

## $\mathrm{UiO}:$ University of Oslo

## Mean and Extreme

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- There should be a line of sight back towards school mathematics.

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Arithmetic series

## UiO : University of Oslo Arithmetic series

- Why is an arithmetic series called arithmetic?
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- In an arithmetic series, every term is the arithmetic mean of the two surrounding terms.

$$
\frac{1}{2}\left(a_{n+1}+a_{n-1}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(a_{n}+d+a_{n}-d\right)=\frac{1}{2} 2 a_{n}=a_{n} .
$$

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Geometric series

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- In a geometric series (with positive terms), every term is the geometric mean of the two surrounding terms.

$$
\left(a_{n+1} a_{n-1}\right)^{1 / 2}=\left[\left(a_{n} r\right)\left(a_{n} / r\right)\right]^{1 / 2}=\left(a_{n}^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}=a_{n}
$$

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$$
\frac{2}{\frac{1}{1 /(n+1)}+\frac{1}{1 /(n-1)}}=\frac{2}{n+1+n-1}=\frac{2}{2 n}=\frac{1}{n} .
$$

## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Confusing means - Simpson's paradox

## Confusing means - Simpson's paradox

- In 1973 UC Berkeley admitted 44\% of males and 35\% of females who applied to grad school. The tables show admission data from the six largest departments.

| Department | Male acceptance rate | Female acceptance rate |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| A | $62 \%$ | $82 \%$ |
| B | $63 \%$ | $68 \%$ |
| C | $37 \%$ | $34 \%$ |
| D | $33 \%$ | $35 \%$ |
| E | $28 \%$ | $24 \%$ |
| F | $6 \%$ | $7 \%$ |


| Department | Male |  | Female |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Applicants | $\%$ | Applicants | $\%$ |
| A | 825 | $62 \%$ | 108 | $82 \%$ |
| B | 560 | $63 \%$ | 25 | $68 \%$ |
| C | 325 | $37 \%$ | 593 | $34 \%$ |
| D | 417 | $33 \%$ | 375 | $35 \%$ |
| E | 191 | $28 \%$ | 393 | $24 \%$ |
| F | 373 | $6 \%$ | 341 | $7 \%$ |

## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Confusing means - Simpson's paradox 2

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- Your Principal is impressed that all the weak students passed, and next year you get a class with 15 strong students and 10 weak students. This year the strong students increase their average to 85, and the weak students increase their average to 55.


## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Confusing means - Simpson's paradox 2

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- You are quite proud of yourself, but the Principal calls you in and is unhappy because the overall average has dropped from $(20 \cdot 80+5 \cdot 50) / 25=74$ to $(15 \cdot 85+10 \cdot 55) / 25=73$.


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- The arithmetic mean may look innocent, but can be devious.


## UiO : University of Oslo <br> What is the meaning of the geometric mean?

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- Given a rectangle with sides $x$ and $y$, we want to find a square with the same area. What is the side of the square?


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- Given a rectangle with sides $x$ and $y$, we want to find a square with the same area. What is the side of the square?
- $z=\sqrt{x y}=\operatorname{GM}(x, y)$.


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- You drive to work during rush hour with an average speed of $30 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{h}$. Going home you manage an average speed of $60 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{h}$. What was your average speed for the whole trip?


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- Assume that the distance is $d$. Then your average speed was

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\frac{2 d}{d / 30+d / 60}=\frac{2}{1 / 30+1 / 60}=\frac{2 \cdot 60}{2+1}=40=H(30,60)
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- The term harmonic is related to music theory.


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The harmonic series diverges

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- This was shown by Nicole Oresme around 1350.

$$
\begin{array}{r}
1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{5}+\frac{1}{6}+\frac{1}{7}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots \\
> \\
1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{8}+\frac{1}{16}+\cdots
\end{array}
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\end{array}
$$

- This argument shows that

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{2^{k}} \frac{1}{n}>1+\frac{k}{2}
$$

and we see that the series diverges.

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The AGH inequality

$\operatorname{AM}(a, b) \geq \mathrm{GM}(a, b) \geq \mathrm{HM}(a, b)$.

