# Chapter 10: POWER-LAW FITTING AND LOG-LOG **GRAPHS**

"She had taken up the idea, she supposed, and made everything bend to it." --- *Emma* 

#### **10.1 DEALING WITH POWER LAWS**

Although many relationships in nature are linear, some of the most interesting relationships are not. Power-law dependences, of the form

$$y(x) = kx^n \tag{10.1}$$

are particularly common. In many cases, we might suspect that two experimental variables are related by a power-law relationship, but are unsure of what k or n are. For example, we might suspect that the period T of a simple harmonic oscillator might depend on the mass m of the oscillating object in some kind of power-law relationship, but we might be unsure of exactly what the values of either *n* or *k*. If we knew *n*, then we could plot *y* vs.  $x^n$  to get a straight line; the slope of that line would then be k. But if we don't know n, it would seem at first glance that the best we could do would be simply try different possible values of n to see what works. This could get old fast.

We can, however, take advantage of the properties of logarithms to convert any relationship of the type given by equation 10.1 into a linear relationship, even if we do not know either k or n! The most basic property of logarithms (for any base, but let's assume base-ten logs) is that

$$\log(ab) = \log a + \log b \tag{10.2a}$$

From this it follows that

1

$$\log(a^n) = \log(\overline{a \cdot a \cdot \ldots \cdot a}) = \frac{n \text{ times}}{\log a + \log a + \ldots + \log a} = n \log a$$
(10.2b)

(This is actually true even for non-integer n.) Also, in the case of base-ten logarithms, this means that

$$\log(10^{b}) = b \log 10 = b \cdot 1 = b \tag{10.2c}$$

which shows that raising 10 to a power is the *inverse* operation to taking the (base-ten) log.

With this in mind, let us take the (base-ten) logarithm of both sides of equation 10.1 and use the properties described by equation 10.2. If we do this we get

$$\log y = \log(kx^n) = \log k + \log(x^n) = \log k + n\log x \tag{10.3}$$

Now define  $\log x \equiv u$  and  $\log y \equiv v$ . Substituting these into 10.3 and rearranging, we get

$$v = nu + \log k \tag{10.4}$$

Now, *this* is the equation of a straight line. This means that if we graph v vs. u (that is, log y vs. log x), we should end up with a straight line, even if we do not know what n and k are.

Furthermore, the slope of this line is the unknown exponent n in equation 10.1. We can therefore *find* the value of n by calculating the slope in the usual way. That is,

$$n = \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta u} = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{u_2 - u_1} = \frac{\log y_2 - \log y_1}{\log x_2 - \log x_1}$$
(10.5)

The value of the intercept (which is the value of  $v = \log y$  when  $u = \log x = 0$ ) is  $\log k$ , so if we can find the intercept and its uncertainty, we can find k and its uncertainty.

In summary, we can take *any* relationship of the form given in equation 10.1, take the logarithm of both sides, and convert it to a linear relationship whose slope and intercept are related to the unknown values of n and k. This is, therefore, a very powerful way of learning about unknown power-law relationships (and displaying them). A graph that plots log y versus log x in order to linearize a power-law relationship is called a **log-log graph**.

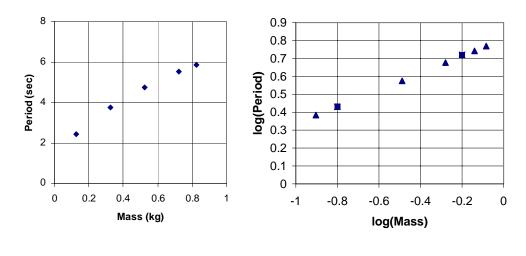
## **10.2 AN EXAMPLE OF A LOG-LOG GRAPH**

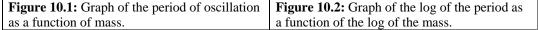
As an example, consider a hypothetical experiment testing how the period of an object oscillating at the end of a spring depends on the object's mass. Table 10.1 gives a set of measurements taken during this experiment, Figure 10.1 shows a graph of period vs. the mass. Table 10.2 shows the base-10 logs of the measurement data, while Figure 10.2 shows a graph of log T vs. log M.

Table 10.1

Table 10.2

Mass (kg)	Period (sec)	log(Mass)	log(Period)
0.125	2.42	-0.903	0.384
0.325	3.76	-0.488	0.575
0.525	4.75	-0.280	0.677
0.725	5.52	-0.140	0.742
0.825	5.87	-0.084	0.769





We can see that the graph of the period vs. the mass does *not* yield a very good straight line; if the uncertainties are smaller than the dots representing the data points, we would have to say that a straight line is inconsistent with the data. On the other hand the plot of  $\log T$  vs.  $\log M$  is a very nice straight line, suggesting that the period T and the mass M have a power-law relationship.

