## About the HELM Project

HELM (Helping Engineers Learn Mathematics) materials were the outcome of a three-year curriculum development project undertaken by a consortium of five English universities led by Loughborough University, funded by the Higher Education Funding Council for England under the Fund for the Development of Teaching and Learning for the period October 2002 September 2005.
HELM aims to enhance the mathematical education of engineering undergraduates through a range of flexible learning resources in the form of Workbooks and web-delivered interactive segments.
HELM supports two CAA regimes: an integrated web-delivered implementation and a CD-based version.
HELM learning resources have been produced primarily by teams of writers at six universities:
Hull, Loughborough, Manchester, Newcastle, Reading, Sunderland.
HELM gratefully acknowledges the valuable support of colleagues at the following universities and colleges involved in the critical reading, trialling, enhancement and revision of the learning materials: Aston, Bournemouth \& Poole College, Cambridge, City, Glamorgan, Glasgow, Glasgow Caledonian, Glenrothes Institute of Applied Technology, Harper Adams University College, Hertfordshire, Leicester, Liverpool, London Metropolitan, Moray College, Northumbria, Nottingham, Nottingham Trent, Oxford Brookes, Plymouth, Portsmouth, Queens Belfast, Robert Gordon, Royal Forest of Dean College, Salford, Sligo Institute of Technology, Southampton, Southampton Institute, Surrey, Teesside, Ulster, University of Wales Institute Cardiff, West Kingsway College (London), West Notts College.

## HELM Contacts:

Post: HELM, Mathematics Education Centre, Loughborough University, Loughborough, LE11 3TU.
Email: helm@lboro.ac.uk Web: http://helm.lboro.ac.uk

## HELM Workbooks List

| 1 | Basic Algebra | 26 | Functions of a Complex Variable |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | Basic Functions | 27 | Multiple Integration |
| 3 | Equations, Inequalities \& Partial Fractions | 28 | Differential Vector Calculus |
| 4 | Trigonometry | 29 | Integral Vector Calculus |
| 5 | Functions and Modelling | 30 | Introduction to Numerical Methods |
| 6 | Exponential and Logarithmic Functions | 31 | Numerical Methods of Approximation |
| 7 | Matrices | 32 | Numerical Initial Value Problems |
| 8 | Matrix Solution of Equations | 33 | Numerical Boundary Value Problems |
| 9 | Vectors | 34 | Modelling Motion |
| 10 | Complex Numbers | 35 | Sets and Probability |
| 11 | Differentiation | 36 | Descriptive Statistics |
| 12 | Applications of Differentiation | 37 | Discrete Probability Distributions |
| 13 | Integration | 38 | Continuous Probability Distributions |
| 14 | Applications of Integration 1 | 39 | The Normal Distribution |
| 15 | Applications of Integration 2 | 40 | Sampling Distributions and Estimation |
| 16 | Sequences and Series | 41 | Hypothesis Testing |
| 17 | Conics and Polar Coordinates | 42 | Goodness of Fit and Contingency Tables |
| 18 | Functions of Several Variables | 43 | Regression and Correlation |
| 19 | Differential Equations | 44 | Analysis of Variance |
| 20 | Laplace Transforms | 45 | Non-parametric Statistics |
| 21 | $z$-Transforms | 46 | Reliability and Quality Control |
| 22 | Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors | 47 | Mathematics and Physics Miscellany |
| 23 | Fourier Series | 48 | Engineering Case Studies |
| 24 | Fourier Transforms | 49 | Student's Guide |
| 25 | Partial Differential Equations | 50 | Tutor's Guide |

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## Introduction

## 1. Background to the HELM project

In 1997, funding was made available by Loughborough University for the 'Open Learning Project' in Mathematics for Engineers which provided high-quality student-centred workbooks, computer aided learning material closely allied to the workbooks, and a strategy for computer aided assessment which can be used for self-assessment and for module assessment. For students following this open learning regime, lectures are now optional as they can now choose to study, with guidance, the mathematics independently.

The success of the Open Learning Project encouraged staff to seek funding to develop further this work resulting in the HELM project which was supported by a $£ 250,000$ HEFCE FDTL4 grant for the period Oct 2002-Sept 2005, with the ultimate aim to make high quality materials available throughout Higher Education Institutions in England and Northern Ireland.

## 2. The HELM project

The HELM team comprised staff at Loughborough University and four consortium partners in other English universities: Hull, Manchester, Reading and Sunderland. The project's aims were to considerably enhance, extend and thoroughly test Loughborough's original Open Learning materials. These were to be achieved mainly by the writing of additional Workbooks and incorporating engineering examples and case studies closely related to the mathematics presented, enhancing the question databanks, upgrading the Interactive Learning Resources and adding some more for basic mathematics topics, and promoting widespread trialling.

The HELM project's output consists of Workbooks, Interactive Learning segments and linked Revision Tests, and a Computer Aided Assessment regime which is used to help 'drive the student learning', a Student's Guide and a Tutor's Guide.

The Workbooks may be integrated into existing engineering degree programmes either by selecting isolated stand-alone units to complement other materials or by creating a complete scheme of work for a semester or year or two years by selecting from the large set of Workbooks available. These may be used to support lectures or for independent learning.

HELM's emphasis is on flexibility - the work can be undertaken as private study, distance learning or can be teacher-led, or a combination, according to the learning style and competence of the student and the approach of the particular lecturer.

## 3. HELM project Workbooks

50 Workbooks are available which comprise:

- 46 Student Workbooks written specifically with the typical engineering student in mind containing mathematical and statistical topics, worked examples, tasks and related engineering examples.
- A Workbook containing supplementary mathematical topics and physics case studies.
- A Workbook containing Engineering Case Studies ranging over many engineering disciplines.
- A Students' Guide (this document)
- A Tutor's Guide

The main project materials are the Workbooks which are subdivided into manageable Sections. As far as possible, each Section is designed to be a self-contained piece of work that can be attempted by the student in a few hours. In general, a whole Workbook typically represents 2 to 3 weeks' work. Each Workbook Section begins with statements of prerequisites and the desired learning outcomes.

The Workbooks include (a) worked examples, (b) tasks for students to undertake with space for students to attempt the questions, and, often, intermediate results provided to guide them through problems in stages, and (c) exercises where normally only the answer is given.

## 4. HELM project Interactive Learning Resources

The project has 80 Interactive Learning Resources, which link to most of the lower level Mathematics and Statistics Workbooks. These enable web-based versions of the Workbooks to contain some audio and some simple animations. Revision exercises with randomly generated questions are provided for the benefit of students working independently.

## 5. HELM project Assessment Regime

The HELM assessment strategy is based on using Computer-Aided Assessment (CAA) to encourage self-assessment to verify that the appropriate skills have been learned. The project's philosophy is that assessment should be at the heart of any learning and teaching strategy and Loughborough University's own implementation of HELM makes extensive use of CAA to support the students' learning.

HELM provides an integrated web-delivered CAA regime for both self-testing and formal assessment, with around 5000 questions, most have a page of specific feedback.

## 6. HELM Consortium and Triallist Institutions and Individual Contributors

HELM learning resources have been produced primarily by a consortium of writers and developers at five universities:

Hull, Loughborough, Manchester, Reading, Sunderland.
The HELM consortium gratefully acknowledges the valuable support of many colleagues at their own institutions and at the following institutions involved in additional writing, critical reading, trialling and revising of the learning materials.

| Universities |
| :--- |
| Aston |
| Cambridge |
| City |
| Glamorgan |
| Glasgow |
| Glasgow Caledonian |
| Hertfordshire |
| Leicester |
| Liverpool |
| London Metropolitan |
| Newcastle |
| Northumbria |
| Nottingham |
| Nottingham Trent |
| Oxford Brookes |
| Plymouth |
| Queen's Belfast |
| Robert Gordon |
| Southampton |
| Southampton Solent |
| Surrey |
| Teesside |
| Ulster |
| University of Wales Institute Cardiff |


| Other HE/FE Institutions |
| :--- |
| Bournemouth \& Poole College |
| Glenrothes Institute of Applied Technology |
| Harper Adams University College |
| Moray College |
| Royal Forest of Dean College |
| Sligo Institute of Technology |
| Westminster Kingsway College |
| West Notts College |

