Partial Derivatives, Monotonic Functions, and economic applications (ch 7)

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1 Monotonic Functions and the Inverse Function Rule

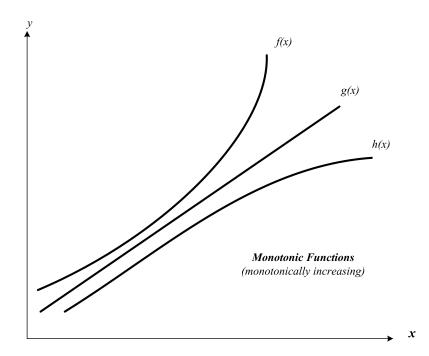
If $x_1 < x_2$ and $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ (for all x), then f(x) is Monotonically increasing.

If $x_1 < x_2$ and $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ then f(x) is Monotonically decreasing.

If a function is Monotonic the an inverse function exists. y = f(x), then $x = f^{-1}(y)$. Example $y = x^2 \ (x \ge 0)$, $x = \sqrt{y}$

Derivative of Inverse Functions

If
$$y = f(x)$$
 and $x = f^{-1}(y)$, then $\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$ and $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$



1.1.1 Example 1:

$$y = 3x + 2 \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 3$$

$$x = \frac{1}{3}y - \frac{2}{3} \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{\frac{dy}{dx}}$$

1.1.2 Example 2:

If:
$$y = x^2$$
 and $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$
then: $x = y^{1/2}$ and $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{2}y^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2y^{1/2}}$
so: $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{2x} = \frac{1}{\frac{dy}{dx}}$

Application: Revenue Functions

Demand Function :
$$Q = 10 - P$$

Inverse Demand Function : P = 10 - Q

Average Revenue

$$AR = P = 10 - Q$$
 Inverse demand function

Total Revenue

$$TR = P \cdot Q = (10 - Q)Q = 10Q - Q^2$$

 $TR = 10Q - Q^2$ is a quadratic function

Marginal Revenue

$$MR = \frac{d(TR)}{dQ} = 10 - 2Q$$

Given AR = 10 - Q and MR = 10 - 2Q MR falls twice as fast as AR.

Generally:

$$TR = aQ - bQ^2$$
 (general form quadratic)
 $AR = \frac{TR}{Q} = a - bQ$ (inverse demand function)
 $MR = \frac{d(TR)}{dQ} = a - 2bQ$ (1st derivative)

Graphically

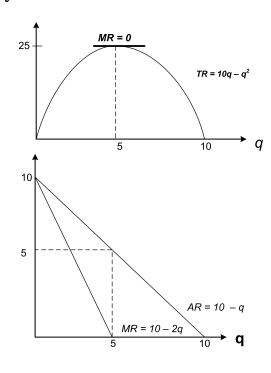
1. TR is at a MAX when MR = 0

2.
$$MR = 10 - 2Q = 0$$

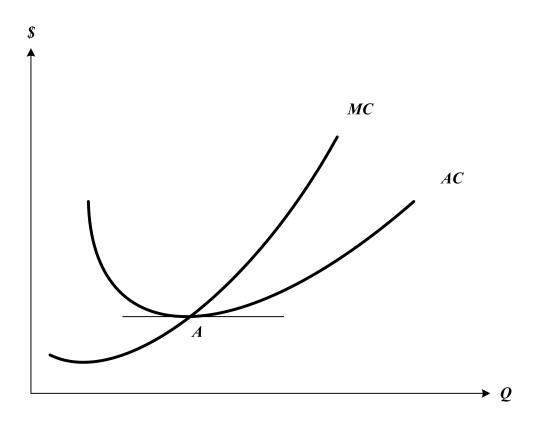
 $Q = 5$

3.
$$TR = 10Q - Q^2 = 25$$

4.
$$AR = 10 - Q = 5$$



1.1.3 Average cost and Marginal Cost



- 1. Total Cost = C(Q)
- 2. Marginal Cost = $\frac{dC(Q)}{dQ}$
- 3. Average Cost = $\frac{C(Q)}{Q}$
- 4. Average costs are minimized when the slop of AC=0 (point A)

Slope of AC =
$$\frac{dAC}{dQ} = \frac{C'(Q)Q - C(Q)}{Q^2}$$
 Quotient Rule
= $\frac{1}{Q} \left[C'(Q) - \frac{C(Q)}{Q} \right]$ Factor out Q
= $\frac{1}{Q} \left[MC - AC \right]$

Slope of AC is:

- 1. (a) negative if MC < AC
 - (b) positive if MC > AC
 - (c) zero if MC = AC

2 Multivariate Calculus

Single variable calculus is really just a "special case" of multivariable calculus. For the function y = f(x), we assumed that y was the endogenous variable, x was the exogenous variable and everything else was a parameter. For example, given the equations

$$y = a + bx$$

or

$$y = ax^n$$

we automatically treated a, b, and n as constants and took the derivative of y with respect to x (dy/dx). However, what if we decided to treat x as a constant and take the derivative with respect to one of the other variables? Nothing precludes us from doing this. Consider the equation

$$y = ax$$

where

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

Now suppose we find the derivative of y with respect to a, but TREAT x as the constant. Then

$$\frac{dy}{da} = x$$

Here we just "reversed" the roles played by a and x in our equation.

