

Mathematical Formulae for Electrical and Computer Engineers



Edited by :
Loh Ai Poh
Tan Woei wan

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Chapter 1

Algebra

1.1 Factors

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

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

$$(a + b + c)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + 2bc + 2ca + 2ab$$

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

$$a^3 + b^3 = (a + b)(a^2 - ab + b^2)$$

$$a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$$

$$(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$$

$$(a - b)^3 = a^3 - 3a^2b + 3ab^2 - b^3$$

$$a^3 + b^3 + c^3 - 3abc = (a + b + c)(a^2 + b^2 + c^2 - bc - ca - ab)$$

1.2 Partial fractions

Provided that the numerator $f(x)$ is of less degree than the relevant denominator, the following identities are typical examples of partial fraction expansion :

- only distinct linear factors :

$$\frac{f(x)}{(x + \alpha_1) \dots (x + \alpha_n)} = \frac{A_1}{x + \alpha_1} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{x + \alpha_n}$$

- repeated linear factors :

$$\frac{f(x)}{(x + \alpha)^n} = \frac{A_1}{x + \alpha} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{(x + \alpha)^n}$$

- a quadratic factor :

$$\frac{f(x)}{(\alpha_1 x^2 + \beta_1 x + \gamma_1)(\alpha_2 x^2 + \beta_2 x + \gamma_2)} = \frac{Ax + B}{(\alpha_1 x^2 + \beta_1 x + \gamma_1)} + \frac{Cx + D}{(\alpha_2 x^2 + \beta_2 x + \gamma_2)}$$

1.3 Law of indices

$$a^m \times a^n = a^{m+n}$$

$$\frac{a^m}{a^n} = a^{m-n}$$

$$(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$$

$$a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n}$$

$$a^0 = 1$$

$$\sqrt[n]{a^m} = a^{m/n}$$

$$\sqrt[n]{ab} = \sqrt[n]{a} \times \sqrt[n]{b}$$

$$\sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{b}} = \frac{\sqrt[n]{a}}{\sqrt[n]{b}}$$

1.4 Logarithm

Definition : If $y = a^x$, then

$$x = \log_a y \quad (\text{“log } y \text{ to base } a\text{”})$$

$$y = a^{\log_a x}$$

Logarithmic rules

$$\log(a \times b) = \log a + \log b$$

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

$$\log(x^a) = a \log x$$

$$\log(y)^{1/n} = \frac{\log y}{n}$$

$$\log_b a = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b} \quad (\text{Change of base})$$

$$\log(a + jb) = \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + j \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a}$$

1.5 Quadratic Formula

If $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, then

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

- If $b^2 - 4ac > 0$, then $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ yields two real and distinct roots.
- If $b^2 - 4ac = 0$, then $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ yields two real and equal roots.
- If $b^2 - 4ac < 0$, then $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ yields a pair of complex conjugate roots.

1.6 Arithmetic Progression

If a = first term, d = common difference, n = number of terms and l = last term, then the arithmetic progression is

$$a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d, \dots, a + (n - 1)d, \dots, l$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Sum of } n \text{ terms} &= \frac{n}{2} [2a + (n - 1)d] \\ &= \frac{n}{2} (a + l) \end{aligned}$$

1.7 Geometric Progression

If a = first term, r = common ratio and n = number of terms, then the geometric progression is :

$$a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots, ar^{n-1}, \dots$$
$$\text{Sum of } n \text{ terms} = \begin{cases} \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}, & r > 1 \\ \frac{a(1 - r^n)}{1 - r}, & r < 1 \end{cases}$$
$$\text{Sum to infinity when } r < 1 = \frac{a}{1 - r}$$

1.8 Series

Binomial series:

$$(a + b)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}a^{n-2}b^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}a^{n-3}b^3 + \dots$$
$$(1 + x)^n = 1 + nx + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!}x^3 + \dots \quad (\text{valid for } -1 < x < 1)$$

Exponential series:

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

Taylor's expansion:

$$f(x + a) = f(x) + af'(x) + \frac{a^2}{2!}f''(x) + \frac{a^3}{3!}f'''(x) + \dots$$

Maclaurin's form:

$$f(x) = f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!}f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!}f'''(0) + \dots$$

Chapter 2

Geometry

Equation of a straight line joining (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) :

$$\frac{y - y_1}{x - x_1} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = m$$

or $y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$

$$y = mx + c \quad \text{where } m = \text{gradient and } c = \text{y-intercept}$$

