

Thinking about Exponential Growth

Math 1220 (Spring 2003)

Here are our new functions and their derivatives and anti-derivatives:

$$\ln(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt; \quad D_x(\ln(u)) = \frac{u'}{u}; \quad \int \ln(x) dx = x \ln(x) - x + c$$

$$\exp(x) = \ln^{-1}(x); \quad D_x(\exp(u)) = \exp(u) \cdot u'; \quad \int \exp(x) dx = \exp(x) + c$$

$$a^x = \exp(x \ln(a)); \quad D_x(a^u) = \ln(a) \cdot a^u \cdot u'; \quad \int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln(a)} + c$$

$$x^a = \exp(a \ln(x)); \quad D_x(u^a) = a \cdot u^{a-1} \cdot u'; \quad \int x^a dx = \frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + c$$

Try graphing:

$$2^x, e^x, 3^x, 4^x$$

on your graphing calculator. They all look quite similar.

Now try graphing:

$$x^2, x^e, x^3, x^4$$

They look not too different from the exponential functions. But they are! It is not that easy to see this visually, but if we compose these functions with \ln , then the differences become apparent. For example, compare:

$$\ln(e^x) = x, \ln(x^2), \ln(x^3), \ln(x^4)$$

Quite different! We'll evaluate limits later on to see:

$$y = e^x \text{ grows (much) faster than any power function } y = x^n$$

and

$$y = \ln(x) \text{ grows (much) more slowly than any power function } y = x^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

While we're on the subject of exponential growth, let's think about money.

Remember that if put P dollars in a bank account that gets $r\%$ per year, then after t years you will have:

- $A(1+r)^t$ dollars if interest is compounded yearly.
- $P(1 + \frac{r}{12})^{12t}$ dollars if interest is compounded monthly.
- $P(1 + \frac{r}{365})^{365t}$ dollars if interest is compounded daily.

But now what about if interest is compounded every hour, or every minute, or every second, or...

Definition: A *continuously* compounded interest rate gives:

$$P \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{r}{n})^{nt}$$

dollars after t years.

And what is this? Is it infinite? Actually, no. If we notice:

$$(1 + \frac{r}{n})^{nt} = \left((1 + \frac{r}{n})^{\frac{n}{r}} \right)^{rt}$$

then

$$P \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{r}{n})^{nt} = P \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left((1 + \frac{r}{n})^{\frac{n}{r}} \right)^{rt} = P \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{r}{n})^{\frac{n}{r}} \right)^{rt}$$

(we can bring the limit inside the power because taking powers is continuous)

So we need to figure out (setting $h = \frac{r}{n}$):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{r}{n})^{\frac{n}{r}} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + h)^{\frac{1}{h}}$$

In fact, I claim that this limit is our new number e . Here's why:

Let $f(x) = \ln(x)$, so that $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and in particular, $1 = f'(1)$. Now from the definition of the derivative, we therefore have:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 = f'(1) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+h) - \ln(1)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\ln(1+h)) \frac{1}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \ln \left((1+h)^{\frac{1}{h}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Now we can take exp of both sides, and because exp is continuous:

$$\begin{aligned} e = \exp(1) &= \exp \left(\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \ln \left((1+h)^{\frac{1}{h}} \right) \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \exp \ln \left((1+h)^{\frac{1}{h}} \right) \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1+h)^{\frac{1}{h}} \end{aligned}$$

And this is very far from being infinite!

Example: Put \$100 in the bank for 10 years at 8%

(a) If you compound yearly, you'll have: \$215.89

(b) If you compound daily, you'll have: \$222.53

(c) If you compound continuously, you'll have:

$$Pe^{rt} = 100e^{(.08)(10)} = \$222.55$$

Yup. Only 2 cents more than daily!

The formula for interest compounded continuously:

$$y = Pe^{rt}$$

is an example of a function “with exponential growth.” This arises naturally when we consider the following *differential equation* on a function $y = f(t)$.

Problem: Solve for $y = f(t)$ if y satisfies:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = ry$$

Solution: Separate variables and integrate:

$$\int \frac{dy}{y} = \int r dt$$

$$\ln(y) = rt + c; \quad y = \exp(\ln(y)) = \exp(rt + c) = e^c e^{rt}$$

so setting $P = e^c$ gives us back the formula for compound interest!

In general, we can solve for e^c if we are given one value of $f(t)$. This is called the “initial condition” for the differential equation.

Example: Solve for $y = f(t)$ with initial condition $f(5) = 7$ and diff eqn:

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = 2y$$

Solution: We just solved:

$$y = e^c e^{2t}, \text{ so plugging in } f(5) = 7 \text{ gives } 7 = e^c e^{10}$$

and $e^c = e^{10}/7$. So the function is:

$$f(t) = \frac{e^{10}}{7} e^{2t}$$