2.1 Partial Derivatives

Suppose $y = f(x_1, x_2, ...x_n)$

ie.
$$y = 2x_1^2 + 3x_2 + 2x_1x_2$$

What is the change in y when we change x_i (i = 1, n) hold all other x's constant?

or: Find $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x_1} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} = f_1$ (holding $x_2, ... x_n$ fixed) Rule: Treat all other variables as constants and use ordinary rules

Rule: Treat all other variables as constants and use ordinary rules of differentiation.

2.1.1 Example:

$$y = 2x_1^2 + 3x_2 + 2x_1x_2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx_1} = 4x_1 + 2x_2(=f_1)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx_2} = 3 + 2x_1(=f_2)$$

2.2 Two Variable Case:

let z = f(x, y), which means "z is a function of x and y". In this case z is the endogenous (dependent) variable and both x and y are the exogenous (independent) variables.

To measure the the effect of a change in a single independent variable (x or y) on the dependent variable (z) we use what is known as the *PARTIAL DERIVATIVE*.

The partial derivative of z with respect to x measures the instantaneous change in the function as x changes while *HOLDING y constant*. Similarly, we would hold x constant if we wanted to evaluate the effect of a change in y on z. Formally:

- $\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}$ is the "partial derivative" of z with respect to x, treating y as a constant. Sometimes written as f_x .
- $\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}$ is the "partial derivative" of z with respect to y, treating x as a constant. Sometimes written as f_y .

The " ∂ " symbol ("bent over" lower case D) is called the "partial" symbol. It is interpreted in exactly the same way as $\frac{dy}{dx}$ from single variable calculus. The ∂ symbol simply serves to remind us that there are other variables in the equation, but for the purposes of the current exercise, these other variables are held constant.

EXAMPLES:

$$\begin{split} z &= x + y \quad \partial z / \partial x = 1 \qquad \partial z / \partial y = 1 \\ z &= xy \qquad \partial z / \partial x = y \quad \partial z / \partial y = x \\ z &= x^2 y^2 \qquad \partial z / \partial x = 2(y^2) x \quad \partial z / \partial y = 2(x^2) y \\ z &= x^2 y^3 + 2x + 4y \quad \partial z / \partial x = 2xy^3 + 2 \quad \partial z / \partial y = 3x^2 y^2 + 4 \end{split}$$

• **REMEMBER:** When you are taking a partial derivative you treat the other variables in the equation as constants!

2.3 Rules of Partial Differentiation

Product Rule: given $z = g(x, y) \cdot h(x, y)$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = g(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} + h(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$
$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = g(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} + h(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}$$

Quotient Rule: given $z = \frac{g(x,y)}{h(x,y)}$ and $h(x,y) \neq 0$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{h(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} - g(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}}{\left[h(x,y)\right]^2}$$
$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{h(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} - g(x,y) \cdot \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}}{\left[h(x,y)\right]^2}$$

Chain Rule: given $z = [g(x, y)]^n$

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = n \left[g(x, y) \right]^{n-1} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$
$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = n \left[g(x, y) \right]^{n-1} \cdot \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}$$

2.4 Further Examples:

For the function U=U(x,y) find the the partial derivates with respect to x and y

for each of the following examples

Example 1

$$U = -5x^3 - 12xy - 6y^5$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = 15x^2 - 12y$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = -12x - 30y^4$$

Example 2

$$U = 7x^2y^3$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = 14xy^3$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = 21x^2y^2$$

Example 3

$$U = 3x^2(8x - 7y)$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = 3x^2(8) + (8x - 7y)(6x) = 72x^2 - 42xy$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = 3x^2(-7) + (8x - 7y)(0) = -21x^2$$

Example 4

$$U = (5x^2 + 7y)(2x - 4y^3)$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = (5x^2 + 7y)(2) + (2x - 4y^3)(10x)$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = (5x^2 + 7y)(-12y^2) + (2x - 4y^3)(7)$$

Example 5

$$U = \frac{9y^3}{x - y}$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = \frac{(x-y)(0) - 9y^3(1)}{(x-y)^2} = \frac{-9y^3}{(x-y)^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = \frac{(x-y)(27y^2) - 9y^3(-1)}{(x-y)^2} = \frac{27xy^2 - 18y^3}{(x-y)^2}$$

