

Q1.

Example 6 : Evaluate the determinant

Determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \omega & \omega^2 \\ \omega & \omega^2 & 1 \\ \omega^2 & 1 & \omega \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{where } \omega \text{ is a cube root of unity.}$$

Solution :

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \omega & 2 \\ \omega & \omega^2 & 1 \\ \omega^2 & 1 & \omega \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 1 + \omega + \omega^2$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 1 + \omega + \omega^2 & \omega & \omega^2 \\ 1 + \omega + \omega^2 & \omega^2 & 1 \\ 1 + \omega + \omega^2 & 1 & \omega \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{By } C_1 \rightarrow C_1 + C_2 + C_3)$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 0 & \omega & \omega^2 \\ 0 & \omega^2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & \omega \end{vmatrix} \quad (\because 1 + \omega + \omega^2 = 0)$$

$$= 0 \quad [\because C_1 \text{ consists of all zero entries].]$$

2. Using determinant, find the area of the triangle whose vertices are $(-3, 5)$, $(3, -6)$ and $(7, 2)$.

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 5 & 1 \\ 3 & -6 & 1 \\ 7 & 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 5 & 1 \\ 6 & -11 & 0 \\ 10 & -3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{By applying } R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - R_1 \text{ and } R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{vmatrix} -3 & 5 & 1 \\ -18 & 16 & -1 \\ 3 & -8 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 92 = 46 \text{ square units}$$

3. Use the principle of mathematical induction to show that $2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 2$ for every natural number n .

Solution : Let P_n denote the statement

$$2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 2$$

When $n = 1$, P_n becomes

$$2 = 2^{1+1} - 2 \text{ or } 2 = 4 - 2$$

This shows that the result holds for $n = 1$.

Assume that P_k is true for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

That is, assume that

$$2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 2$$

We shall now show that truth of P_k implies the truth of P_{k+1} is

$$2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^k + 2^{k+1} = 2^{k+1} - 2 \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS of (1)} &= 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^k + 2^{k+1} \\ &= (2^{k+1} - 2) + 2^{k+1} && \text{[induction assumption]} \\ &= 2^{k+1} (1 + 1) - 2 \\ &= 2^{k+1} 2 - 2 = 2^{k+2} - 2 \\ &= \text{RHS of (1)} \end{aligned}$$

This shows that the result holds for $n = k+1$; therefore, the truth of P_k implies the truth of P_{k+1} . The two steps required for a proof by mathematical induction have been completed, so our statement is true for each natural number n .

4. Find the sum of all integers between 100 and 1000 which are divisible by 9.

Solution : The first integer greater than 100 and divisible by 9 is 108 and the integer just smaller than 1000 and divisible by 9 is 999. Thus, we have to find the sum of the series.

$$108 + 117 + 126 + \dots + 999.$$

$$\text{Here } t_1 = a = 108, d = 9 \text{ and } l = 999$$

Let n be the total number of terms in the series be n . Then

$$999 = 108 + 9(n-1) \Rightarrow 111 = 12 + (n-1) \Rightarrow n = 100$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence, the required sum} &= \frac{n}{2} (a + l) = \frac{100}{2} (108 + 999) \\ &= 50 (1107) = 55350. \end{aligned}$$

5. Check the continuity of the function $f(x)$ at $x = 0$:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{|x|}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\textcircled{5} \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{|x|}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Since } |x| = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{So, } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1) = 1 \text{ and}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (-1) = -1$$

Hence f is not continuous at $x=0$

$$6. \text{ If } y = \frac{\ln x}{x}, \text{ show that } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{2 \ln x - 3}{x^3}$$

⑥ $y = \frac{\ln x}{x}$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \ln x \cdot \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) + \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (\ln x)$

or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \ln x \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2} \right) + \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$

$$= -\frac{1}{x^2} \cdot \ln x + \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} \cdot (1 - \ln x)$$

Then 2nd order derivative

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} \frac{d}{dx} (1 - \ln x) + (1 - \ln x) \cdot \left(-\frac{2}{x^3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{x^2} \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x} \right) - \frac{2}{x^3} (1 - \ln x)$$

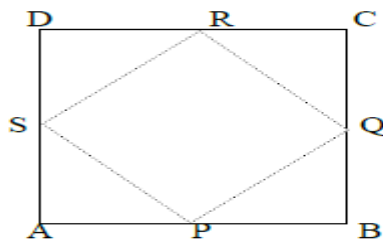
$$= -\frac{1}{x^3} - \frac{2}{x^3} + \frac{2 \ln x}{x^3}$$

$$= \frac{-1 - 2 + 2 \ln x}{x^3}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{-3 + 2 \ln x}{x^3} = \frac{2 \ln x - 3}{x^3} \text{ (Proved)}$$

7. If the mid-points of the consecutive sides of a quadrilateral are joined, then show (by using vectors) that they form a parallelogram.

