7 Exponential and logarithmic functions

7.1 The exponential function

Textbook: Section 4.1

A function f(x) has *exponential growth* if $\frac{f(x+1)}{f(x)}$ is a constant k > 1, not depending on x. This means that for any x, if you increase x by 1, you multiply the y-value f(x) by k to get the new value, f(x+1).

For example, $y = 2^x$ is has exponential growth, with k = 2.

Example 7.1.1. The population P(t) of a culture of bacteria *t* hours after the start of an experiment is given by

$$P(t) = 1000 \cdot 1.1^t.$$

(a) What is the initial population?

(b) Explain why P(t) has exponential growth by showing that the population increases by 10% every hour.

(c) A different sample of bacteria has an initial population of 500 and increases by 25% every hour. Suggest a function to model this population.

Example 7.1.2. The sketch below shows the graphs of $y = a^x$ for a = 1.5 and a = 3. Add the graph of $y = 2^x$. What happens to the slope of the tangent line to each of these curves at x = 0 as *a* increases?



Definition 7.1.3. The constant *e* is the real number with the property that the graph of $y = e^x$ has a tangent line of slope 1 at x = 0. The function $y = e^x$, sometimes written $y = \exp(x)$, is called *the exponential function*.

From the discussion above, we see that e is between 2 and 3. In fact,

$$e=2.7182818\ldots$$

Your calculator will tell you this if you ask it to compute exp(1) or e^1 .

The laws of exponents we discussed on page 43 apply in particular to the function $f(x) = e^x$:

Theorem 7.1.4 (Power laws for e^x). For any real numbers x and y,

1. $e^{x} \cdot e^{y} = e^{x+y}$ and $\frac{e^{x}}{e^{y}} = e^{x-y}$ 2. $(e^{x})^{y} = e^{xy}$

Example 7.1.5. Simplify $e^{x}(e^{-x})^{2}$.

Example 7.1.6. Simplify $e^2 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{(e^{3x})^5}{e^{-x}}}$.

Theorem 7.1.7 (The derivative of e^x). $\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$.

By the chain rule, we also have:

Theorem 7.1.8 (The derivative of e^u). If u depends on x, then $\frac{d}{dx}(e^u) = e^u \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$.

Example 7.1.9. Find the derivatives of:

(i)
$$e^{-2x}$$
 (ii) $(e^{\sin(x)})^2$ (iii) $\cos(e^x)$ (iv) $e^{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$.

Theorem 7.1.10 (The antiderivative of e^x).

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C.$$

Example 7.1.11. Find $\int_0^2 e^x dx$.

Example 7.1.12. What is $\int e^{-2x} dx$?

Example 7.1.13. What is $\int xe^{-x^2} dx$?

Example 7.1.14. What is $\int x^3 e^{-x^2} dx$?

7.2 Logarithms

Textbook: Section 4.2

Definition 7.2.1. If x > 0 then the *natural logarithm* of x is the real number y with $e^y = x$. We write $y = \ln(x)$ or $y = \ln x$. We have

 $y = \ln(x) \iff e^y = x$ for any real number y and any x > 0.

This defines a function $y = \ln(x)$ which is defined for x > 0, and is undefined for $x \le 0$.

Example 7.2.2. Given the graph of $y = e^x$ on the left, swap x and y to get the graph of $x = \ln(x)$. What are $\ln(1)$ and $\ln(2)$? What are $\ln(-1)$ and $\ln(0)$?



Example 7.2.3. Simplify $e^{\ln(x)}$ and $e^{2\ln(x)}$.

Example 7.2.4. Simplify $\ln(e^x)$ and $\ln(e^{-3x^2} \cdot e^4)$.

Example 7.2.5. For which real numbers x is the function $f(x) = 2 + \frac{1}{2}\ln(3-x)$ defined? What are f(6) and f(-6)?

Using the properties of e^x discussed in the previous section, we can deduce some properties of $\ln(x)$.

Theorem 7.2.6 (Properties of ln(x)). For any positive numbers a and b and any real number k,

1.
$$\ln(ab) = \ln(a) + \ln(b)$$
 and $\ln\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \ln(a) - \ln(b)$

$$2. \ \ln(a^k) = k \cdot \ln(a)$$

- 3. $\ln(e^k) = k$ (so, for example, $\ln(e) = \ln(e^1) = 1$ and $\ln(1) = \ln(e^0) = 0$).
- 4. $e^{\ln(a)} = a$

Why is ln(x) an important function important for scientists?

One reason ln(x) is important is that it lets you solve equations where the unknown variable is in a power, such as $2^x = 10$.

Here is another reason you might be familiar with. In many situations, one quantity might be directly proportional to a power of another. So if *x* and *y* are the quantities of interest, then you expect that $y = cx^m$ for some power *m* and a positive constant *c*. To find the values of the constants *c* and *m*, you could imagine doing an experiment to get some values for *x*, *y*. Then take ln of all of your values: if we write $Y = \ln(y)$ and $X = \ln(x)$ then we have

$$y = kx^s \implies \ln(y) = \ln(kx^s) = \ln(c) + m\ln(x) \implies Y = mX + C$$

where $C = \ln(c)$. So if you plot *Y* against *X*, you expect to get a straight line with slope *m* and *Y*-intercept *C*. By measuring *m* and *C* (and using $c = e^{C}$) you have found the constants in the formula you're really interested in, $y = cx^{m}$.

