## Taylor tricks

In theory, the construction of a Taylor polynomial for a given function at a given point is a straightforward task owing to the general formula:

$$T_N(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

However, in practice, the mechanical use of the general formula may be too cumbersome. For instance, suppose we want  $T_8$  for  $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$  centered at the origin. It is straightforward to compute:

$$\begin{split} f^{(1)} &= 2\cos(x^2)\,x \\ f^{(2)} &= -4\,\sin(x^2)x^2 + 2\,\cos(x^2) \\ f^{(3)} &= -8\,\cos(x^2)x^3 - 12\,\sin(x^2)x \\ f^{(4)} &= 16\,\sin(x^2)x^4 - 48\,\cos(x^2)x^2 - 12\,\sin(x^2) \\ f^{(5)} &= 32\,\cos(x^2)x^5 + 160\,\sin(x^2)x^3 - 120\,\cos(x^2)x \\ f^{(6)} &= -64\,\sin(x^2)x^6 + 480\,\cos(x^2)x^4 + 720\,\sin(x^2)x^2 - 120\,\cos(x^2) \\ f^{(7)} &= -128\,\cos(x^2)x^7 - 1344\,\sin(x^2)x^5 + 3360\,\cos(x^2)x^3 + 1680\,\sin(x^2)x \\ f^{(8)} &= 256\,\sin(x^2)x^8 - 3584\,\cos(x^2)x^6 - 13440\,\sin(x^2)x^4 \\ &+ 13440\,\cos(x^2)x^2 + 1680\,\sin(x^2) \end{split}$$

Yet, notice how, due to repeated application of Chain Rule, the number of terms keeps growing. This is clearly not a sustainable computation. On the other hand, if we evaluate the derivatives at zero and substitute those values into the formula for  $T_8$ , we get:

$$T_8 = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{6}$$

Clearly, there ought to be a better way of finding such a simple formula!

Here is the first trick. Start with the expansion of sin(t) at zero which we know to be:

$$\sin(t) = t - \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^5}{5!} - \frac{t^7}{7!} + \dots$$

Now set  $t = x^2$ :

$$\sin(x^2) = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \frac{x^{10}}{5!} - \frac{x^{14}}{7!} + \dots$$

Finally, since we want  $T_8$ , truncate the series at order 8—delete all terms of order higher than 8. The result is

$$T_8 = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!}.$$

Quick and painless! If we want a better approximation, we need to go to degree 10:

 $T_{10} = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \frac{x^{10}}{5!}.$ 

Imagine having to compute the 10-th derivative of  $\sin(x^2)$  by hand! The moral of the story is that the Taylor series of  $f(x^k)$  centered at zero can be easily computed by composing the series of f(t) with  $t = x^k$ . That allows one to avoid Chain Rule.

To motivate the next trick, consider the same task of finding  $T_8$  at zero for  $x^6 \sin(x)$ .

$$f^{(1)} = 6 x^5 \sin(x) + x^6 \cos(x)$$

$$f^{(2)} = 30 x^4 \sin(x) + 12 x^5 \cos(x) - x^6 \sin(x)$$

$$f^{(3)} = 120 x^3 \sin(x) + 90 x^4 \cos(x) - 18 x^5 \sin(x) - x^6 \cos(x)$$

$$f^{(4)} = 360 x^2 \sin(x) + 480 x^3 \cos(x) - 180 x^4 \sin(x) - 24 x^5 \cos(x)$$

$$+ x^6 \sin(x)$$

$$f^{(5)} = 720 x \sin(x) + 1800 x^2 \cos(x) - 1200 x^3 \sin(x) - 300 x^4 \cos(x)$$

$$+ 30 x^5 \sin(x) + x^6 \cos(x)$$

$$f^{(6)} = 720 \sin(x) + 4320 x \cos(x) - 5400 x^2 \sin(x) - 2400 x^3 \cos(x)$$

$$+ 450 x^4 \sin(x) + 36 x^5 \cos(x) - x^6 \sin(x)$$

$$f^{(7)} = 5040 \cos(x) - 15120 x \sin(x) - 12600 x^2 \cos(x) + 4200 x^3 \sin(x)$$

$$+ 630 x^4 \cos(x) - 42 x^5 \sin(x) - x^6 \cos(x)$$

$$f^{(8)} = -20160 \sin(x) - 40320 x \cos(x) + 25200 x^2 \sin(x) + 6720 x^3 \cos(x)$$

$$- 840 x^4 \sin(x) - 48 x^5 \cos(x) + x^6 \sin(x)$$

Again the derivatives become very cumbersome as the order increases and yet the final result is, simply:  $T_8 = x^7$ .

