

# Linear Approximations

March 3, 2010

# Tangent Plane

Given a surface  $S$  in space and a point  $P$  on the surface.

Question: What should be the geometric plane tangent to  $S$  at  $P$ ?

# Tangent Plane

Given a surface  $S$  in space and a point  $P$  on the surface.

Question: What should be the geometric plane tangent to  $S$  at  $P$ ?

Intuitively: It should include all vectors tangent at  $P$  to curves passing through  $P$  and contained in the surface.

Equivalently: It should be the geometric plane

- ▶ passing through  $P$ ;
- ▶ parallel to the directions of all tangent vectors of curves passing through  $P$  and contained in the surface.

# Tangent Plane to a Graph Surface

Graph surface  $z = f(x, y)$ , point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  on the surface.  
Particular curves through  $P$ :

# Tangent Plane to a Graph Surface

Graph surface  $z = f(x, y)$ , point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  on the surface.

Particular curves through  $P$ : graphs of partial functions.

$$x \rightarrow \langle x, y_0, f(x, y_0) \rangle \implies \text{tangent direction } \langle 1, 0, f_x(x_0, y_0) \rangle$$

$$y \rightarrow \langle x_0, y, f(x_0, y) \rangle \implies \text{tangent direction } \langle 0, 1, f_y(x_0, y_0) \rangle .$$

Vector normal to the tangent plane:

# Tangent Plane to a Graph Surface

Graph surface  $z = f(x, y)$ , point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  on the surface.

Particular curves through  $P$ : graphs of partial functions.

$$x \rightarrow \langle x, y_0, f(x, y_0) \rangle \implies \text{tangent direction } \langle 1, 0, f_x(x_0, y_0) \rangle$$

$$y \rightarrow \langle x_0, y, f(x_0, y) \rangle \implies \text{tangent direction } \langle 0, 1, f_y(x_0, y_0) \rangle .$$

Vector normal to the tangent plane:

$$\mathbf{n} = \langle 1, 0, f_x(x_0, y_0) \rangle \times \langle 0, 1, f_y(x_0, y_0) \rangle = \langle -f_x(x_0, y_0), -f_y(x_0, y_0), 1 \rangle .$$

Equation of the tangent plane at  $P_0(x_0, y_0, z_0 = f(x_0, y_0))$ :

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0) = 0 \iff$$

$$-f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) - f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) + (z - f(x_0, y_0)) = 0 \iff$$

$$\boxed{z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)} .$$

# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example: Tangent plane to  $z = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$   
at the point corresponding to  $(x, y) = (4, 1)$ .

Function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ .



# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example: Tangent plane to  $z = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$   
at the point corresponding to  $(x, y) = (4, 1)$ .

Function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ . Corresponding  $z$  value:

$$f(4, 1) = 16 + 4 + 2 = 22$$

# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example: Tangent plane to  $z = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$

at the point corresponding to  $(x, y) = (4, 1)$ .

Function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ . Corresponding  $z$  value:

$$f(4, 1) = 16 + 4 + 2 = 22$$

Partial derivatives **at (4, 1)**:

$$f_x(x, y) = 2x + y \implies f_x(4, 1) = 9$$

$$f_y(x, y) = x + 4y \implies f_y(4, 1) = 8$$

# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example: Tangent plane to  $z = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$

at the point corresponding to  $(x, y) = (4, 1)$ .

Function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ . Corresponding  $z$  value:

$$f(4, 1) = 16 + 4 + 2 = 22$$

Partial derivatives **at (4, 1):**

$$f_x(x, y) = 2x + y \implies f_x(4, 1) = 9$$

$$f_y(x, y) = x + 4y \implies f_y(4, 1) = 8$$

Equation of tangent plane:

$$z = 22 + 9(x - 4) + 8(y - 1) \iff z = 9x + 8y - 22$$

# Linearizations

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) .$$

$$L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

is called the **linearization** of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example: Tangent plane to  $z = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$   
at the point corresponding to  $(x, y) = (4, 1)$ .

