

Math Material for Economics 100

I. One Variable Calculus

I.1 \mathbb{R}^1

- the Set of all Real Numbers
- includes Rational Numbers and Irrational Numbers
- Graphical Representation: Number Line

I.2 **Function: a rule that assigns a number to each number in \mathbb{R}^1**

x is the independent variable

y is the dependent variable

$$y = f(x) \text{ [y equals f of x]}$$

Ex I.2.1: Transforming Centimeters to Inches

$y = (1/2.54)x$, where y is “inches” and x is “centimeters”

I.3 Functional Forms

I.3.1 Monomials and Polynomials

→ Monomials and Polynomials will often be the kinds of functions we will be working with in this course

→ Monomials:

$y=f(x) = ax^k$ → the general form of a monomial

k is a constant, and is called the degree of the polynomial

a is a constant, called the coefficient

→ A Polynomial is a series of monomials added or subtracted together

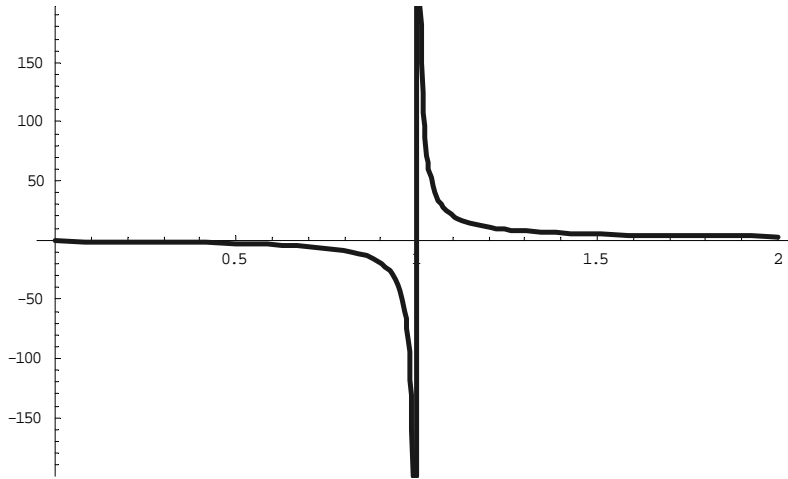
Ex: $h(x) = -x^7 + 3x^4$;

→ the degree of the polynomial is the highest exponent in the function, in this example it is 7

I.3.2 Rational Functions

Rational Functions have the form $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, defined where $g(x)$ is not zero.

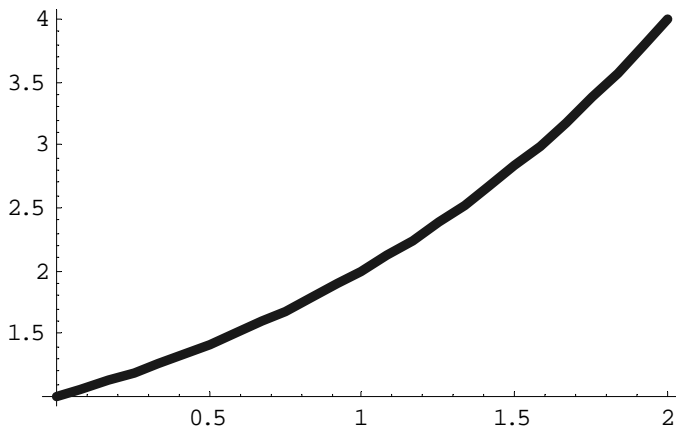
Ex: $y = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{x+1}{x-1}$



1.3.3 Exponential Functions

Exponential Functions are of the form: $y = f(x) = c^x$, where c is a constant, and x is the variable.

Ex: $y=f(x)=2^x$



1.4 Increasing and Decreasing Functions

Def: Increasing (Decreasing) functions means that if $x_1 > (<)x_2$, then $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$.

1.5 Domain of a Function

→ Subset of \mathbb{R}^1 where the function is defined.

Ex: $y = \sqrt{x-7}$ is defined on $x \geq 7$ because the square root of a negative number is not possible.

→ For economic applications, *usually* the domain is for $x \geq 0$, where x is some economic variable like cars produced, and so on.

1.6 Maximum and Minimum

→ x_0 is a relative/local max [min] if at $(x_0, f(x_0))$, $f(x)$ changes from an increasing [decreasing] to a decreasing [increasing] function

→ If the graph of $f(x)$ is never above [below] $(x_0, f(x_0))$, then x_0 is the absolute max [min] of the function

II. Linear Functions

General Form: $y = f(x) = mx + b$

Where: m is the slope of the function, b is a constant.

