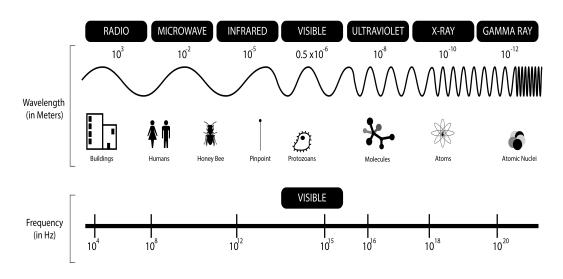
# CARDIFF UNIVERSITY

# School of Physics and Astronomy

# MATHEMATICAL FORMULAE AND PHYSICAL CONSTANTS

#### THE ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM



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#### 1 ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA AND TRIGNOMETRY

#### 1.1 Logarithms and exponentials

$$\ln x = \log_e x = \int_1^x \frac{dt}{t}, \quad x > 0, \quad e = 2.718281828...$$

$$\log_a x = (\log_b x)(\log_a b)$$

$$\log_a b = \frac{1}{\log_b a}$$

$$a^x = \exp(x \ln a)$$

#### 1.2 Trigonometric functions

$$\sec \theta = 1/\cos \theta \qquad \csc \theta = 1/\sin \theta \qquad \cot \theta = 1/\tan \theta$$
$$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta \qquad \cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta \qquad \tan(-\theta) = -\tan \theta$$
$$\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta - \tan^2 \theta = \csc^2 \theta - \cot^2 \theta = 1$$

#### 1.3 Compound formulae: sines, cosines and tangents

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

$$\cos(A \pm B) = \cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B$$

$$\tan(A \pm B) = \frac{\tan A \pm \tan B}{1 \mp \tan A \tan B}$$

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

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

$$2 \sin A \sin B = -\cos(A + B) + \cos(A - B) \quad \text{note minus sign of first term}$$

$$\sin A + \sin B = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$$

$$\sin A - \sin B = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$$

$$\cos A + \cos B = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A - B)$$

$$\cos A - \cos B = -2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A + B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A - B) \quad \text{(note minus signs)}$$

#### 1.4 Double-angle formulae

$$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin \theta \cos \theta$$

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta = 2\cos^2 \theta - 1 = 1 - 2\sin^2 \theta$$

$$\sin^2 \theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta)$$

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta)$$

#### 1.5 "Tan of half-angle" formulae

If 
$$t = \tan \theta/2$$
, then

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

#### 1.6 Triangle sine and cosine formulae

If in a triangle A, B and C are the angles opposite sides of lengths a, b and c respectively,

$$a^{2} = b^{2} + c^{2} - 2bc \cos A$$
$$\frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C}$$

#### 1.7 Hyperbolic functions

$$\cosh \theta = \frac{1}{2} (e^{\theta} + e^{-\theta}) \qquad \sinh \theta = \frac{1}{2} (e^{\theta} - e^{-\theta})$$

$$\tanh \theta = \frac{\sinh \theta}{\cosh \theta} = \frac{e^{\theta} - e^{-\theta}}{e^{\theta} + e^{-\theta}}$$

$$\coth \theta = \frac{\cosh \theta}{\sinh \theta} = \frac{1}{\tanh \theta} = \frac{e^{\theta} + e^{-\theta}}{e^{\theta} - e^{-\theta}}$$

$$\operatorname{sech} \theta = \frac{1}{\cosh \theta} \qquad \operatorname{cosech} \theta = \frac{1}{\sinh \theta}$$

$$\cosh^{2} \theta - \sinh^{2} \theta = 1$$

$$\operatorname{sech}^{2} \theta - \operatorname{cosech}^{2} \theta = 1$$

#### 1.8 Stirling's approximation

$$\ln{(n!)} \approx n \ln{n} - n$$
 for  $n \gg 1$   
An even closer approximation is 
$$\ln{n!} \approx n \ln{n} - n + \frac{1}{2} \ln{(2\pi n)}$$

#### 2 SERIES FORMULAE

#### 2.1 Sums of progressions to n terms

(i) Arithmetic Progression (A.P.):

$$\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (a+md) = a + (a+d) + (a+2d) + \dots + (a+(n-1)d)$$
$$= (n/2) [2a + (n-1)d] = (n/2) (\text{first term} + \text{last term})$$

(ii) Geometric Progression (G.P.):

$$S_n = \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} (ar^m) = a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r} = \frac{a(r^n-1)}{r-1}$$

For an infinite number of terms, if |r| < 1

$$S_{\infty} = \frac{a}{1 - r}$$

#### 2.2 Binomial series

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-r+1)}{r!}x^r + \dots$$

(Note that 0! = 1).

If n is a positive integer, the series terminates.

Otherwise, the series converges so long as |x| < 1.

$$(a+x)^n = a^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{a}\right)^n$$

#### 2.3 Taylor's Theorem

(i) Single Variable:

The value of a function f(x) given the value of the function and its relevant derivatives at x = a, is

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (x-a)^n f^{(n)}(a) = f(a) + (x-a)f'(a) + \frac{(x-a)^2}{2!} f''(a) + \frac{(x-a)^3}{3!} f'''(a) + \cdots$$

If a=0, this series expansion is often called a Maclaurin Series.

(ii) Two Variables:

$$f(x,y) = f(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y + \frac{1}{2!} \left[ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \Delta x^2 + 2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \Delta x \Delta y + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \Delta y^2 \right] + \cdots$$
where  $\Delta x = x - x_0, \Delta y = y - y_0$   
and all the derivatives are evaluated at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

#### 2.4 Power series in algebra and trigonometry

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^{2}}{2} + \frac{x^{3}}{3} - \frac{x^{4}}{4} + \cdots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} - \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \cdots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} - \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \cdots$$

$$\sinh x = x + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} + \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \cdots$$

$$\cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \frac{x^{6}}{6!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^{2} - x^{3} + \cdots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1.$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + \cdots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1.$$

#### 3 DERIVATIVES AND INTEGRALS

#### 3.1 Derivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx}\tan x = \sec^2 x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}\cot x = -\csc^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sec x = \sec x \tan x \qquad \frac{d}{dx}\csc x = -\csc x \cot x$$

#### Product rule:

Given f(x) = u(x)v(x) then

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

#### Chain rule:

Given u(x) and f(u), then

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{df}{du}\frac{du}{dx}$$

#### 3.2 Partial differentiation

The total differential df of a function f(x, y) is

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}dy$$

The chain rule for partial differentiation.

If f(x,y) and x and y are functions of another variable, so that x(u) and y(u), then

$$\frac{df}{du} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{du} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{du}$$

#### 3.3 Indefinite integrals

The constant of integration is omitted. Where the logarithm of a quantity is given, that quantity is taken as positive. a is a positive constant.