Function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$ . Corresponding  $z$  value:

$$f(4, 1) = 16 + 4 + 2 = 22$$

Partial derivatives **at (4, 1)**:

$$f_x(x, y) = 2x + y \implies f_x(4, 1) = 9$$

$$f_y(x, y) = x + 4y \implies f_y(4, 1) = 8$$

Equation of tangent plane:

$$z = 22 + 9(x - 4) + 8(y - 1) \iff z = 9x + 8y - 22$$

Linearization:

$$L_{f,(4,1)}(x, y) = 22 + 9(x - 4) + 8(y - 1) = 9x + 8y - 22 .$$

## Good Linear Approximations

The linearization provides an *approximation* of a function around a point.

Question: How does the error in output,  $|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|$ , compare to the error in input,  $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ , for small errors in input?

# Good Linear Approximations

The linearization provides an *approximation* of a function around a point.

Question: How does the error in output,  $|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|$ , compare to the error in input,  $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ , for small errors in input?

Limit of ratio:

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}}$$

## Good Linear Approximations

The linearization provides an *approximation* of a function around a point.

Question: How does the error in output,  $|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|$ , compare to the error in input,  $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ , for small errors in input?

Limit of ratio:

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}}$$

In our example, using  $x = 4 + r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = 1 + r \sin \theta$ :

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (4, 1)} \frac{|x^2 + xy + 2y^2 - (9x + 8y - 22)|}{\sqrt{(x - 4)^2 + (y - 1)^2}} = 0$$

## Good Linear Approximations

The linearization provides an *approximation* of a function around a point.

Question: How does the error in output,  $|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|$ , compare to the error in input,  $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ , for small errors in input?

Limit of ratio:

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}}$$

In our example, using  $x = 4 + r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = 1 + r \sin \theta$ :

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (4, 1)} \frac{|x^2 + xy + 2y^2 - (9x + 8y - 22)|}{\sqrt{(x - 4)^2 + (y - 1)^2}} = 0$$

Definition: A linear polynomial  $P(x, y) = ax + by + c$  is called a **good linear approximation** for  $f(x, y)$  around the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  if

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - P(x, y)|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}} = 0.$$



## Good Linear Approximations

The linearization provides an *approximation* of a function around a point.

Question: How does the error in output,  $|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|$ , compare to the error in input,  $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}$ , for small errors in input?

Limit of ratio:

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - L_{f, (x_0, y_0)}|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}}$$

In our example, using  $x = 4 + r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = 1 + r \sin \theta$ :

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (4, 1)} \frac{|x^2 + xy + 2y^2 - (9x + 8y - 22)|}{\sqrt{(x - 4)^2 + (y - 1)^2}} = 0$$

Definition: A linear polynomial  $P(x, y) = ax + by + c$  is called a **good linear approximation** for  $f(x, y)$  around the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  if

$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (x_0, y_0)} \frac{|f(x, y) - P(x, y)|}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 + (y - y_0)^2}} = 0.$$

Conclusion:  $P(x, y) = 9x + 8y - 22$  is a good linear approximation for  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$  around  $(4, 1)$ .

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

Several variables:

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  exist  $\implies f$  has a linear approximation  $L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}$ .

But is that a *good* linear approximation?

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

Several variables:

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  exist  $\implies f$  has a linear approximation  $L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}$ .

But is that a *good* linear approximation? Unfortunately, **not always!**

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

Several variables:

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  exist  $\implies f$  has a linear approximation  $L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}$ .

But is that a *good* linear approximation? Unfortunately, **not always!**

Definition: A function  $f$  is called **differentiable at a point**  $(x_0, y_0)$  if it has a good linear approximation at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

Several variables:

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  exist  $\implies f$  has a linear approximation  $L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}$ .

But is that a *good* linear approximation? Unfortunately, **not always!**

Definition: A function  $f$  is called **differentiable at a point**  $(x_0, y_0)$  if it has a good linear approximation at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example:  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$  is differentiable at  $(4, 1)$ .

