

**ECON3120/4120 Mathematics 2, spring 2004****Problem solutions for seminar no. 2, 2–6 February 2004**

(For practical reasons some of the solutions may include problem parts that were not on the problem list for the seminar.)

**EMEA, 6.11.10 (= MA I, 5.11.8)**

In these problems we can use logarithmic differentiation. Alternatively we can write the functions in the form  $f(x) = e^{g(x)}$  and then use the fact that

$$f'(x) = e^{g(x)}g'(x) = f(x)g'(x).$$

(a) Let  $f(x) = (2x)^x$ . Then  $\ln f(x) = x \ln(2x)$ , so

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln(2x)) = 1 \cdot \ln(2x) + x \cdot \frac{1}{2x} \cdot 2 = \ln(2x) + 1.$$

Hence,

$$f'(x) = f(x)(\ln(2x) + 1) = (2x)^x(\ln x + \ln 2 + 1).$$

Alternatively:  $f(x) = e^{\ln f(x)} = e^{x \ln(2x)}$  yields

$$f'(x) = e^{x \ln(2x)} \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln(2x)) = (2x)^x(\ln(2x) + 1) = (2x)^x(\ln x + \ln 2 + 1).$$

(b) We have  $f(x) = x^{\sqrt{x}} = (e^{\ln x})^{\sqrt{x}} = e^{\sqrt{x} \ln x}$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} e^{\sqrt{x} \ln x} = e^{\sqrt{x} \ln x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(\sqrt{x} \ln x) \\ &= x^{\sqrt{x}} \left( \frac{\ln x}{2\sqrt{x}} + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} \right) = x^{\sqrt{x}} \left( \frac{\ln x + 2}{2\sqrt{x}} \right). \end{aligned}$$

With logarithmic differentiation we do as follows:  $\ln f(x) = \sqrt{x} \ln x$ , and therefore

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{d}{dx} \ln f(x) = \left( \frac{\ln x}{2\sqrt{x}} + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} \right), \quad \text{etc.}$$

(c) With  $f(x) = (\sqrt{x})^x$  we get  $\ln f(x) = x \ln \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2}x \ln x$ , so

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln x) = \frac{\ln x + 1}{2}$$

which gives  $f'(x) = f(x) \frac{1}{2}(\ln x + 1) = \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{x})^x(\ln x + 1)$ .

(d) If we let  $g(x) = x^{(x^x)}$ , we get  $\ln g(x) = x^x \ln x$ . To find the derivative of this function, we need the derivative of  $x^x$ . A simple calculation gives

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^x = \frac{d}{dx} e^{x \ln x} = e^{x \ln x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (x \ln x) = x^x (\ln x + 1).$$

Using logarithmic differentiation, we then find

$$\frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{d}{dx} (x^x \ln x) = (x^x (\ln x + 1)) \cdot \ln x + x^x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = x^x \left( (\ln x)^2 + \ln x + \frac{1}{x} \right)$$

and consequently

$$g'(x) = x^{(x^x)} \cdot x^x \left( (\ln x)^2 + \ln x + \frac{1}{x} \right) = x^{(x^x+x)} \left( (\ln x)^2 + \ln x + \frac{1}{x} \right).$$

**EMEA, 7.9.1 (= MA I, 6.6.1)**

(a) Let  $f(x) = x^7 - 5x^5 + x^3 - 1$ . Then  $f$  is continuous everywhere, and in particular in the closed interval  $[-1, 1]$ . Since  $f(-1) = 2 > 0$  and  $f(1) = -4 < 0$ , there must be a point  $c$  in  $(-1, 1)$  with  $f(c) = 0$ . See the intermediate value theorem, Theorem 7.9.1 on p. 255 (“Skjæringssetningen”, Theorem 6.6.1 on p. 226 in MA I).

(b) In the same way as part (a). We let  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x - 8$  and notice that  $f(-2) = -22 < 0$  and  $f(3) = 28 > 0$ .

(c) Here we let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} - 3x$  and find that  $f(0) = 1 > 0$ , whereas  $f(1) = \sqrt{2} - 3 < 0$ .

(d) The function  $f(x) = e^{x-1} - 2x$  is continuous everywhere and  $f(0) = e^{-1} > 0$ ,  $f(1) = e^0 - 2 = -1 < 0$ , so the intermediate value theorem ensures that there is a zero of  $f$  in  $(0, 1)$ .

