

Mathematics 1121H – Calculus II

TRENT UNIVERSITY, Winter 2026

Solutions to Assignment #11

Taylor Series

Due on Thursday, 2 April.

1. Suppose a and r are real numbers. Find the Taylor series at 0 of $(a+x)^r$ and determine its radius of convergence. [5]

NOTE 1. You may find the following bit of notation handy. If r is a real number and $k \geq 1$ is an integer, then the *binomial of r and k* is

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

Thus $\binom{r}{1} = r$, $\binom{r}{2} = \frac{r(r-1)}{2}$, $\binom{r}{3} = \frac{r(r-1)(r-2)}{6}$, and so on. Observe that $\binom{r}{k+1} = \frac{r-(k+1)+1}{k+1} \cdot \binom{r}{k} = \frac{r-k}{k+1} \cdot \binom{r}{k}$ for $k \geq 1$. To make various formulas work nicely, we let $\binom{r}{0} = 1$. Note that when r is a positive integer, this coincides with the usual definition of binomial coefficients.

NOTE 2. Since the Taylor series at 0 of $(a+x)^r$ turns out to be equal to the function inside the radius of convergence, this gives a result due to Isaac Newton (1642-1727) – yes, *that* Newton – that is nowadays called *Newton's Binomial Theorem*.

SOLUTION. Let $f(x) = (a+x)^r$. Then

n	$f^{(n)}(x)$	$f^{(n)}(0)$
0	$(a+x)^r$	a^r
1	$r(a+x)^{r-1}$	ra^{r-1}
2	$r(r-1)(a+x)^{r-2}$	$r(r-1)a^{r-2}$
3	$r(r-1)(r-2)(a+x)^{r-3}$	$r(r-1)(r-2)a^{r-3}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
n	$r(r-1)(r-2)\cdots(r-n+1)(a+x)^{r-n}$	$r(r-1)(r-2)\cdots(r-n+1)a^{r-n}$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

It follows that the Taylor series at 0 of $f(x) = (a+x)^r$ is:

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

We worked out the radius of convergence in class for $a = 1$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$ using the Ratio Test. We use it here, too.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\binom{r}{n+1} a^{r-(n+1)} x^{n+1}}{\binom{r}{n} a^{r-n} x^n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{r-n}{n+1} a^{-1} x \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{r-n}{n+1} \right| \cdot \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| = \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{r-n}{n+1} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{r-n}{n+1} \cdot \frac{1}{1} \right| = \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{r}{n} - \frac{n}{n}}{\frac{n}{n} + \frac{1}{n}} \right| = \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{r}{n} - 1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \cdot \left| \frac{0-1}{1+0} \right| = \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \cdot 1 = \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \end{aligned}$$

By the Ratio Test, it follows that the Taylor series converges absolutely when $\left|\frac{x}{a}\right| < 1$, *i.e.* when $|x| < |a|$, and fails to converge when $\left|\frac{x}{a}\right| > 1$, *i.e.* when $|x| > |a|$. Thus the radius of convergence of the Taylor series of $f(x) = (a+x)^r$ is $r = |a|$.

The above works when $a \neq 0$. When $a = 0$, though, the situation is pretty simple because every derivative at 0 is 0. We leave it to the reader to work out the radius of convergence in this case, and also whether the series, when it converges, is equal to the function. \square

For question **2**, you may assume that $e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$, $\cos(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$, and $\sin(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$, and that all three series converge for all real numbers x . Also, denote the square root of -1 by i , so $i^2 = -1$.

2. Prove *Euler's Formula*: $e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \sin(x)$ for all real numbers x . [3]

NOTE. Plugging in $x = \pi$ into Euler's Formula gives the equation $e^{i\pi} = -1$, which is also sometimes called Euler's Formula.

SOLUTION. The basic idea is to split up the series for e^{ix} into two series, one with all the even powers and one with all the odd powers. Note that $i^{2k} = (-1)^k$ for all $k \geq 0$. then, for all x :

$$\begin{aligned} e^{ix} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^n}{n!} = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right] + \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(ix)^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right] = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^{2k} x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right] + \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^{2k+1} x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right] \\ &= \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right] + \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k i x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right] = \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right] + i \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right] \\ &= \cos(x) + i \sin(x) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

3. Use Euler's Formula to prove *de Moivre's Formula*: $(\cos(x) + i \sin(x))^n = \cos(nx) + i \sin(nx)$ for all real numbers x and integers n . [2]

SOLUTION. Here goes: $(\cos(x) + i \sin(x))^n = (e^{ix})^n = e^{inx} = \cos(nx) + i \sin(nx)$ for all x and n by Euler's Formula, applied twice, and the properties of exponents. \blacksquare