

Mathematics for Economists: Lecture 3

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This lecture covers

1. Multivariate functions

1.1 As a function of a single coordinate variable: partial derivative

1.2 Linear approximation of a function around a point: the derivative

1.3 Change in the value of the function in a given direction: directional derivative

1.4 Fastest change: the gradient

1.5 No change: approximating the level curves

2. Vector-valued multivariate functions

2.1 The derivative of a vector-valued multivariate function

2.2 The chain rule: Euler's theorem for homogenous functions

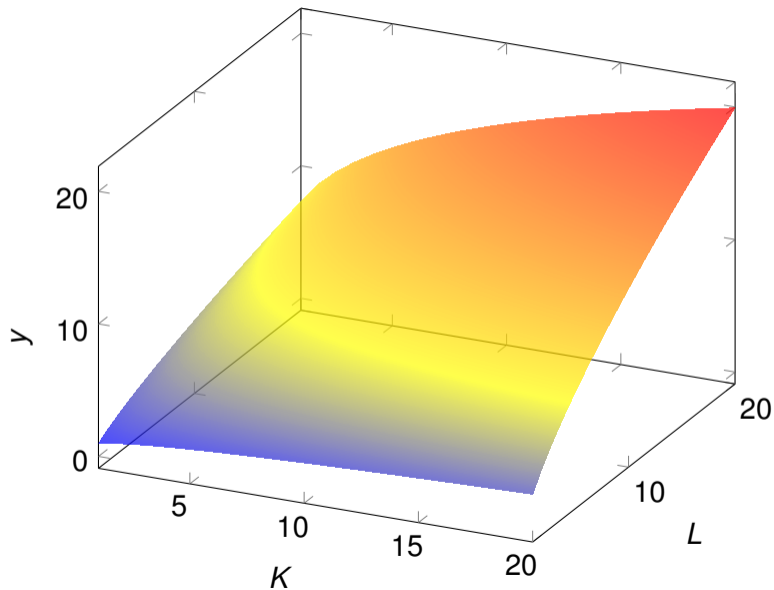
Partial derivative

- ▶ A firm uses capital, K , and labor L to produce output y .
- ▶ \hat{K} units of capital and \hat{L} units of labor produce $\hat{K}^{\frac{1}{3}}\hat{L}^{\frac{2}{3}}$ units of output
- ▶ We say that the firm has the *production function*

$$y = f(K, L) = K^{\frac{1}{3}}L^{\frac{2}{3}}.$$

- ▶ Let's draw the graph of the production function

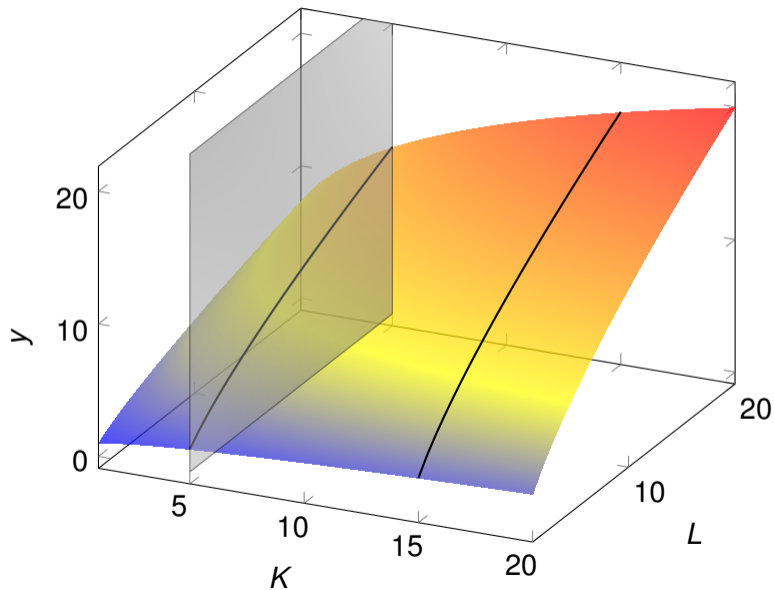
Graph for $y = f(K, L) = K^{\frac{1}{3}}L^{\frac{2}{3}}$



