Taylor Series, Integral

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

$$f' > 0 \implies \text{increasing},$$

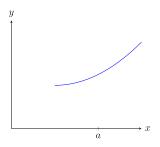
$$f' < 0 \Rightarrow \mathsf{decreasing}$$

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

$$f' > 0 \Rightarrow \text{increasing}, \qquad f' < 0 \Rightarrow \text{decreasing}$$

$$f' < 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathsf{decreasing}$$

However, a function can increase like this

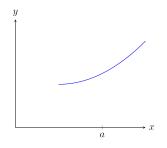


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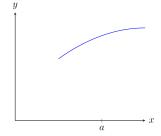
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However, a function can increase like this



or like this

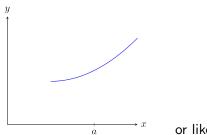


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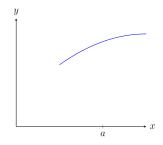
$$f' > 0 \Rightarrow \text{increasing},$$

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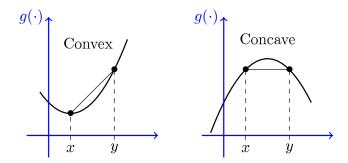
However, a function can increase like this



or like this



How can you determine which way it is?



Definition

We say that f(x) is **convex** on some interval if for any two points on its graph, the line connecting them always lies **above** the graph of f(x).

Definition

We say that f(x) is **concave** on some interval if for any two points on its graph, the line connecting them always lies **below** the graph of f(x).

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More technically, a function is

convex if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \le \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

concave if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \ge \frac{\alpha}{\alpha}f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

for any two points p and q, and for any number $0 \le \alpha \le 1$.

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We will not prove this but open the link and play with α to get a feeling of what this means:

- www.desmos.com/calculator/ujoh0mh59d

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So, how to know if a function is convex or concave?

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Theorem

If f(x) is twice-differentiable (i.e. there exists f''(x)), then:

- f is convex if and only if $f''(x) \ge 0$
- f is concave if and only if $f''(x) \le 0$

So, how to know if a function is convex or concave? Again, derivative is all you need!

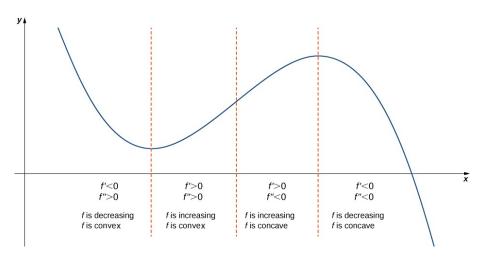
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Examples

- $f(x) = x^2$ is convex on $(-\infty, \infty)$. f''(x) = 2 > 0
- 2 $f(x) = -x^2$ is concave on $(-\infty, \infty)$. f''(x) = -2 < 0
- **③** f(x) = x is both convex and concave on $(-\infty, \infty)$. f''(x) = 0



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Suppose we have a function f(x). Let us construct another function g(x) which, at some point a has:

• the same value as f

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- the same value as f
- the same rate of change as f

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As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell too much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

- g(a) = f(a)
- g'(a) = f'(a)
- g''(a) = f''(a)
- ...

For example, suppose $f(x) = e^x$. Then f(0) = 1 and f'(0) = 1.

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$$P_k(x) = f(a)$$

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If we take $k=\infty$, we will get an infinite sum which is called the **Taylor** series of f(x) about a.

Taylor's Theorem

If a function f(x) is k times differentiable at the point a, then

$$P_k(x) \to f(x), \qquad k \to \infty$$

around some (maybe small) interval around a.

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Example

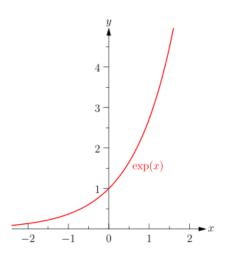
• The Taylor series for any polynomial is the polynomial itself.

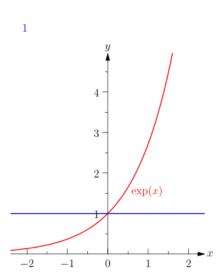
$$\bullet \ \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \cdots$$

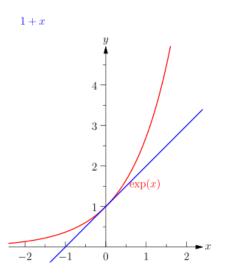
•
$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$$

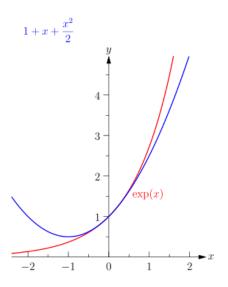
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$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

