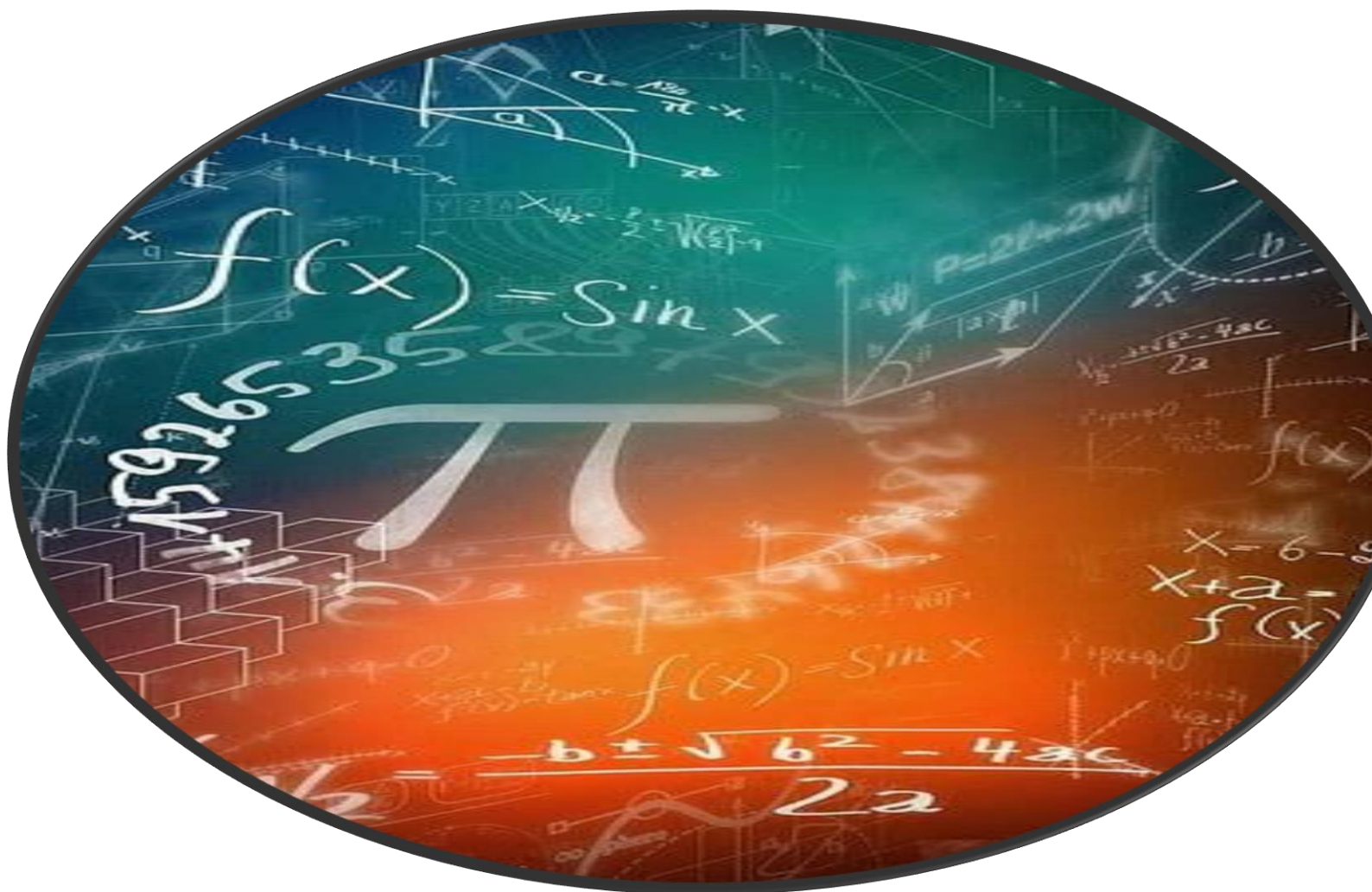


DEPARTMENT OF BASIC SCIENCE
ENGINEERING MATHEMATICS-I



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Engineering Mathematics–I

TRIGONOMETRY

COMPOUND ANGLES

INTRODUCTION :

The word Trigonometry is derived from Greek words “Trigonos” and metron means measurement of angles in a triangle. This subject was originally developed to solve geometric problems involving triangles. The Hindu mathematicians Aryabhata, Varahmira, Brahmagupta and Bhaskara have lot of contribution to trigonometry. Besides Hindu mathematicians ancient-Greek and Arabic mathematicians also contributed a lot to this subject. Trigonometry is used in many areas such as science of seismology, designing electrical circuits, analysing musical tones and studying the occurrence of sun spots.

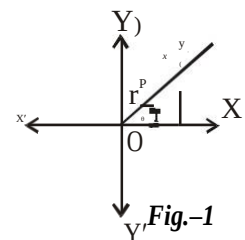
Trigonometric Functions:

Let θ be the measure of any angle measured in radians in counter clockwise sense as shown in Fig(1).

Let $P(x, y)$ be any point on the terminal side of angle θ . The distance of P from

O is $OP = r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$. The functions defined by $\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$, $\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$, $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$

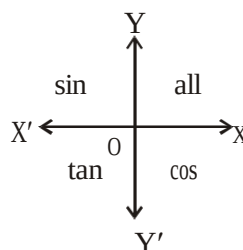
...(1) are called sine, cosine and tangent functions respectively. These are called trigonometric functions. It follows from (1) that $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$. Other trigonometric functions such as cosecant, secant and cotangent functions are defined as cosec



$$\sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}, \cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

SIGN OF RATIOS:

The student may remember the sign of ratios in different quadrants with the help of the diagram



The sign of particular trigonometric ratio in any quadrant can be remembered by the word “all-sin-tan-cos” or “add sugar to coffee”. Whatever is written in a particular quadrant along with its reciprocal is +ve and the rest are negative.

Table giving the values of trigonometrical Ratios of angles $0^\circ, 30^\circ, 45^\circ, 60^\circ$ & 90°

q	0°	30°	45°	60°	90°
$\sin q$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1
$\cos q$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
$\tan q$	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	∞

RELATED ANGLES:

Definitions : Two angles are said to be complementary angles if their sum is 90° and each angle is said to be the complement of the other.

Two angles are said to be supplementary if their sum is 180° and each angle is said to be the supplement of the other.

To Find the T-Ratios of angle $(-q)$ in terms of q :

Let OX be the initial line. Let OP be the position of the radius vector after tracing an angle q in the anticlockwise sense which we take as positive sense. (**Fig. 2**)

Let OP' be the position of the radius vector after tracing (q) in the clockwise sense, which we take as negative sense. So $\angle P'OX$ will be taken as $-q$. Join PP'. Let it meet OX at M.

Now $\triangle OPM \cong \triangle P'OM$, $\angle P'OM = -q$

$OP' = OP$, $P'M = -PM$

Now $\sin(-q) = \frac{P'M}{OP'} = \frac{-PM}{OP} = -\sin q$

$\cos(-q) = \frac{OM}{OP'} = \frac{OM}{OP} = \cos q$

$\tan(-q) = \frac{P'M}{OM} = \frac{-PM}{OM} = -\tan q$

M

$\operatorname{cosec}(-q) = \frac{OP'}{P'M} = \frac{OP}{-PM} = -\operatorname{cosec} q$

$\sec(-q) = \frac{OM}{OP'} = \frac{OM}{OP} = \sec q$

$\cot(-q) = \frac{OM}{P'M} = \frac{OM}{-PM} = -\cot q$

To find the T-Ratios of angle $(90^\circ - q)$ in terms of q .

Let OPM be a right-angled triangle with $\angle POM = 90^\circ$, $\angle OMP = q$,

$\angle OPM = 90^\circ - q$. (**Fig. 3**)

$\therefore \sin(90^\circ - q) = \frac{OM}{OP} = \cos q$ & $\operatorname{cosec}(90^\circ - q) = \sec q$

$\cos(90^\circ - q) = \frac{PM}{OP} = \sin q$

$\sec(90^\circ - q) = \operatorname{cosec} q$

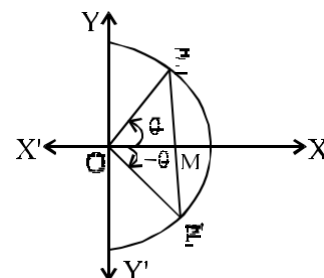


Fig.-2

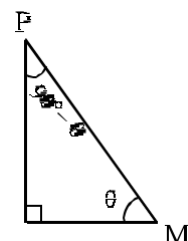


Fig.-3

Engineering Mathematics–I

$$\tan(90^\circ - q) = \frac{OM}{OP} = \cot q \quad \text{and} \quad \cot(90^\circ - q) = \tan q$$

To find the T-Ratios of angle $(90^\circ + q)$ in terms of q .

Let $\angle POX = q$ and $\angle P'OX = 90^\circ + q$. Draw PM and $P'M'$ perpendicular to the X -axis (**Fig.4**)

Now $\triangle POM \cong \triangle P'OM'$

$$\therefore P'M' = OM \text{ and } OM' = -PM$$

$$\text{Now } \sin(90^\circ + q) = \frac{P'M'}{OP'} = \frac{OM}{OP} = \cos q$$

$$\cos(90^\circ + q) = \frac{OM'}{OP'} = \frac{-PM}{OP} = -\sin q$$

$$\tan(90^\circ + q) = \frac{P'M'}{OM'} = \frac{OM}{-PM} = -\cot q$$

Similarly $\operatorname{cosec}(90^\circ + q) = \sec q$

$$\sec(90^\circ + q) = -\operatorname{cosec} q$$

$$\text{and } \cot(90^\circ + q) = -\tan q$$

To find the T-Ratios of angle $(180^\circ - q)$ in terms of q .

Let OX be the initial line. Let OP be the position of the radius vector after tracing an angle $XOP = q$. To obtain the angle $180^\circ - q$ let the radius vector start from OX and after revolving through 180° come to the position OX' . Let it revolve back through an angle q in the clockwise direction and come to the position OP' so that the angle $X'O P'$ is equal in magnitude but opposite in sign to the angle XOP . The angle XOP' is $180^\circ - q$. (**Fig.5**)

Draw $P'M'$ and PM perpendicular to $X'O X$. Now

$\triangle POM \cong \triangle P'OM'$.

$$\therefore OM' = -OM \text{ and } P'M' = PM$$

$$\text{Now } \sin(180^\circ - q) = \frac{P'M'}{OP'} = \frac{PM}{OP} = \sin q$$

$$\cos(180^\circ - q) = \frac{OM'}{OP'} = \frac{-OM}{OP} = -\cos q$$

$$\tan(180^\circ - q) = \frac{P'M'}{OM'} = \frac{PM}{-OM} = -\tan q$$

Similarly $\operatorname{cosec}(180^\circ - q) = \operatorname{cosec} q$

$$\sec(180^\circ - q) = -\sec q$$

$$\text{and } \cot(180^\circ - q) = -\cot q$$

To find the T-Ratios of angle $(180^\circ + q)$ in terms of q .

Let $\angle POX = q$ and $\angle P'OX = 180^\circ + q$. (**Fig.6**)

Now $\triangle POM \cong \triangle P'OM'$.

$$\therefore OM' = -OM \text{ and } P'M' = -PM$$

$$\text{Now } \sin(180^\circ + q) = \frac{P'M'}{OP'} = \frac{-PM}{OP} = -\sin q$$

$$\cos(180^\circ + q) = \frac{OM'}{OP'} = \frac{-OM}{OP} = -\cos q$$

$$\tan(180^\circ + q) = \frac{P'M'}{OM'} = \frac{-PM}{-OM} = \tan q$$

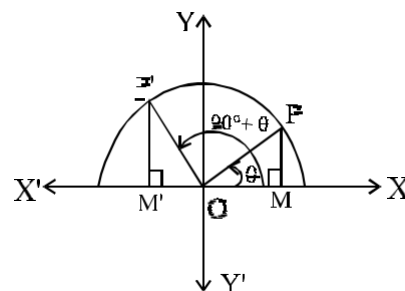


Fig.-4

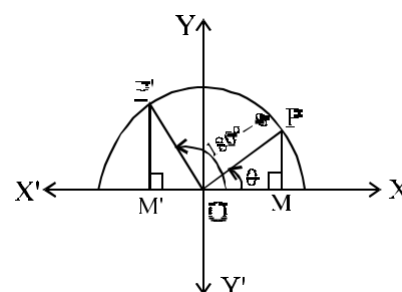


Fig.-5

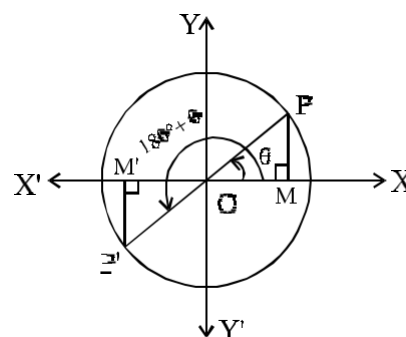


Fig.-6

Similarly $\operatorname{cosec}(180^\circ + q) = \operatorname{cosec} q$

$$\sec(180^\circ + q) = -\sec q$$

$$\text{and } \cot(180^\circ + q) = \cot q.$$

To Find the T-Ratios of angles $(270^\circ \pm q)$ in terms of q .