## HELM Workbooks

## 1. List of Workbooks

| No. | Title | Pages |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Basic Algebra | 89 |
| 2 | Basic Functions | 75 |
| 3 | Equations, Inequalities \& Partial Fractions | 71 |
| 4 | Trigonometry | 77 |
| 5 | Functions and Modelling | 49 |
| 6 | Exponential and Logarithmic Functions | 73 |
| 7 | Matrices | 50 |
| 8 | Matrix Solution of Equations | 32 |
| 9 | Vectors | 66 |
| 10 | Complex Numbers | 34 |
| 11 | Differentiation | 58 |
| 12 | Applications of Differentiation | 63 |
| 13 | Integration | 62 |
| 14 | Applications of Integration 1 | 34 |
| 15 | Applications of Integration 2 | 31 |
| 16 | Sequences and Series | 51 |
| 17 | Conics and Polar Coordinates | 43 |
| 18 | Functions of Several Variables | 40 |
| 19 | Differential Equations | 70 |
| 20 | Laplace Transforms | 73 |
| 21 | $z$-Transforms | 96 |
| 22 | Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors | 53 |
| 23 | Fourier Series | 73 |
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| 26 | Functions of a Complex Variable | 58 |
| 27 | Multiple Integration | 83 |
| 28 | Differential Vector Calculus | 53 |
| 29 | Integral Vector Calculus | 77 |
| 30 | Introduction to Numerical Methods | 64 |
| 31 | Numerical Methods of Approximation | 86 |
| 32 | Numerical Initial Value Problems | 80 |
| 33 | Numerical Boundary Value Problems | 36 |
| 34 | Modelling Motion | 63 |
| 35 | Sets and Probability | 53 |
| 36 | Descriptive Statistics | 45 |


| No. | Title | Pages |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| 37 | Discrete Probability Distributions | 60 |
| 38 | Continuous Probability Distributions | 27 |
| 39 | The Normal Distribution | 39 |
| 40 | Sampling Distributions and Estimation | 22 |
| 41 | Hypothesis Testing | 42 |
| 42 | Goodness of Fit and Contingency Tables | 24 |
| 43 | Regression and Correlation | 32 |
| 44 | Analysis of Variance | 57 |
| 45 | Non-parametric Statistics | 36 |
| 46 | Reliability and Quality Control | 38 |
| 47 | Mathematics and Physics Miscellany | 70 |
| 48 | Engineering Case Studies | 97 |
| 49 | Student's Guide | 57 |
| 50 | Tutor's Guide | 143 |

## 2. Nomenclature used for problems

- Examples are problems with fully worked solutions.
- Engineering Examples (found in most Mathematics Workbooks but not the Statistics Workbooks) are problems with an engineering context having fully worked solutions.
- Tasks are problems with spaces for the student's working, followed by fully worked solutions. Many Tasks are often broken up into stages with the answer to a stage given before the next stage is reached. [Note: Some tutors may provide workbooks without these worked solutions.]
- Exercises are problems for the student to do without spaces provided for the student's working. In general they do not have fully worked solutions, merely answers, but exceptions are: Numerical Workbooks 30-33 and Statistics Workbooks 35-46 which do have fully worked solutions.


## 3. Notation used

In general HELM uses italic serif font letters (e.g. $f(x)$ ) to represent functions, variables and constants. However, as exceptions HELM Workbooks use the following non-italic sans-serif letters:

Mathematics
e for the exponential constant and for the exponential function (primarily use in introductory Workbook 6, elsewhere $e$ is often used)
i where $\mathrm{i}^{2}=-1$
In for natural logarithm

Statistics
E for Expectation
P for Probability
V for Variance
M for Median

## Complex numbers

HELM uses i rather than j to represent $\sqrt{(-1)}$ so $\mathrm{i}^{2}=-1$, although there are one or two exceptions to this (in Workbook 48: Engineering Case Studies).

## Vectors

HELM uses underlining of vectors rather than using bold e.g. $\underline{a}$
HELM uses $\underline{\hat{n}}$ for the unit normal vector but does not put the ${ }^{\text {^ }}$ on the basic unit vectors in the $x, y$ and $z$ directions which have the standard symbols $\underline{i}, \underline{j}, \underline{k}$.

## Identities

Although HELM introduces and uses the identity symbol ' $\equiv$ ' extensively in Workbook 1: Basic Algebra and in Workbook 4: Trigonometry it is not normally used elsewhere and the more normal ' $=$ ' is used except where emphasis seems advisable. (HELM is therefore not consistent.)

## 4. Description of HELM Workbook layout

On the following three pages are reproduced from the electronic Student's Guide explanatory pages concerning Workbook Layout.

## Description of HELM Workbook layout Complex Arithmetic

## Introduction

Complex numbers are used in many areas of engineering and science. In this Section we define what a complex number is and explore how two such numbers may be combined together by adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing. We also show how to find 'complex roots' of polynomial equations.

A complex number is a generalisation of an ordinary real number. In fact, as we shall see, a complex number is a pair of real numbers ordered in a particular way. Fundamental to the study of complex numbers is the symbol $i$ with the strange looking property $i^{2}=-1$. Apart from this property complex numbers follow the usual rules of number algebra.

Workbook introduction.


Key Points.
Take especial note of these.

## Key Point 1

The symbol i is such that

$$
i^{2}=-1
$$

Using the normal rules of algebra it follows that

$$
i^{3}=i^{2} \times i=-i \quad i^{4}=i^{2} \times i^{2}=(-1) \times(-1)=1
$$

and so on.


Your solution
(a)

## Answer

$z+2 w=4+5 i$

## Your solution

(b) Hint: you should find that $z-w=-5-\mathrm{i}$

## Answer

$|z-w|=\sqrt{(-5)^{2}+(-1)^{2}}=\sqrt{26}$

## Your solution

(c)

## Answer

$z w=-6+3 \mathrm{i}-4 \mathrm{i}+2 \mathrm{i}^{2}=-8-\mathrm{i}$

Worked example.
Solution with explanation follows in box.

Find $\frac{z}{w}$ if $z=2-3 \mathrm{i}$ and $w=2+\mathrm{i}$.

## Solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{z}{w}=\frac{2-3 \mathrm{i}}{2+\mathrm{i}} & =\frac{(2-3 \mathrm{i}) \times(2-\mathrm{i})}{(2+\mathrm{i}) \times(2-\mathrm{i})} \quad \text { rationalising } \\
& =\frac{4-3+\mathrm{i}(-6-2)}{4+1} \quad \text { multiplying out } \\
& =\frac{1}{5}-\frac{8}{5} \mathrm{i} \quad \text { dividing through }
\end{aligned}
$$

Exercise for you to do.
Answers follow in box (usually no detailed solution).

## Exercises

1. Find the roots of the equation $x^{2}+2 x+2=0$.
2. If i is one root of the cubic equation $x^{3}+2 x^{2}+x+2=0$ find the two other roots.
3. Find the complex number $z$ if $2 z+z^{*}+3 \mathrm{i}+2=0$.
4. If $z=\cos \theta+\mathrm{i} \sin \theta$ show that $\frac{z}{z^{*}}=\cos 2 \theta+\mathrm{i} \sin 2 \theta$.
Answers
5. $x=-1 \pm \mathrm{i}$
6. $-\mathrm{i},-2$
7. $-\frac{2}{3}-3 \mathrm{i}$

## HELM Electronic Learning Resources

## 49.3

## 1. Introduction

HELM has 50 Workbooks and 80 Interactive Learning Resources and linked Revision Questions (with inbuilt randomisation).

The Interactive Learning Resources provide web-based lessons to match some Sections of many of the more elementary Workbooks and contain animations and interactivity to generate interest and have linked Revision Exercises where randomly generated questions are provided for the benefit of students working independently.

These Interactive Learning Resources and linked Revision Exercises have been found to be especially useful for supporting students who find it difficult to cope with the mathematical demands of their programmes.

The animations are also useful for illustrating lectures and for revision.
The tutor will provide guidance as to how the materials are to be used.

## 2. Accessing HELM electronic learning resources

The web based versions of HELM Interactive Learning Resources can be accessed via
http://helm.Iboro.ac.uk/cal/
or via any specific web address (url) given to you by your tutor.
Once you access this web page, you will see four links as shown below:


Workbooks


Interactive Lessons
Revision Questions


Help

Clicking on either an icon or the hypertext link below the icon will take you to the corresponding web page containing links to the selected learning resources.

## Workbooks:

There are fifty HELM Workbooks available to HEFCE-funded Higher Education Institutions in England and Northern Ireland from the Mathematics Education Centre at Loughborough University.

Access to these Workbooks is restricted to staff and students of these institutions and is controlled by each institution.