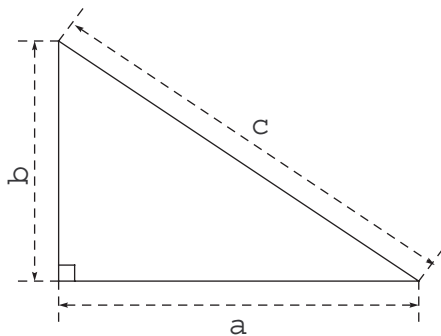
Equation of a circle, center at (x_0, y_0) , radius r :

$$(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2 = r^2$$

Equation of an ellipse, center at (x_0, y_0) , semi-axes a and b :

$$\frac{(x - x_0)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y - y_0)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Pythagoras Theorem :

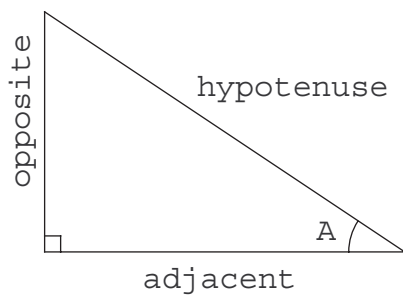


$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

Chapter 3

Trigonometry

3.1 Definitions



$$\sin A = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$$

$$\cos A = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$$

$$\tan A = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{adjacent}} = \frac{\sin A}{\cos A}$$

$$\operatorname{cosec} A = \frac{1}{\sin A} = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{opposite}}$$

$$\sec A = \frac{1}{\cos A} = \frac{\text{hypotenuse}}{\text{adjacent}}$$

$$\cot A = \frac{1}{\tan A} = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{opposite}}$$

3.2 Signs and variations of trigonometric functions

Quadrant	$\sin A$	$\cos A$	$\tan A$	$\cot A$	$\sec A$	$\operatorname{cosec} A$
I	+	+	+	+	+	+
	0 to 1	1 to 0	0 to ∞	∞ to 0	1 to ∞	∞ to 1
II	+	-	-	-	-	+
	1 to 0	0 to -1	$-\infty$ to 0	0 to $-\infty$	$-\infty$ to -1	1 to ∞
III	-	-	+	+	-	-
	0 to -1	-1 to 0	0 to ∞	∞ to 0	-1 to $-\infty$	$-\infty$ to -1
IV	-	+	-	-	+	-
	-1 to 0	0 to 1	$-\infty$ to 0	0 to $-\infty$	∞ to 1	-1 to $-\infty$

3.3 Identities

$$\sin^2 A + \cos^2 A = 1$$

$$1 + \tan^2 A = \sec^2 A$$

$$\cot^2 A + 1 = \operatorname{cosec}^2 A$$

$$\operatorname{cosec}^2 A = 1 + \cot^2 A$$

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

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

$$\tan(-A) = -\tan A$$

3.4 Compound angle addition and subtraction formula

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

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

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

3.5 Double angles

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

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

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

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

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

$$\tan 3A = \frac{3 \tan A - \tan^3 A}{1 - 3 \tan^2 A}$$

3.6 Products of sines or cosines into sums or differences

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

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

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

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

3.7 Sums or differences of sines or cosines into products

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

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

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

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

3.8 Polar Form

$$a \sin x + b \cos x = R \sin(x + \phi)$$

where $R = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a}$$

$$\sin \phi = \frac{b}{R}$$

$$\cos \phi = \frac{a}{R}$$

3.9 Complex exponent forms : imaginary form

$$\cos x = \frac{e^{jx} + e^{-jx}}{2} \quad e^{jx} = \cos x + j \sin x$$

$$\sin x = \frac{e^{jx} - e^{-jx}}{2j} \quad e^{-jx} = \cos x - j \sin x \quad j = \sqrt{-1}$$

Chapter 4

Hyperbolic Function

4.1 Definitions

$$\begin{aligned}\sinh A &= \frac{e^A - e^{-A}}{2} \\ \cosh A &= \frac{e^A + e^{-A}}{2} \\ \tanh A &= \frac{e^A - e^{-A}}{e^A + e^{-A}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{cosech} A &= \frac{1}{\sinh A} = \frac{2}{e^A - e^{-A}} \\ \operatorname{sech} A &= \frac{1}{\cosh A} = \frac{2}{e^A + e^{-A}} \\ \operatorname{coth} A &= \frac{1}{\tanh A} = \frac{e^A + e^{-A}}{e^A - e^{-A}}\end{aligned}$$

