of a given equation are

$$\left(1,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{3}\right)$$

Solve: $x^4 - 2x^3 + 4x^2 + 6x - 21 = 0$ given that two of its roots are equal in magnitude but opposite in sign.

Soln:

• Let the roots be α, β, γ and δ

 $\alpha + \beta = 0$

$$\alpha = -\beta$$

$$\therefore x^4 - 2x^3 + 4x^2 = 6x - 21 = (x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)(x - \delta)$$
$$= \left[x^2 - (\alpha + \beta)x + \alpha\beta\right] \left[x^2 - (\gamma - \delta)x + \gamma\delta\right]$$

$$= (x^{2} + \alpha\beta)(x^{2} - (\gamma + \delta)x + \gamma\delta)$$
$$= (x^{2} - a)(x^{2} - 6x + c)$$
$$= x^{4} - 6x + cx^{2} - ax^{2} + abx + ac$$

• Equating the co-efficient of x^3 , x^2 and x terms are both side

	-b = -2	c-a=4	<i>ab</i> = 6	
	<i>b</i> = 2	c - 3 = 4	$a \times 2 = 6$	4
	c = 4 + 3	<i>a</i> = 3		
	<i>c</i> = 7			
	$(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)(x^2-3)$	2x+7)		407
	$x^2 - 3 = 0$		\leq	\mathbb{Z}^{2}
	$x^2 = 3 \Longrightarrow x = 1$	$\pm\sqrt{3}$		
	$x^2 - 2x + 7 = 0$	0	(*
	$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2}}{2a}$	<u>-4ac</u>		
	$x = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4}}{2}$	<u>1×7</u>		
	$x = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 2}}{2}$	28		
	$=\frac{2\pm\sqrt{-24}}{2}$		5	
	$=\frac{2\pm i2\sqrt{6}}{2}$			
	$=\frac{2\left(1\pm i\sqrt{6}\right)}{2}$			
	$x = 1 \pm i\sqrt{6}$			
Ex	tercises			
1.	The series $x - \frac{x}{2}$	$\frac{x^2}{x^2} + \frac{x^3}{3!} - \dots \infty$ is		
	(A) Convergent		(B) Divergent	
	(C) Infinite		(D) Finite	
2.	If A and B are sy	mmetric, then AB is s	ymmetric iff A and B are	•ו
	(A) Symmetric		(B) skew symmetric	
	(C) commutative		(D) Associative	121713
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8

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(D) None of these

- 3. If A and B are Hermitian then AB+BA is Hermitian and AB-BA is
 - (A) Hermitian
 - (C) skew Hermitian
- 4. If $A^*A = I$, then a square matrix A is said to be

(A) unitary (B) orthogonal

- 5. The roots of the equation $x + \frac{1}{x} = 1$ are
 - (A) 1, -1
 - (C) 1+i and 1-i
- 6. One real root of the equation $x^3 7x^2 + 14x 8 = 0$ is
 - (A) -2 (B) $\frac{1}{2}$ (C) $-\frac{1}{2}$ (D) 2

1.3. Relation Between Roots and Coefficients Symmetric Function of Roots In Terms Of Coefficient

(iii) $\sum \alpha^3$

(B) skew symmetric

(D) Non Hermitian

(B) 1+i and $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i\sqrt{3}}{2}$

(D) $\frac{1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$ and $\frac{1-i\sqrt{3}}{2}$

(C) diagonal

If α, β, γ are the roots are the equation $x^3 + px^2 + qx = r = 0$ Find the value of

(ii) $\sum \alpha^2$

(i) $\sum \alpha^2 \beta$

 $\sum \alpha = -p$

 $\sum \alpha \beta = q$

 $\sum \alpha \beta \gamma = -r$

Soln

[i]

- [ii]
- [iii]

Therefore



= 3r - pq

[ii]
$$\sum \alpha^{2} = (\sum \alpha)^{2} - 2\sum \alpha \beta$$
$$= (-p)^{2} - 2(q)$$
$$= p^{2} - 2q$$
[iii]
$$\sum \alpha^{3} = (\sum \alpha)^{3} - 3(\sum \alpha)(\sum \alpha \beta) + 3\alpha \beta \gamma$$
$$= -p^{3} + (3p)(q) - r$$
$$= -p^{3} + 3pq - r$$

Prove that the sum of cubes of the roots $x^3 - 6x^2 + 11x - 6 = 0$ is 36 Soln:

$$\sum \alpha^{3} = (\sum \alpha)^{3} - 3(\sum \alpha)(\sum \alpha \beta) + 3\alpha\beta\gamma$$

= $(-p)^{3} + 3pq + 3r$
= $(6)^{3} - 3(6)(11) + 3(6)$
= $216 - 198 + 18$
Here P = 6, q = 11, r = 6
= $216 - 198 - 18$
= $234 - 198$
 $\sum \alpha^{3} = 36$
Hence, they proved $x^{3} - 6x^{2} + 11x - 6 = 0$ for cube roots is 36.

• If
$$\alpha, \beta, \gamma$$
 are the roots $x^3 - x - 1 = 0$ for equation where roots are $\frac{1}{\alpha^3}, \frac{1}{\beta^3}, \frac{1}{\gamma^3}$

Soln:

• Let $y = \frac{1}{\alpha^3} = \frac{1}{x^3}$, $y = \frac{1}{x^3}$ $\therefore x^3 = \frac{1}{y}$

Hence, $x^3 - x - 1 = 0$ (1)



$$\left(\begin{array}{c}y\\y\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}y\\y\end{array}\right)^{1-0}\left(\begin{array}{c}y\\y\end{array}\right)^{1-0}$$

$$\frac{\left(1-y\right)^{3}}{y^{3}}-\frac{\left(1-y\right)}{y}-1=0$$

$$\left(1-y\right)^{3}-\left(1-y\right)y^{2}-y^{3}=0$$

$$1-3y+3y^{2}-y^{3}-y^{2}+y^{3}-y^{3}=0$$

$$13y+3y^{2}-y^{3}-y^{2}=0$$

$$1-3y+3y^{2}-y^{3}-y^{2}=0$$

$$1-3y+3y^{2}-y^{3}-y^{2}=0$$

$$-y^{3}+2y^{2}-3y+1=0$$

$$y^{3}-2y^{2}+3y-1=0$$

 \therefore This are corresponding equation.

If α, β, γ the roots of $x^3 - 3ax + 6 = 0$ show that $\sum (\alpha - \beta)(\alpha - \gamma) = 9a$

Soln:

• We have
$$\sum \alpha = 0$$
, $\sum \alpha \beta = -3a$, $\alpha \beta \gamma = -6b$

$$\sum \alpha^{2} = (\sum \alpha)^{2} - 2\sum \alpha \beta$$
$$= 0 - 2(-3a)$$
$$= 6a$$
$$\sum (\alpha - \beta)(\alpha - \gamma) = \sum [\alpha^{2} - \alpha \gamma - \alpha \beta + \beta \gamma]$$

$$= \sum \alpha^{2} - \sum \alpha \gamma \sum \alpha \beta + \sum \beta \gamma$$

$$= 6a - (-3a) - (-3a) + (-3a)$$

$$= 6a + 3a + 3a - 3a$$

$$= 9a$$

$$\therefore \sum (\alpha - \beta)(\alpha - \gamma) = 9a$$
cercises
Choose the wrong answer from the following choices
Every nth degree equation $f(x) = 0$ has ______.
(A) atleast n roots (B) atmost n roots
(C) exactly n roots (D) atleast one real root
If the equation $x^{3} - 4x^{2} + 4x - 16 = 0$ has two roots 2i and -2i then the other root is
(A) $1+i$ (B) $1-i$ (C) $2-i$ (D) 4
If α, β, γ are the roots of $x^{3} + 2x - 6 = 0$ then the value of $\alpha\beta\gamma$ is
(A) 0 (B) 2 (C) 6 (D) -6
If the product of the roots of $3x^{4} - 4x^{3} + 2x^{2} + x + a = 0$ is 21 then the value of a is
(A) 7 (B) -7 (C) -63 (D) 63
4. Transformation of Equation:
Transform the equation $x^{3} - 8x^{2} - x^{2} + 68x - 60 = 0$ into 1 which does not contain the terms in x^{3} hence the solve the equation.
In:
Given: $x^{4} - 8x^{3} - x^{2} + 68x - 60 = 0$ (1)
Take $h - \frac{a_{1}}{a_{0}} = \frac{8}{4} = 2$

Diminish the root by 2

 na_0

h = 2



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INDEX

UNIT – II – DIFFERENTIATION

S.N.	Topic	P. N.
2.1	Successive Differentiation n th Derivatives	1
2.2	Standard n th Derivative	11
2.3	Leibnitz Theorem	23
2.4	Partial Differentiation	37
2.5	Maxima And Minima Of Functions Of Two Variables	51
2.6	Method Of Langrange's Multipliers	61
2.7	Curvature And Radius Of Curvature	76
2.8	Radius Of Curvature In Polar Coordinates	94
2.9	Angle Between The Radius Vector And The Tangent	104
2.10	Pedal Equation – P – R Equation	108
2.11	Envelopes And Evolutes	127
2.12	Centre Of Curvature	141
2.13	Asymptotes:	159
2.14	Asymptotes By Inspection:	163
2.15	Double And Triple Integrals	176
2.16	Double Integral In Polar Co-Ordinates	187
2.17	Change Of Order Of Integration	195
2.18	Applications Of Double And Triple Integrals	205
2.19	Surface Area Of Solids	216
2.20	Jacobians	229
2.21	Beta, Gamma Functions	236
2.22	Evaluation Of Integrals Using Beta And Gamma Functions	244
2.23	Pole And Polar Co-Ordinates	264
2.24	Polar Equation Of A Conic	269
2.25.	Multiple Choice Questions	278

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UNIT II : DIFFERENTIATION

2.1. SUCCESSIVE DIFFERENTIATION nth DERIVATIVES

If y is a function of x, its derivative $\frac{dy}{dx}$ will be some other function of x and the differentiation

of this function with respect to x is called second derivative and is denoted by $\frac{d^2y}{dr^2}$.

i.e.,
$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$$

Similarly, the third derivative is denoted by $\frac{d^3y}{dr^3}$

i.e.,
$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right) = \frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$$

Thus, if we differentiate y twice with respect to x, we get the second derivative. If y is differentiated thrice with respect to x we get the third derivative.

Problem:

1. If
$$y = \frac{ax+b}{cx+d}$$
 Find $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$.

Solution:

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





2.

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(cx+d)a - (ax+b)c}{(cx+d)^2}$$

$$= \frac{acx + ad - acx - bc}{(cx+d)^2}$$

$$= \frac{ad - bc}{(cx+d)^2}$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{0 - (ad - bc)(2)(cx+d)c}{(cx+d)^4}$$

$$= \frac{-2c(ad - bc)}{(cx+d)^3}$$
2. If $x = a(\cos t + t\sin t)$ $y = a(\sin t - t\cos t)$ Find $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$.
Solution:
 $y = a(\sin t - t\cos t)$
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = a(\cos t + t\sin t - \cos t)$

$$= at\sin t$$
 $x = a(\cos t - t\sin t)$
 $\frac{dx}{dt} = a(-\sin t + t\cos t + \sin t)$

$$= at\cos t$$
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{at\sin t}{at\cos t} = \tan t$
 $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dt}(\frac{dy}{dx}) = \frac{d}{dt}(\frac{dy}{dx})\frac{dt}{dx}$
 $= \frac{d}{dt}(\tan t) \cdot \frac{dt}{dx}$

$$= \sec^2 t \cdot \frac{1}{at \cos t}$$
$$= \frac{\sec^3 t}{at}$$

3. If
$$y = a\cos 5x + b\sin 5x$$
 show that $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 25y = 0$

$$y = a\cos 5x + b\sin 5x$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -5a\sin 5x + 5b\cos 5x$$

 $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -25a\cos 5x - 25b\sin 5x$

$$= -25(a\cos 5x + b\sin 5x)$$

$$=-25y$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 25y = 0$$

4. If
$$y = a\cos(\log x) + b\sin(\log x)$$
 show that $x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$

Solution:

$$y = a\cos(\log x) + b\sin(\log x)$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-a\sin(\log x)}{x} + \frac{b\cos(\log x)}{x}$$
$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = -a\sin(\log x) + b\cos(\log x)$$

Again, differentiating with respect to x,



$$x\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot 1 = \frac{-a\cos(\log x)}{x} - \frac{b\sin(\log x)}{x}$$
$$x^2\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + x\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

5. If
$$(y = x + \sqrt{1 + x^2})^m$$
 show that $(1 + x^2)y_2 + xy_1 - m^2y = 0$

$$y = \left(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}\right)^m$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = m\left(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}\right)^{m-1} \left[1 + \frac{2x}{2\sqrt{1 + x^2}}\right]$$
$$= \frac{m\left(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}\right)^{m-1} \left[\sqrt{1 + x^2} + x\right]}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$$
$$= \frac{m\left(x + \sqrt{1 + x^2}\right)^m}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$$
$$= \frac{my}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$$

Cross multiplying and squaring we get,

$$(1+x^{2})\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2} = m^{2}y^{2}$$

$$(1+x^{2})2\frac{dy}{dx}\cdot\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2}\cdot 2x = m^{2}\cdot 2y\cdot\frac{dy}{dx}$$
Cancelling, $2\frac{dy}{dx}$ we get,
$$(1+x^{2})\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} + \frac{dy}{dx} - m^{2}y = 0$$

$$(1+x^{2})y_{2} + xy_{1} - m^{2}y = 0$$

6. If
$$y = e^{a \sin^{-1}}x$$
 show that $(1+x^2)y_2 + xy_1 - a^2y = 0$.

 $y = e^{a \sin^{-1}} x$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{a\sin^{-1}x} \cdot \frac{a}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \frac{ay}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$
$$\sqrt{1-x^2} \frac{dy}{dx} = ay$$
$$(1-x^2)\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = a^2y^2$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\left(1-x^2\right)\cdot 2\frac{dy}{dx}, \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx}\left(-2x\right) = a^2 \cdot 2y$$

Cancelling $2\frac{dy}{dx}$ throughout,

$$(1-x^2)y_2 - xy_1 - a^2y = 0$$

7. If
$$y = \sin(m\sin^{-1}x)$$
 show that $(1-x^2)y_2 - xy_1 + m^2y = 0$

Solution:

$$y = \sin\left(m\sin^{-1}x\right)$$

$$\sin^{-1} y = m\sin^{-1} x$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}}\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{m}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

Squaring and cross multiplying,

$$\left(1-x^2\right)\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = m^2\left(1-y^2\right)$$

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Differentiating with respect to x we get

$$\left(1-x^2\right)2\frac{dy}{dx}\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2\left(-2x\right) = m^2\left(-2y\frac{dy}{dx}\right)$$

Cancelling $2\frac{dy}{dx}$, $(1-x^2)y_2 - xy_1 + m^2y = 0$

8. If
$$2x = y^{\frac{1}{m}} + y^{\frac{-1}{m}}$$
 prove that $(x^2 - 1)y_2 + xy_1 - m^2y = 0$

Solution:

$$2x = y^{\frac{1}{m}} + y^{\frac{-1}{m}}$$

Differentiating with respect to x, we get,

$$2 = \frac{1}{m} \cdot y^{\frac{1}{m}-1}, y_1 - \frac{1}{m} y^{\frac{-1}{m}-1}, y_1$$
$$= \frac{y_1}{my} \left(y^{\frac{1}{m}} - y^{\frac{-1}{m}} \right)$$
$$2my = y_1 \left(y^{\frac{1}{m}} - y^{\frac{-1}{m}} \right)$$

Squaring,

$$4m^{2}y^{2} = y_{1}^{2} \left(y^{\frac{1}{m}} - y^{-\frac{1}{m}}\right)^{2}$$

$$4m^{2}y^{2} = y_{1}^{2} \left[\left(y^{\frac{1}{m}} - y^{-\frac{1}{m}}\right) - 4 \right]$$

$$4m^{2}y^{2} = y_{1}^{2} \left(4x^{2} - 4\right)$$

$$m^{2}y^{2} = y_{1}^{2} \left(x^{2} - 1\right)$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$m^{2} \cdot 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = y_{1}^{2} 2x + (x^{2} - 1) 2y_{1} \cdot y_{2}$$

Cancelling $2y_1$, we get, $(x^2 - 1)y_2 + xy_1 - m^2 y = 0$

9. If
$$y = \frac{1}{2} (\sin^{-1} x)^2$$
 show that $(1 - x^2) y_2 - x y_1 = 1$

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sin^{-1} x\right)^2$$

Differentiating with respect to x,

$$y_1 = \frac{1}{2} 2 \left(\sin^{-1} x \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Squaring and cross multiplying we get,

 $(1-x^{2})y_{1}^{2} = (\sin^{-1}x)^{2}$ i.e., $(1-x^{2})y_{1}^{2} = 2y$

Differentiating again with respect to x,

$$(1-x^2) = 2y_1y_2 + y_1^2(-2x) = 2y_1$$

Cancelling $2y_1$ throughout

$$\left(1-x^2\right)y_2-xy_1=1$$

10. If $x = \sin t$, $y = \sin pt$ obtain $\cos t \frac{dy}{dx} = p \cot p$. Now differentiating both side with

Respect to x deduce
$$(1-x^2)\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - x\frac{dx}{dy} + p^2y = 0$$
.

Solution:

$$x = \sin t, y = \sin pt$$
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \cos t, \frac{dy}{dt} = p\cos pt$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{p\cos pt}{\cos t}$$
$$\cos t \frac{dy}{dx} = p\cos pt$$

Differentiating both sides with respect to x,

$$\cos t \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + \frac{dy}{dx} (-\sin t) \frac{dt}{dx} = p^2 (-\sin pt) \frac{dt}{dx}$$

$$\therefore \cos t \frac{dx}{dt} \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - \sin t \frac{dy}{dx} + p^2 \sin pt = 0$$
 (since $\frac{dx}{dt} = \cos t$)
 $(1 - \sin^2 t) \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - x \frac{dy}{dx} + p^2 y = 0$
11. If $y = (\tan^{-1} x)^2$ show that $(1 + x^2)^2 y_2 + 2x(1 + x^2) y_1 = 2$
Solution:
 $y = (\tan^{-1} x)^2$
Differentiating with respect to x ,
 $y_1 = \frac{2 \tan^{-1} x}{1 + x^2}$
 $(1 + x^2) y_1 = 2 \tan^{-1} x$
Again differentiating $(1 + x^2) y_2 + y_1 2x = \frac{2}{1 + x^2}$
 $= (1 + x^2)^2 y_2 + 2x(1 + x^2) y_1 = 2$
12. If $y = a \sin^m x$ prove that $\sin^2 x \cdot \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = (m^2 \cos^2 x - m) y$
Solution:
 $y = \sin^m x^2$
Differentiating with respect to x ,
 $\frac{dy}{dx} = m \sin^{m-1} x \cos x$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx} = m(m-1)\sin^{m-2}x \cdot \cos^2 x - m\sin^m x$$

Multiplying both sides by $\sin^2 x$,

$$\therefore \sin^2 x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}$$

= $m(m-1)\sin^m x \cos^2 x - m\sin^m x \cdot \sin^2 x$
= $m(m-1)y\cos^2 x - my\sin^2 x$
= $m^2 y\cos^2 x - my\cos^2 x - my\sin^2 x$
= $m^2 y\cos^2 x - my(\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x)$
$$\therefore \sin^2 x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = m^2 y\cos^2 x - my$$

= $(m\cos^2 x - m)y$
13. If $y = -x^3$, $\log x$ prove that $x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2\frac{dy}{dx}$

Solution:

$$y = -x^{3} \log x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x^{3}}{3} - 3x^{2} \log x$$

$$= -x^{2} - 3x^{2} \log x$$

$$\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = -2x - \frac{3x^{2}}{x} - 6x \log x$$

$$x \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = -2x^{2} - 3x^{2} - 6x^{2} \log x$$

$$= -3x^{2} - 2\left(x^{2} + 3x^{2} \log x\right)$$

$$\therefore x \frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 3x^{2} = 0$$

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 $+3x^2 = 0$

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EXERCISES



9. If nth derivative of $\frac{1}{(2x+3)^2}$ is _____

(A)
$$\frac{(-1)^{n}(n+1)!}{(2x+3)^{n+2}}$$
 (B) $\frac{(-1)^{n}2^{n}(n+1)!}{(2x+3)^{n+2}}$ (C) $\frac{(n+1)!}{(2x+3)^{n+2}}$ (D)

(C) $\sin\left(2x + \frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$

(D) none

10. The nth derivative of $\sin 2x$ is _____

(A)
$$2^n \sin\left(2x + \frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$
 (B) $2^n \sin 2x$

2.2. STANDARD nth DERIVATIVE

1. \mathbf{n}^{th} derivative of e^{ax} .

Solution:

 $y = e^{ax}$ $y_{1} = e^{ax} \cdot a$ $y_{2} = e^{ax} \cdot a^{2}$ $y_{3} = e^{ax} \cdot a^{3}$ $\therefore y_{n} = a^{n}e^{ax}$ 2. nth derivative of $\frac{1}{ax+b}$ Solution: $y = \frac{1}{ax+b} = (ax+b)^{-1}$ $y_{1} = -1(ax+b)^{-2}a$ $y_{2} = (-1)(-2)(ax+b)^{-3} \cdot a^{2}$ $y_{3} = (-1)(-2)(-3)(ax+b)^{-4} \cdot a^{3}$ $\therefore y_{n} = (-1)(-2)(-3)...(-n)(ax+b)^{-(n+1)} \cdot a^{n}$

4.

3.

 $=\frac{\left(-1\right)^{n}n!a^{n}}{\left(ax+b\right)^{n+1}}$ **n**th derivative of $\frac{1}{(ax+b)^2}$ $y = (ax+b)^{-2}$ $y_1 = (-2)(ax+b)^{-3} \cdot a$ $y_2 = (-2)(-3)(ax+b)^{-4} \cdot a^2$ $y_3 = (-2)(-3)(-4)(ax+b)^{-5} \cdot a^3$ $y_n = (-2)(-3)(-4)...(\overline{-n+1})(ax+n)$ $=\frac{(-1)^{n}(n+1)!a^{n}}{(ax+b)^{n+2}}$ **n**th derivative of $\log(ax + b)$ $y = \log(ax + b)$ $y_1 = \frac{1}{ax+b}$ $\frac{a^{n-1}(n-1)!a^n}{ax+b^n}$

5. **n**th derivative of sin(ax+b)

$$y = \sin(ax + b)$$



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UNIT III Differential Equations & Laplace Transformations

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INDEX - UNIT - III - DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

S.N.	Торіс	P. N.
3.1.	Ordinary Differential Equations	1
3.2.	Homogeneous Differential Equations	3
3.3.	Exact Differential Equation	5
3.4.	Integrating Factors	8
3.5.	Linear Equations	11
3.6.	Reduction of Order	13
3.7.	Second Order Linear Differential Equations	16
3.8.	Second Order Differential Equations with Constant Coefficients	17
3.9.	Method of undetermined Co-Efficients	35
3.10.	Variation of Parameter	49
3.11.	System of First Order Equations	56
3.12.	Simultaneous Linear Equations with Constant Co-Efficients	60
3.13.	Partial Differential Equation	63
	3.13.1. Eliminating arbitrary constants	64
	3.13.2. Elimination of Arbitrary Functions	69
3.14.	Complete Solution (or) Complete Integral	79
3.15.	Chapits Method	100
3.16.	Lagrange's Linear Partial Differential Equations	103
3.17.	Special Types of First Order Equations	109
3.18.	Laplace Transform	117
3.19.	Laplace Transform of Elementary Functions	118
3.20.	Properties of Laplace Transform	121
	3.20.1. Laplace Transform of Derivatives	123
	3.20.2. Laplace Transform of Integrals	124
3.21.	Evaluation of integrals using L.T, Initial Theorems, Final Theorems	128
3.22.	Laplace Transform of Periodic Functions	138
3.23.	Inverse Laplace Transform	140
3.24.	Problems of Convolution Theorem	152
3.25.	Application of Laplace Transforms	157
3.26.	Simultaneous Differential Equations	170
3.27.	Multiple Choice Questions	174

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DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS AND LAPLACE TRANSFORMATION

3.1. Ordinary Differential Equations:

- An ordinary differential equation is an equation which is defined for one or more functions of one independent variable and its derivations. It is abbreviated as ODE. Example $\frac{dy}{dx} = x + 3$
- When the function involved in the equation depends on only a single variable, its derivatives are ordinary derivatives and the differential equation is classed as an ordinary differential equation.
- On the other hand, if the function depends on several independent variables the differential equation is classed as a partial differential equation.

Order and Degree of Ordinary Differential Equations:

• The order of differential equation is the highest derivative in the equation is the **highest derivative** in the equation. The degree of the diffi. equation of the highest power to which the derivative is raised.