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{or} \quad -\cos^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{(principal value)}$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{(principal value)}$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{a^2 - x^2} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2a} \ln \frac{a + x}{a - x} = \frac{1}{a} \tanh^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{(if } |x| < a) \\ \frac{1}{2a} \ln \frac{x + a}{x - a} = \frac{1}{a} \coth^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{(if } |x| > a) \end{cases}$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = \sinh^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{or} \quad \ln (x + \sqrt{a^2 + x^2})$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \cosh^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{or} \quad \ln (x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2})$$

$$\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} x \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} + \frac{1}{2} a^2 \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \text{(principal value)}$$

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

#### 3.4 Indefinite integrals involving sines, cosines and exponentials

$$\int \cot x \, dx = \ln(\cos x) = \ln(\sec x)$$

$$\int \cot x \, dx = \ln(\sin x)$$

$$\int \sec x \, dx = \ln(\sec x + \tan x) = \ln\left(\tan\left(\frac{x}{2} + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right) = \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{1 + \sin x}{1 - \sin x}\right)$$

$$\int \csc x \, dx = \ln(\csc x - \cot x) = \ln\left(\tan\frac{x}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(\frac{1 - \cos x}{1 + \cos x}\right)$$

$$\int \sin^{-1}\frac{x}{a} \, dx = x \sin^{-1}\frac{x}{a} + \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$$

$$\int \cos^{-1}\frac{x}{a} \, dx = x \cos^{-1}\frac{x}{a} - \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$$

$$\int a^x \, dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a}$$

$$\int x^n e^{-ax} \, dx = -e^{-ax}\left(\frac{x^n}{a} + \frac{nx^{n-1}}{a^2} + \frac{n(n-1)x^{n-2}}{a^3} + \cdots + \frac{n!x^n}{a^n} + \frac{n!}{a^{n+1}}\right) (n \text{ a non-negative integer})$$

$$\int e^{ax} \sin bx \, dx = e^{ax}\frac{a \sin bx - b \cos bx}{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\int e^{ax} \cos bx \, dx = e^{ax}\frac{a \cos bx + b \sin bx}{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\int x \sin ax \, dx = \frac{\sin ax}{a^2} - \frac{x \cos ax}{a}$$

$$\int \ln x \, dx = x \ln x - x$$

$$\int \sinh x \, dx = \cosh x \int \cosh x \, dx = \sinh x$$

$$\int \tanh x \, dx = \ln(\cosh x)$$

#### 3.5 Integration by parts

If u and v are functions of x,

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

#### 3.6 Definite integrals involving sines and cosines

If m and n are positive integers

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin mx \sin nx \ dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \delta_{mn} \qquad \qquad \int_0^{\pi} \cos mx \cos nx \ dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \delta_{mn}$$

where

$$\delta_{mn} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m = n \\ 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \end{cases}$$

is the Kronecker delta.

$$\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \sin mx \cos nx \ dx = 0$$

#### 3.7 Definite integrals involving exponentials

$$\int_0^\infty x e^{-\alpha x} dx = \frac{1}{\alpha^2}$$

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}}$$

$$\int_0^\infty x e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2\alpha}$$

$$\int_0^\infty x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^3}}$$

$$\int_0^\infty x^3 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2\alpha^2}$$

$$\int_0^\infty x^4 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{3}{8} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^5}}$$

$$\int_0^y e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \operatorname{erf}(y)$$

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

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = 0$$

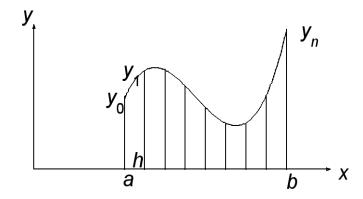
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2} e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^{3}}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{3} e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{4} e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = \frac{3}{4} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^{5}}}$$

$$\int_{0}^{y} e^{-\alpha x^{2}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} \operatorname{erf}(\sqrt{\alpha} y)$$

#### 3.8 Numerical integration



The interval between a and b is divided into equal intervals h. y has values  $y_0, y_1, y_2 \cdots y_n$ .

#### 3.8.1 Trapezoidal rule

$$\int_{a}^{b} y dx = h\left(\frac{y_0}{2} + y_1 + y_2 + \dots + \frac{y_n}{2}\right)$$

#### 3.8.2 Simpson rule

If there is an odd number of y-values (an even number of intervals),

$$\int_{a}^{b} y dx = \frac{h}{3} \left\{ y_0 + 4(y_1 + y_3 + \dots + y_{n-1}) + 2(y_2 + y_4 + \dots + y_{n-2}) + y_n \right\}.$$

#### 3.9 Newton-Raphson Method for Finding the Root of an Equation

The root is found by successive approximations.

If the equation is f(x) = 0 and  $x_j$  is the jth approximation of the root

$$x_j = x_{j-1} - \frac{f(x_{j-1})}{f'(x_{j-1})}$$
 where  $f' = \frac{df}{dx}$ 

#### 4 COMPLEX NUMBERS

#### 4.1 Definitions etc.

$$z=x+iy=r(\cos\theta+i\sin\theta)=re^{i\theta}$$
 Complex conjugate of  $z$  is  $z^*=x-iy=re^{-i\theta}$  Modulus or amplitude of  $z$  is  $|z|=\sqrt{x^2+y^2}=r=\sqrt{zz^*}$  Argument of  $z$  is  $\arg z=\tan^{-1}\frac{y}{x}=\theta$  Real part of  $z$  is  $\operatorname{Re}(z)=x=r\cos\theta=\frac{z+z^*}{2}$  Imaginary part of  $z$  is  $\operatorname{Im}(z)=y=r\sin\theta=\frac{z-z^*}{2i}$ 

#### 4.2 De Moivre's theorem

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos (n\theta) + i \sin (n\theta)$$

# 4.3 Formulae involving $e^{i\theta}$ etc.

$$\begin{split} e^{\pm i\theta} &= \cos\theta \pm i\sin\theta \\ &\cos\theta = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}) \\ &\sin\theta = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}) \\ &i\tan\theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}} = \frac{e^{2i\theta} - 1}{e^{2i\theta} + 1} = \frac{1 - e^{-2i\theta}}{1 + e^{-2i\theta}} \end{split}$$

#### 5 SPECIAL FUNCTIONS

#### 5.1 Spherical harmonics

A general equation which gives the 'right' phase factors (as used in quantum mechanics) is

$$Y_l^m = \left\{ \frac{(2l+1)(l-m)!}{4\pi(l+m)!} \right\}^{1/2} \frac{1}{2^l l!} e^{im\phi} (-\sin\theta)^m \left\{ \frac{d}{d(\cos\theta)} \right\}^{l+m} (\cos^2\theta - 1)^l$$

which can also be expressed

$$Y_l^m(\theta,\phi) = P_l^m(\cos\theta) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im\phi},$$

where  $P_l^m(\cos\theta)$  is a normalised associated Legendre polynomial.