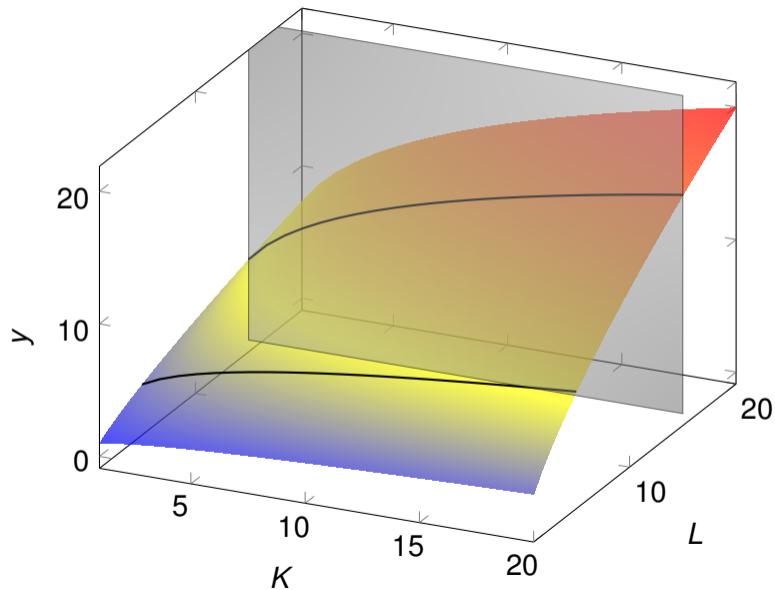
Slicing the production function

- ▶ Imagine that capital K is fixed at \hat{K} for the firm
 - ▶ Then the production function is a function of L only
- ▶ Similarly for fixed \hat{L} , production depends only on K
- ▶ We can view the slices of the production function as follows:

Graph for $y = f(\hat{K}, L) = \hat{K}^{\frac{1}{3}}L^{\frac{2}{3}}$ for $\hat{K} = 5, 15$



Graph for $y = f(K, \hat{L}) = K^{\frac{1}{3}}L^{\frac{2}{3}}$ for $\hat{L} = 5, 15$



Partial derivative

- ▶ More systematically, start with $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where we write

$$y = f(x) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

- ▶ For $j \neq i$, fix the values of the other variables at $x_j = \hat{x}_j$.
- ▶ Then we have the function

$$f(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_{i-1}, x_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \hat{x}_n).$$

- ▶ Note that $f(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_{i-1}, x_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \hat{x}_n)$ is a function of a single variable x_i
- ▶ We can then define the derivative of f with respect to x_i exactly as before around the point $\hat{x} = (\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_n)$.

Partial derivative

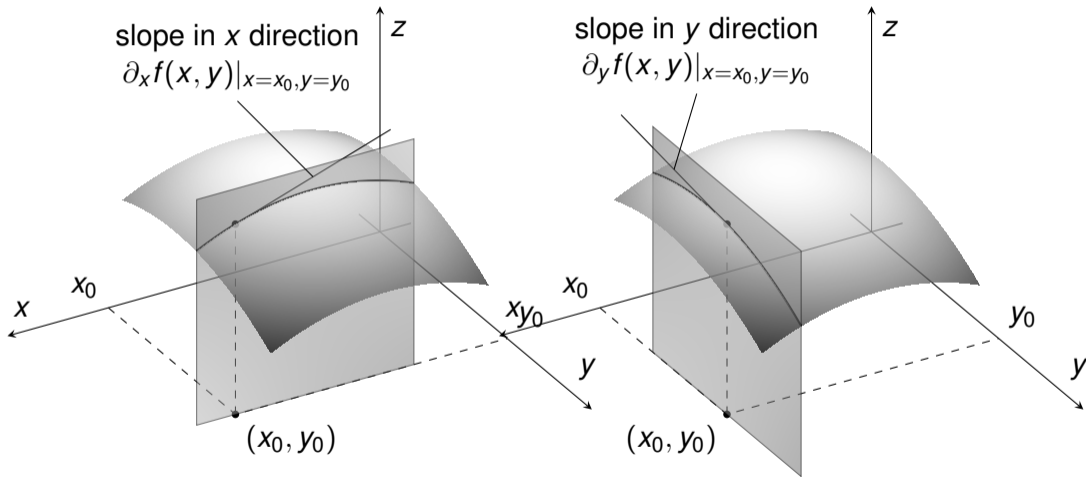
- ▶ Define the *partial derivative* of f with respect to x_i at \hat{x} as the derivative of $f(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_{i-1}, x_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \hat{x}_n)$ at \hat{x} :

$$\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \hat{x}_i} \frac{f(\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2, \dots, \hat{x}_{i-1}, x_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \hat{x}_n) - f(\hat{x})}{x_i - \hat{x}_i}.$$