Problems:

1. Solve: 9yy' + 4x = 0

Solution:

$$9y\frac{dy}{dx} = -4x \Longrightarrow 9ydy = -4xdx$$



Integrating we get,

$$\frac{9y^2}{2} = \frac{-4x^2}{2} + c$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{y^2}{4} = \frac{-x^2}{9} + c \Rightarrow \frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = c$$

2. Solve:
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2x+y-1}{4x+2y-4}$$

Solution:

Let
$$V = \frac{2x+y}{2}$$
,

The D.E. becomes

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2v - 1}{4v - 4} \right)$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{8v - 8}{10v - 9} \quad v = dx \Rightarrow \left[\frac{8v - \frac{36}{5} - \frac{4}{5}}{10v - 9} \right] dv = dx$$
$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{4}{5} - \frac{4}{5} \left[\frac{1}{10v - 9} \right] \right] dv = dx$$
Int. we get

$$\frac{4v}{5} - \frac{2}{25}\log(10v - 9) + c = x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2}{5}(2x+y) - \frac{2}{25}\log(10x+5y-9) + c = x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x}{5} + \frac{2y}{5} - \frac{2}{25} \log(10x + 5y - 9) + c = 0$$

Exercises

 An ordinary differential equation is an equation which is defined for one or more functions of ______independent variables.

(A) several (B) one (C) two (D) more than one

- 2. The order of this equation is $\left[\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2y\right]^3 + \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + y = 0$
 - (A) 2 (B) 1 (C) 3
- 3. A general solution of the equation $y' = \cos x$ is _____.
 - (A) $y = \sin x + c$ (B) $y = \cos ec x + c$ (C) $y = \cos x + c$ (D) $y = \sec x + c$

3.2. Homogeneous Differential Equations:

Homogeneous Function:

• A function f(x, y) in x and y is said to be a homogenous function if the degree of each term in the function is constant. In general, a homo function f(x, y) of degree n is expressible as

$$f(x,y) = \lambda^n f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Homogeneous Differential Equation

• A differential Equation in which all the functions are of the same degree is called a homogenous differential equation

Example:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x^2 - y^2}{xy}$$
 is a homogeneous differential equation.

• Homogenous differential equations are differential equations with homogeneous functions. They are equations containing a differentiation operator, a function and a set of variable. The general form of the homogenous differential equation is f(x, y)dy + g(x, y)dx = 0, where

f(x, y) and g(x, y) is a homo. function.

- Homo. functions are defined as functions in which the total power of all the terms of the function is constant.
- Homo, function and homogenous differential equation are represented in the below form.

Homo. function:
$$f(x, y) = \lambda^n f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

Homo. Differential equation: $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$

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(D) none

Exercises

4. The solution of the differential equation $xy^2 dy - (x^3 + y^3) dx = 0$ is _____. (A) $y^3 = 3x^3 + c$ (B) $y^3 = 3x^3 \log(cx)$ (C) $y^3 = 3x^3 + \log(cx)$ (D) none 5. The solution of differential equation $\cos(x + y) dy = dx$ is _____. (A) $y = x \sec\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) + c$ (B) $y + \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = c$ (C) $y = \tan\left(\frac{x + y}{2}\right) + c$ (D) $y = \cot\left(\frac{x + y}{2}\right) + c$

3.3. Exact Differential Equation:

• A differential equation is said to be exact if it can be derived directly from its primitive without any further operation of elimination or reduction. Thus the differential equation

$$M(x,y)dx + N(x,y)dy = 0$$
(1)

it exact if it can be derived by equating the differential of some function V(x, y) to zero.

Let
$$v(x, y) = c$$
 be the solution

Differentiating this we get

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}dy = 0$$

(1) and (2) are identical

$$M = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}, N = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

If we eliminate v between there by means of the equivalence of the relation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) \text{ we get}$$

Thus, the condition for Mdx + Ndy = 0 to be an exact equation is

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

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(2)

Rule for solving Mdx + N dy = 0 when it is exact

- (i) First integrate M w.r.to *x* regarding y as a constant.
- (ii) Then integrate w.r.to y those terms in N which do not contain x.
- (iii) The sum of the expressions obtained in (i) and (ii), when equated to an arbitrary constant, will be the solution.

Problems:

1. Solve
$$(\sin x \cos y + e^{2x})dx + (\cos x \sin y + \tan y)dy = 0$$

Solution:

Here $M = \sin x \cos y + e^{2x}$

$$N = \cos x \sin y + \tan y$$

 $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$, the equation is exact, integrating M w.r.to x regarding y as a constant we get

$$\left[-\cos x \cos y + \frac{1}{2}e^{2x}\right]$$

In N, the term not involving x namely tan y is integrated w.r.to y giving $\log \sec y$

 \therefore the solution is

$$-\cos x \cos y + \frac{e^{2x}}{2} + \log \sec y = c$$

2. Solve
$$(ye^{xy} - 2y^3)dx + (xe^{xy} - 6xy^2 - 2y)dy = 0$$

Solution:

$$M = ye^{xy} - 2y^3, \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = e^{xy} + xye^{xy} - 6y^2$$

$$N = xe^{xy} - 6xy^2 - 2y, \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = e^{xy} + xye^{xy} - 6y^2$$

Since $\frac{\partial M}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$, the equation is exact

$$\partial y = \partial x$$
, the equation is example.

$$\int M dx = \int \left(y e^{xy} - 2y^3 \right) dx$$
$$= y \frac{e^{xy}}{y} - 2xy^{3} = e^{xy} - 2xy^{3}$$

Integrating those terms in N which do not contain x, with respect to y, we get $\int N \, dy = \int -2y \, dy = -y^2$, omitting terms involving x in N.

 \therefore The solution is $e^{xy} - 2xy^3 = y^2 = c$

3. Solve
$$y(2x^2y + e^x)dx - (e^x + y^3)dy = 0$$

Solution:

$$M = 2x^2y^2 + ye^x : \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 4x^2y + e^x$$

$$N = -\left(e^{x} + y^{3}\right) \quad : \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = -e^{x}$$

As $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$, the equation is not exact, However, we can rearrange the equation as

$$ye^{x}dx - e^{x}dy + (2x^{2}dx - ydy)y^{2} = 0$$

Now dividing by y^2 , we have

$$\frac{ye^{x}dx - e^{x}dy}{y^{2}} + 2x^{2}dx - ydy = 0$$

$$d\left(\frac{e^x}{y}\right) + 2x^2dx - ydy = 0$$

Integrating, we find the solution as $\frac{e^x}{y} + \frac{2x^3}{3} - \frac{y^2}{2} = c$

4. Solve $(\log x + y)dx - xdy = 0$

Solution:

Observing that the equation is not proper we arrange it as

$$\log xdx + ydx - xdy = 0$$

Dividing by x^2 (an integrating factor) we get

7

 $\frac{1}{r^2}\log xdx + \left(\frac{ydx - xdy}{r^2}\right) = 0$ $\int \frac{1}{r^2} \log x dx + \int d\left(\frac{-y}{r}\right) = 0$ $\int \log x d\left(\frac{-1}{r}\right) - \frac{y}{r} = c$ $\frac{-\log x}{x} + \int x^{-2} dx - \frac{y}{x} = c$ $-\frac{\log x}{x} - \frac{1}{x} - \frac{y}{x} = c$ or $cx + y + \log x + 1 = 0$ is the solution. **Exercises** A differential equation of the form M(x, y)dx + N(x, y)dy = 0 is said to be ______ if it 6. can be directly obtained from its primitive by differentiation. (A) Linear equation (B) Separable equation (D) Lagrange's equation (C) Exact equation The solution of $\int \sec x \tan x \tan y - e^x dx + \int \sec x \sec^2 y dy = 0$ is _____ 7. (A) $\tan y - e^x = c$ (B) $\sec x \tan y - e^x = c$ (C) $\tan x \sec y - e^x = c$ (D) $\sec x \tan y = c$ The exact condition value of $(x^3 + 3xy^2)dx + (3x^2y + y^3)dy = 0$ is _____ 8. (A) 6xy(B) 3*xy* (C) 2*xy* (D) 12*xy* The diff. equation 2ydx - (3y - 2x)dy = 0 is 9. (A) exact and homogenous but not linear (B) exact, homogenous and linear (C) exact and linear but not homogeneous (D) homogenous and linear but not exact

3.4. Integrating Factors:

Rule 1:

• When $Mx + Ny \neq 0$, and the equation is a homogenous one, $\frac{1}{Mx + Ny}$ is an integrating factor.

Problems:

1. Solve
$$x^2 y dx - (x^3 + y^3) dy = 0$$

Solution:

The equation is not exact and $Mx + Ny = y^4 \neq 0$. Hence $-\frac{1}{y^4}$ can be used as an I.F. then

$$-\frac{x^{2}}{y^{3}}dx + \left(\frac{x^{3} + y^{3}}{y^{4}}\right)dy = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{3x^2}{y^4}; \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = \frac{3x^2}{y^4}$$

Hence the equation has become exact

$$\int Mdx = \int \frac{x^2}{y^3} dx = -\frac{x^3}{3y^3}$$

In N, integrating the term not containing x, namely $\frac{1}{y}$ w.r.to y we get $\log y$

$$\therefore$$
 the solution is $-\frac{x^3}{3y^3} + \log y = c$

Rule 2:

If the equation is of the form $f_1(xy)dx + xf_2(xy)dy = 0$ and $Mx - Ny \neq 0$, then $\frac{1}{Mx - Ny}$

is an I.F.

2. Solve
$$y(x^2y^2 + xy + 1)dx + x(x^2y^2 - xy + 1)dy = 0$$

Solution:

The equation is not exact since $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$

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$$Mx - Ny = x^{3}y^{3} + x^{2}y^{2} + xy - x^{3}y^{3} + x^{2}y^{2} - xy = 2x^{2}y^{2} \neq 0$$

Using $\frac{1}{Mx - Ny} = \frac{1}{2x^{2}y^{2}}$ as an I.F. we get
 $\left(\frac{x^{2}y^{2} + xy + 1}{2x^{2}y}\right)dx + \left(\frac{x^{2}y^{2} - xy + 1}{2xy^{2}}\right)dy = 0$
 $\left(y + \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^{2}y}\right)dx + \left(x - \frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{xy^{2}}\right)dy = 0$
Now $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 1 - \frac{1}{x^{2}y^{2}}$ and $\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 1 - \frac{1}{x^{2}y^{2}}$
 \therefore The equation is exact and the solution is
 $\int \left(y + \frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{y^{2}}\right)dx + \left(-\frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{y^{2}}\right)dy = 0$

$$\int (y + x + x^2y)^{-1} + y = y$$
$$xy + \log x - \frac{1}{xy} - \log y = c$$

Rule 3:

(i) If $\frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \right)$ is a function of x alone, say f(x), then $e^{\int f(x)dx}$ is an integration factor.

(ii) If
$$\frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right)$$
 is a function of y alone, say g(y), then $e^{\int g(y) dy}$ is an integrating factor.

3. Solve
$$(xy^3 + y)dx + 2(x^2y^2 + x + y + y^4)dy = 0$$

Solution:

e

The equation is not exact and
$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 3xy^2 + 1$$
, $\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 4xy^2 + 2$

$$\frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{1}{y} = g(y)$$

$$\int g(y) dy \qquad \log y$$

 $e^{(y)ay} = e^{\log y} = y$ is an integrating factor multiplying by y we get the equation

$$(xy^{4} + y^{2})dx + 2(x^{2}y^{3} + xy + y^{5})dy = 0$$

$$\int (xy^{4} + y^{2})dx + 2\int y^{5}dy = c$$
$$3y^{4}x^{2} + 6xy^{2} + 2y^{6} = c$$

Rule 4:

If the equation Mdx + Ndy = 0 is of the form

$$x^{a}y^{6}(mydx + nxdy) + x^{r}y^{s}(pydx + qxdy) = 0$$
 where a, b, m, n, r, s, p, q are constants, then $x^{h}y^{k}$, is an integrating factor, where h and k are determined using the condition that after multiplication by $x^{h}y^{k}$, the equation becomes exact.

4. Solve
$$(y^3 - 2yx^3)dx + (2xy^2 - x^3)dy = 0$$

Solution:

The equation is not an exact one and it can be rewritten as

$$y(y^{2}-2x^{2})dx + x(2y^{2}-x^{2})dy = 0$$
$$y^{2}(ydx+2xdy) + x^{2}(-2ydx-xdy) = 0$$

So that is of the form mentioned in rule IV above Multiplying the equation by $x^{h}y^{k}$ we get

Now
$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = (3+k)x^{h}y^{k+2} - 2(k+1)x^{h+2}y^{k}$$
 and $\frac{\partial N}{\partial k} = 2(h+1)x^{h}y^{k+2} - (h+3)x^{h+2}y^{k}$

Using the condition $\frac{\partial N}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$ and equating the coefficients of like lowered terms on both sides, we get

$$3+k=2(h+1)$$
$$2k+2=h+3$$

Solving them we get k = 1, h = 1 so that the integrating factor is *xy* The equation (1) for these values of h and k becomes

$$(xy^{4} - 2x^{3}y^{2}) + (2x^{2}y^{3} - x^{4}y)dy = 0$$

At this equation is exact, the solution is

$$\int (xy^4 - 2x^3y^2) dx = c, \frac{x^2y^4}{2} - \frac{2x^4y^2}{4} = c$$
$$x^2y^4 - x^4y^2 = k$$

Exercises

- 10. If the equation is of the form $f_1(x, y)dx + f_2(x, y)dy = 0$, when $Mx + Ny \neq 0$ then the integrating factor is _____.
 - (A) $\frac{1}{Mx + Ny}$ (B) Mx + Ny (C) $\frac{1}{Mx Ny}$ (D) Mx Ny
- 11. For the equation $(xy^3 + y)dx + 2(x^2y^2 + x + y + y^4)dy = 0$ the integrating factor is _____.
 - (A) x (B) 2x (C) y (D) -y

12. If $\frac{1}{M} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right)$ is a function of y alone, say g (y) then _____ is an integrating factor.

(A)
$$e^{\int f(x)dx}$$
 (B) $e^{\int g(y)dy}$ (C) $e^{\int g(y)dx}$ (D) none

3.5. Linear Equations:

• A differential equation of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$ where P and Q are function of x, is said to be

a linear equation in y.

Multiplying both sides by
$$Qe^{\int pdx}$$
 we get

$$e^{\int pdx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} + Py \right) = Qe^{\int Pdx}$$
$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(ye^{\int pdx} \right) = Qe^{\int pdx}$$

Integrating we get the solution as $ye^{\int Pdx} = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$

Problems

1. Solve
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + y \cot x = 4x \quad \cos ec \ x \text{ given that } y = 0 \text{ when } x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
.

Solution:

Comparing with
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$$
 we find that
 $P = \cot x, Q = 4x \cos ec x$
 $\int Pdx = \int \cot x \, dx = \log \sin x$
 $e^{\int pdx} = e^{\log} \sin x$
Solution is $y \sin = \int 4x \cos ec x \sin x \, dx$
 $= \int 4x \, dx = 2x^2 + c$
 $y = 0$ when $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ gives $c = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$
 \therefore The solution is
 $y \sin x = 2x^2 - \frac{\pi^2}{2}$
2. Solve $(1 + y^2) dx = (\tan^{-1} y - x) dy$
Solution:
 $\frac{dx}{dy} + \frac{1}{1 + y^2} = \frac{\tan^{-1} y}{1 + y^2}$
This is an equation of the type
 $\frac{dx}{dy} + Px = Q$, which is linear in x ,
 $P = \frac{1}{1 + y^2}; Q = \frac{\tan^{-1} y}{1 + y^2}$
 $\int Pdy = \int \frac{dy}{1 + y^2} = \tan^{-1} y$

$$e^{\int Pdy} = e^{un^{-1}y}$$

 \therefore the solution is $xe^{\int Pdy} = \int Qe^{\int Pdy} dy + c$
 $xe^{un^{-1}}y = \int e^{un^{-1}}y \frac{\tan^{-1}y}{1+y^2} dy + c$
Putting $t = \tan^{-1} y$ on the R.H.S, we get
 $xe^{un^{-1}}y = \int te^{t} dt + c$
 $= te^{t} - e^{t} + c$
 \therefore Solution is $xe^{un^{-1}}y = e^{un^{-1}} (\tan^{-1}y - 1) + c$ or $x = \tan^{-1}y - 1 + ce^{-un^{-1}}y$
Exercises
13. Solving the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = 4x^2$ we get the solution _______.
 $(\Lambda) x^2 + c$ (B) $x^3 + \frac{c}{x}$ (C) $x^2 + \frac{c}{x}$ (D) $x^3 + c$
14. The solution of the differential equation $x\frac{dy}{dx} - y = 3$ represents a family of ______.
(A) straight line (B) circle (C) cillips (D) parabola
15. A differential equation of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$ has the solution as ______.
(A) $ye^{\int Pdx} = \int Qdx + c$ (B) $ye^{\int Pdx} = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$
(C) $y = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$ (D) $ye^{\int Pdx} = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$
Equations Reductible to Linear Form
Consider the equation $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Qy^n$

Where P and Q are functions of x

13.

14.

15.

$$y^{-n}\frac{dy}{dx} + y^{1-n}P = Q$$

Putting
$$V = y^{1-n}, \frac{dv}{dx} = (1-n)y^{-n}\frac{dy}{dx}$$

Using the above equation

$$\frac{dv}{dx} + (1-n)vP = (1-n)Q$$

which is a linear equation in v and hence can be solved by the previous method.

Problems

1. Solve
$$\frac{dy}{dx} + x\sin 2y = x^3 \cos^2 y$$

Solution:

Dividing by $\cos^2 y$ we get

$$\sec^2 y \frac{dy}{dx} + 2x \tan y = x^3$$

Let
$$v = \tan y$$
 then $\frac{dv}{dx} = \sec x$

$$\therefore$$
 (1) becomes $\frac{dv}{dx} + 2vx = x^3$

$$P = 2x; Q = x^{3}$$
$$\int P dx = \int 2x dx = x^{2} \text{ and } e^{\int P dx} = e^{x^{2}}$$

Solution is $ve^{\int Pdx} = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$ $\therefore ve^{x^2} = \int x^3 e^{x^2} dx + c = \int xx^2 e^{x^2} dx + c$

Put
$$t = x^2$$
; $dt = 2x dx$
 $\therefore ve^{x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \int te^t dt$

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(1)

$$ve^{x^{2}} = \frac{1}{2}(te^{t} - e^{t}) + c = \frac{1}{2}(x^{2}e^{x^{2}} - e^{x^{2}}) + c$$
$$v = \frac{1}{2}(x^{2} - 1) + ce^{-x^{2}}$$

The solution is

$$\tan y = \frac{1}{2} (x^2 - 1) + c e^{-x^2}$$

2. Solve
$$\cos x \frac{dy}{dx} - y \sin x = y^3 \cos^2 x$$

Solution:

Dividing by
$$y^3$$
, we get $\frac{1}{y^3} \frac{dy}{dx} \cos x - \frac{1}{y^2} \sin x = \cos^2 x$
Dividing by $\cos x$ we get $\frac{dy}{dx} \frac{1}{y^3} - \frac{1}{y^2} \tan x = \cos x$
Substituting $v = \frac{1}{y^2}$ gives $\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-2}{y^3} \frac{dy}{dx}$
Now the above equation becomes $-\frac{1}{2} \frac{dv}{dx} - v \tan x = \cos x$
or $\frac{dv}{dx} + 2v \tan x = -2\cos x$
 $P = 2\tan x, Q = -2\cos x$
 $\int Pdx = 2\int \tan x \, dx = 2\log(\sec x)$
 $e^{\int Pdx} = e^{2(\log \sec x)} = \sec^2 x$
 $v \sec^2 x = -\int 2\cos x \sec^2 x \, dx$
 $= -2\int \sec x \, dx$
 $= -2\log(\sec x + \tan x) + c$
 $\frac{\sec^2 x}{y^2} = c - 2\log(\sec x + \tan x)$ is the solution



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UNIT IV Vector Calculus & Fourier Series, Fourier Transforms

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INDEX

UNIT - II - DIFFERENTIATION

S.N.	TOPIC	P. N.			
4.1	Vector Differentiation	1			
4.2	Vectocity of a Particle				
4.3	Vector Valued Function and Scalar Potential				
4.4	Gradient of a Scalar Point Function	2			
4.5	Divergence and Curl of a Vector Point Function	2			
4.6	Directional Derivative of a Scalar Point Function	4			
4.7	Unit Normal	4			
4.8	Laplacian Operator				
4.9	Harmonic Function	4			
4.10	Line Integration	41			
	4.10.1.Conservative field				
	410.2. Scalar point function				
4.11	Surface Integral				
4.12	Volume Integral	42			
4.13	Integral Theorem	42			
	4.13.1. Green's theorem in the plane				
	4.13.2. Gauss divergence theorem				
	4.13.3. Stoke's theorem				
4.14	Fourier Series	100			
	4.14.1. Fourier Series function defined				
	4.14.2. Fourier series for even and odd functions defined in $-\pi \le x \le \pi$				
	4.14.3. Half range series				
4.15	Fourier Transform	147			
	4.15.1. Fourier cosine formula				
	4.15.2. Fourier inverse cosine transform				
4.16	Simple Properties of Fourier Transforms	148			
4.17	Convolution Theorem				
4.18	Parsavel's Identity	149			
4.19	Multiple Choice Question	189			

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UNIT - IV - VECTOR

4.1. VECTOR DIFFERENTIATION

• Vector function: If for each value of scalar variable u there corresponds a vector f, then f is said to be a vector function of the scalar variable n. It written as $\dot{f}(u)$

Constant Function:

 A vector whose magnitude is constant and whose direction is in a fixed direction is a constant vector.

Note:

A scalar function has only a magnitude while a vector function has both magnitude and direction.

Derivative of a Vector Function

• It is denoted by Δf , then

$$\frac{d\overline{f}}{du} = \lim_{\Delta u \to 0} \frac{\Delta \overline{f}}{\Delta u}$$



4.2. VELOCITY OF A PARTICLE

• The displacement of the particle in time interval is Δt . So the rate of displacement of the particle at P is

$$\lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta \dot{r}}{\Delta t} \text{ (or) } \frac{d\dot{r}}{dt}$$

• But the rate of displacement is the velocity of the particle. It is denoted by v.

(i.e.,)
$$\overline{v} = \frac{d\overline{r}}{dt}$$

4.3. VECTOR VALUED FUNCTION AND SCALAR POTENTIAL

- Vector point Function: Suppose, in a physical situation for every point (x, y, z), there corresponds a vector.
- f(x, y, z)i + g(x, y, z)j + h(x, y, z)k, then this vector function is said to be a vector point function.

Scalar Point Function:

• In a physical situation, for every point (x, y, z), there corresponds a scalar $\phi(x, y, z)$. Then $\phi(x, y, z)$ is said to be a scalar point function.

Level Surfaces:

• If $\phi(x, y, z)$ is a scalar, then the equation $\phi(x, y, z) = c$, where c is a varying constant, represents surface called level surfaces. Thus, the value ϕ is a constant.

4.4.GRADIENT OF A SCALAR POINT FUNCTION

• If ϕ is a scalar point function, then $\vec{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \vec{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \vec{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$ is called the gradient of ϕ at (x, y, z)

Notation:

• Gradient of ϕ is denoted by grad ϕ or $\nabla \phi$ where ∇ is the operator which stands for $-\partial_{-} - \partial_{-} - \partial_{-}$

$$\overline{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \overline{j}\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + \overline{k}\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

• Thus ϕ is a scalar but $\nabla \phi$ is a vector

4.5.DIVERGENCE AND CURL OF A VECTOR POINT FUNCTION

Divergence:

The scalar point functions

$$\frac{\partial v_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_3}{\partial z}$$

• is called the divergence of the vector point function $V_1i + V_2j + V_3k$

Notation:

• Divergence of V or div V or $\nabla \cdot V$

$$\nabla \cdot V = \left(i\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + j\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + k\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) \cdot \left(V_1 i + V_2 j + V_3 k\right)$$
$$\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial y}$$

$$=\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial V_3}{\partial z}$$

Curl:

• The vector point function

$$i\left(\frac{\partial V_3}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial V_2}{\partial z}\right) + j\left(\frac{\partial V_1}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial V_3}{\partial x}\right) + k\left(\frac{\partial V_2}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial y}\right)$$

• is called the curl of the vector point function $v_1 \overline{i} + v_2 \overline{j} + v_3 \overline{k}$

Notation:

• Curl of V is curl V (or) $\nabla \times V$

$$\nabla \times \overline{V} = \begin{vmatrix} \overline{i} & \overline{j} & \overline{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ V_1 & V_2 & V_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

Particular cases of $\nabla \times \overline{V}$ and $\nabla \times \overline{V}$

Solenoidal Vector:

• If $\nabla \cdot \overline{V} = 0$, then V said to be solenoidal.

Irrotational Vector:

• If $\nabla \cdot \vec{V} = 0$, then *V* is said to be irrotational.



3

4.6. DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE OF A SCALAR POINT FUNCTION

• Suppose $\phi(x, y, z)$ is a scalar point function and $\phi(p)$ is the value of ϕ at P. If P' is any

point, then
$$\lim_{p' \to p} \frac{\phi(p') - \phi(p)}{pp'}$$

is called the directional derivative of \$\phi\$. The directional derivative is a scalar. Actually it is the rate of change of \$\phi\$ in the given direction.

4.7. UNIT NORMAL

- This directional derivative of ϕ in the direction specified by the unit vector \hat{e} having direction cosines l, m, n is $(\nabla \phi) \cdot \hat{e}$.
- The unit vector normal to the surface $\phi(x, y, z) = c$ at any point (x, y, z) is

$$\hat{n} = \frac{\nabla \phi}{\left| \nabla \phi \right|}$$

4.8. LAPLIACIAN OPERATOR

• The operator ∇^2 defined by

$$\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

 is called Laplacian differential operator, when it operator on a scalar pint function, it results in a scalar. When it operates on a vector point function, it results in a vector.