$$Y_0^0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}}$$
 
$$Y_2^0 = \sqrt{\frac{5}{16\pi}} \left( 2\cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta \right)$$
 
$$Y_1^0 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} \cos \theta$$
 
$$Y_2^{\pm 1} = \mp \sqrt{\frac{15}{8\pi}} \cos \theta \sin \theta e^{\pm i\phi}$$
 
$$Y_1^{\pm 1} = \mp \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} \sin \theta e^{\pm i\phi}$$
 
$$Y_2^{\pm 2} = \mp \sqrt{\frac{15}{32\pi}} \sin^2 \theta e^{\pm 2i\phi}$$

#### 5.2 The gamma function

This is defined as

$$\Gamma(n) = \int_0^\infty t^{n-1} e^{-t} dt$$
$$= \int_0^1 \left( \ln \frac{1}{t} \right)^{n-1} dt$$

where n > 0 (n can be an integer or a non-integer)

$$\Gamma(n+1) = n\Gamma(n)$$

If n is an integer  $\geq 0$ ,  $\Gamma(n+1) = n!$ 

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$
 
$$\Gamma(n)\Gamma(1-n) = \frac{\pi}{\sin n\pi} \text{ for } n \text{ a non-integer}$$

#### 5.3 Bessel functions

$$J_{n}(x) = \sum_{\lambda=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{\lambda}}{\Gamma(\lambda+1)\Gamma(\lambda+n+1)} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{n+2\lambda}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left\{ x^{-n} J_{n}(x) \right\} = -x^{-n} J_{n+1}(x) \qquad \qquad \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ x^{n} J_{n}(x) \right\} = x^{n} J_{n-1}(x)$$

$$J_{0}(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \exp\left(ix \cos\phi\right) d\phi \qquad \qquad z J_{1}(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{z} x J_{0}(x) dx$$

#### 6 DETERMINANTS AND MATRICES

#### 6.1 Definition of a determinant

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & \dots & A_{3n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & A_{n3} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{j} (-1)^{k+j} A_{kj} M_{kj} = \sum_{i} (-1)^{k+i} A_{ik} M_{ik}$$

where  $M_{ij}$  is the minor of  $A_{ij}$  in A, the determinant of the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  matrix obtained by deleting the *i*th row and the *j*th column passing through  $A_{ij}$ . The number  $(-1)^{i+j}M_{ij}$  is called the cofactor of  $A_{ij}$ . By repeating this process the determinant of A can be found.

#### Properties of Determinants

- |A| is unaltered if rows and columns are interchanged.
- |A| is unaltered if any row (or constant any row) is added to or subtracted from another row.
- |A| is unaltered if any column (or constant any column) is added to or subtracted from another column.
- |A| = 0 if any row or column is zero.
- |A| = 0 if the matrix has two identical rows or columns.
- If all the elements of any two rows, or any two columns, are interchanged, |A| changes sign.
- If all the elements of any row or column are multiplied by a constant  $\lambda$ , |A| is multiplied by  $\lambda$ .
- |AB| = |A| |B| the determinant of the product is the product of the determinants.
- If a  $n \times n$  matrix is nultiplied by a scalar a, then its determinant is increaseed by factor  $a^n$ .

# 6.2 Consistency of n simultaneous equations with n variables and no constants.

If the equations

$$A_{11}x_1 + A_{12}x_2 + A_{13}x_3 + \dots + A_{1n}x_n = 0$$

$$A_{21}x_1 + A_{22}x_2 + A_{23}x_3 + \dots + A_{2n}x_n = 0$$

$$\dots$$

$$A_{n1}x_1 + A_{n2}x_2 + A_{n3}x_3 + \dots + A_{nn}x_n = 0$$

are consistent, then

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & \dots & A_{3n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & A_{n3} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

# 6.3 Solutions of n simultaneous equations with n variables and with constants.

The equations

$$A_{11}x_1 + A_{12}x_{2+}A_{13}x_3 + \dots + A_{1n}x_n + C_1 = 0$$

$$A_{21}x_1 + A_{22}x_{2+}A_{23}x_3 + \dots + A_{2n}x_n + C_2 = 0$$

$$\dots \dots$$

$$A_{n1}x_1 + A_{n2}x_{2+}A_{n3}x_3 + \dots + A_{nn}x_n + C_n = 0$$

have a solution

$$\frac{x_1}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{12} & A_{13} & \dots & C_1 \\ A_{22} & A_{23} & \dots & C_2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n2} & A_{n3} & \dots & C_n \end{vmatrix}} = \frac{-x_2}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{13} & \dots & C_1 \\ A_{21} & A_{23} & \dots & C_2 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n3} & \dots & C_n \end{vmatrix}} = \dots = \frac{(-1)^n}{\begin{vmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n3} & \dots & C_n \end{vmatrix}}$$

#### 6.4 Matrices: basic equations

Linear equations like:

$$y_{1} = A_{11}x_{1} + A_{12}x_{2} + A_{13}x_{3} + \dots + A_{1n}x_{n}$$

$$y_{2} = A_{21}x_{1} + A_{22}x_{2} + A_{23}x_{3} + \dots + A_{2n}x_{n}$$

$$\dots \dots$$

$$y_{n} = A_{n1}x_{1} + A_{n2}x_{2} + A_{n3}x_{3} + \dots + A_{nn}x_{n}$$

can be expressed in matrix form as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} & \dots & A_{2n} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & \dots & A_{3n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ A_{n1} & A_{n2} & A_{n3} & \dots & A_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

x and y are column vectors, A is a n by n matrix. Usually the matrices to be considered are square.

#### 6.5 Rules of matrix algebra

Given matrices A and B,

$$(A+B)_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}$$
$$(\lambda A)_{ij} = \lambda A_{ij}$$
$$(AB)_{ij} = \sum_{l} A_{il} B_{lj}$$

You must remember that matrix algebra is not commutative in general; in other words we generally have:

$$AB \neq BA$$
.

#### 6.6 Trace of a square matrix

$$\operatorname{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i} A_{ii}$$

$$Tr(AB) = Tr(BA)$$

#### 6.7 Transpose of matrix

The transpose of a matrix A is written as  $A^T$  and is obtained by interchanging rows and columns.

$$A_{ij}^T = A_{ji}$$

The complex conjugate transpose of a matrix A is denoted by  $A^{\dagger}$ . It is also called the Hermitian conjugate.

$$A_{ij}^{\dagger} = A_{ji}^{*}$$

#### 6.8 Inverse of a matrix

 $A^{-1}$  is the inverse of the matrix A if  $AA^{-1}=A^{-1}A=I$  where I is the unit matrix.

An explicit expression for  $A^{-1}$  is:

$$(A^{-1})_{ij} = \frac{(-1)^{j+i} M_{ji}}{|A|}$$

where  $(-1)^{i+j}M_{ij}$  is called the cofactor of  $A_{ij}$ .

$$(ABC..X)^{-1} = X^{-1}...B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

#### 6.9 Special matrices

If a square matrix is equal to its transpose, ie,  $A = A^T$ , it is said to be *symmetric*. If  $A = -A^T$ , it is anti-symmetric. Any real, square matrix can be written as the sum of a symmetric and an anti-symmetric matrix.