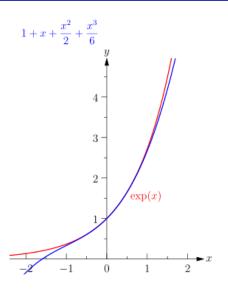
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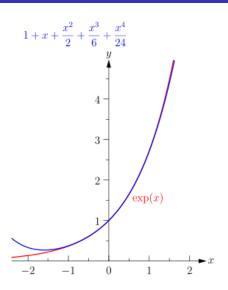


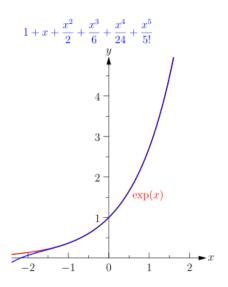




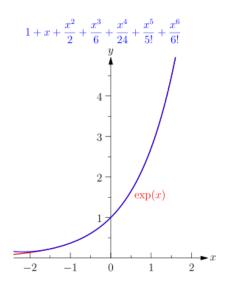


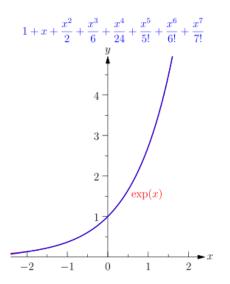






Taylor Series





- Try another function yourself!

2x is the derivative of x^2

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So what is x^2 ?

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So what is x^2 ?

 x^2 is the *anti* derivative of 2x

$$2x$$
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Definition

F is called an **antiderivative** or **indefinite integral** of f if F'(x) = f(x).

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Definition

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The indefinite integral is denoted like this:

$$\int f(x)\,dx$$

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

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$$(x^2+1)'=2x$$

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- $(x^2+2)'=2x$

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- $(x^2+1)'=2x$
- $(x^2+2)'=2x$
- $(x^2 + c)' = 2x$

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative 2x?

- $(x^2+1)'=2x$
- $(x^2 + 2)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + c)' = 2x$

If F'(x) = f(x), then (F(x) + c)' = f(x) for any number c, so actually:

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2 + C$$

for any number C.

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 $\int f(x) dx$ is not one function, but a *set* of functions.

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Properties



$$\int af(x)\,dx = a\int f(x)\,dx$$

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$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

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This can also be written as:

$$\int f \, dg = fg - \int g \, df,$$

where
$$\int f dg = \int fg' dx$$
.

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$$\int a\,dx=ax+C$$

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• For any constant $n \neq 1$, the derivative of $f(x) = x^n$ is:

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$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

• The antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is:

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$$

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• The antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ is:

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx = \arctan x + C$$

Example

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Notice that $\cos x = (\sin x)'$, so by the Property 3,

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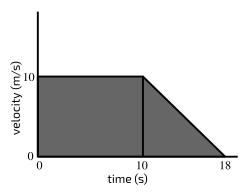
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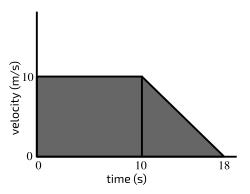
All of this is, of course, computation and tricks (no need to memorize). How about we make an *actual* use of this?

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Suppose we are given the velocity of a car at each timepoint. How can we calculate the distance travelled by the car?



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According to physics, distance = area under the velocity curve.

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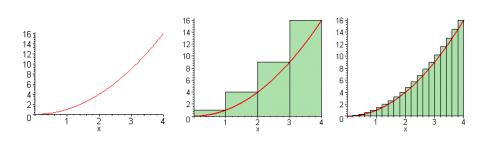
Question

Suppose you have a continuous function f. How can we calculate the area under its graph?

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Suppose you have a continuous function f. How can we calculate the area under its graph?

By dividing it into tiny rectangles and adding up their areas.



Take the interval [a, b] and divide (partition) it into n small parts with points $\{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. Let $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ denote the length of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$.

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The **Riemann sum** of a function f(x) is given by:

$$R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

where c_i is any point from $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$.

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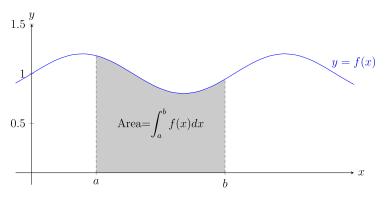
Definition

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

is called the **definite integral** of the function f(x) on [a, b].

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The definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ represents the **signed area** between the graph of f(x) and the x-axis over the interval [a, b].



- Play with Riemann sums!

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How can we calculate the definite integral without limits?

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Theorem (very important)

Suppose that f(x) is continuous on the interval [a, b]. If F(x) is an antiderivative of f(x), then

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Example

•

$$\int_0^2 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} \cdot x^3 \bigg|_0^2 = \frac{1}{3} (2^3 - 0^3) = \frac{8}{3}$$

•

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_0^{\pi} = -\cos \pi - (-\cos 0) = 2$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx, \qquad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

1

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2

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3

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$$\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

4

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

2

(3)

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx, \qquad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(y) dy$$

i.e. the name of the variable does not matter.