Example 6

$$U = (x - 3y)^3$$

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = U_x = 3(x - 3y)^2 (1) = 3(x - 3y)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial y} = U_y = 3(x - 3y)^2 (-3) = -9(x - 3y)^2$$

2.5 A Special Function: Cobb-Douglas

The Cobb-douglas function is a mathematical function that is very popular in economic models. The general form is

$$z = x^a y^b$$

and its partial derivatives are

$$\partial z/\partial x = ax^{a-1}y^b$$
 and $\partial z/\partial y = bx^ay^{b-1}$

Furthermore, the absolute value of the slope of the level curve of a Cobb-douglas is given by

$$\frac{\partial z/\partial x}{\partial z/\partial y} = MRS = \frac{a}{b} \frac{y}{x}$$

2.5.1 Example: Production Function

Let Q = f(K, L) $f_L = \frac{dQ}{dK} = \text{Marginal product of labour } (\Delta \text{ in Q from a } \Delta \text{ in L})$ $f_K = \frac{dQ}{dK} = \text{Marginal product of capital } (\Delta \text{ in Q from a } \Delta \text{ in K})$ Let $Q = K^a L^b$ (Cobb-Douglas Technology) Then

$$MP_L = bK^aL^{b-1}$$
 (for $K = \bar{K}$)
 $MP_K = aK^{a-1}L^b$ (for $L = \bar{L}$)

Isoquant: Δ 's in K and L that keep $Q = \bar{Q}$ Then

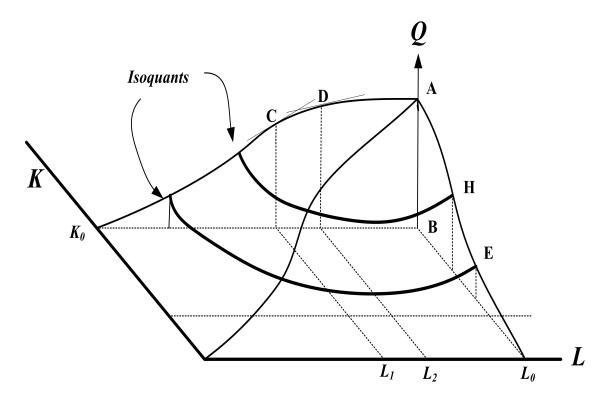
$$\Delta L \cdot MP_L = -MP_K \cdot \Delta K$$
or
$$\Delta L \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial L}\right) = \left(\frac{-\partial Q}{\partial K}\right) \Delta K$$

$$\frac{\Delta K}{\Delta L} = MRTS = \frac{MP_L}{MP_K}$$

$$= \frac{bK^aL^{b-1}}{aK^{a-1}L^b}$$

$$= \frac{b}{a}K^{(a-a+1)}L^{b-1-b}$$

$$= \frac{b}{a}K^1L^{-1} = \frac{b}{a}\frac{K}{L}$$



Point C: $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial L} = MP_L$ at $L = L_1$ and $K = K_0$ Point D: $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial L}$ at $L = L_2$ and $K = K_0$ Point E: $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial K} = MP_K$ at $L = L_0$ $MP_L = \text{marginal product of labour}$ $MP_K = \text{marginal product of capital}$

3 National Income Model

Consider the linear model of a simple economy

$$Y = C + I_0 + G_0$$
$$C = a + bY$$

where Y, C are the endogenous variables and a, b, I_0 and G_0 are the exogenous variables and parameters.

In Equilibrium:

$$Y^{e} = \frac{a + I_{0} + G_{0}}{1 - b} = \frac{a}{1 - b} + \frac{I_{0}}{1 - b} + \frac{G_{0}}{1 - b}$$

$$C^{e} = \frac{a + bI_{0} + bG_{0}}{1 - b} = \frac{a}{1 - b} + \frac{bI_{0}}{1 - b} + \frac{bG_{0}}{1 - b}$$

$$\frac{\partial Y^e}{\partial G_0} = \frac{1}{1-b}$$
 $\frac{\partial C^e}{\partial G_0} = \frac{b}{1-b}$ The Multipliers

What is $\frac{\partial Y^e}{\partial h}$?

$$Y^{e} = (a + I_{0} + G_{0})(1 - b)^{-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial Y^{e}}{\partial b} = (a + I_{0} + G_{0})(1 - b)^{-2}(-1)(-1)$$
 Chain Rule
$$\frac{\partial Y^{e}}{\partial b} = + \left[\frac{a + I_{0} + G_{0}}{(1 - b)^{2}}\right]$$

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The income multiplier with respect to a change in the MPC