

Example 7:  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$  and  $c=0$ .

We find:  $f^{(k)}(x) = (-1)^{k-1} (k-1)! \frac{1}{(1+x)^k}$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(1+x) &= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} \frac{(k-1)!}{k!} x^k + E_n(x) \\ &= \underbrace{\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} x^k}_{\text{Polynomial}} + \underbrace{(-1)^n \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{1}{(1+\xi_x)^{n+1}} x^{n+1}}_{\text{remainder}} \end{aligned}$$

Question: For which  $x$  does  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

Here:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) = 0$  iff  $0 \leq x \leq 1$

This means that the Taylor series represents  $\ln(1+x)$  only for  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Putting it into practice: Compute  $\cos(0.1)$  given its Taylor series approximation at  $c=0$ :

$$\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} \pm \dots + \text{remainder}$$

thus

$$\left| \cos(x) - \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right| = \left| (-1)^{n+1} \cos(\xi_x) \frac{x^{2(n+1)}}{(2(n+1))!} \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{(0.1)^{2(n+1)}}{(2(n+1))!}$$

$n$	Taylor poly	$ \text{error}  \leq$
0	1	$\frac{(0.1)^2}{2!} = \frac{0.01}{2} = 0.005$
1	0.995	$\frac{(0.1)^4}{4!} = \frac{0.0001}{24}$
2	0.99500416	$0.000001/6!$

### Theorem 8: Reformulation of Taylor's theorem

Let  $f \in C^{n+1}([a, b])$ , then letting  $c = x$  and  $x = c + h = x + h$  in the previous version of Taylor's theorem, we find: For  $x, x+h \in [a, b]$

$$f(x+h) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!} h^k + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi_h)}{(n+1)!} h^{n+1}$$

where  $\xi_h$  is between  $x$  and  $x+h$ .

We write the error term as

$$f(x+h) - \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!} h^k = \mathcal{O}(h^{n+1})$$

*Landau symbol*

Recall:  $a(h) = \mathcal{O}(b(h))$

iff  $\exists c > 0$  s.th.  $\frac{a(h)}{b(h)} \leq c$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$

So, for  $n=1$  the error decreases with  $h^2$  which is called quadratic convergence

For  $n=2$  the error decreases cubically, i.e. with  $h^3$ , etc.

Summary:

- Problem: Evaluate  $f(x)$  with a given error bound  $\epsilon$ .
- Required:  $f \in C^{n+1}$ , values of derivatives  $f^{(k)}$
- Check interval of convergence, does Taylor series expansion work?
- Estimate the maximum error for  $n$  terms of the Taylor poly.
- choose  $n$  such that the error bound  $\epsilon$  is met.
- Evaluate the Taylor poly to get the result

### I.1 Number representations:

Remember that for any  $b \neq 1$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{N}$  every natural number  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  can be represented

$$\begin{aligned} \text{as } x &= a_0 b^0 + a_1 b^1 + a_2 b^2 + \dots + a_n b^n \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b^i \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_i \in \{0, \dots, b-1\}$  and

- $b$  is called the base
- $a_i$  are called digits

Real numbers can also be expressed in this way,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b^i + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i b^{-i} \\ &= a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_0 . \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \dots \end{aligned}$$

Examples 8:

$$(1) \text{ Base } b = 10: 37294 = 4 \cdot 10^0 + 9 \cdot 10^1 + 2 \cdot 10^2 + 7 \cdot 10^3 + 3 \cdot 10^4$$

$$(2) \text{ Base } b = 2: 1011 = 1 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3 \\ = (1)_{10} + (2)_{10} + (8)_{10} \\ = (11)_{10}$$

to avoid confusion, the base is indicated by a subscript.

There are algorithms that convert between number systems, e.g. Euclid's algorithm for converting  $(x)_{10}$  to  $(x)_b$ :

- 1) Input  $(x)_{10}$
- 2) Determine smallest  $n$  s.t.h.  $x < b^{n+1}$
- 3) For  $i=n$  to 0 do
- 4)  $a_i := x \text{ div } b^i$       integer division
- 5)  $x := x \text{ mod } b^i$       rest
- 6) end for
- 7) output result  $a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_0 = (x)_b$

Example:  $(x)_{10} = (13)_{10} \rightarrow (x)_2 = ?$

Step 2: smallest  $n$  is 3, because  $13 < 2^4$ .

loop:  $i=3:$   $a_3 = 13 \text{ div } 2^3 = 13 \text{ div } 8 = 1$   
 rest  $x = 13 \text{ mod } 2^3$   
 $= 13 \text{ mod } 8 = 5$   
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$$\begin{aligned} \underline{i=2}: \quad a_2 &= 5 \operatorname{div} 2^2 = 5 \operatorname{div} 4 = 1 \\ \text{rest } x &= 5 \bmod 2^2 \\ &= 5 \bmod 4 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{i=1}: \quad a_1 &= 1 \operatorname{div} 2^1 = 1 \operatorname{div} 2 = 0 \\ \text{rest } x &= 1 \bmod 2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\underline{i=0}: \quad a_0 = 1 \operatorname{div} 2^0 = 1 \operatorname{div} 1 = 1$$

$$\text{Output: } (1101)_2 = (13)_{10}$$


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Euclid's algorithm is intuitive but has 2

Problems:

- (a) step 2 is inefficient
  - (b) division by large numbers  $b^i$  can be problematic.
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Horner's scheme is better:

$$(a_n a_{n-1} \dots a_0)_b = a_0 + b(a_1 + b(a_2 + \dots + b(a_n)))$$