An orthogonal matrix is one such that  $A^T = A^{-1}$ , ie, its inverse is its transpose. This implies that A is non-singular and as  $A^T A = I$ , its determinant is  $\pm 1$ .

A Hermitian matrix satisfies the relation  $A = A^{\dagger}$ . Any complex n by n matrix can be written as a sum of a Hermitian and an anti-Hermitian matrix.

Unitary matrices have the special property that  $A^{\dagger} = A^{-1}$ . Finally, normal matrices are ones that commute with their Hermitian conjugates.

#### 6.10 Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a square matrix

For a square  $n \times n$  matrix A there are n eigenvalues  $\lambda$  with associated eigenvalues x which satisfy:

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

x is a vector, which when operated on by A is simply scaled. The eigenvalues are determined by finding the non-trivial solutions of

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0.$$

The left-hand side is a polynomial of order n, so this equation – the characteristic equation – has n roots giving the n eigenvalues (which are not necessarily distinct).

#### 6.11 Similarity transform

The operation on a matrix A to produce a matrix  $B = Q^{-1}AQ$  is called a similarity transformation. Under a similarity transform,

$$\operatorname{Tr} B = \operatorname{Tr} A$$
  
 $|B| = |A|$ 

#### 6.12 Diagonalisation of a matrix A with different eigenvalues

If Q is a matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of a matrix A, then  $Q^{-1}AQ$  is diagonal and has elements which are the eigenvalues of A.

#### 6.13 Representation of a rotation by a matrix R

A real orthogonal  $3 \times 3$  matrix R with determinant = 1 represents a rotation in 3-dimensional space.

The angle of implied rotation  $\theta$  is given by  $\text{Tr}R = 1 + 2\cos\theta$ .

The axis of implied rotation is a column vector u which is the solution of Ru = u.

#### 7 VECTORS

Throughout, i, j and k are unit vectors parallel to Ox, Oy and Oz respectively.

#### 7.1 Definition of the scalar (or dot) product of two vectors

 $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta$  (with  $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ ) where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ .

#### 7.2 Properties of the scalar product

$$\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 1.$$

$$\mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{j} \cdot \mathbf{k} = 0.$$

If  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ , and the moduli of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are non-zero, then  $\mathbf{a}$  is perpendicular (orthogonal) to  $\mathbf{b}$ .

If 
$$\mathbf{a} = a_x \mathbf{i} + a_y \mathbf{j} + a_z \mathbf{k}$$
 and  $\mathbf{b} = b_x \mathbf{i} + b_y \mathbf{j} + b_z \mathbf{k}$ ,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_x b_x + a_y b_y + a_z b_z$$

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = |\mathbf{a}|^2 = a_x^2 + a_y^2 + a_z^2$$

$$\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i})\mathbf{i} + (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{j})\mathbf{j} + (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{k})\mathbf{k}$$

#### 7.3 Definition of the vector (or cross) product of two vectors

 $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{n}}$  (with  $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ ) where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , and where  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  is the unit vector perpendicular to the plane of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  and such that  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  form a right-handed system.

#### 7.4 Properties of the vector product

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{k} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{a}$$

If 
$$\mathbf{a} = a_x \mathbf{i} + a_u \mathbf{j} + a_z \mathbf{k}$$
 and  $\mathbf{b} = b_x \mathbf{i} + b_u \mathbf{j} + b_z \mathbf{k}$ ,

$$\mathbf{a} imes \mathbf{b} = \left| egin{array}{ccc} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \ a_x & a_y & a_z \ b_x & b_y & b_z \ \end{array} 
ight|$$

 $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta$  is the area of a parallelogram with sides  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ , having an angle  $\theta$  between the adjacent sides.

 $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} = 0$  and the moduli of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are both non-zero, then  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are parallel or anti-parallel.

#### 7.5 Scalar triple product

 $[\mathbf{a} \ \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{c}] = \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$  which also equals  $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \cdot \mathbf{c}$ .

$$[a b c] = [b c a] = [c a b] = -[a c b] = -[b a c] = -[c b a].$$

If  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  are coplanar, then  $[\mathbf{a} \ \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{c}] = 0$ .

The volume of a parallelopiped with edges  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  is  $[\mathbf{a} \ \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{c}]$ .

#### 7.6 Vector triple product

$$\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c})\mathbf{b} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})\mathbf{c}$$

(Note that  $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) \neq (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$ , ie the vector product is not associative.)

#### 7.7 The del operator $\nabla$

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

#### 7.8 The gradient of a scalar function $\phi(x, y, z)$

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

 $\nabla \phi$  gives the magnitude and direction of the maximum (spatial) rate of change of  $\phi$ .

## 7.9 The divergence of a vector function $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = F_x \mathbf{i} + F_y \mathbf{j} + F_z \mathbf{k}$

div 
$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial z}$$
  
div  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{i} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial z}$ 

## 7.10 The curl of a vector function $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = F_x \mathbf{i} + F_y \mathbf{j} + F_z \mathbf{k}$

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{i} \left( \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial z} \right) + \mathbf{j} \left( \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial x} \right) + \mathbf{k} \left( \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right).$$

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{i} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial x} + \mathbf{j} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial y} + \mathbf{k} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial z} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ F_x & F_y & F_z \end{vmatrix}$$

#### 7.11 Compound operations

div grad 
$$\phi = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \phi) = \nabla^2 \phi = \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2}$$

 $(\nabla^2 \text{ is the Laplacian}).$ 

div curl 
$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) = [\nabla \nabla \mathbf{F}] = 0.$$

curl grad 
$$\phi = \nabla \times (\nabla \phi) = 0$$

curl curl 
$$\mathbf{F} = \nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) = \nabla(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) - \nabla^2 \mathbf{F} = \text{grad div} \mathbf{F} - \nabla^2 \mathbf{F}$$

where

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

These equations can 'deduced' by regarding  $\nabla$  as a vector

#### 7.12 Operations on sums and products

$$\nabla(\phi + \psi) = \nabla\phi + \nabla\psi$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{a} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \nabla \times \mathbf{a} + \nabla \times \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla(\phi \ \psi) = \phi \ \nabla \psi + \psi \ \nabla \phi$$

$$\nabla(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{a}) + \mathbf{a} \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{b})$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\phi \ \mathbf{a}) = \phi \ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{a} + (\nabla \phi) \ \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla \times \mathbf{b}$$

$$\nabla \times (\phi \mathbf{a}) = \phi \nabla \times \mathbf{a} + (\nabla \phi) \times \mathbf{a}$$

$$\nabla \times (\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) = (\mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{a} - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \nabla)\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \ (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{b}) - \mathbf{b} \ (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{a})$$

#### 7.13 Gauss's (divergence) theorem

Let V be a region, completely bounded by a closed surface S with outward drawn unit normal **n**. Then, for a well-behaved vector function  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ 

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iiint_{V} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dV$$

where  $d\mathbf{S} = \hat{\mathbf{n}}dS$  and dS is an element of the surface.

