



Master Equation Sheet

Version 1.0.1

This sheet contains equations used in engineering undergraduate classes from freshman through sophomore year. Subjects include but are not limited to mathematics, physics, material science, and general engineering. A list of scientific constants and conversions are given at the end as well. Notes on each equation/principle added as necessary. Note that this sheet is not an exhaustive list; it is simply meant as an extra resource.

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For FAQ, comments or suggestions, please read the “README” on the GitHub site.

Mathematics.....	5
Algebra.....	5
Exponent Laws	5
Quadratic Formula.....	5
Linear Slope Equations.....	5
Factoring.....	5
Logarithms.....	5
Vectors and Matrices	5
Radicals	5
Geometry.....	5
Circles.....	5
Cylinders.....	5
Spheres	5
Right Triangles	5
Trigonometry.....	5
Right Angle Ratios	5
Reciprocal Identities	6
Tan/Cotangent Identities.....	6
Trig Identities	6
Even/Odd Formulas	6
Double Angle Formulas.....	6
Degrees to Radians	6
Law of Sines.....	6
Law of Cosines.....	6
Small Angle Approx.....	6
Calculus.....	6
Derivative Properties	6
Derivative Power Rule.....	6

Derivative Product Rule.....	6
Derivative Quotient Rule	6
Derivative Chain Rule	6
Standard Derivatives	6
Chain Rule Variations	6
Integral Properties.....	7
Integral Power Rule.....	7
Standard Integrals	7
Integration Techniques.....	7
U-Substitution.....	7
Integration by Parts	7
Trigonometric Integrals	8
Trigonometric Substitution	8
Partial Fractions.....	8
The Laplace Transform.....	9
Laplace Transforms	9
Inverse Laplace Transforms	9
Appendix.....	9
Greek Characters.....	9
SI Base Units	10
SI Prefixes.....	10
Constants.....	10
Gravitational constant	10
Earth topics	10
Gravity on earth	10
Atmospheric pressure	10
Avogadro constant	10
Gas constant	10

Boltzmann constant	10
Speed of sound.....	10
Reference sound intensity	10
Elementary charge	10
Coulomb constant	10
Vacuum permittivity.....	10
Mass of a proton	10
Mass of an electron	10
Speed of light	10
Planck constant.....	10
Bohr Radius.....	10

Mathematics

Algebra

Exponent Laws

$$x^a \cdot x^b = x^{a+b}$$

$$(x^a)^b = x^{ab}$$

$$(x^a)^a = (x^a y^a)$$

$$x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$$

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

Quadratic Formula

→ Given $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

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

Linear Slope Equations

$$y = mx + b$$

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

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

Factoring

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

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

$$x^3 + y^3 = (x + y)(x^2 - xy + y^2)$$

$$x^3 - y^3 = (x - y)(x^2 + xy + y^2)$$

Logarithms

$$\ln A^x = x \ln A$$

$$\ln[A \cdot B] = \ln A + \ln B$$

$$\ln\left[\frac{A}{B}\right] = \ln A - \ln B$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\ln(x)$$

$$\ln(1) = 0$$

$$\ln(e) = 1$$

$$\ln(e^x) = x$$

$$e^{\ln(x)} = x$$

Vectors and Matrices

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = ||\vec{u}|| \cdot ||\vec{v}|| \cos(\theta)$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_x v_x + u_y v_y + u_z v_z$$

$$\hat{u} \cdot \hat{v} = \cos(\theta)$$

$$||\vec{u}|| = \sqrt{u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2}$$

$$\hat{u} = \frac{\vec{u}}{||\vec{u}||}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{||v|| ||u||}$$

$$\text{adj}(A) = \begin{vmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{vmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{vmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u} \times \vec{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ u_x & u_y & u_z \\ v_x & v_y & v_z \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k} \quad \hat{j} \times \hat{i} = -\hat{k}$$

$$\hat{j} \times \hat{k} = \hat{i} \quad \hat{k} \times \hat{j} = -\hat{i}$$

$$\hat{k} \times \hat{i} = \hat{j} \quad \hat{i} \times \hat{k} = -\hat{j}$$

Radicals

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

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

$$\sqrt[m]{\sqrt[n]{a}} = \sqrt[nm]{a}$$

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

Geometry

Circles

$$A = \pi r^2$$

$$C = 2\pi r$$

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

$$s = r\theta$$

$$A_{Hoop} = \frac{\pi}{4}(d_o^2 - d_i^2)$$

$$A_{Hoop} = \pi(r_o^2 - r_i^2)$$

→ (a, b) is the center of the circle.