The List of Workbooks and Sections and some samples can be viewed on the HELM Website:
http://helm.lboro.ac.uk/pages/helm_workbooks.html

## Interactive Lessons and Revision Questions:

HELM Interactive Lessons and Revision Questions are Authorware 7 applications. Prospective users need to have the appropriate Macromedia ${ }^{\circledR}$ Authorware ${ }^{\circledR}$ player (a web browser plug-in) installed in order to use these. The Authorware ${ }^{\circledR}$ player could be downloaded free of charge from:
http://www.adobe.com/shockwave/download/alternates/ \#ap (as at June 2006)
It is important to choose the correct version of the player to support the browser and the computer platform being used. See the on-screen help file (by clicking HELP icon or the hyperlink) for further details.

Only selected sections of Workbooks 1-20 and 35-39 have associated Interactive Lessons and Revision Questions.

Caveat: Most of the Interactive Lessons and Revision Questions are derived from Loughborough's Open Learning Mathematics Project, which predated the HELM project, so the text may differ from that in the corresponding HELM Workbook.

Once you are in the page giving links to available lessons or questions, select the link you wish to continue with. An example for a lesson introduction page is given below.

Chapter 15: Applications of integration
Volumes of revolution

Introduction
In this block we show how the concept of integration as the limit of a sum can be used to find volumes of solids formed when curves are rotated around the x or y axes.

Before starting this Block you should:

- be able to calculate definite integrals
- understand integration as the limit of a sum
- calculate volumes of revolution


The introduction page presents you with the title of the Workbook and the section that is covered by the resource you selected. It will also state the prerequisites and the learning outcomes.

Click on the button labelled "Enter" or on the hypertext link below the button to launch the Interactive Lesson or the Revision Questions. Provided that the correct web player plug-in is installed, the introduction page to the Interactive Lesson or the Revision Questions chosen will be displayed within the web browser. Patience may be needed as in some cases it may take a few seconds to load the application on to your web browser. The front page of the lesson will look similar to the following example.

## Volumes of revolution

In this Block we show how the concept of integration as the limit of a sum can be used to find the volumes of solids formed when curves are rotated around the $x$ or $y$ axes.
$\Rightarrow$ Volumes generated by rotating curves about the $x$ axis
$\Rightarrow$ Volumes generated by rotating curves about the $y$ axis

As you see, there may be one or more buttons that will take you to a particular subsection of the lesson. For example, referring to the figure given below, clicking on the top button would take you to a section on Parametric differentiation; clicking the bottom button would take you to a section on Higher Derivatives.

## 디 Parametric differentiation

## 되 Higher derivatives

After you click on one of the buttons, the front page will disappear and you will see the first page of your chosen section. Look at the top right-hand corner of the screen: inside a box you will see in green something like "Page $1 / 2$ ". This means that the section contains two pages of material and that you are on the first page. Note that a page can contain several screens of material.

The learning material is multimedia: a mix of text, graphics and sometimes sound. We think that the audio aspect of the material is useful, so you should use headphones if at all possible. The material is also interactive: most sections contain questions that you are expected to answer before proceeding. These questions might require you to use the mouse - to draw a vector, for instance. More often, they will require you to enter a number as the answer to a calculation. So be prepared: when you sit down at the computer make sure that you have with you a pen, some paper and a calculator.

Follow the instructions on the screen. Often, this means that you are presented with some text (maybe with some graphics) and then have to press the continue button in order to see more text. You will gain most from this activity if you think about the material. Try to anticipate what will come next; try to complete the next stage in an argument before it is presented to you; if you are asked to do something before proceeding - do it. Don't just sit there and idly press the continue button!

When a page is completed, the box at the top right-hand corner of the screen will turn red. You can then either navigate to the next page in the section, or return to the front page to choose another section. Or perhaps you want to quit the lesson altogether. These tasks are accomplished by using the navigation toolbar at the bottom right-hand corner of the screen and it is shown below. This toolbar is always visible. If you move your cursor over any icon in the toolbar, you will see a short pop-up message describing the icon's function. Once you have some experience with the system, this might prove irritating. You can turn off the pop-ups at any time by using the menu item entitled "Pop-ups", found at the top left-hand corner of your screen.


So that you have a permanent record, the icon functions are also described below.
To move to the next page of a section, click on:


To move to the previous page of a section, click on: $\square$
To return to the front page, click on: $\square$
To quit the lesson at any time, click on:
To move to the first page of a section, click on: 0
To move to the last page of a section, click on: $\stackrel{\gg}{\square \square}$
To get a list of previously viewed pages, click on: and then select one from the list to visit that page.

To search for a word or a phrase, click on:蚛南

In practice, the three navigation icons you will use most often are:

1. The icon that takes you to the next page
2. The icon that returns you to the title page
3. The icon that lets you quit.

Feel free to view each page of the Interactive Lessons as many times as you like. Note that many of the pages have random variables embedded within them, so that each time you view the page you see slightly different examples.

Similarly, you may attempt the Revision Questions as often as you wish. Nearly all of the Revision Questions are generated using random numbers so that you seldom get the same question twice. These questions are presented within the context of the theoretical material that is applicable to a particular Workbook. Once you have worked through a Workbook, though, you might want to gain more practice at doing questions without having to wade through the relevant background theory.

# General Advice to Students Studying Mathematics 

## 1. Communication with the lecturer or tutor

When your lecturer or tutor writes something that you cannot understand, says something which you don't hear clearly, or provides notes which seem unintelligible or wrong, don't be reluctant to query it! Almost certainly you won't be the only one with this problem. Help yourself and the rest of the class. You will also be doing the lecturer or tutor a favour. Furthermore, ask the question as soon as you reasonably can. Waiting until the end of class can be very frustrating for all concerned!

## 2. Reading instructions

It seems human nature not to want to read instructions properly (if at all) when faced with a practical task. This even applies to mathematics problem sheets, to coursework and to examination papers. Careful reading of instructions is especially important in mathematics, otherwise you can finish up giving the right answer to the wrong problem and so gaining little or no credit when credit is really due. Miscopying the question is easily done in mathematics and can have dire consequences. It is easy to turn a simple problem into a fiendishly difficult one by doing that - and not only losing credit for that question but also wasting a lot of time (which may well indirectly lead to further loss of credit).

## 3. Handwriting

If your handwriting is not clear your tutor will have difficulty reading your work when trying to help you, and when marking your work may misread what you intended or get frustrated and lose patience and so not award the mark that the work merits. It has even been known for students to find it hard to read their own writing a few days later!

What are your particular idiosyncrasies in handwriting, which lead to misreading? Be aware and avoid them when it really matters!

Here are some possibilities for confusion (but there many others!)

-     + and $t$
- 0 and $o$ and $O$ (zero and lower and upper case letter 'oh')
- 1 and I and / and I and i ('one' ; letter 'ell' ; 'slash' or 'solidus'; letters "I" and "i'")
- 2 and $z$
- $j$ and $y$ and $g$
- $\times$ and $\times($ times sign and letter ' $x$ ' $)$

Clarifying what you mean by use of brackets is discussed later, but here is an example where you either must write very clearly or resort to brackets to avoid ambiguity:

What do you mean by $\sqrt{3} / 2$ ? Is it $(\sqrt{3}) / 2$ or $\sqrt{(3 / 2)}$ ? You can express whichever you mean more clearly by writing it as either $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ or $\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$, or by using brackets.

## 4. Calculators

Although calculators are much better at doing calculations than students they do not always give the right answer.

One of the commonest error with calculators is forgetting to switch between degrees and radians. Radians are invariably used in calculus and it is sensible to keep your calculator in this mode. (It is only if $x$ is in radians that the derivative of $\sin (x)$ is $\cos (x)$, for example.)

Another error arises when using graphics facilities. Some graphic calculators only display the right half of the graph $y=x^{1 / 2}$ if the general root key $(\sqrt[x]{y})$ is used but will give both halves if there is a special cube root button $(\sqrt[3]{ })$ which is used.
(The explanation lies in the fact that the general root key $(\sqrt[x]{y})$ uses logarithms during the computational process and, since the log of a negative number is not defined, the negative part is "lost".)

## 5. Brackets (aka parentheses)

Omitting pairs of brackets can lead to faulty algebraic manipulations and incorrect numerical computations.

Expanding $-2 \times(p-q)$ should lead to $-2 p+2 q$ but if (through laziness) it is expressed as $-2 \times p-q$ then the outcome is likely to be $-2 p-q$ or maybe $-2 p-2 q$.

