Precalculus Lecture 10 Exponents

Todor Miley

https://github.com/tmilev/freecalc

2020

Outline

- Exponents
 - Two ways to define exponents
 - Basic properties
 - The Natural Exponential Function

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$$= ? \cdot ?$$

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These rules do continue to hold for all a > 0, b > 0 and arbitrary x and y. The rules do fail when a < 0, b < 0 and x, y are not integers.

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 - the second alternative definition is easier to compute with.

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- We can then define

$$a^{x} = \lim_{\substack{y \to x \ y\text{-rational}}} a^{y}$$

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- Pros: for non-integer x and y, it is very easy to prove that $a^{x+y} = a^x a^y$ this follows from the definition of limit above.
- This is the definition assumed in many elementary courses.

 The following formula (studied much later) can be used as alternative definition.

$$e^{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n}}{n!} + \dots$$

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$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^n}{n} + \dots$$

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- For arbitrary a > 0 define a^x as $a^x = e^{x \ln a}$.
- Cons: more difficult to prove $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$ and $e^{\ln(1+x)} = 1 + x$, proof done later.

 The following formula (studied much later) can be used as alternative definition.

$$e^{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n}}{n!} + \dots$$

Here $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$ and is read "n factorial".

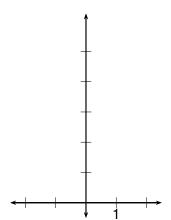
• For |x| < 1 define

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^n}{n} + \dots$$

Infinite sum studied much later.

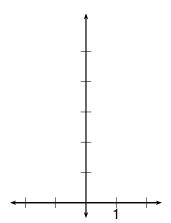
- For arbitrary a > 0 define a^x as $a^x = e^{x \ln a}$.
- Cons: more difficult to prove $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$ and $e^{\ln(1+x)} = 1 + x$, proof done later.
- Pros: this is how e^x and a^x are actually computed (by modern computers and by humans in the past).

The function $f(x) = 2^x$ is called an exponential function because the variable x is the exponent.



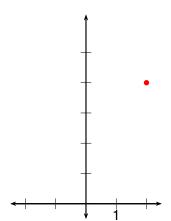
X	у
2	
1	
0	
-1	
-2	

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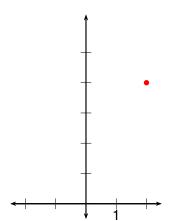
X	y
2	?
1	
0	
-1	
-2	

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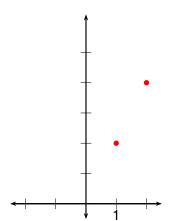
X	у
2	4
1	
0	
-1	
-2	

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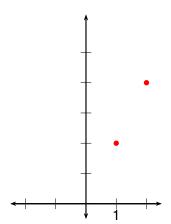
X	y
2	4
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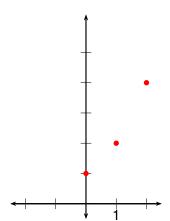
X	y
2	4
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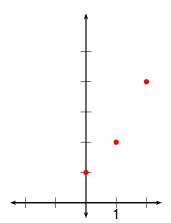
X	y
2	4
1	2
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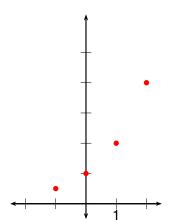
X	<i>y</i>
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	
-2	

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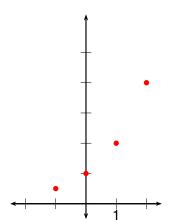
X	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	?
-2	

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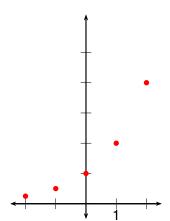
X	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	1 2
-2	_

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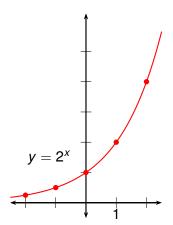
X	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	1 2 ?
-2	?

