

Infinite Sequences and Series
8.7 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

We start by supposing that $f$ is any function that can be represented by a power series
$1 f(x)=c_{0}+c_{1}(x-a)+c_{2}(x-a)^{2}+c_{3}(x-a)^{3}+c_{4}(x-a)^{4}+\cdots \quad|x-a|<\boldsymbol{R}$

Let's try to determine what the coefficients $c_{n}$ must be in terms of $f$.

To begin, notice that if we put $x=a$ in Equation 1, then all terms after the first one are 0 and we get

$$
f(a)=c_{0}
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

We can differentiate the series in Equation 1 term by term:
$2 f^{\prime}(x)=c_{1}+2 c_{2}(x-a)+3 c_{3}(x-a)^{2}+4 c_{4}(x-a)^{3}+\cdots \quad|x-a|<\boldsymbol{R}$ and substitution of $x=a$ in Equation 2 gives

$$
f^{\prime}(a)=c_{1}
$$

Now we differentiate both sides of Equation 2 and obtain
$3 f^{\prime}(x)=2 c_{2}+2 \cdot 3 c_{3}(x-a)+3 \cdot 4 c_{4}(x-a)^{2}+\cdots \quad|x-a|<\boldsymbol{R}$

Again we put $x=a$ in Equation 3. The result is

$$
f^{\prime \prime}(a)=2 c_{2}
$$

## faylor and Maclaurin Series

Let's apply the procedure one more time. Differentiation of the series in Equation 3 gives
$4 f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x)=2 \cdot 3 c_{3}+2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 c_{4}(x-a)+3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 c_{5}(x-a)^{2}+\cdots|x-a|<\boldsymbol{R}$ and substitution of $x=a$ in Equation 4 gives

$$
f^{\prime \prime \prime}(a)=2 \cdot 3 c_{3}=3!c_{3}
$$

By now you can see the pattern. If we continue to differentiate and substitute $x=a$, we obtain

$$
f^{(n)}(a)=2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots \cdot n c_{n}=n!c_{n}
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

Solving this equation for the $n$th coefficient $c_{n}$, we get

$$
c_{n}=\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}
$$

This formula remains valid even for $n=0$ if we adopt the conventions that $0!=1$ and $f^{(0)}=f$. Thus we have proved the following theorem.

5 Theorem If $f$ has a power series representation (expansion) at $a$, that is, if

$$
f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_{n}(x-a)^{n} \quad|x-a|<R
$$

then its coefficients are given by the formula

$$
c_{n}=\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

Substituting this formula for $c_{n}$ back into the series, we see that if $f$ has a power series expansion at $a$, then it must be of the following form.

$$
6 \begin{aligned}
f(x) & =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^{n} \\
& =f(a)+\frac{f^{\prime}(a)}{1!}(x-a)+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(a)}{2!}(x-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{\prime \prime \prime}(a)}{3!}(x-a)^{3}+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

The series in Equation 6 is called the Taylor series of the function $\boldsymbol{f}$ at $\boldsymbol{a}$ (or about $\boldsymbol{a}$ or centered at $\mathbf{a}$ ).

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

For the special case $a=0$ the Taylor series becomes

$$
\text { 7 } \quad f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(m)}(0)}{n!} x^{n}=f(0)+\frac{f^{\prime}(0)}{1!} x+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(0)}{2!} x^{2}+\cdots
$$

This case arises frequently enough that it is given the special name Maclaurin series.

## Example 1 - Maclaurin Series for the Exponential Function

Find the Maclaurin series of the function $f(x)=e^{x}$ and its radius of convergence.

## Solution:

If $f(x)=e^{x}$, then $f^{(n)}(x)=e^{x}$, so $f^{(n)}(0)=e^{0}=1$ for all $n$.
Therefore the Taylor series for $f$ at 0 (that is, the Maclaurin series) is

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^{n}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\cdots
$$

## Example 1 - Solution

To find the radius of convergence we let $a_{n}=x^{n} / n!$. Then

$$
\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_{n}}\right|=\left|\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^{n}}\right|=\frac{|x|}{n+1} \rightarrow 0<1
$$

so, by the Ratio Test, the series converges for all $x$ and the radius of convergence is $R=\infty$.