**EMEA, 10.2.2 (= MA I, 8.2.2)**

(a) (i)  $1000 \cdot 1.05^{10} = 1628.8946 \approx 1629$

(ii)  $1000 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{0.05}{12}\right)^{12 \cdot 10} = 1647.0095 \approx 1647$

(iii)  $1000 \cdot e^{0.05 \cdot 10} = 1000e^{0.5} = 1648.7213 \approx 1649$

(b) (i)  $1000 \cdot 1.05^{50} = 11467.400 \approx 11467$

(ii)  $1000 \cdot \left(1 + \frac{0.05}{12}\right)^{12 \cdot 50} = 12119.383 \approx 12119$

(iii)  $1000 \cdot e^{0.05 \cdot 50} = 1000e^{2.5} = 12182.494 \approx 12182$

### Exam problem 22

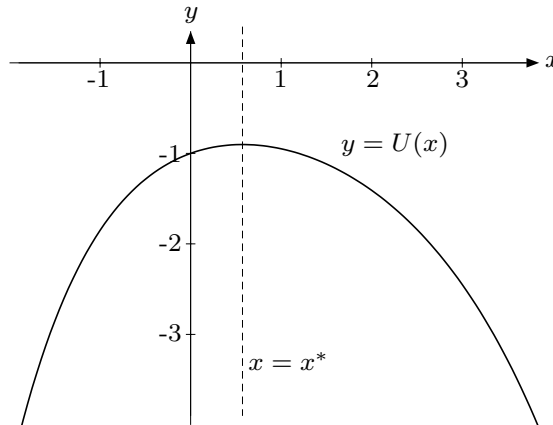
(a)  $U'(x) = aAe^{-ax} - bBe^{bx}$ ,  $U''(x) = -a^2Ae^{-ax} - b^2Be^{bx}$ .

The function  $U$  is differentiable everywhere, so any extreme point must be a stationary point.

$$\begin{aligned}U'(x) = 0 &\iff bBe^{bx} = aAe^{-ax} \iff \ln(bBe^{bx}) = \ln(aAe^{-ax}) \\ &\iff \ln(bB) + bx = \ln(aA) - ax \\ &\iff (a+b)x = \ln(aA) - \ln(bB) = \ln\left(\frac{aA}{bB}\right) \\ &\iff x = \frac{1}{a+b} \ln\left(\frac{aA}{bB}\right) = x^*.\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $x^*$  is the only stationary point of  $U$ . Moreover,  $U''(x) < 0$  for all  $x$ , so  $U'(x)$  is strictly decreasing everywhere. It follows that  $U'(x) > 0$  for  $x < x^*$  and  $U'(x) < 0$  for  $x > x^*$ . By the first-derivative test,  $x^*$  is a (global) maximum point for  $U$ . (See p. 273 in EMEA, p. 292 in MA I.)

(b) It was shown in (a) that  $U''(x) < 0$  for all  $x$ . Hence  $U$  is concave everywhere. The diagram shows the graph of  $U$  together with the straight line  $x = x^*$  when  $A = 0.6$ ,  $B = 0.4$ ,  $a = 1$ ,  $b = 0.4$ , and  $x^* = (\ln 2.5)/1.6 \approx 0.5727$ .



Exam problem 22

(c) The standard rules for powers yield

$$U(x) = -Ae^{-ax} - Be^{bx} = -Ae^{-ax^*} e^{-a(x-x^*)} - Be^{bx^*} e^{b(x-x^*)}.$$

It remains to find a  $C$  such that

$$(1) \quad Ae^{-ax^*} = C/a \quad \text{and} \quad (2) \quad Be^{bx^*} = C/b.$$

Equation (1) gives  $C = aAe^{-ax^*}$ . We know from part (a) that  $U'(x^*) = 0$ , and so  $aAe^{-ax^*} = bBe^{bx^*}$ . Hence  $C/b = aAe^{-ax^*}/b = Be^{bx^*}$ , i.e. equation (2) is also satisfied.

The graph of  $U$  is symmetric about the vertical line  $x = x^*$  if and only if  $U(x^* + t) = U(x^* - t)$  for all  $t$ . From the formula we have just shown, it follows that if  $a = b$ , then

$$U(x^* + t) = -\frac{C}{a}e^{-at} - \frac{C}{b}e^{bt} = -\frac{C}{a}(e^{-at} + e^{at}),$$

and so  $U(x^* + t) = U(x^* + (-t)) = U(x^* - t)$ .

### Exam problem 32

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad f'(x) &= \frac{(xe^{2x})' \cdot (x+1) - xe^{2x} \cdot (x+1)'}{(x+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{e^{2x}(1+2x)(x+1) - xe^{2x}}{(x+1)^2} = \frac{e^{2x}(2x^2 + 2x + 1)}{(x+1)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

The domain of  $f$  is  $D_f = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\} = (-\infty, -1) \cup (-1, \infty)$ . The function is differentiable throughout its domain, so any local extreme points must be stationary points of  $f$ . The equation  $2x^2 + 2x + 1 = 0$  has no real roots, and therefore  $f$  has no local extreme points. (If we try the formula for solving quadratic equations, we get  $x = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{4-8}}{4}$ .)

