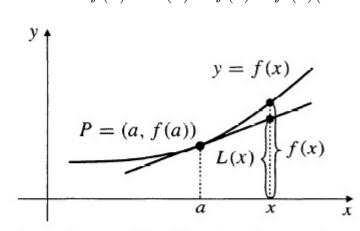
§12.6. Linear Approximations, Differentiability, and Differentials

The tangent line of the graph y = f(x) at x = a provides a convenient approximation for values of f(x) for x near a:

$$f(x) \approx L(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a).$$



The linearization of f at

x = a

Here, L(x) is the **linearization** of f at a; its graph is the tangent line to y = f(x) there.

Similarly, the tangent plane to the graph of z = f(x, y) at (a, b) is z = L(x, y), where

$$f(x,y) \approx L(x,y) = f(a,b) + f_1(a,b)(x-a) + f_2(a,b)(y-b)$$

is the **linearization** of f at (a, b).

Example 1. Find an approximate value for $f(x,y) = \sqrt{2x^2 + e^{2y}}$ at (2.2, -0.2).

It is convenient to use the linearization at (2,0), where the values of f and its partials are easily evaluated:

$$f_1(x,y) = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{2x^2 + e^{2y}}},$$

$$f_2(x,y) = \frac{e^{2y}}{\sqrt{2x^2 + e^{2y}}},$$

$$f(2,0) = 3, f_1(2,0) = \frac{4}{3}, f_2(2,0) = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Thus,
$$L(x,y) = 3 + \frac{4}{3}(x-2) + \frac{1}{3}(y-0)$$
, and $f(2.2, -0.2) \approx L(2.2, -0.2) = 3 + \frac{4}{3}(2.2-2) + \frac{1}{3}(-0.2-0) = 3.2$

Definition. We say that the function f(x,y) is **differentiable** at the point (a,b) if

$$\lim_{(h,k)\to(0,0)} \frac{f(a+h,b+k) - f(a,b) - hf_1(a,b) - kf_2(a,b)}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2}} = 0.$$

The function f(x,y) is differentiable at the point (a,b) if and only if the surface z = f(x,y) has a nonvertical tangent plane at (a,b). This implies that $f_1(a,b)$ and $f_2(a,b)$ must exist and that f

must be continuous at (a, b). In particular, the function is continuous whenever it is differentiable.

Theorem 1. If f_1 and f_2 are continuous in neighbourhood of the point (a, b), then f is differentiable at (a, b).

Differentials

If the first partial derivatives of a function $z = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ exist at a point, we may construct a differential dz or df of the function at that point in a manner similar to that used for functions of one variable:

$$dz = df = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_1} dx_1 + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_2} dx_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x_n} dx_n$$

$$= f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)dx_1 + ... + f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)dx_n.$$

Here, the differential dz is considered to be a function of the 2n independent variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n, dx_1, dx_2, ..., dx_n$.

For a differentiable function f, the differential df is an approximation to the change Δf in value of the function given by,

$$df \approx \triangle f = f(x_1 + dx_1, ..., x_n + dx_n) - f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n).$$

The error in this approximation is small compared with the distance

between the two points in the domain of f; that is,

$$\frac{\triangle f - df}{\sqrt{(dx_1)^2 + \dots + (dx_n)^2}} \to 0$$

if all $dx_i \to 0$, $(1 \le i \le n)$.

In this sense, differentials are just another way of looking at linearization.

Example 2. Estimate the percentage change in the period $T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$ of a simple pendulum if the length, L, of the pendulum increases by 2 percent and acceleration of gravity, g, decreases by 0.6 percent.

We calculate the differential of T:

$$dT = \frac{\partial T}{\partial L}dL + \frac{\partial T}{\partial g}dg$$
$$= \frac{2\pi}{2\sqrt{Lg}}dL - \frac{2\pi\sqrt{L}}{2g^{3/2}}dg.$$

We know that $dL = \frac{2}{100}L$ and $dg = -\frac{6}{1000}g$. Thus,

$$dT = \frac{1}{100} 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} - (-\frac{6}{1000}) \frac{2\pi}{2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} = \frac{13}{1000} T.$$

Therefore, the period T of the pendulum increases by 1.3 percent.