

GOVERNMENT OF TAMILNADU

HIGHER SECONDARY SECOND YEAR

BUSINESS MATHEMATICS AND STATISTICS

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Department of School Education

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CAREER OPTIONS IN BUSINESS MATHEMATICS and STATISTICS

Higher Secondary students who have taken commerce with Business Mathematics and Statiscs can take up careers in BCA, B.Com., and B.Sc. Statistics. Students who have taken up commerce stream, have a good future in banking and financial institutions.

A lot of students choose to do B.Com with a specialization in computers. Higher Secondary Commerce students planning for further studies can take up careers in professional fields such as Company Secretary , Chartered Accountant (CA), ICAI and so on. Others can take up bachelor's degree in commerce (B.Com), followed by M.Com, Ph.D and M.Phil. There are wide range of career opportunities for B.Com graduates.

After graduation in commerce, one can choose MBA, MA Economics, MA Operational and Research Statistics at Postgraduate level. Apart from these, there are several diploma, certificate and vocational courses which provide entry level jobs in the field of commerce.

Career chart for Higher Secondary students who have taken commerce with Business Mathematics and Statistics.

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As the Statistics component of this text book involves problems based on numerical calculations, Business Mathematics and Statistics students are advised to use calculator

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1 Applications of Matrices and Determinants

Brahmagupta (c.598 AD(CE) - c.668 AD(CE))

In our daily life, We
use Matrices for taking seismic
surveys. They are used for plotting graphs,
statistics and also to do Scientific studies in almost different n our daily life, We use Matrices for taking seismic surveys. They are used for plotting graphs, fields. Matrices are used in representing the real world data like the traits of people's population, habits etc..

Determinants have wonderful algebraic properties and occupied their proud place in linear algebra, because of their role in higher level algebraic thinking.

Brahmagupta (born c.598 AD(CE) died c.668 AD(CE)) was

an Indian Mathematician and astronomer. He was the first to give rules to compute with zero. His contribution in Matrix is called as Brahmagupta Matrix.

◈

$$
B(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} x & y \\ \pm ty & \pm x \end{pmatrix}.
$$

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Learning Objectives

On Completion of this chapter , the students are able to understand

- the concept of rank of a matrix.
- elementary transformations and equivalent matrices.
- echelon form of a matrix.
- the rank of the matrix.
- testing the consistency of a non- homogeneous linear equations.
- applications of linear equations
- the concept of Cramer's rule to solve non- homogenous linear equations.
- forecasting the succeeding state when the initial market share is given.

Applications of Matrices and Determinants 1

1.1 Rank of a Matrix

Matrices are one of the most commonly used tools in many fields such as Economics, Commerce and Industry.

We have already studied the basic properties of matrices. In this chapter we will study about the elementary transformations to develop new methods for various applications of matrices.

1.1.1 Concept

With each matrix, we can associate a non-negative integer called its rank.

Definition 1.1

The rank of a matrix *A* is the order of the largest non-zero minor of *A* and is denoted by $\rho(A)$

 In other words, *A* positive integer '*r*' is said to be the rank of a non- zero matrix *A*, if

- (i) there is atleast one minor of *A* of order '*r*' which is not zero and
- (ii) every minor of *A* of order greater than '*r*' is zero.
- **Note**

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- (i) $\rho(A) \ge 0$
- (ii) If *A* is a matrix of order $m \times n$, then $\rho(A) \leq$ minimum of $\{m, n\}$
- (iii) The rank of a zero matrix is '0'
- (iv) The rank of a non- singular matrix of order $n \times n$ is 'n'

Example 1.1

Find the rank of the matrix 1 5 3 9 ſ l

Solution:

Let
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 9 \end{pmatrix}
$$

Order of *A* is 2×2 : $\rho(A) \le 2$ Consider the second order minor

$$
\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = -6 \neq 0
$$

There is a minor of order 2, which is not zero. $\therefore \rho(A) = 2$.

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\begin{array}{c}\n\text{100} \\
\text{200} \\
\text{11.6 }\n\end{array}\n\end{array}
$$
\nIn cryptography, we are using matrix concepts.

Example 1.2

Find the rank of the matrix
$$
\begin{pmatrix} -5 & -7 \\ 5 & 7 \end{pmatrix}
$$

Solution:

Let
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & -7 \ 5 & 7 \end{pmatrix}
$$

\nOrder of A is 2×2 $\therefore \rho(A) \le 2$

Consider the second order minor

$$
\begin{vmatrix} -5 & -7 \\ 5 & 7 \end{vmatrix} = 0
$$

Since the second order minor vanishes, $\rho(A) \neq 2$

Consider a first order minor $|-5| \neq 0$

There is a minor of order 1, which is not zero

$$
\therefore \rho(A) = 1
$$

Example 1.3

Find the rank of the matrix
$$
\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & -6 \\ 1 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}
$$

 \overline{a} \overline{a}

Solution:
\nLet
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 5 \\ 2 & 4 & -6 \\ 1 & 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}
$$

\nOrder of A is 3×3.
\n $\therefore \rho(A) \le 3$
\nConsider the third order minor

 $0 \t -1 \t 5$ 2 4 $-6 \mid = 6 \neq 0$ − $-6 \mid = 6 \neq$

$$
\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 5 \end{array}
$$

There is a minor of order 3, which is not zero

$$
\therefore \rho(A) = 3.
$$

Example 1.4

Find the rank of the matrix 530 $1 \t 2 \t -4$ 2 -4 8 − -2 ſ l I I l \overline{a} $\overline{1}$ i
L \mathbf{r}

Solution:

⊕

Let
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & -4 \\ -2 & -4 & 8 \end{pmatrix}
$$

Order of A is 3×3 .

$$
\therefore \rho(A) \leq 3.
$$

Consider the third order minor

$$
\begin{vmatrix} 5 & 3 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & -4 \\ -2 & -4 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = 0
$$

Since the third order minor vanishes, therefore $\rho(A) \neq 3$

Consider a second order minor $\begin{array}{cc} 5 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \end{array}$ ² $= 7 \neq 0$

 $\therefore \rho(A) = 2.$

There is a minor of order 2, which is not

zero.

Example 1.5
Find the rank of the matrix
$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & -2 \\ 3 & 6 & 3 & -7 \end{pmatrix}
$$

Solution: Let $A =$ − − − ſ ∖ I I l ľ $\overline{}$ $1 \t2 \t-1 \t3$ $2 \quad 4 \quad 1 \quad -2$ $3 \t 6 \t 3 \t -7$

Order of A is 3×4

$$
\therefore \rho(A) \leq 3.
$$

Consider the third order minors

Since all third order minors vanishes, $\rho(A) \neq 3$.

Now, let us consider the second order minors,

Consider one of the second order minors

$$
\begin{vmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 4 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 6 \neq 0
$$

There is a minor of order 2 which is not zero.

$$
\therefore \rho(A) = 2.
$$

A is a square matrix of order 3. If *A* is of rank 2, then *adj A* is of rank 1.

Applications of Matrices and Determinants 3

1.1.2 Elementary Transformations and Equivalent matrices

Elementary transformations of a matrix

- (i) Interchange of any two rows (or columns): $R_i \leftrightarrow R_j \text{ (or } C_i \leftrightarrow C_j).$
- (ii) Multiplication of each element of a row (or column) by any non-zero scalar *k* : $R_i \rightarrow kR_i$ (or $C_i \rightarrow kC_i$)
- (iii) Addition to the elements of any row (or column) the same scalar multiples of corresponding elements of any other row (or column):

$$
R_i \to R_i + kR_j \cdot (or C_i \to C_i + kC_j)
$$

Equivalent Matrices

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Two matrices *A* and *B* are said to be equivalent if one is obtained from the another by applying a finite number of elementary transformations and we write it as $A \sim B$ or $B \sim A$.

1.1.3 Echelon form and finding the rank of the matrix (upto the order of 3×4)

A matrix A of order $m \times n$ is said to be in echelon form if

- (i) Every row of *A* which has all its entries 0 occurs below every row which has a nonzero entry.
- (ii) The number of zeros before the first nonzero element in a row is less then the number of such zeros in the next row.

Example 1.6

Find the rank of the matrix
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \end{pmatrix}
$$

Solution :

The order of
$$
A
$$
 is 3×3 .
 $\therefore \rho(A) \leq 3$.

$$
4 \mid 12^t
$$

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Let us transform the matrix *A* to an echelon form by using elementary transformations.

Rank of *A is* 2 .

$$
\rho(A)=2.
$$

Note

A row having atleast one non-zero element is called as non-zero row.

Example 1.7

Find the rank of the matrix $A =$ ſ ∖ I I l \overline{a} $\overline{}$ l. 0121 1232 3 1 1 3

Solution:

The order of \overline{A} is 3×4 . $\therefore \rho(A) \leq 3.$

Let us transform the matrix *A* to an echelon form

Example 1.8 Find the rank of the matrix $A =$ ſ ∖ I I l \overline{a} $\overline{}$ \overline{a} 1 1 1 1 3 4 5 2 2 3 4 0 *Solution:*

⊕

The order of A is 3×4 .

 \therefore $\rho(A) \leq 3$.

Let us transform the matrix *A* to an echelon form

The number of non zero rows is 3.

 $\therefore \rho(A) = 3.$

Consistency of Equations

System of linear equations in two variables

We have already studied , how to solve two simultaneous linear equations by matrix inversion method.

Recall

 Linear equations can be written in matrix form AX=B, then the solution is $X = A^{-1}B$, provided $|A| \neq 0$

Consider a system of linear equations with two variables,

$$
ax + by = h
$$

$$
cx + dy = k
$$
 (1)

Where *a, b, c, d, h* and *k* are real constants and neither *a* and *b* nor *c* and *d* are both zero.

For any tow given lines L_1 and L_2 , one and only one of the following may occur.

 L_1 and L_2 intersect at exactly one point

 L_1 and L_2 are coincident

 L_1 and L_2 are parallel and distinct.

(see Fig 1.1) In the first case, the system has a unique solution corresponding to the single point of intersection of the two lines.

In the second case, the system has infinitely many solutions corresponding to the points lying on the same line

Finally in the third case, the system has no solution because the two lines do not intersect.

Let us illustrate each of these possibilities by considering some specific examples.

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(a) A system of equations with exactly one solution

Consider the system $2x - y = 1$, $3x + 2y = 12$ which represents two lines intersecting at $(2, 3)$ i.e (2, 3) lies on both lines. So the equations are consistent and have unique solution.

(b) A system of equations with infinitely many solutions

Consider the system $2x - y = 1$, $6x - 3y = 3$ which represents two coincident lines. We find that any point on the line is a solution. The equations are consistent and have infinite sets of solutions such as $(0, -1)$, $(1, 1)$ and so on. Such a system is said to be dependent.

(c) A system of equations that has no solution

Consider the system $2x - y = 1$, $6x - 3y = 12$ which represents two parallel straight lines. The equations are inconsistent and have no solution.

System of non Homogeneous Equations in three variables

A linear system composed of three linear equations with three variables *x, y* and *z* has the general form

$$
a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = d_1
$$

\n
$$
a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = d_2
$$

\n
$$
a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = d_3
$$
\n(2)

A linear equation $ax + by + cz = d$ (*a*, *b*) and c not all equal to zero) in three variables represents a plane in three dimensional space. Thus, each equation in system (2) represents a plane in three dimensional space, and the solution(s) of the system is precisely the point(s) of intersection of the three planes defined by the three linear equations that make up the system. This system has one and only one solution, infinitely many solutions, or no solution, depending on whether and how the planes intersect one another. Figure 1.2 illustrates each of these possibilities.

In Figure 1.2(a), the three planes intersect at a point corresponding to the situation in which system (2) has a unique solution.

Figure 1.2(b) depicts a situation in which there are infinitely many solutions to the system. Here the three planes intersect along a line, and the solutions are represented by the infinitely many points lying on this line.

In Figure 1.2 (c), the three planes are parallel and distinct, so there is no point in common to all three planes; system (2) has no solution in this case.

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Note

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Every system of linear equations has no solution, or has exactly one solution or has infinitely many solutions.

An arbitrary system of '*m*' linear equations in '*n*' unknowns can be written as

$$
a_{11} x_1 + a_{12} x_2 + \dots + a_{1n} x_n = b_1
$$

\n
$$
a_{21} x_1 + a_{22} x_2 + \dots + a_{2n} x_n = b_2
$$

\n
$$
\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots
$$

\n
$$
a_{m1} x_1 + a_{m2} x_2 + \dots + a_{mn} x_n = b_m
$$

where x_1 , x_2 ,.., x_n are the unknowns and the subscripted *a*'s and *b*'s denote the constants.

Augmented matrices

A system of '*m*' linear equations in '*n*' unknowns can be abbreviated by writing only the rectangular array of numbers.

$$
\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} & b_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

This is called the augmented matrix for the system and $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \end{bmatrix}$ $\overline{}$ is the

coefficient matrix.

Consider the following system of equations

$$
x+y+2z=9
$$

$$
2x+4y-3z=1
$$

$$
3x+6y-5z=0
$$

$$
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \ 2 & 4 & -3 \ 3 & 6 & -5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \ y \ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 \ 1 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$

$$
A \qquad X = B
$$

$$
A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \ 2 & 4 & -3 \ 3 & 6 & -5 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 is the coefficient matrix
and
$$
[A, B] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 & 9 \ 2 & 4 & -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
$$
 is the

augmented matrix.

1.1.4 Testing the consistency of non homogeneous linear equations (two and three variables) by rank method.

 $3 \t 6 \t -5 \t 0$

 $\overline{}$

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

 $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & - \end{bmatrix}$

Consider the equations *A X*= *B* in '*n*' unknowns.

(i) If ρ ($\lfloor A, B \rfloor$) = ρ (A), then the equations are consistent.

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(ii) If $\rho([A, B]) = \rho(A) = n$, then the equations are consistent and have unique solution.

(iii) If $\rho([A, B]) = \rho(A) < n$, then the equations are consistent and have infinitely many solutions.

(iv) If ρ $([A, B]) \neq \rho$ (A) then the equations are inconsistent and has no solution.

Example 1.9

Show that the equations $x + y = 5$, $2x + y = 8$ are consistent and solve them.

Solution:

⊕

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \ 8 \end{pmatrix}
$$

A $X = B$

Number of non-zero rows is 2.

 $\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 2 =$ Number of unknowns.

The given system is consistent and has unique solution.

Now, the given system is transformed into

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \ -2 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
x + y = 5
$$
(1)

$$
y = 2
$$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow x + 2 = 5
$$

$$
x = 3
$$

Solution is $x = 3, y = 2$

Example 1.10

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> Show that the equations $2x + y = 5$, $4x + 2y = 10$ are consistent and solve them.

Solution:

The matrix equation corresponding to the system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \ 10 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
A \qquad X = B
$$

 $\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 1$ < number of unknowns

∴ The given system is consistent and has infinitely many solutions.

Now, the given system is transformed into the matrix equation.

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$

\n
$$
\Rightarrow 2x + y = 5
$$

Let us take $y = k$, $k \in R$

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$$
\Rightarrow 2x + k = 5
$$

$$
x = \frac{1}{2}(5 - k)
$$

$$
x = \frac{1}{2}(5 - k), y = k \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Thus by giving different values for *k*, we get different solution. Hence the system has infinite number of solutions.

Example 1.11

Show that the equations $3x - 2y = 6$, $6x - 4y = 10$ are inconsistent.

Solution:

♠

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \ 6 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
AX = B
$$

Matrix A	Augmented matrix	Elementary				
\n $\begin{bmatrix}\n 3 & -2 \\ 6 & -4\n \end{bmatrix}$ \n	\n $\begin{bmatrix}\n 3 & -2 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 & 10\n \end{bmatrix}$ \n	\n \sim \n	\n $\begin{bmatrix}\n 3 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0\n \end{bmatrix}$ \n	\n \sim \n	\n $\begin{bmatrix}\n 3 & -2 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & -2\n \end{bmatrix}$ \n	\n $R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 2R_1$ \n
\n $\rho(A) = 1$ \n	\n $\rho([A, B]) = 2$ \n					
\n $\therefore \rho([A, B]) = 2, \quad \rho(A) = 1$ \n						
\n $\rho(A) \neq \rho([A, B])$ \n						

∴The given system is inconsistent and has no solution.

Example 1.12

Show that the equations $2x + y + z = 5$, $x + y + z = 4$, $x - y + 2z = 1$ are consistent and hence solve them.

Solution:

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
A \qquad X = B
$$

Obviously the last equivalent matrix is in the echelon form. It has three non-zero rows.

$$
\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 3 = \text{Number of unknowns.}
$$

The given system is consistent and has unique solution.

To find the solution, let us rewrite the above echelon form into the matrix form.

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}
$$

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 $x + y + z =$ $y + z =$ $3z = 3$ (3) 4 1 () 3 (2) (3) $\begin{pmatrix} 3 \end{pmatrix}$ $(2) \Rightarrow y = 3 - z = 2$ $3) \Rightarrow z=1$ $(1) \Rightarrow x = 4 - y - z$ $x = 1$ ∴ $x = 1$, $y = 2$, $z = 1$

Example 1.13

Show that the equations $x + y + z = 6$, $x + 2y + 3z = 14$, $x + 4y + 7z = 30$ are consistent and solve them.

Solution:

⊕

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 14 \\ 30 \end{pmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
A \qquad X = B
$$

Obviously the last equivalent matrix is in the echelon form. It has two non-zero rows.

$$
\therefore \qquad \rho([A, B]) = 2, \ \rho(A) = 2
$$

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$$
\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 2 < \text{Number}
$$
 of unknowns.

of unknowns.

The given system is consistent and has infinitely many solutions.

The given system is equivalent to the matrix equation,

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & 2 \ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \ y \ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \ 8 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$

$$
x + y + z = 6 \qquad (1)
$$

$$
y + 2z = 8 \qquad (2)
$$

$$
(2) \implies y = 8 - 2z,
$$

$$
(1) \implies x = 6 - y - z = 6 - (8 - 2z) - z = z - 2
$$

Let us take $z = k, k \in R$, we get $x = k - 2$, $y = 8 - 2k$, Thus by giving different values for *k* we get different solutions. Hence the given system has infinitely many solutions.

Example 1.14

Show that the equations are inconsistent:

 $x - 4y + 7z = 14$, $3x + 8y - 2z = 13$, $7x - 8y + 26z = 5$

Solution:

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\n\text{ } & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 7 & 14 \\ 0 & 20 & -23 & -29 \\ 0 & 20 & -23 & -93 \end{pmatrix} & R_2 \rightarrow R_2 - 3R_1 \\
\hline\n\text{ } & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 7 & 14 \\ 0 & 20 & -23 & -29 \\ 0 & 0 & 64 \end{pmatrix} & R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - 7R_1 \\
\hline\n\text{ } & \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 7 & 14 \\ 0 & 20 & -23 & -29 \\ 0 & 0 & 64 \end{pmatrix} & R_3 \rightarrow R_3 - R_2\n\end{array}
$$

The last equivalent matrix is in the echelon form. [*A, B*] has 3 non-zero rows and [A] has 2 non-zero rows.

$$
\therefore \qquad \rho ([A, B]) = 3, \qquad \rho (A) = 2
$$
\n
$$
\rho (A) \neq \rho ([A, B])
$$
\nThe system is inconsistent and has

The system is inconsistent and has no solution.

Example 1.15

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Find *k*, if the equations $x + 2y - 3z = -2$, $3x - y - 2z = 1$, $2x + 3y - 5z = k$ are consistent. *Solution:*

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

For the equations to be consistent, ρ $(\lceil A, B \rceil) = \rho$ $(\overline{A}) = 2$

$$
x + 2y = k
$$

\n∴ 21 + 7k = 0
\n7k = -21.
\nk = -3

Example 1.16

Find *k,* if the equations $x + y + z = 7$, $x + 2y + 3z = 18$, $y + kz = 6$ are inconsistent.

Solution:

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

For the equations to be inconsistent

$$
\rho([A, B]) \neq \rho(A)
$$

It is possible if $k - 2 = 0$.

$$
\therefore k = 2
$$

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Example 1.17

Investigate for what values of '*a*' and '*b*' the following system of equations

 $x + y + z = 6$, $x + 2y + 3z = 10$, $x + 2y + az = b$ have (i) no solution (ii) a unique solution (iii) an infinite number of solutions.

Solution:

⊕

The matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & a \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 10 \\ b \end{pmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
A \qquad X = B
$$

Case (i) For no solution:

The system possesses no solution only when $\rho(A) \neq \rho([A, B])$ which is possible only when $a - 3 = 0$ and $b - 10 \neq 0$

Hence for $a = 3$, $b \ne 10$, the system possesses no solution.

Case (ii) For a unique solution:

The system possesses a unique solution only when $\rho(A) = \rho([A, B])$ = number of unknowns.

i.e when
$$
\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 3
$$

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Which is possible only when $a - 3 \neq 0$ and *b* may be any real number as we can observe .

Hence for $a \neq 3$ and $b \in R$, the system possesses a unique solution.

Case (iii) For an infinite number of solutions:

The system possesses an infinite number of solutions only when

 $\rho(A) = \rho([A, B])$ < number of unknowns i,e when $\rho(A) = \rho([A, B]) = 2 < 3$ (number of unknowns) which is possible only when $a-3=0, b-10=0$

Hence for $a = 3$, $b = 10$, the system possesses infinite number of solutions.

Example 1.18

The total number of units produced (*P*) is a linear function of amount of over times in labour (in hours) (*l*), amount of additional machine time (*m*) and fixed finishing time (*a*)

i.e,
$$
P = a + bl + cm
$$

From the data given below, find the values of constants *a, b* and *c*

Estimate the production when overtime in labour is 50 hrs and additional machine time is 15 hrs.

Solution:

We have, $P = a + bl + cm$

Putting above values we have

$$
6,950 = a + 40b + 10c
$$

$$
6,725 = a + 35b + 9c
$$

$$
6,725 = a + 35b + 9c
$$

 $7,100 = a + 40b + 12c$

The Matrix equation corresponding to the given system is

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 40 & 10 \ 1 & 35 & 9 \ 1 & 40 & 12 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \ b \ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6950 \ 6725 \ 7100 \end{pmatrix}
$$

A
X = *B*
H

∴ The given system is equivalent to the matrix equation

$$
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 40 & 10 \ 0 & -5 & -1 \ 0 & 0 & 2 \ \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \ b \ c \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6950 \ -225 \ 150 \ \end{pmatrix}
$$

\n $a + 40b + 10c = 6950$ (1)
\n $-5b - c = -225$ (2)
\n $2c = 150$ (3)
\n $c = 75$

Now, $(2) \implies -5b - 75 = -225$ $|b = 30|$

and $(1) \Rightarrow a + 1200 + 750 = 6950$ $a = 5000$

$$
a = 5000
$$
, $b = 30$, $c = 75$

∴ The production equation is

$$
P = 5000 + 30l + 75m
$$

$$
P_{at l = 50, m=15} = 5000 + 30(50) + 75(15)
$$

$$
= 7625
$$

∴ The production $= 7,625$ units.

1. Find the rank of each of the following matrices

i)
$$
\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}
$$
 ii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \ 3 & -6 \end{pmatrix}$
\niii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \ 2 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$ iv) $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 1 \ 3 & 1 & -5 \ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
\nv) $\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 & -2 \ 4 & -3 & 4 \ -2 & 4 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$ vi) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & 3 \ 2 & 4 & 1 & -2 \ 3 & 6 & 3 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$
\nvii) $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 1 & -5 & -1 \ 1 & -2 & 1 & -5 \ 1 & 5 & -7 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$
\nviii) $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 & 4 \ -2 & 4 & -1 & -3 \ -1 & 2 & 7 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$
\n2. If $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \ 2 & -3 & 4 \ 3 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 3 \ -2 & 4 & -6 \ 5 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$,

then find the rank of *AB* and the rank of *BA*.

- 3. Solve the following system of equations by rank method: $x + y + z = 9$, $2x + 5y + 7z = 52$, $2x - y - z = 0$
- 4. Show that the equations $5x + 3y + 7z = 4$, $3x + 26y + 2z = 9$, $7x + 2y + 10z = 5$ are consistent and solve them by rank method.
- 5. Show that the following system of equations have unique solution: $x + y + z = 3$, $x + 2y + 3z = 4$, $x + 4y + 9z = 6$ by rank method.
- 6. For what values of the parameter λ , will the following equations fail to have unique solution: $3x - y + \lambda z = 1$, $2x + y + z = 2$, $x + 2y - \lambda z = -1$ by rank method.

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⊕

- 7. The price of three commodities *X,Y* and *Z* are *x,y* and *z* respectively Mr.Anand purchases 6 units of *Z* and sells 2 units of *X* and 3 units of Y. Mr.Amar purchases a unit of *Y* and sells 3 units of *X* and 2units of *Z*. Mr.Amit purchases a unit of *X* and sells 3 units of *Y* and a unit of *Z*. In the process they earn ₹5,000/-, ₹2,000/- and ₹5,500/respectively Find the prices per unit of three commodities by rank method.
- 8. An amount of $\overline{5,000}$ /- is to be deposited in three different bonds bearing 6%, 7% and 8% per year respectively. Total annual income is $\overline{5}358/$ -. If the income from first two investments is $\overline{70}/-$ more than the income from the third, then find the amount of investment in each bond by rank method.

1.2 Cramer's Rule

⊕

Gabriel Cramer, a Swiss mathematician born in the city Geneva in 31 July 1704. He edited the works of the two elder Bernoulli's, and wrote on the physical cause of the spheriodal shape of the planets and the motion of their apsides (1730), and on Newton's treatment of cubic curves (1746).

In 1750 he published Cramer's Rule, giving a general formula for the solution of certain linear system of n equations in n unknowns having a unique solution in terms of determinants. Advantages of Cramer's rule is that we can find the value of *x*, *y* or *z* without knowing any of the other values of *x*, *y* or *z*. Cramer's rule is applicable only when $\Delta \neq 0$ (Δ is the determinant value of the coefficient matrix) for unique solution.

Theorem (without proof) Cramer's Rule:

Consider,

$$
\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

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If $AX = B$ is a system of *n* linear equations in '*n*' unknowns such that det $(A) \neq 0$, then the system has a unique solution.

This solution is,

$$
x_1 = \frac{\det(A_1)}{\det A}, \quad x_2 = \frac{\det(A_2)}{\det A}, \quad \dots \quad, \quad x_n = \frac{\det(A_n)}{\det A}
$$

where A_j is the matrix obtained by replacing the entries in the j^{th} column of A by the entries in the matrix

In the matrix

$$
B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}
$$

1.2.1 Non Homogeneous linear equations upto three variables

(a) Consider the system of two linear equations with two unknowns.

$$
a_1x + b_1y = d_1
$$

$$
a_2x + b_2y = d_2
$$

Let $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b \\ a_2 & b \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_1 \\ b_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$ $\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} d_1 & b_1 \\ d_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$ $\Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & d_2 \end{vmatrix}$

The solution of unknown by Cramer's rule is

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta}
$$
, $y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta}$ provided $\Delta \neq 0$

(b) Consider the system of three linear equations with three unknowns

$$
a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = d_1
$$

\n
$$
a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = d_2
$$

\n
$$
a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = d_3
$$

\nLet $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \neq 0$ $\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} d_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ d_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ d_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$
\n
$$
\Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & d_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & d_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & d_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}
$$
 $\Delta_z = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix}$

Solution of unknown by Cramer Rule is

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta}, \ y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta}, z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta}
$$

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Example 1.19

Solve the equations $2x + 3y = 7$, $3x + 5y$ = 9 by Cramer's rule.

Solution:

The equations are

$$
2x + 3y = 7
$$

3x + 5y = 9
Here
$$
\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 1
$$

$$
\neq 0
$$

∴ we can apply Cramer's Rule

Now
$$
\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 3 \\ 9 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 8
$$
 $\Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 7 \\ 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = -3$

∴ By Cramer's rule

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{8}{1} = 8 \quad y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{-3}{1} = -3
$$

 \therefore Solution is $x = 8, y = -3$

Example 1.20

⊕

The following table represents the number of shares of two companies *A* and *B* during the month of January and February and it also gives the amount in rupees invested by Ravi during these two months for the purchase of shares of two companies. Find the the price per share of *A* and *B* purchased during both the months.

Solution:

Let the price of one share of *A* be *x*

Let the price of one share of *B* be *y*

∴ By given data, we get the following equations

$$
10x + 5y = 125
$$

9x + 12y = 150

$$
\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 10 & 5 \\ 9 & 12 \end{vmatrix} = 75 \neq 0
$$

$$
\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} 125 & 5 \\ 150 & 12 \end{vmatrix} = 750 \quad \Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} 10 & 125 \\ 9 & 150 \end{vmatrix} = 375
$$

Therefore, By Cramer's rule.

∴ By Cramer's rule

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{750}{75} = 10 \qquad y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{375}{75} = 5
$$

The price of the share *A* is \bar{x} 10 and the price of the share *B* is $\overline{\xi}$ 5.

Example 1.21

The total cost of 11 pencils and 3 erasers is ₹ 64 and the total cost of 8 pencils and 3 erasers is ₹49. Find the cost of each pencil and each eraser by Cramer's rule.

Solution:

Let '*x*' be the cost of a pencil

Let '*y*' be the cost of an eraser

∴ By given data, we get the following equations

$$
11x + 3y = 64
$$

$$
8x + 3y = 49
$$

$$
\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 11 & 3 \\ 8 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 9 \neq 0.
$$
 It has unique solution.

$$
\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} 64 & 3 \\ 49 & 3 \end{vmatrix} = 45 \quad \Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} 11 & 64 \\ 8 & 49 \end{vmatrix} = 27
$$

∴ By Cramer's rule

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{45}{9} = 5 \quad y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{27}{9} = 3
$$

∴ The cost of a pencil is ₹ 5 and the cost of an eraser is ₹ 3.

Example 1.22

Solve by Cramer's rule $x + y + z = 4$, $2x - y + 3z = 1$, $3x + 2y - z = 1$

Solution:

$$
\text{Here } \Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 13 \neq 0
$$

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$$
\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -13
$$

$$
\Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = 39 \quad \Delta_z = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 4 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 26
$$

∴ By Cramer's rule

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{-13}{13} = -1
$$

$$
y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{39}{13} = 3
$$

$$
z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta} = \frac{26}{13} = 2
$$

∴ The solution is $(x, y, z) = (-1, 3, 2)$

Example 1.23

The price of 3 Business Mathematics books, 2 Accountancy books and one Commerce book is ₹ 840. The price of 2 Business Mathematics books, one Accountancy book and one Commerce book is ₹ 570. The price of one Business Mathematics book, one Accountancy book and 2 Commerce books is ₹ 630. Find the cost of each book by using Cramer's rule.

Solution:

Let '*x*' be the cost of a Business Mathematics book

Let '*y*' be the cost of a Accountancy book.

Let '*z*' be the cost of a Commerce book.

$$
\therefore 3x + 2y + z = 840
$$

$$
2x + y + z = 570
$$

$$
x + y + 2z = 630
$$

Here

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

$$
\Delta_x = \begin{vmatrix} 840 & 2 & 1 \\ 570 & 1 & 1 \\ 630 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -240
$$

$$
\Delta_y = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 840 & 1 \\ 2 & 570 & 1 \\ 1 & 630 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -300
$$

$$
\Delta_z = \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 & 840 \\ 2 & 1 & 570 \\ 1 & 1 & 630 \end{vmatrix} = -360
$$

∴ By Cramer's rule

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{-240}{-2} = 120
$$

$$
y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{-300}{-2} = 150 \quad z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta} = \frac{-360}{-2} = 180
$$

∴ The cost of a Business Mathematics book is ₹120, the cost of a Accountancy book is ₹150 and the cost of a Commerce book is ₹180.

Example 1.24

An automobile company uses three types of Steel S_1 , S_2 and S_3 for providing three different types of Cars C_1 , C_2 and C_3 . Steel requirement *R* (in tonnes) for each type of car and total available steel of all the three types are summarized in the following table.

Determine the number of Cars of each type which can be produced by Cramer's rule.

Solution:

Let '*x*' be the number of cars of type C_1

Let '*y*' be the number of cars of type C_2 Let 'z' be the number of cars of type C_3 $3x + 2y + 4z = 28$ $x + y + 2z = 13$ $2x + 2y + z = 14$ Here $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = -3 \neq$ 3 2 4 1 1 2 2 2 1 $3 \neq 0$ $\Delta_x = | 13 \quad 1 \quad 2 | = -$ 28 2 4 13 1 2 14 2 1 6 Δ _y = | 1 13 2 | = -3 28 4 1 13 2 2 14 1 9 $\Delta_z = | 1 \ 1 \ 13 | = -$ 3 2 28 1 1 13 2 2 14 12 x^2 be the number of cars of type \int 5*x* - 2*y* + 3*z* = -5

∴ By Cramer's rule

⊕

$$
x = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta} = \frac{-6}{-3} = 2
$$

$$
y = \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta} = \frac{-9}{-3} = 3 \quad z = \frac{\Delta z}{\Delta} = \frac{-12}{-3} = 4
$$

∴ The number of cars of each type which can be produced are 2, 3 and 4.

- 1. Solve the following equations by using Cramer's rule
- (i) $2x + 3y = 7$; $3x + 5y = 9$
- (ii) $5x + 3y = 17$; $3x + 7y = 31$
- (iii) 2x + y z = 3, x + y + z = 1, $x - 2y - 3z = 4$
- (iv) $x + y + z = 6$, $2x + 3y z = 5$, $6x - 2y - 3z = -7$
- (v) $x + 4y + 3z = 2$, $2x-6y + 6z = -3$,
- 2. A commodity was produced by using 3 units of labour and 2 units of capital, the total cost is ₹ 62. If the commodity had been produced by using 4 units of labour and one unit of capital, the cost is $\bar{\tau}$ 56. What is the cost per unit of labour and capital? (Use determinant method).
- 3. A total of $\overline{\xi}$ 8,600 was invested in two accounts. One account earned $4\frac{3}{4}\%$ other annual interest and the other earned 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ % annual interest. If the total interest for one year was ₹ 431.25, how much was invested in each account? (Use determinant method).
- 4. At marina two types of games viz., Horse riding and Quad Bikes riding are available on hourly rent. Keren and Benita spent ₹780 and ₹560 during the month of May.

Find the hourly charges for the two games (rides). (Use determinant method).

5. In a market survey three commodities *A*, *B* and *C* were considered. In finding out the index number some fixed weights were assigned to the three varieties in each of the commodities. The table below provides the information regarding the consumption of three commodities according to the three varieties and also the total weight received by the commodity.

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Find the weights assigned to the three varieties by using Cramer's Rule.

6. A total of $\bar{\xi}$ 8,500 was invested in three interest earning accounts. The interest rates were 2%, 3% and 6% if the total simple interest for one year was ₹380 and the amount invested at 6% was equal to the sum of the amounts in the other two accounts, then how much was invested in each account? (use Cramer's rule).

1.3 Transition Probability Matrices

1.3.1 Forecasting the succeeding state when the initial market share is given

One stage Transition Probability

The Occurrence of an event at a specified point in time, put the system in state S_n ; if after the passage of one unit of time, another event occurs, that is the system moved from the state S_n to S_{n+1} . This movement is related to a probability distribution, there is a probability associated with each (move) transition from event S_n to S_{n+1} . This probability distribution is called one stage transition probability.

Transition Matrix

⇔

The transition Probabilities P_{jk} satisfy $P_{jk} > 0, \sum P_{jk}$ *k* $> 0, \sum P_{jk} = 1 \text{ for all } j$

These probabilities may be written in the matrix form $\sqrt{2}$

This is called the transition probability matrix.

Example 1.25

Consider the matrix of transition probabilities of a product available in the market in two brands *A* and *B*.

$$
\begin{array}{cc}\n & A & B \\
A & (0.9 & 0.1) \\
B & (0.3 & 0.7)\n\end{array}
$$

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Determine the market share of each brand in equilibrium position.

Solution:

Transition probability matrix

$$
T = \begin{array}{cc} & A & B \\ A & 0.9 & 0.1 \\ B & 0.3 & 0.7 \end{array}
$$

At equilibrium, $(A \ B) \ T = (A \ B)$ where $A + B = 1$

$$
(A \quad B) \begin{pmatrix} 0.9 & 0.1 \\ 0.3 & 0.7 \end{pmatrix} = (A \quad B)
$$

\n
$$
0.9A + 0.3B = A
$$

\n
$$
0.9A + 0.3(1 - A) = A
$$

\n
$$
0.9A - 0.3A + 0.3 = A
$$

\n
$$
0.6A + 0.3 = A
$$

\n
$$
0.4A = 0.3
$$

\n
$$
A = \frac{0.3}{0.4} = \frac{3}{4}
$$

\n
$$
B = 1 - \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}
$$

Hence the market share of brand *A* is 75% and the market share of brand *B* is 25%

Example 1.26

Parithi is either sad (S) or happy (H) each day. If he is happy in one day, he is sad on the next day by four times out of five. If he is sad on one day, he is happy on the next day by two times out of three. Over a long run, what are the chances that Parithi is happy on any given day?

Solution:

The transition porbability matrix is

At equilibrium,
$$
\left(S \ H\right) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{4}{5} & \frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix} = \left(S \ H\right)
$$

where $S + H = 1$

$$
\frac{1}{3}S + \frac{4}{5}H = S
$$

$$
\frac{1}{3}(1 - H) + \frac{4}{5}H = I-H
$$

On solving this, we get

$$
S = \frac{6}{11}
$$
 and $H = \frac{5}{11}$

In the long run, on a randomly selected day, his chances of being happy is $\frac{5}{5}$. 11

Example 1.27

Akash bats according to the following traits. If he makes a hit (S), there is a 25% chance that he will make a hit his next time at bat. If he fails to hit (F), there is a 35% chance that he will make a hit his next time at bat. Find the transition probability matrix for the data and determine Akash's long- range batting average.

Solution:

⊕

The Transition probability matrix is

$$
T = \begin{pmatrix} 0.25 & 0.75 \\ 0.35 & 0.65 \end{pmatrix}
$$

At equilibrium, (S F) $\begin{pmatrix} 0.25 & 0.75 \\ 0.35 & 0.65 \end{pmatrix} = (S F)$

where $S + F = 1$

$$
0.25 S + 0.35 F = S
$$

0.25 *S* + 0.35 (1 – *S*)=*S*

On solving this, we get,
$$
S = \frac{0.35}{1.18}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow S = 0.318 \text{ and } F = 0.682
$$

∴ Akash's batting average is 31.8%

Example 1.28

80% of students who do maths work during one study period, will do the maths work at the next study period. 30% of students who do english work during one study period, will do the english work at the next study period.

Initially there were 60 students do maths work and 40 students do english work. Calculate,

- (i) The transition probability matrix
- (ii) The number of students who do maths work, english work for the next subsequent 2 study periods.

Solution

(i) Transition probability matrix
$$
M \quad E
$$

$$
T = \frac{M \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 \\ E \end{pmatrix}}{E \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}}
$$

After one study period,

$$
M E M E M E
$$

(60 40)
$$
M \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 \\ E(0.7 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix} = (76 24)
$$

So in the very next study period, there will be 76 students do maths work and 24 students do the English work.

After two study periods,

$$
M E M E
$$

(76 24)
$$
M \begin{pmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 \\ E(0.7 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}
$$

= (60.8 + 16.8 15.2 + 7.2)
= (77.6 22.4)

After two study periods there will be 78 (approx) students do maths work and 22 (approx) students do English work.

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- 1. The subscription department of a magazine sends out a letter to a large mailing list inviting subscriptions for the magazine. Some of the people receiving this letter already subscribe to the magazine while others do not. From this mailing list, 45% of those who already subscribe will subscribe again while 30% of those who do not now subscribe will subscribe. On the last letter, it was found that 40% of those receiving it ordered a subscription. What percent of those receiving the current letter can be expected to order a subscription?
- 2. A new transit system has just gone into operation in Chennai. Of those who use the transit system this year, 30% will switch over to using metro train next year and 70% will continue to use the transit system. Of those who use metro train this year, 70% will continue to use metro train next year and 30% will switch over to the transit system. Suppose the population of Chennai city remains constant and that 60% of the commuters use the transit system and 40% of the commuters use metro train next year.
	- (i) What percent of commuters will be using the transit system year after the next year?
	- (ii) What percent of commuters will be using the transit system in the long run?
- 3. Two types of soaps *A* and *B* are in the market. Their present market shares are 15% for *A* and 85% for *B*. Of those who bought *A* the previous year, 65% continue to buy it again while 35% switch over to *B*. Of those who bought *B* the previous year, 55% buy it again and 45% switch over to *A*. Find their market shares after one year and when is the equilibrium reached?
- 4. Two products *A* and *B* currently share the market with shares 50% and 50%
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each respectively. Each week some brand switching takes place. Of those who bought *A* the previous week, 60% buy it again whereas 40% switch over to *B*. Of those who bought *B* the previous week, 80% buy it again where as 20% switch over to *A*. Find their shares after one week and after two weeks. If the price war continues, when is the equilibrium reached?

Choose the correct answer

1. If $A = (1 \ 2 \ 3)$, then the rank of AA^T is

2. The rank of $m \times n$ matrix whose elements are unity is

If
$$
T = \begin{pmatrix} A \ 0.4 & 0.6 \\ B \ 0.2 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix}
$$
 is a transition

probability matrix, then at equilibrium *A* is

equal to
\n(a)
$$
\frac{1}{4}
$$
 (b) $\frac{1}{5}$ (c) $\frac{1}{6}$ (d) $\frac{1}{8}$ (e) $\frac{1}{100}$ (f) $\frac{1}{100}$ (g) $\frac{1}{100}$ (h) $\frac{1}{100}$ (i) $\frac{1}{100}$ (j) $\frac{1}{100}$ (k) $\frac{1}{100}$ (l) $\frac{1}{100}$ (m) $\frac{1}{100}$ (n) $\frac{1}{100}$ (

4. If
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 \end{pmatrix}
$$
, then $\rho(A)$ is
\n(a) 0\n(b) 1
\n(c) 2\n(d) n

$$
y \sim \frac{1}{2}
$$

5. The rank of the matrix $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{vmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ I j. | is (a) 0 (b) 1

$$
(c) 2 \t\t (d)3
$$

6. The rank of the unit matrix of order *n* is (a) $n-1$ (b) *n* (c) *n* + 1 (d) n^2

⊕

♠

3. If

- 7. If $\rho(A) = r$ then which of the following is correct?
	- (a) all the minors of order *r* which does not vanish
	- (b) *A* has at least one minor of order *r* which does not vanish
	- (c) *A* has at least one (*r*+1) order minor which vanishes
	- (d) all (*r*+1) and higher order minors should not vanish

8. If
$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}
$$
 then the rank of AA^T is
\n(a) 0\n(b) 1\n(c) 2\n(d) 3\n
$$
\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}
$$

9. If the rank of the matrix
$$
\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \lambda & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix}
$$

is 2, then λ is

⊕

(a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 (d) only real number

ľ

1

10. The rank of the
diagonal matrix
$$
\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
$$

(a) 0 (b) 2

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\n\text{(c) 3} & & \text{(d) 5} \\
\text{A} & \text{R}\n\end{array}
$$

11. If
$$
T = \frac{A}{B} \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.6 & x \end{pmatrix}
$$
 is a transition

A B

probability matrix, then the value of *x* is

- (a) 0.2 (b) 0.3 $(c) 0.4$ (d) 0.7
- 12. Which of the following is not an elementary transformation?

(a)
$$
R_i \leftrightarrow R_j
$$

\n(b) $R_i \rightarrow 2R_i + 2C_j$
\n(c) $R_i \rightarrow 2R_i - 4R_j$
\n(d) $C_i \rightarrow C_i + 5C_j$

- 13. If $\rho(A) = \rho(A, B)$ then the system is
	- (a) Consistent and has infinitely many solutions
	- (b) Consistent and has a unique solution
	- (c) Consistent
	- (d) inconsistent
- 14. If $\rho(A) = \rho(A, B)$ = the number of unknowns, then the system is
	- (a) Consistent and has infinitely many solutions
	- (b) Consistent and has a unique solution
	- (c) inconsistent
	- (d) consistent
- 15. If $\rho(A) \neq \rho(A, B)$, then the system is
	- (a) Consistent and has infinitely many solutions
	- (b) Consistent and has a unique solution
	- (c) inconsistent
	- (d) consistent
- 16. In a transition probability matrix, all the entries are greater than or equal to
	- (a) 2 (b) 1 (c) 0 (d) 3
- 17. If the number of variables in a nonhomogeneous system $AX = B$ is *n*, then the system possesses a unique solution only when
	- (a) $\rho(A) = \rho(A, B) > n$
	- (b) $\rho(A) = \rho(A, B) = n$
	- (c) $\rho(A) = \rho(A, B) < n$

(d) none of these

18. The system of equations $4x + 6y = 5$, $6x + 9y = 7$ has (a) a unique solution (b) no solution (c) infinitely many solutions (d) none of these

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- 19. For the system of equations $x + 2y + 3z = 1$, $2x + y + 3z = 2$ $5x + 5y + 9z = 4$
	- (a) there is only one solution
	- (b) there exists infinitely many solutions
	- (c) there is no solution
	- (d) None of these

20. If $|A| \neq 0$, then *A* is

- (a) non- singular matrix
- (b) singular matrix
- (c) zero matrix
- (d) none of these
- 21. The system of linear equations $x + y + z = 2$, $2x + y - z = 3$, $3x + 2y + k = 4$ has unique solution, if k is not equal to (a) 4 (b) 0 $(c) -4$ (d) 1
- 22. Cramer's rule is applicable only to get an unique solution when
	- (a) $\Delta_z \neq 0$

	(b) $\Delta_x \neq 0$

	(c) $\Delta \neq 0$

	(d) $\Delta_v \neq 0$ (d) $\Delta_v \neq 0$

23. If
$$
\frac{a_1}{x} + \frac{b_1}{y} = c_1
$$
, $\frac{a_2}{x} + \frac{b_2}{y} = c_2$,
\n
$$
\Delta_1 = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \Delta_2 = \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} \quad \Delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} c_1 & a_1 \\ c_2 & a_2 \end{vmatrix}
$$

then (x, y) is

⊕

(a)
$$
\left(\frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1}, \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta_1}\right)
$$
 (b) $\left(\frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta_1}, \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1}\right)$
(c) $\left(\frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta_2}, \frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta_3}\right)$ (d) $\left(\frac{-\Delta_1}{\Delta_2}, \frac{-\Delta_1}{\Delta_3}\right)$

- 24. If $|A_{n\times n}| = 3$ and $|adjA| = 243$ then the value *n* is
	- (a) 4 (b) 5 $(c) 6$ (d) 7
- 25. Rank of a null matrix is
	- (a) 0 (b) –1 $(c) \infty$ (d) 1

Miscellaneous problems

1. Find the rank of the matrix

$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 & 4 & 7 \\ 9 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

2. Find the rank of the matrix

$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 7 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

3. Find the rank of the matrix

$$
A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 6 \\ 4 & 4 & 8 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

- 4. Examine the consistency of the system of equations: $x + y + z = 7$, $x + 2y + 3z = 18$, $y + 2z = 6$
- 5. Find *k* if the equations $2x + 3y z = 5$, $3x - y + 4z = 2$, $x + 7y - 6z = k$ are consistent.
- 6. Find *k* if the equations $x + y + z = 1$, \bigoplus $3x - y - z = 4$, $x + 5y + 5z = k$ are inconsistent.
- 7. Solve the equations $x+2y+z=7$, $2x - y + 2z = 4$, $x + y - 2z = -1$ by using Cramer's rule.
- 8. The cost of 2kg. of wheat and 1kg. of sugar is $\overline{\xi}$ 100. The cost of 1kg. of wheat and 1kg. of rice is $\text{\textsterling}80$. The cost of 3kg. of wheat, 2kg. of sugar and 1kg of rice is $\overline{\xi}$ 220. Find the cost of each per kg., using Cramer's rule.
- 9. A salesman has the following record of sales during three months for three items A, B and C, which have different rates of commission.

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Find out the rate of commission on the items A, B and C by using Cramer's rule.

10. The subscription department of a magazine sends out a letter to a large mailing list inviting subscriptions for the magazine. Some of the people receiving this letter already subscribe to the magazine while others do not. From this mailing list, 60% of those who already subscribe will subscribe again while 25% of those who do not now subscribe will subscribe. On the last letter it was found that 40% of those receiving it ordered a subscription. What percent of those receiving the current letter can be expected to order a subscription?

Summary

In this chapter we have acquired the knowledge of:

z **Rank of a matrix**

The rank of a matrix *A* is the order of the largest non-zero minor of *A*

• The rank of a matrix A is the order of the largest non-zero minor of A

 $\rho(A) \geq 0$

⊕

- If A is a matrix of order $m \times n$, then $\rho(A) \leq$ minimum of $\{m, n\}$
- \bullet The rank of a zero matrix is '0'
- The rank of a non- singular matrix of order $n \times n$ is 'n'

• Equivalent Matrices

Two Matrices *A* and *B* are said to be equivalent if one can be obtained from another by a finite number of elementary transformations and we write it as $A \sim B$.

z **Echelon form**

A matrix of order $m \times n$ is said to be in echelon form if the row having all its entries zero will lie below the row having non-zero entry.

- A system of equations is said to be consistent if it has at least one set of solution. Otherwise, it is said to be inconsistent
	- If ρ $(\lceil A, B \rceil) = \rho(A)$, then the equations are consistent.
	- If ρ $\left(\left[A, B\right]\right) = \rho$ $\left(A\right) = n$, then the equations are consistent and have unique solution.
	- If ρ $\left(\left\lceil A, B\right\rceil\right) = \rho$ $\left(A\right) < n$, then the equations are consistent and have infinitely many solutions.
	- If ρ $(\lceil A, B \rceil) \neq \rho$ (A) then the equations are inconsistent and has no solution.
- $|adjA| = |A|^{n-1}$
- **•** If $|A| = 0$ then *A* is a singular matrix. Otherwise, *A* is a non singular matrix.
- In $AX = B$ if $|A| \neq 0$ then the system is consistent and it has unique solution.
- Cramer's rule is applicable only when $\Delta \neq 0$.

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Step - 1 : Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics & Statistics" will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-1".

Step - 2 : Select the worksheet named"Matrices and Determinants-Cramer's rule" . There is a question based on Cramer's rule.Change the coefficients of x, y and z by typing the no.s in the respective boxes. Move the 3D picture and see the nature of solution.

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Integral Calculus

Bernhard Riemann (17th September 1826 - 20th July 1866)

Introduction

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eorg Friedrich
Bernhard Riemann (Nineteenth
century) was an inspiring German
mathematician. He was very much recognised for his Bernhard Riemann (Nineteenth century) was an inspiring German contribution in calculus.

Calculus divides naturally into two parts, namely (i) differential calculus and (ii) integral calculus. Differential calculus deals with the derivatives of a function whereas, integral calculus deals with the anti derivative of the derived function that is, finding a function when its rate of change / marginal function is known. So integration is the technique to find the original

function from the derived function, the function obtained is called the indefinite integral. Definite integral is the evaluation of the indefinite integral between the specified limits, and is equal to the area bounded by the graph of the function (curve) between the specified limits and the axis. The area under the curve is approximately equal to the area obtained by summing the area of the number of inscribed rectangles and the approximation becomes exact in the limit that the number of rectangles approaches infinity. Therefore both differential and integral calculus are based on the theory of limits.

⊕

The word 'integrate' literally means that 'to find the sum'. So, we believe that the name "Integral Calculus" has its origin from this process of summation. Calculus is the mathematical tool used to test theories about the origins of the universe, the development of tornadoes and hurricanes. It is also used to find the surplus of consumer and producer, identifying the probability density function of a continuous random variable, obtain an original function from its marginal function and etc., in business applications.

In this chapter, we will study about the concept of integral and some types of method of indefinite and definite integrals.

Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter, the students will be able to understand

- the indefinite integral.
- how to find the indefinite integral of a function involving sum, difference and constant multiples.
- how to use and where to apply the substitution technique in indefinite integrals.
- \bullet the techniques involved in integration by parts and some special type of integrals.
- the fundamental theorems of integral calculus.
- the properties of definite integral and its applications.
- the application of a particular case of gamma integral.
- the properties of gamma function.
- the evaluation of the definite integral as the limit of a sum.

2.1 Indefinite Integrals

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2.1.1 Concept of Indefinite Integral

In differential calculus, we have learned how to calculate the differential coefficient $f'(x)$ of a given function $f(x)$ with respect to *x*. In this chapter, we have to find out the primitive function $f(x)$ (i.e. original function) whenever its derived function $f'(x)$ (i.e. derivative of a function) is given, such process is called integration or anti differentiation.

∴ Integration is the reverse process of differentiation

We know that $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x.$ Here cos *x* is known as **Derived function**, and sin *x* is known as **Primitive function** [also called as Anti derivative function (or) Integral function].

Definition 2.1

A function $F(x)$ is said to be a primitive function of the derived function $f(x)$, if $\frac{d}{dx} [F(x)] = f(x)$

Now, consider the following examples which are already known to us.

$$
\frac{d}{dx}(x^3) = 3x^2, \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(x^3 + 5) = 3x^2, \n\frac{d}{dx}(x^3 - \frac{3}{2}) = 3x^2, \qquad \frac{d}{dx}(x^3 + e) = 3x^2, \n\frac{d}{dx}(x^3 - \pi) = 3x^2, \qquad \dots
$$

From the above examples, we observe that $3x^2$ is the derived function of the primitive functions x^3 , $x^3 + 5$, $x^3 - \frac{3}{2}$, $x^3 + e$, $x^3 - \pi$, ... and which indicates that the primitive functions are need not be unique, even though the derived function is unique. So we come to a conclusion that $x^3 + c$ is the primitive function of the derived function $3x^2$.

∴ For every derived function, there are infinitely many primitives by choosing *c* arbitrarily from the set of real numbers **R**. So we called these integrals as indefinite integrals.

In general,
\n
$$
\frac{d}{dx} [F(x)] = f(x) \implies \int f(x) dx = F(x) + c,
$$
\nwhere *c* is called the constant of
\nintegration.