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

The conclusion we can draw from Theorem 5 and
Example 1 is that if $e^{x}$ has a power series expansion at 0 , then

$$
e^{x}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}
$$

So how can we determine whether $e^{x}$ does have a power series representation?

Let's investigate the more general question: Under what circumstances is a function equal to the sum of its Taylor series? In other words, if $f$ has derivatives of all orders, when is it true that

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

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

As with any convergent series, this means that $f(x)$ is the limit of the sequence of partial sums. In the case of the Taylor series, the partial sums are

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{n}(x) & =\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!}(x-a)^{i} \\
& =f(a)+\frac{f^{\prime}(a)}{1!}(x-a)+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(a)}{2!}(x-a)^{2}+\cdots+\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that $T_{n}$ is a polynomial of degree $n$ called the $\boldsymbol{n t h}$-degree Taylor polynomial of $\boldsymbol{f}$ at $\mathbf{a}$.

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

For instance, for the exponential function $f(x)=e^{x}$, the result of Example 1 shows that the Taylor polynomials at 0 (or Maclaurin polynomials) with $n=1,2$, and 3 are

$$
T_{1}(x)=1+x \quad T_{2}(x)=1+x+\frac{x^{2}}{2!} \quad T_{3}(x)=1+x+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}
$$

The graphs of the exponential function and these three
Taylor polynomials are drawn in Figure 1.


Figure 1
As $n$ increases, $T_{n}(x)$ appears to approach
$e^{x}$ in Figure 1. This suggests that $e^{x}$ is equal to the sum of its Taylor series.

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

In general, $f(x)$ is the sum of its Taylor series if

$$
f(x)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} T_{n}(x)
$$

If we let

$$
R_{n}(x)=f(x)-T_{n}(x) \quad \text { so that } \quad f(x)=T_{n}(x)+R_{n}(x)
$$

then $R_{n}(x)$ is called the remainder of the Taylor series. If we can somehow show that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{n}(x)=0$, then it follows that

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} T_{n}(x)=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left[f(x)-R_{n}(x)\right]=f(x)-\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{n}(x)=f(x)
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

## We have therefore proved the following.

8 Theorem If $f(x)=T_{n}(x)+R_{n}(x)$, where $T_{n}$ is the $n$ th-degree Taylor polynomial of $f$ at $a$ and

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{n}(x)=0
$$

for $|x-a|<R$, then $f$ is equal to the sum of its Taylor series on the interval $|x-a|<R$.

In trying to show that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{n}(x)=0$ for a specific function $f$, we usually use the following fact.

9 Taylor's Inequality If $\left|f^{(n+1)}(x)\right| \leqslant M$ for $|x-a| \leqslant d$, then the remainder $R_{n}(x)$ of the Taylor series satisfies the inequality

$$
\left|R_{n}(x)\right| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x-a|^{n+1} \quad \text { for }|x-a| \leqslant d
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

To see why this is true for $n=1$, we assume that $\left|f^{\prime \prime}(x)\right| \leq M$. In particular, we have $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \leq M$, so for $a \leq x \leq a+d$ we have

$$
\int_{a}^{x} f^{\prime \prime}(t) d t \leqslant \int_{a}^{x} M d t
$$

An antiderivative of $f^{\prime \prime}$ is $f^{\prime}$, so by the Evaluation Theorem, we have

$$
f^{\prime}(x)-f^{\prime}(a) \leq M(x-a) \quad \text { or } \quad f^{\prime}(x) \leq f^{\prime}(a)+M(x-a)
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{a}^{x} f^{\prime}(t) d t & \leqslant \int_{a}^{x}\left[f^{\prime}(a)+M(t-a)\right] d t \\
f(x)-f(a) & \leqslant f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+M \frac{(x-a)^{2}}{2} \\
f(x)-f(a)-f^{\prime}(a)(x-a) & \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x-a)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

But $R_{1}(x)=f(x)-T_{1}(x)=f(x)-f(a)-f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)$. So

$$
R_{1}(x) \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x-a)^{2}
$$

A similar argument, using $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq-M$, shows that

$$
R_{1}(x) \geqslant-\frac{M}{2}(x-a)^{2}
$$

So

$$
\left|R_{1}(x)\right| \leqslant \frac{M}{2}|x-a|^{2}
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

Although we have assumed that $x>a$, similar calculations show that this inequality is also true for $x<a$.