Expressing $-3(x+1)^{2}$ as $-3 \times x^{2}+2 x+1$ is a recipe for disaster leading to $-3 x^{2}+2 x+1$ instead of $-3 x^{2}-6 x-3$.
(Incidentally, a more subtle error is the belief that a minus sign means a negative number. This is not true if $x$ is a negative number, of course.)

Writing fractions can be a problem. For instance, if you write " $2 / 7 y$ " do you mean " $(2 / 7) y$ " or " $2 /(7 y)$ "? To be safe you can insert brackets in such an expression or write it clearly as either $\frac{2}{7} y$ or $\frac{2}{7 y}$ as appropriate.

In integration, too, problems can easily arise:

$$
2 \int\left(4 x^{3}+4 x-3\right) d x=2 \times x^{4}+2 x^{2}-3 x+\text { constant }=2 x^{4}+2 x^{2}-3 x+C \quad \text { WRONG! }
$$

It should be

$$
2 \int\left(4 x^{3}+4 x-3\right) d x=2\left(x^{4}+2 x^{2}-3 x\right)+C=2 x^{4}+4 x^{2}-6 x+C \quad \text { RIGHT! }
$$

In general, if in any doubt put in brackets. This nearly always works.

## 6. BODMAS to the rescue!

## Order of operations

Common mathematical practice is to perform particular mathematical operations in certain orders. Such conventions reduce the number of brackets needed. For example, it is understood that " $4 x+3$ " means " $(4 x+3)$ ", and never " $4(x+3)$ " In general multiplication is performed before (has precedence over) addition. This priority can be reversed by inserting brackets if necessary. It is essential to use the correct order (precedence) of these operations in arithmetic and algebra.

What is $-4^{2}$ ? It is tempting to think that the expression means $(-4)^{2}$ which is +16 but the mathematical convention is to perform the exponentiation operation before applying the negation operation (represented by the minus sign), and so $-4^{2}$ is actually $-\left(4^{2}\right)$, which is -16 .

These conventions are encapsulated in the BODMAS rule for deciding the order in which to do mathematical operations. (This is introduced in HELM Workbook 1.)

BODMAS: (Brackets, 'Of', Division, Multiplication, Addition, Subtraction):

1. Brackets take highest priority - deal with items inside a pair of brackets first.
2. Of is a form of multiplication (e.g. 'half of 10 ' means $1 / 2 \times 10$ ) and comes next.
3. Division and Multiplication come next and left-to-right order is required (e.g. $4 \div 7 x \times k$ is evaluated as $(4 \div 7) \times k$ and not as $4 \div(7 x \times k)$ ).
4. Addition and Subtraction come last (in either order will do but left-to-right is normal).

When faced with several operations at the same level of precedence the left-to-right order is normally used, but it is not essential.

## Beware of calculators

Not all calculators follow these conventions in all circumstances, and ambiguities can arise, so you should check what you get for operations such as $4 \div 7 \times 7,2-3^{2}$ and $3^{2+1}$. Inserting brackets will sort out these problems if you are unsure what your calculator will do, or if you want to force it to do something it won't do otherwise.

## 7. Equality and Identity

The equals sign $(=)$ is often wrongly used as a shorthand symbol for "gives" or "leads to" or like phrases. For instance, when finding the third derivative of $x^{3}+2 x-3$, some students will write

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

These four expressions are not equal of course.
This practice is more annoying to the tutor than harmful to the student!
The use of $=$ is commonplace throughout mathematics and hides the distinction between expressions which are true for particular values (e.g. $2 x=2$ ) and those, which are ALWAYS true (e.g. $2 x=x$ +x ). The special identity symbol ( $\equiv$ ) is (or rather can be) used for these: e.g. $2 x \equiv x+x$. This symbol has been used sometimes in the HELM Workbooks where emphasis is important (especially in Workbook 1: Basic Algebra and in Workbook 4: Trigonometry) but we have not done so consistently - it just isn't the way mathematicians and engineers work! In practice it is nearly always obvious from the context, which is meant.

## 8. Notational problems

## Square root symbol

Every positive number has two real square roots. The expression $\sqrt{n}$ actually means "the nonnegative square root of $n$," but many think it can represent either of the square roots of $n$-i.e., it represents two numbers. This error is actually encouraged by the common practice of referring to $\sqrt{n}$ as "the square root of " instead of the more carefully worded "the positive square root of ". In fact even that phrase isn't quite correct in all circumstances since it could be zero!

The graphs of $y=\sqrt{x}$ and $y^{2}=x$ below illustrate the point:


If you want to refer to both roots then you must use $\pm \sqrt{ }$, as in the quadratic formula:

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

What about $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$ ? Usually this is taken to mean $\sqrt{x}$ but, particularly in complex number work, it can mean any value of the root. So $y=x^{\frac{1}{2}}$ could mean either of the graphs shown above!

Another common error is to replace $\sqrt{1-\sin ^{2} \theta}$ by $\cos \theta$ (because $1-\sin ^{2} \theta \equiv \cos ^{2} \theta$ ). This is wrong because $\cos \theta$ can be negative whereas $\sqrt{ }$ is never negative, so the result should be expressed as $|\cos \theta|$.

## Trigonometric inverses

The expression $\sin ^{k} x$ is interpreted in different ways, depending on the value of $k$.

$$
\sin ^{3} x \equiv(\sin x)^{3} \quad \text { and similarly for cos, tan, sec, cosec and cot }
$$

but
$\sin ^{-1} x$ means the inverse sine function, sometimes written as arcsin $(x)$, and similarly for cos, $\tan$, sec, cosec and cot.

Note that $\arcsin (x) \neq(\sin x)^{-1}$ but $\operatorname{cosec}(x) \equiv(\sin x)^{-1}$ because $\ldots$
$\sin ^{-1}$ is the inverse function to $\sin$
$1 / \sin$ is the reciprocal function of $\sin$, which is called cosec.

## 9. Checking your work

Human nature seems to lead to most of us being overconfident in our ability to be accurate. In day-to-day life (and indeed in engineering) some imprecision is often acceptable (such as when driving a car, unless in a Formula One race perhaps). But this is not so in mathematics where absolute accuracy is demanded. It is vitally important to check your work. (Of course in a timed examination the benefit and disadvantage of checking have to be weighed against each other and will depend upon the circumstances and personal traits.) Ideally you should check by using some alternative method but whether you use the same method or a different one is less important than the act of checking itself.

When solving an algebraic equation (or differential equation), normally an easy way to check the answer is to substitute the result back into original equation, and see if it satisfies the equation. This leads us onto the next more specific situation where checking is very important.

## 10. Irreversible steps in solving equations

If you apply the same operations to both sides of an equation, the result must be another equation (i.e. the equality must be preserved). The new equation must have all the solutions that the original equation has. BUT it might also have some new solutions. This may not seem logical or even possible but unfortunately it is the case when you apply certain operations (which are not reversible).

## Reversible operations

1. Multiplying both sides of an equation (except by zero) is reversible: e.g. "multiply both sides by 3 ": the set of values of $x$ which satisfy $2 x^{2}=11 x-5$ is exactly the same as the set of values of $x$ that satisfy $6 x^{2}=33 x-15$ [i.e $x=5$ and $x=\frac{1}{2}$ ]. (We can simply reverse the operation here by multiplying both sides by $\frac{1}{3}$.)
2. Cubing both sides of an equation is reversible: e.g. the set of values of $x$ which satisfy $x+1=$ -3 is exactly the same as the set of values of $x$ that satisfy $(x+1)^{3}=-27$ [i.e. $x=-3$ only]. (We can simply reverse the operation here by cube rooting both sides.)
3. Subtraction is reversible: e.g. "subtract 8 from both sides". The set of values of $x$ which satisfy $2 x^{2}=8$ is exactly the same as the set of values of $x$ that satisfy $2 x^{2}-8=0$. [i.e. $x=$ 2 and $x=-2$ ] (We can simply reverse the operation here by adding 8 to both sides.)

## Irreversible operations

Some operations are not reversible, and using them can introduce new solutions (called extraneous solutions) not valid for the original equation.

1. Square rooting is irreversible: e.g. $x=-9$ has only one solution, which is $x=-9$ of course, but after squaring both sides we get $x^{2}=81$, which has two solutions, $x=9$ and $x=-9$.
2. Multiplication of an equation in variable $x$ by $x$ is irreversible: this always introduces a solution $x=0$ : e.g. $2 x^{2}=8$ has two roots 2 and -2 but $2 x^{3}=8 x$ has three roots 2 and -2 and 0 .
3. More generally, multiplication of an equation in variable $x$ by $x-c$ is irreversible: the resulting equation will have the additional new solution $x=c$. [The reason is that multiplying any equation by zero preserves the equality and the factor $x-c$ is zero when $x=c$.]