Remarks

- If two different primitive functions $F(x)$ and $G(x)$ have the same derived function $f(x)$, then they differ only by a constant term.
- $\int f(x) dx$ is called as indefinite integral.

```
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```
- The symbol looks like an elongated S [∫], which stands for "summation" is the sign of integration.
- *f (x) dx* is read as integral of $f(x)$ with respect to *x*.
- $f(x)$ in $\int f(x) dx$ [i.e. the function to be integrated] is called as integrand.
- x in $\int f(x) dx$ is the variable of integration.
- The term integration means the process of finding the integral.
- The term constant of integration means any real number *c* , considered as a constant function.

Definition 2.2

The process of determining an integral of a given function is defined as integration of a function.

- **2.1.2 Two important properties of Integral Calculus**
- (i) if *k* is any constant, then $\int k f(x) \ dx = k \int f(x) \ dx$
- (ii) if $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are any two functions, then

$$
\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx
$$

Methods of Integration

The following are the four principal methods of integration.

- (i) Integration by decomposition.
- (ii) Integration by parts.
- (iii) Integration by substitution.
- (iv) Integration by successive reduction.

Remember !

Integrate a function $f(x)$ means, finding a function $F(x)$ such that $\frac{d}{dx} [F(x) + c] = f(x)$

Note

Here, we discuss only the first three methods of integration, because the method of integration by successive reduction is beyond the scope of the syllabus.

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2.1.3 Integration by decomposition

Apply this method, whenever the integrand is impossible to integrate directly, but it can be integrated after decomposing into a sum or difference of integrands whose individual integrals are already known.

Note

The integrals which are directly obtained from their corresponding derivatives are known as the standard results of integration.

Some standard results of integration

Type: I
\n(i)
$$
\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + c
$$
, $n \neq -1$
\n(ii) $\int (ax + b)^n dx = \frac{(ax + b)^{n+1}}{a(n+1)} + c$, $n \neq -1$
\n
\n**EXAMPLE 2**
\n**EXAMPLE 3**
\n**EXAMPLE 4**
\n**EXAMPLE 4**
\n**EXAMPLE 5**
\n**EXAMPLE 6**
\n**EXAMPLE 7**
\n**EXAMPLE 8**
\n**EXAMPLE 9**
\n**EXAMPLE 1**
\n**EXAMPLE**

Example 2.1
\nEvaluate
$$
\int \frac{ax^2 + bx + c}{\sqrt{x}} dx
$$

\nSolution:
\n
$$
\int \frac{ax^2 + bx + c}{\sqrt{x}} dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int \left(ax^{\frac{3}{2}} + bx^{\frac{1}{2}} + cx^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) dx
$$

\n
$$
= a \int x^{\frac{3}{2}} dx + b \int x^{\frac{1}{2}} dx + c \int x^{-\frac{1}{2}} dx
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{2ax^{\frac{5}{2}}}{5} + \frac{2bx^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3} + 2cx^{\frac{1}{2}} + k
$$

\n
$$
= \sqrt{\frac{100}{100}} \int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x}} dx = x + c
$$

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Example 2.2 Evaluate $\int \sqrt{2x+1} \, dx$ *Solution:* $\int \sqrt{2x+1} \, dx = \int (2x+1)$ 1 $\int (2x+1)^2 dx$ $=\frac{(2)}{2}$ 3 1 3 $(x+1)^{2}$ *c* $(2x+1)$ + $\int a (ax + b)^n dx = \int (ax + b)^n d (ax + b)$ $=\frac{(ax+b)}{b}$ + + $(ax + b)^{n+}$ *n c n*+1 1

Example 2.3 Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{(2x+3)^2}
$$

Solution:

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$$
\int \frac{dx}{(2x+3)^2} = \int (2x+3)^{-2} dx
$$

= $-\frac{1}{2(2x+3)} + c$

(i)
$$
\int \frac{1}{x^n} dx = -\frac{1}{(n-1)x^{n-1}} + c
$$
, $n \neq 1$
\n(ii) $\int \frac{a}{(ax+b)^n} dx = \int \frac{d(ax+b)}{(ax+b)^n} dx$
\n $= -\frac{1}{(n-1)(ax+b)^{n-1}} + c$, $n \neq 1$

Example 2.4
\nEvaluate
$$
\int \left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right)^2 dx
$$

\nSolution:
\n
$$
\int \left(x + \frac{1}{x}\right)^2 dx = \int \left(x^2 + 2 + \frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int x^2 dx + 2 \int dx + \int \frac{1}{x^2} dx
$$

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

Example 2.5

Evaluate
$$
\int (x^3 + 7)(x - 4) dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int (x^3 + 7)(x - 4) dx
$$

=
$$
\int (x^4 - 4x^3 + 7x - 28) dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{x^5}{5} - x^4 + \frac{7x^2}{2} - 28x + c
$$

Example 2.6

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{2x^2 - 14x + 24}{x - 3} dx
$$

Solution:

By factorisation,

$$
2x^2 - 14x + 24 = (x - 3)(2x - 8)
$$

$$
\int \frac{2x^2 - 14x + 24}{x - 3} dx = \int \frac{(x - 3)(2x - 8)}{x - 3} dx
$$

=
$$
\int (2x - 8) dx
$$

=
$$
x^2 - 8x + c
$$

Example 2.7

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{x+2}{\sqrt{2x+3}} dx
$$

Solution:

Split into simple integrands
\n
$$
\frac{x+2}{\sqrt{2x+3}} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(2x+4)}{(2x+3)^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{(2x+3)+1}{(2x+3)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right\}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (2x+3)^{\frac{1}{2}} + (2x+3)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right\}
$$

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$$
\int \frac{x+2}{\sqrt{2x+3}} dx = \int \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (2x+3)^{\frac{1}{2}} + (2x+3)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right\} dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \frac{(2x+3)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3} + (2x+3)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\} + c
$$

Example 2.8

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2} - \sqrt{x-2}} dx
$$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

By rationalisation,
\n
$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2} - \sqrt{x-2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2} - \sqrt{x-2}} \times \frac{\sqrt{x+2} + \sqrt{x-2}}{\sqrt{x+2} + \sqrt{x-2}}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{\sqrt{x+2} + \sqrt{x-2}}{4}
$$

$$
\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2} - \sqrt{x-2}} dx
$$

=
$$
\int \frac{\sqrt{x+2} + \sqrt{x-2}}{4} dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{6} \left\{ (x+2)^{\frac{3}{2}} + (x-2)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right\} + c
$$

Exercise 2.1

Integrate the following with respect to *x*.

1.
$$
\sqrt{3x+5}
$$

\n2. $\left(9x^2 - \frac{4}{x^2}\right)^2$
\n3. $(3+x)(2-5x)$
\n4. $\sqrt{x}\left(x^3-2x+3\right)$
\n5. $\frac{8x+13}{\sqrt{4x+7}}$
\n6. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x+1}+\sqrt{x-1}}$

- 7. I f $f'(x) = x + b$, $f(1) = 5$ and $f(2) = 13$, then find $f(x)$
- 8. If $f'(x) = 8x^3 2x$ and $f(2)=8$, then find $f(x)$

Type: II

(i)
$$
\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log |x| + c
$$

(ii)
$$
\int \frac{1}{ax + b} dx = \frac{1}{a} \log |ax + b| + c
$$

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Example 2.9

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{3x^2 + 2x + 1}{x} dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{3x^2 + 2x + 1}{x} dx = \int \left(3x + 2 + \frac{1}{x}\right) dx
$$

$$
= \frac{3x^2}{2} + 2x + \log|x| + c
$$

Example 2.10

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{2}{3x+5} dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{2}{3x+5} dx = 2 \int \frac{1}{3x+5} dx
$$

= $\frac{2}{3} \log |3x+5| + c$

Now

$$
\int \frac{a}{ax+b} dx = \int \frac{d(ax+b)}{ax+b}
$$

= $\log |ax+b| + c$

Example 2.11

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{x^2 + 2x + 3}{x + 1} dx
$$

Solution:

Split into simple integrands
\n
$$
\frac{x^2 + 2x + 3}{x + 1} = \frac{(x^2 + 2x + 1) + 2}{x + 1}
$$
\n
$$
= (x + 1) + \frac{2}{x + 1}
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{x^2 + 2x + 3}{x + 1} dx = \int \left\{ (x + 1) + \frac{2}{x + 1} \right\} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{x^2}{2} + x + 2 \log|x + 1| + c
$$

Example 2.12

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{x^3 + 5x^2 - 9}{x + 2} dx
$$

2

Solution:

By simple division,
\n
$$
\frac{x^3 + 5x^2 - 9}{x + 2} = x^2 + 3x - 6 + \frac{3}{x + 2}
$$

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$$
\int \frac{x^3 + 5x^2 - 9}{x + 2} dx = \int \left[x^2 + 3x - 6 + \frac{3}{x + 2} \right] dx
$$

= $\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{3x^2}{2} - 6x + 3 \log|x + 2| + c$

Example 2.13

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{7x-1}{x^2 - 5x + 6} dx
$$

Solution:

By partial fractions,
\n
$$
\frac{7x-1}{x^2-5x+6} = \frac{A}{x-3} + \frac{B}{x-2}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{7x-1}{x^2-5x+6} = \frac{20}{x-3} - \frac{13}{x-2}
$$

$$
\int \frac{7x-1}{x^2 - 5x + 6} dx = \int \left[\frac{20}{x-3} - \frac{13}{x-2} \right] dx
$$

$$
= 20 \int \frac{dx}{x-3} - 13 \int \frac{dx}{x-2}
$$

$$
= 20 \log|x-3| - 13 \log|x-2| + c
$$

Example 2.14

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{3x+2}{(x-2)^2(x-3)} dx
$$

Solution:

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By partial fractions,
\n
$$
\frac{3x+2}{(x-2)^2(x-3)} = \frac{A}{(x-2)} + \frac{B}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{C}{(x-3)}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{3x+2}{(x-2)^2(x-3)} = -\frac{11}{(x-2)} - \frac{8}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{11}{(x-3)}
$$

$$
\int \frac{3x+2}{(x-2)^2 (x-3)} dx
$$

=
$$
\int \left[-\frac{11}{(x-2)} - \frac{8}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{11}{(x-3)} \right] dx
$$

=
$$
-11 \int \frac{dx}{(x-2)} - 8 \int \frac{dx}{(x-2)^2} + 11 \int \frac{dx}{(x-3)}
$$

$$
= -11\log|x-2| + \frac{8}{x-2} + 11\log|x-3| + c
$$

= $11\log\left|\frac{x-3}{x-2}\right| + \frac{8}{x-2} + c$

Example 2.15

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{3x^2 + 6x + 1}{(x+3)(x^2+1)} dx
$$

Solution:

By partial fractions,
\n
$$
\frac{3x^2 + 6x + 1}{(x+3)(x^2 + 1)} = \frac{A}{(x+3)} + \frac{Bx+C}{(x^2 + 1)}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{3x^2 + 6x + 1}{(x+3)(x^2 + 1)} = \frac{1}{(x+3)} + \frac{2x}{(x^2 + 1)}
$$

$$
\int \frac{3x^2 + 6x + 1}{(x+3)(x^2 + 1)} dx
$$

=
$$
\int \left[\frac{1}{(x+3)} + \frac{2x}{(x^2 + 1)} \right] dx
$$

=
$$
\int \frac{dx}{(x+3)} + \int \frac{2x}{(x^2 + 1)} dx
$$

=
$$
\log|x+3| + \log|x^2 + 1| + c
$$

=
$$
\log |(x+3)(x^2 + 1)| + c
$$

=
$$
\log |x^3 + 3x^2 + x + 3| + c
$$

Exercise 2.2

Integrate the following with respect to *x*.

1.
$$
\left(\sqrt{2x} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x}}\right)^2
$$
 2. $\frac{x^4 - x^2 + 2}{x - 1}$
\n3. $\frac{x^3}{x + 2}$ 4. $\frac{x^3 + 3x^2 - 7x + 11}{x + 5}$
\n5. $\frac{3x + 2}{(x - 2)(x - 3)}$ 6. $\frac{4x^2 + 2x + 6}{(x + 1)^2(x - 3)}$
\n7. $\frac{3x^2 - 2x + 5}{(x - 1)(x^2 + 5)}$ 8. If $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and $f(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}$, then find $f(x)$

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Type: III
\n(i)
$$
\int e^x dx = e^x + c
$$

\n(ii) $\int e^{ax+b} dx = \frac{1}{a}e^{ax+b} + c$
\n(iii) $\int a^x dx = \frac{1}{\log a} a^x + c, a > 0$
\nand $a \ne 1$
\n(iv) $\int a^{mx+n} dx = \frac{1}{m \log a} a^{mx+n} + c, a > 0$
\nand $a \ne 1$
\nExample 2.16

Evaluate
$$
\int 3^{2x+3} dx
$$

\nSolution:
\n
$$
\int 3^{2x+3} dx = \int 3^{2x} \cdot 3^3 dx
$$
\n
$$
= 3^3 \int 3^{2x} dx
$$
\n
$$
= 27 \frac{3^{2x}}{2 \log 3} + c
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{\ln 1}{\ln a^{mx+n}} dx = \int a^{mx+n} d(mx+n)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{\log a} a^{mx+n} + c, \quad a > 0 \text{ and } a \neq 1
$$

Example 2.17
Evaluate \int_{0}^{e} *e dx x* $\int \frac{e^x+7}{e^x}$ *Solution: e e dx x* $\int \frac{e^x + 7}{e^x} dx = \int (1 + 7e^{-x}) dx$ $= x - 7e^{-x} + c$ $\int (2ax + b)e^{ax^2 + bx + c} dx$ $= \int e^{ax^2 + bx + c} d\left(ax^2 + bx + c\right)$ $= e^{ax^2 + bx + c} + k$

Example 2.18 Evaluate $\int \frac{5+5e^2}{x}$ $\int \frac{5 + 5e^2}{e^x + e^x}$

Solution:

 \bigcirc

$$
\int \frac{5+5e^{2x}}{e^x + e^{-x}} dx = 5 \int \frac{e^x (e^{-x} + e^x)}{e^x + e^{-x}} dx
$$

= $5 \int e^x dx$
= $5e^x + c$

 $e^x + e$

 $x \perp e^{-x}$

$$
3\overline{2}
$$

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dx x

Example 2.19 Evaluate *e e* $\int \left(e^{x} + \frac{1}{e^{x}} \right)^{2} dx$ $1)^2$

Solution:

$$
\int \left(e^{x} + \frac{1}{e^{x}} \right)^{2} dx = \int \left(e^{2x} + \frac{1}{e^{2x}} + 2 \right) dx
$$

=
$$
\int \left(e^{2x} + e^{-2x} + 2 \right) dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{e^{2x}}{2} - \frac{e^{-2x}}{2} + 2x + c
$$

Exercise 2.3

Integrate the following with respect to *x*.

1.
$$
e^{x \log a} + e^{a \log a} - e^{n \log x}
$$

\n2. $\frac{a^x - e^{x \log b}}{e^{x \log a} b^x}$
\n3. $(e^x + 1)^2 e^x$
\n4. $\frac{e^{3x} - e^{-3x}}{e^x}$
\n5. $\frac{e^{3x} + e^{5x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$
\n6. $[1 - \frac{1}{x^2}]e^{x + \frac{1}{x}}$
\n7. $\frac{1}{x(\log x)^2}$
\n8. If $f'(x) = e^x$ and $f(0) = 2$, then find $f(x)$

Type: IV

(i)
$$
\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + c
$$

\n(ii) $\int \sin(ax + b) \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \cos (ax + b) + c$
\n(iii) $\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + c$
\n(iv) $\int \cos(ax + b) \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \sin(ax + b) + c$
\n(v) $\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + c$
\n(vi) $\int \sec^2(ax + b) \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \tan(ax + b) + c$
\n(vii) $\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + c$
\n(viii) $\int \csc^2 (ax + b) \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \cot(ax + b) + c$

Example 2.20

Evaluate $\int (2 \sin x - 5 \cos x) dx$

Solution:

 $\int (2 \sin x - 5 \cos x) dx = 2 \int \sin x dx - 5 \int \cos x dx$ $= -2 \cos x - 5 \sin x + c$

Example 2.21

Evaluate $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$

Solution:

Change into simple integrands
\n
$$
\cos 2x = 1 - 2\sin^2 x
$$
\n
$$
\therefore \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)
$$
\n
$$
\int \sin^2 x \, dx = \int \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x) \, dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[\int dx - \int \cos 2x \, dx \right]
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[x - \frac{\sin 2x}{2} \right] + c
$$
\nExample 3.32

2 ² $\sqrt{2}$ *x*

Example 2.22

Evaluate $\int \frac{\cos x}{1^2}$ $\sin^2 x \cos$ $\int \frac{\cos 2x}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x} dx$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

Change into simple integrands
\n
$$
\frac{\cos 2x}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x} = \frac{\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}
$$
\n
$$
= \csc^2 x - \sec^2 x
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{\cos 2x}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x} dx = \int (\csc^2 x - \sec^2 x) dx
$$
\n
$$
= -\cot x - \tan x + c
$$

Example 2.23

Evaluate $\int \sqrt{1 + \sin 2x} \, dx$

Solution:

Change into simple integrands
\n
$$
1 + \sin 2x = \sin^2 x + \cos^2 x + 2 \sin x \cos x
$$
\n
$$
= (\sin x + \cos x)^2
$$

$$
\int \sqrt{1 + \sin 2x} \, dx = \int \sqrt{\left(\sin x + \cos x\right)^2} \, dx
$$

$$
= \int (\sin x + \cos x) \, dx
$$

$$
= -\cos x + \sin x + c
$$

Example 2.24

Evaluate
$$
\int \cos^3 x \, dx
$$

Solution:

Change into simple integrands
\n
$$
\cos 3x = 4 \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x
$$
\n
$$
\cos^3 x = \frac{1}{4} [\cos 3x + 3 \cos x]
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \cos 3x + \frac{3}{4} \cos x
$$

$$
\int \cos^3 x \, dx
$$

= $\frac{1}{4} \int \cos 3x \, dx + \frac{3}{4} \int \cos x \, dx$
= $\frac{\sin 3x}{12} + \frac{3 \sin x}{4} + c$
Exercise 2.4

Integrate the following with respect to *x*.

- 1. $2\cos x 3\sin x + 4\sec^2 x 5\csc^2 x$
- 2. $\sin^3 x$

3.
$$
\frac{\cos 2x + 2\sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x}
$$

4.
$$
\frac{1}{\cos^2 x} \left[\text{Hint}: \sin x\right]
$$

4.
$$
\frac{1}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x} \left[\text{Hint} : \sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1 \right]
$$

5. $\sqrt{1 - \sin 2x}$

2.1.4 Integration by parts

Type: V

(1) We know that, if *u* and *v* are two differentiable functions of *x* , then

$$
\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u\frac{dv}{dx} + v\frac{du}{dx}.
$$

Integrate on both sides with respect to *x* .

$$
\int \frac{d}{dx}(uv) dx = \int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx + \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \int d(uv) = \int u dv + \int v du
$$

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$$
uv = \int u dv + \int v du
$$

$$
\therefore \int u dv = uv - \int v du
$$

This method is very useful when the integrand is a product of two different types of functions or a function which is not directly integrable. The success of this method depends on the proper choice of *u* . So we can choose the function u by using the following guidelines.

- (i) If the integrand contains only a function which is directly not integrable, then take this as *u*.
- (ii) If the integrand contains both directly integrable and non integrable functions, then take non integrable function as *u*.
- (iii) If the integrand contains both the functions are integrable and one of them is of the form x^n , *n* is a positive integer, then take this x^n as u .
- (iv) for all other cases, the choice of u is ours (Or) we can also choose *u* as the function which comes first in the word **"I L A T E"** Where,
- **I** stands for the inverse trigonometric function
- **L** stands for the logarithmic function
- **A** stands for the algebraic function
- **T** stands for the trigonometric function
- **E** stands for the exponential function and take the remaining part of the function and *dx* as *dv*.
- (2) If *u* and *v* are functions of *x* , then $\int u dv = uv - u'v_1 + u''v_2 - u''v_3 + ...$

where u', u'', u''', \ldots are the successive derivatives of *u* and v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots are the repeated integrals of *v*.

Note

⊕

- \bullet The above mentioned formula is well known as Bernoulli's formula.
- \bullet Bernoulli's formula is applied when $u = x^n$ where *n* is a positive integer.

Example 2.25

Evaluate
$$
\int xe^x dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int xe^x dx = \int u dv
$$

= uv - $\int v du$
= xe^x - $\int e^x dx$
= xe^x - e^x + c
= e^x (x - 1)+c

Example 2.26

Evaluate
$$
\int x^3 e^x dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int x^3 e^x dx = \int u dv
$$

= $uv - u'v_1 + u''v_2 - u'''v_3 + ...$
= $x^3 e^x - 3x^2 e^x + 6xe^x - 6e^x + c$
= $e^x (x^3 - 3x^2 + 6x - 6) + c$

Example 2.27

Evaluate
$$
\int x^3 \log x \ dx
$$

Solution:

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$$
\int x^3 \log x \, dx = \int u dv
$$

= $uv - \int v du$
= $\frac{x^4}{4} \log x - \frac{1}{4} \int x^3 dx$
= $\frac{x^4}{4} \log x - \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{x^4}{4} \right) + c$
= $\frac{x^4}{4} \left[\log x - \frac{1}{4} \right] + c$

Example 2.28

Evaluate
$$
\int (\log x)^2 dx
$$

Solution:

⊕

Take
$$
u = (\log x)^2
$$
 and $dv = dx$
\nDifferentiate
\n $du = (2 \log x) \left(\frac{1}{x} dx\right)$ Integrate
\n
$$
\int (\log x)^2 dx = \int u dv
$$
\n
$$
= uv - \int v du
$$
\n
$$
= x(\log x)^2 - 2 \int \log x dx \dots (*)
$$
\nFor $\int \log x dx$ in (*)

$$
= x(\log x)^2 - 2 \int u dv
$$

$$
= x(\log x)^2 - 2 \left[uv - \int v du \right]
$$

$$
= x(\log x)^2 - 2 \left[x \log x - \int dx \right]
$$

$$
= x(\log x)^2 - 2x \log x + 2x + c
$$

$$
= x \left[(\log x)^2 - \log x^2 + 2 \right] + c
$$

Example 2.29

Evaluate
$$
\int (x^2 - 2x + 5)e^{-x} dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int (x^2 - 2x + 5)e^{-x} dx
$$

= $\int u dv$
= $uv - u'v_1 + u''v_2 - u'''v_3 + ...$
= $(x^2 - 2x + 5)(-e^{-x}) - (2x - 2)e^{-x} + 2(-e^{-x}) + c$
= $e^{-x}(-x^2 - 5) + c$
Exercise 2.5

Integrate the following with respect to *x.*

2.1.5 Integration by substitution (or) change of variable method

Integrals of certain functions cannot be obtained directly, because they are not in any one of the standard forms as discussed above, but may be reduced to a standard form by suitable substitution. The method of evaluating an integral by reducing it to a standard form by suitable substitution is called integration by substitution.

Type: VI

1.
$$
\iint [f(x)]^n f'(x) dx = \frac{[f(x)]^{n+1}}{n+1} + c, n \neq -1
$$

\n2.
$$
\int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \log |f(x)| + c
$$

\n3.
$$
\int \frac{f'(x)}{\sqrt{f(x)}} dx = 2\sqrt{f(x)} + c
$$

\n4.
$$
\int e^x [f(x) + f'(x)] dx = e^x f(x) + c
$$

\n5.
$$
\int e^{ax} [a f(x) + f'(x)] dx = e^{ax} f(x) + c
$$

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Example 2.30
\nEvaluate
$$
\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx
$$

\nSolution:
\nTake $f(x) = x^2 + 1$
\n $\therefore f'(x) = 2x$
\n
$$
\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \log[f(x)] + c
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \log|x^2 + 1| + c
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \log|x^2 + 1| + c
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \log(ax^n + b)
$$
\n
$$
= \log(ax^n + b) + c
$$

Example 2.31

Evaluate $\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x}}$ *x* $\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} dx$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

Take
$$
f(x) = x^2 + 1
$$

\n
$$
\therefore f'(x) = 2x
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{f'(x)}{\sqrt{f(x)}} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[2\sqrt{f(x)} \right] + c
$$
\n
$$
= \sqrt{x^2 + 1} + c
$$

$$
\int \frac{\text{N00}}{\sqrt{ax^n + b}} \, dx = \int \frac{d(ax^n + b)}{\sqrt{ax^n + b}}
$$

$$
= 2\sqrt{ax^n + b} + c
$$

Example 2.32

Evaluate
$$
\int x \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx
$$

Solution:

Take
$$
f(x) = x^2 + 1
$$

\n
$$
\therefore f'(x) = 2x
$$

$$
\int x\sqrt{x^2+1} \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int (x^2+1)^2 (2x) dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int [f(x)]^{\frac{1}{2}} f'(x) dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \frac{[f(x)]^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{3}{2}} + c
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{3} (x^2+1)^2 + c
$$

Example 2.33

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{x^3}{(x^2+1)^3} dx
$$

Solution:

Take
$$
z = x^2 + 1
$$

\n
$$
\therefore x^2 = z - 1 \text{ and}
$$
\n
$$
dz = 2x dx
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{dz}{2} = x dx
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{x^3}{(x^2 + 1)^3} dx = \int \frac{x^2}{(x^2 + 1)^3} x dx
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{z - 1}{z^3} dz
$$

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$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int \left[\frac{1}{z^2} - \frac{1}{z^3} \right] dz
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[-\frac{1}{z} + \frac{1}{2z^2} \right] + c
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{4(x^2 + 1)^2} - \frac{1}{2(x^2 + 1)} + c
$$

Example 2.34

Evaluate $\int \frac{dx}{x(x^3+1)}$ *Solution:*

$$
\int \frac{dx}{x(x^3+1)} = \int \frac{x^2}{x^3(x^3+1)} dx
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \int \frac{1}{z(z+1)} dz
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \int \left[\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{z+1} \right] dz
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \left[\log|z| - \log|z+1| \right] + c
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \log \left| \frac{z}{z+1} \right| + c
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \log \left| \frac{x^3}{x^3+1} \right| + c
$$

Example 2.35

Evaluate $\int x^3 e^{x^2} dx$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

Take
$$
z = x^2
$$

\n
$$
\therefore dz = 2x dx
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{dz}{2} = x dx
$$
\n
$$
\int x^3 e^{x^2} dx = \int x^2 e^{x^2} (x dx)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int z e^{z} dz
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[e^{z} (z-1) \right] + c
$$
 [By applying
Integration
by parts]

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left[e^{x^{2}} (x^{2} - 1) \right] + c
$$

Example 2.36

Evaluate
$$
\int e^x (x^2 + 2x) dx
$$

Solution:

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

\n
$$
\therefore f'(x) = 2x
$$
\n
$$
\int e^x (x^2 + 2x) dx = \int e^x [f(x) + f'(x)] dx
$$
\n
$$
= e^x f(x) + c
$$
\n
$$
= e^x x^2 + c
$$

Example 2.37

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{xe^x}{(1+x)^2} dx
$$

Solution:

By partial fractions,
\n
$$
\frac{x}{(1+x)^2} = \frac{A}{1+x} + \frac{B}{(1+x)^2}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{x}{(1+x)^2} = \frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}
$$
\n
$$
f'(x) = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}
$$

$$
\int \frac{xe^{x}}{(1+x)^{2}} dx
$$

=
$$
\int e^{x} \left[\frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{-1}{(1+x)^{2}} \right] dx
$$

=
$$
\int e^{x} \left[f(x) + f'(x) \right] dx
$$

=
$$
e^{x} f(x) + c
$$

=
$$
\frac{e^{x}}{1+x} + c
$$

Example 2.38

Evaluate
$$
\int e^{2x} \left[\frac{2x-1}{4x^2} \right] dx
$$

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Solution:

$$
\frac{2x-1}{4x^2} = \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{-1}{2x^2}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \left[2\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + \frac{-1}{x^2} \right]
$$
\n
$$
\left[\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x}{x} \right) + \frac{-1}{x^2} \right]
$$
\n
$$
\therefore f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}
$$

$$
\int e^{2x} \left[\frac{2x-1}{4x^2} \right] dx
$$

= $\frac{1}{4} \int e^{2x} \left[2\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) + \frac{-1}{x^2} \right] dx$
= $\frac{1}{4} \int e^{ax} \left[a f(x) + f'(x) \right] dx$
= $\frac{1}{4} \left[e^{ax} f(x) \right] + c$
= $\frac{1}{4x} e^{2x} + c$

Example 2.39

Evaluate
$$
\int \left[\frac{1}{\log x} - \frac{1}{(\log x)^2} \right] dx
$$

Solution:

◈

Take
$$
z = \log x
$$

\n
$$
\therefore dz = \frac{1}{x} dx
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow dx = e^{z} dz \quad [\because x = e^{z}]
$$
\nand $f(z) = \frac{1}{z}$
\n
$$
\therefore f'(z) = -\frac{z}{z^{2}}
$$

$$
\int \left[\frac{1}{\log x} - \frac{1}{(\log x)^2} \right] dx
$$

=
$$
\int \left[\frac{1}{z} - \frac{1}{z^2} \right] e^z dz
$$

=
$$
\int e^z \left[f(z) + f'(z) \right] dz
$$

=
$$
e^z f(z) + c
$$

=
$$
e^z \left[\frac{1}{z} \right] + c
$$

=
$$
\frac{x}{\log x} + c
$$

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Integrate the following with respect to *x.*

1.
$$
\frac{2x+5}{x^2+5x-7}
$$

\n2. $\frac{e^{3\log x}}{x^4+1}$
\n3. $\frac{e^{2x}}{e^{2x}-2}$
\n4. $\frac{(\log x)^3}{x}$
\n5. $\frac{6x+7}{\sqrt{3x^2+7x-1}}$
\n6. $(4x+2)\sqrt{x^2+x+1}$
\n7. $x^8(1+x^9)^5$
\n8. $\frac{x^{e-1}+e^{x-1}}{x^e+e^x}$
\n9. $\frac{1}{x \log x}$
\n10. $\frac{x}{2x^4-3x^2-2}$
\n11. $e^x(1+x)\log(xe^x)$
\n12. $\frac{1}{x(x^2+1)}$
\n13. $e^x\left[\frac{1}{x^2}-\frac{2}{x^3}\right]$
\n14. $e^x\left[\frac{x-1}{(x+1)^3}\right]$
\n15. $e^{3x}\left[\frac{3x-1}{9x^2}\right]$

2.1.6 Some special types of Integrals

Type: VII

To evaluate the integrals of the form $\int \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$ $\int \frac{dx}{ax^2 + bx + c}$, $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{ax^2 + bx + c}}$ and $\int \sqrt{ax^2 + bx + c} dx$, first we have to express $ax^2 + bx + c$ as the sum or difference of two square terms [completing the squares], that is $(x + \alpha)^2 + \beta^2$ (or) $(x + \alpha)^2 - \beta^2$ (or) $\beta^2 - (x + \alpha)^2$ and apply the suitable formula from the formulae given below.

1. *dx* $a^2 - x^2$ 2*a* $a + x$ $\frac{a}{a^{2}-x^{2}} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{b+x}{a-x} \right| + c$ $\int \frac{dx}{a^2 - x^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{a + x}{a - x} \right| +$ 2. *dx* $x^2 - a^2$ 2*a* $x - a$ $\frac{du}{2-a^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{du}{x+a} \right| + c$ $\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{x - a}{x + a} \right| +$ 3. *dx* $x^2 - a$ $\frac{2x}{a^2} = \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}| + c$ $^{2} - a^{2}$ $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}| +$ 4. *dx* $\frac{2x}{x^2+a^2} = \log |x + \sqrt{x^2+a^2}| + c$ $2^2 + a^2$ $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2}| +$

 $x^2 + a$

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5.
$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} dx = \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} - \frac{a^2}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}| + c
$$

6.
$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2}| + c
$$

Example 2.40

Evaluate $\int \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$ $\int \frac{dx}{16-x^2}$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{dx}{16 - x^2} = \int \frac{dx}{4^2 - x^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2(4)} \log \left| \frac{4 + x}{4 - x} \right| + c
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{8} \log \left| \frac{4 + x}{4 - x} \right| + c
$$

Example 2.41

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{1 - 25x^2}
$$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

$$
\int \frac{dx}{1 - 25x^2} = \frac{1}{25} \int \frac{dx}{\left(\frac{1}{5}\right)^2 - x^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{25} \left[\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{1}{5}\right)} \log \left| \frac{\frac{1}{5} + x}{\frac{1}{5} - x} \right| \right] + c
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{10} \log \left| \frac{1 + 5x}{1 - 5x} \right| + c
$$

$$
\int \frac{10}{a^2 - (mx)^2} dx = \int \frac{d(mx)}{a^2 - (mx)^2} dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{a + mx}{a - mx} \right| + c
$$

Example 2.42

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{2 + x - x^2}
$$

Solution:

By completing the squares
\n
$$
2 + x - x^2 = 2 - \left[x^2 - x\right]
$$
\n
$$
= 2 - \left[\left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4}\right]
$$
\n
$$
= \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{dx}{2 + x - x^2} = \int \frac{dx}{\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)} \log \left|\frac{\frac{3}{2} + \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)}{\frac{3}{2} - \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)}\right| + c
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \log \left|\frac{2 + 2x}{4 - 2x}\right| + c
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3} \log \left|\frac{1 + x}{2 - x}\right| + c
$$
\nExample 2.42

Example 2.43

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{4x^2 - 1}
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{dx}{4x^2 - 1} = \int \frac{dx}{4\left(x^2 - \frac{1}{4}\right)}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{dx}{x^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \left[\frac{1}{2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} \log \left|\frac{x - \frac{1}{2}}{x + \frac{1}{2}}\right|\right] + c
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \log \left|\frac{2x - 1}{2x + 1}\right| + c
$$

\n
$$
\int \frac{1}{(mx)^2 - a^2} dx = \int \frac{d(mx)}{(mx)^2 - a^2}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{2a} \log \left|\frac{mx - a}{mx + a}\right| + c
$$

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Example 2.44
\nEvaluate
$$
\int \frac{x^2}{x^2 - 25} dx
$$

\nSolution:
\n
$$
\int \frac{x^2}{x^2 - 25} dx = \int \frac{(x^2 - 25) + 25}{x^2 - 25} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int \left\{ 1 + \frac{25}{x^2 - 25} \right\} dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int dx + 25 \int \frac{dx}{x^2 - 25}
$$
\n
$$
= x + 25 \left[\frac{1}{2(5)} \log \left| \frac{x - 5}{x + 5} \right| \right] + c
$$
\n
$$
= x + \frac{5}{2} \log \left| \frac{x - 5}{x - 5} \right| + c
$$

2

+

5

x

Example 2.45

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - 3x + 2}
$$

Solution:

 \bigcirc

By completing the squares
\n
$$
x^2 - 3x + 2 = \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{9}{4} + 2
$$
\n
$$
= \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4}
$$
\n
$$
= \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2
$$

$$
\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - 3x + 2} = \int \frac{dx}{\left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} \log \left|\frac{x - \frac{3}{2}\right| - \frac{1}{2}}{\left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}}\right| + c
$$

$$
= \log \left|\frac{2x - 4}{2x - 2}\right| + c
$$

$$
= \log \left|\frac{x - 2}{x - 1}\right| + c
$$

Example 2.46
Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4x^2 - 9}}
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4x^2 - 9}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4\left[x^2 - \frac{9}{4}\right]}}
$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2}}$
= $\frac{1}{2} \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2} \right| + c$
= $\frac{1}{2} \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 - \frac{9}{4}} \right| + c$
= $\frac{1}{2} \log \left| 2x + \sqrt{4x^2 - 9} \right| + c$

$$
\int \frac{m}{\sqrt{(mx)^2 - a^2}} dx = \int \frac{d(mx)}{\sqrt{(mx)^2 - a^2}}
$$

$$
= \log \left| mx + \sqrt{(mx)^2 - a^2} \right| + c
$$

Note
Notice

$$
m \log n \pm k = c
$$

Example 2.47

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 3x + 2}}
$$

Solution:

By completing the squares
\n
$$
x^2 - 3x + 2 = \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{9}{4} + 2
$$
\n
$$
= \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2
$$

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$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 3x + 2}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{\left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2}}
$$

= $\log \left| \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right) + \sqrt{\left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2} \right| + c$
= $\log \left| \left(x - \frac{3}{2}\right) + \sqrt{x^2 - 3x + 2} \right| + c$

Example 2.48

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 25}}
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 25}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 5^2}}
$$

= $\log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + 5^2}| + c = \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + 25}| + c$

Example 2.49

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 4x + 8}}
$$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

By completing the squares
\n
$$
x^{2} + 4x + 8 = (x + 2)^{2} - 4 + 8
$$
\n
$$
= (x + 2)^{2} + 2^{2}
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^{2} + 4x + 8}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{(x + 2)^{2} + 2^{2}}}
$$
\n
$$
= \log |(x + 2) + \sqrt{(x + 2)^{2} + 2^{2}}| + c
$$
\n
$$
= \log |(x + 2) + \sqrt{x^{2} + 4x + 8}| + c
$$

$$
\int \frac{10}{\sqrt{(\text{max})^2 + a^2}} dx = \int \frac{d(mx)}{\sqrt{(\text{max})^2 + a^2}}
$$

$$
= \log \left| \text{max} + \sqrt{(\text{max})^2 + a^2} \right| + c
$$

Example 2.50

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{x^3 dx}{\sqrt{x^8 + 1}}
$$

\nSolution:
\n
$$
\int \frac{x^3 dx}{\sqrt{x^8 + 1}} = \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{4x^3 dx}{\sqrt{(x^4)^2 + 1^2}}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \log |x^4 + \sqrt{(x^4)^2 + 1^2}| + c
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{4} \log |x^4 + \sqrt{x^8 + 1}| + c
$$

Example 2.51

Evaluate
$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 - 16} \ dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 - 16} \, dx = \int \sqrt{x^2 - 4^2} \, dx
$$

= $\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 4^2} - \frac{4^2}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - 4^2}| + c$
= $\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 16} - 8 \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - 16}| + c$

Example 2.52

Evaluate
$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 + 5} \ dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 + 5} \, dx = \int \sqrt{x^2 + (\sqrt{5})^2} \, dx
$$

= $\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 + (\sqrt{5})^2 + \frac{(\sqrt{5})^2}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + (\sqrt{5})^2}| + c$
= $\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 + 5} + \frac{5}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 + 5}| + c$

$$
\int m \sqrt{(mx)^2 + a^2} \, dx = \int \sqrt{(mx)^2 + a^2} \, d(mx)
$$

$$
= \frac{mx}{2} \sqrt{(mx)^2 + a^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \log \left| mx + \sqrt{(mx)^2 + a^2} \right| + c
$$

Example 2.53

Evaluate
$$
\int \sqrt{4x^2 + 9} \ dx
$$

Solution: $\int \sqrt{4x^2+9} dx$

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$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int \sqrt{(2x)^2 + 3^2} \ d(2x)
$$

= $\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{2x}{2} \sqrt{(2x)^2 + 3^2} + \frac{3^2}{2} \log |2x + \sqrt{(2x)^2 + 3^2}| \right] + c$
= $\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{4x^2 + 9} + \frac{9}{4} \log |2x + \sqrt{4x^2 + 9}| + c$

Example 2.54

Evaluate
$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 - 4x + 3} \ dx
$$

Solution:

By completing the squares
\n
$$
x^{2}-4x+3 = (x-2)^{2}-4+3
$$
\n
$$
= (x-2)^{2}-1^{2}
$$
\n
$$
\therefore \sqrt{x^{2}-4x+3} = \sqrt{(x-2)^{2}-1^{2}}
$$

$$
\int \sqrt{x^2 - 4x + 3} \, dx
$$

= $\int \sqrt{(x - 2)^2 - 1^2} \, dx$
= $\frac{(x - 2)}{2} \sqrt{(x - 2)^2 - 1^2} - \frac{1}{2} \log |(x - 2) + \sqrt{(x - 2)^2 - 1^2}| + c$
= $\frac{(x - 2)}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 4x + 3} - \frac{1}{2} \log |(x - 2) + \sqrt{x^2 - 4x + 3}| + c$

Example 2.55

Evaluate
$$
\int \frac{1}{x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx
$$

Solution:

⊕

By rationalisation,
\n
$$
\frac{1}{x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} = \frac{1}{x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \times \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}{x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}
$$
\n
$$
= x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}
$$

$$
\int \frac{1}{x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx
$$

=
$$
\int [x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}] dx
$$

=
$$
\int x dx + \int \sqrt{x^2 - 1} dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 1} - \frac{1}{2} \log |x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}| + c
$$

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{Exercise 2.7}
$$

Integrate the following with respect to *x*

1.
$$
\frac{1}{9-16x^2}
$$

\n2. $\frac{1}{9-8x-x^2}$
\n3. $\frac{1}{2x^2-9}$
\n4. $\frac{1}{x^2-x-2}$
\n5. $\frac{1}{x^2+3x+2}$
\n6. $\frac{1}{2x^2+6x-8}$
\n7. $\frac{e^x}{e^{2x}-9}$
\n8. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{9x^2-7}}$
\n9. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+6x+13}}$
\n10. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-3x+2}}$
\n11. $\frac{x^3}{\sqrt{x^8-1}}$
\n12. $\sqrt{1+x+x^2}$
\n13. $\sqrt{x^2-2}$
\n14. $\sqrt{4x^2-5}$
\n15. $\sqrt{2x^2+4x+1}$
\n16. $\frac{1}{x+\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

2.2 Definite integrals

So for we learnt about indefinite integrals on elementary algebraic, exponential, trigonometric and logarithmic functions. Now we are going to study about the definite integrals. *b*

Geometrically, definite integral $\int f(x) dx$

a represents the limit of a sum. It is also represented as the area bounded the curve $y = f(x)$, the axis of *x*, and the ordinates $x = a$ and $x = b$.

2.2.1 The fundamental theorems of Integral Calculus

Theorem 2.1 First fundamental theorem of Integral Calculus:

If
$$
f_x(x)
$$
 is a continuous function and
\n $F(x) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$, then $F'(x) = f(x)$.

a **Theorem 2.2 Second fundamental theorem of Integral Calculus:**

Let $f(x)$ be a continuous function on [a,b], if $F(x)$ is anti derivative of $f(x)$, then $f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$ *a b* $\int f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$

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Here *a* and *b* are known as the lower limit and upper limit of the definite integral.

f x dx a b $\int f(x) dx$ is a definite constant, whereas $\int f(t) dt$ *a x* $\int f(t) dt$ which is a function of the variable *x*. **Note**

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(x) + c
$$

\n
$$
\Rightarrow \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)
$$

Example 2.56

Evaluate $\int (x^3 + 7x^2 - 5x) dx$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ 1 $\int (x^3 + 7x^2 - 5x)$

Solution:

⊕

We have already learnt about the evaluation of the integral $\int (x^3 + 7x^2 - 5x) dx$ in the previous section.

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\therefore \int \left(x^3 + 7x^2 - 5x \right) dx &= \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{7x^3}{3} - \frac{5x^2}{2} + c \\
\text{Now, } \int \left(x^3 + 7x^2 - 5x \right) dx \\
&= \left[\frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{7x^3}{3} - \frac{5x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 \\
&= \left[\frac{1}{4} + \frac{7}{3} - \frac{5}{2} \right] - \left[\frac{0}{4} + \frac{0}{3} - \frac{0}{2} \right] \\
&= \left[\frac{1}{4} + \frac{7}{3} - \frac{5}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{12}\n\end{aligned}
$$

Example 2.57

Find the integration for $\frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx* $=\frac{2x}{5x^2+}$ $\frac{1}{5x^2+1}$ with limiting values as 0 and 1

Solution:

Here,
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2x}{5x^2 + 1}
$$

$$
\therefore y = \int_0^1 \frac{2x}{5x^2 + 1} dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{5} \int_0^1 \frac{10x}{5x^2 + 1} dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{5} \Big[\log(5x^2 + 1) \Big]_0^1
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{5} \Big[\log 6 - \log 1 \Big]
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{5} \log 6
$$

Example 2.58

Evaluate
$$
\int_{0}^{1} \left(e^{x} - 4a^{x} + 2 + \sqrt[3]{x}\right) dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \left(e^{x} - 4a^{x} + 2 + \sqrt[3]{x} \right) dx = \left[e^{x} - 4 \frac{a^{x}}{\log a} + 2x + 3 \frac{x^{\frac{4}{3}}}{4} \right]_{0}^{1}
$$
\n
$$
= e - \frac{4a}{\log a} + 2 + \frac{3}{4} - 1 + \frac{4}{\log a}
$$
\n
$$
= e + \frac{4(1-a)}{\log a} + \frac{7}{4}
$$

Example 2.59

Evaluate
$$
\int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{3}} \sin x \, dx
$$

Solution:

$$
\int_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{3}} \sin x \, dx = \left[-\cos x \right]_{\frac{\pi}{6}}^{\frac{\pi}{3}}
$$

$$
= -\left(\cos \frac{\pi}{3} - \cos \frac{\pi}{6} \right)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{3} - 1 \right)
$$

Example 2.60

Evaluate
$$
\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^2 x \, dx
$$

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Solution: Change into simple integrands $\cos 2x = 2\cos^2 x - 1$ $\therefore \cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2} [1 + \cos 2x]$ 2 $x = -11 + \cos 2x$ \cos^2 $\boldsymbol{0}$ 2 *x dx p* $\int_{0}^{2} \cos^{2} x dx = \int_{0}^{2} \frac{1}{2}$ $1 + \cos 2$ $⁰$ </sup> 2 $\int_{2}^{1} [1 + \cos 2x] dx$ *p* $=\frac{1}{2}$ 2 2 2 \int_0^1 $x + \frac{\sin 2x}{2}$ |² $x + \frac{\sin 2x}{2}$ $\left[x+\frac{\sin 2x}{2}\right]$ sin *p* $=\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ + $\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} + 0 \right] =$ 0 4 π α π $e^{a \log x} = x^a$ **Note**

Example 2.61

Evaluate
$$
\int_{0}^{1} \left[e^{a \log x} + e^{x \log a} \right] dx
$$

Solution:

 \bigcirc

$$
\int_{0}^{1} \left[e^{a \log x} + e^{x \log a} \right] dx = \int_{0}^{1} \left(x^{a} + a^{x} \right) dx
$$

$$
= \left[\frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + \frac{a^{x}}{\log a} \right]_{0}^{1}
$$

$$
= \left(\frac{1}{a+1} + \frac{a}{\log a} \right) - \left(0 + \frac{1}{\log a} \right)
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{a+1} + \frac{a}{\log a} - \frac{1}{\log a}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{a+1} + \frac{\left(a-1 \right)}{\log a}
$$

Example 2.62

Evaluate *x x dx* 4 2 2 $\int_{1}^{3} x^{4} + 1$ ∫

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Solution:

2

$$
\int_{2}^{3} \frac{x^{4} + 1}{x^{2}} dx = \int_{2}^{3} \left(x^{2} + x^{-2} \right) dx
$$

$$
= \left[\frac{x^{3}}{3} - \frac{1}{x} \right]_{2}^{3}
$$

$$
= \left(9 - \frac{1}{3} \right) - \left(\frac{8}{3} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{13}{2}
$$

Example 2.63

Evaluate
$$
\int_{-1}^{1} (x^3 + 3x^2)^3 (x^2 + 2x) dx
$$

Solution:

1

−

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} (x^3 + 3x^2)^3 (x^2 + 2x) dx = \left[\frac{1}{3} \frac{(x^3 + 3x^2)^4}{4} \right]_{-1}^{1}
$$

$$
\left[\because \int [f(x)]^n f'(x) dx = \frac{[f(x)]^{n+1}}{n+1} + c \right]
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{3} (64 - 4)
$$

$$
= 20
$$

Example 2.64

Evaluate log *x x dx a b* $\int \frac{\sqrt{168x}}{x} dx \quad a,b>0$ *Solution:* log *x* $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}dx$ *a* $\int_{0}^{b} \frac{\sqrt{\log x}}{x} dx = \int_{0}^{b} (\log x)^{2} dx$ *x ^a* b $\frac{1}{2}$ 2 $=$ $\left| \frac{2\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}}{3} \right|$ 3 $\log x$)² *a b* $(\log x)$ I L I I I I $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ J J $\overline{}$ $f(x) \int_a^b f'(x) dx = \frac{[f(x)]^{n+1}}{n+1} + c$ I L L L $\int [f(x)]^{n} f'(x) dx = \frac{f'(x)}{n+1} + c$ +1 1 $=\frac{2}{2}$ 3 3 2 3 ($log b$ *}* 2 − ($log a$) 2 I \lfloor $\left| \left(\log b \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} - \left(\log a \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right|$ $\overline{}$ $\log b^2 = -\log b$ $\frac{3}{2} = \frac{3}{2} \log b$ but,
 $\frac{3}{2} \times \frac{3}{2} \log b$ Fu $(\log b)^2 \neq -\log b$ 2 $\neq \frac{5}{9} \log b$ Further, $(\log b)^{\frac{3}{2}} - (\log a)^{\frac{3}{2}} \neq \log \frac{b}{a}$ *a* 3 2 3 2 3 $-\left(\log a\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \neq \left(\log \frac{b}{a}\right)^2$

I

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Example 2.65
\nEvaluate
$$
\int_{-1}^{1} x\sqrt{x+1} dx
$$

\nSolution:
\nTake $t = x+1$
\n $dt = dx$
\nand
\n $x \quad -1 \quad 1$
\n $t \quad 0 \quad 2$
\n $\int_{-1}^{1} x\sqrt{x+1} dx = \int_{0}^{2} (t-1) \sqrt{t} dt$
\n $= \int_{0}^{2} \left(t^{\frac{3}{2}} - t^{\frac{1}{2}} \right) dt$
\n $= \left[2t^{\frac{5}{2}} - 2t^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]_{0}^{2}$
\n $= \frac{8\sqrt{2}}{5} - \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3}$
\n $= \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{15}$
\nExample 2.66
\nEvaluate $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} dx$
\nSolution:
\n $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} dx = -2 \left[e^{-\frac{x}{2}} \right]_{0}^{\infty}$
\n $= -2[0-1] = 2$
\nExample 2.67
\nEvaluate $\int_{0}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^3} dx$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

Evaluate $\int x^2 e^{-x^3} dx$ 0

$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{2} e^{-x^{3}} dx = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} \frac{dt}{3}
$$

= $\frac{\frac{9}{3}}{\frac{1}{3}} [-e^{-t}]_{0}^{\infty}$
= $\frac{-1}{3} [0 - 1]$
= $\frac{1}{3}$

Example 2.68

Evaluate
$$
\int_{1}^{2} \frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)} dx
$$

 $\boldsymbol{0}$

∞

Solution:

By partial fractions,
\n
$$
\frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)} = \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{B}{x+2}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)} = \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{x+2}
$$
\n
$$
\int_{1}^{2} \frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)} dx = \int_{1}^{2} \left[\frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{x+2} \right] dx
$$
\n
$$
= \left[\log |x+1| - \log |x+2| \right]_{1}^{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \log \frac{3}{4} - \log \frac{2}{3}
$$
\n
$$
= \log \frac{9}{8}
$$

Example 2.69

Evaluate
$$
\int_{1}^{e} \log x \, dx
$$

Solution:

Take
$$
u = \log x
$$
 $dv = dx$
Differentiate
 $du = \frac{1}{x} dx$ $v = x$

$$
\int_{1}^{e} \log x \, dx = \int_{1}^{e} u \, dv
$$

= $\left[uv \right]_{1}^{e} - \int_{1}^{e} v du$
= $\left[x \log x \right]_{1}^{e} - \int_{1}^{e} x \frac{1}{x} \, dx$

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$$
= (e \log e - 1 \log 1) - [x]_1^e
$$

= (e - 0) - (e - 1)
= 1

Example 2.70 $\frac{\pi}{2}$

Evaluate
$$
\int_{0}^{2} x \sin x \, dx
$$

Solution:

Take
$$
u = x
$$

\nDifferentiate
\n $du = dx$
\nIntegrate
\n
$$
du = dx
$$
\nIntegrate
\n
$$
v = -\cos x
$$
\n
$$
\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} x \sin x \, dx = \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} u \, dx
$$
\n
$$
= [uv]_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} - \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} v \, du
$$
\n
$$
= [-x \cos x]_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} + \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx
$$
\n
$$
= 0 + [\sin x]_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = 1
$$

Example 2.71

If
$$
\int_{1}^{a} 3x^2 dx = -1
$$
, then find the value of *a*, $a \in R$.
Solution:

Solution:

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Given that
$$
\int 3x^2 dx = -1
$$

$$
\left[x^3\right]_1^a = -1
$$

$$
a^3 - 1 = -1
$$

$$
a^3 = 0 \Rightarrow a = 0
$$

Example 2.72

If $\int dx = 1$ and $\int x dx$ *a b a b* $\int dx = 1$ and $\int x dx = 1$, then find *a* and *b*

Solution:

Solution:
\nGiven that
$$
\int_{a}^{b} dx = 1
$$
\n
$$
[x]_{a}^{b} = 1
$$
\n
$$
b-a = 1 \qquad ... (1)
$$

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Now,
$$
\int_{a}^{b} x dx = 1
$$

$$
\left[\frac{x^{2}}{2}\right]_{a}^{b} = 1
$$

$$
b^{2} - a^{2} = 2
$$

$$
(b+a)(b-a) = 2
$$

$$
b+a = 2 \dots (2) \left[\because b-a = 1\right]
$$

$$
(1)+(2) \Rightarrow 2b = 3
$$

$$
\therefore b = \frac{3}{2}
$$

$$
\text{Now, } \frac{3}{2} - a = 1 \left[\because \text{from (1)}\right]
$$

$$
\therefore a = \frac{1}{2}
$$

Example 2.73

Evaluate
$$
\int_{1}^{4} f(x) dx
$$
, where

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 7x + 3, & \text{if } 1 \le x \le 3 \\ 8x, & \text{if } 3 \le x \le 4 \end{cases}
$$

Solution:

$$
\int_{1}^{4} f(x) dx = \int_{1}^{3} f(x) dx + \int_{3}^{4} f(x) dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{1}^{3} (7x+3) dx + \int_{3}^{4} 8x dx
$$

\n
$$
= \left[\frac{7x^{2}}{2} + 3x \right]_{1}^{3} + \left[\frac{8x^{2}}{2} \right]_{3}^{4}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{63}{2} + 9 - \frac{13}{2} + 64 - 36
$$

\n
$$
= 62
$$

Example 2.74

If
$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & -2 \le x < 1 \\ x, & 1 \le x < 2 \\ x-4, & 2 \le x \le 4 \end{cases}
$$

then find the following

(i)
$$
\int_{-2}^{1} f(x)dx
$$
 (ii) $\int_{1.5}^{2} f(x)dx$
\n(iii) $\int_{2}^{3} f(x)dx$ (iv) $\int_{-2}^{1.5} f(x)dx$
\n(v) $\int_{1}^{3} f(x)dx$

Solution:

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(i)
$$
\int_{-2}^{1} f(x) dx = \int_{-2}^{1} x^2 dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-2}^{1} = \frac{1}{3} - \left(\frac{-8}{3} \right) = 3
$$

\n(ii) $\int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx = \int_{1}^{2} x dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{1}^{2} = \frac{4}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$
\n(iii) $\int_{2}^{3} f(x) dx = \int_{2}^{3} (x - 4) dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} - 4x \right]_{2}^{3} = \left[\frac{9}{2} - 12 \right) - \left(\frac{4}{2} - 8 \right)$
\n $= -\frac{15}{2} + 6 = \frac{-3}{2}$
\n(iv) $\int_{-2}^{1.5} f(x) dx = \int_{-2}^{1.5} f(x) dx + \int_{1.5}^{1.5} f(x) dx$
\n $= 3 + \int_{1.5}^{1.5} x dx$ using (i)
\n $= 3 + \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{1}^{1.5}$
\n $= 3 + \frac{2.25}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 3 + \frac{1.25}{2} = 3.625$
\n(v) $\int_{1}^{3} f(x) dx = \int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx + \int_{2}^{3} f(x) dx$
\n $= \frac{3}{2} + \left(\frac{-3}{2} \right) = 0$ using (ii) and (iii)
\n**Exercise 2.8**

I. Using second fundamental theorem, evaluate the following:

1.
$$
\int_{0}^{1} e^{2x} dx
$$
 2. $\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{4}} \sqrt{1-4x} dx$ 3. $\int_{1}^{2} \frac{x dx}{x^2+1}$
\n4. $\int_{0}^{3} \frac{e^x dx}{1+e^x}$ 5. $\int_{0}^{1} xe^{x^2} dx$ 6. $\int_{1}^{e} \frac{dx}{x(1+\log x)^3}$
\n7. $\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{2x+3}{x^2+3x+7} dx$ 8. $\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sqrt{1+\cos x} dx$
\n9. $\int_{1}^{2} \frac{x-1}{x^2} dx$

11. Evaluate the following:
\n1.
$$
\int_{4}^{4} f(x) dx
$$
 where
\n
$$
\int_{2}^{1} f(x) dx
$$
 where
\n
$$
\int_{0}^{2} f(x) dx
$$
 where
\n
$$
\int_{0}^{2} f(x) dx
$$
 where
\n
$$
\int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx
$$
 where
\n
$$
\int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx
$$
 where $f(x) = \begin{cases} 3 - 2x - x^{2}, & x \le 1 \\ x^{2} + 2x - 3, & 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}$
\n3.
$$
\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx
$$
 where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & x \ge 0 \\ -x, & x < 0 \end{cases}$
\n4.
$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} cx, & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

\nFind 'c' if
$$
\int_{1}^{1} f(x) dx = 2
$$

\n
$$
\int_{a}^{1} dx = b - a
$$

2.2.2 Properties of definite integrals

(i)
$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt
$$

\n(ii)
$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx
$$

- (iii) If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous functions in $\lfloor a \, , b \rfloor$, then $f(x) \pm g(x) dx$ *b* $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$ *b b* $\int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$
- *a a* (iv) If $f(x)$ is a continuous function in $\lfloor a, b \rfloor$ and $a < c < b$, then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x)dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x)dx
$$

(v)
$$
\int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{a} f(a-x)dx
$$

Proof:

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R.H.S.
$$
= \int_{0}^{a} f(a-x)dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{a}^{0} f(t)(-dt)
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{a} f(t)dt
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx
$$
 [using the Property (i)]
\n
$$
= L.H.S.
$$

(vi) (a) If $f(x)$ is an even function, then $f(x)dx = 2 \int f(x)dx$ *a a a* $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x)$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ (b) If $f(x)$ is an odd function, then *f x dx a a* $\int f(x)dx=0$ −

Proof :

 \bigoplus

(a) If
$$
f(x)
$$
 is an even function, then
\n
$$
f(x) = f(-x) \dots (1)
$$
\n
$$
\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = \int_{-a}^{0} f(x) dx + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{-a}^{0} f(-x) dx + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx
$$
\nusing (1)

Apply the above mentioned substitution only in first part of integral of the R.H.S.

$$
\therefore \int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{0} f(t) (-dt) + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx
$$

=
$$
\int_{0}^{a} f(t) dt + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx
$$

$$
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$$

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$$
= \int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx + \int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx
$$

[using the Property (i)]

$$
= 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx
$$

b) If $f(x)$ is an odd function, then $f(-x) = -f(x)$ …(2) *f x dx a a* (x) − $\int f(x)dx = \int f(x)dx + \int f(x)dx$ *a a* $(x)dx + \int f(x)$ − $\int f(x)dx + \int$ $\overline{0}$ $⁰$ </sup> $= \int -f(-x)dx + \int f(x)dx$ − *a a* $(-x)$ $\overline{0}$ $\overline{0}$ using (2) Take $-x = t \implies dx = -dt$ $x \mid -a \mid 0$ *t a* 0

Apply the above mentioned substitution only in first part of integral of the R.H.S.

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\therefore \int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx &= -\int_{a}^{0} f(t)(-dt) + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx \\
&= -\int_{0}^{a} f(t) dt + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx \\
&= -\int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx + \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx \text{ [using the Property (i)]}\n\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n=0\\ \text{(vii)} \quad \int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_a^b f(a+b-x) \, dx\n\end{array}
$$

Proof:

Let
$$
a+b-x = t
$$
 and
\n $-dx = dt$
\n $dx = -dt$
\n $dx = -dt$
\n $u = a+b-x$
\n x
\n $u = a+b-x$
\n x
\n $u = a+b-x$
\n x
\n $u = a+b-x$

$$
\therefore \int_{a}^{b} f(a+b-x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(t)dt = \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt
$$

$$
= \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx
$$
 [using the Property (i)]

 \bigcirc

$$
\therefore \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(a+b-x) dx
$$

Evaluate the following using properties of definite integrals:

Example 2.75

Evaluate $x^3 dx$ $a^2 - x$ 5 $2 - r^2$ 1 1 $\int_{-1}^{1} a^2 -$ ∫

Solution:

Let
$$
f(x) = \frac{x^5}{a^2 - x^2}
$$

\n $f(-x) = \frac{(-x)^5}{a^2 - (-x)^2}$
\n $= \frac{-x^5}{a^2 - x^2}$
\n $= -f(x)$
\nHere $f(-x) = -f(x)$

 $\therefore f(x)$ is an odd function

$$
\Rightarrow \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{x^5 dx}{a^2 - x^2} = 0
$$

Example 2.76

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Evaluate
$$
\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx
$$

Solution:

Let
$$
f(x) = \cos x
$$

\n $f(-x) = \cos(-x) = \cos x$
\n $\Rightarrow f(-x) = f(x)$

$$
\therefore f(x) \text{ is an even function}
$$
\n
$$
\therefore \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx = 2 \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \left[\sin x \right]_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}}
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \left[\sin \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin 0 \right]
$$
\n
$$
= 2
$$

Example 2.77 Evaluate
$$
\int_{-1}^{1} (x^2 + x) dx
$$

Solution:

−

$$
\int_{-1}^{1} \left(x^2 + x\right) dx = \int_{-1}^{1} x^2 dx + \int_{-1}^{1} x dx
$$

= $2 \int_{0}^{1} x^2 dx + 0$ [: x² is

an even function and *x* is an odd function]

$$
=2\left[\frac{x^3}{3}\right]_0^1 = 2\left[\frac{1}{3} - 0\right]
$$

$$
= \frac{2}{3}
$$

Example 2.78

Evaluate
$$
\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin x}{\sin x + \cos x} dx
$$

Solution: p

p

Let
$$
I = \int_0^2 \frac{\sin x}{\sin x + \cos x} dx
$$
 ... (1)

$$
= \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right)} dx
$$

$$
\left[\because \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx = \int_{0}^{a} f(a - x) dx\right]
$$

$$
= \int_{0}^{2} \frac{\cos x}{\cos x + \sin x} dx \qquad ...(2)
$$

$$
(1) + (2) \Rightarrow
$$

\n
$$
2I = \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left[\frac{\sin x}{\sin x + \cos x} + \frac{\cos x}{\cos x + \sin x} \right] dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} dx = \left[x \right]_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{\pi}{2}
$$

\n
$$
\therefore I = \frac{\pi}{4}
$$

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Exercise 2.9

Evaluate the following using properties of definite integrals:

2.2.3 Gamma Integral

Gamma integral is an important result which is very useful in the evaluation of a particular type of an improper definite integrals.

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First, let us know about the concepts of indefinite integrals, proper definite integrals and improper definite integrals.

Indefinite integral:

An integral function which is expressed without limits, and so containing an arbitrary constant is called an indefinite integral

Example: $\int e^{-t} dt$

Proper definite integral:

Proper definite integral is an integral function, which has both the limits *a* and *b* are finite and the integrand $f(x)$ is continuous in [a , b].

Example:
$$
\int_{0}^{1} e^{-t} dt
$$

Improper definite integral:

An improper definite integral is an integral function, in which the limits either *a* or *b* or both are infinite, or the integrand $f(x)$ becomes infinite at some points of the interval [*a*, *b*].

Example:
$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-t} dt
$$

Definition 2.3

For $n > 0$, $\int x^{n-1}e^{-x}dx$ ∞ $\int x^{n-1}e^{-}$ \sqrt{a} is known known as

Gamma function and is denoted by $\Gamma(n)$ [read as Gamma of *n*].

Note
\nIf *n* is a positive integer, then
\n
$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{n} e^{-ax} dx = \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}
$$
 is the particular
\ncase of Gamma Integral.

Properties:

- 1. $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)\Gamma(n-1), n>1$
- 2. $\Gamma(n+1) = n \Gamma(n), n>0$

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3.
$$
\Gamma(n+1) = n!
$$
, *n* is a positive integer.

4.
$$
\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}
$$

Example 2.80

Evaluate (i)
$$
\Gamma(6)
$$
 (ii) $\Gamma(\frac{7}{2})$
\n(iii) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2x} x^5 dx$ (iv) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

$$
(i) \qquad \Gamma(6) = 5!
$$

(ii)
$$
\Gamma\left(\frac{7}{2}\right) = \frac{5}{2}\Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)
$$

$$
= \frac{5}{2}\frac{3}{2}\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)
$$

$$
= \frac{5}{2}\frac{3}{2}\frac{1}{2}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)
$$

$$
= \frac{5}{2}\frac{3}{2}\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi} = \frac{15}{8}\sqrt{\pi}
$$

(iii) we know that

$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{n} e^{-ax} dx = \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}
$$

\n
$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2x} x^{5} dx = \frac{5!}{2^{5+1}} = \frac{5!}{2^{6}}
$$

\n(iv) $\Gamma(n) = \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{n-1} e^{-t} dt$
\nPut $t = x^{2} \implies dt = 2x dx$
\n
$$
\therefore \qquad \Gamma(n) = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} (x^{2})^{n-1} 2x dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} x^{2n-2} 2x dx
$$

 $= 2 \int e^{-x^2} x^{2n-1}$

 $2 \int e^{-x^2} x^{2n-1}$

 $e^{-x^2} x^{2n-1} dx$

0

Put
$$
n = \frac{1}{2}
$$
, we have
\n
$$
\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 2\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \sqrt{\pi} = 2\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx
$$
\n
$$
\therefore \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}
$$
\nExercise 2.10

1. Evaluate the following:
\n(i)
$$
\Gamma(4)
$$
 (ii) $\Gamma(\frac{9}{2})$ (iii) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-mx} x^6 dx$
\n(iv) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-4x} x^4 dx$ (v) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x}{2}} x^5 dx$
\n2. If $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 e^{-2x}, x \ge 0 \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$, then evaluate $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(x) dx$

2.2.4 Definite integral as the limit of a sum

Let $f(x)$ be a continuous real valued function in $[a, b]$, which is divided into *n* equal parts of width *h* , then *b*

At

\n
$$
\int_{a}^{x} f(x) dx = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ h \to 0}} h \left[f(a) + f(a+h) + f(a+h) \right]
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}
$$
\n
$$
f(a+2h) + \dots + f(a+(n-1)h) \left[f(a+h) \right]
$$
\nfor

\n
$$
= \int_{a}^{5} f(x) dx = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ h \to 0}} \sum_{r=1}^{n} h f(a+rh),
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{n-1} e^{-t} dt
$$
\nwhere

\n
$$
h = \frac{b-a}{n}
$$

The following results are very useful in evaluating definite integral as the limit of a sum

(i)
$$
1+2+3+......n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} r
$$

\n(ii) $1^{2} + 2^{2} + 3^{2} +......n^{2} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} r^{2}$
\n(iii) $1^{3} + 2^{3} + 3^{3} +......n^{3} = \left[\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right]^{2} = \sum_{r=1}^{n} r^{3}$

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Example 2.81 Evaluate the integral as the limit of a sum: *x dx* ∫ 0 1 *Solution: f x dx a b* $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ h \to 0}} f(x)$ $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} h f(a + rh)$ $\rightarrow 0$ ^o $r=$ $\sum h f(a + rh)$ $\int_{0}^{\infty} r=1$ Here $a = 0$, $b = 1$, $h = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{1-0}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$
and $f(x) = x$ Now $f(a+rh) = f\left(0 + \frac{r}{h}\right)$ *n* $\int f\left(\frac{r}{r}\right)$ *n* $a(n + rh) = f\left(0 + \frac{r}{n}\right) = f\left(\frac{r}{n}\right) = \frac{r}{n}$ On substituting in (1) we have

$$
\int_{0}^{1} x \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{r}{n}
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}} \sum_{r=1}^{n} r
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}} \frac{n (n+1)}{2}
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}} \cdot \frac{n^{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)}{2}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1+0}{2} = \frac{1}{2}
$$

\n
$$
\therefore \int_{0}^{1} x \, dx = \frac{1}{2}
$$

Example 2.82

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Evaluate the integral as the limit of a sum: $\int (2x+1) dx$ 1 2

Solution:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ h \to 0}} \sum_{r=1}^{n} h f(a + rh)
$$

Here $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $h = \frac{b - a}{n} = \frac{2 - 1}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$
and $f(x) = 2x + 1$, $f(a + rh) = f\left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)$
 $= 2\left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right) + 1$
 $= 2 + \frac{2r}{n} + 1$
 $f(a + rh) = 3 + \frac{2r}{n}$

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$$
\int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left(3 + \frac{2r}{n} \right)
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \left(\frac{3}{n} + \frac{2r}{n^2} \right)
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{3}{n} \sum_{r=1}^{n} 1 + \frac{2}{n^2} \sum_{r=1}^{n} r \right]
$$

\n
$$
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{3}{n} (n) + \frac{2}{n^2} \frac{n (n+1)}{2} \right]
$$

\n
$$
= 3 + \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)
$$

\n
$$
\int_{1}^{2} f(x) dx = 3 + 1 = 4
$$

Example 2.83

Evaluate the integral as the limit of a sum: $\int x^2 dx$ 1 2

Solution:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{\substack{n \to \infty \\ h \to 0}} \sum_{r=1}^{n} h f(a + rh)
$$

\nHere $a = 1$, $b = 2$, $h = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{2-1}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$ and
\n $f(x) = x^2$
\nNow $f(a + rh) = f\left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right) = \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^2$
\n $= 1 + \frac{2r}{n} + \frac{r^2}{n^2}$
\n $\therefore \int_{1}^{2} x^2 dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left(1 + \frac{2r}{n} + \frac{r^2}{n^2}\right)$
\n $= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{r=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{2r}{n^2} + \frac{r^2}{n^3}\right)$
\n $= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{r=1}^{n} 1 + \frac{2r}{n^2} \sum_{r=1}^{n} r + \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{r=1}^{n} r^2\right)$
\n $= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} (n) + \frac{2}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{1}{n^3} \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}\right)$
\n $= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[1 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\left(2 + \frac{1}{n}\right)}{6}\right]$

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$$
= \left[1+1+\frac{(1)(2)}{6}\right]
$$

$$
\therefore \int_{1}^{2} x^{2} dx = \frac{7}{3}
$$

Exercise 2.11

Evaluate the following integrals as the limit of the sum:

1.
$$
\int_{0}^{1} (x+4) dx
$$

\n2. $\int_{1}^{3} x dx$
\n3. $\int_{1}^{3} (2x+3) dx$
\n4. $\int_{0}^{1} x^{2} dx$
\n2. Choose the correct answer:
\n1. $\int \frac{1}{x^{3}} dx$ is
\n(a) $\frac{-3}{x^{2}} + c$
\n(b) $\frac{-1}{2x^{2}} + c$
\n(c) $\frac{-1}{3x^{2}} + c$
\n(d) $\frac{-2}{x^{2}} + c$
\n2. $\int 2^{x} dx$ is
\n(a) $2^{x} \log 2 + c$
\n(b) $2^{x} + c$

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(c)
$$
\frac{2^x}{\log 2} + c
$$
 (d) $\frac{\log 2}{2^x} + c$
\n3. $\int \frac{\sin 2x}{2 \sin x} dx$ is
\n(a) $\sin x + c$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} \sin x + c$
\n(c) $\cos x + c$ (d) $\frac{1}{2} \cos x + c$

4.
$$
\int \frac{\sin 5x - \sin x}{\cos 3x} dx
$$
 is
\n(a) $-\cos 2x + c$ (b) $-\cos 2x + c$
\n(c) $-\frac{1}{4}\cos 2x + c$ (d) $-4\cos 2x + c$
\n5. $\int \frac{\log x}{x} dx$, $x > 0$ is
\n(a) $\frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2 + c$ (b) $-\frac{1}{2} (\log x)^2$
\n(c) $\frac{2}{x^2} + c$ (d) $\frac{2}{x^2} + c$

6.
$$
\int \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+e^x}} dx
$$
 is
\n(a) $\frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+e^x}} + c$ (b) $2\sqrt{1+e^x} + c$
\n(c) $\sqrt{1+e^x} + c$ (d) $e^x \sqrt{1+e^x} + c$
\n7. $\int \sqrt{e^x} dx$ is
\n(a) $\sqrt{e^x} + c$ (b) $2\sqrt{e^x} + c$
\n(c) $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{e^x} + c$ (d) $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{e^x}} + c$
\n8. $\int e^{2x} [2x^2 + 2x] dx$
\n(a) $e^{2x}x^2 + c$ (b) $xe^{2x} + c$
\n(c) $2x^2e^2 + c$ (d) $\frac{x^2e^x}{2} + c$
\n9. $\int \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1} dx$ is
\n(a) $\log \left| \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1} \right| + c$ (b) $\log \left| \frac{e^x + 1}{e^x} \right| + c$
\n(c) $\log |e^x| + c$ (d) $\log |e^x + 1| + c$
\n10. $\int \left[\frac{9}{x-3} - \frac{1}{x+1} \right] dx$ is
\n(a) $\log |x-3| - \log |x+1| + c$
\n(b) $\log |x-3| + \log |x+1| + c$
\n(c) $9 \log |x-3| + \log |x+1| + c$
\n(d) $9 \log |x-3| + \log |x+1| + c$
\n11. $\int \frac{2x^3}{4 + x^4} dx$ is
\n(a) $\log |4 + x^4| + c$ (b) $\frac{1}{2} \log |4 + x^4| + c$
\n(c) $\frac{1}{4} \log |4 + x^4| + c$ (d) $\log \left| \frac{2x^3}{4 + x^4} \right| + c$
\n12. $\int \frac{$

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(c)
$$
\log |x - \sqrt{x^2 - 36}| + c
$$

\n(d) $\log |x^2 + \sqrt{x^2 - 36}| + c$
\n13. $\int \frac{2x + 3}{\sqrt{x^2 + 3x + 2}} dx$ is **23.13**
\n(a) $\sqrt{x^2 + 3x + 2} + c$ is **3.14**
\n(b) $2\sqrt{x^2 + 3x + 2} + c$ is **3.14**
\n(c) $\log (x^2 + 3x + 2) + c$
\n(d) $\frac{2}{3}(x^2 + 3x + 2) + c$
\n14. $\int_0^1 (2x + 1) dx$ is
\n(a) 1 (b) 2 (c) 3 (d) 4
\n15. $\int_2^4 \frac{dx}{x}$ is
\n(a) $\log 4$ (b) 0 (c) $\log 2$ (d) $\log 8$
\n16. $\int_0^3 e^{-2x} dx$ is
\n(a) 0 (b) 1 (c) 2 (d) $\frac{1}{2}$
\n17. $\int_x^1 x^3 e^{x^4} dx$ is
\n(a) 1 (b) $2 \int_0^1 x^3 e^{x^4} dx$ (c) 0 (d) e^{x^4}
\n18. If $f(x)$ is a continuous function and
\n $a < c < b$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$ is
\n(a) $\int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b f(x) dx$
\n(b) $\int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b f(x) dx$
\n(c) $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ (d) 0
\n19. The value of $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x dx$ is
\n(a) 0 (b) 2 (c) 1 (d) 4
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20.
$$
\int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{x^{4}(1-x)^{2}} dx
$$
 is
\n(a) $\frac{1}{12}$ (b) $\frac{-7}{12}$ (c) $\frac{7}{12}$ (d) $\frac{-1}{12}$
\n21. If $\int_{0}^{1} f(x) dx = 1$, $\int_{0}^{1} x f(x) dx = a$ and
\n $\int_{0}^{1} x^{2} f(x) dx = a^{2}$, then $\int_{0}^{1} (a-x)^{2} f(x) dx$ is
\n(a) $4a^{2}$ (b) 0 (c) $2a^{2}$ (d) 1
\n22. The value of $\int_{2}^{3} f(5-x) dx - \int_{2}^{3} f(x) dx$ is
\n(a) 1 (b) 0 (c) -1 (d) 5
\n23. $\int_{0}^{4} (\sqrt{x} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}) dx$ is
\n(a) $\frac{20}{3}$ (b) $\frac{21}{3}$ (c) $\frac{28}{3}$ (d) $\frac{1}{3}$
\n $\frac{\pi}{3}$
\n24. $\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{3}}$ tan x dx is
\n(a) log 2 (b) 0 (c) log $\sqrt{2}$ (d) 2 log 2
\n25. Using the factorial representation of the gamma function, which of the following is
\nthe solution for the gamma function $\Gamma(n)$ when $n = 8$
\n(a) 5040 (b) 5400 (c) 4500 (d) 5540
\n26. $\Gamma(n)$ is
\n(a) $(n-1)!$ (b) $n!$

(c)
$$
n\Gamma(n)
$$
 (d) $(n-1)\Gamma(n)$

27.
$$
\Gamma(1)
$$
 is

(a) 0 (b) 1 (c) *n* (d) *n*!

28. If
$$
n > 0
$$
, then $\Gamma(n)$ is
\n(a) $\int_{0}^{1} e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx$ (b) $\int_{0}^{1} e^{-x} x^{n} dx$
\n(c) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{x} x^{-n} dx$ (d) $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx$

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29.
$$
\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)
$$

\n(a) $\sqrt{\pi}$ (b) $\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$ (c) $2\sqrt{\pi}$ (d) $\frac{3}{2}$
