

From Math
2220 Class 16

V1ccc

1 Variable
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From Math 2220 Class 16

Dr. Allen Back

Oct. 3, 2014

1 Variable Taylor Series

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Multivariable Taylor approximation follows (using the chain rule) easily from the 1-variable case, so we'll start by reviewing how the results there work out.

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Taylor Series of $f(x)$ about $x = a$:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n.$$

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Partial sums (the $k + 1$ 'st) give the k 'th Taylor Polynomial.

$$P_k(x) = \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n.$$

(P_k is of degree k but has $k + 1$ terms because we start with 0.)

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So $P_1(x)$ is the linear approximation to $f(x)$ at $x = a$.

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Examples:

(a) e^x about $x = 0$

(b) e^x about $x = 2$

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Where does the formula for P_k come from heuristically?

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Where does the formula for P_k come from heuristically?

The k 'th Taylor polynomial $P_k(x)$ is the unique polynomial of degree k whose value, derivative, 2nd derivative, \dots k 'th derivative all agree with those of $f(x)$ at $x = a$.

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Where does the formula for P_k come from heuristically?

Or integration by parts: $u = f'(x)$, $v' = 1$, $v = (x - b)$

$$f(b) = f(a) + \int_a^b f'(x) dx$$

$$f(b) = f(a) + \left((x - b)f'(x) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b (x - b)f''(x) dx \right)$$

$$f(b) = f(a) + (b - a)f'(a) + \int_a^b (b - x)f''(x) dx$$

The last term is one form of the “remainder” in approximating $f(b)$ by the first Taylor polynomial (aka linear approximant) $P_1(b)$.

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Where does the formula for P_k come from heuristically?

Or integration by parts: $u = f''(x)$, $v' = (b - x)$, $v = \frac{-(b-x)^2}{2}$

$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \int_a^b (b-x)f''(x) dx$$
$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \left(\frac{-(b-x)^2}{2} f''(x) \right) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b \frac{-(b-x)^2}{2} f'''(x) dx$$

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Where does the formula for P_k come from heuristically?

Or integration by parts:

$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \left(\frac{-(b-x)^2}{2} f''(x) \right) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b \frac{-(b-x)^2}{2} f'''(x) dx$$
$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} f''(a) + \int_a^b \frac{(b-x)^2}{2} f'''(x) dx$$

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The above “integral formula” for the remainder can be turned into something simpler to remember but sufficient for most applications:

The next Taylor term except with the higher derivative evaluated at some unknown point c between a and b .

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Taylor's Theorem with Remainder

If $f(x), f'(x), \dots, f^{(k)}(x)$ all exist and are continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f^{(k+1)}(x)$ exists on (a, b) , then there is a $c \in (a, b)$ so that

$$f(b) = P_k(b) + R_k(b)$$

where P_k is the k 'th Taylor polynomial of f about $x = a$ and

$$R_k(b) = \frac{f^{(k+1)}(c)}{(k+1)!} (b-a)^{k+1}.$$

Please remember this!

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Example: Accuracy of $\sin x$ by $P_1(x)$ (or $P_3(x)$) (about $x = 0$)
for $|x| < .1$? Or $x < .01$?

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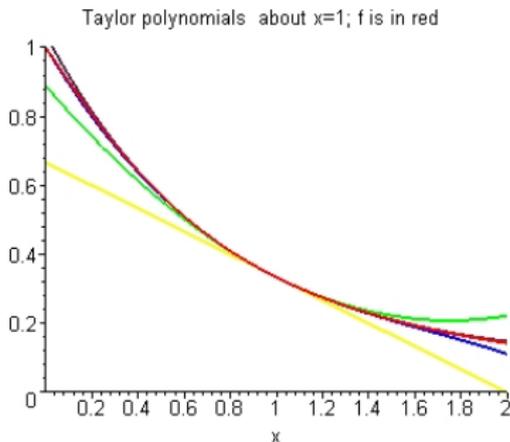
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$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x+x^2} \text{ about } x = 1.$$

Approximation properties of different Taylor polynomials near $x = 1$.



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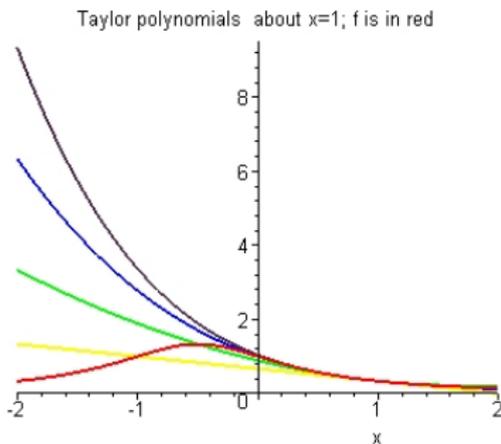
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Taylor polynomials of $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x+x^2}$ about $x = 1$.

Typically higher order approximate well for a greater distance.



(Bad behavior beyond the radius of convergence.)

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Show that the Maclaurin series of $\sin x$ converges to $\sin x$ for all x .

1 Variable Taylor Series

Show that the Maclaurin series of $\sin x$ converges to $\sin x$ for all x .

This is *different* than saying the radius of convergence is ∞ .
Some functions, e.g.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ e^{-\frac{1}{x}} & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

have a Taylor series which always converges, but not to $f(x)$ even near 0. In this case, every derivative is 0 at $x = 0$ and the Maclaurin series is identically 0!