The trigonometrical ratios of $270^\circ - q$ and $270^\circ + q$ in terms of those of q , can be deduced from the above articles. For example

$$\sin(270^\circ - q) = \sin[180^\circ + (90^\circ - q)]$$

$$= -\sin(90^\circ - q) = -\cos q$$

$$\cos(270^\circ - q) = \cos[180^\circ + (90^\circ - q)]$$

$$= -\cos(90^\circ - q) = -\sin q$$

$$\text{Similarly } \sin(270^\circ + q) = \sin[180^\circ + (90^\circ + q)]$$

$$= -\sin(90^\circ + q) = -\cos q$$

$$\cos(270^\circ + q) = \cos[180^\circ + (90^\circ + q)]$$

$$= -\cos(90^\circ + q) = -(-\sin q) = \sin q$$

To Find the T-Ratios of angles $(360^\circ \pm q)$ in terms of q .

We have seen that if n is any integer, the angle $n \cdot 360^\circ \pm q$ is represented by the same position of the radius vector as the angle $\pm q$. Hence the trigonometrical ratios of $360^\circ \pm q$ are the same as those of $\pm q$. Thus

$$\sin(n \cdot 360^\circ + q) = \sin q$$

$$\cos(n \cdot 360^\circ + q) = \cos q$$

$$\sin(n \cdot 360^\circ - q) = \sin(-q) = -\sin q$$

$$\text{and } \cos(n \cdot 360^\circ - q) = \cos(-q) = \cos q.$$

Examples:

$$\cos(-720^\circ - q) = \cos(-2 \times 360^\circ - q) = \cos(-q) = \cos q$$

$$\text{and } \tan(1440^\circ + q) = \tan(4 \times 360^\circ + q) = \tan q$$

In general when n is any integer, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$(1) \sin(np + q) = (-1)^n \sin q$$

$$(2) \cos(np + q) = (-1)^n \cos q$$

$$(3) \tan(np + q) = \tan q \quad \text{when } n \text{ is odd integer}$$

$$(4) \sin \left(\frac{n-1}{2} \pi + q \right) = (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \cos q$$

$$(5) \cos \left(\frac{n+1}{2} \pi + q \right) = (-1)^{\frac{n+1}{2}} \sin q$$

$$(6) \tan \left(\frac{n}{2} \pi + q \right) = \cot q$$

EVEN FUNCTION:

A function $f(x)$ is said to be an even function of x , if $f(x)$ satisfies the relation $f(-x) = f(x)$. **Ex.** $\cos x$, $\sec x$, and all even powers of x i.e., $x^2, x^4, x^6, \dots$ are even function.

ODD FUNCTION:

A function $f(x)$ is said to be an odd function of x , if $f(x)$ satisfies the relation $f(-x) = -f(x)$.

Ex. $\sin x$, $\operatorname{cosec} x$, $\tan x$, $\cot x$ and all odd powers of x i.e., $x^3, x^5, x^7, \dots$ are odd function.

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Example: Find the values of $\sin q$ and $\tan q$ if $\cos q = \frac{13}{13}$ and q lies in the third quadrant.**Solution :** We have $\sin^2 q + \cos^2 q = 1$

$$\sin q = \pm \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 q}$$

In third quadrant $\sin q$ is negative, therefore

$$\sin q = -\sqrt{1 - \cos^2 q} = -\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{13}{13}\right)^2} = -\sqrt{\frac{13^2 - 13^2}{13^2}} = -\frac{5}{13}$$

$$\text{Now } \tan q = \frac{\sin q}{\cos q} = \frac{-\frac{5}{13}}{\frac{13}{13}} = -\frac{5}{12}$$

Example: Find the values of(i) $\tan(-90^\circ)$ (ii) $\sin 1230^\circ$ **Solution:** (i) $\tan(-90^\circ) = -\tan 90^\circ = -\tan(10 \times 90^\circ + 0^\circ) = -\tan 0^\circ = 0$

$$(ii) \sin(1230^\circ) = \sin(6 \times 180^\circ + 150^\circ) = \sin 150^\circ = \sin(180^\circ - 30^\circ) = \sin 30^\circ = \frac{1}{2}$$

Example: Show that

$$\frac{\cos(90^\circ + \theta) \cdot \sec(-\theta) \cdot \tan(180^\circ - \theta)}{\sec(360^\circ - \theta) \cdot \sin(180^\circ + \theta) \cdot \cot(90^\circ - \theta)} = -1 = \frac{-\sin \theta \times \sec \theta \times -\tan \theta}{-1 \sec \theta \times -\sin \theta \times \tan \theta}$$

$$\text{Solution: } \frac{\cos(90^\circ + q) \cdot \sec(-q) \cdot \tan(180^\circ - q)}{\sec(360^\circ - q) \cdot \sin(180^\circ + q) \cdot \cot(90^\circ - q)} = \frac{-\sin q \cdot \sec q \cdot -\tan q}{\sec q \cdot -\sin q \cdot \tan q} = -1$$

ASSIGNMENT

- Find the value of $\cos 1^\circ \cdot \cos 2^\circ \cdots \cos 100^\circ$
- Evaluate: $\tan 20^\circ \times \tan 3^\circ \times \tan 5^\circ \times \tan 7^\circ \times \tan 9^\circ \times \tan 11^\circ \times \tan 13^\circ \times \tan 15^\circ \times \tan 17^\circ \times \tan 19^\circ \times \tan 21^\circ \times \tan 23^\circ \times \tan 25^\circ \times \tan 27^\circ \times \tan 29^\circ \times \tan 31^\circ \times \tan 33^\circ \times \tan 35^\circ \times \tan 37^\circ \times \tan 39^\circ \times \tan 41^\circ \times \tan 43^\circ \times \tan 45^\circ \times \tan 47^\circ \times \tan 49^\circ \times \tan 51^\circ \times \tan 53^\circ \times \tan 55^\circ \times \tan 57^\circ \times \tan 59^\circ \times \tan 61^\circ \times \tan 63^\circ \times \tan 65^\circ \times \tan 67^\circ \times \tan 69^\circ \times \tan 71^\circ \times \tan 73^\circ \times \tan 75^\circ \times \tan 77^\circ \times \tan 79^\circ \times \tan 81^\circ \times \tan 83^\circ \times \tan 85^\circ \times \tan 87^\circ \times \tan 89^\circ$

r] r

COMPOUND, MULTIPLE AND SUB-MULTIPLE ANGLES

When an angle formed as the algebraic sum of two or more angles is called a compound angle. Thus $A + B$ and $A + B + C$ are compound angles.

Addition Formulae

When an angle formed as the algebraic sum of two or more angles, it is called a compound angle. Thus $A + B$ and $A + B + C$ are compound angles.

Addition Formula:

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

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

$$(iii) \tan(A+B) = \frac{\sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B}$$

Proof: Let the revolving line OM starting from the line OX make an angle $XOM = A$ and then further move to make

$\angle MON = B$, so that $\angle XON = A + B$ (Fig. 7)

Let P be any point on the line ON .

Draw $PR \perp OX$, $PT \perp OM$, $TQ \perp PR$ and $TS \perp OX$

Then $\angle QPT = 90^\circ - \angle PTQ = \angle QTO = \angle XOM = A$

$\therefore$ We have from $\triangle OPR$

$$(i) \sin(A+B) = \frac{RP}{OP} = \frac{QR+PQ}{OP} = \frac{TS+PQ}{OP} \quad (QR=TS) \quad \frac{OP}{OP}$$

$$= \frac{TS}{OT} \cdot \frac{OT}{OP} + \frac{PQ}{PT} \cdot \frac{PT}{OP}$$

$$= \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

$$(ii) \cos(A+B) = \frac{OR}{OP} = \frac{OS-RS}{OP} = \frac{OS}{OP} - \frac{RS}{OP}$$

$$= \frac{OS}{OT} \cdot \frac{OT}{OP} - \frac{QT}{PT} \cdot \frac{PT}{OP} \quad [QRS=QT]$$

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

$$(iii) \tan(A+B) = \frac{\sin(A+B)}{\cos(A+B)} = \frac{\sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B}$$

(dividing numerator and denominator by $\cos A \cos B$)

$$\frac{\frac{\sin A \cos B}{\cos A \cos B} + \frac{\cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B}}{\frac{\cos A \cos B}{\cos A \cos B} - \frac{\sin A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B}} = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B}$$

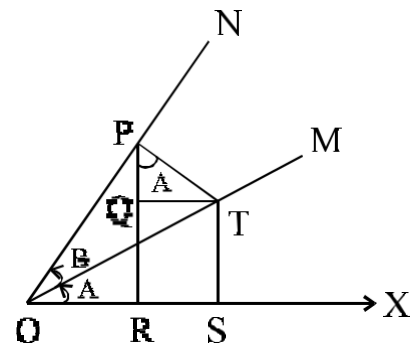


Fig. -7

Engineering Mathematics-I

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(iv) } \cot(A+B) &= \frac{\cos(A+B)}{\sin(A+B)} \\
 &= \frac{\cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B}{\sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B} \\
 &\quad [\text{dividing of numerator and denominator by } \sin A \sin B] \\
 &= \frac{\frac{\cos A \cos B}{\sin A \sin B} - 1}{\frac{\sin A \cos B}{\sin A \sin B} + \frac{\cos A \sin B}{\sin A \sin B}} \\
 &= \frac{\cot A \cot B - 1}{\cot B + \cot A}
 \end{aligned}$$

Cor: In the above formulae, replacing A by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ and B by x
We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(i) } \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) &= \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \cos x + \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \sin x \\
 &= 1 \cdot \cos x + 0 \cdot \sin x = \cos x \\
 \text{(ii) } \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) &= \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \cos x - \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \sin x \\
 &= 0 \cdot \cos x - 1 \cdot \sin x = -\sin x \\
 \text{(iii) } \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) &= \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right)}{\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right)} = \frac{\cos x}{-\sin x} = -\cot x
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Difference Formulae:

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

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

Proof: Let there be a revolving line OM making an angle A with OX and then resolve back to make $\angle MON = B$ so that $\angle XON = A - B$. (Fig. 8)

Let 'P' be any point on ON. Draw $PR \perp OX$,

$PT \perp OM$, $TS \perp OX$, $TQ \perp RP$ produced to Q.