\n30. $\int_{0}^{\infty} x^4 e^{-x} dx$ is
\n(a) 12 (b) 4 (c) 4! (d) 64

Miscellaneous problems

5. $\int \sqrt{9x^2 + 12x + 3} \ dx$ 6. $\int (x+1)^2 \log x \, dx$ 7. $\int \log \left(x - \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \right) dx$ 8. $\int \sqrt{x(x-1)} dx$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ 1 9. $\int x^2 e^{-2x} dx$ 1 − 1 $\int x^2 e^{-}$ 10. *x dx* $\int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{\ln x}{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{5x+1}}$ 3

4. $\int \sqrt{2x^2 - 3} \ dx$

Evaluate the following integrals:

1.
$$
\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2} - \sqrt{x+3}} dx
$$

2.
$$
\int \frac{dx}{2 - 3x - 2x^2}
$$

3.
$$
\int \frac{dx}{e^x + 6 + 5e^{-x}}
$$

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Summary

In this chapter, we have acquired the knowledge of

• The relation between the Primitive function and the derived function:

A function $F(x)$ is said to be a primitive function of the derived function $f(x)$, if $\frac{d}{dx} [F(x)] = f(x)$

Integration of a function: The process of determining an integral of a given function is defined as integration of a function

z **Properties of indefinite integrals:**

$$
\int a f(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx
$$

$$
\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx
$$

z **Standard results of indefinite integrals:**

1.
$$
\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + c
$$

\n2. $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log|x| + c$
\n3. $\int e^x dx = e^x + c$
\n4. $\int a^x dx = \frac{1}{\log a} a^x + c, a > 0$ and $a \ne 1$
\n5. $\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + c$
\n6. $\int \cos x dx = \sin x + c$

7.
$$
\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + c
$$
 8.
$$
\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + c
$$

10. $\int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \log |f(x)| +$

f x

 (x)

9.
$$
\int [f(x)]^{n} f'(x) dx = \frac{[f(x)]^{n+1}}{n+1} + c, n \neq -1
$$

 $dx = log |f(x)| + c$

8.
$$
\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + c
$$

$$
\frac{f(x)}{(x)}dx = \log |f(x)| + c
$$
 11. $\int \frac{f'(x)}{\sqrt{f(x)}} dx = 2\sqrt{f(x)} + c$

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12.
$$
\int u dv = uv - \int v du
$$

\n13. $\int u dv = uv - u'v_1 + u''v_2 - u'''v_3 + ...$
\n14. $\int \frac{dx}{a^2 - x^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{a + x}{a - x} \right| + c$
\n15. $\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - a^2} = \frac{1}{2a} \log \left| \frac{x - a}{x + a} \right| + c$
\n16. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} \right| + c$
\n17. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} \right| + c$
\n18. $\int e^x \left[f(x) + f'(x) \right] dx = e^x f(x) + c$
\n19. $\int e^{ax} \left[a f(x) + f'(x) \right] dx = e^{ax} f(x) + c$
\n20. $\int \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} dx = \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} - \frac{a^2}{2} \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} \right| + c$
\n21. $\int \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \log \left| x + \sqrt{x^2 + a^2} \right| + c$
\n9. Definite integral:

Let $f(x)$ be a continuous function on [a,b] and if $F(x)$ is anti derivative of $f(x)$, then $\int f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$

a z **Properties of definite integrals:**

(i)
$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt
$$

\n(ii) $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx$
\n(iii) $\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) \pm g(x)]dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \pm \int_{a}^{b} g(x)dx$ (iv) $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x)dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x)dx$
\n(v) $\int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{a} f(a-x)dx$
\n(vi) $\int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{a} f(a-x)dx$
\n(vii) a) If $f(x)$ is an even function, then $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)dx = 2\int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx$
\nb) If $f(x)$ is an odd function, then $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$
\n**Particular case of Gamma Integral:**
\nIf *n* is a positive integer, then $\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{n}e^{-ax} dx = \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}$

\n- Properties of gamma function:
\n- (i)
$$
\Gamma(n) = (n-1)\Gamma(n-1), n > 1
$$
\n- (ii) $\Gamma(n+1) = n\Gamma(n), n > 0$
\n- (iii) $\Gamma(n+1) = n!$, n is a positive integer
\n- (iv) $\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$
\n

z **Definite integral as the limit of a sum:**

Let $f(x)$ be a continuous real valued function in $[a, b]$, which is divided into *n* equal parts each of width $\,h$, then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\substack{h \to 0 \\ n \to \infty}} \sum_{r=1}^{n} h f(a + rh) \text{ where } h = \frac{b - a}{n}
$$

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GLOSSARY (கலைச்சொற்கள்)

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ICT Corner

Improper definite integral ma Integral $\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{n} e^{-ax} dx = \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}$ $\int_{0}^{\infty} x^{3} e^{-2x} dx = \frac{5!}{2^{3+1}} = 1.88$ $x^{1-1}e^{-x}dx = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{4}e^{-x}dx = 24$ $\Gamma(n)$ **Expected Result is shown in this picture**

Step – 1 :

Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics & Statistics " will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-1".

Step - 2 :

⊕

Select the worksheet named" Integration-Gamma Integral". There is a problem based on Gamma Integral and Improper definite Integral. Move the sliders to change "a" and "n" value. Observe the graph.

12th Standard Business Mathematics & Statistics: https://ggbm.at/uzkcrnwr (or) Scan the QR Code.

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3 Integral Calculus – II

Archimedes (287 BC(BCE)-217 BC(BCE))

⊕

Introduction

Istory of integration

begins over 2500 year

The first Greek Math

(around 430 BC (BCE)). begins over 2500 years ago. The first Greek Mathematician Antiphon

introduced the "method of exhaustion" to find areas of simple polygons and more complicated curves. (method of exhaustion means dividing the given area into infinite number of triangles). Though Antiphon invented the method of exhaustion to find area bounded by complicated curves, the mathematician Eudoxus did the logical development in this method of exhaustion. Later Euclid used this method to calculate the area of circle.

Using the same method of exhaustion Archimedes (287 BC(BCE)-217 BC(BCE)) find the area bounded by parabola. Thus using integration area bounded by curves is developed.

We will see the method of finding area by using integration in this chapter.

Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter , the students will be able to understand

- the geometrical interpretation of definite integral.
- the applications of integration in finding the area bounded by a curve.
- the concept of consumer's & producer's surplus.
- the applications of integration in Economics and Commerce.

3.1 The area of the region bounded by the curves

Using integration we can evaluate the area bounded by the curves with coordinate axes. We can also calculate the area between two given curves.

3.1.1 Geometrical Interpretation of Definite Integral as Area under a curve:

Suppose we want to find out the area of the region which is bounded above by a curve $y = f(x)$, below by the $x - axis$ and the lines $x = a$ and $x = b$.

Now from Fig 3.1 let the interval $\left[a \, b \right]$ is divided into *n* subintervals $\begin{bmatrix} x_{i-1}, & x_i \end{bmatrix}$ of equal length Δx_i *i.e* $x_i - x_{i-1} = \Delta_{xi}$ for any $x_i' \in \begin{bmatrix} x_i - 1, x_i \end{bmatrix}$ let $f(x_i')$ be the height of

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n rectangles having $x_i - x_{i-1} = \Delta x_i$ as its base. Then area $A_i = \Delta x_i f(x'_i)$. Now the total area *n*

Now from the definition of definite integral, if $f(x)$ is a function defined on $| a,b |$ with $a < b$ then the definite integral is

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \frac{\lim}{\Delta x_i} \to 0 \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x'_i) \Delta x_i
$$

The area under the curve is exhausted by increasing the number of rectangular strips to ∞

Thus the geometrical interpretation of definite integral is the area under the curve between the given limits.

The area of the region bounded by the curve $y=f(x)$, with *x*- axis and the ordinates at $x = a$ and $x = b$ given by

Note

(i) The area of the region bounded by the curve $y = f(x)$ between the limits $x = a$, $x = b$ and lies below x -axis, is

(ii) The area of the region bounded by the curve $x = f(y)$ between the limits $y = c$ and $y = d$ *with* $y - axis$ and the area lies lies to the right of *y*- axis, is

(iii) The area bounded by the curve $x = f(y)$ between the limits $y = c$ and $y = d$ *with* $y - axis$ and the area lies to the left of *y*- axis, is

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Area between two curves

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two continuous functions defined on *x* in the interval [*a*, *b*]. Also $f(x) > g(x)$, $a \leq b$

Then the area between these two curves from $x = a$ to $x = b$, is

Example 3.1

Find the area bounded by $y = 4x + 3$ with *x*- axis between the lines $x = 1$ and $x = 4$

Solution:

⊕

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Example 3.2

⊕

Find the area of the region bounded by the line $x - 2y - 12 = 0$, the *y*-axis and the lines $y = 2$, $y = 5$.

Solution:

$$
x-2y-12=0
$$

$$
x = 2y+12
$$

Required Area

$$
\begin{aligned}\n&= \int_{2}^{5} x \, dy \\
&= \int_{2}^{5} (2y + 12) \, dy = \left[y^2 + 12y \right]_{2}^{5} \\
&= (25 + 60) - (4 + 24) = 57 \text{ sq.units}\n\end{aligned}
$$

The area bounded by the line
\n
$$
y = mx + c
$$
 with x-axis between lines
\n $x = 0$ and $x = a$ is
\n $= \left| \frac{1}{2} [a] \right[(value of y at x = 0) + [(value of y at x = a)] \right|$

Example 3.3

Find the area of the region bounded by the parabola $y = 4 - x^2$, $x - axis$ and the lines $x = 0, x = 2$.

Example 3.4

Find the area bounded by $y = x$ between the lines $x = -1$ *and* $x = 2$ with *x* -axis.

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Example 3.5

Find the area of the parabola $y^2 = 8x$ bounded by its latus rectum.

Solution

$$
y^2 = 8x \tag{1}
$$

Comparing this with the standard form $y^2 = 4ax$,

$$
4a = 8
$$

$$
a = 2
$$

Equation of latus rectum is $x = 2$

Since equation (1) is symmetrical about *x*- axis

Required Area $= 2$ [Area in the first quadrant between the limits $x = 0$ and $x = 2$]

Example 3.6

Sketch the graph
$$
y = |x+3|
$$
 and evaluate $\int_{-6}^{0} |x+3| dx$.

Solution:

$$
y = |x+3| = \begin{cases} x+3 & \text{if } x \ge -3 \\ -(x+3) & \text{if } x < -3 \end{cases}
$$

Required area =
$$
\int_{b}^{a} y dx = \int_{-6}^{0} y dx
$$

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Example 3.7

Using integration find the area of the circle whose center is at the origin and the radius is0 a units.

Solution

⊕

Equation of the required circle is $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ (1)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}\n\text{put} & y = 0, \ x^2 = a^2 \\
\implies & x = \pm a\n\end{array}
$$

Since equation (1) is symmetrical about both the axes

The required area $= 4$ [Area in the first quadrant between the limit 0 and *a*.]

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$$
= 4 \int_{0}^{a} y \, dx
$$

= $4 \int_{0}^{a} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \, dx = 4 \left[\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \right]_{0}^{a}$
= $4 \left[0 + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{a}{a} \right) \right] = 4 \left(\frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} (1) \right) = 4 \cdot \frac{a^2}{2} \frac{\pi}{2}$
= πa^2 sq. units

Example 3.8

Using integration find the area of the region bounded between the line $x = 4$ and the parabola $y^2 = 16x$.

Solution:

The equation $y^2 = 16x$ represents a parabola (Open rightward)

Required Area =
$$
2 \int_{4}^{b} ydx
$$

\n= $2 \int_{0}^{4} \sqrt{16x} dx$
\n= $8 \int_{0}^{4} x^{\frac{1}{2}} dx = 8 \left[\frac{x^{\frac{3}{2}}}{\frac{3}{2}} \right]_{0}^{4} = \frac{16}{3} \left((4)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right) = \frac{128}{3}$ sq. units

1. Using Integration, find the area of the region bounded the line $2y + x = 8$, the *x* axis and the lines $x = 2$, $x = 4$.

♠

- 2. Find the area bounded by the lines $y - 2x - 4 = 0$, $y = 1$, $y = 3$ and the *y*-axis
- 3. Calculate the area bounded by the parabola $y^2 = 4ax$ and its latusrectum.
- 4. Find the area bounded by the line $y = x$, the *x*-axis and the ordinates $x = 1$, $x = 2$.
- 5. Using integration, find the area of the region bounded by the line $y - 1 = x$, *the x axis* and the ordinates $x = -2$, $x = 3$.
- 6. Find the area of the region lying in the first quadrant bounded by the region $y = 4x^2$, $x = 0$, $y = 0$ and $y = 4$.
- 7. Find the area bounded by the curve $y = x^2$ and the line $y = 4$

3.2 Application of Integration in Economics and Commerce.

 Integration helps us to find out the total cost function and total revenue function from the marginal cost. It is possible to find out consumer's surplus and producer's surplus from the demand and supply function. Cost and revenue functions are calculated through indefinite integral.

We learnt already that the marginal function is obtained by differentiating the total cost function. Now we shall obtain the total cost function when marginal cost function is given, by integration.

3.2.1 Cost functions from marginal cost functions

If *C* is the cost of producing an output *x*, then marginal cost function $MC = \frac{dc}{dx}$. Using integration, as the reverse process of differentiation, we obtain,

Cost function $C = \int (MC) dx + k$

Where k is the constant of integration which is to be evaluated,

> Average cost function $AC = \frac{C}{C}$ *x* $=\frac{0}{x}, x\neq 0$

Example 3.9

The marginal cost function of manufacturing *x* shoes is $6 + 10x - 6x^2$. The cost producing a pair of shoes is ₹12. Find the total and average cost function.

Solution:

Given,

Marginal cost $MC = 6 + 10x - 6x^2$

$$
C = \int MC \, dx + k
$$

= $\int (6 + 10x - 6x^2) \, dx + k$
= $6x + 5x^2 - 2x^3 + k$ (1)

when $x = 2$, $C = 12$ (given)

$$
12 = 12 + 20 - 16 + k
$$

\n
$$
\boxed{k = -4}
$$

\n
$$
C = 6x + 5x^{2} - 2x^{3} - 4
$$

\nAverage cost =
$$
\frac{C}{x} = \frac{6x + 5x^{2} - 2x^{3} - 4}{x}
$$

\n= 6 + 5x - 2x² - $\frac{4}{x}$

Example 3.10

A company has determined that the marginal cost function for a product of a particular commodity is given by $MC = 125 + 10x - \frac{x^2}{9}$ 2 where C rupees is the cost of producing *x* units of the commodity. If the fixed cost is ₹250 what is the cost of producing 15 units.

Solution:

Solution:
\n
$$
MC = 125 + 10x - \frac{x^2}{9}
$$
\n
$$
C = \int MC \, dx + k
$$
\n
$$
= \int \left(125 + 10x - \frac{x^2}{9}\right) dx + k
$$

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$$
= 125x + 5x^{2} - \frac{x^{3}}{27} + k
$$

Fixed cost $k = 250$

$$
C = 125x + 5x^{2} - \frac{x^{3}}{27} + 250
$$

When x = 15

$$
C = 125 (15) + 5 (15)^{2} - \frac{(15)^{3}}{27} + 250
$$

$$
= 1875 + 1125 - 125 + 250
$$

 $C = ₹3,125$

Example 3.11

The marginal cost function $MC = 2 + 5e^x$ (i) Find *C,* if *C* (0)=100 (ii) Find *AC*.

Solution:

⊕

Given MC = 2+5
$$
e^x
$$

\nC = $\int MC dx + k$
\n= $\int (2+5e^x) dx + k$
\n= $2x + 5e^x + k$
\n $x = 0 \Rightarrow C = 100$,
\n100 = 2(0) + 5(e⁰) + k
\n $\boxed{k = 95}$
\nC= $2x + 5e^x + 95$.
\nAverage cost = $\frac{C}{x} = \frac{2x + 5e^x + 95}{x}$
\nAC= $2 + \frac{5e^x}{x} + \frac{95}{x}$.

Rate of growth or sale

If the rate of growth or sale of a function is a known function of t say $f(t)$ where t is a time measure, then total growth (or) sale of a product over a time period *t* is given by,

Total sale =
$$
\int_{0}^{r} f(t) dt, 0 \leq t \leq r
$$

Example 3.12

The rate of new product is given by $f(x) = 100 - 90 e^{-x}$ where *x* is the number of days the product is on the market. Find the total sale during the first four days. $(e^{-4}=0.018)$

Solution:

\nTotal sale

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{4} (100 - 90e^{-x}) dx
$$
\n
$$
= (100x + 90e^{-x})_{0}^{4}
$$
\n
$$
= 400 + 90e^{-4} - (0 + 90)
$$
\n
$$
= 400 + 90(0.018) - 90
$$
\n
$$
= 311.62 \text{ units}
$$

Example 3.13

A company produces 50,000 units per week with 200 workers. The rate of change of productions with respect to the change in the number of additional labour *x* is represented as $300 - 5x^{2/3}$. If 64 additional labours are employed, find out the additional number of units, the company can produce.

Solution:

Let p be the additional product produced for additional of *x* labour,

$$
\frac{dp}{dx} = 300 - 5x^{\frac{2}{3}}
$$

\n
$$
p = \int_{0}^{64} \left(300 - 5x^{\frac{2}{3}}\right) dx
$$

\n
$$
= \left[300x - 3x^{\frac{5}{3}}\right]_{0}^{64}
$$

\n
$$
= 300 \times 64 - 3(64)^{\frac{5}{3}}
$$

\n
$$
= 16128
$$

∴ The number of additional units produced 16128.

Total number of units produced by 264 workers $= 50,000 + 16,128 = 66128$ units.

Example 3.14

The rate of change of sales of a company after an advertisement campaign is represented as, $f(t) = 3000e^{-0.3t}$ where *t* represents the number of months after the advertisement.

♠

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Find out the total cumulative sales after 4 months and the sales during the fifth month. Also find out the total sales due to the advertisement campaign $\left[e^{-1.2} = 0.3012, e^{-1.5} = 0.2231 \right]$

Solution:

⊕

Assume that *F*(*t*) is the total sales after *t* months, sales rate is *^d dt* $F(t) = f(t)$ \therefore F(*t*) = $\int f(t) dt$ *t* 0 ∫

Total cumulative sales after 4 months.

$$
F(4) = \int_{0}^{4} f(t) dt
$$

= $\int_{0}^{4} 3000 e^{-0.3t} dt$
= $3000 \left[\frac{e^{-0.3t}}{-0.3} \right]_{0}^{4}$
= $-10,000 \left[e^{-1.2} - e^{0} \right]$
= $-10,000 [0.3012 - 1]$

= 6988 units

(ii) Sales during the 5th month

$$
= \int_{4}^{5} 3000 e^{-0.3t} dt
$$

= 3000 $\left[\frac{e^{-0.3t}}{-0.3} \right]_{4}^{5}$
= -10,000 $\left[e^{-1.5} - e^{-1.2} \right]$
= -10,000 $\left[0.2231 - 0.3012 \right]$

$= 781$ units

Total sales due to the advertisement campaign.

$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} 3000 e^{-0.3t} dt = \frac{3000}{-0.3} \left[e^{-0.3t} \right]_{0}^{\infty}
$$

$$
= -10000 \left[0 - 1 \right]
$$

$$
= 10,000 \text{ units.}
$$

Example 3.15

The price of a machine is 6,40,000 if the rate of cost saving is represented by the function $f(t) = 20,000$ *t*. Find out the number of years required to recoup the cost of the function.

Solution: Saving Cost $S(t) = \int 20000$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ *t dt t* $\int 20000 t dt$ $= 10000 t^2$ To recoup the total price, $10000 t^2 = 640000$ *t* $t^2 = 64$ $t = 8$

When $t = 8$ years, one can recoup the price.

3.2.2 Revenue functions from Marginal revenue functions

If *R* is the total revenue function when the output is *x*, then marginal revenue $MR = \frac{dR}{dx}$ Integrating with respect to x' we get Revenue Function, $R = \int (MR) dx + k$.

Where '*k*' is the constant of integration which can be evaluated under given conditions, when $x = 0$, the total revenue $R = 0$,

Demand Function, $P = \frac{R}{A}$ *x* $=\overline{-}$, $x \neq 0$.

Example 3.16

For the marginal revenue function $MR = 35 + 7x - 3x^2$, find the revenue function and demand function.

Solution:

Given *MR* = 35 + 7x - 3x²
\n*R* =
$$
\int (MR) dx + k
$$

\n= $\int (35 + 7x - 3x^2) dx + k$
\n*R* = 35x + $\frac{7}{2}x^2 - x^3 + k$
\nSince R = 0 when $x = 0$, $k = 0$
\n*R* = 35x + $\frac{7}{2}x^2 - x^3$

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Demand function
$$
P = \frac{R}{x}
$$

$$
P = 35 + \frac{7}{2}x - x^2.
$$

Example 3.17

A firm has the marginal revenue function given by $MR = \frac{a}{(x+b)^2} - c$ where *x* is the output and *a, b, c* are constants. Show that the demand

function is given by *x* $=\frac{a}{b(p+c)}-b$.

Solution:

⊕

Given MR =
$$
a(x+b)^{-2} - c
$$

\n
$$
R = \int a(x+b)^{-2} dx - c \int dx
$$
\n
$$
R = \frac{a(x+b)^{-1}}{-1} - cx + k
$$
\n
$$
R = -\frac{a}{x+b} - cx + k
$$

When $x = 0$, $R = 0$

$$
\therefore 0 = -\frac{a}{b} - c(0) + k
$$
\n
$$
k = \frac{a}{b}
$$
\n
$$
R = -\frac{a}{x+b} - cx + \frac{a}{b}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{-ab + a(x+b)}{b(x+b)} - cx
$$
\n
$$
R = \frac{ax}{b(x+b)} - cx
$$
\nDemand function $P = \frac{R}{x}$

\n
$$
P = \frac{a}{b(x+b)} - c
$$

$$
P+c = \frac{a}{b(x+b)}
$$

$$
b(x+b) = \frac{a}{P+c}
$$

$$
x = \frac{a}{b(P+c)}-b.
$$

To find the Maximum Profit if Marginal Revenue and Marginal cost function are given:

If '*P*' denotes the profit function, then

$$
\frac{dP}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(R - C\right) = \frac{dR}{dx} - \frac{dC}{dx} = MR - MC
$$

Integrating both sides with respect to *x* gives ,

$$
P = \int (MR - MC) dx + k
$$

Where *k* is the constant of integration. However if we are given additional information, such as fixed cost or loss at zero level of output, we can determine the constant *k*. Once *P* is known, it can be maximum by using the concept of maxima and minima.

Example 3.18

The marginal cost $C'(x)$ and marginal revenue $R'(x)$ are given by $C'(x) = 50 + \frac{x}{50}$ 50 *cand R'*(*x*)=60. The fixed cost is \overline{z} 200. Determine the maximum profit.

Solution:

Given C(x) = $\int C'(x) dx + k_1$ $=$ $| 50$ $\int \left(50 + \frac{x}{50}\right) dx + k_1$ $C(x) = 50$ 100 2 $x + \frac{1}{100} + k_1$ $+\frac{x^2}{100}+k$

When quantity produced is zero, then the fixed cost is 200.

i.e. When
$$
x = 0
$$
, $c = 200$

 $\Rightarrow k_1 = 200$ Cost function is $C(x) = 50$ 100 200 2 *x* $+\frac{x^2}{100}+200$ (1) The Revenue $R'(x) = 60$

$$
R(x) = \int R'(x) dx + k_2
$$

=
$$
\int 60 dx + k_2
$$

=
$$
60x + k_2
$$

When no product is sold, revenue $= 0$

i.e. When $x = 0, R = 0$. Revenue $R(x) = 60x(2)$

 $Demand$

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Profit $P = \text{Total Revenue} - \text{Total cost}$

$$
= 60x-50x-\frac{x^2}{100}-200
$$

$$
= 10x-\frac{x^2}{100}-200
$$

$$
\frac{dp}{dx} = 10-\frac{x}{50}
$$
To get profit maximum,
$$
\frac{dp}{dx} = 0 \implies \boxed{x = 500.}
$$

$$
\frac{d^2P}{dx^2} = \frac{-1}{50} < 0
$$

$$
\therefore \text{ Profit is maximum when } x = 500 \text{ and}
$$

Maximum Profit is P =
$$
10(500) - \frac{(500)^2}{100} - 200
$$

= 5000 - 2500 - 200
= 2300
Profit = 2,300.

Example 3.19

The marginal cost and marginal revenue with respect to commodity of a firm are given by $C'(x) = 8 + 6x$ and $R'(x) = 24$. Find the total Profit given that the total cost at zero output is zero.

Solution:

⊕

Given MC = 8+6x
\nC(x) =
$$
\int (8+6x)dx+k_1
$$

\n= $8x+3x^2+k_1(1)$
\nBut given when $x=0, C=0 \Rightarrow k_1=0$
\n $\therefore C(x) = 8x+3x^2(2)$
\nGiven that MR = 24
\nR(x) = $\int MR dx+k_2$
\n= $\int 24 dx+k_2$
\n $\therefore x = 24x+k_2$
\n $\therefore x = 24x+k_2$
\n $\therefore x = 24x(3)$
\nTotal Profit functions $P(x) = R(x) - C(x)$
\n $P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x - 3x^2$
\n $\therefore P(x) = 24x - 8x^2$

Example 3.20

The marginal revenue function (in thousand of rupees) of a commodity is $10 + e^{-0.05x}$ Where *x* is the number of units sold. Find the total revenue from the sale of 100 units $(e^{-5} = 0.0067)$.

Solution:

Given, Marginal revenue $R'(x) = 10 + e^{-0.05x}$

Total revenue from sale of 100 units is

$$
R = \int_{0}^{100} \left(10 + e^{-0.05x}\right) dx
$$

= $\left[10x + \frac{e^{-0.05x}}{-0.05}\right]_{0}^{100}$
= $\left(1000 - \frac{e^{-5}}{0.05}\right) - \left(0 - \frac{100}{5}\right)$
= $1000 + 20 - (20 \times 0.0067)$
= 1019.87

Total revenue = 1019.87×1000

 $=$ ₹10,19,870

Example 3.21

The price of a machine is $\overline{\text{5}}5,00,000$ with an estimated life of 12 years. The estimated salvage value is ₹30,000. The machine can be rented at ₹72,000 per year. The present value of the rental payment is calculated at 9% interest rate. Find out whether it is advisable to rent the machine. $(e^{-1.08} = 0.3396)$.

Solution:

The present value of
\npayment for *t* year =
$$
\int_{0}^{t} 72000e^{-0.09t} dt
$$

\nPresent value of
\npayment for12 years = $\int_{0}^{12} 72000e^{-0.09t} dt$
\n= $72000 \left[e^{-0.09t} \right]_{0}^{12}$
\n= $\frac{72000}{-0.09} \left[e^{-0.09} (12)_{-e} 0 \right]$
\n= -8,00,000 $\left[e^{-1.08} - e^{0} \right]$
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$$
= -8,00,000[0.3396 - 1]
$$

$$
= 5,28,320
$$

Cost of the machine = $5, 00, 000 - 30, 000$ $= 4, 70, 000$

Hence it not advisable to rent the machine It is better to buy the machine.

Inventory :

Given the inventory on hand *I* (*x*) and the unit holding cost (C_1) , the total inventory carrying cost is $C_1 \int I(x) dx$ *T* $\begin{smallmatrix}1&J\0&\end{smallmatrix}$ $\int I(x) dx$, where *T* is the time period under consideration.

Example 3.22

A company receives a shipment of 200 cars every 30 days. From experience it is known that the inventory on hand is related to the number of days. Since the last shipment, $I(x)=200-0.2x$. Find the daily holding cost for maintaining inventory for 30 days if the daily holding cost is ₹3.5.

Solution:

⊕

Here
$$
I(x)
$$
 = 200 -0.2x
\n C_1 = ₹ 3.5
\n T = 30

Total inventory carrying cost

$$
= C_1 \int_0^r I(x) dx = 3.5 \int_0^{30} (200 - 0.2x) dx
$$

$$
= 3.5 \left(200x - \frac{0.2x^2}{2} \right)_0^{30} = 20,685
$$

Amount of an Annuity

The amount of an annuity is the sum of all payments made plus all interest accumulated. Let an annuity consist of equal payments of Rs. p and let the interest rate of r percent annually be compounded continuously.

Amount of annuity after *N* payments

$$
A=\int\limits_{0}^{N}p\,e^{rt}\,dt.
$$

$$
70
$$

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Example 3.23

Mr. Arul invests ₹10,000 in ABC Bank each year, which pays an interest of 10% per annum compounded continuously for 5 years. How much amount will there be after 5 years. $(e^{0.5} = 1.6487)$

Solution:

$$
p = 10000, \quad r = 0.1, \qquad N = 5
$$

\nAnnuity =
$$
\int_{0}^{5} 10000 e^{0.1t} dt
$$

\n=
$$
\frac{10000}{0.1} (e^{0.1t})_0^5
$$

\n= 100000
$$
[e^{0.1 \times 5} - e^0]
$$

\n= 100000
$$
(e^{0.5} - 1)
$$

\n= 100000
$$
[0.6487]
$$

\n=
$$
\overline{0} \times 64,870
$$

Consumption of a Natural Resource

Suppose that $p(t)$ is the annual consumption of a natural resource in year *t*. If the consumption of the resource is growing exponentially at growth rate *k*, then the total consumption of the resource after *T* years is given by *T*

$$
\int_{0}^{1} p_{0} e^{kt} dt = \frac{p_{0}}{k} (e^{kT} - 1)
$$

Where p_0 is the initial annual consumption at time $t = 0$.

Example 3.24

In year 2000 world gold production was 2547 metric tons and it was growing

exponentially at the rate of 0.6% per year. If the growth continues at this rate, how many tons of gold will be produced from 2000 to 2013? $[e^{0.078} = 1.0811]$

Solution:

⊕

Annual consumption at time $t = 0$ (In the year 2000) : $p_0 = 2547$ metric ton.

Total production of Gold from 2000 to
\n
$$
2013 = \int_{0}^{13} 2547 e^{0.006t} dt
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{2547}{0.006} \left[e^{0.006t} \right]_{0}^{13}
$$
\n
$$
= 424500 \left(e^{0.078} - 1 \right)
$$

= 34,426.95 metric tons approximately.

3.2.3 The demand functions from elasticity of demand

Elasticity of the function $y = f(x)$ at a point x is defined as the limiting case of ratio of the relative change in *y* to the relative change in *x* .

$$
\therefore \quad \eta = \frac{E_y}{E_x} = \frac{\lim}{\Delta_x \to 0} \frac{\frac{\Delta y}{y}}{\frac{\Delta x}{x}} = \frac{\frac{dy}{y}}{\frac{x}{x}}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \quad \eta = \frac{x}{y} \frac{dy}{dx}
$$

Elasticity of demand η_d *x dx dp*

$$
\frac{-dp}{p} = \frac{dx}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{\eta_d}
$$

Integrating both sides w.r. to *x*

$$
-\int \frac{dp}{p} = \frac{1}{\eta_d} \int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

Equation yields the demand function '*p*' as a function of *x*.

The revenue function can be found out by using integration.

Example 3.25

When the Elasticity function is
$$
\frac{x}{x-2}
$$
.

Find the function when $x = 6$ and $y = 16$.

Solution:

$$
\frac{E_y}{E_x} = \frac{x}{x-2}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{x dy}{y dx} = \frac{x}{x-2}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{dy}{y} = \frac{x}{x-2} \cdot \frac{dx}{x}
$$
\n
$$
\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int \frac{dx}{x-2}
$$
\n
$$
\log y = \log(x-2) + \log k
$$
\n
$$
y = k(x-2)
$$
\n
$$
y = k(6-2)
$$
\n
$$
k = 4
$$
\n
$$
y = 4(x-2)
$$

Example 3.26

The elasticity of demand with respect to price *p* for a commodity is $\eta_d = \frac{p+2p^2}{100-p-p}$ 2 100 2 $\frac{1}{2}$. Find demand function where price is ₹5 and the demand is 70.

Solution:

$$
\eta_d = \frac{p + 2p^2}{100 - p - p^2}
$$

\n
$$
\frac{-p}{x} \frac{dx}{dp} = \frac{p(2p + 1)}{100 - p - p^2}
$$

\n
$$
-\frac{dx}{x} = \frac{-(2p + 1)}{p^2 + p - 100} dp
$$

\n
$$
\int \frac{dx}{x} = \int \frac{2p + 1}{p^2 + p - 100} dp
$$

 $\log x = \log(p^2 + p = 100) + \log k$ ∴ x = $k(p^2 + p - 100)$ When $x = 70$, $p = 5$,

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$$
70 = k(25+5-100)
$$

\n
$$
\Rightarrow k = -1
$$

\nHence x = 100 - p - p²
\nR = px
\nRevenue = p(100- p - p²)

Exercise 3.2

- 1. The cost of over haul of an engine is ₹10,000 The operating cost per hour is at the rate of $2x - 240$ where the engine has run *x* km. Find out the total cost if the engine run for 300 hours after overhaul.
- 2. Elasticity of a function *Ey* Elasticity of a function $\frac{1}{Ex}$ is given by
Ey $\frac{-7x}{2}$ *Ex* $=\frac{-7x}{(1-2x)(2+3x)}$ 7 $\sqrt{(1-2x)(2+3x)}$ Find the function when $x = 2$, $y = \frac{3}{8}$ $y = \frac{z}{8}$.
- 3. The elasticity of demand with respect to price for a commodity is given by $\frac{(4-x)}{2}$ $\frac{y}{x}$, where *p* is the price when demand is *x*. Find the demand function when price is 4 and the demand is 2. Also find the revenue function.
- 4. A company receives a shipment of 500 scooters every 30 days. From experience it is known that the inventory on hand is related to the number of days *x*. Since the shipment, $I(x) = 500 - 0.03x^2$, the daily holding cost per scooter is ₹ 0.3. Determine the total cost for maintaining inventory for 30 days.
- 5. An account fetches interest at the rate of 5% per annum compounded continuously An individual deposits ₹1,000 each year in his account. How much will be in the account after 5 years. $(e^{0.25} = 1.284)$.
- 6. The marginal cost function of a product is given by $\frac{dC}{dx} = 100 - 10x + 0.1x^2$ where *x*
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is the output. Obtain the total and the average cost function of the firm under the assumption, that its fixed cost is ₹ 500.

- 7. The marginal cost function is $MC = 300 x^{\frac{2}{5}}$ and fixed cost is zero. Find out the total cost and average cost functions.
- 8. If the marginal cost function of *x* units of output is *a* $\sqrt{ax+b}$ and if the cost of output is zero. Find the total cost as a function of *x*.
- 9. Determine the cost of producing 200 air conditioners if the marginal cost (is per unit) is $C'(x) = \frac{x^2}{200} +$ 200 4 .
- 10. The marginal revenue (in thousands of Rupees) functions for a particular commodity is $5 + 3 e^{-0.03x}$ where *x* denotes the number of units sold. Determine the total revenue from the sale of 100 units. (Given $e^{-3} = 0.05$ approximately)
- 11. If the marginal revenue function for a commodity is $MR = 9 - 4x^2$. Find the demand function.
- 12. Given the marginal revenue function 4 $2x + 3$ $\frac{1}{(2x+3)^2}$ – 1, show that the average revenue function is *P* $=\frac{4}{6x+9}$ 1.
- 13. A firm's marginal revenue function is $MR = 20e^{-x/10} \left(1 - \frac{x}{\lambda} \right)$ $20 e^{-x/10} \left(1 - \frac{x}{10} \right)$ $\left(1-\frac{x}{10}\right)$ Find the corresponding demand function.
- 14. The marginal cost of production of a firm is given by $C'(x) = 5 + 0.13x$, the marginal revenue is given by $R'(x) = 18$ and the fixed cost is ₹ 120. Find the profit function.
- 15. If the marginal revenue function is $R'(x) = 1500 - 4x - 3x^2$. Find the revenue function and average revenue function.
- 16. Find the revenue function and the demand function if the marginal revenue for *x* units is $MR = 10 + 3x - x^2$.

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- 17. The marginal cost function of a commodity is given by $MC = \frac{14000}{\sqrt{7x + 6}}$ $7x + 4$ and the fixed cost is ₹18,000. Find the total cost and average cost.
- 18. If the marginal cost (*MC*) of a production of the company is directly proportional to the number of units (*x*) produced, then find the total cost function, when the fixed cost is ₹ 5,000 and the cost of producing 50 units is ₹ 5,625.
- 19. If $MR = 20 5x + 3x^2$, find total revenue function.
- 20. If $MR = 14 6x + 9x^2$, find the demand function.

3.2.4 Consumer's surplus:

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This theory was developed by the great economist Marshal. The demand function reveals the relationship between the quantities that the people would buy at a given price. It can be expressed as $p = f(x)$

Let us assume that the demand of the product $x = x_0$ when the price is p_0 . But there can be some consumer who is ready to pay q_0 which is more than p_{o} for the same quantity $x₀$. Any consumer who is ready to pay the price more than $\boldsymbol{p}_{_{\mathrm{o}}}$ gains from the fact that the price is only p_{o} . This gain is called the consumer's surplus.

It is represented in the following diagram

Mathematically the Consumer's Surplus (CS) can be defined as

CS = (Area under the demand curve from $x = 0$ to $x = x_0$) – (Area of the rectangle OAPB)

$$
CS = \int_{0}^{x_0} f(x) \, dx - x_0 p_0
$$

Example 3.27

The demand function of a commodity *is* $y = 36 - x^2$. Find the consumer's surplus for $y_0 = 11$.

Solution:

Given
$$
y = 36 - x^2
$$
 and $y_0 = 11$
\n
$$
11 = 36 - x^2
$$
\n
$$
x^2 = 25
$$
\n
$$
x = 5
$$
\n
$$
CS = \int_{0}^{x} (\text{demand function}) dx - (\text{Price} \times \text{quantity demanded})
$$

$$
= \int_{0}^{5} \left(36 - x^{2}\right) dx - 5 \times 11
$$

$$
= \left[36x - \frac{x^{3}}{3}\right]_{0}^{5} - 55
$$

$$
= \left[36(5) - \frac{5^{3}}{3}\right] - 55
$$

$$
= 180 - \frac{125}{3} - 55 = \frac{250}{3}
$$

Hence the consumer's surplus is $=$ $\frac{250}{3}$ 3 units.

3.2.5 Producer surplus

A supply function *g*(*x*) represents the quantity that can be supplied at a price p . Let p_0 be the market price for the corresponding supply x_0 . But there can be some producers who are willing to supply the commodity below the market price gain from the fact that the price is p_0 . This gain is

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called the producer's surplus. It is represented in the following diagram.

Mathematically, producer's surplus (PS) can be defined as,

PS = (Area of the rectangle OAPB) – (Area below the supply function from $x = 0$ to $x = x_0$

$$
PS = x_0 p_0 - \int_0^{x_0} g(x) dx
$$

Example 3.28

◈

Find the producer's surplus defined by the supply curve $g(x) = 4x+8$ when $x_0 = 5$. *Solution:*

 $g(x) = 4x + 8$ and $x_0 = 5$ $p_0 = 4(5) + 8 = 28$ $PS = x_0 p_0 - \int g(x) dx$ *x* $\left(x\right)$ 0 $\overline{0}$ ∫ $=$ $(5 \times 28) - (4x + 8)$ 0 5 $(x+8)dx$ $= 140 - 4$ 2 8 2 0 $-\left[4\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right)+8x\right]^5$ $\overline{\mathcal{K}}$ \overline{a} \int I $\mathsf L$ I L $\overline{}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ *x x* $140 - (50 + 40)$ = 50 units

Hence the producer's surplus = 50 units.

Example 3.29

The demand and supply function of a commodity are $p_d = 18 - 2x - x^2$ and

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 $p_s = 2x - 3$. Find the consumer's surplus and producer's surplus at equilibrium price.

Solution:

 \therefore

Given $P_d = 18 - 2x - x^2$; $P_s = 2x - 3$ We know that at equilibrium prices $p_d = p_s$ $18 - 2x - x^2 = 2x - 3$ $x^2 + 4x - 21 = 0$ $(x - 3) (x + 7) = 0$ $x = -7$ or 3

The value of x cannot be negative, $x = 3$

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When
$$
x_0 = 3
$$

\n \therefore $P_0 = 18 - 2(3) - (3)^2 = 3$
\n \therefore $\qquad = \int_{0}^{x} f(x) dx - x_0 p_0$
\n $\qquad = \int_{0}^{3} (18 - 2x - x^2) dx - 3 \times 3$
\n $\qquad = \left[18x - x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{0}^{3} - 9$
\n $\qquad = 18(3) - (3)^2 - \left(\frac{3^3}{3} \right) - 9$
\n $\qquad \qquad \text{CS} = 27 \text{ units}$
\n $\qquad \text{PS} = x_0 P_0 - \int_{0}^{x} g(x) dx$
\n $\qquad = (3 \times 3) - \int_{0}^{3} (2x - 3) dx$
\n $\qquad = 9 - (x^2 - 3x)_0^3$
\n $\qquad = 9 \text{ units}$

Hence at equilibrium price,

- (i) the consumer's surplus is 27 units
- (ii) the producer's surplus is 9 units.

- 1. Calculate consumer's surplus if the demand function $p = 50 - 2x$ and $x = 20$
- 2. Calculate consumer's surplus if the demand function $p = 122 - 5x - 2x^2$ and $x = 6$
- 3. The demand function $p = 85 5x$ and supply function $p = 3x - 35$. Calculate the equilibrium price and quantity demanded .Also calculate consumer's surplus.
- 4. The demand function for a commodity is $p = e^{-x}$. Find the consumer's surplus when $p = 0.5$.
- 5. Calculate the producer's surplus at $x = 5$ for the supply function $p = 7 + x$.
- 6. If the supply function for a product is $p = 3x + 5x^2$. Find the producer's surplus when $x = 4$.
- 7. The demand function for a commodity is $p = \frac{36}{x+1}$ 4 . Find the consumer's surplus when the prevailing market price is $\bar{c}6$.
- 8. The demand and supply functions under perfect competition are $p_a = 1600 - x^2$ and $p_s = 2x^2 + 400$ respectively. Find the producer's surplus.
- 9. Under perfect competition for a commodity the demand and supply laws are *p x* $p_s = \frac{8}{x+1} - 2$ and $p_s = \frac{x+1}{2}$ 2 and $p_s = \frac{x+3}{2}$ 2 and $p_s = \frac{x+y}{2}$ respectively. Find the consumer's and producer's surplus.
- 10. The demand equation for a products is $x = \sqrt{100 - p}$ and the supply equation is $x = \frac{p}{2}$ 10. Determine the consumer's surplus and producer's surplus, under market equilibrium.

11. Find the consumer's surplus and producer's surplus for the demand function $p_d = 25 - 3x$ and supply function $p_s = 5 + 2x$.

Exercise 3.4

Choose the best answer form the given alternatives

1. Area bounded by the curve
$$
y = x(4-x)
$$

between the limits 0 and 4 with $x -$ axis is

(a)
$$
\frac{30}{3}
$$
 sq.units
\n(b) $\frac{31}{2}$ sq.units
\n(c) $\frac{32}{3}$ sq.units
\n(d) $\frac{15}{2}$ sq.units

- 2. Area bounded by the curve $y = e^{-2x}$ between the limits $0 \le x \le \infty$ is
	- $(a)1$ sq.units 2 sq.unit (c) 5 sq.units (d) 2 sq.units
- 3. Area bounded by the curve *y* $=\frac{1}{x}$ between the limits 1 and 2 is
	- (a) $log2$ sq.units (b) $log5$ sq.units
	- (c) \log_3 sq.units (d) \log_4 sq.units
- 4. If the marginal revenue function of a firm is MR=*e* −*x* ¹⁰, then revenue is (a) – − $10e^{10}$ *x* (b) $1 - e^{10}$ − *e x* (c) $10\left(1-e^{\frac{-3}{10}}\right)$ l ľ \overline{a} − *e x* (d) *e* −*x* $10 + 10$
- 5. If MR and MC denotes the marginal revenue and marginal cost functions, then the profit functions is
	- (a) $P = \int (MR MC) dx + k$ (b) $P = \int (MR + MC) dx + k$ (c) $P = \int (MR)(MC)dx + k$ (d) $P = \int (R - C) dx + k$

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6. The demand and supply functions are given by $D(x)=16-x^2$ and $S(x)=2x^2+4$ are under perfect competition, then the equilibrium price *x* is

(a) 2 (b) 3 (c) 4 (d) 5

7. The marginal revenue and marginal cost functions of a company are $MR = 30 - 6x$ and $MC = -24 + 3x$ where *x* is the product, then the profit function is

(a)
$$
9x^2 + 54x
$$
 (b) $9x^2 - 54x$
(c) $54x - \frac{9x^2}{2}$ (d) $54x - \frac{9x^2}{2} + k$

8. The given demand and supply function are given by $D(x) = 20 - 5x$ and $S(x) = 4x + 8$ if they are under perfect competition then the equilibrium demand is

(a) 40 (b)
$$
\frac{41}{2}
$$
 (c) $\frac{40}{3}$ (d) $\frac{41}{5}$

9. If the marginal revenue $MR = 35 + 7x - 3x^2$, then the average revenue AR is

(a)
$$
35x + \frac{7x^2}{2} - x^3
$$
 (b) $35 + \frac{7x}{2} - x^2$
(c) $35 + \frac{7x}{2} + x^2$ (d) $35 + 7x + x^2$

- 10. The profit of a function $p(x)$ is maximum when
	- (a) $MC MR = 0$ (b) $MC=0$ (c) *MR*=0 (d) *MC*+*MR*=0
- 11. For the demand function $p(x)$, the elasticity of demand with respect to price is unity then
	- (a) revenue is constant
	- (b) cost function is constant
	- (c) profit is constant
	- (d) none of these
- 12. The demand function for the marginal function $MR = 100 - 9x^2$ is
	- (a) $100 3x^2$ (b) $100x 3x^2$
	- (c) $100x 9x^2$ $(d)100 + 9x^2$

$$
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c}\n76 & & 1\n\end{array}
$$

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- 13. When $x_0 = 5$ and $p_0 = 3$ the consumer's surplus for the demand function $p_d = 28 - x^2$ is (a) 250 units (b) $\frac{250}{3}$ 3 *units* $(c) \frac{251}{2}$ 2 *units* (d) $\frac{251}{2}$ 3 *units*
- 14. When $x_0 = 2$ *and* $P_0 = 12$ the producer's surplus for the supply function $P_s = 2x^2 + 4$ is

(a)
$$
\frac{31}{5}
$$
 units (b) $\frac{31}{2}$ units
(c) $\frac{32}{3}$ units (d) $\frac{30}{7}$ units

- 15. Area bounded by $y = x$ between the lines $y = 1$, $y = 2$ with $y = axis$ is
	- (a) $\frac{1}{2}$ 2 sq.units (b) $\frac{5}{2}$ 2 sq.units (c) $\frac{3}{2}$ 2 sq.units (d) 1 sq.unit
- 16. The producer's surplus when the supply function for a commodity is $P = 3 + x$ *and* $x_0 = 3$ is

(a)
$$
\frac{5}{2}
$$
 (b) $\frac{9}{2}$ (c) $\frac{3}{2}$ (d) $\frac{7}{2}$

17. The marginal cost function is $MC = 100\sqrt{x}$. find AC given that $TC = 0$ when the out put is zero is

(a)
$$
\frac{200}{3}x^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$
 (b) $\frac{200}{3}x^{\frac{3}{2}}$
(c) $\frac{200}{3x^{\frac{3}{2}}}$ (d) $\frac{200}{\frac{1}{3x^{\frac{1}{2}}}}$

18. The demand and supply function of a commodity are $P(x) = (x - 5)^2$ and $S(x) = x^2 + x + 3$ then the equilibrium quantity x_0 is

(a) 5 (b) 2 (c) 3 (d) 1

19. The demand and supply function of a commodity are $D(x)=25-2x$ and $S(x) = \frac{10 + x}{4}$ then the equilibrium price P_0 is
(a) 5 (b) 2 (c) 3 (d) 10

20. If MR and MC denote the marginal revenue and marginal cost and $MR - MC = 36x - 3x^2 - 81$, then the maximum profit at *x* is equal to

(a) 3 (b) 6 (c) 9 (d) 5

21. If the marginal revenue of a firm is constant, then the demand function is

(a) MR (b) MC (c)
$$
C(x)
$$
 (d) AC

- 22. For a demand function p, if $\int \frac{dp}{dp}$ *p* $k \int \frac{dx}{x}$, if $\int_{\frac{P}{2}}^{\frac{dP}{2}} = k \int_{\frac{dX}{2}}^{\frac{dX}{2}}$ then k is equal to (a) η_d (b) $-\eta_d$ (c) $\frac{-1}{n}$ *hd* (d) $\frac{1}{ }$ *hd*
- 23. Area bounded by $y = e^x$ between the limits 0 to 1 is

(a)(e-1) sq. units (b)(e+1) sq. units
(c)
$$
\left(1 - \frac{1}{e}\right)
$$
 sq. units (d) $\left(1 + \frac{1}{e}\right)$ sq. units

24. The area bounded by the parabola $y^2 = 4x$ bounded by its latus rectum is

(a)
$$
\frac{16}{3}
$$
 sq.units (b) $\frac{8}{3}$ sq.units
(c) $\frac{72}{3}$ sq.units (d) $\frac{1}{3}$ sq.units

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25. Area bounded by $y = |x|$ between the limits 0 and 2 is

Miscellaneous problems

- 1. A manufacture's marginal revenue function is given by $MR = 275 - x - 0.3x^2$. Find the increase in the manufactures total revenue if the production is increased from 10 to 20 units.
- 2. A company has determined that marginal cost function for *x* product of a particular commodity is given by $MC = 125 + 10x - \frac{x^2}{9}$ 2 . Where *C* is the cost

of producing *x* units of the commodity. If the fixed cost is $\bar{\tau}$ 250 what is cost of producing 15 units

- 3. The marginal revenue function for a firm is given by $MR = \frac{2}{x+3}$ 2 $\frac{1}{x+3} - \frac{1}{(x+3)^2} + 5$ $\frac{2}{x+3} - \frac{2x}{(x+3)}$ $+5.$ Show that the demand function is $P = \frac{2}{x+3} +$ 3 5.
- 4. For the marginal revenue function $MR = 6 - 3x^2 - x^3$, Find the revenue function and demand function.
- 5. The marginal cost of production of a firm is given by $C'(x) = 20 + \frac{x}{20}$ $\overline{20}$ the marginal revenue is given by $R'(x) = 30$ and the fixed cost is \bar{x} 100. Find the profit function.
- 6. The demand equation for a product is $p_a = 20 - 5x$ and the supply equation is $p_s = 4x + 8$. Determine the consumer's surplus and producer's surplus under market equilibrium.
- 7. A company requires $f(x)$ number of hours to produce 500 units. It is represented by $f(x) = 1800x^{-0.4}$. Find out the number of hours required to produce additional 400 units. $[(900)^{0.6} = 59.22, (500)^{0.6} = 41.63]$
- 8. The price elasticity of demand for a commodity is $\frac{p}{q}$ $\frac{r}{x^3}$. Find the demand function if the quantity of demand is 3, when the price is ₹2.
- 9. Find the area of the region bounded by the curve between the parabola $y = 8x^2 - 4x + 6$ the *y*-axis and the ordinate at $x = 2$.
- 10. Find the area of the region bounded by the curve $y^2 = 27x^3$ and the lines $x = 0$, $y = 1$ and $y = 2$.

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Summary

- The area of the region bounded by the curve $y = f(x)$ between limits $x = a$ and $x = b$ with *x* –axis if area lies above *x*-axis is = $\int y \, dx$. *b*
- *a* • The area of the region bounded by the curve $y = f(x)$ between the limits $x = a$ and $x = b$ with $x - axis$ if area lies below $x - axis$ is = $\int -ydx$ *b*
- *a* • The area of the region bounded by the curve $x = g(y)$ between te limits $y = c$ and *^y*= *d* with *y* - axis if the area lies to the right of *y*- axis is ⁼ ∫ *x dy d*
- *c* • The area of the region bounded by the curve $x = g(y)$ between the limits *y*=*d* and *y*=*e* with *y*-axis if the area lies to the left of *y*- axis is $=$ $\int -x \, dy$ *e*
- The area between the two given curves $y=f(x)$ and $y=g(x)$ from $x=a$ to $x=b$, is $\left| \left(f(x) - g(x) \right) \right| dx$ *b* $\int (f(x) - g(x)) dx.$
- If the rate of growth or sale of a function is a known function of t say $f(t)$ where t is a time measure, then total growth (or) sale of a product over a time period *t* is given by, *r*

o

Total sale = $\int f(t) dt$, $0 \le t \le r$ $\int f(t) dt, 0 \le t \le$ $\boldsymbol{0}$

a

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• Elasticity of demand is
$$
\eta_d = \frac{-p}{x} \frac{dx}{dp}
$$

- Total inventory carrying cost = $c_1 \int I(x) dx$ *T* \cdot ₁ \int $I(x)$ 0 *N*
- Amount of annuity after *N* Payment is $A = \int p e^{rt} dt$ $=$ \int
- Cost function is $C = \int (MC) dx + k$.
- Average cost function is $AC = \frac{C}{C}$ *x* $=\frac{0}{x}$, $x \neq 0$
- **•** Revenue function is $R = \int (MR) dx + k$.
- Demand function is $P = \frac{R}{x}$
- Profit function is =MR–MC = $R'(x) C'(x)$ *x*
- **•** Consumer's surplus = $\int f(x) dx x_0 p$ $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx - x_0 p_0$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ *x*
- Producer's surplus = $x_0 p_0 \int p(x) dx$ $0P_0$ 0 $-\int\limits_{0}^{\infty} p(x)$

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Expected Result is shown in this picture

Step 1

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Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics and Statistics" will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-1".

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Step 2

Select the worksheet named" Consumers' Surplus". There is a problem based on Consumers' Surplus using Integration. Move the point "A" on the curve. Observe the graph, formula applied and the result.

Browse in the link

12th standard Business Mathematics and Statistics : https://ggbm.at/uzkcrnwr (or) Scan the QR Code.

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Differential Equations

 Gottfried Wilhelm Leibnitz

(1st July 1646 - 14th November 1716)

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Introduction

International equations, began with
Gottfried Wilhelm Leibnitz. He was a
Philosopher, mathematicians, and logicial Gottfried Wilhelm Leibnitz. He was a Germen Philosopher, mathematicians, and logician.

 In lower class, we have studied algebraic equations like $5x-3(x-6) = 4x$, $x^2 - 7x + 12 = 0$, $|18x-5| = 3$. The goal here was to solve the equation, which meant to find the value (or values) of the variable that makes the equation true.

For example, $x = 9$ is the solution to the first equation because only where 9 is substituted for *x* both sides of the equation are identical.

In general each type of algebraic equation had its own particular method of solution; quadratic equations were solved by one method

equations involving absolute values by another, and so on. In each case, an equation was presented, and a certain method was employed to arrive at a solution, a method appropriate or the particular equation at hand.

These same general ideas carry over to differential equations, which are equations involving derivatives. There are different types of differential equations, and each type requires its own particular solution method.

Many problems related to economics, commerce and engineering, when formulated in mathematical forms, lead to differential equations. Many of these problems are complex in nature and very difficult to understand. But when they are described by differential equations, it is easy to analyse them.

 Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter , the students will be able to understand

- order of the differential equations
- degree of the differential equations
- general and Particular solution of Differential equations
- formation of Differential equations
- differential equations with variable separable
- homogeneous differential equations
- linear differential equations
- second order linear differential equations with constant coefficients.

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A differential equation is an equation with a function and one or more of its derivatives. (i.e) an equation with the function $y = f(x)$ and its derivatives *dy dx* $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ d: , 1 r *dy dx d y dx* 2 $\frac{\gamma}{2}$... is called differential equation.

For example,

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(i)
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = x + 5
$$

\n(ii) $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}{\sqrt{2 - y^2}}$
\n(iii) $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 = 0$ (iv) $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + m^2x = 0$

Differential equations are of two types. One is ordinary differential equations and other one partial differential equations. Here we study only ordinary differential equations.

4.1 Formation of ordinary differential equations

4.1.1 Definition of ordinary differential equation

An ordinary differential equation is an

equation that involves some ordinary derivatives *dy dx* d^2y *dx* $,\frac{n}{1},\frac{n}{2},...$ 2 2 ſ l \overline{a} of a function $y = f(x)$. Here

we have one independent variable.

4.1.2 Order and degree of a differential equation

The highest order derivative present in the differential equation is the order of the differential equation.

Degree is the highest power of the highest order derivative in the differential equation, after the equation has been cleared from fractions and the radicals as for as the derivatives are concerned.

For example, consider the differential equation

$$
\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + \left(\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^5 + y = 7
$$

Here the highest order derivatives is d^3y *dx* 3 3 (i.e 3rd order derivative). So the order of the differential equation is 3.

 d^3y Now the power of highest order derivative *dx* 3 $\frac{2}{3}$ is 1.

∴ The degree of the differential equation is 1.

Example 4.1

Find the order and degree of the following differential equations.

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

(ii)
$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y = 0
$$

(iii)
$$
\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} - 3\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^6 + 2y = x^2
$$

(iv)
$$
\left[1 + \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}\right]^{\frac{3}{2}} = a \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}
$$

(v)
$$
y' + (y'')^2 = (x + y'')^2
$$

$$
\text{(vi)} \quad \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0
$$

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

Solution

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

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Highest order derivative is $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* 2 2 ∴ order = 2 Power of the highest order derivative $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* 2 2

is 1.

- ∴ Degree = 1
- (ii) $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx dy* $\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y$ 2 $\frac{y}{2} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 3y = 0$ Highest order derivative is $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* 2 2 ∴ order =2 Power of the highest order derivative $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* 2 2

is 1.

⊕

- ∴ Degree = 1 (iii) $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$ *dx dy* $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) + 2y = x$ 3 3 $-3\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^6 + 2y = x^2$ $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{3} + 2y =$ \therefore order =3, Degree =1
	- 3

(iv)
$$
\left[1 + \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}\right]^2 = a \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}
$$

Here we eliminate the radical sign.

Squaring both sides, we get

$$
\left[1 + \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}\right]^3 = a^2 \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}\right)^2
$$

∴ Order=2, degree =3

(v)
$$
y' + (y'')^2 = (x + y'')^2
$$

\n $y' + (y'')^2 = x^2 + 2xy'' + (y'')^2$
\n $y' = x^2 + 2xy'' \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 + 2x \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$

∴ Order=2, degree=1

$$
\text{(vi)} \quad \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} - \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0
$$

Here we eliminate the radical sign.

For this write the equation as

$$
\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

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Squaring both sides, we get

$$
\left(\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}\right)^2 = \frac{dy}{dx}
$$

∴ Order=3, degree=2

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

 $y = 2\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + 4x\frac{1}{\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}$
 $y\frac{dy}{dx} = 2\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 + 4x$

∴ order=1, degree=3

Family of Curves

Sometimes a family of curves can be represented by a single equation with one or more arbitrary constants. By assigning different values for constants, we get a family of curves. The arbitrary constants are called the parameters of the family.

For example,

- (i) $y^2 = 4ax$ represents the equation of a family of parabolas having the origin as vertex where '*a*' is the parameter.
- (ii) $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ represents the equation of family of circles having the origin as centre, where '*a*' is the parameter.
- (iii) $y = mx + c$ represents the equation of a family of straight lines in a plane, where m and c are parameters.

4.1.3 Formation of ordinary differential equation:

Consider the equation $f(x, y, c_1) = 0$ --(1) where c_1 is the arbitrary constant. We form the differential equation from this equation. For this, differentiate equation (1) with respect to the independent variable occur in the equation.

Eliminate the arbitrary constant c_1 from (1) and its derivative. Then we get the required differential equation.

Suppose we have $f(x, y, c_1, c_2) = 0$. Here we have two arbitrary constants c_1 and c_2 . So, find the first two successive derivatives. Eliminate c_1 and c_2 from the given function and the successive derivatives. We get the required differential equation.

Note

The order of the differential equation to be formed is equal to the number of arbitrary constants present in the equation of the family of curves.

Example 4.2

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Find the differential equation of the family of straight lines $y = mx + c$ when (i) *is the arbitrary constant (ii)* $*c*$ *is the* arbitrary constant (iii) *m* and *c* both are arbitrary constants.

Solution:

(i) *m* is an arbitrary constant

$$
y = mx + c \tag{1}
$$

Differentiating w.r. to *x* ,

we get
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = m
$$
 ...(2)

Now we eliminate m from (1) and (2)

For this substitute (2) in (1)
\n
$$
y = x \frac{dy}{dx} + c
$$
\n
$$
x \frac{dy}{dx} - y + c = 0
$$
 which is the

 required differential equation of first order.

(ii) *c* is an arbitrary constant Differentiating (1), we get $\frac{dy}{dx} = m$

> Here *c* is eliminated from the given equation

 $\therefore \frac{dy}{1} =$ *dx m* is the required differential

equation.

(iii) both *m* and *c* are arbitrary constants Since *m* and *c* are two arbitrary constants differentiating (1) twice we get

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

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

 Here *m* and *c* are eliminated from the given equation.

 $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* 2 $\frac{y}{2} = 0$ which is the required differential equation.

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Example 4.3

Find the differential equation of the family of curves *y a x* $= - + b$ where *a* and *b* are arbitrary constants.

Solution:

Given
$$
y = \frac{a}{x} + b
$$

\nDifferentiating w.r.t x, we get
\n
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-a}{x^2}
$$
\n
$$
x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = -a
$$

Again differentiating w.r.t *x* we get

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

\n
$$
\Rightarrow x \frac{d^{2} y}{dx^{2}} + 2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \text{ which is}
$$

the required differential equation

Example 4.4

Find the differential equation corresponding to $y = ae^{4x} + be^{-x}$ where *a*, *b* are arbitrary constants,

Solution:

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$$
Given y = ae^{4x} + be^{-x}.
$$
 (1)

Here *a* and *b* are arbitrary constants

From (1),
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = 4ae^{4x} - be^{-x}
$$
 (2)

and
$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 16ae^{4x} + be^{-x}
$$
 (3)

$$
(1)+ (2) \Rightarrow y + \frac{dy}{dx} = 5ae^{4x} \tag{4}
$$

$$
(2) + (3) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 20ae^{4x}
$$

$$
= 4\left(5ae^{4x}\right)
$$

$$
= 4\left(y + \frac{dy}{dx}\right)
$$

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 4y + 4\frac{dy}{dx}
$$

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$$
\Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 3\frac{dy}{dx} - 4y = 0, \text{ which is the}
$$

required differential equation.

Example 4.5

Find the differential equation of the family of curves $y = e^x (a \cos x + b \sin x)$ where *a* and *b* are arbitrary constants.

Solution :

$$
y = e^x \left(a \cos x + b \sin x \right) \tag{1}
$$

Differentiating (1) w.r.t
$$
x
$$
, we get

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = e^x (a \cos x + b \sin x) +
$$
\n
$$
= e^x (-a \sin x + b \cos x)
$$
\n
$$
= y + e^x (-a \sin x + b \cos x)
$$
\n(from (1))\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} - y = e^x (-a \sin x + b \cos x) (2)
$$

Again differentiating, we get

$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} =
$$
\n
$$
e^x(-a\sin x + b\cos x) + e^x(-a\cos x - b\sin x)
$$
\n
$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} =
$$
\n
$$
e^x(-a\sin x + b\cos x) - e^x(a\cos x + b\sin x)
$$
\n
$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx} - y\right) - y \text{ (from (1) and (2))}
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0 \text{, which is the required}
$$

differential equation.

dx

Exercise 4.1

1. Find the order and degree of the following differential equations.

(i)
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x^3
$$

(ii)
$$
\frac{d^3y}{dx^3} + 3\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 + 2\frac{dy}{dx} = 0
$$

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(iii)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \sqrt{y - \frac{dy}{dx}}
$$

\n(iv)
$$
\frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} = 0
$$

\n(v)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + y + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} = 0
$$

\n(vi)
$$
\left(2 - y''\right)^2 = y''^2 + 2y'
$$

\n(vii)
$$
\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 + y = x - \frac{dx}{dy}
$$

2. Find the differential equation of the following

(i)
$$
y = cx + c - c^3
$$
 (ii) $y = c(x - c)^2$
(iii) $xy = c^2$ (iv) $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$

- 3. Form the differential equation by eliminating α and β from $(x - α)^2 + (y - β)^2 = r^2$.
- 4. Find the differential equation of the family of all straight lines passing through the origin.
- 5. Form the differential equation that represents all parabolas each of which has a latus rectum 4*a* and whose axes are parallel to the *x* axis.
- 6. Find the differential equation of all circles passing through the origin and having their centers on the *y* axis.
- 7. Find the differential equation of the family of parabola with foci at the origin and axis along the *x*-axis.

Solution of a Differential Equation:

The relation between the dependent and independent variables not involving derivatives is called the solution of the differential equation.

Solution of the differential equation must contain the same number of arbitrary constants as the order of the equation. Such a solution is called General (complete) solution of the differential equation.

4.2 First order and first degree differential equations

A differential equation of first order and first degree can be written as $f\left(x, y, \frac{dy}{dx}\right) = 0$. Here we will discuss the solution of few types of equations.

4.2.1 General solution and particular solution

 For any differential equations it is possible to find the general solution and particular solution.

4.2.2 Differential Equation in which variables are separable

If in an equation it is possible to collect all the terms of *x* and *dx* on one side and all the terms of *y* and *dy* on the other side, then the variables are said to be separable. Thus the general form of such an equation is

$$
f(x)dx = g(y)dy
$$
 (or) $f(x)dx + g(y)dy = 0$

By direct integration we get the solution.

Example 4.6

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

Solution:

Given $(x^2 + x + 1)dx + (y^2 - y + 3)dy = 0$ It is of the form $f(x)dx + g(y)dy = 0$ Integrating , we get

$$
\int (x^2 + x + 1)dx + \int (y^2 - y + 3) dy = c
$$

$$
\left(\frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^2}{2} + x\right) + \left(\frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^2}{2} + 3y\right) = c
$$

Example 4.7

Solve
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x-y} + x^2 e^{-y}
$$

Solution :

Given
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = e^{x-y} + x^2 e^{-y} = e^{-y} e^x + e^{-y} x^2 = e^{-y} (e^x + x^2)
$$

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Separating the variables,
\nwe get
$$
e^y dy = (e^x + x^2) dx
$$

\nIntegrating, we get $\int e^y dy = \int (e^x + x^2) dx$
\n $e^y = e^x + \frac{x^3}{3} + c$
\nExample 4.8

Solve $3e^x$ tan $ydx + (1 + e^x)\sec^2 ydy = 0$ given $y(0)$ $(0) = \frac{\pi}{4}$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

Given $3e^x \tan y dx + (1 + e^x) \sec^2 y dy = 0$

$$
3ex \tan y \, dx = -(1 + ex) \sec2 y \, dy
$$

$$
\frac{3ex}{1 + ex} dx = -\frac{\sec2 y}{\tan y} dy
$$

Integrating, we get 3 1 *e e dx x* $\int \frac{e^x}{1+e^x} dx = -\int \frac{\sec^2 y}{\tan y} dy +$ tan 2 *y y dy c* $3 \log(1 + e^x) = -\log \tan y + \log c$

$$
\left[\because \int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \log f(x)\right]
$$

 $\log(1 + e^x)^3 + \log \tan y = \log c$

$$
\log\left[\left(1+e^{x}\right)^{3}\tan y\right] = \log c
$$
\n
$$
\left(1+e^{x}\right)^{3}\tan y = c \tag{1}
$$

Given
$$
y(0) = \frac{\pi}{4}
$$
 (i.e) $y = \frac{\pi}{4}$ at $x = 0$
\n(1) $\Rightarrow (1 + e^0)^3 \tan \frac{\pi}{4} = c$
\n2³(1) = c
\n $\Rightarrow c = 8$

Hence the required solution is $(1 + e^x)^3 \tan y = 8.$

Example 4.9

Solve $\sec^2 x \tan y dx + \sec^2 y \tan x dy = 0$

Solution:

Separating the variables, we get
\n
$$
\frac{\sec^2 x}{\tan x} dx + \frac{\sec^2 y}{\tan y} dy = 0
$$

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Integrating, we get

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

log tan x + log tan y = log c
log(tan x tan y) = log c
tan x tan y = c

Example 4.10

Solve
$$
ydx - xdy - 3x^2y^2e^{x^3}dx = 0
$$
.

Solution:

Given equation can be written as
\n
$$
\frac{ydx - xdy}{y^2} - 3x^2e^{x^3} dx = 0
$$
\nIntegrating,
$$
\int \frac{ydx - xdy}{y^2} - \int 3x^2e^{x^3} dx = c
$$
\n
$$
\int d\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) - \int e^t dt = c
$$

(where $t = x^3$ and $dt = 3x^2 dx$)

$$
\frac{x}{y} - e^t = c
$$

$$
\frac{x}{y} - e^{x^3} = c
$$

Example 4.11

Solution:
\nSolve:
$$
x - y \frac{dx}{dy} = a \left(x^2 + \frac{dx}{dy} \right)
$$

\nSolution:
\nGiven $x - y \frac{dx}{dy} = a \left(x^2 + \frac{dx}{dy} \right)$
\n $x - y \frac{dx}{dy} = ax^2 + a \frac{dx}{dy}$
\n $x - ax^2 = a \frac{dx}{dy} + y \frac{dx}{dy}$
\n $x (1 - ax) = (a + y) \frac{dx}{dy}$

dx

By separating the variables

we get,
$$
\frac{dx}{x(1-ax)} = \frac{dy}{a+y}
$$

$$
\left(\frac{a}{1-ax} + \frac{1}{x}\right)dx = \frac{dy}{a+y}
$$

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Integrating,
$$
\int \left(\frac{a}{1 - ax} + \frac{1}{x}\right) dx = \frac{dy}{a + y}
$$

$$
- \log(1 - ax) + \log x = \log(a + y) + \log c
$$

$$
\log\left(\frac{x}{1 - ax}\right) = \log(c(a + y))
$$

$$
\left(\frac{x}{1 - ax}\right) = c(a + y)
$$

 $x = (1 - ax)(a + y)c$ which is the required solution.

Example 4.12

The marginal cost function of manufacturing *x* gloves is $6 + 10x - 6x^2$. The total cost of producing a pair of gloves is \bar{x} 100. Find the total and average cost function.

Solution:

⊕

Given MC =
$$
6+10x-6x^2
$$

\ni.e., $\frac{dc}{dx} = 6+10x-6x^2$
\n $dc = (6+10x-6x^2)dx$
\n $\int dc = \int (6+10x-6x^2)dx+k$
\n $c = 6x+10\frac{x^2}{2}-6\frac{x^3}{3}+k$
\n $c = 6x+5x^2-2x^3+k$ (1)

Given $c = 100$ when $x = 2$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow 100 = 12 + 5(4) - 2(8) + k
$$

$$
\Rightarrow k = 84
$$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow c(x) = 6x + 5x^2 - 2x^3 + 84
$$

Average Cost $AC = \frac{c}{x} = 6 + 5x - 2x^2 + \frac{84}{x}$

Example 4.13

The normal lines to a given curve at each point (x, y) on the curve pass through the point (1,0). The curve passes through the point (1,2). Formulate the differential equation representing the problem and hence find the equation of the curve.

Solution:

Slope of the normal at any point *P x y* $(x, y) = -\frac{dx}{dy}$ Let *Q* be (1,0) Slope of the normal *PQ is* $\frac{y_2 - y_1}{y_2 - y_1}$ $x_2 - x$ $\frac{2}{1}$ 2 \mathcal{N}_1 − − i.e., $\frac{y}{x}$ *x* − − $\boldsymbol{0}$ 1 $=\frac{y}{y}$ *x* −1 ∴ $-\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{y}{x-1}$ $\Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{y}{1-}$ *dy y x dx dy y* 1 *dy* $1 - x$, which is the

differential equation

i.e.,
$$
(1-x)dx = ydy
$$

$$
\int (1-x)dx = \int ydy + c
$$

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

Since it passes through (1,2)

$$
1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{4}{2} + c
$$

$$
c = \frac{1}{2} - 2 = -\frac{3}{2}
$$

Put
$$
c = \frac{-3}{2}
$$
 in (1)
\n $x - \frac{x^2}{2} = \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{3}{2}$
\n $2x - x^2 = y^2 - 3$
\n \Rightarrow $y^2 = 2x - x^2 + 3$,

which is the equation of the curve

Example 4.14

The sum of $\bar{\zeta}$ 2,000 is compounded continuously, the nominal rate of interest being 5% per annum. In how many years will the amount be double the original principal? $(\log_e 2 = 0.6931)$

Solution:

x

Let *P* be the principal at time '*t*'

$$
\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{5}{100}P = 0.05P
$$

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dy dx

$$
\Rightarrow \qquad \int \frac{dP}{P} = \int 0.05 \, dt + c
$$

$$
\log_e P = 0.05t + c
$$

$$
P = e^{0.05t} e^c
$$

$$
P = c_1 e^{0.05t} \qquad (1)
$$

Given $P = 2000$ when $t = 0$

$$
\Rightarrow \qquad c_1 = 2000
$$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow \qquad P = 2000e^{0.05t}
$$

To find
$$
t
$$
, when $P = 4000$

$$
(2) \implies 4000 = 2,000e^{0.05t}
$$

$$
2 = e^{0.05t}
$$

$$
0.05t = \log 2
$$

$$
t = \frac{0.6931}{0.05} = 14
$$
 years (approximately)

Exercise 4.2
EXECUTE: (i)
$$
dy = \cos^y
$$
 (ii) $1 + x^2$

◈

1. Solve: (i)
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = ae^y
$$
 (ii) $\frac{1+x^2}{1+y} = xy \frac{dy}{dx}$
2. Solve: $y(1-x) - x \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$

3. Solve: (i)
$$
ydx - xdy = 0
$$

(ii) $\frac{dy}{dx} + e^{x} + ye^{x} = 0$

4. Solve: $\cos x (1 + \cos y) dx - \sin y (1 + \sin x) dy = 0$

5. Solve:
$$
(1-x)dy - (1+y)dx = 0
$$

6. Solve: (i) $\frac{dy}{dx} = y \sin 2x$
(ii) $\log \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right) = ax + by$

7. Find the curve whose gradient at any point $P(x, y)$ on it is $x - a$ $y - b$ − $\frac{a}{-b}$ and which passes through the origin.

differential equation if
$$
f(x, y)
$$
 and $g(x, y)$ are

 $=\frac{f(x, y)}{g(x, y)}$

homogeneous functions of the same degree in *x* and *y* (or) Homogeneous differential can be written as *dy dx* $F\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$.

4.2.3 Homogeneous Differential Equations

A differential equation of the form

is called homogeneous

Method of solving first order Homogeneous differential equation

Check $f(x, y)$ and $g(x, y)$ are homogeneous functions of same degree.

i.e.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = F\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)
$$

Put $y = vx$ and $\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$

The given differential equation becomes $\nu + x$ *dv dx* $+x \frac{\partial V}{\partial y} = F(v)$

Separating the variables, we get

$$
x \frac{dv}{dx} = F(v) - v \implies \frac{dv}{F(v) - v} = \frac{dx}{x}
$$

By integrating we get the solution in terms of *v* and *x*.

Replacing *v* by
$$
\frac{y}{x}
$$
 we get the solution.

Note

Sometimes it becomes easier by taking the Homogeneous differential equation as *dx dy* $F\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ \overline{a} $\overline{}$ (1) In this method we have to substitute *x* $= vy$ and $\frac{dx}{y}$ *dy* $\nu + x$ *dv dy* $= v + x \frac{dv}{dt}$ then (1) reduces to variable separable type. By integrating, we get the solution in terms of *v* and *y*. The solution is deduced by replacing $v = \frac{x}{x}$ *y* .

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Example 4.15

Solve the differential equation $y^2 dx + (xy + x^2) dy = 0$

Solution

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 $y^2 dx + (xy + x^2) dy = 0$

$$
(xy + x2) dy = -y2 dx
$$

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-y2}{xy + x2}
$$
 (1)

It is a homogeneous differential equation, same degree in *x* and *y*

Put
$$
y = vx
$$
 and $\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$
\n
$$
\therefore (1) \text{ becomes}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{dv}{dx} = -v^2 x^2
$$

$$
v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-v^2 x^2}{x v x + x^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{-v^2}{v+1}
$$

$$
x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-v^2}{v+1} - v
$$

$$
= \frac{-v^2 - v^2 - v}{v+1}
$$

$$
x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-(v+2v^2)}{1+v}
$$

Now, separating the variables

$$
\frac{1+v}{v(1+2v)} dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

$$
\frac{(1+2v)-v}{v(1+2v)} dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

$$
(\because 1+v = 1+2v-v)
$$

$$
\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{1+2v} dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

On Integration we have

$$
\int \left(\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{1+2v}\right) dv = -\int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

$$
\log v - \frac{1}{2} \log (1+2v) = -\log x + \log c
$$

$$
\log \left(\frac{v}{\sqrt{1+2v}}\right) = \log \left(\frac{c}{x}\right)
$$

$$
\frac{v}{\sqrt{1+2v}} = \frac{c}{x}
$$

\nReplace $v = \frac{y}{x}$ we get
\n
$$
\frac{x}{\sqrt{1+\frac{2y}{x}}} = \frac{c}{x}
$$

\n
$$
\frac{y\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x+2y}} = c
$$

\n
$$
\frac{y^2x}{x+2y} = k
$$

\nwhere $k = c^2$

Note

1 $^{2}+2$ $\int \frac{1+v}{v^2+2v}$ *dv* can be done by the method of partial fraction also.

Example 4.16

Solve the differential equation *dy dx* $=\frac{x-y}{x+y}.$