# Differentiability

If  $y = h(x)$  is a function of one variable, then

$$L_{h,x_0}(x) = h(x_0) + h'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{|h(x) - L_{h,x_0}(x)|}{|x - x_0|} = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \left| \frac{h(x) - h(x_0)}{x - x_0} - h'(x_0) \right| = 0$$

One variable: the linear approximation is a good approximation.

Several variables:

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  exist  $\implies f$  has a linear approximation  $L_{f,(x_0,y_0)}$ .

But is that a *good* linear approximation? Unfortunately, **not always!**

Definition: A function  $f$  is called **differentiable at a point**  $(x_0, y_0)$  if it has a good linear approximation at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

Example:  $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + 2y^2$  is differentiable at  $(4, 1)$ .

Fact: If  $f$  has a good linear approximation at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then the good linear approximation is necessarily the linearization of  $f$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .



# Continuity and Differentiability

Single variable functions:

differentiable at a point if and only if it has a derivative at that point.

has derivative at a point  $\implies$  is continuous at the point

# Continuity and Differentiability

## Single variable functions:

differentiable at a point if and only if it has a derivative at that point.

has derivative at a point  $\implies$  is continuous at the point

## Several variable functions:

- ▶ If  $f$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then:
  - ▶  $f$  is continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$ ;
  - ▶  $f$  has partial derivatives at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .
- ▶ If  $f$  has partial derivatives at  $(x_0, y_0)$  then
  - ▶  $f$  **need not** be differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ ;
  - ▶  $f$  **need not be even continuous** at  $(x_0, y_0)$ .

# Good News!

Source of these problems:

- ▶ Partial derivatives at a point take into consideration the behavior of the function along *special directions*;
- ▶ Continuity and differentiability require at least *all directions*.

# Good News!

Source of these problems:

- ▶ Partial derivatives at a point take into consideration the behavior of the function along *special directions*;
- ▶ Continuity and differentiability require at least *all directions*.

Positive result:

## Theorem

*If  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  exist and are continuous on an open disk, then  $f$  is differentiable at all points of that disk.*

# Good News!

Source of these problems:

- ▶ Partial derivatives at a point take into consideration the behavior of the function along *special directions*;
- ▶ Continuity and differentiability require at least *all directions*.

Positive result:

## Theorem

*If  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  exist and are continuous on an open disk, then  $f$  is differentiable at all points of that disk.*

Consequences:

- ▶ Polynomial functions are differentiable;
- ▶ Algebraic combinations of differentiable functions are differentiable.

# Total Differential

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then

$$f(x, y) \simeq f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

$$\Delta f \simeq f_x(x_0, y_0)\Delta x + f_y(x_0, y_0)\Delta y$$

# Total Differential

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then

$$f(x, y) \simeq f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

$$\Delta f \simeq f_x(x_0, y_0)\Delta x + f_y(x_0, y_0)\Delta y$$

For infinitesimally small  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  we get:

Definition: The **total differential**  $df$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is

$$(df)|_{(x_0, y_0)} = f_x(x_0, y_0)dx + f_y(x_0, y_0)dy$$

# Total Differential

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , then

$$f(x, y) \simeq f(x_0, y_0) + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

$$\Delta f \simeq f_x(x_0, y_0)\Delta x + f_y(x_0, y_0)\Delta y$$

For infinitesimally small  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  we get:

Definition: The **total differential**  $df$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is

$$(df)|_{(x_0, y_0)} = f_x(x_0, y_0)dx + f_y(x_0, y_0)dy$$

Alternatively:

$$df = f_x dx + f_y dy \quad \text{or} \quad df = f_x dx + f_y dy + f_z dz$$

$\Delta f$  : actual change in  $f$

$df \simeq \Delta f$  : infinitesimal change in  $f$

$f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)$  : error propagation factors



## Application

A cylinder has radius  $r = 3\text{cm}$  and height  $h = 5\text{cm}$ . The error in measuring the radius is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ , and the error in measuring the height is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ . Estimate the error in the volume of the cylinder.

