

### **Powers**

## Remember from elementary algebra

$$2 \times 2 \times 2 \equiv 2^3$$

which is "2 to the power 3"

The "3" here can also be called the "exponent"

the power to which the number "2" is raised

## **Powers**

Multiplying by the same number raises the power

$$2^3 \times 2 = 2^4$$

Dividing by the same number lowers the power

$$2^3 / 2 = 2^2$$

Following this logic  $2^2 / 2 = 2^1 = 2$ 

and 
$$2^1/2=2^0=1$$

Generalizing

any number to the power zero is 1

$$x^{0} = 1$$

## **Powers**

## Continuing

$$1/2 = 2^0/2 \equiv 2^{-1}$$

and so on for further negative powers

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \equiv \frac{1}{2^2} = 2^{-1} / 2 = 2^{-2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Generalizing,

for any number x and any power a

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

# Reciprocal

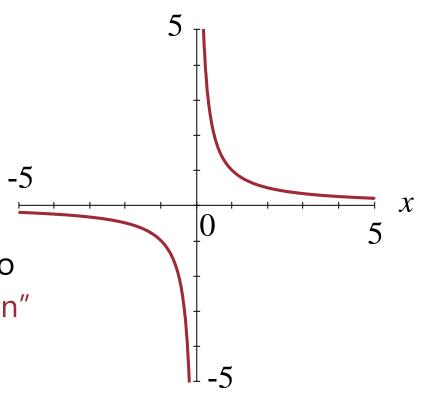
$$\frac{1}{x} \equiv x^{-1}$$

is called the "reciprocal of x"

It becomes arbitrarily large in magnitude as x goes towards zero

Loosely, it "explodes at the origin" Rigorously, it is "singular" at the origin

Negative powers generally have this property



## Squares and square roots

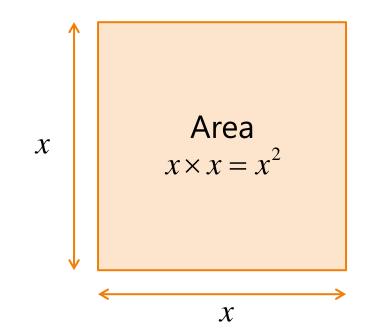
Multiplying a number *x* by itself

$$x \times x = x^2$$

is called

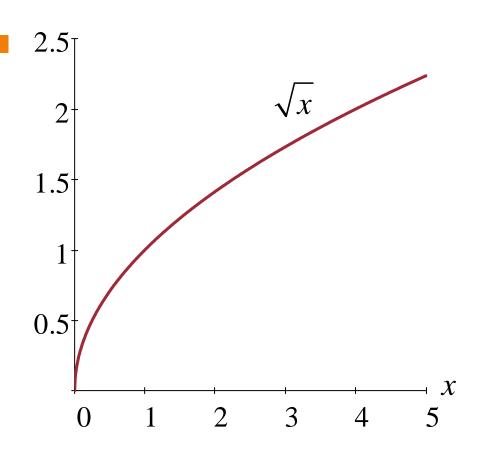
"taking the square"

Because it gives the area of a square of "side" x



## Squares and square roots

For some number *x* the number  $\sqrt{x}$  that, when multiplied by itself gives x is called the "square root" of x  $\sqrt{x} \times \sqrt{x} = x$  $\sqrt{\phantom{a}}$  is the "radical" sign  $\sqrt{x} \equiv x^{1/2}$ 



## Square root

#### Note that

If 
$$\sqrt{x} \times \sqrt{x} = x$$
  
So also  $(-\sqrt{x}) \times (-\sqrt{x}) = x$   
2 is the square root of 4

So also -2 is the square root of 4

Conventionally, we presume we mean the positive square root unless otherwise stated

But we always have both positive and negative versions of the square root

# $\mathcal{X}$

## Distance and Pythagoras's theorem

## Pythagoras's theorem gives

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2$$

or equivalently

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

 $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  where we always take the positive square root

