

# Linear Approximations and Differentials

Math 140: Calculus with Analytic Geometry

## Key Topics

- Linearization (tangent line approximation)
- Local behavior of a function near a point
- Differentials  $dx$  and  $dy$  and their interpretation
- Estimating change and propagating measurement error
- Concavity and the direction of tangent line error

## 1 Motivation

In applications, we often need quick estimates without a calculator, or we need to understand how a small change in an input affects the output.

Examples:

- Approximate  $\sqrt{100.8}$  without computing the square root exactly.
- Estimate how much the volume of a sphere changes when the radius measurement is off by a small amount.
- Approximate  $\ln(1.01)$  using simple arithmetic.

The main idea is that a differentiable function looks almost linear when you zoom in near a point.

## 2 Linear Approximation (Linearization)

Let  $f$  be differentiable at  $x = a$ . The tangent line to  $y = f(x)$  at  $x = a$  is

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

We use  $L(x)$  to approximate  $f(x)$  when  $x$  is close to  $a$ .

### Definition 2.1 (Linearization)

The *linearization* of  $f$  at  $x = a$  is the linear function

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

For  $x$  near  $a$ , we often write

$$f(x) \approx L(x).$$

Remark 2.1. This is a local approximation: it is intended for values of  $x$  close to  $a$ . The closer  $x$  is to  $a$ , the better the approximation typically becomes.

### A picture: function vs. tangent line (exact tangency)

In the figure below we use the concave up function

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{4} + 1,$$

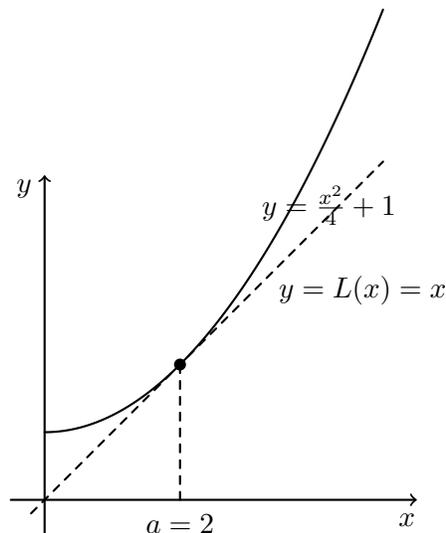
and we take  $a = 2$ . Then  $f(2) = 2$  and  $f'(x) = \frac{x}{2}$ , so  $f'(2) = 1$ . Hence the tangent line at  $x = 2$  is

$$L(x) = 2 + 1(x - 2) = x.$$

This line intersects the curve at exactly one point (the point of tangency).

## 3 Differentials

Linearization is often expressed using differentials, which are convenient for estimating small changes.



Suppose  $y = f(x)$ . If  $x$  changes from  $a$  to  $a + \Delta x$ , the actual change in  $y$  is

$$\Delta y = f(a + \Delta x) - f(a).$$

The differential  $dy$  is the linear estimate of  $\Delta y$ :

$$dy = f'(a) dx,$$

where we interpret  $dx$  as a small change in  $x$  (often  $dx = \Delta x$  in computations).

### Definition 3.1 (Differential)

Let  $y = f(x)$  and suppose  $f$  is differentiable at  $x = a$ . The *differential* of  $y$  at  $x = a$  is

$$dy = f'(a) dx.$$

Remark 3.1. For small changes, we use

$$\Delta y \approx dy = f'(a) \Delta x.$$

This is exactly the same approximation as  $f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)\Delta x$ .

## 4 Examples

### Example 4.1: Approximating a square root

Approximate  $\sqrt{4.8}$ .

Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and choose  $a = 4$  (a nearby perfect square). Then  $f(4) = 2$  and

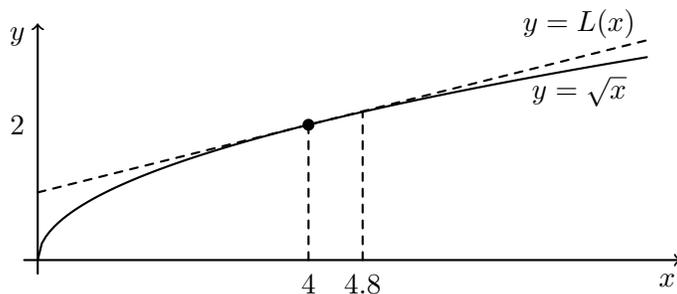
$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f'(4) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

The linearization at  $x = 4$  is

$$L(x) = 2 + \frac{1}{4}(x - 4).$$

With  $\Delta x = 0.8$ ,

$$\sqrt{4.8} \approx 2 + \frac{1}{4}(0.8) = 2 + 0.2 = 2.2.$$

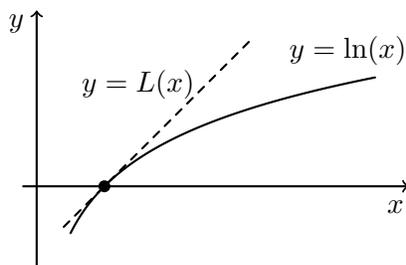


### Example 4.2: Approximating $\ln(1.01)$

Approximate  $\ln(1.01)$ .

Let  $f(x) = \ln(x)$  and choose  $a = 1$ . Then  $f(1) = 0$  and  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , so  $f'(1) = 1$ . With  $\Delta x = 0.01$ ,

$$\ln(1.01) = f(1.01) \approx f(1) + f'(1)(0.01) = 0 + 1(0.01) = 0.01.$$



**Example 4.3: Using differentials to estimate the error in the volume of a sphere**

A sphere has radius  $r = 10$  cm. Suppose the radius measurement may be off by  $\pm 0.1$  cm. Estimate the resulting error in the volume.

The volume is

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3.$$

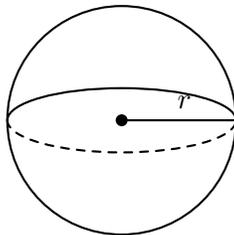
Differentiate:

$$dV = 4\pi r^2 dr.$$

At  $r = 10$  and  $dr = \pm 0.1$ ,

$$dV \approx 4\pi(10)^2(0.1) = 40\pi \text{ cm}^3.$$

So the volume error is approximately  $\pm 40\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .



$$dV \approx 4\pi r^2 dr$$

**Example 4.4: Relative error estimate**

Continue the previous example. Estimate the *relative* error in volume.

The relative error is approximately

$$\frac{dV}{V}.$$

Using  $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$  and  $dV = 4\pi r^2 dr$ ,

$$\frac{dV}{V} \approx \frac{4\pi r^2 dr}{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3} = \frac{3 dr}{r}.$$

With  $r = 10$  and  $dr = 0.1$ ,

$$\frac{dV}{V} \approx \frac{3(0.1)}{10} = 0.03.$$

So the volume has about a 3% relative error.

## 5 Accuracy and Error

Linearization is exact for linear functions, and it is accurate for small  $\Delta x$  because the tangent line matches both the value and the slope of the function at  $x = a$ .

Concavity tells us the *direction* of the error. Let  $f$  be differentiable on an interval  $I$ .

- If  $f$  is *concave up* on  $I$ , then for every  $a \in I$  and every  $x \in I$ ,

$$f(x) \geq f(a) + f'(a)(x - a).$$

That is, the graph of  $f$  lies *above* every tangent line on  $I$ .

- If  $f$  is *concave down* on  $I$ , then for every  $a \in I$  and every  $x \in I$ ,

$$f(x) \leq f(a) + f'(a)(x - a).$$

That is, the graph of  $f$  lies *below* every tangent line on  $I$ .

Remark 5.1. In particular, if  $f$  is concave up near  $a$  and  $x$  is close to  $a$ , then the tangent line approximation  $L(x)$  typically *underestimates*  $f(x)$ . If  $f$  is concave down near  $a$ , then  $L(x)$  typically *overestimates*  $f(x)$ .

## 6 Why This Matters for Calculus

Linear approximations and differentials are a bridge between pure calculus and applications.

- They provide fast estimates for complicated functions.
- They convert small input changes into approximate output changes.
- They formalize measurement error propagation in formulas.
- They prepare us for Newton's method and more advanced approximation techniques.