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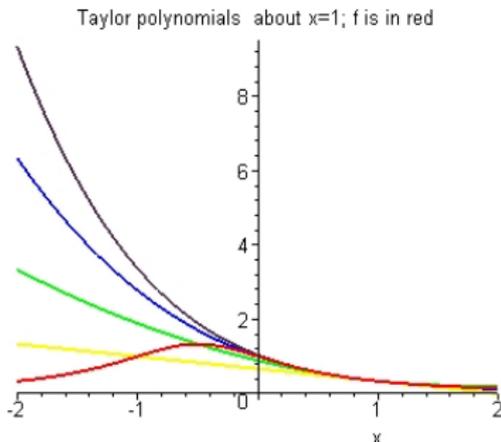
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Show that the Maclaurin series of $\sin x$ converges to $\sin x$ for all x .

The point here is that all derivatives are bounded functions taking values between -1 and $+1$. So you can show the remainder $R_n(x)$ goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Taylor polynomials of $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x+x^2}$ about $x = 1$.

Typically higher order approximate well for a greater distance.



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It is more advanced than our course, but there is an amazing connection between when Taylor series converge to a function and **differentiability of $f(x)$ for x viewed as a complex variable.**

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It is more advanced than our course, but there is an amazing connection between when Taylor series converge to a function and **differentiability of $f(x)$ for x viewed as a complex variable.**

For example, consider the MacLaurin series of $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$.

This fcn. is complex differentiable when $x \neq \pm i = \pm\sqrt{-1}$. And if one identifies the complex number $a + bi$ with the point $(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$, the nearest bad point of $\pm i \sim (0, \pm 1)$ is distance 1 from $0 = 0 + 0i \sim (0, 0)$. **So from this advanced point of view, the radius of convergence is 1!**

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Similarly, consider the above picture for $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x+x^2}$ about $x = 1$. This fcn. is bad when $1 + x + x^2 = 0$, or $x = \frac{-1 \pm i\sqrt{3}}{2}$. The distance from $1 + 0i \sim (1, 0)$ to $-\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$ is $\sqrt{3}$, so from this advanced point of view, that is the radius of convergence for this Taylor series.

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Given $f : U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, to find the formula for the k 'th Taylor polynomial P_k of a C^k function about the point $p_0 = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in U$, we consider the 1-variable function $g(t)$ defined by

$$g(t) = f(p_0 + th)$$

where $h = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

If we are interested in relating the Taylor polynomial P_k to the behavior of f at the point $p = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in U$ we might choose

$$h = (x_1 - a_1, x_2 - a_2, \dots, x_n - a_n)$$

as long as the entire line segment between p_0 and p lies in U .

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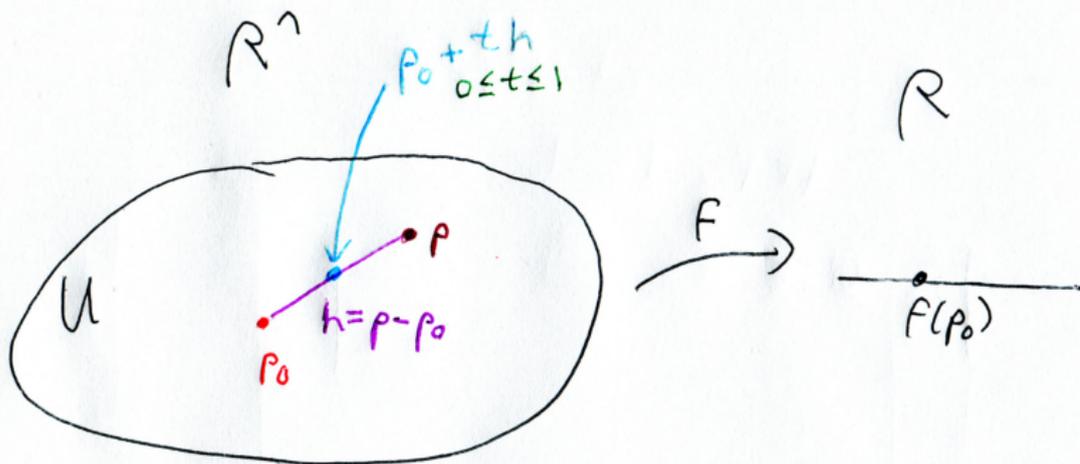
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$$g(t) = f(p_0 + th)$$



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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$g(t) = f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$g(t) = f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g'(t) = hf_x(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_y(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$g(t) = f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g'(t) = hf_x(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_y(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g''(t) = h(hf_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\ + k(hf_{yx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk))$$

Multivariable Taylor Polynomials

(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$g(t) = f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g'(t) = hf_x(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_y(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g''(t) = h(hf_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk))$$

$$+ k(hf_{yx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk))$$

$$= [h^2f_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + 2hkf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$+ k^2f_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)]$$

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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$g(t) = f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$g'(t) = hf_x(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_y(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)$$

$$\begin{aligned} g''(t) &= h(hf_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\ &\quad + k(hf_{yx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\ &= [h^2f_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + 2hkf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) \\ &\quad + k^2f_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)] \end{aligned}$$

$$g(0) = f(x_0, y_0)$$

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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$\begin{aligned}g'(t) &= hf_x(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) && +kf_y(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) \\g''(t) &= h(hf_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) && +kf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\&\quad + k(hf_{yx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) && +kf_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\&= [h^2f_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) && +2hkf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) \\&\quad + k^2f_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)] \\g(0) &= f(x_0, y_0) \\g'(0) &= hf_x(x_0, y_0) && +kf_y(x_0, y_0)\end{aligned}$$