What are n and k according to this experiment? We can easily get a quick estimate from the graph. For the sake of round numbers, consider the points marked with squares in Figure 10.2. The slope of this graph (rise over run) is thus

$$n = \frac{\log T_2 - \log T_1}{\log M_2 - \log M_1} = \frac{0.72 - 0.43}{0.80 - 0.20} = 0.48$$
(10.6)

The two points that you choose to compute the slope need not correspond to *actual* data points: simply choose convenient points on your drawn line near the ends of the line. I chose the points so that the denominator of the expression above would be simple. Since exponents in physical situations are most often integers or simple fractions, we might guess that the actual value of n is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . (This turns out to be the theoretical value as well, as we will see chapter N12 in the class text.)

The intercept is the place where the line crosses the  $\log M = 0$  grid line. According to the graph, this is roughly where  $\log T = 0.82$  (note that the  $\log M = 0$  line is the *right* edge of the graph here, not the left!). So the intercept is  $0.82 = \log k$ , which means that

$$k = 10^{0.82} = 6.6 \text{ s/kg}^{1/2}.$$

#### **10.3 A COMMENT ABOUT LOGARITHMS AND UNITS**

You may also have noticed that units seem to spring in and out of these calculations rather haphazardly. This behavior conflicts with a general rule about special functions: the log function, like sine, cosine, and the exponential function, is supposed to have a dimensionless argument. That is, the number you take the logarithm of is supposed to be a pure number, with *no* units or dimensions (like seconds or centimeters), attached to it. What's going on?

One can think of a number with units as the product of the number part and the units part; that is, 10 cm is 10 (a pure number) multiplied by the unit of centimeters. When you take the logarithm of a number with units, then, you are taking the logarithm of this product, which behaves like the logarithm of all products: the result is the sum of the logarithms of the two numbers making up the product. The logarithm of 10 cm is therefore log  $(10) + \log (\text{cm}) = 1 + \log (\text{cm})$ . You can't give a numerical result for log cm, which may seem rather disturbing.

Fortunately, this all works out fine anyway, because you typically find the logarithm of a quantity with units only in the process of finding the difference between two logarithms of quantities with the same units. Consider, for example, the situation where we compute the slope using equation 10.6. If we attach to each logarithm in the numerator the appropriate term of log s (where s is the unit of seconds here), we see that two log s terms cancel out when we subtract, leaving a unitless number in the numerator. The same thing happens in the denominator. Therefore, the slope ends up being a unitless number, as it should be.

To find the units of k, note that equation 10.4 in this situation really ought to read

$$\log \tau + \log(\sec) = n \log \mu + n \log(kg) + \log k, \qquad (10.7)$$

where in this expression we are considering  $\tau$  and  $\mu$  to be the unitless parts of *T* and *M* respectively. The intercept is the point where the line crosses the vertical grid line corresponding to log  $\mu = 0$ : we see from the graph that log  $\tau$  has the value log  $\tau_0 = 0.82$  there. Therefore equation 10.7 implies that

 $\log \tau_0 + \log(\sec) = n \cdot 0 + n \log(\mathrm{kg}) + \log k \Longrightarrow \log k = \log \tau_0 + \log(\sec) - n \log(\mathrm{kg}) \quad (10.8)$ 

When we take the antilog of (that is, 10 to the power of) both sides of this, all the items in logs get multiplied together, so we get (assuming that n is really 1/2):

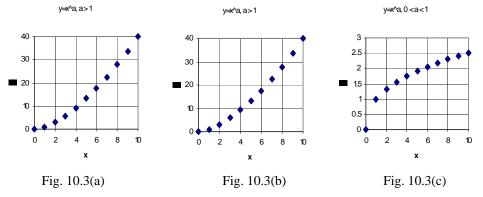
$$k = \frac{10^{\log r_0} \cdot \sec}{\log^n} = \frac{10^{0.82} \cdot \sec}{\log^{1/2}} = 6.6 \frac{\sec}{\log^{1/2}}$$
(10.9)

Keeping track of these unit terms when working with logarithms involves a *lot* of work, however, and less often pays off the way that keeping track of units in normal equations does. Therefore, people generally *ignore* the units associated with logarithmic quantities, and fill in the units of quantities after taking the antilog (as we did with *k* in the last section) to make them

consistent across the master equation 10.1. But if you ever get *confused* about units and want to make *sure* that things work out correctly, this is how to do it.

#### **10.4 A PROCEDURE FOR EXPLORING POWER-LAW RELATIONSHIPS**

Log-log graphs are most useful when you suspect your data has a power-law dependence and you want to test your suspicion. Sometimes your suspicion is based on a theoretical prediction, sometimes a previous low-level Cartesian plot. Figures 10.3(a) through 10.5(a) are typical Cartesian graphs that could be power laws. Whatever the source of your suspicion, your next step is to plot the logarithms of your data as a low-level graph. If this graph looks like a pretty good straight line (within your experimental uncertainties) you can proceed to the next steps.



