

BEE1024 Mathematics for Economists

Exponential and logarithmic functions, Elasticities

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Week 5

- 1 Objectives
- 2 The Exponential Function
 - Definition
 - Properties of exponential functions
 - Compounded interests and the number e
 - Properties of the natural exponential function
- 3 Logarithmic functions
 - Definition
 - Differentiating the natural logarithm
 - Properties of the natural logarithm
 - Differentiating general exponential and logarithmic functions
- 4 Applications
 - Compounded Interests
 - Exponential decay
 - The logistic curve

- 5 Elasticities
 - Own-price elasticity
 - Elasticities and logarithms
 - Other Elasticities

Objectives

- Exponential functions: describes growth processes with constant growth rate
 - population growth, growth of GDP, inflation etc...
- logarithm: the exponent required to produce a given number
 - inverse function, transforms multiplication into addition:
 $10^a \times 10^b = 10^{a+b}$
 - Logarithmic differentiation
- Elasticities

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 Properties of the natural exponential function

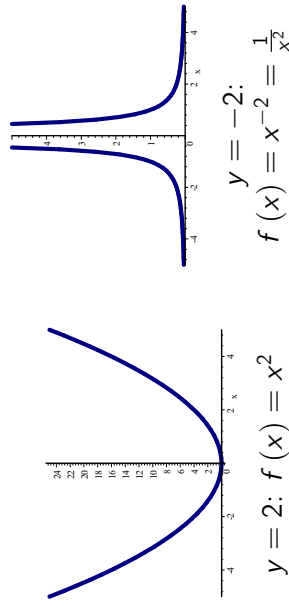
The Exponential Function

- power: x^y
- base: x
- index or exponent: y
- power function like x^2 : vary x
- exponential function 2^y : vary y
- admissible values for y : positive integers, integers, rationals, real numbers
- problem: for general y the power x^y can only be defined for positive x

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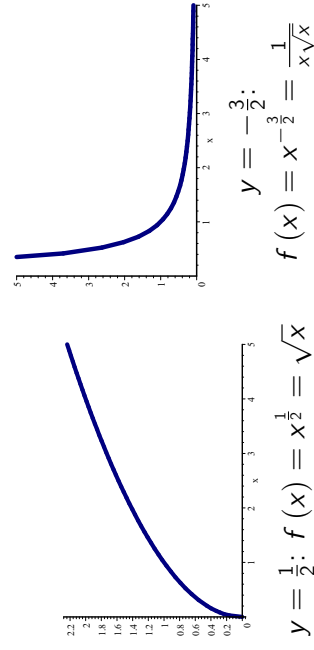
Power functions



Objectives
The Exponential Function
 Logarithmic functions
 Applications
 Elasticities

Definition
 Properties of exponential functions
 Compounded interests and the number e
 Properties of the natural exponential function

Power functions



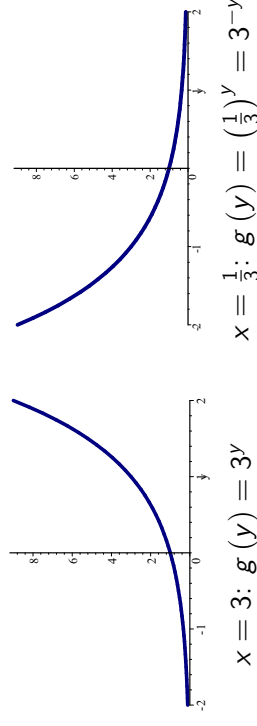
Objectives
The Exponential Function
 Logarithmic functions
 Applications
 Elasticities

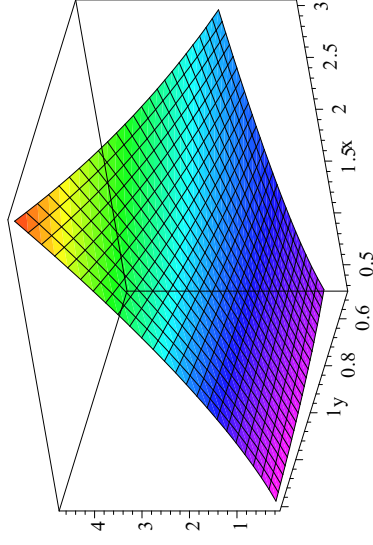
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Exponential Functions

approximate irrational index y by fraction $\frac{m}{n}$:

$$x^y := \lim_{\frac{m}{n} \rightarrow y} x^{\frac{m}{n}}$$





$$z = x^y \quad x > 0$$

- An exponential function a^x :
- is strictly convex and has strictly positive values;
- is for $a > 1$ strictly increasing with $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = +\infty$;
- is for $0 < a < 1$: decreasing with $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = +\infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = 0$.

