

Math 1210: Calculus I

Approximations and differentials

Department of Mathematics, University of Utah

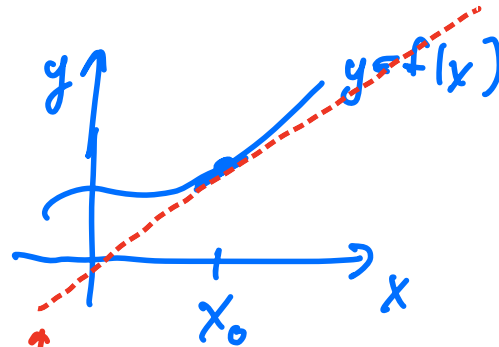
Spring 2025

Accompanying text: Varberg, Purcell, and Rigdon 2007, Section 2.9

One of the most helpful uses of derivatives is in approximations. Recall the definition of the derivative:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}.$$

One of our interpretations of $f'(x_0)$ is that it is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of f at the value $x = x_0$.



"Close" to x_0 , then
 $y=f(x)$ and $y=L(x)$
 look very similar

$y=L(x)$, the equation of the
 tangent line to f at x_0 .

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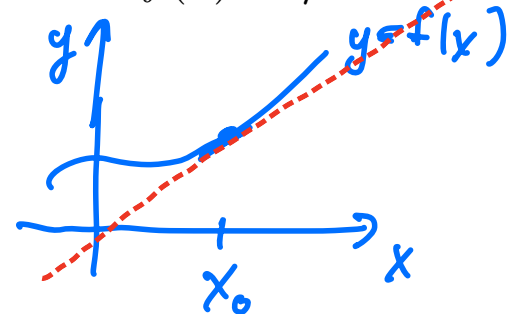
One of our interpretations of $f'(x_0)$ is that it is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of f at the value $x = x_0$.

Tangent lines, around $x = x_0$, are “close” to the function f , and so in lieu of evaluating $f(x)$, we could (a) form a tangent line at $x = x_0$, and (b) evaluate the tangent line value at any $x \neq x_0$.

We could call the tangent line at $x = x_0$ a **linear approximation** to $f(x)$ “at/around” x_0 .

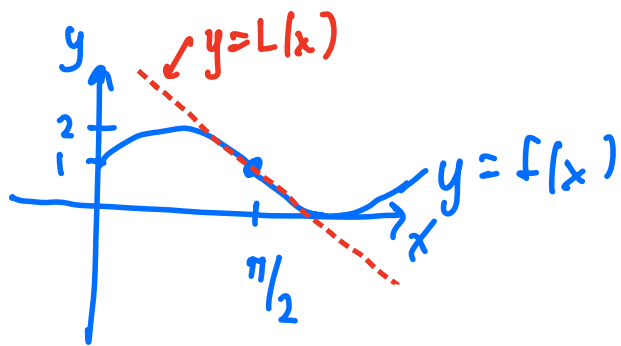
Conceptually, one expects that this linear approximation

- is a good approximation to $f(x)$ when x is close to x_0
- becomes a poorer approximation when x is far from x_0



Example (Based on example 2.9.6)

Consider $f(x) = 1 + \sin(2x)$. Compute the linear approximation $L(x)$ to f at $x = \pi/2$. Use the linear approximation to estimate $f(1.5)$.



$$x = \pi/2 \Rightarrow f(x) = 1 + \sin \pi = 1$$

$$f'(x) = 2 \cos(2x)$$

$$f'(\pi/2) = 2 \cos(\pi) = -2 \quad (\text{slope of } L(x))$$

point on $L(x)$: $(\pi/2, 1)$

$$y - 1 = -2(x - \pi/2) \rightarrow y = -2x + \pi + 1 = L(x)$$

$$\text{@ } x = 1.5: y = -2(1.5) + \pi + 1 = \pi - 2 \approx f(1.5)$$

Linear approximations are a specific strategy to use the derivative to approximate the function.

There is another way that can be motivated from the derivative:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}$$

The idea: if we have access to $f'(x)$, we can *approximate* the change in f :

$$f'(x) \approx \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} \text{ for small } \Delta x \implies \Delta f \approx f'(x)\Delta x \text{ for small } \Delta x.$$

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Writing this another way: suppose we know $f'(x)$ and $f(x)$, and we are given some x perturbation Δx . Then:

$$\Delta f \approx f'(x)\Delta x \implies f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x)\Delta x$$

This is yet another way to compute approximations.

Example (Based on example 2.9.6)

Consider $f(x) = 1 + \sin(2x)$. Use increments to estimate $f(1.5)$ from $f(x)$ and $f'(x)$ at $x = \pi/2$.

$$\Delta f \approx f'(x) \Delta x$$

$$x = \pi/2$$

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + f'(x) \Delta x$$

$$\text{want } x + \Delta x = 1.5$$

$$\Delta x = 3/2 - \pi/2$$

$$\text{at } x = \pi/2: f(\pi/2) = 1, f'(\pi/2) = -2$$

$$f(1.5) = f(x + \Delta x) \approx 1 + (-2) \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \pi -$$

Tangent line and increment approximations are the same D17-S06(a)

From the previous two examples: the same answer was achieved in two different ways.