> so r is a distance and is always positive

## Quadratics and roots

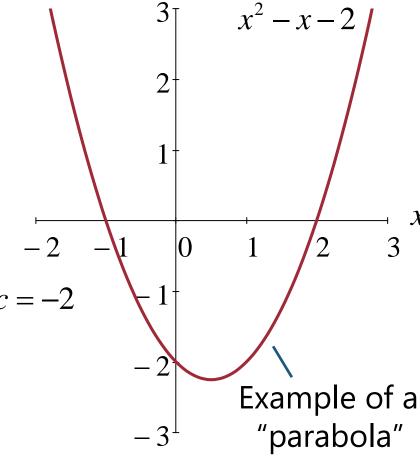
For a quadratic equation of form  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ 

the solutions or "roots" are

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

For  $x^2 - x - 2 = 0$ , a = 1, b = -1 and c = -2 $x = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1+8}}{2} = \frac{1 \pm 3}{2} = 2 \text{ or } -1$ 

Note  $x^{2}-x-2=(x-2)(x+1)$ 



# Powers of powers

To raise a power to a power

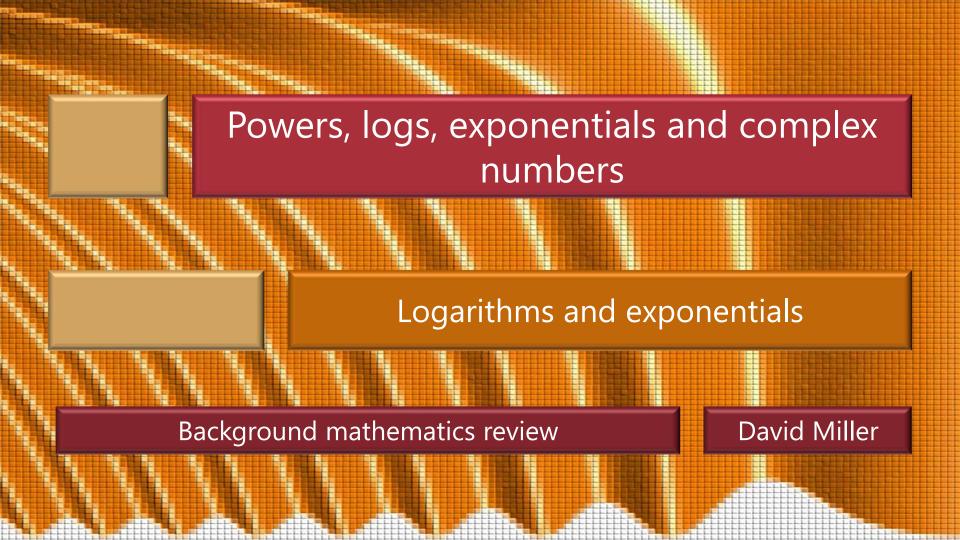
Multiply the powers, e.g.,

$$(2^3)^2 = (2 \times 2 \times 2) \times (2 \times 2 \times 2) = 2^6$$

Generalizing

$$\left(a^{b}\right)^{c}=a^{bc}$$





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The inverse operation of raising to a power is taking the "logarithm" (log for short)
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With logarithms, we need to specify the "base" of the logarithm

Our example was

$$2 \times 2 \times 2 \equiv 2^3 = 8$$
$$\log_2 8 = 3$$

```
Generalizing
   a chain of n numbers g multiplied together
     is
           g \times g \times \cdots \times g \equiv g^n
   and
       n is the "log to the base g" of g^n
             n = \log_g \left( g^n \right)
```

Though we created these ideas using integer numbers of multiplications nwe can generalize to non-integers For some arbitrary (real, positive, and non-zero) number b, we can write  $a = \log_{g} b$ which means  $g^a = b$ 

We note, for example, that

$$(2\times2)\times(2\times2\times2)=2^2\times2^3=32=2^5=2^{2+3}$$

Note that in multiplying we have added the exponents

Generalizing 
$$g^a \times g^b = g^{a+b}$$

Equivalently, if we write

$$A = g^a$$
 so  $\log_g A = a$  and  $B = g^b$  so  $\log_g B = b$ 

Then

$$\log_{g}(A \times B) = \log_{g}(g^{a} \times g^{b}) = \log_{g}(g^{a+b}) = a + b = \log_{g}A + \log_{g}B$$

multiplying numbers is equivalent to adding their logarithms

# Bases for logarithms

```
When logarithms are used for calculations
  Typically base 10 is used
Base 10 logarithms are often used by
 engineers in expressing power ratios
  in practice using "decibels" (abbreviated
   dB)
     which are 10 times the logarithm of the
      ratio
```