The slope is $m = \frac{y_1 - y_0}{x_1 - x_0}$, where the subscripts represent two points on the line. From the

general form, we have: $m = \frac{y - b}{x - 0}$.

Interpretation: m is the slope of the function, or rate of change.

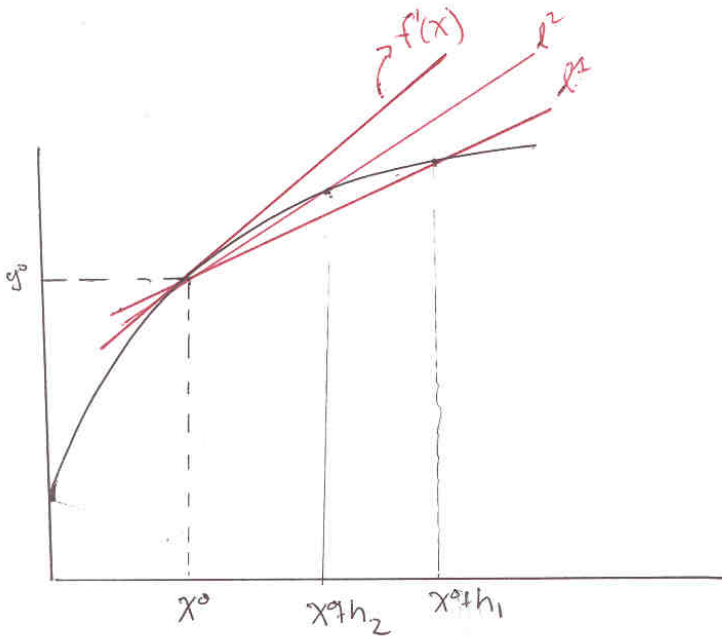
Ex: *Cost Function*: $C = f(q) = Fq$. Here, F is the slope and b is zero.

III. Slope of Non-Linear Functions

Def: Derivative: $(x_0, f(x_0))$ is a point on the graph $y=f(x)$

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{dy}{dx}(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

We can interpret the first derivative as the slope of a non-linear function on a point $(x_0, f(x_0))$.



Ex: For linear Functions:

$f'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx}(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \frac{m(x+h) - mx}{h} = \frac{mh}{h} = m$, so the derivative of a linear function is equal to its slope.

III.1 Rules for Computing Derivatives

- $(f \pm g)'(x) = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$
- $kf'(x) = k(f'(x))$
- $(f * g)'(x) = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$
- $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$
- $((f(x))^n)' = n(f(x))^{n-1} f'(x)$
- Monomial Rule: $(x^k)' = kx^{k-1}$

III.2 Second Derivatives and the Shape of the Function

We write $f''(x)$ as the second derivative. We get the second derivative by finding the derivative of the first derivative.

Ex:

$$f(x) = 3x^3 + 2x^2$$

$$\text{First Derivative: } f'(x) = 9x^2 + 4x$$

$$\text{Second Derivative: } f''(x) = 18x + 4$$

As the first derivative tells us the slope of the function is positive or negative, the *second derivative* tells us whether the slope is increasing or decreasing.

III.3 Graphing a Function

Step 1: Find all x where $f'(x)=0$. These are the critical points.

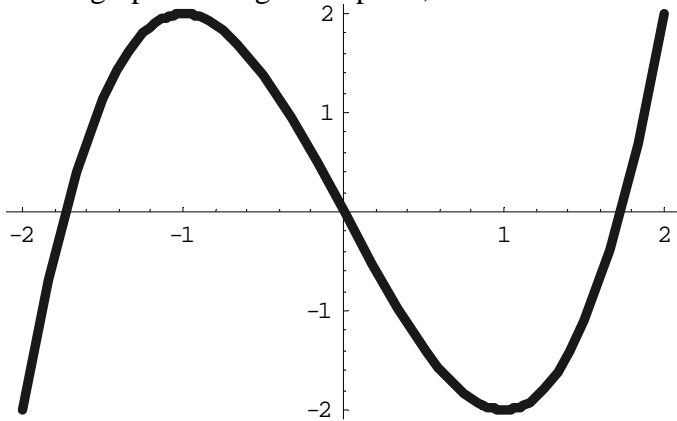
Step 2: Find all x where $f''(x)=0$.

Step 3: Form a Table that divides the domain into segments defined by the critical points and the points where the second derivative is zero.