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(2 variable case, f a C^3 function)

$$\begin{aligned}g''(t) &= h(hf_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\ &\quad + k(hf_{yx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + kf_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)) \\ &= [h^2f_{xx}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) + 2hkf_{xy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) \\ &\quad + k^2f_{yy}(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk)]\end{aligned}$$

$$g(0) = f(x_0, y_0)$$

$$g'(0) = hf_x(x_0, y_0) + kf_y(x_0, y_0)$$

$$g''(0) = [h^2f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) + 2hkf_{xy}(x_0, y_0) + k^2f_{yy}(x_0, y_0)]$$

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So the 1-variable Taylor (about $t = 0$) with Remainder at $t = 1$

$$g(t) = P_1 + R_1$$
$$g(1) = g(0) + g'(0)(1 - 0) + \frac{1}{2}g''(c)(1 - 0)^2$$

for some $c \in (0, 1)$ becomes the multivariable

Multivariable Taylor Polynomials

becomes the multivariable

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_0 + th, y_0 + tk) &= P_1 + R_1 \\ f(x_0 + h, y_0 + k) &= f(x_0, y_0) + hf_x(x_0, y_0) + kf_y(x_0, y_0) \\ (\text{i.e. } f(x, y)) &= f(x_0, y_0) + hf_x(x_0, y_0) + kf_y(x_0, y_0) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} [h^2 f_{xx}(x^*, y^*) + 2hkf_{xy}(x^*, y^*) \\ &\quad + k^2 f_{yy}(x^*, y^*)] \end{aligned}$$

for some point (x^*, y^*) on the (interior of the) line segment between (x_0, y_0) and (x, y) .

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Similarly

$$g'''(0) = h^3 f_{xxx}(x_0, y_0) + 3h^2 k f_{xxy}(x_0, y_0) \\ + 3hk^2 f_{xyy}(x_0, y_0) + k^3 f_{yyy}(x_0, y_0)$$

(with $g'''(t)$ similar) and 1-variable Taylor $g(1) = P_2 + R_2$ become for a C^3 function

$$f(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + hf_x(x_0, y_0) + kf_y(x_0, y_0) \\ + \frac{1}{2} [h^2 f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) + 2hkf_{xy}(x_0, y_0) \\ + k^2 f_{yy}(x_0, y_0)] \\ + \frac{1}{3!} [h^3 f_{xxx}(x^*, y^*) + 3h^2 kf_{xxy}(x^*, y^*) \\ + 3hk^2 f_{xyy}(x^*, y^*) + k^3 f_{yyy}(x^*, y^*)]$$

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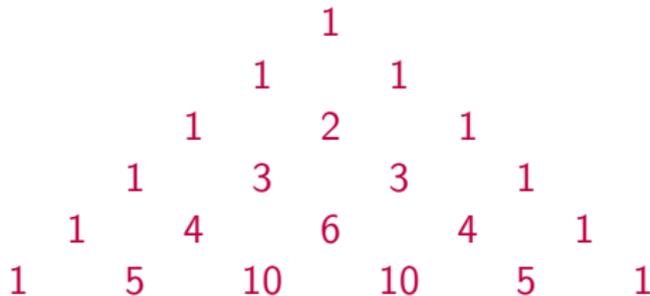
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The coefficients 1 1, 1 2 1 and 1 3 3 1 in the above derivative expressions are in fact the binomial coefficients from Pascal's triangle



which describes the expansion of $(x + y)^m$.

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Problem: Find the first and second Taylor polynomials of

$$f(x, y) = \cos(x + 3y) + \sin x$$

about $(x, y) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right)$.

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Problem: Find the first and second Taylor polynomials of

$$f(x, y) = \cos(x + 3y) + \sin x$$

about $(x, y) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right)$.

Estimate the error in approximating f by P_1 for $|x - \frac{\pi}{2}| < .1$
and $|y - \pi| < .1$.

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Problem: Find the first and second Taylor polynomials of

$$f(x, y) = \cos(x + 3y) + \sin x$$

about $(x, y) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right)$.

Estimate the error in approximating f by P_1 for $|x - \frac{\pi}{2}| < .01$
and $|y - \pi| < .01$.

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Problem: Find the first and second Taylor polynomials of

$$f(x, y) = \cos(x + 3y) + \sin x$$

about $(x, y) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right)$.

Find an ϵ so that the error in approximating f by P_1 for $|x - \frac{\pi}{2}| < \epsilon$ and $|y - \pi| < \epsilon$ is at most .01.

Or at most 10^{-6} .

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Now the 1-variable function $g(t) = f(p_0 + th)$ where $p_0 \in R^n$ and $h = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n)$ satisfies

$$g'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i (D_i g)(p_0 + th_i)$$

where D_i denotes the i 'th partial derivative.

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And

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n h_j D_j (D_i g)(p_0 + th_i) \right)$$

or

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n h_i h_j (D_{ij} g)(p_0 + th_i).$$

More than 2 Variables

And

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \left(\sum_{j=1}^n h_j D_j (D_i g)(p_0 + th_i) \right)$$

or

$$g''(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n h_i h_j (D_{ij} g)(p_0 + th_i).$$

Noting that

$$(h_1 + h_2 + \dots + h_n)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \sum_{j=1}^n h_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n h_i h_j$$

we can see how the binomial (actually multinomial) coefficients in $(h_1 + h_2 + \dots + h_n)^m$ enter when we collect terms in the Taylor polynomials.