→ θ must be in radians.

Cylinders

$$A = 2\pi rl + 2\pi r^2$$

$$V = \pi r^2 l$$

Spheres

$$A = 4\pi r^2$$

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$$

$$r^2 = (x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 + (z - c)^2$$

→ (a, b, c) is the center of the sphere and (x, y, z) are coordinates on the surface of the sphere.

Right Triangles

$$A = \frac{1}{2}bh$$

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

Trigonometry

Right Angle Ratios

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{Opposite}}{\text{Hypotenuse}}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{Adjacent}}{\text{Hypotenuse}}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{Opposite}}{\text{Adjacent}}$$

→ Using reciprocal identities, the ratios for sec, csc, and cot can be found.

Reciprocal Identities

$$\sin \theta = \frac{1}{\csc \theta} \quad \cos \theta = \frac{1}{\sec \theta}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{1}{\cot \theta} \quad \csc \theta = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$$

$$\sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$$

Tan/Cotangent Identities

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$

Trig Identities

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

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

$$\cot^2 \theta + 1 = \csc^2 \theta$$

$$\sin(2x) = 2 \sin(x) \cdot \cos(x)$$

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$$

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

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

$$*\cos^n \theta = [\cos \theta]^n$$

*Valid for all trigonometric functions (sin, cos, tan, cot, sec, csc).

Even/Odd Formulas

$$\sin(-\theta) = -\sin \theta$$

$$\cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta$$

$$\tan(-\theta) = -\tan \theta$$

$$\csc(-\theta) = -\csc \theta$$

$$\sec(-\theta) = \sec \theta$$

$$\cot(-\theta) = -\cot \theta$$

Double Angle Formulas

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

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

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

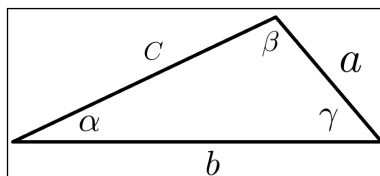
$$= 1 - 2 \sin^2 \theta$$

Degrees to Radians

→ Where D is an angle in degrees and R is an angle in radians.

$$R = D \cdot \frac{\pi}{180} \quad D = R \cdot \frac{180}{\pi}$$

Law of Sines



$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{a} = \frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}$$

Law of Cosines

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc \cos \alpha$$

$$b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac \cos \beta$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma$$

Small Angle Approx.

$$\sin \theta \approx \theta$$

$$\cos \theta \approx 1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2} \approx 1$$

$$\tan \theta \approx \theta$$

Calculus

Derivative Properties

$$\frac{d}{dx}(c) = 0$$

$$(c \cdot f(x))' = c \cdot f'(x)$$

$$(f(x) \pm g(x))' = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$$

Derivative Power Rule

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

Derivative Product Rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x) \cdot g(x)) = f'(x) \cdot g(x) + f(x) \cdot g'(x)$$

Derivative Quotient Rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{f'(x) \cdot g(x) - f(x) \cdot g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$$

Derivative Chain Rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(g(x))) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

Standard Derivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin(x)) = \cos(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos(x)) = -\sin(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan(x)) = \sec^2(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec(x)) = \sec(x) \cdot \tan(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc(x)) = -\csc(x) \cdot \cot(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot(x)) = -\csc^2(x)$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1}(x)) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}(x)) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(n^x) = n^x \cdot \ln(n)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{nx}) = n \cdot e^{nx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x}, x > 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x}, x \neq 0$$