Ex: $f(x)=x^3-3x$

	$(-\infty, -1)$	-1	$(-1, 0)$	0	$(0, 1)$	1	$(1, +\infty)$
$f(x)$							
$f'(x)$	+	0	-	-	-	0	+
$f''(x)$	-	-	-	0	+	+	+

When graphed using a computer, our intuition is confirmed:



III.4 Maximum and Minimum [Interior Solution]

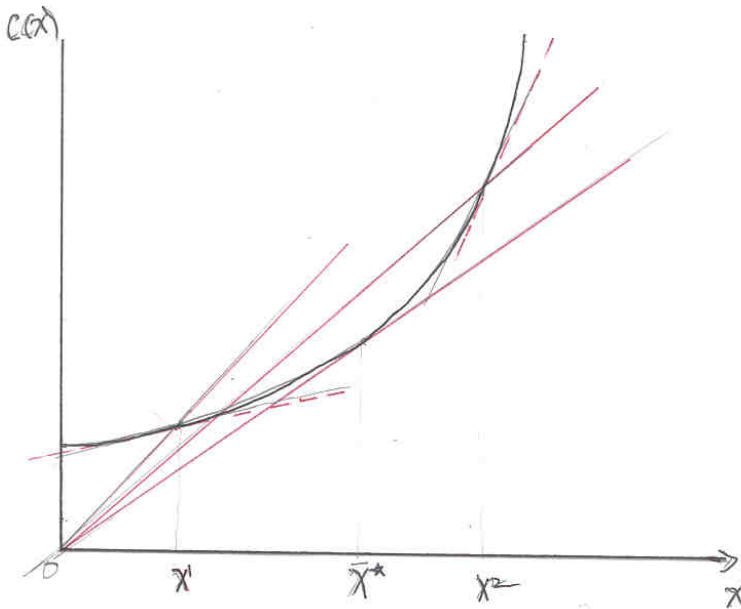
- If $f'(x_0)=0$, $f''(x_0)<0$, then x_0 is a *relative maximum*
- If $f'(x_0)=0$, $f''(x_0)>0$, then x_0 is a *relative minimum*
- If $f'(x_0)=0$, $f''(x_0)=0$, then x_0 is neither

III.4.1 Global Maximum and Minimum

If $x_0 > 0$ is the only critical point, the domain is the whole \mathbb{R}^1 , $f''(x_0)<0$ then it is a *global maximum*, $f''(x_0)>0$, then x_0 is a *global minimum*

III.5 Simple Economic Application on Derivatives

III.5.1 Cost Functions



III.5.2 Elasticity

What is the change in y when we change x by a small amount?

$$\varepsilon_{yx} = \frac{\% \Delta y}{\% \Delta x} = \frac{dy/y}{dx/x} = \frac{dy/dx}{y/x} = \frac{f'(x)}{y/x} = \frac{\text{marginal}}{\text{average}}$$

III.5.3 Profit maximization by a firm facing perfectly competitive output markets

$$\Pi(Q) = PQ - C(Q)$$

$$\text{First Derivative: } \frac{d\Pi(Q^*)}{dQ} = P - C'(Q^*) = 0$$

$$\text{Second Derivative: } \frac{d^2\Pi(Q^*)}{dQ^2} = -C''(Q^*) < 0, \text{ so critical point } Q^* \text{ is a global max.}$$

[See excel example]

III.6 Exponents

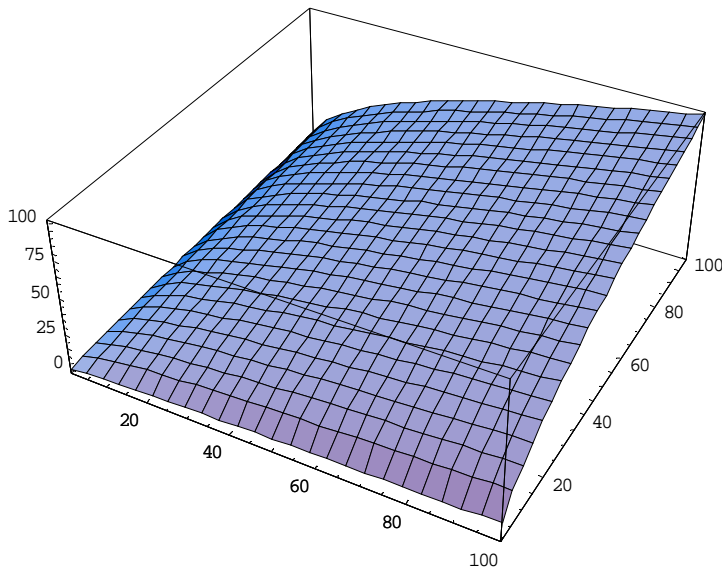
- a) $x^m x^n = x^{m+n}$
- b) $(x^m)^n = x^{mn}$
- c) $x^m / x^n = x^{m-n}$
- d) $x^1 = x$
- e) $x^0 = 1$