Solution : Let \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} , \vec{d} be the position vectors of the vertices A, B, C, D of the quadrilateral ABCD. Let P, Q, R, S be the mid-points of sides AB, BC, CD, DA respectively. Then the position vectors of P, Q, R and S are $\frac{1}{2}(\vec{a} + \vec{b})$, $\frac{1}{2}(\vec{b} + \vec{c})$, $\frac{1}{2}(\vec{c} + \vec{d})$ and $\frac{1}{2}(\vec{d} + \vec{a})$ respectively.



$$\text{Now, } \overline{PQ} = \overline{PQ} - \overline{PQ} = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{b} + \vec{c}) - \frac{1}{2}(\vec{a} + \vec{b}) = \frac{1}{2}(\vec{c} - \vec{a})$$

$$\text{or } \overline{AB} + \overline{BC} + \overline{CA} \quad (\because \overline{CA} = -\overline{AC})$$

$$\therefore \overline{PQ} = \overline{SR}$$

$$\Rightarrow PQ = SR \text{ and also } PQ \parallel SR.$$

Since a pair of opposite sides are equal and parallel, therefore, PQRS is a parallelogram.

8. Find the scalar component of projection of the vector

$$\vec{a} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j} + 5\hat{k} \text{ on the vector } \vec{b} = 2\hat{i} - 2\hat{j} - \hat{k}.$$

Solution : Scalar projection of \vec{a} on $\vec{b} = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{b}|}$

$$\text{Here, } \vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = 2 \cdot 2 + 3(-2) + 5(-1) = -7$$

$$\text{and } |\vec{b}| = \sqrt{2^2 + (-2)^2 + (-1)^2} = 3$$

$$\therefore \text{Scalar projection of } \vec{a} \text{ on } \vec{b} = \frac{-7}{3}$$

9. Solve the following system of linear equations using Cramer's rule: $x + y = 0$, $y + z = 1$, $z + x = 3$

(b) Here,

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

[Applying $C_2 \rightarrow C_2 - C_1$]

$$= 2$$

(Expanding along R_1)

Since $\Delta \neq 0$, \therefore the given system has unique solution,

$$\text{Now, } \Delta x = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 2$$

$$\Delta y = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = -2$$

$$\text{and } \Delta z = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 4$$

Hence by Cramer's Rule

$$x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

$$y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{-2}{2} = -1 \text{ and}$$

$$z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta} = \frac{4}{2} = 2$$

10. If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ b & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $(A + B)^2 = A^2 + B^2$, Find a and b .

(4 Marks)

We have $(A + B)^2 = (A + B)(A + B)$

$$= (A + B)A + (A + B)B \quad (\text{Distributive Law})$$

$$= AA + BA + AB + BB$$

$$= A^2 + BA + AB + B^2$$

Therefore, $(A + B)^2 = A^2 + B^2$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 + BA + AB + B^2 = A^2 + B^2$$

$$\Rightarrow BA + AB = 0.$$

Thus, we must find a and b such that $BA + AB = 0$.

$$\text{We have } BA = \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ b & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a+2 & -a-1 \\ b-2 & -b+1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{and } AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 1 \\ b & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a-b & 2 \\ 2a-b & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore,

$$BA + AB = \begin{bmatrix} a+2 & -a-1 \\ b-2 & -b+1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} a-b & 2 \\ 2a-b & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 2a-b+2 & -a+1 \\ 2a-2 & -b+4 \end{bmatrix}$$

But $BA + AB = 0$

$$\Rightarrow 2a-b+2=0, -a+1=0, 2a-2=0, -b+4=0$$

$$\Rightarrow a=1, b=4$$

11. Reduce the matrix A(given below) to normal form and hence find its rank. (4 Marks)

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution : $A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 & 8 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Applying $R_1 \leftrightarrow R_3$, we have

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying $R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 5R_1$, we have

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 8 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Applying elementary row operations $R_1 \rightarrow R_1 + R_2$ and $R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 8R_2$, we have

$$A \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, we apply elementary column operation $C_3 \rightarrow C_3 - C_2$, to get

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

Again, applying $C_3 \rightarrow C_3 - C_1$, we have

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

We have thus reduced A to normal form.

Also, note that the rank of a matrix remains unaltered under elementary operations.

Thus, rank of A in above example is 2 because rank of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is 2.

In this regard, we state following theorem without proof.

Theorem : Every matrix of rank r is equivalent to the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} I_r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

12. Show that $n(n+1)(2n+1)$ is a multiple of 6 for every natural number n.

Solution : Let P_n denote the statement $n(n+1)(2n+1)$ is a multiple of 6.
 When $n=1$, P_n becomes $1(1+1)((2)(1)+1) = (1)(2)(3) = 6$ is a multiple of 6.
 This shows that the result is true for $n = 1$.