Chain Rule Variations

$$\frac{d}{dx}([f(x)]^n) = n \cdot [f(x)]^{n-1} \cdot f'(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{f(x)}) = f'(x) \cdot e^{f(x)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln[f(x)]) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin[f(x)]) = f'(x) \cdot \cos[f(x)]$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos[f(x)]) = -f'(x) \cdot \sin[f(x)]$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}(\tan[f(x)]) &= f'(x) \cdot \sec^2[f(x)] \\ \frac{d}{dx}(\sec[f(x)]) &= f'(x) \cdot \sec[f(x)] \cdot \tan[f(x)] \\ \frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}[f(x)]) &= \frac{f'(x)}{1 + [f(x)]^2}\end{aligned}$$

Integral Properties

$$\begin{aligned}\int f(x) \pm g(x) dx &= \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx \\ \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx \\ \int_a^a dx &= 0 \\ \int_a^b f(x) dx &= - \int_b^a f(x) dx \\ \int_a^b C \cdot f(x) dx &= C \cdot \int_a^b f(x) dx \\ \int_a^b C \cdot dx &= C \cdot (b - a)\end{aligned}$$

Integral Power Rule

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

Standard Integrals

$$\begin{aligned}\int k dx &= k \cdot x + C \\ \int e^n x dx &= \frac{1}{n} e^x + C \\ \int \cos(x) dx &= \sin(x) + C \\ \int \sin(x) dx &= -\cos(x) + C \\ \int \sec^2(x) dx &= \tan(x) + C \\ \int \csc^2(x) dx &= -\cot(x) + C \\ \int \frac{1}{ax+b} dx &= \frac{1}{a} \ln|ax+b| + C \\ \int \sec(x) \cdot \tan(x) dx &= \sec(x) + C \\ \int \csc(x) \cdot \cot(x) dx &= -\csc(x) + C\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sec(x) dx &= \ln|\sec(x) + \tan(x)| + C \\ \int \csc(x) dx &= -\ln|\csc(x) + \cot(x)| + C \\ \int x^{-1} dx &= \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C \\ \int \ln(x) dx &= x \cdot \ln(x) - x + C \\ \int \tan(x) dx &= \ln|\sec(x)| + C \\ \int \tan(x) dx &= -\ln|\cos(x)| + C \\ \int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{a} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C\end{aligned}$$

Integration Techniques

Topics include U-Sub, Integration by parts, trigonometric integrals, trig. sub, and PFD.

U-Substitution

Take an "X" term to be u , and then take du of that u term. Solve the integral in terms of u , and then re-substitute into the equation.

Example:

$$\int_1^2 5x^2 \cos(x^3) dx$$

so

$$u = x^3 \therefore du = 3x^2 dx$$

or

$$\frac{1}{3} du = x^2 dx$$

resulting in

$$= 5 \int_{*}^{**} \frac{1}{3} \cos(u) du$$

Notice the substitution chosen allows for all x terms to be turned into u terms.

The integral can now easily be solved through standard methods.

Once solved, replace u with the substitution above and replace the limits of integration as well. Solve as normal.

It is possible to complete u -sub without suppressing the limits of integration, you will just need to plug the given limits into the u term to find the new limits of integration.

For example, the lower would become $(1^3) = 1$ and the upper would become $(2^3) = 8$. Note that either method works and produces the same solution.

Integration by Parts

The standard formula for integration by parts is as follows:

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

Find u and dv in the original equation, then solve for du and v . Plug into the formula above and solve.

The u term can be found according to ILATE: inverse trigonometric, logarithmic, algebraic, trigonometric and exponential.

Example:

$$\int x e^{-x} dx$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}u &= x & dv &= e^{-x} \\ du &= dx & v &= -e^{-x}\end{aligned}$$

using the equation above:

$$= -x e^{-x} + \int e^{-x} dx$$

resulting in

$$= -x e^{-x} - e^{-x} + C$$

Trigonometric Integrals

When solving an integral with trigonometric functions (usually involving powers and multiple trig functions multiplied together), a u -sub may not be able to be applied.

Instead, the integral will need to be separated into multiples of the trig function, apply a trig identity, and then complete the u -sub.