4.9. HARMONIC FUNCTION:

- For every scalar point function, having continuous second partials, $\nabla \times (\nabla \phi) = 0$.
- In words curl of a gradient vanishes.
- For every vector point function \overline{A} , having continuous second partials,

$$\nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \overline{A}) = 0$$
. In words

Divergence of a curl vanishes.

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4.1 to 4.9 – EXAMPLES

PROBLEMS

1. A particle moves along the curve $x = e^{-t}$, $y = 2\cos 3t$, $z = 2\sin 3t$. Determine the velocity and acceleration at any time t and their magnitudes at t = 0Soln:

r = xi + yj + zk $= e^{-t}i + 2\cos 3t \ j + 2\sin 3t \ k$ $\frac{dr}{dt} = -e^{-t}i - 6\sin 3tj + 6\cos 3tk$ $\frac{dr}{dt}_{(t=0)} = -i + 6k \quad (\text{velocity at time})$

Magnitude of the velocity $=\sqrt{1+36} = \sqrt{37}$

$$\overline{a} = \frac{d^2 \overline{r}}{dt^2} = e^{-t} \overline{i} - 18 \cos 3t \overline{j} - 18 \sin 3t \overline{k}$$

$$\frac{d^2r}{dt^2} = i - 18j = \text{acceleration at time } t = 0$$

$$|\dot{a}| = \sqrt{1+324} = \sqrt{325} = 5\sqrt{13}$$

2. A particle moves along the curve $x = t^3 + 1$, $y = t^2$, z = 2t + 5 where t is the time. Find the components of its velocity and acceleration at t = 1 in the direction i + j + 3k

Soln:

$$r = xi + yj + zk$$
$$= (t^{3} + 1)i + t^{2}j + (2t + 5)k$$
$$v = \frac{dr}{dt} = 3t^{2}i + 2tj + 2k$$

Velocity at t = 1 is V = 3i + 2j + 2k

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5

$$a = \frac{dr^2}{dt^2} = 6ti + 2j$$

Acceleration at t = 1 is $\overline{a} = 6\overline{i} + 2\overline{j}$

$$b = i + j + 3k$$
$$= \frac{\overline{v} \cdot \overline{b}}{\left|\overline{b}\right|}$$
$$= \left(3i + 2j + 2k\right)\frac{i + j + 3k}{\sqrt{11}}$$
$$= \frac{3 + 2 + 6}{\sqrt{11}} = \frac{11}{\sqrt{11}} = \sqrt{11}$$



 $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 2z$

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$
$$= (2xy + y^2)i + (x^2 + 2xy)j + 2zk$$
$$\nabla \phi_{(1,1,1)} = 3i + 3j + 2k$$

4. If r = xi + yj + zk and r = |r| prove that

(i)
$$\nabla_r = \frac{1}{r} \dot{r}$$

(ii) $\nabla \left(\frac{1}{r}\right) = \frac{-\dot{r}}{r^3}$
(iii) $\nabla r^n = nr^{n-2}\dot{r}$
(iv) $\nabla f(r) = f'(r)\frac{\dot{r}}{r} = f'(r)\nabla_r$
(v) $\nabla (\log r) = \frac{\dot{r}}{r^2}$
(vi) $\nabla f(r) \times \dot{r} = 0$

Soln:

(i)
$$r = x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$
 $\therefore |\dot{r}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = r$
 $r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

Differentiating partially with respect to x, we get

$$2r = \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = 2x \qquad \therefore \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \frac{x}{r}$$
$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial y} = \frac{y}{r} \text{ and } \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} = \frac{z}{r}$$
$$\nabla_r = \overline{i} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial r}{\partial z}$$
$$= \frac{x\overline{i} + y\overline{j} + z\overline{k}}{r}$$
$$= \frac{r}{r}$$
$$(ii) \nabla\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) = \overline{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) + j \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\frac{1}{r}\right) + \overline{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)$$
$$= \frac{-1}{r^2} \left[\overline{i} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial r}{\partial z}\right]$$

7

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{-1}{r^2} \left(i \frac{x}{r} + j \frac{y}{r} + k \frac{z}{r} \right) \\ &= \frac{-1}{r^2} \left(\frac{r}{r} \right) = \frac{-r}{r^3} \\ \text{(iii)} \nabla r^s = \overline{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (r^s) + \overline{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (r^s) + \overline{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (r^s) \\ &= nr^{s-1} \left[i \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} \right] \\ &= nr^{s-1} \left[\frac{x\overline{i} + y\overline{j} + z\overline{k}}{r} \right] \\ &= nr^{s-1} r^s \end{aligned}$$

$$(iv) \nabla f(r) = \overline{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(r) + \overline{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(r) + \overline{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} f(r) \\ &= f''(r) \left[i \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} \right] \\ &= f''(r) \left[i \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} \right] \\ &= f''(r) \left[x \frac{(xi + yj + z\overline{k})}{r} \\ &= f''(r) \nabla (r) \\ (v) \nabla (\log r) = \overline{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\log r) + \overline{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\log r) + \overline{k} \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} (\log r) \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \left[i \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial r}{\partial z} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \frac{xi + y\overline{j} + z\overline{k}}{r} \\ &= \frac{1}{r} \frac{xi + y\overline{j} + z\overline{k}}{r} \end{aligned}$$

(vi) $\nabla f(r) \times \dot{r}$

$$\nabla f(r) = \frac{f'(r)}{r} \overline{r}$$
$$\nabla f(r) \times \overline{r} = \frac{f'(r)}{r} \overline{r} \times \overline{r} = 0 \text{ since } r \times r = 0$$

5. If u = x + y + z

 $v = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

w = yz + zx + xy prove that grad u × grad v × grad w = 0

Soln:

grad
$$\mathbf{u} = \nabla u = \overline{i} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$$

grad $\mathbf{v} = \nabla u = \overline{i} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial v}{\partial z}$
 $= 2(x\overline{i} + y\overline{j} + z\overline{k})$
grad $\mathbf{w} = \overline{i} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}$
 $= (y+z)\overline{i} + (z+x)\overline{j} + (x+y)\overline{k}$
 $(grad u)(grad v \times grad w) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2x & 2y & 2z \\ y+z & z+x & x+y \end{vmatrix}$
 $= 2\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x & y & z \\ y+z & z+x & x+y \end{vmatrix}$
 $= 2\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x & y & z \\ x+y+z & x+y+z & x+y+z \end{vmatrix}$
 $= 2(x+y+z)\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ x & y & z \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$

= 0 since two rows are identical

Z

9

Soln:

$$\phi = xyz - xy^2 z^3$$

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

$$= (yz - y^2 z^3) \overline{i} + (xz - 2xyz^3) \overline{j} + (xy - 3xy^2 z^2) \overline{k}$$

$$n = \frac{\overline{i} - \overline{j} - 3\overline{k}}{\sqrt{11}}$$

 $\frac{d\phi}{dn} = \nabla \phi \cdot n$ = directional derivative of ϕ in the direction of the vector i - j - 3k

$$=\frac{\left[\left(yz-y^{2}z^{3}\right)-\left(xz-2xyz^{3}\right)-3\left(xy-3xy^{2}z^{2}\right)\right]}{\sqrt{11}}$$

$$\nabla\phi\dot{n}_{(1,2,-1)}=\frac{\left(-2+4\right)-\left(-1+4\right)-3\left(2-12\right)}{\sqrt{11}}=\frac{29}{\sqrt{11}}$$

7. Show that (i) grad $(r \cdot a) = a$ (ii) grad $[r, a, b] = a \times b$ where a and b are constant

vectors and r = xi + yj + zk

Soln:

Let
$$a = a_1 i + a_2 j + a_3 k$$

$$b = b_{1}i + b_{2}j + b_{3}k$$
(i) $\overline{a} \cdot \overline{r} = a_{1}x + a_{2}y + a_{3}z$

$$grad (a \cdot r) = \left[i\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + j\frac{\partial}{\partial y} + k\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right](a_{1}x + a_{2}y + a_{3}z)$$

$$= a_{1}i + a_{2}j + a_{3}k = a$$
(1)
(ii) grad $[r, a_{3}b] = grad(r \cdot a \times b)$

 $= a \times b$ using (1)

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8. Find the unit vector normal to the surface $x^2 + 3y^2 + 2z^2 = 6$ at the point (2, 0, 1)

Soln:

$$\phi = x^2 + 3y^2 + 2z^2$$

$$\nabla \phi = 2xi + 6yj + 4zk$$

$$\nabla \phi_{(2,0,1)} = 4\hat{i} + 4\hat{k}$$

$$n = \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} = \frac{4i + 4k}{4\sqrt{2}} = \frac{i + k}{\sqrt{2}}$$

the unit normal vector at the point (2, 0, 1) to the given surface

$$=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\overline{i}+\overline{k}\right)$$

9. Find the maximum value of the directional derivative of the function

 $\phi = 2x^2 + 3y^2 + 5z^2$ at the point (1, 1, - 4)

Soln:

$$\phi = 2x^{2} + 3y^{2} + 5z^{2}$$

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

$$= 4xi + 6yj + 10zk$$

$$\nabla \phi_{(1,1,-4)} = 4\overline{i} + 6j - 40k$$

Maximum value of the directional derivative at the point (1, 1, -4)

$$=\sqrt{16+36+1600}=\sqrt{1652}$$

10. Find the angle between the normal to the surface $xy - z^2 = 0$ at the point (1, 4, - 2) and (-3, -3, 3)Soln:

$$\phi = xy - z^2$$

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$
$$= yi + xj - 2zk$$
$$\nabla \phi_{(1,4,-2)} = 4\overline{i} + j + 4\overline{k}$$

$$\nabla x_{(-3,-3,3)} = -3i - 3j - 6k$$

Unit normal vector to the surface at the point (1, 4, -2) is

$$n_1 = \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} = \frac{4i + j + 4k}{\sqrt{33}}$$

Unit normal vector at the point (-3, -3, 3) is

$$n_2 = \frac{-3i - 3j - 3k}{\sqrt{9 + 9 + 36}} = \frac{-3i - 3j - 3k}{\sqrt{54}}$$

If θ is the angle between the normal then

$$\cos \theta = \bar{n}_1 \bar{n}_2 = \frac{-12 - 3 - 24}{\sqrt{33}\sqrt{54}} = \frac{-39}{9\sqrt{22}} = \frac{-3}{3\sqrt{22}}$$
$$\therefore \quad \theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{-13}{3\sqrt{22}}\right)$$

11. Show that the surface $5x^2 - 2yz - 9x = 0$ and $4x^2y + z^3 - 4 = 0$ are orthogonal at

(1,-1,-2)

Soln:

Let
$$\phi_1 = 5x^2 - 2yz - 9x$$

 $\phi_2 = 4x^2y + z^3 - 4$
 $\nabla \phi_1 (10x - 9) = i - 2zj - 2yk$
 $\nabla \phi_1 (1, -1, 2) = \hat{i} - 4\hat{j} + 2\hat{k}$
 $\nabla \phi_2 = 8xyi + 4x^2j + 3z^2k$
 $\nabla \phi_2 (1, -1, 2) = -8\hat{i} + 4\hat{j} + 12\hat{k}$

$$\nabla \phi_1 \cdot \nabla \phi_2 = -8 - 16 + 24 = 0$$

 \therefore The surface are orthogonal at the point (1,-1,2)

12. Find
$$\phi$$
 if $\nabla \phi = (6xy + z^3)i + (3x^2 - z)j + (3xz^2 - y)k$

Soln:

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \, \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$

Also $\nabla \phi = (6xy + z^3)i + (3x^2 - z)j + (3xz^2 - y)k$

Comparing (1) and (2), we get

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = 6xy + z^{3}$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 3x^{2} - z$$

$$(1)$$

$$(2)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 3xz^{2} - y$$

$$(3)$$

Integrating (1), (2) and (3), w.r.t. x,y, z respectively we get,

$$\phi = 3x^{2}y + xz^{3} + f_{1}(y, z)$$

$$\phi = 3x^{2}y - yz + f_{2}(x, z)$$

$$\phi = xz^{3} - yz + f_{3}(x, y)$$
(4)
(5)
(6)

From (4), (5) and (6) $\phi = 3x^2 + xz^3 - yz + c$ where c is an arbitrary constant.

13. Find
$$\phi$$
 if $\nabla \phi = (y + \sin z)i + xj + x \cos zk$

Soln:

$$\nabla \phi = \overline{i} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \overline{j} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \overline{k} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}$$
(1)
= $(y + \sin z)i + xj + x \cos zk$ (2)

Comparing (1) and (2) we get,

13

(1)



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UNIT V Algebraic Structures

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	UNIT - V – ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURE	A
	INDEX	1
S.NO	CHAPTER NAME	P.NO
5.1	GROUPS	1
	5.1.1. Binary Operations	1
	5.1.2. Group Under ".":	2
	5.1.3. Group Under "+":	2
	5.1.4. Abelian Group:	3
	5.1.5. Non-Abelian Group	3
	5.1.6. Types of Functions	3
	5.1.7. Order of A Group:	4
	5.1.8. Finite Group:	4
5.2.	SUBGROUPS	23
5.3	CYCLIC GROUP	25
	5.3.1. Cyclic sub-Group:	26
	5.3.2. Congruent:	36
5.4.	LAGRANGE'S THEOREM	38
5.5.	COUNTING PRINCIPLES	47
5.6.	NORMAL SUBGROUP	50
5.7.	QUOTIENT GROUP	54
5.8.	HOMOMORPHISM	57
-	5.8.1. Properties Of Homomorphism:	57
	5.8.2. Kernal Of Homomorphism:	62

i

	5.8.3. Types Of Homomorphism:	62		
	5.8.4. Canonical Homorphism:	62		
	5.8.5. (1 st Isomorphic Theorem):	63		
		65		
	5.8.6. Cyclic Group Of Homomorphism:			
	5.8.7. SECOND ISOMORPHIC THEOREM:	68		
	5.8.8. Third Isomorphk Theorem:	70		
5.9.	AUTOMORPHISM	72		
	5.9.1. Inner Automorphism:	74		
	5.9.2. Centre Of A Group:	76		
5.10.	CAYLEY'S THEOREM			
5.11.	PERMUTATION GROUPS			
5.12.	RINGS	80		
	5.12.1. Ring with Unity:	80		
	5.12.2. Commutativ Ring:	80		
	5.12.3. Commutativ Ring with Unity:	80		
	5.12.4. Properties of a Ring:	82		
5.13	SOME SPECIAL CLASSES OF RINGS	85		
	5.13.1. Zero Divisor	85		
	5.13.2. Unit element in Ring:	85		
	5.13.3. Division Ring:	85		
	5.13.4. Quotient Ring:	85		
5.14.	INTEGRAL DOMAIN	89		
5.15.	HOMOMORPHISM OF RING	94		

5.16.	IDEAL AND QUOTIENT RINGS	97			
	5.16.1. Ideals:	97			
	5.16.2. Principal Ideal:	98			
	5.16.3. Maximum Ideal:				
5.17.	PRIME IDEAL & MAXIMUM IDEAL				
	5.17. 1. Prime Ideal:	101			
	5.17.2. Maximum Ideal:	102			
5.18.	THE FIELD OF QUOTIENT OF AN INTEGRAL DOMAIN				
5.19.	EUCLIDEAN RINGS				
5.20.	ALGEBRA OF LINEAR TRANSFORMATION				
	5.20.1. Linear Transformation:	112			
	5.20.2. Kernel of a Linear Transformation:				
	5.20.3. Algebra:	112			
	5.20.4. Algebra with Unit Element:	112			
	5.20.5. Minimal Polynomial:	113			
	5.20.6. Range of T:	114			
5.21.	CHARACTERISTIC ROOTS	116			
	5.21.1. Characteristic Vector:	117			
5.22.	MATRICES				
5.23.	CANONICAL FORM	117			
	5.23.1. Quotient Space:	117			
5.24.	TRIANGULAR FROM	118			
5.25.	PROBLEMS OF CONVERTING LINEAR TRANSFORMATION TO MATRICES AND VICE VERSA	121			

5.26.	VECTOR SPACES			
5.27.	DEFINITION AND EXAMPLES			
	5.27.1. Homomorphism:	124		
	5.27.2. Kernal of T:	124		
	5.27.3. Quotient set:	124		
	5.27.4. Quotient Space:	125		
	5.27.5. Internal Direct Sum:	126		
	5.27.6. External Direct Sum:	126		
5.28.	8. LINEAR DEPENDENCE AND INDEPENDENCE			
	5.28.1. Linear combination:	128		
	5.28.2. Linear Span:	128		
	5.28.3. Linearly Independent:	128		
	5.28.4. Linearly Dependent:	129		
5.29.	SUB- SPACE			
5.30.	DUAL SPACE	130		
	5.30.1. Second Dual Space	131		
5.31.	INNER PRODUCT SPACE	132		
	5.31.1. Orthogonal:	132		
	5.31.2. Orthogonal Complement:	133		
	5.31.3. Orthonormal Set:	133		
	5.31.4. Schwartz Inequality:	133		
5.32.	IMPORTANT QUESTIONS (MCQ)	136		

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iv

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UNIT - V

ALGEBRAIC STRUCTURE

5.1 GROUPS

5.1.1. BINARY OPERATIONS:

Binary operation means "way of putting two things together.

Eg. The set of all natural number under addition



Let A be a set with binary operation ".". Thus operation is said to be closure if $a, b \in A \Longrightarrow a \cdot b \in A$

Associative Property Under ".":

Let A be a set with binary operation ".". Thus operation is said to be associative

if $a, b, c \in A \Longrightarrow (a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$

Identity Element Under".":

Let a be a set with binary operation ".". An element e is said to be identify element if

 $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in A$

Inverse Element Under ".":

Let A be a set with binary operation '.'. Suppose that A contains an identity element e.

If $a \in A$ and if $a^{-1} \in A \ni a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = e$

Where a^{-1} is called inverse element of A.

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A non-empty set G with binary operation "." is called a group if it satisfies the following conditions.

(i)Closure:

If a, b, $\in G \Rightarrow a \cdot b \in G \forall a, b \in G$

(ii) Associative:

$$a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c \quad \forall a, b, c \in G$$

(iii) Identify:

If an element $e \in G \ni a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a \quad \forall a \in G$

(iv) Inverse:

 $\forall a \in G$ if an element $a^{-1} \in G$

$$\Rightarrow a \cdot \leq a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} \cdot a$$

Where a^{-1} is the inverse element of G.

5.1.3. GROUP UNDER "+":

A non- empty set G with binary operations '+' is called a group if it satisfies the following conditions.

(i) closure:

If
$$a, b \in G \Longrightarrow a + b \in G \quad \forall a, b \in G$$

(ii) Associative:

$$a+(b+c)=(a+b)+c \quad \forall a,b,c \in G$$

(iii) Identify:

If an element e (a+e)=e+a=a $\forall a \in G$

(iv) Inverse

 $\forall a \in G$, if an element $a^{-1} \in G$

$$a + a^{-1} = e = a^{-1} + a$$

Where a^{-1} is the inverse element of G of G

Commutative Property:

Let A be a set with binary operation "." If a.b = b.a $\forall a, b \in A$, then A satisfies commutative property.

5.1.4. ABELIAN GROUP:

If (G, .) is a group than (G, .) is abelian, if the group of the operation "." is commutative.

(i.e.,) a.b = b.a $\forall a, b \in G$

5.1.5. NON-ABELIAN GROUP:

A group which is not abelian is called non-abelian group.

5.1.6. TYPES OF FUNCTIONS

One – To – One Function:

A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is said to be a one-to-one function if distinct element of A have distinct image of B.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} A \\ \end{array}\right) \xrightarrow{F} \\ B \\ \end{array}\right)$$

Onto function:

A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is said to be onto if every element of B has at least one – preimage in A.



Bijective Function:

A function which is one-to-one as well as onto is called bijective function.





4

5.1.7. ORDER OF A GROUP:

The number of elements in a group G is called order of a group, it is denoted by O(G).

Eg.
$$G = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

O(G) = 4

5.1.8. FINITE GROUP:

A group G is called finite if it consists of only finite number of elements and we say that the group is of finite order.

PROPLEMS:

1. Prove that (S, .) is a group where S is the set of all 4th roots of unity.

Solution:

Let
$$S = \{1, -1, i, -i\}$$

	1	- 1	i	- i	
1	1	- 1	i	- i	
- 1	- 1	1	- i	i	
i	i	- i	- 1	1	
- i	- i	i	1	- 1	
					-

Closure:

Let $1, i \in S$

 $\Rightarrow 1 \cdot i \in S$

 \therefore (*S*, \cdot) satisfies closure property.

Associative:

Let 1, -1, $i \in S$ $1 \cdot (-1, i) = (1 \cdot (-1)) \cdot i$ $1 \cdot (-i) = (-1) \cdot i$ -i = -i

 \therefore (*S*,·)satisfies associative property.

Identity:

- $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$ $1 \cdot i = i \cdot 1 = i$ $1 \cdot (-i) = (-i) \cdot 1 = -i$ $1 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ $1 \cdot (-1) = (-1) \cdot 1 = -1$
- \therefore 1 is the identity element of S.

Inverse Law:

- $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = e$
- Inverse of 1 = 1

Inverse of -1 = 1

Inverse of – i = i

Inverse of i = - i

- \therefore Inverse exists
- \therefore (*S*,.) is as group.

2. Find the residue group of integers under addition modulo 5.

Solution:

Let
$$z_5 = \{ [0], [1], [2], [3], [4] \}$$

\oplus_5	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[1]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]

(i) Closure

Let $[0], [1] \in Z_5$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix} \oplus_5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} \in z_5$$

 \therefore (z_5, \oplus_5) satisfies closure property.

(ii) Associative

- Let [2] [3] [4] $\in z_5$ [2] $\oplus_5 ([3] + [4]) = ([2] \oplus_5 [3]) \oplus_5 [4]$ [2] $\oplus_5 [2] = [0] \oplus_5 [4]$ [4] = [4]
- $\therefore(z_5,\oplus_5)$ satisfies property.

Identity Law:

$$a \oplus e = e \oplus a = a$$
$$[0] \oplus_{5} [0] = [0]$$
$$[1] \oplus_{5} [0] = [1]$$
$$[2] \oplus_{5} [0] = [2]$$

- $[3] \oplus_{5} [0] = [3]$
- $[4] \oplus_{5} [0] = [4]$

 \therefore [0] is the identity element.

Inverse Law:

 $a \oplus a^{-1} = a^{-1} \oplus a = e$ $[0] \oplus_{5}[0] = [0]$ $[1] \oplus_{5}[4] = [0]$ $[2] \oplus_{5}[3] = [0]$ $[3] \oplus_{5}[2] = [0]$ $[4] \oplus_{5}[1] = [0]$

∴ Inverse exists

 $\therefore(z_5,\oplus_5)$ is a group.
Associate property:

For any $a, b \in \Rightarrow a * (b * c) * c$

Here, for any $a, b \in \Rightarrow Z_5 \Rightarrow a * (b * c) = (a * c) = (a * b) * c$

Let us take [1], [3], [4] $\in Z_5$

Consider

$$[1] \oplus_{5} ([3] \oplus_{5} [4]) = [1] \oplus_{5} [2] = [3]$$

Consider

 $([1] \oplus_{5} [3]) \oplus_{5} [4] = [4] \oplus_{5} [4] = [3]$

 \therefore (*Z*, \oplus_5) satisfies associative property

Identify Property:

In the table, [0] is an identity element in Z_5

 $[1] \oplus_{5} [0] = [0]$ $[1] \oplus_{5} [0] = [1]$ $[2] \oplus_{5} [0] = [2]$ $[3] \oplus_{5} [0] = [3]$ $[4] \oplus_{5} [0] = [4]$ **Inverse Property:** $[1] \oplus_{5} [0] = [0]$ $[1] \oplus_{5} [4] = [1]$ $[2] \oplus_{5} [3] = [0]$ $[3] \oplus_{5} [2] = [0]$ $[4] \oplus_{5} [1] = [0]$

Inverse element is exist.

Hence, (Z, \oplus_5) is a group.

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEM

Problem - 3:

Find the residue class of integers under addition modulo 7 and prove that it is a group.

Solution:

Let $Z_7 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ be the set of all residue class of integer for Z_7 under addition.

To prove: = (Z, \oplus_7) is a group.

Closure property:

\oplus_7	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	
[4]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	
[5]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	
[6]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	

for any $a, b \in G \Longrightarrow a * b \in G$

In the above table, any two elements in Z_7 their addition is in Z_7 .

Associative Property:

for any $a, b \in G \Rightarrow a * b \in G$

Here, for any
$$a, b \in Z_7 \Longrightarrow a^*(b^*c) = (a^*c)^*c$$

Let us take [1], [3], [4] $\in Z_2$

Consider

$$[1] \oplus_{7} ([3] \oplus_{7} [4]) = [1] \oplus_{7} [0] = [1]$$

Consider

 $([1] \oplus_7 [3]) \oplus_7 [4] = [4] \oplus_7 [4] = [1]$

Identity Property:

In the table, [0] is an identity element in Z_7

$[0] \oplus_{7} [0] = [0]$	$[1] \oplus_{7} [0] = [1]$
$[2] \oplus_{7} [0] = [2]$	$[3] \oplus_{7} [0] = [3]$
$[4] \oplus_{7} [0] = [4]$	$[5] \oplus_{7} [0] = [5]$
$[6] \oplus_{7} [0] = [6]$	

Inverse Property:

$[0] \oplus_{7} [0] = [0]$	$[1] \oplus_{7} [6] = [0]$
$[2] \oplus_{7} [5] = [0]$	$[3] \oplus_{7} [4] = [0]$
$[4] \oplus_{7} [3] = [0]$	$[5] \oplus_{7} [2] = [0]$
$[6] \oplus_{7} [1] = [0]$	

Inverse element is exist for each element of Z_7 and in Z_7

Hence (Z, \oplus_{7}) is a group.

