

ENG1005: Lecture 24

Lex Gallon

May 15, 2020

Contents

Taylor's theorem in higher dimensions §9.7.1	1
Linearisation	2
Example	2
Solution	3
Differential §9.6.9	3
Example	3
Solution	4

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 $\sqrt{h^2 + k^2} \leq \rho$, the function

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

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,

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

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

Similar calculations show that

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

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 $t = 1$,

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

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

$$h = x - a \text{ and } k = y - b$$

we can write the above result as

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

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

Linearisation

By Taylor's Theorem, we have that

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

where

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

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

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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

yields

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