4.2 Identities

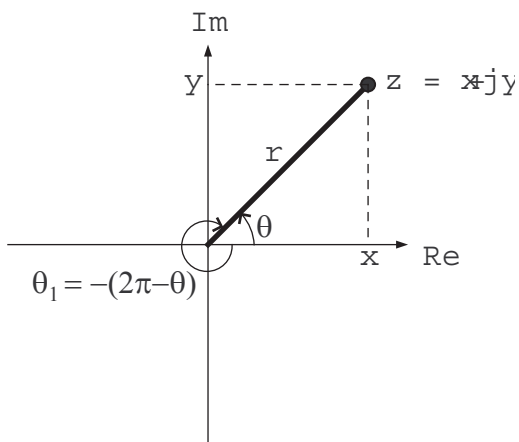
$$\cosh^2 A - \sinh^2 A = 1$$

$$1 - \tanh^2 A = \operatorname{sech}^2 A$$

$$\operatorname{coth}^2 A - 1 = \operatorname{cosech}^2 A$$

Chapter 5

Complex Numbers



$$z = x + jy \quad \text{where } j = \sqrt{-1}$$

$$= r(\cos \theta + j \sin \theta)$$

$$= r \angle \theta$$

$$= re^{j\theta}$$

$$r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\theta = \arg z = \theta_1$$

$$= \tan^{-1} \frac{b}{a} = \sin^{-1} \frac{y}{|z|} = \cos^{-1} \frac{x}{|z|}$$

Addition : $(a + bj) + (c + dj) = (a + c) + (b + d)j$

Subtraction : $(a + bj) - (c + dj) = (a - c) + (b - d)j$

Multiplication : $z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 \angle (\theta_1 + \theta_2)$

Division : $\frac{z_1}{z_2} = \frac{r_1}{r_2} \angle (\theta_1 - \theta_2)$

De Moivre's theorem : $[r \angle]^n = r^n \angle n\theta = r^n (\cos n\theta + j \sin n\theta)$

Chapter 6

Differentiation

Function	Derivative	Function	Derivative
x^n	nx^{n-1}	$\frac{1}{x}$	$-\frac{1}{x^2}$
$\log_e n$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\log_a x$	$\frac{1}{x \log_e a}$
e^{cx}	ce^{cx}	$a^x (a > 0)$	$a^x \log_e a$
$\sin x$	$\cos x$	$\cos x$	$-\sin x$
$\tan x$	$\sec^2 x$	$\operatorname{cosec} x$	$-\operatorname{cosec} x \cot x$
$\sec x$	$\sec x \tan x$	$\cot x$	$-\operatorname{cosec}^2 x$
$\sin^{-1} x$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$\cos^{-1} x$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
$\tan^{-1} x$	$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$		

Product rule :

When $y = uv$ and u and v are functions of x , then

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

Quotient rule :

When $y = \frac{u}{v}$ and u and v are functions of x , then

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

Chain rule :

If u is a function of x , then

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

Implicit differentiation :

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(y)] = \frac{d}{dy}[f(y)] \times \frac{dy}{dx}$$

Maximum and minimum values :

If $y = f(x)$, then the stationary points are found by solving $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$.

Let a solution of $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ be $x = a$. If the value of $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ when $x = a$ is :

- positive, the point is a minimum point.
- negative, the point is a maximum point.
- zero, the point is a point of inflexion (saddle point).

Chapter 7

Integration

Function	Integral	Function	Integral
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\log_e x $
e^x	e^x	$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$	$\log_e f(x) $
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$	$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\tan x$	$\log_e \sec x $	$\operatorname{cosec} x$	$\log_e \left \tan \frac{x}{2} \right $
$\sec x$	$\log_e \left \tan \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{x}{2} \right) \right $	$\cot x$	$\log_e \sin x $
$\frac{1}{a^2-x^2} (x < a)$	$\frac{1}{2a} \log_e \frac{a+x}{a-x}$	$\frac{1}{a^2+x^2}$	$\frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a}$

Integration by parts : If u and v are both functions of x , then

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

Chapter 8

Differential Equations

8.1 First order differential equations

1. $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$ or $P\frac{dy}{dx} + Q = 0$, P and Q being functions of x only.

$$P\frac{dy}{dx} + Q = 0 \text{ can be written as } \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{Q}{P} = f(x)$$

$$\text{Solution : } y = \int f(x) dx$$

2. If $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(y)$ or $P\frac{dy}{dx} + Q = 0$, P and Q being functions of y only.

$$P\frac{dy}{dx} + Q = 0 \text{ can be written as } \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{Q}{P} = f(y)$$

$$\text{Solution : } \int dx = \int \frac{dy}{f(y)}$$

3. Separation of variables : $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x) \cdot f(y)$

$$\text{Solution : } \int \frac{dy}{f(y)} = \int f(x) dx$$

4. Homogeneous first order differential equation : $\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$

Solution :

- Introduce the new independent variable $v = \frac{y}{x}$.
- Then, $y = vx$ and $\frac{dy}{dx} = v(1) + x\frac{dv}{dx}$ by the product rule.
- Substitute $y = vx$ and $dydx = v(1) + x\frac{dv}{dx}$ in $\frac{dy}{dx} = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ to obtain a separable differential equation. Solve the separable differential equation.
- Solution is obtained by replacing v by $\frac{y}{x}$