This can be seen by first computing the linear approximation $L(x)$ to f at the point x_0 :

Line through $(x_0, f(x_0))$ with slope $f'(x_0)$: $y - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$

Hence, the line approximation is $f(x) \approx L(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$.

Tangent line and increment approximations are the same D17-S06(b)

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Hence, the line approximation is $f(x) \approx L(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$.

If we write the increment $\Delta x = x - x_0$, we have:

$$\Delta f = f(x) - f(x_0) \approx L(x) - f(x_0) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0) = f'(x_0)\Delta x.$$

Tangent line and increment approximations are the same D17-S06(c)

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Therefore: one could approximate $f(x)$ with x close to a value x_0 by either,

- Compute $L(x)$, which is the value of the tangent line to f at x_0
- Compute $\Delta f \approx f'(x_0)\Delta x$.

These are both equivalent.

Differentials: Notation for approximations with increments D17-S07(a)

For the purposes of approximation, it's useful to introduce extra notation.

Let $f(x)$ be a function, and let x_0 be a fixed value of x . Then:

- $\Delta x = x - x_0$ is an *increment* of x
- $\Delta f = f(x) - f(x_0)$ is an *increment* of f

Differentials: Notation for approximations with increments D17-S07(b)

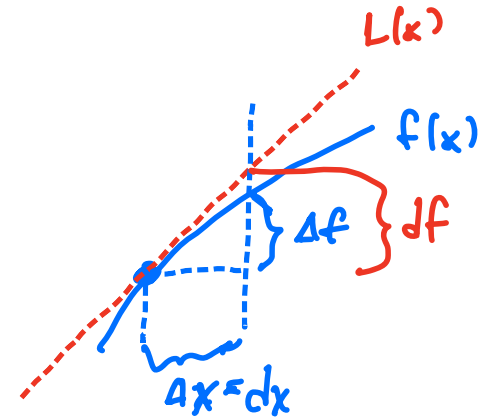
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- $\Delta x = x - x_0$ is an *increment* of x
- $\Delta f = f(x) - f(x_0)$ is an *increment* of f
- $dx = x - x_0$ is a **differential** of x . It's equal to Δx
- $df = f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$ is a **differential** of f . It's not Δf .

The quantities Δx and Δf are exact increments of x and f .

The quantities dx and df are differentials, and df is an approximation to Δf .



Differentials: Notation for approximations with increments D17-S07(c)

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Differential notation is somewhat easy to remember, because it can be recovered by “multiplying” by dx :

$$\frac{df}{dx} = f'(x) \quad df = f'(x)dx.$$

Example (Example 2.9.1)

Compute dy if

1. $y = x^3 - 3x + 1$

2. $y = \sqrt{x^2 + 3x}$

3. $y = \sin(x^4 - 3x^2 + 11)$

1.) $y'(x) = 3x^2 - 3$

$$dy = (3x^2 - 3)dx$$

2.) $y'(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + 3x)^{-1/2} \cdot (2x + 3)$

$$dy = (x + \frac{3}{2})(x^2 + 3x)^{-1/2} dx$$

Example (\approx Example 2.9.2)

Compute approximations to $\sqrt{4.3}$ and $\sqrt{8.8}$ without a calculator.

Idea: $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$, at $x=4$, $\Delta x = 0.3$, $df \approx \Delta f$

$$f(4) = 2 \quad f(x) = x^{1/2} \quad \text{power rule}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^{-1/2} \rightarrow f'(4) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$df = f'(x) dx \stackrel{=}{=} \frac{1}{4} \cdot 0.3 = \frac{3}{40}$$

\uparrow
at $x=4$

$$dx = 0.3$$

$$f(4 + \Delta x) \approx f(4) + df$$

$$= 2 + \frac{3}{40} = 2.075$$

Example

The radius of a solid sphere is measured as 1m with an error of ± 0.01 m. Use differentials to estimate the error in the volume caused by this error in the radius.

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

$$\begin{aligned}dV &= V'(r) dr \\ &= 4\pi r^2 dr\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}dr = \pm 0.01, \quad r = 1\text{m} &\Rightarrow dV = \pm 4\pi (1)^2 \cdot 0.01 \\ &= \pm \frac{\pi}{25} \text{ [m}^3\text{]}\end{aligned}$$

References I

D17-S10(a)



Varberg, D.E., E.J. Purcell, and S.E. Rigdon (2007). *Calculus*. 9th. Pearson Prentice Hall.
ISBN: 978-0-13-142924-6.