#### 7.14 Stokes's theorem

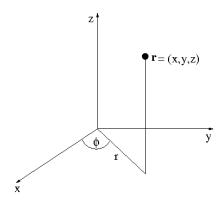
Let S be a surface with unit normal  $\mathbf{n}$ , bounded by a closed curve C. Then, for a "well-behaved" vector function  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ ,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

where  $d\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{i} dx + \mathbf{j} dy + \mathbf{k} dz$  and  $d\mathbf{S} = \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$ .

# 8 CYLINDRICAL AND SPHERICAL POLAR COORDINATES

#### 8.1 Cylindrical coordinates

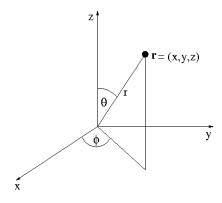


$$x = r \cos \phi, \quad y = r \sin \phi, \quad z = z$$
  
where  $r \ge 0, \quad 0 \le \phi \le 2\pi, \quad -\infty \le z \le \infty$ 

The inverse relations are  $r = \sqrt{(x^2 + y^2)}$ ,  $\phi = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ , z = z

**Note**: The polar coordinates in two dimensions are the same as those for the cylindrical systems with z = 0.

#### 8.2 Spherical polar coordinates



 $x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$ ,  $z = r \cos \theta$ . where  $r \ge 0$ ,  $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ ,  $0 \le \phi \le 2\pi$ .

The inverse relations are  $r = \sqrt{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)}$ ,  $\phi = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ ,  $\theta = \cos^{-1}(z/r)$ 

## 8.3 $\nabla^2$ in cylindrical polar coordinates $(r, \phi, z)$

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}$$

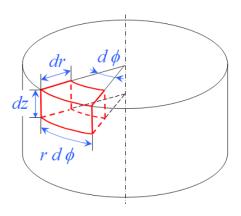
# 8.4 $\nabla^2$ in spherical polar coordinates $(r, \theta, \phi)$

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \phi^2}$$

#### 8.5 Line area and volume elements

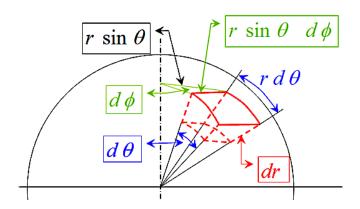
The line element  $ds = |d\mathbf{r}|$  and volume element dV in cylindrical and spherical polar coordinates are

#### 8.5.1 Cylindrical



line element:  $ds = \sqrt{(dr)^2 + r^2(d\phi)^2 + (dz)^2}$  volume element:  $dV = r \ dr \ d\phi \ dz$ 

#### 8.5.2 Spherical



line element:  $ds = \sqrt{(dr)^2 + r^2(d\theta)^2 + r^2\sin^2\theta(d\phi)^2}$  volume element:  $dV = r^2\sin\theta \ dr \ d\theta \ d\phi$ 

#### 9 FOURIER SERIES AND TRANSFORMS

A function f(t) which is periodic in t with period T satisfies f(t+T) = f(t). It can be expanded in an infinite series of exponentials or of sines and cosines.

#### 9.1 Fourier Series

(a) Complex expansion

$$f(t) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} F_n e^{-i\omega_n t},$$
where  $\omega_n = \frac{2\pi n}{T}$   $(n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2.....\infty)$   
and  $F_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_T e^{i\omega_n t} f(t) dt$ 

Here, the integral is taken over one complete period (e.g. from 0 to T or from -T/2 to T/2). Note the orthogonality relation

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_{T} e^{-i\omega_{n}t} e^{i\omega_{m}t} dt = \delta_{nm}$$

where  $\delta_{nm}$  is the Kronecker delta.

(b) Real expansion

By separating the above result into real and imaginary parts, for real f(t),

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos \omega_n t + b_n \sin \omega_n t$$
where  $a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \cos \omega_n t \ dt$ 

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_T f(t) \sin \omega_n t \ dt$$
and  $a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) \ dt$ 

#### 9.2 Fourier transforms

By letting  $T \to \infty$  and replacing sums by integrals, one finds that (suitably restricted) functions f(t) can be expressed as a 'superposition' of exponential functions.

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega$$
 where 
$$F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{i\omega t} dt$$

The functions f(t) and  $F(\omega)$  are 'Fourier mates', and the results can be viewed as a consequence of the fact that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} e^{i\omega' t} dt = 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega')$$

#### 9.3 Shift theorems in Fourier transforms

(a) If f(t) is replaced by f(t-a) (ie. a translation in time by a),

$$F(\omega)$$
 is replaced by  $F(\omega)e^{i\omega a}$ 

(b) If f(t) is multiplied by  $e^{i\omega't}$ 

$$F(\omega)$$
 is 'translated' into  $F(\omega + \omega')$ 

#### 9.4 Convolutions

If f(t) and g(t) are two functions, their convolution (with respect to t) h(t), is defined by

$$h(t) = f(t) * g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u)g(t - u)du$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t - u)g(u)du$$

The Fourier transform of h(t) is  $H(\omega) = F(\omega)G(\omega)$ , where  $F(\omega)$  and  $G(\omega)$  are the Fourier transforms of f(t) and g(t).

Similarly,  $H(\omega) = F(\omega) * G(\omega)$  is the Fourier transform of h(t) = f(t)g(t)

#### 9.5 Some common Fourier mates

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega \qquad F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{i\omega t} dt$$

$$f(t) = e^{-i\omega_0 t} \qquad F(\omega) = 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$$

$$f(t) = \sin \omega_0 t \qquad F(\omega) = \frac{\pi}{i} \left[ \delta(\omega + \omega_0) - \delta(\omega - \omega_0) \right]$$

$$f(t) = \cos \omega_0 t \qquad F(\omega) = \pi \left[ \delta(\omega + \omega_0) + \delta(\omega - \omega_0) \right]$$