Calculational rules for generalized powers:

$$a^{s+t} = a^s a^t \quad a^{st} = (a^s)^t \quad (ab)^s = a^s b^s$$

but

$$(a^s)^t \neq a^{(s^t)}$$

- Put $P_0 > 0$ (the *principal*) in savings account
- fixed *nominal annual interests rate* $r > 0$
- Interests paid n times during the year
- amount P_t in your savings account after t years:
- **formula for compounded interests**

$$P_t = P_0 \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt}$$

- $\frac{r}{n}$ interest paid per period
- nt total number of interest payments.

The (*natural*) *exponential function*:

balance in account after one year if interests paid continuously:

$$\exp(r) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n.$$

The table below shows the value of $\left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n$ for various n and r :

| | $r = 5.4\%$ | $r = 5.5\%$ | $r = 100\%$ |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| $n = 4$ | 1.055103375 | 1.056144809 | 2.44140625 |
| $n = 12$ | 1.055356752 | 1.05640786 | 2.61303529 |
| $n = 364$ | 1.055480375 | 1.056536225 | 2.714557303 |
| $n = 8736$ | 1.055484426 | 1.056540432 | 2.718126265 |
| $n = 524160$ | 1.055484599 | 1.056540612 | 2.718279235 |
| $n = 31449600$ | 1.055484602 | 1.056540613 | 2.718281796 |
| $n \rightarrow +\infty$ | 1.055484602 | 1.056540615 | 2.718281828 |

The Euler number e is defined as

$$e = \exp(1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n.$$

The 'natural exponential function' is indeed the exponential function with base e:

$$\exp(r) = e^r$$

"proof" for rational r:

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(r) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty, n=rm} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n \\ &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{m}\right)^{rm} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left[\left(1 + \frac{1}{m}\right)^m\right]^r \\ &= \left[\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{m}\right)^m\right]^r = e^r \end{aligned}$$

formula for continuously compounded interests:

$$P_t = P_0 e^{rt}.$$

- 1 $e^0 = 1$,
- 2 $e^1 = e$
- 3 $e^x > 0$ for all x
- 4

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

In particular, e^x is strictly increasing and convex.
instantaneous growth rate of a function $y = f(x)$: $\frac{dy}{dx} / y$
when x is increased by a exponential function has constant growth rate 1.

- 5

$$e^{a+b} = e^a e^b \quad (e^a)^b = e^{ab}.$$

In particular $\frac{1}{e^x} = e^{-x}$ (because $e^{-x} e^x = e^0 = 1$).

Let $f_n(x) = \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$.

Intuition for property 3: $\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)$ is positive when $x > 0$ or when n large compared to $|x|$. Then $f_n(x) > 0$ and so hence $e^x > 0$.

Intuition for property 4:

$$\frac{df_n}{dx} = n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n} = \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{n-1} \approx \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = f_n(x)$$

for n very large compared to $|x|$ since $1 + \frac{x}{n}$ is then very close to 1.

Theorem

There is one and only one function $y = f(x)$ which satisfies the "initial condition" $f(0) = 1$ and the "differential equation"

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y$$

and this is the exponential function $f(x) = \exp x = e^x$.

Properties of the natural exponential function

- Exponential versus polynomial growth: For any polynomial $P(x)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^x}{P(x)} = +\infty$$

Intuition: Suppose $P(x) = a_m x^m + \dots$ has degree m . Approximate e^x by $(1 + \frac{x}{n})^n$ with n larger than m . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^x}{P(x)} &\approx \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{(1 + \frac{x}{n})^n}{P(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{(\frac{1}{n})^n x^n + \dots}{a_m x^m + \dots} = \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} Cx^{n-m} &= +\infty \end{aligned}$$

A quicker way to calculate e^x : is to use the formula

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

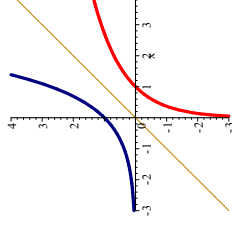
Let $a > 0$. The logarithmic function $\log_a x$ to the base a is defined as the inverse of the exponential function a^y

$$y = \log_a x \Leftrightarrow a^y = x$$

For instance, $1000 = 10^3$, so $\log_{10} 1000 = 3$; $\frac{1}{8} = 2^{-3}$, so $\log_2 \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) = -3$.