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Proof of the AGH inequality


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2}=G^{2}+\left(a-\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& \frac{(a+b)^{2}}{4}=G^{2}+\frac{(a-b)^{2}}{4} \\
& (a+b)^{2}=4 G^{2}+(a-b)^{2} \\
& 2 a b=4 G^{2}-2 a b \\
& G^{2}=a b \\
& G=\sqrt{a b}=G M(a, b) \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof of the AGH inequality 2

## UiO : University of Oslo

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- By similar triangles $A / G=G / H$ or $G^{2}=A H$. Hence

$$
H=\frac{G^{2}}{A}=\frac{a b}{\frac{a+b}{2}}=\frac{2}{\frac{a+b}{a b}}=\frac{2}{\frac{1}{a}+\frac{1}{b}}=\mathrm{HM}(a, b)
$$

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Maximum volume of a cut off box


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## Maximum volume of a cut off box

- Consider a rectangle of width 1 and length $L$. We cut off squares of side $x$ in each corner and fold to get a box of volume

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V(L, x)=x(L-2 x)(1-2 x)
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- If we solve $V^{\prime}(x)=0$ we get

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x=\frac{L+1-\sqrt{(L+1)^{2}-3 L}}{6} .
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- If we set $L=1$, we get

$$
x=\frac{1+1-\sqrt{(1+1)^{2}-3 \cdot 1}}{6}=\frac{2-\sqrt{2^{2}-3}}{6}=\frac{1}{6}
$$

- In that case the area of the base is $(2 / 3)^{2}=4 / 9$, while the area of the side wall equals $4 \cdot 1 / 6 \cdot 2 / 3=4 / 9$.


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## Maximum volume of a cut off box 2

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- Is it a coincidence that these two areas are equal?


## UiO: University of Oslo <br> Maximum volume of a cut off box 2

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- Is it a coincidence that these two areas are equal?
- Consider a convex, closed curve $W$, and let $W(t)$ be the curve obtained by pushing $W$ inward along the normal line a distance $t$. We can then "fold" up to get a box.
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- Consider a convex, closed curve $W$, and let $W(t)$ be the curve obtained by pushing $W$ inward along the normal line a distance $t$. We can then "fold" up to get a box.
- Let $A(t)$ be the area of the region inside $W(t)$, let $P(t)$ be the perimeter of $W(t)$ and let $V(t)$ be the volume of the box.
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- Is it a coincidence that these two areas are equal?
- Consider a convex, closed curve $W$, and let $W(t)$ be the curve obtained by pushing $W$ inward along the normal line a distance $t$. We can then "fold" up to get a box.
- Let $A(t)$ be the area of the region inside $W(t)$, let $P(t)$ be the perimeter of $W(t)$ and let $V(t)$ be the volume of the box.
- I claim that $A^{\prime}(t)=-P(t)$.


## UiO: University of Oslo <br> Maximum volume of a cut off box 3

- We have $A^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(t+h)-A(t)}{h}$, and we can interpret $A(t+h)-A(t)$ as the negative of the area of a "ring" of thickness $h$. Since the area of the ring will have area approximately equal to $P(t) t$, we get that

$$
A^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(t+h)-A(t)}{h} \approx \lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-P(t) h}{h}=-P(t)
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- We have $V(t)=A(t) t$, so $V^{\prime}(t)=A^{\prime}(t) t+A(t)=-P(t) t+A(t)=0$ precisely when the area of the base equals the area of the wall.


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$$
f_{n}(x)= \begin{cases}x^{n} \sin (1 / x) & \text { if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if } x=0\end{cases}
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- Note that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} x \sin (1 / x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin (1 / x)}{1 / x}=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin (y)}{y}=1 .
$$

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- $f_{0}$ is not continuous at $x=0$, since $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} f_{0}(x)$ does not exist.

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- Remember that $\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} f_{1}(x)=1$.

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$x \sin (1 / x)$ part 2

- $f_{1}$ is continuous, since it is squeezed by $\pm x$, but

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_{1}(x)-f_{1}(0)}{x-0}=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin (1 / x)-0}{x-0}=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \sin (1 / x)
$$

does not exist, so $f_{1}$ is not differentiable at $x=0$.

UiO: University of Oslo
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- Setting $y=1 / x$ and using L'Hôpital's rule, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \lim _{x \rightarrow \infty}\left(x^{2} \sin (1 / x)-x\right)=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0}\left(\sin y / y^{2}-1 / y\right)= \\
& \lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin y-y}{y^{2}}=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos y-1}{2 y}=\lim _{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\sin y}{2}=0
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- $f_{2}$ is differentiable, since it is squeezed by $\pm x^{2}$.

UiO: University of Oslo
$x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ part 2

$$
f_{2}^{\prime}(0)=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^{2} \sin (1 / x)-0}{x-0}=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin (1 / x)=0
$$

However, for $x \neq 0$ we have $f_{2}^{\prime}(x)=2 x \sin (1 / x)-\cos (1 / x)$, and

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\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} f_{2}^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0}(2 x \sin (1 / x)-\cos (1 / x))
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does not exist.