Then $\angle TPQ = 90^\circ - \angle PTQ = \angle QTM = A$

Now from $\triangle OPR$, we have

$$\text{(i) } \sin(A-B) = \frac{PR}{OP} = \frac{TS}{OP} = \frac{QP}{OP}$$

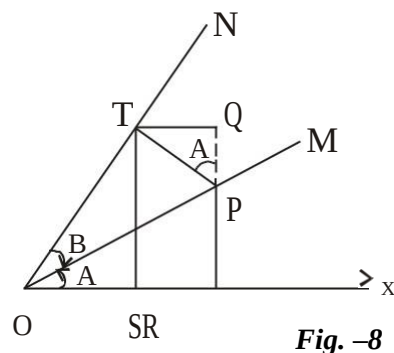


Fig. -8

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{TS}{OP} \frac{QP}{OP} \\
 &= \frac{TS}{OT} \frac{OT}{OP} - \frac{OP}{PT} \frac{PT}{OP} \\
 &= \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B \\
 &= \frac{OR}{OP} = \frac{OS+SR}{OP} = \frac{OS+TQ}{OP} = \frac{OS}{OP} + \frac{TQ}{QP} \\
 \text{(ii) } \cos(A-B) &= \frac{OS}{OP} + \frac{TQ}{QP} \\
 &= \frac{OS}{OT} \frac{OT}{OP} + \frac{TQ}{PT} \frac{PT}{OP} \\
 &= \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \tan(A-B) &= \frac{\sin(A-B)}{\cos(A-B)} = \frac{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B} \quad \text{(iii) } \tan \\
 &= \frac{\tan A - \tan B}{1 + \tan A \tan B}
 \end{aligned}$$

Dividing the numerator and the denominator by $\cos A \cos B$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(iv) } \cot(A-B) &= \frac{\cos(A-B)}{\sin(A-B)} \\
 &= \frac{\cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B}{\sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B} \\
 &= \frac{\cot A \cot B + 1}{\cot B - \cot A}
 \end{aligned}$$

dividing the numerator and denominator by $\sin A \sin B$

We can also deduce subtraction formulae from addition formulae in the following manner.

$$\sin(A-B) = \sin[A + (-B)]$$

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

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

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

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

$$= \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B$$

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

Example-1 : Find the value of $\tan 75^\circ$ and hence prove that $\tan 75^\circ + \cot 75^\circ = 4$

$$\text{Solution: } \tan 75^\circ = \tan(45^\circ + 30^\circ) = \frac{\tan 45^\circ + \tan 30^\circ}{1 - \tan 45^\circ \tan 30^\circ}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}}{1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{3} + 1}{\sqrt{3}}}{\frac{\sqrt{3} - 1}{\sqrt{3}}} = \frac{\sqrt{3} + 1}{\sqrt{3} - 1} \\
 \therefore \tan 75^\circ &= \frac{\sqrt{3} + 1}{\sqrt{3} - 1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Engineering Mathematics-I

$$\therefore \cot 75^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}-1}{\sqrt{3}+1}$$

$$\tan 75^\circ + \cot 75^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}+1}{\sqrt{3}-1} + \frac{\sqrt{3}-1}{\sqrt{3}+1} = \frac{(\sqrt{3}+1)^2 + (\sqrt{3}-1)^2}{(\sqrt{3}-1)(\sqrt{3}+1)}$$

$$= \frac{3+1+2\sqrt{3}+3+1-2\sqrt{3}}{3-1} = 4 \quad [\text{since } (a+b)(a-b) = a^2 - b^2]$$

$$\therefore \tan 75^\circ + \cot 75^\circ = 4$$

Example-2: If $\sin A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}$ and $\sin B = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ show that $A + B = \frac{\pi}{4}$

Solution: $\sin A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}$

$$\cos A = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 A} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{10}} = \sqrt{\frac{10-1}{10}} = \sqrt{\frac{9}{10}}$$

$$\therefore \cos A = \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}}$$

$$\sin B = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, \cos B = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 B}$$

$$= \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{5}} = \sqrt{\frac{5-1}{5}} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{5}}$$

$$\therefore \cos B = \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}} \times \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{50}} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{50}}$$

$$= \frac{2+3}{\sqrt{50}} = \frac{5}{5\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\therefore \sin(A+B) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \sin 45^\circ$$

$$\sin(A+B) = \sin 45^\circ$$

$$\therefore A+B = 45^\circ$$

Transformation of Sums or Difference into Products

(a) We have that

$$\sin(A+B) + \sin(A-B) = 2 \sin A \cos B \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\sin(A+B) - \sin(A-B) = 2 \cos A \sin B \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$\cos(A+B) - \cos(A-B) = -2 \sin A \sin B \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

$$\cos(A+B) + \cos(A-B) = 2 \cos A \cos B \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Let $A+B = C$ and $A-B = D$

$$\text{Then } A = \frac{C+D}{2} \quad \text{and } B = \frac{C-D}{2}$$

Putting the value in formula (1), (2), (3) and (4) we get

$$\sin C + \sin D = 2 \sin \frac{C+D}{2} \cos \frac{C-D}{2} \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

$$\sin C - \sin D = 2 \cos \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{C-D}{2} \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

$$\cos C + \cos D = 2 \cos \frac{C+D}{2} \cos \frac{C-D}{2} \dots\dots\dots (iii)$$

$$\cos C - \cos D = 2 \sin \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{D-C}{2} \dots\dots\dots (iv)$$

for practice it is more convenient to quote the formulae verbally as follows:

Sum of two sines = $2 \sin (\text{half sum}) \cos (\text{half difference})$

Difference of two sines = $2 \cos (\text{half sum}) \sin (\text{half difference})$

Sum of two cosines = $2 \cos (\text{half sum}) \cos (\text{half difference})$

Difference of two cosines = $2 \sin (\text{half sum}) \sin (\text{half difference reversed})$

[The students should carefully notice that the second factor of the right hand member of IV is $\sin C - \frac{D-C}{2}$ not $\sin \frac{D}{2}$]

(b) To find the Trigonometrical ratios of Angle $2A$ in terms of those of A : $\sin 2A$, $\cos 2A$.

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

putting $B = A$

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

$$\therefore \sin 2A = 2 \sin A \cos A \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

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

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

$$\therefore \cos 2A = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 A \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

$$\text{Also } \cos 2A = 1 - \sin^2 A - \sin^2 A = 1 - 2\sin^2 A \dots\dots\dots (iii)$$

$$\text{So } 2\sin^2 A = 1 - \cos 2A \dots\dots\dots (iv)$$

$$\text{Also } \cos 2A = \cos^2 A - (1 - \cos^2 A) = 2\cos^2 A - 1 \dots\dots\dots (v)$$

$$\text{or } 2\cos^2 A = 1 + \cos 2A \dots\dots\dots (vi)$$

(c) Formula for $\tan 2A$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{since } \tan (A+B) &= \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B} \\ \tan 2A &= \tan (A+A) = \frac{1 + \tan A \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A} \end{aligned}$$

Note that this formula is not defined when $\tan^2 A = 1$ i.e., $\tan A = \pm 1$

(d) To express $\sin 2A$ and $\cos 2A$ in terms of $\tan A$

$$\sin 2A = 2 \sin A \cos A$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin A}{\cos A} &= \frac{2 \tan A}{\sec^2 A} = 2 \tan A \cos^2 A \\ &= 2 \frac{\tan A}{1 + \tan^2 A} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\text{Also, } \cos 2A = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 A$$

$$= \frac{\cos^2 A - \sin^2 A}{\cos^2 A + \sin^2 A} = \frac{1 - \frac{\sin^2 A}{\cos^2 A}}{1 + \frac{\sin^2 A}{\cos^2 A}} = \frac{1 - \tan^2 A}{1 + \tan^2 A}$$

(dividing numerator and denominator by $\cos^2 A$)

$$\cos 2A = \frac{1 - \tan^2 A}{1 + \tan^2 A}$$

(e) To find the Trigonometrical formulae of

$$3A \sin 3A = \sin (2A + A)$$

$$= \sin 2A \cos A + \cos 2A \sin A$$

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

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

$$= 3 \sin A - 4 \sin^3 A$$

$$\text{Again, } \cos 3A = \cos (2A + A)$$

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

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

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

$$= 4 \cos^3 A - 3 \cos A$$

$$\text{Also } \tan 3A = \tan (2A + A)$$

$$\frac{\tan 2A + \tan A}{1 - \tan 2A \tan A}$$

$$= \frac{\tan 2A + \tan A}{1 - \tan 2A \tan A}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A} + \tan A}{1 - \frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A} \cdot \tan A}$$

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

$$= \frac{3 \tan A - \tan^3 A}{1 - 3 \tan^2 A}, \text{ provided } 3 \tan^2 A \neq 1$$

$$\text{1 i.e., } \tan A \neq \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$$

(f) Submultiple Angles:

To express trigonometric ratios of A in terms of ratios of $A/2$

$$\sin 2q = 2 \sin q \cos q \text{ (true for all value of } q)$$

$$\text{Let } 2q = A \text{ i.e., } q = \frac{A}{2}$$

$$\sin A = 2 \sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{A}{2} \quad \dots (i)$$

$$\cos 2q = \cos^2 q - \sin^2 q$$

$$\text{or } \cos A = \cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{A}{2} \quad \dots (ii)$$

$$\cos A = 2 \cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - 1 = 1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{A}{2} \quad \dots (iii)$$

Also, $\tan 2A = \frac{2 \tan A}{1 - \tan^2 A}$

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

p

[Where $A^{1/2} = \frac{A}{2}, (n \in I)$ and $A^{1/2} = \frac{A}{2}$]

Again, $\sin A = \frac{2 \sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{A}{2}}{1 - \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}} = \frac{2 \sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{A}{2}}{\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} + \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}$

2
A

[dividing numerator and denominator by $\cos^2 \frac{A}{2}$]

$$\sin A = \frac{2 \tan \frac{A}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}}$$

[where $A^{1/2} = \frac{A}{2}, n \in I$]

$$\cos A = \frac{\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}{\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} + \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}$$

Similarly, $\cos A = \frac{\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}{\cos^2 \frac{A}{2} + \sin^2 \frac{A}{2}}$

2

Now dividing numerator and denominator by $\cos^2 \frac{A}{2}$

$$\cos A = \frac{1 - \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{A}{2}} \text{ [where } A^{1/2} = \frac{A}{2}, n \in I \text{].}$$

Example-1: Find the values of

(i) $\cos 22\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ (ii) $\sin 15^\circ$

2

Solution: (i) We have $\cos \frac{A}{2} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos A}{2}}$, putting $A = 45^\circ$

$$\cos 22\frac{1}{2}^\circ = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos 45^\circ}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}{2}} = \sqrt{\frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{2\sqrt{2}}}$$

(ii) $\sin 15^\circ = \sin(45^\circ - 30^\circ)$
 $= \sin 45^\circ \cos 30^\circ - \cos 45^\circ \sin 30^\circ$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{3} - 1}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

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Example-2: Prove that $\sin A \cdot \sin(60^\circ - A) \cdot \sin(60^\circ + A) = \frac{1}{4} \sin 3A$

Solution: $\sin A \cdot \sin(60^\circ - A) \sin(60^\circ + A)$
 $= \sin A \cdot (\sin^2 60^\circ - \sin^2 A) \quad [Q \sin(A+B) \cdot \sin(A-B) = \sin^2 A - \sin^2 B]$
 $= \sin A \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4} - \sin^2 A \right)$
 $= \frac{3}{4} \sin A - \sin^3 A$
 $= \frac{1}{4} \sin 3A$

Example-3: Prove that $\sin 20^\circ \cdot \sin 40^\circ \cdot \sin 60^\circ \cdot \sin 80^\circ = \frac{3}{16}$

Solution: $\sin 60^\circ \cdot \sin 20^\circ \cdot \sin 40^\circ \cdot \sin 80^\circ$
 $= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} [\sin A \cdot \sin(60^\circ - A) \cdot \sin(60^\circ + A)] \text{ where } A = 20^\circ$
 $= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} \sin 3A = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{8} \sin 60^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{8} \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{3}{16}$

Example-4: If $A + B + C = \pi$ and $\cos A = \cos B \cdot \cos C$, show that $\tan B + \tan C = \tan A$

Solution: L.H.S. $= \tan B + \tan C$
 $= \frac{\sin B}{\cos B} + \frac{\sin C}{\cos C} = \frac{\sin B \cdot \cos C + \cos B \cdot \sin C}{\cos B \cdot \cos C}$
 $= \frac{\sin(B+C)}{\cos B \cdot \cos C} = \frac{\sin(\pi - A)}{\cos B \cdot \cos C} = \frac{\sin A}{\cos B \cdot \cos C} = \tan A = \text{R.H.S. (Proved)}$

Examples-5: Prove the followings

(a) $\cot 7\frac{1}{2}^\circ = \frac{1 + \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{3} - 1}$
 (b) $\tan 37\frac{1}{2}^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{6} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{6} - \sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3}}$