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A good way to write the degree m part of the m 'th Taylor polynomial in terms of multi-index notation is

$$\sum_I \frac{1}{|I|!} \left(\frac{|I|!}{i_1! i_2! \dots i_n!} h^I D_I f \right)$$

where the n powers are arranged in a vector $I = (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n)$ and

$$|I| = i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_n \quad (= m \text{ for terms contributing to } P_m)$$

$$h^I = h_1^{i_1} h_2^{i_2} \dots h_n^{i_n}$$

$$D_I f = D_1^{i_1} D_2^{i_2} \dots D_n^{i_n} f$$

where for example $D_3^5 f$ means partially differentiate f 5 times with respect to the third variable x_3 .

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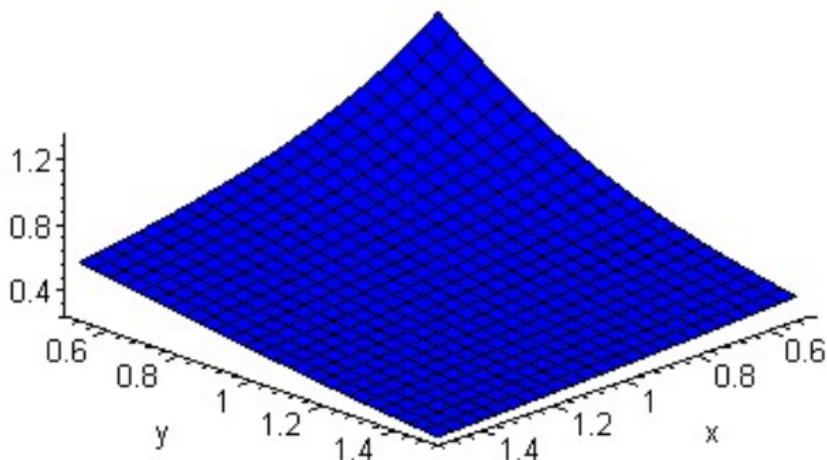
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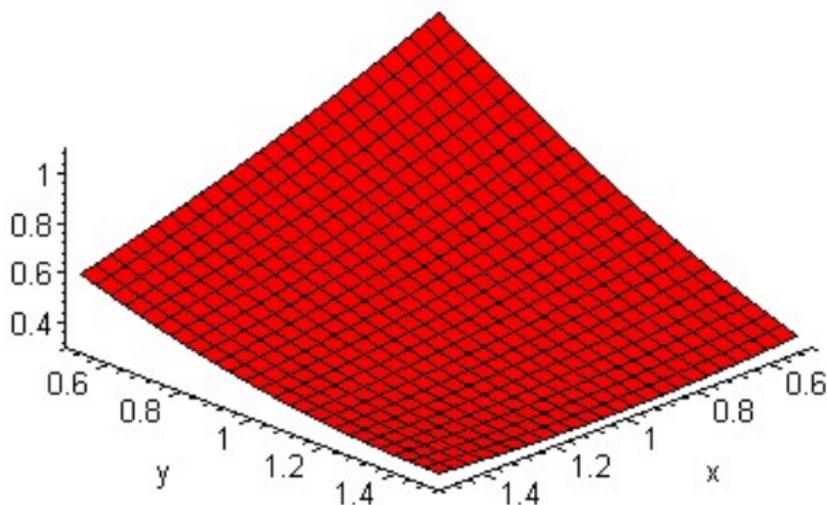
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Graph of $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x+y^2}$ for $.5 \leq x, y \leq 1.5$



Multivariable Taylor Pictures

P_2 about $(1, 1)$ for $f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x+y^2}$ for $.5 \leq x, y \leq 1.5$



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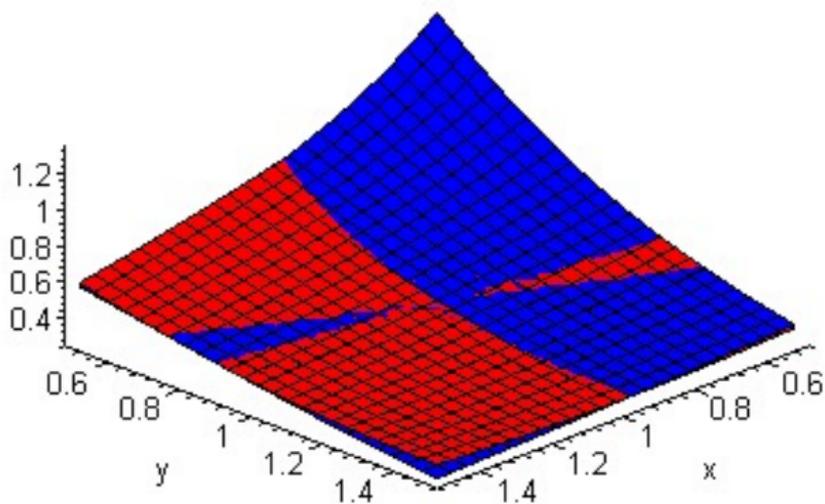
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Both superimposed for $.5 \leq x, y \leq 1.5$