Example:

$$\int \sin^6 x \cos^3 x \, dx$$

separating $\cos^3 x$ into $\cos^2 x \cdot \cos x$ and applying an identity:

$$= \int \sin^6 x (1 - \sin^2 x) \cos x \, dx$$

take $u = \sin x \therefore du = \cos x \, dx$ and perform the remaining u -sub:

$$= \int u^6 (1 - u^2) \, du$$

ending with:

$$= \frac{1}{7} \sin^7 x - \frac{1}{9} \sin^9 x + C$$

Note that while $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ is a common substitution, it is also common for other identities such as $\tan^2 x + 1 = \sec^2 x$ to be used as well.

Trigonometric Substitution

In certain cases, an integral may contain one of the following roots. In such situation, the following substitutions and formulas will be used to solve the integral.

Case I:

$$\sqrt{a^2 - b^2 x^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \sin \theta$$

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

Case II:

$$\sqrt{b^2 x^2 - a^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \sec(\theta)$$

$$\text{uses } \tan^2(\theta) = \sec^2(\theta) - 1$$

Case III:

$$\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 x^2} \Rightarrow x = \frac{a}{b} \tan(\theta)$$

$$\text{uses } \sec^2(\theta) = \tan^2(\theta) + 1$$

Example:

$$\int \frac{1}{(1 - x^2)^{3/2}} \, dx$$

Because this is a case I problem, use the substitution

$$x = \sin \theta \therefore dx = \cos \theta$$

Apply the substitution(s) back into the original equation:

$$\int \frac{1}{(1 - \sin^2(\theta))^{3/2}} \cdot \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

From here, the integral can be simplified and solved readily:

$$= \int \frac{1}{(\cos^2 \theta)^{3/2}} \cdot \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\cos^3 \theta} \cdot \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta} \, d\theta$$

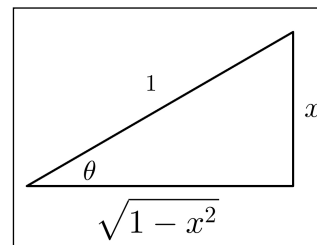
$$= \int \sec^2 \theta \, d\theta$$

$$= \tan \theta + C$$

Although tempting to assume so, the problem is not solved. Because a substitution was applied near the beginning, the final answer must be in terms of x , not θ .

$$\sin \theta = \frac{x}{1} = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$$

By creating a right triangle with this definition, the adjacent side a can be solved:



Recall that $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ and as such $(x)^2 + (a)^2 = (1)^2$, resulting in

$$a = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

The final result can finally be expressed in terms of x as

$$= \frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} + C$$

Partial Fractions

Occasionally an integral will involve a fraction which may be difficult to be solved by standard substitution methods.

Using PFD, the integral can be broken up into simpler fractions which can be easier solved.

Example:

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

This integral is difficult by itself, due to the fact that an easy u -sub is not available.

To help with this, it can be broken down into simpler integrals. Begin by observing the fraction only and factoring the denominator:

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

This fraction can now re-written, with the factors of the denominator for each fraction:

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

Because the numerators are not known, variables A and B are put in place. Note the original factored fraction goes on the left.

From here the denominator of the left (in this case $x(x+1)$) is multiplied through the equation:

$$* 3x + 2 = A(x + 1) + B(x)$$

Make note that parts of the denominators of terms A and B canceled, resulting in a much simpler expression than what was started with.

Multiplying terms:

$$3x + 2 = Ax + A + Bx$$

Group terms based on their order (or “power”):

$$3x + 2 = (A + B)x + A$$

From here, the coefficient matching game is played. Match the coefficients from the left (with respect to exponents/powers) to the coefficients of the right.

$$\begin{aligned} 3 &= A + B \\ 2 &= A \end{aligned}$$

Notice it is just the raw coefficients and A/B terms in the new set of equations. From here, it is seen that $A = 2$ and $B = 1$.