Problem – 4:

Find the residue class of integers under multiplication modulo 7 and prove that it is a group.

Solution:

Let $Z_7 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ be the set of all residue class of integer for Z_7 under addition

To prove: $Z_7 = (Z, \oplus_7)$ is a group.

\oplus_7	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
				/		
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[2]	[2]	[4]	[6]	[1]	[3]	[5]
[3]	[3]	[6]	[2]	[5]	[1]	[4]
[4]	[4]	[1]	[5]	[2]	[6]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[3]	[1]	[6]	[4]	[2]
[6]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

FEACHER'S CARE ACADEM

Closure Property:

For any $a, b \in G \Longrightarrow a * b \in G$

In the above table, any two elements in Z_7 their addition is in Z_7 .

Associative Property:

For any
$$a, b \in G \Rightarrow a * (b * c) = (a * c) = (a * c) * c$$

Here, for any
$$a, b \in Z_7 \Longrightarrow a * (b * c) * c$$

Let us take,
$$[1], [3], [4] \in \mathbb{Z}_7$$

Consider

$$[1] \oplus_{7} ([3] \oplus_{7} [4]) = [1] \times_{7} [5] = [5]$$

Consider

$$([1] \oplus_{7} [3]) \oplus_{7} [4] = [3] \oplus_{7} [4] = [5]$$

 \therefore (Z, \oplus_7) satisfies associative property

Identity property:

In the table, [1] is an identity element in Z_7

$$[1] \oplus_{7} [1] = [1] \qquad [2] \oplus_{7} [1] = [2]$$
$$[3] \oplus_{7} [3] = [3] \qquad [4] \oplus_{7} [1] = [4]$$
$$[5] \oplus_{7} [5] = [5] \qquad [6] \oplus_{7} [1] = [6]$$

Inverse property:

$$[1] \oplus_{7} [1] = [1] \qquad [2] \oplus_{7} [4] = [1]$$
$$[3] \oplus_{7} [5] = [1] \qquad [4] \oplus_{7} [2] = [1]$$
$$[5] \oplus_{7} [3] = [1] \qquad [6] \oplus_{7} [6] = [1]$$

Inverse element is exist for each element of Z_7 and in Z_7

Hence (Z, \oplus_7) is a group.

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

Problem – 5:

Prove that (S,.) where S is the set of all fourth roots of unity is a group

Solutions:

Let S be set of al fourth root of unity

(i.e.,)
$$S = \{1, -1, i, -1\}$$

	1	-1	i	— <i>i</i>
1	1	- 1	i	—i
-1	- 1	1	—i	i
i	i	-i	-1	1
—i	— <i>i</i>	i	1	- 1

Closure property:

for any $a, b \in G \Longrightarrow a * b \in G$

In the above table, any two elements in S their addition is in S.

Associative property:

for any $a, b \in G \Longrightarrow a * b \in G$

Let us take, $1 \cdot -1 \cdot i \in S$

Consider,

$$1 \cdot \left(-1 \cdot i\right) = 1 \cdot \left(-i\right) = -i$$

Consider,

 $\therefore (S_1)$ satisfies associative property.

Identity Property:

Here, 1 is in identity element

1	· ·	1	=	1 - 1
-1		1	=	- 1
i		1	=	i
-i		1	=	— i

1		1	=	1
- 1		- 1	=	1
i	•	— i	=	1
i		— i	=	1
— i		i	=	1

Inverse element is exist for each element of S and in S

Hence (S,.) is a group.

Problem - 6:

Show that the set of all rational numbers except 1 is a group under the binary operation

*defined as a * b = a + b - ab is group.

Solution:

Let
$$Q - \{1\} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} \middle| p, q \in N \& p, q \neq 0.1 \right\}$$

Closure property:

For any
$$a, b \in Q - \{1\}$$

$$\Rightarrow a * b = a + b - ab \in Q - \{1\}$$

 $\therefore a * b \in Q - \{1\}$

Associative Property:

For any $a, b, c \in Q - \{1\}$

 $\Rightarrow a * (b * c) = (a * b) * b \text{ consider},$

$$\Rightarrow a*(b*c) = a*(b+c-bc)$$
$$= a+b+c-bc-a(b+c-bc)$$

=a+b+c-bc-ab-ac+abc

Consider

$$(a*b)*c = (a+b-ab)*c$$
$$= a+b+c-ab-(a+b-ab)c$$
$$= a+b+c-ab-ac-bc+abc$$

 $\therefore Q - \{1\}$ satisfies associative property.

Identity Property:

For any $a \in G, \exists e \in G$ such that a * e = e * a = a

a * e = aa + e - ae = ae - ae = 0e(1 - a) = 0e = 0 $\therefore 0 \in Q - \{1\}$

Inverse Property:

for each $a \in G, \exists a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$

Consider,

$$a * a^{-1} = 0$$

$$a + a^{-1} - aa^{-1} = 0$$

$$a^{-1} (1 - a) = -a$$

$$a^{-1} = \frac{-a}{1 - a}$$

$$a^{-1} = \frac{a}{1 - a}$$

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEM

Inverse element exists in Q – $\{1\}$ for each a

Hence set of all rational numbers except 1 is a group under the binary operations * defined as a * b = a + b - ab is group.

Problem - 7:

Prove that (Q, *) is group with respect to * as defined as $a * b = \frac{ab}{2} \forall a, b \in Q$

Closure property:

For any $a, b \in Q$

$$a * b = \frac{ab}{2} \in Q$$

 $\therefore a * b \in Q$

Associative property:

For any
$$a, b, c \in Q$$

$$a*(b*c)=(a*b)*b$$

Consider,

$$a*(b*c) = a*\left(\frac{bc}{2}\right)$$

 $=\frac{abc}{4}$

Consider,

$$(a*b)*c = \left(\frac{ab}{2}\right)*c$$
$$= \frac{abc}{4}$$

Hence associative property is satisfied

Identity Property:

For any $a \in G, \exists e \in G$ such that a * e = e * a = a

Consider,

$$a * e = a$$

 $\frac{ae}{2} = a$

ae = 2ae = 2 $\therefore 2 \in Q$

Hence identity elements in Q

Inverse Property:

for each $a \in G, \exists a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a * a^{-1} = a^{-1} * a = e$

Consider,

$$a * a^{-1} = 2$$
$$\frac{aa^{-1}}{2} = 2$$
$$\frac{aa^{-1}}{2} = 4$$
$$a^{-1} = \frac{4}{a}$$

Inverse element exist in Q for each a.

Hence (Q, *) is group with respect to *

Problem - 8:

Prove that (Z,*) is group with respect to * as defined as $a*b = a+b+1 \forall a, b \in Q$

Solution

Closure property:

For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$a * b = a + b + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$
$$\therefore a * b \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Associative Property:

for any $a, b, c \in Z \Longrightarrow a * (b * c) = (a * b) * b$



FEACHER'S CARE ACADEM

Let G be the set of all 2×2 matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ where a, b, c, d are integers modulo 2, such that 9. ad - bc = 1 is a group under multiplication, then a(G) =A) 6 B) 48 C) 4 D) 3 10. Let G be the set of all 2×2 matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ where ad – bc = 1, a, b, c, d are integers mod 3, forms group under multiplication then O(G) =D) 9 A) 48 B) 6 C) 4 11. A non-empty subset H of a group G is a subgroup of G of A) $a, b \in H \Longrightarrow ab \in H$ B) $a \in H \Longrightarrow a^{*}$ C) $a, b \in H \Longrightarrow ab^{-1} \in H$ D) all A, B, C 12. If H is a non-empty ______ of a group G and H is closed under multiplication, there H is a subgroup of G B) finite subset A) infinite subset C) proper subset D) improper subset 13. Let G = (z, +) Let H be a subset consisting of all multiples of m (Hn) then H is _____ G. A) subgroup B) not subgroup D) none of these C) may be subgroup 14. If H is a subgroup of G, then index of H if no. of _ of H in G. A) all right cosets of G B) distinct right cosets C) distinct left cosets D) both c and b 15. If G is a finite group and $a \in G$, then $a^{0/G}$ A) 0A) B) 0 (G) C) e D) 0 16. If n is a +ve integer and a is relatively prime onto n, then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$ is A) Euler theorem B) Fermat theorem C) Sylow's theorem D) Cayley's theorem

137



TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

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UNIT VI Real Analysis

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UNIT - VI - REAL ANALYSIS

INDEX

	INDEX	
S.No.	CHAPTER NAME	P.No.
6.1	SETS	1
	6.1.1. Order of Sets	
	6.1.2. Types of Sets	
	6.1.3. Operations of Set	
	6.1.4. Properties of Sets	
6.2.	SUBGROUPS	11
6.3	COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE SETS	25
	6.3.1. Real Number	
6.4.	FUNCTION	26
	6.4.1. Image and Range	
	6.4.2. Inverse Image	
6.5.	REAL – VALUED FUNCTION, EQUIVALENCE AND	31
	COUNTABILITY	
	6.5.1. Real valued functions:	
	6.5.2. Operational on Real - valued functions:	
	6.5.3. Composition of function	
6.6.	EQUIVALENT FUNCTION	32
6.7.	COUNTABILITY	33
6.8.	INFIMUM AND SUPREMUM OF A SUBSET OF R	34
	6.8.1. Infimum of a subset of R	7
	6.8.2. Supremum of a subset of R	
	6.8.3. Bounded above - upper bound	
	6.8.4. Bounded below	

	6.8.5. Bounded sets	
	6.8.6. Greatest lower bound (G.L.B)	$\langle \rangle$
	6.8.7. Least upper bound (L.U.B)	
	6.8.8. Least upper bound axiom	
6.9.	BOLZANO – WAITRESS THEOREM	37
6.10.	SEQUENCE OF REAL NUMBER	39
	6.10.1. Subsequence of positive integer:	
	6.10.2. Limit of a sequence.	
6.11.	CONVERGENT AND DIVERGENT SEQUENCES	42
6.12.	DIVERGENT SEQUENCE	45
6.13	MONOTONE SEQUENCE	47
6.14	CAUCHY SEQUENCE	61
6.15	LIMIT SUPERIOR AND LIMIT INFERIOR OF A	63
	SEQUENCE	
	6.15.1. Limit superior	
	6.15.2. limit inferior	
6.16	SUB SEQUENCE	66
	6.16.1. Subsequence of positive integers	
6.17	INFINITE SERIES	68
6.18	ALTERNATING SERIES	71
	6.18.1. Theorem: Leibnitz theorem	
6.19	CONDITIONAL CONVERGENCES AND ABSOLUTE	74
	CONVERGENCES	
	6.19.1. Definition of Conditional Convergences	
	6.19.2. Positive terms of a series	
	6.19.3. Negative terms of a series	
		1

6.20	TEST OF ABSOLUTE	78
	6.20.1. Theorem Comparison Test	-
	6.20.2. Theorem ratio test	
	6.20.3 Theorem: Root test.	
6.21	CONTINUITY AND UNIFORM CONTINUITY OF A REAL	82
	VALUED FUNCTION OF A REAL VARIABLE	
	6.21.1. Continuity function of a real variable	
	6.21.2. Uniform continuity of a real valued function	
6.22	LIMIT OF A FUNCTION AT A POINT	84
6.23	CONTINUITY AND DIFFERENTIABILITY OF REAL	86
	VALUED FUNCTION	
	6.23.1. Continuity of real valued function	
	6.23.2. Continuity Function	
	6.23.3. Differentiability of real valued function	
6.24	ROLLE'S THEOREM	87
6.25	MEAN VALUE THEOREM	89
	6.25.1. Theorem: Generalized law of mean	
6.26	INVERSE FUNCTION THEOREM, TAYLOR'S	92
	THEOREM WITH REMAINDER FORM	
	6.26.1. Inverse function theorem	
	6.26.2. Maclaurin series	
6.27	POWER SERIES EXPANSION	97
6.28	RIEMANN INTEGRABILITY	100
6.29	SEQUENCE AND SERIES OF FUNCTION	102
	6.29.1. Point wise convergence of sequence of function	
	6.29.2. Uniform convergence of sequence of function	
	6.29.3. Theorem (Dini's theorem for sequence of function)	

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iii

6.29.5. Weierstrass M -test106.30METRIC SPACES106.31LIMITS OF A FUNCTION AT A POINT IN METRIC SPACES106.32FUNCTION CONTINUOUS ON A METRIC SPACES106.33VARIES REFORMULATIONS OF CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.116.34OPEN SET116.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.116.35.2. Homeomorphism116.36DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.116.36.2. Nowhere Dense11			
6.30METRIC SPACES106.31LIMITS OF A FUNCTION AT A POINT IN METRIC SPACES106.32FUNCTION CONTINUOUS ON A METRIC SPACES106.33VARIES REFORMULATIONS OF CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.116.34OPEN SET116.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.116.35.2. Homeomorphism116.35.3. Dense116.36DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.2. Nowhere Dense11		6.29.4. Uniform convergence of series of function	
6.31LIMITS OF A FUNCTION AT A POINT IN METRIC SPACES106.32FUNCTION CONTINUOUS ON A METRIC SPACES106.33VARIES REFORMULATIONS OF CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.116.34OPEN SET116.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.116.35.2. Homeomorphism116.35.3. Dense116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.116.36.1. Nowhere Dense11		6.29.5. Weierstrass M –test	
SPACES6.32FUNCTION CONTINUOUS ON A METRIC SPACES106.33VARIES REFORMULATIONS OF CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.116.34OPEN SET116.35CLOSED SETS116.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.76.35.2. Homeomorphism76.35.3. Dense116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.66.36.2. Nowhere Dense11	6.30	METRIC SPACES	105
6.33VARIES REFORMULATIONS OF CONTINUITY OF A FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.116.34OPEN SET116.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.16.35.2. Homeomorphism16.35.3. Dense116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.2. Nowhere Dense1	6.31		107
FUNCTION IN A METRIC SPACE.6.34OPEN SET6.35CLOSED SETS6.35.1. Closed subset.6.35.2. Homeomorphism6.35.3. Dense6.36DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.2. Nowhere Dense	6.32	FUNCTION CONTINUOUS ON A METRIC SPACES	109
6.35CLOSED SETS116.35.1. Closed subset.6.35.2. Homeomorphism6.35.2. Homeomorphism6.35.3. Dense6.36DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE116.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.2. Nowhere Dense11	6.33		111
6.35.1. Closed subset. 6.35.2. Homeomorphism 6.35.3. Dense 6.36 DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE 11 6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J. 6.36.2. Nowhere Dense	6.34	OPEN SET	113
6.35.2. Homeomorphism6.35.3. Dense6.36DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.6.36.2. Nowhere Dense	6.35	CLOSED SETS	114
6.35.3. Dense 6.36 DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE 11 6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J. 6.36.2. Nowhere Dense		6.35.1. Closed subset.	
6.36 DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE 11 6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J. 6.36.2. Nowhere Dense 11		6.35.2. Homeomorphism	
6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J. 6.36.2. Nowhere Dense		6.35.3. Dense	
6.36.2. Nowhere Dense	6.36	DISCONTINUES FUNCTIONS ON THE REAL LINE	117
		6.36.1. Oscillation of f over J.	
		6.36.2. Nowhere Dense	
6.37 IMPORTANT MCQ - REAL ANALYSIS 12	6.37	IMPORTANT MCQ - REAL ANALYSIS	120

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UNIT - VI

REAL ANALYSIS

6.1. SETS

DEFINITION OF SETS:

- ✤ A set is a collection of objects chosen from some universe
 - Example: {1,2,3,4} is a set of numbers

6.1.1. Order of Sets:

The order of a set defines the number of elements a set is having. It describes the size of a set. The order of a sets is also known as the cardinality.

6.1.2. Types of Sets:

(i) Empty set	- A set which doesn't contain any element. It is denoted by $\left\{ \ ight\}$ or ϕ
(ii) Singleton set	- A set which contains a single element.
(iii) Finite set	- A set which consists of a definite number of elements.
(iv) Infinite set	- A set which is not finite.
(v) Equivalent set	- If the number of elements is the same for two different sets, then they
	are called equivalent sets.

HEAD OFFICE:

- (vi) Equal sets The two sets A and B are said to be equal if they have exactly the same elements, the order of elements do not matter.
- (vii) Disjoint sets Two sets are said to be disjoint if the sets does not contain any common element.
- (viii) Subsets A sets 'A' is said to be a sub sets of B if every element of A is also an element of B, denoted as $A \subseteq B$.
- (ix) proper subset If $A \subseteq B$ and $A \neq B$, then A is called the proper subset of B and it can be written as $A \subset B$.
- (x) superset Sets A is said to be the suspect of B if all the elements of sets B are the elements of set A. it is represented as $A \supset B$
- (xi) universal set A set which contains all the sets relevant to a certain condition is called the universal set. It is the set of all possible values.

6.1.3. Operations of Set:

(i) Union Sets:

If set A and set B are two sets, then A union B is the set that contains all the elements of a set A and set B. It is denoted as $A \cup B$.

> Example:

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$
 and $B = \{4, 5, 6\}$

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

(ii) Intersection of Sets:

If sets A and set B are two sets, then A intersection B is the set that contains only the common elements between set A and set B. If denoted as $A \cap B$

Example:

$$=\{1,2,3\}$$
 and $B=\{4,5,6\}$

 $A \cap B = \{ \} \text{ or } \phi$

(iii) Complement of Sets:

The complement of sets of any set, say p is the set of all elements in the universal set that are not in set P. If is denoted by 'p'

Properties of complements sets

a)
$$P \cup P' = \bigcup$$

b) $P \cap P' = \phi$
c) $(P')' = P$
d) $\phi' = \bigcup$ and $\bigcup' = \phi$

(iv) Cartesian product of sets:

If set A and set B are two sets then the Cartesian product of set A and set B is a set of all ordered pairs (a,b) such that a is an element of A and b is an element of B. It is denoted by $A \times B$

 $A \times B = \{(a,b); a \in A \text{ and } b \in B\}$

(v) Difference of sets:

If set A and set B are two, then set A different set B is a set which has element of A but no elements of B. It denoted as A-B

> Example:

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$
 and $B = \{3, 2, 4\}$

 $A - B = \{1\}$

6.1.4. Properties of Sets:

- (i) commutative property
- (ii) Associative property
- $: A \cup B = B \cup A \text{ and } A \cap B = B \cap A$ $: A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$ $: A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
- (iv) De Morgan's law: Law of union
 - Law of intersection

(iii) Distributive property

 $:(A \cap B)' = A' \cup B'$

 $:(A \cup B)' = A' \cap B'$

(v) complement law : $A \cup A' = A' \cup A = \cup$ and $A \cap A' = \phi$

(vi) Idempotent law and law of null and universal set for any finite set A,



Ex:

• The set $f = \{ < x, x^2 > -\infty < x < \infty \}$ is the function defined by

$$f(x) = x^2 (-\infty < x < \infty)$$

$$f(1) = 1 \qquad f(-1) = 1$$

$$f(2) = 4 \quad f(-2) = 4$$

Define: Image and Range:

Let 'f' be a function from X to Y for any x ∈ X, f (x) = y ∈ Y here f (x) = y is called an image of 'x' under f. Let 'f' be a function from X to Y define, f (x) = {y/y = f (x); f or some x ∈ X} is called a range of 'f'.

Define: Inverse Image:

Let 'f' is a function f: X → Y such that f(x) = y ⇒ x = f⁻¹(y), here f(x) is called an image of y under 'f'.

Let B be a subset of Y. i.e., $B \subset Y$

$$f^{-1}(B) = \{x/f(x) = y; \text{ for } y \in B\}$$

Define: One-One function (or) Injective:

• A function $f: X \to Y$ is said to be a one-one function if for any $x_1, x_2 \in X$. Such that $x_1 \neq x_2 \Longrightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ (or) $x_1 = x_2 \Longrightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2)$

▶ i.e., The distinct elements in X has distinct image in Y.

Define: Onto function (or) Surjective:

- A function $f: X \to Y$ is said to be a onto function, if the range of 'f' is equal to Y. i.e.,
- f(x) = y $f: R \rightarrow R$ Let $f_1: R \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ $f_1(x) = x^2$ $f_1(-2) = 4$ $f_1(-1) = 1$ $f_1(0) = 0$ $f_1(1) = 1$

 $f_1(2) = 4$

Range of $f_1(0,\infty) \subset R$. It is a onto function but not into

 $f_2(x) = x$

Let $f_2: R \to R$

Range of $f_2(-\infty,\infty) = R$

Define 1 – 1 Correspondence (or) Bijective:

 If the function f is both one-one and onto then we say that the function f is 1 – 1 Correspodance (or) Bijective.

Define: Constant function:

The function f is said to be constant function, if all the images are same. i.e., f(x) = k
 for all x in domain

Define: Inverse function:

- Let 'f' be a function from X to Y, such that f is one-one and onto function.
 - \therefore The function $f^{-1}: Y \to X$ is called a inverse function of 'f.

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• If $A \subset S$ then the characteristic function ψ_A is defined as,

$$0.\psi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad x \in A \\ 0 & if \quad x \in A' \end{cases}$$

Theorem - 1:

• If $f: A \to B$ and $X \subset B, Y \subset B$ Then $f^{-1}(X \cup Y) = f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y)$ (or) The inverse image of the union of two sets is the union of the inverse images.

Proof:

• Given that $f: A \to B$ and $X \subset B, Y \subset B$

To prove:
$$f^{-1}(X \cup Y) = f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y)$$

Let $b \in X \cup Y$

Since $f: A \rightarrow B$

$$\therefore f(a) = b$$
 such that $a \in A, b \in B$ and hence $X \subset B, Y \subset B$

For some $a \in A$,

$$f(a) \in X \cup Y \to (1)$$

$$\therefore f(a)(or) \ f(a) \in Y$$

$$a \in f^{-1}(X) \ (or) \ a \in f^{-1}(Y)$$

$$\Rightarrow a \in f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y)$$

From (1),
$$f(a) \in X \cup Y$$

$$a \in f^{-1}(X \cup Y)$$

$$\Rightarrow f^{-1}(X \cup Y) \subseteq f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y) \to (*)$$

Now, let
$$a \in f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y)$$

$$a \in f^{-1}(X) \ (or) \ a \in f^{-1}(Y)$$

From (*) and (**)

$$f^{-1}(X \cup Y) = f^{-1}(X) \cup f^{-1}(Y)$$

Hence proved

Theorem – 2:

If
$$f: A \to B, X \in A, Y \in A$$
 then $f(X \cup Y) = f(X) \cup f(Y)$

Proof:

Given that $f : A \rightarrow B, X \in A, Y \in A$

To prove:

 $f(X \cup Y) = f(X) \cup f(Y)$

Suppose $b \in f(X \cup Y)$

Since f is a function from A to B

$$\therefore b = f(a), \text{ for some } a \in X \cup Y$$
$$\Rightarrow a \in X \quad (or) \ a \in Y$$
$$\Rightarrow f(a) \in f(X) \text{ (or) } \Rightarrow f(a) \in$$
$$\Rightarrow f(a) \in f(X) \cup f(Y)$$

 $\Rightarrow b \in f(X) \cup f(Y)$ $\therefore f(X \cup Y) \subseteq f(X) \cup f(Y) \qquad (*)$

Since f is a function from A to B

$$\therefore v = f(a); \text{ for some } a \in X \cup Y$$

$$b \in f(X)(or)f(Y)$$

From (*) and (**)

$$f^{-1}(X \cap Y) = f^{-1}(X) \cap f^{-1}(Y)$$

Hence proved.

Define: Real Valued Function

If f: X → R then f is called a Real valued function. If x ∈ X then f(x) is also called the value of f at x.

Ex.

1.
$$f(x) = x^2$$
 or $(-\infty < x < \infty)$ it is a real valued function.

2.
$$f: Z \to C$$

f(x) = ix

It is not a real valued function but it is a complex valued function.

Note:

- 1. If $A \subset B$ then every element of A is an element of B.
- 2. If A is a proper subset of B then $A \subset B$ and $A \neq B$.
- 3. If A is an improper subset of B then $A \subset B$ and A = B.
- 4. If $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A \Longrightarrow A = B$
- 5. If $a \in A$ and $a \in B$ here a is an arbitrary then $A \subseteq B$

Operations on real valued function:

Let
$$f: A \to T, g: B \to R$$

We define, f + g as the function whose value at $x \in A$ is equal to f(x) + g(x)

i.e.,
$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x), (x \in A)$$

Similarly, $(f-g)(x) = f(x) - g(x), (x \in A)$

$$(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x), (x \in A)$$

A)

$$(cf)(x) = cf(x), (x \in A) \text{ and } c - \text{constant}$$
$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}, (x \in A)$$
$$|f|(x) = |f(x)|, (x \in A)$$
$$Max(f,g)(x) = Max((f(x),g(x))), (x \in A)$$
$$Min(f,g)(x) = Max((f(x),g(x))), (x \in A)$$

Define: Composition of function:

c() (

(c)()

Let X, Y, Z are three non-empty sets. Let us define function, f: X → Y and g: Y → Z
 The function f composition of g is denoted by g o f : X → Y → Z

$$\Rightarrow$$
 g o f : X \rightarrow Z

- It is defined by, for any $x \in X$ such that $(g \circ f)(x) = g[f(x)]$. The composition function if possible only if, the co-domain of f is equal to the domain of g.
 - ≻ Ex.