The culprit now is the Product Rule. Do you see a way to avoid it? What if we simply multiply the expansion of  $\sin(x)$  by  $x^6$ ? This gives

$$x^6 \sin(x) = x^6 \left( x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \right) = x^7 - \frac{x^{10}}{3!} + \frac{x^{11}}{5!} - \frac{x^{13}}{7!} + \dots$$

If we truncate the series at order 8, we get:  $T_8 = x^7$ . This matches exactly what we computed earlier.

Quite generally, if we need a Taylor expansion of a product we can compute it by multiplying out Taylor expansions to appropriate order. For instance, to find  $T_2$  at zero for  $f(x) = e^x \cos(x)$ , we write:

$$e^x \cos(x) = \left(1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots\right) \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots\right)$$
  
=  $1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \text{cubic and higher terms}$ 

Hence in this case  $T_2 = 1 + x$ .

## Basic Taylor series

At this point, we can write Taylor series (at zero) only for three common functions:

$$e^{x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \dots$$

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

$$\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{5}}{5!} - \frac{x^{7}}{7!} + \dots$$

In order to become proficient with Taylor expansions, we need a few more basic expansions.

## Geometric series and its consequences

Let x be any number. You may recall the following identity from algebra:

$$1 + x + x^2 + \ldots + x^N = \frac{1 - x^{N+1}}{1 - x}.$$

Or not. Be this as it may, this is the sum of the first N terms of the geometric progression  $\{1, x, x^2, x^3, \ldots\}$  and is often called the *geometric formula*. As an exercise, verify it by multiplying both sides by (1-x). In the meantime, if |x| < 1 then we can compute the limit

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1 - x^{N+1}}{1 - x} = \frac{1 - \lim_{N \to \infty} x^{N+1}}{1 - x} = \frac{1}{1 - x}.$$

This suggests that

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots, \quad |x| < 1 \tag{37}$$

The expansion in Equation (37) is commonly called the *geometric series*; it is important to bear in mind that it is only valid for |x| < 1. Having added the geometric series to our collection of basic series, what else can we do? It is immediate to derive

$$\frac{1}{1+t} = 1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \dots, \quad |t| < 1$$

This is just another way of writing the geometric series, of course. However, as the next step, let us integrate the resulting series from zero to x. On one hand:

$$\int_0^x \frac{dt}{1+t} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

On the other hand, since the antiderivative of  $(1+t)^{-1}$  is  $\ln(1+t)$  we get from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

$$\int_0^x \frac{dt}{1+t} = \ln(1+x) - \ln(1) = \ln(1+x).$$

Therefore

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

which is valid for |x| < 1 and, curiously, for x = 1. In fact, if we set x = 1 we get a familiar looking approximation:

$$\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

Meanwhile, if x = -1 we get the sum which we can write as:

$$-\left(1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\ldots\right)$$

The important series in parentheses is called the *harmonic series*: it is known to diverge to infinity. This should make sense because

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0+} \ln \epsilon = -\infty$$

There is one more function that can be easily expanded into a Taylor series using the geometric series: the inverse tangent. The trick is to write  $\tan^{-1}(x)$  as the integral:

$$\tan^{-1}(x) = \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1+t^2} = \int_0^x \left(1 - t^2 + t^4 - t^6 + \dots\right) dt$$
$$= x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots$$

Again, the restriction |x| < 1 in the geometric formula (37) limits the range of x in the expansion of inverse tangent to the interval (-1, 1]. For the special case x = 1 we get Gregory's formula for  $\pi$ :

$$\tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots$$

## **Exercises**

1. Find the Taylor polynomial of order 10 centered at zero for the following functions:

(a) 
$$y = \frac{1}{(1-x)^3}$$

(b) 
$$y = x^4 \tan^{-1}(x)$$

(c) 
$$y = e^{-x^2}$$

(d) 
$$y = \sqrt{1 + x^2}$$

2. Conside the following integral:

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx = 0.746824132\dots$$

Approximate it using Taylor polynomials of orders 1 through 10. Use the provided value to compute the accuracy of approximation. How quickly do approximations converge?