This proves Taylor's Inequality for the case where $n=1$. The result for any $n$ is proved in a similar way by integrating $n+1$ times.

In applying Theorems 8 and 9 it is often helpful to make use of the following fact.

10

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=0 \quad \text { for every real number } x
$$

This is true because we know from Example 1 that the series $\Sigma x^{n} / n!$ converges for all $x$ and so its $n$th term approaches 0 .

## Example 2

Prove that $e^{x}$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series.

## Solution:

If $f(x)=e^{x}$, then $f^{(n+1)}(x)=e^{x}$ for all $n$. If $d$ is any positive number and $|x| \leq d$, then $\left|f^{(n+1)}(x)\right|=e^{x} \leq e^{d}$.

So Taylor's Inequality, with $a=0$ and $M=e^{d}$, says that

$$
\left|R_{n}(x)\right| \leqslant \frac{e^{d}}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} \quad \text { for }|x| \leqslant d
$$

## Example 2 - Solution

Notice that the same constant $M=e^{d}$ works for every value of $n$. But, from Equation 10, we have

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{d}}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1}=e^{d} \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}=0
$$

It follows from the Squeeze Theorem that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|R_{n}(x)\right|=0$ and therefore $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} R_{n}(x)=0$ for all values of $x$. By Theorem 8, $e^{x}$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series, that is,

11

$$
e^{x}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} \quad \text { for all } x
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

In particular, if we put $x=1$ in Equation 11, we obtain the following expression for the number $e$ as a sum of an infinite series:

12

$$
e=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}=1+\frac{1}{1!}+\frac{1}{2!}+\frac{1}{3!}+\cdots
$$

## Example 8

Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x)=(1+x)^{k}$, where $k$ is any real number.

## Solution:

Arranging our work in columns, we have

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
f(x) & =(1+x)^{k} & f(0) & =1 \\
f^{\prime}(x) & =k(1+x)^{k-1} & f^{\prime}(0) & =k \\
f^{\prime \prime}(x) & =k(k-1)(1+x)^{k-2} & f^{\prime \prime}(0) & =k(k-1) \\
f^{\prime \prime \prime}(x) & =k(k-1)(k-2)(1+x)^{k-3} & f^{\prime \prime \prime}(0) & =k(k-1)(k-2) \\
\vdots & & \vdots & \\
f^{(n)}(x) & =k(k-1) \cdots(k-n+1)(1+x)^{k-n} & f(n)(0) & =k(k-1) \cdots(k-n+1)
\end{array}
$$

## Example 8 - Solution

Therefore the Maclaurin series of $f(x)=(1+x)^{k}$ is

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^{n}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{k(k-1) \cdots(k-n+1)}{n!} x^{n}
$$

This series is called the binomial series.

## Example 8 - Solution

If its $n$th term is $a_{n}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_{n}}\right| & =\left|\frac{k(k-1) \cdots(k-n+1)(k-n) x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{k(k-1) \cdots(k-n+1) x^{n}}\right| \\
& =\frac{|k-n|}{n+1}|x|=\frac{\left|1-\frac{k}{n}\right|}{1+\frac{1}{n}}|x| \rightarrow|x| \quad \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the binomial series converges if $|x|<1$ and diverges if $|x|>1$.

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

The traditional notation for the coefficients in the binomial series is

$$
\binom{k}{n}=\frac{k(k-1)(k-2) \cdots(k-n+1)}{n!}
$$

and these numbers are called the binomial coefficients.
The following theorem states that $(1+x)^{k}$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series.

It is possible to prove this by showing that the remainder term $R_{n}(x)$ approaches 0 , but that turns out to be quite difficult.