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- So $f_{2}$ is differentiable, but not continuously differentiable!
- This is the mother of all counterexamples!
- Mean Value Theorem: Assume that $f$ is differentiable on $(a, b)$ and continuous on $[a, b]$. Then there is $c \in(a, b)$ such that

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



## UiO : University of Oslo

Monotonicity 2

- $f$ is increasing if $x<y \Longrightarrow f(x) \leq f(y)$.
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- Assume that $f^{\prime}>0$ on $(a, b)$. Given $a<x<y<b$, we can find $c \in(x, y)$ such that $f(y)-f(x)=f^{\prime}(c)(y-x)>0$. It follows that
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- $f^{\prime}>0$ on $(a, b) \Longrightarrow f$ is strictly increasing on $(a, b)$.
- $f^{\prime} \geq 0$ on $(a, b) \Longrightarrow f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$.
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- If $f$ is increasing, then $f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h} \geq 0$. It follows that
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- $f^{\prime} \geq 0$ on $(a, b) \Longleftarrow f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$.
- $f(x)=x^{3}$ shows that $f^{\prime}>0$ on $(a, b) \nLeftarrow f$ is strictly increasing on $(a, b)$.
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- If $f$ is increasing, then $f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h} \geq 0$. It follows that
- $f^{\prime} \geq 0$ on $(a, b) \Longleftarrow f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$.
- $f(x)=x^{3}$ shows that $f^{\prime}>0$ on $(a, b) \nLeftarrow f$ is strictly increasing on ( $a, b$ ).
- Limits do not preserve strict inequalities.

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Extreme point

- Assume that $c$ is a minimum point and that $f^{\prime}(c)$ exists. Consider $f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h}$. If $h$ is positive, the fraction is positive, and if $h$ is negative, the fraction is negative. Since the limit exists, it must be zero.
- Assume that $c$ is a minimum point and that $f^{\prime}(c)$ exists. Consider $f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h}$. If $h$ is positive, the fraction is positive, and if $h$ is negative, the fraction is negative. Since the limit exists, it must be zero.
- Assume that $f^{\prime}$ exists around $c$, and $f^{\prime}(x)$ is positive for $x>c$ and negative for $x<c$. If $x>c$, then there is a $d$ between $c$ and $x$ such that $f(x)-f(c)=f^{\prime}(d)(x-c)>0$. If $x<c$, then there is a $d$ between $x$ and $c$ such that $f(c)-f(x)=f^{\prime}(d)(c-x)<0$. It follows that $c$ is a minimum point.
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- However, the converse is not always true.

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Extreme point 2

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 Extreme point 2- We start with a parabola and add $x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ to create an oscillating parabola.


## Extreme point 2

- We start with a parabola and add $x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ to create an oscillating parabola.
- Since $\left.x^{2}+x^{2} \sin (1 / x)\right)$ has infinitely many zeros, we instead start with $x^{2}$ and use $f(x)=x^{2}(+1 / 2 \sin (1 / x))$, which satisfies $1 / 2 x^{2} \geq f(x) \geq 3 / 2 x^{2}$.

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Extreme point 3

- $f$ obviously has a minimum at $x=0$, but it is easy to see that $f^{\prime}$ is both positive and negative arbitrarily close to $x=0$.


## Extreme point 3

- $f$ obviously has a minimum at $x=0$, but it is easy to see that $f^{\prime}$ is both positive and negative arbitrarily close to $x=0$.
- We have $f^{\prime}(x)=4 x+2 x \sin (1 / x)-\cos (1 / x)$, and if $x$ is close to zero, the first two terms will be close to zero, too, while the last term will oscillate between 1 and -1 .

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Increasing

- If $f^{\prime}$ is positive on $(a, b)$, then $f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$. But what if we only know that $f^{\prime}(c)>0$ ? Can we say that $f$ is increasing on an interval around $c$ ?
- If $f^{\prime}$ is positive on $(a, b)$, then $f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$. But what if we only know that $f^{\prime}(c)>0$ ? Can we say that $f$ is increasing on an interval around $c$ ?
- We start with a straight line and add $x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ to create an oscillating line. It turns out that it will be easer if we add $2 x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$, so we set $f(x)=x+2 x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$.
- If $f^{\prime}$ is positive on $(a, b)$, then $f$ is increasing on $(a, b)$. But what if we only know that $f^{\prime}(c)>0$ ? Can we say that $f$ is increasing on an interval around $c$ ?
- We start with a straight line and add $x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ to create an oscillating line. It turns out that it will be easer if we add $2 x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$, so we set $f(x)=x+2 x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$.
- Then $f^{\prime}(x)=1+4 x \sin (1 / x)-2 \cos (1 / x)$, and when $x$ is close to zero, then will oscillate between 3 and -1 , so $f^{\prime}$ will be both positive and negative in every neighborhood of 0 .


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Point of inflection

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- We say that $c$ is a point of inflection if $f$ has a tangent line at $c$ and $f^{\prime \prime}$ changes sign at $c$. (Some people only require that $f$ should be continuous at $c$.)


## UiO : University of Oslo

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- Let us consider some examples.
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- Let us consider some examples.
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- Let us consider some examples.
- $f(x)=x^{3}$ has $f^{\prime}(0)=0$, but 0 is not an extremum, but a point of inflection.
- $f(x)=x^{3}+x$ shows that $f^{\prime}$ does not have to be 0 at a point of inflection.