This is why "log-log" plots are so useful.

Example 7.2.7. Solve the equation $2^x = 10$.

Example 7.2.8. Solve the equation $\ln(5x^{-2/3}) = \ln(25)$.

If $y = \ln(x)$ then $e^y = x$, so differentiating both sides of this equation with respect to x using the chain rule gives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^y) =$$
 so $\frac{dy}{dx} =$

Theorem 7.2.9 (The derivative of ln(x)).

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x} \quad for \ x > 0.$$

Applying the chain rule, we deduce:

Theorem 7.2.10. If u depends on x, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(u)) = \frac{1}{u} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}.$$

Example 7.2.11. Find the derivatives of $\ln(4x)$ and $\ln(\sqrt{x^2+1})$.

Example 7.2.12. (i) Let *a* be a positive constant with $a \neq 1$. Use the equation $a = e^{\ln(a)}$ to write a^x in terms of e^x , and hence find the derivative $\frac{d}{dx}(a^x)$.

(ii) What is the slope of the tangent line to the curve $y = 2^x$ at x = 0?

7.3 The uninhibited growth model $\frac{dP}{dt} = kP$

Textbook: Section 4.3

Let P = P(t) be the size of a population at time *t*. If the population growth rate is directly proportional to the population size, then there is a constant k > 0 with

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = kP.$$

[Another way to write this is P'(t) = kP(t).]

Theorem 7.3.1 (The solutions to $\frac{dy}{dx} = ky$). Let k be any real constant. The functions y = y(x) which satisfy

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

are precisely the functions which can be written

$$y = ce^{kx}$$

where c is a constant. In fact, c is the value of y at x = 0.

The equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = ky$ is called a *differential equation* since it involves the derivative of a function. The theorem tells us all the functions y = y(x) which satisfy the differential equation. These functions are the *solutions* to this differential equation.

Example 7.3.2. Find a function f(x) so that f'(x) = 4f(x) and f(0) = 25.

Example 7.3.3. Show that the function $P(t) = 1000 \times 1.1^t$ from Example 7.1.1 can be rewritten in the form $P(t) = ce^{kt}$ for some constants *c* and *k*, and write down a differential equation which *P* satisfies.

Returning to our population model: $\frac{dP}{dt} = kP$ for some constant k > 0. The theorem tells us that

$$P(t) = P_0 e^{kt}$$

for some constant P_0 .

We say that $P(t) = P_0 e^{kt}$ grows exponentially.

Definition 7.3.4. Suppose that P(t) grows exponentially with $P(t) = P_0 e^{kt}$ for some constants P_0 and k > 0. The generation time, or doubling time T is the time it takes P to double in size from its initial value P_0 .

In summary:

•
$$T = \frac{\ln(2)}{k}$$

• whenever *t* increases by the generation time *T*, the value of *P*(*t*) doubles.

Example 7.3.5. If $P(t) = 10 \cdot e^{5t}$, what is the generation time?

Example 7.3.6. A population of size P(t) grows exponentially from an initial population of 200. If the population doubles every 7 days, find an equation for P(t).

Example 7.3.7. A rabbit population P(t) grows according to

$$P(t) = 400 \times 1.03^{2t}$$

where t is the time, in months, since the population was first measured. Find the doubling time for this population, and find the population growth rate after one month.

7.4 Exponential decay

Textbook: Section 4.4

Radioactive isotopes decay exponentially. If N(t) is the quantity of a given radioactive isotope in a sample, then the rate of decay, $-\frac{dN}{dt}$, is directly proportional to N(t). So there is a constant k > 0 with

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -kN.$$

By Theorem 7.3.1, we have $N(t) = N_0 e^{-kt}$ for some constant N_0 .

Definition 7.4.1. Suppose that N = N(t) decays exponentially according to $N(t) = N_0 e^{-kt}$ for some constant k > 0. The *half life* T is the time it takes N to halve in size from its initial value N_0 .

Just as for the doubling time, it's easy to see that:

•
$$T = \frac{\ln(2)}{k}$$

• whenever *t* increases by the half life *T*, the value of *N*(*t*) halves.

Example 7.4.2. (i) If $N(t) = 8 \times 10^{12} \times e^{-0.003t}$ where t is time in days, what is the half life?

(ii) When is N(t) equal to 2×10^{12} ?

(iii) How long will it take before N(t) is less than 10^6 ?

Example 7.4.3. The radioactive element Carbon-14 has a half-life of 5750 years. The amount N(t) of Carbon-14 in a sample at time t, measured in years, decays according to the differential equation

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -kN$$

where *k* is some positive constant.

(i) State an equation for N(t), and sketch a graph showing the behaviour of N(t) as *t* increases. Mark the half-life of N(t) on your sketch.

(ii) Which of the following three statements is true, and which is false? Explain your answers.

- 1. The quantity of Carbon-14 in a sample is directly proportional to 1/t.
- 2. The rate of decay of Carbon-14 in a sample is directly proportional to N(t).
- 3. After $2 \times 5750 = 11,500$ years, all of the Carbon-14 in a sample will have decayed.
- (iii) Compute the age of a sample which has lost 60% of its Carbon-14.