

§ 5.5 Higher Derivatives

One can define higher derivatives iteratively.
Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 5.3:

- i) f is called " m -times differentiable" on Ω ,
if f is $(m-1)$ -times differentiable with $(m-1)$ -th
derivative $f^{(m-1)}$ differentiable.

In this case

$$f^{(m)} = \frac{df^{(m-1)}}{dx} = \frac{d^m f}{dx^m} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is called the " m -th derivative" of f .

Note: $f^{(0)}$ is just the function f itself.

- ii) f is of the class $C^m(\Omega)$, if f is m -times
differentiable and if the functions $f = f^{(0)}$,
 $f' = f^{(1)}$, ..., $f^{(m)}$ are continuous.

Notation:

$$C^m(\Omega, \mathbb{R}) = \left\{ f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is } m\text{-times diff., } f, \dots, f^{(m)} \text{ continuous} \right\}$$

Example 5.15:

The functions \exp , \sin , \cos , polynomials and rational functions are in \mathcal{C}^m for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let now $\Omega = (a, b)$, $-\infty < a < b < \infty$, and $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proposition 5.11 (Taylor-formula):

Let $f \in C^{m-1}([a, b])$ on (a, b) m -times differentiable.

Then there exists $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + f''(a) \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} + \dots + f^{(m-1)}(a) \frac{(b-a)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} + f^{(m)}(\xi) \frac{(b-a)^m}{m!}$$

Proof:

We can trace the Proposition to the mean value theorem, namely Prop. 5.9.

Consider the function

$$(*) \quad g(x) = f(x) + f'(x)(b-x) + \dots + f^{(m-1)}(x) \frac{(b-x)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} + K \frac{(b-x)^m}{m!} - f(b),$$

where $K \in \mathbb{R}$ is chosen such that $g(a)=g(b)=0$.

According to assumptions on f, g is continuous on $[a, b]$, and differentiable on (a, b) .

Then Prop. 5.9 $\Rightarrow \exists \xi \in (a, b) : g'(\xi) = 0$

That is

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= f'(\xi) + (f''(\xi)(b-\xi) - f'(\xi)) \\ &\quad + \left(f''(\xi) \frac{(b-\xi)^2}{2} - f''(\xi)(b-\xi) \right) + \dots \\ &\quad + \left(f^{(m)}(\xi) \frac{(b-\xi)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} - f^{(m-1)}(\xi) \frac{(b-\xi)^{m-2}}{(m-2)!} \right) \\ &\quad - K \frac{(b-\xi)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} \\ &= (f^{(m)}(\xi) - K) \frac{(b-\xi)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!}, \end{aligned}$$

as all other terms cancel pairwise. As $b-\xi > 0$, we get $K = f^{(m)}(\xi)$, and with $g(a) = 0$ the claim follows after setting $x=a$ in (*).

□

Remark 5.5:

The tangent at $f \in C^1([a, b])$ in the point $x=a$,

$$T_1 f(x; a) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a),$$

the approximating parabola for $f \in C^2([a,b])$,

$$T_2 f(x; a) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + f''(a) \frac{(x-a)^2}{2},$$

and more generally the Taylor polynomial of m -th degree for $f \in C^m([a,b])$,

$$T_m f(x; a) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \dots + f^{(m)}(a) \frac{(x-a)^m}{m!},$$

have according to Prop. 5.11 the following approximating property. For $a < x < b$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - T_m f(x; a) &= (f^{(m)}(\xi) - f^{(m)}(a)) \cdot \frac{(x-a)^m}{m!} \\ &=: r_m f(x; a) \end{aligned}$$

for some $\xi \in (a, b)$. For the remainder term $r_m f$ we obtain the following

$$|r_m f(x; a)| \leq \sup_{a < \xi < x} |f^{(m)}(\xi) - f^{(m)}(a)| \frac{(x-a)^m}{m!}$$

If $f \in C^{m+1}$, we can improve this through Prop. 5.9:

$$|r_m f(x; a)| \leq \sup_{a < \xi < x} |f^{(m+1)}(\xi)| \frac{(x-a)^{m+1}}{m!}$$

Example 5.14:

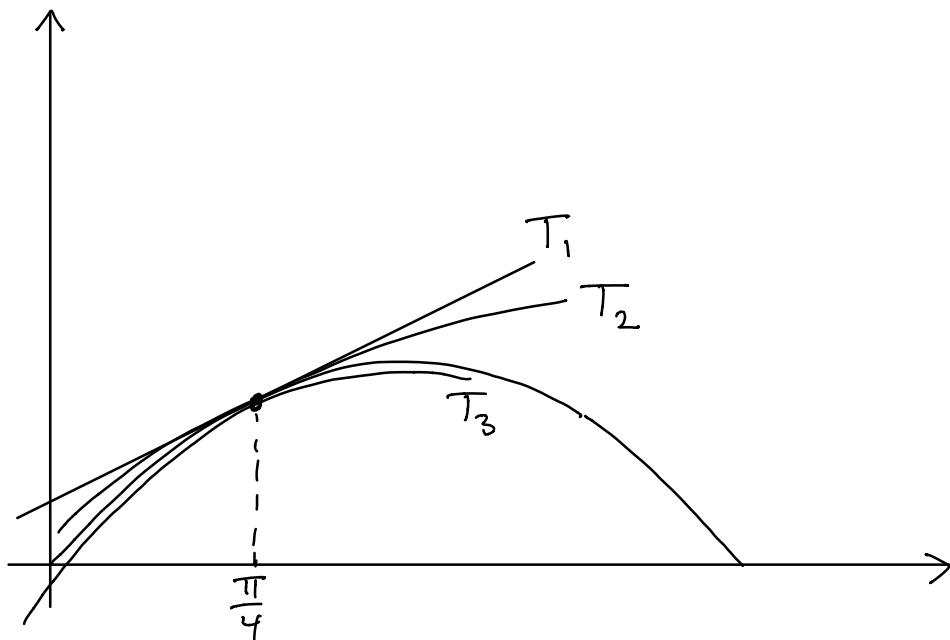
What is the sine of $47^\circ \equiv \frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{2\pi}{180}$?

Using $\sin' = \cos$, $\sin'' = \cos' = -\sin$, etc., we obtain from the above remark when choosing $m=2$ the approximation:

$$\begin{aligned}\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{90}\right) &= \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) + \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)\frac{\pi}{90} - \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)\frac{\pi^2}{90^2} + r_2 \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\frac{\pi}{90} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi^2}{2 \cdot 90^2} + r_2,\end{aligned}$$

where

$$|r_2| \leq \frac{\pi^3}{2 \cdot 90^3} \approx 10^{-5}.$$

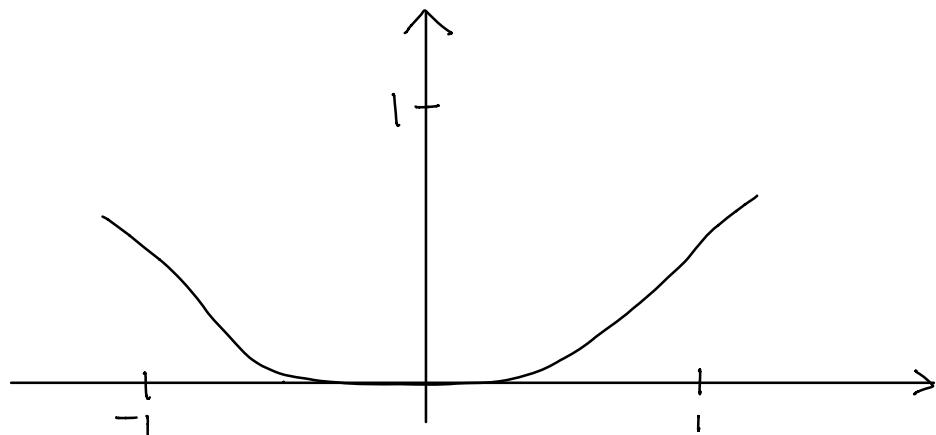


Remark 5.6:

The Taylor-series of a function f does not necessarily converge against f .

Consider for example the function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2}, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$



This function comes very close to the x -axis even for non-zero x :

$$0 < f(x) < 10^{-10} \text{ for } 0 < |x| \leq 0.2$$

In fact, we have for the n -th derivative:

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \begin{cases} p_n\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)e^{-1/x^2}, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & , \text{ if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

where p_n is some polynomial.

Proof:

Use induction:

- $n=0$: clear ($p_0 = 1$)

- $n \rightarrow n+1$:

i) for $x \neq 0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(n+1)}(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(p_n\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) e^{-1/x^2} \right) \\ &= \left(-p_n'\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \frac{1}{x^2} + 2p_n\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \frac{1}{x^3} \right) e^{-1/x^2} \end{aligned}$$

Choose $p_{n+1}(t) := -p_n'(t)t^2 + 2p_n(t)t^3$.

ii) For $x=0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(n+1)}(0) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f^{(n)}(x) - f^{(n)}(0)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{p_n\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) e^{-1/x^2}}{x} \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \pm\infty} R p_n(R) e^{-R^2} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

□

Thus we see that the Taylor-series of f at $x_0=0$ is identical to zero although $f=0$ only at $x=0$.

Example 5.15 (logarithm):

For $0 \leq x \leq 1$ the Taylor-series of $\log(1+x)$ converges and we have:

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} x^n$$

Proof:

$$\log'(1+x) \Big|_{x=0} = \left. \frac{1}{1+x} \right|_{x=0} = 1$$

$$\log''(1+x) \Big|_{x=0} = \left. \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{1+x} \right) \right|_{x=0} = -\frac{1}{(1+x)^2} \Big|_{x=0} = -1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\log^{(n)}(1+x) \Big|_{x=0} = (-1)^{n-1} (n-1)! \left. \frac{1}{(1+x)^n} \right|_{x=0} = (-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!$$

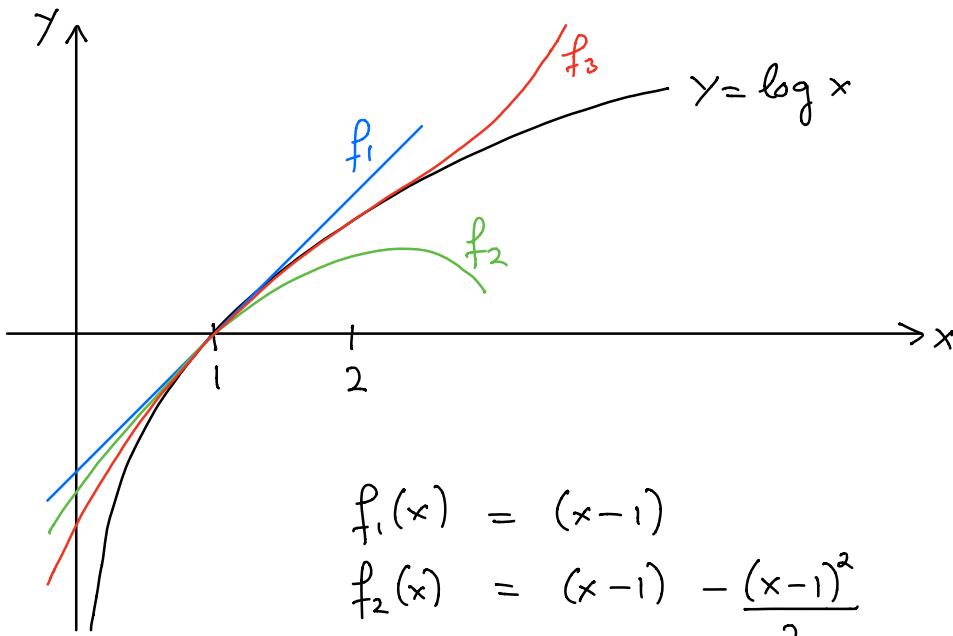
Prop. 5.11 $\Rightarrow \log(1+x)$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} x^n + \underbrace{\log^{(N+1)}(\xi) \frac{x^{N+1}}{(N+1)!}}_{= \frac{(-1)^N N!}{(1+\xi)^{N+1}}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} x^n + \underbrace{\frac{(-1)^N \cdot x^{N+1}}{N+1} \frac{1}{(1+\xi)^{N+1}}}_{= r_N \log(1+x, 0)}$$

for some $\xi \in (1, x)$

But $|r_N \log(1+x, 0)| \leq \frac{1}{N+1} \rightarrow 0 \quad (N \rightarrow \infty)$



$$f_3(x) = (x-1) - \frac{(x-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(x-1)^3}{3}$$

In fact, one can show that the above series is convergent for $|x| < 1$. Then one writes

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

$$\log(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots$$

Subtraction gives

$$\log\left(\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right) = 2\left(x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} + \dots\right) = 2 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2k+1}}{2k+1}$$

Using $\left.\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right|_{x=\frac{1}{2}} = 2$, we then get

$$\log 2 = 2\left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 3^3} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 3^5} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 3^7} + \dots\right)$$

→ gives an effective way to compute $\log 2$.

Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ be open, $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 5.4:

A point $x_0 \in \Omega$ is called a (strict) "local minimum" of f , if in a neighborhood U of x_0 we have

$$\forall x \in U : f(x) \geq f(x_0),$$

(or $\forall x \in U \setminus \{x_0\} : f(x) > f(x_0)$) .

If f is differentiable at a local minimum x_0 , then we have following the proof of Prop. 5.9

$$0 \leq \lim_{x \downarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \uparrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \leq 0$$

$\Rightarrow f'(x_0) = 0$. More generally, we have the following

Corollary 5.3:

Let $f \in C^m(\Omega)$, $x_0 \in \Omega$ with $f'(x_0) = \dots = f^{(m-1)}(x_0) = 0$

i) If $m = 2k+1$, x_0 local minimum, then $f^{(m)}(x_0) = 0$

ii) If $m = 2k$, and if $f^{(m)}(x_0) > 0$, then x_0 is strict local minimum.

Proof:

According to Prop. 5.11 there exists for $x \in \Omega$ close to x_0 a ζ between x and x_0 such that

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f^{(m)}(\zeta) \frac{(x-x_0)^m}{m!}.$$

i) If $m=2K+1$, and if x_0 is local minimum, then we get

$$f^{(m)}(x_0) = \lim_{\zeta \rightarrow x_0} f^{(m)}(\zeta) = \begin{cases} m! \lim_{x \downarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)-f(x_0)}{(x-x_0)^m} \geq 0 \\ m! \lim_{x \uparrow x_0} \frac{f(x)-f(x_0)}{(x-x_0)^m} \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow f^{(m)}(x_0) = 0.$$

ii) For $m=2K$, $x \neq x_0$ we have $(x-x_0)^m > 0$.

If $f^{(m)}(x_0) = \lim_{\zeta \rightarrow x_0} f^{(m)}(\zeta) > 0$, then $f(x)-f(x_0)$ for $x \neq x_0$ close to x_0 ; thus x_0 is strict local minimum.

Example 5.16:

i) Let $f(x) = x^4 - x^2 + 1$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. According Corollary 5.3 i) for having an extremum at x_0 , we need $f'(x_0) = 4x_0^3 - 2x_0 = 2(2x_0^2 - 1)x_0 = 0$,

that is

$$x_0 \in \left\{ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\}.$$

According to Corollary 5.3 ii) and with

$$f''(x) = 12x^2 - 2 = \begin{cases} 4 > 0, & x = \pm 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -2 < 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

we have strict local minima at $x_0 = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ and at $x_0 = 0$, and a strict local maximum at $x_0 = 0$.

ii) Let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$. We want to find the "least square"-approximation $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ of $(a_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ with

$$f(x_0) = \sum_{k=1}^n (x_0 - a_k)^2 = \min_x f(x).$$

Notice $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ ($|x| \rightarrow \infty$); thus there exists a $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ with $f(x_0) = \min_x f(x)$.

Corollary 5.3 i) gives the necessary

condition: $f'(x_0) = 2 \sum_{k=1}^n (x_0 - a_k) = 2nx_0 - 2 \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$$