Solution: (a) We know $\cot \frac{q}{2} = \frac{1 + \cos q}{\sin q}$ (Choosing $q = 15^\circ$)

$$= \cot 7\frac{1}{2}^\circ = \frac{1 + \cos 15^\circ}{\sin 15^\circ}$$

$$= \frac{1 + \frac{\sqrt{3} + 1}{2}}{\frac{\sqrt{3} - 1}{2}} = \frac{2 + \sqrt{3} + 1}{\sqrt{3} - 1} = \frac{3 + \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{3} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{(3 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{3} + 1)}{(\sqrt{3} - 1)(\sqrt{3} + 1)} = \frac{\sqrt{3} + 3 + \sqrt{3} + 3}{3 - 1} = \frac{2\sqrt{3} + 6}{2} = \sqrt{3} + 3$$

(b) We know $\tan \frac{q}{2} = \frac{\sin q}{1 + \cos q} = \frac{1 - \cos q}{\sin q}$ (Choosing $q = 75^\circ$)

$$\tan 37\frac{1}{2}^\circ = \frac{1 - \cos 75^\circ}{\sin 75^\circ} = \frac{1 - \cos(90^\circ - 15^\circ)}{\sin(90^\circ - 15^\circ)}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \sin 15^\circ}{\cos 15^\circ} = \frac{1 - \frac{\sqrt{3}-1}{2\sqrt{2}}}{\frac{\sqrt{3}+1}{2\sqrt{2}}} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}-\sqrt{3}+1}{\sqrt{3}+1}$$

$$= \frac{(\sqrt{2}-\sqrt{3}+1)(\sqrt{3}-1)}{(\sqrt{3}+1)(\sqrt{3}-1)} = \sqrt{6} + \sqrt{3} - 2$$

Example- 6: If $\sin A = K \sin B$, prove that $\tan \frac{A-B}{2} = \frac{K-1}{K+1} \tan \frac{A+B}{2}$
Solution: Given $\sin A = K \sin B$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin A}{\sin B} &= K \\ \text{Using componendo & dividendo} \\ \frac{\sin A + \sin B}{\sin A - \sin B} &= \frac{K+1}{K-1} \\ \frac{2 \sin \frac{A+B}{2} \cos \frac{A-B}{2}}{2 \cos \frac{A+B}{2} \sin \frac{A-B}{2}} &= \frac{K+1}{K-1} \\ \tan \frac{A+B}{2} \cdot \cot \frac{A-B}{2} &= \frac{K+1}{K-1} \\ \tan \frac{A+B}{2} &= \frac{K+1}{K-1} \cdot \tan \frac{A-B}{2} \\ \tan \frac{A-B}{2} &= \frac{K-1}{K+1} \tan \frac{A+B}{2} \\ \therefore \text{L.H.S.} &= \text{R.H.S. (Proved)} \end{aligned}$$

Example-7: If $(1-e) \tan^2 \frac{\beta}{2} = (1+e) \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}$, Prove that $\cos b = 1 - e \cos a$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution: } (1-e) \tan^2 \frac{\beta}{2} &= (1+e) \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2} \text{ (Given)} \\ \tan^2 \frac{\beta}{2} &= \frac{1+e}{1-e} \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2} \\ \text{L.H.S.} &= \cos b \\ \frac{1 - \tan^2 \frac{\beta}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\beta}{2}} &= \frac{1 - \frac{1+e}{1-e} \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1 + \frac{1+e}{1-e} \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1-e - (1+e) \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1-e + (1+e) \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1 - e \cos a}{1 + e \cos a} \end{aligned}$$

Engineering Mathematics-I

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1 - e^{-\tan \frac{2\alpha}{2}}}{1 + e^{\tan \frac{2\alpha}{2}}} = \frac{1 - e^{-\tan \alpha}}{1 + e^{\tan \alpha}} \\
 &= \frac{1 - \tan \frac{2\alpha}{2}}{1 + \tan \frac{2\alpha}{2}} e^{-\frac{2\alpha}{2}} = \frac{1 - \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}} e^{-\alpha} \\
 &= \frac{1 - \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\alpha}{2}} e^{-\alpha} = \frac{\cos \alpha - e^{-\alpha}}{1 - e \cos \alpha} = \text{R.H.S. (Proved)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example- 8: If $A + B + C = p$, then Prove the following

(i) $\sin 2A + \sin 2B + \sin 2C = 4 \sin A \cdot \sin B \cdot \sin C$

Solution: L.H.S. = $\sin 2A + \sin 2B + \sin 2C$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2 \sin(A + B) \cdot \cos(A - B) + 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin(p - C) \cdot \cos(A - B) + 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin C \cdot \cos(A - B) + 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin C [\cos(A - B) + \cos C] \\
 &= 2 \sin C [\cos(A - B) - \cos(A + B)] \\
 &= 2 \sin C \cdot 2 \sin A \cdot \sin B \\
 &= 4 \sin A \cdot \sin B \cdot \sin C \quad \text{R.H.S. (Proved)}
 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) $\sin 2A + \sin 2B - \sin 2C = 4 \cos A \cdot \cos B \cdot \sin C$

Solution: L.H.S. = $\sin 2A + \sin 2B - \sin 2C$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2 \sin(A + B) \cdot \cos(A - B) - 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin(p - C) \cdot \cos(A - B) - 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin C \cdot \cos(A - B) - 2 \sin C \cdot \cos C \\
 &= 2 \sin C [\cos(A - B) - \cos\{p - (A + B)\}] \\
 &= 2 \sin C \{\cos(A - B) + \cos(A + B)\} \\
 &= 2 \sin C \cdot 2 \cos \frac{A - B + A + B}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{A - B - A - B}{2} \\
 &= 4 \sin C \cdot \cos A \cdot \cos B
 \end{aligned}$$

(iii) $\sin A + \sin B - \sin C = 4 \sin \frac{A}{2} \cos \frac{B}{2} \sin \frac{C}{2}$

Solution: L.H.S. = $\sin A + \sin B - \sin C$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 2 \sin \frac{A + B}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{A - B}{2} - 2 \sin \frac{C}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{C}{2} \\
 &= 2 \cos \frac{C}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{A - B}{2} - 2 \sin \frac{C}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{C}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

FUNCTION AND LIMIT

Lets discuss what a function is

A function is basically a rule which associates an element with another element.

There are different rules that govern different phenomena or happenings in our day to day life.

For example,

- i. Water flows from a higher altitude to a lower altitude
- ii. Heat flows from higher temperature to a lower temperature.
- iii. External force results in change of state of a body (Newton's 1st Rule of motion) etc.

All these rules associate an event or element to another event or element, say, x with y .

Mathematically we write,

$$y = f(x)$$

i.e. given the value of x we can determine the value of y by applying the rule ' f '

for example,

$$y = x + 1$$

i.e. we calculate the value of y by adding 1 to the value of x . This is the rule or function we are discussing.

Since we say a function associates two elements, x and y we can think of two sets A and B such that x is taken from set A and y is taken from set B .

Symbolically we write

$$x \in A \quad (x \text{ belongs to } A)$$

$y \in B$ (x belongs to B)

$y = f(x)$ can also be written as

$(x, y) \in f$

Since (x, y) represents a pair of elements we can think of these in relations $f \subseteq A \times B$ or

f can be thought of as a subset of the product of sets A and B we have earlier referred to.

And, therefore, the elements of f are pairs of elements like (x, y) .

In the discussion of a function we must consider all the elements of set A and see that no x is associated with two different values of y in the set B

What is domain of function

Since function associates elements x of A to elements y of B and function must take care of all the elements of set A we call the set A as domain of the function. We must take note of the fact that if the function cannot be defined for some elements of set A , the domain of the function will be a subset of A .

Example 1

Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, -1, 0, -4\}$

$B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, -1, -2, -3\}$

The function is given by y

$$= f(x) = x + 1$$

for $x=1, y=2$

$x=2, y=3$

$x=3, y=4$

$x=4, y=5$

$$x=-1, y=0$$

$$x=0, y=1$$

$$x=-4, y=-3$$

clearly $y=5$ and $y=-3$ do not belong to set B. therefore we say the domain of this function is

the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3, -1\}$ which is a subset of set A. What is

range of a function

Range of the function is the set of all y 's whose values are calculated by taking all the values of x in the domain of the function. Since the domain of the function is either equal to A or subset of set A, range of the function is either equal to set B or sub set of set B.

In the earlier example,

Range of function is the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 0\}$ which is a subset of set B

SOME FUNDAMENTAL FUNCTIONS

Constant Function

$$Y=f(x)=K, \text{ for all } x$$

The rule here is: the value of y is always k , irrespective of the value of x

This is a very simple rule in the sense that evaluation of the value of y is not required as it is already given as k

Domain of ' f ' is set of all real numbers

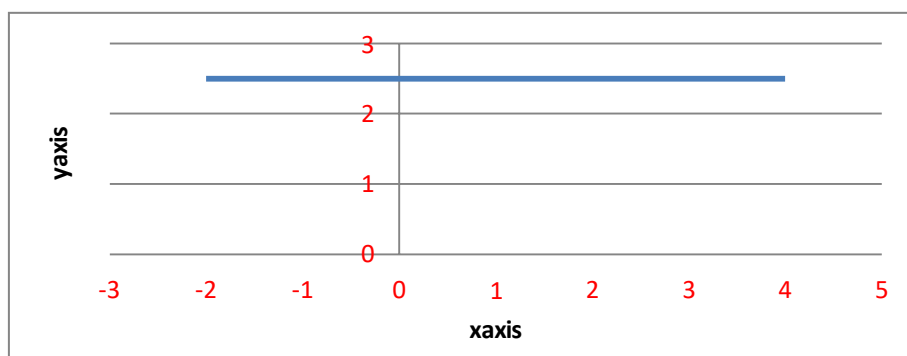
Range of ' f ' is the singleton set containing ' k ' alone. Or

Dom = $\mathbb{R}$, set of all real numbers Range =

$\{k\}$

Graph of Constant Function

$$L_{et}y=f(x)=k=2.5$$



The graph is a line parallel to the x-axis.

Identity Function

$$Y=f(x)=x, \text{ for all } x$$

The rule here is: the value of y is always equal to x .

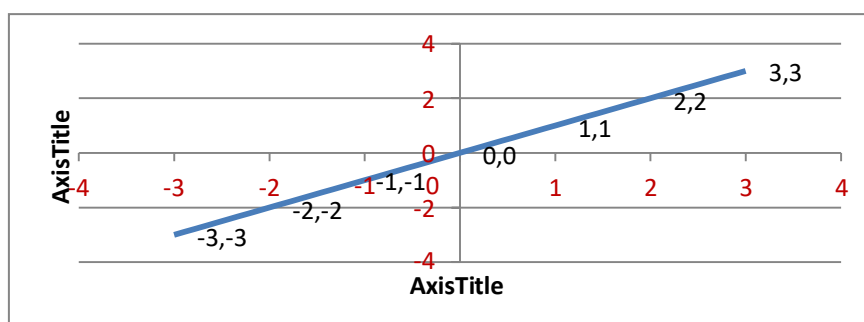
This is also a very simple rule in the sense that the value of y is identical with the value of x saving our time to calculate the value of y .

$$\text{Dom} = \mathbb{R}$$

$$\text{Range} = \mathbb{R}$$

i.e. Domain of the function is same as Range of the function

Graph of Identity Function



Modulus Function

n

$$y=f(x)=|x|=\begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \\ -x, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The rule here is: the value of y is always equal to the numerical value of x , not taking in to consideration the sign of x .

Example

$$Y=f(2)=2$$

$$Y=f(0)=0$$

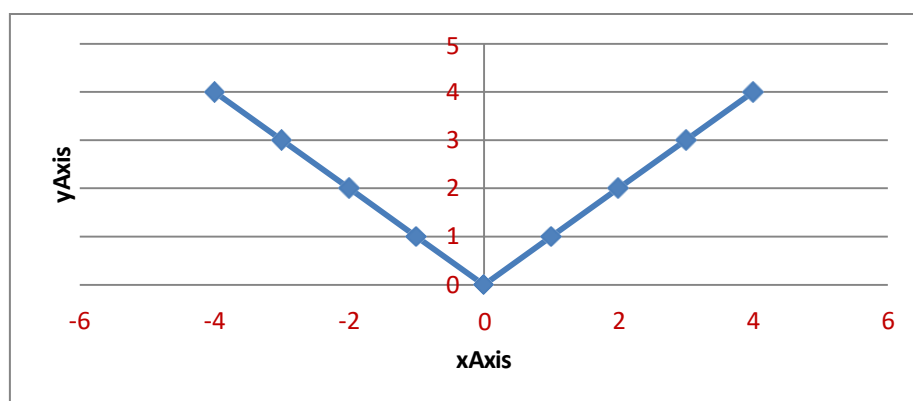
$$Y=f(-3)=3$$

This function is usually useful in dealing with values which are always positive for example, length, area etc.