## When any steps taken involve an irreversible operation, then it is essential to check for extraneous roots at the end.

The most common irreversible operation used in solving equations is squaring.

## 11. Additivity of operations

Many students confuse operations which are additive and those which are not. The normal (wrong) assumption is that the operation will be additive.

An operation $f$ is additive if it satisfies $f(x+y)=f(x)+f(y)$ for all $x$ and $y$. E.g. $2(x+y)=2 x+2 y$.
This is true for some operations. Examples are:

1. Algebra: $k(p+q)=k p+k q$
2. Differentiation: $d(u+v) / d x=d u / d x+d v / d x$
3. Integration: $\int(u+v) d x=\int u d x+\int v d x$
4. Laplace transformation: $\mathcal{L}(f+g)=\mathcal{L}(f)+\mathcal{L}(g)$
5. Matrix (transposition): $(A+B)^{T}=A^{T}+B^{T}$

It is not true for most operations. Examples are:

1. Trigonometric identities: e.g. $\sin (x+y) \neq \sin (x)+\sin (y)$
2. Raising to a power: e.g. $(x+y)^{2} \neq x^{2}+y^{2}$
3. Taking square root: e.g. $\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}} \neq \sqrt{x^{2}}+\sqrt{y^{2}}$
4. Exponentiation: $\exp (x+y) \neq \exp (x)+\exp (y)$
5. Taking logarithm: $\log (x+y) \neq \log (x)+\log (y)$
6. Matrices (inversion): $(A+B)^{-1} \neq A^{-1}+B^{-1}$

This is a common mistake made by first year undergraduates who have not studied mathematics for some time.

## 12. Commutativity of operations

Two operations $f$ and $g$ commute if you get the same result when you perform them in either order: i.e. $f(g(x))=g(f(x))$. E.g. if $f$ means "doubling" and $g$ means "trebling" then $f(g(5))=$ $f(15)=30$ and $g(f(5))=g(10)=30$ so $f(g(5))=g(f(5))$.

This is true for some combinations of operations. Examples are:

1. Powers and roots of positive numbers: $(\sqrt{x})^{3}=\sqrt{\left(x^{3}\right)}$
2. Multiplication by a constant and integration: $2 \int u d x=\int 2 u d x$

It is not true for most combinations of operations. Examples are:

1. "Doubling" and "Adding 1 " $\neq$ "Adding 1 " and "Doubling"
2. Powers and addition: $(x+1)^{3} \neq x^{3}+1^{3}$
3. Taking cosine and squaring: $\cos \left(x^{2}\right) \neq\{\cos (x)\}^{2}$
4. Multiplication and differentiation: $(u \times v)^{\prime} \neq u^{\prime} \times v^{\prime}$
5. Division and integration: $\int(u / v) d x \neq \int u d x / \int v d x$

## 13. Dimensions and scaling

Dimensional analysis is an important topic for engineers and is treated in Workbook 47. It doesn't tell you if you have the right formula or answer, but it can indicate that something must be wrong. Here are some simple examples:

1. If you're asked to find a length, and your answer is some number of square cms , then you must have made an error somewhere.
2. If you're asked to find an area and your answer is a negative number, then you know you've made an error somewhere UNLESS it is a calculus problem (where an area below the axis may be represented as a negative quantity).
3. The formula for the area, $S$, of a triangle with sides $a, b, c$ must have dimensions of area so it cannot possibly be either of the following:
$S=a \times b \times c \quad$ or $\quad S=a+b+c$
It might in theory be
$S=(a+b+c)^{2}$
which has the right dimensions for area, though that isn't actually correct of course!
There is in fact a complicated formula involving only $a, b, c$ for $S$, called Heron's formula:
$S=\sqrt{\{(a+b+c)(b+c-a)(c+a-b)(a+b-c) / 16\}}$.
You can check that this is dimensionally correct.

## Unit Conversion

A related problem is converting from one unit to another. Just because $1 \mathrm{~m}=100 \mathrm{~cm}$ does not mean that $1 \mathrm{~m}^{3}=100 \mathrm{~cm}^{3}$. Obvious, perhaps, but an easy mistake to make when not concentrating. In fact, of course, there are three dimensions here so the scale factor is $100^{3}$ and $1 \mathrm{~m}^{3}=1000000 \mathrm{~cm}^{3}$.

## Scaling error

If the question is a real-world problem, you should ask: "Is my answer sensible?" For instance, if you are given a list of the main components used in the manufacture of a truck and are asked to estimate its unladen weight, and you come up with an answer of 1000 tonnes, then you must have made a mistake either in the calculations or in the units.

## 14. Some further traps

It is important to remember the following:

## (a) Cancelling in fractions

Don't fall into the trap of partial cancelling.
This is correct:

$$
\frac{(x-1)(x+2)}{(x+3)(x+2)}=\frac{(x-1)}{(x+3)} \quad(\text { provided } x \neq-2)
$$

but this is NOT correct:

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

You only cancel once when the factors in the numerator are multiplied but you must cancel each time when the factors in the numerator are added (or subtracted).

## (b) Inequalities

$x \leq 2$ and $x \geq-1$ can be combined to give $-1 \leq x \geq 2$
BUT $x \geq 2$ and $x \leq-1$ cannot be combined to give $2 \geq x \leq-1$, which makes no sense. It is not possible to express these as a single equality (because it would imply $2 \leq-1$ !).

## (c) Solving equations

$(x-1)(x-2)=0 \Rightarrow x-1=0$ or $x-2=0 \quad$ TRUE!
BUT
$(x-1)(x-2)=2 \Rightarrow x-1=2$ or $x-2=2 \quad$ FALSE $!$
It is only with zero right-hand side that such factorisation is valid.

## (d) Differentiation

The term $\frac{d y}{d x}$ indicates differentiation of the expression $y$ with respect to the variable $x$. The operation of differentiation itself can be expressed as $\frac{d}{d x}$. It is not strictly correct to separate out the $d y$ and the $d x$ as in $\frac{d y}{d x}=x^{2} \Rightarrow d t=x^{2} d x$ but this does work (in solving differential equations), however mathematicians don't like it!
(e) Integration

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\int \frac{1}{x} d x=\ln (x)+c \quad \text { NOT CORRECT! } \\
\int \frac{1}{x} d x=\ln |x|+c \quad \text { CORRECT! }
\end{array}
$$

## 15. Stationary Points and Points of Inflection

Most students (and some teachers!) have an imperfect understanding of the definitions of local maximum, local minimum and point of inflection. Simple graphs can be used to illustrate these features.

Of the following three statements only the first two are known with any certainty by most students:
Given a twice differentiable function $f$ for which $f^{\prime}(a)=0$
(1) If $f^{\prime \prime}(a)>0$, then $f(x)$ has a minimum when $x=a$,
(2) If $f^{\prime \prime}(a)<0$, then $f(x)$ has a maximum when $x=a$,
(3) If $f^{\prime \prime}(a)=0$, then $f(x)$ has minimum or a maximum or a point of inflection when $x=a$.

Many students think (3) always leads to a point of inflection but the graph of $f(x)=x^{4}$ clearly shows this to be untrue when $x=0$.

Another misconception is that a point of inflection requires $f^{\prime}(a)=0$. This is not true as can easily be seen, for example, on the sine curve. This raises another point - for any continuous function there is always a point of inflection between every local minimum and local maximum. The graph below highlights these features.


## Maxima and Minima without Calculus

Students all too readily turn to the calculus when needing to find maxima and minima. There are, however, cases when alternative approaches are simpler, quicker or more informative:

## Example 1

Find the minimum value of $f(x) \equiv x^{2}+2 x+3$.
Completing the square gives $f(x)=(x+1)^{2}+2$.
This clearly is a minimum when $x=-1$ and there $f(x)$ has value 2 .

## Example 2

Find the maximum value of $f(x) \equiv 2 \sin (x)+3 \cos (x)$.
Using the trigonometric identity $\sin (A+B) \equiv \sin A \cos B+\cos A \sin B$ and utilising the triangle in the diagram we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =\sqrt{13}\left[\frac{2}{\sqrt{13}} \sin x+\frac{3}{\sqrt{13}} \cos x\right] \\
& =\sqrt{13}[\cos \alpha \sin x+\sin \alpha \cos x] \\
& =\sqrt{13} \sin (x+\alpha)
\end{aligned}
$$



This clearly has a maximum value of $\sqrt{13}$ at $x=\frac{\pi}{2}-\alpha$ (for example), which is where $\sin (x+\alpha)=\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)=1$.

