

# Mean Value, Taylor, and all that

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*Careful: Not proofread!*

# Derivative

Recall the definition of the derivative of a function  $f$  at a point  $p$ :

$$f'(p) = \lim_{w \rightarrow p} \frac{f(w) - f(p)}{w - p} \quad (1)$$

# Derivative

Thus, to say that

$$f'(p) = 3$$

means that if we take any neighborhood  $U$  of 3, say the interval  $(1, 5)$ , then the ratio

$$\frac{f(w) - f(p)}{w - p}$$

falls inside  $U$  when  $w$  is close enough to  $p$ , i.e. in some neighborhood of  $p$ . (Of course, we can't let  $w$  be equal to  $p$ , because of the  $w - p$  in the denominator.)

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In particular,

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## Positive Derivative and Increasing behavior

Looking back at the argument, we see that the only thing about the value 3 for  $f'(p)$  which made it all work is that it is  $> 0$ .

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## Local Maxima and Minima

A function  $f$  is said to have a *local maximum* at a point  $p$  if there is a neighborhood  $U$  of  $p$  such that that for all  $x \in U$  in the domain of  $f$ , the value  $f(x)$  is  $\geq f(p)$ .

A function  $f$  is said to have a *local minimum* at a point  $p$  if there is a neighborhood  $U$  of  $p$  such that that for all  $x \in U$  in the domain of  $f$ , the value  $f(x)$  is  $\leq f(p)$ .

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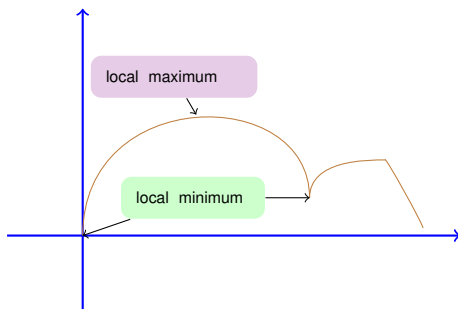


Figure: Local Maxima and Minima

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Note that we are requiring that  $f$  be defined in a neighborhood of  $p$ , and so on *both sides* of  $p$ .

# Proof of the Local Max/Min Theorem

Proof Suppose  $f'(p)$  exists but is not 0. Then  $f'(p)$  is either  $> 0$  or  $< 0$ .

If  $f'(p) > 0$  then we know that to the right of  $p$ , but close to  $p$ , the values of  $f$  are  $>$  than  $f(p)$ ,

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# Rolle's Theorem

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*Consider a function*

$$f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

*where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a < b$ . Suppose*

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- *$f$  is continuous function*
- *$f$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$*
- *$f(a) = f(b)$ .*

*Then there is a point  $c$  strictly between  $a$  and  $b$  where the derivative of  $f$  is 0:*

$$f'(c) = 0 \text{ for some } c \in (a, b).$$

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# Useful consequence Rolle's Theorem

Suppose now that  $f$  and  $g$  are functions on a compact interval  $[a, b]$ , and are differentiable in  $(a, b)$ .

Next suppose also that  $f$  and  $g$  have the same value at  $a$ , and also the same value at  $b$ :

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To see this simply apply Rolle's theorem to the function  $h = f - g$ .

# Mean Value Theorem

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f$  is continuous on a compact interval  $[a, b]$  and differentiable in  $(a, b)$ . Then there is a point  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  where*

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

# Proof of Mean Value Theorem

Proof Compare  $f$  with the straight line function  $L$  which agrees with  $f$  at the points  $a$  and  $b$ :

$$L(a) = f(a), \quad L(b) = f(b),$$

and the slope of  $L$  is constant given by

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As consequence of Rolle's theorem we see that there is a point  $c \in (a, b)$  where the derivatives of  $f$  and  $L$  agree. But the derivative of  $L$  at any point is the constant value given above.