Let
$$f(x) = 1 + \sin x$$
 on $(-\infty < x <$

 $g(x) = x^2$ on $(-\infty < x < \infty)$

The find $(g \circ f)(x)$

Solution:

By the definition of composition function

$$g \circ f(x) = g[f(x)]$$

= g[1+sin x]
= (1+sin x)²
= 1+sin² x+2sin x on (-∞ < x < ∞)



Define: Equivalent set

If there exist a 1 – 1 corresponds between the sets A and B then we say that A and B are equivalence sets of equivalent sets.

2.

Note:

- 1. Any two sets containing exactly same number of elements are equivalent
- 2. Every set A is equivalent to itself.
- 3. If A and B are equivalent. Then B and A are equivalent
- 4. If A and B are equivalent and B and C are equivalent then A and C also equivalent

Define: Equivalent function:

- Two sets A and B are said to be equivalent sets is there exist a one-one and onto functions from A to B.
 - ► Ex.

$$f: Z \to 2Z \cup \{0\}$$

f(z) = 2x

Here f is one-one on to function therefore Z and $2Z \cup \{0\}$ are equivalent set.

Exceise Questions:

- 1. How many elements are there in the complement of set A?
 - A) 0C) All the elements of A

Empty set is a _

A) Infinite set

C)unknown set

A) n

B) 1

C) 2^{*n*}

D) None of tehse

B) Finite set

D) universal set



D) n^2

3. Order of the power set P(A) of a set A of order n is equal to

B) 2n

4. The cardinality of the power set of $\{x : x \in N, x \le 10\}$ is _____.

A) 1024 B) 1023 C) 2048 D) 2043

5. The range of the function f(x) = 3x - 2, is: A) $(-\infty, \infty)$ B) $R - \{3\}$ C) $(-\infty, 0)$ D) $(0, -\infty)$

6.37. REAL ANALYSIS - IMPORTANT MCQ







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UNIT VII Complex Analysis

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UNIT - VII - COMPLEX ANALYSIS - INDEX

S.NO	CHAPTER NAME	P.NO
7.1	Function of Complex Variables	1
7.2	Limits	4
7.3	Mappings	7
7.4	Theorems on Limit	14
7.5	Continuity	36
7.6	Differentiability	37
7.7	Cauchy Riemann Equations	39
7.8	Analytic Functions:	45
7.9	Harmonic Function:	65
7.10	Conformal Mapping	68
7.11	Mobius Transformations	69
7.12	Elementary Transformations	78
7.13	Bilinear Transformation	84
7.14	Cross Ratio	88
7.15	Fixed Points Of Bilinear Transformation	92

7.16	Special Bilinear Transformation	95
7.17	Contour And Contour Integrals	100
7.18	Contour And Contour Integrals	100
7.19	Anti Derivatives	122
7.20	Cauchy Goursat Theorem:	126
7.21	Power Series	128
7.22	Complex Integration	130
	7.22.1 Cauchy's Theorem	
	7.22.2 Morera's Theorem	<i>Y</i>
	7.22.3. Cauchy's Integral Formula	
	7.22.4. Liouvelle's Theorem	
7.23	Maximum Modulus Principle	140
7.24	Schwartz's Lemma	143
7.25	Taylor's Series	145
7.26	Laurent's Series	149
7.27	Calculus Of Residues	157
7.28	Residues Theorem	160
7.29	Evaluation Of Integrals And Definite Integral Of Function	163
7.30	Evaluation Of Integrals And Definite Integral Of Function	163
7.31	Argument Principal	172
7.32	Rouche's Theorem	174
7.33	Multiple Choice Questions	177

2

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UNIT - VII

COMPLEX ANALYSIS

ALGEBRA OF COMPLEX NUMBERS



7.1. FUNCTION OF A COMPLEX VARIABLE:

- We use the letters z and w to denote complex variables. Thus, to denote a complex valued function of a complex variable we use the notation w = f(z). Throughout this chapter we shall consider functions whose domain of definition is a region of the complex plane.
- The function w = iz + 3 is defined in the entire complex plane.
- The function $w = \frac{1}{z^2 + 1}$ is defined at all points of complex plane except at $z = \pm i$
- The function w = |z| is defined in the entire complex plane and this is a real values function of the complex variable z.
- If a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are complex constants the function $p(z) = a_0 + a_1 z + \dots + a_n z^n$ is defined in the entire complex plane and is called a polynomial in z.
- If P(Z) and Q(Z) are polynomials the quotient $\frac{P(Z)}{Q(Z)}$ is called a rational function and it is defined for all z with $Q(Z) \neq 0$
- The function $f(z) = x^4 + y^4 + i(x^2 + y^2)$ is defined over the entire complex plane.

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- In general if u(x, y) and v(x, y) are real valued functions of two variables both defined on region S of the complex plane then f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y) is a complex values function defined on S.
- Conversely each complex function w = f(z) can be put in the form

$$w = f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$$

- When u and v are real valued functions of the real variables x and y
 - u(x, y) is called the real part and v(x, y) is called the imaginary part of the function f(z)

For Example:

$$f(x) = z^{2} = (x + iy)^{2}$$
$$= x^{2} + 2ixy + y^{2}(i^{2})$$

$$= \left(x^2 - y^2\right) + i\left(2xy\right)$$

So that $u(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ and u(x, y) = 2xy

- Thus, a complex function w = f(z) can be viewed as a function of the complex variable z or as a function of two real variables x and y.
- To have a geometric representation of the function w = f(z) it is convenient to draw separate complex planes for the variables z and w so that corresponding to each point z = x + iy of the z-plane there is a point w = u + iv in the w-plane.



Exercise Questions:

- The value of (iota) is _____ 1. C) $(-1)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ D) $(-1)^{\frac{1}{4}}$ A) – 1 **B**) 1 Is i(iota) a root of $1 + x^2 = 0$? 2. A) True B) False In z = 4 + i, what is the real part? 3. A) 4 B) I C) 1 D)4+iIn z = 4 + i, what is the imaginary part? 4. A) 4 D) 4 + iB) I C) 1 (x+3)+i(y-2)=5+i2, find the values of x and y. 5. A) x = 8 and y = 4B) x = 2 and y = 4D) x = 8 and $y = 0 \setminus 10^{-10}$ C) x = 2 and y = 0Find the domain of the function defined by $f(z) = \frac{z}{(z+\overline{z})}$ 6. A) $\operatorname{Im}(z) \neq 0$ B) $\operatorname{Re}(z) \neq 0$ C) $\operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$ $D)\operatorname{Re}(z)=0$ 7. Let $f(z) = z + \frac{1}{z}$ what will be the definition of this function in polar form. A) $\left(r + \frac{1}{r}\right) \cos \theta + i \left(r - \frac{1}{r}\right) \sin \theta$ B) $\left(r - \frac{1}{r}\right)\cos\theta + i\left(r + \frac{1}{r}\right)\sin\theta$ C) $\left(r + \frac{1}{r}\right)\sin\theta + i\left(r - \frac{1}{r}\right)\cos\theta$ D) $\left(r + \frac{1}{r}\right)\sin\theta - i\left(r - \frac{1}{r}\right)\cos\theta$
- 8. For the function $f(z) = z^{i}$, what is the value of $|f(w)| + Arg f(\omega), \omega$ being the cube root of unity with $Im(\omega) > 0$? A) $e^{-2\pi/3}$ B) $e^{2\pi/3}$ C) $e^{-2\pi/3} + 2\pi/3$ D) $e^{-2\pi/3} - 2\pi/3$

9. Let $f(z) = (z^2 - z - 1)^7$. If $a^2 + a + 1 = 0$ and $\text{Im}(\alpha) > 0$, then find $f(\alpha)$

A) 128
$$\alpha$$
 B) -128 α C) 128 α^2 D) -128 α^2

10. For all complex numbers z satisfying $\text{Im}(z) \neq 0$, if $f(z) = z^2 + z + 1$ is a real value function the find its range



• A function w = f(z) is said to have the limit 1 as z tends to z_0 if given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$

 $\Rightarrow \left| f(z) - l \right| < \varepsilon$

In this case we write $\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z) = l$

• Geometrically the definition states that given any open disc with centre 1 and radius ε , there exists an open disc with centre z_0 and radius δ such that for every point $z (\neq z_0)$ in the disc $|z - z_0| < \delta$ the image w = f(z) lies in the disc $|w - l| < \varepsilon$



• When the limit of a function f(z) exists as z tends to z_0 then the limit has a unique value.

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Proof:

Suppose that $\lim_{z \to z_0} f(z)$ has two values l_1 and l_2

Then given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists δ_1 and $\delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta_1 \Longrightarrow |f(z) - l_1| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ and}$$
$$0 < |z - z_0| < \delta_2 \Longrightarrow |f(z) - l_2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Now let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$

Then if $0 < |z - z_0| < \delta$ we have

$$|l_1 - l_2| = |l_1 - f(z) + f(z) - l_2|$$

 $\leq |f(z) - l_1| + |f(z) - l_2|$

 $< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

 $=\varepsilon$ (Using triangle inequalities)

Since $\varepsilon < 0$ is arbitrary $|l_1 - l_2| = 0$

So that $l_1 = l_2$

Example – 1:

Let
$$f(z) = \begin{cases} z^2 & \text{if } z \\ 0 & \text{if } z \end{cases}$$

As z approaches i, f(z) approaches $i^2 = -1$

Hence, we expect that $\lim_{z \to i} f(z) = -1$

To prove that the given $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |z - i| < \delta$

$$\Rightarrow \left| z^2 + 1 \right| < \varepsilon$$

Now, $|z^2 + 1| = |(z+i)(z-i)| \Rightarrow |z+i||z-i|$

____(1)
Note that if we can find a $\delta > 0$ satisfying the requirements of the definition then we can choose another $\delta \le 1$ satisfying the requirements of the definition.

Now
$$0 < |z-i| < 1 \Rightarrow |z+i| = |z-i+2i|$$

 $\leq |z-i|+|2i|$
 $< 1+2=3$
 $\therefore |z+i| < 3$

Using this in (1) we obtain 0 < |z-i| < 1

$$\Rightarrow |z^2 + 1| < 3|z - i|$$

Hence if we choose $\delta = \min\left\{1, \frac{\varepsilon}{3}\right\}$ we get

$$0 < |z - i| < \delta$$
$$\Rightarrow |z^{2} + 1| < \varepsilon$$
$$\lim_{z \to 0} f(z) = -1$$

Example – 2:

$$\lim_{z \to 2} \frac{z^2 - 4}{z - 2} = 4$$

Let $f(z) = \frac{z^2 - 4}{z - 2}$

Hence f(z) is not defined at z = 2 and when $z \neq 2$ we have

$$f(z) = \frac{(z+2)(z-2)}{z-2}$$

= z+2
:. |f(z)-4| = |z+2-4|
= |z-2| when z \neq 2

Now given $\varepsilon > 0$, we choose $\delta = \varepsilon$

Then
$$0 < |z-2| < \delta \Longrightarrow |f(z)-4| < \varepsilon$$

$$\therefore \lim_{z \to 2} f(z) = 4$$

Example – 3:

The function $f(z) = \frac{\overline{z}}{z}$ does not have a limit as $z \to 0$.

$$f(z) = \frac{\overline{z}}{z} = \frac{x - iy}{x + iy}$$

Suppose $z \rightarrow 0$ along the path y = mx

Along this path
$$f(z) = \frac{x - imx}{y + imx}$$

$$=\frac{1-im}{1+im}$$
 as $x \neq 0$

Hence if $z \to 0$ along the path y = mx, f(z) tends to $\frac{1-im}{1+im}$ which is different for values of m.

Hence f(z) does not have a limit as $z \rightarrow 0$

7.3, MAPPINGS

The mapping $w = z^2$

The transformation $w = z^2$ is conformed at all points except z = 0

Put
$$w = u + iv$$
 and $z = x + iy$

$$u+iv = (x+iy)^{2}$$
$$u+iv = x^{2} - y^{2} + i2xy$$

Equating real and imaginary parts, we get

 $u = x^2 - y^2 \qquad \qquad v = 2xy$

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Now we discuss the following cases,

Case (i):

The equation of real axis y = 0 in the z - plane

When y = 0, we have $u = x^2$ v = 0

The real axis y = 0 in the z-plane is mapped to positive u-axis in the w-plane

Case (ii):

The equation of imaginary axis x = 0 in the z-plane

When x = 0, we have $u = -y^2$ v = 0

 \therefore The imaginary axis x = 0 in the z-plane is mapped to negative u-axis in the w-plane

Case (iii):

The equation of the line parallel to x-axis in the z-plane is y = 0

Then, we have $u = x^2 - c^2$; v = 2xc

$$\Rightarrow x = \frac{v}{2c}$$

$$\therefore u = \frac{v^2}{4c^2} - c^2$$

$$u = \frac{v^2 - 4c^4}{4c^2}$$

$$4uc^2 \neq 4c^4 = v^2$$

$$4c^2(u + c^2) = v^2$$

This is a parabola with focus at the origin in the w-plane and u-axis as its axis.

For different values of c, we obtain a family of confocal parabola with u-axis as the axes.

Case (iv):

The equation of the line parallel to y-axis (i.e.,) x = d we have

$$u = d^{2} - y^{2} \qquad v = 2dy$$
$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{v}{2d}$$

$$u = d^{2} - \frac{v^{2}}{4d^{2}}$$
$$4d^{2}u = 4d^{4} - v^{2}$$
$$v^{2} = -4d^{2}u + 4d^{4}$$
$$v^{2} = -4d^{2}\left[u - d^{2}\right]$$

- This is also a parabola with focus at the origin and u-axis as its axes in the w-plane.
- For different values of d, we get a family of focal parabola with u-axis as the axes and the common focus at the origin.

The mapping $w = \sin z$

Put w = u + iv and z = x + iy

$$u + iv = \sin(x + iy)$$

 $= \sin x \cos i y + \cos x \sin i y$

$$= \sin x \cosh y + \cos x (i \sinh y)$$

 $u + iv = \sin x \cosh y + i \cos x \sinh y$

Equating real and imaginary parts, we get

$$u = \sin x \cosh y$$

$$v = \cos x \sinh y$$

Case (i):

The equation of real axis y = 0 in the z - plane

When y = 0, we have $u = \sin x$, v = 0

Since, sin *x* takes values between -1 and 1, the image of the real axis y = 0 is the line segment $-1 \le u \le 1$ of the u - axis.

Case (ii):

The equation of imaginary axis x = 0 in the z-plane

When
$$x = 0$$
, we have $u = 0$, $v = \sin hy$

If y = 0, sin hy is positive and if y < 0, sin hy is negative

- **TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY**
- Hence the upper half of the imaginary axis in the z-plane maps into the upper half of the imaginary axis of the w-plane, while the lower halves of both corresponds with one another.

Case (iii):

The equation of any line parallel to x-axis in the z-plane is y = c

From $u = \sin x \cosh y$

 $v = \cos x \sinh y$

$$\Rightarrow \sin x = \frac{u}{\cosh y}, \cos x = \frac{v}{\sinh y}$$

W.K.T
$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$$

$$\frac{u^2}{\cosh^2 y} + \frac{v^2}{\sinh^2 y} = 1$$

Put y = c in above equation

$$\frac{u^2}{\cosh^2 c} + \frac{v^2}{\sinh^2 c} = 1$$

When $c \neq 0$ the above equation represent ellipse with semi-axes $\cosh c$ and $\sinh c$

Case (iv):

The equation of any line parallel to y-axis in the z-plane is x = d

From
$$u = \sin x \cosh y$$
, $v = \cos x \sinh y$
 $\cosh y = \frac{u}{\sin x}$, $\sinh y = \frac{v}{\cos x}$
W.K.T $\cosh^2 y - \sinh^2 y = 1$
 $\frac{u^2}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{v^2}{\cos^2 x} = 1$
Put $x = d$ in above equation

$$\frac{u^2}{\sin^2 d} - \frac{v^2}{\cos^2 d} = 1$$

• The above equation represents a system of hyperbola. Hence, the lines parallel to the imaginary axis of the z-plane map into confocal hyperbola.

The mapping $w = e^z$

The given transformation, $w = e^{z}$

Since
$$\frac{dw}{dx} = e^z \neq 0$$

For any values of z, the mapping $w = e^z$ is conformal at all the points in z-plane.

Replace z = x + iy and w = u + iv in the mapping, we get

$$u + iv = e^{x + iy}$$
$$= e^{x} \cdot e^{iy}$$
$$u + iv = e^{x} (\cos y + i \sin y)$$

$$u + iv = e^x \cos y + ie^x \sin y$$

Equating real and imaginary parts we have

$$u = e^x \cos y \qquad \qquad v = e^x \sin y$$

Eliminating *y* from the above equation, we get

$$u^{2} + v^{2} = e^{2x} \cos^{2} y + e^{2x} \sin^{2} y$$
$$= e^{2x} c (\cos^{2} y + \sin^{2} y)$$
$$u^{2} + v^{2} = e^{2x}$$
(1)

Eliminating x from the above equation, we have

$$\frac{v}{u} = \frac{e^x \sin y}{e^x \cos y}$$
$$\frac{v}{u} = \tan y$$
$$u \tan y = v$$

• Which represent a system of concentric circles with the origin.

(2)

• In particular, x = 0 transforms into a circle of unit radius with centre at the origin in the wplane. When y = constant

- The equation (2) represent a line through the origin in the w-plane
- Hence the line parallel to x-axis Transforms into radial line
 - 1. When y = 0 from the equation $u = e^x \cos y$ and $v = e^x \sin y$, we have $u = e^x$, v = 0

Since e^x is always positive for u > 0, v = 0. Hence x-axis transforms into positive uaxis in the w plane.

- 2. When $y = \frac{\pi}{2}$, we have u = 0 and $v = e^x$ Hence the line $y = \frac{\pi}{2}$, transforms into the v-axis in the w-plane.
- 3. When $y = \pi$, v = 0 and $u = -e^x < 0$

Hence the lines $y = \pi$ transforms into negative u-axis.

4. When $y = \frac{3\pi}{2}$, u = 0 and $v = -e^x < 0$

Hence the lines $y = \frac{3\pi}{2}$ transforms into the negative v-axis, in the w-plane.

5. When $y = 2\pi$, v = 0 and $u = e^x > 0$

Hence the lines $y = 2\pi$ transforms into the positive side of the u-axis in the w-plane. Hence a ny horizontal strip of the z-plane of height 2π will cover the entire w-plane.

The mapping w = z + d

The transformation w = z + d, where d is complex constant, represent a translation,

Let z = x + iy and u + iv = w, d = a + ib, then transformation becomes,

$$u+iv = x+iy+a+ib$$
$$u+iv = (x+a)+i(y+b)$$

Equating real and imaginary part

We get

 $u = x + a \qquad \qquad v = y + b$

- The point (x, y) in the z-plane is mapped onto the point (x+a, y+b) in the w-plane.
- If we impose the w-plane on the z-plane, the figure of the w-plane is shifted to constant vector.
- Also, the region in the z and w planes will have the same shape, size and orientation.
- In particular, this transformations maps circles into circles.

Exercise Questions:

1. The function $f: N^+ \to N^+$, define on the set of (+ve) integers N^+ , satisfies the following properties

$$f(n) = f(n/2)$$
, if n is even

f(n) = f(n/5) if n is odd



Let $R = \{i/\exists j; f(j) = i\}$ be the set of distinct values that f takes. The maximum possible size of R is

C) 0

C) $e^{\frac{1}{2}}$

C) $2\cos a$

A) 5 B) 2

- 2. The value of the limit $\lim_{x\to 0} (\cos x)^{\cot 2x}$ is
 - A) 1

3. The value of the limit $\lim_{x\to 0} \left\{ \sin(a+x) - \sin(a-x) \right\} / x$ is

B) 1

B) e

A) 0

- 4. $\lim_{x \to -1} \left[1 + x + x^2 + ... + x^{10} \right]$ is A) 0 B) 1 C) - 1 D) 2
- 5. The principal argument of $\frac{1}{2+3i}$ is _____. A) $\tan^{-1}(1.5)$ B) $\tan^{-1}(0.5)$ C) $\tan^{-1}(2.5)$ D) ta

D)
$$\tan^{-1}(3.5)$$

D) – 1

D) $e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

D) $2\sin a$

7.32. MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS



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8. $f(z) = \cos x (\cosh y + a \sinh y) + i \sin x (\cosh y + b \sinh y)$

A)
$$a=1,b=1$$
 B) $a=-1,b=-1$

C)
$$a = 1, b = -1$$
 D) $a = -1, b = 1$

- 9. Which one is incorrect?
 - A) If f is analytic at ever point of a region D then f is said to be analytic in D
 - B) A function which is analytic at every point of the complex plant is called an entire function or integral function

 $e^{x}(\cos y + i \sin y)$

D) e

 $-x(\cos y - i\sin y)$

- C) Any polynomial is an entire function
- D) $f(z) = |z|^2$ f is differentiable at z = 0 but not analytic at $z \neq 0$
- 10. Which one is not an analytic function?
 - A) $z^3 + z$
 - C) $e^{x}(\cos y i \sin y)$
- 11. The power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n = 1 + z + z^2 + \dots + z^{n-1} + \dots$
 - A) diverges if |z| < 1 and converges if $|z| \ge 1$
 - B) diverges if $|z| \ge 1$ and converges if |z| < 1
 - C) diverges if |z| > 1 and converges if $|z| \le 1$
 - D) None of these
- 12. Consider the power series is convergence if

A)
$$z = \pm 1$$
 B) $z = 1$ C) $z = -1$ D) $z = a$

13. The radius of convergence of the series



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14. Which one is wrong?





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UNIT VIII Mechanics

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	INDEX	
	UNIT -VIII - MECHANICS: STATICS & DYNAMICS	
S.N.	TOPIC	P. N
	STATICS	I
8.1.	Moment of a force	1
8.2.	General motion of a rigid body	4
8.3.	Equivalent (or equi polent)	5
8.4.	Parallel forces	6
	8.4.1. Forces along the sides of a triangle	
8.5.	Resultant of several coplanar	11
8.6.	Equation of the line of action of the resultant	13
8.7.	Equilibrium of a rigid body under three coplanar forces	16
8.8.	Reduction of coplanar forces into a force and a couple	18
8.9.	Equilibrium of a uniform homogeneous string:	21
8.10.	Centenary	23
8.11.	Suspension bridge:	25
	DYNAMICS	I
8.12.	Velocity and Acceleration	28
8.13.	Coplanar motion	31
8.14.	Rectilinear motion under constant force	32
8.15	Acceleration and Retardation Thrust on plane	34
8.16.	Motion along a vertical line under gravity	36
8.17.	Motion along an inclined plane	38
8.18.	Motion of connected particles	40

8.19.	Newton's laws of motion	42
8.20.	Work power energy	4
8.21.	Conservative filed of force	4
8.22.	Power	4
8.23.	Rectilinear Motion under varying force simple Harmonic motion.	5
8.24.	S.H.M along a Horizontal line	5
8.25.	S.H.M along vertical line	5
8.26.	Motion under gravity in a resisting medium	5
8.27.	Resistance proportional to velocity	6
8.28.	Path of a projects	6
8.29.	Particle projected on an inclined plane	7
8.30.	Analysis of force acting on particles and rigid to bodies on static equilibrium , equivalent	73
8.31.	Rigid bodies – equivalent system of force	74
8.32.	Friction	7
8.33.	Centroid of a system of particles	7
8.34.	Moment of Inertia	7
8.35.	Elastic medium , Impact	7
8.36.	Impulsive force	7
8.37.	Impact of spheres	7
8.38.	Impact two smooth spheres	8
8.39.	Impact of two smooth spheres of two smooth sphere on a plane	8
8.40.	Oblique impact of two smooth spheres	8

8.41.	Circular motion	89
8.42.	Conical pendulum, motion of a cyclist on a circular path	89
8.43.	Circular motion in a vertical plane	93
8.44.	Relative rest in a revolving cone	96
8.45.	Simple pendulum	98
8.46.	Central orbit	10
8.47.	Conic as a Central orbit	103
8.48.	Moment of inertia	102
8.49.	Multiple Choice Questions	11

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UNIT VIII : MECHANICS – STATICS & DYNAMICS

STATICS- PART - I

UNIT I - FORCES ON A RIGID BODY

8.1. MOMENT OF A FORCE

- Let F be a force and A, a point on its on line of action. Let O be a point in space, then the vector
- $\overline{OA} \times \overline{F}$ is called the moment of \overline{F} about 0.





Moment of a Force About a Line:



Let F be a force and A, a point on its line of a action. Let be a directed line through a point O, the direction of the line being specified by e, then the scalar triple product

• $(\overline{OA} \times \overline{F})$.e is called the moment of the force \overline{F} about \cdot .

N

Scalar Moment:

- Let \overline{F} be a force in a plane. Let A be a point on its line of action and O, any point in the plane. Let ON be the perpendicular from O to the line and ON = P then the moment \overline{F} about O is
- $\overline{OA} \times \overline{F} = OA.F \sin \theta n = PFn$

Where θ is the angle between \overline{OA} and \overline{F} , and n is the unit vector perpendicular to \overline{OA} , \overline{F} such that \overline{OA} , \overline{F} , n from a right handed biad. Now we call p^F of the scalar moment of \overline{F} about O.