## Some Useful Websites

(a) The reader is referred to the excellent website
http://atlas.math.vanderbilt.edu/~schectex/commerrs/
in which useful discussion of many intriguing errors and pitfalls are found and tips on avoiding them.

In particular, errors in calculus including integration by parts and solving differential equations are discussed at some length.
(b) See also the Maths Mistakes website (a site dedicated to the listing of mathematical mistakes made by advertisers, the media, reporters, politicians, activists and others) where you can marvel at the mistakes which others (not students) make:
http://members.cox.net/mathmistakes/
(c) Another valuable site is Eric Weisstein's Mathworld supported by Wolfram Research:
http://mathworld.wolfram.com/
which has a wealth of material, where you can look up definitions and formulae etc.
(d) Finally, the Wikipedia free encyclopaedia has a section on Mathematics where you can look up almost anything, useful or otherwise:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Category:Mathematics

There are, of course, hundreds of other websites to explore . .

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# Mathematics Facts and Formulae 

# On the following pages are collections of useful Facts and Formulae. They were developed by Tony Croft and Geoff Simpson and are reproduced with the permission of Loughborough University Mathematics Education Centre. 

## Mathematical Topics

Algebra
Trigonometry
The Sine Rule and Cosine Rule
Hyperbolic Functions
Differentiation
Integration
Complex Numbers
Vectors
Sequences and Series
Matrices and Determinants
The Binomial Coefficients
Graphs of Common Functions
The Greek Alphabet

## Algebra

$$
\begin{gathered}
(x+k)(x-k)=x^{2}-k^{2} \\
(x+k)^{2}=x^{2}+2 k x+k^{2}, \quad(x-k)^{2}=x^{2}-2 k x+k^{2} \\
x^{3} \pm k^{3}=(x \pm k)\left(x^{2} \mp k x+k^{2}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

Formula for solving a quadratic equation:

$$
\text { if } a x^{2}+b x+c=0 \text { then } x=\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^{2}-4 a c}}{2 a}
$$

## Laws of Indices

$$
\begin{gathered}
a^{m} a^{n}=a^{m+n} \quad \frac{a^{m}}{a^{n}}=a^{m-n} \quad\left(a^{m}\right)^{n}=a^{m n} \\
a^{0}=1 \quad a^{-m}=\frac{1}{a^{m}} \quad a^{1 / n}=\sqrt[n]{a} \quad a^{\frac{m}{n}}=(\sqrt[n]{a})^{m}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Laws of Logarithms

For any positive base $b$ (with $b \neq 1$ )

$$
\begin{gathered}
\log _{b} A=c \quad \text { means } \quad A=b^{c} \\
\log _{b} A+\log _{b} B=\log _{b} A B, \quad \log _{b} A-\log _{b} B=\log _{b} \frac{A}{B} \\
n \log _{b} A=\log _{b} A^{n}, \quad \log _{b} 1=0, \quad \log _{b} b=1
\end{gathered}
$$

Formula for change of base: $\quad \log _{a} x=\frac{\log _{b} x}{\log _{b} a}$
Logarithms to base e, denoted $\log _{\mathrm{e}}$ or alternatively $\ln$ are called natural logarithms. The letter e stands for the exponential constant which is approximately 2.718 .

## Partial fractions

For proper fractions $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ where $P$ and $Q$ are polynomials with the degree of $P$ less than the degree of $Q$ :
a linear factor $a x+b$ in the denominator produces a partial fraction of the form $\frac{A}{a x+b}$ repeated linear factors $(a x+b)^{2}$ in the denominator produce partial fractions of the form $\frac{A}{a x+b}+\frac{B}{(a x+b)^{2}}$ a quadratic factor $a x^{2}+b x+c$ in the denominator produces a partial fraction of the form $\frac{A x+B}{a x^{2}+b x+c}$ Improper fractions require an additional term which is a polynomial of degree $n-d$ where $n$ is the degree of the numerator and $d$ is the degree of the denominator.

## Inequalities:

$a>b$ means $a$ is greater than $b$
$\quad a<b$ means $a$ is less than $b$
$a \geqslant b$ means $a$ is greater than or equal to $b$
$a \leqslant b$ means $a$ is less than or equal to $b$

## Trigonometry

## Degrees and radians

$$
\begin{aligned}
360^{\circ}= & 2 \pi \text { radians, } 1^{\circ}=\frac{2 \pi}{360}=\frac{\pi}{180} \text { radians } \\
& 1 \text { radian }=\frac{180}{\pi} \text { degrees } \approx 57.3^{\circ}
\end{aligned}
$$

Trig ratios for an acute angle $\theta$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin \theta=\frac{\text { side opposite to } \theta}{\text { hypotenuse }}=\frac{b}{c} \\
& \cos \theta=\frac{\text { side adjacent to } \theta}{\text { hypotenuse }}=\frac{a}{c} \\
& \tan \theta=\frac{\text { side opposite to } \theta}{\text { side adjacent to } \theta}=\frac{b}{a}
\end{aligned}
$$



## Pythagoras' theorem

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

## Standard triangles:



$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\sin 45^{\circ}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, & \cos 45^{\circ}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, & \tan 45^{\circ}=1 \\
\sin 30^{\circ}=\frac{1}{2}, & \cos 30^{\circ}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, & \tan 30^{\circ}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\
\sin 60^{\circ}=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, & \cos 60^{\circ}=\frac{1}{2}, & \tan 60^{\circ}=\sqrt{3}
\end{array}
$$

## Common trigonometric identities

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sin (A \pm B)=\sin A \cos B \pm \cos A \sin B \\
& \cos (A \pm B)=\cos A \cos B \mp \sin A \sin B \\
& \tan (A \pm B)=\frac{\tan A \pm \tan B}{1 \mp \tan A \tan B} \\
& 2 \sin A \cos B=\sin (A+B)+\sin (A-B) \\
& 2 \cos A \cos B=\cos (A-B)+\cos (A+B) \\
& 2 \sin A \sin B=\cos (A-B)-\cos (A+B) \\
& \sin ^{2} A+\cos ^{2} A=1 \\
& 1+\cot ^{2} A=\operatorname{cosec}^{2} A, \quad \tan ^{2} A+1=\sec ^{2} A \\
& \cos 2 A=\cos ^{2} A-\sin ^{2} A=2 \cos ^{2} A-1=1-2 \sin ^{2} A \\
& \sin 2 A=2 \sin A \cos A \\
& \sin 2 A=\frac{1-\cos 2 A}{2}, \quad \cos ^{2} A=\frac{1+\cos 2 A}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\sin ^{2} A$ is the notation used for $(\sin A)^{2}$. Similarly $\cos ^{2} A$ means $(\cos A)^{2}$ etc. This notation is used with trigonometric and hyperbolic functions but with positive integer powers only.

## The sine rule and cosine rule

## The sine rule

$$
\frac{a}{\sin A}=\frac{b}{\sin B}=\frac{c}{\sin C}
$$

The cosine rule $a^{2}=b^{2}+c^{2}-2 b c \cos A$


Hyperbolic functions

$$
\begin{gathered}
\cosh x=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{x}+\mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2}, \quad \sinh x=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{x}-\mathrm{e}^{-x}}{2} \\
\tanh x=\frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x}=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{x}-\mathrm{e}^{-x}}{\mathrm{e}^{x}+\mathrm{e}^{-x}} \\
\operatorname{sech} x=\frac{1}{\cosh x}=\frac{2}{\mathrm{e}^{x}+\mathrm{e}^{-x}} \\
\operatorname{cosech} x=\frac{1}{\sinh x}=\frac{2}{\mathrm{e}^{x}-\mathrm{e}^{-x}} \\
\operatorname{coth} x=\frac{\cosh x}{\sinh x}=\frac{1}{\tanh x}=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{x}+\mathrm{e}^{-x}}{\mathrm{e}^{x}-\mathrm{e}^{-x}}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Hyperbolic identities