This conclusion could also be reached by revisiting equation *. Because the equation is true for any value of x , the equation can be solved by picking “0” as x and solving from there.

$$\begin{aligned} 3(0) + 2 &= A(0 + 1) + B(0) \\ 2 &= A \end{aligned}$$

The same could be done for finding B (notice that A cancels this time):

$$\begin{aligned} 3(-1) + 2 &= A(-1 + 1) + B(-1) \\ -1 &= -B \therefore B = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Once the numerators are realized, they can be plugged back into the first decomposition:

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

Because of this, the starting integral can now be replaced as well:

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

This is now a much easier integral, and can be readily solved using standard methods, and can be simplified even further by breaking the problem into two integrals (although not necessary):

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

The Laplace Transform

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

Laplace Transforms

$$\mathcal{L}\{1\} = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{t^n\} = \frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \frac{1}{s-a}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sin kt\} = \frac{k}{s^2 + k^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\cos kt\} = \frac{s}{s^2 + k^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\sinh kt\} = \frac{k}{s^2 - k^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\cosh kt\} = \frac{s}{s^2 - k^2}$$

Inverse Laplace Transforms

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s}\right\} = 1$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{n!}{s^{n+1}}\right\} = t^n, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{1}{s-a}\right\} = e^{at}$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{k}{s^2 + k^2}\right\} = \sin kt$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{s}{s^2 + k^2}\right\} = \cos kt$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{k}{s^2 - k^2}\right\} = \sinh kt$$

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}\left\{\frac{s}{s^2 - k^2}\right\} = \cosh kt$$

Appendix

Greek Characters

Symbol	Name
α	Alpha
β	Beta
γ	Gamma
$\Delta \delta$	Delta
ϵ	Epsilon
ϵ_0	Epsilon Nought
ζ	Zeta
η	Eta
θ	Theta
κ	Kappa
$\Lambda \lambda$	Lambda
μ	Mu
μ_0	Mu Nought
ν	Nu

Symbol	Name
ξ	Xi
π	Pi
ρ	Rho
$\Sigma \sigma$	Sigma
τ	Tau
$\Phi \phi$	Phi
ψ	Psi
$\Omega \omega$	Omega

SI Base Units

Name	Symbol	Measure	Dim. Analysis Symbol
Second	s	Time	T
Meter	m	Length	L
Kilogram	kg	Mass	M
Ampere	A	Electric Current	I
Kelvin	K	Temp.	Θ
Mole	mol	Amount of substance	N
Candela	cd	Luminous Intensity	J

SI Prefixes

Prefix	Symbol	Factor	Meaning
Pico	p	10^{-12}	Trillionth
Nano	n	10^{-9}	Billionth
Micro	μ	10^{-6}	Millionth
Milli	m	10^{-3}	Thousandth
Centi	c	10^{-2}	Hundredth
Deci	d	10^{-1}	Tenth

Prefix	Symbol	Factor	Meaning
Kilo	K	10^3	Thousand
Mega	M	10^6	Million
Giga	G	10^9	Billion
Tera	T	10^{12}	Trillion

Constants

Gravitational constant

$$G = 6.67430 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-2}$$

Earth topics

$$m_{\text{Earth}} = 5.97 \times 10^{24} \text{ kg}$$

$$r_{\text{Earth}} = 6.38 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$

Gravity on earth

$$g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 \text{ or } 32.17 \text{ ft/s}^2$$

Atmospheric pressure

$$1 \text{ atm} = 101325 \text{ pa} = 760.00 \text{ mmHg}$$

Avogadro constant

$$N_A = 6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

Gas constant

$$R = 8.31 \text{ J/(mol} \cdot \text{K)}$$

Boltzmann constant

$$k_b = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

Speed of sound

$$v_s = 343 \text{ m/s}$$

→ When on earth at 20° C or 68° F

Reference sound intensity

$$I_0 = 10^{-12} \text{ W/m}^2$$

→ Where I_0 is the lowest sound intensity able to be heard by an undamaged human ear (in room conditions)

Elementary charge

$$e = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

→ This could be the charge of a single proton, or the magnitude of a single electron

Coulomb constant

$$k_e = 8.988 \times 10^9 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{C}^{-2} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

Vacuum permittivity

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ F} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$$

Mass of a proton

$$m_{\text{proton}} = 1.672 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} = 938.27 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

Mass of an electron

$$m_{\text{electron}} = 9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg} = 0.511 \text{ MeV}/c^2$$

Speed of light

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

Planck constant

$$h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$$

$$h = 4.14 \times 10^{-15} \text{ eV} \cdot \text{s}$$

$$\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

Bohr Radius

$$a_b = 0.0529 \text{ nm}$$