

## Single and Multivariate Taylor Series

Just as polygons may be viewed as building blocks of 2-D geometry, polynomials can be used in the manner of Lego pieces to construct many differentiable functions. In particular, according to the Weierstrass approximation theorem, any continuous function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow R$  can be uniformly approximated to any degree of accuracy by a polynomial function. When this function is also infinitely differentiable and satisfies  $|f^{(n)}(x)| \leq M$  for some number  $M$  and for all  $x$  in the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , we may use Taylor polynomials to achieve the desired approximation.<sup>1</sup>

### Single-Variable Taylor Theorem

Suppose  $f : [-a, a] \rightarrow R$  is continuously differentiable  $n + 1$  times. We would like to find a polynomial of degree  $n$  that “looks like” the function  $f$  near  $x = 0$ .

It seems reasonable that this polynomial,  $p$ , will resemble  $f$  if

$$f(0) = p(0), f'(0) = p'(0), f''(0) = p''(0), \dots, f^{(n)}(0) = p^{(n)}(0).$$

Thus, if  $p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots + a_nx^n$ , we would expect to find that

$$f(0) = a_0 = p(0), f'(0) = a_1 = p'(0), f''(0) = 2a_2 = p''(0), \dots, f^{(n)}(0) = n!a_n = p^{(n)}(0).$$

In particular,

$$a_0 = f(0), a_1 = \frac{f'(0)}{1!}, a_2 = \frac{f''(0)}{2!}, \dots, a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}.$$

It therefore appears that a polynomial of the form

$$p(x) = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n$$

is a good approximation to  $f$  near 0.

Similarly, if  $c \in [-a, a]$ , the polynomial

$$q(x) = f(c) + \frac{f'(c)}{1!}(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x-c)^2 + \frac{f'''(c)}{3!}(x-c)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}(x-c)^n$$

appears to be a good approximation of  $f$  near  $c$ .

But, intuition aside, how good is this approximation really? The answer is the content of Taylor's theorem:

---

<sup>1</sup> Not all continuous or even infinitely differentiable functions of the form  $f : U \subseteq R \rightarrow R$  can be approximated by polynomials. Weierstrass theorem requires  $U$  to be compact (i.e. closed and bounded).

**Theorem:** Let  $f : R \rightarrow R$  be  $n + 1$  times continuously differentiable. Let

$p(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$  be the  $n$ th degree Taylor polynomial of  $f$  centered at  $x = a$ . Then, for  $b \in R$ , the error  $E_n(b) = f(b) - p(b)$

is given by  $E_n(b) = \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt$ . Furthermore,  $|E_n(b)| \leq \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n!} M$ , where  $M = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |f^{(n+1)}(t)|$ .

**Proof:** We will show that  $f(b) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (b-a)^i + E_n(b)$ . By the fundamental

theorem of calculus,  $f(b) - f(a) = \int_a^b f'(t) dt$ . Using integration by parts with  $u = f'(t)$  and  $dv = 1$ , we see that

$$\int_a^b f'(t) dt = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v du = -(b-t)f'(t) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b -(b-t)f''(t) dt \quad (1)$$

where we used the fact that  $-(b-t)$  is an anti-derivative of 1.

Or, after simplifying (1),

$$\int_a^b f'(t) dt = f'(a)(b-a) + \int_a^b (b-t)f''(t) dt \quad (2)$$

Integrating by parts again, we get

$$\int_a^b f'(t) dt = f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2}(b-a)^2 + \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^2}{2} f'''(t) dt \quad (3)$$

Continuing in this fashion, we see that

$$\int_a^b f'(t) dt = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (b-a)^i + \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \quad (4)$$

Thus,

$$f(b) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (b-a)^i + \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt. \quad (5)$$

It follows that  $E_n(b) = f(b) - p(b) = \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt$  as desired.

Finally, to estimate the error  $E_n(b)$ , observe that for  $t \in [a, b]$ ,  $|b-t| \leq |b-a|$ .

Thus,

$$|E_n(b)| = \left| \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \right| \leq \int_a^b \frac{|b-t|^n}{n!} |f^{(n+1)}(t)| dt \leq \int_a^b \frac{|b-a|^n}{n!} M dt = \frac{|b-a|^{n+1}}{n!} M \quad \blacktriangledown$$

As a consequence of Taylor's theorem, it follows that for  $x$  near  $a$ ,

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i + E_n(x), \text{ where } E_n(x) = \int_a^x \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \text{ is a continuous function of } x \text{ (Why?).}$$

**Example:** Let  $f(x) = e^{x-1}$ . If  $f$  is approximated by a 5<sup>th</sup> degree Taylor polynomial centered at  $x = 1$ , estimate the error when this polynomial is used to approximate the value of  $f(1.5)$ .