# Bases for logarithms

```
E.g., for an amplifier with an output power P_{out} that is 100 times larger than the input power P_{in} Gain (in dB)=10 \log_{10}(P_{out}/P_{in}) i.e., Gain (in dB)=10 \log_{10}(100)=10x2=20dB
```

E.g., for an amplifier with a gain of 2  
Noting that 
$$log_{10}2 \cong 0.301$$
  
Gain of times 2 (in dB)=10  $log_{10}2 \cong 3dB$ 

# Changing bases of logarithms

$$\log_{10} b = a$$
 i.e.,  $b = 10^a$   
Now, by definition

1, by definition 
$$10 = 2^{\log_2 10}$$

So 
$$b = (2^{\log_2 10})^a = 2^{(\log_2 10) \times a}$$

 $\log_2 b = (\log_2 10) \times a = (\log_2 10) \times (\log_{10} b)$ Generalizing, and dropping parentheses and "×"

Generalizing, and dropping par 
$$\log_c b = \log_c d \log_d b$$

# Bases for logarithms

```
Sometimes "log" means "log<sub>10</sub>"
   e.g., on a calculator keyboard
Another common base is "base 2" (i.e., "log_2")
   e.g., in computer science because of binary
    numbers
Fundamental physical science and
 mathematics almost always uses logs to the
 base "e"
     e \simeq 2.71828 \ 18284 \ 59045 \ 23536
   e is the "base of the natural logarithms"
```

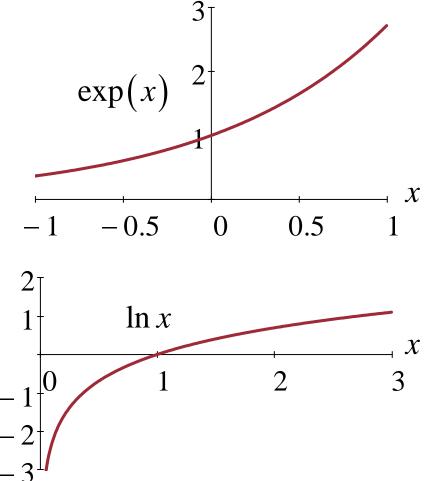
## Notations with "e"