natural logarithm function

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



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

$$(\ln x)' = \frac{1}{e^{\ln x}} = \frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}$$

because by the chain rule

$$1 = \frac{dx}{dx} = e^{\ln x} \times (\ln x)' = x \times (\ln x)'$$

- $\ln(y)$ is only defined for strictly positive $y > 0$.
- $\frac{d \ln(y)}{dy} = \frac{1}{y}$. In particular, $\ln(y)$ is strictly increasing and concave.
- $\ln(1) = 0$, $\ln(e) = 1$.
- $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \ln(y) = -\infty$, $\lim_{y \rightarrow +\infty} \ln(y) = +\infty$.
- $\ln(ab) = \ln(a) + \ln(b)$, $\ln(a^b) = b \ln(a)$. In particular $\ln\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = -\ln(a)$.
- LOGARITHMIC DIFFERENTIATION:** Combined with the chain rule one obtains the following useful formula where $y = g(x)$ is any differentiable function:

$$\frac{d \ln(g(x))}{dx} = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} \quad (1)$$

Theorem

The natural logarithm $y(x) = \ln x$ is the unique solution to the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$$

which satisfies the initial condition $y(1) = 0$.

Derivative of an exponential function $y = a^x$ is

$$\frac{da^x}{dx} = \ln(a) a^x.$$

The instantaneous growth rate of $y = a^x$ is $\ln(a)$
The derivative of a power function $y = x^b$ is

$$\frac{dx^b}{dx} = bx^{b-1}$$

even if b is irrational.

Differentiating general exponential and logarithmic functions

$\ln(x^y) = y \ln(x)$
general powers can be rewritten as

$$x^y = e^{y \ln(x)} = e^{\text{index} \times \ln(\text{base})}.$$

Partial differentiation yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial x^y}{\partial y} &= e^{y \ln(x)} \ln(x) = x^y \ln(x) \\ \frac{\partial x^y}{\partial x} &= e^{y \ln(x)} \left(\frac{1}{y} \frac{1}{x} \right) = yx^{y-1} \frac{1}{x} = yx^{y-1}. \end{aligned}$$

$$x = \log_a(y) \Leftrightarrow y = a^x.$$

We have

$$y = a^x \Leftrightarrow y = e^{x \ln(a)} \Leftrightarrow \ln(y) = x \ln(a) \Leftrightarrow x = \frac{\ln(y)}{\ln(a)}$$

so

$$\log_a y = \frac{\ln(y)}{\ln(a)}$$

$\log_a y$ has hence the derivative

$$\frac{d(\log_a(y))}{dy} = \frac{1}{\ln(a)y}$$

Compounded Interests

Example: Suppose Bank A offers the annual nominal interest rate $r_A = 5.5\%$ and pays interests monthly. Bank B offers the annual nominal interest rate $r_B = 5.4\%$ and pays interests daily. Which bank offers the better deal?

Solution:

$$r_{\text{eff},A} = \left(1 + \frac{r_A}{12}\right)^{12} - 1 = \left(1 + \frac{0.055}{12}\right)^{12} - 1 = 5.64\%$$

$$r_{\text{eff},B} = \left(1 + \frac{r_B}{364}\right)^{364} - 1 = \left(1 + \frac{0.054}{364}\right)^{364} - 1 = 5.55\%$$

so Bank A offers better deal.

Exponential decay

most radioactive substances decay exponentially
sample of initial size Q_0 weights $Q(t) = Q_0 e^{-kt}$ at time t .
 k measures rate of decay, “half-life” of the radioactive substance:

Example: Show that a radioactive substance that decays according to the formula $Q(t) = Q_0 e^{-kt}$ has a half-life of $\bar{t} = \frac{\ln 2}{k}$.

Solution: find value \bar{t} for which $Q(\bar{t}) = \frac{1}{2}Q_0$, that is

$$\frac{1}{2}Q_0 = Q_0 e^{-k\bar{t}}.$$

Divide by Q_0 and take natural logarithm:

$$\ln \frac{1}{2} = -k\bar{t}.$$

Thus the half-life is

$$\bar{t} = -\frac{\ln \frac{1}{2}}{k} = \frac{\ln 2}{k}$$

Differentiation

Example: Find the derivative of $g(x) = x^x$.

Solution: Using logarithmic differentiation we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} &= \frac{d(\ln x^x)}{dx} = \frac{d(\ln e^{x \ln(x)})}{dx} = \frac{d(x \ln(x))}{dx} \\ &= 1 \times \ln(x) + x \times \frac{1}{x} = \ln(x) + 1 \\ g'(x) &= (\ln(x) + 1) x^x. \end{aligned}$$

The logistic curve

The graph of the function of the form

$$Q(t) = \frac{B}{1 + Ae^{-Bkt}}$$

where A, B, k are positive constants, is called a *logistic curve*.
describes growth processes when environmental factors impose a “braking” effect on the rate of growth.