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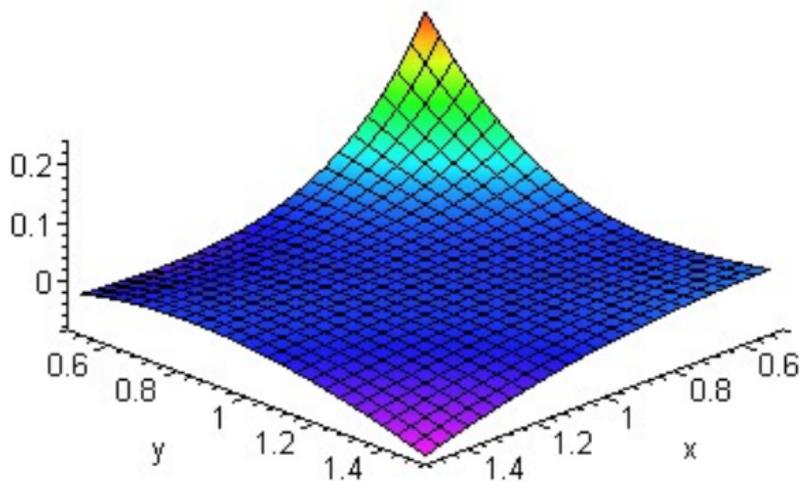
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Error in using P_2 for f for $.5 \leq x, y \leq 1.5$



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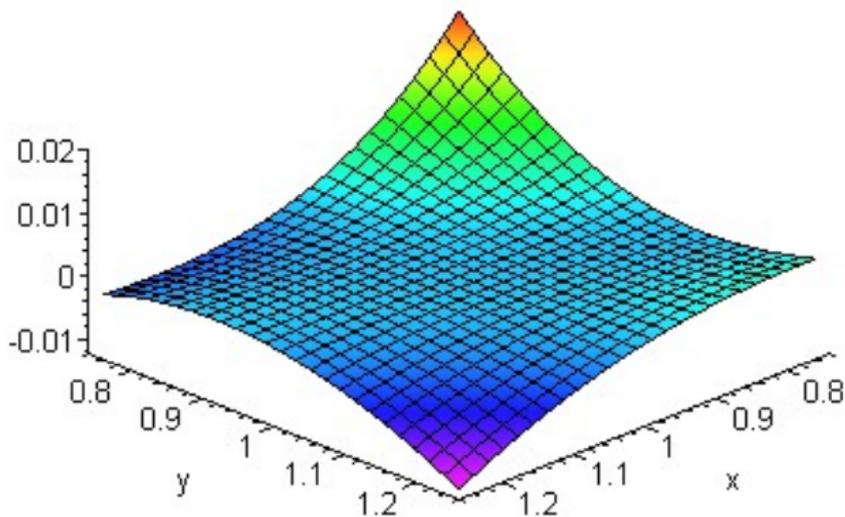
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Error in using P_2 for f for $.75 \leq x, y \leq 1.25$



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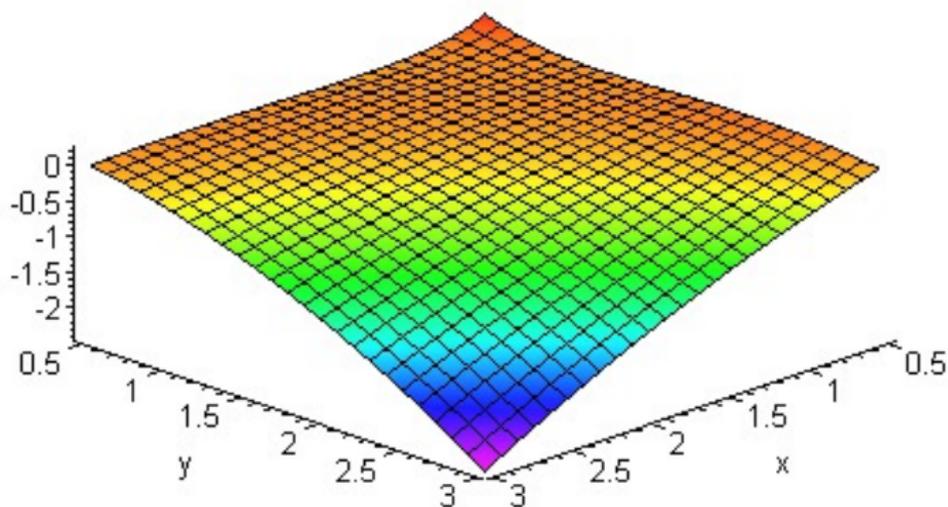
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Error in using P_2 for f for $0 \leq x, y \leq 3$



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Let $x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta$. Given $f(x, y)$, express

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2}$$

in terms of partials of f with respect to x and y .

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Really there are two functions here; namely $f(x, y)$ and

$$g(r, \theta) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta).$$

But many applied fields routinely use the same letter f for both functions.

Higher Partialials in Polar Coordinates

The key step is realizing that the task (via the chain rule) of relating $\frac{\partial f}{\partial r}$ to $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ is just like the task of doing the analogous thing with expressions like

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right).$$

(The right hand side “operator notation” means partially differentiate the function $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ of (x, y) with respect to r .)

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Higher Partialials in Polar Coordinates

$$x = r \cos \theta \quad y = r \sin \theta$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cos \theta + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \sin \theta$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \right) \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \right) \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) \cos \theta + \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \right) \sin \theta$$

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Higher Partial in Polar Coordinates

A similar computation with $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2}$ would show that the laplacian

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2}$$

is given in polar coordinates by

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \theta^2} \right).$$

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Problem 33 on page 146 from your homework asks you to show using the chain rule that if $z = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ for a 1-variable differentiable function f , then

$$x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0.$$

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Problem 33 on page 146 from your homework asks you to show using the chain rule that if $z = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$ for a 1-variable differentiable function f , then

$$x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0.$$

You don't need it to do this homework problem, but a natural question is

$$\text{Does } x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0 \text{ imply } z = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

for some 1-variable differentiable function f ?