17 The Binomial Series If $k$ is any real number and $|x|<1$, then

$$
(1+x)^{k}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{k}{n} x^{n}=1+k x+\frac{k(k-1)}{2!} x^{2}+\frac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!} x^{3}+\cdots
$$

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

Although the binomial series always converges when $|x|<1$, the question of whether or not it converges at the endpoints, $\pm 1$, depends on the value of $k$.

It turns out that the series converges at 1 if $-1<k \leq 0$ and at both endpoints if $k \geq 0$.

Notice that if $k$ is a positive integer and $n>k$, then the expression for $\binom{k}{n}$ contains a factor $(k-k)$, so $\binom{k}{n}=0$ for $n>k$.

This means that the series terminates and reduces to the ordinary Binomial Theorem when $k$ is a positive integer.

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

We collect in the following table, for future reference, some important Maclaurin series that we have derived in this section and the preceding one.

Table 1
Important Maclaurin Series and Their Radii of Convergence

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{1}{1-x}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n}=1+x+x^{2}+x^{3}+\cdots & R=1 \\
e^{x}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\cdots & R=\infty \\
\sin x=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{x^{2 n+1}}{(2 n+1)!}=x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{5}}{5!}-\frac{x^{7}}{7!}+\cdots & R=\infty \\
\cos x=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{x^{2 n}}{(2 n)!}=1-\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{4}}{4!}-\frac{x^{6}}{6!}+\cdots & R=\infty \\
\tan ^{-1} x=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{n} \frac{x^{2 n+1}}{2 n+1}=x-\frac{x^{3}}{3}+\frac{x^{5}}{5}-\frac{x^{7}}{7}+\cdots & R=1 \\
\ln (1+x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{n}}{n}=x-\frac{x^{2}}{2}+\frac{x^{3}}{3}-\frac{x^{4}}{4}+\cdots & R=1 \\
(1+x)^{k}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{k}{n} x^{n}=1+k x+\frac{k(k-1)}{2!} x^{2}+\frac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!} x^{3}+\cdots & R
\end{array}
$$

Multiplication and Division of Power Series

Example 13 - Finding Maclaurin Series by Multiplication and Division
Find the first three nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for (a) $e^{x} \sin x$ and (b) $\tan x$.

## Solution:

(a) Using the Maclaurin series for $e^{x}$ and $\sin x$ in Table 1, we have

$$
e^{x} \sin x=\left(1+\frac{x}{1!}+\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\cdots\right)\left(x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\cdots\right)
$$

## Example 13 - Solution

We multiply these expressions, collecting like terms just as for polynomials:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1+x+\frac{1}{2} x^{2}+\frac{1}{6} x^{3}+\cdots \\
& x-\frac{1}{6} x^{3}+\cdots \\
& \hline x+x^{2}+\frac{1}{2} x^{3}+\frac{1}{6} x^{4}+\cdots \\
&-\frac{1}{6} x^{3}-\frac{1}{6} x^{4}-\cdots \\
& \hline x+x^{2}+\frac{1}{3} x^{3}+\cdots
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 13 - Solution

Thus

$$
e^{x} \sin x=x+x^{2}+\frac{1}{3} x^{3}+\cdots
$$

(b) Using the Maclaurin series in Table 1, we have

$$
\tan x=\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}=\frac{x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{5}}{5!}-\cdots}{1-\frac{x^{2}}{2!}+\frac{x^{4}}{4!}-\cdots}
$$

## Example 13 - Solution

We use a procedure like long division:

$$
1-\frac{1}{2} x^{2}+\frac{1}{24} x^{4}-\cdots \begin{array}{r}
x+\frac{1}{3} x^{3}+\frac{2}{15} x^{5}+\cdots \\
x-\frac{1}{6} x^{3}+\frac{1}{120} x^{5}-\cdots \\
\frac{x-\frac{1}{2} x^{3}+\frac{1}{24} x^{5}-\cdots}{\frac{1}{3} x^{3}-\frac{1}{30} x^{5}+\cdots} \\
\frac{\frac{1}{3} x^{3}-\frac{1}{6} x^{5}+\cdots}{\frac{2}{15} x^{5}+\cdots}
\end{array}
$$

Thus

$$
\tan x=x+\frac{1}{3} x^{3}+\frac{2}{15} x^{5}+\cdots
$$