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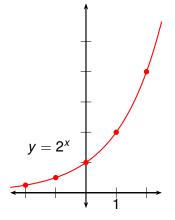
Χ	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	1/2
-2	$\frac{1}{4}$

The function $f(x) = 2^x$ is called an exponential function because the variable x is the exponent.



Χ	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	1 2 1
-2	$\frac{1}{4}$

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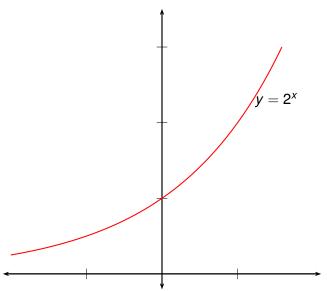


X	y
2	4
1	2
0	1
-1	1 2 1
-2	$\frac{1}{4}$

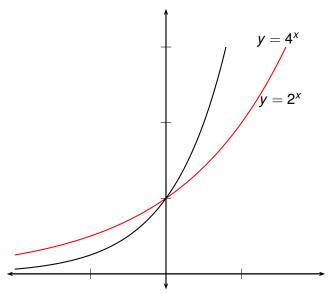
(Exponential Function Terminology)

An exponential function is a function of the form $f(x) = a^x$, where a is a positive constant.

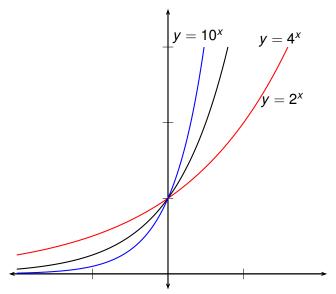
Graphs of various exponential functions.



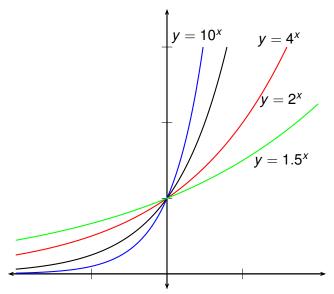
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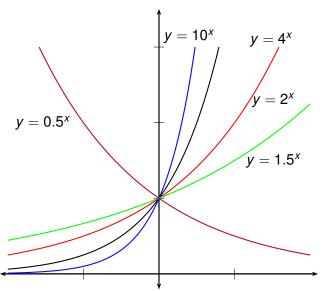
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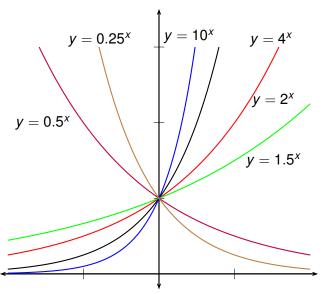
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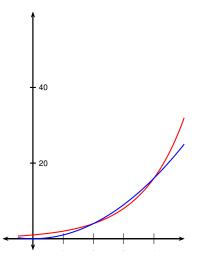
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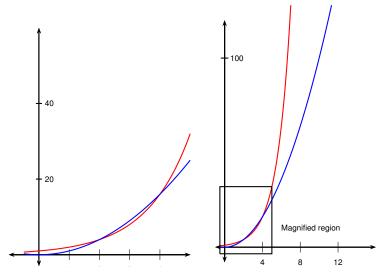
Graphs of various exponential functions.



Graphical comparison of $y = 2^x$ with $y = x^2$. Axes have different scales.

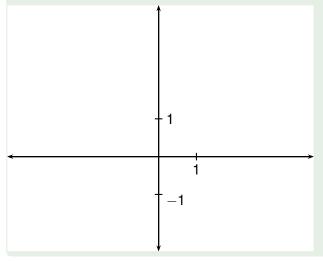


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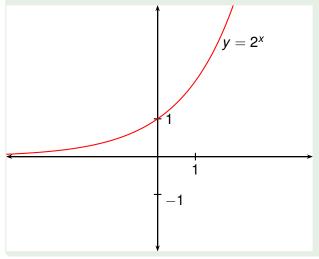
Example

Draw the graph of the function $y = 2^{-x} - 1 = 0.5^x - 1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^x - 1$. Assume the graph of $y = 2^x$ given.