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The answer is yes, and we can easily show it using what we learned in section 2.6!

(i.e. essentially chain rule ideas applied to curves.)

Method of Characteristics

The beautiful idea for the equation

$$a(x, y) \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + b(x, y) \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = c(x, y, z)$$

is to consider curves $(x(t), y(t))$ called characteristics) satisfying

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = a(x(t), y(t))$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = b(x(t), y(t)).$$

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Here for

$$x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0$$

we have

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = y$$

with solutions $x(t) = x_0 e^t$ and $y(t) = y_0 e^t$.

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Method of Characteristics

Here for

$$x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0$$

we have

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = y$$

with solutions $x(t) = x_0 e^t$ and $y(t) = y_0 e^t$.

The key observation is that for a solution $z(x, y)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} [z(x(t), y(t))] &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} x + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} y \\ &= 0! \end{aligned}$$

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Here for

$$x \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = 0$$

with solutions $x(t) = x_0 e^t$ and $y(t) = y_0 e^t$.

The key observation is that for a solution $z(x, y)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} [z(x(t), y(t))] &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} x + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} y \\ &= 0! \end{aligned}$$

So $z(x, y)$ is constant along lines $\frac{y}{x} = k$ for any k and thus

$$z(x, y) = z\left(1, \frac{y}{x}\right) = f\left(\frac{y}{x}\right)$$

as we wanted to show.

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Problem: Maximize $f(x, y) = x^4 + 4x^2y^2$ among points satisfying the constraint $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

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Problem: Maximize $f(x, y) = x^4 + 4x^2y^2$ among points satisfying the constraint $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

Only points on the circle $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ count !

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Problem: Maximize $f(x, y) = x^4 + 4x^2y^2$ among points satisfying the constraint $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

Parameterizing the circle as $x = \cos t$ and $y = \sin t$ is one approach, but even when you can nicely parameterize the constraint set LM is often useful.

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Problem: Maximize $f(x, y) = x^4 + 4x^2y^2$ among points satisfying the constraint $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

The method of LM says to look for constrained local extrema, seek solutions of

$$\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$$

for some unknown constant λ . (As well as places on the constraint set where $\nabla g = 0$.)

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The need to check $\nabla g = 0$ too:

Problem: Minimize $f(x, y) = y$ on the constraint set

$$(y - x^2)(y - 4x^2) = 0.$$

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The need to check $\nabla g = 0$ too:

Problem: Minimize $f(x, y) = y$ on the constraint set

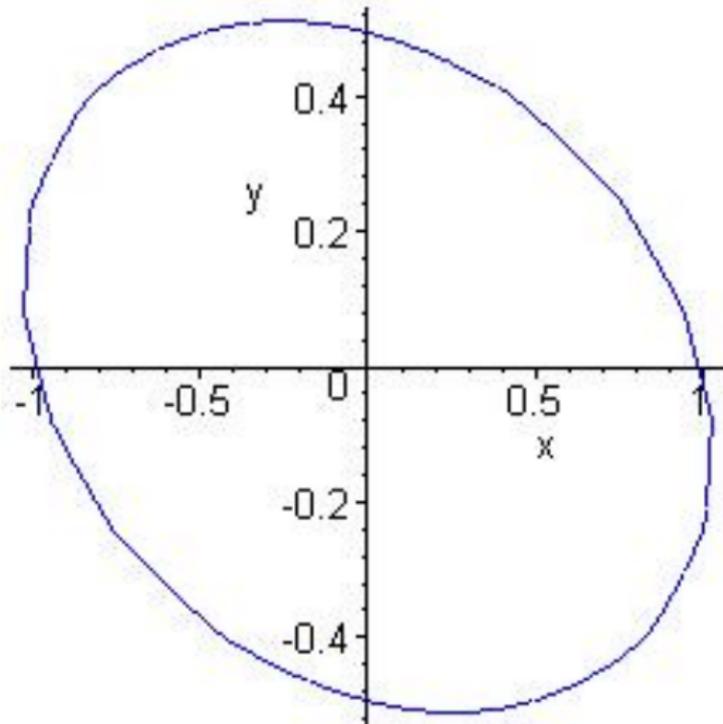
$$(y - x^2)(y - 4x^2) = 0.$$

Clearly $(x, y) = (0, 0)$ is the answer, but $\nabla f \neq \lambda \nabla g$ there since ∇g is 0 at $(0, 0)$.

Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The constraint set is an ellipse.