IV. 2-Variable Functions

Example: $u = U(x, y)$

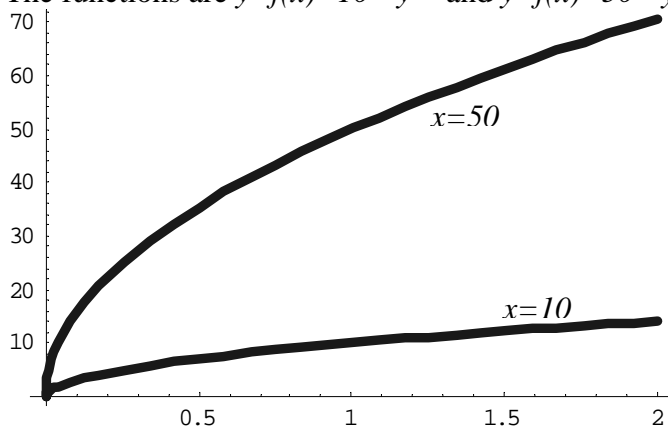
→ a (x, y) pair maps onto a number on \mathbb{R}^1 , here called 'u'.

IV.1 An Example: $u=x^{1/2}y^{1/2}$



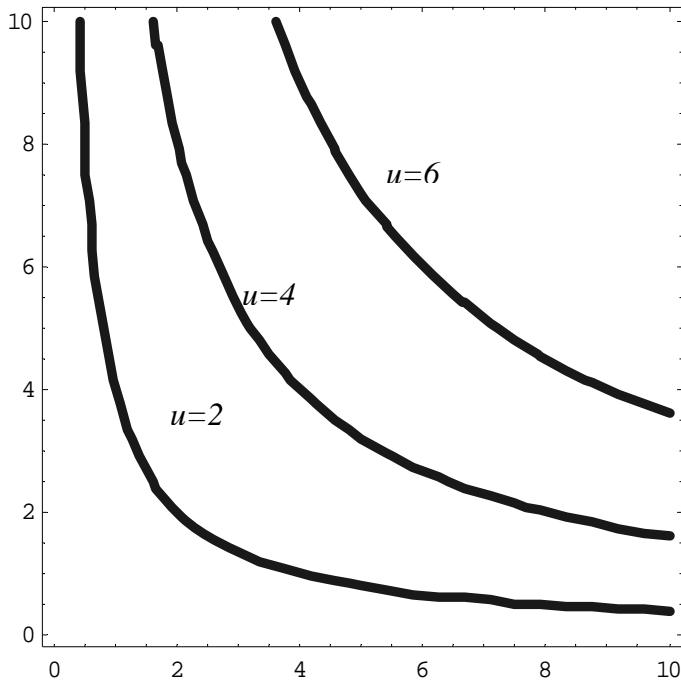
IV.2 Fix $x=10$ and then graph, fix $x=50$, and then graph:

The functions are $y=f(x)=10^{1/2}y^{1/2}$ and $y=f(x)=50^{1/2}y^{1/2}$



IV.3 Fix $u=2$, fix $u=4$, $u=6$:

What combinations of x and y will give us the same level of U ?



IV.4 Partial Differentiation

For $u=U(x,y)$, we change x without changing the value of y

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(x, y) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{U(x_0 + h, y_0) - U(x_0, y_0)}{h}$$

Ex: $u=x^{1/2}y^{1/2}$. $\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2}y^{1/2}$

IV.5 Total Derivative

We are often interested in a small change around (x_0, y_0) when we change both x and y . How does this affect u ?

Start from the partial derivative, and assume small changes, called dx and dy :

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(x, y)dx \approx U(x_0 + dx, y_0) - U(x_0, y_0)$$

It is natural to generalize:

$$U(x_0 + dx, y_0 + dy) - U(x_0, y_0) \approx \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)dx + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)dy$$

$$\text{Or, } \Delta U(x_0, y_0) \approx \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0)dx + \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0)dy$$

This is the total Differential.

Application: Slope of Indifference Curves:

