ENG1005: Lecture 24

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Video link

Click here for a recording of the lecture.

Taylor's theorem in higher dimensions §9.7.1

Suppose f(x,y) has partial derivatives up to (n+1)th order that are continuous on some disc $\overline{B}_{\rho}((a,b))$. Then for $\sqrt{h^2+k^2} \leq p$, the function

$$g(t) = f(a+th,b+tk) \in \overline{B}_{\rho}((a,b))$$
 for $t \in [-1,1]$

and its derivatives up to (n+1)th order are continuous on [-1,1]. Thus, by Taylor's Theorem, we know that

$$g(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{n} \frac{1}{r!} \frac{d^{r}g}{dt^{r}} t^{r} + \frac{t^{n+1}}{n!} \frac{d^{n+1}g}{dt^{n+1}} (\theta t), \quad 0 < \theta < 1$$

By the chain rule,

$$\begin{split} \frac{dg}{dt}(0) &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) \frac{d}{dt}(a+th) \right|_{t=0} + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) \frac{d}{dt}(b+tk) \right|_{t=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) h + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) k \right. \end{split}$$

where x = a + th, y = b + tk.

Similar calculations show that

$$\frac{d^2g}{dt^2}(0) = h^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a,b) + 2hk \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(a,b) + k^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(a,b)$$

and, more generally,

$$\frac{d^r g}{dt^r}(0) = \sum_{\ell=0}^r \binom{r}{\ell} h^\ell k^{r-\ell} \frac{\partial^r f}{\partial x^\ell \partial y^{r-\ell}}(a,b)$$

where

$$\binom{r}{\ell} = \frac{r!}{\ell!(r-\ell)!}$$

These formulae show that at t=1,

$$f((a,b) + (h,k)) = f(a,b) + h\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b) + k\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b) + \frac{1}{2}\left(h^2\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a,b) + 2hk\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x\partial y}(a,b) + k^2\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(a,b)\right) + \sum_{r=3}^n \frac{1}{r!} \sum_{\ell=0}^r \binom{r}{\ell} \frac{\partial^r f}{\partial x^\ell \partial y^{r-\ell}}(a,b)h^\ell k^{\ell-r} + \sum_{\ell=0}^{n+1} R_\ell(h,k)h^\ell k^{n+1-\ell}$$

where the R_{ℓ} are continuous on $\overline{B}_{\rho}((0,0))$, and $h, k \in \overline{B}_{\rho}((0,0))$. This formula is the 2 dimensional version of Taylor's Theorem.

Note that the first line is the most important part for us.

Setting

$$h = x - a$$
 and $k = y - b$

we can write the above result as

$$f(x,y) = f(a,b) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b)(x-a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b)(y-b) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(a,b)(x-a)^2 + 2\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x-a)(y-b) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}(y-b)^2 \right)$$

$$+ \sum_{r=3}^n \frac{1}{r!} \sum_{\ell=0}^r \binom{r}{\ell} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^\ell \partial y^{r-\ell}}(a,b)(x-a)^\ell (y-b)^{\ell-r} + \sum_{\ell=0}^{n+1} R_\ell (x-a,y-b)(x-a)^\ell (y-b)^{n+1-\ell}$$

Again, we're mainly going to be interested in the first and second order Taylor polynomials.

Linearisation

By Taylor's Theorem, we have that

$$f(x,y) \approx L(x,y)$$
 for $\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2} \ll 1$

where

$$L(x,y) = f(x,y) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(a,b)(x-a) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(a,b)(y-b)$$

is known as the **linearisation** (or linear approximation) of f(x,y) at the point (a,b).

Example

Find the linear approximation to $f(x,y) = xe^{xy}$ at the point (1,0) and use this to approximate f(1.2,-0.1).

Solution

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (xe^{xy}) = e^{xy} + xye^{xy} = e^{xy}(1 + xy)$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (xe^{xy}) = x^2 e^{xy}$$

So,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(1,0) = e^{0}(1+0) = 1$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(1,0) = 1^{2}e^{0} = 1$$

$$f(1,0) = 1e^{0} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow L(x,y) = 1 + (x-1) + y = x + y$$

$$\Rightarrow f(1.2, -0.1) \approx L(1.2, -0.1) = 1.2 + (-0.1) = 1.1$$

If you check the error here, you should find it to be |f(1.2, -0.1) - L(1.2, -0.1)| = 0.0142, which is quite good considering we only used the first order approximation.

<u>Note:</u> In higher dimensions, the linearisation of $f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ at the point $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$ is

$$L(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = f(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)(x_i - a_i)$$

Differential §9.6.9

The differential of a function f(x, y) is defined by

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy$$

or, when evaluated at a point $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ by

$$df(x_0, y_0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, y_0) dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x_0, y_0) dy$$

Note that the differential is related to the linearisation of f(x,y) at the point (x_0,y_0) by

$$L(x,y) = f(x_0,y_0) + df(x_0,y_0)$$

where $dx = x - x_0$ and $dy = y - y_0$.

Note that you can think of df as measuring the approximate change in f due to the change $(x_0, y_0) \mapsto (x_0 + dx, y_0 + dy)$.

Example

Estimate the change in the period

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$$

of a simple pendulum due to a 2% increase in length L and a 0.6% decrease in the gravitational acceleration g.

Solution

$$dL = \frac{2}{100}L \text{ and } dg = \frac{-6}{100}g$$

Substituting this into

$$\begin{split} dT &= \frac{\partial T}{\partial L} \, dL + \frac{\partial T}{\partial g} \, dg \\ &= 2\pi \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}} \frac{1}{g} \, dL + 2\pi \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}} \left(\frac{-L}{g^2}\right) \, dg \\ &= \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{Lg}} \, dL - \frac{\pi\sqrt{L}}{g^{\frac{3}{2}}} \, dg \end{split}$$

yields

$$dT = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{Lg}} \frac{1}{50} L + \frac{\pi\sqrt{L}}{g^{\frac{3}{2}}} \frac{3}{50} g$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{50} \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} + \frac{3\pi}{50} \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$$
$$= \frac{2\pi}{25} \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$$