We also have  $2x^2 + 2x + 1 = x^2 + (x+1)^2 > 0$  for all  $x$ , so  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \neq -1$ . This shows that  $f$  is strictly increasing in each of the intervals  $(-\infty, -1)$  and  $(-1, \infty)$ .

(b) It is clear that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} xe^{2x} = -e^{-2} < 0$ . When investigating the right-hand limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow (-1)^+} f(x)$ , we need to determine what happens when  $x$  is close to but greater than  $-1$ . In particular,  $x+1$  will then be positive and close to 0. It follows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow (-1)^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow (-1)^+} \frac{xe^{2x}}{x+1} = -\infty.$$

In a similar fashion we find that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow (-1)^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow (-1)^-} \frac{xe^{2x}}{x+1} = \infty,$$

since  $x+1$  is negative all the time as  $x$  tends to  $-1$  from the left.

Further,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left( \frac{x}{x+1} \cdot e^{2x} \right) = 1 \cdot 0 = 0$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{x}{x+1} \cdot e^{2x} \right) = \infty,$$

since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x/(x+1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x/(x+1) = 1$ .

(c) The second derivative of  $f$  is

$$\begin{aligned} f''(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{e^{2x}(2x^2 + 2x + 1)}{(x+1)^2} \right) \\ &= \frac{[2e^{2x}(2x^2 + 2x + 1) + e^{2x}(4x + 2)](x+1)^2 - e^{2x}(2x^2 + 2x + 1)2(x+1)}{(x+1)^4} \\ &= \dots = \frac{e^{2x}(4x^3 + 8x^2 + 8x + 2)}{(x+1)^3} = \frac{e^{2x}}{(x+1)^3} g(x), \end{aligned}$$

where  $g(x) = 4x^3 + 8x^2 + 8x + 2$ . Then  $f''(x) = 0 \iff g(x) = 0$ .

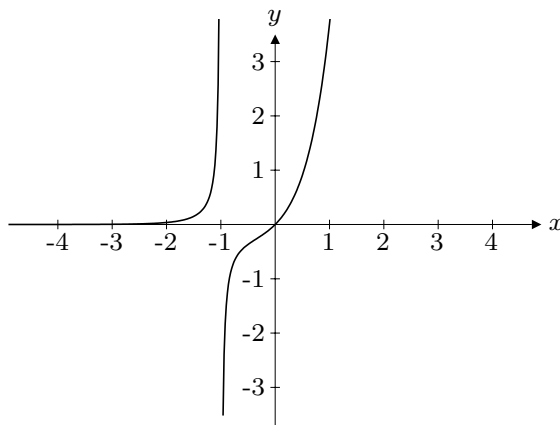
Since  $g(-\frac{1}{2}) = -\frac{1}{2} < 0$  and  $g(0) = 2 > 0$ , there is a point  $x_0$  in  $(-\frac{1}{2}, 0)$  such that  $g(x_0) = 0$ . Moreover,  $g'(x) = 12x^2 + 16x + 8 = 4x^2 + 8(x+1)^2 > 0$  for all  $x$ . This shows that  $g$  is strictly increasing over the entire real line, and therefore  $g(x) < 0$  for  $x < x_0$  and  $g(x) > 0$  for  $x > x_0$ . Hence  $x_0$  is the only zero of  $g$ .

Since  $f''(x)$  changes sign around  $x = x_0$ ,  $x_0$  must be an inflection point of  $f$ , and since  $x_0$  is the only zero of  $f''$ , there are no other inflection points.

(d) The function  $f$  is convex in intervals where  $f'' \geq 0$ , and concave in intervals where  $f'' \leq 0$ . We know that  $-1 < x_0$  and that

$$(x+1)^3 \begin{cases} < 0 & \text{if } x < -1, \\ > 0 & \text{if } x > -1, \end{cases} \quad g(x) \begin{cases} < 0 & \text{if } x < x_0, \\ > 0 & \text{if } x > x_0. \end{cases}$$

A sign diagram for  $f''(x) = e^{2x}g(x)/(x+1)^3$  then shows that  $f$  is convex over  $(-\infty, -1)$ , concave over  $(-1, x_0)$  and convex again over  $[x_0, \infty)$ .



Exam problem 32 (d). The graph of  $f(x) = \frac{xe^{2x}}{x+1}$ .