Solution:

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x - y}{x + y} \tag{1}
$$

This is a homogeneous differential equation.

Now put
$$
y = vx
$$
 and $\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$
\n
$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{x - vx}{x + vx}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1 - v}{1 + v}
$$
\n
$$
x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{1 - v}{1 + v} - v
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1 - 2v - v^2}{1 + v}
$$

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$$
\frac{1+v}{v^2 + 2v - 1} dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

Multiply 2 on both sides

$$
\frac{2+2v}{v^2+2v-1} dv = -2\frac{dx}{x}
$$

On Integration

$$
\int \frac{2+2v}{v^2 + 2v - 1} dv = -2 \int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

\n
$$
\log(v^2 + 2v - 1) = -2 \log x + \log c
$$

\n
$$
v^2 + 2v - 1 = \frac{c}{x^2}
$$

\n
$$
x^2 (v^2 + 2v - 1) = c
$$

\nNow, Replace $v = \frac{y}{x}$
\n
$$
x^2 \left[\frac{y^2}{x^2} + \frac{2y}{x} - 1 \right] = c
$$

\n
$$
y^2 + 2xy - x^2 = c \text{ is the solution.}
$$

Example 4.17

Find the particular solution of the differential equation $x^2 dy + y (x + y) dx = 0$ given that $x = 1$, $y = 1$

Solution

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

\n
$$
x^{2}dy = -y(x + y) dx
$$

\n
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-(xy + y^{2})}{x^{2}}
$$

\nPut $y = vx$ and $\frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx}$ in (1)
\n
$$
v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-(xvx + v^{2}x^{2})}{x^{2}}
$$

\n
$$
= -\left(v + v^{2}\right)
$$

\n
$$
x \frac{dv}{dx} = -v^{2} - v - v
$$

\n
$$
= -\left(v^{2} + 2v\right)
$$

On separating the variables

$$
\frac{dv}{v^2 + 2v} = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

$$
\frac{dv}{v(v+2)} = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{(v+2)-v}{v(v+2)} \right] dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{1}{v} - \frac{1}{v+2} \right) dv = -\int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

1 $\frac{1}{2} \left[\log v - \log (v+2) \right]$ = $-\log x + \log c$

$$
\frac{1}{2} \log \frac{v}{v+2} = \log \frac{c}{x}
$$

We have

$$
\frac{v}{v+2} = \frac{c^2}{x^2}
$$

Replace $v = \frac{y}{x}$, we get

$$
\frac{y}{x(\frac{y}{x}+2)} = \frac{k}{x^2}
$$

where $c^2 = k$

$$
\frac{y}{y+2x} = k
$$
 (2)

When $x=1$, $y=1$

$$
\therefore (2) \Rightarrow k = \frac{1}{1+2}
$$

$$
k = \frac{1}{3}
$$

$$
\therefore \text{ The solution is } 3x^2 y = 2x + y
$$

Example 4.18

If the marginal cost of producing *x* shoes is given by $(3xy + y^2) dx + (x^2 + xy) dy = 0$. and the total cost of producing a pair of shoes is given by ₹12. Then find the total cost function.

Solution:

Given marginal cost function is $(x^2 + xy) dy + (3xy + y^2) dx = 0$

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$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-(3xy + y^2)}{x^2 + xy}
$$
\n
$$
\text{Put } y = vx \text{ and } \frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx} \text{ in } (1)
$$
\n
$$
v + x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-(3x v + v^2 x^2)}{x^2 + x v x}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{-(3v + v^2)}{1 + v}
$$
\n
$$
\text{Now, } x \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{-3v - v^2}{1 + v}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{-3v - v^2 - v - v^2}{1 + v}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{-3v - v^2 - v - v^2}{1 + v}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{-4v - 2v^2}{1 + v}
$$

$$
\frac{1+v}{4v+2v^2} dv = \frac{-dx}{x}
$$

On Integration

 \bigoplus

$$
\int \frac{1+v}{4v+2v^2} dv = -\int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

Now, multiply 4 on both sides

$$
\int \frac{4+4v}{4v+2v^2} dv = -4 \int \frac{dx}{x}
$$

\n
$$
\log (4v+2v^2) = -4 \log x + \log c
$$

\n
$$
4v+2v^2 = \frac{c}{x^4}
$$

\n
$$
x^4 (4v+2v^2) = c
$$

\nReplace $v = \frac{y}{x}$
\n
$$
x^4 \left(4 \frac{y}{x} + 2 \frac{y^2}{x^2}\right) = c
$$

\n
$$
x^4 \left[\frac{4xy+2y^2}{x^2}\right] = c
$$

\n
$$
c = 2x^2 (2xy + y^2) (2)
$$

Cost of producing a pair of shoes = $\overline{5}12$

(i.e)
$$
y = 12
$$
 when $x = 2$
 $c = 8[48+144] = 1536$

∴ The cost function is $x^2 (2xy + y^2) = 768$

Example 4.19

The marginal revenue '*y*' of output '*q*' is given by the equation $\frac{dy}{dx}$ *dq* $=\frac{q^2+3y^2}{2q y}$. Find the total Revenue function when output is 1 unit and Revenue is $\overline{5}5$.

Solution:

Given that
$$
MR = \frac{dy}{dq} = \frac{q^2 + 3y^2}{2qy}
$$
 (1)

Put
$$
y = vq
$$
 and $\frac{dy}{dq} = v + q \frac{dv}{dq}$ in (1)

Now (1) becomes
\n
$$
v + q \frac{dv}{dq} = \frac{q^2 + 3v^2q^2}{2q vq}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1 + 3v^2}{2v}
$$
\n
$$
q \frac{dv}{dq} = \frac{1 + 3v^2}{2v} - v
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1 + 3v^2 - 2v^2}{2v}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1 + v^2}{2v}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{2v}{1 + v^2} dv = \frac{dq}{q}
$$

On Integration

$$
\int \frac{2v}{1+v^2} dv = \int \frac{dq}{q}
$$

log (1+v²) = log q + log c
1+v² = cq
Replace v = $\frac{y}{q}$

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$$
1 + \frac{y^2}{q^2} = cq
$$

$$
q^2 + y^2 = c q^3
$$
 (2)

Given output is 1 unit and revenue is ₹5

$$
\therefore (2) \Rightarrow 1 + 25 = c \Rightarrow c = 26
$$

∴ The total revenue fonction is $q^2 + y^2 = 26q^3$

Exercise 4.3

Solve the following homogeneous differential equations.

1.
$$
x \frac{dy}{dx} = x + y
$$

\n2.
$$
(x - y) \frac{dy}{dx} = x + 3y
$$

\n3.
$$
x \frac{dy}{dx} - y = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}
$$

4.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3x - 2y}{2x - 3y}
$$

⊕

5.
$$
(y^2 - 2xy)dx = (x^2 - 2xy)dy
$$

- 6. The slope of the tangent to a curve at any point (*x, y*) on it is given by $(y^3 - 2yx^2) dx + (2xy^2 - x^3) dy = 0$ and the curve passes through (1, 2). Find the equation of the curve.
- 7. An electric manufacturing company makes small household switches. The company estimates the marginal revenue function for these switches to be $(x^2 + y^2)dy = xydx$ where *x* represents the number of units (in thousands). What is the total revenue function?

4.2.4 Linear differential equations of first order:

A differential equation is said to be linear when the dependent variable and its derivatives occur only in the first degree and no product of these occur.

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The most general form of a linear equation of the first order is *dy dx* $+ Py = Q (1)$

P and *Q* are functions of *x* alone.

Equation (1) is linear in *y*. The solution is given by $ye^{\int pdx} = \int Qe^{\int pdx} dx + c$. Here $e^{\int pdx}$ is known as an integrating factor and is denoted by I.F.

Note

For the differential equation *dx dy* $+ Px = Q$ (linear in *x*) where *P* and *Q* are functions of *y* alone, the solution is $xe^{\int pdy} = \int Qe^{\int pdy} dy + c$

Example 4.20

Solve
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = x^3
$$

Solution:

Given
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}y = x^3
$$

\nIt is of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q$
\nHere $P = \frac{1}{x}$, $Q = x^3$
\n $\int Pdx = \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x$
\nI.F = $e^{\int pdx} = e^{\log x} = x$

The required solution is

$$
y(I.F) = \int Q(I.F) dx + c
$$

\n
$$
yx = \int x^3 .x dx + c
$$

\n
$$
= \int x^4 dx + c
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{x^5}{5} + c
$$

\n
$$
\therefore yx = \frac{x^5}{5} + c
$$

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

is not linear.

Example 4.21

Solve
$$
\cos^2 x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = \tan x
$$

Solution:

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The given equation can be written as *dy* 1 *x*

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

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

It is of the form
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q
$$

Here
$$
P = \sec^2 x
$$
, $Q = \tan x \sec^2 x$

$$
\int Pdx = \int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x
$$

I.F = $e^{\int pdx} = e^{\tan x}$

The required solution is

$$
y(I.F) = \int Q(I.F) dx + c
$$

$$
ye^{\tan x} = \int \tan x \sec^2 x e^{\tan x} dx + c
$$

Put $\tan x = t$

Then $\sec^2 x dx = dt$

$$
\therefore ye^{\tan x} = \int te^t dt + c
$$

$$
= \int t d(e^t) + c
$$

$$
= te^t - e^t + c
$$

$$
= \tan x e^{\tan x} - e^{\tan x} + c
$$

$$
ye^{\tan x} = e^{\tan x} (\tan x - 1) + c
$$

Example 4.22

Solve
$$
(x^2+1)\frac{dy}{dx} + 2xy = 4x^2
$$

Solution:

The given equation can be reduced to

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} y = \frac{4x^2}{x^2 + 1}
$$

It is of the form
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + Py = Q
$$

Here
$$
P = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}, Q = \frac{4x^2}{x^2 + 1}
$$

$$
\int Pdx = \int \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} dx = \log(x^2 + 1)
$$

I.F.
$$
= e^{\int pdx} = e^{\log(x^2 + 1)} = x^2 + 1
$$

The required solution is

$$
y(IF) = \int Q(I.F)dx + c
$$

$$
y(x2 + 1) = \int \frac{4x^{2}}{x^{2} + 1} (x^{2} + 1) dx + c
$$

$$
y(x2 + 1) = \frac{4x^{3}}{3} + c
$$

Example 4.23

Solve
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} - 3y \cot x = \sin 2x
$$
 given that
y = 2 when $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$

Solution:

Given $\frac{dy}{dx}$ – (3 cot *x*). $y = \sin 2x$ It is of the form $\frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx* $+ Py = Q$

Here
$$
P = -3 \cot x
$$
, $Q = \sin 2x$

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$$
\int Pdx = \int -3 \cot x dx = -3 \log \sin x
$$
 It is of the

$$
= -\log \sin^3 x = \log \frac{1}{\sin^3 x}
$$
 He
1. F.
$$
= e^{\log \frac{1}{\sin^3 x}} = \frac{1}{\sin^3 x}
$$

The required solution is
\n
$$
y (I.F) = \int Q(I.F) dx + c
$$
\n
$$
y \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} = \int \sin 2x \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} dx + c
$$
\n
$$
y \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} = \int 2 \sin x \cos x \times \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} dx + c
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \int \frac{1}{\sin x} \times \frac{\cos x}{\sin x} dx + c
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \int \cos e c x \cot x dx + c
$$
\n
$$
y \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} = -2 \cos e c x + c \qquad (1)
$$
\nNow $y = 2$ when $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
\n
$$
(1) \Rightarrow 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -2 \times 1 + c \Rightarrow c = 4
$$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow y \frac{1}{\sin^3 x} = -2\cos e c x + 4
$$

Example 4.24

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A firm has found that the cost C of producing *x* tons of certain product by the equation *x* $\frac{dC}{dx} = \frac{3}{x} - C$ and $C = 2$ when $x = 1$.

Find the relationship between C and x.

Solution:

$$
x \frac{dC}{dx} = \frac{3}{x} - C
$$

$$
\frac{dC}{dx} = \frac{3}{x^2} - \frac{C}{x}
$$

$$
\frac{dC}{dx} + \frac{C}{x} = \frac{3}{x^2}
$$
i.e.,
$$
\frac{dC}{dx} + \frac{1}{x}C = \frac{3}{x^2}
$$

It is of the form
$$
\frac{dC}{dx} + PC = Q
$$

Here,
$$
P = \frac{1}{x}, Q = \frac{3}{x^2}
$$

$$
\int P dx = \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \log x
$$

I.F = $e^{\int pdx} = e^{\log x} = x$

The Solution is

$$
C(I.F) = \int Q(I.F) dx + k \quad \text{where} \quad k \text{ is constant}
$$

$$
Cx = \int \frac{3}{x^2} x dx + k
$$

$$
= 3 \int \frac{1}{x} dx + k
$$

$$
Cx = 3 \log x + k \qquad (1)
$$

Given C = 2 When $x = 1$
(1) $\implies 2x1 = k \implies k = 2$

∴ The relationship between C and x is

$$
Cx = 3\log x + 2
$$

Exercise 4.4

Solve the following:
\n1.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{y}{x} = x
$$
\n2.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + y \cos x = \sin x \cos x
$$
\n3.
$$
x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x^4
$$
\n4.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{3x^2}{1 + x^3}y = \frac{1 + x^2}{1 + x^3}
$$
\n5.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = xe^x
$$

6.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + y \tan x = \cos^3 x
$$

7. If $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y \tan x = \sin x$ and if *dx* $+ 2y \tan x = \sin x$ and if $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty}$ = $\frac{y}{x^2}$ y = 0 when x = 3 $y = 0$ when $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ express *y* in terms of *x*

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8.
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = xe^{x}
$$

9. A bank pays interest by continuous compounding , that is by treating the interest rate as the instantaneous rate of change of principal. A man invests $\bar{\tau}1,00,000$ in the bank deposit which accures interest, 8% per year compounded continuously. How much will he get after 10 years.

4.3 Second Order first degree differential equations with constant coefficients:

4.3.1 A general second order linear differential equation with constant coefficients is of the form

$$
a\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + b\frac{dy}{dx} + cy = f(x)
$$

\n
$$
aD^2y + bDy + cy = f(x), \text{ where } \frac{d}{dx} = D, \frac{d^2}{dx^2} = D^2
$$

\n
$$
\phi(D)y = f(x) \qquad (1)
$$

where $\phi(D) = aD^2 + bD + c$ (*a,b* and *c* are constants)

To solve the equation (1) , we first solve the equation $\phi(D)$ *y* = 0. The solution so obtained is called complementary function (*C.F*).

Next we operate on $f(x)$ with 1 $\overline{\phi(D)}$, the solution so obtained is called particular integral (*P.I*)

$$
PI = \frac{1}{\phi(D)} f(x)
$$

General solution is $y = C.F + P.I$

Type 1 : $f(x) = 0$

⊕

$$
(i.e)\phi(D)y=0
$$

To solve this, put $\phi(D) = 0$

Replace *D* by *m*. This equation is called auxiliary equation $\phi(m) = 0$ *is a* quadratic equation. So we have two roots, say m_1 and m_2 .

Now we have the following three cases.

Here *A* and *B* are arbitrary constants

Example 4.25

Solve
$$
(D^2 - 3D - 4)y = 0
$$

Solution:

Given
$$
(D^2 - 3D - 4)y = 0
$$

The auxiliary equations is
 $m^2 - 3m - 4 = 0$

$$
\Rightarrow (m-4)(m+1) = 0
$$

$$
m = -1, 4
$$

Roots are real and different

$$
\therefore
$$
 The complementary function is

$$
Ae^{-x} + Be^{4x}
$$

The general solution is $y = Ae^{-x} + Be^{4x}$

Example 4.26

Solve $9y'' - 12y' + 4y = 0$

Solution:

Given
$$
(9D^2 - 12D + 4)y = 0
$$

The auxiliary equation is $(3m-2)^2 = 0$
 $(3m-2)(3m-2) = 0 \implies m = \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{3}$

Roots are real and equal.

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The C.F. is
$$
(Ax + B)e^{\frac{2}{3}x}
$$

The general solution is $y = (Ax + B)e^{\frac{2}{3}x}$

Example 4.27

Solve
$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 5y = 0
$$

 $\overline{1}$

Solution:

Given
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 5y = 0
$$

$$
(D^2 - 4D + 5)y = 0
$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$
m^2-4m+5 = 0
$$

$$
\Rightarrow (m-2)^2 - 4 + 5 = 0
$$

$$
(m-2)^2 = -1
$$

$$
m-2 = \pm \sqrt{-1}
$$

m =
$$
2 \pm i
$$
, it is if the form $\alpha \pm i\beta$

$$
\therefore C.F = e^{2x} \Big[A \cos x + B \sin x \Big]
$$

The general solution is

$$
y = e^{2x} \left[A \cos x + B \sin x \right]
$$

Example 4.28

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Solve
$$
\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - \frac{3dx}{dt} + 2x = 0
$$
 given that when
 $t = 0$, $x = 0$ and $\frac{dx}{dt} = 1$

Solution:

$$
\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} - 3\frac{dx}{dt} + 2x = 0
$$

Given
$$
(D^2 - 3D + 2)x = 0
$$
 where $D = \frac{d}{dt}$
A.E is $m^2 - 3m + 2 = 0$
 $(m-1)(m-2) = 0$

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$$
m = 1, 2
$$

C.F = $Ae^{t} + Be^{2t}$

The general solution is $x = Ae^{t} + Be^{2t}$ (1)

Now when
$$
t = 0
$$
, $x = 0$ (given)

$$
(1) \implies 0 = A + B \qquad (2)
$$

Differentiating (1) w.r.t 't'

$$
\frac{dx}{dt} = Ae^{t} + 2Be^{2t}
$$

When t = 0,
$$
\frac{dx}{dt} = 1
$$

$$
A + 2B = 1
$$
 (3)

Thus we have $A + B = 0$ and $A + 2B = 1$

Solving, we get $A = -1$, $B = 1$

$$
\therefore (1) \Rightarrow x = -e^{t} + e^{2t}
$$

(i.e.) $x = e^{2t} - e^{t}$

Type II : $f(x) = e^{ax} (i.e) \phi(D) y = e^{ax}$ $P.I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{11}}$ ϕ ^{*D*} $\frac{1}{(D)}e^{ax}$

Replace D by a, provided $\phi(D) \neq 0$ when D = a

If $\phi(D) = 0$ when $D = a$, then

$$
\text{P.I} = x \frac{1}{\phi'(D)} e^{ax}
$$

Replace D by a, provided $\phi'(D) \neq 0$ when $D = a$

If
$$
\phi'(D) = 0
$$
 when $D = a$, then
\n
$$
PI = x^2 \frac{1}{\phi''(D)} e^{ax}
$$
 and so on

Example 4.29

Solve:
$$
(D^2 - 4D - 1)y = e^{-3x}
$$

Solution:

$$
(D2 - 4D - 1)y = e-3x
$$

The auxiliary equation is

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$$
m^{2}-4m-1=0
$$

\n
$$
(m-2)^{2}-4-1=0
$$

\n
$$
(m-2)^{2}=5
$$

\n
$$
m-2=\pm\sqrt{5}
$$

\n
$$
m = 2\pm\sqrt{5}
$$

\nC.F = $Ae^{(2+\sqrt{5})x} + Be^{(2-\sqrt{5})x}$
\nPI = $\frac{1}{\phi(D)}f(x)$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{D^{2}-4D-1}e^{-3x}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{(-3)^{2}-4(-3)-1}e^{-3x}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{9+12-1}e^{-3x}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{e^{-3x}}{20}
$$

Now,
$$
P.I_1 = \frac{1}{D^2 - 2}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{D^2 - 2D + 1}e^{2x}
$$

= $\frac{1}{4 - 4 + 1}e^{2x}$
(replace D by 2)

2

$$
= e^{2x}
$$

and $P.I_2 = \frac{1}{D^2 - 2D + 1} e^x$

$$
= \frac{1}{(D-1)^2} e^x
$$

Replace D by 1. $(D-1)^2 = 0$ when $D = 1$
 $\therefore P.I_2 = x.\frac{1}{2(D-1)} e^x$

Replace D by 1. $(D-1) = 0$ when D = 1 \therefore *P.I*₂ = $x^2 \frac{1}{2} e^x$

The general solution is

$$
y = C.F + P.I1 + P.I2
$$

$$
y = (Ax + B)ex + e2x + \frac{x2}{2}ex
$$

Example 4.31

Solve:
$$
(3D^2 + D - 14)y = 4 - 13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}
$$

Solution:

$$
(3D^2 + D - 14)y = 4 - 13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}
$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$
3m^{2} + m - 14 = 0
$$

\n
$$
(3m+7)(m-2) = 0
$$

\n
$$
m = \frac{-7}{3}, 2
$$

\nC.F = $Ae^{\frac{-7}{3}x} + Be^{2x}$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow PI = \frac{1}{\phi(D)} f(x) = \frac{1}{3D^{2} + D - 14} \left(4 - 13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
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$$

Hence the general solution is

 $y = C.F+P.I$

$$
\Rightarrow y = Ae^{(2+\sqrt{5})x} + Be^{(2-\sqrt{5})x} + \frac{e^{-3x}}{20}
$$

Example 4.30

Solve:
$$
(D^2 - 2D + 1)y = e^{2x} + e^x
$$

Solution:

 \bigoplus

$$
(D2 - 2D + 1)y = e2x + ex
$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$
m^{2}-2m+1 = 0
$$

\n
$$
\Rightarrow (m-1)(m-1) = 0
$$

\n
$$
m = 1, 1
$$

\nC.F = $(Ax + B)e^{x}$
\nPI = $\frac{1}{\phi(D)}f(x) = \frac{1}{D^{2}-2D+1}(e^{2x} + e^{x})$

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$$
= \frac{1}{3D^2 + D - 14}(4) + \frac{1}{3D^2 + D - 14}\left(-13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
= PI_1 + PI_2
$$

\n
$$
P.I_1 = \frac{1}{3D^2 + D - 14}4e^{0x}
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{0 + 0 - 14}4e^{0x}
$$

\n
$$
P.I_1 = \frac{-4}{14} = \frac{-2}{7}
$$

\n
$$
P.I_2 = \frac{1}{3D^2 + D - 14} \times (-13)e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}
$$

\n
$$
= 3D^2 + D - 14 = 0, \text{ when } D = -\frac{7}{3}
$$

\n
$$
\therefore P.I_2 = x.\frac{1}{6D + 1}\left(-13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
= x.\frac{1}{6\left(-\frac{7}{3}\right) + 1}\left(-13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
= x\frac{1}{-13}\left(-13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
= x\frac{1}{-13}\left(-13e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}\right)
$$

\n
$$
= x\frac{1}{e^{\frac{-7}{3}x}}
$$

The general solution is $y = C.F. + P.I_1 + P.I_2$

$$
y = Ae^{\frac{-7}{3}x} + Be^{2x} - \frac{2}{7} + xe^{\frac{-7}{3}x}
$$

Example 4.32

 \bigoplus

Suppose that the quantity demanded $Q_d = 29 - 2p - 5 \frac{dp}{dt}$ *dt* $d_{d} = 29 - 2p - 5 \frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{d^{2}p}{dt^{2}}$ 2 $\frac{r}{2}$ and quantity

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supplied $Q_s = 5 + 4p$ where p is the price. Find the equilibrium price for market clearance.

Solution:

For market clearance, the required condition is $Q_d = Q_s$

$$
\Rightarrow 29 - 2p - 5\frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{d^2p}{dt} = 5 + 4p
$$

$$
\Rightarrow 24 - 6p - 5\frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{d^2p}{dt^2} = 0
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \frac{d^2p}{dt^2} - 5\frac{dp}{dt} - 6p = -24
$$

$$
(D^2 - 5D - 6)p = -24
$$

The auxiliary equation is

$$
m2-5m-6=0
$$

(m-6)(m+1)=0

$$
\Rightarrow m=6,-1
$$

$$
C.F = Ae^{6t} + Be^{-t}
$$

$$
P.I = \frac{1}{\phi(D)} f(x)
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{D^2 - 5D - 6} (-24)e^{0t}
$$

=
$$
\frac{-24}{-6}
$$
 (Replace D by 0)
= 4

The general solution is $p = C.F + P.I$ $= Ae^{6t} + Be^{-t} + 4$

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{Exercise 4.5}
$$

Solve the following differential equations

(1)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 6\frac{dy}{dx} + 8y = 0
$$

(2)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 4\frac{dy}{dx} + 4y = 0
$$

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(3)
$$
(D^2 + 2D + 3)y = 0
$$

(4)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2k \frac{dy}{dx} + k^2 y = 0
$$

(5)
$$
(D2 - 2D - 15)y = 0
$$
 given that

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = 0
$$
 and
$$
\frac{d^{2}y}{dx^{2}} = 2
$$
 when $x = 0$

(6)
$$
(4D^2 + 4D - 3)y = e^{2x}
$$

(7)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 16y = 0
$$

(8) $(D^2-3D+2)y=e^{3x}$ which shall vanish for $x = 0$ and for $x = \log 2$

(9)
$$
(D^2 + D - 6)y = e^{3x} + e^{-3x}
$$

$$
(10)\ \left(D^2 - 10D + 25\right)y = 4e^{5x} + 5
$$

(11)
$$
(4D^2 + 16D + 15)y = 4e^{-x}
$$

$$
(12)\ \ (3D^2 + D - 14)y = 13e^{2x}
$$

 \bigcirc

(13) Suppose that the quantity demanded $Q_d = 13 - 6p + 2 \frac{dp}{dt}$ *dt* $\theta_d = 13 - 6p + 2\frac{dp}{dt} + \frac{d^2p}{dt^2}$ 2 $\frac{P}{2}$ and quantity supplied $Q_s = -3 + 2p$ where *p* is the price. Find the equilibrium price for market clearance.

Choose the Correct answer

1. The degree of the

differential equation

$$
\frac{d^4 y}{dx^4} - \left(\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}\right)^4 + \frac{dy}{dx} = 3
$$
\n(a) 1 \n(b) 2 \n(c) 3 \n(d) 4

2. The order and degree of the differential equation $\int d^2y$ *dx dy dx* $\frac{2y}{x^2} = \sqrt{\frac{dy}{dx}} + 5$ are respectively (a) 2 and 3 (b) 3 and 2

- (c) 2 and 1 (d) 2 and 2
- 3. The order and degree of the differential

equation $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx dy dx* 2 2 3 $\left(\frac{d^2y}{1^2}\right)^2 - \sqrt{\left(\frac{dy}{1}\right)^2 - 4} = 0$ l ľ $\int_{0}^{2} - \sqrt{\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)} - 4 = 0$ are respectively.

- (a) 2 and 6 (b) 3 and 6
- (c) 1 and 4 (d) 2 and 4
- 4. The differential equation $\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2 + 2y^{\frac{1}{2}} = x$ \overline{a} $+ 2y^2 =$ 3 1 $2y^2$ is
	- (a) of order 2 and degree 1
	- (b) of order 1 and degree 3
	- (c) of order 1 and degree 6
	- (d) of order 1 and degree 2
- 5. The differential equation formed by eliminating *a* and *b* from $y = ae^{x} + be^{-x}$ is

(a)
$$
\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - y = 0
$$
 (b) $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$
(c) $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = 0$ (d) $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - x = 0$

- 6. If $y = cx + c c^3$ then its differential equation is (a) $y = x \frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx dy dx dy dx* $= x \frac{dy}{1} + \frac{dy}{1} - \left($ $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)$ 3 (b) $y + \frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx* $\int x \frac{dy}{y}$ *dx dy dx* $+$ $\left($ $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{3} = x\frac{dy}{dx}$ 3
	- (c) $\frac{dy}{dx} + y = \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)$ $\int x \frac{dy}{1}$ *dx* $+ y = \left($ $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{5}$ – 3 (d) $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$ *dx* 3 $\frac{y}{3} = 0$
- 7. The integrating factor of the differential equation *dx dy* $+ Px = Q$ is (a) $e^{\int Pdx}$ (b) $\int Pdx$ (c) $\int Pdy$ $(d) e^{\int Pdy}$
- 8. The complementary function of $(D^2 + 4)y = e^{2x}$ is

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- (a) $(Ax+B)e^{2x}$ (b) $(Ax+B)e^{-2x}$
- (c) $A\cos 2x + B\sin 2x$
- (d) $Ae^{-2x} + Be^{2x}$
- 9. The differential equation of $y = mx + c$ is (*m* and *c* are arbitrary constants)
	- (a) $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx o* $\frac{2y}{x^2} = 0$ (b) $y = x \frac{dy}{dx}$ $= x \frac{y}{1} + c$ (c) $xdy + ydx = 0$ (d) $ydx - xdy = 0$
- 10. The particular integral of the differential equation is $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* $\frac{dy}{dx}$ – 8 $\frac{dy}{dx}$ + 16 y = 2e^{4x} (a) $\frac{x^2 e^{4x}}{2!}$ (b) $\frac{e^{4x}}{2!}$ 2! (c) $x^2 e^{4x}$ (d) xe^{x^2} (d) xe^{4x}
- 11. Solution of $\frac{dx}{1}$ *dy* $+ Px = 0$ (a) $x = ce^{py}$ (b) $x = ce^{-py}$ $(c) x = py + c$ (d) $x = cy$

 \bigcirc

- 12. If $\sec^2 x$ is an integrating factor of the differential equation *dy dx* $+ Py = Q$ then $P =$
	- (a) 2 tan *x* (b) sec *x*
	- $(c) cos²$ x (d)tan² x

13. The integrating factor of $x \frac{dy}{dx} - y = x^2$ is $(a) \frac{-1}{ }$ *x* (b) $\frac{1}{1}$ *x* (c) $\log x$ (d) *x*

- 14. The solution of the differential equation *dy dx* $+ Py = Q$ where *P* and *Q* are the function of *x* is (a) $y = \int Qe^{\int Pdx} dx + c$
	- (b) $y = \int Qe^{-\int Pdx} dx + c$

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- $\int (c) \t y e^{\int P dx} = \int Q e^{\int P dx} dx + c$ (d) $ye^{\int Pdx} = \int Qe^{-\int Pdx} dx + C$
- 15. The differential equation formed by eliminating *A* and *B* from $y = e^{-2x} (A \cos x + B \sin x)$ is (a) $y_2 - 4y_1 + 5 = 0$ (b) $y_2 + 4y - 5 = 0$ (c) $y_2 - 4y_1 - 5 = 0$ (d) $y_2 + 4y_1 + 5 = 0$
- 16. The particular integral of the differential equation $f(D)y = e^{ax}$ where $f(D) = (D - a)^2$ (a) $\frac{x^2}{2}e^{ax}$ $\frac{x}{2}e^{ax}$ (b) xe^{ax} (c) $\frac{x}{2}e^{ax}$ (d) x^2e^{ax}
- 17. The differential equation of $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ (a) $xdy+ydx=0$ (b) $ydx-xdy=0$ (c) $xdx-ydx=0$ (d) $xdx+ydy=0$
- 18. The complementary function of d^2y *dx dy dx* 2 $\frac{y}{2} - \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ is (a) $A + Be^x$ (b) $(A + B)e^x$ (c) $(Ax+B)e^x$ (d) Ae^x+B
- 19. The P.I of $(3D^2 + D 14)y = 13e^{2x}$ is (a) $\frac{x}{e^{2x}}$ 2 ^{2*x*} (b) xe^{2x} (c) $\frac{x^2}{2}e^{2x}$ (d) $13xe^{2x}$
- 20. The general solution of the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$ is (a) $y = \sin x + 1$ (b) $y = \sin x - 2$ (c) $y = \cos x + c$, *c* is an arbitrary constant
	- (d) $y = \sin x + c$, *c* is an arbitrary constant

- 21. A homogeneous differential equation of the form $\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ can be solved by making substitution,
	- (a) $y = v x$ (b) $v = y x$ (c) $x = v y$ (d) $x = v$
- 22. A homogeneous differential equation of the form $\frac{dx}{dy} = f\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)$ \overline{a} can be solved by making substitution,
	- (a) $x = v y$ (b) $y = v x$
	- (c) $y = v$ (d) $x = v$ $\gamma = \nu$
- 23. The variable separable form of

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y(x-y)}{x(x+y)}
$$
 by taking
\n
$$
y = vx \text{ and } \frac{dy}{dx} = v + x \frac{dv}{dx} \text{ is}
$$

\n(a)
$$
\frac{2v^2}{1+v} dv = \frac{dx}{x}
$$

\n(b)
$$
\frac{2v^2}{1+v} dv = -\frac{dx}{x}
$$

\n(c)
$$
\frac{2v^2}{1-v} dv = \frac{dx}{x}
$$

\n(d)
$$
\frac{1+v}{2v^2} dv = -\frac{dx}{x}
$$

◈

- 24. Which of the following is the homogeneous differential equation?
	- (a) $(3x-5) dx = (4y-1) dy$ (b) *xy* $dx - (x^3 + y^3) dy = 0$ (c) $y^2 dx + (x^2 - xy - y^2) dy = 0$ (d) $(x^2 + y) dx = (y^2 + x) dy$

25. The solution of the differential equation *dy dx y x* $f\left(\frac{y}{y}\right)$ *x* f' $\left(\frac{y}{y}\right)$ *x* $=$ $-$ + ſ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ ′ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ is (a) $f(\frac{y}{x})$ *x* $\left(\frac{y}{-k}\right) = k x$ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = kx$ (b) $x f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ $\left(\frac{y}{-k}\right) = k$ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ = (c) $f\left(\frac{y}{y}\right)$ *x* $\left(\frac{y}{-}\right) = k y$ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) = ky$ (d) $y f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ $\left(\frac{y}{-k}\right) = k$ $\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ =

Miscellaneous Problems

- 1. Suppose that $Q_d = 30 5P + 2 \frac{dP}{dt}$ *dt* $d_d = 30 - 5P + 2\frac{dP}{dt} + \frac{d^2P}{dt^2}$ 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ *v* and $Q_s = 6 + 3P$. Find the equilibrium price for market clearance.
	- 2. Form the differential equation having for its general solution $y = ax^2 + bx$
	- 3. Solve $yx^2 dx + e^{-x} dy = 0$

4. Solve
$$
\left(x^2 + y^2\right)dx + 2xy\,dy = 0
$$

5. Solve
$$
x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x^4
$$

- 6. A manufacturing company has found that the cost C of operating and maintaining the equipment is related to the length '*m*' of intervals between overhauls by the equation *m dC dm* $\frac{2}{I}$ $\frac{4C}{I}$ + 2*mC* = 2 and *c* = 4 and when *m* = 2. Find the relationship between *C* and *m*.
- 7. Solve $(D^2 3D + 2)y = e^{4x}$ given $y = 0$ when $x = 0$ and $x = 1$.
- 8. Solve $\frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx* $+ y \cos x + x = 2 \cos x$

9. Solve
$$
x^2 y dx - \left(x^3 + y^3\right) dy = 0
$$

10. Solve
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = xy + x + y + 1
$$

Differential Equations 101

Summary

- A differential equation is an equation with a function and one or more of its derivatives. (i.e) an equation with the function $y = f(x)$ and its derivatives $\frac{dy}{dx}$ *dx* d^2y *dx* $\frac{1}{1}$... 2 $\frac{2}{2}$... is called differential equation.
- Order of the highest order derivative present in the differential equation is the order of the differential equation.
- Degree is the highest power of the highest order derivative in the differential equation, after the equation has been cleared from fractions and the radicals as for as the derivatives are concerned.
- A function which satisfies the given differential equation is called its solution. The solution which contains as many arbitrary constants as the order of the differential equation is called a general solution and the solution free from arbitrary constants is called particular solution.
- To form a differential equation from a given function we differentiate the function successively as many times as the number of arbitrary constants in the given function and then eliminate the arbitrary constants.
- In an equation it is possible to collect all the terms of x and dx on one side and all the terms of *y* and *dy* on the other side, then the variables are said to be separable. Thus the general form of such an equation is $f(x)dx = g(y)dy$ (or) $f(x)dx + g(y)dy = 0$ By direct integration, we get the solution.
- A differential equation which can be expressed in the form $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y)$ or $\frac{dx}{dy} = g(x, y)$ where $f(x, y)$ and $g(x, y)$ are homogeneous function of degree zero is called a homogeneous differential equation.
- A differential equation of the form *dy dx* $+ Py = Q$ where P and Q are constants or functions of

x only is called a first order linear differential equation.

• A general second order linear differential equation with constant coefficients is of the form $a\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ *dx* $b\frac{dy}{dx}$ $\frac{dy}{dx} + cy = f(x)$ 2 $\frac{y}{2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = f(x)$

GLOSSARY (கலைச்சொற்கள்)

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ICT Corner

Expected Result is shown in this picture

Step 1

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Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics and Statistics " will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-1".

Step 2

Select the worksheet named" Differential Equation"

There is a video explanation and a graph in a single worksheet. Observe and learn the concepts.

Browse in the link

12th standard Business Mathematics : https://ggbm.at/uzkcrnwr (or) Scan the QR Code.

Differential Equations 103

5 Numerical Methods

Joseph-Louis Lagrange (25.01.1736 - 10.04.1813)

Introduction

Wumerical Analysis is a branch of Mathematics
which leads to approximate solution by repeated applications of four basic operations of Algebra. The knowledge of finite differences is essential for the study of Numerical Analysis.

Joseph-Louis Lagrange was an Italian mathematician and astronomer. he made significant contributions to the fields of analysis, number theory, and both classical and celestial mechanics.

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Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter, students will be able to understand

the finite differences

⊕

- how to find the polynomial using finite differences
- \bullet how to find the relations between the operators
- **D** how to find the missing terms
- how to interpolate the values of a given series using Newton's interpolation formulae
- how to apply the Lagrange's interpolation formula

5.1 Finite Differences

Consider the arguments $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ and the entries y_0 , y_1 , y_2 , \cdots , y_n . $y = f(x)$ be a function of *x*. Let us assume that the values

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of *x* are in increasing order and equally spaced with a space length *h*. Then the values of *x* may be taken to be x_0 , x_0 + h, x_0 + 2h, \cdots , x_0 + nh and the function assumes the values $f(x_0)$, $f(x_0 + h)$, $f(x_0 + 2h)$, \cdots , $f(x_0 + nh)$. Here we study some of the finite differences of the function $y = f(x)$.

5.1.1 Forward Difference Operator, Backward Difference Operator and Shifting Operator

Forward Difference Operator (∆):

Let $y = f(x)$ be a given function of *x*. Let $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$ be the values of *y* at $x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ respectively. Then $y_1 - y_0$, $y_2 - y_1$, $y_3 - y_2$, ..., $y_n - y_{n-1}$ are called the first (forward) differences of the function *y*. They are denoted by $\Delta y_0, \Delta y_1, \Delta y_2, ..., \Delta y_{n-1}$ respectively.

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(i.e)
$$
\Delta y_0 = y_1 - y_0, \Delta y_1 = y_2 - y_1, \Delta y_2 =
$$

\n $y_3 - y_2, ..., \Delta y_{n-1} = y_n - y_{n-1}$
\nIn general, $\Delta y_n = y_{n+1} - y_n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...$

The symbol Δ is called the forward difference operator and pronounced as delta.

The forward difference operator ∆ can also be defined as $\Delta f(x) = f(x+h) - f(x)$, *h* is the equal interval of spacing.

Proof of these properties are not included in our syllabus:

Properties of the operator Δ :

Property 1: If *c* is a constant then $\Delta c = 0$

Proof: Let $f(x) = c$

 $\therefore f(x+h) = c$ (where '*h*' is the interval of difference)

$$
\Delta f(x) = f(x+h) - f(x)
$$

$$
\Delta c = c - c = 0
$$

Property 2: Δ is distributive i.e. $\Delta \big(f(x) + g(x) \big) = \Delta f(x) + \Delta g(x)$

Proof:
$$
\Delta[f(x) + g(x)]
$$

\n
$$
= \left[f(x+h) + g(x+h) \right]
$$
\n
$$
- \left[f(x) + g(x) \right]
$$
\n
$$
= f(x+h) + g(x+h) - f(x) - g(x)
$$
\n
$$
= f(x+h) - f(x) + g(x+h) - g(x)
$$
\n
$$
= \Delta f(x) + \Delta g(x)
$$

Similarly we can show that $\Delta[f(x)-g(x)] = \Delta f(x) - \Delta g(x)$ $In general, ∆[f₁(x) + f₂(x) ... + fₙ(x)]$ $=\Delta f_1(x) + \Delta f_2(x) + ... + \Delta f_n(x)$

Property 3: If *c* is a constant then $\Delta c f(x) = c \Delta f(x)$

Proof:
$$
\Delta[c f(x)] = c f(x+h) - c f(x)
$$

= $c[f(x+h) - f(x)]$
= $c \Delta f(x)$

Results without proof

1. If *m* and *n* are positive integers then
\n
$$
\Delta^m \cdot \Delta^n f(x) = \Delta^{m+n} f(x)
$$
\n2.
$$
\Delta[f(x) g(x)] = f(x) \Delta g(x) + g(x) \Delta f(x)
$$
\n3.
$$
\Delta \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{g(x) \Delta f(x) - f(x) \Delta g(x)}{g(x), g(x+h).
$$

The differences of the first differences denoted by $\Delta^2 y_0, \Delta^2 y_1, ..., \Delta$ 2 1 y_0 , $\Delta^2 y_1$, ..., $\Delta^2 y_n$ are called second differences, where

$$
\Delta^2 y_n = \Delta(\Delta y_n) = \Delta(y_{n+1} - y_n)
$$

\n
$$
= \Delta y_{n+1} - \Delta y_n
$$

\n
$$
\Delta^2 y_n = \Delta y_{n+1} - \Delta y_n, n = 0, 1, 2, ...
$$

\n
$$
\Delta^2 y_0 = \Delta y_1 - \Delta y_0
$$

\n
$$
\Delta^2 y_1 = \Delta y_2 - \Delta y_1
$$

Similarly the differences of second differences are called third differences.

$$
\Delta^3 y_{n} = \Delta^2 y_{n+1} - \Delta^2 y_n, n = 0, 1, 2, ...
$$

In particular,

$$
\Delta^3 y_0 = \Delta^2 y_1 - \Delta^2 y_0
$$

$$
\Delta^3 y_1 = \Delta^2 y_2 - \Delta^2 y_1
$$

In general kth differences of yn is

$$
\Delta^{k} y_{n} = \Delta^{k-1} y_{n+1} - \Delta^{k-1} y_{n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots
$$

Note

$$
\Delta^{k} f(x) = \Delta^{k-1} f(x+h) - \Delta^{k-1} f(x)
$$

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It is convenient to represent the above differences in a table as shown below.

The forward difference table for $f(x)$ is given below.

Backward Difference operator (∇) **:**

Let $y = f(x)$ be a given function of *x*. Let y_0 , y_1 , ..., y_n be the values of *y* at

 $x = x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ respectively. Then

$$
y_1 - y_0 = \nabla y_1
$$

$$
y_2 - y_1 = \nabla y_2
$$

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$$
y_n - y_{n-1} = \nabla y_n
$$

are called the first(backward) differences.

The operator ∇ is called backward difference operator and pronounced as nepla.

Second (backward) differences:

$$
\nabla^2 y_n = \nabla y_n - \nabla y_{n+1}, \ \ n = 1, 2, 3, \dots
$$

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 \bigoplus

Third (backward) differences:
\n
$$
\nabla^3 y_n = \nabla^2 y_n - \nabla^2 y_{n-1} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots
$$

In general, *k*th (backward) differences:

$$
\nabla^k y_n = \nabla^{k-1} y_n - \nabla^{k-1} y_{n-1} \ n = 1, 2, 3, \dots
$$

Backward difference table:

Backward differences can also be defined as follows.

$$
\nabla f(x) = f(x) - f(x - h)
$$

First differences:

⊕

 $\nabla f(x+h) = f(x+h) - f(x)$

 $\nabla f(x+2h) = f(x+2h) - f(x+h),$ *h* is the interval of spacing.

Second differences:

$$
\nabla^2 f(x+h) = \nabla(\nabla f(x+h) = \nabla(f(x+h) - f(x))
$$

$$
= \nabla f(x+h) - \nabla f(x)
$$

$$
\nabla^2 f(x+2h) = \nabla f(x+2h) - \nabla f(x+h)
$$

Third differences:

$$
\nabla^3 f(x+h) = \nabla^2 f(x+h) - \nabla^2 f(x) \n\nabla^3 f(x+2h) = \nabla^2 f(x+2h) - \nabla^2 f(x+h)
$$

Here we note that,

$$
\nabla f(x+h) = f(x+h) - f(x) = \Delta f(x)
$$

\n
$$
\nabla f(x+2h) = f(x+2h) - f(x+h)
$$

\n
$$
= \Delta f(x+h)
$$

\n
$$
\nabla^2 f(x+2h) = \nabla f(x+2h) - \nabla f(x+h)
$$

\n
$$
= \Delta f(x+h) - \Delta f(x)
$$

\n
$$
= \Delta^2 f(x)
$$

In general, $\nabla^n f(x + nh) = \Delta^n f(x)$

Shifting operator (E):

Let $y = f(x)$ be a given function of x and x_0 , x_0 + h, x_0 + 2h, x_0 + 3h, ..., x_0 + nh be the consecutive values of *x*. Then the operator *E* is defined as

$$
E\left[f(x_0)\right] = f(x_0 + h)
$$

E is called the shifting operator . It is also called the displacement operator.

$$
E[f(x_0 + h)] = f(x_0 + 2h),
$$

\n
$$
E[f(x_0 + 2h)] = f(x_0 + 3h),...
$$

\ndefined
$$
E[f(x_0 + (n-1)h)] = f(x_0 + nh)
$$

$E[f(x)] = f(x+h)$, *h* is the (equal) interval of spacing

 $E^2 f(x)$ means that the operator *E* is applied twice on $f(x)$

(i.e)
$$
E^2 f(x) = E[E f(x)]
$$

$$
= E[f(x+h) = f(x+2h)]
$$

In general ,

$$
En f(x) = f(x + nh) \text{ and}
$$

$$
E-n f(x) = f(x - nh)
$$

Properties of the operator E:

- 1. $E[f_1(x) + f_2(x) + \dots + f_n(x)] = Ef_1(x) + \dots$ $E f_2(x) ... + ... + E[f_n(x)]$
	- 2. $\mathbb{E}\left[c f(x)\right] = cE\left[f(x)\right]$ *c* is a constant

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3.
$$
\mathbb{E}^m \Big[\mathbb{E}^n f(x) \Big] = \mathbb{E}^n \Big(\mathbb{E}^m f(x) \Big) = \mathbb{E}^{m+n} f(x)
$$

4. If '*n*' is a positive integer, then $\mathbb{E}^n\left[\mathbb{E}^{-n}(f(x))\right]=f(x).$

Note

Let $y = f(x)$ be given function of *x*. Let $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$ be the values of *y* at $x = x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$. Then *E* can also be defined as $E y_0 = y_1, E y_1 = y_2, ..., E y_{n-1} = y_n$ $E\left[\mathrm{E}y_0\right] = E\left(y_1\right) = y_2$ and In general $E^n y_0 = y_n$

Relations between the operators ∆ **,** ∇ **and E:**

1. $\Delta \equiv E - 1$

⊕

Proof: From the definition of Δ we know that

$$
\Delta f(x) = f(x+h) - f(x)
$$

and
$$
E[f(x)] = f(x+h)
$$

where h is the interval of difference.

$$
\Delta f(x) = f(x+h) - f(x)
$$

$$
\Delta f(x) = Ef(x) - f(x)
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \Delta f(x) = (E-1)f(x)
$$

$$
\Delta \equiv E-1
$$

$$
\therefore E \equiv 1 + \Delta
$$

2.
$$
E\Delta \equiv \Delta E
$$

Proof:

$$
E(\Delta f(x)) = E[f(x+h) - f(x)]
$$

= E f(x+h) - E f(x)
= f(x+2h) - f(x+h)
= \Delta f(x+h)
= \Delta E f(x)

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$$
\therefore E\Delta \equiv \Delta E
$$

3.
$$
\nabla \equiv \frac{E-1}{E}
$$

Proof:

Proof:
\n
$$
\nabla f(x) = f(x) - f(x - h)
$$
\n
$$
= f(x) - E^{-1} f(x)
$$
\n
$$
= (1 - E^{-1}) f(x)
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \nabla = 1 - E^{-1}
$$
\ni.e., $\nabla = 1 - \frac{1}{E}$
\nHence, $\nabla = \frac{E - 1}{E}$
\n
$$
\therefore \text{WOWP} \quad \text{(i) } (1 + \Delta) (1 - \nabla) = 1
$$
\n
$$
\text{(ii) } \Delta \nabla = \Delta - \nabla
$$
\n
$$
\text{(iii) } \nabla = E^{-1} \Delta
$$

Example 5.1

Construct a forward difference table for the following data

Solution:

The Forward difference table is given below:

Example 5.2

 Construct a forward difference table for $y = f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ for $x = 1,2,3,4,5$.

Solution:

 $y = f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$

Example 5.3

By constructing a difference table and using the second order differences as constant, find the sixth term of the series 8,12,19,29,42…

Solution:

⊕

Let *k* be the sixth term of the series in the difference table.

First we find the forward differences.

Given that the second differences are constant

∴ $k - 55 = 3$

$$
k = 58
$$

∴ the sixth term of the series is 58

Example 5.4

Find (i) Δe^{ax}

Solution:

(i)
$$
\Delta e^{ax}
$$
 = $e^{a(x+h)} - e^{ax}$
= $e^{ax} \cdot e^{ah} - e^{ax} \quad [\because a^{m+n} = a^m \cdot a^n \]$
= $e^{ax} \left[e^{ah} - 1 \right]$

 $\sin \Delta^2 e^x$

e^x (iii) ∆ log *x*

(ii)
$$
\Delta^2 e^x = \Delta \left[\Delta e^x \right]
$$

$$
= \Delta \left[e^{x+h} - e^x \right]
$$

$$
= \Delta \left[e^x e^h - e^x \right]
$$

$$
= \Delta e^x \left[e^h - 1 \right]
$$

$$
= \left(e^h - 1 \right) \Delta e^x
$$

$$
= \left(e^h - 1 \right) \cdot \left(e^h - 1 \right) \cdot e^x
$$

$$
= \left(e^h - 1 \right)^2 \cdot e^x
$$

(iii)
$$
\triangle \log x = \log(x+h) - \log x
$$

\n
$$
= \log \frac{x+h}{x}
$$
\n
$$
= \log \left(\frac{x}{x} + \frac{h}{x}\right)
$$
\n
$$
= \log \left(1 + \frac{h}{x}\right)
$$
\nExample 5.5

Examp

Evaluate
$$
\Delta \left[\frac{5x+12}{x^2+5x+6} \right]
$$
 by taking '1'

as the interval of differencing. *Solution:*

$$
\Delta \left[\frac{5x+12}{x^2+5x+6} \right]
$$

By Partial fraction method

$$
\frac{5x+12}{x^2+5x+6} = \frac{A}{x+3} + \frac{B}{x+2}
$$

$$
A = \frac{5x+12}{x+2} [x = -3]
$$

$$
= \frac{-15+12}{-1} = \frac{-3}{-1} = 3
$$

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$$
B = \frac{5x+12}{x+3} \left[x=-2 \right] = \frac{2}{1} = 2
$$

\n
$$
\frac{5x+12}{x^2+5x+6} = \left[\frac{3}{x+3} + \frac{2}{x+2} \right]
$$

\n
$$
\Delta \left[\frac{5x+12}{x^2+5x+6} \right] = \Delta \left[\frac{3}{x+3} + \frac{2}{x+2} \right]
$$

\n
$$
= \left[\frac{3}{x+1+3} - \frac{3}{x+3} \right] + \left\{ \frac{2}{x+1+2} - \frac{2}{x+2} \right\}
$$

\n
$$
= 3 \left[\frac{1}{x+4} - \frac{1}{x+3} \right] + 2 \left[\frac{1}{x+3} - \frac{1}{x+2} \right]
$$

\n
$$
= \left[\frac{-3}{(x+4)(x+3)} - \frac{2}{(x+3)(x+2)} \right]
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{-5x-14}{(x+2)(x+3)(x+4)}
$$

Example 5.6

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Evaluate
$$
\Delta^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)
$$
 by taking '1' as the

interval of differencing.

Solution:
\n
$$
\Delta^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \Delta \left(\Delta \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) \right)
$$
\nNow $\Delta \left[\frac{1}{x} \right] = \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{x}$
\n
$$
\Delta^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \Delta \left(\frac{1}{1+x} - \frac{1}{x} \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \Delta \left(\frac{1}{1+x} \right) - \Delta \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)
$$
\nSimilarly $\Delta^2 \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \frac{2}{x(x+1)(x+2)}$

 Δ^n *x* $\left(1\right)$ l $\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)$ $\overline{1}$ $=\frac{(-1)^n n!}{(x+1)(x+2)}$ $x(x+1)(x+2)......(x+n)$ $1(x + 2)$

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Example 5.7

Prove that $f(4) = f(3) + \Delta f(2) + \Delta^2 f(1) + \Delta^3 f(1)$ taking '1' as the interval of differencing.

Solution:

We know that
$$
f(4) - f(3) = \Delta f(3)
$$

\n $f(4) - f(3) = \Delta f(3)$
\n $= \Delta [f(2) + \Delta f(2)] \quad \therefore [f(3) - f(2) = \Delta f(2)]$
\n $= \Delta f(2) + \Delta^2 f(2)$
\n $= \Delta f(2) + \Delta^2 [f(1) + \Delta f(1)]$
\n $\therefore f(4) = f(3) + \Delta f(2) + \Delta^2 f(1) + \Delta^3 f(1).$

Example 5.8

Given
$$
U_0 = 1
$$
, $U_1 = 11$, $U_2 = 21$, $U_3 = 28$
and $U_4 = 29$ find $\Delta^4 U_0$

Solution :

$$
\Delta^4 U_0 = (E - 1)^4 U_0
$$

= $(E^4 - 4E^3 + 6E^2 - 4E + 1) U_0$
= $E^4 U_0 - 4E^3 U_0 + 6E^2 U_0 - 4E U_0 + U_0$
= $U_4 - 4U_3 + 6U_2 - 4U_1 + U_0$
= $29 - 4(28) + 6(21) - 4(11) + 1$.
= 156-156 = 0

Example 5.9

Given $y_3 = 2$, $y_4 = -6$, $y_5 = 8$, $y_6 = 9$ and $y_7 = 17$ Calculate $\Delta^4 y_3$

Solution :

Given $y_3 = 2$, $y_4 = -6$, $y_5 = 8$, $y_6 = 9$ and $y_7 = 17$

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$$
\Delta^4 y_3 = (E-1)^4 y_3
$$

= $(E^4 - 4E^3 + 6E^2 - 4E + 1) y_3$
= $E^4 y_3 - 4E^3 y_3 + 6E^2 y_3 - 4E y_3 + y_3$
= $y_7 - 4y_6 + 6y_5 - 4y_4 + y_3$
= $17 - 4(9) + 6(8) - 4(-6) + 2$
= $17 - 36 + 48 + 24 + 2 = 55$

5.1.2 Finding the missing terms

Using the difference operators and shifting operator we can able to find the missing terms.

Example 5.10

From the following table find the missing value

Solution:

⊕

Since only four values of $f(x)$ are given, the polynomial which fits the data is of degree three. Hence fourth differences are zeros.

(ie)

\n
$$
\Delta^{4} y_{0} = 0, \therefore (E - 1)^{4} y_{0} = 0
$$
\n
$$
(E^{4} - 4E^{3} + 6E^{2} - 4E + 1) y_{0} = 0
$$

$$
E^4 y_0 - 4E^3 y_0 + 6E^2 y_0 - 4E y_0 + y_0 = 0
$$

$$
y_4 - 4y_3 + 6y_2 - 4y_1 + y_0 = 0
$$

$$
67.4 - 4y_3 + 6(54.1) - 4(49.2) + 45 = 0
$$

$$
240.2 = 4y_3 \qquad \therefore y_3 = 60.05
$$

Example 5.11

Estimate the production for 1964 and 1966 from the following data

Solution:

Since five values are given, the polynomial which fits the data is of degree four.

Hence
$$
\Delta^5 y_k = 0
$$
 (ie) $(E-1)^5 y_k = 0$
\ni.e., $(E^5 - 5E^4 + 10E^3 - 10E^2 + 5E - 1)y_k = 0$
\n $E^5 y_k - 5E^4 y_k + 10E^3 y_k - 10E^2 y_k + 5E y_k - y_k = 0$ (1)
\nPut $k = 0$ in (1)
\n $E^5 y_0 - 5E^4 y_0 + 10E^3 y_0 - 10E^2 y_0 + 5E y_0 - y_0 = 0$
\n $y_5 - 5y_4 + 10y_3 - 10y_2 + 5y_1 - y_0 = 0$
\n $y_5 - 5(350) + 10y_3 - 10(260) + 5(220) - 200 = 0$
\n $y_5 + 10y_3 = 3450$ (2)

Put
$$
k = 1
$$
 in (1)
\n $E^5 y_1 - 5E^4 y_1 + 10E^3 y_1 - 10E^3 y_1 - y_1 = 0$
\n $y_6 - 5y_5 + 10y_4 - 10y_3 - y_1 = 0$
\n $430 - 5y_5 + 10(350) - 10y_3 + 5(260) - 220 = 0$
\n $5y_5 + 10y_3 = 5010$ (3)
\n(3) - (2) \implies
\n $4y_5 = 1560$
\n $y_5 = 390$
\nFrom (1)
\n $390 + 10y_3 = 3450$
\n $10y_3 = 3450 - 390$
\n $y_3 \approx 306$

Exercise 5.1

- 1. Evaluate $\Delta(\log ax)$.
- 2. If $y = x^3 x^2 + x 1$ calculate the values of *y* for *x* = 0,1,2,3,4,5 and form the forward differences table.
- 3. If $h = 1$ then prove that $(E^{-1}\Delta)x^3 = 3x^2 - 3x + 1$.

4. If
$$
f(x) = x^2 + 3x
$$
 than show that
\n $\Delta f(x) = 2x + 4$.

- 5. Evaluate $\Delta \left| \frac{1}{(1+1)!} \right|$ $(x+1)(x+2)$ I $\left\lfloor \frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)} \right\rfloor$ by taking '1' as the interval of differencing
- 6. Find the missing entry in the following table

7. Following are the population of a district

Find the population of the year 1911

8. Find the missing entries from the following.

5.2 Interpolation

Consider the profit of a manufacturing company in various years as given below:

The profit for the year 1989 is not available .To estimate the profit for 1989 we use the technique called interpolation. Let *x* denote the year and *y* denote the profit. The independent variable x is called the argument and the dependent variable *y* is called the entry. If y is to be estimated for the value of x between two extreme points in a set of values, it is called interpolation.

If ν is to be estimated for the values of *x* which lies outside the given set of the values of it, is called extrapolation.

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5.2.1 Methods of interpolation

 There are two methods for interpolation. One is Graphical method and the other one is algebraic method.

5.2.2 Graphical method

We are given the '*n*' values of *x* and the corresponding values of y for given function $y = f(x)$. we plot these *n* observed points $(x_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, 3...$ and draw a free hand curve passing through these plotted points. From the graph so obtained, we can find out the value of *y* for any intermediate value of *x*. There is one drawback in the graphic method which states that the value of *y* obtained is the estimated value of *y*. The estimated value of *y* differs from the actual value of *y*.

Example 5.12

Using graphic method, find the value of *y* when $x = 38$ from the following data:

Solution:

Steps in Graphic method:

Take a suitable scale for the values of *x* and *y*, and plot the various points on the graph paper for given values of *x* and *y*.

Draw a suitable curve passing through the plotted points.

Find the point corresponding to the value $x = 38$ on the curve and then read the

corresponding value of *y* on the *y*- axis, which will be the required interpolated value.

From the graph in Fig. 5.1 we find that for $x = 38$, the value of *y* is equal to 35.

5.2.3 Algebraic method

Newton's Gregory forward interpolation formula (or) Newton's forward interpolation formula (for equal intervals).

CWOW?

The first two terms will give the linear interpolation and the first three terms will give a parabolic interpolation and so on. $n(n+1)(n+1)$ $\mathbf{1}$ $\frac{1}{2}$

y y

1

Let $y = f(x)$ denote a polynomial of degree *n* which takes $(n+1)$ values. Let them be y_0 , y_1 , y_2 ,..., y_n corresponding to the values $x_{i_0}, x_{i_1},...x_{i_n}$ respectively.

The values of *x* (x_0 , x_1 , x_2 , ... x_n) are at equidistant.

(i.e.)
$$
x_1 = x_0 + h
$$
, $x_2 = x_0 + 2h$, $x_3 = x_0$
 $+ 3h$,..., $x_n = x_0 + nh$

Then the value of $f(x)$ at $x = x_0 + nh$ is given by

$$
f(x_0 + nh) = f(x_0) + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta f(x_0) + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}
$$

Year
Population
Population
3!

(or)
$$
y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0
$$
 To find the polynomial
\n $y_0(n-1)(n-2)$ (i.e) the value of y at $y_0 + y_0$

$$
+\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}\Delta^{3}y_{0}+...
$$
 where $n=\frac{x-x_{0}}{h}$

Newton's Gregory backward interpolation Formula.

Note

⊕

used when the value of *y* is required near the beginning of the table.

In general Newton's forward interpolation formula not to be used when the value of *y* is required near the end of the table. For this we use another formula, called Newton's Gregory backward interpolation formula.

Then the value of $f(x)$ at $x = x_n +nh$ is given by $n(n+1)$

or) Newton's forward interpolation
\nor equal intervals).
\n
$$
f(x_n + nh) = f(x_n) + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla f(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!}
$$
\n
$$
\nabla^2 f(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$
\n
$$
F(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$
\n
$$
F(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$
\n
$$
F(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$
\n
$$
F(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{2!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$
\n
$$
F(x_n) + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{2!} \nabla^3 f(x_n) + ...
$$

$$
+\frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!}\nabla^3 y_n + ... \text{ when } n = \frac{x-x}{h}
$$

Note

<u>ا</u>

Newton's backward interpolation formula is used when the value of *y* is required near the end of the table.

Example 5.13

Using Newton's formula for interpolation estimate the population for the year 1905 from the table:

Solution

 $\Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0$ To find the population for the year 1905 1! $\frac{dy_0}{dx} = 2!$ (i.e) the value of *y* at *x* = 1905.

> Since the value of *y* is required near the beginning of the table, we use the Newton's forward interpolation formula.

Ormula.	
$y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0$	
$+$	$\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots$

To find *y* at $x = 1905$ ∴ $x_0 + nh = 1905$, $x_0 = 1891, h = 10$

$$
-1091, n-10.
$$

1891+n(10)=1905 $\Rightarrow n = 1.4$

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$$
y_{(x=1905)} = 98,752 + (1.4)(33533)
$$

$$
+\frac{(1.4)(0.4)}{2}(2258)
$$

$$
+\frac{(1.4)(0.4)(-0.6)}{6}(-10435)
$$

$$
+\frac{(1.4)(0.6)(-0.6)(-1.6)}{24}(41358)
$$

 $= 98752 + 46946.2 + 632.24 + 584.36 + 1389.63$

 $= 148304.43$

 $\approx 1,48,304$

⊕

Example 5.14

The values of $y = f(x)$ for $x = 0, 1, 2, ..., 6$ are given by

Estimate the value of y (3.2) using forward interpolation formula by choosing the four values that will give the best approximation.

Solution:

Since we apply the forward interpolation formula, last four values of $f(x)$ are taken into consideration (Take the values from *x* = 3).

The forward interpolation formula is

$$
y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots
$$

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$$
x_0 + nh = 3.2, x_0 = 3, h = 1
$$

\n∴ $n = \frac{1}{5}$

The difference table is

35)
$$
y_{(x=3.2)} = 16 + \frac{1}{5}(4) + \frac{\frac{1}{5}(\frac{-4}{5})}{2}(0)
$$

$$
+ \frac{\frac{1}{5}(\frac{-4}{5})(\frac{-9}{5})}{6} \times 10
$$

 $= 16 + 0.8 + 0 + 0.48 = 17.28$

Example 5.15

From the following table find the number of students who obtained marks less than 45.

Solution:

Let *x* be the marks and *y* be the number of students.

By converting the given series into cumulative frequency distribution, the difference table is as follows.

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$$
y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \text{ whose weight is below 70}
$$

forward difference formula.

$$
\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots
$$

$$
y_{(x=x+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \dots
$$

To find
$$
y
$$
 at $x = 45$ $\therefore x_0 + nh = 45$,
\n $x_0 = 40, h = 10 \Rightarrow n = \frac{1}{2}$
\n $y_{(x=45)} = 31 + \frac{1}{2} \times 42 + \frac{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{-1}{2})}{2}$ (9)
\n $+ \frac{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{-1}{2})(\frac{-3}{2})}{6} \times (-25)$ $\therefore y_{(x=70)} = 25$
\n $+ \frac{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{-1}{2})(\frac{-3}{2})(\frac{-5}{2})}{24} \times (37)$
\n $= 31 + 21 - \frac{9}{8} - \frac{25}{16} - \frac{37 \times 15}{384}$
\n $= 47.867 \approx 48$ $= 250$

Example 5.16

⊕

Using appropriate interpolation formula find the number of students whose weight is between 60 and 70 from the data given below:

Solution:

Let x be the weight and y be the number of students.

Difference table of cumulative frequencies are given below.

 $\Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0$ + whose weight is below 70. For this we use Let us calculate the number of students

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\frac{\partial^2 y_0}{\partial t} + \dots \\
\frac{\partial^2 y_0}{\partial t} + \dots \\
\frac{\partial^2 y_0}{\partial t} + \dots\n\end{aligned}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{aligned}\ny_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots\n\end{aligned}
$$

To find *y* at $x = 70$ ∴ $x_0 + nh = 70$,

$$
40+n(20) = 70 \implies n = 1.5
$$

\n
$$
(\text{-}25)
$$

\n
$$
\therefore y_{(x=70)} = 250 + 1.5(120) + \frac{(1.5)(0.5)}{2!}(-20)
$$

\n
$$
+\frac{(1.5)(0.5)(-0.5)}{3!}(-10)
$$

\n
$$
\frac{25}{3!} - \frac{37 \times 15}{4!} = \frac{37 \times 15}{4!} (20)
$$

$$
= 250 + 180 - 7.5 + 0.625 + 0.46875
$$

$$
= 423.59
$$

$$
\approx 424
$$

Number of students whose weight is between 60 and $70 = y(70) - y(60) = 424 - 370 = 54$

Example 5.17

The population of a certain town is as follows:

Using appropriate interpolation formula, estimate the population during the period 1946.

Solution:

Here we find the population for year1946. (i.e) the value of *y* at *x*=1946. Since the value of *y* is required near the beginning of the table, we use the Newton's forward interpolation formula.

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$$
y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0
$$

be y.

$$
+ \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + ...
$$
 $y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n$

To find y at $x = 1946$

∴ $x_0 + nh = 1946$, $x_0 = 1941$, $h = 10$

$$
1941 + n(10) = 1946 \implies n = 0.5
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\textcircled{9} \qquad & y_{(x=1946)} = 20 + \frac{0.5}{1!} (4) + \frac{0.5(0.5-1)}{2!} (1) + \frac{0.5(0.5-1)(0.5-2)}{3!} (1) \\
& + \frac{0.5(0.5-1)(0.5-2)(0.5-3)}{3!} (0) + \frac{0.5(0.5-1)(0.5-2)(0.5-3)}{4!} (0) + \frac{(-0.5)(0-5)(0-5)(0.5-2)(0.5-3)}{3!} (1) \\
& + \frac{0.5(0.5-1)(0.5-2)(0.5-3)(0.5-4)}{4!} (-9) + \frac{(-0-5)(0.5)(0.5-2)(0.5-2)(0.5-3)(0.5-4)}{4!} \\
& = 20 + 2 - 0.125 + 0.0625 - 0.24609 \\
& = 21.69 \text{ lakhs}\n\end{aligned}
$$

Example 5.18

◈

The following data are taken from the steam table.

Find the pressure at temperature $t = 175^0$

Solution:

Since the pressure required is at the end of the table, we apply Backward interpolation

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formula. Let temperature be *x* and the pressure

$$
y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla y_n + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n
$$

+
$$
\frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 y_n + ...
$$

To find y at $x = 175$

$$
\therefore x_n + nh = 175
$$
, $x_n = 180$, $h = 10 \Rightarrow n = -0.5$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}\n5(0.5-1) & y_{(x=175)} = 10.225 + (-0.5)(2.149) \\
& & + (-0.5)(0-5) & (0.375) \\
\hline\n5-2) & & & + (-0.5)(0-5)(1.5) & (0.049) \\
\hline\n1 & & & + (-0.5)(0-5)(1.5) & (0.049) \\
\hline\n1 & & & 3! & (0.049) \\
\hline\n1 & & & 3! & (0.049) \\
\hline\n1 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n1 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n1 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n2 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n2 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n3 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n4 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n5-3)(0.5-4) & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n5-3)(0.5-4) & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\hline\n5-0.0030625-0.046875 & & & -0.000078125 \\
\hline\n2 & & & 4! & (0.002) \\
\end{array}
$$

Example 5.19

Calculate the value of y when $x = 7.5$ from the table given below:

Solution:

Since the required value is at the end of the table, apply backward interpolation formula.

$$
y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla y_n + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n
$$

+
$$
\frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 y_n + ...
$$
 $y_{(x=63)} = 68.48 + ...$

To find *y* at $x = 7.5$: $x_n + nh = 7.5$, $x_n = 8, h = 1 \implies n = -0.5$

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\bigcirc \mathbf{y}_{(x=7.5)} &= 512 + \frac{-0.5}{1!}169 + \frac{-0.5(-0.5+1)}{2!}42 \\
&+ \frac{-0.5(-0.5+1)(-0.5+2)}{3!}6 \\
&= 421.88\n\end{aligned}
$$
\n
$$
\begin{aligned}\n\mathbf{y}_{(x=7.5)} &= 512 + \frac{-0.5(-0.5+1)}{2!}6 \\
&= 68.48 + 2.4 - 0.3408 + 0.07\n\end{aligned}
$$

Example 5.20

◈

From the following table of half- yearly premium for policies maturing at different ages. Estimate the premium for policies maturing at the age of 63.

Solution:

Let $age = x$ and premium = *y*

To find y at $x = 63$. So apply Newton's backward interpolation formula.

$$
y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla y_n + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 y_n + \dots
$$

To find
$$
y
$$
 at $x = 63$ $\therefore x_n + nh = 63$,
\n $x_n = 65, h = 5 \implies n = -\frac{2}{5}$
\n x y ∇y $\nabla^2 y$ $\nabla^3 y$ $\nabla^4 y$
\n45 114.84
\n-18.68
\n50 96.16 5.84
\n-12.84 -1.84
\n-12.84 -1.84
\n-6
\n60 74.48 2.84
\n60 74.48 2.84

 $-2(-2)$ 3 $+$ $\frac{5}{1}$ − $(-6) +$ $\frac{-2}{5} \left(\frac{-2}{5} + \right)$ $\left(\frac{-2}{5}+1\right)$ 68 48 2 5 1 6 2 5 2 5 1 $.48 + \frac{5}{1!}(-6) + \frac{5(5-7)}{2!}$ + $\frac{-2}{5} \left(\frac{-2}{5} + \right)$ $\frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{-2}{5} + 1 \right) \left(\frac{-2}{5} + \right)$ 2.84 5 2 5 $1 \Big| \Big| \frac{-2}{5}$ 5 2 $\therefore x_n + nh = 7.5,$
2.84 + $\frac{5(5-1)}{3!}$ $\left(\frac{-2}{5}+2\right)$ $\frac{5}{3!}$ (-1.16) $\frac{-2}{5} \left(\frac{-2}{5} + \right)$ $\left(\frac{-2}{5}+1\right)\left(\frac{-2}{5}+2\right)\left(\frac{-2}{5}+3\right)$ (0.68) $\frac{-2}{5} \left(\frac{-2}{5} \right)$ $1 \Big| \Big| \frac{-2}{5}$ 5 $\frac{2}{2}$ $\frac{-2}{5}$ 5 3 3 $\frac{1}{1}$ (0.68)

> $= 68.48 + 2.4 - 0.3408 + 0.07424 - 0 - 0.028288$ $y(63) = 70.437$.

Example 5.21

Find a polynomial of degree two which takes the values.

Solution:

We will use Newton's backward interpolation formula to find the polynomial.

mula.
\n
$$
y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla y_n + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n
$$
\n
$$
+ \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 y_n + ...
$$

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To find *y* in terms of $x : x_n + nh = x$, $x_n = 7, h = 1 \implies n = x - 7$.

$$
y_{(x)} = 29 + (x - 7)(7) + \frac{(x - 7)(x - 6)}{2}(1)
$$

= 29 + 7x - 49 + $\frac{1}{2}$ (x² - 13x + 42)
= $\frac{1}{2}$ [58 + 14x - 98 + x² - 13x + 42]
= $\frac{1}{2}$ [x² + x + 2]

⊕

5.2.4 Lagrange's interpolation formula

The Newton's forward and backward interpolation formulae can be used only when the values of x are at equidistant. If the values of *x* are at equidistant or not at equidistant, we use Lagrange's interpolation formula. () [−] () [−] () [−] × +

Let $y = f(x)$ be a function such that $(x-5)(x-9)(x-7)$ Let $y = f(x)$ be a function such that $f(x)$ takes the values $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$ $\frac{(x-5)(x-9)(x-11)}{(6-5)(6-9)(6-9)}$ corresponding to $x = x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ That is $y_i = f(x_i)$, $i = 0, 1, 2, ..., n$. Now, there are $(n+1)$ paired values $(x_i, y_i), i = 0, 1, 2, ..., n$ and hence $f(x)$ can be represented by a $\frac{(x-5)(x-6)(x-7)}{(x-5)(x-7)(x-7)}$ polynomial function of degree *n* in *x*. α 59 α 6 α 6 α 6 α

Then the Lagrange's formula is

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$$
y = f(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)...(x - x_n)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)...(x_0 - x_n)} y_n
$$

+
$$
\frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)...(x - x_n)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)...(x_1 - x_n)} y_1 + ... +
$$

$$
\frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)...(x - x_{n-1})}{(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1)...(x_n - x_{n-1})} y_n
$$

Example 5.22

Using Lagrange's interpolation formula find $y(10)$ from the following table:

Solution:

Here the intervals are unequal. By Lagrange's interpolation formula we have

$$
x_0 = 5, x_1 = 6, x_2 = 9, x_3 = 11
$$

2 (1)
\n
$$
y_0 = 12, y_1 = 13, y_2 = 14, y_3 = 16
$$

\n $x + 42$
\n $y = f(x) = \frac{(x - x_1)(x - x_2)(x - x_3)}{(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)(x_0 - x_3)} \times y_0$
\n $+ \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_2)(x - x_3)}{(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)} \times y_1$
\n $+ \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_3)}{(x_2 - x_0)(x_2 - x_1)(x_2 - x_3)} \times y_2$
\non formula
\nd and backward
\ne used only when
\n $+ \frac{(x - x_0)(x - x_1)(x - x_3)}{(x_3 - x_0)(x_3 - x_1)(x_3 - x_2)} \times y_3$
\n $= \frac{(x - 6)(x - 9)(x - 11)}{(5 - 6)(5 - 6)(5 - 11)}(12) +$
\nfunction such that
\n $y_0, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$
\n $y_{n+1} = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$
\n $y_n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$
\n<

xx xx xx

 \bigoplus

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Put
$$
x = 10
$$

\n
$$
y(10) = f(10) = \frac{4(1)(-1)}{(-1)(-4)(-6)}(12) + \frac{(5)(1)(-1)}{(1)(-3)(-5)}
$$
\n
$$
(13) + \frac{5(4)(-1)}{4(3)(-2)}(14) + \frac{(5)(4)(1)}{6(5)(2)}(16)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{1}{6}(12) - \frac{13}{3} + \frac{5(14)}{3 \times 2} + \frac{4 \times 16}{12}
$$
\n
$$
= 14.6663
$$
\nF

1. Using graphic method, find the value of *y* when $x = 48$ from the following data:

2. The following data relates to indirect labour expenses and the level of output

 Estimate the expenses at a level of output of 350 units, by using graphic method.

3. Using Newton's forward interpolation formula find the cubic polynomial.

4. The population of a city in a censes taken once in 10 years is given below. Estimate the population in the year 1955.

who secured marks l
were as follows: 5 4 1 who secured marks between certain interval were as follows: 5. In an examination the number of candidates

 Estimate the number of candidates whose marks are lessthan 70.

6. Find the value of $f(x)$ when $x = 32$ from the following table:

7. The following data gives the melting point of a alloy of lead and zinc where '*t*' is the temperature in degree *c* and *P* is the percentage of lead in the alloy.

 Find the melting point of the alloy containing 84 percent lead.

8. Find $f(2.8)$ from the following table:

9. Using interpolation estimate the output of a factory in 1986 from the following data.

10. Use Lagrange's formula and estimate from the following data the number of workers getting income not exceeding Rs. 26 per month.

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11. Using interpolation estimate the business done in 1985 from the following data

12. Using interpolation, find the value of $f(x)$ when $x = 15$

Choose the correct Answer

1.
$$
\Delta^2 y_0 =
$$

\n(a) $y_2 - 2y_1 + y_0$ (b) $y_2 + 2y_1 - y_0$
\n(c) $y_2 + 2y_1 + y_0$ (d) $y_2 + y_1 + 2y_0$

2. $\Delta f(x) =$

(a)
$$
f(x+h)
$$
 (b) $f(x)-f(x+h)$
(c) $f(x+h)-f(x)$ (d) $f(x)-f(x-h)$

3. $E \equiv$

⊕

(a)
$$
1 + \Delta
$$

(b) $1 - \Delta$

 $(c)1+\nabla$

(d) $1-\nabla$

- 4. If *h*=1, then $\Delta(x^2)$ = (a) $2x$ (b) $2x-1$ (c) $2x+1$ (d) 1
- 5. If *c* is a constant then $\Delta c =$
	- (a) c (b) Δ
	- (c) Δ^2 (d) 0
- 6. If *m* and *n* are positive integers then $\Delta^m \Delta^n f(x) =$
	- (a) $\Delta^{m+n} f(x)$ (b) $\Delta^m f(x)$
	- (c) $\Delta^n f(x)$ (d) $\Delta^{m-n} f(x)$

$$
120 \mid 12^{t}
$$

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- 7. If '*n*' is a positive integer $\Delta^n \left[\Delta^{-n} f(x) \right]$ (a) $f(2x)$ (b) $f(x+h)$
- (c) $f(x)$ (d) $\Delta f(x)$
- 8. $E f(x) =$ (a) $f(x-h)$ (b) $f(x)$ (c) $f(x+h)$ (d) $f(x+2h)$
- 9. $\nabla \equiv$

(a) 1+E (b) 1-E
(c)
$$
1 - E^{-1}
$$
 (d) $1 + E^{-1}$

- 10. $\nabla f(a) =$ $(a) f(a) + f(a-h)$ (b) $f(a) - f(a+h)$ $(c) f(a) - f(a-h)$ (d) $f(a)$
- 11. For the given points (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) the Lagrange's formula is

(a)
$$
y(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} y_0 + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} y_1
$$

\n(b) $y(x) = \frac{x_1 - x}{x_0 - x_1} y_0 + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} y_1$
\n(c) $y(x) = \frac{x - x_1}{x_0 - x_1} y_1 + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} y_0$

(d)
$$
y(x) = \frac{x_1 - x}{x_0 - x_1} y_1 + \frac{x - x_0}{x_1 - x_0} y_0
$$

- 12. Lagrange's interpolation formula can be used for
	- (a) equal intervals only
	- (b) unequal intervals only
	- (c) both equal and unequal intervals
	- (d) none of these.
- 13. If $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 2$ and the interval of differencing is unity then $\Delta f(x)$
	- (a) $2x 3$ (b) $2x + 3$ (c) $x + 3$ (d) $x - 3$

14. For the given data find the value of $\Delta^3 y_0$ is

	5	h	9	11	
	12	13	15	18	
(a) 1	(b) 0	(c) 2		$(d) -1$	

Miscellaneous Problems

- 1. If $f(x) = e^{ax}$ then show that $f(0)$, $\Delta f(0), \Delta^2 f(0)$ are in G.P.
- 2. Prove that $i)$ $(1 + \Delta)(1 \nabla) = 1$ *(iii)* $E \nabla = \Delta = \nabla E$
- 3. A second degree polynomial passes though the point $(1,-1)$ $(2,-1)$ $(3,1)$ $(4,5)$. Find the polynomial.
- 4. Find the missing figures in the following table:

5. Find $f(0.5)$ if $f(-1) = 202$, $f(0) = 175$, $f(1) = 82$ and $f(2) = 55$.

6. From the following data find y at $x = 43$ and $x = 84$.

7. The area *A* of circle of diameter '*d*' is given for the following values

 Find the approximate values for the areas of circles of diameter 82 and 91 respectively.

- 8. If $u_0 = 560$, $u_1 = 556$, $u_2 = 520$, $u_4 = 385$, show that $u_3 = 465$.
- 9. From the following table obtain a polynomial of degree *y* in *x.*

10. Using Lagrange's interpolation formula find a polynomial which passes through the points (0, –12), (1, 0), (3, 6) and (4,12).

Summary

In this chapter we have acquired the knowledge of

- $\Delta f(x) = f(x+h) f(x)$
- $\nabla f(x) = f(x) f(x h)$

$$
\bullet \quad \nabla f\left(x+h\right) = \Delta f\left(x\right)
$$

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•
$$
Ef(x) = f(x+h)
$$

- $E^{n} f(x) = f(x + nh)$
- Newton's forward interpolation formula:

$$
y_{(x=x_0+nh)} = y_0 + \frac{n}{1!} \Delta y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \Delta^2 y_0 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} \Delta^3 y_0 + \dots
$$

Newton's backward interpolation formula:

$$
y_{(x=x_n+nh)} = y_n + \frac{n}{1!} \nabla y_n + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \nabla^2 y_n + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3!} \nabla^3 y_n + \dots
$$

Lagrange's interpolation formula: $y = f(x) =$ $(x-x_1)(x-x_2)...(x-x_n)$ $(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)...(x_0 - x_0)$ $\frac{n}{\sqrt{y}}$ *n* $(x - x_1)(x - x_2)...(x - x_n)$ $(x_0 - x_1)(x_0 - x_2)...(x_0 - x_n)$ $1/\sqrt[3]{2}$ 0 λ_1 / λ_0 λ_2 / \cdots λ_0 $\boldsymbol{0}$ $\frac{...(x-x_n)}{...(x_0-x_n)}y_0+\frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_2)...(x-x_n)}{(x_1-x_0)(x_1-x_2)...(x_1-x_n)}$ $(x-x_0)(x-x_2)...(x-x_0)$ $(x_1 - x_0)(x_1 - x_2)...(x_1 - x_1)$ $\frac{n}{\sqrt{y}}$ *n* $0/(\lambda)$ λ 2 $1 - \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_1}$ $\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}$ 1 ... $\frac{\left(x_{1}-x_{n}\right)}{\left(x_{1}-x_{n}\right)}y_{1}+...$ $+\frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)...(x-x_{n-1})}{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)...(x-x_n)}$ $(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1)...(x_n - x_{n-1})$ − − $(x-x_0)(x-x_1)...(x-x_n)$ $(x_n - x_0)(x_n - x_1)...(x_n - x_n)$ $\frac{n-1}{\sqrt{y}}$ $n \sim 0 \text{ m}$ $\frac{\lambda_0}{n} \sim 1 \text{ m}$ $\frac{\lambda_n}{n} \sim n$ *n* $0 / (x - x_1) \cdots (x - x_{n-1})$ 0 $\binom{1}{n}$ $\binom{n}{n}$ $\binom{n}{n}$ $\binom{n}{n-1}$

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6 Random Variable 6 Random Variable Expectation

Introduction

Simeon-Denis Poisson (June 21, 1781 – April 25, 1840)

Be t w e e n

Sylvestre-François

Lacroix in 1816 and Louis Bachelier

in 1914, the concepts random variable and mean of Sylvestre-François Lacroix in 1816 and Louis Bachelier a random variable were invented. Some authors contend that Simeon-Denis Poisson invented the concepts random variable and expected value. Simeon-Denis Poisson, a French mathematician known for his work on probability theory. Poisson's research was mainly on Probability. In 1838, Poisson published his ideas on probability theory, which also included what is now known as Poisson