**Solution:** We wish to estimate  $|E_5(1.5)|$ . By Taylor's theorem, we know that

$$|E_5(1.5)| = \left| \int_1^{1.5} \frac{(1.5-t)^5}{5!} f^{(6)}(t) dt \right| \leq \frac{|1.5-1|^6}{5!} \max_{t \in [1, 1.5]} |f^{(6)}(t)| = \frac{1}{2^6 5!} e^{1.5} < \frac{3^2}{2^6 5!} < 0.0036.$$

In other words, the estimation is accurate up to two decimal places.

## Multivariate Taylor Theorem

Suppose that  $f : R^m \rightarrow R$  has continuous mixed partials up to the  $(n + 1)$ th order. We would like to find a polynomial in  $m$  variables that is a "good" approximation to  $f$  near  $x = a \in R^m$ . We can reduce this problem to the single-variable case by defining  $g : R \rightarrow R$  by  $g(t) = f(a + t(x - a))$ . That is, for any fixed  $x$ , we can parameterize a path  $l(t) = a + t(x - a)$  and compose it with the function  $f$ . Since  $g(0) = f(a)$  and  $g(1) = f(x)$ , the  $n$ th order Taylor approximation of the multivariate function  $f(x)$  about  $x = a$  must be the same as the  $n$ th degree Taylor approximation of  $g(1)$  about  $t = 0$ . In particular,

$$f(x) = g(1) = g(0) + \frac{g'(0)}{1!} 1 + \frac{g''(0)}{2!} 1^2 + \dots + \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} 1^n + E_n(1).$$

$$\text{Where } E_n(1) = \int_0^1 \frac{(t-1)^n}{n!} g^{(n+1)}(t) dt.$$

Therefore, we'll succeed in our endeavor to represent  $f$  as an  $n$ th order Taylor polynomial as soon as we are able to compute  $g^{(k)}(0)$  in terms of  $f$ . Let's see if we can deduce a pattern:

By the chain rule,

$$g'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} (f(a + t(x - a))) = (x_1 - a_1) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} (a + t(x - a)) + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m} (a + t(x - a)). \quad (1)$$

Where (1) can be written more compactly as

$$(x - a) \bullet \nabla f \quad (2)$$

Where  $\nabla f$  is evaluated at  $l(t) = a + t(x - a)$ .

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} g''(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left[ (x_1 - a_1) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a + t(x - a)) + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m}(a + t(x - a)) \right] = \\ & (x_1 - a_1) \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a + t(x - a)) \right] + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m}(a + t(x - a)) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Observe that each of the  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + t(x - a))$  is a function of one variable  $t$  that comes about as a result of composition of a multivariate function of  $m$  variables (namely  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ ) and a path function (namely  $l(t) = a + t(x - a)$ ). Thus,  $\frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + t(x - a)) \right]$  can be written in the same form as (2). In particular,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a + t(x - a)) \right] = (x - a) \bullet \nabla \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \quad (4)$$

Where, again,  $\nabla \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$  is evaluated at  $l(t) = a + t(x - a)$

Therefore,

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - a_i) \left[ (x - a) \bullet \nabla \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right]. \quad (5)$$

Or,

$$\begin{aligned} g''(t) &= \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - a_i) \left[ \sum_{j=1}^m (x_j - a_j) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(a + t(x - a)) \right] = \\ & \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m (x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(a + t(x - a)) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

By labeling  $l(t) = a + t(x - a)$  with  $u$  in expression (6), we get

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m (x_i - a_i)(x_j - a_j) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(u) \quad (7)$$

Notice that (7) resembles the square of a sum of  $m$  terms (i.e.  $\left(\sum_{i=1}^m A_i\right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m A_j A_i$ ). To make

further use of this analogy, denote by  $C_m^\infty$  the space of all functions on  $m$  variables that have continuous mixed partials of every order. Define  $T : C_m^\infty \rightarrow C_m^\infty$  by  $T(q) = (x - a) \bullet \nabla q$ . In other words, since we regard  $x$  as fixed, we may think of  $q$  as a function of some variable  $u = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$ . Observe that  $T$  is a linear transformation from the space  $C_m^\infty$  to itself.<sup>2</sup> Let  $\varphi : C_m^\infty \rightarrow R$  be defined by  $\varphi(q) = q(a)$ . Since, by (2),  $g'(t) = (x - a) \bullet \nabla f$ , it follows that  $g'(0) = (x - a) \bullet \nabla f(a) = \varphi(T(f))$ .<sup>3</sup> Similarly, by (5),

$$g''(0) = \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - a_i) \left[ (x - a) \bullet \nabla \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \right) \right] = (x - a) \bullet \left[ \nabla \left( \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - a_i) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a) \right) \right] = (x - a) \bullet \nabla((x - a) \bullet \nabla f(a)) = \varphi(T(T(f))) = \varphi(T^2(f)).$$