## Application

A cylinder has radius  $r = 3\text{cm}$  and height  $h = 5\text{cm}$ . The error in measuring the radius is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ , and the error in measuring the height is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ . Estimate the error in the volume of the cylinder.

$V(r, h) = \pi r^2 h$ . The actual volume:  $V(3, 5) = 45\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

## Application

A cylinder has radius  $r = 3\text{cm}$  and height  $h = 5\text{cm}$ . The error in measuring the radius is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ , and the error in measuring the height is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ . Estimate the error in the volume of the cylinder.

$V(r, h) = \pi r^2 h$ . The actual volume:  $V(3, 5) = 45\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

The error in volume,  $\Delta V$ , is estimated by  $dV$ :

$$\Delta V \simeq dV = V_r(3, 5)dr + V_h(3, 5)dh \simeq V_r(3, 5)\Delta r + V_h(3, 5)\Delta h .$$

$$V_r(r, h) = 2\pi rh \implies V_r(3, 5) = 30\pi$$

$$V_h(r, h) = \pi r^2 \implies V_h(3, 5) = 9\pi$$

$$\Delta V \simeq (30\pi)(\pm 0.1) + ((9\pi)(\pm 0.1)) \implies \Delta V \simeq V(r, h) \simeq V(3, 5) \pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$$

The error in volume is  $\pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

## Application

A cylinder has radius  $r = 3\text{cm}$  and height  $h = 5\text{cm}$ . The error in measuring the radius is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ , and the error in measuring the height is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ . Estimate the error in the volume of the cylinder.

$V(r, h) = \pi r^2 h$ . The actual volume:  $V(3, 5) = 45\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

The error in volume,  $\Delta V$ , is estimated by  $dV$ :

$$\Delta V \simeq dV = V_r(3, 5)dr + V_h(3, 5)dh \simeq V_r(3, 5)\Delta r + V_h(3, 5)\Delta h .$$

$$V_r(r, h) = 2\pi rh \implies V_r(3, 5) = 30\pi$$

$$V_h(r, h) = \pi r^2 \implies V_h(3, 5) = 9\pi$$

$$\Delta V \simeq (30\pi)(\pm 0.1) + ((9\pi)(\pm 0.1)) \implies \Delta V \simeq V(r, h) \simeq V(3, 5) \pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$$

The error in volume is  $\pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

Relative error:

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V} \simeq \pm \frac{3.9\pi}{45\pi} \simeq \pm 8.6\%$$

## Application

A cylinder has radius  $r = 3\text{cm}$  and height  $h = 5\text{cm}$ . The error in measuring the radius is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ , and the error in measuring the height is  $\pm 1\text{mm}$ . Estimate the error in the volume of the cylinder.

$V(r, h) = \pi r^2 h$ . The actual volume:  $V(3, 5) = 45\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

The error in volume,  $\Delta V$ , is estimated by  $dV$ :

$$\Delta V \simeq dV = V_r(3, 5)dr + V_h(3, 5)dh \simeq V_r(3, 5)\Delta r + V_h(3, 5)\Delta h .$$

$$V_r(r, h) = 2\pi rh \implies V_r(3, 5) = 30\pi$$

$$V_h(r, h) = \pi r^2 \implies V_h(3, 5) = 9\pi$$

$$\Delta V \simeq (30\pi)(\pm 0.1) + ((9\pi)(\pm 0.1)) \implies \Delta V \simeq V(r, h) \simeq V(3, 5) \pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$$

The error in volume is  $\pm 3.9\pi \text{ cm}^3$ .

Relative error:

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V} \simeq \pm \frac{3.9\pi}{45\pi} \simeq \pm 8.6\%$$

Remark: Since  $V_r(3, 5) > V_h(3, 5)$ , the result is more sensitive to errors in  $r$  than to errors in  $h$ .