distribution. He published between 300 and 400 mathematical works including applications to electricity and magnetism, and astronomy.

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Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter students are able to understand

- Why do we use random variable?
- Why do we need to define the random variable?
- the types of Random variables.
- the probability function.
- the distribution function.
- the nature of problems.
- the methods for studying random experiments with outcomes that can be described numerically.
- the real probabilistic computation.
- the concept of mathematical expectation for discrete and continuous random variables.
- z the properties of mathematical expectation for discrete and continuous random variables.
- the determination of mean and variance for discrete and continuous random variables.
- and the practical applications of mathematical expectations for discrete and continuous random variables.

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6.1. Random variable

Introduction:

Let the random experiment be the toss of a coin. When '*n*' coins are tossed, one may be interested in knowing the number of heads obtained. When a pair of dice is thrown, one may seek information about the sum of sample points. Thus, we associate a real number with each outcome of an experiment. In other words, we are considering a function whose domain is the set of possible outcomes and whose range is subset of the set of real numbers. Such a function is called random variable.

In algebra, you learned about different variables like *X* or *Y* or any other letter in a particular problem. Thus in basic mathematics, a variable is an alphabetical character that represents an unknown number. A random variable is a variable that is subject to randomness, which means it could take on different values. In statistics, it is quite general to use *X* to denote a random variable and it takes on different values depending on the situation.

Some of the examples of random variable:

- (i) Number of heads, if a coin is tossed 8 times.
- (ii) The return on an investment in one-year period.
- (iii) Faces on rolling a die.
- (iv) Number of customers who arrive at a bank in the regular interval of one hour between 9.00 a.m and 4.30 p.m from Monday to Friday.
- (v) The sale volume of a store on a particular day.

For instance, the random experiment '*E*'

consists of three tosses of a coin and the outcomes of this experiment forms the sample space is '*S*'. Let *X* denotes the number of heads obtained. Tossing a Coin

Fig.6.1

Here *X* is a real number connected with the outcome of a random experiment *E*. The details given below

i.e.,
$$
R_X = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}
$$

From the above said example, for each outcomes ω, there corresponds a real number $X(ω)$. Since the points of the sample space 'S' corresponds to outcomes is defined for each ω∈*S*.

6.1.1 Definition of a random variable

Definition 6.1

A random variable (r.v.) is a real valued function defined on a sample space *S* and taking values in $(-\infty, \infty)$ or whose possible values are numerical outcomes of a random experiment.

Note

- (i) If x is a real number, the set of all ω in *S* such that $X(\omega)=x$ is, denoted by $X = x$. Thus $P(X = x) = P\{\omega : X(\omega) = x\}.$
- (ii) $P(X \le a) = P\{\omega : X(\omega) \in (-\infty, a]\}\$ and $P(a < X < b) = P\{\omega : X(\omega) \in (a, b]\}.$
- (iii) One-dimensional random variables will be denoted by capital letters, X, Y, Z, \ldots , etc. A typical outcome of the experiment will be denoted by ω . Thus $b \in X(\omega)$ represents the real number which the random variable *X* associates with the outcome τ . The values which X, Y, Z, \ldots , etc, can assume are denoted by lower case *letters, viz., x, y, z, ..., etc.*

 (i) If X_1 and X_2 are random variables and *C* is a constant, then $CX_1, X_1 + X_2, X_1X_2, X_1 - X_2$ are also random variables.

(ii) If X is a random variable, then (i) *X* 1 and (ii) *X* are also random variables.

Types of Random Variable:

Random variables are classified into two types namely discrete and continuous random variables. These are important for practical applications in the field of Mathematics and Statistics. The above types of random variable are defined with examples as follows.

6.1.2 Discrete random variable

Definition 6.2

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A variable which can assume finite number of possible values or an infinite sequence of countable real numbers is called a discrete random variable.

Examples of discrete random variable:

- Marks obtained in a test.
- Number of red marbles in a jar.
- Number of telephone calls at a particular time.
- Number of cars sold by a car dealer in one month, etc.,

For instance, three responsible persons say, P_1 , P_2 and P_3 are asked about their opinion in favour of building a model school in a certain district. Each person's response is recorded as Yes (Y) or No (N). Determine the random variable that could be of interest in this regard. The possibilities of the response are as follows

Table 6.1

Form the above table, the discrete random variable take values 0, 1, 2 and 3.

Probability Mass function

Definition 6.3

If *X* is a discrete random variable with distinct values x_1 , x_2 , ..., x_n , ..., then the function, denoted by $P_X(x)$ and defined by

$$
P_X(x) = p(x) = \begin{cases} P(X = x_i) = p_i = p(x_i) & \text{if } x = x_i, i = 1, 2, ..., n, ... \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq x_i \end{cases}
$$

This is defined to be the probability mass function or discrete probability function of *X*.

The probability mass function $p(x)$ must satisfy the following conditions

(i)
$$
p(x_i) \ge 0 \forall i
$$
, (ii) $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i) = 1$

Example 6.1

The number of cars in a household is given below.

Estimate the probability mass function. Verify $p(x_i)$ is a probability mass function.

Solution:

Let *X* be the number of cars

(i)
$$
p(x_i) \ge 0 \ \forall \ i
$$
 and
\n(ii) $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i)$
\n $= p(0) + p(1) + p(2) + p(3) + p(4)$
\n $= 0.03 + 0.32 + 0.38 + 0.19 + 0.08 = 1$

Hence $p(x_i)$ is a probability mass function.

For $X=0$, the probability 0.03, comes from 30/1000, the other probabilities are estimated similarly.

Example 6.2

Note

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A random variable *X* has the following probability function

(i) Find *a*, Evaluate (ii) $P(X < 3)$, (iii) $P(X > 2)$ and (iv) $P(2 < X \le 5)$.

Solution:

(i) Since the condition of probability mass function is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i) = 1
$$

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{7} p(x_i) = 1
$$

$$
0+a+2a+2a+3a+a^2+2a^2+7a^2+a = 1
$$

\n
$$
10a^2+9a-1 = 0
$$

\n
$$
(10a-1)(a+1) = 0
$$

\n
$$
a = \frac{1}{10} \text{ and } -1
$$

\nSince $p(x)$ cannot be negative, $a = -1$ is not applicable. Hence, $a = \frac{1}{10}$
\n(ii) $P(X < 3) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)$
\n $= 0+a+2a$
\n $= 3a$
\n $= \frac{3}{10} \quad (\because a = \frac{1}{10})$
\n(iii) $P(X > 2)=1-P(X \le 2)$
\n $=1-\left[P(X=0)+P(X=1)+P(X=2)\right]$
\n $=1-\frac{3}{10}$
\n $=\frac{7}{10}$

(iv) $P(2 < X \le 5) = P(X = 3) + P(X = 4) + P(X = 5)$ $= 2a + 3a + a^2$ $= 5a + a^2$ $=\frac{5}{14}$ 10 1 100 $+\frac{1}{100} = \frac{51}{100}$ 100

Example 6.3

If
$$
p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{20}, & x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

Find (i) $P(X < 3)$ and (ii) $P(2 < X \le 4)$

Solution:

$$
P(X < 3) = P(X=0) + P(X=1) + P(X=2)
$$
\n
$$
= 0 + \frac{1}{20} + \frac{2}{20} = \frac{3}{20}
$$
\n
$$
P(2 < X \le 4) = P(X=3) + P(X=4)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{3}{20} + \frac{4}{20} = \frac{7}{20}
$$

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Example 6.4

If you toss a fair coin three times, the outcome of an experiment consider as random variable which counts the number of heads on the upturned faces. Find out the probability mass function and check the properties of the probability mass function.

Solution:

Let *X* is the random variable which counts the number of heads on the upturned faces. The outcomes are stated below

These values are summarized in the following probability table.

Hence, $p(x_i)$ is a probability mass function.

Example 6.5

⊕

Two unbiased dice are thrown simultaneously and sum of the upturned faces considered as random variable. Construct a probability mass function.

Solution:

Table 6.4 (1,6) (2,5) (3,4) (4,3) (5,2) (6,1) (2,6) (3,5) (4,4) (5,3) (6,2) $2,6)$ (3,5) (4,4) (5,3) (6,2) (1,5) (2,4) (3,3) (4,2) (5,1) $(2,5)$ $(3,4)$ $(4,3)$ $(5,2)$ $(6,1)$ $(1,4)$ $(2,3)$ $(3,2)$ $(4,1)$ (3,6) (4,5) (5,4) (6,3) (4,6) (5,5) (6,4) $(4,6)$ $(5,5)$ $(6,4)$ $(1,3)$ $(2,2)$ $(3,1)$ Out comes (5,6) (6,5) Out comes $(4,5)$ $(5,4)$ $(6,3)$ (1,2) (2,1) $(6, 6)$ (1,1) Sum of the upturned Sum of the upturned 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 $P_X(x) \frac{1}{36}$ 2 3 4 5 6 5 4 3 2 1 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36 36

Discrete distribution function

Definition 6.4

faces (*X*)

The discrete cumulative distribution function or distribution function of a real valued discrete random variable X takes the countable number of points $x_1, x_2, ...$ with corresponding probabilities $p(x_1)$, $p(x_2)$, ... and then the cumulative distribution function is defined by

$$
F_X(x) = P(X \le x), \text{ for all } x \in R
$$

i.e.,
$$
F_X(x) = \sum_{x_i \le x} p(x_i)
$$

For instance, suppose we have a family of two children. The sample space

 $S = \{bb, bg, gb, gg\}$, where $b = boy$ and $g = girl$

Let *X* be the random variable which counts the number of boys. Then, the values (*X*) corresponding to the sample space are 2, 1, 1, and 0.

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Hence, the probability mass function of *X* is

Then, we can form a cumulative distribution function of *X* is

Example 6.6

A coin is tossed thrice. Let *X* be the number of observed heads. Find the cumulative distribution function of *X* .

Solution:

⊕

The sample space $(S) = \{ (HHH), (HHT),$ (HTH), (HTT),(THH),(THT),(TTH),(TTT)}

X takes the values: 3, 2, 2, 1, 2, 1, 1, and 0

Thus, we have
$$
F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{8}, & \text{for } 0 \le x < 1 \\ \frac{4}{8}, & \text{for } 1 \le x < 2 \\ \frac{7}{8}, & \text{for } 2 \le x < 3 \\ 1, & \text{for } x \le 3 \end{cases}
$$

Example 6.7

Construct the distribution function for the discrete random variable *X* whose probability distribution is given below. Also draw a graph of $p(x)$ and $F(x)$.

Solution

From the values of $p(x)$ given in the probability distribution, we obtain

$$
F(1) = P(x \le 1) = P(1) = 0.10
$$

\n
$$
\frac{1}{4}
$$

\n
$$
F(2) = P(x \le 2) = P(1) + P(2)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.10 + 0.12 = 0.22
$$

\n
$$
\frac{1}{4} = 1
$$

\n
$$
F(3) = P(x \le 3) = P(1) + P(2) + P(3)
$$

\n
$$
= F(2) + P(3)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.22 + 0.20
$$

$$
= 0.42
$$

\n
$$
F(4) = F(3) + P(4)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.42 + 0.30
$$

\n
$$
= 0.72
$$

\n
$$
F(5) = F(4) + P(5)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.72 + 0.15
$$

\n
$$
= 0.87
$$

\n
$$
F(6) = F(5) + P(6)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.87 + 0.08
$$

\n
$$
= 0.95
$$

\n
$$
F(7) = F(6) + P(7)
$$

\n
$$
= 0.95 + 0.05
$$

= 1.00
\n
$$
0.35
$$
\n
$$
0.30
$$
\n
$$
0.25
$$
\n
$$
0.15
$$
\n
$$
0.10
$$
\n
$$
0.05
$$
\n
$$
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
$$
\n
$$
X = x
$$
\n
$$
Fig. 6.3
$$

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6.1.3 Continuous random variable

Definition 6.5

⊕

A random variable *X* which can take on any value (integral as well as fraction) in the interval is called continuous random variable.

Examples of continuous random variable

- The amount of water in a 10 ounce bottle.
- The speed of a car.
- Electricity consumption in kilowatt hours.
- Height of people in a population.
- Weight of students in a class.
- The length of time taken by a truck driver to go from Chennai to Madurai, etc.

Probability density function

Definition 6.6

The probability that a random variable *X* takes a value in the interval $[t_1, t_2]$ (open or closed) is given by the integral of a function called the probability density function $f_X(x)$:

$$
P(t_1 \le X \le t_2) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} f_X(x) dx.
$$

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Other names that are used instead of probability density function include density function, continuous probability function, integrating density function.

The probability density functions $f_X(x)$ or simply by $f(x)$ must satisfy the following conditions.

(i)
$$
f(x) \ge 0 \ \forall \ x \text{ and}
$$
 (ii) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$.

Example 6.8

A continuous random variable X has the following p.d.f $f(x) = ax$, $0 \le x \le 1$ Determine the constant *a* and also find $P\mid X \leq$ $X \leq \frac{1}{2}$ 1 2 *Solution:*

We know that

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1
$$
\n
$$
\int_{0}^{1} ax \, dx = 1 \Rightarrow a \int_{0}^{1} xdx = 1
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a \left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right)_0^1 = 1
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow \frac{a}{2}(1-0) = 1
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a = 2
$$
\n
$$
P\left[x \le \frac{1}{2}\right] = \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{1}{2}} f(x)dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} axdx = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} 2xdx = \frac{1}{4}
$$

Example 6.9

A continuous random variable *X* has p.d.f $f(x) = 5x^4$, $0 \le x \le 1$ Find a_1 and a_2 such that (i) $P[X \le a_1] = P[X > a_1]$ (ii) $P[X > a_2] = 0.05$ *Solution*

\

(i) Since
$$
P[X \le a_1] = P[X > a_1]
$$

$$
P[X \le a_1] = \frac{1}{2}
$$

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i.e.,
$$
\int_{0}^{a_1} f(x)dx = \frac{1}{2}
$$

\ni.e.,
$$
\int_{0}^{a_1} 5x^4 dx = \frac{1}{2}
$$

$$
5\left[\frac{x^5}{5}\right]_{0}^{a_1} = \frac{1}{2}
$$

$$
a_1 = (0.5)^{\frac{1}{5}}
$$

\n(ii)
$$
P[X > a_2] = 0.05
$$

$$
\int_{a_2}^{1} f(x)dx = 0.05
$$

$$
\int_{a_2}^{1} 5x^4 dx = 0.05
$$

$$
5\left[\frac{x^5}{5}\right]_{a_2}^{1} = 0.05
$$

$$
a_2 = [0.95]^{\frac{1}{5}}
$$

Continuous distribution function

Definition 6.7

⊕

If *X* is a continuous random variable with the probability density function $f_X(x)$, then the function $F_X(x)$ is defined by

$$
F_X(x) = P[X \le x] = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt, -\infty < x < \infty
$$

is called the distribution function (d.f) or sometimes the cumulative distribution function (c.d.f) of the continuous random variable *X* .

Properties of cumulative distribution function

The function $F_{\chi}(x)$ or simply $F(x)$ has the following properties

- (i) $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1, -\infty < x < \infty$
- (ii) $F(-\infty) = \lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0$ and $F(+\infty) = \lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$.
- (iii) $F(\cdot)$ is a monotone, non-decreasing function; that is, $F(a) \leq F(b)$ for $a < b$.
- (iv) $F(\cdot)$ is continuous from the right; that is, $\lim_{h \to 0} F(x+h) = F(x).$ $h\rightarrow 0$

(v)
$$
F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x) \ge 0
$$

\n(vi) $F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x) \Rightarrow dF(x) = f(x)dx$, $dF(x)$
\nis known as probability differential of X.
\n(vii) $P(a \le x \le b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx - \int_a^a f(x)dx$

$$
P(a \le x \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x)dx - \int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x)dx
$$

$$
= P(X \le b) - P(X \le a)
$$

$$
= F(b) - F(a)
$$

Example 6.10

Suppose, the life in hours of a radio tube has the following p.d.f

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{100}{x^2}, when x \ge 100\\ 0, when x < 100 \end{cases}
$$

Find the distribution function.

Solution:

$$
F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)dt
$$

=
$$
\int_{100}^{x} \frac{100}{t^2} dt, x \ge 100
$$

=
$$
\left[\frac{100}{-t}\right]_{100}^{x}, x \ge 100
$$

$$
F(x) = \left[1 - \frac{100}{x}\right], x \ge 100
$$

Example 6.11

The amount of bread (in hundreds of pounds) x that a certain bakery is able to sell in a day is found to be a numerical valued random phenomenon, with a probability function specified by the probability density function $f(x)$ is given by

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} Ax, \text{ for } 0 \le x < 10 \\ A(20 - x), \text{ for } 10 \le x < 20 \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

(a) Find the value of A.

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- (b) What is the probability that the number of pounds of bread that will be sold tomorrow is
	- (i) More than 10 pounds,
	- (ii) Less than 10 pounds, and
	- (iii) Between 5 and 15 pounds?

∞

Solution:

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(a) We know that
$$
\int_{10}^{10} f(x)dx = 1
$$

$$
\int_{0}^{10} Axdx + \int_{10}^{20} A(20 - x)dx = 1
$$

$$
A\left\{ \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{0}^{10} + \left[20x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{10}^{20} \right\} = 1
$$

$$
A\left[(50 - 0) + (400 - 200) - (200 - 50) \right] = 1
$$

$$
A = \frac{1}{100}
$$

(b) (i) The probability that the number of pounds of bread that will be sold tomorrow is more than 10 pounds is given by

$$
P(10 \le X \le 20) = \int_{10}^{20} \frac{1}{100} (20 - x) dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{100} \left[20x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{10}^{20}
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{100} \left[(400 - 200) - (200 - 50) \right]
$$

= 0.5

(ii) The probability that the number of pounds of bread that will be sold tomorrow is less than 10 pounds, is given by

$$
P(0 \le X < 10) = \int_{0}^{10} \frac{1}{100} x dx
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{100} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{0}^{10}
$$

=
$$
\frac{1}{100} (50 - 0)
$$

= 0.5

(iii)The probability that the number of pounds of bread that will be sold tomorrow is between 5 and 15 pounds is

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$$
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$$
P(5 \le X \le 15) = \int_{5}^{10} \frac{1}{100} x dx + \int_{10}^{15} \frac{1}{100} (20 - x) dx
$$

= $\frac{1}{100} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{5}^{10} + \frac{1}{100} \left[20x - \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{10}^{15}$
= 0.75
Exercise 6.1

1. Construct cumulative distribution function for the given probability distribution.

2. Let *X* be a discrete random variable with the following p.m.f

$$
p(x) = \begin{cases} 0.3 & \text{for } x = 3 \\ 0.2 & \text{for } x = 5 \\ 0.3 & \text{for } x = 8 \\ 0.2 & \text{for } x = 10 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Find and plot the c.d.f. of *X* .

3. The discrete random variable *X* has the following probability function

$$
P(X = x) = \begin{cases} kx & x = 2, 4, 6 \\ k(x - 2) & x = 8 \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

where *k* is a constant. Show that $k = \frac{1}{16}$ 18

4. The discrete random variable *X* has the probability function

Show that $k = 0.1$.

5. Two coins are tossed simultaneously. Getting a head is termed as success. Find the probability distribution of the number of successes.

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6. A continuous random variable *X* has the following probability function

- (i) Find k
- (ii) Evaluate $p(x < 6)$, $p(x \ge 6)$ and $p(0 < x < 5)$
- (iii) If $P(X \leq x) > \frac{1}{2}$, 2 then find the minimum value of *x* .
- 7. The distribution of a continuous random variable *X* in range $(-3, 3)$ is given by p.d.f.

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{16}(3+x)^2, & -3 \leq x \leq -1 \\ \frac{1}{16}(6-2x^2), & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ \frac{1}{16}(3-x)^2, & 1 \leq x \leq 3 \end{cases}
$$

Verify that the area under the curve is unity.

⊕

8. A continuous random variable *X* has the following distribution function

$$
F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & ,if \ x \le 1 \\ k(x-1)^4, if 1 < x \le 3 \\ 1 & ,if \ x > 3 \end{cases}
$$

Find (i) k and (ii) the probability density function.

9. The length of time (in minutes) that a certain person speaks on the telephone is found to be random phenomenon, with a probability function specified by the probability density function $f(x)$ as $f(x) = \begin{cases} Ae^{-x/5}, & \text{for } x \end{cases}$ $=\begin{cases} Ae^{-x/5}, for x \geq 0 \\ 0, for x \geq 0 \end{cases}$

$$
c) = \begin{cases} 0 & , otherwise \end{cases}
$$

- (a) Find the value of A that makes $f(x)$ a p.d.f.
- (b) What is the probability that the number of minutes that person will talk over the phone is (i) more than 10 minutes, (ii) less than 5 minutes and (iii) between 5 and 10 minutes.

10. Suppose that the time in minutes that a person has to wait at a certain station for a train is found to be a random phenomenon with a probability function specified by the distribution function

$$
F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, \text{ for } x \le 0 \\ \frac{x}{2}, \text{ for } 0 \le x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{2}, \text{ for } 1 \le x < 2 \\ \frac{x}{4}, \text{ for } 2 \le x < 4 \\ 1, \text{ for } x \ge 4 \end{cases}
$$

- (a) Is the distribution function continuous? If so, give its probability density function?
- (b) What is the probability that a person will have to wait (i) more than 3 minutes, (ii) less than 3 minutes and (iii) between 1 and 3 minutes?
- 11. Define random variable.
- 12. Explain what are the types of random variable?
- 13. Define discrete random variable.
- 14. What do you understand by continuous random variable?
- 15. Describe what is meant by a random variable.
- 16. Distinguish between discrete and continuous random variable.
- 17. Explain the distribution function of a random variable.
- 18. Explain the terms (i) probability mass function, (ii) probability density function and (iii) probability distribution function.
- 19. What are the properties of (i) discrete random variable and (ii) continuous random variable?
- 20. State the properties of distribution function.

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6.2. Mathematical Expectation

Introduction

An extremely useful concept in problems involving random variables or distributions is that of expectation. Random variables can be characterized and dealt with effectively for practical purposes by consideration of quantities called their expectation. The concept of mathematical expectation arose in connection with games of chance. For example, a gambler might be interested in his average winnings at a game, a businessman in his average profits on a product, and so on. The average value of a random phenomenon is also termed as its Mathematical expectation or expected value. In the following sections, we will define and study the concept of mathematical expectation for both discrete and continuous random variables, which will be used in the following subsection.

6.2.1 Expected value and Variance Expected value

The expected value is a weighted average of the values of a random variable may assume. The weights are the probabilities.

Definition 6.8

⊕

Let *X* be a discrete random variable with probability mass function $(p.m.f.)$ $p(x)$. Then, its expected value is defined by

$$
E(X) = \sum x p(x) \qquad \dots (1)
$$

If X is a continuous random variable and $f(x)$ is the value of its probability density function at *x*, the expected value of *X* is

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \qquad \dots (2)
$$

Note

In (1) , $E(X)$ is defined to be the indicated series provided that the series is absolutely convergent; otherwise, we say that the mean does not exist.

- In (1), $E(X)$ is an "average" of the values that the random variable takes on, where each value is weighted by the probability that the random variable is equal to that value. Values that are more probable receive more weight.
- \bullet In (2), $E(X)$ is defined to be the indicated integral if the integral exists; otherwise, we say that the mean does not exist.
- \bullet In (2), $E(X)$ is an "average" of the values that the random variable takes on, where each value x is multiplied by the approximate probability that *X* equals the value *x*, namely $f_{\rm x}(x)dx$ and then integrated over all values.

- $E(X)$ is the center of gravity or centroid of the unit mass that is determined by the density function of *X*. So the mean of *X* is measure of where the values of the random variable *X* are "centered".
- The mean of X, denoted by φ_x or *E*(*X*).

Variance

The variance is a weighted average of the squared deviations of a random variable from its mean. The weights are the probabilities. The mean of a random variable *X*, defined in (1) and (2), was a measure of central location of the density of *X*. The variance of a random variable *X* will be a measure of the spread or dispersion of the density of *X* or simply the variability in the values of a random variable.

Definition 6.9

The variance of *X* is defined by

$$
Var(X) = \sum [x - E(X)]^2 p(x)
$$
 ... (3)

if *X* is discrete random variable with probability mass function *p*(*x*).

$$
Var(X) = \int_{0}^{\infty} [x - E(X)]^2 f_X(x) dx
$$
 ... (4)

if *X* is continuous random variable with probability density function $f_X(x)$.

Definition 6.10

Expected value of $[X - E(X)]^2$ is called the variance of the random variable.

i.e.,
$$
Var(X) = E[X - E(X)]^2 = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2
$$
 ... (5)

where

 $E(X^2) = \begin{cases} x \\ y \in \mathbb{R}^2, \\ y \in \mathbb{R}^2, \end{cases}$ $\sum x^2 p(x)$, if X is Discrete RandomVariable *x f x dx if XisCo* () , *ntinuous RandomVariable* −∞ ∞ ∫ \mathbf{I} $\left\{ \right.$ \mathbf{I} J L \mathbf{I} l

Note

⊕

- \bullet In the following examples, variance will be found using definition 6.10.
- The variances are defined only if the series in (3) is convergent or if the integrals in (4) exist.
- \bullet If *X* is a random variable, the standard deviation of *X* (S.D(X)), denoted by σ_X , is defined as $+\sqrt{Var[X]}$.
- The variance of X , denoted by σ_X^2 or $Var(X)$ or $V(X)$

Mean is the center of gravity of a density; similarly, variance represents the moment of inertia of the same density with respect to a perpendicular axis through the center of gravity.

6.2.2 Properties of Mathematical expectation

- (i) $E(a)=a$, where 'a' is a constant
- (ii) $E(aX) = aE(X)$
- (iii) $E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$, where '*a*' and '*b*' are constants.
- (iv) If $X \geq 0$, then $E(X) \geq 0$
- (v) $V(a)=0$
- (vi) If *X* is random variable, then $V(aX + b) = a^2 V(X)$

Concept of moments

The moments (or raw moments) of a random variable or of a distribution are the expectations of the powers of the random variable which has the given distribution.

Definition 6.11

If *X* is a random variable, then the r^{th} moment of *X*, usually denoted by φ'_r , is defined as $\varphi'_r =$

$$
E(X^r) = \begin{cases} \sum_{x} x^r p(x), & \text{for discrete random variable} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^r f(x) dx, & \text{for continuous random variable} \end{cases}
$$

provided the expectation exists.

Definition 6.12

If *X* is a random variable, the r^{th} central moment of *X* about *a* is defined as $E\left[(X-a)^r \right]$. If $a = \varphi_x$, we have the r^{th} central moment of \overline{X} about φ _{*x*}, denoted by φ _{*r*}, which is

 $\varphi_r = E[(X - \varphi_X)^r]$

Note

•
$$
\varphi'_1 = E(X) = \varphi_X
$$
, the mean of X.

- $\phi_1 = E[X \phi_X] = 0.$
- $\varphi_2 = E[(X \varphi_X)^2]$, the variance of *X*.
- All odd moments of X about φ _x are 0 if the density function of *X* is symmetrical about φ _v, provided such moments exist.

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Example 6.12

Determine the mean and variance of the random variable *X* having the following probability distribution.

Solution:

Mean of the random variable

$$
X = E(X) = \sum_{x} x P_{x}(x)
$$

= (1 × 0.15) + (2 × 0.10) + (3 × 0.10) +
(4 × 0.01) + (5 × 0.08) + (6 × 0.01) +
(7 × 0.05) + (8 × 0.02) + (9 × 0.28) +
(10 × 0.20)

 $E(X) = 6.18$

♠

$$
E(X^{2}) = \sum_{x} x^{2} P_{x}(x)
$$

= (1² × 0.15) + (2² × 0.10) + (3² × 0.10)
+ (4² × 0.01) + (5² × 0.08) + (6² × 0.01) + (7² × 0.05) + (8² × 0.02) + (9² × 0.28) + (10² × 0.20).

$$
=50.38
$$

Variance of the Random Variable

$$
X = V(X) = E(X2) - [E(X)]2
$$

= 50.38 - (6.56)²
= 12.19

Therefore, the mean and variance of the given discrete distribution are 6.18 and 12.19 respectively.

Example 6.13

Six men and five women apply for an executive position in a small company. Two of the applicants are selected for an interview. Let X denote the number of women in the interview pool. We have found the probability mass function of X.

How many women do you expect in the interview pool?

Solution:

Expected number of women in the interview pool is

$$
E(X) = \sum_{x} x P_X(x)
$$

=
$$
\left[\left(0 \times \frac{2}{11} \right) + \left(1 \times \frac{5}{11} \right) + \left(2 \times \frac{4}{11} \right) \right]
$$

=
$$
\frac{13}{11}
$$

Example 6.14

Determine the mean and variance of a discrete random variable, given its distribution as follows.

Solution

From the given data, you first calculate the probability distribution of the random variable. Then using it you calculate mean and variance.

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Mean of the random variable *X* $E(X) = \sum x P_X(x)$ *x* $=\left(\frac{1}{1\times1}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(3 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(4 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(5 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\left(1 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(3 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(4 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(5 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(6 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ ſ $\left(6 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $=\frac{1}{6}$ 6 $(1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6)$ $=\frac{7}{2}$ 2 $E(X^2) = \sum x^2 P_X(x)$ *x* $(X^2) = \sum x^2 P_X(x)$ $=\left(1^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(2^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(3^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(4^{2} \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\frac{1}{6}$ + $\left(5^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ $\left(1^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(2^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(3^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(4^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(5^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(6^2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$ 6 2 $=\frac{1}{6}$ 6 $(1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2)$ $=\frac{91}{6}$ 6 Variance of the Random Variable

$$
X = V(X) = E(X2) - [E(X)]2
$$

$$
= \frac{91}{6} - \left(\frac{7}{2}\right)^{2}
$$

$$
= \frac{35}{12}
$$

Example 6.15

⊕

The following information is the probability distribution of successes.

Determine the expected number of success.

Solution:

Expected number of success is

$$
E(X) = \sum_{x} x P_{x}(x)
$$

= $\left(0 \times \frac{6}{11}\right) + \left(1 \times \frac{9}{22}\right) + \left(2 \times \frac{1}{22}\right)$
= $\frac{11}{22} = 0.5$

Therefore, the expected number of success is 0.5. Approximately one success.

Example 6.16

An urn contains four balls of red, black, green and blue colours. There is an equal probability of getting any coloured ball. What is the expected value of getting a blue ball out of 30 experiments with replacement?

Solution:

Probability of getting a blue ball (
$$
p
$$
) = $\frac{1}{4}$
= 0.25
Total experiments (N) = 30
= Number of
experiments ×
Probability
= $N \times p$
= 30 × 0.25
= 7.50

Therefore, the expected value of getting blue ball is approximately 8.

Example 6.17

A fair die is thrown. Find out the expected value of its outcomes.

Solution:

If the random variable *X* is the top face of a tossed, fair, six sided die, then the probability mass function of *X* is

$$
P_X(x) = \frac{1}{6}
$$
, for $x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ and 6

The average toss, that is, the expected value of *X* is

$$
E(X) = \sum_{x} x P_{x}(x)
$$

= $\left(1 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(2 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(3 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(4 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$
+ $\left(5 \times \frac{1}{6}\right) + \left(6 \times \frac{1}{6}\right)$
= $\frac{1}{6} \left(1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6\right) = \frac{7}{2} = 3.5$

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Therefore, the expected toss of a fair six sided die is 3.5.

Example 6.18

Suppose the probability mass function of the discrete random variable is

What is the value of $E(3X + 2X^2)$?

Solution:

$$
E(X) = \sum_{x} x P_{X}(x)
$$

= (0 × 0.2) + (1 × 0.1) + (2 × 0.4) +
(3 × 0.3)
= 1.8

$$
E(X^{2}) = \sum_{x} x^{2} P_{X}(x)
$$

= (0² × 0.2) + (1² × 0.1) + (2² × 0.4)
+ (3² × 0.3)
= 4.4

$$
E(3X + 2X^{2}) = 3E(X) + 2E(X^{2})
$$

= (3 × 1.8) + (2 × 4.4)

Example 6.19

⊕

Consider a random variable X with probability density function

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 4x^3, & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Find *E*(*X*) and *V*(*X*).

 $= 14.2$

Solution:

We know that,

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$

$$
= \int_{0}^{1} x 4x^{3} dx
$$

$$
= 4 \left[\frac{x^{5}}{5} \right]_{0}^{1}
$$

$$
E(X) = \frac{4}{5}
$$

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$$
E(X2) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x2 f(x) dx
$$

$$
= \int_{0}^{1} x2 4x3 dx
$$

$$
= 4 \left[\frac{x^{6}}{6} \right]_{0}^{1}
$$

$$
= \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}
$$

$$
V(X) = E(X2) - [E(X)]2
$$

$$
= \frac{4}{6} - \left[\frac{4}{5} \right]^{2}
$$

$$
= \frac{2}{75}
$$

∞

Example 6.20

If *f*(*x*) is defined by *f*(*x*) =
$$
ke^{-2x}
$$
, 0 ≤ *x* < ∞
is a density function. Determine the
constant k and also find mean.

Solution:

−∞

We know that

$$
\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1
$$
, since $f(x)$ is a density function.

$$
\int_{0}^{\infty} ke^{-2x} dx = 1
$$
\n
$$
k \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = 1
$$
\n
$$
k \left[\frac{e^{-2x}}{-2} \right]_{0}^{\infty} = 1
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow k = 2
$$
\n
$$
E(X) = \int_{0}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} xke^{-2x} dx = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} xe^{-2x} dx
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \left\{ \left[\frac{xe^{-2x}}{-2} \right]_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-2x}}{-2} dx \right\}
$$
\n
$$
\left(\because \int u dv = uv - \int v du \right)
$$
\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = \frac{1}{2}
$$
Example 6.21

The time to failure in thousands of hours of an important piece of electronic equipment used in a manufactured DVD player has the density function.

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 3e^{-3x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

Find the expected life of the piece of equipment.

Solution:

⊕

We know that,

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} x 3e^{-3x} dx
$$

\n
$$
= 3 \int_{0}^{\infty} x e^{-3x} dx
$$

\n
$$
= 3 \left\{ \left[x \frac{e^{-3x}}{-3} \right]_{0}^{\infty} - \int_{0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^{-3x}}{-3} \right) dx \right\} \left(\because \int u dv = uv - \int v du \right)
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-3x} dx
$$

\n
$$
= \frac{1}{3}
$$

Therefore, the expected life of the piece of equipment is 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ hrs (in thousands).

Example 6.22

A commuter train arrives punctually at a station every 25 minutes. Each morning, a commuter leaves his house and casually walks to the train station. Let *X* denote the amount of time, in minutes, that commuter waits for the train from the time he reaches the train station. It is known that the probability density function of *X* is

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{25}, & \text{for } 0 < x < 25 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

Obtain and interpret the expected value of the random variable *X*.

Solution:

Expected value of the random variable is

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$

= $\int_{0}^{25} x \frac{1}{25} dx$
= $\frac{1}{25} \int_{0}^{25} x dx$
= $\frac{1}{25} \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_{0}^{25}$
= 12.5

= 12 5 . Therefore, the expected waiting time of the commuter is 12.5 minutes.

Example 6.23

Suppose the life in hours of a radio tube has the probability density function

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} -\frac{x}{100}, & \text{when } x \ge 100 \\ 0, & \text{when } x < 100 \end{cases}
$$

Find the mean of the life of a radio tube.

Solution:

We know that, the expected random variable

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$

\n
$$
= \int_{100}^{\infty} x e^{-\frac{x}{100}} dx
$$

\n
$$
= \left\{ \left[x \left(\frac{e^{-\frac{x}{100}}}{-\frac{1}{100}} \right) \right]_{100}^{\infty} - \int_{100}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^{-\frac{x}{100}}}{-\frac{1}{100}} \right) dx \right\}
$$

\n
$$
\left(\because \int u dv = uv - \int v du \right)
$$

\n
$$
= \left[(10000) \left(e^{-1} \right) + (10000) \left(e^{-1} \right) \right]
$$

\n
$$
= \left[(10000) \left(0.3679 \right) + (10000) \left(0.3679 \right) \right]
$$

\n= 7358 hours

Therefore, the mean life of a radio tube is 7,358 hours.

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Example 6.24

The probability density function of a random variable *X* is

f (*x*) = $ke^{-|x|}$, − ∞ < *x* < ∞

Find the value of k and also find mean and variance for the random variable.

Solution

⊕

We know that,

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1
$$

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} ke^{-|x|} dx = 1
$$

$$
k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-|x|} dx = 1
$$

$$
2k \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 1
$$

$$
\therefore e^{-|x|} \text{ is an even function}
$$

$$
2k \left[\frac{e^{-x}}{-1} \right]_{0}^{\infty} = 1
$$

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

Mean of the random variable is

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx
$$

$$
E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x k e^{-|x|} dx
$$

(\therefore *xe*^{−|*x*|} is an odd function of *x*)

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-|x|} dx
$$

$$
= 0
$$

$$
E(X^{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} f(x) dx
$$

$$
= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} k e^{-|x|} dx
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} e^{-|x|} dx
$$

$$
= \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{2} e^{-x} dx \quad (\because e^{-|x|} \text{ is an even function})
$$

\n
$$
= \Gamma(3) \left(\because \Gamma(\alpha) = \int_{0}^{\infty} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-x} dx, \alpha > 0; \Gamma(n) = (n-1)!\right)
$$

\n
$$
= 2
$$

\n
$$
V(X) = E(X^{2}) - [E(X)]^{2}
$$

\n
$$
= 2 - [0]^{2}
$$

\n
$$
= 2
$$

\n**Exercise 6.2**

- 1. Find the expected value for the random variable of an unbiased die
- 2. Let *X* be a random variable defining number of students getting A grade. Find the expected value of *X* from the given table

3. The following table is describing about the probability mass function of the random variable *X*

Find the standard deviation of *x*.

4. Let *X* be a continuous random variable with probability density function

$$
f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 2x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

Find the expected value of X.

5. Let *X* be a continuous random variable with probability density function

$$
(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{x^4}, & x \ge 1 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

f x x

Find the mean and variance of *X* .

6. In an investment, a man can make a profit of $\bar{\tau}$ 5,000 with a probability of 0.62 or

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a loss of ₹8,000 with a probability of 0.38 . Find the expected gain.

- 7. What are the properties of Mathematical expectation?
- 8. What do you understand by Mathematical expectation?
- 9. How do you define variance in terms of Mathematical expectation?
- 10. Define Mathematical expectation in terms of discrete random variable.
- 11. State the definition of Mathematical expectation using continuous random variable.
- 12. In a business venture a man can make a profit of $\bar{\xi}$ 2,000 with a probability of 0.4 or have a loss of \bar{x} 1,000 with a probability of 0 6⋅ . What is his expected, variance and standard deviation of profit?
- 13. The number of miles an automobile tire lasts before it reaches a critical point in tread wear can be represented by a p.d.f.

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{30} e^{-\frac{x}{30}}, & \text{for } x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{for } x \le 0 \end{cases}
$$

Find the expected number of miles (in thousands) a tire would last until it reaches the critical tread wear point.

- 14. A person tosses a coin and is to receive \bar{z} 4 for a head and is to pay $\bar{\tau}$ 2 for a tail. Find the expectation and variance of his gains.
- 15. Let *X* be a random variable and $Y = 2X$ + 1. What is the variance of *Y* if variance of *X* is 5 ?

Choose the correct Answer

1. Value which is obtained by multiplying possible values of random variable with probability of occurrence and is equal to weighted average is called

- (a) discrete value
- (b) weighted value
- (c) expected value
- (d) cumulative value

2. Demand of products per day for three days are 21, 19, 22 units and their respective probabilities are 0⋅ 29, 0⋅ 40, 0⋅ 35. Pofit per unit is 0⋅ 50 paisa then expected profits for three days are

> (a) 21, 19, 22 (b) 21.5, 19.5, 22.5 (c) 0.29, 0.40, 0.35 (d) 3.045, 3.8, 3.85

- 3. Probability which explains *x* is equal to or less than particular value is classified as
	- (a) discrete probability
	- (b) cumulative probability
	- (c) marginal probability
	- (d) continuous probability
- 4. Given $E(X) = 5$ and $E(Y) = -2$, then $E(X Y)$ is

(a) 3 (b) 5 (c) 7 (d) –2

- 5. A variable that can assume any possible value between two points is called
	- (a) discrete random variable
	- (b) continuous random variable
	- (c) discrete sample space
	- (d) random variable
- 6. A formula or equation used to represent the probability distribution of a continuous random variable is called
	- (a) probability distribution
	- (b) distribution function
	- (c) probability density function
	- (d) mathematical expectation
- 7. If *X* is a discrete random variable and $p(x)$ is the probability of X, then the expected value of this random variable is equal to

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(a)
$$
\sum f(x)
$$
 (b) $\sum [x+f(x)]$
(c) $\sum f(x)+x$ (d) $\sum xp(x)$

8. Which of the following is not possible in probability distribution?

(a)
$$
\sum p(x) \ge 0
$$

\n(b) $\sum p(x)=1$
\n(c) $\sum x p(x) = 2$
\n(d) $p(x) = -0.5$

9. If *c* is a constant, then $E(c)$ is

$$
(a) 0 \t\t (b) 1
$$

- (c) $cf(c)$ (d) c
- 10. A discrete probability distribution may be represented by
	- (a) table
	- (b) graph
	- (c) mathematical equation
	- (d) all of these
- 11. A probability density function may be represented by
	- (a) table

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- (b) graph
- (c) mathematical equation
- (d) both (b) and (c)
- 12. If *c* is a constant in a continuous probability distribution, then $p(x = c)$ is always equal to
	- (a) zero (b) one
	- (c) negative (d) does not exist
- 13. $E[X E(X)]$ is equal to

(a)
$$
E(X)
$$

 (b) $V(X)$
 (c) 0
 (d) $E(X) - X$

- 14. $E[X E(X)]^2$ is
	- (a) $E(X)$ (b) $E(X^2)$
	- (c) $V(X)$ (d) $S.D(X)$
- 15. If the random variable takes negative values, then the negative values will have
	- (a) positive probabilities

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- (b) negative probabilities
- (c) constant probabilities
- (d) difficult to tell
- 16. If we have $f(x)=2x, 0 \le x \le 1$, then $f(x)$ is a
	- (a) probability distribution
	- (b) probability density function
	- (c) distribution function
	- (d) continuous random variable

17.
$$
\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx
$$
 is always equal to

−∞

- (a) zero (b) one
- (c) $E(X)$ (d) $f(x)+1$
- 18. A listing of all the outcomes of an experiment and the probability associated with each outcome is called
	- (a) probability distribution
	- (b) probability density function
	- (c) attributes
	- (d) distribution function
- 19. Which one is not an example of random experiment?
	- (a) A coin is tossed and the outcome is either a head or a tail
	- (b) A six-sided die is rolled
	- (c) Some number of persons will be admitted to a hospital emergency room during any hour.
	- (d) All medical insurance claims received by a company in a given year.
- 20. A set of numerical values assigned to a sample space is called
	- (a) random sample
	- (b) random variable
	- (c) random numbers
	- (d) random experiment

- 21. A variable which can assume finite or countably infinite number of values is known as
	- (a) continuous (b) discrete
	- (c) qualitative (d) none of them
- 22. The probability function of a random variable is defined as

Then k is equal to

24. A discrete probability function $p(x)$ is always

- 25. In a discrete probability distribution the sum of all the probabilities is always equal to
	- (a) zero

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- (b) one
- (c) minimum
- (d) maximum
- 26. An expected value of a random variable is equal to it's
	- (a) variance
	- (b) standard deviation
	- (c) mean
	- (d) covariance
- 27. A discrete probability function $p(x)$ is always non-negative and always lies between
	- (a) 0 and ∞ (b) 0 and 1
	- (c) –1 and +1 (d) – ∞ and + ∞
- 28. The probability density function $p(x)$ cannot exceed
	- (a) zero (b) one
	- (c) mean (d) infinity
- 29. The height of persons in a country is a random variable of the type
	- (a) discrete random variable
	- (b) continuous random variable
	- (c) both (a) and (b)
	- (d) neither (a) nor (b)
- 30. The distribution function $F(x)$ is equal to
	- (a) $P(X = x)$
	- (b) $P(X \leq x)$
	- (c) $P(X \geq x)$
	- (d) all of these

Miscellaneous Problems

1. The probability function of a random variable *X* is given by

$$
p(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4}, & \text{for } x = -2 \\ \frac{1}{4}, & \text{for } x = 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}, & \text{for } x = 10 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}
$$

Evaluate the following probabilities.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}\n\text{(i)} \ P\big(X \le 0\big) & \text{(ii)} \ P\big(X < 0\big) \\
\text{(iii)} \ P\big(|X| \le 2\big) & \text{(iv)} \ P\big(0 \le X \le 10\big)\n\end{array}
$$

2. Let *X* be a random variable with cumulative distribution function

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$$
F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x < 0 \\ \frac{x}{8}, & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ \frac{1}{4} + \frac{x}{8}, & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2 \\ \frac{3}{4} + \frac{x}{12}, & \text{if } 2 \leq x < 3 \\ 1, & \text{for } 3 \leq x. \end{cases}
$$

- (a) Compute: (i) $P(1 \le X \le 2)$ and (ii) $P(X = 3)$.
- (b) Is *X* a discrete random variable? Justify your answer.
- 3. The p.d.f. of *X* is defined as

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} k, & \text{for } 0 < x \le 4 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$
\nFind the value of k and also find

\n
$$
P(2 \le X \le 4).
$$

4. The probability distribution function of a discrete random variable *X* is

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 2k, & x = 1 \\ 3k, & x = 3 \\ 4k, & x = 5 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

♠

 where *k* is some constant. Find (a) *k* and (b) $P(X > 2)$.

5. The probability density function of a continuous random variable X is

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} a + bx^2, 0 \le x \le 1; \\ 0, \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$

 where *a* and *b* are some constants. Find (i) *a* and *b* if $E(X) = \frac{3}{5}$ 5 $(i) Var(X)$.

- 6. Prove that if $E(X) = 0$, then $V(X) = E(X^2)$.
- 7. What is the expected value of a game that works as follows: I flip a coin and, if tails you pay $\bar{\tau}$ 2; if heads you pay $\bar{\tau}$ 1. In either case I also pay you $\bar{\tau}$ 0.50
- 8. Prove that, (i) $V(aX) = a^2 V(X)$ and $(iii) V(X + b) = V(X)$
- 9. Consider a random variable *X* with p.d.f

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x^2, & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

Find $E(X)$ and $V(3X-2)$.

10. The time to failure in thousands of hours of an important piece of electronic equipment used in a manufactured DVD player has the density function

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} 2e^{-2x}, & x > 0 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

Find the expected life of this piece of equipment.

Summary

- z A variable which can assume finite number of possible values or an infinite sequence of countable real numbers is called a discrete random variable.
- Probability mass function (p.m.f.)

$$
P_X(x) = p(x) = \begin{cases} P(X = x_i) = p_i = p(x_i) & \text{if } x = x_i, i = 1, 2, ..., n, ... \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq x_i \end{cases}
$$

Conditions:

 $p(x_i) \geq 0 \forall i$ and

$$
\bullet \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} p(x_i) = 1
$$

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Discrete distribution function (d.f.):

$$
F_X(x) = P\left(X \le x\right) \text{ for all } x \in R
$$

i.e., $F_X(x) = \sum_{x_i \le x} p(x_i)$

- \bullet A random variable X which can take on any value (integral as well as fraction) in the interval is called continuous random variable.
- Probability density function (p.d.f.)

The probability that a random variable *X* takes a value in the (open or closed) interval $[t_1, t_2]$ is given by the integral of a function called the probability density function $f_X(x)$

$$
P(t_1 \le X \le t_2) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} f_X(x) dx
$$

Other names that are used instead of probability density function include density function, continuous probability function, integrating density function.

Conditions:

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$$
\bullet \qquad f(x) \ge 0 \,\forall \, x
$$

$$
\bullet \qquad \int\limits_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1
$$

Continuous distribution function

If *X* is a continuous random variable with the probability density function $f_X(x)$, then the function $F_X(x)$ is defined by

$$
F_X(x) = P[X \le x] = \int_{X}^{x} f_X(t)dt, -\infty < x < \infty
$$

is called the distribution function (d.f) or sometimes the cumulative distribution function (c.d.f) of the random variable *X* .

Properties of cumulative distribution function (c.d.f.)

The function $F_{\overline{X}}(X)$ or simply $F(X)$ has the following properties

- (i) $0 \leq F(x) \leq 1, -\infty < x < \infty$
- (ii) $F(-\infty) = \lim_{x \to -\infty} F(x) = 0$, and $F(+\infty) = \lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = 1$.
- (iii) $F(\cdot)$ is a monotone, non-decreasing function; that is, $F(a) \leq F(b)$ for $a < b$.
- (iv) $F(\cdot)$ is continuous from the right; that is, $\lim_{h\to 0} F(x+h) = F(x)$.

$$
(v) \quad F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x) \ge 0
$$

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$$
(vi) \quad F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x) \Rightarrow dF(x) = f(x)dx
$$

(vii) $dF(x)$ is known as probability differential of X .

(viii)
$$
P(a \le x \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx - \int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx
$$

$$
= \mathcal{P}(X \le b) - \mathcal{P}(X \le a)
$$

$$
= F(b) - F(a)
$$

Mathematical Expectation

The expected value is a weighted average of the values of a random variable may assume.

Discrete random variable with probability mass function (p.m.f.)

$$
E(X) = \sum x \, p(x)
$$

• Continuous random variable with probability density function $E(X) = \int x f(x) dx$ ∞ ∫

- The mean or expected value of X, denoted by φ_X or E(X).
- The variance is a weighted average of the squared deviations of a random variable from its mean.

•
$$
Var(X) = \sum [x - E(X)]^2 p(x)
$$

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if *X* is discrete random variable with probability mass function $p(x)$.

•
$$
Var(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[X - E(X) \right]^2 f_X(x) dx
$$

if *X* is continuous random variable with probability density function $f_X(x)$.

Expected value of $[X - E(X)]^2$ is called the variance of the random variable.

i.e.,
$$
Var(X) = E[X - E(X)]^2 = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2
$$

where $E(X^2) = \begin{cases} \sum_{x} x^2 p(x), & \text{if } X \text{ is Discrete Random Variable} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx, & \text{if } X \text{ is Continuous Random Variable} \end{cases}$

- **•** If *X* is a random variable, the standard deviation of *X*, denoted by σ_X , is defined as $+\sqrt{Var[X]}$.
- The variance of X, denoted by σ_X^2 or $Var(X)$ or $V(X)$.
- Properties of Mathematical expectation
	- (i) $E(a) = a$, where '*a*' is a constant
	- (iii) $E(aX) = aE(X)$
	- (iii) $E(aX+b) = aE(X) + b$, where '*a*' and '*b*' are constants.

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- (iv) If $X \geq 0$, then $E(X) \geq 0$
- (v) $V(a)=0$
- (vi) If *X* is random variable, then $V(aX+b) = a^2V(X)$
- Raw moments

$$
\varphi'_{r} = E\left(X^{r}\right) = \begin{cases} \sum_{x} x^{r} p(x), & \text{for discrete} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{r} f(x) dx, & \text{for continuous} \end{cases}
$$

• Central Moments

 \bigoplus

$$
\varphi_r = E[(X - \varphi_X)^r]
$$

\n
$$
\varphi'_1 = E(X) = \varphi_X
$$
, the mean of X.
\n
$$
\varphi_1 = E[X - \varphi_X] = 0.
$$

\n
$$
\varphi_2 = E[(X - \varphi_X)^2]
$$
, the variance of X.

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7 Probability
Distributions **Distributions**

Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss (April 30, 1777 – Feb. 23, 1855)

Introduction

The frequency distributions

are of two types namely Observed

frequency distribution and Theoretical frequency

distribution. The distributions which are based on actual data or are of two types namely Observed frequency distribution and Theoretical frequency experimentation are called the Observed Frequency distribution. On the other hand, the distributions based on expectations on the basis of past experience are known as Theoretical Frequency distribution or Probability distribution.

Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss (30 April 1777 – 23 February 1855) was a German mathematician and physicist who made significant

contributions to many fields in mathematics and sciences. Gauss had an exceptional influence in many fields of mathematics and science, and is ranked among history's most influential mathematicians

In discrete probability distribution we will discuss Binomial and Poisson distribution and the Normal Distribution is a continuous probability distribution

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Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter students are able to understand

- Concept of Bernoulli trial
- Binomial, poisson and normal density function
-
- Mean and variance of binomial and poisson distribution
- Properties of normal probability curve

7.1 Distribution

The following are the two types of Theoretical distributions :

- 1. Discrete distribution
- 2. Continous distribution

Discrete distribution

The binomial and Poisson distributions are the most useful theoretical distributions for discrete variables.

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7.1.1 Binomial distribution

Binomial distribution was discovered by James Bernoulli(1654-1705) in the year 1700 and was first published posthumously in 1713 , eight years after his death.

A random experiment whose outcomes are of two types namely success S and failure F, occurring with probabilities p and q respectively, is called a Bernoulli trial.

Some examples of Bernoulli trials are :

- (i) Tossing of a coin (Head or tail)
- (ii) Throwing of a die (getting even or odd number)

Consider a set of *n* independent Bernoullian trails (*n* being finite) in which the probability '*p*' of success in any trial is constant , then $q = 1-p$, is the probability of failure. The probability of *x* successes and consequently (*n–x*) failures in *n* independent trials, in a specified order (say) SSFSFFFS….FSF is given in the compound probability theorem by the expression

 $P(SSFSFFS......FSF) = P(S)P(S)P(F)P(S)...$ $P(F)P(S)P(F)$ = *p*.*p*.*q.p* … *q*.*p*.*q* = *p*.*p*.*p*.*p* … *q*.*q*.*q*.*q*.*q*.*q ...* $= \{x \text{ factors}\}\{(n-x) \text{ factors}\}\$ $= p^x a^{(n-x)}$

x successes in *n* trials can occur in nC_x ways and the probability for each of these ways is same namely $p^x q^{n-x}$.

The probability distribution of the number of successes, so obtained is called the binomial probability distribution and the binomial expansion is $(q + p)^n$

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Definition 7.1

A random variable *X* is said to follow binomial distribution with parameter *n* and *p*, if it assumes only non- negative value and its probability mass function in given by

$$
P(X = x) = p(x) = \begin{cases} {}^{n}C_{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}, x = 0,1,2,....n; q = 1-p \\ 0, \quad \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
$$

 $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$

Note

Any random variable which follows binomial distribution is known as binomial variate i.e $X \sim B(n,p)$ is a binomial variate.

The Binomial distribution can be used under the following conditions :

- 1. The number of trials '*n*' finite
- 2. The trials are independent of each other.
- 3. The probability of success '*p*' is constant for each trial.
- 4. In every trial there are only two possible outcomes – success or failure.

Derivation of the Mean and Variance of Binomial distribution :

The mean of the binomial distribution

$$
E(X) = \sum_{x=0}^{n} x {n \choose x} p^x q^{n-x}
$$

= $p \sum_{x=1}^{n} x \cdot {n \choose x} {n-1 \choose x-1} p^{x-1} q^{n-x}$
= $np (q+p)^{n-1}$ [since $p+q = 1$]
= np

 $E(X) = np$

 ∴ The mean of the binomial distribution is *np*

Var
$$
(X)
$$
 = $E(X^2)$ - ${E(X)}^2$

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Here $E(X^2) =$ *x n* $x^2\binom{n}{n}p^xq^{n-x}$ *x* $p^{\ast}q$ = $\sum_{x=0}^n x^2 {n \choose x} p^x q^{n-x}$ \overline{a} $\overline{}$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ 2 *x n* $x(x-1)+x$ $\binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}$ *x* p^xq = $\sum_{x=0}^{n} \left\{ x(x-1)+x \right\} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}$ \overline{a} $\overline{}$ 0 1 = *x* $n \in \{n\}$ n $\left[\left[x(x-1)\right]\right]^{n}$ $\left[\left[x^{n}q^{n-x}+\sum_{k=1}^{n}x^{n}\right]^{n}\right]p^{x}q^{n-x}$ *x* $p^xq^{n-x} + \sum x$ *n x* $p^{\lambda}q$ = $\sum_{x=0}^{n} \left\{ x(x-1) \right\} \binom{n}{x} p^{x} q^{n-x} + \sum_{x=0}^{n} x \binom{n}{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}$ $\bigg)$ $\int p^x q^{n-x} + \sum_{x=0}^n x \bigg($ $\left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$ \int 0 $\left(x\right)$ $x=0$ 1 = $\sum_{n}^{n} \left\{ x(x-1) \right\} p^{2} \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{(n-1)} \right) \binom{n-2}{n-2} p^{x-2} q^{n-x}$ *n x x n x* $\sum_{n=1}^{n} \left\{ x(x-1) \right\} p^2 \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{x(x-1)} \right) \binom{n-2}{x-2} p^{x-2} q^{n-1}$ *x n* $+\sum_{x=0}^n x\binom{n}{x}$ $(x - 1)$ $\sqrt{2}$ \setminus $\Big)$ \int − − ſ l $\left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$ $\sum_{x=2}^{\infty} {\lambda^{x} (x-1) \beta^{x} \left(\frac{x(x-1)}{x(x-1)} \right) \left(x-2 \right)}$ $\sum_{x=0}^{x}$ 1) $p^2 \left(\frac{n(n-1)}{(n-1)} \right) \binom{n-2}{n-2} p^{x-2}$ 1 2 2 $\begin{array}{c} \hline \end{array}$ $\int p^x q^{n-x}$

$$
= n(n-1) p2 \{ \sum_{x=2}^{n} {n-2 \choose x-2} p^{x-2} q^{n-x} \} + np
$$

= $n(n-1)p2 (q+p)^{(n-2)} + np$
= $n(n-1)p2 + np$

∴ Variance = $E(X^2) - {E(X)}^2$

$$
= n2p2 - np2 + np - n2p2
$$

$$
= np(1-p) = npq
$$

Hence, mean of the BD is *np* and the Variance is *npq*.

Note

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Mean and variance in terms of raw moments and central moments are denoted as μ'_1 , and μ_2 respectively.

Properties of Binomial distribution

- 1. Binomial distribution is symmetrical if *p* $= q = 0.5$. It is skew symmetric if $p \neq q$. It is positively skewed if $p < 0.5$ and it is negatively skewed if *p* > 0.5
- 2. For Binomial distribution, variance is less than mean

Variance
$$
npq = (np)q < np
$$

Example 7.1

A and *B* play a game in which their chance of winning are in the ratio 3:2 Find *A*'s chance of winning atleast three games out of five games played.

Soltion:

Let '*p*' be the probability that '*A*' wins the game. Then we are given $n = 5$, $p = 3/5$,

$$
q = 1 - \frac{3}{5} = \frac{2}{5} \text{ (since } q = 1-p\text{)}
$$

Hence by binomial probability law, the probability that out of the 5 games played, *A* wins '*x*' games is given by

$$
P(X=x) = p(x) = 5Cx\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^{x}\left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^{5-x}
$$

The required probability that '*A*' wins atleast three games is given by

$$
P(X \ge 3) = P(X = 3) + P(X = 4) + P(X = 5)
$$

= $5C3 \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^3 \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 + 5C4 \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^4 \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^1 + 5C5 \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^5 \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^0$

 $= 0.6826$

Example 7.2

 A fair coin is tossed 6 times. Find the probability that exactly 2 heads occurs.

Solution :

Let *X* be a random variable follows binomial distribution with probability value *p* = 1/2 and *q* = 1/2

Probability that exactly 2 heads occur are as follows

$$
P(X=2) = {6 \choose x} p^x q^{n-x}
$$

$$
= {6 \choose 2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{6-2}
$$

$$
= \frac{15}{64}
$$

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Verfy the following statement:

The mean of a Binomial distribution is 12 and its standard deviation is 4.

Solution:

Mean: *np* = 12

SD =
$$
\sqrt{npq} = 4
$$

\n $npq = 4^2 = 16$, $\frac{np}{npq} = \frac{12}{16} = \frac{3}{4}$
\n $= > q = \frac{4}{3} > 1$

Since $p + q$ cannot be greater than unity, the Statement is wrong

Example 7.4

The probability that a student get the degree is 0.4 Determine the probability that out of 5 students (i) one will be graduate (ii) atleast one will be graduate

Solution:

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Probability of getting a degree *p*= 0.4

$$
\therefore q = 1-p
$$

= 1 - 0.4
= 0.6

(i) *P* (one will be a graduate) = $P(X = 1)$

$$
=5C_{1}(0.4)(0.6)^{4}
$$

$$
=0.2592
$$

(ii) *P* (atleast one will be a graduate)

= 1–*P* (none will be a graduate)

$$
= 1 - 5C_0(P^0)(q)^{5-0}
$$

= 1 - 5C_0(0.4)⁰ (0.6)⁵
= 1 - 0.0777
= 0.9222

Example 7.5

In tossing of a five fair coin, find the chance of getting exactly 3 heads.

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Solution :

Let *X* be a random variable follows binomial distribution with $p = q = 1/2$

$$
P (3 heads) = 5C_x \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{5-x}
$$

= $5C_3 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{5-3}$
= $5C_3 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^5$
= $\frac{5}{16}$

Example 7.6

The mean of Binomials distribution is 20 and standard deviation is 4. Find the parameters of the distribution.

Solution

The parameters of Binomial distribution are *n* and *p*

For Binomial distribution Mean = $np = 20$

Standard deviation =
$$
\sqrt{npq} = 4
$$

\n $\therefore npq = 16$
\n $\Rightarrow npq/np = 16/20 = 4/5$
\n $q = \frac{4}{5}$
\n $\Rightarrow p = 1-q = 1 - (4/5) = 1/5$
\nSince $np = 20$
\n $n = \frac{20}{p}$
\n $n = 100$

Example 7.7

If *x* is a binomially distributed random variable with $E(x) = 2$ and van $(x) = \frac{4}{3}$. Find $P(x = 5)$

Solution:

The p.m.f. Binomial distribution is

 $p(x) = {^{n}C}_x p^x$ *q*^{*n*−*x*} Given that $E(x) = 2$

For the Binomial distribution mean is given by $np = 2$... (1)

Given that var $(x) = 4/3$

For Binomial distribution variance is given by $npq = \frac{4}{3}$ $\dots (2)$

$$
\frac{(2)}{(1)} \Rightarrow \frac{npq}{np} = \frac{\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)}{2} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}
$$

 $q = 2/3$ and $p = 1 - 2/3 = 1/3$

Substitute in (1) we get

$$
n = 6
$$

Hence, $P(X=5) = 6C_5 \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^5 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{6-5} = 0.0108$

Example 7.8

⊕

If the average rain falls on 9 days in every thirty days, find the probability that rain will fall on atleast two days of a given week.

Solution :

Probability of raining on a particular day is given by $p = 9/30 = 3/10$ and

 $q = 1-p = 7/10$.

The *binomial distribution* is

$$
P(X = x) = {}^{n}C_{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}
$$

There are 7 days in a week,

$$
P(X = x) = \binom{7}{x} \left(\frac{3}{10}\right)^x \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^{7-x}
$$

The probability of raining for atleast 2 days is given by

$$
P(X \ge 2) = 1 - P(X < 2)
$$

= 1 - [P(X = 0) + P(X = 1)]
Here, $P(X = 0) = {7 \choose 0} \left(\frac{3}{10}\right)^0 \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^{7-0}$
= 0.0823
and $P(X = 1) = {7 \choose 1} \left(\frac{3}{10}\right) \left(\frac{7}{10}\right)^{7-1}$
= 0.2471

Therefore the required probability = 1– [*P*(*x* = 0) +*P*(*x* = 1)] = 1– {0.082+ 0.247] = 0.6706

Example 7.9

What is the probability of guessing correctly atleast six of the ten answers in a TRUE/FALSE objective test?

Solution :

Probability *p* of guessing an answer correctly is $p = \frac{1}{2}$ \Rightarrow $q = \frac{1}{2}$

Probability of guessing correctly *x* answers in 10 questions

$$
P(X = x) = p(x) = {}^{n}C_{x} p^{x} q^{n-x}
$$

= $10Cx \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{x} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{10-x}$
The required probability $P(X \ge 6)$
= $P(6) + P(7) + P(8) + P(9) + P(10)$
= $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{10} \left[10C_{6} + 10C_{7} + 10C_{8} + 10C_{9} + 10C_{10}\right]$
= $\left[\frac{1}{1024}\right] [210 + 120 + 45 + 10 + 1]$
= $\frac{193}{512}$

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If the chance of running a bus service according to schedule is 0.8, calculate the probability on a day schedule with 10 services : (i) exactly one is late (ii) atleast one is late

Solution :

Probability of bus running late is denoted as $p = 1 - 0.8 = 0.2$

Probability of bus running according to the schedule is $q = 0.8$

Also given that $n = 10$

The binomial distribution is

$$
p(x) = 10C_x (0.2)^{x} (0.8)^{10-x}
$$

(i) probability that exactly one is late

$$
P(x=1) = 10C_1 pq^{9}
$$

= 10C₁ (0.2)(0.8)⁹

(ii) probability that at least one is late

$$
= 1 -
$$
 probability that none is late

$$
= 1 - p(x=0)
$$

$$
= 1 - (0.8)^{10}
$$

Example 7.11

⊕

The sum and product of the mean and variance of a binomial distribution are 24 and 128. Find the distribution.

Solution:

For binomial distribution the mean is *np* and varaiance is *npq*

> Given values are $np + npq = 24$ $np(1 + q) = 24$ – (1) Other term $np \times npq = 128$ $n^2 p^2 q = 128$ – (2)

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From (1) we get $np = 24/(1+q)$ which implies $n^2 p^2 = (24/(1+q))^2$

Substitute this value in equation (2) we get

$$
\left(\frac{24}{1+q}\right)^2 q = 128 \text{ which implies } 9q = 2(1+2q+q^2)
$$

(2q-1)(q-2) = 0
Where $q = \frac{1}{2}$ and $p = \frac{1}{2}$
Substitute in (1) we get $n = 32$

Hence the binomial distribution

$$
32C_x \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{32-x}
$$

Example 7.12

Suppose *A* and *B* are two equally strong table tennis players. Which of the following two events is more probable:

(a) A beats B exactly in 3 games out of 4 or

(b) A beats B exactly in 5 games out of 8 ?

Solution :

Here
$$
p = q = 1/2
$$

(a) probability of *A* beating B in exactly 3 games out of 4

$$
\binom{4}{3}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{4\cdot3}
$$

$$
= \frac{1}{4} = 25\%
$$

(b) probability of A beating B in exactly 5 games out of 8

$$
\binom{8}{5} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^5 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{8-5}
$$

$$
= \frac{7}{32} = 21.875\%
$$

Clearly, the first event is more probable.

A pair of dice is thrown 4 times. If getting a doublet is considered a success, find the probability of 2 successes.

Solution :

are

⊕

In a throw of a pair of dice the doublets are (1,1) (2,2) (3,3) (4,4) (5,5) (6,6)

Probability of getting a doublet

$$
p=6/36=1/6
$$

 \Rightarrow *q* = 1 – *p* = 5/6 and also *n* = 4 is given

The probabitliy of successes

$$
= \binom{4}{x} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^x \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{4-x}
$$

Therefore the probability of 2 successes

$$
P(X = 2) = {4 \choose 2} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^{4-2}
$$

$$
= 6 \times \frac{1}{36} \times \frac{25}{36}
$$

$$
= \frac{25}{216}
$$

Exercise 7.1

- 1. Define Binomial distribution.
- 2. Define Bernoulli trials.
- 3. Derive the mean and variance of binomial distribution.
- 4. Write down the conditions for which the binomial distribution can be used.
- 5. Mention the properties of binomial distribution.
- 6. If 5% of the items produced turn out to be defective, then find out the probability that out of 20 items selected at random there are
	- (i) exactly three defectives
- (ii) atleast two defectives
- (iii) exactly 4 defectives
- (iv) find the mean and variance
- 7. In a particular university 40% of the students are having news paper reading habit. Nine university students are selected to find their views on reading habit. Find the probability that
	- (i) none of those selected have news paper reading habit
	- (ii) all those selected have news paper reading habit
	- (iii) atleast two third have news paper reading habit.
- 8. In a family of 3 children, what is the probability that there will be exactly 2 girls?
- 9. Defects in yarn manufactured by a local mill can be approximated by a distribution with a mean of 1.2 defects for every 6 metres of length. If lengths of 6 metres are to be inspected, find the probability of less than 2 defects.
- 10. If 18% of the bolts produced by a machine are defective, determine the probability that out of the 4 bolts chosen at random

(i) exactly one will be defective

(ii) none will be defective

(iii) atmost 2 will be defective

- 11. If the probability of success is 0.09, how many trials are needed to have a probability of atleast one success as 1/3 or more ?
- 12. Among 28 professors of a certain department, 18 drive foreign cars and 10 drive local made cars. If 5 of these professors are selected at random, what is the probability that atleast 3 of them drive foreign cars?

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- 13. Out of 750 families with 4 children each, how many families would be expected to have (i) atleast one boy (ii) atmost 2 girls (iii) and children of both sexes? Assume equal probabilities for boys and girls.
- 14. Forty percent of business travellers carry a laptop. In a sample of 15 business travelers,
	- (i) what is the probability that 3 will have a laptop?
	- (ii) what is the probability that 12 of the travelers will not have a laptop?
	- (iii) what is the probability that atleast three of the travelers have a laptop?
- 15. A pair of dice is thrown 4 times. If getting a doublet is considered a success, find the probability of 2 successes.
- 16. The mean of a binomial distribution is 5 and standard deviation is 2. Determine the distribution.
- 17. Determine the binomial distribution for which the mean is 4 and variance 3. Also find $P(X=15)$
- 18. Assume that a drug causes a serious side effect at a rate of three patients per one hundred. What is the probability that atleast one person will have side effects in a random sample of ten patients taking the drug?