More generally, it can be shown by induction that  $g^{(k)}(0) = \varphi(T^k(f))$ .

It follows that,

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\varphi(T^k(f))}{k!} + E_n(1) \quad (8)$$

We will have more to say about the error  $E_n(1)$  later on. For now, let us try to re-express (8) free from the functions  $\varphi$  and  $T$ . With a slight abuse of notation, we may represent  $T$  by

$$(x - a) \bullet \nabla = (x_1 - a_1) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_m}. \quad (9)$$

With this notation,  $T^k$  becomes

$$\left( (x - a) \bullet \nabla \right)^k = \left( (x_1 - a_1) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_m} \right)^k \quad (10)$$

<sup>2</sup> To verify this, pick any two functions  $f, h$  in  $C_m^\infty$  and any real scalar  $c$ . Then

$$T(q + ch) = (x - a) \bullet \nabla(q + ch) = (x - a) \bullet (\nabla q + c\nabla h) = (x - a) \bullet \nabla q + c(x - a) \bullet \nabla h = T(q) + cT(h).$$

<sup>3</sup> By hypothesis, the function  $f$  with which we are currently dealing has continuous mixed partials up to the  $(n+1)$ th order. Therefore, strictly speaking,  $f$  is not in the domain of  $T$ . However, we will pay a heavy price if we insist on being too rigorous here.

$$\text{Where } T^k(f(u)) = ((x-a) \bullet \nabla)^k f(u) = \left( (x_1 - a_1) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + \dots + (x_m - a_m) \frac{\partial}{\partial u_m} \right)^k f(u) \quad (11)$$

In other words, the nth degree Taylor polynomial of f may be written simply as

$$P_n(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{((x-a) \bullet \nabla)^k f(u)}{k!} \Big|_{u=a} \quad (12)$$

To finally apply the analogy that exists between function composition and scalar multiplication, notice that we can rewrite (11) as

$$T^k(f) = \sum_{i_1=1}^m \dots \sum_{i_k=1}^m (x_{i_1} - a_{i_1}) \dots (x_{i_k} - a_{i_k}) \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial u_{i_1} \dots \partial u_{i_k}}(u_1, \dots, u_m) \quad (13)$$

By the equality of mixed partials, (13) behaves just like an ordinary kth power of a sum of m real numbers.

## Computing Powers of T

In this section, we would like to fully exploit the analogy between the powers of the linear transformation T and powers of ordinary sums of numbers. If  $f : R^m \rightarrow R$  has all of its mixed partials up to the (n + 1)th order defined in an open ball  $B_\delta(a)$  and if all of the (n + 1)th order mixed partials are continuous at  $x = a$ , how might we compute  $((x-a) \bullet \nabla)^k(f)$ ? To answer this question, start with the case  $m = 2$ . For simplicity of notation, we'll denote

$$x - a = (x_1 - a_1, x_2 - a_2) \text{ by } (h_1, h_2). \text{ With this notation, } (x-a) \bullet \nabla \text{ becomes } \left( h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right).$$

Using your knowledge about the powers of sums, observe that

$$\left( h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right)(f) = h_1 \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_2}; \quad (1)$$

$$\left( h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right)^2(f) = h_1^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u_1^2} + 2h_1 h_2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u_1 \partial u_2} + h_2^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u_2^2}; \quad (2)$$

$$\left( h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} \right)^3(f) = h_1^3 \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial u_1^3} + 3h_1^2 h_2 \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial u_1^2 \partial u_2} + 3h_1 h_2^2 \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial u_1 \partial u_2^2} + h_2^3 \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial u_2^3}. \quad (3)$$

For those of you who know a little bit of combinatorics,

$$(h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2})^k (f) = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{k}{i} h_1^i h_2^{k-i} \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial u_1^i \partial u_2^{k-i}} \quad (4)$$

Where  $\binom{k}{i} = \frac{k!}{i!(k-i)!}$ .