Once you have plotted the points, you should use a ruler to draw the straight line that you think best fits your data. You can then use this line to estimate the slope *n* using equation 10.6. You can also estimate the value of the constant *k* in equation 10.1 by extrapolating your straight line back to the vertical grid line where the value of the independent variable (let's call it *x*) is equal to 1 (and thus  $\log x = 0$ ): the value of  $\log k$  is the vertical scale reading where your best fit line crosses this vertical grid line where  $\log x = 0$ . Note that this vertical line may not correspond to the left edge of your graph! In Figure 10.2, for example, it happens to be at the *right* edge of the graph, and on a general log-log graph, it could be almost anywhere. (If the line  $\log x = 0$  is off the edge of your graph, you can often bring it onto the graph by changing the units of *x*. For example, if *x* is a distance ranging from 20 cm to 200 cm, the place where  $\log x = 0$  is when x = 1 cm, which will probably be off the left side of your graph. But if we change the units of *x* to meters, then the place where  $\log x = 0$  is where x = 1 m, which is right in the middle of your data.)

To estimate the uncertainties of these quantities, draw a new line with the *largest* slope that you think might be consistent with your data, and another line with the *smallest* slope consistent with your data, and find the slope and intercept for each of these lines. The greatest and least slope will then bracket the uncertainty range of n and you can use the greatest and least values of  $\log k$  determine the greatest and least values of k, which bracket the uncertainty range of k.

To go further than crude estimates, one needs the help of a computer. The program *LinReg*, which is discussed in Chapter 8 of this manual, makes it very easy to plot log-log graphs and find the best-fit slope (with its uncertainty) and the best-fit intercept (and its uncertainty).

# EXERCISES

Exercise 10.1

The table below gives the orbital periods T (in years) of the planets known to Newton as a function of their mean distance R from the sun in AUs (where 1 AU = the earth's mean orbital radius). Plot a log-log graph of the period versus the distance on the graph paper provided as Figure 10.6 on the next page.

Planet	Distance (AU)	Period (yr)	log(Distance)	log(Period)
Mercury	0.39	0.24		
Venus	0.72	0.62		
Earth	1.00	1.00		
Mars	1.52	1.88		
Jupiter	5.20	11.86		
Saturn	9.54	29.46		

Table 10.3: Planetary Periods vs. Mean Orbital Distances

Exercise 10.2

Assuming that the period and distance are related by a power-law of the form  $T = kR^n$ , where *n* is an integer or simple fraction, what does your graph suggest is the likely value of *n*?

Exercise 10.3

Find the value of k (with appropriate units) for the data of Table 10.3 from the intercept of your log-log graph. Combine this with the result of exercise 10.1 to find the power-law equation (of the type given in equation 10.1) that seems to fit this data.

Figure 10.6

																	10																		
E			11				111				111		121	11																					ł
1			11								1.re.																								
H								1						115		1.5										11		171							
						1				1								-11						125							110				
- 12													1.1			1111		#23		1.77						UH.		111							
1					1	11		T					1.11				111									4.55		1.11		1		141		1	
1			H										1.1		11						1					1.77	1			100					
1								1			1	- 1.1		17.1	111		111							1.				1							ī
													1																		1111		1111		ł
			11					1		1				1.1	1111				1000	211				1	1						1		1.000		÷
															1	1.1.1							1.11	1.4.1								1	111		ļ
E							1.2.4	1111							1		11112						144	1.000		11.11						1	111	10	-
E		11	H	-		-			1				-		14.13											111		Ш	TH:		111	110	1111		-
H					1		1.11	1111									1.11		1100	1	01	1	111		1111		1111	144	1.1.1						ì
E											111	1211		111		1111			1144		112		1.2												į
							144																										1.1		
												1									1011		111		11:				111						-
			11		Pani-																														
																				1117	54				11.0										
					-11-	111							111	1111		1.1															1				
			17												11.1	1								1		1.1.				1111					
			111	iii.						1.11							110				1.111					1755								1.	
				1		1215	111										1.111									1				1111			1,1,		1
														1201		1				- 14										1111					
				-						1.1.1								1000	1411										-						
													110	1	1101				1141											2					
		-								1111									111											111	111				1
E																1111																			-
										1			111	115	1113			31	111												1121			-	2
										1							1.11						1.1.1							1.1.1.1					
				<u>#</u>	115										111					111				1.111											1
111											5							1111																	
																								117.							11.74		1111	11	-
11					31					13				48												1.11						1	17.01		-
E										1		1115										144	1.11									1.1.1			
					1.11					107		En:						112																	-
E																							0000										1111		
E												1918					1.10.1										1913								1
l																1.11				1.1.1							1111		11.10					111	-
																											1114		111						*
																						1.11							1111					11	1
F					1111						131							1111		11.1					1111	11.1.1				1.5					-
											1					100	1111																		
						1																						1th							***
																													1111						
																				Ηł.								111		-15					
									1								111												111						
											185															1									
												11																							
tit	HI.		1				1	11	17												1111		199		1111		1111	111			1111			f	Ì