- 19. Consider five mice from the same litter, all suffering from Vitamin A deficiency. They are fed a certain dose of carrots. The positive reaction means recovery from the disease. Assume that the probability of recovery is 0.73. What is the probability that atleast 3 of the 5 mice recover.
- 20. An experiment succeeds twice as often as it fails, what is the probability that in next five trials there will be (i) three successes and (ii) at least three successes

7.1.2 Poisson Distribution

Poisson distribution was derived in 1837 by a French Mathematician Simeon D. Poisson. If n is large, the evaluation of the binomial probabilities can involve complex computations, in such a case, a simple approximation to the binomial probabilities could be use. Such approximation of binomial when *n* is large and p is close to zero is called the Poisson distribution.

Poisson distribution occurs when there are events which do not occur as a definite number on trials but an events occurs rarely and the following examples may be analysed:

- (i) Number of bacteria in one cubic centimeter.
- (ii) Number of printing mistakes per page in a text book
- (iii) the number of alpha particles emitted by a radioactive substance in a fraction of a second.
- (iv) Number of road accidents occurring at a particular interval of time per day.

Number of lightnings per second.

Poisson distribution is a limiting case of binomial distribution under the following conditions :

- (i) n , the number of trials is indefinitely large i.e $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- (ii) p , the constant probability of success in each trial is very small, i.e. $p \rightarrow 0$
- (iii) $np = \lambda$ is finite. Thus *p* $=\frac{\lambda}{n}$ and *q* $= 1 - \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)$ where λ is a positive

real number.

⊕

Definition 7.2

A random variable X is said to follow a Poission distribution with parameter λ if it assumes only non–negative values and its probability mass function is given by

$$
P(x, \lambda) = P(X=x)
$$

=
$$
\begin{cases} \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{x}}{x!}, & x = 0, 1, 2, ..., \lambda > 0 \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}
$$

Derivation of Mean and variance of Poisson distribution

Mean E(X) =
$$
\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x p(x, \lambda)
$$

=
$$
\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}
$$

=
$$
\lambda e^{-\lambda} \left\{ \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\lambda^{x-1}}{(x-1)!} \right) \right\}
$$

=
$$
\lambda e^{-\lambda} (1 + \lambda + \lambda^2 / 2! +)
$$

=
$$
\lambda e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda}
$$

=
$$
\lambda
$$

Variance $(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2$

⊕

Here
$$
E(X^2) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 p(x, \lambda)
$$

\n
$$
= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x^2 p(x, \lambda)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \{x(x-1) + x\} p(x, \lambda)
$$
\n
$$
= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \{x(x-1) + x\} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}
$$
\n
$$
= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x(x-1) \lambda^x / x! + \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}
$$
\n
$$
= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{x-2}}{(x-2)!} + \lambda
$$

$$
= \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} + \lambda = \lambda^2 + \lambda
$$

Variance
$$
(X) = E(X^2) - [E(X)]^2
$$

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

$$
= \lambda
$$

Properties of Poisson distribution :

1. Poisson distribution is the only distribution in which the mean and variance are equal .

Example 7.14

In a Poisson distribution the first probability term is 0.2725. Find the next Probability term

Solution :

Given that $p(0) = 0.2725$

$$
\frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^0}{0!} = 0.2725
$$

$$
\Rightarrow e^{-\lambda} = 0.2725
$$

(by using exponent table)

 $\lambda = 1.3$

$$
\therefore p(X=1) = e^{-1.3} (1.3) / 1!
$$

$$
= e^{-1.3} (1.3)
$$

$$
= 0.2725 \times 1.3
$$

$$
= 0.3543
$$

Example 7.15

In a book of 520 pages, 390 typo-graphical errors occur. Assuming Poisson law for the number of errors per page, find the probability that a random sample of 5 pages will contain no error.

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Solution :

The average number of typographical errors per page in the book is given by $\lambda = (390/520) = 0.75$.

Hence using Poisson probability law, the probability of *x* errors per page is given by

$$
P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-0.75} \frac{(0.75)^x}{x!}, x = 0, 1, 2, ...
$$

The required probability that a random sample of 5 pages will contain no error is given by :

$$
[P(X=0)]^5 = \left(e^{-0.75}\right)^5 = e^{-3.75}
$$

Example 7.16

An insurance company has discovered that only about 0.1 per cent of the population is involved in a certain type of accident each year. If its 10,000 policy holders were randomly selected from the population, what is the probability that not more than 5 of its clients are involved in such an accident next year? $(e^{-10} = .000045)$

Solution :

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 $p =$ probability that a person will involve in an accident in a year

$$
= 0.1/100 = 1/1000
$$

$$
given \qquad n \qquad = 10,000
$$

so,
$$
\lambda = np = 10000 \left(\frac{1}{1000} \right) = 10
$$

Probability that not more than 5 will involve in such an accident in a year

$$
P(X \le 5) = P(X=0) + P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3) + P(X=4) + P(X=5)
$$

= e^{-10} [$1 + \frac{10}{1!} + \frac{10^2}{2!} + \frac{10^3}{3!} + \frac{10^4}{4!} + \frac{10^5}{5!}$]
= 0.06651

Example 7.17

One fifth percent of the the blades produced by a blade manufacturing factory turn out to be defective. The blades are supplied in packets of 10. Use Poisson distribution to calculate the approximate number of packets containing no defective, one defective and two defective blades respectively in a consignment of 1,00,000 packets ($e^{-0.02}$ = .9802).

Solution :

$$
P = 1/5/100 = 1/500 = 0.002 \quad n = 10 \quad \lambda = np = 0.02
$$
\n
$$
p(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = \frac{e^{-0.02} (0.02)^x}{x!}
$$

- (i) Number of packets containing no defective $= N \times p(o) = 1,00,000 \times e^{-0.02}$ $= 98020$
- (ii) Number of packets containing one defective $N \times p(1) = 1,00,000 \times 0.9802 \times 0.02$ $= 1960$
- (iii) Number of packets containing 2 defectives $= N \times p(2) = 20$

Example 7.18

If the probability that an individual suffers a bad reaction from injection of a given serum is 0.001, determines the probability that out of 2,000 individuals (a) exactly 3 and (b) more than 2 individuals will suffer a bad reaction.

Solution :

Consider a 2,000 individuals getting injection of a given serum, $n = 2000$

Let *X* be the number of individuals suffering a bad reaction.

Let p be the probability that an individual suffers a bad reaction = 0.001

and
$$
q = 1 - p = 1 - 0.001 = 0.999
$$

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Since *n* is large and *p* is small, Binomial Distribtuion approximated to poisson distribution

So,
$$
\lambda = np = 2000 \times 0.001 = 2
$$

(i) Probability out of 2000, exactly 3 will suffer a bad reaction is

$$
P(X=3) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!} = \frac{e^{-2}2^3}{3!} = 0.1804
$$

(ii) Probability out of 2000, more than 2 individuals will suffer a bad reaction

$$
= P(X > 2)
$$

= 1 - [(P(X \le 2)]
= 1 - [P(x = 0) + P(x = 1) + P(x = 2)]
= 1 - \left[\frac{e^{-2}2^{0}}{0!} + \frac{e^{-2}2^{1}}{1!} + \frac{e^{-2}2^{2}}{2!}\right]
= 1 - e^{-2}\left(\frac{2^{0}}{0!} + \frac{2^{1}}{1!} + \frac{2^{2}}{2!}\right)
= 0.323

Example 7.19

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When counting red blood cells, a square grid is used, over which a drop of blood is evenly distributed. Under the microscope an average of 8 erythrocytes are observed per single square. What is the probability that exactly 5 erythrocytes are found in one square?

Solution :

Let *X* be a random variable follows poisson distribution with number of erythrocytes.

Hence, Mean $\lambda = 8$ erythrocytes/single square

P(exactly 5 erythrocytes are in one square)

$$
= P(X = 5) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^{x}}{x!} = \frac{e^{-8}8^{5}}{5!}
$$

$$
= \frac{0.000335 \times 32768}{120}
$$

$$
= 0.0916
$$

The probability that exactly 5 erythrocytes are found in one square is 0.0916. i.e there are 9.16% chances that exactly 5 erythrocytes are found in one square.

Example 7.20

Assuming one in 80 births is a case of twins, calculate the probability of 2 or more sets of twins on a day when 30 births occur.

Solution :

Let *x* denotes the set of twins on a day *P*(twin birth) = $p = 1/80 = 0.0125$ and $n = 30$ The value of mean $λ = np = 30 × 0.0125 = 0.375$ Hence, *X* follows poisson distribution with

$$
p(x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!}
$$

The probability is

$$
P(2 \text{ or more}) = 1 - [p (x = 0) + p (x = 1)]
$$

$$
= 1 - \left[\frac{e^{-0.375} (0.375)^0}{0!} + \frac{e^{-0.375} (0.375)^1}{1!}\right]
$$

$$
= 1 - e^{-0.375} [1+0.375]
$$

$$
= 1 - (0.6873 \times 1.375)
$$

$$
= 0.055
$$

Exercise 7.2

- 1. Define Poisson distribution.
- 2. Write any 2 examples for Poisson distribution.
- 3. Write the conditions for which the poisson distribution is a limiting case of binomial distribution.
- 4. Derive the mean and variance of poisson distribution.
- 5. Mention the properties of poisson distribution.
- 6. The mortality rate for a certain disease is 7 in 1000. What is the probability for just 2 deaths on account of this disease in a group of 400? [Given $e^{(-2.8)} = 0.06$]

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- 7. It is given that 5% of the electric bulbs manufactured by a company are defective. Using poisson distribution find the probability that a sample of 120 bulbs will contain no defective bulb.
- 8. A car hiring firm has two cars. The demand for cars on each day is distributed as a Poisson variate, with mean 1.5. Calculate the proportion of days on which
	- (i) Neither car is used
	- (ii) Some demand is refused
- 9. The average number of phone calls per minute into the switch board of a company between 10.00 am and 2.30 pm is 2.5. Find the probability that during one particular minute there will be (i) no phone at all (ii) exactly 3 calls (iii) atleast 5 calls
- 10. The distribution of the number of road accidents per day in a city is poisson with mean 4. Find the number of days out of 100 days when there will be (i) no accident (ii) atleast 2 accidents and (iii) at most 3 accidents.
- 11. Assuming that a fatal accident in a factory during the year is 1/1200, calculate the probability that in a factory employing 300 workers there will be atleast two fatal accidents in a year. (given *e* –0.25 = 0.7788)
- 12. The average number of customers, who appear in a counter of a certain bank per minute is two. Find the probability that during a given minute (i) No customer appears (ii) three or more customers appear .

Continuous distribtuion

The binomial and Poisson distributions discussed in the previous chapters are the most useful theoretical distributions for discrete variables. In order to have mathematical distributions suitable for dealing with quantities whose magnitudes vary continuously like weight,

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heights of individual, a continuous distribution is needed. Normal distribution is one of the most widely used continuous distribution.

Normal distribution is the most important and powerful of all the distribution in statistics. It was first introduced by De Moivre in 1733 in the development of probability. Laplace (1749-1827) and Gauss (1827-1855) were also associated with the development of Normal distribution.

7.1.3 Normal Ditribution

Definition 7.3

A random variable *X* is said to follow a normal distribution with parameters mean and variance σ^2 , if its probability density function is given by

$$
f(x : \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\}
$$

$$
\xrightarrow{-\infty < x < \infty, \atop \sigma > 0} \left\{\frac{-1}{2} \left(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}\right)^2\right\}
$$

Normal distribution is diagrammatically represented as follows :

Normal distribution is a limiting case of binomial distribution under the following conditions:

- (i) *n*, the number of trials is infinitely large, i.e. $n \rightarrow ∞$
- (ii) neither *p* (nor *q*) is very small,

The normal distribution of a variable when represented graphically, takes the shape of a symmetrical curve, known as the Normal Curve. The curve is asymptotic to *x*-axis on its either side.

Chief Characterisitics or Properties of Normal Probabilty distribution and Normal probability Curve .

The normal probability curve with mean $μ$ and standard deviation $σ$ has the following properties :

- (i) the curve is bell- shaped and symmetrical about the line *x*=*μ*
- (ii) Mean, median and mode of the distribution coincide.
- (iii) $x axis$ is an asymptote to the curve. (tails of the cuve never touches the horizontal (*x*) axis)
- (iv) No portion of the curve lies below the *x*-axis as $f(x)$ being the probability function can never be negative.

- (v) The Points of inflexion of the curve are $x = \mu \pm \sigma$
- (vi) The curve of a normal distribution has a single peak i.e it is a unimodal.
- (vii) As x increases numerically, *f* (*x*) decreases rapidly, the maximum

probability occurring at the point *x* = μ and is given by $[p(x)]$ max = $1 / \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}$

- (viii) The total area under the normal curve is equal to unity and the percentage distribution of area under the normal curve is given below
	- (a) About 68.27% of the area falls between $\mu - \sigma$ and $\mu + \sigma$

$$
P(\mu - \sigma < X < \mu + \sigma) = 0.6826
$$

- (b) About 95.5% of the area falls between $\mu - 2\sigma$ and $\mu + 2\sigma$
- *P*(μ 2σ < *X* < μ + 2σ) = 0.9544
- (c) About 99.7% of the area falls between $\mu - 3\sigma$ and $\mu + 3\sigma$

$$
P(\mu - 3\sigma < X < \mu + 3\sigma) = 0.9973
$$

Standard Normal Distribution

A random variable $Z = (X-\mu)/\sigma$ follows the standard normal distribution. Z is called the standard normal variate with mean 0 and standard deviation 1 i.e $Z \sim N(0,1)$. Its Probability density function is given by :

$$
\phi\left(z\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}} - \infty < z < \infty
$$

1. The area under the standard normal curve is equal to 1.

♠

- 2. 68.26% of the area under the standard normal curve lies between $z = -1$ and $Z = 1$
- 3. 95.44% of the area lies between $Z = -2$ and $Z = 2$
- 4. 99.74% of the area lies between $Z = -3$ and $Z = 3$

What is the probability that a standard normal variate Z will be

- (i) greater than 1.09
- (ii) less than -1.65
- (iii) lying between –1.00 and 1.96
- (iv) lying between 1.25 and 2.75

Solution :

⊕

(i) greater than 1.09

The total area under the curve is equal to 1 , so that the total area to the right $Z = 0$ is 0.5 (since the curve is symmetrical). The area between $Z = 0$ and 1.09 (from tables) is 0.3621

The shaded area to the right of $Z = 1.09$ is the probability that Z will be greater than 1.09

(ii) less than -1.65

The area between -1.65 and 0 is the same as area between 0 and 1.65. In the table the area between zero

and 1.65 is 0.4505 (from the table). Since the area to the left of zero is 0.5, $P(Z< 1.65) = 0.5000 - 0.4505 = 0.0495.$

(iii) lying between –1.00 and 1.96

The probability that the random variable Z in between –1.00 and 1.96 is found by adding the corresponding areas :

Area between –1.00 and 1.96 $=$ area between $(-1.00$ and $0) +$ area betwn (0 and 1.96)

 $P(-1.00 < Z < 1.96) = P(-1.00 < Z < 0) +$ $P(0 < Z < 1.96)$

 $= 0.3413 + 0.4750$ (by tables)

 $= 0.8163$

(iv) lying between 1.25 and 2.75

Area between $Z = 1.25$ and 2.75 $=$ area between ($z = 0$ and $z = 2.75$)

– area between $(z=0 \text{ and } z=1.25)$

$$
P(1.25 < Z < 2.75) = P(0 < Z < 2.75) - P(0 < Z < 1.25)
$$

$$
= 0.4970 - 0.3944 = 0.1026
$$

If *X* is a normal variate with mean 30 and SD 5. Find the probabilities that (i) 26 ≤ X ≤ 40 (ii) $X > 45$

Solution :

⊕

Here mean μ = 30 and standard deviation $\sigma = 5$

(i) When
$$
X = 26
$$
 $Z = (X - \mu)/\sigma$

$$
= (26 - 30)/5 = -0.8
$$

And when
$$
X = 40
$$
, $Z = \frac{40 - 30}{5} = 2$

Therefore,

$$
P(26 < X < 40) = P(-0.8 \le Z < 2)
$$
\n
$$
= P(-0.8 \le Z \le 0) + p(0 \le Z \le 2)
$$
\n
$$
= P(0 \le Z \le 0.8) + P(0 \le Z \le 2)
$$

 $= 0.2881 + 0.4772$ (By tables)

 $= 0.7653$

(ii) The probability that X≥45

When $X = 45$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{45 - 30}{5} = 3
$$

$$
P(X \ge 45) = P(Z \ge 3)
$$

 $= 0.5 - 0.49865$

⊕

 $= 0.00135$

Example 7.23

The average daily sale of 550 branch offices was $\bar{\mathfrak{c}}$ 150 thousand and standard deviation is $\bar{\mathfrak{c}}$ 15 thousand. Assuming the distribution to be normal, indicate how many branches have sales between

- (i) ₹ 1,25,000 and ₹ 1, 45, 000
- (ii) ₹1,40,000 and ₹1,60,000

Solution :

Given that mean μ = 150 and standard deviation σ = 15

(i) when $X = 125$ thousand

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{125 - 150}{15} = -1.667
$$

When $X = 145$ thousand

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Area between $Z = 0$ and $Z = -1.67$ is 0.4525

Area between $Z = 0$ and $Z = -0.33$ is 0.1293

$$
P(-1.667 \le Z \le -0.33) = 0.4525 - 0.1293
$$

$$
= 0.3232
$$

Therefore the number of branches having sales between $\bar{\tau}$ 1,25,000 and $\bar{\tau}$ 1,45,000 is $550 \times 0.3232 = 178$

(ii) When $X = 140$ thousand

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{140 - 150}{15} = -0.67
$$

When $X = 160$ thousand

 $P(-0.67 < Z < 0.67)$

$$
= P(-0.67 < Z < 0) + P(0 < Z < 0.67)
$$

 \bigoplus

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$$
= P(0 < Z < 0.67) + P(0 < Z < 0.67)
$$
\n
$$
= 2 P(0 < Z < 0.67)
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \times 0.2486
$$
\n
$$
= 0.4972
$$

Therefore, the number of branches having sales between ₹ 1,40,000 and ₹ 1,60,000 $= 550 \times 0.4972 = 273$

Example 7.24

Assume the mean height of children to be 69.25 cm with a variance of 10.8 cm. How many children in a school of 1,200 would you expect to be over 74 cm tall?

Solution

Let the distribution of heights be normally distributed with mean 68.22 and standard deviation $= 3.286$

 $= 0.0749$

 $= 0.5 - 0.4251$

Expected number of children to be over 74 cm out of 1200 children

 $= 1200 \times 0.0749 ≈ 90$ children

The marks obtained in a certain exam follow normal distribution with mean 45 and SD 10. If 1,300 students appeared at the examination, calculate the number of students scoring (i) less than 35 marks and (ii) more than 65 marks.

Solution :

⊕

Let *X* be the normal variate showing the score of the candidate with mean 45 and standard deviation 10.

(i) less than 35 marks

When $X = 35$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{35 - 45}{10} = -1
$$

$$
P(X < 35) = P(Z < -1)
$$
\n
$$
P(Z > 1) = 0.5 - P(0 < Z < 1)
$$
\n
$$
= 0.5 - 0.3413
$$
\n
$$
= 0.1587
$$

Expected number of students scoring less than 35 marks are $0.1587 \times 1300 = 206$

(ii) more than 65 marks

When $X = 65$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{65 - 45}{10} = 2.0
$$

$$
P(X > 65) = P(Z > 2.0)
$$

0.5 - P(0 < Z < 2.0)
0.5 - 0.4772
= 0.0228

Expected number of students scoring more than 65 marks are 0.0228 x 1300 = 30

Example 7.26

900 light bulbs with a mean life of 125 days are installed in a new factory. Their length of life is normally distributed with a standard deviation of 18 days. What is the expected number of bulbs expire in less than 95 days?

Solution :

Let *X* be the normal variate of life of light bulbs with mean 125 and standard deviation 18.

(i) less than 95 days

When $X = 95$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{95 - 125}{18} = -1.667
$$

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$$
P(X < 95) = P(Z < -1.667)
$$
\n
$$
= P(Z > 1.667)
$$
\n
$$
= 0.5 - P(0 < Z < 1.67)
$$
\n
$$
= 0.5 - 0.4525
$$
\n
$$
= 0.0475
$$

No. of bulbs expected to expire in less than 95 days out of 900 bulbs is $900 \times 0.0475 = 43$ bulbs

Example 7.27

Assume that the mean height of soldiers is 69.25 inches with a variance of 9.8 inches. How many soldiers in a regiment of 6,000 would you expect to be over 6 feet tall?

Solution :

⊕

Let *X* be the height of soldiers follows normal distribution with mean 69.25 inches and standard deviation 3.13. then the soldiers over 6 feet tall (6ft \times 12= 72 inches)

The standard normal variate

$$
P(X > 72) = P(Z > 0.8786)
$$

= 0.5 - P(0 < Z < 0.88)
= 0.5 - 0.3106 = 0.1894

Number of soldiers expected to be over 6 feet tall in 6000 are

$$
6000 \times 0.1894 = 1136
$$

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Example 7.28

A bank manager has observed that the length of time the customers have to wait for being attended by the teller is normally distributed with mean time of 5 minutes and standard deviation of 0.7 minutes. Find the probability that a customer has to wait

- (i) for less than 6 minutes
- (ii) between 3.5 and 6.5 minutes

Solution :

Let *X* be the waiting time of a customer in the queue and it is normally distributed with mean 5 and SD 0.7.

(i) for less than 6 minutes

$$
P(A < 0) = P(Z < 1.45)
$$
\n
$$
= 0.5 + 0.4236
$$

(ii) between 3.5 and 6.5 minutes

 $= 0.9236$

When
$$
X = 3.5
$$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{3.5 - 5}{0.7} = -2.1429
$$

When $X = 6.5$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{6.5 - 5}{0.7} = 2.1429
$$

$$
P(3.5 < X < 6.5)
$$
\n
$$
= P(-2.1429 < Z < 2.1429)
$$
\n
$$
= P(0 < Z < 2.1429) + P(0 < Z < 2.1429)
$$
\n
$$
= 2 P(0 < Z < 2.1429)
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \times .4838
$$
\n
$$
= 0.9676
$$

⊕

A sample of 125 dry battery cells tested to find the length of life produced the following resultd with mean 12 and SD 3 hours. Assuming that the data to be normal distributed , what percentage of battery cells are expected to have life

- (i) more than 13 hours
- (ii) less than 5 hours
- (iii) between 9 and 14 hours

Solution :

Let *X* denote the length of life of dry battery cells follows normal distribution with mean 12 and SD 3 hours

(i) more than 13 hours

$$
P(X > 13)
$$

When $X = 13$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{13 - 12}{3} =
$$

 $P(X > 13) = P(Z > 0.333) = 0.5 - 0.1293 = 0.3707$ The expected battery cells life to have more than 13 hours is $125 \times 0.3707 = 46.34\%$

(ii) less than 5 hours

$$
P(X<5)
$$

When $X = 5 Z = \frac{X - \mu}{4} = \frac{5 - \mu}{4}$ $5 - 12$ $= -2.333$

$$
P(X < 5) = P(Z < -2.333) = P(Z > 2.333)
$$
\n
$$
= 0.5 - 0.4901 = 0.0099
$$

The expected battery cells life to have more than 13 hours is $125 \times 0.0099 = 1.23\%$

(iii) between 9 and 14 hours

When
$$
X = 9
$$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{9 - 12}{3} = -1
$$

When $X = 14$

$$
Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{14 - 12}{3} = 0.667
$$

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⊕

= 0.333

- $P(9 < X < 14) = P(-1 < Z < 0.667)$ $= P(0 < Z < 1) + P(0 < Z < 0.667)$ $= 0.3413 + 0.2486$
- $= 0.5899$

The expected battery cells life to have more than 13 hours is 125 x 0.5899 =73.73%

Example 7.30

Weights of fish caught by a traveler are approximately normally distributed with a mean weight of 2.25 kg and a standard deviation of 0.25 kg. What percentage of fish weigh less than 2 kg?

Solution :

⊕

We are given mean μ = 2.25 and standard deviation $\sigma = 0.25$. Probability that weight of fish is less than 2 kg is $P(X < 2.0)$

When
$$
x = 20
$$
 $Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{2.0 - 2.25}{0.25} = -1.0$
 $P(Z < -1.0) = P(Z > 1.0) = 0.5 - 0.3413 = 0.1587$

Therefore 15.87% of fishes weigh less than 2 kg.

Example 7.31

The average daily procurement of milk by village society in 800 litres with a standard deviation of 100 litres. Find out proportion of societies procuring milk between 800 litres to 1000 litres per day.

Solution :

We are given mean $\mu = 800$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 100$. Probability that the procurement of milk between 800 litres to 1000 litres per day is

 $P(800 < X < 1000) = P(\frac{800 - 800}{800})$ 100 $1000 - 800$ $\frac{-800}{00} < z < \frac{1000 - 800}{100}$

 $= P(0 < Z < 2) = 0.4772$ (table value)

Therefore 47.75 percent of societies procure milk between 800 litres to 1000 litres per day.

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- 1. Define Normal distribution.
- 2. Define Standard normal variate.
- 3. Write down the conditions in which the Normal distribution is a limiting case of binomial distribution.
- 4. Write down any five chief characteristics of Normal probability curve.
- 5. In a test on 2,000 electric bulbs, it was found that bulbs of a particular make, was normally distributed with an average life of 2,040 hours and standard deviation of 60 hours. Estimate the number of bulbs likely to burn for (i) more than 2,150 hours (ii) less than 1,950 hours (iii) more 1,920 hours but less than 2,100 hours.
- 6. In a distribution 30% of the items are under 50 and 10% are over 86. Find the mean and standard deviation of the distribution.
- 7. *X* is normally distributed with mean 12 and SD 4. Find *P*(*X* ≤ 20) and $P(0 \le X \le 12)$
- 8. If the heights of 500 students are normally distributed with mean 68.0 inches and standard deviation 3.0 inches , how many students have height (a) greater than 72 inches (b) less than or equal to 64 inches (c) between 65 and 71 inches.
- 9. In a photographic process, the developing time of prints may be looked upon as a random variable having the normal distribution with a mean of 16.28 seconds and a standard deviation of 0.12 second. Find the probability that it will take less than 16.35 seconds to develop prints.
- 10. Time taken by a construction company to construct a flyover is a normal variate with mean 400 labour days and standard deviation of 100 labour days. If the company

promises to construct the flyover in 450 days or less and agree to pay a penalty of \bar{z} 10,000 for each labour day spent in excess of 450 days. What is the probability that

- (i) the company pays a penalty of atleast `2,00,000?
- (ii) the company takes at most 500 days to complete the flyover?

Choose the correct Answer

♠

- 1. Normal distribution was invented by
	- (a) Laplace (b) De-Moivre
	- (c) Gauss (d) all the above
- 2. If $X \sim N(9,81)$ the standard normal variate Z will be

(a)
$$
Z = \frac{X - 81}{9}
$$
 (b) $Z = \frac{X - 9}{81}$

(c)
$$
Z = \frac{X-9}{9}
$$
 (d) $Z = \frac{9-X}{9}$

3. If *Z* is a standard normal variate, the proportion of items lying between $Z = -0.5$ and $Z = -3.0$ is

$$
(a) 0.4987 \t\t (b) 0.1915
$$

- (c) 0.3072 (d) 0.3098
- 4. If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, the maximum probability at the point of inflexion of normal distribution is

(a)
$$
\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) e^{\frac{1}{2}}
$$

\n(b) $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) e^{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)}$
\n(c) $\left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) e^{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)}$
\n(d) $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)$

- 5. In a parametric distribution the mean is equal to variance is
	- (a) binomial (b) normal (c) poisson (d) all the above
- 6. In turning out certain toys in a manufacturing company, the average number of defectives is 1%. The probability that the sample of 100 toys there will be 3 defectives is

7. The parameters of the normal distribution

$$
f(x) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{72\pi}}\right) \frac{e^{-(x-10)^2}}{72} \quad -\infty < x < \infty
$$
\n(a) (10,6)

\n(b) (10,36)

\n(c) (6,10)

\n(d) (36,10)

8. A manufacturer produces switches and experiences that 2 per cent switches are defective. The probability that in a box of 50 switches, there are atmost two defective is :

(a) 2.5
$$
e^{-1}
$$

\n(b) e^{-1}
\n(c) 2 e^{-1}
\n(d) none of the above

⊕

9. An experiment succeeds twice as often as it fails. The chance that in the next six trials, there shall be at least four successes is

(a) $240/729$	(b) $489/729$
(c) $496/729$	(d) $251/729$

10. If for a binomial distribution $B(n,p)$ mean = 4 and variance = $4/3$, the probability, $P(X \geq 5)$ is equal to

(a)
$$
(2/3)^6
$$
 (b) $(2/3)^5(1/3)$

(c)
$$
(1/3)^6
$$
 (d) $4(2/3)^6$

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11. The average percentage of failure in a certain examination is 40. The probability that out of a group of 6 candidates atleast 4 passed in the examination are

12. Forty percent of the passengers who fly on a certain route do not check in any luggage. The planes on this route seat 15 passengers. For a full flight, what is the mean of the number of passengers who do not check in any luggage?

(a) 6.00 (b) 6.45

- (c) 7.20 (d) 7.50
- 13. Which of the following statements is/are true regarding the normal distribution curve?
	- (a) it is symmetrical and bell shaped curve
	- (b) it is asymptotic in that each end approaches the horizontal axis but never reaches it
	- (c) its mean, median and mode are located at the same point
	- (d) all of the above statements are true.
- 14. Which of the following cannot generate a Poisson distribution?
	- (a) The number of telephone calls received in a ten-minute interval
	- (b) The number of customers arriving at a petrol station
	- (c) The number of bacteria found in a cubic feet of soil
	- (d) The number of misprints per page
- 15. The random variable *X* is normally distributed with a mean of 70 and a standard deviation of 10. What is the probability that *X* is between 72 and 84?

16. The starting annual salaries of newly qualified chartered accountants (CA's) in South Africa follow a normal distribution with a mean of $\bar{\tau}1,80,000$ and a standard deviation of \bar{x} 10,000. What is the probability that a randomly selected newly qualified CA will earn between $\bar{ }1,65,000$ and $\bar{ }1,75,000$ per annum?

17. In a large statistics class the heights of the students are normally distributed with a mean of 172cm and a variance of 25cm. What proportion of students are between 165cm and 181cm in height?

18. A statistical analysis of long-distance telephone calls indicates that the length of these calls is normally distributed with a mean of 240 seconds and a standard deviation of 40 seconds. What proportion of calls lasts less than 180 seconds?

19. Cape town is estimated to have 21% of homes whose owners subscribe to the satelite service, DSTV. If a random sample of your home in taken, what is the probability that all four home subscribe to DSTV?

20. Using the standard normal table, the sum of the probabilities to the right of $z = 2.18$ and to the left of $z = -1.75$ is

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21. The time until first failure of a brand of inkjet printers is normally distributed with a mean of 1,500 hours and a standard deviation of 200 hours. What proportion of printers fails before 1,000 hours?

- 22. The weights of newborn human babies are normally distributed with a mean of 3.2kg and a standard deviation of 1.1kg. What is the probability that a randomly selected newborn baby weighs less than 2.0kg?
	- (a) 0.138 (b) 0.428
	- (c) 0.766 (d) 0.262
- 23. Monthly expenditure on their credit cards, by credit card holders from a certain bank, follows a normal distribution with a mean of $\bar{\tau}$ 1,295.00 and a standard deviation of `750.00. What proportion of credit card holders spend more than $\bar{\tau}$ 1,500.00 on their credit cards per month?

24. Let *z* be a standard normal variable. If the area to the right of *z* is 0.8413, then the value of *z* must be:

25. If the area to the left of a value of z (z has a standard normal distribution) is 0.0793, what is the value of z?

26. If $P(Z > z) = 0.8508$ what is the value of *z* (*z* has a standard normal distribution)?

 $(c) -1.04$ (d) 1.04

27. If $P(Z > z) = 0.5832$ what is the value of *z* (*z* has a standard normal distribution)?

28. In a binomial distribution, the probability of success is twice as that of failure. Then out of 4 trials, the probability of no success is

Miscellaneous Problems

1. A manufacturer of metal pistons finds that on the average, 12% of his pistons are rejected because they are either oversize or undersize. What is the probability that a batch of 10 pistons will contain

(a) no more than 2 rejects?

(b) at least 2 rejects?

- 2. Hospital records show that of patients suffering from a certain disease 75% die of it. What is the probability that of 6 randomly selected patients, 4 will recover?
- 3. If electricity power failures occur according to a Poisson distribution with an average of 3 failures every twenty weeks, calculate the probability that there will not be more than one failure during a particular week.
- 4. Vehicles pass through a junction on a busy road at an average rate of 300 per hour.
	- 1. Find the probability that none passes in a given minute.
	- 2. What is the expected number passing in two minutes?
- 5. Entry to a certain University is determined by a national test. The scores on this test are normally distributed with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. Raghul

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wants to be admitted to this university and he knows that he must score better than at least 70% of the students who took the test. Raghul takes the test and scores 585. Will he be admitted to this university?

- 6. The time taken to assemble a car in a certain plant is a random variable having a normal distribution of 20 hours and a standard deviation of 2 hours. What is the probability that a car can be assembled at this plant in a period of time .
	- a) less than 19.5 hours?
	- b) between 20 and 22 hours?
- 7. The annual salaries of employees in a large company are approximately normally distributed with a mean of \$50,000 and a standard deviation of \$20,000.
	- (a) What percent of people earn less than \$40,000?
	- (b) What percent of people earn between \$45,000 and \$65,000?
- (c) What percent of people earn more than \$70,00
- 8. *X* is a normally normally distributed variable with mean $\mu = 30$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 4$. Find
	- (a) $P(x < 40)$
	- (b) $P(x > 21)$
	- (c) $P(30 < x < 35)$
- 9. The birth weight of babies is Normally distributed with mean 3,500g and standard deviation 500g. What is the probability that a baby is born that weighs less than 3,100g?
- 10. People's monthly electric bills in chennai are normally distributed with a mean of ₹ 225 and a standard deviation of ₹ 55. Those people spend a lot of time online. In a group of 500 customers, how many would we expect to have a bill that is $\bar{\tau}$ 100 or less?

Summary

- Conditions for the binomial probability distribution are
	- (i) the trials are independent
	- (ii) the number of trials is finite
	- (iii)each trial has only two possible outcomes called success and failure.
	- (iv) the probability of success in each trial is a constant.
- The probability for exactly *x* success in *n* independent trials is given by

$$
p(x) = {n \choose x} p^x q^{n-x}
$$
 where $x = 0,1,2,3,...,n$ and $q = 1 - p$

- **•** The parameters of the binomial distributions are *n* and *p*
- z The mean of the binomial distribution is *np* and variance are *npq*
- z Poisson distribution as limiting form of binomial distribution when n is large, *p* is small and *np* is finite.
- The Poisson probability distribution is $p(x) = e$ *x* λ^x ! $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots$

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♠

Where $\lambda = np$

- The mean and variance of the poisson distribtution is λ .
- The λ is the only parameter of poisson distribution.
- Poisson distribution can never be symmetrical.
- It is a distribution for rare events.
- z Normal distribution is the limiting form of binomial distribution when *n* is large and neither *p n*or *q* is small

• The normal probability distribution is given by $f(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$ $σ\sqrt{2π}$ $\exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)\right\}$ $\overline{ }$ $\left\{ \right.$ \lfloor $\overline{}$ $\left\{ \right\}$ I 1 2 $x - \mu$ ² *σ*

- The mean of the distribution is μ
- The SD of the distribution is σ .
- It is a symmetrical distribution
- The graph of the distribution is bell shaped
- In normal distribution the mean, median and mode are equal
- The points of inflexion are $\mu \sigma$ and $\mu + \sigma$
- The normal curve approaches the horizontal axis asymptotically
- Area Property : In a normal distribution about 68% of the item will lie between μ – σ and μ + σ. About 95% will lie between are μ –2 σ and μ + 2σ . About 99% will lie between $\mu -3 \sigma$ and $\mu +3 \sigma$.

2

)

- Standard normal random variate is denoted as $Z = (X μ)/σ$
- The standard normal probability distribution is $1/\sqrt{2}$ $1\sqrt{2\pi(e^{-2}})$ −*z*
- The mean of the distribution is zero and *SD* is unity
- The points of inflexion are at $z = -1$ and $z = +1$

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ICT Corner

Step - 1 : Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics and Statistics " will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-2".

Expected Result is shown in this picture

Step - 2 : Select the worksheet named "Normal Distribution"

Click on "New Problem" and click on Answer-I, Answer-ii and Answer -iii to see the answer for respective questions. Though the Normal Curve seems

touching the bottom line, it don't touch when we zoom. Work out the answer and check yourself and analyse the shaded region.

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Sampling Techniques and Statistical Inference

Introduction

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Pandurang Vasudeo Sukhatme (July 27, 1911 - January 28, 1997)

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Pandurang

Vasudeo Sukhatme

(1911–1997) was an award-winning

Indian statistician. He is known for his pioneering Vasudeo Sukhatme (1911–1997) was an award-winning work of applying random sampling methods in agricultural statistics and in biometry, in the 1940s. He was also influential in the establishment of the Indian Agricultural Statistics Research Institute. As a part of his work at the Food and Agriculture Organization in Rome, he developed statistical models for assessing the dimensions of hunger and future food supplies for the world.

He also developed methods for measuring the size and nature of the protein gap.

In any statistical investigation, the interest lies in the assessment of one or more characteristics relating to the individuals belonging to a group. When all the individuals present in the study are investigated, it is called complete enumeration, but in practice, it is very difficult to investigate all the individuals present in the study. So the technique of sampling is done which states that a part of the individuals are selected for the study and the assessment is made from the selected group of individuals. For example

- (i) A housewife tastes a spoonful whatever she cooks to check whether it tastes good or not.
- (ii) A few drops of our blood are tested to check about the presence or absence of a disease.
- (iii) A grain merchant takes out a handful of grains to get an idea about the quality of the whole consignment.

These are typical examples where decision making is done on the basis of sample information. So sampling is the process of choosing a representative sample from a given population.

Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter students are able to understand

- sampling techniques
- random sampling
- simple random sampling
- stratified random sampling
- systematic sampling
-
- sampling and non-sampling errors
- sampling distribution
- statistical inference
- estimation
- test of statistical hypothesis

8.1 Sampling

Sampling is the procedure or process of selecting a sample from a population. Sampling is quite often used in our day-to-day practical life.

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8.1.1 Basic concepts of sampling

Population

The group of individuals considered under study is called as population. The word population here refers not only to people but to all items that have been chosen for the study. Thus in statistics, population can be number of bikes manufactured in a day or week or month, number of cars manufactured in a day or week or month, number of fans, TVs, chalk pieces, people, students, girls, boys, any manufacturing products, etc…

Finite and infinite population:

When the number of observations/ individuals/products is countable in a group, then it is a finite population. Example: weights of students of class XII in a school.

When the number of observations/ individuals/products is uncountable in a group, then it is an infinite population. Example: number of grains in a sack, number of germs in the body of a sick patient.

Sample and sample size

⊕

A selection of a group of individuals from a population in such a way that it represents the population is called as sample and the number of individuals included in a sample is called the sample size.

Parameter and statistic

Parameter: The statistical constants of the population like mean (μ) , variance(σ^2) are referred as population parameters.

Statistic : Any statistical measure computed from sample is known as statistic.

Note

In practice, the parameter values are not known and their estimates based on the sample values are generally used.

Types of sampling

The technique or method of selecting a sample is of fundamental importance in the theory of sampling and usually depends upon the nature of the data and the type of enquiry. The procedures of selecting a sample may be broadly classified as

- 1. Non-Random sampling or Nonprobability sampling.
- 2. Random Sampling or Probability sampling.

Note

Here we confine ourselves to Random sampling or Probability sampling.

Random sampling or Probability sampling

Random sampling refers to selection of samples from the population in a random manner. A random sample is one where each and every item in the population has an equal chance of being selected.

" Every member of a parent population has had equal chances of being included".- Dr. Yates

 "A random sample is a sample selected in such a way that every item in the population has an equal chance of being included".-Harper

The following are different types of probability sampling:

- (i) Simple random sampling
- (ii) Stratified random sampling
- (iii) Systematic sampling

(i) Simple random sampling

In this technique the samples are selected in such a way that each and every unit in the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected as a sample. Simple random sampling may be done, with or without replacement of the samples selected. In a simple random sampling with replacement there is

a possibility of selecting the same sample any number of times. So, simple random sampling without replacement is followed.

Thus in simple random sampling from a population of N units, the probability of drawing any unit at the first draw is $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ \overline{N} , the probability of drawing any unit in the second draw from among the available $(N-1)$ units is $\frac{1}{(N-1)^{n}}$ $\frac{1}{(N-1)}$,

and so on. . Several methods have been adopted for random selection of the samples from the population. Of those, the following two methods are generally used and which are described below.

(A) Lottery method

⇔

This is the most popular and simplest method when the population is finite. In this method, all the items of the population are numbered on separate slips of paper of same size, shape and colour. They are folded and placed in a container and shuffled thoroughly. Then the required numbers of slips are selected for the desired sample size. The selection of items thus depends on chance.

For example, if we want to select 10 students, out of 100 students, then we must write the names/roll number of all the 100 students on slips of the same size and mix them, then we make a blindfold selection of 10 students. This method is called unrestricted random sampling, because units are selected from the population without any restriction. This method is mostly used in lottery draws. If the population or universe is infinite, this method is inapplicable.

(B) Table of Random number

When the population size is large, it is difficult to number all the items on separate slips of paper of same size, shape and colour. The alternative method is that of using the table of random numbers. The most practical, easy and inexpensive method of selecting a random sample can be done through "Random Number Table". The random number table has been so constructed that each of the digits 0,1,2,…,9 will appear approximately with the same frequency and independently of each other.

The various random number tables available are

- a. L.H.C. Tippett random number series
- b. Fisher and Yates random number series
- c. Kendall and Smith random number series
- d. Rand Corporation random number series.

Tippett's table of random numbers is most popularly used in practice. Given below the first forty sets from Tippett's table as an illustration of the general appearance of random numbers:

Suppose, if we want to select the required number of samples from a population of size N(<99) then any two digit random number can be selected from (00 to 99) from the above random number table. Similarly if N(< 999) or (< 9999), then any three digit random number or four digit random number can be selected from (000 to 999) or (0000 to 9999).

The procedure of selecting the random samples consists of following steps:

- 1. Identify the N units in the population with the numbers from 1 to N.
- 2. Select at random, any page from the 'Random Number Table'.
- 3. Select the required number of samples from any row or column or diagonal.

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One may question, as to how it is ensured that these digits are random. It may be pointed out that the digits in the table were chosen horizontally but the real guarantee of their randomness lies in practical tests. Tippett's numbers have been subjected to numerous tests and used in many investigations and their randomness has been very well established for all practical purposes.

An example to illustrate how Tippett's table of random numbers may be used is given below. Suppose we have to select 20 items out of 6,000. The procedure is to number all the 6,000 items from 1 to 6,000. A page from Tippett's table may be selected and the first twenty numbers ranging from 1 to 6,000 are noted down. If the numbers are above 6000, choose the next number ranging from 1 to 6000. Items bearing those numbers will be selected as samples from the population. Making use of the portion of the random number table given,the requiredrandom samples are shaded. Here, we consider row wise selection of random numbers.

If the population size is 1,000 and suppose we want to select 15 items out of 1,000. All itemsfrom 1 to 1000 should be numbered as 0001 to 1000.Now, we may now select 15 numbers from the random number table.The procedure will be different, as Tippett's random numbers are available only in four digits. Thus, we can select the first three digits from the four digit random sample number.Making use of the portion of the random number table given, the required random samples are shaded in RED colour. Here, we consider row wise selection of random numbers.

If the population size is 100 and suppose we want to select 10 items out of 100. All itemsfrom 1 to 100 should be numbered as 001 to 100. Now, we may now select 10 numbers from the random number table. The procedure will be different, as Tippett's random numbers are available only in four digits. Thus, we can select the first two digits from the four digit random sample number. Making use of the portion of the random number table given, the required random samples are shaded in RED colour.Here, we consider row wise selection of random numbers.

Merits and demerits of Simple Random Sampling:

Merits

- 1. Personal bias is completely eliminated.
- 2. This method is economical as it saves time, money and labour.
- 3. The method requires minimum knowledge about the population in advance.

Demerits

- 1. This requires a complete list of the population but such up-to-date lists are not available in many enquiries.
- 2. If the size of the sample is small, then it will not be a representative of the population.

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Example 8.1

Using the Kendall-Babington Smith - Random number table,Draw5 random samples.

There many ways to select 5 random samples from the given Kendall-Babington Smith - Random number table. Assume that at random we select $3rd$ column $1st$ value. This location gives the digit to be 75. So the first sample will be 75, and then the next choices can be in the same 3^{rd} column which follows as 55, 16, 67 and 26. Therefore 75,55,16,67 and 26 will be used as random samples. The various shaded numbers can be taken as 5 random sample numbers. Apart from this, one can select any 5 random sample numbers as they like.

Example 8.2

⊕

Using the following Tippett's random number table,

Draw a sample of 15 houses from Cauvery Street which has 83 houses in total.

Solution:

There many ways to select 15 random samples from the given Tippet's random number table. Since the population size is 83 (two-digit number). Here the door numbers are assigned from 1 to 83. Assume that at random we first choose $2nd$ column. So the first sample is 66 and other 14 samples are 74, 52, 39, 15, 34, 11, 14, 13, 27, 61, 79, 72, 35, and 60. If the numbers are above 83, choose the next number ranging from 1 to 83.

Example 8.3

Using the following random number table,

Draw a sample of 10 children with theirheight from the population of 8,585 children as classified hereunder.

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Solution:

The first thing is to number the population(8585 children). The numbering has already been provided by the frequency table. There are 2 children with height of 105 cm, therefore we assign number 1 and 2 to the children those in the group 105 cm, number 3 to 6 is assigned to those in the group 107 cm and similarly all other children are assigned the numbers. In the last group 145 cms there are two children with assigned number 8584 and 8585.

Now we take 10 samples from the tables, since the population size is in 4 digits we can use the given random number table. Select the10 random numbers from 1 to 8585 in the table, Here, we consider column wise selection of random numbers, starting from first column.

The children with assigned number 2952 is selected and then see the cumulative frequency table where 2952 is present, now select the corresponding row height which is 123 cm, similarly all the selected random numbers are considered for the selection of the child with their corresponding height. The following table shows all the selected 10 children with their heights.

Example 8.4

⊕

Using the following random number table (Kendall-Babington Smith)

Draw a random sample of 10 four- figure numbers starting from 1550 to 8000.

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Solution:

Here, we have to select 10 random numbers ranging from 1550 to 8000 but the given random number table has only 2 digit numbers. To solve this, two - 2 digit numbers can be combined together to make a four-figure number. Let us select the $5th$ and $6th$ column and combine them to form a random number, then select the random number with given range. This gives 5 random numbers, similarly 8^{th} and 9^{th} is selected and combined to form a random numbers, then select the random number with given range. This gives 5 random numbers, totally 10 four-figure numbers have been selected. The following table shows the 10 random numbers which are combined and selected.

Therefore the selected 10 random numbers are

(ii) Stratified Random Sampling

Definition 8.1

⊕

In stratified random sampling, first divide the population into sub-populations, which are called strata. Then, the samples are selected from each of the strata through random techniques.The collection of all the samples from all strata gives the stratified random samples.

When the population is heterogeneous or different segments or groups with respect to the variable or characteristic under study, then Stratified Random Sampling method is studied. First, the population is divided into homogeneous number of sub-groups or strata before the sample is drawn. A sample is drawn from each stratum at random. Following steps are involved for selecting a random sample in a stratified random sampling method.

- (a) The population is divided into different classes so that each stratum will consist of more or less homogeneous elements. The strata are so designed that they do not overlap each other.
- (b) After the population is stratified, a sample of a specified size is drawn at random from each stratum using Lottery Method or Table of Random Number Method.

Stratified random sampling is applied in the field of the different legislative areas as strata in election polling, division of districts (strata) in a state etc…

Example 8.5

From the following data, select 68 random samples from the populationof heterogeneous group with size of 500 through stratified random sampling, considering the following categories as strata.

> Category1: Lower income class -39% Category2: Middle income class - 38% Category3: Upper income class- 23%

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Solution

Merits

- (a) A random stratified sample is superior to a simple random sample because it ensures representation of all groups and thus it is more representative of the population which is being sampled.
- (b) A stratified random sample can be kept small in size without losing its accuracy.
- (c) It is easy to administer,if the population under study is sub-divided.
- (d) It reduces the time and expenses in dividing the strata into geographical divisions, since the government itself had divided the geographical areas.

Demerits

- (a) To divide the population into homogeneous strata (if not divided), it requires more money, time and statistical experience which is a difficult one.
- (b) If proper stratification is not done, the sample will have an effect of bias.
- (c) There is always a possibility of faulty classification of strata and hence increases variability.

(iii) Systematic Sampling

Definition 8.2

In a systematic sampling, randomly select the first sample from the first k units. Then every k^{th} member, starting with the first selected sample, is included in the sample.

Systematic sampling is a commonly used technique, if the complete and up-to-date list of the sampling units is available. We can arrange the items in numerical, alphabetical, geographical or in any other order. The procedure of selecting the samples starts with selecting the first sample at random, the rest being automatically selected according to some pre-determined pattern. A systematic sample is formed by selecting every item from the population, where *k* refers to the sample interval. The sampling interval can be determined by dividing the size of the population by the size of the sample to be chosen. That is $k = \frac{N}{n}$, where *k* is an integer.

 $k =$ Sampling interval, $N =$ Size of the population, $n =$ Sample size.

Procedure for selection of samples by systematic sampling method

- (i) If we want to select a sample of 10 students from a class of 100 students, the sampling interval is calculated as $k = \frac{N}{n} = \frac{100}{10}$ $10¹$ Thus sampling interval $= 10$ denotes that for every 10 samples one sample has to be selected.
- (ii) The firstsample is selected from the first 10 (sampling interval) samples through random selection procedures.

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(iii) If the selected first random sample is 5, then the rest of the samples are automatically selected by incrementing the value of the sampling interval (*k* = 10) i.e., 5, 15 , 25, 35, 45, 55, 65, 75, 85, 95.

Example:

Suppose we have to select 20 items out of 6,000. The procedure is to number all the 6,000 items from 1 to 6,000. The sampling interval is calculated as $k = \frac{N}{n} = \frac{6000}{20} =$ 300 . Thus sampling interval = 300 denotes that for every 300 samples one sample has to be selected. The first sample is selected from the first 300 (sampling interval) samples through random selection procedures. If the selected first random sample is 50, then the rest of the samples are automatically selected by incrementing the value of the sampling interval (*k*=300) ie,50, 350, 650, 950, 1250, 1550, 1850, 2150, 2450, 2750, 3050, 3350, 3650, 3950, 4250, 4550, 4850, 5150, 5450, 5750. Items bearing those numbers will be selected as samples from the population.

Merits

⊕

- 1. This is simple and convenient method.
- 2. This method distributes the sample more evenly over the entire listed population.
- 3. The time and work is reduced much.

Demerits

- 1. Systematic samples are not random samples.
- 2. If *N* is not a multiple of *n*, then the sampling interval (*k*) cannot be an integer, thus sample selection becomes difficult.

8.1.2 Sampling and Non-Sampling Errors:

A sample is a part of the whole population. A sample drawn from the population depends upon chance and as such all the characteristics of the population may not be present in the sample drawn from the same population. The errors involved in the collection, processing and analysis of the data may be broadly classified into two categories namely,

- (i) Sampling Errors
- (ii) Non-Sampling Errors

(i) Sampling Errors

Errors, which arise in the normal course of investigation or enumeration on account of chance, are called sampling errors. Sampling errors are inherent in the method of sampling. They may arise accidentally without any bias or prejudice. Sampling Errors arise primarily due to the following reasons:

- (a) Faulty selection of the sample instead of correct sample by defective sampling technique.
- (b) The investigator substitutes a convenient sample if the original sample is not available while investigation.
- (c) In area surveys, while dealing with border lines it depends upon the investigator whether to include them in the sample or not. This is known as Faulty demarcation of sampling units.

(ii)Non-Sampling Errors

The errors that arise due to human factors which always vary from one investigator to another in selecting, estimating or using measuring instruments(tape, scale)are called Non-Sampling errors.It may arise in the following ways:

- (a) Due to negligence and carelessness of the part of either investigator or respondents.
- (b) Due to lack of trained and qualified investigators.
- (c) Due to framing of a wrong questionnaire.
- (d) Due to apply wrong statistical measure
- (e) Due to incomplete investigation and sample survey.

8.1.3 Sampling distribution

Definition 8.3

 Sampling distribution of a statistic is the frequency distribution which is formed with various values of a statistic computed from different samples of the same size drawn from the same population.

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 For instance if we draw a sample of size *n* from a given finite population of size N, then the total number of possible samples is ${}^{N}C_{n} = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} = k$ (say). For each of these k samples we can compute some statistic, $t = t(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$, in particular the mean \bar{x} , the variance S^2 , etc., is given below:

The set of the values of the statistic so obtained, one for each sample, constitutes the sampling distribution of the statistic.

Standard Error

⊕

The standard deviation of the sampling distribution of a statistic is known as its Standard Error abbreviated as S.E. The Standard Errors (S.E.) of some of the well-known statistics, for large samples, are given below, where *n* is the sample size, σ^2 is the population variance.

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8.1.4 Computing standard error in simple cases

Example 8.6

A server channel monitored for an hour was found to have an estimated mean of 20 transactions transmitted per minute. The variance is known to be 4. Find the standard error.

Solution:

Given $\sigma^2 = 4$ which implies $\sigma = 2$, *n* = 1 hour = 60 min, \overline{X} = 20 /min Standard Error = $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{60}} =$ 0.2582

Example 8.7

Find the sample size for the given standard deviation 10 and the standard error with respect of sample mean is 3.

Solution:

Given $\sigma = 10$, S.E. \overline{X} =3 We know that $S.E = \frac{\sigma}{4}$ *n* Therefore, $3 = \frac{10}{\sqrt{r}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{n} = \frac{10}{3}$ $=\frac{16}{\sqrt{n}} \Rightarrow \sqrt{n} = \frac{16}{3}$

Taking Squaring on both sides we get

$$
n = \left(\frac{10}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{100}{9} = 11.11 \approx 11,
$$

The required sample size is 11.

Example 8.8

A die is thrown 9000 times and a throw of 3 or 4 is observed 3240 times. Find the standard error of the proportion for an unbiased die .

Solution :

If the occurrence of 3 or 4 on the die is called a success, then

Sample size = 9000; Number of Success = 3240

Sample proportion =
$$
p = \frac{3240}{9000} = 0.36
$$

Population proportion (*P*) = Prob (getting 3 or 4 when a die is thrown)

$$
=\frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{3} = 0.3333
$$

Thus *P* = 0.3333 and $Q = 1-P=1-0.3333 = 0.6667$.

The S.E for sample proportion is given by

$$
S.E. = \sqrt{\frac{PQ}{n}} = \sqrt{\frac{(0.3333)(0.6667)}{9000}} = 0.00496
$$

Hence the standard error for sample proportion is S.E=0.00496.

Example 8.9

The standard deviation of a sample of size 50 is 6.3. Determine the standard error whose population standard deviation is 6?

Solution:

Sample size $n = 50$ Sample S.D $s = 6.3$ Population S.D $\sigma = 6$

The standard error for sample S.D is given

by

⊕

$$
S.E. = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2}{2n}} = \frac{6}{\sqrt{2(50)}} = \frac{6}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.6
$$

Thus standard error for sample $S.D = 0.6$.

Example 8.10

A sample of 100 students is chosen from a large group of students. The average height of these students is 162 cm and standard deviation (S.D) is 8 cm. Obtain the standard error for the average height of large group of students of 160 cm?

Solution:

Given $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 162$ cm, $s = 8$ cm is known in this problem

since σ is unknown, so we consider $\hat{\sigma} = s$ and $\varphi= 160$ cm

$$
S.E. = \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{8}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.8
$$

Therefore the standard error for the average height of large group of students of 160 cm is 0.8.

- 1. What is population?
- 2. What is sample?
- 3. What is statistic?
- 4. Define parameter.
- 5. What is sampling distribution of a statistic?
- 6. What is standard error?
- 7. Explain in detail about simple random sampling with a suitable example.
- 8. Explain the stratified random sampling with a suitable example.
- 9. Explain in detail about systematic random sampling with example.
- 10. Explain in detail about sampling error.
- 11. Explain in detail about non-sampling error.
- 12. State any two merits of simple random sampling.
- 13. State any three merits of stratified random sampling.
- 14. State any two demerits of systematic random sampling.
- 15. State any two merits for systematic random sampling.
- 16. Using the following Tippet's random number table

Draw a sample of 10 three digit numbers which are even numbers.

- 17. A wholesaler in apples claims that only 4% of the apples supplied by him are defective. A random sample of 600 apples contained 36 defective apples. Calculate the standard error concerning of good apples.
- 18. A sample of 1000 students whose mean weight is 119 lbs(pounds) from a school

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in Tamil Nadu State was taken and their average weight was found to be 120 lbs with a standard deviation of 30 lbs. Calculate standard error of mean.

- 19. A random sample of 60 observations was drawn from a large population and its standard deviation was found to be 2.5. Calculate the suitable standard error that this sample is taken from a population with standard deviation 3?
- 20. In a sample of 400 population from a village 230 are found to be eaters of vegetarian items and the rest non-vegetarian items. Compute the standard error assuming that both vegetarian and non-vegetarian foods are equally popular in that village?

Statistical Inference

One of the main objectives of any statistical investigation is to draw inferences about a population from the analysis of samples drawn from that population. Statistical Inference provides us how to estimate a value from the sample and test that value for the population. This is done by the two important classifications in statistical inference,

- (i) Estimation;
- (ii) Testing of Hypothesis

8.2 Estimation:

It is possible to draw valid conclusion about the population parameters from sampling distribution. Estimation helps in estimating an unknown population parameter such as population mean, standard deviation, etc., on the basis of suitable statistic computed from the samples drawn from population.

Estimation:

Definition 8.4

The method of obtaining the most likely value of the population parameter using statistic is called estimation.

Estimator:

Definition 8.5

Any sample statistic which is used to estimate an unknown population parameter is called an estimator ie., an estimator is a sample statistic used to estimate a population parameter.

Estimate:

Definition 8.6

When we observe a specific numerical value of our estimator, we call that value is an estimate. In other words, an estimate is a specific observed value of a statistic.

Characteristic of a good estimator

A good estimator must possess the following characteristic:

(i) Unbiasedness (ii) Consistency (iii) Efficiency (iv) Sufficiency.

- (i) Unbiasedness: An estimator $T_n = T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is said to be an unbiased estimator of estimator of *γ*(θ) *if* $E(T_n) = \gamma(\theta)$, for all θε Θ (parameter space), (i.e) An estimator is said to be unbiased if its expected value is equal to the population parameter. Example: $E(\bar{x}) = \varphi$
- (ii) Consistency: An estimator $T_n = T(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ is said to be consistent estimator of $\gamma(\theta)$, if T_n converges to $\gamma(\theta)$ in Probability, i.e., $T_n \longrightarrow \gamma(\theta)$ *as* $n \longrightarrow \infty$, for all $\theta \in \Theta$.
- (iii) Efficiency: If T_1 is the most efficient estimator with variance V_1 and T_2 is any other estimator with variance V_2 , then the efficiency E of T_2 is defined as $E = \frac{V}{V}$ *V* $=\frac{v_1}{2}$ ² Obviously, *E* cannot exceed unity.
- (iv) Sufficiency: If $T = t(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is an estimator of a parameter θ , based on a sample x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n of size n from the

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population with density $f(x, \theta)$ such that the conditional distribution of $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ given T , is independent of θ , then T is sufficient estimator for θ .

8.2.1 Point and Interval Estimation:

To estimate an unknown parameter of the population, concept of theory of estimation is used.There are two types of estimation namely,

- 1. Point estimation
- 2. Interval estimation

1. Point Estimation

When a single value is used as an estimate, the estimate is called a point estimate of the population parameter. In other words, an estimate of a population parameter given by a single number is called as point estimation.

For example

⇔

- (i) 55 is the mean mark obtained by a sample of 5 students randomly drawn from a class of 100 students is considered to be the mean marks of the entire class. This single value 55is a point estimate.
- (ii) 50 kg is the average weight of a sample of 10 students randomly drawn from a class of 100 students is considered to be the average weight of the entire class. This single value 50 is a point estimate.

Note

The sample mean (\bar{x}) is the sample statistic used as an estimate of population mean (*m*)

Instead of considering, the estimated value of the population parameter to be a single value, we might consider an interval for estimating the value of the population parameter. This concept is known as interval estimation and is explained below.

2. Interval Estimation

Generally, there are situations where point estimation is not desirable and we are interested in finding limits within which the parameter would be expected to lie is called an interval estimation.

For example,

If T is a good estimator of θ with standard error s then, making use of general property of the standard deviations, the uncertainty in *T*, as an estimator of θ , can be expressed by statements like " We are about 95% certain that the unknown θ , will lie somewhere between T-2s and T+2s", "we are almost sure that θ will in the interval (T-3s and T+3s)" such intervals are called confidence intervals and is explained below.

Confidence interval

After obtaining the value of the statistic 't' (sample) from a given sample, Can we make some reasonable probability statements about the unknown population parameter θ ?. This question is very well answered by the technique of Confidence Interval. Let us choose a small value of α which is known as level of significance(1% or 5%) and determine two constants say, c_1 and c_2 such that $P(c_1 < \theta < c_2 | t) = 1 - \alpha$.

The quantities c_1 and c_2 , so determined are known as the Confidence Limits and the interval $\lfloor c_1, c_2 \rfloor$ within which the unknown value of the population parameter is expected to lie is known as Confidence Interval. $(1 - \alpha)$ is called as confidence coefficient.

Confidence Interval for the population mean for Large Samples (when s is known)

If we take repeated independent random samples of size n from a population with an unknown mean but known standard deviation, then the probability that the true population mean φ will fall in the following interval is $(1 - \alpha)$ i.e

$$
P = \left(\overline{x} - Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{x} + Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = (1 - \alpha)
$$

So, the confidence interval for population mean (φ), when standard deviation (σ) is known and is given by $\overline{x} \pm Z$ *n* $\pm Z_\alpha$ *σ* 2 .

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For the computation of confidence intervals and for testing of significance, the critical values

 Z_{α} at the different level of significance is given in the following table:

Normal Probability Table

The calculation of confidence interval is illustrated below.

Example 8.11

A machine produces a component of a product with a standard deviation of 1.6 cm in length. A random sample of 64 componentsvwas selected from the output and this sample has a mean length of 90 cm. The customer will reject the part if it is either less than 88 cm or more than 92 cm. Does the 95% confidence interval for the true mean length of all the components produced ensure acceptance by the customer?

Solution:

⊕

Here φ is the mean length of the components in the population.

The formula for the confidence interval is

$$
\overline{x} - Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \overline{x} + Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

Here σ = 1.6, $Z_{\alpha/2}$ $= 1.96$, $\bar{x} = 90$ and n = 64

Then
$$
S.E. = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1.6}{\sqrt{64}} = 0.2
$$

Therefore, $90 - (1.96 \times 0.2) \le \varphi \le 90 + (1.96 \times 0.2)$

i.e. $(89.61 \le \varphi \le 90.39)$

This implies that the probability that the true value of the population mean length of the components will fall in this interval (89.61,90.39) at 95% . Hence we concluded that 95% confidence interval ensures acceptance of the component by the consumer.

Example 8.12

A sample of 100 measurements at breaking strength of cotton thread gave a mean of 7.4 and a standard deviation of 1.2 gms. Find 95% confidence limits for the mean breaking strength of cotton thread.

Solution:

Given, sample size = 100, \bar{x} = 7.4, since σ is unknown but $s = 1.2$ is known.

In this problem, we consider $\check{\sigma} = s$, $Z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$

$$
S.E. = \frac{\breve{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{1.2}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.12
$$

Hence 95% confidence limits for the population mean are

$$
\overline{x} - Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \overline{x} + Z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}
$$
\n
$$
7.4 - (1.96 \times 0.12) \le \mu \le 7.4 + (1.96 \times 0.12)
$$
\n
$$
7.4 - 0.2352 \le \mu \le 7.4 + 0.2352
$$
\n
$$
7.165 \le \mu \le 7.635
$$

This implies that the probability that the true value of the population mean breaking strength of the cotton threads will fall in this interval (7.165,7.635) at 95% .