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Logs to base "e" are called "natural logarithms"
  "log<sub>e</sub>" (sometimes just "log") or "ln"
     letter "1" for "logarithm" and letter "n" for
      "natural"
To avoid confusion with other uses of "e"
     e.g., for the charge on an electron
  And to avoid superscript characters
     we use the "exponential" notation
               \exp(x) \equiv e^x
        Also means this can be referred to as the
         "exponential" function
```

# Exponential and logarithm

**Exponential function** For larger negative arguments Gets closer and closer ("asymptotes") to the x axis For larger positive arguments Grows faster and faster Logarithm For smaller positive arguments

arbitrarily large and negative



## Exponentials and logarithms

Note all the following formulas

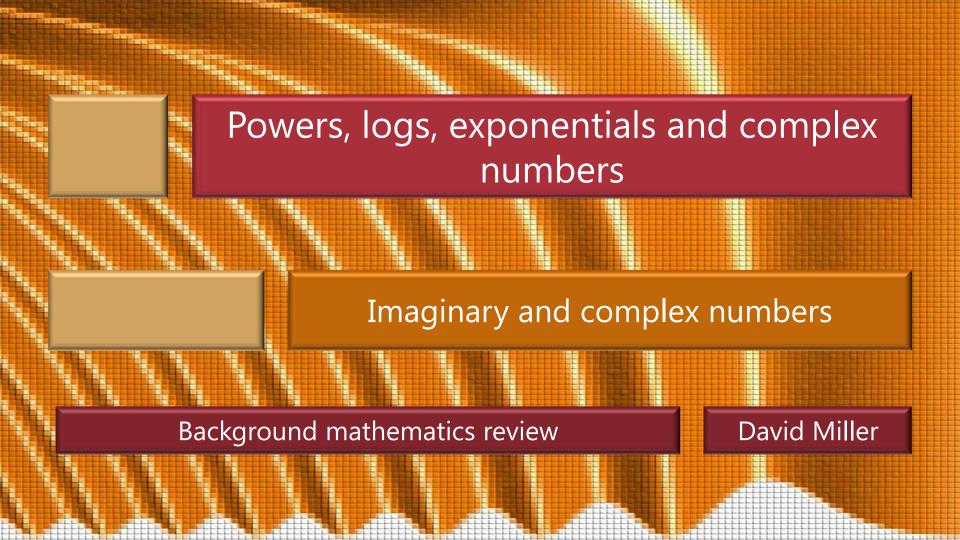
Which follow from the discussions above

$$\exp(a)\exp(b) = \exp(a+b) \qquad \ln(ab) = \ln(a) + \ln(b)$$

$$\frac{1}{\exp(a)} = \exp(-a) \qquad \ln(1/a) = -\ln(a)$$

$$\exp\left[\ln\left(a\right)\right] = a$$
  $\ln\left[\exp\left(a\right)\right] = a$ 





## Square root of minus one

In ordinary real numbers no number multiplied by itself  $2 \times 2 = 4$  gives a negative result  $(-2) \times (-2) = 4$  Equivalently

There is no (real) square root of a negative number

If, however, we choose to define an entity that we call the square root of minus one

We can write square roots of negative numbers We obtain a very useful algebra

## Square root of minus one

Define 
$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$
 so  $i^2 = -1$  and  $(-i)^2 = -1$   
Also, common engineering notation is  $j = \sqrt{-1}$ 

Any number proportional to i is called

an imaginary number

e.g., 
$$4i$$
,  $3.74i$ ,  $i\pi$ 

Common to put the "i" after numbers, but before variables or constants

Can write the square root of any negative number using i

$$\sqrt{-4} = \sqrt{(-1)\times 4} = \sqrt{-1}\times\sqrt{4} = i\times 2 \equiv 2i$$

## Complex numbers

A number that can be written

$$g = a + ib$$

where a and b are both real numbers

is called a "complex number"

a is called the "real part" of g

$$a = \operatorname{Re}(g)$$

b is called the "imaginary part" of g

$$b = \operatorname{Im}(g)$$

# Complex conjugate and modulus

The "complex conjugate" has the sign of the imaginary part reversed

And is indicated by a superscript "\*"

$$g^* \equiv a - ib$$

Multiplying g by  $g^*$  gives a positive number

Called the "modulus squared" of g  $|g|^2 = g^*g = gg^*$ 

The (positive) square root of this is called the "modulus" of g

$$|g| = +\sqrt{|g|^2}$$

# Important complex number identities

Note for the modulus squared

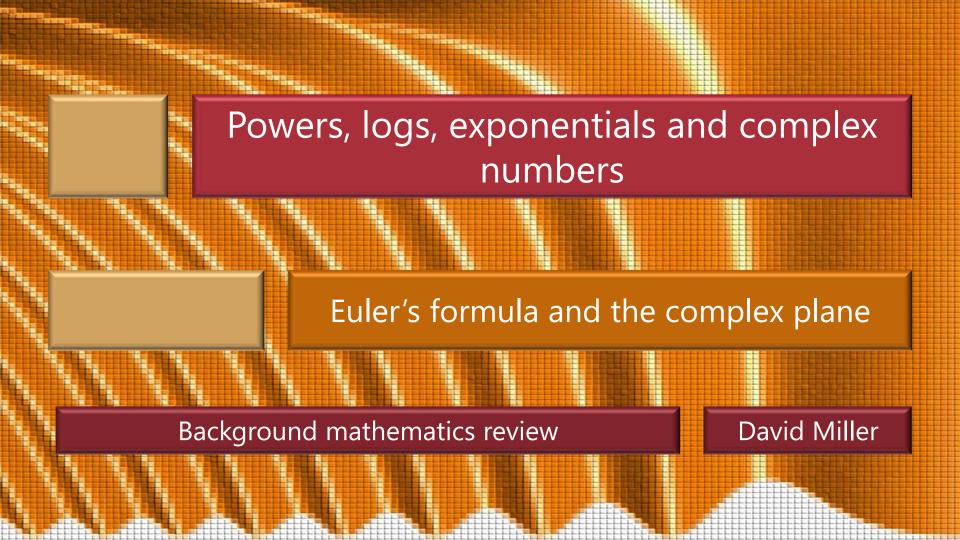
$$|g|^2 = gg^* = (a+ib)(a-ib) = a^2 - iab + iba - i^2b^2 = a^2 + b^2$$
  
i.e.,  $|g|^2 = a^2 + b^2$ 

and for the reciprocal

$$g = \frac{1}{c+id} = \frac{1}{(c+id)} \frac{(c-id)}{(c-id)} = \frac{c-id}{c^2+d^2} = \frac{c}{c^2+d^2} - i\frac{d}{c^2+d^2}$$
i.e.,
$$g = \frac{1}{c+id} = \frac{c}{c^2+d^2} - i\frac{d}{c^2+d^2}$$

Still a sum of real and imaginary parts





## Euler's formula

Euler's formula is the remarkable result