Dom= $\mathbb{R}$

Range= $\mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\}$

Graph of Modulus Function



Signum Function

n

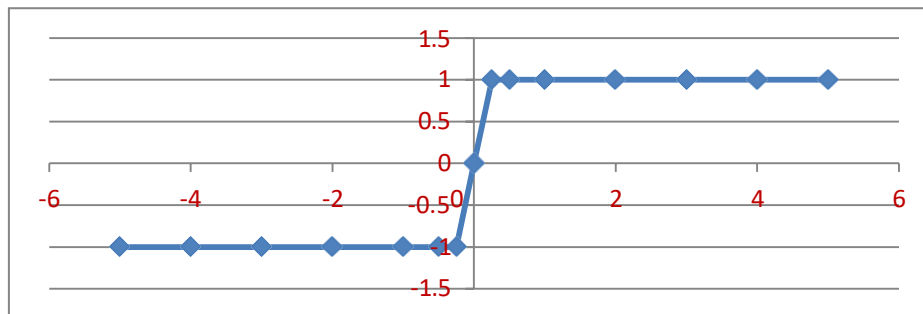
$$y=f(x)=\begin{cases} |x|, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \\ -1, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

This is also a very simple rule in the sense that the value of y is 1 if x is positive, 0 when $x=0$, and -1 when x is negative.

Dom= $\mathbb{R}$

Range= $\{-1, 0, 1\}$

Graph of Signum Function



Greatest Integer Function

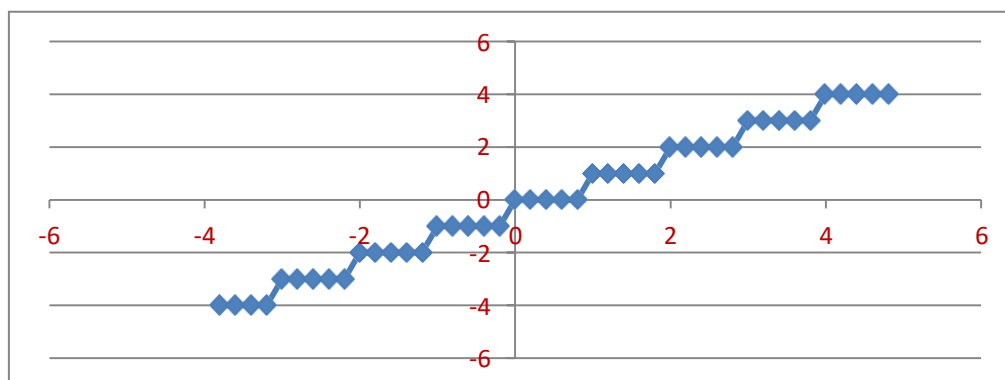
$$y = f(x) = [x] = \text{greatest integer } \leq x$$

For Example $[0] = 0, [0.2] = 0, [2.5] = 2, [-3.8] = -4, \text{etc.}$

Dom= $\mathbb{R}$

Range= $\mathbb{Z}$ (set of all integers)

Graph of The function



Exponential Function

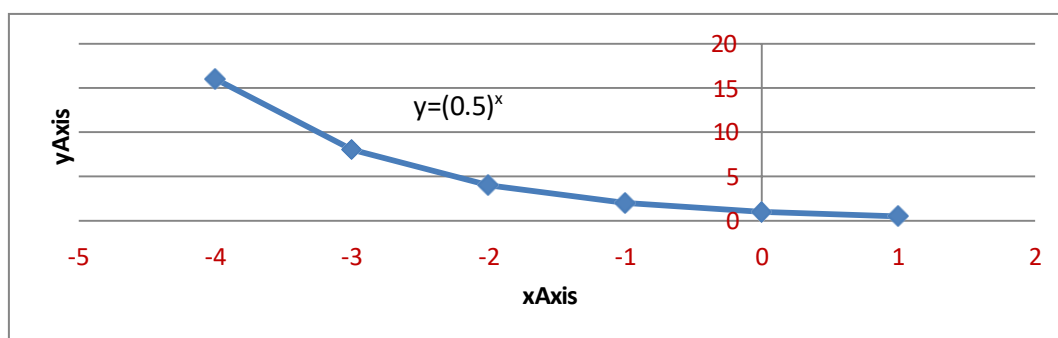
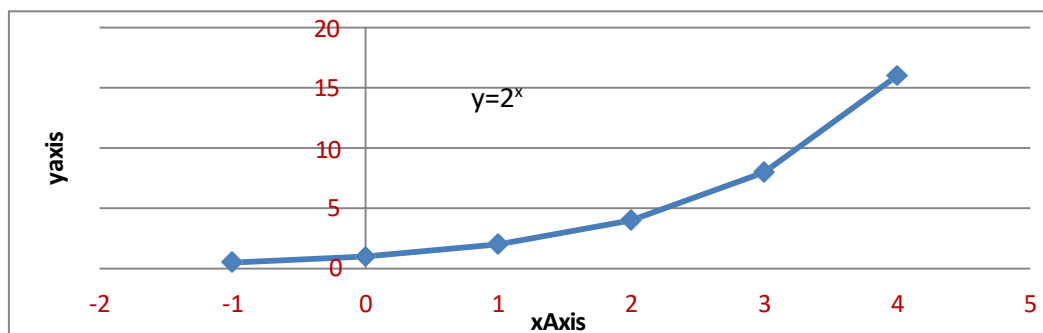
$$y = f(x) = a^x \text{ where } a > 0$$

Dom= $\mathbb{R}$

Range= $\mathbb{R}^+$

The specialty of the function is that whatever the value of x , y can never be 0 or negative

Graph of Exponential Function



Logarithmic Function

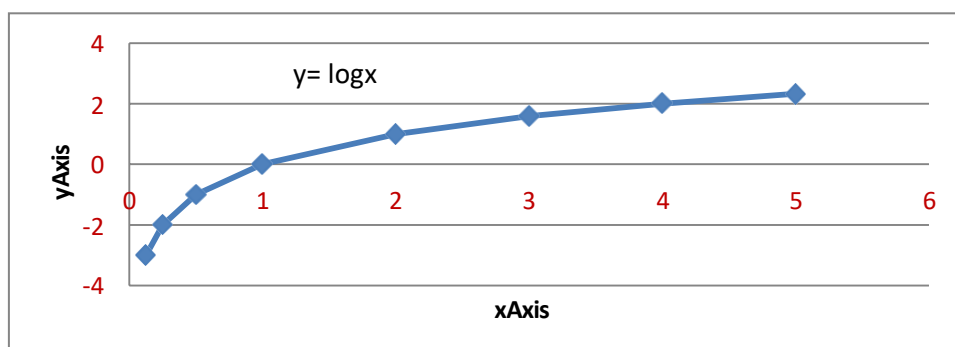
n

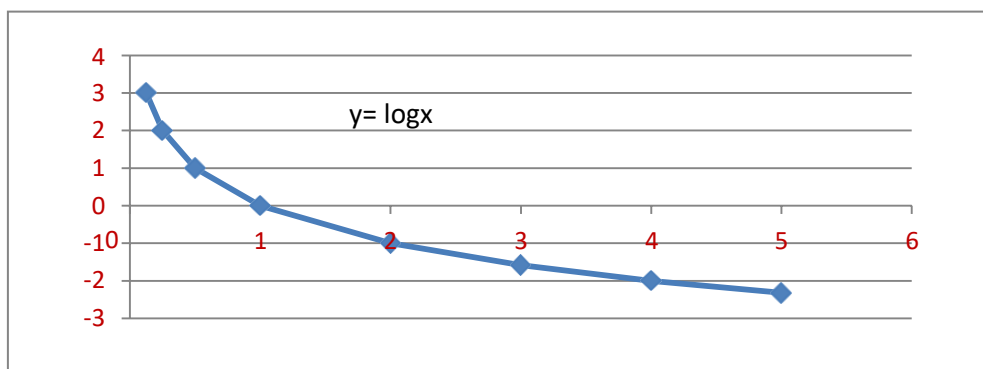
$$y = f(x) = \log_a x$$

Dom= $\mathbb{R}^+$ Range

=

Graph of Logarithmic Function





LIMIT OF A FUNCTION

Consider the function y

$$y = 2x + 1$$

Let's see what happens to the value of y as the value of x changes.

Let's take the values of x close to the value of, say, 2. Now when we say value of x close to 2, it can be a value like 2.1 or 1.9. In one case it is close to 2 but greater than 2 and in other it is close to 2 but less than 2. Now consider a sequence of such numbers slightly greater than 2 and slightly less than 2 and accordingly calculate the value of y in each case.

Look at the table

x	$y = 2x + 1$
1.9	4.8
1.91	4.82
1.92	4.84
1.93	4.86
1.94	4.88
1.95	4.9
1.96	4.92
1.97	4.94
1.98	4.96
1.99	4.98
2.01	5.02
2.02	5.04
2.03	5.06
2.04	5.08
2.05	5.1
2.06	5.12
2.07	5.14
2.08	5.16
2.09	5.18
2.1	5.2

We see in the tabulated value that

as x is approaching the value of 2 from either side, the value of y is approaching the value of 5

in other words we say,

$y \rightarrow 5$ (as $x \rightarrow 2$) or

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} y = 5$$

INFINITE LIMIT

As $x \rightarrow a$ for some finite value of a , if the value of y is greater than any positive number however large then we say

$y \rightarrow \infty$ (as $x \rightarrow a$)

In other words y is said to have an infinite limit as $x \rightarrow a$. And we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} y = \infty$$

Example

If

$$y = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y = \infty$$

Since $x \rightarrow 0$, $x^2 \rightarrow 0$ and x^2 is positive,

$\frac{1}{x^2}$ becomes very very large and is positive. Therefore the result.

Similarly,

As $x \rightarrow a$ for some finite value of a , if the value of y is less than any negative number however large then we say

$y \rightarrow -\infty$ (as $x \rightarrow a$)

In other words y is said to have an infinite limit as $x \rightarrow a$. And we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} y = -\infty$$

Example

If

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

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y = -\infty$$

Since $x \rightarrow 0$, $x^2 \rightarrow 0$ and x^2 is positive,

$-\frac{1}{x^2}$ becomes very very large and is negative. Therefore the result.

LIMIT AT INFINITY

As x becomes very very large or in other words the value of x is greater than a very large positive number, i.e. $x \rightarrow \infty$, if value of y is close to a finite value ' a ', then we say y has a finite limit ' a ' at infinity and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y = a$$

Example

$$Let y = \frac{1}{x}$$

As $x \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{1}{x}$ becomes very very small and approaches the value 0. Therefore we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y = 0$$

similarly

As x becomes very very large with a negative sign or in other words the value of x is less than a very large negative number, i.e. $x \rightarrow -\infty$, if value of y is close to a finite value 'a', then we say y has a finite limit 'a' at infinity and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} y = a$$

Example

$$\text{Let } y = \frac{1}{x}$$

As $x \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{1}{x}$ becomes very very small and approaches the value 0. Therefore we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y = 0$$

ALGEBRA OF LIMITS

1. Limit of sum of two functions is sum of their individual limits Let

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = m$ and let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = n$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = m + n$$

2. Limit of product of two functions is product of their individual limits Let

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = m$ and let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = n$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \times g(x)) = m \times n$$

3. Limit of quotient of two functions is quotient of their individual limits

Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = m$ and let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = n \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{m}{n}$$

SOME STANDARD LIMITS

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} P(x) = P(a)$ where $P(x)$ is polynomial in x

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x^2 + 3x + 1) = 2 \times 1^2 + 3 \times 1 + 1 = 6$$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x^n - a^n}{x - a} = na^{n-1}$ where n is a rational number

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x^2 - a^2}{x - a} = 2a^{2-1} = 2a$$

3. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = e,$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^n = e^k,$

4. $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} (1 + n)^{\frac{1}{n}} = e$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} (1 + n)^{\frac{k}{n}} = e^k$

5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{a^x - 1}{x}\right) = \ln a$

Example

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{2^x - 1}{x}\right) = \ln 2$

6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log_a(1+x)}{x} = \log_a e$

Example

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = \ln e = 1$

SOME STANDARD TRIGONOMETRIC LIMITS

$$1. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$$

$$2. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1$$

$$3. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \tan x = 0$$

$$4. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1, \quad \text{here } x \rightarrow 0 \text{ through radian values}$$

$$5. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x^\circ}{x} = \frac{\pi}{180}$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin mx}{\sin nx} = \frac{m}{n}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin mx}{\sin nx} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin mx}{mx} \times \frac{nx}{\sin nx} \times \frac{m}{n} \\ &= 1 \times 1 \times \frac{m}{n} = \frac{m}{n} \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 3x + 5}{3x^2 + 2x + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 + \frac{3}{x} + \frac{5}{x^2}}{3 + \frac{2}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n}{n^2} \\ = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n+1)}{2 \times n^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n^2 + n)}{2 \times n^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1 + \frac{1}{n})}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x)}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}}{x^2} = \frac{\sin^2 x}{2 \frac{x^2}{4}} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \frac{x}{2}}{\frac{x}{2}} \right) \times \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \frac{x}{2}}{\frac{x}{2}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times 1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

Existence of Limits

When we say x tends to 'a' or write $x \rightarrow a$ it can happen in two different ways

x can approach 'a' through values greater than 'a' i.e. from right side of 'a' on the Number Line

Or

x can approach 'a' through values smaller than 'a' i.e. from left side of 'a' on the Number Line

The first case is called the Right Hand Limit and the later case is called the Left Hand Limit.