Example 8.13

The mean life time of a sample of 169 light bulbs manufactured by a company is found to

be 1350 hours with a standard deviation of 100 hours. Establish 90% confidence limits within which the mean life time of light bulbs is expected to lie.

Solution:

Given: $n = 169$, $\bar{x} = 1350$ hours, $\sigma = 100$ hours, since the level of significance is (100- 90)% =10% thus α is 0.1, hence the significant value at 10% is $Z_{\alpha/2}$ $= 1.645$

$$
S.E. = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{100}{\sqrt{169}} = 7.69
$$

Hence 90% confidence limits for the population mean are

$$
\overline{x} - Z_{\alpha/2}SE < \mu < \overline{x} + Z_{\alpha/2}SE
$$

 $1350 - (1.645 \times 7.69) \le \mu \le 1350 + (1.645 \times 7.69)$

 $1337.35 \leq \mu \leq 1362.65$

Hence the mean life time of light bulbs is expected to lie between the interval (1337.35, 1362.65)

8.3 Hypothesis Testing

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One of the important areas of statistical analysis is testing of hypothesis. Often, in real life situations we require to take decisions about the population on the basis of sample information. Hypothesis testing is also referred to as "Statistical Decision Making". It employs statistical techniques to arrive at decisions in certain situations where there is an element of uncertainty on the basis of sample, whose size is fixed in advance. So statistics helps us in arriving at the criterion for such decision is known as Testing of hypothesis which was initiated by J. Neyman and E.S. Pearson.

For Example: We may like to decide on the basis of sample data whether a new vaccine is effective in curing cold, whether a new training methodology is better than the existing one, whether the new fertilizer is more productive than the earlier one and so on.

8.3.1 Meaning : Null Hypothesis and Alternative Hypothesis - Level of Significants and Type of Errors

Statistical Hypothesis

Statistical hypothesis is some assumption or statement, which may or may not be true, about a population.

There are two types of statistical hypothesis

(i) Null hypothesis (ii) Alternative hypothesis

Null Hypothesis

Definition 8.7

According to Prof. R.A.Fisher, "Null hypothesis is the hypothesis which is tested for possible rejection under the assumption that it is true", and it is denoted by $H_{\overline{0}}$.

For example: If we want to find the population mean has a specified value μ_0 , then the null hypothesis H_0 is set as follows $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$

Alternative Hypothesis

Any hypothesis which is complementary to the null hypothesis is called as the alternative hypothesis and is usually denoted by H_1 .

For example: If we want to test the null hypothesis that the population has specified mean μ i.e., $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ then the alternative hypothesis could be any one among the following:

- (i) $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ ($\mu > \text{or } \mu < \mu_0$)
- (ii) $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$
- (iii) $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$

The alternative hypothesis in $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ is known as two tailed alternative test. Two tailed test is one where the hypothesis about the population parameter is rejected for the value of sample statistic falling into either tails of the sampling distribution. When the hypothesis about the population parameter is rejected only for the value of sample statistic falling into one

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of the tails of the sampling distribution, then it is known as one-tailed test. Here H_1 : $\mu > \mu_0$ and H_{1} : $\mu < \mu_{0}$ are known as one tailed alternative.

Right tailed test: $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$ is said to be right tailed test where the rejection region or critical region lies entirely on the right tail of the normal curve.

Left tailed test: H_{1} : $\mu < \mu_{0}$ is said to be left tailed test where the critical region lies entirely on the left tail of the normal curve. (diagram)

Types of Errors in Hypothesis testing

There is every chance that a decision regarding a null hypothesis may be correct or may not be correct. There are two types of errors. They are

Type I error: The error of rejecting H_0 when it is true.

Type II error: The error of accepting when H_0 it is false.

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Critical region or Rejection region

A region corresponding to a test statistic in the sample space which tends to rejection of H ₀ is called critical region or region of rejection.

Note

The region complementary to the critical region is called the region of acceptance.

Level of significance

The probability of type I error is known as level of significance and it is denoted by α . The level of significance is usually employed in testing of hypothesis are 5% and 1%. The level of significance is always fixed in advance before collecting the sample information.

Critical values or significant values

The value of test statistic which separates the critical (or rejection) region and the acceptance region is called the critical value or significant value. It depend upon

- (i) The level of significance
- (ii) The alternative hypothesis whether it is two-tailed or single tailed.

For large samples, the standardized variable corresponding to the statistic viz.,

$$
Z = \frac{t - E(t)}{\sqrt{Var(t)}} = \frac{t - E(t)}{S.E.(t)} \sim N(0,1) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$
...(1)

The value of *Z* given by (1) under the null hypothesis is known as test statistic. The critical values of *Z* , commonly used at the level of significance for both two tailed and single tailed tests are given in the normal probability table (Refer the normal probably Table).

Since for large n, almost all the distributions namely, Binomial, Poisson, etc., can be approximated very closely by a normal probability curve, we use the normal test of significance for large samples.

⊕

Note

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For practical purposes, the sample may be regarded as large if *n* > 30.

8.3.2 Testing Procedure : Large sample theory and test of significants for single mean

The following are the steps involved in hypothesis testing problems.

- 1. Null hypothesis: Set up the null hypothesis $H₀$
- 2. Alternative hypothesis: Set up the alternative hypothesis . This will enable us to decide whether we have to use two tailed test or single tailed test (right or left tailed)
- 3. Level of significance: Choose the appropriate level of significant (α) depending on the reliability of the estimates and permissible risk. This is to be fixed before sample is drawn. i.e., α is fixed in advance.
- 4. Test statistic : Compute the test statistic using

$$
Z = \frac{t - E(t)}{\sqrt{Var(t)}} = \frac{t - E(t)}{S.E.(t)} \sim N(0,1) \text{ as } n \to \infty
$$

- 5. Conclusion: We compare the computed value of Z in step 4 with the significant value or critical value or table value Z_{α} at the given level of significance .
	- (i) If $|Z| < Z_\alpha$ i.e., if the calculated value of is less than critical value we say it is not significant. This may due to fluctuations of sampling and sample data do not provide us sufficient evidence against the null hypothesis which may therefore be accepted.
	- (ii) If $|Z| > Z_\alpha$ i.e., if the calculated value of is greater than critical value Z_{α} then we say it is significant and the null hypothesis is rejected at level of significance α .

Test of significance for single mean

Let x_i , $(i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n)$ is a random sample of size from a normal population with mean μ and variance σ^2 then the sample mean is distributed normally with mean μ and variance σ^2 *n* , i.e., $\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{n}\right)$ *σ* , $\int \sigma^2$ $\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$. Thus for large samples, the standard normal variate corresponding to \bar{x} is :

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)
$$

Under the null hypothesis that the sample has been drawn from a population with mean and variance σ^2 , i.e., there is no significant difference between the sample mean (\bar{x}) and the population mean (μ) , the test statistic (for large samples) is:

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}
$$

Remark:

If the population standard deviation σ is unknown then we use its estimate provided by the sample variance given by $\hat{\sigma}^2 = s_2 \Rightarrow \hat{\sigma} = s$.

Example 8.14

An auto company decided to introduce a new six cylinder car whose mean petrol consumption is claimed to be lower than that of the existing auto engine. It was found that the mean petrol consumption for the 50 cars was 10 km per litre with a standard deviation of 3.5 km per litre. Test at 5% level of significance, whether the claim of the new car petrol consumption is 9.5 km per litre on the average is acceptable.

Solution:

Sample size $n = 50$ Sample mean $\bar{x} = 10$ km Sample standard deviation *s* = 3.5 km

Population mean μ =9.5 km

Since population SD is unknown we consider $\sigma = s$

The sample is a large sample and so we apply Z-test.

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Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the sample average and the company's claim, i.e., H_0 : μ = 9.5

Alternative Hypothesis: There is significant difference between the sample average and the company's claim, i.e., $H_1: \mu \neq$ 9.5 (two tailed test)

The level of significance $\alpha = 5\% = 0.05$

Applying the test statistic

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0,1);
$$
 test)

$$
Z = \frac{10 - 9.5}{\frac{3.5}{\sqrt{50}}} \sim N(0,1) = \frac{0.5}{0.495} = 1.01
$$
 Applying the

Thus the calculated value 1.01 and the significant value or table value *Z^a* 2

Comparing the calculated and table value ,Here $Z < Z_{\alpha/2}$ i.e., 1.01<1.96.

Inference:Since the calculated value is less than table value i.e., $Z < Z_{\alpha}$ at 5% level of sinificance, the null hypothesis² H_0 is accepted. Hence we conclude that the company's claim that the new car petrol consumption is 9.5 km per litre is acceptable.

Example 8.15

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A manufacturer of ball pens claims that a certain pen he manufactures has a mean writing life of 400 pages with a standard deviation of 20 pages. A purchasing agent selects a sample of 100 pens and puts them for test. The mean writing life for the sample was 390 pages. Should the purchasing agent reject the manufactures claim at 1% level?

Solution:

Sample size $n = 100$, Sample mean \bar{x} = 390 pages, Population mean μ = 400 pages

Population SD $\sigma = 20$ pages

The sample is a large sample and so we apply *Z* -test

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the sample mean and the population mean of writing life of pen he manufactures, i.e., H_0 : μ = 400

Alternative Hypothesis: There is significant difference between the sample mean and the population mean of writing life of pen he manufactures, i.e., H_1 : $\mu \neq 400$ (two tailed test)

The level of significance $\alpha = 1\% = 0.01$

Applying the test statistic

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0,1);
$$

$$
Z_{\alpha/2}
$$
 = 1.96 $Z = \frac{390 - 400}{\frac{20}{\sqrt{100}}} = \frac{-10}{2} = -5$, $\therefore |Z| = 5$

Thus the calculated value $|Z| = 5$ and the significant value or table value *Z^a* 2 $= 2.58$

Comparing the calculated and table values, we found $Z > Z_{\alpha/2}$ i.e., $5 > 2.58$

Inference: Since the calculated value is greater than table value i.e., $Z > Z_{\alpha'_{2}}$ at 1% level of significance, the null hypothesis is rejected and Therefore we concluded that $\mu \neq 400$ and the manufacturer's claim is rejected at 1% level of significance.

Example 8.16

- (i) A sample of 900 members has a mean 3.4 cm and SD 2.61 cm. Is the sample taken from a large population with mean 3.25 cm. and SD 2.62 cm? (95% confidence limit)
- (ii) If the population is normal and its mean is unknown, find the 95% and 98% confidence limits of true mean.

Solution:

(i) Given:

Sample size $n = 900$, Sample mean \bar{x} = 3.4 cm, Sample SD *s* = 2.61 cm.

Population mean μ = 3.25 cm, Population SD σ = 2.61 cm.

Null Hypothesis H_0 : $\mu = 3.25$ cm (the sample has been drawn from the population mean μ = 3.25 cm and SD σ = 2.61 cm)

Alternative Hypothesis H₁: $\mu \neq 3.25$ cm (two tail) i.e., the sample has not been drawn from the population mean μ = 3.25 cm and SD σ = 2.61 cm.

The level of significance $\alpha = 5\% = 0.05$ Teststatistic:

$$
Z = \frac{3.4 - 3.25}{\frac{2.61}{\sqrt{900}}} = \frac{0.15}{0.087} = 1.724
$$

 \therefore Z = 1.724

Thus the calculated and the significant value or table value *Z^a* 2 $= 1.96$

Comparing the calculated and table values, $Z < Z_{\alpha/2}$ i.e., $1.724 < 1.96$

Inference: Since the calculated value is less than table value i.e., $Z < Z_{\alpha'_{2}}$ at 5% level of significance, the null hypothesis is accepted. Hence we conclude that the data doesn't provide us any evidence against the null hypothesis. Therefore, the sample has been drawn from the population mean μ = 3.25 cm and SD, σ = 2.61 cm.

(ii) Confidence limits

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95% confidential limits for the population mean μ are :

 $\overline{x} - Z_{\alpha/2} S E \le \mu \le \overline{x} + Z_{\alpha/2} S E$

 $3.4 - (1.96 \times 0.087) \leq \mu \leq 3.4 + (1.96 \times 0.087)$

3.229≤ *m*≤ 3.571

98% confidential limits for the population mean μ are :

$$
\overline{x} - Z_{\alpha/2} SE \le \mu \le \overline{x} + Z_{\alpha/2} SE
$$

3.4- (2.33× 0.087) $\le \mu \le 3.4 + (2.33 \times 0.087)$
3.197 $\le \mu \le 3.603$

Therefore, 95% confidential limits is (3.229,3.571) and 98% confidential limits is (3.197, 3.603).

Example 8.17

The mean weekly sales of soap bars in departmental stores were 146.3 bars per store. After an advertising campaign the mean weekly sales in 400 stores for a typical week increased to 153.7 and showed a standard deviation of 17.2. Was the advertising campaign successful at 95% confidence limit?

Solution:

Since population *SD* is unknown we can consider the sample *SD* $s = \sigma$

Null Hypothesis. The advertising campaign is not successful i.e, $H_0: \mu = 146.3$ (There is no significant difference between the mean weekly sales of soap bars in department stores before and after advertising campaign)

Alternative Hypothesis H_1 : $\mu > 143.3$ (Right tail test). The advertising campaign was successful

Level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$

Test statistic

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)
$$

$$
Z = \frac{153.7 - 146.3}{\frac{17.2}{\sqrt{400}}}
$$

$$
= \frac{7.4}{0.86} = 8.605
$$

∴ $Z = 8.605$

Comparing the calculated value $Z = 8.605$ and the significant value or table value $Z_{\alpha} = 1.645$. we get 8.605 > 1.645.

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Inference: Since, the calculated value is much greater than table value i.e., $Z > Z_{\alpha}$, it is highly significant at 5% level of significance. Hence we reject the null hypothesis H_0 and conclude that the advertising campaign was definitely successful in promoting sales.

Example 8.18

The wages of the factory workers are assumed to be normally distributed with mean and variance 25. A random sample of 50 workers gives the total wages equal to $\bar{\tau}$ 2,550. Test the hypothesis μ = 52, against the alternative hypothesis μ = 49 at 1% level of significance.

Solution:

⊕

Against the alternative hypothesis H₁: $\mu \neq 52$ (Two tail)

Level of significance
$$
\mu
$$
 = 0.01
\nTest statistic $Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)$
\n $Z = \frac{51 - 52}{\frac{5}{\sqrt{50}}} = \frac{-1}{0.7071} = -1.4142$

Since alternative hypothesis is of two tailed test we can take $|Z|$ = 1.4142

Critical value at 1% level of significance is $Z_{\alpha_{2}^{\prime}}$ $= 2.58$

Inference: Since the calculated value is less than table value i.e., $z < z_{\tiny{\alpha\!\!}_\ell}$ at 1% level of significance, the null hypothesis H_0 is accepted. Therefore, we conclude that there is no significant difference between the sample mean and population mean μ = 52 and SD σ = 5. Therefore μ = 49 is rejected.

Example 8.19

An ambulance service claims that it takes on the average 8.9 minutes to reach its destination in emergency calls. To check on this claim, the agency which licenses ambulance services has then timed on 50 emergency calls, getting a mean of 9.3 minutes with a standard deviation of 1.6 minutes. What can they conclude at 5% level of significance.

Solution:

Test statistic

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0,1)
$$

$$
Z = \frac{9.3 - 8.9}{\frac{1.6}{\sqrt{50}}} = \frac{0.4}{0.2263} = 1.7676
$$

Calculated value $Z = 1.7676$

Critical value at 5% level of significance is $Z_{\alpha\gamma\over 2}$ $= 1.96$

Inference: Since the calculated value is less than table value i.e., $Z < Z_{\alpha}$ at 5% level of significance, the null hypothesis is accepted. Therefore we conclude that an ambulance

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service claims on the average 8.9 minutes to reach its destination in emergency calls.

- 1. Mention two branches of statistical inference?
- 2. What is an estimator?
- 3. What is an estimate?
- 4. What is point estimation?
- 5. What is interval estimation?
- 6. What is confidence interval?
- 7. What is null hypothesis? Give an example.
- 8. Define alternative hypothesis.
- 9. Define critical region.
- 10. Define critical value.
- 11. Define level of significance.
- 12. What is type I error.

⊕

- 13. What is single tailed test.
- 14. A sample of 100 items, draw from a universe with mean value 4 and S.D 3, has a mean value 63.5. Is the difference in the mean significant at 0.05 level of significance?
- 15. A sample of 400 individuals is found to have a mean height of 67.47 inches. Can it be reasonably regarded as a sample from a large population with mean height of 67.39 inches and standard deviation 1.30 inches at 0.05 level of significance?
- 16. The average score on a nationally administered aptitude test was 76 and the corresponding standard deviation was 8. In order to evaluate a state's education system, the scores of 100 of the state's students were randomly selected. These students had an average score of 72. Test at a significance level of 0.05 if there is a significant difference between the state scores and the national scores.

17. The mean breaking strength of cables supplied by a manufacturer is 1,800 with a standard deviation 100. By a new technique in the manufacturing process it is claimed that the breaking strength of the cables has increased. In order to test this claim a sample of 50 cables is tested. It is found that the mean breaking strength is 1,850. Can you support the claim at 0.01 level of significance.

Choose the correct Answer

- 1. A …………. may be finite or infinite according as the number of observations or items in it is finite or infinite.
	- (a) Population (b) census
	- (c) parameter (d) none of these
- 2. A ……… of statistical individuals in a population is called a sample.
	- (a) Infinite set (b) finite subset
	- (c) finite set (d) entire set
- 3. A finite subset of statistical individuals in a population is called ………...
	- (a) a sample (b) a population
	- (c) universe (d) census
- 4. Any statistical measure computed from sample data is known as
	- (a) parameter (b) statistic
	- (c) infinite measure (d) uncountable measure
- 5. A…………..is one where each item in the universe has an equal chance of known opportunity of being selected.
	- (a) Parameter (b) random sample
	- (c) statistic (d) entire data
- 6. A random sample is a sample selected in such a way that every item in the population has an equal chance of being included
	- (a) Harper (b) Fisher
	- (c) Karl Pearson (d) Dr. Yates
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- 7. Which one of the following is probability sampling
	- (a) purposive sampling
	- (b) judgment sampling
	- (c) simple random sampling
	- (d) Convenience sampling
- 8. In simple random sampling from a population of *N* units, the probability of drawing any unit at the first draw is

(a)
$$
\frac{n}{N}
$$
 (b) $\frac{1}{N}$ (c) $\frac{N}{n}$ (d) 1

- 9. In …………….. the heterogeneous groups are divided into homogeneous groups.
	- (a) Non-probability sample
	- (b) a simple random sample
	- (c) a stratified random sample
	- (d) systematic random sample
- 10. Errors in sampling are of
	- (a) Two types (b) three types (c) four types (d) five types
- 11. The method of obtaining the most likely value of the population parameter using statistic is called …………………… (a) estimation (b) estimator
	- (c) biased estimate (d) standard error
- 12. An estimator is a sample statistic used to estimate a

- (c) sample size
- (d) census

- 13. …………..is a relative property, which states that one estimator is efficient relative to another.
	- (a) efficiency (b) sufficiency
	- (c) unbiased (d) consistency
- 14. If probability $P[|\theta \theta| < \varepsilon] \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$, for any positive ε then $\hat{\theta}$ is said to \ldots ... \ldots estimator of θ .
	- (a) efficient (b) sufficient
	- (c) unbiased (d) consistent

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- 15. An estimator is said to be …………. if it contains all the information in the data about the parameter it estimates.
	- (a) efficient (b) sufficient
	- (c) unbiased (d) consistent
- 16. An estimate of a population parameter given by two numbers between which the parameter would be expected to lie is called an……………..interval estimate of the parameter.
	- (a) point estimate
	- (b) interval estimation
	- (c) standard error
	- (d) confidence
- 17. A ___________ is a statement or an assertion about the population parameter.
	- (a) hypothesis (b) statistic
	- (c) sample (d) census
- 18. Type I error is
	- (a) Accept H_0 when it is true
	- (b) Accept H_0 when it is false
	- (c) Reject H_0 when it is true
	- (d) Reject H_0 when it is false
- 19. Type II error is
	- (a) Accept H_0 when it is wrong
	- (b) Accept H_0 when it is true
	- (c) Reject H_0 when it is true
	- (d) Reject H_0 when it is false
- 20. The standard error of sample mean is

(a)
$$
\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2n}}
$$
 (b) $\frac{\sigma}{n}$ (c) $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ (d) $\frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{n}}$

Miscellaneous Problems

- 1. Explain the types of sampling.
- 2. Write short note on sampling distribution and standard error.
- 3. Explain the procedures of testing of hypothesis
- 4. Explain in detail about the test of significance for single mean
- 5. Determine the standard error of proportion for a random sample of 500 pineapples was

taken from a large consignment and 65 were found to be bad.

6. A sample of 100 students are drawn from a school. The mean weight and variance of the sample are 67.45 kg and 9 kg. respectively. Find (a) 95% and (b) 99% confidence intervals for estimating the mean weight of the students.

7. The mean I.Q of a sample of 1600 children was 99. Is it likely that this was a random sample from a population with mean I.Q 100 and standard deviation 15 ? (Test at 5% level of significance).

Summary

- **Sampling:** It is the procedure or process of selecting a sample from a population.
- Population: The group of individuals considered under study is called as population.
- **Sample :**Aselection of a group of individuals from a population.
- Sample size :The number of individuals included in a sample.
- **Simple Random Sampling:** The samples are selected in such a way that each and every unit in the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected as a sample.
- Stratified Random Sampling: When the population is heterogeneous, the population is divided into homogeneous number of sub-groups or strata. A sample is drawn from each stratum at random.
- **Systematic Sampling:** Select the first sample at random, the rest being automatically selected according to some predetermined pattern.
- Sampling Distribution: Sampling distribution of a statistic is the frequency distribution which is formed with various values of a statistic computed from different samples of the same size drawn from the same population.
- Standard Error: The standard deviation of the sampling distribution of a statistic is known as its Standard Error.
- **Statistical Inference:** To draw inference about a population of any statistical investigation from the analysis of samples drawn from that population.
- **Estimation :**The method of obtaining the most likely value of the population parameter using statistic is called estimation.
- Point Estimation: When a single value is used as an estimate, it is called as point estimation.
- Interval Estimation: An interval within which the parameter would be expected to lie is called interval estimation.
- Test of Statistical Hypothesis: Statistical technique to arrive at a decision in certain situations where there is an element of uncertainty on the basis of sample
- **Null Hypothesis:** The hypothesis which is tested for possible rejection under the assumption that it is true", denoted by H_0 .
- **Alternative Hypothesis:**The hypothesis which is complementary to the null hypothesis is called as the alternative hypothesis, denoted by H_1 .
- **Type I error:**The error of rejecting H_0 when it is true.
- Type II error: The error of accepting H_0 when it is false.
- Test of significance for single mean:

$$
Z = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} \sim N(0,1)
$$

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 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_0^1\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^2\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2\pi}}\left(\frac$

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9 Applied Statistics

Walter Shewhart (March 18, 1891- March 11, 1967)

Introduction

The term Applied

Statistics refers to the use of

statistical theory to conduct operational

activities in a variety of fields in real life situations. Today, the Statistics refers to the use of statistical theory to conduct operational applications of statistics are an indispensable part of any and every activity. There are many fields in which statistical concepts can be applied, some of them are business decision making, finance, marketing, economics, social sciences, industry, agriculture etc… An important aspect of applied statistics is to study about the present and future behaviour of the activities performed in an industry.

Walter Andrew Shewhart (pronounced like "shoe-heart",) was an American physicist, engineer and statistician, sometimes known as the father of statistical quality control and also related to the Shewhart cycle.

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Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter the students are able to understand

- Time series data
- Components of Time Series
- Moving Averages
- Seasonal Variation
- Index Numbers
- Weighted Index Number
- Tests for an Ideal Index Number
- Statistical Quality Control
- **Causes for Variation**
- Process Control and Product Control

In this chapter we would be studying about the theoretical and application of the statistical methods of Time Series, Index Number and

Statistical Quality Control. Each one of them has its importance in its field of application. Statistical analysis has been widely used for

scientific research, surveys, experiments etc. The reliability of the interpretation of the statistical analysis depends upon the informations collected and represented.

9.1 Time Series Analysis

Time Series analysis is one of the statistical methods used to determine the patterns in data collected for a period of time. Generally, each of us should know about the past data to observe and understand the changes that have taken place in the past and current time. One can also identify the regular or irregular occurrence of any specific feature over a time period in a time series data. Most of the time series data relates to fields like Economics, Business, Commerce, etc… For example Production of a product, Cost of a product, Sales of a product, National income, Salary of an individual, etc.. By close observation of time series data, one can predict and plan for future operations in industries and other fields.

Definition 9.1

A Time Series consists of data arranged chronologically – *Croxton & Cowden.*

When quantitative data are arranged in the order of their occurrence, the resulting series is called the Time Series – *Wessel & Wallet.*

9.1.1 Meaning, Uses and Basic Components

Meaning:

A time series consists of a set of observations arranged in chronological order (either ascending or descending). Time Series has an important objective to identify the variations and try to eliminate the variations and also helps us to estimate or predict the future values.

Why should we learn Time Series?

It helps in the analysis of the past behavior.

It helps in forecasting and for future plans.

It helps in the evaluation of current achievements.

It helps in making comparative studies between one time period and others.

Therefore time series helps us to study and analyze the time related data which involves in business fields, economics, industries, etc…

Components of Time Series

There are four types of components in a time series. They are as follows;

- (i) Secular Trend
- (ii) Seasonal variations
- (iii) Cyclic variations
- (iv) Irregular variations

(i) Secular Trend

It is a general tendency of time series to increase or decrease or stagnates during a long period of time. An upward tendency is usually observed in population of a country, production, sales, prices in industries, income of individuals etc., A downward tendency is observed in deaths, epidemics, prices of electronic gadgets, water sources, mortality rate etc…. It is not necessarily that the increase or decrease should be in the same direction throughout the given period of time.

(ii) Seasonal Variations

As the name suggests, tendency movements are due to nature which repeat themselves periodically in every seasons. These variations repeat themselves in less than one year time. It is measured in an interval of time. Seasonal variations may be influenced by natural force, social customs and traditions. These variations are the results of such factors which uniformly and regularly rise and fall

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in the magnitude. For example, selling of umbrellas' and raincoat in the rainy season, sales of cool drinks in summer season, crackers in Deepawali season, purchase of dresses in a festival season, sugarcane in Pongal season.

(iii) Cyclic Variations

These variations are not necessarily uniformly periodic in nature. That is, they may or may not follow exactly similar patterns after equal intervals of time. Generally one cyclic period ranges from 7 to 9 years and there is no hard and fast rule in the fixation of years for a cyclic period. For example, every business cycle has a Start- Boom- Depression- Recover, maintenance during booms and depressions, changes in government monetary policies, changes in interest rates.

(iv) Irregular Variations

⇔

These variations do not have particular pattern and there is no regular period of time of their occurrences. These are accidently changes which are purely random or unpredictable. Normally they are short-term variations, but its occurrence sometimes has its effect so intense that they may give rise to new cyclic or other movements of variations. For example floods, wars, earthquakes, Tsunami, strikes, lockouts etc…

Mathematical Model for a Time Series

There are two common models used for decomposition of a time series into its components, namely additive and multiplicative model.

(i) Additive Model:

This model assumes that the observed value is the sum of all the four components of time series. (i.e) $Y = T + S + C + I$

where $Y = Original value$, $T = Trend Value$, $S =$ Seasonal component, $C =$ Cyclic component, $I = Irregular component$

The additive model assumes that all the four components operate independently. It also assumes that the behavior of components is of an additive character.

(ii) Multiplicative Model:

This model assumes that the observed value is obtained by multiplying the trend (T) by the rates of other three components. $Y = T \times S \times C \times I$

where $Y = Original value$, $T = Trend Value$, $S =$ Seasonal component, $C =$ Cyclic component, $I = Irregular component$

This model assumes that the components due to different causes are not necessarily independent and they can affect one another. It also assumes that the behavior of components is of a multiplicative character.

9.1.2 Measurements of Trends

Following are the methods by which we can measure the trend.

- (i) Freehand or Graphic Method.
- (ii) Method of Semi-Averages.
- (iii) Method of Moving Averages.
- (iv) Method of Least Squares.

(i) Freehand or Graphic Method.

It is the simplest and most flexible method for estimating a trend. We will see the working procedure of this method.

Procedure:

- (a) Plot the time series data on a graph.
- (b) Draw a freehand smooth curve joining the plotted points.
- (c) Examine the direction of the trend based on the plotted points.
- (d) Draw a straight line which will pass through the maximum number of plotted points.

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Example 9.1

Fit a trend line by the method of freehand method for the given data.

The trend drawn by the freehand method can be extended to predict the future values of the given data. However, this method is subjective in nature, predictions obtained by this method depends on the personal bias and judgement of the investigator handling the data.

(ii) Method of Semi-Averages

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In this method, the semi-averages are calculated to find out the trend values. Now, we will see the working procedure of this method. Procedure:

- (i) The data is divided into two equal parts. In case of odd number of data, two equal parts can be made simply by omitting the middle year.
- (ii) The average of each part is calculated, thus we get two points.
- (iii) Each point is plotted at the mid-point (year) of each half.
- (iv) Join the two points by a straight line.
- (v) The straight line can be extended on either side.

(vi)This line is the trend line by the methods of semi-averages.

Example 9.2

Fit a trend line by the method of semiaverages for the given data.

Solution:

Since the number of years is odd(seven), we will leave the middle year's production value and obtain the averages of first three years and last three years.

Example 9.3

Fit a trend line by the method of semiaverages for the given data.

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Solution:

Since the number of years is even(eight), we can equally divide the given data it two equal parts and obtain the averages of first four years and last four years.

- (i) The future values can be predicted.
- (ii) The trend values obtained by this method and the predicted values are not precise.

9.1.3 Method of Moving Averages

Moving Averages Method gives a trend with a fair degree of accuracy. In this method, we take arithmetic mean of the values for a certain time span. The time span can be three- years, four -years, five- years and so on depending on the data set and our interest. We will see the working procedure of this method.

Procedure:

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(i) Decide the period of moving averages (three- years, four -years).

(ii) In case of odd years, averages can be obtained by calculating,

$$
\frac{a+b+c}{3}, \frac{b+c+d}{3}, \frac{c+d+e}{3}, \frac{d+e+f}{3}, \dots
$$

- (iii) If the moving average is an odd number, there is no problem of centering it, the average value will be centered besides the second year for every three years.
- (iv) In case of even years, averages can be obtained by calculating,

$$
\frac{a+b+c+d}{4}, \frac{b+c+d+e}{4}, \frac{b+c+d+e}{4}, \frac{d+e+f+g}{4}, \dots
$$

(v) If the moving average is an even number, the average of first four values will be placed between 2^{nd} and 3^{rd} year, similarly the average of the second four values will be placed between 3^{rd} and 4^{th} year. These two averages will be again averaged and placed in the 3rd year. This continues for rest of the values in the problem. This process is called as centering of the averages.

Example 9.4

Calculate three-yearly moving averages of number of students studying in a higher secondary school in a particular village from the following data.

Solution:

Computation of three- yearly moving averages.

Table 9.3

Example 9.5

⊕

Calculate four-yearly moving averages of number of students studying in a higher secondary school in a particular city from the following data.

Solution:

Computation of four- yearly moving averages.

The calculated 4-yearly centered moving average belongs to the particular year present in that row. In example 9.5, the value 132.37 belongs to the year 2003. **Note**

9.1.4 Method of Least Squares

The line of best fit is a line from which the sum of the deviations of various points is zero. This is the best method for obtaining the trend values. It gives a convenient basis for calculating the line of best fit for the time series. It is a mathematical method for measuring trend. Further the sum of the squares of these deviations would be least when compared with other fitting methods. So, this method is known as the Method of Least Squares and satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) The sum of the deviations of the actual values of *Y* and \hat{Y} (estimated value of *Y*) is Zero. that is $\Sigma(Y-\hat{Y})=0$.
- (ii) The sum of squares of the deviations of the actual values of *Y* and \hat{Y} (estimated value of *Y*) is least. that is $\Sigma (Y - \hat{Y})^2$ is least.

Procedure:

(i) The straight line trend is represented by the equation $Y = a + bX$ …(1)

where *Y* is the actual value, *X* is time, *a, b* are constants

(ii) The constants '*a*' and '*b*' are estimated by solving the following two normal Equations

$$
\Sigma Y = n a + b \Sigma X \qquad ...(2)
$$

$$
\Sigma XY = a \Sigma X + b \Sigma X^2 \qquad ...(3)
$$

Where n' = number of years given in the data.

- (iii) By taking the mid-point of the time as the origin, we get $\sum X = 0$
- (iv) When $\Sigma X = 0$, the two normal equations reduces to

$$
\Sigma Y = n a + b (0); a = \frac{\sum Y}{n} = \overline{Y}
$$

$$
\Sigma XY = a(0) + b \Sigma X^2; b = \frac{\sum XY}{\sum X^2}
$$

The constant '*a*' gives the mean of *Y* and '*b*' gives the rate of change (slope).

(v) By substituting the values of '*a*' and '*b*' in the trend equation (1) , we get the Line of Best Fit.

Example 9.6

⊕

Given below are the data relating to the production of sugarcane in a district.

Fit a straight line trend by the method of least squares and tabulate the trend values.

Solution:

Computation of trend values by the method of least squares (ODD Years).

Table 9.5

$$
a = \frac{\sum Y}{n} = \frac{316}{7} = 45.143
$$

$$
b = \frac{\sum XY}{\sum X^2} = \frac{29}{28} = 1.036
$$

Therefore, the required equation of the straight line trend is given by

 $Y = a + bX$ $Y = 45.143 + 1.036 (x - 2003)$ The trend values can be obtained by

When $X = 2000$, $Yt = 45.143 + 1.036 (2000 - 2003) = 42.035$ When $X = 2001$, $Yt = 45.143 + 1.036 (2001 - 2003) = 43.071$, similarly other values can be obtained.

Example 9.7

Given below are the data relating to the sales of a product in a district.

Fit a straight line trend by the method of least squares and tabulate the trend values.

Solution:

Computation of trend values by the method of least squares.

In case of EVEN number of years, let us consider

Table 9.6

$$
a = \frac{\sum Y}{n} = \frac{47.8}{8} = 5.975
$$

$$
b = \frac{\sum XY}{\sum X^2} = \frac{8.6}{168} = 0.05119
$$

Therefore, the required equation of the straight line trend is given by

$$
Y = a + bX \quad ; \quad Y = 5.975 + 0.05119 \; X.
$$

When $X = 1995$,

⊕

When
$$
X = 1995
$$
,
\n $X=1995, Y_t = 5.975 + 0.05119 \left(\frac{1995 - 1998.5}{0.5} \right) = 5.6167$

When
$$
X = 1996
$$
,

When
$$
X = 1996
$$
,
\n $X=1996, Y_t = 5.975 + 0.05119 \left(\frac{1996 - 1998.5}{0.5} \right) = 5.7190$ (vii) It

similarly other values can be obtained.

Note

(i) Future forecasts made by this method are based only on trend values.

(ii) The predicted values are more reliable in this method than the other methods.

9.1.5 Methods of measuring Seasonal Variations By Simple Averages :

Seasonal Variations can be measured by the method of simple average. The data should be available in season wise likely weeks, months, quarters.

Method of Simple Averages:

This is the simplest and easiest method for studying Seasonal Variations. The procedure of simple average method is outlined below.

Procedure:

- (i) Arrange the data by months, quarters or years according to the data given.
- (ii) Find the sum of the each months, quarters or year.
- (iii)Find the average of each months, quarters or year.
- (iv)Find the average of averages, and it is called Grand Average (G)
- (v) Compute Seasonal Index for every season (i.e) months, quarters or year is given by

$$
Seasonal Index(S.I) = \frac{Seasonal Average}{Grand average} \times 100
$$

(vi) If the data is given in months
S.I for Jan =
$$
\frac{Monthly Average (for Jan)}{Grand average} \times 100
$$

S.I for Feb =
$$
\frac{Monthly Average (for Feb)}{Grand average} \times 100
$$

 \mathbf{m} Similarly we can calculate SI for all other months.

. .7190 (vii) If the data is given in quarter

S.I for I Quarter=
$$
\frac{Average \, of \, I \, quarter}{Grand \, average} \times 100
$$

$$
\text{S.1}\text{for} \text{II} \text{Quarter} = \frac{\text{Average of II quarter}}{\text{Grand average}} \times 100
$$

S.I for III Quarter =
$$
\frac{Average \text{ of III quarter}}{Grand average} \times 100
$$

S.I for IV Quarter =
$$
\frac{Average \text{ of IV quarter}}{Grand average} \times 100
$$

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Example 9.8

Calculate the seasonal index for the monthly sales of a product using the method of simple averages.

Solution: Computation of seasonal Indices by method of simple averages.

Months	Year			Monthly	Monthly	
	2001	2002	2003	Total	Averages	
Jan	15	20	18	53	17.67	
Feb	41	21	16	78	26	
Mar	25	27	20	72	24	
Apr	31	19	28	78	26	
May	29	17	24	70	23.33	
June	47	25	25	97	32.33	
July	41	29	30	100	33.33	
Aug	19	31	34	84	28	
Sep	35	35	30	100	33.33	
Qct	38	39	38	115	38.33	
Nov	40	30	37	107	35.67	
Dec	30	44	39	113	37.67	

Table 9.7

Similarly other seasonal index values can be obtained.

Example 9.9

Calculate the seasonal index for the quarterly production of a product using the method of simple averages.

Solution :

Computation of Seasonal Index by the method of simple averages.

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Table 9.8

Exercise 9.1

1. Define Time series.

♠

- 2. What is the need for studying time series?
- 3. State the uses of time series.
- 4. Mention the components of the time series.
- 5. Define secular trend.
- 6. Write a brief note on seasonal variations
- 7. Explain cyclic variations
- 8. Discuss about irregular variation
- 9. Define seasonal index.
- 10. Explain the method of fitting a straight line.
- 11. State the two normal equations used in fitting a straight line.
- 12. State the different methods of measuring trend.
- 13. Compute the average seasonal movement for the following series

14. The following figures relates to the profits of a commercial concern for 8 years

Find the trend of profits by the method of three yearly moving averages.

15. Find the trend of production by the method of a five-yearly period of moving average for the following data:

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16. The following table gives the number of small-scale units registered with the Directorate of Industries between 1985 and 1991. Show the growth on a trend line by the free hand method.

17. The annual production of a commodity is given as follows :

Fit a straight line trend by the method of least squares.

18. Determine the equation of a straight line which best fits the following data

Year		2000 2001 2002 2003 2004	
Sales $(\overline{$}^{\prime}000)$ 35 36 79 80 40			

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Compute the trend values for all years from 2000 to 2004

19. The sales of a commodity in tones varied from January 2010 to December 2010 as follows:

Fit a trend line by the method of semiaverage.

20. Use the method of monthly averages to find the monthly indices for the following data of production of a commodity for the years 2002, 2003 and 2004.

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21. Calculate the seasonal indices from the following data using the average from the following data using the average method:

22. The following table shows the number of salesmen working for a certain concern:

Use the method of least squares to fit a straight line and estimate the number of salesmen in 1997.

9.2 Index Number

Introduction:

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Index Numbers are the indicators which reflect the changes over a specified period of time in price of different commodities, production, sales, cost of living etc... Index Numbers are statistical methods used to measure the relative change in the level of a variable or group of variables with respect to time, geographical location or other characteristics such as income, profession etc. The variables may be

- (i) The price of a particular commodity. For example gold, silver, iron (or) a group of commodities. For example consumer goods, household food items etc..
- (ii) The volume of export and import, agricultural and industrial production.
- (iii) National income of a country, cost of living of persons belonging to a particular income group.

9.2.1 Meaning, Classifications and Uses

Suppose we want to measure the general changes in the price level of consumer goods, the price changes are not directly measurable, as the prices of various commodities are in different units For example rice, wheat and sugar are in kilograms, milk, petrol, oil are in litres, clothes are in metres etc… Further, the price and quantity of some commodities may increase or decrease during the two time periods. Therefore, index number gives a single representative value which gives the general level of the prices of the commodities in a given group over a specified time period.

Definition 9.2

"An Index Number is a device which shows by its variations the Changes in a magnitude which is not capable of accurate measurements in itself or of direct valuation in practice". *a* \blacksquare *- Wheldon*

"An Index number is a statistical measure of fluctuations in a variable arranged in the form of a series and using a base period for making comparisons"*– Lawrence J Kalpan*

Classification of Index Numbers:

Index number can be classified as follows,

(i) Price Index Number

It measures the general changes in the retail or wholesale price level of a particular or group of commodities.

(ii) Quantity Index Number

These are indices to measure the changes in the quantity of goods manufactured in a factory.

(iii) Cost of living Index Number

These are intended to study the effect of change in the price level on the cost of living of different classes of people.

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Uses of Index number

- i. It is an important tool for the formulating decision and management policies.
- ii. It helps in studying the trends and tendencies.
- iii. It determines the inflation and deflation in an economy.

Construction of Index Number

There are two types in construction of index number.

(i) Unweighted Index Number

(ii) Weighted Index Number

We confine ourselves to Weighted Index Number.

9.2.2 Weighted Index Number

In general, all the commodities cannot be given equal importance, so we can assign weights to each commodity according to their importance and the index number computed from these weights are called as weighted index number. The weights can be production, consumption values. If 'w' is the weight attached to a commodity, then the price index is given by,

$$
Price Index (P_{01}) = \frac{\sum p_1 w}{\sum p_0 w} \times 100,
$$

Let us consider the following notations,

*p*1 - current year price

*p*0 - base year price

*q*1 - current year quantity

*q*0 - base year quantity

where suffix '0' represents base year and '1' represents current year.

Laspeyre's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{L} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100
$$

Paasche's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{P} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_1} \times 100
$$

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Fisher's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \sqrt{P_{01}^{L} \times P_{01}^{P}}
$$

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum P_{1}q_{0} \times \sum P_{1}q_{1}}{\sum P_{0}q_{0} \times \sum P_{0}q_{1}}} \times 100
$$

Note

To get exact Fisher's price index number, one should use formula method rather than using

$$
P_{01}^F = \sqrt{P_{01}^L \times P_{01}^P}.
$$

In Laspeyre's price index number, the quantity of the base year is used as weight.

In Paasche's price index number, the quantity of the current year is used as weight.

Fisher's price index number is the geometric mean between Laspeyre's and Paasche's price index number

Example 9.10

Calculate the Laspeyre's, Paasche's and Fisher's price index number for the following data. Interpret on the data.

Solution

	Price		Quantity					
Commodities	(ρ_{0})	2000 2010 2000 2010 (p_1)	(q_{0})	(q_1)	$P_0 q_0$	$P_0 q_1$	$ \bar{P}_1 q_0 $	$ p_1 q_1 $
Rice	38	35	6	$\overline{7}$	228	266	210	245
Wheat	12	18	7	10	84	120	126	180
Rent	10	15	10	15	100	150	150	225
Fuel	25	30	12	16	300	400	360	480
Miscellaneous	30	33	8	10	240	300	264	330
				Total	952		1236 1110	1460

Table 9.9

Laspeyre's price index number

$$
P_{01}^L = \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100 = \frac{1110}{952} \times 100 = 116.60
$$

On an average, there is an increase of 16.60 % in the price of the commodities when the year 2000 compared with the year 2010.

Paasche's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{P} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_1} \times 100 = \frac{1460}{1236} \times 100 = 118.12
$$

On an average, there is an increase of 18.12 % in the price of the commodities when the year 2000 compared with the year 2010.

Fisher's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}} \times 100
$$

= $\sqrt{\frac{1110 \times 1460}{952 \times 1236}} \times 100 = 117.36$

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0}}\right)
$$

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0}}\right)
$$

On an average, there is an increase of $17.36%$ in the price of the commodities when the year 2000 compared with the year 2010. \mathbf{r} Ĩ.

Example 9.11

⊕

Construct the Laspeyre's , Paasche's and Fisher's price index number for the following data. Comment on the result.

Solution:

Miscellaneous	16	6	15	10 Total 376 565 487 709	96	160	90	150
Transport	11	4	11	7	44	77	44	77
Fuel	9	5	12	6	45	54	60	72
Rent	8	7	15	8	56		64 105 120	
Wheat	10	6	18	9	60		90 108 162	

Table 9.10

Laspeyre's price index number

$$
P_{01}^L = \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100 = \frac{487}{376} \times 100 = 129.5212
$$

Paasche's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{P} = \frac{\sum P_1 q_1}{\sum P_0 q_1} \times 100 = \frac{709}{565} \times 100 = 125.4867
$$

Fisher's price index number

$$
\frac{\sum p_0 q_1}{60} \times 100 = 117.36
$$
\n
$$
P_{01}^F = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}} \right) \times 100
$$
\nhere is an increase of the commodities when\n
$$
\left(\sqrt{\frac{487 \times 709}{376 \times 565}} \right) \times 100 = 127.4879
$$

On an average, there is an increase of 29.52 % , 25.48% and 27.48% in the price of the commodities by Laspeyre's, Paasche's, Fisher's price index number respectively, when the base year compared with the current year.

9.2.3 Test of adequacy for an Index Number

Index numbers are studied to know the relative changes in price and quantity for any two years compared. There are two tests which are used to test the adequacy for an index number. The two tests are as follows,

- (i) Time Reversal Test
- (ii) Factor Reversal Test

The criterion for a good index number is to satisfy the above two tests.

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Time Reversal Test

It is an important test for testing the consistency of a good index number. This test maintains time consistency by working both forward and backward with respect to time (here time refers to base year and current year). Symbolically the following relationship should be satisfied, $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$

Fisher's index number formula satisfies the above relationship

$$
P_{01}^F = \sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}}
$$

when the base year and current year are interchanged, we get

$$
P_{10}^{F} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum p_{0}q_{1} \times \sum p_{0}q_{0}}{\sum p_{1}q_{1} \times \sum p_{1}q_{0}}}
$$

$$
P_{01}^{F} \times P_{10}^{F} = 1
$$

Note

⊕

Ignore the factor 100 in each Index number

Factor Reversal Test

This is another test for testing the consistency of a good index number. The product of price index number and quantity index number from the base year to the current year should be equal to the true value ratio. That is, the ratio between the total value of current period and total

value of the base period is known as true value ratio. Factor Reversal Test is given by,

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0}
$$

where $P_{01} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}}$

Now interchanging *P* by *Q*, we get

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$$
Q_{01} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum q_1 p_0 \times \sum q_1 p_1}{\sum q_0 p_0 \times \sum q_0 p_1}}
$$

where P_{01} is the relative change in price. *Q*₀₁ is the relative change in quantity.

Example 9.12

Calculate Fisher's price index number and show that it satisfies both Time Reversal Test and Factor Reversal Test for data given below.

Since Fisher's Price Index Number satisfies both TRT & FRT, it is termed as an Ideal Index Number

Solution:

Table 9.11

Fisher's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}}\right) \times 100
$$

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$$
= \left(\sqrt{\frac{537 \times 742}{442 \times 613}} \right) \times 100 = 121.2684
$$

Time Reversal Test: $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_0}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{537 \times 742 \times 613 \times 442}{442 \times 613 \times 742 \times 537}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1
$$

Factor Reversal Test:
$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_i q_1 \times \sum q_1 p_0 \times \sum q_1 p_1}{442 \times 613 \times 742}\right)} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{537 \times 742 \times 613 \times 742}{442 \times 613 \times 442 \times 537}\right)} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{623 \times 517}{584 \times 484}\right)}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{742 \times 742}{442 \times 442}\right)} = \frac{742}{442}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{742 \times 742}{442 \times 442}\right)} = \frac{742}{442}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum q_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum q_1 q_1 \times \
$$

Example 9.13

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Calculate Fisher's price index number and show that it satisfies both Time Reversal Test and Factor Reversal Test for data given below.

Solution:

Table 9.12

Fisher's price index number

$$
\frac{P_{q_1p_0} \times \sum q_1p_1}{\sum q_0p_0 \times \sum q_0p_1} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1q_0 \times \sum p_1q_1}{\sum p_0q_0 \times \sum p_0q_1}}\right) \times 100
$$

\n
$$
\frac{13 \times 742}{442 \times 537} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{623 \times 517}{584 \times 484}}\right) \times 100 = 106.74
$$

Time Reversal Test: $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_0}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{623 \times 517 \times 484 \times 584}{584 \times 484 \times 517 \times 623}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1
$$

Factor Reversal Test : $P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum P_1 q}{\sum P_2}$ $p_{01} \sim Q_{01} - \sum p_{0}q$ 1 1 $_{0}$ $_{0}$ $\times Q_{01} = \sum_{\nabla \Gamma}$ ∑

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum q_1 p_0 \times \sum q_1 p_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum q_0 p_0 \times \sum q_0 p_1}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{623 \times 517 \times 484 \times 517}{584 \times 484 \times 584 \times 623}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{517 \times 517}{585 \times 584}\right)} = \frac{517}{584}
$$

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$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0}
$$

Example 9.14

Construct Fisher's price index number and prove that it satisfies both Time Reversal Test and Factor Reversal Test for data following data.

Solution:

⊕

Fisher's price index number

$$
P_{01}^{F} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1}}\right) \times 100
$$

Time Reversal Test: $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$

$$
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$$

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$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_0 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum p_1 q_0}\right)}
$$

$$
P_{01} \times P_{10} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1341 \times 1784 \times 1600 \times 1220}{1220 \times 1600 \times 1784 \times 1341}\right)}
$$

 $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$

Factor Reversal Test

$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 \times \sum p_1 q_1 \times \sum q_1 p_0 \times \sum q_1 p_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 \times \sum p_0 q_1 \times \sum q_0 p_0 \times \sum q_0 p_1}\right)}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1341 \times 1784 \times 1600 \times 1784}{1220 \times 1600 \times 1220 \times 1341}\right)}
$$

\n
$$
P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1784 \times 1784}{1220 \times 1220}\right)} = \frac{1784}{1220}
$$

\n
$$
\Rightarrow P_{01} \times Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_1}
$$

$$
\rightarrow r_{01} \times Q_{01} - \sum p_0 q_0
$$

9.2.4 Construction of Cost of Living Index Number

maintain the same standard of life. Further, \overline{a} mandam the same standard of the rather, Cost of Living Index Number is constructed to study the effect of changes in the price of goods and services of consumers for a current period as compared with base period. The change in the cost of living index number between any two periods means the change in income which will be necessary to maintain the same standard of living in both the periods. Therefore the cost of living index number measures the average increase in the cost to from class to class (rich, poor, middle class) and even with the region. The changes in the price level affect the different classes of people, consequently the general price index numbers fail to reflect the effect of changes in their cost of living of different classes of people. Therefore,

cost of living index number measures the general price movement of the commodities consumed by different classes of people.

Uses of Cost of Living Index Number

- (i) It indicates whether the real wages of workers are rising or falling for a given time.
- (ii) It is used by the administrators for regulating dearness allowance or grant of bonus to the workers.

Methods of constructing Cost of Living Index Number

The cost of living index number can be constructed by the following methods,

- (i) Aggregate Expenditure Method (or) Weighted Aggregative Method.
- (ii) Family Budget Method.

Aggregate Expenditure Method

This is the most common method used to calculate cost of living index number. In this method, weights are assigned to various commodities consumed by a group in the base year. In this method the quantity of the base year is used as weight.

The formula is given by,

Cost of Living Index Number =
$$
\frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100
$$

Note

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The formula for Aggregate Expenditure Method to calculate Cost of Living Index Number is same as formula of Laspeyre's Method.

Family Budget Method

In this method, the weights are calculated by multiplying prices and quantity of the base year. (i.e.) $V = \sum p_0 q_0$. The formula is given by,

Cost of Living Index Number =
$$
\frac{\sum PV}{\sum V}
$$

where $P = \frac{p}{q}$ *p* $=\frac{P_1}{r} \times 100$ is the price relative. $\boldsymbol{0}$ $V = \sum p_0 q_0$ is the value relative.

Note

This method is same as the weighted average of price relative method.

When to Use ?

When the Price and Quantity are given, Aggregate Expenditure Method is used.

When the Price and Weight are given, Family Budget Method is used.

Example 9.15

Calculate the cost of living index number for the following data.

Solution:

Table 9.14

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Cost of Living Index Number

$$
= \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100 = \frac{1000}{758} \times 100 = 131.926
$$

Example 9.16

Calculate the cost of living index number for the year 2015 with respect to base year 2010 of the following data.

Solution:

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Here the base year quantities are given, therefore we can apply Aggregate Expenditure Method.

Commo- dities	Number of Units $(2010)\,\overline{q}_0$	Price (2010) P_{0}	Price (2015) P_{1}	p_0q_0	P_1q_0
Rice	5	1500	1750	7500	8750
Sugar	3.5	1100	1200	3850	4200
Pulses	3	800	950	2400	2850
Cloth	$\overline{2}$	1200	1550	2400	3100
Ghee	0.75	550	700	412.5	525
Rent	12	2500	3000	30000	36000
Fuel	8	750	600	6000	4800
Misc	10	3200	3500	32000	35000
			Total	84562.5	95225

Table 9.15

Cost of Living Index Number

$$
= \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100 = \frac{95225}{84562.5} \times 100 = 112.609
$$

$$
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$$

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 Hence, the Cost of Living Index Number for a particular class of people for the year 2015 is increased by 12.61 % as compared to the year 2010.

Example 9.17

Calculate the cost of living index number by consumer price index number for the year 2016 with respect to base year 2011 of the following data.

Solution:

Here the base year quantities are given, therefore we can apply Aggregate Expenditure Method.

Table 9.16

Cost of Living Index Number

$$
= \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} \times 100 = \frac{3140}{1974} \times 100 = 159.0679
$$

Hence, the Cost of Living Index Number for a particular class of people for the year 2016 is increased by 59.0679 % as compared to the year 2011.

Example 9.18

Construct the cost of living index number for 2011 on the basis of 2007 from the given data using family budget method.

Solution:

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Table 9.17

Cost of Living Index Number

$$
=\frac{\sum PV}{\sum V} = \frac{17429.76}{135} = 129.1093
$$

Hence, the Cost of Living Index Number for a particular class of people for the year 2011 is increased by 29.1093% as compared to the year 2007.

- 1. Define Index Number.
- 2. State the uses of Index Number.
- 3. Mention the classification of Index Number.
- 4. Define Laspeyre's price index number.
- 5. Explain Paasche's price index number.
- 6. Write note on Fisher's price index number.
- 7. State the test of adequacy of index number.
- 8. Define Time Reversal Test.
- 9. Explain Factor Reversal Test.
- 10. Define true value ratio.
- 11. Discuss about Cost of Living Index Number.
- 12. Define Family Budget Method.
- 13. State the uses of Cost of Living Index Number.
- 14. Calculate by a suitable method, the index number of price from the following data:

15. Calculate price index number for 2005 by (a) Laspeyre's (b) Paasche's method

16. Compute (i) Laspeyre's (ii) Paasche's (iii) Fisher's Index numbers for the 2010 from the following data.

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17. Using the following data, construct Fisher's Ideal index and show how it satisfies Factor Reversal Test and Time Reversal Test?

18. Using Fisher's Ideal Formula, compute price index number for 1999 with 1996 as base year, given the following:

19. Calculate Fisher's index number to the following data. Also show that it satisfies Time Reversal Test.

20. The following are the group index numbers and the group weights of an average working class family's budget. Construct the cost of living index number:

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21. Construct the cost of living Index number for 2015 on the basis of 2012 from the following data using family budget method.

22. Calculate the cost of living index by aggregate expenditure method:

9.3 Statistical Quality Control (SQC)

Introduction

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It is one of the most important applications of statistical techniques in industry. The term Quality means a level or standard of a product which depends on Material, Manpower, Machines, and Management (4M's). Quality Control ensures the quality specifications all along them from the arrival of raw materials through each of their processing to the final delivery of goods. This technique is used in almost all production industries such as automobile, textile, electrical equipment, biscuits, bath soaps, chemicals, petroleum products etc.

9.3.1 Meaning

Quality Control is a powerful technique used to diagnose the lack of quality in any of the raw materials, processes, machines etc… It is essential that the end products should possess the qualities that the consumer expects from the manufacturer.

9.3.2 Causes of Variation

There are two causes of variation which affects the quality of a product, namely

- 1. Chance Causes (or) Random causes
- 2. Assignable Causes

Chance Causes

These are small variations which are natural and inherent in the manufacturing process. The variation occurring due to these causes is beyond the human control and cannot be prevented or eliminated under any circumstances. The minor causes which do not affect the quality of the products to an extent are called as Chance Causes (or) Random causes. For example Rain, floods, power cuts, etc…

Assignable Causes

The second type of variation which is present in any production process is due to nonrandom causes. The assignable causes may occur in at any stage of the process, right from the arrival of the raw materials to the final delivery of the product. Some of the important factors of assignable causes are defective raw materials, fault in machines, unskilled manpower, worn out tools, new operation, etc.

The main purpose of SQC is to device statistical techniques which would help in elimination of assignable causes and bring the production process under control.

9.3.3 Process Control and Product Control

The main objective in any production process is to control and maintain a satisfactory

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quality level of the manufactured product. This is done by 'Process Control'. In Process Control the proportion of defective items in the production process is to be minimized and it is achieved through the technique of control charts. Product Control means that controlling the quality of the product by critical examination through sampling inspection plans. Product Control aims at a certain quality level to be guaranteed to the customers. It attempts to ensure that the product sold does not contain a large number of defective items. Thus it is concerned with classification of raw materials, semi-finished goods or finished goods into acceptable or rejectable products.

Control Charts

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In an industry, there are two kinds of problems to be faced, namely

- (i) To check whether the process is conforming to its standard level.
- (ii) To improve the standard level and reduce the variability.

Shewhart's control charts provide an answer to both. It is a simple technique used for detecting patterns of variations in the data. Control charts are simple to construct and easy to interpret. A typical control charts consists of the following three lines.

- (i) Centre Line (CL) indicates the desired standard level of the process.
- (ii) Upper Control Limit (UCL) indicates the upper limit of tolerance.
- (iii) Lower Control Limit (LCL) indicates the lower limit of tolerance.

If the data points fall within the control limits, then we can say that the process is in control, instead if one or more data points fall outside the control limits, then we can say that the process is out of control.

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For example, the following diagram shows all the three control lines with the data points plotted, since all the points falls within the control limits, we can say that the process is in control.

Control Charts for Variables

These charts may be applied to any quality characteristic that can be measured quantitatively. A quality characteristic which can be expressed in terms of a numerical value is called as a variable. Many quality characteristics such as dimensions like length, width, temperature, tensile strength etc… of a product are measurable and are expressed in a specific unit of measurements. The variables are of continuous type and are regarded to follow normal probability law. For quality control of such data, there are two types of control charts used. They are as follows :

- (i) Charts for Mean (*X*)
- (ii) Charts for Range (R)

9.3.4 Construction of \overline{X} **and R charts**

Any production process is not perfect enough to produce all the products exactly the same. Some amount of variation is inherent in any production process. This variation is a total of number of characteristics of the production process such as raw materials, machine setting, operators, handling new operations and new machines, etc. The \overline{X} chart is used to show the quality averages of the samples taken from the given process. The *R* chart is used to show the ♠

variability or dispersion of the samples taken from the given process. The control limits of the X and *R* charts shows the presence or absence of assignable causes in the production process. Both X and *R* charts are usually required for decision making to accept or reject the process.

The procedure for constructing \overline{X} and *R* charts are outlined below.

Procedure for \overline{X}

- (i) Let X_1, X_2, X_3 , etc. be the samples selected, each containing '*n*' observations (usually *n* $= 4, 5$ or 6)
- (ii) Calculate mean for each samples $\overline{X_1}$, $\overline{X_2}$, $\overline{X_3}$ by using *X X* $\overline{I}_i = \frac{\sum X_i}{n}$, $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$

where $\sum_i X_i$ = total of '*n*' values included in the sample X_i .

(iii) Find the mean
$$
\left(\frac{\overline{x}}{X}\right)
$$
 of the sample means.

$$
\overline{X} = \frac{\sum X}{number\ of\ sample\ means}
$$

where $\sum \overline{X}$ = total of all the sample means.

Procedure for *R* **-Charts.**

Calculate $R = x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}}$

Let R_1 , R_2 , R_3 ... be the ranges of the '*n*' samples. The average range is given by

$$
\overline{R} = \frac{\sum R}{n}
$$

The calculation of control limits for *X* chart in two different cases is

Table 9.18

 The calculation of control limits for *R* chart in two different cases are

Table 9.19

The values of A_2 , D_3 and D_4 are given in the table.

Example 9.19

A machine drills hole in a pipe with a mean diameter of 0.532 cm and a standard deviation of 0.002 cm. Calculate the control limits for mean of samples 5.

Solution:

Given $X=0.532$, $\sigma = 0.002$, $n=5$

The control limits for \overline{X} chart is

$$
UCL = \overline{\overline{X}} + 3\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 0.532 + 3\frac{0.002}{\sqrt{5}} = 0.5346
$$

$$
CL = \overline{\overline{X}} = 0.532
$$

$$
UCL = \overline{\overline{X}} - 3\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 0.532 - 3\frac{0.002}{\sqrt{5}} = 0.5293
$$

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Example 9.20

The following data gives the readings for 8 samples of size 6 each in the production of a certain product. Find the control limits using mean chart.

Given for $n = 6$, $A_2 = 0.483$,

Solution:

Table 9.20

$$
\overline{X} = \frac{\sum \overline{X}}{number \ of \ samples} = \frac{1971}{6} = 328.5 \qquad \overline{R} = \frac{\sum R}{n} = \frac{162}{6} = 27
$$

The control limits for \overline{X} chart is

$$
UCL = \overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R} = 328.5 + 0.483(27) = 341.54
$$

\n
$$
CL = \overline{X} = 328.5
$$

\n
$$
LCL = \overline{X} - A_2 \overline{R} = 328.5 - 0.483(27) = 315.45
$$