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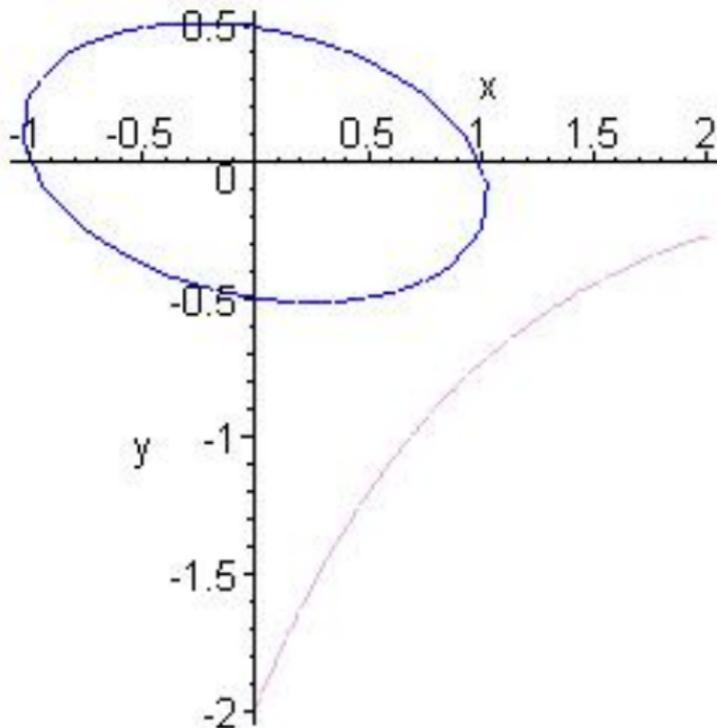
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Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

With the level curve $f(x, y) = -2$.



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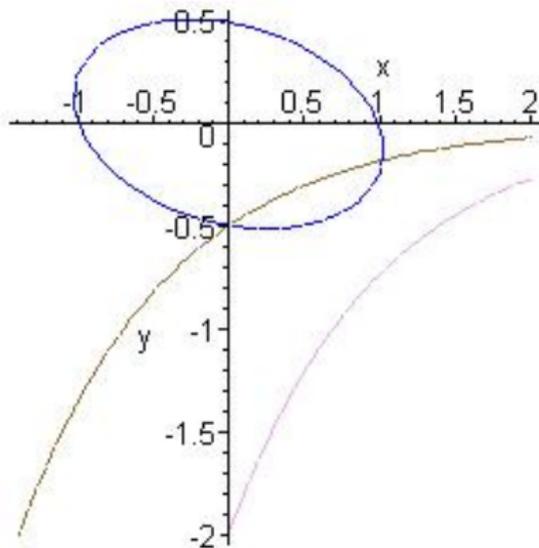
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Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The level curve $f(x, y) = -.5$ meets the ellipse obliquely.



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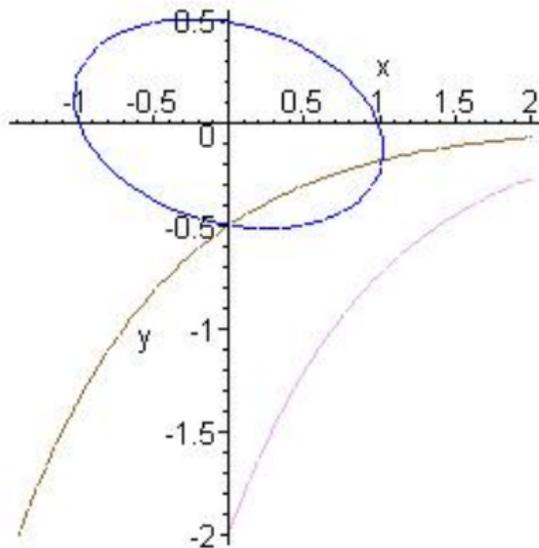
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Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The level curve $f(x, y) = -.5$ meets the ellipse obliquely.



The essence of LM is that at a non-tangent intersection point, b/c $D_{\vec{u}}f = \nabla f \cdot \vec{u}$, f changes to first order as you move along the constraint set. So not a local constr. min or max.

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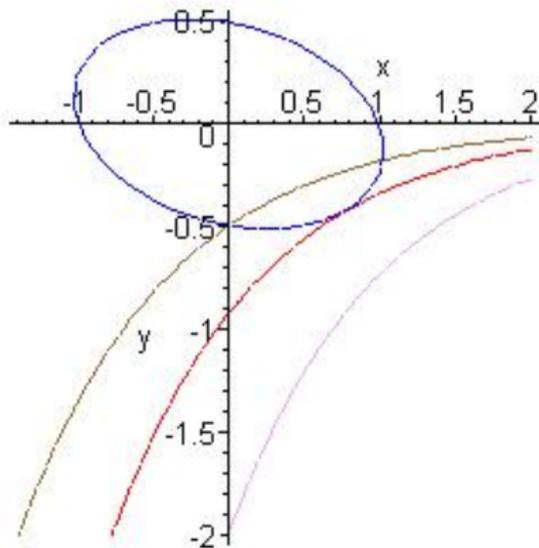
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Lagrange
Multipliers

Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The level curve $f(x, y) = -0.9276551883$ is tangent.



From Math
2220 Class 16

V1ccc

1 Variable
Taylor Series

Multivariable
Taylor
Polynomials

More than 2
Variables

Multivariable
Taylor
Pictures

Higher Partials
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Coordinates

Method of
Characteristics

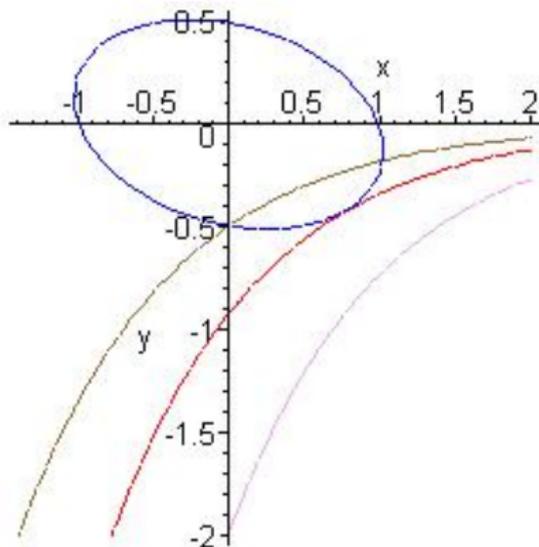
Lagrange
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Intro

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Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The level curve $f(x, y) = -.9276551883$ is tangent.



