## 19. Taylor Polynomials

If $f: A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ is a differentiable function, and we are given a point $P \in A$, one can use the derivative to write down the best linear approximation to $f$ at $P$. It is natural to wonder if one can do better using quadratic, or even higher degree, polynomials. We start with the one dimensional case.

Definition 19.1. Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval and let $f: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be $a \mathcal{C}^{k}$-function. Given a point $a \in I$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{a, k} f(x) & =f(a)+f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(a)}{2}(x-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{\prime \prime \prime}(a)}{3!}(x-a)^{3}+\cdots+\frac{f^{k}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^{k} \\
& =\sum_{i=0}^{k} \frac{f^{i}(a)}{i!}(x-a)^{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $P_{a, k} f(x)$ is the kth Taylor polynomial of $f$, centred at $a$. The remainder is the difference

$$
R_{a, k} f(x)=f(x)-P_{a, k} f(x)
$$

Note that we have chosen $P_{a, k} f$ so that the first $k$ derivatives of $P_{a, k} f$ at $a$ are precisely the same as those of $f$. In other words, the first $k$ derivatives at $a$ of the remainder are all zero. The remainder is a measure of how good the Taylor polynomial approximates $f(x)$ and so it is very useful to estimate $R_{a, k}(x)$.

Theorem 19.2 (Taylor's Theorem with remainder). Let $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ be an open interval and let $f: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a $\mathcal{C}^{k+1}$-function. Let $a$ and $b$ be two points in I.

Then there is $a \xi$ between $a$ and $b$, such that

$$
R_{a, k} f(b)=\frac{f^{k+1}(\xi)}{(k+1)!}(b-a)^{k+1}
$$

Proof. If $a=b$ then take $\xi=a$. The result is clear in this case. Otherwise if we put

$$
M=\frac{R_{a, k} f(b)}{(b-a)^{k+1}},
$$

then

$$
R_{a, k} f(b)=M(b-a)^{k+1}
$$

We want to show that there is some $\xi$ between $a$ and $b$ such that

$$
M=\frac{f^{k+1}(\xi)}{(k+1)!}
$$

If we let

$$
g(x)=R_{a, k}(x)-M(x-a)^{k+1}
$$

then

$$
g^{k+1}(x)=f^{k+1}(x)-k!M .
$$

Then we are looking for $\xi$ such that

$$
g^{k+1}(\xi)=0
$$

Now the first $k$ derivatives of $g$ at $a$ are all zero,

$$
g^{i}(a)=0 \quad \text { for } \quad 0 \leq i \leq k .
$$

By choice of $M$,

$$
g(b)=0
$$

So by the mean value theorem, applied to $g(x)$, there is a $\xi_{1}$ between $a$ and $b$ such that

$$
g^{\prime}\left(\xi_{1}\right)=0 .
$$

Again by the mean value theorem, applied to $g^{\prime}(x)$, there is a $\xi_{2}$ between $a$ and $\xi_{1}$ such that

$$
g^{\prime \prime}\left(\xi_{2}\right)=0
$$

Continuing in this way, by induction we may find $\xi_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq k+1$ between $a$ and $\xi_{i-1}$ such that

$$
g^{i}\left(\xi_{i}\right)=0 .
$$

Let $\xi=\xi_{k+1}$.

Let's try an easy example. Start with

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =x^{1 / 2} \\
f^{\prime}(x) & =\frac{1}{2} x^{-1 / 2} \\
f^{\prime \prime}(x) & =\frac{1}{2^{2}} x^{-3 / 2} \\
f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x) & =\frac{3}{2^{3}} x^{-5 / 2} \\
f^{4}(x) & =-\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{2^{4}} x^{-7 / 2} \\
f^{5}(x) & =\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{2^{5}} x^{-9 / 2} \\
f^{6}(x) & =-\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 9}{2^{6}} x^{-11 / 2} \\
f^{k}(x) & =(-1)^{k-1} \frac{(2 k-1)!!}{2^{k}} x^{-(2 k-1) / 2} \\
f^{k}(9 / 4) & =(-1)^{k-1} \frac{(2 k-1)!!}{2^{k}} \frac{2^{2 k-1}}{3^{2 k-1}} \\
& =(-1)^{k-1} \frac{(2 k-1)!!2^{k-1}}{3^{2 k-1}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let's write down the Taylor polynomial centred at $a=9 / 4$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
P_{9 / 4,5} f(x)=f(9 / 4)+f^{\prime}(9 / 4)(x-9 / 4)+f^{\prime \prime}(9 / 4) / 2(x-9 / 4)^{2}+f^{\prime \prime \prime}(9 / 4) / 6(x-9 / 4)^{3} \\
f^{4}(9 / 4) / 24(x-9 / 4)^{4}+f^{5}(9 / 4) / 120(x-9 / 4)^{5} .
\end{gathered}
$$