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{e}^{x}=\cosh x+\sinh x, \quad \mathrm{e}^{-x}=\cosh x-\sinh x \\
& \cosh ^{2} x-\sinh ^{2} x=1 \\
& 1-\tanh ^{2} x=\operatorname{sech}^{2} x \\
& \operatorname{coth}^{2} x-1=\operatorname{cosech}^{2} x \\
& \sinh (x \pm y)=\sinh x \cosh y \pm \cosh x \sinh y \\
& \cosh (x \pm y)=\cosh x \cosh y \pm \sinh x \sinh y \\
& \sinh 2 x=2 \sinh x \cosh x \\
& \cosh 2 x=\cosh ^{2} x+\sinh ^{2} x \\
& \cosh ^{2} x=\frac{\cosh 2 x+1}{2} \\
& \sinh ^{2} x=\frac{\cosh 2 x-1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Inverse hyperbolic functions

```
\(\cosh ^{-1} x=\ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right) \quad\) for \(x \geqslant 1\)
\(\sinh ^{-1} x=\ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}+1}\right)\)
\(\tanh ^{-1} x=\frac{1}{2} \ln \left(\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right) \quad\) for \(-1<x<1\)
```


## Differentiation

| $y=f(x)$ | $\frac{\mathrm{d} y}{\mathrm{~d} x}=f^{\prime}(x)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $k$, constant | 0 |
| $x^{n}$, any constant $n$ | $n x^{n-1}$ |
| $\mathrm{e}^{x}$ | $\mathrm{e}^{x}$ |
| $\ln x=\log _{\mathrm{e}} x$ |  |
| $\sin x$ | $\cos x$ |
| $\cos x$ | $-\sin x$ |
| $\tan x=\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$ | $\sec ^{2} x$ |
| $\operatorname{cosec} x=\frac{1}{\sin x}$ | $-\operatorname{cosec} x \cot x$ |
| $\sec x=\frac{1}{\cos x}$ | $\sec x \tan x$ |
| $\cot x=\frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$ | $-\operatorname{cosec}^{2} x$ |
| $\sin ^{-1} x^{\sin x}$ | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}}$ |
| $\cos ^{-1} x$ | $\frac{\frac{1-1}{1-x^{2}}}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}}$ |
| $\tan ^{-1} x$ | $\frac{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}}{1 x^{2}}$ |
| $\cosh x$ | $\begin{aligned} & \overline{1+x^{2}} \\ & \sinh x \end{aligned}$ |
| $\sinh x$ | $\cosh x$ |
| $\tanh x$ | $\operatorname{sech}^{2} x$ |
| sech $x$ | $-\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x$ |
| $\operatorname{cosech} x$ | $-\operatorname{cosech} x$ coth $x$ |
| coth $x$ | $-\operatorname{cosech}^{2} x$ |
| $\cosh ^{-1} x$ | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^{2}-1}}$ |
| $\sinh ^{-1} x$ | $\frac{\sqrt{1-1}}{\sqrt{x^{2}+1}}$ |
| $\tanh ^{-1} x$ | $\frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{x^{2}+1}}}{1-r^{2}}$ |

The linearity rule for differentiation

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}(a u+b v)=a \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x}+b \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \quad a, b \text { constant }
$$

The product and quotient rules for differentiation

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}(u v)=u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x}+v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \quad \frac{\mathrm{~d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)=\frac{v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x}-u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x}}{v^{2}}
$$

The chain rule for differentiation

If $y=y(u)$ where $u=u(x)$ then $\frac{\mathrm{d} y}{\mathrm{~d} x}=\frac{\mathrm{d} y}{\mathrm{~d} u} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x}$
For example,
if $y=(\cos x)^{-1}, \frac{\mathrm{~d} y}{\mathrm{~d} x}=-1(\cos x)^{-2}(-\sin x)$

## Integration

| $f(x)$ | $\int f(x) \mathrm{d} x=F(x)+c$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $k$, constant | $k x+c$ |  |
| $x^{n},(n \neq-1)$ | $\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}+c$ |  |
| $x^{-1}=\frac{1}{x}$ | $\begin{cases}\ln x+c & x>0 \\ \ln (-x)+c & x<0\end{cases}$ |  |
| $\mathrm{e}^{x}$ | $\mathrm{e}^{x}+c$ |  |
| $\cos x$ | $\sin x+c$ |  |
| $\sin x$ | $-\cos x+c$ |  |
| $\tan x$ | $\ln (\sec x)+c$ | $-\frac{\pi}{2}<x<\frac{\pi}{2}$ |
| $\sec x$ | $\ln (\sec x+\tan x)+c$ | $-\frac{\pi}{2}<x<\frac{\pi}{2}$ |
| $\operatorname{cosec} x$ | $\ln (\operatorname{cosec} x-\cot x)+c$ | $0<x<\pi$ |
| $\cot x$ | $\ln (\sin x)+c$ | $0<x<\pi$ |
| $\cosh x$ | $\sinh x+c$ |  |
| $\sinh x$ | $\cosh x+c$ |  |
| $\tanh x$ | $\ln \cosh x+c$ |  |
| coth $x$ | $\ln \sinh x+c$ | $x>0$ |
| $\frac{1}{x^{2}+a^{2}}$ | $\frac{1}{a} \tan ^{-1} \frac{x}{a}+c$ | $a>0$ |
|  | $\frac{1}{2 a} \ln \frac{x-a}{x+a}+c$ | $\|x\|>a>0$ |
| $\frac{1}{a^{2}-x^{2}}$ | $\frac{1}{2 a} \ln \frac{a+x}{a-x}+c$ | $\|x\|<a$ |
| $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^{2}+a^{2}}}$ | $\sinh ^{-1} \frac{x}{a}+c$ | $a>0$ |
| $\frac{\sqrt{x^{2}+a^{2}}}{\sqrt{x^{2}-a^{2}}}$ | $\cosh ^{-1} \frac{a}{a}+c$ | $x \geqslant a>0$ |
| $\frac{\sqrt{x^{2}-a^{2}}}{\sqrt{x^{2}+1}}$ | $\ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}+k}\right)+c$ |  |
| $\frac{\frac{2}{\sqrt{x^{2}+k}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{a^{2}-x^{2}}}}$ | $\sin ^{-1} \frac{x}{a}+c$ | $-a \leqslant x \leqslant a$ |
| $f(a x+b)$ | $\frac{1}{a} F(a x+b)+c$ | $a \neq 0$ |
| e.g. $\cos (2 x-3)$ | $\frac{1}{2} \sin (2 x-3)+c$ |  |

The linearity rule for integration

$$
\int(a f(x)+b g(x)) \mathrm{d} x=a \int!!f(x) \mathrm{d} x+b \int!!g(x) \mathrm{d} x, \quad(a, b \text { constant })
$$

## Integration by substitution

$$
\int f(u) \frac{\mathrm{d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x=\int f(u) \mathrm{d} u \quad \text { and } \quad \int_{a}^{b} f(u) \frac{\mathrm{d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x=\int_{u(a)}^{u(b)} f(u) \mathrm{d} u
$$

## Integration by parts

$$
\int_{a}^{b} u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x=[u v]_{a}^{b}-\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} v \mathrm{~d} x
$$

## Alternative form:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) g(x) \mathrm{d} x=\left[f(x) \int g(x) \mathrm{d} x\right]_{a}^{b}-\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\mathrm{~d} f}{\mathrm{~d} x}\left\{\int g(x) \mathrm{d} x\right\} \mathrm{d} x
$$

## Complex Numbers

Cartesian form: $z=a+b j$ where $j=\sqrt{-1}$
Polar form:
$z=r(\cos \theta+j \sin \theta)=r \angle \theta$
$a=r \cos \theta, b=r \sin \theta, \tan \theta=\frac{b}{a}$


Exponential form: $z=r \mathrm{e}^{j \theta}$

## Euler's relations

$\mathrm{e}^{j \theta}=\cos \theta+j \sin \theta, \quad \mathrm{e}^{-j \theta}=\cos \theta-j \sin \theta$

## Multiplication and division in polar form

$$
z_{1} z_{2}=r_{1} r_{2} \angle\left(\theta_{1}+\theta_{2}\right), \quad \frac{z_{1}}{z_{2}}=\frac{r_{1}}{r_{2}} \angle\left(\theta_{1}-\theta_{2}\right)
$$

If $z=r \angle \theta$, then $z^{n}=r^{n} \angle(n \theta)$
De Moivre's theorem

$$
(\cos \theta+j \sin \theta)^{n}=\cos n \theta+j \sin n \theta
$$

## Relationship between hyperbolic and trig functions

$\cos j x=\cosh x, \quad \sin j x=j \sinh x$
$\cosh j x=\cos x, \quad \sinh j x=j \sin x$
$i$ rather than $j$ may be used to denote $\sqrt{-1}$.