5. Linear first order differential equation : $\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$

Solution :

- Determine the integrating factor (I.F.) : $e^{\int P(x)dx}$
- Substitute the I.F. into the equation : $ye^{\int P(x)dx} = \int Q(x)e^{\int P(x)dx} dx,$
- $ye^{\int P(x)dx}$ will be an exact differential and $\int Q(x)e^{\int P(x)dx} dx$ can be integrated

8.2 Second order differential equations

Linear homogeneous second order differential equations

$$a\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + b\frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0$$

- Form the characteristic equation : $am^2 + bm + c = 0$
- If the roots of the complementary equation are

– *real and distinct* i.e. $m = \alpha$ and $m = \beta$, then the general solution is

$$y = Ae^{\alpha x} + Be^{\beta x}$$

– *real and equal* i.e. $m = \alpha$ twice, then the general solution is

$$y = e^{\alpha x}(A + Bx)$$

– *complex* i.e. $m = \alpha \pm j\beta$, then the general solution is

$$y = e^{\alpha x}(A \sin \beta x + B \cos \beta x)$$

- Constants A and B are determined from initial conditions.

Linear non-homogeneous second order differential equations

$$a \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = f(x)$$

The total solution of this type of differential equation is made up of :

- The general solution of the homogeneous second order differential equation

$$a \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + b \frac{dy}{dx} + cy = 0$$

- The particular integral, which depends on $f(x)$. The following table lists the trial particular integral to use for various $f(x)$.

$f(x)$	Trial particular integral
$f(x) = \text{constant}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $y = k$ • $y = kx$ when general solution contains a constant
$f(x) = L + Mx + Nx^2 + \dots$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $y = a + bx + cx^2 + \dots$
$f(x) = Ae^{\alpha x}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $y = ke^{\alpha x}$ • $y = kxe^{\alpha x}$ when general solution contains $e^{\alpha x}$ • $y = kx^2 e^{\alpha x}$ when general solution contains $xe^{\alpha x}$, and so on
$f(x) = \alpha \sin px + \beta \cos x$ α or β may be zero	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • $y = a \sin px + b \cos px$ • $y = x(a \sin px + b \cos px)$ when general solution contains $\sin px$ and/or $\cos px$

Chapter 9

Laplace Transform

9.1 Definition

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

9.2 Laplace Transform Pairs

$f(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$F(s)$
$\delta(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	1
$U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{1}{s}$
$tU(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{1}{s^2}$
$e^{-at}U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{1}{s+a}$
$[\sin at]U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{a}{s^2+a^2}$
$[\cos at]U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{s}{s^2+a^2}$
$[e^{-at} \sin bt]U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{b}{(s+a)^2+b^2}$
$[e^{-at} \cos bt]U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{s+a}{(s+a)^2+b^2}$
$te^{-at}U(t)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\frac{1}{(s+a)^2}$

9.3 Laplace Transform rule

- Transform of Derivatives :

$$\mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} = sF(s) - f(0)$$

- Transform of Derivative of order n :

$$\mathcal{L}\{f^n(t)\} = s^n F(s) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} s^{n-1-k} f^k(0)$$

- Transform of an Integral :

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\int_0^t f(\tau)d\tau\right\} = \frac{F(s)}{s}$$

- Derivative of Transforms

$$F'(s) = \mathcal{L}\{-tf(t)\}$$

and

$$\frac{d^n}{ds^n} F(s) = (-1)^n \mathcal{L}\{t^n f(t)\}$$

- Shift in the time-domain function :

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t - t_0)U(t - t_0)\} = e^{-st_0} F(s)$$

- Shift in the s -domain function :

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{-\alpha t} f(t)\} = F(s + \alpha)$$

- Initial Value Theorem :

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} sF(s) = f(0^+) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} f(t)$$

- Final Value Theorem (FVT) :

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sF(s) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t)$$

FVT is applicable only if the signal is a *finite constant* value, i.e. $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = \text{constant}$

Chapter 10

Fourier Series

The Fourier series corresponding to a periodic function $f(x)$ of period 2π is

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx)$$

where for the range $-\pi$ to π

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx \\ a_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \\ b_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin nx dx \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \end{aligned}$$

For functions of any period $2L$, the Fourier series is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos \frac{n\pi}{L} x + b_n \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x \right) \\ a_0 &= \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L f(x) dx \\ a_n &= \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^L f(x) \cos \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \\ b_n &= \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^L f(x) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} dx \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots) \end{aligned}$$