Example: Show that the growth rate of the logistic curve $Q(t) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-t}}$ is $1 - Q(t)$.

Solution: We have

$$Q'(t) = \frac{-e^{-t}(-1)}{(1+e^{-t})^2} = \frac{e^{-t}}{(1+e^{-t})^2}$$

$$\frac{Q'(t)}{Q(t)} = \frac{e^{-t}}{1+e^{-t}}$$

$$1 - Q(t) = \frac{1+e^{-t}-1}{1+e^{-t}} = \frac{e^{-t}}{1+e^{-t}}$$

Example

Public health records indicate that t weeks after the outbreak of a certain form of influenza, approximately $Q(t) = \frac{20}{1+19e^{-1.2t}}$ thousand people had caught the disease.

- How many people had the disease when it broke out? How many had it two weeks later?
- At what time does the spread of the infection begin to decline?
- If the trend continues, approximately how many people will eventually contract the disease?

Theorem

The logistic curve $y(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ is the unique solution to the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y(1-y)$$

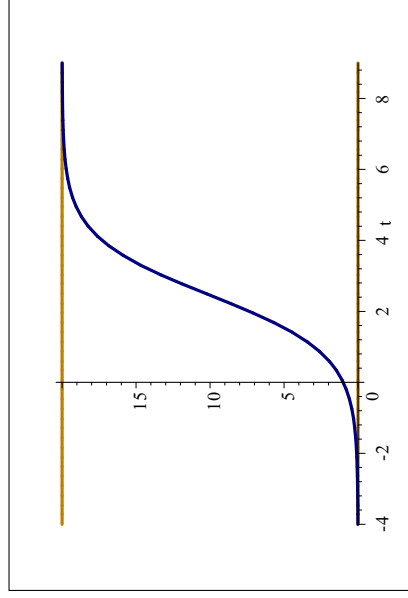
which satisfies the initial condition $y(0) = \frac{1}{2}$.

Solution: a) Since $Q(0) = \frac{20}{1+19} = 1$ it follows that 1000 people initially had the disease. When $t = 2$

$$Q(2) = \frac{20}{1+19e^{-2.4}} \approx 7.343$$

so about 7.343 thousand people had contracted the disease by the second week.

b) inflection point at $\bar{t} \approx 2.5$. For $t < \bar{t}$ convex and so the number of newly infected increasing. For $t > \bar{t}$ concave and so the number of newly infected is decreasing.



c) $\lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} Q(t) = 20$, so roughly 20000 people catch the disease on total.

More generally: $\frac{dQ^d}{dP}$ approximate change in demand when the price increases by a pound.
initial price is P ,
increase by one pound is an increase by $\frac{100}{P}$ percent.
an increase of the price by 1% changes the quantity demanded by approximately by $\frac{P}{100} \times \frac{dQ^d}{dP}$ tons.
percentage change in quantity demanded is approximately:

$$\text{ped}(P) = \frac{100}{Q^d} \times \frac{P}{100} \times \frac{dQ^d}{dP} = \frac{dQ^d}{dP} \times \frac{P}{Q^d}$$

This is the *own-price elasticity of demand*.

Elasticities

Own-price elasticity

demand function

$$Q^d = 1000 - P^3$$

$$\frac{dQ^d}{dP} = -3P^2$$

current price is £5, price raised by a pound:
quantity demand decreases approximately by $\frac{dQ^d}{dP} |_{P=5} = 3 \times 5^2 = 75$ tons.

one-percent increase in the price: increase by $5p = \frac{1}{20} \times \1
reduce quantity demanded by approximately $3.75 = \frac{75}{20}$ tons.
demand at £5 is $1000 - 5^3 = 875$
percentage decrease in quantity demanded is $\frac{3.75}{875} \approx 0.0043 = 0.43\%$.

Thus 1% increase in price reduces quantity demanded by 0.43%.

rewrite this formula as

$$\text{ped}(P) = \frac{dQ^d}{Q^d} \div \frac{dP}{P}$$

where $100 \frac{dP}{P}$ is the percentage increase in price and $100 \frac{dQ^d}{Q^d}$ is (approximately) the induced percentage change in quantity.
In our example

$$\text{ped}(P) = (-3P^2) \times \frac{P}{Q^d} = -3 \frac{P^3}{1000 - P^3}$$

When is demand inelastic?

$$3 \frac{P^3}{1000 - P^3} < 1$$

or

$$3P^3 < 1000 - P^3 \quad 4P^3 < 1000 \quad P^3 < 250 \quad P < \sqrt[3]{250} \approx 6.3$$

Exactly when $P = \sqrt[3]{250}$ there is unit elasticity and above demand is elastic.