So,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{9 / 4,5} f(x)=3 / 2 & +1 / 3(x-9 / 4)-1 / 3^{3}(x-9 / 4)^{2}+2 / 3^{5}(x-9 / 4)^{3} \\
& -\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 2^{3}}{24 \cdot 3^{7}}(x-9 / 4)^{4}+\frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 2^{4}}{120 \cdot 3^{9}}(x-9 / 4)^{5} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we plug in $x=2$, so that $x-9 / 4=-1 / 4$ we get an approximation to $f(2)=\sqrt{2}$.

$$
P_{9 / 4,3}(2)=3 / 2+1 / 3(-1 / 4)-1 / 3^{3}(1 / 4)^{2}-2 / 3^{5}(1 / 4)^{3}=\frac{10997}{7776} \approx 1.41422 \ldots
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\left|R_{3}(2,9 / 4)\right|=\frac{1 \cdot 3}{4!}(\xi)^{-7 / 2}(1 / 4)^{4}<\frac{1 \cdot 3}{4!}(1 / 2)=1 / 16 .
$$

In fact

$$
\left|R_{3}(2,9 / 4)\right|=\frac{10997}{7776}-\sqrt{2} \approx 4 \times 10^{-6}
$$

Definition 19.3. Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an open subset which is convex (if $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ belong to $A$, then so does every point on the line segment between them). Suppose that $f: A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{C}^{k}$.

Given $\vec{a} \in A$, the $k$ th Taylor polynomial of $f$ centred at $a$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{\vec{a}, k} f(\vec{x})=f(\vec{a})+\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(\vec{a})\left(x_{i}-a_{i}\right)+1 / 2 \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}(\vec{a})\left(x_{i}-a_{i}\right)\left(x_{j}-a_{j}\right)+\ldots \\
+ & \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{1 \leq i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{k} \leq n} \\
\partial x_{i_{1}} \partial x_{i_{2}} \ldots \partial x_{i_{k}} & (\vec{a})\left(x_{i_{1}}-a_{i_{1}}\right)\left(x_{i_{2}}-a_{i_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(x_{i_{k}}-a_{i_{k}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The remainder is the difference

$$
R_{\vec{a}, k} f(\vec{x})=f(\vec{x})-P_{\vec{a}, k} f(\vec{x}) .
$$

Theorem 19.4. Let $A \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an open subset which is convex. Suppose that $f: A \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{C}_{\overrightarrow{k+1}}$, and let $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ belong to $A$.

Then there is a vector $\vec{\xi}$ on the line segment between $\vec{a}$ and $\vec{b}$ such that
$R_{\vec{a}, k}(\vec{b})=\frac{1}{(k+1)!} \sum_{1 \leq l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{k+1} \leq n} \frac{\partial^{k+1} f}{\partial x_{i_{1}} \partial x_{i_{2}} \ldots \partial x_{i_{k+1}}}(\vec{\xi})\left(b_{i_{1}}-a_{i_{1}}\right)\left(b_{i_{2}}-a_{i_{2}}\right) \ldots\left(b_{i_{k+1}}-a_{i_{k+1}}\right)$.
Proof. As $A$ is open and convex, we may find $\epsilon>0$ so that the parametrised line

$$
\vec{r}:(-\epsilon, 1+\epsilon) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n} \quad \text { given by } \quad \vec{r}(t)=\vec{a}+t(\vec{b}-\vec{a})
$$

is contained in $A$. Let

$$
g:(-\epsilon, 1+\epsilon) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

be the composition of $\vec{r}(t)$ and $f(\vec{x})$.

## Claim 19.5.

$$
P_{0, k} g(t)=P_{\vec{a}, k} f(\vec{r}(t)) .
$$

Proof of (19.5). This is just the chain rule;

$$
\begin{aligned}
g^{\prime}(t) & =\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(\vec{r}(t))\left(b_{i}-a_{i}\right) \\
g^{\prime \prime}(t) & =\sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}(\vec{r}(t))\left(b_{i}-a_{i}\right)\left(b_{j}-a_{j}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so on.
So the result follows by the one variable result.

We can write out the first few terms of the Taylor series of $f$ and get something interesting. Let $\vec{h}=\vec{x}-\vec{a}$. Then

$$
P_{\vec{a}, 2} f(x)=f(\vec{a})+\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{i}}(\vec{a}) h_{i}+1 / 2 \sum_{1 \leq i<j \leq n} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}(\vec{a}) h_{i} h_{j} .
$$

The middle term is the same as multiplying the row vector formed by the gradient of $f$,

$$
\nabla f(\vec{a})=\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{1}}(\vec{a}), \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{2}}(\vec{a}), \ldots \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_{n}}(\vec{a})\right),
$$

and the column vector given by $\vec{h}$. The last term is the same as multiplying the matrix with entries

$$
\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}(\vec{a}),
$$

on the left by $\vec{h}$ and on the right by the column vector given by $\vec{h}$ and dividing by 2 .

The matrix

$$
H f(\vec{a})=\left(\frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}}(\vec{a})\right),
$$

is called the Hessian of $f(\vec{x})$.

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### 18.022 Calculus of Several Variables

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