- ▶ Since we have defined the partial derivative as the derivative of $f(\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_{i-1}, x_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}, \dots, \hat{x}_n)$, all the rules for computing derivatives are valid for partial derivatives too
- ▶ For example, we have that if $\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_i} > 0$, then f is strictly increasing in variable x_i near point \hat{x} .
- ▶ Let's compute the partial derivative with respect to L at $(\hat{K}, \hat{L}) = (5, 10)$.

$$\frac{\partial f(\hat{K}, \hat{L})}{\partial L} = \frac{2}{3} 5^{\frac{1}{3}} 10^{-\frac{1}{3}} = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 0.53.$$

Partial derivatives for $z = f(x, y)$



The derivative of a multivariate real-valued function

- ▶ We can also write:

$$\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_j} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\hat{x} + h\mathbf{e}_j) - f(\hat{x})}{h},$$

- ▶ Here \mathbf{e}_j is the j^{th} unit vector and $h = x_j - \hat{x}_j$.
- ▶ How to define the derivative of a multivariate function f at \hat{x} ? We could try with something along the lines:

$$Df(\hat{x}) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \hat{x}} \frac{f(x) - f(\hat{x})}{x - \hat{x}}.$$

- ▶ This is nonsense since on the right hand side, we have a real number divided by a vector and this is not defined.

The derivative of a multivariate real-valued function

- ▶ How about finding a linear function at \hat{x} to approximate the non-linear function f ?
- ▶ From this point of view, we could say that f has a derivative at \hat{x} if there exists a linear function $Df(\hat{x})$ such that for small $\Delta x = (\Delta x_1, \dots, \Delta x_n)$:

$$f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) = Df(\hat{x}) \Delta x$$

The derivative of a multivariate real-valued function

- ▶ Approximation for multivariate functions
 - ▶ How to make the above statement mathematically precise?
 - ▶ We say that a vector $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is small if $\|y\| := \sqrt{\sum_i^n y_i^2}$ is small.
 - ▶ In particular, if $\|y\| < \varepsilon$, then $y_i < \varepsilon$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.
 - ▶ Notice that by the Pythagorean theorem, $\|y\|$ measures the distance of y from the origin. This is also called the norm of vector y .
- ▶ The exact mathematical formulation for the statement above is thus the following: $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$\frac{|f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) - Df(\hat{x}) \Delta x|}{\|\Delta x\|} < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } \|\Delta x\| < \delta.$$

- ▶ From now on, this is the formal mathematical meaning for our statements that assert equality of two objects whenever some quantity is small.

The derivative of a multivariate real-valued function

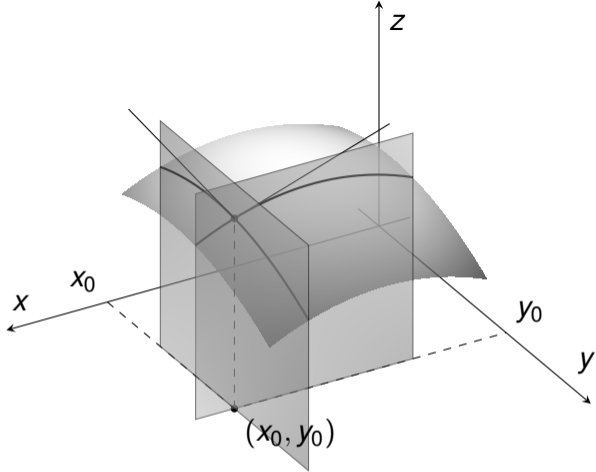
- ▶ Linear functions from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R} are given by an inner product with a vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- ▶ In other words, $Df(\hat{x})$ is a row vector.
- ▶ Since $Df(\hat{x})$ is defined as a linear function, it is completely determined by its values for unit vectors.
- ▶ This means that we can write the derivative as:

$$Df(\hat{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_n} \right).$$

The derivative of a multivariate real-valued function

- ▶ One can also show that if all partial derivatives of f exist and if they are continuous in \hat{x} at \hat{x} , then f has a derivative at \hat{x} .
- ▶ The following alternative way of denoting the partial derivative of f at \hat{x} is often used:

$$\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_i} = f_{x_i}(\hat{x})$$



The gradient

- ▶ Sometimes one needs the column vector of partial derivatives at \hat{x} .
- ▶ It is called the gradient of f at \hat{x} and denoted by:

$$\nabla f(\hat{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} f_{x_1}(\hat{x}) \\ \vdots \\ f_{x_n}(\hat{x}) \end{pmatrix} = Df(\hat{x})^\top.$$