$$\exp(i\theta) = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$

A major practical algebraic reason for use of complex numbers in engineering Exponentials much easier to manipulate than sines and cosines

## Some results from Euler's formula

Using Euler's formula 
$$\exp(i\theta) = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$$
Note that 
$$\exp(-i\theta) \equiv \exp(i[-\theta]) = \cos(-\theta) + i\sin(-\theta) = \cos(\theta) - i\sin(\theta)$$
SO 
$$\left[\exp(i\theta)\right]^* = \exp(-i\theta)$$
Also 
$$\exp(i\theta)\exp(-i\theta) = \exp(i\theta - i\theta) = \exp(0) = 1$$
SO 
$$\left[\cos\theta + i\sin\theta\right]\left[\cos\theta - i\sin\theta\right]$$

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

# Complex exponential or polar form

For any complex number g = a + ib

we can write

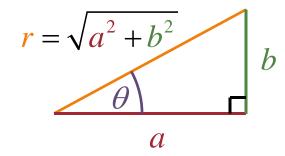
$$g = |g| \frac{a+ib}{|g|} = |g| \left( \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} + i \frac{b}{\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} \right)$$

which we can write in the form

$$g = |g|(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)$$

so any complex number can be written in the form

$$g = |g| \exp(i\theta)$$



# Complex plane

Propose a "complex plane" horizontal "real axis" vertical "imaginary axis"

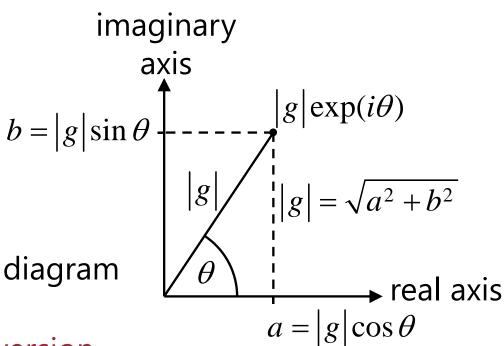
Then any complex number

$$g = a + ib = |g| \exp(i\theta)$$

is a point on this plane

Sometimes called an Argand diagram

Sometimes  $\theta$  is called the "argument" of this polar version of a complex number,  $\theta = \arg(g)$ 



# Multiplication in polar representation

In the polar representation  $g = |g| \exp(i\theta)$ 

To multiply two numbers

Multiply the moduli and add the angles

I.e., with

$$h = |h| \exp(i\phi)$$

$$g \times h = |g| \exp(i\theta) \times |h| \exp(i\phi)$$

$$= |g||h|\exp(i[\theta + \phi])$$

## nth roots of unity

Note that the number  $\exp(2\pi i/n)$  when raised to the *n*th power is 1 (unity)

$$\left[\exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n}\right)\right]^n = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n} \times n\right) = \exp\left(2\pi i\right) = 1$$

Many different complex numbers when raised to the nth power can give 1

But this specific one is conventionally called the *n*th root of unity

$$\sqrt[n]{1} = \exp(2\pi i / n)$$

# Algebraic results for complex numbers

All the following useful algebraic identities are easily proved from the complex exponential form

$$(gh)^* = g^*h^*$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{gh}\right)^* = \frac{1}{g^*h^*}$$

$$\left(\frac{g}{h}\right)^* = \frac{g^*}{h^*}$$

## Sine and cosine addition formulas

Sine and cosine sum and difference formulas are easily deduced from the complex exponential form

e.g., 
$$\exp(2i\theta) = \cos 2\theta + i \sin 2\theta$$
  
 $= \exp(i\theta) \exp(i\theta) = [\cos \theta + i \sin \theta]^2$   
 $= \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta + 2i \sin \theta \cos \theta$ 

Equating real parts gives  $\cos 2\theta = \cos^2 \theta - \sin^2 \theta$ 

Equating imaginary parts gives 
$$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin \theta \cos \theta$$