$$f(t) = \delta(t - t_0) \qquad F(\omega) = e^{i\omega t_0}$$

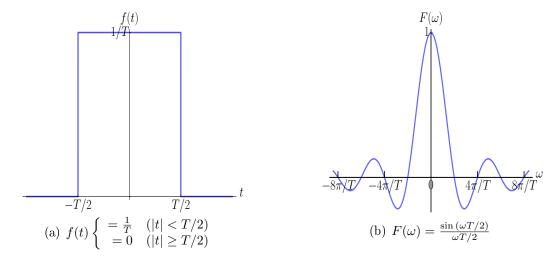


Figure 9.1: The slit function

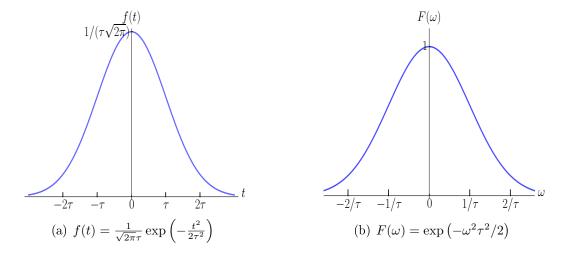


Figure 9.2: The Gaussian function

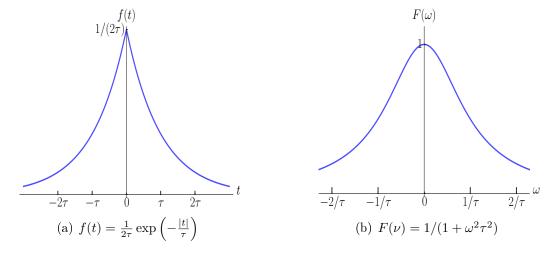
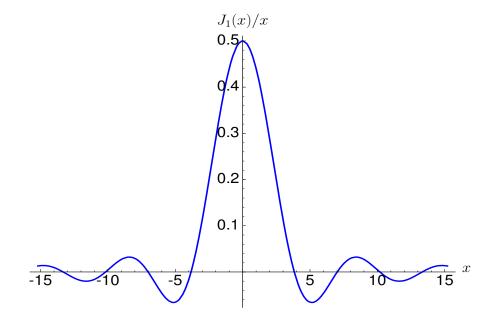


Figure 9.3: The exponential function

#### 9.6 Diffraction at a circular aperture

The integral of  $e^{2\pi i Sr\cos\phi}$  over the area of a circle is

$$\int_{\phi=0}^{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{a} e^{2\pi i Sr\cos\phi} r dr d\phi = \frac{aJ_1(2\pi Sa)}{S}$$



$$\frac{J_1(x)}{x} = \text{ when } |x| = 1.22\pi (= 3.3833), 2.233\pi (= 7.016), 3.238\pi (= 10.174), \dots$$

$$= \text{ max. when } |x| = 0, 2.679\pi (= 8.417), \dots$$

$$= \text{ min. when } |x| = 1.635\pi (= 5.136), 3.699\pi (= 11.620), \dots$$

# 10 LAPLACE TRANSFORMS

## 10.1 Definition and table of transforms

The Laplace transform F(s) of f(t) is defined by

$$F(s) = \int_0^\infty f(t)e^{-st}dt$$

Function $f(t)$	Laplace transform $F(x)$
$c_1 f_1(t) + c_2 f_2(t)$	$c_1F_1(s) + c_2F_2(s)$
f(at)	$\frac{1}{a}F\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)$
$e^{at}f(t)$	$a \land a$ $F(s-a)$
$f(t) = \begin{cases} (t-a) & t > a \\ 0 & t < a \end{cases}$	$e^{-as}F(s)$
$\frac{df(t)}{dt}$	sF(s) - f(0)
$\frac{d^2f(t)}{dt^2}$	$s^2F(s) - sf(0) - \frac{df}{dt}(0)$
$\int_0^t f(u)du$	$\frac{F(s)}{s}$
$\int_0^t \frac{(t-u)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f(u) du$	$\frac{F(s)}{s^n}$
$\int_0^t f(u)g(t-u)du$	F(s)G(s)
$t^n f(t)$ $(n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \text{ etc})$	$(-1)^n \frac{d^s F}{ds^n}(s)$
$t^{-1}f(t)$	$\int_{s}^{\infty} F(u)du$
1	$\frac{1}{s}$
t	$\frac{1}{s^2}$
$\sin at$	
$\cos at$	$\frac{a}{s^2 + a^2}$ $\frac{s}{s^2 + a^2}$
$\sinh at$	$\frac{a}{s^2 - a^2}$
$\cosh at$	$\frac{s}{s^2 - a^2}$
$\delta(t)$	1
$\delta(t-T)$	$e^{-sT}$

# 11 PROBABILITY, STATISTICS AND DATA INTERPRETATION

#### 11.1 Mean and variance

(a) Discretely distributed random variables (variates)

For a variate x which can take on the N values,  $x_i$  (i = 1, ..., N) with respective probabilities  $f_i$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f_i = 1$$
 Mean of  $x$  is  $\overline{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i x_i$  Variance of  $x$  is  $\sigma^2 = \operatorname{Var}(x) = \overline{(x-\overline{x})^2} = \overline{x^2} - \overline{x}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i x_i^2 - \overline{x}^2$ 

where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation.

(b) Continuously distributed variates

For a continuously distributed variate x, with probability density function f(x), normalised as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = 1$$

$$\overline{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x)dx$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \overline{x})^2 f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x)dx - \overline{x}^2 = \overline{x^2} - \overline{x}^2$$

(c) Scale factor and change of origin

If y = k(x - a), where k and a are constants, then

$$\overline{y} = k(\overline{x} - a)$$
 and  
 $Var(y) = k^2 Var(x)$ 

#### 11.2 Binomial distribution

In n identical independent trials with probability, p, of success (and q = 1 - p of failure) at each trial, the probability of exactly r successes is

$${}^{n}C_{r}p^{r}q^{n-r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}p^{r}q^{n-r}$$

Mean number of successes,  $\overline{r} = np$ .

Variance of number of successes Var(r) = npq.

Variance of proportion successes =  $\operatorname{Var}\left(\frac{r}{n}\right) = \frac{pq}{n}$ .

#### 11.3 Poisson distribution

For a non-negative integer variate x (ie. x = 0, 1, 2, ....r, ....)

Probability that x = r is

$$P_r = \frac{\mu^r e^{-\mu}}{r!}$$

where  $\mu$  is a constant.

$$\overline{x} = \mu$$

$$\operatorname{Var}(x) = \mu$$
If  $\mu \gg 1$ ,  $P_r \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\mu}} \exp\left(\frac{-(r-\mu)^2}{2\mu}\right)$ 

#### 11.4 Normal (Gaussian) distribution

If the continuous variate x is distributed normally with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ , then its probability density function f(x) is given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

The standard normal variate  $X = (x - \mu)/\sigma$  has mean zero, variance unity and a probability density function  $\phi(X)$  given by

$$\phi(X) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-X^2}{2}\right)$$
Probability  $(-\infty \le X \le u) = \int_{-\infty}^{u} \phi(X) dX$ 

Error function erf 
$$u = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^u \exp(-t^2) dt$$

In particular,  $\operatorname{erf}(\infty) = 1$ .

#### 11.5 Statistics

Suppose n statistically independent measurements,  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_i, \dots x_n$  are made of a certain quantity which are 'samplings' of a variate x with a variance  $\sigma^2$ . The sample variance is

$$S^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i} - \mu)^{2}$$

(where  $\mu$  is the mean of the  $x_i$ ).