10

#### **10.5 (OPTIONAL) USING LOG-LOG PAPER**

If you have more than five or ten data points, calculating the logarithms quickly gets tedious even with a calculator. To reduce this tedium (which would have been particularly gruesome in the era before computers and calculators), someone invented a special kind of graph paper called **log-log paper**. In effect, this kind of graph paper calculates the logarithms for you.

Imagine that you have data for an independent variable x that ranges from, say, 0.01 m to about 10 m. The values of  $\log x$  would then range from about -2.0 to 1.0, and a useful horizontal scale might look something like this:

						$\log x$
-2.0	-1.5	-1.0	-0.5	0.0	0.5	1

Now, imagine that we were to also draw a scale immediately above this scale that showed the corresponding values of x. The two scales together would look like this:

0.01	0.02	0.05	0,1	0.2	0.5	1,0	2.0 5.	$\begin{array}{c c}0 & 10.0 \\ \hline & & \\ \end{array}$
								<u> </u>
								$\log x$
-2.0	-1	.5	-1.0	-0.	.5	0.0	0.5	1

(Note how the pattern of the spacing between marks on the upper scale is identical for each power of 10.) Now, note that if we had graph paper that had its axes pre-labeled as shown in the *upper* scale, then we could locate points on the plot directly according to their value of x rather than having to compute the value of  $\log x$  for each data point.

The way that the pattern repeats for each power of 10 makes it possible to create general and flexible graph paper with essentially pre-labeled scales. You can repeat the pattern as frequently as necessary in each coordinate to cover the range of your data. The graph paper for Exercise 10.4 is an example of log-log paper which has 3 cycles of the pattern horizontally and vertically, making it possible to display data points whose *x* and/or *y* values span up to three powers of ten or **decades**. If you compare this graph paper to the double-axis shown above, you will see that *only* the equivalent of *x* scale is displayed on this paper: the log *x* scale has been suppressed for the sake of clarity, but should be considered implicit. Also you will note that the publishers of the graph paper do not commit you to particular powers of 10: each decade is labeled as if it spans from 1 to 10. You can cross out the numbers shown to adapt the graph paper to the particular ranges of your data points. Figure 10.7 shows how you would do this for the harmonic oscillator data given in Table 10.1.

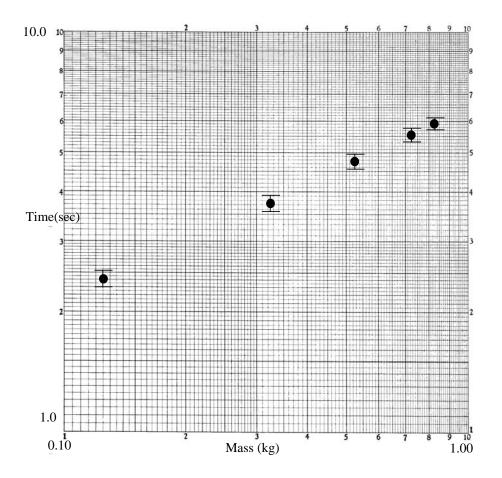
The point is that with just a little relabeling you can use graph paper like this to construct quickly a log-log graph without having to do any actual calculations of logarithms. This is great for doing low-level, quickie graphs of a set of data that you think might reflect a power-law

relation  $y = kx^n$ . You can even read the value of k directly from the graph by finding the point where your best-fit line crosses the vertical line corresponding to x = 1 unit and reading the vertical coordinate of this point according to the vertical axis.

But how can you compute the slope n of data drawn on such graph? Remember each axis has an implicit *linear* scale that reflects the log of the value displayed. "Linear" means that the change in the value of  $\log x$  or  $\log y$  is proportional to the physical distance on the sheet of paper. So to find the slope, all that you have to do is measure the rise of your line (in cm on the sheet of paper!) and divide by the run (in cm).

Using log-log paper is optional in this course; normally you will be able to use a computer program. But you can purchase sheets of log-log paper from Connie (the department secretary) for 10¢ per page if you would like to use it for quick low-level graphing.

**Figure 10.7:** A log-log plot of the harmonic oscillator data in Table 10.1. Notice that the paper has only one decade in each coordinate to match the range of the data.



# (OPTIONAL) Exercise 10.4

Plot the planetary orbit data in Table 10.3 on the log-log paper on the next page, and use the methods described in the previous section to find *k* and *n* assuming that  $T = kR^n$ . Check that these agree with the values you found before.