Example

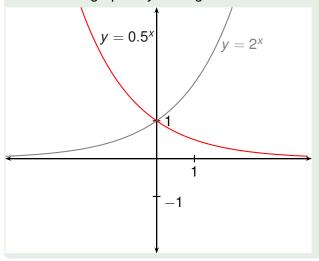
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Plot of 2^x assumed given.

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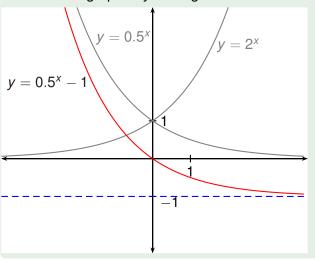
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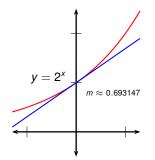
- Plot of 2^x assumed given.
- Plot f(-x) =reflect f(x)across y axis.
- Plot g(x) 1 = shift graph g(x) 1 unit down.

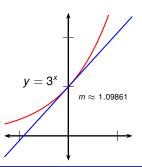
Proposition

Let a > 0, $a \ne 1$. Let x and y be real numbers. Then $a^x = a^y$ if and only if x = y.

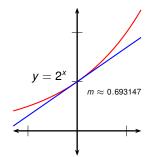
• In other words, the exponent function a^x is one-to-one.

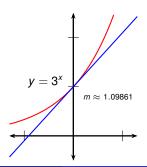
• One base for an exponential function is especially useful.



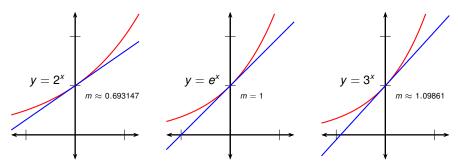


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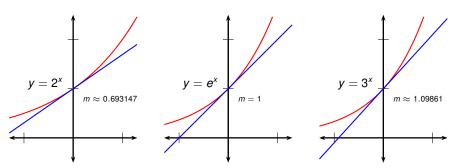




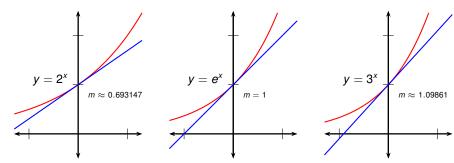
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- We call this number e, known as Euler's number or Napier's constant.
- e is a number between 2 and 3.
- In fact, $e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \cdots \approx 2.71828$.



Recall that $e = 1 + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{21} + \frac{1}{31} + \cdots \approx 2.718281828$.

Theorem (The Number e as a Limit)

For large n we have that:

$$e \approx \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$$

 $\approx \left(1 + n\right)^{\frac{1}{n}}$
 $e^x \approx \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$

All approximations become better as n increases.

 The approximation was discovered by Jacob Bernoulli (1655-1705) in order to apply to compound interest rate computations.

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Definition

The amount of money obtained from principal (original deposit) P after n years of annual compound interest rate of k%, compounded once a year, is given by the formula

$$P\left(1+\frac{k}{100}\right)^n$$
.

Example

You have 1000 USD kept at annual rate of 5%. The interest is compounded yearly. Approximate without using a calculator the amount of money you will have after 40 years. Check your approximation with a calculator.

Example

Decide, without using a calculator, which is more profitable: earning a yearly compound interest of 2% for 150 years or earning yearly simple interest of 11% for 150 years? Check your approximation with a calculator.

Example

When quickly computing interest rate "in the head", financial advisors often use the following trick called the "rule of 72". To find the time in years t needed for a sum to double under compound interest rate of k%, financial advisors simply approximate $t \approx \frac{72}{k}$.

To illustrate the rule, under an interest rate of 2%, one needs approximately $\frac{72}{2} = 36$ years for the sum to double. Under interest rate of 6%, the sum doubles after only about $\frac{72}{6} = 12$ years. In 36 years an interest of 6% would double 3 times, in other words would increase by a factor of $2^3 = 8$.

Using the approximation $e \approx (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$ for large n, justify the rule of 72.