The gradient

- ▶ The gradient can be given a geometric interpretation as the direction of fastest growth of f at \hat{x} .
- ▶ We can ask for the direction Δx , that achieves the biggest change in the value of f .

$$f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) = Df(\hat{x}) \cdot \Delta x,$$

- ▶ The quantity $Df(\hat{x}) \cdot \Delta x$ is sometimes called the directional derivative of f at \hat{x} in direction Δx .
- ▶ By the geometric interpretation of dot product, you will recall from high school that for fixed length vectors, the dot product is maximized when the vectors are parallel:

$$\Delta x = \nabla f(\hat{x}).$$

- ▶ Gradient at \hat{x} gives the direction of steepest increase for the value of f at \hat{x} .

Level curves

- ▶ In what direction is the value of a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ constant near a point \hat{x} ?
- ▶ The directional derivative should be zero:

$$f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) = Df(\hat{x})\Delta x.$$

- ▶ Therefore for small Δx ,

$$f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) = 0 \text{ if } \nabla f(\hat{x}) \cdot \Delta x = 0.$$

- ▶ In other words, the value of the function does not change in the directions that are orthogonal to the gradient.
- ▶ Can you relate this to the slope of indifference curves? We will cover this in the next lecture.

The derivative of a vector-valued function

- ▶ A vector valued function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ can be written as a vector of real valued multivariate functions:

$$y = f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(x) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix},$$

where for each i ,

$$f_i(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

- ▶ Recall that for real-valued, f has a derivative at \hat{x} if there is a linear function $Df(\hat{x})$ such that for small Δx ,

$$f(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f(\hat{x}) = Df(\hat{x}) \cdot \Delta x.$$

- ▶ Now we want to apply the same definition to all component functions of f .

The derivative of a vector-valued function

- ▶ If f has a derivative at \hat{x} , the results in the previous section imply that:

$$f_i(\hat{x} + \Delta x) - f_i(\hat{x}) = Df_i(\hat{x}) \cdot \Delta x.$$

- ▶ Then we can write the derivative of f at \hat{x} as:

$$Df(\hat{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} Df_1(\hat{x}) \\ \vdots \\ Df_m(\hat{x}) \end{pmatrix}.$$

In other words,

$$Df(\hat{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(\hat{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(\hat{x})}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m(\hat{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m(\hat{x})}{\partial x_n} \end{pmatrix}.$$

The derivative of a vector-valued function

- ▶ Again, it can be shown that when all the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_m(\hat{x})}{\partial x_n}$ exist and are continuous in \hat{x} , then the derivative $Df(\hat{x})$ exists.
- ▶ Since all rules for computing derivatives are valid for computing partial derivatives, many rules have multidimensional generalizations.
- ▶ In particular, the chain rule remains valid.
- ▶ If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^k$, are both differentiable at \hat{x} and $f(\hat{x})$ respectively, then the function $h(x) := g(f(x))$ is differentiable at \hat{x} and

$$Dh(\hat{x}) = Dg(f(\hat{x}))Df(\hat{x}).$$

- ▶ Write out the sum in terms of partial derivatives to see the total effect of a change in x_i on a $z_j = g_j(f_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, f_m(x_1, \dots, x_n))$.

Example: Euler's theorem on linearly homogenous functions

Recall that a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called *linearly homogenous* or *homogenous of degree 1* if for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$f(\lambda x) = \lambda f(x).$$

Linear homogeneity is often assumed for production functions.

Proposition

If $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is linearly homogenous, then

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i}.$$

Example: Euler's theorem on linearly homogenous functions

Proof.