- the scalar moments of F_1, F_2, F_3 in the first figure are
 - P_1F_1, P_2P_2, P_3F_3
- which are positive and the moments of F_4 , F_5 , F_6 in the second figure are

 $-P_4F_4, -P_5F_5, -P_6F_6$

 Which are negative, the first three forces are such as to cause on a rigiid body a rotational motion in the anticlockwise sense and the other three to cause a rotational motion in the clockwise sense.

Example

 Forces of a magnitudes 3P, 4P, 5P, act along the sides BC, CA, AB of an equilateral triangle of side a. Find the moment of the resultant about A,



 the moment of the resultant about A equals the sum of the moments of the individual forces about A. But the forces 4P, 5P pass through A. So their moments about A are zero, the moment of 3P which passes through B is

$$\overline{AB} \times (3PBC) = AB.2P \sin 120^{\circ} \hat{n}$$

$$=a.3P.\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}n$$

• So, this is the moment of the resultant about A.

Exercise - 1

- 1. If three parallel forces are in equilibrium then each is proportional to the
 - (A) Angle between the other two
 - (B) n Distance between the other two
 - (C) Cosine of the angle between the other two
 - (D) None of these



 S is the circumcentre of a triangle ABC.Forces of magnitudes P, Q, R acting along SA, SB, SC respectively are in equilibrium. Then P, Q, R are in the ratio

(A)
$$\cos \frac{A}{2} : \cos \frac{B}{2} : \cos \frac{C}{2}$$
 (B) $a:b:c$

(C) $\sin 2A : \sin 2B : \sin 2C$ (D) SA:SB:SC

3. Maximum range on an inclined plane of inclination β is

(A)
$$\frac{u^2}{g(1+\cos\alpha)}$$

(B) $\frac{u^2}{g(1+\sin\beta)}$
(C) $\frac{u^2}{g(1-\cos\alpha)}$
(D) $\frac{u^2}{g(1-\sin\beta)}$

8.2. GENERAL MOTION OF A RIGID BODY

 In this section we extend the Newton's laws of motion, N.1, N.2, N.3 to the motion of a rigid body.

Rigid Body:

A system of particles such that the distance between any two of them is always constant, is called a rigid body.

Applied Forces:

Forces applied on a body by external agencies are called applied forces on the body

Effective Forces:

For a particle of mass m has an acceleration \bar{r} , then the quantity $m\bar{r}$ is called the effective force of the particle. With the nomenclature are have that the equation of

motion of the particle, $\vec{mr} = \vec{F}$, is that the effective force on a particle = the applied force on a particle

Exercise - 2

- 1. If a particle is projected with a velocity of 490 meters/sec at an elevation of 30° then the time of flight.
 - (A) 5 seconds (B) 25 seconds (C) 50 seconds (D) 100 seconds
- 2. A particle is thrown vertically upwards with a velocity *u*. The time taken by it toreach the maximum height is _____

(B) $\frac{2u}{g}$ (C) $\frac{u^2}{2g}$

(D) $\frac{u}{a}$

- Two forces of magnitude 7 and 8 act a point. If the magnitude of the resultant force is
 13. Then angle between the two forces is _____
 - (A) 30° (B) 45° (C) 60° (D) 90°

8.3. EQUIVALENT (OR EQUI POLENT)

Systems of Forces

- Two systems of forces, which produce the same motion on a given rigid body are equivalent or equipotent so, from the equations of the motion of the mass centre and motion of the body about the mass centre , we get that two systems of forces are equivalent or equipolent.
 - (i) If the vector sum of the forces of one system equals the Vector sum of forces of the other system and
 - (ii) If the Vector sum of the moments of the forces of one system, about any fixed point or other mass centre, equals the Vector sum of the moments of the forces of the other system about the same point on the mass centre
- In symbols, the system of forced \overline{F}_i acting at \overline{r}_i on a rigid body is equivalent to the system of forces \overline{F}_j acting at \overline{r}'_j on the rigid body if

$$\sum_{i} \overline{F}_{i} = \sum_{j} \overline{F}'_{j},$$

$$\sum_{i} \bar{r}_{i} \times \bar{F}_{i} = \sum_{j} \bar{r}'_{j} \times \bar{F}'_{j}$$

Exercise - 3

- 1. The centre of parallel forces is _
 - (A) Not a unique paint
 - (C) a multi point

- (B) Not a multi point
- (D) a unique point

(B) angle of friction

(D) None of these

- 2. The ratio of the limiting friction to the normal reaction is called the
 - (A) coefficient of friction
 - (C) cone of friction
- 3. Two couples in the same plane whose moments are equal and of the same sign are _____
 - (A) not equivalent to one another
 - (B) equivalent to one another
 - (C) equivalent to a force
 - (D) None of these



8.4. PARALLEL FORCES

Forces whose lines of action are parallel are called parallel forces. If their directions are
in the same sense, then they are called like parallel forces otherwise they are called
unlike parallel forces.

Book Work

To find the resultant of two parallel forces acting on a rigid body

Case (i)

• Let the forces be like parallel forces, namely $F_1 i$ and $F_2 i$ acting at A_1 and A_2 respectively, where i is the unit vector in the direction of the forces,



- Let e be the unit Vector in the direction of $\overline{A_1A_2}$. Introduce a force -pe at
- A₁ and a force pe at A₂. Since these two forces are equal in magnitude and opposite in direction and act along the same line , their introduction will not affect the effects of the given two forces,

Let
$$\overline{A_1B_1} = F_1 \overline{i}, \overline{A_2B_2} = F_2 \overline{i}, \overline{A_1C_1}$$

= $-p\overline{e}, \overline{A_2C_2}$

• Complete the parallelogram A,B,C,D and $A_2B_2D_2C_2$ then the resultant of two forces $F_1 i$ and -pe acting at A_1 is

$$\overline{\mathbf{A}_{1}\mathbf{D}_{1}} = \mathbf{F}_{1}\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{p}\mathbf{e}$$

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6

and the resultant of the forces F_2i and peacting at A_2 is

$$\overline{A_2D_2} = F_2i + pe$$

If the lines A, D, and A_2D_2 intersect at O, then the resultant of these two resultants is

$$\overline{\mathbf{A}_{1}\mathbf{D}_{1}} + \overline{\mathbf{A}_{2}\mathbf{D}_{2}} = \left(\mathbf{F}_{1}\,\overline{\mathbf{i}} - \mathbf{p}\,\overline{\mathbf{e}}\right) + \left(\mathbf{F}_{2}\,\overline{\mathbf{i}} + \mathbf{p}\,\overline{\mathbf{e}}\right)$$
$$= \left(\mathbf{F}_{1} + \mathbf{F}_{2}\right)\overline{\mathbf{i}}$$

acting at C. Note that their resultant is parallel to the original forces.

Cases (ii)

• Let the given forces be unlike parallel forces $F_1 i$ and $F_2(i)$, $(F_1 > F_2)$, acing at A_1 and A_2 respectively.



• If we adopt the procedure followed in case (i), we see that the steps of case (i) repeat with the only difference that instead of F_2 they have $-F_2$ their we get that the resultant of the forces $F_1\bar{i}$ and $-F_2\bar{i}$ acting at A_1 and A_2 is $\{F_1 + (-F_2)\}\bar{i}$ acting at the point which divides A_1A_2 in the ratio $(-F_2):F_1$, that is, at the point which divides A_1A_2 externally in the ratio $F_2:F_1$.

Example

• Two like parallel forces of magnitudes P, Q act on a rigid body. If Q is changed to $\frac{P^2}{Q}$, with the line of action being the same, show that line of the action of the resultant will be the same as it would be, if the forces were simply interchanged.

Solution

- If the forces, P and $\frac{P^2}{Q}$, act at A, B, then their resultant divides AB.
- Internally in the ratio

$$\frac{P^2}{Q}:P(or)\frac{P}{Q}=1(or)P:Q$$

• For the second case also, the ratio is the same P: Q. Further all the involved forces and the resultants are parallel to one another.

Varignon's Theorem

 The sum of the moments of two intersecting or parallel force about any point in equal to the moment of the resultant of the forces about the same point

Intersecting Forces

Case (i)



- Let the lines of action of the forces \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 intersect at A, then the moment of \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 about any point O are

 $\overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_1, \overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_2$

- and their sum is
 - $\overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_1 + \overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_2$
- But the resultant of \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 acting at A, so it moment about O is $\overline{OA} \times (\overline{F}_1 + \overline{F}_2)$
- Since $\overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_1 + \overline{OA} \times \overline{F}_2 = \overline{CA} \times (\overline{F}_1 + \overline{F}_2)$ the theorem follows for the intersecting forces

Case (ii)

Parallel Forces

their sum

Let the parallel forces be $\overline{F}_1 = F_1 \overline{i}$ and $\overline{F}_2 = F_2 \overline{i}$ acting at A_1 and A_2 . Let $\overline{a}_1, \overline{a}_2$ be the P.V's of A_1 , A_2 with respect to 0, then the moment of \overline{F}_1 , \overline{F}_2 about 0 are



But the resultant of $F_1 i$ and $F_2 i$ is $(F_1 + F_2) i$ acting at x, where x divides $A_1 A_2$ internally in the rate $F_2: F_1$ to the P.V of x is

$$\frac{F_{1}\bar{a}_{1}+F_{2}\bar{a}_{2}}{F_{1}+F_{2}}----(1)$$

So, the moment of the resultant about 0 is

$$\overline{OX} \times (F_1 + F_2)i = \frac{F_1\overline{a_1} + F_2\overline{a_2}}{F_1 + F_2} \times (F_1 + F_2)\overline{i}$$
$$(F_1\overline{a_1} + F_2\overline{a_2}) \times i = ----(2)$$

From (1) and (2) we get the theorem for parallel forces.

Example

Three like parallel forces P, Q, R act at the vertices of a triangle ABC, show that their resultant passes through

(i) The centroid if P = Q = R,

(ii) the in centre if $\frac{P}{a} = \frac{Q}{b} = \frac{R}{c}$

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Let a,b,c be the P. V's of A, B, C, then the resultant passes through the pointwhose P.V is

$$\frac{Pa + Qb + Rc}{P + Q + R}$$

(i) If P=Q=R, then

$$\frac{P\bar{a}+Q\bar{b}+R\bar{c}}{P+Q+R} = \frac{\bar{a}+\bar{b}+\bar{c}}{3}$$

Which is the P.V of the centroid

(ii) If
$$\frac{P}{a} = \frac{Q}{b} = \frac{R}{c} = k$$
, then

$$\frac{P\bar{a} + Q\bar{b} + R\bar{c}}{P + Q + R} = \frac{R(a\bar{a} + b\bar{b} + c\bar{c})}{k(a + b + c)}$$

$$\frac{a\bar{a} + b\bar{b} + c\bar{c}}{a + b + c}$$
Which is the P.V of the incentre

Exercise - 4

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- 1. The centre of gravity of a triangle is
 - (A) orthocentre
 - (C) centroid
- 2. On lighting a rocket cracker it gets projected in a parabolic path and reaches a maximum height of 4m. When its is 6m away from the point of projection. Finally it reaches the ground 12m away from the starting point. The angle of projection at the origin is ____

(A)
$$\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)$$
 (B) $\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$
(C) $\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)$ (D) $\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)$

3. A particle is tossed up vertically with velocity of 19.6 m/sec. The time taken to reach the maximum height is_

(A) 4 secs	(B) 1 sec



8.4.1. FORCES ALONG THE SIDES OF A TRIANGLE

Example

Three forces P, Q, R act along the sides BC, CA, AB of a triangle ABC. If their resultant passes through the incentre and cenbioid, the show that

$$\frac{P}{a(b-c)} = \frac{Q}{b(c-a)} = \frac{R}{c(a-b)}$$

Since the resultant passes through the incentre and cenbioid. We have respectively

$$P+Q+R=0----(1)$$

 $\frac{P}{2}+\frac{Q}{2}+\frac{R}{2}=0----(2)$

Solving (1) and (2)

b c

а



8.5. RESULTANT OF SEVERAL COPLANAR FORCES

 Show that the forces AB, CD, EF acting respectively at A, C, E of a regular hexagon ABCDEF, are equivalent to a couple of moment equal to the area of the hexagon.



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- Let O be the centre of the hexagon
- Now the sum of the forces is

 $\overline{AB} + \overline{CD} + \overline{EF}$ $\overline{AB} + \overline{BD} + \overline{OA}$

- It is evident that is zero, so either the system is in equilibrium or it reduces to a couple.
- Multiplying the denominators by abc, we get the result.
- But the moment of AB about O is

 $\overline{OA} \times \overline{AB} = OA.AB \sin OAB \overline{k}$

 $=2\Delta \overline{k}$

• Where Δ is the area of Δ AOB.By symmetry the sum of the moments of all the forces is $3(2\Delta)\overline{k}$ (or) $60\Delta\overline{k}$, so the system reduces to a couple of moment 6Δ . But the area of the hexagon also is 6Δ .

Exercise - 5

- 1. The resolved part of a force in its own direction is the force itself _____
 - (A) when $\theta = \pi$ (B) when $\theta = 0$
 - (C) when $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$
- 2. O is the orthocentre and S is the circumcentre of a triangle AB. The resultant of forces OA, OB, OC is

(D) when $\theta = \frac{3\pi}{2}$

- (A) AB (B) BC (D) 20S
- 3. Three like parallel forces P, Q, R act at the corners of a triangle ABC. Then their centre is the orthocentre of the triangle if



8.6. EQUATION OF THE LINE OF ACTION OF THE RESULTANT

Y

0

Book Work

When a system of Coplanar forces F
₁, F
₂,....F
_n, acting at A₁, A₂,....Δ_n, reduce to a single force, to find the equation of line of action

 $\sum \mathbf{\bar{F}}.\mathbf{r}$

Fr

Ar

Х





• Let the unit Vectors in their direction. Let p(x, y) be any point on the line of action of the resultant force $\sum \overline{F}_r$ of the system. Then any relation is x,y is the equation of the line . Now

 $\overline{OP} = x\overline{i} + y\overline{j}$

• Let P_r , Q_r be the components of \overline{F}_r in the \overline{i} , \overline{j} directions, then

 $\overline{F}_r = P_r \overline{i} + Q_r \overline{j}$

 since the sum of the moments of the forces about any point, say 0, equals the moment of their resultant about 0,

$$\sum \left(\overline{OA}_{r}, \overline{F}_{r}\right) = \overline{OP} \times \left(\sum \overline{F}_{r}\right)$$
(or)
$$\overline{OP} \times \left(\sum \overline{F}_{r}\right) - \sum \left(\overline{OA}_{r} \times \overline{F}_{r}\right) = 0$$
i.e.,

$$(x\overline{i}+y\overline{j}) \times \sum (P_r\overline{i}+Q_r\overline{j}) - \sum (\overline{OA}_r \times \overline{F}_r) = \overline{O}$$

$$(x\overline{i}+y\overline{j}) \times \{(\sum P_r)\overline{i}+(\sum Q_r)\overline{j}\} - \sum (\overline{OA}_r \times \overline{F}_r) = \overline{O}$$

i.e.,

$$x(\sum Q_r)\overline{k} - y(\sum P_r)\overline{k} - (\sum P_rF_r)\overline{k} = \overline{0}$$

• The sum of the moment about with the usual meaning for \bar{k} and P_r being the perpendicular distance of O from E_r such that its value is positive or negative according as the sense of rotation of \bar{F}_r about O is anticlockwise or not thus the equation of the line of action of the resultant is

$$\left(\sum Q_r\right) x - \left(\sum P_r\right) y - \sum P_r F_r = 0 - - - - (1)$$

(or)

$$\left(\sum Q_{r}\right)x - \left(\sum P_{r}\right)y - \sum G_{r} = 0$$

Where $G_r = P_r F_r$

this equation can be put in the elegant form

$$Y_x - X_y - G = 0 - - - - (2)$$

Where

 $X = \sum P_r$ = sum of the components of the forces in the x direction

 $Y = \sum Q_r$ = sum of the component of the forces in the y direction

 $G = \sum G_r = \sum P_r F_r$ = sum of the scalar moments of the forces about the origin.

Now we have that the resultant force is

$$\overline{F}_1 + \overline{F}_2 + \dots + \overline{F}_n$$

(or)

Whose magnitude is $\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2}$ and the line of action is

$$y_x - X_y = G$$

the slope of the line is $\frac{Y}{X}$.

Examples

Forces 3,2,4,5 Kg. wt. act along the sides AB, BC, CD, CA of a square. Find their resultant and its line of action.



Let i, j be the unit Vectors parallel to $\overline{AB}, \overline{AD}$ and AB = aj.

Let AB, AD be the x, y axes, the vector sum of the forces is

$$\left(3\overline{i}\right) + \left(2\overline{j}\right) + \left(-4\overline{i}\right) + \left(-5\overline{j}\right) = -\overline{i} - 3\overline{j}$$

Let X, Y, be the sum of $\overline{i,j}$

Components of the forces and G, the sum of the moments about the origin A, then

$$X = -1, Y = -3$$

the magnitude of the resultant force is

$$\sqrt{X^2 + Y^2} = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{10}$$

G=0×3+a(2)+a(4)+0×5=6a

the equation of line of action of the resultant forces is



-y + 3x + 6a = 0

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

A solid sphere of mass m rolls down a plane inclined to the horizon at an angle α . The 1. acceleration is

(A)
$$\frac{g \sin \alpha}{7}$$
 (B) $\frac{3g \sin \alpha}{7}$
(C) $\frac{4g \sin \alpha}{7}$ (D) $\frac{5g \sin \alpha}{7}$

2. A 100 gm cricket ball moving horizontally at 24 m/s was hit straight back with a speed of 15 m/s. If the contact lasted $\frac{1}{20}$ second. The average force exerted by the bat is _____

- (A) 78000 Dynes (B) 8000 Dynes
- (D) 1500 Dynes (c) 90000 Dynes
- 3. Let *u* and *v* be two velocities at the point A then their resultant direction is _____

(A)
$$\tan \theta = \frac{v \cos \alpha}{u + v \sin \alpha}$$
 (B) $\tan \theta = \frac{u \cos \alpha}{v + u \sin \alpha}$
(C) $\tan \theta = \frac{v \sin \alpha}{u + v \cos \alpha}$ (D) $\tan \theta = \frac{v \sin \alpha}{v + u \sin \alpha}$

8.7. EQUILIBRIUM OF A RIGID BODY UNDER THREE COPLANAR FORCES

Book Work

- If three coplanar forces keep a rigid body in equilibrium, then either they all are parallel to one another or they are concurrent.
- Let the forces be $\overline{F}_1, \overline{F}_2, \overline{F}_3$ considering only \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 , we get the following two cases
 - (i) \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 are parallel
 - (ii) \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 are not parallel
- Suppose $\overline{F}_1 = F_1 \overline{i}$ and $\overline{F}_2 = F_2 \overline{i}$ act at A_1 and A_2 ,...then their resultant is $(F_1 + F_2)\overline{i}$. Consequently their resultant $(F_1 + F_2)i$ and \overline{F}_3 keep the body in equilibrium, this implies not only that these two forces act along the same line but also that $\overline{F}_3 = -(F_1 + F_2)i$ so \overline{F}_3 is parallel to \overline{F}_1 and \overline{F}_2 that is the given there forces are parallel to one another.

Case (i) www.tcaexamguide.com (95665 35080; 9786269980; 76399 67359;

93602 68118)



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UG TRB MATHEMATICS 2023-2024

UNIT IX Operations Research

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	UNIT – IX - OPERATIONS RESEARCH	
	INDEX	
S.NO	CHAPTER NAME	P.NO
1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	SCOPE OR USES OR APPLICATIONS OF O.R.	1
1.3	ROLE OF OPERATINS RESEARCH IN BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT	2
1.4	CLASSIFICATION OF MODELS	3
1.5	SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD MODEL	5
1.6	GENERAL METHODS FOR SOLVING O.R. MODELS	5
1.7	MAIN PHASES OF O.R.	5
1.8	LIMITATION	6
2.	LINEAR PROGRAMMING FORMULATION	8
2.1	INTRODUCTION	8
2.2	MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF L.P.P	8
2.3	PROCEDURE FOR FORMING A LPP MODEL	8
2.4	BASIC ASSUMPTIONS	12
2.5	GRAPHICAL METHOD OF THE SOLUTION OF A L.P.P	13
2.6	SOME MORE CASES	16
2.7	ADVANTAGE OF LINEAR PROGRAMMING	20
2.8	LIMITATIONS OF LINEAR PROGRAMMING	21
2.9	GENERAL LINEAR PROGRAMMING PROBLEMS – SIMPLEX METHOD	21
	2.9.1 CANONICAL FORM OF LPP	23

	2.9.2	CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CANONICAL FORM	23
	2.9.3	THE STANDARD FORM	24
	2.9.4	CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STANDARD FORM	24
2.10	THE SI	MPLEX METHOD	24
	2.10.1	THE SIMPLEX ALOGORITHM	25
2.11	ARTIF	ICIAL VARIABLES TECHNIQUES	35
	2.11.1	THE BIG M – METHOD	35
	2.11.2	THE TWO-PHASE METHOD:	42
2.12	DISAD METH	VANTAGE OF BIG-M METHOD OVER TWO-PHASE OD:	50
2.13	REVIS	ED SIMPLEX METHOD	50
	2.13.1	REVISED SIMPLEX ALGORITHM	51
2.14	DUALI	TY IN LPP	59
	2.14.1	FORMULATION OF DUAL PROBLEMS	59
	2.14.2	TO CONSTRUCT THE DUAL PROBLEM, WE ADOPT THE FOLLOWING GUIDELIN	60
	2.14.3	UNSYMMETRIC FORM	62
2.15	DUAL	SIMPLEX METHOD	62
	2.15.1	WORKING PROCEDURE FOR DUAL SIMPLEX METHOD	62
3.	SENS	ITIVITY ANALYSIS:	72
3.1	I. VAR	IATIONS AFFECTING FEASIBILITY	72
	3.1.1	(1) VARIATIONS IN THE RIGHT SIDE OF CONSTRAINTS	72
	3.1.2	(2) ADDITION OF NEW CONSTRAINT	73
3.2	II. CHA	ANGES AFFECTING OPTIMALITY	73

3.3	III. VARIATION IN THE CO-EFFICIENTS a_{ij} OF THE CONSTRAINTS (OR) VARIATION IN THE COMPONENTS a_{ij} OF	74
3.4	THE CO-EFFICIENT MATRIX A: IV. ADDITION OF A NEW ACTIVITY (OR VARIABLE)	74
3.5	(V) DELETION OF A VARIABLE	77
3.6	(VI) DELETION OF CONSTRAINT	78
4.	TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM	78
4.1	INTRODUCTION	78
4.2	MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF A TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM:	79
4.3	STANDARD TRANSPORTATION TABLE	80
4.4	BALANCED AND UNBALANCED TRANSPORTATION PROBLE	81
4.5	METHODS FOR FINDING INITIAL BASIC FEASIBLE SOLUTION	81
	4.5.1 NORTH WEST CORNER RULE:	81
	4.5.2 LEAST COST METHOD (OR) MATRIX MINIMA METHOD (OR) LOWEST COST ENTRY METHOD:	82
	4.5.3 VOGEL'S APPROXIMATION METHOD (VAM) OR UNIT COST PENALTY METHOD:	83
4.6	TRANSPORTATION ALGORITHM (OR) MODI METHOD (MODIFIED DISTRIBUTION METHOD) TEST FOR OPTIMAL SOLUTION)	
	4.6.1 TO FIND THE OPTIMAL SOLUTION	86
4.7	DEGENERACY IN TRANSPORTATION PROBLEMS	89
5.	ASSIGNMENT PROBLEM	91
5.1	MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF AN ASSIGNMENT PROBLEM	92

5.2		ENCE BETWEEN THE TRANSPORTATION PROBLEM	93
	AND TH	IE ASSIGNMENT PROBLEM	4
5.3	ASSIGN	MENT ALGORITHM (OR) HUNGARIAN METHOD	93
5.4	MAXIM	IZATION CASE IN ASSIGNMENT PROBLEMS	96
6.	QUEU	ING MODEL	98
6.1	QUEUIN	IG SYSTEM	98
6.2	TRANSI	ENT AND STEADY STATES:	100
6.3		L'S NOTATION FOR REPRESENTING QUEUING DDELS:	100
6.4		BUTION OF ARRIVALS "THE PASSION PROCESS" BUTION THEOREM (PURE BIRTH PROCESS)	100
	6.4.1	MODEL I: (M/M/I) (∞/FCFS) –BIRTH AND DEATH MODEL	102
	6.4.2	MEASURE OF MODEL I	104
	6.4.3	MODEL II {MULTI – SERVICE MODEL} (M/M/S): $(\infty/FCFS)$	107
	6.4.4	MEASURES OF MODEL II:	110
	6.4.5	MODEL III: (M/M/I); (N/FCFS)	112
	6.4.6	MODEL IV: (M/M/S): FCFS/ N)	113
7.	SCHEI	DULING BY PERT AND CPM	115
7.1	BASIC 7	TERMINOLOGIES:	116
7.2	RULES	FOR CONSTRUCTING A PROJECT NETWORK	117
7.3	NODES BELOW	MAY BE NUMBERED USING THE RULE GIVEN	117
7.4	NETWO	RK COMPUTATIONS	118
	7.4.1	TO COMPUTE THE LATEST FINISH AND LATEST START OF EACH	119
7.5	FLOATS		
-----	-----------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------	-----
7.6	USES OF FLOATS		
7.7	PROGRAMME EVALUATION REVIEW TECHNIQUE: (PERT)		
	7.7.1	TWO MAIN ASSUMPTIONS MADE IN PERT IN	122
		CALCULATIONS ARE:	
	7.7.2	PERT PROCEDURE	122
7.8	BASIC I	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PERT AND CPM	123
7.9	СРМ		123
8.	INVEN	TORY MODEL:	126
8.1	TYPES (OF INVENTORY	127
8.2	REASONS FOR MAINTAINING INVENTORY: 127		
8.3	COSTS INVOLVED IN INVENTORY PROBLEMS: 127		
8.4	VARIABLES IN INVENTORY PROBLEM: 128		
8.5	ECONOMIC ORDER QUANTITY (E.O.Q) OR ECONOMIC LOT 129		
	SIZE FORMULA:		
8.6	DETERMINISTIC INVENTORY MODELS: 129		
	8.6.1	MODEL I: PURCHASING MODEL WITH NO SHORTAGES.	129
	8.6.2	MODEL II: MANUFACTURING MODEL WITH NO	131
		SHORTAGES.	
	8.6.3	MODEL IV:	135
8.7	INVENTORY MODELS WITH PRICE BREAKS 136		
	8.7.1.	MODEL VII	136
	8.7.2	PURCHASE INVENTORY MODEL WITH SINGLE PRICE	137
Ĺ		- BREAK	
9.	GAME	THEORY	139

12	ONE N	MARK SET - I	177
11	BRAN	ICH AND BOUND METHOD	166
10.6	GOMA	RY'S MIXED INTEGER METHOD	162
10.5	METHODS OF INTEGER PROGRAMMING		
10.4	PITFAL	LS IN ROUNDING THE OPTIMUM SOLUTION OF AN I.P.P.	154
10.3	APPLIC	CATIONS OF INTEGER PROGRAMMING	154
10.2	IMPOR	TANCE OF INTEGER PROGRAMMING	153
	10.1.1	GOMARY'S FRACTIONAL CUT ALGORITHM (OR) CUTTING PLANE METHOD FOR PURE (ALL) I.P.P.	152
10.1	CUTTING METHODS		152
10.	INTEGER PROGRAMMING		151
9.9.	GRAPH	HICAL METHOD FOR $2 \times N$ OR M $\times 2$ GAMES	148
	9.8.1.	GENERAL RULE:	146
9.8	DOMIN	VANCE PROPERTY	146
	9.7.2	MODEL 2	144
	9.7.1	LET THE PAY OFF MATRIX BE AS FOLLOWS	142
	SOLUT	TION OF 2 \times 2 GAMES WITHOUT SADDLE POINT	
9.7	GAMES	S WITHOUT SADDLE POINTS, MIXED STRATEGIES	142
9.6	MIXED	STRATEGY:	141
9.5	SADDL	LE POINT AND VALUE OF THE GAME:	141
9.4	MAIN (CHARACTERISTICS OF GAME THEORY:	140
9.3	PURE S	STRATEGIES:	140
9.2	TWO PERSON ZERO – SUM GAMES		
	THE FO	DLLOWING PROPERTIES.	