Example 9.21

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The data shows the sample mean and range for 10 samples for size 5 each. Find the control limits for mean chart and range chart.

$$
\frac{1}{X} = \frac{\sum X}{number \ of \ samples} = \frac{182}{10} = 18.2 \qquad \qquad \frac{1}{R} = \frac{\sum R}{n} = \frac{65}{10} = 6.5
$$

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The control limits for X chart is
\n
$$
UCL = \overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R} = 18.2 + 0.577(6.5) = 21.95
$$
\n
$$
CL = \overline{X} = 18.2
$$
\n
$$
= -
$$

 $LCL = X - A_2 R = 18.2 - 0.577(6.5) = 14.5795$

 \overline{X} chart is The control limits for Range chart is

$$
UCL = D_4 R = 2.114(6.5) = 13.741
$$

\n
$$
CL = \overline{R} = 6.5
$$

\n
$$
LCL = D_3 \overline{R} = 0(6.5) = 0
$$

Example 9.22

The following data gives readings of 10 samples of size 6 each in the production of a certain product. Draw control chart for mean and range with its control limits.

Solution:

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Table 9.22

$$
\frac{1}{X} = \frac{\sum \overline{X}}{10} = \frac{5460}{10} = 546
$$

The control limits for \overline{X} chart is The control limits for Range chart is

$$
UCL = \overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R} = 546 + 0.483(84) = 586.57
$$

\n
$$
CL = \overline{X} = 546
$$

\n
$$
LCL = \overline{X} - A_2 \overline{R} = 546 - 0.483(84) = 505.43
$$

$$
\overline{R} = \frac{\sum R}{n} = \frac{840}{10} = 84
$$

 $UCL = D_4 R = 2.004(84) = 168.336$ $CL = R = 84$ $LCL = D_3 R = 0(84) = 0$

Example 9.23

You are given below the values of sample mean (\overline{X}) and the range (R) for ten samples of size 5 each. Draw mean chart and comment on the state of control of the process.

Given the following control chart constraint for : $n = 5$, $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$

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The above diagram shows all the three control lines with the data points plotted, since four points falls out of the control limits, we can say that the process is out of control.

- 1. Define Statistical Quality Control.
- 2. Mention the types of causes for variation in a production process.
- 3. Define Chance Cause.

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- 4. Define Assignable Cause.
- 5. What do you mean by product control?
- 6. What do you mean by process control?
- 7. Define a control chart.
- 8. Name the control charts for variables.
- 9. Define mean chart.
- 10. Define R Chart.
- 11. What are the uses of statistical quality control?
- 12. Write the control limits for the mean chart.
- 13. Write the control limits for the R chart.
- 14. A machine is set to deliver packets of a given weight. Ten samples of size five each were recorded. Below are given relevant data:

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Calculate the control limits for mean chart and the range chart and then comment on the state of control. (conversion factors for $n = 5$, $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$)

15. Ten samples each of size five are drawn at regular intervals from a manufacturing process. The sample means (\overline{X}) and their ranges (R) are given below:

Calculate the control limits in respect of \overline{X} chart. (Given $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$) Comment on the state of control.

16. Construct \overline{X} and *R* charts for the following data:

(Given for $n = 3$, $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$)

17. The following data show the values of sample mean (\overline{X}) and its range (R) for the samples of size five each. Calculate the values for control limits for mean , range chart and determine whether the process is in control.

(conversion factors for $n = 5$, $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$)

18. A quality control inspector has taken ten samples of size four packets each from a potato chips company.The contents of the sample are given below, Calculate the control limits for mean and range chart.

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(Given for $n = 5$, $A_2 = 0.58$, $D_3 = 0$ and $D_4 = 2.115$)

19. The following data show the values of sample means and the ranges for ten samples of size 4 each. Construct the control chart for mean and range chart and determine whether the process is in control.

20. In a production process, eight samples of size 4 are collected and their means and ranges are given below. Construct mean chart and range chart with control limits.

21. In a certain bottling industry the quality control inspector recorded the weight of each of the 5 bottles selected at random during each hour of four hours in the morning.

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Choose the correct Answer

- 1. A time series is a set of data recorded
	- (a) Periodically
	- (b) Weekly
	- (c) successive points of time
	- (d) all the above
- 2. A time series consists of
	- (a) Five components
	- (b) Four components
	- (c) Three components
	- (d) Two components
- 3. The components of a time series which is attached to short term fluctuation is
	- (a) Secular trend
	- (b) Seasonal variations
	- (c) Cyclic variation
	- (d) Irregular variation
- 4. Factors responsible for seasonal variations are
	- (a) Weather

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- (b) Festivals
- (c) Social customs

5. The additive model of the time series with the components T, S, C and I is

(a) $y=T+S+C\times I$ (b) $y=T+S\times C\times I$

- (c) *y*=*T*+*S*+*C*+*I* (d) *y*=*T*+*S*×*C*+*I*
- 6. Least square method of fitting a trend is
	- (a) Most exact
	- (b) Least exact
	- (c) Full of subjectivity
	- (d) Mathematically unsolved
- 7. The value of 'b' in the trend line $y=a+bx$ is
	- (a) Always positive
	- (b) Always negative
	- (c) Either positive or negative
	- (d) Zero
- 8. The component of a time series attached to long term variation is trended as
	- (a) Cyclic variation
	- (b) Secular variations
	- (c) Irregular variation
	- (d) Seasonal variations
- 9. The seasonal variation means the variations occurring with in
	- (a) A number of years
	- (b) within a year
	- (c) within a month
	- (d) within a week
- 10. Another name of consumer's price index number is:
	- (a) Whole-sale price index number
	- (b) Cost of living index
	- (c) Sensitive
	- (d) Composite
- 11. Cost of living at two different cities can be compared with the help of
	- (a) Consumer price index
	- (b) Value index
	- (c) Volume index
	- (d) Un-weighted index
- 12. Laspeyre's index = 110 , Paasche's index = 108, then Fisher's Ideal index is equal to:
	- (a) 110
	- (b) 108
	- (c) 100
	- (d) 109

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- 13. Most commonly used index number is:
	- (a) Volume index number
	- (b) Value index number
	- (c) Price index number
	- (d) Simple index number
- 14. Consumer price index are obtained by:
	- (a) Paasche's formula
	- (b) Fisher's ideal formula
	- (c) Marshall Edgeworth formula
	- (d) Family budget method formula
- 15. Which of the following Index number satisfy the time reversal test?
	- (a)Laspeyre's Index number
	- (b) Paasche's Index number
	- (c) Fisher Index number
	- (d) All of them.

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- 16. While computing a weighted index, the current period quantities are used in the:
	- (a) Laspeyre's method
	- (b) Paasche's method
	- (c) Marshall Edgeworth method
	- (d) Fisher's ideal method
- 17. The quantities that can be numerically measured can be plotted on a
	- (a) p chart (b) c chart
	- (c) x bar chart (d) np chart
- 18. How many causes of variation will affect the quality of a product?
	- (a) 4 (b) 3 (c) 2 (d) 1
- 19. Variations due to natural disorder is known as
	- (a) random cause
	- (b) non-random cause
	- (c) human cause
	- (d) all of them
-

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- 20. The assignable causes can occur due to
	- (a) poor raw materials
	- (b) unskilled labour
	- (c) faulty machines
	- (d) all of them
- 21. A typical control charts consists of
	- (a) CL, UCL (b) CL, LCL
	- (c) CL, LCL, UCL (d) UCL, LCL
- 22. \overline{X} chart is a
	- (a) attribute control chart
	- (b) variable control chart
	- (c) neither Attribute nor variable control chart
	- (d) both Attribute and variable control chart
- 23. R is calculated using

(a)
$$
x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}}
$$

\n(b) $x_{\text{min}} - x_{\text{max}}$
\n(c) $x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}}$
\n(d) $x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}}$
\n(e) $x_{\text{max}} - x_{\text{min}}$

24. The upper control limit for \overline{X} chart is given by

(a)
$$
\overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R}
$$

\n(b) $\overline{X} + A_2 R$
\n(c) $\overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R}$
\n(d) $\overline{X} + A_2 \overline{R}$

- 25. The LCL for R chart is given by
	- (a) $D_2 \overline{R}$ (b) $D_2 \overline{R}$
	- (c) $D_3 \overline{R}$ (d) $D_3 \overline{R}$

Miscellaneous Problems

1. Using three yearly moving averages, Determine the trend values from the following data.

2. From the following data, calculate the trend values using fourly moving averages.

3. Fit a straight line trend by the method of least squares to the following data.

4. Calculate the Laspeyre's, Paasche's and Fisher's price index number for the following data. Interpret on the data.

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5. Using the following data, construct Fisher's Ideal Index Number and Show that it satisfies Factor Reversal Test and Time Reversal Test?

6. Compute the consumer price index for 2015 on the basis of 2014 from the following data.

7. An Enquiry was made into the budgets of the middle class families in a city gave the following information.

What changes in the cost of living have taken place in the middle class families of a city?

8. From the following data, calculate the control limits for the mean and range chart.

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9. The following data gives the average life(in hours) and range of 12 samples of 5lamps each. The data are

Construct control charts for mean and range. Comment on the control limits.

10. The following are the sample means and ranges for 10 samples, each of size 5. Calculate the control limits for the mean chart and range chart and state whether the process is in control or not.

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Summary

In this chapter we have acquired the knowledge of

Method of Moving Averages

z **Method of Least Squares**

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The straight line equation, $Y = a + bX$

Two Normal Equations, $\Sigma Y = n a + b \Sigma X$; $\Sigma XY = a \Sigma X + b \Sigma X2$

z **Methods of measuring Seasonal Variations-Method of Simple Averages:**

Seasonal Index $(S.I) =$ *Seasonal Average Grand average X*100

If the data is given in months

S.I for Jan =
$$
\frac{Monthly Average (for Jan)}{Grand average} X100
$$

If the data is given in quarter

S.I for Kth Quarter =
$$
\frac{Average \, of \, K^{th} \, quarter}{C} \, X100
$$

Grand average **•** Continuous distribution function

If *X* is a continuous random variable with the probability density function $f_x(x)$, then the function $F_X(x)$ is defined by

Weighted Index Number

$$
Price Index (P01) = \frac{\sum p_1 w}{\sum p_0 w} x100
$$

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Laspeyre's price index number
$$
P_{01}^L = \frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} X100
$$

\nPaasche's price index number $P_{01}^P = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_1} X100$
\nFisher's price index number $P_{01}^F = \sqrt{P_{01}^L x P_{01}^P} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum p_1 q_0 X \sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0 X \sum p_0 q_1}} X100$
\nTime Reversal Test : $P_{01} \times P_{10} = 1$. Factor Reversal Test : $P_{01} X Q_{01} = \frac{\sum p_1 q_1}{\sum p_0 q_0}$
\nCost of Living Index Number
\nAggregate Expenditure Method = $\frac{\sum p_1 q_0}{\sum p_0 q_0} X100$. Family Budget Method = $\frac{\sum PV}{\sum V}$

Causes of Variation

1. Chance Causes (or) Random causes 2. Assignable Causes

Control Charts

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- (i) Centre Line (CL) indicates the desired standard level of the process.
- (ii) Upper Control Limit (UCL) indicates the upper limit of tolerance.
- (iii) Lower Control Limit (LCL) indicates the lower limit of tolerance.

The control limits for \overline{X} chart in two different cases are

The control limits for *R* chart in two different cases are

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Operations Research

Frank Lauren Hitchcock (1875-1957)

Introduction

Operations reserach (O.R.) is an analytical method of problem solving and decision-making, that is useful in management organisations. The transportation problem involves certain origins (sources) which may represent factories where we produce homogeneous items and a number of destinations where we supply a required quantity of the products. Each factory has a certain capacity constraint and each destination (dealer or customer) has a certain requirement. The unit cost of transportation of the items from the factory to the dealer/ customer is known. American mathematician

and physicist Frank Lauren Hitchcock (1875-1957) known for his formulation of transportation problem in 1941.

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Learning Objectives

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After studying this chapter students are able to understand

- formulate the transportation and assignment problems
- distinguish between transportation and assignment problems
- find an initial basic feasible solution of a transportation problem
- identify the degeneracy and nondegeneracy in a transportation problem
- find the solution of an assignment problem by Hungarian method.
- distinguish between tactic and strategic decisions
- find the best alternatives using maximin and minimax criteria

10.1 Transportation Problem

The objective transportation problem is to determine the amount to be transported from each origin to each destinations such that the total transportation cost is minimized.

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10.1.1 Definition and formulation

The Structure of the Problem

 Let there be *m* origins and *n* destinations. Let the amount of supply at the i^{th} origin is a_i . Let the demand at jth destination is b_j .

 The cost of transporting one unit of an item from origin i to destination j is c_{i} and is known for all combinations *(i,j).* Quantity transported from origin *i* to destination *j* be x_{ii}

 The objective is to determine the quantity x_{ij} to be transported over all routes (i, j) so as to

minimize the total transportation cost. The supply limits at the origins and the demand requirements at the destinations must be satisfied.

 The above transportation problem can be written in the following tabular form:

Origins

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Table-10.1

Now the linear programming model representing the transportation problem is given by

The objective function is Minimize
$$
Z = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} C_{ij} x_{ij}
$$
 Subject to the constraints
\n
$$
\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij} = a_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, m \text{ (supply constraints)}
$$
\n
$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_{ij} = b_j, j = 1, 2, \dots, n \text{ (demand constraints)}
$$
\n
$$
\mathcal{X}_{ij} \ge 0 \text{ for all } i, j. \text{ (non-negative restrictions)}
$$

Some Definitions

Feasible Solution: A feasible solution to a transportation problem is a set of non-negative values x_{ii} ($i=1,2,...,m$, $j=1,2,...,n$) that satisfies the constraints.

Basic Feasible Solution: A feasible solution is called a basic feasible solution if it contains not more than *m*+*n*–1 allocations, where *m* is the number of rows and *n* is the number of columns in a transportation problem.

Optimal Solution: Optimal Solution is a feasible solution (not necessarily basic) which

optimizes(minimize) the total transportation cost.

Non degenerate basic feasible Solution: If a basic feasible solution to a transportation problem contains exactly *m*+*n*–1 allocations in independent positions, it is called a Non degenerate basic feasible solution. Here *m* is the number of rows and *n* is the number of columns in a transportation problem.

Degeneracy :If a basic feasible solution to a transportation problem contains less than *m*+*n*–1 allocations, it is called a degenerate

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basic feasible solution. Here *m* is the number of rows and *n* is the number of columns in a transportation problem.

10.1.2 Methods of finding initial Basic Feasible Solutions

There are several methods available to obtain an initial basic feasible solution of a transportation problem. We discuss here only the following three. For finding the initial basic feasible solution total supply must be equal to total demand.

$$
\text{(i.e)} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} a_i = \sum_{j=1}^{n} b_j
$$

Method:1North-West Corner Rule (NWC)

It is a simple method to obtain an initial basic feasible solution. Various steps involved in this method are summarized below.

- **Step 1:** Choose the cell in the north-west corner of the transportation Table10.1 and allocate as much as possible in this cell so that either the capacity of first row (supply)is exhausted or the destination requirement of the first column(demand) is exhausted.(i.e) x_{11} $=$ min(a_1 , b_1)
- **Step 2:** If the demand is exhausted $(b_1 < a_1)$, move one cell right horizontally tothe second column and allocate as much as possible.(i.e) x_{12} = min ($a_1 - x_{11}$, b_2) If the supply is exhausted $(b_1 > a_1)$, move one cell down vertically to the second row and allocateas much as possible.(i.e) $x_{21} = \min (a_2, b_1 - x_{11})$ If both supply and demand are exhausted move one cell diagonally

and allocate as much as possible.

Step 3: Continue the above procedure until all the allocations are made

Example 10.1

Obtain the initial solution for the following problem.

Solution:

Here total supply = $5+8+7+14=34$, Total demand = $7+9+18=34$

(i.e) Total supply =Total demand. Therefore the given problem is balanced transportation problem.

∴ we can find an initial basic feasible solution to the given problem.

From the above table we can choose the cell in the North West Corner. Here the cell is (1,*A*)

Allocate as much as possible in this cell so that either the capacity of first row is exhausted or the destination requirement of the first column is exhausted.

i.e.
$$
x_{11} = \min(5.7) = 5
$$

⊕

Reduced transportation table is

Now the cell in the North west corner is $(2, A)$.

Allocate as much as possible in the first cell so that either the capacity of second row is exhausted or the destination requirement of the first column is exhausted.

i.e. $x_{12} = \min(2,8) = 2$

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A	B	C	a_i
2	$\begin{array}{ c c c }\n \hline\n 2 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ \hline\n 5 & 4 & 7 & 7 \\ \hline\n 4 & 1 & 6 & 2 & 14 \\ \hline\n 5 & 2/0 & 9 & 18 & 18\n \end{array}$ \n		

Reduced transportation table is

Here north west corner cell is (2,B) Allocate as much as possible in the first cell so that either the capacity of second row is exhausted or the destination requirement of the second column is exhausted.

Reduced transportation table is

Here north west corner cell is (3,*B*).

Allocate as much as possible in the first cell so that either the capacity of third row is exhausted or the destination requirement of the second column is exhausted.

i.e.
$$
x_{32} = min(7,3) = 3
$$

\nB C a_i
\n3 $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \ 4 \ 6 \ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ 7/4
\n4 b_j 3/0 18

Reduced transportation table is

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Here north west corner cell is (3,C) Allocate as much as possible in the first cell so that either the capacity of third row is exhausted or the destination requirement of the third column is exhausted.

i.e.
$$
x_{33} = min(4,18) = 4
$$

\nC
\n3
\n4
\n7
\n4/0
\n4
\n2
\n14
\n b_j
\n18/14

Reduced transportation table and final allocation is $x_{44} = 14$

Thus we have the following allocations

Transportation schedule : $1\rightarrow A$, $2\rightarrow A$, $2\rightarrow B$, $3\rightarrow B$, $3\rightarrow C$, $4\rightarrow C$

The total transportation cost.

$$
= (5 \times 2) + (2 \times 3) + (6 \times 3) + (3 \times 4) +
$$

(4×7) + (14×2)

 $= 7102$

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Example 10.2

Determine an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem using North West corner rule.

Here O_i and D_j represent i^{th} origin and $j^{\rm th}$ destination.

Solution :

Given transportation table is

Total Availability = Total Requirement. Therefore the given problem is balanced transportation problem.

Hence there exists a feasible solution to the given problem.

First allocation:

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Second allocation: D_1 D_2 D_3 D_4 a_i $O₁$ (6) 6 (8) $4 \mid 1 \mid 5 \mid 14/8/0$ *O*₂ 8 9 2 7 16 *O*₃ 4 3 6 2 5 *bj* 6/0 10/2 15 4 35

Third Allocation:

Fourth Allocation:

Fifth allocation:

Final allocation:

Transportation schedule $: O_1 \rightarrow D_1$, $O_1 \rightarrow D_2$, $O_2 \rightarrow D_2$, $O_2 \rightarrow D_3$, $O_3 \rightarrow D_3$, $O_3 \rightarrow D_3$. $= (6 \times 6) + (8 \times 4) + (2 \times 9) + (14 \times 2)$ $+(1 \times 6)+(4 \times 2) = \overline{2}128$

Method:2 Least Cost Method (LCM)

The least cost method is more economical than north-west corner rule,since it starts with a lower beginning cost. Various steps involved in this method are summarized as under.

- **Step 1:** Find the cell with the least(minimum) cost in the transportation table.
- **Step 2**: Allocate the maximum feasible quantity to this cell.
- **Step:3** Eliminate the row or column where an allocation is made.

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Step:4 Repeat the above steps for the reduced transportation table until all the allocations are made.

Note

If the minimum cost is not unique then the choice can be made arbitrarily.

Example 10.3

Obtain an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem using least cost method.

Here O_i and D_j denote i th origin and j th destination respectively.

Solution:

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Total Supply = Total Demand = 24

∴ The given problem is a balanced transportation problem.

Hence there exists a feasible solution to the given problem.

Given Transportation Problem is:

The least cost is 1 corresponds to the cells (O_1, D_1) and (O_3, D_4)

Take the Cell (O_1, D_1) arbitrarily.

Allocate min $(6,4) = 4$ units to this cell.

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The reduced table is

The least cost corresponds to the cell (O_3, D_4) . Allocate min (10,6) = 6 units to this cell.

The reduced table is

The least costis 2 corresponds to the cells $(O_1, D_2), (O_2, D_3), (O_3, D_2), (O_3, D_3)$

Allocate min $(2,6) = 2$ units to this cell.

$$
O_2 \begin{array}{c|cc} D_2 & D_3 & a_1 \\ \hline 3 & 2 & 8 \\ O_3 & 2 & 2 & 4 \\ bj & 4 & 8 \end{array}
$$

The least cost is 2 corresponds to the cells $(O_2, D_3), (O_3, D_2), (O_3, D_3)$

Allocate min $(8,8) = 8$ units to this cell.

The reduced table is

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$$
\begin{array}{c}\nD_2 & a_i \\
O_3 \boxed{2} & 4 \\
b_j & 4\n\end{array}
$$

Here allocate 4 units in the cell (O_3, D_2)

Thus we have the following allocations:

Transportation schedule :

$$
O_1 \rightarrow D_1, O_1 \rightarrow D_2, O_2 \rightarrow D_3, O_3 \rightarrow D_2, O_3 \rightarrow D_4
$$

Total transportation cost
= (4×1)+(2×2)+(8×2)+(4×2)+(6×1)
= 4+4+16+8+6
= ₹38.

Example 10.4

Determine how much quantity should be stepped from factory to various destinations for the following transportation problem using the least cost method.

Cost are expressed in terms of rupees per unit shipped.

Solution:

Total Capacity = Total Demand

∴ The given problem is balanced transportation problem.

Hence there exists a feasible solution to the given problem.

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Given Transportation Problem is

First Allocation:

Second Allocation:

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Fourth Allocation:

Fifth Allocation:

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Transportation schedule :

T→ *H*, *T*→*P*, *B*→*C*, *B*→*H*, M→*H*, M→*K*

The total Transportation cost = (5×8) + $(25 \times 5) + (35 \times 5) + (5 \times 11) + (18 \times 9) + (32 \times 7)$ $= 40+125+175+55+162+224$ $= ₹781$

Method: 3 Vogel's Approximation Method (VAM)

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Vogel's approximation method yields an initial basic feasible solution which is very close to the optimum solution.Various steps involved in this method are summarized as under

- **Step 1:** Calculate the penalties for each row and each column. Here penalty means the difference between the least and the next higher cost in a row and in a column.
- **Step 2**: Select the row or column with the largest penalty.
- **Step 3**: In the selected row or column, allocate the maximum feasible quantity to the cell with the minimum cost.
- **Step 4:** Eliminate the row or column where all the allocations are made.
- **Step 5:** Write the reduced transportation table and repeat the steps 1 to 4.

Step 6: Repeat the procedure until all the allocations are made.

Example 10.5

Find the initial basic feasible solution for the following transportation problem by VAM

Distribution Centers Availability

Solution:

Here
$$
\sum a_i = \sum b_j = 950
$$

(i.e) Total Availability =Total Requirement

∴The given problem is balanced transportation problem.

Hence there exists a feasible solution to the given problem.

First let us find the difference (penalty) between the first two smallest costs in each row and column and write them in brackets against the respective rows and columns.

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Choose the largest difference. Here the difference is 5 which corresponds to column *D*¹ and D_2 . Choose either D_1 or D_2 arbitrarily. Here we take the column D_1 . In this column choose the least cost. Here the least cost corresponds to (S_1, D_1) . Allocate min (250, 200) = 200 units to this Cell.

The reduced transportation table is

Choose the largest difference. Here the difference is 5 whichcorresponds to column D_2 . In this column choose the least cost. Here the least cost corresponds to (S_1, D_2) . Allocate $min(50,175) = 50$ units to this Cell.

The reduced transportation table is

Choose the largest difference. Here the difference is 6 which corresponds to column D_2 . In this column choose the least cost. Here

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the least cost corresponds to (S_2, D_2) . Allocate $min(300, 175) = 175$ units to this cell.

The reduced transportation table is

Choose the largest difference. Here the difference is 4 corresponds to row S_2 . In this row choose the least cost. Here the least cost corresponds to (S_2, G_3) D_4).). Allocate $min(125, 250) = 125$ units to this Cell.

The reduced transportation table is

The Allocation is

Thus we have the following allocations:

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Transportation schedule :

$$
S_1 \rightarrow D_1, S_1 \rightarrow D_2, S_2 \rightarrow D_2, S_2 \rightarrow D_4, S_3 \rightarrow D_3, S_3 \rightarrow D_4
$$

\nThis initial transportation cost
\n
$$
= (200 \times 11) + (50 \times 13) + (175 \times 18) + B
$$
\n
$$
(125 \times 10) + (275 \times 13) + (125 \times 10)
$$
\n
$$
= ₹12,075
$$
\n
$$
C \qquad\n\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\n\hline\n6 & 4 \\
\hline\n5 & (6) \\
\hline\n6 & 4 \\
\hline\n7 & 21 & 6/0\n\end{array}
$$

Example 10.6

Obtain an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem using Vogel's approximation method.

Solution:

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Here $\sum a_i = \sum b_i = 80$ (i.e) Total Availability =Total Requirement

∴The given problem is balanced transportation problem.

Hence there exists a feasible solution to the given problem.

First Allocation:

Second Allocation:

Third Allocation:

Fourth Allocation:

Fifth Allocation:

Sixth Allocation:

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Thus we have the following allocations:

Transportation schedule :

A∢**I**, *A*[→]*III*, *A*→*III*, *A*→*IV*, *B*→*I*, *C*→*IV*, *D*→*II* $= (6 \times 5) + (6 + 1) + (17 \times 3) + (5 \times 3)$ $(15 \times 3) + (12 \times 3) + (19 \times 1)$

$$
= 30 + 6 + 51 + 15 + 45 + 36 + 19
$$

 $= ₹ 202$

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- 1. What is transportation problem?
- 2. Write mathematical form of transportation problem.
- 3. what is feasible solution and non degenerate solution in transportation problem?
- 4. What do you mean by balanced transportation problem?
- 5. Find an initial basic feasible solution of the following problem using north west corner rule.

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6. Determine an initial basic feasible solution of the following transportation problem by north west corner method.

Bangalore Nasik Bhopal Delhi Capacity

7. Obtain an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem by using least- cost method.

8. Explain Vogel's approximation method by obtaining initial feasible solution of the following transportation problem.

9. Consider the following transportation problem.

Determine initial basic feasible solution by VAM.

10. Determine basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem using North west Corner rule.

11. Find the initial basic feasible solution of the following transportation problem:

- Using (i) North West Corner rule
	- (ii) Least Cost method
	- (iii) Vogel's approximation method
- 12. Obtain an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem by north west corner method.

10.2 Assignment Problems

Introduction:

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The assignment problem is a particular case of transportation problem for which more efficient (less-time consuming) solution method has been devised by KUHN (1956) and FLOOD (1956). The justification of the steps leading to the solution is based on theorems proved by Hungarian Mathematicians KONEIG (1950) and EGERVARY (1953), hence the method is named Hungarian Method.

Suppose that we have '*m*' jobs to be performed on '*n*' machines . The cost of assigning each job to each machine is C_{ii} ($i = 1,2,...,n$ and $j = 1,2,...,n$). Our objective is to assign the different jobs to the different machines(one job per machine) to minimize the overall cost.This is known as **assignment problem.**

 The assignment problem is a special case of transportation problem where the number of sources and destinations are equal .Supply at each source and demand at each destination must be one. It means that there is exactly one occupied cell in each row and each column of the transportation table . Jobs represent sources and machines represent destinations.

10.2.1 Definition and formulation

Consider the problem of assigning *n* jobs to *n* machines (one job to one machine). Let C_{ij} be the cost of assigning i^{th} job to the j^{th} machine and x_i , represents the assignment of i^{th} job to the j^{th} machine.

Then,
$$
x_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, if i^{th} & job is assigned to j^{th} machine \\ 0, if i^{th} & job is not assigned to j^{th} machine. \end{cases}
$$

 x_{ij} is missing in any cell means that no assignment is made between the pair of job and machine.(*i.e*) $x_{ij} = 0$.

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 x_{ij} presents in any cell means that an assignment is made their.In such cases *x ij* = 1.

The assignment model can be written in LPP as follows:

Minimize
$$
Z = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} C_{ij} x_{ij}
$$

Subject to the constrains

$$
\sum_{\substack{i=1 \ j=1}}^{n} x_{ij} = 1, j = 1, 2, \dots n
$$

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij} = 1, i = 1, 2, \dots n \text{ and } x_{ij} = 0
$$

(or) 1 for all *i*, *j*

Note

The optimum assignment schedule remains unaltered if we add or subtract a constant from all the elements of the row or column of the assignment cost matrix.

Note

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If for an assignment problem all $C_{ii} > 0$ then an assignment schedule (x_{ij}) which satisfies $\sum C_{ij} x_{ij} = 0$ must be optimal.

10.2.2 Solution of assignment problems (Hungarian Method)

First check whether the number of rows is equal to the numbers of columns, if it is so, the assignment problem is said to be balanced.

- **Step :1** Choose the least element in each row and subtract it from all the elements of that row.
- **Step :2** Choose the least element in each column and subtract it from all the elements of that column. Step 2 has to

be performed from the table obtained in step 1.

- **Step:3** Check whether there is atleast one zero in each row and each column and make an assignment as follows.
	- (i) Examine the rows successively until a row with exactly one zero is found. Mark that zero by \Box , that means an assignment is made there . Cross (x) all other zeros in its column. Continue this until all the rows have been examined.
	- (ii) Examine the columns successively until a columns with exactly one zero is found. Mark that zero by \Box , that means an assignment is made there . Cross (x) all other zeros in its row. Continue this until all the columns have been examined.
- **Step :4** If each row and each column contains exactly one assignment, then the solution is optimal.

 Hungarian method provides optimum assignment schedule in an assignment problem.

Example 10.7

Solve the following assignment problem. Cell values represent cost of assigning job A, B, C and D to the machines I, II, III and IV.

Solution:

Here the number of rows and columns are equal.

∴ The given assignment problem is balanced.

Now let us find the solution.

Step 1: Select a smallest element in each row and subtract this from all the elements in its row.

Look for atleast one zero in each row and each column.Otherwise go to step 2.

Step 2: Select the smallest element in each column and subtract this from all the elements in its column.

Since each row and column contains atleast one zero, assignments can be made.

Step 3 (Assignment):

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Examine the rows with exactly one zero. First three rows contain more than one zero. Go to row *D*. There is exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box (i.e) job *D* is assigned to machine I. Mark other zeros in its column by \times .

	Π	Ш	IV
А	0	7	
\boldsymbol{B}	3	0	3
\mathcal{C}_{0}^{0}		0	
D	5		2

Step 4: Now examine the columns with exactly one zero. Already there is an

assignment in column I. Go to the column II. There is exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box . Mark other zeros in its row by \times .

Column III contains more than one zero. Therefore proceed to Column IV, there is exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box Mark other zeros in its row by \times .

Step 5: Again examine the rows. Row B contains exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box .

Thus all the four assignments have been made. The optimal assignment schedule and total cost is

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The optimal assignment (minimum) cost

 $= ₹ 38$

Example 10.8

Consider the problem of assigning five jobs to five persons. The assignment costs are given as follows. Determine the optimum assignment schedule.

Solution:

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Here the number of rows and columns are equal.

∴ The given assignment problem is balanced.

Now let us find the solution.

Step 1: Select a smallest element in each row and subtract this from all the elements in its row.

The cost matrix of the given assignment problem is

Column 3 contains no zero. Go to Step 2.

Step 2: Select the smallest element in each column and subtract this from all the elements in its column.

Since each row and column contains atleast one zero, assignments can be made.

Step 3 (Assignment):

Examine the rows with exactly one zero. Row B contains exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box (i.e) PersonB is assigned to Job 1. Mark other zeros in its column by \times .

Now, Row C contains exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box . Mark other zeros in its column by \times .

Now, Row D contains exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box . Mark other zeros in its column by × .

Row E contains more than one zero, now proceed column wise. In column 1, there is an assignment. Go to column 2. There is exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box . Mark other zeros in its row by \times .

There is an assignment in Column 3 and column 4. Go to Column 5. There is exactly one zero. Mark that zero by \Box . Mark other zeros in its row by × .

Person

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Thus all the five assignments have been made. The Optimal assignment schedule and total cost is

The optimal assignment (minimum) cost $=$ ₹ 9.

Example 10.9

Solve the following assignment problem.

Solution:

Since the number of columns is less than the number of rows, given assignment problem is unbalanced one. To balance it, introduce a dummy column with all the entries zero. The revised assignment problem is

Here only 3 tasks can be assigned to 3 men.

Step 1: is not necessary, since each row contains zero entry. Go to Step 2.

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Since each row and each columncontains exactly one assignment,all the three men have been assigned a task. But task *S* is not assigned to any Man. The optimal assignment schedule and total cost is

The optimal assignment (minimum) cost = \bar{z} 35.

- 1. What is the Assignment problem?
- 2. Give mathematical form of Assignment problem.
- 3. What is the difference between Assignment Problem and Transportation Problem?
- 4. Three jobs A, B and C one to be assigned to three machines U, V and W. The processing cost for each job machine combination is shown in the matrix given below. Determine the allocation that minimizes the overall processing cost.

		Machine		
		U		
Job	\boldsymbol{A}	17	25	31
	\boldsymbol{B}	10	25	16
	C	12	14	

⁽cost is in ₹ per unit)

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5. A computer centre has got three expert programmers. The centre needs three application programmes to be developed. The head of the computer centre, after studying carefully the programmes to be developed, estimates the computer time in minitues required by the experts to the application programme as follows.

 D_{max}

 Assign the programmers to the programme in such a way that the total computer time is least.

6. A departmental head has four subordinates and four tasks to be performed. The subordinates differ in efficiency and the tasks differ in their intrinsic difficulty. His estimates of the time each man would take to perform each task is given below:

 How should the tasks be allocated to subordinates so as to minimize the total manhours?

7. Find the optimal solution for the assignment problem with the following cost matrix.

8. Assign four trucks 1, 2, 3 and 4 to vacant spaces A, B, C, D, E and F so that distance travelled is minimized. The matrix below shows the distance.

10. 3 Decision Theory

Introduction:

Decision theory is primarily concerned with helping people and organizations in making decisions. It provides a meaningful conceptual frame work for important decision making. The decision making refers to the selection of an act from amongst various alternatives, the one which is judged to be the best under given circumstances.

The management has to consider phases like planning, organization, direction, command and control. While performing so many activities, the management has to face many situations from which the best choice is to be taken. This choice making is technically termed as "decision making" or decision taking. A decision is simply a selection from two or more courses of action. Decision making may be defined as "a process of best selection from a set of alternative courses of action, that course of action which is supposed to meet objectives upto satisfaction of the decision maker."

The knowledge of statistical techniques helps to select the best action. The statistical decision theory refers to an optimal choice under condition of uncertainty. In this case probability theory has a vital role, as such, this probability theory will be used more frequently in the decision making theory under uncertainty and risk.

The statistical decision theory tries to reveal the logical structure of the problem into alternative action, states of nature, possible outcomes and likely pay-offs from each such outcome. Let us explain the concepts associated with the decision theory approach to problem solving.

10.3.1 Meaning

The decision maker: The decision maker refers to individual or a group of individual responsible for making the choice of an appropriate course of action amongst the available courses of action.

Acts (or courses of action): Decision making problems deals with the selection of a single act from a set of alternative acts. If two or more alternative courses of action occur in a problem, then decision making is necessary to select only one course of action. Let the acts or action be a_1 , a_2 , a_3 ,... then the totality of all these actions is known as action space denoted by A. For three actions a_1 , a_2 a_3 ; A = action space = (a_1, a_2, a_3) or $A = (A_1, A_2, A_3)$. Acts may be also represented in the following matrix form.

In a tree diagram the acts or action are shown as

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Events (or States of nature): The events identify the occurrences, which are outside of the decision maker' s control and which determine the level of success for a given act. These events are often called ' States of nature' or outcomes. An example of an event or states of nature is the level of market demand for a particular item during a stipulated time period.

A set of states of nature may be represented in any one of the following ways:

 $S = \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_n\}$ or $E = \{E_1, E_2, ..., E_n\}$ or $\Omega = {\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3}$

For example, if a washing powder is marketed, it may be highly liked by outcomes (outcome θ_1) or it may not appeal at all (outcome $θ$ ₂) or it may satisfy only a small fraction, say 25% (outcome θ_3)

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In a tree diagram the places are next to acts. We may also get another act on the happening of events as follows:

In a matrix form, they may be represented as either of the two ways.

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Pay-off: The result of combinations of an act with each of the states of nature is the outcome and monetary gain or loss of each such outcome is the pay-off. This means that the expression pay-off should be in quantitative form.

Pay -off may be also in terms of cost saving or time saving. In general, if there are *k* alternatives and *n* states of nature, there will be $k \times n$ outcomes or pay-offs. These $k \times n$ payoffs can be very conveniently represented in the form of a $k \times n$ pay-off table.

Where a_{ij} = conditional outcome (pay-off) of the i th event when j th alternative is chosen. The above pay-off table is called pay-off matrix.

10.3.2 Situations- Certainty and uncertainty

Types of decision making: Decisions are made based upon the information data available about the occurrence of events as well as the decision situation. There are two types of decision making situations: certainty and uncertainty.

Decision making under certainty: In this case the decision maker has the complete knowledge of consequence of every decision choice with certainty. In this decision model, assumed certainty means that only one possible state of nature exists.

Decision making under uncertainty: Under conditions of uncertainty, only pay-offs are known and nothing is known about the lilkelihood of each state of nature.

Such situations arise when a new product is introduced in the market or a new plant is set up. The number of different decision criteria available under the condition of uncertainty is given below.

10.3.3 Maximin and Minimax Strategy

Maximin criteria

This criterion is the decision to take the course of action which maximizes the minimum possible pay-off. Since this decision criterion locates the alternative strategy that has the least possible loss, it is also known as a pessimistic decision criterion. The working method is:

- (i) Determine the lowest outcome for each alternative.
- (ii) Choose the alternative associated with the maximum of these.

Minimax criteria

This criterion is the decision to take the course of action which minimizes the maximum possible pay-off. Since this decision criterion locates the alternative strategy that has the greatest possible gain. The working method is:

- (iii) Determine the highest outcome for each alternative.
- (iv) Choose the alternative associated with the minimum of these.

Example 10.10

Consider the following pay-off (profit) matrix Action States

Determine best action using maximin principle.

Solution:

Example 10.11

A business man has three alternatives open to him each of which can be followed by any of the four possible events. The conditional pay offs for each action - event combination are given below:

Determine which alternative should the businessman choose, if he adopts the maximin principle.

Solution:

Max $(-10,-4, 0) = 0$. Since the maximum payoff is 0, the alternative Z is selected by the businessman.

Example 10.12

Consider the following pay-off matrix.

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Using minmax principle, determine the best alternative.

Solution:

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min(27, 25, 23, 32) = 23. Since the minimum cost is 23, the best alternative is $E₃$ according to minimax principle.

1. Given the following pay-off matrix(in rupees) for three strategies and two states of nature.

 Select a strategy using each of the following rule (i) Maximin (ii) Minimax.

2. A farmer wants to decide which of the three crops he should plant on his 100-acre farm. The profit from each is dependent on the rainfall during the growing season. The farmer has categorized the amount of rainfall as high medium and low. His estimated profit for each is shown in the table.

If the farmer wishes to plant only crop, decide which should be his best crop using

(i) Maximin (ii)Minimax

3. The research department of Hindustan Ltd. has recommended to pay marketing department to launch a shampoo of three different types. The marketing types of shampoo to be launched under the following estimated pay-offs for various level of sales.

 What will be the marketing manager's decision if (i) Maximin and (ii) Minimax principle applied?

4. Following pay-off matrix, which is the optimal decision under each of the following rule (i) maxmin (ii) minimax

Exercise 10.4

Choose the correct Answer

- 1. The transportation problem is said to be unbalanced if _________.
	- (a) Total supply \neq Total demand
	- (b) Total supply = Total demand
	- (c) $m = n$
	- (d) *m*+*n*–1
- 2. In a non degenerate solution number of allocations is
	- (a) Equal to $m+n-1$
	- (b) Equal to $m+n+1$

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- (c) Not equal to *m*+*n*–1
- (d) Not equal to *m*+*n*+1
- 3. In a degenerate solution number of allocations is
	- (a) equal to $m+n-1$
	- (b) not equal to *m*+*n*–1
	- (c) less than *m*+*n*–1
	- (d) greather than *m*+*n*–1
- 4. The Penalty in VAM represents difference between the first
	- (a) Two largest costs
	- (b) Largest and Smallest costs
	- (c) Smallest two costs
	- (d) None of these
- 5. Number of basic allocation in any row or column in an assignment problem can be
	- (a) Exactly one (b) at least one
	- (c) at most one (d) none of these
- 6. North-West Corner refers to _
	- (a) top left corner

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- (b) top right corner
- (c) bottom right corner
- (d) bottom left corner
- 7. Solution for transportation problem using method is nearer to an optimal solution.
	- (a) NWCM (b) LCM
	- (c) VAM (d) Row Minima
- 8. In an assignment problem the value of decision variable x_{ij} is \qquad
(a) 1 (b)
	- (b) 0
	- (c) $1 \text{ or } 0$ (d) none of them
- 9. If number of sources is not equal to number of destinations, the assignment problem is called_______________
	- (a) balanced (b) unsymmetric
	- (c) symmetric (d) unbalanced
- 10. The purpose of a dummy row or column in an assignment problem is to
	- (a) prevent a solution from becoming degenerate
- (b) balance between total activities and total resources
- (c) provide a means of representing a dummy problem
- (d) none of the above
- 11. The solution for an assignment problem is optimal if
	- (a) each row and each column has no assignment
	- (b) each row and each column has atleast one assignment
	- (c) each row and each column has atmost one assignment
	- (d) each row and each column has exactly one assignment
- 12. In an assignment problem involving four workers and three jobs, total number of assignments possible are
	- (a) 4 (b) 3 (c) 7 (d) 12
- 13. Decision theory is concerned with
	- (a) analysis of information that is available
	- (b) decision making under certainty
	- (c) selecting optimal decisions in sequential problem
	- (d) All of the above
- 14. A type of decision –making environment is
	- (a) certainty (b) uncertainty
	- (c) risk (d) all of the above

Miscellaneous Problems

1. The following table summarizes the supply, demand and cost information for four factors S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , S_4 , shipping goods to three warehouses D_1 , D_2 , D_3

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 Find an initial solution by using north west corner rule. What is the total cost for this solution?

2. Consider the following transportation problem

 Determine an initial basic feasible solution using (a) Least cost method (b) Vogel's approximation method.

3. Determine an initial basic feasible solution to the following transportation problem by using (i)North West Corner rule (ii) least cost method.

4. Explain Vogel's approximation method by obtaining initial basic feasible solution of the following transportation problem.

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5. A car hire company has one car at each of five depots a,b,c,d and e. A customer in each of the fine towers A,B,C,D and E requires a car. The distance (in miles) between the depots (origins) and the towers(destinations) where the customers are given in the following distance matrix.

 How should the cars be assigned to the customers so as to minimize the distance travelled?

6. A natural truck-rental service has a surplus of one truck in each of the cities 1,2,3,4,5 and 6 and a deficit of one truck in each of the cities 7,8,9,10,11 and 12. The distance(in kilometers) between the cities with a surplus and the cities with a deficit are displayed below:

 How should the truck be dispersed so as to minimize the total distance travelled?

7. A person wants to invest in one of three alternative investment plans: Stock, Bonds and Debentures. It is assumed that the person wishes to invest all of the funds in a plan. The pay-off matrix based on three potential economic conditions is given in the following table:

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Determine the best investment plan using each of following criteria i) Maxmin ii) Minimax.

Summary

- \bullet In a transportation problem if the total supply equals the total demand, it is said to be balanced transportation problem. Otherwise it is said to be unbalanced transportation problem
- Feasible Solution: A feasible solution to a transportation problem is a set of non-negative values $x_{ij}(i=1,2,...,m, j=1,2,...)$ that satisfies the constraints.
- **Basic Feasible Solution**: A feasible solution is called a basic feasible solution if it contains not more than m+n-1 allocations, where m is the number of rows and n is the number of columns in a transportation table.
- **Optimal Solution**: Optimal Solution is a feasible solution (not necessarily basic) which optimizes(minimize) the total transportation cost.
- z **Non degenerate basic feasible Solution**: If a basic feasible solution to a transportation problem contains exactly m+n-1 allocations in independent positions, it is called a Non degenerate basic feasible solution.
- **Degeneracy : If :** If a basic feasible solution to a transportation problem contains less than m+n-1 allocations , it is called a degenerate basic feasible solution.
- In an assignment problems number of rows and columns must be equal
- The optimum assignment schedule remains unaltered if we add or subtract a constant from all the elements of the row or column of the assignment cost matrix.
- If for an assignment problem all $C_{ii} > 0$ then an assignment schedule (x_{ii}) which satisfies $\sum C_{ij} x_{ij} = 0$ must be optimal.

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ICT Corner

Expected Result is shown in this picture

Step - 1 : Open the Browser, type the URL Link given below (or) Scan the QR Code. GeoGebra work Book named "12th Standard Business Mathematics and Statistics" will open. In the work book there are two Volumes. Select "Volume-2".

Step - 2 : Select the worksheet named "Pay-Off Table."

You can enter your own data in the respective boxes. Your Pay-Off table will be generated below. Calculate and check your answer.

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Answers

1. Applications of Matrices and Determinants

Exercise 1.1

1.(i) $\rho(A) = 2$ (ii) $\rho(A) = 2$ (iii) $\rho(A) = 1$ (iv) $\rho(A) = 3$ (v) $\rho(A) = 2$ (vi) $\rho(A) = 2$ (vii) $\rho(A) = 3$ (viii) $\rho(A) = 2$ 2. $\rho(AB)=2, \rho(BA)=2$ 3. $x=1, y=3, z=5$ 4. $x = \frac{1}{11}(7-16k), \quad y = \frac{1}{11}(3+k), \quad z = k$ 11 $7 - 16$ $y = \frac{1}{11}(3+k), \quad z = k \cdot 5, \quad x = 2, \quad y = 1, \quad z = 0, \quad \text{6}, \quad \lambda = \frac{-7}{2}$ 7. $x = 1000$, $y = 2000$, $z = 500$ 8. $x = 1000$, $y = 2200$, $z = 1800$

Exercise 1.2

Exercise 1.3

1. 36% 2.(i) 54% , 46% (ii) 50% 3. A=56.25%, B=43.75% 4. A=33%,B= 67%

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Miscellaneous problems

4. The given system is inconsistent and has no solution. $5. \, k = 8.$

6. The equations are inconsistent when *k* assumes any real value other than 0.

7.
$$
x=1
$$
, $y=2$ and $z=2$

8. Cost of wheat is ₹30/kg, Cost of sugar is ₹40/kg and Cost of rice is ₹50/kg.

9. The rates of commission for A,B and C are ₹2, ₹4 and ₹11 respectively

10. 39%

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2. Integral Calculus – I

Exercise: 2.1

1. 2 9 $3x + 5$ 3 $(3x+5)^{\frac{2}{2}}+c$ 2. $\frac{81}{4}$ 5 16 3 72 5 3 $rac{x^3}{5} - \frac{16}{3x^3} - 72x + c$ 3.6x - $rac{13x^3}{2}$ 5 3 2 $5r^3$ $x - \frac{13x^2}{2} - \frac{5x^3}{2} + c$ 4. 2 9 4 5 2 9 2 5 $\frac{x^{\overline{2}}}{2} - \frac{4x^{\overline{2}}}{2} + 2x^{\frac{3}{2}}$ $-\frac{1}{2} + 2x^2 + c$ 5. $4x + 7$ 3 $4x + 7$ 2 $\frac{(4x+7)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{2} - \frac{(4x+7)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2} + c$ 6. 1 3 1) $-(x-1)$ $(x+1)^{\frac{3}{2}}-(x-1)^{\frac{3}{2}}+c$ I $\mathsf L$ I L $\overline{}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{}$ + c 7. $b = \frac{13}{2}, c = -2, f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{13}{2}x$ 2 2 2 13 2 2 2 $, c = -2,$ 8. $c = -20$, $f(x) = 2x^4 - x^2 - 20$

Exercise: 2.2

- 1. $x^2 + \frac{1}{2} \log |x| 2x + c$ 2 $+\frac{1}{2}\log|x| - 2x + c$ 2. $\frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^3}{2} + 2\log|x-1| + c$ 4 \sim^3 4 3 $+\frac{x}{2}+2\log|x-1|+$ 3. $\frac{x^3}{2} - x^2 + 4x - 8\log|x+2| + c$ 3 2 3 $-x^2 + 4x - 8\log|x+2| + c$
4. $\frac{x^3}{2} - x^2 + 3x - 4\log|x+5| + c$ 3 2 3 $-x^2 + 3x - 4\log|x+5| +$ 5. 11 $\log|x-3| - 8 \log|x-2| + c$ 6. $\log|x+1| + 3 \log|x+1|$ $x+1$ + 3 $\log|x-3|$ + $\frac{2}{(x+1)}$ + c 1
- 7. $\log |x^3 x^2 + 5x 5| + c$
8. $c = \frac{\pi}{4}, f(x) = \log |x| + \frac{\pi}{4}$ 4^{7} 9^{1} 4 $f(x) = \log$

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Exercise: 2.3

1.
$$
\frac{a^x}{\log a} + a^a x - \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + c
$$

\n2.
$$
\frac{1}{a^x \log a} - \frac{1}{b^x \log b} + c
$$

\n3. $e^x + e^{2x} + \frac{e^{3x}}{3} + c$
\n4.
$$
\frac{e^{2x}}{2} + \frac{e^{-4x}}{4} + c
$$

\n5.
$$
\frac{e^{4x}}{4} + c
$$

\n6.
$$
e^{x + \frac{1}{x}} + c
$$

\n7.
$$
-\frac{1}{\log x} + c
$$

\n8.
$$
c = 1, f(x) = e^x + 1
$$

Exercise: 2.4

1 12

1.
$$
2\sin x + 3\cos x + 4\tan x + 5\cot x + c
$$

\n2. $-\frac{3}{4}\cos x + \frac{1}{12}\cos 3x + c$
\n3. $\tan x + c$
\n4. $\tan x - \cot x + c$
\n5. $-\left[\sin x + \cos x\right] + c$

Exercise: 2.5

1.
$$
-e^{-x}(x+1)+c
$$

\n2. $e^{3x}\left[\frac{x^3}{3}-\frac{x^2}{3}+\frac{2x}{9}-\frac{2}{27}\right]+c$
\n3. $x(\log x-1)+c$
\n4. $\frac{x^2}{2}[\log x-\frac{1}{2}]+c$
\n5. $\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}(\log x-\frac{1}{n+1})+c$
\n6. $\frac{e^{x^2}}{2}(x^4-2x^2+2)+c$

Exercise: 2.6

Answers 267 1. $\log |x^2 + 5x - 7| + c$ 2. $\frac{1}{4}$ 4 $\log |x^4 + 1| + c$ 3. $\frac{1}{2}$ 2 $\log |e^{2x} - 2| + c$ 4. $\frac{(\log x)^4}{4} + c$ 4 5. $2\sqrt{3x^2 + 7x - 1} + c$ 6. $\frac{4}{3}$ 3 $x^2 + x + 1$ 3 $(x^2 + x + 1)^2 + c$ 7. 1 54 $(1+x^9)^6 + c$ 8. $\frac{1}{2}$ *e* $\log |x^e + e^x| + c$ 9. $\log |\log x| + c$ 10. 1 10 2 $2x^2 + 1$ 2 $\log \left| \frac{x}{2^x} \right|$ *x x* $\left|-\frac{2}{1} \right| + c$ $\frac{-2}{+1}$ + c 11. $xe^x \left[\log(xe^x) - 1 \right] + c$ 12. $\log|x| - \frac{1}{2} \log|x^2 + 1| + c$ 2 $^{2}+1$ 13. $\frac{e}{1}$ *x c x* $\frac{x}{2} + c$ 14. $\frac{e}{(x+1)^2}$ *x c x* $(x + 1)$ + $\frac{e^{3x}}{1} + c$ 15. $\frac{e^{3x}}{9x}$ *c* 3*x* 9 + **Exercise 2.7** 1. 1 24 $3 + 4$ $3 - 4$ log + $\left|+\frac{4x}{-4x}\right|+$ *x c* 2. 1 10 9 1 log + $\left|\frac{+ x}{-x}\right| +$ *x c* 3. 1 $6\sqrt{2}$ $2x - 3$ $2x + 3$ log *x x* $\left| \frac{-3}{2} \right| + c$ + + 4. 1 3 2 1 log *x x* $\left| \frac{-2}{1} \right| + c$ + $+c$ 5. $\log \left| \frac{x}{x} \right|$ *x c* + + $\frac{1}{2}$ + 2 6. 1 10 1 4 log *x x* $\left| \frac{-1}{\cdot} \right| + c$ + + 7. 1 6 3 3 log *e e c x x* − + $+c$ 8. $\frac{1}{2}$ 3 $\log |3x + \sqrt{9x^2 - 7}| + c$ 9. $\log |(x+3) + \sqrt{x^2 + 6x + 13}| + c$ 10. $\log |x-\frac{3}{2}| + \sqrt{x^2-3x+2}| + c$ $\left(x-\frac{3}{2}\right)+\sqrt{x^2-3x+2}$ + 2 $\sqrt[2]{\frac{1}{2} - 3x + 2} + c$ 11. $\frac{1}{4}$ 4 $\log |x^4 + \sqrt{x^8 - 1}| + c$

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12.
$$
\frac{\left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right)}{2} \sqrt{1 + x + x^2} + \frac{3}{8} \log \left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right) + \sqrt{1 + x + x^2} + c
$$

\n13.
$$
\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 2} - \log \left|x + \sqrt{x^2 - 2}\right| + c
$$

\n14.
$$
\frac{1}{4} \left[2x \sqrt{4x^2 - 5} - 5\log \left|2x + \sqrt{4x^2 - 5}\right|\right] + c
$$

\n15.
$$
\left(\frac{x + 1}{2}\right) \sqrt{2x^2 + 4x + 1} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4} \log \left|\sqrt{2}(x + 1) + \sqrt{2x^2 + 4x + 1}\right| + c
$$

\n16.
$$
\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{x^2 - 1} + \frac{1}{2} \log \left|x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}\right| + c
$$

Exercise 2.8

I:1. $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2} \left[e^2 - 1 \right]$ 2. 1 6 3. 1 2 5 2 log I $\left[\frac{5}{2}\right]$ 4. log 1 2 $1 + e^3$ \lfloor $\left|\frac{1+e^3}{2}\right|$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{e^3}{\sqrt{2}}$ 5. 1 2 $[e-1]$ 6. $\frac{3}{8}$ 8 7. log 11 5 I $\left[\frac{11}{5}\right]$ 8. 2 9. $\frac{1}{2}$ $\lfloor 2 \log 2 - 1 \rfloor$ II:1. 37 2. 4 3. 1 4. $c=4$

Exercise 2.9

1. 0 2. $\frac{\pi}{2}$ 2 3. 0 4. $\frac{\pi}{4}$ 4. $\frac{\pi}{4}$ 5.0 6. 16 5

Exercise 2.10

1.(i) 6 (ii) 105 16 $\frac{\pi}{\mu}$ (iii) $\frac{6!}{m^2}$ $rac{6!}{m^7}$ (iv) $rac{3}{128}$ (v) $(2^6)5!$ 2. $rac{1}{4}$ **Exercise 2.11** 1. $\frac{9}{2}$ 2 2. 4 3. 14 1 3

Exercise 2.12

Miscellaneous problems

1.
$$
\frac{2}{15} \left[(x+2)^{\frac{3}{2}} + (x+3)^{\frac{3}{2}} \right] + c
$$
 2.
$$
\frac{1}{5} \log \left| \frac{2+x}{1-2x} \right| + c
$$
 3.
$$
\frac{1}{4} \log \left| \frac{e^{x}+1}{e^{x}+5} \right| + c
$$

4.
$$
\frac{x}{2} \sqrt{2x^{2}-3} - \frac{3\sqrt{2}}{4} \log \left| \sqrt{2x} + \sqrt{2x^{2}-3} \right| + c
$$

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5.
$$
\frac{(3x+2)}{6}\sqrt{9x^2+12x+3}-\frac{1}{6}\log|(3x+2)+\sqrt{9x^2+12x+3}|+c
$$

\n6.
$$
\frac{1}{3}\left[\left(x+1\right)^3\log x-\frac{x^3}{3}-\frac{3x^2}{2}-3x-\log|x|\right]+c
$$

\n7.
$$
x\log\left(x-\sqrt{x^2-1}\right)+\sqrt{x^2-1}+c
$$

\n8. 0 9.
$$
\frac{1}{4}\left[\frac{e^4-5}{e^2}\right]
$$

\n10.
$$
\frac{14}{15}
$$

3. Integral Calculus – II

Exercise 3.1

1. 5 sq.units 2. 2 sq.units 3 $\frac{a^2}{2}$ sq.*units* 4. $\frac{3}{2}$ 2 *sq*.*units* 5. $\frac{17}{2}$ *sq.units* 6. $\frac{8}{3}$ *sq*.*units* 7. 32 ³ *sq*. *units*

Exercise 3.2

1.
$$
\overline{x}28,000
$$

2. $y = \left(\frac{2x-1}{3x+2}\right)$
3. $P = 8-2x, R = 8x-2x^2$
4. $\overline{x}4,419$
5. $\overline{x}5,680$

6. Total cost =
$$
100x - 5x^2 + \frac{0.1x^3}{3} + 500
$$
, Average Cost = $100 - 5x + \frac{x^2}{30} + \frac{500}{x}$
\n7. Total Cost = $\frac{1500}{7}x^{\frac{7}{5}}$, Average Cost = $\frac{1500}{7}x^{\frac{2}{5}}$
\n8. Cost function $C = 2\sqrt{ax + b} - 2\sqrt{b}$
\n9. ₹14,133.33
\n10. Total Revenue= ₹5,95,000
\n11. Demand function $P = 9 - \frac{4x^2}{3}$
\n13. Demand function $P = 20e^{\frac{x}{10}}$
\n14. Profit function = $13x - 0.065x^2 - 120$
\n15. Revenue function $R = 1500x - 2x^2 - x^3$, Average revenuefunction $P = 1500 - 2x - x^2$
\n16. Revenue function $R = 10x + \frac{3x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3}$, Demand function $P = 10 + \frac{3x}{2} - \frac{x^2}{3}$
\n17. Total Cost $C = 4000\sqrt{7x + 4} + 18000$, Average Cost $A.C = \frac{4000}{x}\sqrt{7x + 4} + \frac{18000}{x}$
\n18. $C = \frac{x^2}{4} + 5000$
\n19. Revenue function $R = 20x - \frac{5x^2}{2} + x^3$
\n20. Demand function $P = 14 - 3x + 3x^2$

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Exercise 3.3

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5.
$$
(x-1)(y+1) = C
$$
 6. (i) $\log y = \frac{-\cos 2x}{2} + C$ (ii) $\frac{e^{ax}}{a} = \frac{-e^{by}}{b} + C$
\n7. $(y-b)^2 = (x-a)^2 + b^2 - a^2$
\n**Exercise 4.3**
\n1. $x = Ce^x$ 2. $x + y = Ke^{x+y}$ 3. $y + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = x^2C$
\n4. $3y^2 - 4yx + 3x^2 = x^3C$ 5. $(xy - y^2)x = C$ 6. $y\sqrt{y^2 - x^2} = 2\sqrt{3}x^5$
\n7. $y = ce^{2y^2}$
\n**Exercise 4.4**
\n1. $\frac{y}{x} = x + C$ 2. $ye^{\sin x} = e^{\sin x}(\sin x - 1) + C$ 3. $x^2y = \frac{x^6}{6} + C$
\n4. $y(1+x^3) = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + C$ 5. $xy = e^x(x^2 - 2x + 2) + C$ 6. $y \sec x = \frac{1}{2}(x + \frac{\sin 2x}{2}) + C$
\n7. $y \sec^2 x = \sec x - 2$ 8. $x^2e^x - 2xe^x + 2e^x + c$ 9. \overline{x} 2,22,550
\n**Exercise 4.5**
\n1. $y = Ae^{2x} + Be^{4x}$ 2. $y = (Ax + B)e^{2x}$ 3. $y = e^{-x}(A\cos\sqrt{2}x + B\sin\sqrt{2}x)$
\n4. $y = (Ax + B)e^{kx}$ 5. $y = \frac{e^{-3x}}{12} + \frac{e^{5x}}{20}$ 6. $y = Ae^{\frac{1}{2}x} + Be^{\frac{3}{2}x} + \frac{e^{2x}}{21}$
\n7. $y = A\cos 4x + B\sin 4x$ 8. $y = e^x - \frac{3}{2}e^{2x} + \frac{e^{3x}}{$

13.
$$
P = Ae^{-4t} + Be^{2t} + 2
$$

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Exercise 4.6

Miscellaneous Problems

1.
$$
p = Ae^{-4t} + Be^{2t} + 3
$$

\n2. $x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 0$
\n3. $e^x(x^2 - 2x + 2) + \log y = c$
\n4. $x \left(1 + \frac{3y^2}{x^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = c$
\n5. $yx^2 = \frac{x^6}{6} + c$
\n6. $cm^2 = 2(m+6)$

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Miscellaneous Problems

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6. Random Variable and Mathematical Expectation

Exercise 6.1
\n1.
$$
\frac{p(X \le k) \mid 0.3 \mid 0.5 \mid 0.9 \mid 1}{p_X(3) = 0.3}
$$
\n2. $F_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for} < 3 \\ P_X(3) + P_X(5) = 0.5 & \text{for} 5 \le x < 8 \\ P_X(3) + P_X(5) + P_X(8) = 0.8 & \text{for} 8 \le x < 10 \\ 1 & \text{for} x \ge 10 \end{cases}$
\n5.
$$
\frac{X = x_1}{P(X = x_1)} = \begin{cases} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}
$$
\n6. (i) 1/10, (ii) 81/100, 19/100, 8/10 (iii) 4
\n7. Hint:
$$
\int_{-3}^{3} f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx + \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx + \int_{1}^{3} f(x) dx
$$
\n8. (i) $k = \frac{1}{16}$, (ii) $f(x) = \frac{1}{4}(x-1)^3$, $1 < x \le 3$
\n9. $A = \frac{1}{5}$, (i) $\frac{1}{e^2}$, (ii) $\frac{e-1}{e}$, (iii) $\frac{e-1}{e^2}$
\n10. (a) *yes*, $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, \text{for } x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}, \text{for } 0 \le x < 1 \\ 0, \text{for } 1 \le x < 2 \\ 0, \text{for } 1 \le x < 2 \end{cases}$
\n10. (a) *yes*, $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, \text{for } 1 \le x < 2 \\ 0, \text{for } 1 \le x < 2 \end{cases}$
\n(b) *fors* ≥ 4
\n**Exercise 6.2**

1. 3.5 2. 1.8 3. 0.78 4. $\frac{2}{3}$ 5. $\frac{3}{2}$ 3 $, \frac{3}{4}$ 6. ₹60

12. Expectation: ₹ 200; Variance: ₹ 21, 60,000; Standard Deviation: ₹ 1,469.69

13. 30 (or 30,000 miles) 14. Expectation: 1; Variance: 9 15. 20

Exercise 6.3

Miscellaneous problems

1. (i) ½ (ii) ¼ (iii) ½ (iv) ¾

2. (a) (i) 13/24 (ii) 0 (b) *X* is NOT discrete since *F* is not a step function.

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3.
$$
\frac{1}{4}
$$
; $\frac{1}{2}$ 4. (a) $\frac{1}{9}$ (b) $\frac{7}{9}$ 5. (i) $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{6}{5}$ (ii) $\frac{2}{25}$ 7. 1 9. $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{27}{80}$ 10. $\frac{1}{2}$
7. **Probability distributions**
Exercise: 7.1
6. (a) 0.059 (b) 0.2642 (c) 0.0133 (d) mean = 1 and variance = 0.95
7. (i) 0.01008 (ii) 0.000262 (iii) 0.09935 8. 0.375 9. 0.65536
10. (i) 0.3969 (ii) 0.45212 (iii) 0.9797 11. 5 or more trials 12. 0.7530
13. (i) 703 (ii) 516 (iii) 656 14. (i) 0.0634 (ii) 0.0634 (iii) 0.9729
15. 25/216 16. $\binom{25}{x}\left(\frac{1}{5}\right)^x\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^{(25-x)}$ 17. $\frac{3}{4^{14}}$ 18. 0.2626 19. 0.8743
20. (i) $\frac{80}{243}$ (ii) $\frac{192}{243}$

Exercise: 7.2

6. 0.2352 7. 0.0025 8. (i) 0.2231 (ii) 0.1912

9.(i) 0.08208 (ii) 0.2138 (iii) 0.1089 10. (i) 2 days (ii) 91 days (iiii) 43 days

11. 0.0265 12. (i) 0.1353 (ii) 0.3235

Exercise: 7.3

5. (i) 67 (ii) 134 (iii) 1637 6 (i) mean = 60.48 (ii) standard deviation = 19.78

7. (i) 0.9772 (ii) 0.49865 8. (a) 46 (b) 46 (c) 342

9. 0.719 10. (i) 0.2420 (ii) 0.8413

Exercise 7.4

Miscellaneous problems

1. (i) 0.89131 (ii) 0.34173 2. 0.03295 3. 0.98981 4. $0.0067379 \text{ or } 6.7379 \times 10^{-3}$ 5. 80.33% 6. a) 0.4013 (b) 0.3413 7. a) 30.85% b) 37.20% c) 10.56% 8. a) 0.9938 (b) 0.9878 (c) 0.3944 9. 0.2119 10. 7

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Exercise 8.1

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17. 0.008 18. 0.9487 19. 0.2739 20. 0.025

14. $|z| = 1.667$ 15. 1.2308 16. $|z| = 5$ 17. 3.536

Exercise 8.3

Exercise 8.2

Miscellaneous problems

5. 0.015 6. (a) $(66.86, 68.04)$ (b) $(66.67, 68.22)$ 7. $|z| = 2.67$

9. Applied Statistics

Exercise 9.1

13. Seasonal Indices

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The Grand Average = 3.95

14. Three yearly moving average

15. Five yearly moving average

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16. Free hand method

17. *a* = 169.428 ; *b* = 3.285 ; *Y* = 169.428 + 3.285 *X*

18.
$$
a = 54
$$
; $b = 5.4$; $Y = 54 + 5.4$ X
\nWhen $X = 2000$, $\hat{Y} = 54 + 5.4$ (2000-2002) = 43.2
\nWhen $X = 2001$, $\hat{Y} = 54 + 5.4$ (2001-2002) = 48.6
\nWhen $X = 2002$, $\hat{Y} = 54 + 5.4$ (2002-2002) = 54
\nWhen $X = 2003$, $\hat{Y} = 54 + 5.4$ (2003-2002) = 59.4
\nWhen $X = 2004$, $\hat{Y} = 54 + 5.4$ (2004-2002) = 64.8

19. Semi- Average I = 276.666

Semi- Average II = 213.333

20. Monthly Indices

Grand Average = 17.4

21. Seasonal Indices

Grand Average = 72.8

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22. $a = 48.8$; $b = 2$; $Y = 48.8 + 2 X$ When $X = 1992$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1992 - 1994) = 44.8$ When $X = 1993$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1993-1994) = 46.8$ When $X = 1994$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1994-1994) = 48.8$ When $X = 1995$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1995-1994) = 50.8$ When $X = 1996$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1996-1994) = 52.8$ When $X = 1997$, $\hat{Y} = 48.8 + 2(1997-1994) = 54.8$

Exercise 9.2

14. Laspeyre's IN = 144.8 Paasche's IN = 144.4 15. Laspeyre's IN = 164.5 Paasche's IN = 162.4 16. Laspeyre's IN = 106.6 Paasche's IN = 106.8 Fisher's IN= 106.7 17. Fisher's IN = 138.5 TRT= 1 FRT = 1880/1560 18. Fisher's IN = 83.6

- 19. Fisher's IN = 122.314 TRT = 1
- 20. Cost of Living Index =2662.38
- 21. Cost of Living Index = 117.31

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22. Cost of Living Index = 130.6192

Exercise 9.3

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Exercise 9.4

Miscellaneous problems

- 1. Three yearly moving Average 148, 149.33, 152.33, 168.33, 253.33, 261.33, 281.67, 302.67, 327.
- 2. Four yearly moving Average 708.75, 729.25, 748.25, 768.25, 784.5
- 3. $Y = 55.975 + 0.825X$
- 4. L= 49.9 P= 50.32 Fisher's = 50.09
- 5. Fisher =139.8

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- 6. Consumer price index = 118.77
- 7. CLI = 126⋅ 10. The cost of living has increased upto 26.10% in 2011 as compared to 2010.

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10. Control chart for Mean Control chart for Range $LCL = 4.774$ $LCL = 0$ $CL = 4.982$ $CL = 0.36$ $UCL = 5.19$ $UCL = 0.7614$

10. Operations Research

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Exercise 10.1

- 5. $x_{11} = 16$, $x_{12} = 3$, $x_{22} = 15$, $x_{23} = 22$, $x_{33} = 9$, $x_{34} = 25$ Total Cost = ₹ 580
- 6. $x_{11} = 30$, $x_{21} = 5$, $x_{22} = 28$, $x_{23} = 7$, $x_{33} = 25$, $x_{34} = 25$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 1,076
- 7. $x_{11} = 15$, $x_{13} = 10$, $x_{23} = 35$, $x_{31} = 15$, $x_{32} = 25$, Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 580
- 8. $x_{11} = 1$, $x_{12} = 5$, $x_{24} = 1$, $x_{31} = 6$, $x_{33} = 3$, $x_{34} = 1$, Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 102
- 9. $x_{11} = 10$, $x_{13} = 20$, $x_{21} = 20$, $x_{22} = 20$, $x_{24} = 10$, $x_{32} = 20$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 370
- 10. $x_{11} = 3$, $x_{12} = 1$, $x_{22} = 2$, $x_{23} = 4$, $x_{24} = 2$, $x_{34} = 3$, $x_{35} = 6$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 153

11. (i)
$$
x_{11} = 7
$$
, $x_{21} = 3$, $x_{22} = 9$, $x_{32} = 1$, $x_{33} = 10$,
Total Cost = ₹ 94

- (ii) $x_{13} = 7, x_{21} = 10, x_{23} = 2, x_{32} = 10, x_{33} = 1$, Total Cost = \bar{z} 61
- (iii) $x_{11} = 7$, $x_{21} = 2$, $x_{23} = 10$, $x_{31} = 1$, $x_{32} = 10$, Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 40
- 12. $x_{11} = 200, x_{21} = 50, x_{22} = 175, x_{23} = 125, x_{32} = 150, x_{33} = 250$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 12,200

Exercise 10.2

4. 46 5. 280 6. 41 Hours 7. 37 8. 12

Exercise 10.3

1. (i) S_1 (ii) S_2 2. (a) Crop C (b) Crop B and Crop C 3. (i) Egg shampoo (ii) Egg Shampoo 4. (i) A_3 (ii) A_2 and A_3

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Exercise 10.4

Miscellaneous Problems

1. $x_{11} = 5$ $x_{21} = 2$, $x_{22} = 6$, $x_{32} = 3$, $x_{33} = 4$, $x_{43} = 14$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 102

2. (a)
$$
x_{12} = 10
$$
 $x_{13} = 20$, $x_{21} = 30$, $x_{22} = 20$, $x_{24} = 10$, $x_{32} = 20$
\n(b) $x_{11} = 10$ $x_{13} = 20$, $x_{21} = 20$, $x_{22} = 20$, $x_{24} = 10$, $x_{32} = 20$
\nTotal cost = ₹ 370

- 3. $x_{11} = 15$ $x_{13} = 10$, $x_{23} = 35$, $x_{31} = 15$, $x_{32} = 25$, $x_{32} = 20$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 560
- 4. $x_{12} = 1$ $x_{12} = 5$, $x_{24} = 1$, $x_{31} = 6$, $x_{33} = 3$, $x_{34} = 1$ Total Cost = $\overline{5}$ 102
- 5. A \rightarrow e, B \rightarrow c, C \rightarrow b, D \rightarrow a, E \rightarrow d Minimum Distance =570 miles
- 6. $1 \rightarrow 11, 2 \rightarrow 8, 3 \rightarrow 7, 4 \rightarrow 9, 5 \rightarrow 10, 6 \rightarrow 12$ Minimum distance =125 kms
- 7. (i) Debenture : 6000

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(ii) Stocks : 1000

LOGARITHM TABLE

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LOGARITHM TABLE

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0.99 2.69123447 7.31553376 19.88568249 54.05488936 146.93642350 399.41460993 1085.72147619 2951.29695948 8022.45689535 21807.29879823

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This table provides the area between the mean and some Z score. For example, when Z score = 1.45 the area = 0.4265 .

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