Total Revenue

With this demand, total revenue of the market is

$$TR = PQ^d = P(1000 - P^3)$$

Total revenue is maximized when

$$\frac{dTR}{dP} = 1000 - 4P^3 = 0$$

or $P = \sqrt[3]{250}$, i.e., exactly when there is unit elasticity.

Since $\frac{d^2 TR}{dP^2} = -12P^2 < 0$, total revenue decreases to the left and increases to the right of this price.

Constant Elasticity

A function has constant elasticity ε if and only if it is of the form

$$Q = \alpha P^\varepsilon$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dQ}{dP} &= \alpha \varepsilon P^{\varepsilon-1} \\ \frac{dQ}{dP} \frac{P}{Q} &= \alpha \varepsilon P^{\varepsilon-1} \frac{P}{\alpha P^\varepsilon} = \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Inverse Demand

The consumers will demand a quantity Q when the price P is such that

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= Q^d(P) = 1000 - P^3 \\ P^3 &= 1000 - Q \\ P^d &= \sqrt[3]{1000 - Q} \end{aligned}$$

inverse demand function

Marginal Revenue

use inverse demand function to express total revenue as a *function of quantity*:

$$TR = PQ = \sqrt[3]{1000 - Q} \times Q = (1000 - Q)^{\frac{1}{3}} \times Q$$

quantity demanded is decreasing in price.

total revenue is increasing in price when it decreasing in quantity and vice versa.

Marginal revenue is the change in revenue if a small unit more of the commodity is sold on the market.

$$MR = \frac{dTR}{dQ} = -\frac{1}{3} (1000 - Q)^{-\frac{2}{3}} \times Q + (1000 - Q)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

Marginal revenue is zero when

$$\begin{aligned} (1000 - Q)^{-\frac{2}{3}} \times Q &= 3(1000 - Q)^{\frac{1}{3}} \\ Q &= 3(1000 - Q) = 3000 - 3Q \\ 4Q &= 3000 \quad Q = 750 \end{aligned}$$

at $P = \sqrt[3]{250}$. For lower quantities it is positive and for higher ones negative.

Theorem

Marginal revenue and own-price elasticity are related by

$$MR = P \left(1 + \frac{1}{\text{ped}(P)} \right)$$

This is so because

$$\frac{dTR}{dP} = \frac{d(PQ^d)}{dP} = Q^d + P \frac{dQ^d}{dP}$$

whereas by the chain rule

$$\frac{dTR}{dP} = \frac{dTR}{dQ} \frac{dQ^d}{dP}$$

and so

$$MR = \frac{dTR}{dQ} = \left(Q^d + P \frac{dQ^d}{dP} \right) / \frac{dQ^d}{dP} = \frac{Q^d}{\frac{dQ^d}{dP}} + P = \frac{P}{\frac{dQ^d}{dP} Q^d} + P$$

Elasticities and logarithms

data $(x, y) = (\ln P, \ln Q)$. Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \text{ped}(P)$$

$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{Q}$, $P = e^x$, $\frac{dP}{dx} = e^x = P$. The chain rule applied twice yields

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dQ} \frac{dQ}{dP} \frac{dP}{dx} = \frac{1}{Q} \frac{dQ}{dP} P = \text{ped}(P)$$

Other Elasticities

demand for a commodity function of own price, income and other prices.

$$Q^d = 100 - p + 2p^* - 3y$$

p is the price of the commodity,
 p^* the price of another commodity
 y is income.

own price elasticity:

$$\frac{\partial Q^d}{\partial p} \frac{p}{Q^d} = -\frac{p}{Q^d}$$

Elasticities and logarithms

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$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{Q}$, $P = e^x$, $\frac{dP}{dx} = e^x = P$. The chain rule applied twice yields

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dQ} \frac{dQ}{dP} \frac{dP}{dx} = \frac{1}{Q} \frac{dQ}{dP} P = \text{ped}(P)$$

Other Elasticities

demand for a commodity function of own price, income and other prices.

$$Q^d = 100 - p + 2p^* - 3y$$

cross price elasticity:

$$\frac{\partial Q^d}{\partial p^*} \frac{p^*}{Q^d} = 2 \frac{p^*}{Q^d}$$

income elasticity

$$\frac{\partial Q^d}{\partial y} \frac{y}{Q^d} = -3 \frac{y}{Q^d}$$