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY, KANCHIPURAM

TNPSC-TRB- COMPUTER SCIENCE -TET COACHING CENTER



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UG TRB – MATHS – 2022-23

UNIT - IX

OPERATIONS RESEARCH

1.1. Introduction:

- Operations Research is the study of optimisation techniques. It is applied decision theory. The existence of optimisation techniques can be traced at least to the days of Newton and Lagrange. Rapid development and invention of new techniques occurred since the World War II essentially, because of the necessary to win the war with the limited resources available.
- Different teams had to do research on military operations in order to invent techniques to manage with available resources so as to obtain the desired objective. Hence the nomenclature Operations Research or Resource Management Techniques.

1.2. Scope or Uses or Applications of O.R.:

O.R. is useful for solving.

- Resource allocation problems.
- Inventory control problems.
- Maintenance and Replacement problems.
- Sequencing and scheduling problems.
- Assignment of jobs to applicants to maximise total profit or minimize total cost.
- Transportation problems.
- Shortest route problems like travelling sales person problems.
- Marketing Management problems.



- Finance Management problems.
- Production, planning and control problems.
- Design problems
- Queuing problems, etc. to mention a few.

1.3. Role of Operations Research In Business And Management:

- 1. Marketing management Operations research techniques have definitely a role to play in
 - (a) Product selection
 - (b) Competitive strategies
 - (c) Advertising strategy etc

2. Production Management:

- (a) Production scheduling
- (b) Project scheduling
- (c) Allocation of resources
- (d) Location of factories and their sizes
- (e) Equipment replacement and maintenance
- (f) Inventory policy etc.

3. Finance Management

- (a) Cash flow analysis
- (b) Capital requirement
- (c) Credit policies
- (d) Credit risks etc.

4. Personal Management

- (a) Recruitment policies and
- (b) Assignment of jobs are some of the areas of personnel management where O.R. techniques are useful.
- 5. Purchasing and procurement:
 - (a) Rules for purchasing
 - (b) Determining the quality
 - (c) Determining the time of purchaser are some of the areas where O.R. techniques can be applied.



TEACHER'S CARE ACADEM

6. Distribution

- (a) Location of warehouses
- (b) Size of the ware houses
- (c) Rental outlets
- (d) Transportation strategies

1.4. Classification of Models:

The first thing one has to do to use O.R. techniques after formulating a practical problem is to construct a suitable model to represent practical problem. A model is a reasonably simplified representation of a real-world situation. It is an abstraction of reality. The models can broadly be classified as.

Iconic Model

✤ This is physical, or pictorial representation of various aspects of a system.

Example:

✤ Toy, Miniature model of a building, scaled up model of a cell in biology etc.

Analogue or schematic model:

This uses one set of properties to represent another set of properties which a system under study has

Example:

 A network of water pipes to represent the flow of current in an electrical network or graphs organisational charts etc.

Mathematical model symbolic Model:

This uses a set of mathematical symbols (letters, numbers, etc) to represent the decision variables of a system under consideration. These variables related by mathematical equations or inequalities which describes the properties of the system.

Example:

 A linear programming model, A system of equations representing an electrical network or differential equations representing dynamic systems etc.

Static model:

This is a model which does not take time into account. It assumes that the values of the variables do not change with time during a certain period of time horizon.

Example:

✤ A linear programming problem, an assignment problem, transportation problem etc

Dynamic Model:

This is a model which considers time as one of the important variables.

Example:

✤ A dynamic programming problem, A replacement problem.

Deterministic Model:

This is a model which does not take uncertainty into account.

Example:

✤ A linear programming problem, an assignment problem etc.

Stochastic Model:

✤ This is a model which considers uncertainty as an important aspect of the problem.

Example:

✤ Any stochastic programming problem, stochastic inventory models etc.

Descriptive model:

✤ This is one which just describes a situation or system.

Example

✤ An opinion poll, any survey

Predictive Model:

This is one which predicts something based on some data. Predicting election results before actually the counting is completed.

Prescriptive model:

✤ This is one which prescribes or suggests a course of action for a problem.

Example:

Any programming (linear, nonlinear, dynamic, geometric etc.) problem.

Analytic model:

This is a model in which exact solution is obtained by mathematical methods in closed form.

CARE ACADEMY

TEACHER'S

Simulation model:

- This is a representation of reality through the use of a model or device which will react in the same manner as reality under a given set of conditions.
- Once a simulation model is designed, it takes only a little time, in general, to run a simulation on a computer.
- It is usually less mathematical and less time consuming and generally least expensive as well, in many situations.

Example:

Queuing problems, Inventory problems

1.5. Some Characteristics of A Good Model:

- ✤ It should be simple
- ✤ Assumptions should be as small as possible
- Number of variables should be minimum
- The models should be open to parametric treatment
- ✤ It is easy and economical to construct.

1.6. General methods for Solving O.R. Models:

(1) Analytic Procedure:

Solving models by classical mathematical techniques like differential calculus, finite differences etc. to obtain analytic solutions.

(2) Iterative Procedure:

Starts with a trial solution and a set of rules for improving it by repeating the procedure until further improvement is not possible.

(3) Monte-Carlo Technique:

Taking sample observations, computing probability distributions for the variable using random numbers and constructing some functions to determine values of the decision variables.

1.7. Main Phases of O.R.:

(i) Formulation of the Problems:

 Identifying the objective, the decision variables involved and the constraints that arise involving the decision variables.



(ii) Construction of a Mathematical Model:

- Expressing the measure of effectiveness which may be total profit, total cost, utility etc. to be optimised by a mathematical function called objective function
- Representing the constraints like budget constraints, raw materials, constraints, resource constraints, quality constraints etc, by means of mathematical equations or inequalities.

(iii) Solving the Model Constructed:

Determining the solution by analytic or iterative or Monte-Carlo method depending upon the structure of the mathematical model.

(iv) Controlling and Updating:

- A solution which is optimum today may not be so tomorrow. The values of the variables may change, new variables may emerge. The structural relationship between the variables may also undergo a change. All these are determined in updating.
- Controls must be established to indicate the limits within which the model and its solution can be considered as reliable. This is called controlling.

(v) Testing the Model and its Solution (i.e.,) Validating the Model

Checking as far as possible either from the past available data or by expertise and experience whether the model gives a solution which can be used in practice.

(vi) Implementation

Implement using the solution to achieve the desired goal.

1.8. Limitation:

- Mathematical models which are the essence of OR do not take into account qualitative or emotional or some human factors which are quite real and influence the decision making.
- All such influencing factors find no place in O.R. This is the m ain limitation of O.R.
- ✤ Hence O.R is only an aid in decision making.

EXERCISES:

- 1. Operation research is the ______ of providing executive with analytical and objective basic for decision
 - (A) scientific method

(B) economic method

(C) both a and b

(D) none of these



7

2. The objective of ______ is to identifies the significant factors and interrelationships. (A) OR (B) models (C) both a and b (D) none of these 3. _____ model is to describe and predict the facts and relationships among the various activities of the problem. (A) descriptive (B) predictive (C) optimization (D) Iconic 4. models are used in predictive analysis is involving a variety of statistical techniques used to analyze the current and historical facts to make predictions about future events. (B) descriptive (C) Analogue (D) predictive (A) optimization 5. ______ are prescriptive in nature and develop objective decisions rules for optimum solution. (B) predictive (C) optimization (D) Analogue (A) descriptive 6. One set of properties to represent another set of properties which a system under study, then the model is (A) Iconic model (B) Analogue model (C) static model (D) dynamic model 7. ______ is a model which does not take time into account. (A) Iconic model (B)symbolic model (C) dynamic model (D) static model 8. ______ is a model which considers time as one of the important variables. (A) Iconic model (B) mathematical model (C) dynamic model (D) static model 9. ______ technique is to taking samples observations, computing probability distributions for the variable using random numbers and constructing some functions to determine values of the variables. (B) analytic (C) Iterative (D) none of these (A) Monte- carlo 10. If solving models by classical mathematical techniques like differential calculus, finite difference etc., to obtain analytic solution is known as _____. (A) Monte- carlo technique (B) analytic procedure (C) Iterative procedure (D) none of these 11. If starts with a trial solution and a set of rules for improving it by repeating the procedure until further improvement is not possible is_____ (A) Monte- carlo technique (B) analytic procedure (C) Iterative procedure (D) none of these

2. LINEAR PROGRAMMING FORMULATION

2.1. Introduction:

- * Linear Programming problems deal with determining optimal allocations of limited resources to meet given objectives.
- * The objective is usually maximizing profit. Minimizing total cost, maximizing utility etc.
- Linear programming problem deals with the optimization (maximization or minimization) of a function of decision variables known as objective function.
- Subject to a set of simultaneous linear equations (or inequalities) known as constraints.
- * The term linear means that all the variables occurring in the objective function and the constraints are of the first degree in the problems under consideration and the term programming means the process of determining a particular course of action.
- Linear programming techniques are used in many industrial and economic problems.

2.2. Mathematical Formulation of L.P.P:

If x_i (j = 1, 2, ..., n) are the n decision variables of the problem and if the system is subject to m constraints, the general mathematical model can be written in the form:

Optimize $Z = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ Subject to $g_i(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) \le = 0$ (i = 1, 2, ..., m) and $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \ge 0$

2.3. Procedure for Forming a LPP Model:

Step 1:Identify the unknown decision variables to be determined and assign symbols to them. Step 2: Identify all the restrictions or constraints in the problem and express them as linear or inequalities of decision variables.

Step 3: Identify the objective or aim and represent it also as a linear function of decision variables.

Step 4: Express the complete formulation of LPP as a general mathematical model.

Problem 1:

A firm manufactures two types of products A and B and sells them at a profit or Rs. 2 on type A and Rs. 3 on type B. Each product is processed on two machines M_1 and M_2 . Type A requires 1 minute to processing time on M_1 and two minutes on M_2 . Type B requires 1 minute on M_1 and 1 minute on M_2 . Machine M_1 is available for not more than 6 hours 40 minutes while machine M_2 is available for 10 hours during any working day. Formulate the problem as a LPP so as to maximize the profit.

Solution:

Formulation of LPP is

Maximize $Z = 2x_1 + 3x_2$

Subject to the constraints

 $x_1 + x_2 \le 400$

```
2x_1 + x_2 \le 600
```

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

Problem 2:

A company makes two types of leather products A and B. Product A is of high quality and product B is of lower quality. The respective profits are Rs. 4 and Rs. 3 per product. Each product A requires twice as much time as product B and if all products were of type B, the company could make 1000 per day. The supply of leather is sufficient for only 800 products per day (Both A and B combined), Product A requires a special spare part and only 400 per day are available. There are only 700 special spare parts a day available for product B. Formulate this as a LPP.

Solution:

```
Maximize Z = 4x_1 + 3x_2
Subject to,
2x_1 + x_2 \le 1000
x_1 + x_2 \le 800
x_1 \le 400
x_2 \le 700
```

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$



Problem 3:

 A firm engaged in producing two models A and B performs three operations – painting, Assembly and testing. The relevant data are as follows:

Model	Units Sale	Hours required for each unit		
	Price	Assembly	Painting Testing	
А	Rs. 50	1.0	0.2 0.0	
В	Rs. 80	1.5	0.2 0.1	

Total number of hours available are: Assembly 600, painting 100, testing 30. Determine weekly production schedule to maximize the profit.

Solution:

Maximize $Z = 50x_1 + 80x_2$

Subject to,

 $x_1 + 1.5x_2 \le 600$

 $0.2x_1 + 0.2x_2 \le 100$

 $0.1x_2 \le 30$

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

Problem 4:

A person wants to decide the constituents of a diet which will fulfil his daily requirements of proteins, fats and carbohydrates at the minimum cost. The choice is to be made from four different types of foods. The yields per unit of these foods are given in the following table.

		Cost/unit		
Food type	Proteins	Fats	Carbohydrates	(Rs.)
	3	2	6	45
2	4	2	4	40
3	8	7	7	85

4	6	5	4	65
Maximum Requirement	800	200	700	

Formulate the L.P model for the problem

Solution:

Minimize $Z = 45x_1 + 40x_2 + 85x_3 + 65x_4$

Subject to,

- $3x_1 + 4x_2 + 8x_3 + 6x_4 \ge 800$
- $2x_1 + 2x_2 + 7x_3 + 5x_4 \ge 200$
- $6x_1 + 4x_2 + 7x_3 + 4x_4 \ge 700$

and $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 \ge 0$

Problem 5:

A television company operates two assembly sections, section A and section B. Each section is used to assemble the components of three types of televisions: colour, standard and Economy. The expected daily production on each section is as follows:

T.V. Model	Section A	Section B
Colour		1
Standard	1	1
Economy	2	6

The daily running costs for two sections average Rs. 6000 for section A and Rs. 4000 for section B. It is given that the company must produce atleast 24 colours, 16 standard and 40 Economy TV sets for which an order is pending. Formulate this as a L.P.P so as to minimize the total cost.

Solution:

Maximize $Z = 6000x_1 + 4000x_2$

Subject to

 $3x_1 + x_2 \ge 24$

 $x_1 + x_2 \ge 16$

 $2x_1 + 6x_2 \ge 40$

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

Problem 6:

A company produces refrigerators in Unit I and heaters in Unit II. The two products are produced and sold on a weekly basics. The weekly production cannot exceed 25 in Unit I and 36 in Unit II, due to constraints 60 workers are employed. A refrigerator requires 2 man-week of labour, while a heater requires 1 man-week of labour. The profit available is Rs. 600 per refrigerator and Rs. 400 per heater. Formulate the LPP problem.

Solution:

Maximize $Z = 600x_1 + 400x_2$

Subject to,

 $2x_1 + x_2 \le 60$

 $x_1 \le 25$

 $x_2 \leq 36$

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

2.4. Basic Assumptions:

The linear programming problems are formulated on the basic on the following assumptions:

- 1. **Proportionality:** The contribution of each variable in the objective function or its usage of the resources is directly proportional to the value of the variable.
- 2. Additivity: Sum of the resources used by different activities must be equal to the total quantity of resources used by each activity for all the resources individually or collectively.
- 3. **Divisibility:** The variables are not restricted to integer values.
- 4. **Certainty or Deterministic:** Co-efficients in the objective function and constraints are completely known and do not change during the period understudy in all the problems considered.
- 5. Finiteness: Variables and constraints are finite in number.
- 6. **Optimality:** In a linear programming problem we determine the decision variables so as to extremise (optimize) the objective function of the LPP.
- 7. The problem involves only one objective namely profit maximization or cost minimization.

2.5. Graphical Method of the Solution of a L.P.P:

- Linear programming problems involving only two variables can be effectively solved by a graphical method which provides a pictorial representation of the problems and its solutions and which gives the basic concepts used in solving general L.P.P. which may involve any finite number of variables. This method is simple to understand and easy to use.
- Graphical method is not a powerful tool of linear programming as most of the practical situations do involve more than two variables. But the method is really useful to explain the basic concepts of L.P.P to the persons who are not familiar with this. Though graphical method can deal with any number of constraints but since each constraint is shown as a line on a graph a large constraint is shown as a line on a graph, a large number of lines makes the graph difficult to read.

Problem 1:

Solve the following L.P.P by the graphical method.

Maximize $Z = 3x_1 + 2x_2$

Subject to,

 $-2x_1 + x_2 \le 1$

 $x_1 \leq 2$

 $x_1 + x_2 \le 3$

and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

Solution:

✤ First consider the inequality constraints as equalities.



For the line $-2x_1 + x_2 = 1$

Put $x_1 = 0 \Longrightarrow x_1 = 1 \Longrightarrow (0,1)$

Put
$$x_2 = 0 \Longrightarrow -2x_1 = 1 \Longrightarrow x_1 = -0.5 \Longrightarrow (-0.5, 0)$$

• The vertices of the solution space are O (0, 0), A (2, 0), B (2, 1), C $\left(\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{3}\right)$ and D (0,1)





♦ The value of Z at these vertices are given by $(z=3x_1+2x_2)$

Vertex	Value of Z
O(0, 0)	0
A (2, 0)	6
B (2, 1)	8
$C\left(\frac{2}{3},\frac{7}{3}\right)$	$\frac{20}{3}$
D(0,1)	2

Since the problem is of maximization type, the optimum solution to the L.P.P is

```
maximum Z = 8, x_1 = 2, x_2 = 1
```

Problem 2:

Solve the following L.P.P by the graphical method.

Maximize $Z = 3x_1 + 5x_2$

Subject to,

 $-3x_1 + 4x_2 \le 12$ $x_1 \le 4$

 $2x_1 - x_2 \ge -2$

$$x_2 \ge 2$$

 $2x_1 + 3x_2 \ge 12$ and $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

Solution:

The vertices of the solution space are A (3, 2), B (4, 2), C (4, 6), D $\left(\frac{4}{5}, \frac{18}{5}\right)$ and E



The value of Z at these vertices are given by $(z = 3x_1 + 5x_2)$

Vertex	Value of Z
A (3, 2)	19
C (4, 2)	22
C (4, 6)	42
$D\left(\frac{4}{5},\frac{18}{5}\right)$	$\frac{102}{5}$
$E\left(\frac{3}{4},\frac{7}{2}\right)$	$\frac{79}{4}$

Since the problem is of minimization type, the optimum solution is,

Minimum Z = 19, $x_1 = 3, x_2 = 2$

Problem 3:

Apply graphical method to solve the L.P.P

Maximize $Z = x_1 - 2x_2$ Subject to, $-x_1 + x_2 \le 1$

$$6x_1 + 4x_2 \ge 24$$

 $0 \le x_1 \le 5$

Solution:

♦ By using graphical method, the solution space is given below with shaded area ABCDE



• The value of Z at these vertices are given by $(z = x_1 - 2x_2)$

Vertex	Value of Z
$A\left(\frac{8}{3},2\right)$	$\frac{4}{3}$
B (5, 2)	1
C (5, 4)	-3
D (3,4)	-5
E (2,3)	-4

Since the problem is of maximization type, the optimum solution is,

```
Maximum Z = 1, x_1 = 5, x_2 = 2
```

2.6. Some More Cases:

The constraints generally, give region of feasible solution which may be bounded or unbounded. However, it may not be true for every problem. In general, a linear programming problem may have:

(i) A unique optimal solution (ii) an infinite number of optimal solutions (iii) an unbounded solution (iv) no solution.

EXERCISES

1.	Branch and Bound method is applicable to	IPP.	
	A) pure B) mixed	C) both a& b D) None of these	
2.	If sometimes a few or all the variables of an I then the most general method for the solutio	IPP are constrained by their upper or lower bounds, on of optimization problem is called	_
	A) Branch and Bound method	B) Gomary's cutting plane –method	
	C) simplex method	D) Big – M method	CADEM
	12. SET – I -	ONE MARKS	A
1.	Operations research is the application of to the problems.	methods to arrive at the optimal solutions	AC
	A) economical	B) scientific	r-7
	C) both (a) and (b)	D) none of the above	
2.	In operations research the are pre	epared for situations.	CARE
	A) mathematical models	B) iconic model	
	C) static model	D) dynamic model	
3.	is a physical or pictorial representation	ation of various aspects of a system.	S
	A) mathematical models	B) iconic model	
	C) static model	D) dynamic model	Ŧ
4.	Analytic model is a model in which exact sol	lution is obtained by in closed form.	Ξ
	A) static	B) iconic	J
	C) simulation	D) mathematical	<i>FACHE</i>
5.	Operations research started just before World	d War II in Britain with the establishment of teams	ГТ
	of scientists to study the strategic and tactica	al problems involved in military operations.	H
	A) True	B) False	
6.	OR can be applied only to those aspects prepared.	of libraries where mathematical models can be	
	A) True	B) False	

7. OR has a characteristic that it is done by a team of

	A) Scientists	B) mathematicians
	C) Academics	D) All the above
8.	OR uses models to help the management to de	etermine is
	A) Policies	B) Actions
	C) Both (A) and (B)	D) None of the above
9.	Linear programming problem deals with the _	of a function of decision variables.
	A) maximization	B) minimization
	C) optimization	D) None of the above
10.	problem.	olution of a problem are called of the
	A) decision variables	B) objective function
	C) constraints	D) non-negativity restrictions
11.	In LPP optimization of a function of decision	variables is known as
	A) decision variables	B) objective function
	C) constraints	D) non-negativity restrictions
12.	Linear programming techniques are used in m	any problems.
	A) industrial	B) economic
	C) both (A) and (b)	D) none of the above
13.	LPP Technique requires	
	A) objective function	B) constraints
	C) non-negativity restrictions	D) all the above
14.	LPP involving only two variables can be e pictorial representation of the problems.	ffectively solved by a which provides a
	A) formulation method	B) graphical method
	C) simplex method	D) Big – M – method
	In graphical method, if there exists an optimities of the	nal solution of an L.P.P, it will be at one of the
	A) feasible region	B) unique optimal solution
	C) an unbounded solution	D) no solution

16. In graphical method, the problem is of maximization type and the maximum value of Z is attained at a single vertex, then the solution is			
A) unique optimal solution	B) an unbounded solution		
C) infinite number of optimal solution	D) no solution		
17. An LPP having more than one optimal solution	on is said to have solution.		
A) feasible	B) unique		
C) multiple optimal	B) unique D) no solution infinity, then the solution is solution. B) unique D) unbounded c solved, then the solution is solution. B) unbounded		
18. An L.P.P, the maximum value of Z occurs at	infinity, then the solution is solution.		
A) feasible	B) unique		
C) multiple optimal	D) unbounded		
19. In graphical method, the given LPP cannot be	e solved, then the solution is solution.		
A) unique	B) unbounded		
C) infinite	D) no feasible		
20. A set of values $x_1, x_2,, x_n$ which satisfies the c	constraints of the LPP is called its		
A) feasible solution	B) solution		
C) optimal solution	D) no feasible GRAPH constraints of the LPP is called its B) solution D) no solution		
21. Any solution to a LPP which satisfies the non			
A) feasible solution	B) solution		
C) optimal solution	D) unique solution		
22. Any feasible solution which optimizes the obj	jective function of the LPP is called its		
A) feasible solution	B) solution		
C) optimal solution	D) unbounded solution		
23. In simplex method, to convert the inequalitie variables.	D) unique solution jective function of the LPP is called its B) solution D) unbounded solution s into equalities for ≤ type constraints to introduce		
A) optimum	B) slack		
C) surplus	D) none of the above		
24. In simplex method, to convert the inequalitie variables.	s into equalities for \geq type constraints to introduce		
A) optimum	B) slack		
C) surplus	D) none of the above		



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UNIT X Statistics / Probability