Assume that P_k is true for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. That is assume that $k(k+1)(2k+1)$ is a multiple of 6.

Let $k(k+1)(2k+1) = 6m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

We now show that the truth of P_k implies the truth of P_{k+1} , where P_{k+1} is $(k+1)(k+2)[2(k+1)+1] = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)$ is a multiple of 6.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3) &= (k+1)(k+2)[(2k+1)+2] \\ &= (k+1)[k(2k+1)+2(2k+1)+4] \\ &= (k+1)[k(2k+1)+6(k+1)] \\ &= k(k+1)(2k+1)+6(k+1)^2 \\ &= 6m+6(k+1)^2 = 6[m+(k+1)^2] \end{aligned}$$

Thus $(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)$ is multiple of 6.

This shows that the result holds for $n = k+1$; therefore, the truth of P_k implies the truth of P_{k+1} . The two steps required for a proof by mathematical induction have been completed, so our statement is true for each natural number n .

13. Find the sum of an infinite G.P. whose first term is 28 and fourth term is $\frac{4}{49}$.
 (4 Marks)

$$a = 28, \quad ar^3 = \frac{4}{49}$$

$$\Rightarrow r^3 = \frac{4}{49} \times \frac{1}{28} = \frac{1}{7^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow r = 1/7$$

$$\text{Thus, } S = \frac{a}{1-r} = \frac{28}{1-1/7} = \frac{28 \times 7}{6} = \frac{98}{3}$$

14. Use De Moivre's theorem to find $(\sqrt{3} + i)^3$.

Solution : We first put $\sqrt{3} + i$ in the polar form.

$$\text{Let } \sqrt{3} + i = r (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{3} = r \cos \theta \text{ and } 1 = r \sin \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow (\sqrt{3})^2 + 1^2 = r^2 (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow r^2 = 4 \Rightarrow r = 2$$

$$\text{Thus, } \sqrt{3} + i = 2(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{3} = 2 \cos \theta \text{ and } 1 = 2 \sin \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 \cos \theta = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \text{ and } \sin \theta = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 30^\circ.$$

$$\text{Now, } (\sqrt{3} + i)^3 = [2 \cos (30^\circ) + i \sin (30^\circ)]^3$$

$$= 2^3 [\cos(30^\circ) + i \sin (30^\circ)]^3$$

$$= 8 [\cos(3 \times 30^\circ) + i \sin (3 \times 30^\circ)] \text{ [De Moivre's theorem]}$$

$$= 8 (\cos 90^\circ + i \sin 90^\circ) = 8(0 + i)$$

$$= 8i$$

15. If $1, \omega, \omega^2$ are cube roots unity, show that $(2-\omega)(2-\omega^2)(2-\omega^{10})(2-\omega^{11}) = 49$.

(ii) Since $\omega^{10} = (\omega^3)^3 \omega = \omega$

and $\omega^{11} = (\omega^3)^3 \omega^2 = \omega^2$,

Thus $(2-\omega)(2-\omega^2)(2-\omega^{10})(2-\omega^{11})$

$$= (2-\omega)(2-\omega^2)(2-\omega)(2-\omega^2)$$

$$= [(2-\omega)(2-\omega^2)]^2$$

$$= [4 - 2\omega - 2\omega^2 + \omega^3]^2$$

$$= [4 - 2(\omega + \omega^2) + 1]^2$$

$$= [4 - 2(-1) + 1]^2 \quad [\because \omega + \omega^2 = -1]$$

$$= 7^2 = 49$$

16. Solve the equation $2x^3 - 15x^2 + 37x - 30 = 0$, given that the roots of the equation are in A.P.

Example 6 : Solve the equation

$$2x^3 - 15x^2 + 37x - 30 = 0 \quad (1)$$

If the roots of the equation are in A.P.

Solution : Recall three numbers in A.P. can be taken as $\alpha - \beta, \alpha, \alpha + \beta$.

If $\alpha - \beta, \alpha, \alpha + \beta$ are roots of (1), then $(\alpha - \beta) + \alpha + (\alpha + \beta) = 15/2 \Rightarrow 3\alpha = 15/2$
 $\Rightarrow \alpha = 5/2$

Next,

$$\alpha(\alpha - \beta) + \alpha(\alpha + \beta) + (\alpha - \beta)(\alpha + \beta) = 37/2$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^2 - \alpha\beta + \alpha^2 + \alpha\beta + \alpha^2 - \beta^2 = 37/2$$

$$\Rightarrow 3\alpha^2 - \beta^2 = 37/2$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta^2 = 3\alpha^2 - \frac{37}{2} = 3 \times \frac{25}{4} - \frac{37}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta = \pm \frac{1}{2}$$

When $\beta = 1/2$, the roots are

$$\frac{5}{2} - \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \frac{5}{2} + \frac{1}{2}, \text{ or } 2, \frac{5}{2}, 3$$

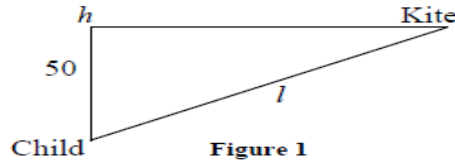
When $\beta = -1/2$, the roots are 3, 5/2, 2.