Similarly, for  $m > 2$ ,  $(x-a) \bullet \nabla = (h_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_1} + h_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial u_2} + \dots + h_m \frac{\partial}{\partial u_m})$ .

By the multinomial theorem,

$$((x-a) \bullet \nabla)^k (f) = \sum_{\substack{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m \\ i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_m = k}} \binom{k}{i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots \ i_m} h_1^{i_1} h_2^{i_2} \dots h_m^{i_m} \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial u_1^{i_1} \partial u_2^{i_2} \dots \partial u_m^{i_m}} \quad (5)$$

Where the sum is taken over all non-negative integer valued vectors  $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m)$ , the sum of whose coordinates equals to  $k$ .

Finally, recall that the  $k$ th term in the  $n$ th order multivariate Taylor expansion is  $\frac{\varphi(T^k(f))}{k!}$ . In other words,

$$\frac{\varphi(T^k(f))}{k!} = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{\substack{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m \\ i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_m = k}} \binom{k}{i_1 \ i_2 \ \dots \ i_m} h_1^{i_1} h_2^{i_2} \dots h_m^{i_m} \frac{\partial^k f}{\partial u_1^{i_1} \partial u_2^{i_2} \dots \partial u_m^{i_m}} (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$$

Now we are ready to solve a few examples:

**Example:** Let  $f(x, y) = e^{x+y}$ . Compute the second-order Taylor polynomial  $P_2(x, y)$ , about the point  $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ .

**Solution:** First, re-define  $f$  in terms of a new variable:  $f(u, v) = e^{u+v}$ . We wish to compute  $\varphi(T^0(f)) + \varphi(T(f)) + \frac{\varphi(T^2(f))}{2}$ , where  $\varphi(q(u, v)) = q(0, 0)$ . Now,  $\varphi(T^0(f)) = f(0, 0) = e^0 = 1$ ;  
 $\varphi(T(f)) = (x, y) \bullet \nabla f(0, 0) = x \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(0, 0) + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}(0, 0) = x + y$ ;  
 $\varphi(T^2(f)) = (x \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + y \frac{\partial}{\partial v})^2 (f(0, 0)) = x^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u^2}(0, 0) + 2xy \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u \partial v}(0, 0) + y^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v^2}(0, 0) = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$ .

Thus,  $P_2(x, y) = 1 + x + y + \frac{x^2 + 2xy + y^2}{2} = 1 + (x + y) + \frac{(x + y)^2}{2}$  (Looks familiar?)

**Example:** Let  $f(x, y) = \text{Sin}(xy)$ . Compute the second-order Taylor polynomial  $P_2(x, y)$  about  $(x, y) = (1, \pi/2)$ .

**Solution:** Just like you did before, re-define the function in terms of a new variable:  
 $f(u, v) = \text{Sin}(uv)$ . Before we go on, it would be helpful to have all the mixed partials up to the second order computed and evaluated at the point  $(1, \pi/2)$ :

0-order partials

$$f(1, \pi/2) = \text{Sin}(\pi/2) = 1$$

1-order partials

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(u, v) = v \text{Cos}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(1, \pi/2) = \frac{\pi}{2} \text{Cos}(\pi/2) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v}(u, v) = u \text{Cos}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}(1, \pi/2) = \text{Cos}(\pi/2) = 0$$

2-order partials

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u^2}(u, v) = -v^2 \text{Sin}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u^2}(1, \pi/2) = -\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 \text{Sin}(\pi/2) = -\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v \partial u}(u, v) = \text{Cos}(uv) - uv \text{Sin}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v \partial u}(1, \pi/2) = \text{Cos}(\pi/2) - \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \text{Sin}(\pi/2) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u \partial v}(u, v) = \text{Cos}(uv) - uv \text{Sin}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u \partial v}(1, \pi/2) = \text{Cos}(\pi/2) - \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \text{Sin}(\pi/2) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v^2}(u, v) = -u^2 \text{Sin}(uv) \text{ so } \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v^2}(1, \pi/2) = -\text{Sin}(\pi/2) = -1$$