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UNIT - X - STATISTICS PROBABILITY

INDEX

		INDEA					
S.NO		CHAPTER NAME	P.NO				
1.	MEASURE	ES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY	1				
1.1	Characteristi	cs of An Average	1				
1.2	Arithmetic N	Лean	1				
1.3	Mathematica	al Characteristics	8				
1.4	Merits of Arithmetic Mean						
1.5	Demerits (Limitations)						
1.6	Uses of Arithmetic Mean						
1.7	Median						
1.8	Graphic Location of Median						
1.9	Merits of Median						
1.10	Demerits of Median						
1.11	Quartiles		18				
	1.11. 1	Deciles					
	1.11.2	Percentile					
1.12	Mode		19				
1.13	Graphic Loc	Graphic Location of Mode					
1.14	Relationship Between Different Averages						
1.15	Merits of Mode						
1.16	Demerits of	Mode	24				
1.17	Uses of Mod	le	24				
1.18	Geometric N	Iean:	24				

27

1.19

Merits of G.M

1.20	Demerits of	G.M	27						
1.21	Uses Of G.N	М	28						
1.22	Harmonic M	Iean	28						
1.23	Merits Of H	.м	31						
1.24	Demerits Of	Demerits Of H.M							
1.25	Relationship	Between Mean, Geometric Mean and Harmonic Mean	31						
2.	MEASUR	ES OF DISPERSION	33						
2.1	Definition		33						
	2.1.2	Properties of A Good Measure Of Variation							
	2.1.3	2.1.3 Methods of Measuring Dispersion							
	2.2.1 (I) Range								
	2.2.1.1	2.2.1.1 Merits of Range							
	2.2.1.2 Demerits of Range								
2.2.2	(ii) Inter Qu	uartile Range and Quartile Deviation	35						
	2.2.2.1	Merits of Quartile Deviation							
	2.2.2.2	Demerits of Quartile Deviation							
	2.2.3	Mean Deviation or Average Deviation							
2.2.3	Mean Devia	ation or Average Deviation	39						
	2.2.3.1	Merits of Mean Deviation							
	2.2.3.2	Demerits of Mean Deviation							
	2.2.3.3	Uses of Mean Deviation							
2.2.4	Standard D	eviation:	44						
	2.2.4.1	Mathematical Properties of Standard Deviation							
	2.2.4.2	Merits of Standard Deviation							
	2.2.4.3	Demerits of Standard Deviation							
	2.2.4.4.	Coefficient of Variation							
·	•	·	•						

2.3	Lorenz Cur	Lorenz Curve							
2.4	Moments								
	2.4.1 Raw Moments.								
	2.4.2	Central Moments							
2.5	Skewness		53						
	2.5.1	Characteristics							
	2.5.2	Absolute Measure:							
	2.5.3	Relative Measures							
2.6	Kurtosis		56						
3.	CORRELA	ATION	60						
3.1	Types of Co	rrelation	60						
	3.1.1	Positive and Negative Correlation							
	3.1.2	Simple and Multiple							
	3.1.3	Partial and Total:							
	3.1.4	Linear and Non –Linear							
3.2	Methods of	Studying Correlation.	30						
	3.2.1.1	Scatter Diagram Method							
	3.2.2	Karl Pearson's Co Efficient Of Correlation (R)							
3.3	Properties		65						
3.4	Standard E	rror and Probable Error	65						
3.5	Merits		66						
3.6	Demerits		66						
3.7	Rank Correlation Coefficient								
	3.7.1	Types of Rank Correlation: Coefficient							
	3.7.1.2	Merits of Rank Correlation Coefficient:							
	3.7.1.3	Demerits of Rank Correlation Coefficient							

3.8	Concurrent Deviation Method							
	3.8.1	Merits						
	3.8.2	Demerits						
4.	REGRESS	SION	74					
4.2	Differences	Between Correlation and Regression Are						
4.3	Methods of	Forming The Regression Equations						
	4.3.1. Meth	ods - Regression Equations on the Basis of Normal Equations	(
5.	INDEX N	UMBERS	84					
5.1	Definition	Definition						
5.2	Characteri	Characteristics of Index Numbers						
5.3	Uses							
5.4	Types of Index Numbers:							
	5.4.1	A) Price Index						
	5.4.2	B) Quantity Index						
	5.4.3	C) Value Index						
5.5	Problems in	n The Construction of Index Numbers	86					
5.6	Choice of F	ormulae	87					
	5.6.1	Merits of Simple Average of Price Relative Method						
	5.6.2	Demerits						
5.7	Weighted Index Numbers:							
	5.7.1	Weighted Aggregate Index Numbers						
	5.7.2	Weight Average of Price Relative	96					
5.8	Value Inde	x Number	96					
5.9	Test of Cor	sistency of Index Numbers						
	5.9.1	Time Reversal Test						
	-		I					

	5.9.2	Factor Reversal Test					
5.10	Unit Test		99				
5.11	Circular Te	Circular Test					
5.12	Chain Base	Chain Base Method					
5.13	Constructio	on of Chain Indices	100				
	5.13.1	Merits of Chain Base Method					
5.14	Difference I	Between Chain Base Method and Fixed Base Method	101				
5.15	Conversion	of Chain Index into Fixed Index	102				
5.16	Consumer I	Price Index	103				
5.17	Uses of Consumer Price Index						
5.18	Construction of A Consumer Price Index						
5.19	Method of Constructing Consumer Price Index						
5.20	Precautions in The Use of Cost of Living Index Numbers						
5.21	Limitations of Index Numbers						
6.	CURVE FITTING						
6.1	Principle of	² Least Square	109				
6.2	Fitting A St	traight Line	109				
6.3	Fitting A Se	econd-Degree Parabola	112				
6.4	Fitting of a	Power Curve	114				
7.	THEORY	OF ATTRIBUTES	117				
7.1	Introduction	n	117				
7.2	Classificatio	on	117				
7.3	Correlation	Correlation and Association					
7.4	Uses of Terr	ms and Notation	117				
7.5	Positive and	l Negative Classes	117				
7.6	Relationshi	р	118				

v

7.7	Determination of Frequencies								
7.8	Consistency	y of Data	120						
7.9	Types of Association:								
	7.9.1	7.9.1 Positive Association							
	7.9.2	Negative Association (Disassociation)							
	7.9.3	Independent Association							
	7.9.4	Limitations	(
7.10	Method of l	Determining Association	124						
	7.10.1	Comparison of Observed and Expected Frequencies							
	7.10.2	Comparison of Proportions	/						
	7.10.3	Yule's Coefficient of Association							
	7.10.4	Yule's Coefficient of Colligation							
	7.10.5.	Pearson's Coefficient of Contingency							
8.	THEORY	OF PROBABILITY	131						
8.1	Basic Term	inology	132						
	8.1.1	Random Experiment							
	8.1.2	Outcome							
	8.1.3	Trial and Event							
	8.1.4	Exhaustive Events of Causes							
	8.1.5	Favourable Events or Cases							
	8.1.6	Mutually Exclusive Events							
	8.1.7	Equally Likely Events							
	8.1.8	Independent Events							
8.2	Mathematical (Or) Classical (Or) 'A Priori' Probability								
	8.2.1	Definition							
	8.2.2	Statistical (Or) Empirical Probability							
	1	1	1						

		1	v				
	8.2.3	Subjective Probability					
	8.2.4	Axiomatic Probability					
8.3	Theorem		138				
8.4	Theorem		138				
8.5	Theorem:		139				
8.6	Addition Tl	neorem of Probability	139				
8.7	Boole' S in	Equality:	140				
8.8	Conditional	Probability:	141				
	8.8.1	Multiplication Theorem of Probability					
8.9	Independent Events:						
	8.9.1	Multiplication Theorem of Probability for Independent Events					
8.10	Baye's The	Baye's Theorem					
9.	RANDOM	RANDOM VARIABLES					
9.1	Definition		146				
9.2	Distribution	n Function	146				
9.3	Properties of	of Distribution Function	146				
9.4	Discrete Ra	ndom Variable	147				
	9.4.1	Probability Mass Function					
9.5	Continuous	Random Variable	150				
	9.5.1	Probability Density Function					
9.6		easures of Central Tendency, Dispersion, Skewness and r Continuous Probability Distribution	150				
9.7	Continuous	Distribution Function	154				
	9.7.1	Properties of Distribution Function					
9.8	Two-Dimen	sional Random Variables	155				
	9.8.1	Joint Probability Mass Function					

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

vii

		9.8.2	Marginal Probability Function						
		9.8.3	Conditional Probability Function						
	9.9	Two-Dimensional Distribution Function							
		9.9.1	Marginal Distribution Function						
	9.10	Independen	t Random Variables						
	10.	MATHEM	ATICAL EXPECTATION						
4	10.1	Properties o	f Expectation:						
		10.1.1	Property 1						
Ţ		10.1.2	Property 2: Multiplication Theorem of Expectation						
		10.1.3	Property 3						
		10.1.4	Property 4						
		10.1.5	Property 5						
		10.1.6	Property 6						
5		10.1.7	Property 7						
	10.2	Properties o	f Variance						
	10.3	Covariance							
	10.4	Variance of	A Linear Combination of Random Variables						
	10.5	Cauchy' Sch	nwartz Inequality						
5	10.6	Jenson's Ine	equality						
EAUNER	10.7	Moments of	Bivariate Probability Distributions						
4		10.7.1.	Moment Generating Function						
	10.8	Properties of Moment Generating function							
		10.8.1.	Property 1						
	<	10.8.2	Property 2						
		10.8.3	Property 3						
	10.9	Uniqueness	Theorem of Moment Generating Function:						

	~ .		168					
10.10	Cumulan							
10.11	Properties of Cumulants							
	10.11.1	Property 1: Additive Property of Cumulants						
	10.11.2	Property 2: Effect of Change of Origin and Scale on Cumulants						
10.12	Characte	ristic Function	169					
	10.12.1	Property 1						
	10.12.2	Property 2						
	10.12.3	Property 3						
	10.12.4	Property 4						
	10.12.5	Property 5						
	10.12.6	Property 6						
	10.12.7	Property 7						
	10.12.8	Property 8						
10.13	Uniquene	ess Theorem of Characteristic Functions	171					
11.	THEOR	ETICAL DISTRIBUTION	171					
11.1	Binomial	Distribution	172					
	11.1.2	Properties of Binomial Distribution						
	11.1.3	Fitting of Binomial Distribution						
11.2	Poisson D	Distribution	176					
	11.2.1 H	Fitting A Poisson Distribution						
11.3	Normal I	Distribution	180					
	11.3.1	Characteristic of The Normal Curve						
12.	TESTS (OF SIGNIFICANCE	186					
12.1	Standard	Error	187					
12.2	Statistica	l Hypothesis	187					
	12.2.1	One Tailed Test						

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

	12.2.2	Two – Tailed Test				
12.3	Large Sa	mple (Test of Significance)	188			
	12.3.1	Test of Significance for Single Mean				
	12.3.2	Test of Significance for Difference of Mean				
	12.3.3	Test of Significance for Single Proportion				
	12.3.4	Test of Significance for Difference of Proportion				
	12.3.5	(Difference of Proportion)	1			
12.4	Small Sa	mples (Test of Significance)	194			
	12.4.1	T – Test for Testing the Significance of The Difference Between				
		Population Mean and Sample Mean	/			
	12.4.2	T – Test for Difference of Means				
	12.4.3	Paired Test				
	12.4.4	T – Test for Correlation Co-Efficient				
12.5	F – Test	for Equality of Population Variance	202			
12.6	x^2 Test		204			
	12.6.1. T	Sest for Single Variance				
	12.6.2. G	oodness of Fit				
	12.6.3. x^2	Test for Independent of Attributes				
12.7	Theorem		209			
13	IMPORTANT QUESTIONS (MCQ)					
	L					

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UG TRB – MATHEMATICS – 2022-23

UNIT - X

STATISTICS / PROBABILITY

1. MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

- An average is a value which is typical or representative of a set of data. The measures of central tendency are also known as "measures of location".
- Various measures of central tendency are the following
 - 1. Arithmetic mean, 2. Median, 3. mode, 4. Geometric mean and, 5. Harmonic mean

1.1 Characteristics of An Average:

- 1. It should be rigidly defined
- 2. It should be based on all the items
- 3. It should not be unduly affected by extreme items.
- 4. It should lend itself for algebraic manipulation.
- 5. It should be simple to understand and easy to calculate.
- 6. It should have sampling stability.

1.2 Arithmetic Mean:

- Arithmetic mean is the total of the value of the items divided by their number.
- It is denoted by \overline{x}



Type - I: Individual observations or Raw data)

Formula:

$$A.M = \frac{Total \ of \ the \ observations}{No. \ of \ the \ observations}$$

(i.e)
$$A.M = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n} = \frac{\sum X_n}{n}$$

Problem: the expenditure of 10 families in rupees are given below:

Family	Α	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	I	J
Expenditure	30	70	10	75	500	8	42	250	40	36

Calculate the arithmetic mean:

Solution: *x*- Expenditure: N=10



 $\overline{X} = 106.1$

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fX}{\sum f}$$

Problem:

Calculate the mean number of persons per house

Given

No. of persons per house	2	3	4	5	6	Total
No. of houses	10	25	30	25	10	100

Solution:

- **x- No. of persons per house**
- f No. of houses

No. of persons per house	No. of houses	fx
X		(
2	10	20
3	25	75
4	30	120
5	25	125
6	10	60
	$\Sigma f = 100$	$\sum fx = 400$
$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fX}{\sum f}$ $= \frac{400}{100}$	Y	
$\overline{X} = 4$		

Type - III: (Continuous Series): Exclusive class Intervals

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fm}{\sum f}$$
; m = mid point of the class interval

Problem: calculate A.M for the following

		U U			
Marks	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60 60-70	70-80
No. of students	5	8	12	15 6	4
	•	•			

Marks	No. of students	m	fm	
20-30	5	25	125	
30-40	8	35	280	
40-50	12	45	540	
50-60	15	55	825	
60-70	6	65	390	
70-80	4	75	300	
	Σf = 50		$\sum fm = 2460$	

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fm}{\sum f}$$
$$= \frac{2460}{50}$$
$$\overline{X} = 49.20$$

Continuous series: Inclusive class Intervals

Problem: The annual profits of 90 companies are given below. Find the arithmetic mean.

Annual profit (Rs. lakhs)	0-19	20-39	40-59	60-79	80-99
No. of companies	5	17	32	24	12
Solution:

Annual profit	No. of companies	Mid value m	fm
(Rs. lakhs)	f		
0-19	5	19.5	47.5
20-39	17	29.5	501.5
40-59	32	49.5	1584.0
60-79	24	69.5	1668.0
80-99	12	89.5	1074.0
	$\sum f = 90$		$\sum fm = 4875.0$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum fm}{\sum f}$$

$$=\frac{4875.0}{90}$$

 $\overline{X} = Rs. 54.17$ lakhs

Problem:

 Average rainfall of a city from Monday to Saturday was 1.2 cms. Due to heavy rainfall on Sunday, the average rainfall ons Sunday, the average rainfall increased to 2cms. What was the rain fall on Sunday?

Solution:

Total rain fall on 6 days = Number \times Average

= 6 × 1.2

Total rain fall on 7 days= $7 \times 2 = 14$ cms

Total rain fall on 7^{th} days, Sunday = 14 - 7.2 = 6.8 cms

Formula for combined means:

If two means are given,

$$\bar{X}_{12} = \frac{N_1 \bar{X}_1 + N_2 \bar{X}_2}{N_1 + N_2}$$

If three means are given, $\bar{X}_{123} = \frac{N_1 \bar{X}_1 + N_2 \bar{X}_2 + N_3 X_3}{N_1 + N_2 + N_3}$

Problem:

 There are two branches of an establishment employing 100 and 80 persons respectively. If the arithmetic means of the monthly salaries paid by the two branches are Rs.275 and Rs.225 respectively. Find the arithmetic mean of the salaries of the empolyes of the establishment as a whole.

Solution:

Given
$$N_1 = 100, N_2 = 80, \overline{X_1} = 275, \overline{X_2} = 225$$

$$\overline{X_{12}} = \frac{N_1 \overline{X_1} + N_2 \overline{X_2}}{N_1 + N_2}$$
$$= \frac{(100 \times 275) + (80 \times 225)}{100 + 80}$$
$$\overline{X_1} = R_5 252.78$$

Problem:

 The average mark in mathematics of foundation course students of three centers, Kolkata, Mumbai and Delhi is 50. The number candidates in Kolkata, Mumbai and Delhi are respectively 100,120 and 150. The average marks of Kolkata and Mumbai are 70 and 40 respectively. Find the average mark of Delhi.

Solution:

Given
$$\overline{X_{123}} = 50, N_1 = 100, N_2 = 120; N_3 = 150; \ \overline{X}_1 = 70, \ \overline{X}_2 = 40$$

$$\overline{X_{123}} = \frac{N_1 \overline{X}_1 + N_2 \overline{X}_2 + N_3 \overline{X}_3}{N_1 + N_2 + N_3}$$
$$50 = \frac{(100 \times 70) + (120 \times 40) + (150 \times \overline{X}_3)}{100 + 120 + 150}$$
$$\overline{X}_3 = \frac{6700}{150} = 44.67$$

Corrected Arithmetic Mean:

Problem:

The mean of 20 marks is found to be 40. Later on it was discovered that a mark 53 was misread as 83, Find the correct mean.

Solution:

Given
$$N = 20, X_W = 40, X_c = 53, X_w = 83$$

$$\overline{X}_W = \frac{\left(\sum X\right)_w}{N}$$

- $\therefore \text{ Wrong total } \left(\sum X\right)_{W} = N\overline{X}_{W}$
- $=20 \times 40 = 800$
- $\therefore \text{ Correct total } (\Sigma X)_{c} = (\Sigma X)_{W} X_{W} + X_{c}$

=800-83+53

=770

$$\therefore \text{ Correct mean } \overline{X}_c = \frac{(\sum X)_c}{N}$$

$$=\frac{770}{20}=38.5$$

Problem:

 A student found the mean of 50 items as 38.6. when checking the work he found that he had taken one item as 50 while it should correctly read as 40. Also the number of items turned out to be only 49. In the circumstances, what should be the correct mean?

Solution:

Given
$$N_w = 50; \overline{X}_w = 38.6, X_w = 50, X_c = 40; N_c = 49$$

 $\therefore \text{ Wrong total } \left(\sum X\right)_{W} = N_{W}\overline{X}_{W}$

 $=50 \times 38.6 = 1930$

 $\therefore \text{ Correct total } \left(\sum X \right)_{C} = \left(\sum X \right)_{W} - X_{W} + X_{C}$

$$=1930-50+40=1920$$

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$$\therefore \text{ Correct mean } \overline{X}_c = \frac{(\Sigma X)_c}{N}$$
$$= \frac{1920}{39.18}$$

49

Problem:

Find the missing frequency from the following frequency distribution if mean is 38.

Marks	10	20	30	40	50	60	70
No. of students	8	11	20	25		10	3

Solution: Let the missing frequency be f

$$\Sigma f = 8 + 11 + 20 + 25 + f + 10 + 3 = 77 + f$$

$$\sum f_x = 2710 + 50 f$$

Consider,
$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fx}{\sum f}$$

$$38 = \frac{2710 + 50 f}{77 + f} \Longrightarrow 38f + 2926 = 2710 + 50 f$$
$$50 f - 38 f = 2926 - 2710$$

1.3 Mathematical Characteristics:

1. The algebraic sum of the deviations, of all the items from their arithmetic mean is zero.

(ie)
$$\Sigma(X-\overline{X})=0$$

- 2. The sum of the standard deviations of the items from mean is a minimum.
- 3. If all the items of a series are increased (or) decreased by any constant number, the arithmetic mean will also increase (or) decrease by the same constant.



Discrete series: (Direct method)

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\sum fX}{N}$$

 \overline{X} = Arithmetic mean; $\sum fX$ = the sum of product;

N= total number of items

Problem: Calculate mean from the following data



$$\overline{X} = A \pm \frac{\sum fd}{N}$$

 \overline{X} = Mean, A= Assumed mean, $\sum fd$ = sum of total deviations, N = total frequency

Problem: (solving the previous problem)

Solution:

X	f	d = (X - A)	fd
1	21	-4	-84
2	30	-3	-90
3	28	-2	-56
4	40	-1	-40
5	26		0
6	34		34
7	40	2	80
8	9	3	27
9	15	4	60
10	57	5	285
	$\Sigma f = 300$		$\sum fd = +216$

Continuous Series:

1. Direct method



 \overline{X} = mean, m – mid value,

Profits	100-200	200-300	300-400	400-500	500-600	600-700	700-800
per shop Rs							
Number of shops	10	18	20	26	30	28	18

Problem: From the following find out the mean profits:

Solution:





$$\overline{X} = A \pm \frac{\sum fd}{N}$$

A= Assumed mean, $\sum fd$ = sum of total deviations, N =Number of items

TEACHER'S CARE ACADEMY

$$\overline{X} = A \pm \frac{\sum fd}{N}$$

 \overline{X} = Mean, A= Assumed mean, $\sum fd'$ = sum of total deviations, N = Number of items , C= common factor.

Note:

 If we use any method to find the arithmetic mean for continues series, we can get the same answer for same problem.

Problem:

Find mean of the following data:

Class – Interval	0-9	10-19	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59
Frequency	2	15	10	8	3	1

Solution:

 The given problem is to be convert into exclusive class interval series (ie. Left side C.I subtract 0.5 and right side C.I add 0.5 to given data)

C.I	True	f) m	$d' = \frac{m - 34.5}{10}$	fd'
	C.I			u 10	
0-9	0.5-9.5	1	4.5	2	2
10-19	9.5-19.5	3	14.5	1	3
20-29	19.5-29.5	8	24.5	0	0
30-39	29.5-39.5	10	34.5	-1	-10
40-49	39.5-49.5	15	44.5	-2	-30
50-59	49.5-59.5	2	54.5	-3	-6
	$\Sigma f = 40$				$\sum fd' = -41$

$$\overline{X} = A \pm \frac{\sum fd'}{N} \times c$$

A=34.5, $\sum fd' = -41$, N=40, C=10

$$\overline{X} = 34.5 - \frac{(-41)}{40} \times 10$$

 $\overline{X} = 24.25$

1.4. Merits of Arithmetic Mean:

- 1. It is easy to understand
- 2. It is easy to calculate
- 3. It is rigidly defined
- 4. It is based on the value of every item in the series
- 5. It provides a good basis for comparison.
- 6. It can be used for further analysis and algebraic treatment.
- 7. The mean is a more stable measure of central tendency.

1.5. Demerits (Limitations)

- 1. The mean is unduly affected by the extreme items.
- 2. It is unrealistic.
- 3. It may lead to a false conclusion.
- 4. It cannot be accurately determined even if one of the values is not known.
- 5. It cannot be located by observations or the graphic method.
- 6. It gives greater importance to bigger items of a series and lesser importance to smaller items.

1.6. Uses of Arithmetic Mean:

It is used in social economic and business problem.

1.7. Median:

 Median is the value of item that goes to divided the series into equal parts. Median may be defined as the value of that item which divides the series into two equal parts, one half containing values greater than it and the other half containing values less that it. Therefore, the series has to be arranged in ascending or descending order, before finding the median. It is also called positional average.

Individual Series:

Problem (odd number problem)

Find the median of the following series.

X: 10 15 9 25 19

Solution:



Median = size of
$$\left(\frac{N+1}{2}\right)^{th}$$
 items
= size of $\left(\frac{6+1}{2}\right)^{th}$ items
= Size of 3.5th item
= Size of $\left(\frac{3^{rd} item + 4^{th} item}{2}\right)$
= $\frac{9+10}{2}$

median = 9.5

Discrete Series:

Problem: Find out the median from the following:

Size of shoes	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	7.5	8
Frequency	10	16	28	15	30	40	34

Solution:

Size of shoes	f	Cf	
5	10	10	$\overline{\mathbf{V}}$
5‴[.5	16	26	
6	28	54	
6.5	15	69	
7	30	99	
7.5	40	139	
8	34	173	

Median = size of
$$\left(\frac{N+1}{2}\right)^{th}$$
 item

13. MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS



213



	A) J-shaped	B) U-shaped	C) Z-shaped	D) symmetrical
22.	A negative coefficient of	of skewness implies th	nat	
	A) Mean > Mode		B) Mean < Mode	
	C) Mean = Mode		D) Mean ≠ Mode	
23.	For a symmetrical dist	ribution the coefficier	nt of skewness is	
	A) + 1	B) – 1	C) + 3	D) – 3
24.	The first central mome	nt is always zero	X	
	A) True	B) False		
25.	The second central mo	ment does not indica	te the variance.	
	A) True	B) False		o X 💿
26.	β_2 must always be pos	itive		2053
	A) True	B) False		3,443
27.	If β_2 is greater than 3,	then curve is called,		
	A) mesokurtic	B) Leptokurtic	C) Platykurtic	D) None of these
28.	If β_2 is less than 3, the	curve is called		
	A) mesokurtic	B) Leptokurtic	C) Platykurtic	D) None of these
29.	The coefficient of corre	elation.		
	A) cannot be positive		B) cannot be negati	ve
	C) can be either positiv	e or negative	D) none of these	
30.	The coefficient of corre	lation is independent	t of	
	A) change of scale only		B) change of origin	only
	C) both change of scale	and origin	D) none of these	
31.	The study of two varia	bles excluding some c	other variables is call	ed correlation.
	A) positive	B) negative	C) multiple	D) partial



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