

# Econ 205 - Slides from Lecture 4

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# Mean-Value Theorem

## Theorem (Mean Value Theorem)

*If  $f$  is real valued and continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then  $\exists$  a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that*

$$f(b) - f(a) = (b - a)f'(c)$$

There must be a point between  $a$  and  $b$  such that the derivative at that point (i.e. slope of the tangent to the curve) is the same as that of the line connecting our two points.

# MVT and First Order Approximations

One form:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

Another form:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(c)(x - x_0)$$

# Proof of MVT

Proof.

Define

$$g(x) = f(x) - \left[ \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \right] (x - a)$$

We know that  $g(x)$  is continuous on compact  $[a, b]$ . Thus  $g(x)$  attains its maximum and minimum on  $[a, b]$ . Further,  $g(a) = g(b)$ , so either  $g$  has a local max at some point  $c \in (a, b)$  or  $g(x) \leq g(a)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  so  $g$  has a local min at some point  $c \in (a, b)$ . In either case, there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $g'(c) = 0$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} g'(c) &= f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$



# First Differential Equation

## Theorem

*Suppose  $f$  is real valued and continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f'(x) \equiv 0$  for  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is constant.*

The converse is true too: If  $f$  is constant, then it is differentiable and its derivative is always zero.

## Proof.

By the Mean Value Theorem, for all  $x \in [a, b]$ ,

$$f(x) - f(a) = f'(c)(x - a)$$

for some  $c \in [a, x]$ . Since the right-hand side is zero by assumption, we have  $f(x) = f(a)$  for all  $x$ , which is the desired result. □

## Theorem

Suppose that  $f$  is a continuous real-valued function defined on the interval  $(-1, 1)$ . Further suppose that  $f'(x)$  exists for all  $x \neq 0$  and that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x)$  exists.  $f$  is differentiable at  $x = 0$  and  $f'$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

## Proof.

By the Mean Value Theorem,

$$\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = f'(c)$$

for  $c$  between 0 and  $x$ . Since  $f'$  is continuous at 0,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f'(x)$ . It follows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} f'(c) = \lim_{c \rightarrow 0^-} f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x},$$

which establishes that  $f'(0)$  exists and is equal to  $\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} f'(c)$ .  $\square$

## Theorem

If

$$g : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

is the inverse of

$$f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$$

and if  $f$  is strictly increasing, differentiable and  $f' > 0$ , then

$$g'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

## Theorem

**(L'Hopital's Rule)** Consider functions  $f$  and  $g$  differentiable on  $[a, b)$ , where  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on  $[a, b)$ .

If either

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = 0$ ,      and       $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} g(x) = 0$   
OR

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \infty$ ,      and       $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} g(x) = \infty$

and further

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L \in \mathbb{R}$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$$



L'Hopital's Rule is a useful way to evaluate indeterminate forms (0/0).

You prove that the rule works by using a variation of the mean value theorem. In Case 1, what is going on is that

$f(x) = f(b) + f'(c)(x - b)$  for some  $c \in (x, b)$  and similarly  $g(x) = g(b) + g'(d)(x - b)$ . Since  $f(b) = g(b) = 0$  (loosely), the ratio of  $f$  to  $g$  is the ratio of derivatives of  $f$  and  $g$ . The trouble is that these derivatives are evaluated at different points. The good news is that you can prove a version of the Mean-Value Theorem that allows you to take  $c = d$ . This enables you to prove the theorem.

# Taylor's Theorem

1. We know about zero-th order approximations: Constants.
2. We know about first-order approximations: Linear functions with slope equal to derivative.
3. What about higher-order approximations?

An  $n$ th-order approximation is a polynomial of degree  $n$ , that is a function of the form

$$a_0 + a_1x + \cdots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n.$$

Technically, the degree of a polynomial is the largest power of  $n$  that appears with non-zero coefficient. So this polynomial has degree  $n$  if and only if  $a_n \neq 0$ .

An  $n^{\text{th}}$  order approximation of the function  $f$  at  $x$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n$ ,  $A_n$  that satisfies

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow x} \frac{f(y) - A_n(y)}{(y - x)^n} = 0.$$

# Higher-Order Derivatives

## Definition

The  $n$ th derivative of a function  $f$ , denoted  $f^n$ , is defined inductively to be the derivative of  $f^{(n-1)}$ .

We say  $f$  is of class  $C^n$  on  $(a, b)$  ( $f \in C^n$ ) if  $f^{(n)}(x)$  exists and is continuous  $\forall x$ .

One can check that, just as differentiability of  $f$  implies continuity of  $f$ , if  $f^n$  exists, then  $f^{n-1}$  is continuous.

# Taylor's Theorem

## Theorem (Taylor's Theorem)

Let  $f \in C^n$  and assume that  $f^n$  exists on  $(a, b)$  and let  $c$  and  $d$  be any points in  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists a point  $t$  between  $c$  and  $d$  and a polynomial  $A_n$  of degree at most  $n$  such that

$$f(d) = A_n(d) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(t)}{(n+1)!} (d - c)^{n+1}, \quad (1)$$

where  $A_n$  is the Taylor Polynomial for  $f$  centered at  $c$ :

$$A_n(d) = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{f^{(j)}(c)}{j!} (d - c)^j.$$

The theorem decomposes  $f$  into a polynomial and an error term

$$E_n = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(t)}{(n+1)!} (d - c)^{n+1}.$$

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

where

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow c} \frac{E_n}{(d - c)^n} = 0$$

The Taylor polynomial is, in fact, the  $n$ th order approximation of  $f$  at  $c$ .

## Uses of the theorem

1. “Smooth” functions have polynomial approximations.
2. Approximations.
3. Conceptual properties of linear and quadratic approximations.

## Aside: Exponential and Log

$f(x) = \log x$ . [Always base  $e$ .] Defined on  $(0, \infty)$ .  $g(y) = e^y$ .  
Defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Properties:

1.  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x} > 0$ .
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = -\infty$ ,
3.  $f(1) = 0$ ,  $f(e) = 1$
4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ .
5.  $g'(y) = g(y) > 0$ .
6.  $\lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} g(y) = 0$ .
7.  $\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} g(y) = \infty$
8.  $g(0) = 1$ .
9.  $g \circ f(x) = x$ ,  $f \circ g(y) = y$ .

## Example

- ▶  $f^{(k)}(x) = x^{-k}(-1)^{k-1}(k-1)!$
- ▶ so  $f^{(k)}(1) = (-1)^{k-1}(k-1)!$
- ▶ Hence:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^N (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(x-1)^k}{k} + E_N$$

where  $E_N = (-1)^N \frac{(y-1)^N}{N+1}$  for  $y$  between 1 and  $x$ .



$$\log(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(x-1)^k}{k}.$$

Sometimes this formula is written in the equivalent form:

$$\log(y+1) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{y^k}{k}.$$