We, therefore conclude that Limit will exist iff the right Hand Limit and the Left Hand Limit both exist and are EQUAL

Consider the Greatest Integer Function

$$y = f(x) = [x]$$

Consider the limit of this function as $x \rightarrow 1$

The right hand limit of this function

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1+} [x] = 1$$

Since if the value of x is greater than 1 for example $1+h$, $h > 0$, then the greatest integer less than equal to $1+h$ is 1

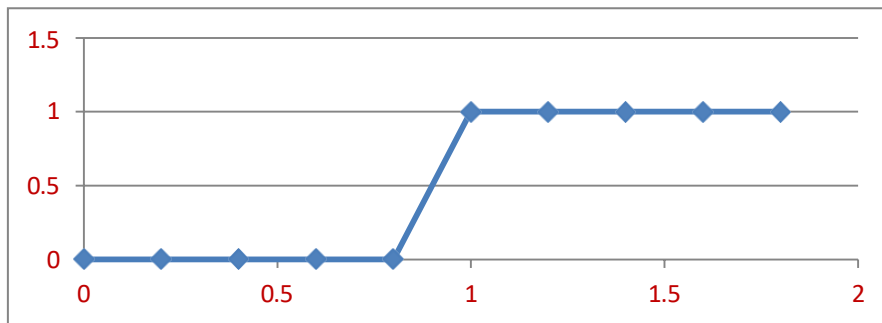
The left hand limit of this function

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1-} [x] = 0$$

Since if the value of x is less than 1 for example $1-h, h > 0$, then the greatest integer less than or equal to $1-h$ is 0

In this case the right hand limit and the left hand limit are not equal And

therefore the limit of this function as $x \rightarrow 1$ does not exist



For that matter this function does not allow limit as $x \rightarrow n$

Since the right hand limit will be always n and the left hand limit will be $n-1$.

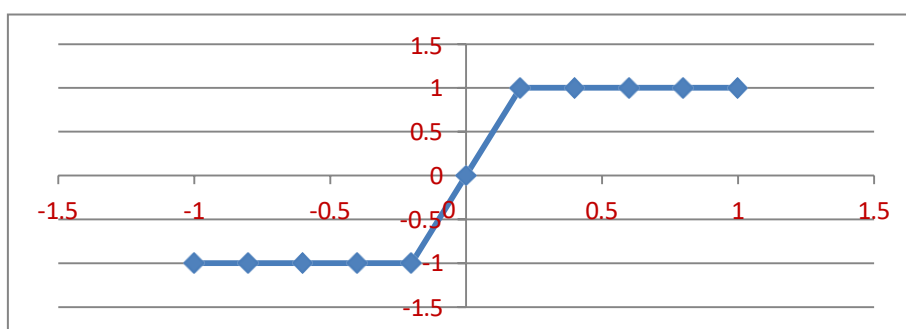
Consider the Signum Function

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

Consider the limit of this function as $x \rightarrow 0$

The right hand limit of this function is 1 and the left hand limit of this function is -1 as evident from the definition of the function and concept of right and left hand limits

Therefore this function does not have a limit as $x \rightarrow 0$



Differentiation

A function $f(x)$ is said to be differentiable at a point $x=c$ iff

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \quad \text{exists}$$

In general, a function is differentiable iff

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \quad \text{exists}$$

Once this limit exists, it is called the differential coefficient of $f(x)$ or the derivative of the function $f(x)$ at $x=c$

Or

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} = f'(c)$$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = f'(x)$$

Where $f'(c)$ and $f'(x)$ are the differential coefficient or the derivative of the function, the first being defined at $x=c$

Examples

Consider the function

$$y = f(x) = k \text{ or the constant function}$$

In this case the differential coefficient $f'(x)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+\delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{k - k}{\delta x} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the constant function is differentiable everywhere and the derivative is zero

Consider the function

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

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \delta x)^2 - x^2}{(x + \delta x) - x} \\ &= 2x \end{aligned}$$

Consider the function

$$y = f(x) = \sin x$$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x + \delta x) - \sin x}{\delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cos\left(\frac{x + \delta x + x}{2}\right) \times \sin\left(\frac{x + \delta x - x}{2}\right)}{\delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos\left(\frac{x + \delta x + x}{2}\right) \times \sin\left(\frac{x + \delta x - x}{2}\right)}{\frac{\delta x}{2}} \\ &= \frac{\cos\left(\frac{x + \delta x + x}{2}\right) \times \sin\left(\frac{\delta x}{2}\right)}{\frac{\delta x}{2}} \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \cos\left(x + \frac{\delta x}{2}\right) \times 1 \\ &= \cos x \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$y = f(x) = \sin x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$$

Algebra of derivatives

Consider two differentiable functions $u(x)$ and $v(x)$. Let

$$y = u + v$$

Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} + \frac{dv}{dx}$$

Let

$$y = u \times v$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

Let

$$y = \frac{u}{v}, \quad v \neq 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$$

Example

1

$$y = \sin x + x^3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x + 3x^2$$

2

$$y = x^2 \cos x$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= x^2(-\sin x) + \cos x(2x) \\ &= -x^2 \sin x + 2x \cos x\end{aligned}$$

3

$$y = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\cos x \cos x - \sin x(-\sin x)}{(\cos x)^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(\cos x)^2 + (\sin x)^2 (\cos x)^2}{(\cos x)^2}$$

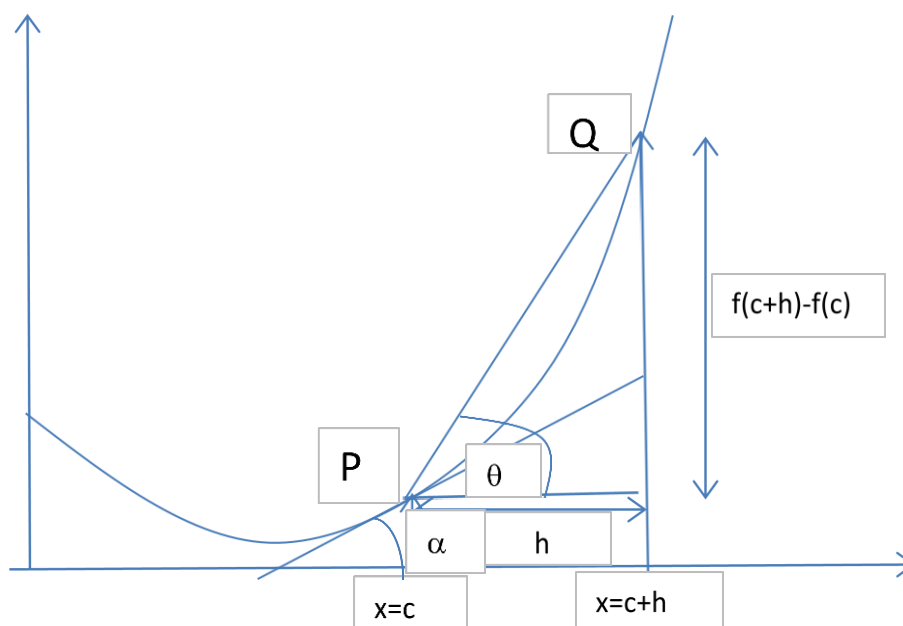
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(\cos x)^2 + (\sin x)^2 (\cos x)^2}{(\cos x)^2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{(\cos x)^2} = (\sec x)^2$$

Geometrical meaning of $f'(c)$

Consider the graph of a function

$$y = f(x)$$



$$\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h}$$

Represents the ratio of height to base of the angle the line joining the point P(c, f(c)) and Q (c+h, f(c+h))

i.e

$$\frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} = \tan \theta$$

Where θ is the angle the line joining the point P and Q makes with the positive direction of x axis.

In the limiting case as $h \rightarrow 0$ i.e. as $Q \rightarrow P$ the line PQ becomes the tangent line and the angle θ becomes the angle α which the tangent line makes with the positive direction of x axis

i.e

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} = f'(c) = \tan \alpha = m (\text{the slope of the tangent})$$

Application to Geometry

To find the equation of the tangent line to the curve $y=f(x)$ at $x=x_0$

The equation of the line passing through the point $(x_0, f(x_0))$ is given by

$$y - f(x_0) = m(x - x_0)$$

Where 'm' is the slope of the tangent line.

As we have seen

$$m = f'(x_0)$$

The equation is therefore

$$y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

In the above example if we take

$$f(x) = x^2 \text{ and the point } x_0 = 1$$

The equation to the tangent at the point is given by

$$y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

Or

$$y - 1^2 = 2 \times 1(x - 1)$$

where

$$f(x_0) = x^2 = 1^2 \text{ and } f'(x_0) = 2 \times x_0 = 2 \times 1$$

i.e

the equation is

$$y - 1 = 2(x - 1)$$

Derivative as rate measurer

Remember the definition

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} = f'(c)$$

The quantity

$$\frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h}$$

measures the rate of change in $f(c)$ with respect to change in 'c'

Consider the linear motion of a particle given as

$$s = f(t)$$

Where 's' denotes the distance traversed and 't' denotes the time taken

The ratio

$$\frac{s}{t}$$

Denotes the **average velocity** of the particle

To calculate the local velocity or instantaneous velocity at a point of time $t = t_0$ we proceed in the following way

Consider an infinitesimal distance ' δs ' traversed from time $t=t_0$ in time ' δt '

The ratio

$$\frac{\delta s}{\delta t}$$

Still represents an average value of the velocity

The instantaneous velocity at $t=t_0$ can be calculated by considering the following limit

$$\lim_{\delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta s}{\delta t}$$

or

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt}$$

Where 'v' represents the instantaneous **velocity** which is defined as rate of change of displacement

Similarly, we can write the mathematical expression for **acceleration**

As

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt}$$

Or the rate of change of velocity

Example

If the motion of a particle is given by

$$s = f(t) = 2t + 5$$

Which is linear in nature, we can calculate velocity at $t=3$

$$v(t=3) = \frac{ds}{dt} = 2$$

It is clear that the velocity is independent of time 't'.

i.e

the above motion has constant or uniform velocity.

