

# Some mathematics preparation for Econ 2450

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Course mostly about using economic models

Requires a bit of math to understand

Nothing that should be news

What follows is a useful summary

# Numbers

Natural numbers: 1, 2, 3...

Integers: ... - 2, -1, 0, 1, 2...

Real numbers: “all” numbers that lie on the real line (e.g. 5, -100,  $\pi = 3.14\dots$ ,  $\frac{1}{11}$ )

Rational numbers: numbers that can be written as  $\frac{a}{b}$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers

Irrational numbers: real numbers that are not rational numbers

# Inequalities

$a > b$  means  $a$  is strictly greater than  $b$

$a \geq b$  means  $a$  is weakly greater than (i.e., greater than or equal to)  $b$

## Double inequalities, intervals

If  $a > b$  and  $a < c$  we can write

$$b < a < c$$

or

$$a \in (b, c)$$

Means  $a$  lies on the (open) interval  $(b, c)$

If  $a \geq b$  and  $a \leq c$  we can write

$$b \leq a \leq c$$

or

$$a \in [b, c]$$

Means  $a$  lies on the (closed) interval  $[b, c]$

If  $a > b$  and  $a \leq c$  we can write

$$b < a \leq c$$

or

$$a \in (b, c]$$

Means  $a$  lies on the (half-open) interval  $(b, c]$

# Functions

Here: mostly single-variable functions

What are functions?

- Functions are “rules”
- Functions describe how one variable depends on another variable
- Same as everyday speak: “the grade is a function of how much you study...”

Graphs are used to illustrate functions in diagrams

## Definitions

A function  $f(x)$  of a real variable  $x$  with *domain*  $D_f$  is a rule which assigns a *unique* real number to each number in  $D_f$

$D_f$  can be defined by a simple statement, e.g.  $D_f = [0, 1]$

The set of values that  $f(x)$  takes as  $x$  varies over  $D_f$  is called the *range* of  $f$ , and is denoted  $R_f$

All functions in this course will be given by *formulas*, e.g.

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

$$f(x) = 3x - 14$$

$$f(x) = b + ax$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants, i.e., do not depend on the variable  $x$

# Exponential and logarithmic functions

Power functions take the form

$$f(x) = a^{bx}$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants

$a$  is the *base*;  $bx$  is the *exponent*

If  $a = e$ , where  $e$  is defined from

$$e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \approx 2.71828,$$

then we get an *exponential* function:

$$f(x) = e^{bx}$$



The (natural) *logarithmic* function

$$f(x) = \ln(x)$$

is defined from

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

Note that:

- $e^{bx} > 0$  for all  $x$
- $\ln(x)$  is defined only for  $x > 0$

## Some important equalities

$$\ln(xy) = \ln(x) + \ln(y)$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \ln(x) - \ln(y)$$

$$\ln(x^a) = a \ln(x)$$

$$e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$$

$$(e^x)^y = e^{xy}$$

# Derivatives

Many functions can be *differentiated*

To differentiate a function is the same as taking the *derivative* of the function (but not same as e.g. deriving a function)

The derivative of  $f(x)$  is (usually) denoted  $f'(x)$  and defined from

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

## On notation

There are many ways to denote derivatives

We often denote  $f(x)$  by some some other variable  $y$ ,  
and write  $y = f(x)$

We can then write  $f'(x)$  as any of the following:

$$y'$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx}$$

The notation  $\partial f(x)/\partial x$  is usually referred to as the *partial* derivative of  $f(x)$  with respect to  $x$

The notation  $df(x)/dx$  is usually referred to as the *total* derivative of  $f(x)$  with respect to  $x$

When  $f(x)$  as only one argument (i.e.,  $x$ ) the total and partial derivatives mean the same thing

## Differentiating some common functions

$$f(x) = x^2 \Rightarrow f'(x) = 2x$$

$$f(x) = x^3 \Rightarrow f'(x) = 3x^2$$

$$f(x) = x^n \Rightarrow f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$$

$$f(x) = e^{ax} \Rightarrow f'(x) = ae^{ax}$$

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

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} = x^{-1} \Rightarrow f'(x) = \frac{-1}{x^2} = -x^{-2}$$

## Some rules

The chain rule

$$f(x) = g[h(x)] \Rightarrow f'(x) = g'[h(x)] h'(x)$$

The product rule

$$f(x) = g(x)h(x) \Rightarrow f'(x) = g'(x)h(x) + g(x)h'(x)$$

A special case of the product rule: let

$$f(x) = \frac{g(x)}{k(x)} = g(x)h(x),$$

where  $h(x) = 1/k(x)$ ; then

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= g'(x) \overbrace{\left[ \frac{1}{k(x)} \right]}^{h(x)} + g(x) \overbrace{\left( - \left[ \frac{1}{k(x)} \right]^2 k'(x) \right)}^{h'(x)} \\ &= \frac{g'(x)k(x) - g(x)k'(x)}{[k(x)]^2} \end{aligned}$$

Some other useful tricks:

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [\ln(f(x))]$$

$$f(x) = g(x)h(x) \Rightarrow \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} + \frac{h'(x)}{h(x)}$$



# Optimization

Consider the problem of finding some  $x$  [in the domain of  $f(x)$ ] that maximizes  $f(x)$

That  $x$  is called a (global) maximum point of  $f(x)$

Often denoted  $x^*$ , defined from

$$f(x^*) \geq f(x) \text{ for all } x \in D_f$$

If the graph of  $f(x)$  is shaped like an inverted U the maximum point is easy enough to see; draw to illustrate

Often we have a formula for  $f(x)$  and want to find the maximum point in terms of the constants (parameters) of  $f(x)$

## The first-order condition

The maximum point of  $f(x)$  must satisfy certain conditions

One such condition states that the derivative of  $f(x)$  equals zero when evaluated at the maximum point: called the *first-order condition (FOC)*

Example: let  $f(x) = x(1 - x)$ , where  $D_f = [0, 1]$

Task: find the maximum point of  $f(x)$

Find  $f'(x)$ , using product rule

$$f'(x) = 1 - x + x(-1) = 1 - 2x$$

Setting  $f'(x^*) = 1 - 2x^* = 0$  gives

$$x^* = \frac{1}{2}$$

## The second-order condition

Sometimes the FOC gives not a maximum point but a minimum point

Example:  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} - x$ ;  $f'(x) = 0$  gives  $x = 1$ , which is a minimum point

How can we check if the FOC gives a minimum or a maximum?

- In this course the problems are (almost always) rigged so that the FOC gives whatever you are looking for (the minimum or maximum point)
- More generally, we can look at the second derivative of  $f(x)$ , denoted  $f''(x)$
- Called *second-order condition (SOC)*

- SOC states that:

- \* For  $x^*$  to be a (local) maximum it must hold that  $f''(x^*) < 0$

- \* For  $x^*$  to be a (local) minimum it must hold that  $f''(x^*) > 0$

## Implicit differentiation

Sometimes we do not have an explicit expression for  $f(x)$

Instead,  $f(x)$  may be defined *implicitly*

Example: let  $y$  be a function of  $x$  defined from

$$G(x, y) = 0$$

Task: find  $dy/dx$

Think of both  $G(x, y)$  and  $y$  as functions of  $x$

Differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$  using chain rule

$$\frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

Solve for  $dy/dx$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{\frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial x}}{\frac{\partial G(x, y)}{\partial y}}$$

Called *implicit differentiation*

Note:

- If  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial x$  and  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial y$  have the same sign, then  $dy/dx < 0$
- If  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial x$  and  $\partial G(x, y)/\partial y$  have different signs, then  $dy/dx > 0$

## “Kinked” functions (involving curly brackets)

Often we want to make sure that a function has a particular range

Example:

- $f(x)$  denotes a probability and is linear in  $x$
- $D_f = \mathcal{R}_+ = [0, \infty)$
- Must make sure  $R_f$  falls within  $[0, 1]$
- Solution: to “cut off” the function so that  $f(x) \leq 1$  for all  $x \in D_f$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} ax & \text{if } x \leq 1/a \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1/a \end{cases}$$

Draw graph with kink at  $x = 1/a$

# Statistics and probability theory

Let  $x$  be a (discrete) stochastic variable

Can take  $N$  different values:  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$

Associated probabilities:

$\pi_1 =$  probability that  $x$  takes value  $x_1$

$\pi_2 =$  probability that  $x$  takes value  $x_2$

...

$\pi_N =$  probability that  $x$  takes value  $x_N$

Must hold that probabilities sum up to one:

$$\pi_1 + \pi_2 + \dots + \pi_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i = 1$$

$E(x)$  denotes the *mean*, or *expected value*, of  $x$



Definitions of mean and variance:

$$E(x) = \pi_1 x_1 + \pi_2 x_2 + \dots + \pi_N x_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i x_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} V(x) &= \pi_1 [x_1 - E(x)]^2 + \pi_2 [x_2 - E(x)]^2 \\ &\quad + \dots + \pi_N [x_N - E(x)]^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i [x_i - E(x)]^2 \\ &= E \left[ \{x - E(x)\}^2 \right] \end{aligned}$$

Useful to note that we can develop expression in square brackets to write variance as

$$\begin{aligned} V(x) &= \left( \pi_1 x_1^2 + \pi_2 x_2^2 + \dots + \pi_N x_N^2 \right) - [E(x)]^2 \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i x_i^2 \right) - [E(x)]^2 \\ &= E(x^2) - [E(x)]^2 \end{aligned}$$

If  $x$  and  $y$  are both stochastic:

$$E(x + y) = E(x) + E(y)$$

$$E(x - y) = E(x) - E(y)$$

If  $a$  is a (non-stochastic) constant:

$$E(a) = a$$

$$E(a + x) = a + E(x)$$

$$E(ax) = aE(x)$$

$$V(a) = 0$$

$$V(a + x) = V(a) + V(x) = V(x)$$

$$V(ax) = a^2V(x)$$