

Math cheatsheet for PHYS 191/192

Linear Algebra

Roots of quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are given by:

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

Inverse operations:

if $y = x^n$, then $x = y^{1/n}$ (n-th root)

if $y = x^n$, then $\frac{1}{y} = x^{-n}$

if $x = \sin \theta$, then $\theta = \sin^{-1} x$ [similar expressions of cosine, tan, etc]

if $y = \ln x$, then $x = e^y$; if $y = \log x$, then $x = 10^y$

Trigonometry

Convert between radian and degree: θ (in radians) = θ (in degrees) $\times \frac{\pi}{180}$

Definition of angle using arc length and radius: $\theta = \frac{s}{r}$, where s is the arc length and r is the radius.

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}; \sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

$\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$: This also means that $\sin \theta = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}$, and $\cos \theta = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}$

$\sec^2 \theta - \tan^2 \theta = 1$: This also means that $\sec \theta = \sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \theta}$, and $\tan \theta = \sqrt{\sec^2 \theta - 1}$

Trig functions of sums of angles:

$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$, This also gives: $\sin 2A = 2 \sin A \cos A$

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

$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$, This also gives: $\cos 2A = \cos^2 A - \sin^2 A$

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

Using the $\cos 2A$ formula and $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$ above we can also write:

$$\cos^2 A = \frac{1 + \cos 2A}{2}; \text{ and } \sin^2 A = \frac{1 - \cos 2A}{2}$$

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

$$\sin A + \sin B = 2 \sin \left(\frac{A+B}{2} \right) \cos \left(\frac{A-B}{2} \right)$$

$$\sin A - \sin B = 2 \cos \left(\frac{A+B}{2} \right) \sin \left(\frac{A-B}{2} \right)$$

$$\cos A + \cos B = 2 \cos \left(\frac{A+B}{2} \right) \cos \left(\frac{A-B}{2} \right)$$

$$\cos A - \cos B = -2 \sin \left(\frac{A+B}{2} \right) \sin \left(\frac{A-B}{2} \right)$$

Calculus

Limit: $\sin \theta \approx \theta$, $\cos \theta \approx 1$, and $\tan \theta \approx \theta$ for $\theta \rightarrow 0$

DIFFERENTIATION:

$$\frac{d}{dx} C = 0, \text{ where } C \text{ is constant.}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^n = n x^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} Cx^n = C \frac{d}{dx} x^n = n C x^{n-1}$$

$$\text{Most generally: } \frac{d}{dx} (C_1 x^n + C_2 x^m + \dots) = n C_1 x^{n-1} + m C_2 x^{m-1} + \dots$$

Basically, differentiation operation distributes into each term in a sum, and only acts on the function w.r.t which the differentiation is done (in this case x). **Same goes for integration.**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x; \frac{d}{dx} \cos x = -\sin x; \frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x; \frac{d}{dx} \sec x = \sec x \tan x$$

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

$$\text{similarly: } \frac{d}{dx} \cos^n x = \frac{d}{d(\cos x)} \cos^n x \cdot \frac{d(\cos x)}{dx} = -n \cos^{n-1} x \cdot \sin x$$

and so forth for the other trig functions. This technique is also called the chain rule. In its most general form it is written as:

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(u) = \frac{d}{du} f(u) \cdot \frac{du}{dx}. \text{ You can convince yourself by choosing } u = \sin x, \text{ and } u = \cos x$$

to derive the expressions of differentiation of $\sin^n x$ and $\cos^n x$ above using the chain rule.

Inverse trig functions: $\frac{d}{dx} \sin^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$; $\frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1} x = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$

$\frac{d}{dx} e^{\alpha x} = \alpha e^{\alpha x}$; $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

Double derivative: $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)$

Meaning of derivative:

If an equation of a curve is given as $y = f(x)$, then the derivative $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is the slope of the curve.

For the simplest case the equation of line $y = mx + c$, the slope is $\frac{d}{dx}(mx + c) = m$, which we know is really the slope of the line.

Maxima and minima: To find the maxima or minima of a function $f(x)$, we first set its derivative to be zero, $\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 0$. We solve for the x . We then calculate the double derivative $\frac{d^2 f}{dx^2}$ at that value of x . If the answer is positive then said point is a minima, and its a maxima if the double derivative is negative.

Product rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \frac{df}{dx}g + f \frac{dg}{dx}$

Quotient rule: $\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) = \frac{\frac{df}{dx}g - f \frac{dg}{dx}}{(g(x))^2}$

INTEGRATION

The integral of the function is the inverse operation of differentiation. Or in other words if you differentiate a function $f(x)$ to get another function $F(x)$ then the integral of that function will give you back the original function $f(x)$ (with a constant term).

STANDARD FORMS:

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

$$\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C; \int \cos x dx = \sin x + C; \int \sec^2 x dx = \tan x + C;$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x dx = \sec x + C$$

$$\int \sin nx dx = -\frac{\cos nx}{n} + C, \text{ and likewise for the other trig functions.}$$

$$\int e^{\alpha x} dx = \frac{e^x}{\alpha} + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + C$$

INTEGRATION BY PARTS:

$$\int u(x) v(x) dx = v(x) \int u(x) dx - \int dx \left(\frac{dv}{dx} \int u(x) dx \right)$$

choose $u(x)$ as the part of the function that is easy to integrate, and $v(x)$ as the part of the function that becomes simpler upon differentiating.

Example: $\int x \sin x dx$

choose $u(x) = \sin x$, and $v(x) = x$. This is because we know how to integrate $\sin x$ and differentiating x gives 1 making it simpler.

METHOD OF SUBSTITUTION:

If an integral is not given in a standard form, we can try to reduce it to a standard form by clever substitutions. When substituting, all variables must be substituted, even the dx terms.

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

Let us substitute $x = \sin \theta$ then $\sqrt{1-x^2} = \cos \theta$, and $dx = d(\sin \theta) = \cos \theta d\theta$. Thus the integral becomes

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \rightarrow \int \frac{\cos \theta d\theta}{\cos \theta} = \int d\theta = \theta + C$$

But since $\theta = \sin^{-1} x$, therefore: $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} x + C$

We can see that must be true because in the differentiation section we saw that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

DEFINITE INTEGRAL:

if $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$ then,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Geometrically, this gives the area under the curve of the function $F(x)$ between $x = a$ and $x = b$