Mean of the sample variance 
$$S^2 = \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)\sigma^2$$
  
The standard error of the mean  $s = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

#### 11.6 Data interpretation: least squares fitting of a straight line

The best straight line y = ax + b through n points  $(x_i, y_i)$  (where i = 1, 2, ... n) has for the best estimate of slope and intercept

$$a = \frac{n \sum xy - \sum x \sum y}{\Delta}, \qquad b = \frac{\sum x^2 \sum y - \sum x \sum xy}{\Delta}$$
 where  $\Delta = n \sum x^2 - \left(\sum x\right)^2$ 

The standard errors are

$$S(a) = \frac{n\sigma(y)}{\sqrt{(n-2)\Delta}}$$
,  $S(b) = \sigma(y)\sqrt{\frac{n\sum x^2}{(n-2)\Delta}}$ 

where 
$$n^2 \sigma^2(y) = n \sum y^2 - \left(\sum y\right)^2 - \frac{(n \sum xy - \sum x \sum y)^2}{\Delta}$$
.

In all of the above,

$$\sum A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_i$$

.

#### 12 SOME PHYSICS FORMULAE

#### 12.1 Newton's laws and conservation of energy and momentum

The frictional force  $f = \mu F_N$  where  $F_N$  is the normal force.

The centripetal force is  $mv^2/r = m\omega^2 r$ .

The work done by a force:  $\int F dx$  or force  $\times$  dist for a constant force.

The mechanical energy = K + U is conserved.

Conservation of momentum:  $(\sum_i m_i v_i)_{init} = (\sum_i m_i v_i)_{final}$ .

For rocket motion:  $v_f - v_i = v_{rel} \ln (m_i/m_f)$ .

#### 12.2 Rotational motion and angular momentum

Angular speed  $\omega = v/r$ .

The rotational inertia is  $I = \sum m_i r_i^2$ .

For mass M rotating about an axis distance R away,  $I = MR^2$ .

Newton's second (angular) law is net torque,  $\tau_{net} = I\alpha$  and  $\tau = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$ .

For a rolling ball,  $K = K_{rot} + K_{trans} = 0.5I\omega^2 + 0.5mv_{com}^2$ .

For a wheel (radius R) rolling smoothly:  $v_{com} = \omega R$ .

Angular momentum  $\mathbf{L} = m\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{v}$ .

Angular momentum  $L = I\omega$  is conserved.

#### 12.3 Gravitation and Planetary motion

Gravitational force:  $\mathbf{F} = GmM\mathbf{r}/r^3$ 

Gravitational law in differential form:  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{g} = -4\pi G \rho$ 

Gravitational potential energy is U = -GMm/r.

Escape speed :  $v = \sqrt{2GM/R}$ .

Kepler's second law:  $\dot{A} = L/2M = \text{constant}$ .

Kepler's third law:  $T^2 = (4\pi^2/GM)r^3$ .

#### 12.4 Oscillations - Simple harmonic motion, Springs

Spring restoring force: F = -kx.

Displacement :  $x = x_m \cos(\omega t + \phi)$ , where  $\omega^2 = k/m$ .

Period  $T = 2\pi \sqrt{m/k} = 2\pi/\omega$ 

Energy:  $K = m\dot{x}^2/2$ ,  $U = kx^2/2$ .

#### 12.5 Thermodynamics, gases and fluids

Change in heat energy is  $\Delta Q = mc\Delta T$ .

Heat of transformation  $\Delta Q = Lm$ .

Ideal gas equation of state: pV = nRT.

1st law of thermodynamics :  $dE_{\text{int}} = dQ - dW$ .

Also  $\Delta E_{\text{int}} = \Delta E_{\text{int,f}} - \Delta E_{\text{int,i}} = Q - W$ .

For cyclical processes:  $\Delta E_{\text{int}} = 0$ , Q = W.

Work done:  $W = \int dW = \int pdV$ 

For an isothermal process  $W = nRT \ln V_f/V_i$ .

root mean square velocity is  $v_{rms} = \sqrt{(3RT/M)}$  where M is the molecular mass.

Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution

$$f(v) = 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{3/2} v^2 \exp{-\left(\frac{mv^2}{2k_B T}\right)}$$

where v is the velocity and m the mass of the each particle.

Bernoulli's equation for the flow of an ideal fluid

$$\frac{p}{\rho} + \frac{1}{2}v^2 + gz = \text{constant}$$

#### 12.6 Waves

Wave equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2}$$

The speed of the wave  $v = f\lambda$  where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength and f is the frequency. The angular frequency  $\omega = 2\pi f$ .

Energy of one photon:  $E = hf = hc/\lambda$ 

Photoelectric effect equation:  $eV_0 = hf - \phi$ .

 $\phi$  is the work function of the surface and  $V_0$  is the applied voltage.

Speed of electromagnetic waves:  $c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0}$ 

Index of refraction: n = c/v

Snell's law of refraction between media a and b:  $n_a \sin \theta_a = n_b \sin \theta_b$ 

Constructive interference:  $d \sin \theta = m\lambda$ 

Destructive interference:  $d \sin \theta = (m + 1/2)\lambda$ 

Transverse wave in a string of tension T and mass/length  $\mu$ :  $v = \sqrt{T/\mu}$ 

Longitudinal wave in a fluid of density  $\rho$  and bulk modulus B:  $v = \sqrt{B/\rho}$ 

#### 12.7 Electricity and Magnetism

Coulomb's Law

$$F = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$$

Electric field

$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

Potential difference

$$V_a - V_b = \int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

#### 12.8 Maxwell's equations

#### 12.9 Special Relativity

Lorentz contraction :  $L = L_0/\gamma$  where  $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{(1-v^2/c^2)}$ .

time dilation :  $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t_0$ .

Lorentz transformation eqns:

$$x' = \gamma(x - vt), t' = \gamma(t - vx/c^2), y' = y \text{ and } z' = z.$$

Relativistic momentum  $p = \gamma mv$ .

Relativistic energy  $E = mc^2 + K = \gamma mc^2$ .

Relativistic energy equation:  $E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2$ .

#### 12.10 Photons, atoms and quantum mechanics

Photons: E = hf,  $p = h/\lambda$ .

Photoelectric equation:  $hf = K_{max} + \Phi$ , where  $\Phi$  is the work function.

Compton scattering:  $\Delta \lambda = h(1 - \cos \phi)/mc$ .