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Point of inflection 2

- $f(x)=x^{1 / 3}$ has a point of inflection at 0 , has a tangent line at 0 , but $f^{\prime}(0)$ and $f^{\prime \prime}(0)$ do not exist. (Vertical tangent line. Just bend a bit, and both derivatives will exist.)


## UiO : University of Oslo

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$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2} \text { if } x \geq 0 \\
-x^{2} \text { if } x<0
\end{array}\right.
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$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}+x \text { if } x \geq 0, \\
-x^{2}-2 x \text { if } x<0
\end{array}\right.
$$

does not have a tangent line at 0 , since the first derivatives do not match. However, the second derivative changes sign at 0 . Is this a point of inflection? I have chosen to not include this, but some people do.

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Point of inflection 3

1. If $c$ is a point of inflection and $f^{\prime \prime}(c)$ exists, then $f^{\prime \prime}(c)=0$.

## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 3

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## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 3

1. If $c$ is a point of inflection and $f^{\prime \prime}(c)$ exists, then $f^{\prime \prime}(c)=0$.
2. If $c$ is a point of inflection, then $c$ is an isolated extremum of $f^{\prime}$.
3. If $c$ is a point of inflection, then the curve lies on different sides of the tangent line at $c$.

UiO : University of Oslo
Point of inflection 4

- Proof of 3: We use MVT go get $x_{1}$ between $c$ and $x$ with

$$
\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)
$$

or

$$
f(x)=f(c)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)(x-c)
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f(x)=f(c)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)(x-c)
$$

- We now use MVT again to get $x_{2}$ between $c$ and $x_{1}$ with

$$
\frac{f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)-f^{\prime}(c)}{x_{1}-c}=f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{2}\right)
$$

or

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)=f^{\prime}(c)+f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{2}\right)\left(x_{1}-c\right)
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## UiO : University of Oslo

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$$

or

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)=f^{\prime}(c)+f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{2}\right)\left(x_{1}-c\right)
$$

- Combining this, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =f(c)+f^{\prime}\left(x_{1}\right)(x-c) \\
& =f(c)+f^{\prime}(c)(x-c)+f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{2}\right)(x-c)\left(x_{1}-c\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 5

- The tangent line to $f(x)$ at $c$ is $t(x)=f(c)+f^{\prime}(c)(x-c)$, so the distance between $f$ and the tangent is $f^{\prime}\left(x_{2}\right)(x-c)\left(x_{1}-c\right)$.


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- Since $\left(x_{1}-c\right)$ and $\left(x_{1}-c\right)$ have the same sign, their product is positive. But $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ changes sign at c , so $f(x)$ will lie on different sides of the tangent at $c$.
- Converse to 1 is false: $f(x)=x^{4}$ has $f^{\prime \prime}(0)=0$, but $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq 0$.


## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 6

- Converse to 1 is false: $f(x)=x^{4}$ has $f^{\prime \prime}(0)=0$, but $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq 0$.
- Converse to 2 is false: $f(x)=x^{3}+x^{4} \sin (1 / x)$ has

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(x) & =3 x^{2}-x^{2} \cos (1 / x)+4 x^{3} \sin (1 / x) \\
& =x^{2}(3-\cos (1 / x)+4 x \sin (1 / x) \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

in a neighborhood of 0 , so 0 is an isolated minimum of $f^{\prime}(x)$. We have $f^{\prime \prime}(0)=0$, but
$f^{\prime \prime}(x)=6 x-\sin (1 / x)-6 x \cos (1 / x)+12 x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$ does not change sign.

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UiO : University of Oslo
Point of inflection 7

## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 7

- We need to "integrate" the example $2 x^{2}+x^{2} \sin (1 / x)$. Since the derivative of $1 / x$ is $-1 / x^{2}$, we try

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) & =x^{3}+x^{4} \sin (1 / x) \\
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- The first two terms give us the shape we want, and the last terms is so small that we can ignore it.


## UiO : University of Oslo <br> Point of inflection 8

- Converse to 3 is false: $f(x)=x^{3}+1 / 2 x^{3} \sin (1 / x)=x^{3}(1+1 / 2 \sin (1 / x))$ lies below the tangent $(y=0)$ on one side and above the tangent on another, but
$f^{\prime \prime}(x)=6 x+3 x \sin (1 / x)-\cos (1 / x)-1 / 2(1 / x) \sin (1 / x)$ does not change sign, since when $x$ is small, the last term will be oscillate wildly.


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- The cubic terms gives the desired shape of the curve, and since the derivative of $1 / x$ is $-1 / x^{2}$, we will get a term of the form $(1 / x) \sin (1 / x)$ in $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$, which will make it oscillate wildly.


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