## Vectors

If $\mathbf{r}=x \mathbf{i}+y \mathbf{j}+z \mathbf{k}$ then $|\mathbf{r}|=\sqrt{x^{2}+y^{2}+z^{2}}$

## Scalar product

$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}=|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta$


If $\mathbf{a}=a_{1} \mathbf{i}+a_{2} \mathbf{j}+a_{3} \mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b}=b_{1} \mathbf{i}+b_{2} \mathbf{j}+b_{3} \mathbf{k}$ then

$$
\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}=a_{1} b_{1}+a_{2} b_{2}+a_{3} b_{3}
$$

## Vector product

$\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}=|\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}| \sin \theta \hat{\mathbf{e}}$

$\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ is a unit vector perpendicular to the plane containing $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ in a sense defined by the right hand screw rule.

If $\mathbf{a}=a_{1} \mathbf{i}+a_{2} \mathbf{j}+a_{3} \mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{b}=b_{1} \mathbf{i}+b_{2} \mathbf{j}+b_{3} \mathbf{k}$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} & =\left(a_{2} b_{3}-a_{3} b_{2}\right) \mathbf{i}+\left(a_{3} b_{1}-a_{1} b_{3}\right) \mathbf{j}+\left(a_{1} b_{2}-a_{2} b_{1}\right) \mathbf{k} \\
& =\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\
a_{1} & a_{2} & a_{3} \\
b_{1} & b_{2} & b_{3}
\end{array}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

## Sequences and Series

Arithmetic progression: $a, a+d, a+2 d, \ldots$
$a=$ first term, $d=$ common difference,
$k$ th term $=a+(k-1) d$
Sum of $n$ terms, $S_{n}=\frac{n}{2}(2 a+(n-1) d)$

## Sum of the first $n$ integers,

$1+2+3+\ldots+n=$

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} k=\frac{1}{2} n(n+1)
$$

Sum of the squares of the first $n$ integers,
$1^{2}+2^{2}+3^{2}+\ldots+n^{2}=$

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2}=\frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2 n+1)
$$

Geometric progression: $a, a r, a r^{2}, \ldots$
$a=$ first term, $r=$ common ratio,
$k$ th term $=a r^{k-1}$
Sum of $n$ terms, $S_{n}=\frac{a\left(1-r^{n}\right)}{1-r}$, provided $r \neq 1$

## Sum of an infinite geometric series:

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

## The binomial theorem

If $n$ is a positive integer

$$
(1+x)^{n}=1+n x+\frac{n(n-1)}{2!} x^{2}+\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{3!} x^{3}+\cdots+x^{n}
$$

When $n$ is negative or fractional, the series is infinite and converges when $-1<x<1$

## Standard power series expansions

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{e}^{x}=1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\ldots \text { for all } x \\
\sin x=x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{5}}{5!}-\frac{x^{7}}{7!}+\ldots \text { for all } x \\
\cos x=1-\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{4}}{4!}-\frac{x^{6}}{6!}+\ldots \text { for all } x \\
\log _{\mathrm{e}}(1+x)=x-\frac{x^{2}}{2}+\frac{x^{3}}{3}-\frac{x^{4}}{4}+\ldots \text { for }-1<x \leqslant 1 \text { only }
\end{gathered}
$$

The exponential function as the limit of a sequence

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(1+\frac{x}{n}\right)^{n}=e^{x}
$$

## Matrices and Determinants

The $2 \times 2$ matrix $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$ has determinant

$$
|A|=\left|\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right|=a d-b c
$$

The $3 \times 3$ matrix $A=\left(\begin{array}{lll}a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}\end{array}\right)$ has determinant

$$
|A|=a_{11}\left|\begin{array}{ll}
a_{22} & a_{23} \\
a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{array}\right|-a_{12}\left|\begin{array}{ll}
a_{21} & a_{23} \\
a_{31} & a_{33}
\end{array}\right|+a_{13}\left|\begin{array}{ll}
a_{21} & a_{22} \\
a_{31} & a_{32}
\end{array}\right|
$$

(expanded along the first row).

The inverse of a $2 \times 2$ matrix
If $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$ then $A^{-1}=\frac{1}{a d-b c}\left(\begin{array}{cc}d & -b \\ -c & a\end{array}\right)$
provided that $a d-b c \neq 0$.

Matrix multiplication: for $2 \times 2$ matrices

$$
\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ll}
\alpha & \gamma \\
\beta & \delta
\end{array}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
a \alpha+b \beta & a \gamma+b \delta \\
c \alpha+d \beta & c \gamma+d \delta
\end{array}\right)
$$

Remember that $A B \neq B A$ except in special cases.

## The Binomial Coefficients

The coefficient of $x^{k}$ in the binomial expansion of $(1+x)^{n}$ when $n$ is a positive integer is denoted by $\binom{n}{k}$ or ${ }^{n} C_{k}$.

$$
\binom{n}{k}=\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}=\binom{n}{n-k}
$$

$0!=1, \quad n!=n(n-1)!$
so, for example, $4!=1.2 .3 .4$
The pattern of the coefficients is seen in

## Pascal's triangle:

|  |  |  |  |  | 1 |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | 1 |  | 2 |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 1 |  | 3 |  | 3 |  | 1 |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  | 4 |  | 6 |  | 4 |  | 1 |  |  |  |
|  | 1 |  | 5 |  | 10 |  | 10 |  | 5 |  | 1 |  |
| $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |  | $\vdots$ |

${ }^{n} C_{k}$ is the number of subsets with $k$ elements that can be chosen from a set with $n$ elements.

## Graphs of Common Functions

Linear $y=m x+c, m=$ gradient, $c=$ vertical intercept


$$
m=\frac{y_{2}-y_{1}}{x_{2}-x_{1}}
$$

The equation of a circle centre $(a, b)$, radius $r$


$$
(x-a)^{2}+(y-b)^{2}=r^{2}
$$

Quadratic functions $y=a x^{2}+b x+c$

$a>0$
(1) $b^{2}-4 a c<0$

$$
a<0
$$

(2) $b^{2}-4 a c=0$
(1) $b^{2}-4 a c>0$
(3) $b^{2}-4 a c>0$
(2) $b^{2}-4 a c=0$
(3) $b^{2}-4 a c<0$

## Completing the square

$$
\text { If } a \neq 0, \quad a x^{2}+b x+c=a\left(x+\frac{b}{2 a}\right)^{2}+\frac{4 a c-b^{2}}{4 a}
$$

The modulus function The unit step function, $u(x)$

$$
|x|=\left\{\begin{array}{rll} 
& \text { if } & x \geqslant 0 \\
-x & \text { if } & x<0
\end{array} \quad u(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1 & \text { if } & x \geqslant 0 \\
0 & \text { if } & x<0
\end{array}\right.\right.
$$




## Exponential functions



Graph of $y=\mathrm{e}^{-x}$ showing exponential decay


$$
\text { Graphs of } y=0.5^{x}, y=3^{x}, \text { and } y=2^{x}
$$

## Logarithmic functions



$$
\text { Graphs of } y=\ln x \text { and } y=\log _{10} x
$$

## Hyperbolic functions




Graphs of $y=\sinh x, y=\cosh x$ and $y=\tanh x$

Trigonometric functions


The sine and cosine functions are periodic with period $2 \pi$. The tangent function is periodic with period $\pi$.

## Inverse trigonometric functions



## The Greek alphabet

| $A$ | $\alpha$ | alpha | $I$ | $\iota$ | iota | $P$ | $\rho$ | rho |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $B$ | $\beta$ | beta | $K$ | $\kappa$ | kappa | $\Sigma$ | $\sigma$ | sigma |
| $\Gamma$ | $\gamma$ | gamma | $\Lambda$ | $\lambda$ | lambda | $T$ | $\tau$ | tau |
| $\Delta$ | $\delta$ | delta | $M$ | $\mu$ | mu | $\Upsilon$ | $v$ | upsilon |
| $E$ | $\epsilon$ | epsilon | $N$ | $\nu$ | nu | $\Phi$ | $\phi$ | phi |
| $Z$ | $\zeta$ | zeta | $\Xi$ | $\xi$ | xi | $X$ | $\chi$ | chi |
| $H$ | $\eta$ | eta | $O$ | $o$ | omicron | $\Psi$ | $\psi$ | psi |
| $\Theta$ | $\theta$ | theta | $\Pi$ | $\pi$ | pi | $\Omega$ | $\omega$ | omega |