Heisenberg uncertainty principle:  $\Delta p_x \Delta x \geq \hbar/2$ 

A particle with momentum p has de Broglie wavelength:  $\lambda = h/p$ 

The Schrödinger equation

One-dimension: 
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{d^2\psi(x)}{dx^2} + V(x)\psi(x) = E\psi(x)$$
 Three dimension: 
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right]\psi(\mathbf{r}) + V(\mathbf{r})\psi(\mathbf{r}) = E\psi(\mathbf{r})$$
 Hyrogen atom: 
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 u(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}u(\mathbf{r}) = Eu(\mathbf{r})$$

The energy levels of a particle (mass m) in an infinite square well of width L are given by

$$E_n = \frac{h^2}{8mL^2}n^2.$$

The electron energy levels in the hydrogen atom are:

$$E_n = -\frac{13.6}{n^2} eV.$$

The probability of finding a particle, described by a wavefunction  $\psi(x)$ , between positions x = a and x = b is  $P = \int_a^b |\psi(x)|^2 dx$ .

The wavelength of radiation absorbed/emitted by an electron going from energy level  $E_i$  to  $E_f$  is

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{n_i^2} - \frac{1}{n_f^2} \right]$$

where  $R_{\infty}$  is the Rydberg constant.

The transmission coefficient for a particle of mass m tunnelling across a barrier of height V and width L is

$$T = e^{-2bL}$$
 where  $b = \sqrt{\frac{8\pi^2 m(V - E)}{\hbar^2}}$ 

Fermi-Dirac distribution:  $f(E) = \left[\exp\left\{(E - \mu)/k_B T\right\} + 1\right]^{-1}$ 

Bose-Einstein distribution:  $f(E) = \left[\exp\left\{(E - \mu)/k_B T\right\} - 1\right]^{-1}$ 

#### 12.11 Nuclear Physics

Rutherford scattering: For  $\alpha$ -particle of kinetic energy K, the distance of closest approach to a gold nucleus is

$$d = \frac{q_{\alpha}q_{Au}}{4\pi\epsilon_0 K}$$

Mass excess:  $\Delta = M - A$ .

Binding energy:  $\Delta E_{be} = \sum mc^2 - Mc^2$ . BE per nucleon:  $\Delta E_{ben} = \Delta E_{be}/A$ .

Radioactive decay:

$$R = -\frac{dN}{dt} = \lambda N$$
  $\rightarrow N(t) = N_0 \exp(-\lambda t)$ 

Half-life:  $T_{1/2} = \ln 2/\lambda$ .

 $\alpha$ -decay:

$${}_{Z}^{A}X \rightarrow {}_{Z-2}^{A-4}X' + {}_{2}^{4}He$$

 $\beta$ -decay:  $p \to n + e^+ + \nu$  and  $n \to p + e^- + \bar{\nu}$ .

#### 13 PHYSICAL CONSTANTS AND CONVERSIONS

#### 13.1 Physical constants

speed of light in vacuum  $c = 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{m s}^{-1} = 3.00 \times 10^{10} \text{cm s}^{-1}$ 

elementary charge  $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$ 

(elementary charge)<sup>2</sup>  $e^2 = 2.31 \times 10^{-28} \text{J m} = 2.31 \times 10^{-19} \text{erg cm}$ 

(e in esu not Coulombs)

Planck constant  $h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{J s} = 6.63 \times 10^{-27} \text{erg cm}$   $h/2\pi = 1.055 \times 10^{-34} \text{J s} = 1.055 \times 10^{-27} \text{erg cm}$ 

unified atomic mass constant  $m_u = 1.66 \times 10^{-27} \text{kg} = 931 \text{ MeV/c}^2$ 

mass of proton  $m_p = 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{kg} = 1.67 \times 10^{-24} \text{g}$ 

mass of electron  $m_e = 9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{kg} = 9.11 \times 10^{-28} \text{g}$ 

ratio of proton to electron mass  $m_p/m_e = 1836$ 

Bohr radius  $a_0 = 5.29 \times 10^{-11} \mathrm{m}$ 

Rydberg constant  $R_{\infty} = 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{m}^{-1}$ 

Rydberg energy of hydrogen  $R_H = 13.6 \text{ eV}$ 

Bohr magneton  $\mu_B = 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{J T}^{-1}$ 

Fine structure constant  $\alpha = 1/137.0$ 

permeability of a vacuum  $\mu_0 = 4\pi \times 10^{-7} \mathrm{H~m^{-1}}$ 

permittivity of a vacuum  $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \mathrm{F} \ \mathrm{m}^{-1}$ 

Avogadro constant  $N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{mol}^{-1}$ 

Faraday constant  $F = 9.65 \times 10^4 \text{C mol}^{-1}$ 

Boltzmann constant  $k_B = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{J K}^{-1} = 1.38 \times 10^{-16} \text{erg K}^{-1}$ 

$$R = 8.31 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$$

$$\sigma_{SB} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{J s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2} \text{K}^{-4} = 5.67 \times 10^{-5} \text{erg s}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{K}^{-4}$$

$$7 \times 10^{-5} \mathrm{erg \ s^{-1} cm^{-2} K^{-4}}$$

$$G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11} \text{m}^3 \text{kg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2}$$
 =  $6.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2}$ 

$$=6.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{cm}^3 \text{g}^{-1} \text{s}^{-2}$$

$$q = 9.81 \text{m s}^{-2}$$

$$a = 7.56 \times 10^{-16} \text{J m}^{-3} \text{K}^{-4}$$

radiant energy density const 
$$a = 7.56 \times 10^{-16} \text{J m}^{-3} \text{K}^{-4} = 7.56 \times 10^{-15} \text{erg cm}^{-3} \text{K}^{-4}$$

#### 13.2 **Astronomical constants**

Mass associated with one hydrogen 
$$m = 2.38 \times 10^{-24} \text{g} = 2.38 \times 10^{-27} \text{kg}$$

nucleus for cosmic composition

Solar mass 
$$M_{\odot} = 1$$

$$M_{\odot} = 1.99 \times 10^{33} \text{g} = 1.99 \times 10^{30} \text{kg}$$

$$R_{\odot} = 6.96 \times 10^{10} \text{cm} = 6.96 \times 10^8 \text{m}$$

$$M_{\oplus} = 6.0 \times 10^{27} \text{g}$$
 =  $6.0 \times 10^{24} \text{kg}$ 

$$R_{\oplus} = 6.4 \times 10^8 \text{cm} = 6.4 \times 10^6 \text{m}$$

Solar luminosity

$$L_{\odot} = 3.83 \times 10^{33} \text{erg s}^{-1} = 3.83 \times 10^{26} \text{J s}^{-1}$$

Astronomical unit

$$AU = 1.50 \times 10^{13} \text{cm} = 1.50 \times 10^{11} \text{m}$$

Parsec

$$pc = 3.09 \times 10^{18} \text{cm} = 3.09 \times 10^{16} \text{m}$$

#### 13.3 Conversions

$$1 \mathrm{\ km}$$

$$= 10^3 \text{ m}$$

$$= 10^5 \text{ cm}$$

$$= 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$= 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$$

$$= 3.16 \times 10^7 \text{ s}$$

$$= 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

Celsius temperature = thermodynamic temperature - 273.15