Now,  $\varphi(T^0(f)) = f(1, \pi/2) = 1$ ;

$$\varphi(T(f)) = (x-1, y-\pi/2) \cdot \nabla f(1, \pi/2) = (x-1) \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(1, \pi/2) + (y-\pi/2) \frac{\partial f}{\partial v}(1, \pi/2) =$$

$$(x-1) \cdot 0 + (y-\pi/2) \cdot 0 = 0;$$

$$\varphi(T^2(f)) = (x-1)^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u^2}(1, \pi/2) + 2(x-1)(y-\pi/2) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial u \partial v}(1, \pi/2) + (y-\pi/2)^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial v^2}(1, \pi/2) =$$

$$-\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 (x-1)^2 - 2 \frac{\pi}{2} (x-1)(y-\pi/2) - (y-\pi/2)^2$$

Thus,  $P_2(x, y) = 1 - \frac{\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 (x-1)^2 + \pi(x-1)(y-\pi/2) + (y-\pi/2)^2}{2}$



### Another form of the error function

Recall that for a function  $g : R \rightarrow R$  that is  $n + 1$  times continuously differentiable,

$$E_n(b) = \int_a^b \frac{(b-t)^n}{n!} g^{(n+1)}(t) dt. \text{ We will now show that } E_n(b) = \frac{g^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} \text{ for some } c \in (a, b).$$

This form of the error will be useful in the next chapter.

**Lemma (Generalized Mean-Value Theorem):** Let  $f, g : [a, b] \subset R \rightarrow R$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If, in addition,  $g'(t) \neq 0$  on  $(a, b)$  then  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$  for some scalar  $c$  in  $(a, b)$ .

**Proof:** Let  $H : [a, b] \subset R \rightarrow R$  be defined by  $H(t) = (f(b) - f(a))g(t) - (g(b) - g(a))f(t)$ . Then  $H$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Thus, by the mean-value theorem, there exists a scalar  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $H'(c) = \frac{H(b) - H(a)}{b - a}$ . But  $H(a) = H(b)$  so  $H'(c) = 0$ . In particular,  $0 = H'(c) = (f(b) - f(a))g'(c) - (g(b) - g(a))f'(c)$ , from which the statement of the lemma follows. ▼

**Theorem:** Let  $g : R \rightarrow R$  be  $n + 1$  times continuously differentiable in an open interval  $I$  with  $t = a$  as its center. Then the  $n$ th order Taylor approximation error at  $b \in I$ ,  $E_n(b)$ , may be represented in the form  $\frac{g^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (b-a)^{n+1}$  for some  $c \in (a, b) \in I$

**Proof:** Let  $q(t) = (t-a)^{n+1}$ . Then  $q$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Furthermore,  $q, q', q'', \dots, q^{(n)}$  are never 0 on the interval  $(a, b)$ . If  $p_n(t)$  is the  $n$ th degree Taylor polynomial of  $g$ , then  $E_n(t) = g(t) - p_n(t)$ , is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  (as are  $E_n', E_n'', \dots, E_n^{(n)}$ ). Notice that  $q(a) = q'(a) = \dots = q^{(n)}(a) = 0$ . Similarly,  $E_n(a) = E_n'(a) = \dots = E_n^{(n)}(a) = 0$ . Therefore, by the generalized mean-value theorem,

$$\frac{E_n(b)}{q(b)} = \frac{E_n(b) - E_n(a)}{q(b) - q(a)} = \frac{E_n'(c_1)}{q'(c_1)} \quad (1)$$

Where  $a < c_1 < b$ .

Applying the generalized mean-value theorem again, we see that

$$\frac{E_n'(c_1)}{q'(c_1)} = \frac{E_n'(c_1) - E_n'(a)}{q'(c_1) - q'(a)} = \frac{E_n''(c_2)}{q''(c_2)} \quad (2)$$

Where  $a < c_2 < c_1 < b$ .

Continuing in this fashion, we see that

$$\frac{E_n(b)}{q(b)} = \frac{E_n^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})}{q^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})} = \frac{g^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})}{(n+1)!} \quad (3)$$

Where  $a < c_{n+1} < \dots < c_2 < c_1 < b$

Thus, after multiplying equation (3) by  $q(b)$  and re-naming  $c_{n+1}$  by  $c$ , we get the desired result.  $\blacktriangledown$

The theorem above implies that for  $f : R^m \rightarrow R$  and  $g : R \rightarrow R$  given by  $g(t) = f(a + t(x - a))$ ,

$E_n(1)$  is the same as  $\frac{g^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}$  for some  $c$  in the interval  $(0, 1)$ . In terms of the function  $f$ , this is

the same as  $\frac{((x-a) \bullet \nabla)^{n+1} f(u)}{(n+1)!} \Big|_{u=x_0}$  where  $x_0 = a + c(x-a)$ .