And, therefore, the acceleration

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt} = 0$$

Or the motion does not produce any acceleration. Consider

another motion of a particle given as

$$s = f(t) = 2t^2 + 3$$

Here the velocity at $t=3$ can be calculated as

$$v(t=3) = \frac{ds}{dt} = 4t = 4 \times 3 = 12$$

And the acceleration

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt} = 4$$

Therefore we can say that the motion is said to have constant or uniform acceleration

Derivatives of implicit function

Consider the equation of a circle

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

This is an implicit function

Let's differentiate this equation with respect to x throughout, we get

$$2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-x}{y}$$

Derivative of parametric function

The equation of a circle can also be written as

$$x = r \cos t$$

$$y = r \sin t$$

This is called a parametric function having parameter 't'

In this case

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dt}}{\frac{dx}{dt}} = \frac{r \cos t}{-r \sin t} = \frac{x}{-y} = \frac{-x}{y}$$

Derivative of function with respect to another function

Consider the functions

$$y = f(x)$$

$$z = g(x)$$

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

Example

Let

$$y = \sin(x)$$

$$z = x^3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \frac{\cos x}{3x^2}$$

Derivative of composite function

Consider the function

$$y = f(u) \text{ where } u = g(x)$$

Then y is called a composite function

In this case

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \times \frac{du}{dx}$$

This is called Chain Rule. This can be extended to any number of functions. Example

1. Let

$$y = \sin x^2$$

This can be written as

$$y = \sin u$$

And

$$u = x^2$$

Applying chain rule, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \times \frac{du}{dx} = \cos u \times 2x = 2x \cos x^2$$

2. Let

$$y = \tan e^{x^2}$$

This can be written as

$$y = \tan u$$

And

$$u = e^v$$

$$v = x^2$$

Applying chain rule, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \times \frac{du}{dv} \times \frac{dv}{dx} = \sec^2 u \times e^v \times 2x = \sec^2 e^{x^2} \times e^{x^2} \times 2x$$

Derivatives of inverse function

$$\text{since } \frac{\delta x}{\delta y} = \frac{1}{\frac{\delta y}{\delta x}}$$

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

As $\delta x \rightarrow 0$, δy also $\rightarrow 0$

Which follows from the fact that

$y = f(x)$ being a differentiable function is a continuous function

And the condition of continuity guarantees the above fact.

Derivative of inverse trigonometric function

Let

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

Where $y \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

This can be written as

$$x = \sin y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \cos y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y} = \frac{1}{\pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\pm \sqrt{1 - x^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Since $\cos y$ is positive in the domain

Let

$$y = \cos^{-1}x$$

Where $y \in (0, \pi)$

This can be written as

$$x = \cos y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\sin y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sin y} = \frac{-1}{\pm \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 y}} = \frac{-1}{\pm \sqrt{1 - x^2}} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Since $\sin y$ is positive in the domain

Let

$$y = \sec^{-1}x$$

Where $y \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi)$

This can be written as

$$x = \sec y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \sec y \times \tan y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec y \times \tan y} = \frac{1}{x \sqrt{\sec^2 y - 1}} = \frac{1}{x (\pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1})} = \frac{1}{|x| \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$$

Since $\sec y \times \tan y$ is positive in the domain

Let

$$y = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1}x$$

Where $y \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0) \cup (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$

This can be written as

$$x = \operatorname{cosec} y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\operatorname{cosec} y \times \cot y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\operatorname{cosec} y \times \cot y} = \frac{-1}{x \sqrt{(\operatorname{cosec}^2 y - 1)}} = \frac{-1}{x(\pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1})} = \frac{-1}{|x| \sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Since $\operatorname{cosec} y \times \cot y$ is positive in the domain

Let

$$y = \tan^{-1} x$$

This can be written as

$$x = \tan y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \sec^2 y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}$$

Let

$$y = \cot^{-1} x$$

This can be written as

$$x = \cot y$$

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\operatorname{cosec}^2 y$$

Or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\csc^2 y} = \frac{-1}{1 + \cot^2 y} = \frac{-1}{1 + x^2}$$

Higher order derivatives

Let

$$y = f(x)$$

Is differentiable and also

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$$

Is differentiable. Then we define

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right) &= \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = f''(x) \\ &= \\ &= \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x + \delta x) - f'(x)}{\delta x} \end{aligned}$$

This is the 2nd. Order derivative of the function

Similarly we can define higher order derivatives of the function Example

Let

$$y = f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2x + 1$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = f''(x) = 6x + 2$$

Consider the Function

$$y=f(x)=A\cos x+B\sin x$$

Here

$$\frac{dy}{dx}=f'(x)=-A\sin x+B\cos x$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}=f''(x)=-A\cos x-B\sin x=-y$$

i.e. in this case

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

Monotonic Function

Increasing function

Consider a function

$$y=f(x)$$

If $x_2 > x_1$ implies $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$

Then the function is increasing

Example

$$y=f(x)=x+1$$

$$f(2)=2+1=3$$

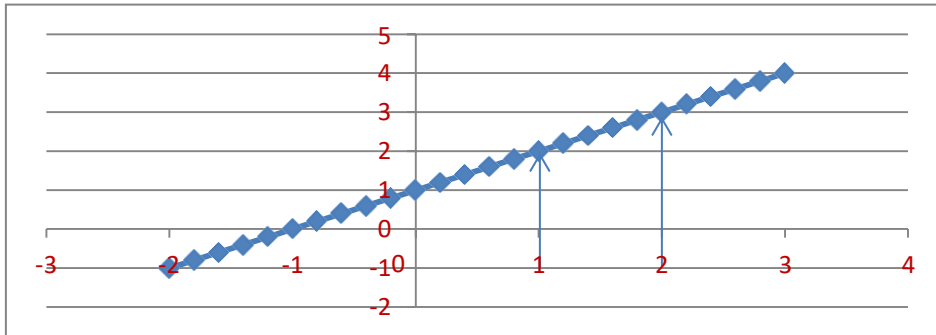
$$f(1)=1+1=2$$

Or

$$f(2) > f(1)$$

Therefore the function is increasing Graph

of the function



Decreasing function

Consider a function

$$y = f(x)$$

If $x_2 > x_1$ implies $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$

Then the function is decreasing

Consider the function

$$y = f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$f(2) = \frac{1}{2}$$

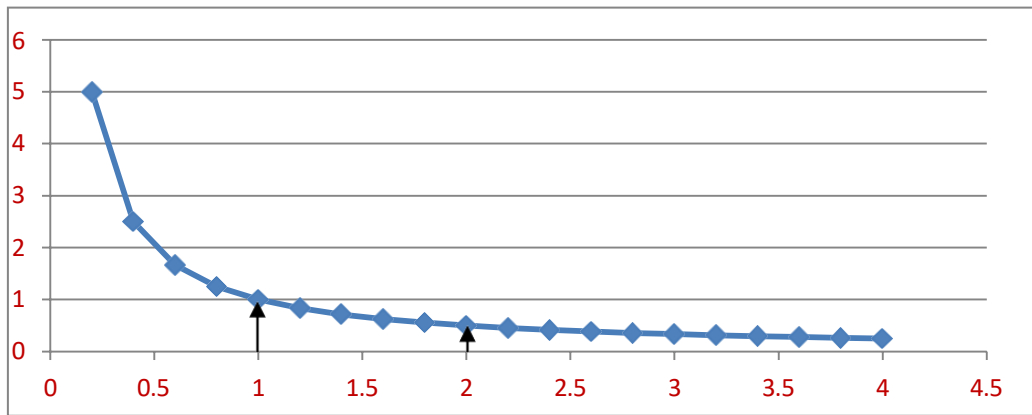
$$f(1) = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

Or

$$f(2) < f(1)$$

Therefore the function is decreasing

Graph of the function



A function either increasing or decreasing is called monotonic.

Derivative of Increasing Function

If $f(x)$ is increasing, then

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} > 0$$

i.e

for increasing function the derivative is always positive

Derivative of Decreasing Function

If $f(x)$ is decreasing, then

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \delta x) - f(x)}{\delta x} < 0$$

i.e

for decreasing function the derivative is always negative

example

let

$$y = f(x) = x + 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x) = 1 > 0$$

Therefore the function is increasing

Let

$$y = f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x) = \frac{-1}{x^2} < 0$$

Therefore the function is decreasing

Let

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

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x) = 2x$$

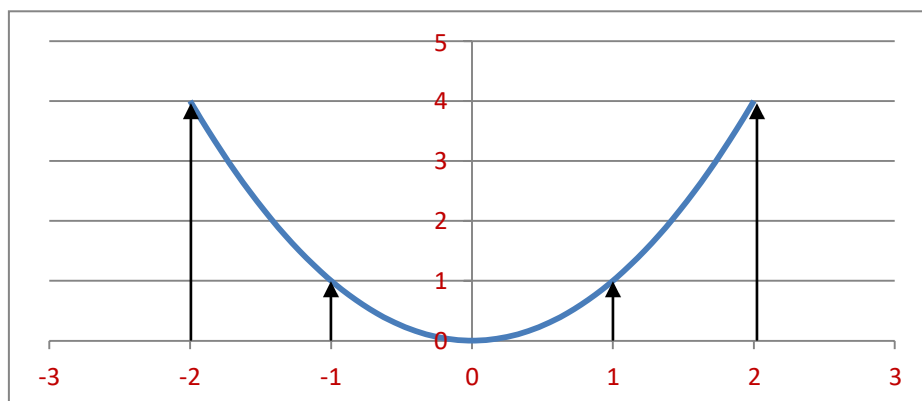
$$> 0 \text{ for } x > 0$$

$$< 0 \text{ for } x < 0$$

Therefore the function is increasing for $x > 0$ and decreasing for $x < 0$

Graph of the function

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



MAXIMA AND MINIMA OF A FUNCTION

Consider a function

$$y = f(x)$$

Consider the point $x = c$

If at this point

$$f(c) > f(c+h), \text{ where } |h| < \delta$$

Then $f(c)$ is called a local maximum or simply a maximum of the function

If at this point

$$f(c) < f(c+h), \text{ where } |h| < \delta$$

Then $f(c)$ is called a local minimum or simply a minimum

A function can have several local maximum values and several local minimum values in its domain and it is possible that a local minimum can be larger than a local maximum.

