

Taylor's Theorem

Taylor's Theorem is a fundamental result that we'll use often in MACM 316!!

Text
§1.1

Theorem: Let $f(x)$ and its first $n + 1$ derivatives be continuous on $[a, b]$, and let $x_0 \in [a, b]$ be some given point. Then for every $x \in [a, b]$, there is some real number c between x_0 and x such that

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + E_n(x)$$

where the n^{th} order Taylor polynomial is

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}(x - x_0)^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!}(x - x_0)^k \end{aligned}$$

and the remainder (or truncation error) term is

$$E_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x - x_0)^{n+1}$$

Alternate formulation (let $x = x_0 + h$, then replace $x_0 \rightarrow x$):

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + f'(x)h + \frac{f''(x)}{2!}h^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}h^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}h^{n+1}$$

for c between
 x and $x+h$

Taylor Polynomials: Example 1

Approximate the function $f(x) = \cos(x)$ for $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$ with a Taylor polynomial of degree 4 near the point $x_0 = 0$:

- Compute derivatives of f :

$$f'(x) = -\sin(x) \quad , \quad f''(x) = -\cos(x)$$

$$f'''(x) = \sin(x) \quad , \quad f^{(4)}(x) = \cos(x)$$

- Evaluate derivatives at $x_0 = 0$:

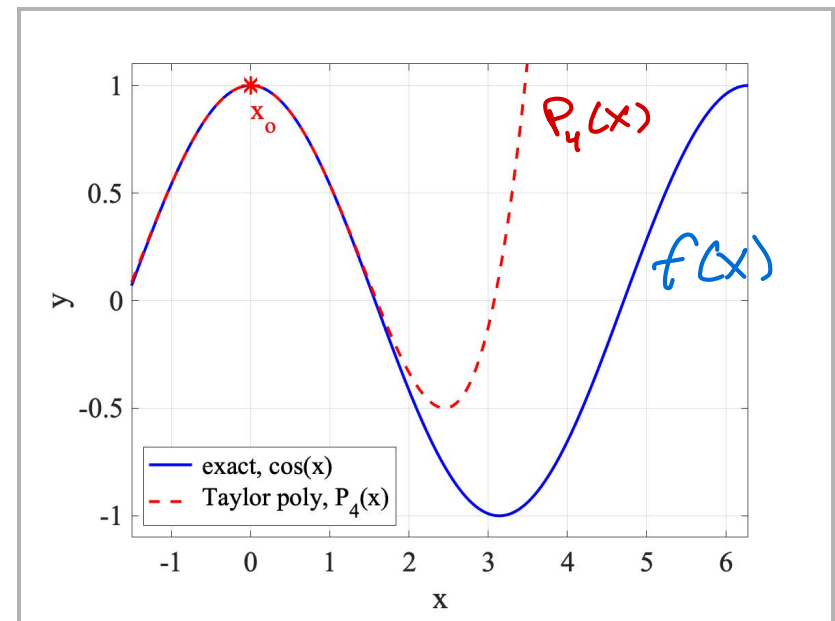
$$f(0) = 1 \quad , \quad f'(0) = 0 \quad , \quad f''(0) = -1$$

$$f'''(0) = 0 \quad , \quad f^{(4)}(0) = 1$$

- Substitute into Taylor's formula:

$$\cos(x) = \underbrace{1 - \frac{1}{2!}x^2 + \frac{1}{4!}x^4}_{P_4(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{-\sin c}{5!}x^5}_{E_4(x)}$$

for c between 0 and x



Error is only guaranteed to be small close to x

Note: When x is close to $x_0 = 0$

$$\frac{1}{5!}, x^5 \text{ is small} \Rightarrow E_4(x) \text{ is small}$$

$$|\sin(c)| \leq 1$$

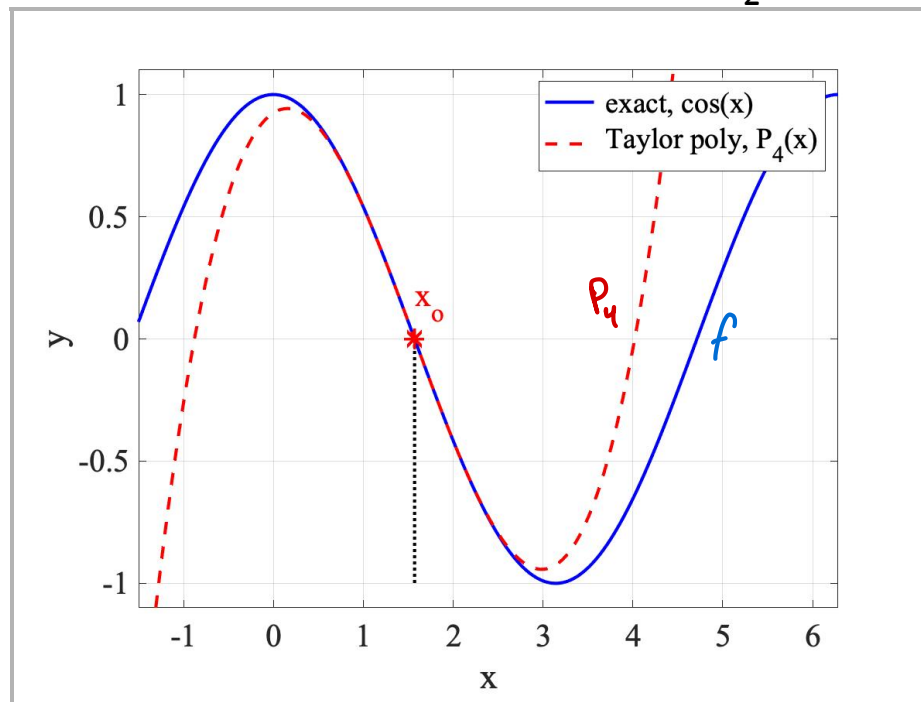
Taylor Polynomials: Example 1b

Repeat the last example, but approximate $\cos(x)$ at $x_0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$:

$$f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \quad f'\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -1 \quad f''\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \quad f^{(3)}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1 \quad f^{(4)}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$$

$$\cos x = \underbrace{-\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{3!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^3}_{P_4(x)} - \underbrace{\frac{\sin c}{5!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^5}_{E_4(x)}$$

which holds for some c between $\frac{\pi}{2}$ and x .



Note: To obtain a useful approximation, you *must* know values of $f(x_0)$, $f'(x_0)$, $f''(x_0)$, ... analytically. So be **strategic** in your choice of x_0 .

Note: This is 4th order polynomial approximation is Cubic

Taylor Polynomials: Example 2

Approximate $\sqrt{4.04}$ using Taylor polynomials of degree $n = 1, 2$:

- Define $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ and choose $x_0 = 4 \rightarrow$ since 4 is close to 4.04

$$f(x) = x^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad f'(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \quad f''(x) = -\frac{1}{4}x^{-\frac{3}{2}}, \quad f'''(x) = \frac{3}{8}x^{-\frac{5}{2}}$$

- Taylor polynomial approximation of order $n = 1$ (2 terms) is

$$P_1(x) = f(4) + f'(4)(x - 4) = x^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{1}{2}}(x - 4)$$

$$P_1(4.04) = 2 + \frac{1}{4}(4.04 - 4) = 2.01$$

(Exact $\sqrt{4.04} = 2.009975124224 \dots$)

- Error estimate:** how accurate is $P_1(4.04)$? c is some number between 4 and 4.04 (we don't know it is, thus, it is estimated)

* Take remainder term $E_1(4.04) = \frac{1}{2}f''(c)(4.04 - 4)^2$

* Holds for $c \in [4, 4.04]$, but estimate $f''(c) \approx f''(4) = -\frac{1}{32}$

* Then absolute error is $|E_1(4.04)| \approx \frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{32})(4.04 - 4)^2 \approx 0.25 \times 10^{-4}$

corresponding to a relative error $\approx \frac{0.25 \times 10^{-4}}{2} = 0.125 \times 10^{-4}$ real value is roughly 2

- Compare using exact value for relative error:

$$\left| \frac{2.01 - \sqrt{4.04}}{\sqrt{4.04}} \right| \approx 0.1238 \times 10^{-4} \quad \leftarrow \text{Error is roughly within 5 sig digits}$$

- The 3-term Taylor polynomial ($n = 2$, $x_0 = 4$, $x = 4.04$) can be found using the previous result and adding one more term:

$$P_2(x) = \underbrace{f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)} + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}(x - x_0)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(4.04) &= f(4) + f'(4)(4.04 - 4) + \frac{f''(4)}{2}(4.04 - 4)^2 \\ &= 4^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{2}(4)^{\frac{1}{2}}(0.04) - \frac{1}{8}(4)^{\frac{3}{2}}(0.04)^2 \\ &= 2 + \frac{1}{4}(0.04) - \frac{1}{16}(0.04)^2 = 2.0099 \end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Estimate error using the remainder term $E_2(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned} E_2(x) &= \frac{1}{3!} f'''(x_0) (x - x_0)^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \left(\frac{3}{8} (4)^{-\frac{5}{2}} \right) (4.04 - 4)^3 \\ &= 8.33\bar{3} \times 10^{-8} \approx 0.83 \times 10^{-9} \end{aligned}$$

Limiting Behaviour of the Remainder

- Consider “alternate form” of Taylor’s formula:

$$f(x + h) = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!} h^k}_{P_n(x)} + \underbrace{\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} h^{n+1}}_{E_n(x)}$$

- For small h , this form has two advantages:
 - * it emphasizes that you’re approximating f at a point close to x
(if $|h| > 1$ then $E_n(x)$ grows with n)
 - * the remainder term $E_n(x)$ is clearly $O(h^{n+1})$
- When viewed as an “algorithm”, the Taylor polynomial approximation can be improved (accuracy increased) by either:
 - * reducing h : smaller interval, but more restrictive $\implies O(h^{n+1})$
 - * increasing n : more terms, also more expensive $\implies O\left(\frac{1}{(n+1)!}\right)$
- ... there is an obvious trade-off in **accuracy vs. efficiency**

(such trade-offs are a common theme in MACM 316)

Taylor Polynomials: Example 3

Text
p.36

1. (a) Approximate π using the Taylor polynomial for $\arctan x$ at $x_0 = 0$:

$$\begin{aligned}\arctan x &\approx x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots + \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2n-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} \left(\frac{x^{2k-1}}{2k-1} \right) = P_n(x)\end{aligned}$$

and recalling $\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = 1 \implies \pi = 4 \arctan(1) = 4 \left[1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \cdots \right]$

(b) Use the first neglected term to estimate the order n needed so that π is correct to 5 significant digits.

Recall from Calc II:
for **alternating series only**, the first neglected term is a bound for the remainder!

2. Then use the amazing formula

$$\pi = 4 \left(\arctan\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + \arctan\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \right)$$

combined with the Taylor polynomial to approximate π .

MATLAB code: `piapprox.m` implements both formulas – play with it!

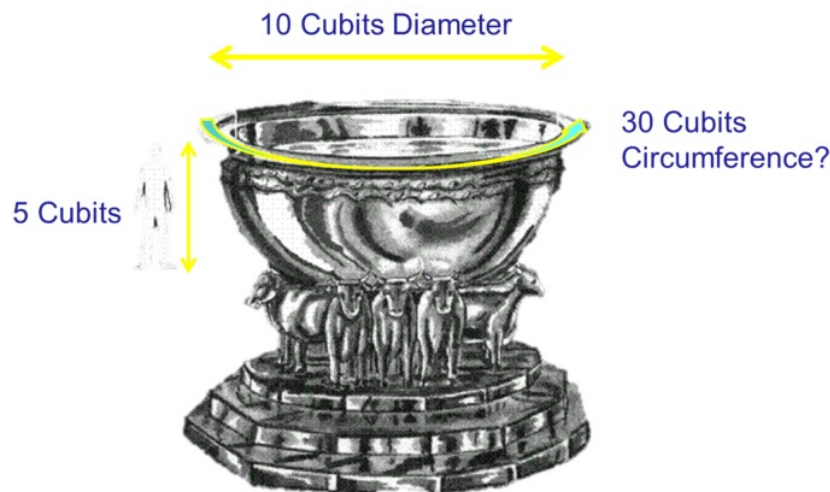
Question: Why is approximation #2 so much better than #1?

Text
p.25, Q11

Estimating Pi Throughout History

People have actually been trying to estimate π at least since the days of King Solomon and the prophet Jeremiah:

The 'Molten Sea'



*“And he made a molten sea,
ten cubits from the one brim to the other.
It was round all about,
and its height was five cubits.
And a line of thirty cubits
did compass it round about.”*

(1 Kings 7:23)

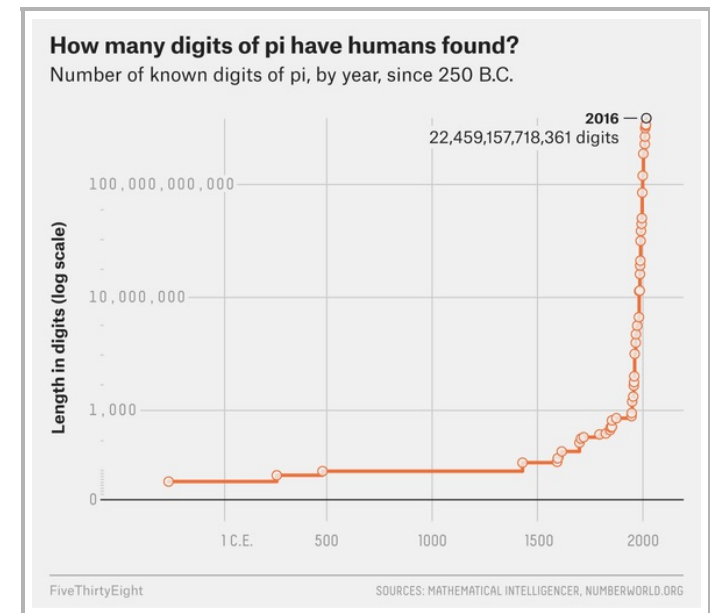
Corollary: $\pi = \frac{30 \text{ cubits}}{10 \text{ cubits}} = 3 ?$

Computing Pi's Digits

- These arctan series are the simplest of **many** formulas for approximating π .
- The most famous of all is the Bailey–Borwein^{SFU}–Plouffe (BBP) formula:

$$\pi = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{16^k} \left[\frac{4}{8k+1} - \frac{2}{8k+4} - \frac{1}{8k+5} - \frac{1}{8k+6} \right]$$

- BBP can compute binary or hex digits of π starting at any position ... without computing any preceding digits!
- Every so often, newspapers report on someone who has computed π to some ridiculously huge number of digits ... the current record is **31 trillion!** (set in March 2019)
- For most practical purposes 16 decimal digits are sufficient – actually, the best that you can hope for (think ε_M).
- **BUT** BBP remains an important benchmark algorithm for testing speed and correctness of new super-computers.



[Source: <http://fivethirtyeight.com>]

Practical Algorithms via Taylor Polynomial Approximation

- Taylor polynomials are incredibly useful, and ubiquitous in software
- MATLAB provides many built-in functions – you'll study two of these on Hwk #2:

```
>> type linspace
```

```
function y = linspace(d1, d2, n)
% Linspace Linearly spaced vector.
%   Linspace(d1, d2, n) generates a row vector of
%   n equally spaced points between d1 and d2.
. . .
y = d1 + (0:n-1).*((d2 - d1)./(n-1));
```

```
>> type sin
```

```
'sin' is a built-in function.
```

- MATLAB implements **sin** using a C code from FDLIBM available at NETLIB, which is **THE** most trusted source of numerical software:

<http://www.netlib.org/fdlibm> → `k_sin.c`

For fun: Look up other basic math functions in FDLIBM!

```

/* =====
 * Copyright (C) 1993 by Sun Microsystems, Inc.
 * ===== */

/* __kernel_sin( x, y, iy)
 * kernel sin function on [-pi/4, pi/4], pi/4 ~ 0.7854
 * Input x is assumed to be bounded by ~pi/4 in magnitude.
 * Input y is the tail of x.
 * Input iy indicates whether y is 0. (if iy=0, y assume to be 0).
 *
 * ALGORITHM:
 *
 * 1. Since sin(-x) = -sin(x), we need only to consider positive x.
 * 2. if x < 2^-27 (hx<0x3e400000 0), return x with inexact if x!=0.
 * 3. sin(x) is approximated by a polynomial of degree 13 on
 *    [0,pi/4]
 *
 *          3          13
 *      sin(x) ~ x + S1*x + ... + S6*x
 *
 *      where
 *
 *      |sin(x)          2      4      6      8      10      12      |      -58
 *      |----- - (1+S1*x +S2*x +S3*x +S4*x +S5*x  +S6*x      )| <= 2
 *      |      x                                     |
 */

...

half = 5.000000000000000000000000e-01, /* 0x3FE00000, 0x00000000 */
S1 = -1.666666666666666666666666324348e-01, /* 0xBFC55555, 0x55555549 */
S2 = 8.333333333332248946124e-03, /* 0x3F811111, 0x1110F8A6 */
S3 = -1.98412698298579493134e-04, /* 0xBF2A01A0, 0x19C161D5 */
S4 = 2.75573137070700676789e-06, /* 0x3EC71DE3, 0x57B1FE7D */
S5 = -2.50507602534068634195e-08, /* 0xBE5AE5E6, 0x8A2B9CEB */
S6 = 1.58969099521155010221e-10; /* 0x3DE5D93A, 0x5ACFD57C */

```

Intermediate Value Theorem or IVT

Text
§1.1

Theorem: Let $f(x)$ be continuous for all $x \in [a, b]$, and let K be any number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$. Then there exists some real number $c \in (a, b)$ with $f(c) = K$.

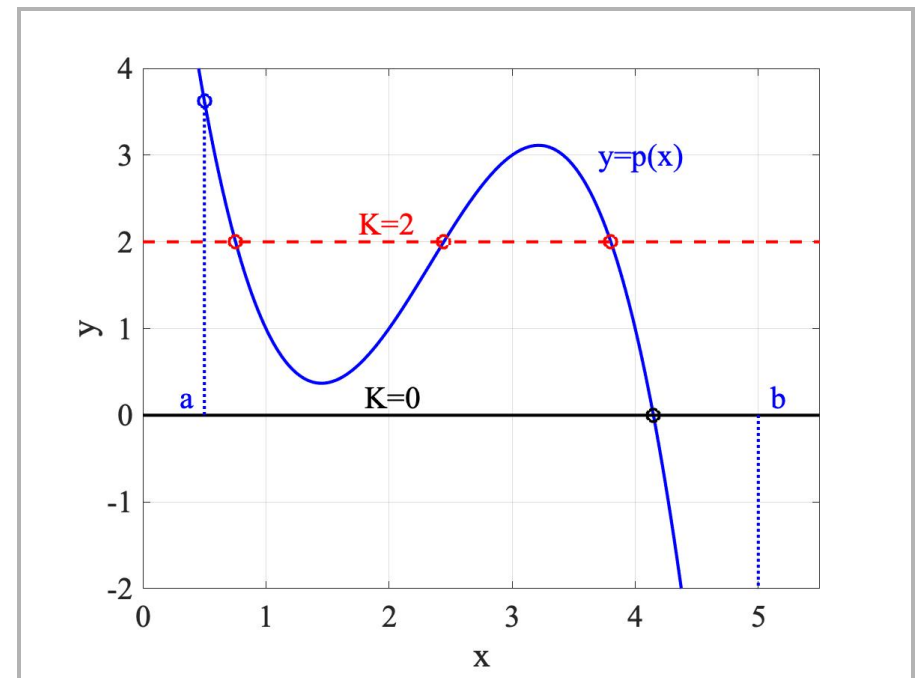
This expresses the intuitive idea that continuous functions have no gaps or jumps.

Example: Apply IVT to the function

$$p(x) = 9 - 14x + 7x^2 - x^3$$

on the interval $[\frac{1}{2}, 5]$.

- Consider $K = 0$ and $K = 2$.
- Endpoints: $p(\frac{1}{2}) = 3.625$, $p(5) = -11$
- Because $K = 0$ lies in between, there must be a $c \in [\frac{1}{2}, 5]$ with $p(c) = 0$.
- Similarly for $K = 2$ (see plot).



Aside: If interval was $[\frac{1}{2}, 4]$ instead, then $p(4) = 1$ and $K = 2$ still lies between the endpoint values, **BUT** IVT doesn't apply with $K = 0$ anymore.

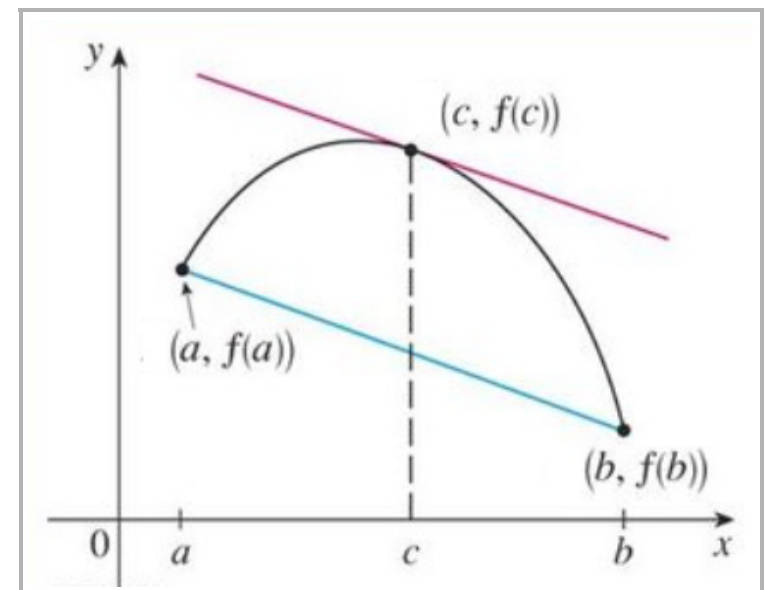
Mean Value Theorem or MVT

Text
§1.1

Theorem: Let $f(x)$ be continuous and differentiable for all $x \in [a, b]$. Then there exists some real number $c \in (a, b)$ with

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

- This is simply a statement equating:
 - * slope of secant line joining $x = a, b$ (RHS)
 - * slope of tangent line at $x = c$ (LHS)
- We'll use MVT mostly to prove other useful results.



MVT Example

Apply MVT to the polynomial

$$f(x) = 1 - x + 3x^3 \quad \text{for } 0.5 \leq x \leq 2.5$$

where the endpoints are (0.5, 0.875) and (2.5, 45.375):

- The *secant line* through these two points is

$$S(x) = -10.25 + 22.25x \quad \left(\text{slope} = \frac{45.375 - 0.875}{2.5 - 0.5} \approx 22.25\right)$$

- Now, determine which *tangent line* has the same slope:

$$f'(c) = -1 + 9c^2 \approx 22.25 \implies c \approx 1.607, \quad f(c) \approx 11.85$$

- Tangent line to $f(x)$ at $x = 1.607$ is

$$T(x) = -23.91 + 22.25x$$