Consider the two sides in the definition of linear homogeneity as functions of λ and take derivatives with respect to λ . The derivative of the right-hand side is $f(x)$. Denote the left-hand side by $h(\lambda)$. Then for fixed x ,

$$h(\lambda) = f(g(\lambda)), g(\lambda) = \lambda x.$$

Notice that $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Dg(\lambda) = x$. Since $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $Df(x) = (\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n})$, and the claim follows by chain rule and evaluating the derivative at $\lambda = 1$ since

$$Dh(\lambda) = Df(\lambda x)Dg(\lambda) = \left(\frac{\partial f(\lambda x)}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(\lambda x)}{\partial x_n}\right) \cdot x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \frac{\partial f(\lambda x)}{x_i}.$$

This is a very useful result for the analysis of firms and consumers. □

Applications: unconstrained optimization in \mathbb{R}^n

- ▶ A real-valued function $f(x)$ has a maximum at \hat{x} if

$$f(y) \leq f(\hat{x}) \text{ for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- ▶ Since

$$y = \hat{x} + (y - \hat{x}),$$

we can write:

$$f(\hat{x} + (y - \hat{x})) - f(\hat{x}) \leq 0.$$

- ▶ For $\|y - \hat{x}\|$ small, we have

$$f(\hat{x} + (y - \hat{x})) - f(\hat{x}) = Df(\hat{x}) \cdot (y - \hat{x}).$$

- ▶ If \hat{x} is a maximum, then

$$Df(\hat{x}) \cdot (y - \hat{x}) \leq 0.$$

- ▶ Since y is arbitrary, we get a necessary condition for the optimum:

$$Df(\hat{x}) = 0,$$

or

$$\frac{\partial f(\hat{x})}{\partial x_i} = 0 \text{ for all } i.$$

- ▶ We will soon see examples of unconstrained optimization.

Application: comparative statics

- ▶ Assume that the endogenous variables $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and exogenous variables $x \in \mathbb{R}^k$ satisfy the equations

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(y, x) &= 0, \\ &\vdots \\ f_n(y, x) &= 0, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

at point (\hat{y}, \hat{x}) .

- ▶ How do small changes in the exogenous variables affect the endogenous variables?
- ▶ Tool: Implicit function theorem. This is the main topic in the next few lectures. We are interested in two questions: i) Do solutions $(y(x), x)$ to 1 exist for x near \hat{x} (i.e. $\|x - \hat{x}\|$ small)? ii) How can we characterize

$$\begin{aligned} & y_1(x_1, \dots, x_k), \\ & \quad \vdots \\ & y_n(x_1, \dots, x_k). \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ To answer both of these questions, we must consider the derivative of f .

Computing the derivative

1. Compute at $(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (1, 2, 1)$ the derivative of the following function:

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1 \ln x_2 + \sqrt{x_2 x_3}.$$

- ▶ Real-valued function f : its derivative is the row vector of its partial derivatives at an arbitrary point $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$:

$$\begin{aligned} Df(x) &= \left(\frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial f(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{\partial x_3} \right) \\ &= \left(\ln x_2, \frac{x_1}{x_2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^{-\frac{1}{2}} x_3^{\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{2} x_2^{\frac{1}{2}} x_3^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Evaluating at $(1, 2, 1)$

$$Df(1, 2, 1) = \left(\ln 2, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \right).$$

2. Consider the function

$$f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2,$$

where

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(x, y, z) \\ f_2(x, y, z) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^2y + yz \\ \frac{y-z}{x} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Our task is to compute the derivative of f at $(x, y, z) = (1, 1, 1)$.
- ▶ Form the derivative of f as a matrix of partial derivatives at an arbitrary $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(x, y, z)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_1(x, y, z)}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f_1(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial f_2(x, y, z)}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2(x, y, z)}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f_2(x, y, z)}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2xy & x^2 + z & y \\ -\frac{y-z}{x^2} & \frac{1}{x} & -\frac{1}{x} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Evaluate the derivative at $(1, 1, 1)$:

$$Df(1, 1, 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

3. The CES utility function

$$u(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}}.$$

- ▶ Compute the partial derivatives at $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$.

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i}(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \frac{1}{\rho} (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}-1} \rho x_i^{\rho-1} = x_i^{\rho-1} (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}-1}.$$

- ▶ The gradient at x is then:

$$\nabla u(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^{\rho-1} (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}-1} \\ x_2^{\rho-1} (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}-1} \\ x_3^{\rho-1} (x_1^\rho + x_2^\rho + x_3^\rho)^{\frac{1}{\rho}-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Can you see the chain rule at work here?