If $f(c)$ is a local maximum then the graph of the function in the domain

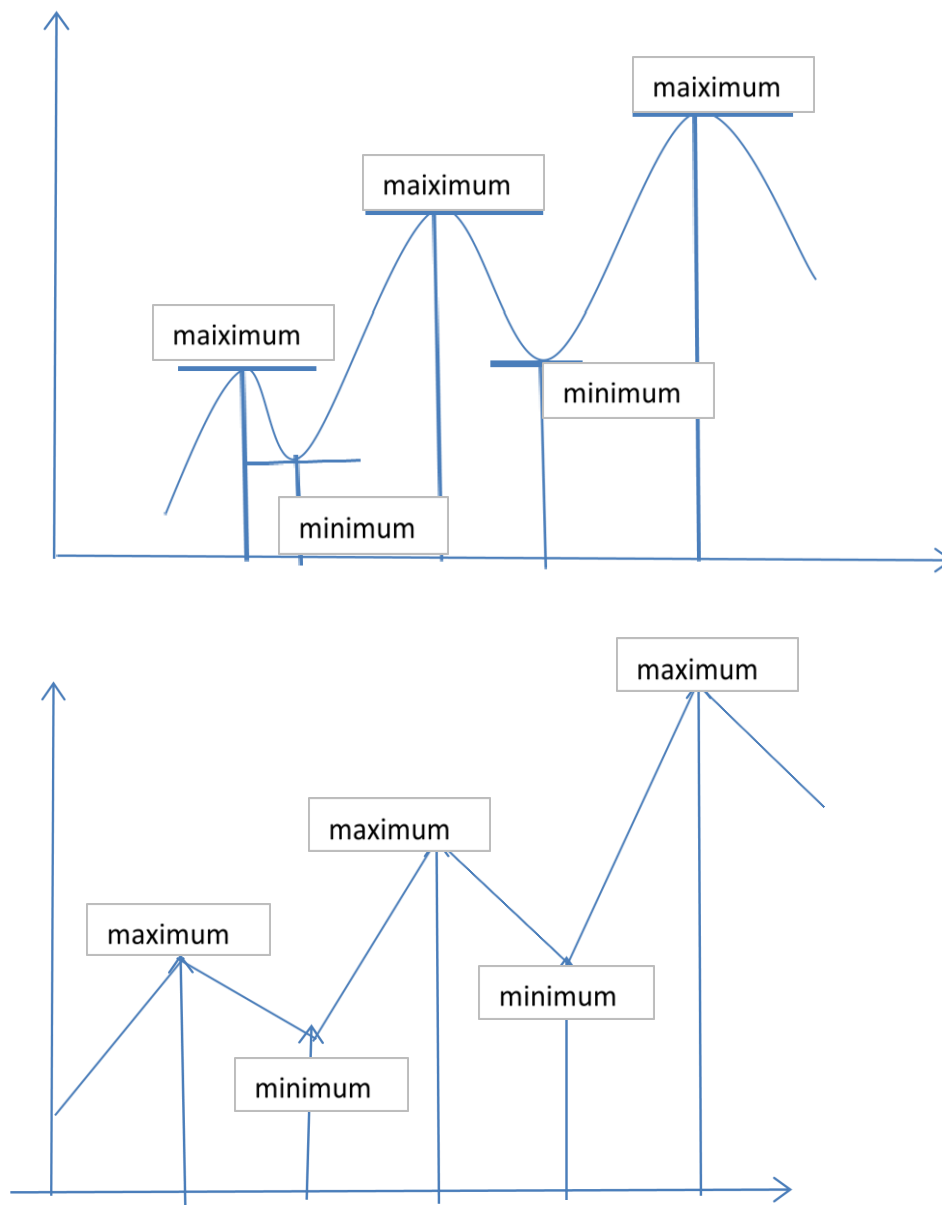
$$(c - \delta, c + \delta)$$

Will be concave downwards

If $f(c)$ is a local minimum then the graph of the function in the domain

$$(c - \delta, c + \delta)$$

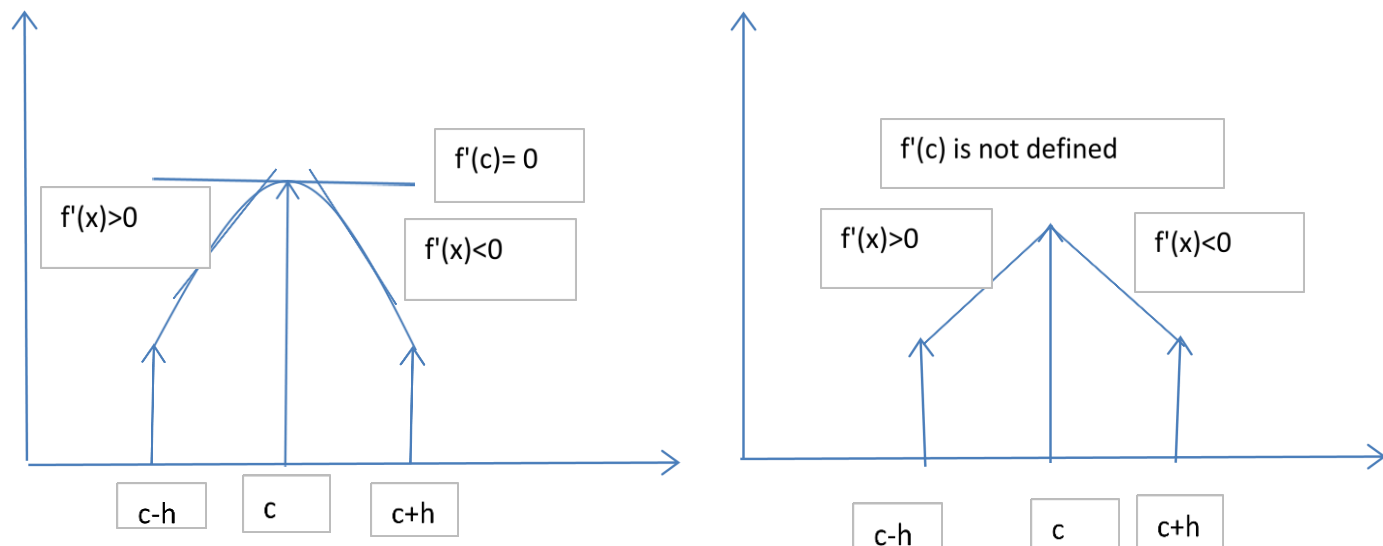
Will be concave upwards



MaximumCase

In other words at a point of local maximum the function is increasing on the left of the point and decreasing on the right of the point

Therefore the derivative of the function changes sign from positive to negative as it passes through $x=c$

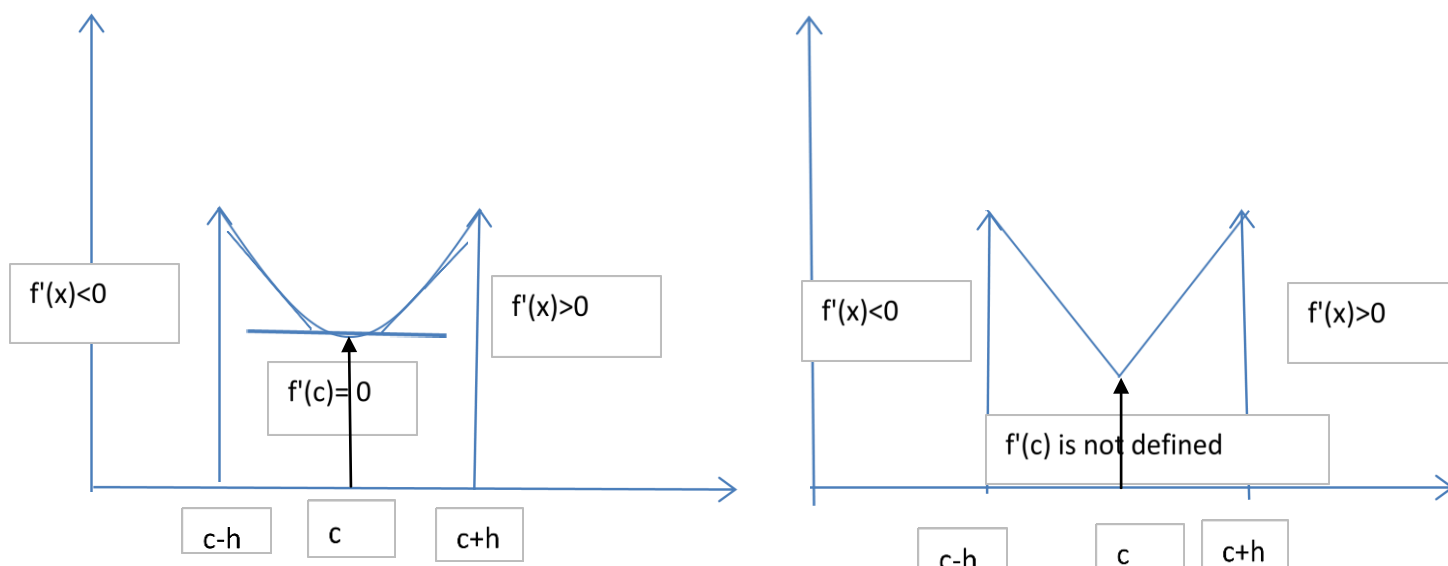


Therefore we conclude that the derivative of the function is a decreasing function and as such its derivative, the second order derivative, is negative

Minimum Case

At a point of local minimum the function is decreasing on the left of the point and increasing on the right of the point

Therefore the derivative of the function changes sign from negative to positive as it passes through $x=c$



Therefore we conclude that the derivative of the function is a increasing function and as such its derivative i.e. the second order derivative is positive

In either maximum or minimum case the 1st. derivative of the function is zero or is not defined at the point of maximum or minimum

The point $x=c$ where the derivative vanishes or does not exist at all is called a critical point or turning point or stationary point.

A function can have neither a maximum nor a minimum value Example

Consider the function

$$y=f(x)=x^3$$

Here

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

This vanishes at $x=0$

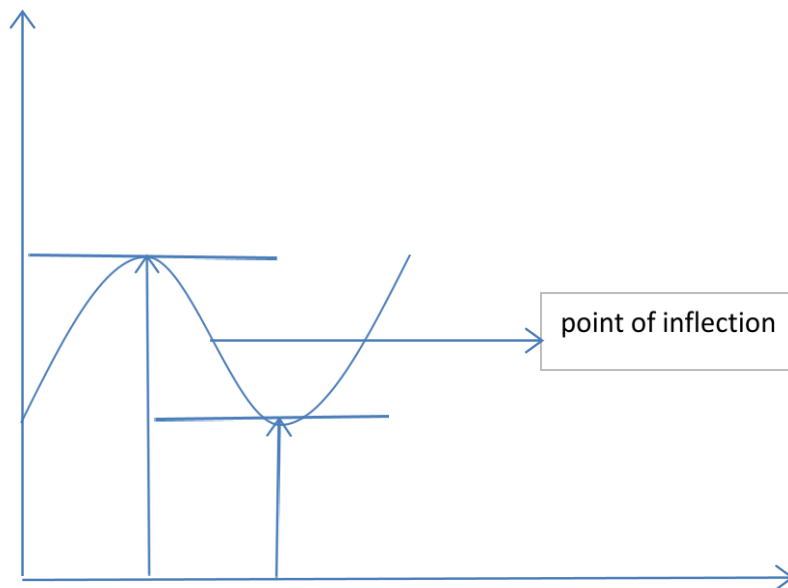
And

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

Which also vanishes

Therefore we may conclude that the function does not have maximum neither minimum value

Point of inflexion



If a curve is changing its nature from concave downwards to concave upwards as shown in the figure or vice versa, then at the point where this change occurs is called the point of inflexion. In other words on one side of the point of inflexion the curve is concave downward and on the other side the curve is concave upward or vice versa

In the above figure,

On the left side of point of inflexion a maximum value occurs and to the right side of point of inflexion a minimum value occurs.

In other words, remembering the condition of maximum and minimum, we can say,

The 2nd order derivative changes its sign from negative to positive as in the case given in the figure or vice versa.

In other words the point of inflexion is the point of either maximum or minimum of the 1st derivative of the function

Hence at the point of inflexion the 2nd. order derivative vanishes or is not defined and the 2nd. order derivative changes its sign as it passes through the point of inflexion

i.e. at the point of inflexion

1. $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = f''(x) = 0$ or is not defined
2. The 2nd. order derivative changes sign as it passes through the point

Example

Consider the function we discussed earlier

$$y = f(x) = x^3$$

Here

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

This vanishes at $x=0$

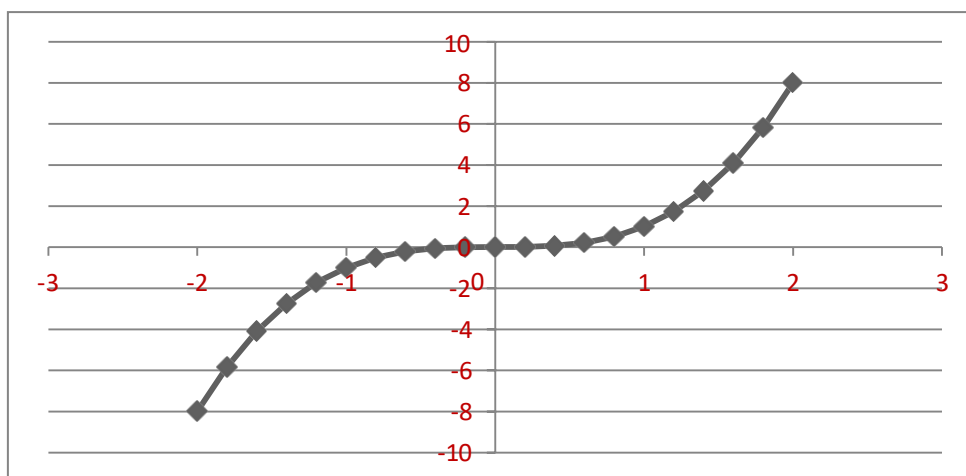
And

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

Which also vanishes at $x=0$

But

$$\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = 6 \neq 0$$



Therefore we conclude that

$x=0$ is a point of inflexion for the curve

Working procedure to find the maxima and minima

1. Given any function, equate the first derivative to zero to find the turning points or critical points
2. Test the sign of the second derivative at these points. If the sign is negative it is a point of maximum value. If the sign is positive it is a point of minimum value.
3. then calculate the maximum value/minimum value of the function by taking the value of x as the point

Example

If the sum of two numbers is 10, find the numbers when their product is maximum

Solution

Let the numbers be x and $10-x$

Let

$$y = f(x) = x(10-x)$$

$$= 10x - x^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 10 - 2x = 0$$

$$x = 5$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -2 < 0$$

Therefore the function which is the product of the numbers is maximum if the numbers are equal i.e 5 and 5.

EXAMPLE

Investigate the extreme values of the function

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

The critical points are roots of the equation

EngineeringMathematics– III