This value was found by solving $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$ numerically.
 $((x, y) = (.776, -.427).)$

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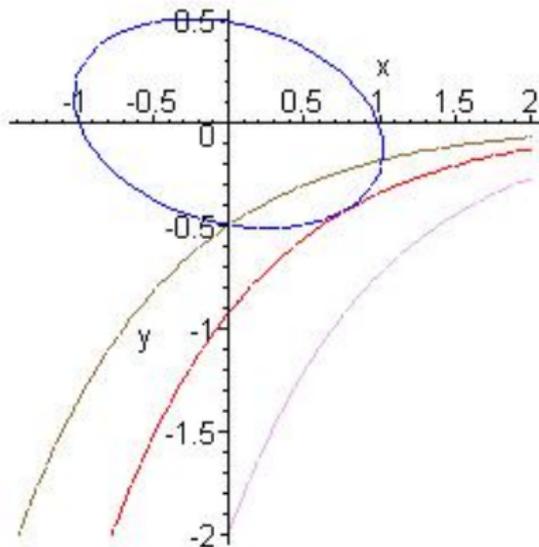
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This value was found by solving $\nabla f = \lambda \nabla g$ numerically.

$((x, y) = (.776, -.427).)$

It appears to be the minimum value of f on the constraint set.

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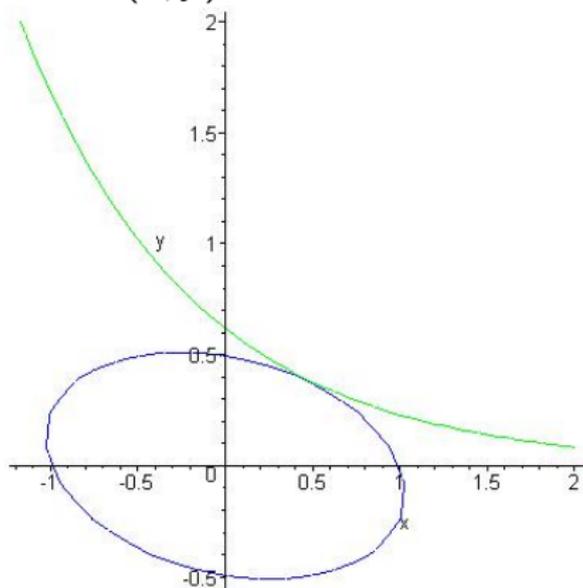
Lagrange
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Lagrange
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Maximize $f(x, y) = ye^x$.

On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

The level curve $f(x, y) = .6185121367$ is also tangent.



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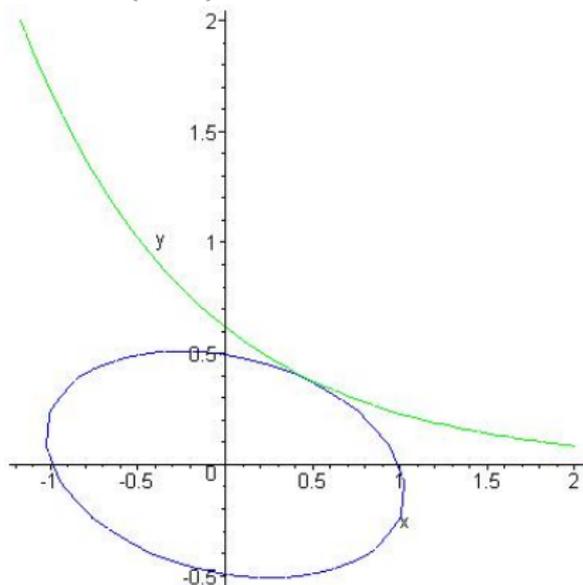
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Also found numerically. $((x, y) = (.459, .381).)$

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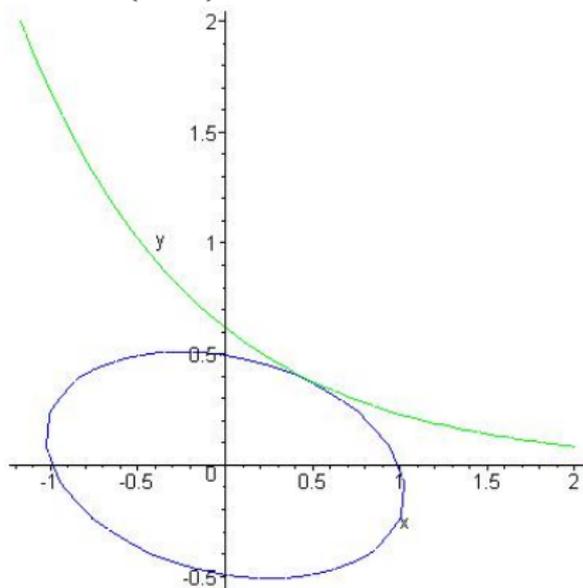
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On the constraint set $x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 1$.

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Also found numerically. $((x, y) = (.459, .381).)$

It appears to be the maximum value of f on the constraint set.

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