It is easily to check that these are roots of (1).

17. A young child is flying a kite which is at height of 50 m. The wind is carrying the kite horizontally away from the child at a speed of 6.5 m/s. How fast must the kite string be let out when the string is 130m ?

Solution : Let h be the horizontal distance of the kite from the point directly over the child's head 5. Let l be the length of kite string from the child to the kite at time t . [See Fig. 1] Then

$$l^2 = h^2 + 50^2$$



Differentiating both the sides with respect to t , we get

$$2l \frac{dl}{dt} = 2h \frac{dh}{dt} \text{ or } l \frac{dl}{dt} = h \frac{dh}{dt}.$$

We are given $\frac{dh}{dt} = 6.5 \text{ m/s}$. We are interested to find dl/dt when $l = 130$. But when $l = 130$, $h^2 = l^2 - 50^2 = 130^2 - 50^2 = 14400$ or $h = 120$.

$$\text{Thus, } \frac{dl}{dt} = \frac{120}{130} \times 6.5 = 5 \text{ m/s}.$$

This shows that the string should be let out at a rate of 6 m/s.

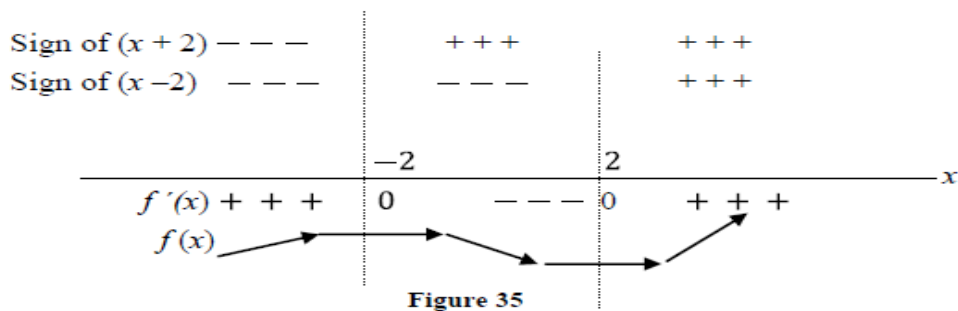
18. Using first derivative test, find the local maxima and minima of the function $f(x) = x^3 - 12x$. (4 Marks)

(i) $f(x) = x^3 - 12x$

Differentiating w.r.t. x , we get

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 12 = 3(x^2 - 4) = 2(x-2)(x+2)$$

Setting $f'(x) = 0$, we obtain $x = 2, -2$. Thus, $x = -2$, and $x = 2$ are the only critical numbers of f . Fig. 35 shows the sign of derivative f' in three intervals.



From figure 35 it is clear that if $x < -2$, $f'(x) > 0$; if $-2 < x < 2$, $f'(x) < 0$ and if $x > 2$, $f'(x) > 0$.

Using the first derivative test, we conclude that

$f(x)$ has a local maximum at $x = -2$ and a local minimum at $x = 2$.

Now, $f(-2) = (-2)^3 - 12(-2) = -8 + 24 = 16$ is the value of local maximum at $x = -2$ and $f(2) = 2^3 - 12(2) = 8 - 24 = -16$ is the value of the local minimum at $x = 2$.

19. Evaluate the integral $I = \int \frac{x^2}{(x+1)^3} dx$

Solution : To evaluate an integral of the form

$$\int \frac{P(x)}{(a + bx)^r} dx, \text{ we put } a + bx = t.$$

So, we put $x + 1 = t \Rightarrow dx = dt$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } I &= \int \frac{(t + 1)^2}{t^3} dt = \int \frac{t^2 + 2t + 1}{t^3} dt \\ &= \int \left(\frac{1}{t} - 2t^{-2} + t^{-3} \right) dt \\ &= \log|t| - \frac{2t^{-1}}{-1} + \frac{t^{-2}}{-2} + c \\ &= \log|t| + \frac{2}{t} - \frac{1}{2t^2} + c \\ &= \log|x + 1| - \frac{2}{x + 1} + \frac{1}{2(x + 1)^2} + c \end{aligned}$$

20. Find the length of the curve $y = 3 + \frac{x}{2}$ from $(0, 3)$ to $(2, 4)$.

We have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Required length

$$= \int_0^2 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4}} dx = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} \int_0^2 dx = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} x \Big|_0^2 = \sqrt{5} \text{ units}$$