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Hence:

$$f'(c) = L'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

# Polynomials: coefficients and derivatives at 0

Consider a polynomial

$$P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3$$

Observe that

$$P'(x) = a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2$$

$$P^{(2)}(x) = 2a_2 + 3 * 2a_3x$$

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Observe now that if we put in  $x = 0$  we can recover the values of  $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3$ :

$$a_0 = P(0)$$

$$a_1 = P'(0)$$

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{2!} P^{(2)}(0)$$

$$a_3 = \frac{1}{3!} P^{(3)}(0) \quad \text{of course, } P^{(3)}(x) \text{ is constant for all } x.$$

# Polynomials with specified derivatives derivatives at 0

In general, we have for any polynomial of degree  $n$ :

$$P(x) = P(0) + P'(0)x + \frac{P^{(2)}(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{P^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n \quad (2)$$

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Moreover, *the  $n$ -th derivative of this polynomial is a constant.*

# Polynomials with specified derivatives derivatives at 0

Exercise. Find a polynomial function  $P$  for which

$$P(0) = 1, \quad P'(0) = 1, \quad P''(0) = -2, \quad P^{(3)}(0) = 12$$

*Solution:* The simplest choice is

$$1 + 1 \cdot x + \frac{-2}{2!}x^2 + \frac{12}{3!}x^3$$

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We could also take, for instance,

$$1 + 1 \cdot x + \frac{-2}{2!}x^2 + \frac{12}{3!}x^3 + \frac{K}{4!}x^4,$$

where  $K$  is any constant.

## Polynomials with specifications

Exercise. Find a polynomial function  $P$  for which

$$P(0) = -4, \quad P'(0) = 3, \quad P''(0) = -4, \quad P^{(3)}(0) = 6$$

and also

$$P(1) = 5$$

*Solution:* To satisfy the conditions at 0 we can take the polynomial

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where  $K$  is any constant.

Now tune the constant  $K$  to the requirement that  $P(1)$  be 5, i.e. choose  $K$  in such a way that

$$5 = -4 + 3 * 1 + \frac{-4}{2!}1^2 + \frac{6}{3!}1^3 + \frac{K}{4!}1^4,$$

which we can solve for  $K$ .

# Taylor Polynomial of a Function

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We know that we can choose a polynomial function  $P$  whose value and derivatives at 0 up to order the 14th order match those for  $f$ :

$$P(0) = f(0), \quad P'(0) = f'(0), \quad \dots, \quad P^{(14)}(0) = f^{(14)}(0)$$

For instance, we can take

$$P(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f^{(2)}(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(14)}(0)}{14!}x^{14} + \frac{K}{15!}x^{15} \quad (3)$$

where  $K$  is any constant (could be 0 too in the simplest case).

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Since  $f(x)$  and  $P(x)$  agree at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 4$ , their derivatives agree at some point  $c_1$  strictly between 0 and 4:

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But then... $f'$  and  $P'$  agree at both 0 and  $c_1$ ,



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We can also get a description of the constant  $K$  by repeatedly applying Rolle's theorem:

Since  $f(x)$  and  $P(x)$  agree at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 4$ , their derivatives agree at some point  $c_1$  strictly between 0 and 4:

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and on and on .... until ...

# Taylor Polynomial of a Function

we have a point  $c$ , of course still between 0 and 4, where  $f^{(15)}$  and  $P^{(15)}$  agree:

$$f^{(15)}(c) = P^{(15)}(c)$$

Now if you look back at (3) to see what  $P(x)$  was, you can see that the 15th-derivative of  $P$  is the constant  $K$ :

$$P^{(15)}(x) = \frac{K}{15!} 15! x^0 = K$$

Hence,

$$K = f^{(15)}(c)$$

Thus, the constant  $K$  happens to be the 15-th derivative of  $f$  at some point  $c$  between 0 and 4.

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$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f^{(2)}(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(0)}{(n-1)!}x^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}x^n \quad (4)$$

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The main point here is the *remainder* or *error* term

$$R_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}x^n$$

when  $f$  is approximated by the *Taylor polynomial*

$$f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f^{(2)}(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(0)}{(n-1)!}x^{n-1}$$

# Analytic Functions

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Thus for such functions  $f$  we have, for  $x$  in some neighborhood of 0,

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f^{(2)}(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!}x^k \quad (5)$$

The function  $f$  for which this holds for all  $x$  in a neighborhood  $U$  of 0 is said to be *analytic* on  $U$ .

# Analytic Functions

In class, we proved that the functions  $e^x$  and  $\sin x$  are analytic, by showing that the Taylor remainder goes to 0 in each case. Polynomials are, of course, analytic, because the remainder term becomes 0 for them eventually.