

The Binomial Theorem

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I prepared these notes after teaching from § 12.11 ‘The Binomial Series’ and § 12.12 ‘Applications of Taylor Polynomials’ of Stewart’s Calculus, 5th ed., 2003.

The Binomial Theorem learned in high-school is

$$(1 + x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^k \binom{k}{n} x^n,$$

where k is a positive integer or 0, and

$$\binom{k}{n} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0; \\ \frac{k}{n} \cdot \frac{k-1}{n-1} \cdots \frac{k-n+1}{1}, & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

This definition of $\binom{k}{n}$ makes sense for *all* real numbers k . In particular, if k is an integer, and $0 \leq k < n$, then $\binom{k}{n} = 0$. Therefore, again if k is a positive integer or 0, we have

$$(1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n. \quad (*)$$

Since the series here has the form of a Maclaurin series, it must *be* the Maclaurin series for $(1+x)^k$, and its radius of convergence is ∞ . In particular, if $f(x) = (1+x)^k$, then

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = \binom{k}{n}.$$

This equation also holds for all real k by direct computation:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= k(1+x)^{k-1}, \\ f''(x) &= k(k-1)(1+x)^{k-2}, \\ &\dots \\ f^{(n)}(x) &= k(k-1) \cdots (k-n+1)(1+x)^{k-n}. \end{aligned}$$

So the series in $(*)$ is still the Maclaurin series for $(1+x)^k$. We ask:

- (i) what is the radius R of convergence of this series?
- (ii) when $|x| < R$, does $(*)$ hold?

To answer (i), use the Ratio Test: if $a_n = \binom{k}{n}x^n$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} &= \frac{k(k-1)\cdots(k-n)}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)} \cdot \frac{x^{n+1}}{x^n} \\ &= \frac{k-n}{n+1} \cdot x. \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{k-n}{n+1} \cdot x \right| = |x| \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{-n+k}{n+1} \right| = |x|,$$

we have $R = 1$. So when $|x| < 1$, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = g_k(x)$$

for some function $g_k(x)$. But have we $g_k(x) = (1+x)^k$? This is question (ii). To answer it, note first that, if $n > 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{k-1}{n} &= \frac{k-1}{n} \frac{k-2}{n-1} \cdots \frac{k-n}{1} \\ &= \frac{k-n}{n} \frac{k-1}{n-1} \cdots \frac{k-n+1}{1} = \frac{k-n}{n} \binom{k-1}{n-1}, \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{k-1}{n} + \binom{k-1}{n-1} &= \left(\frac{k-n}{n} + 1 \right) \binom{k-1}{n-1} \\ &= \frac{k}{n} \binom{k-1}{n-1} = \binom{k}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 (1+x)g_{k-1}(x) &= (1+x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n} x^n \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n} x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n} x^{n+1} \\
 &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n} x^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n-1} x^n \\
 &= 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = g_k(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we can compute

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_k'(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} n x^{n-1} \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n+1} (n+1) x^n = k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n+1} \frac{n+1}{k} \cdot x^n \\
 &= k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k-1}{n} x^n = k \cdot g_{k-1}(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

If we define

$$h(x) = \frac{g_k(x)}{(1+x)^k},$$

then $h(0) = 1$, and

$$h'(x) = \frac{g_k'(x)(1+x)^k - k(1+x)^{k-1}g_k(x)}{(1+x)^{2k}} = 0.$$

Hence h is constant, and $h(x) = 1$ whenever $|x| < 1$, and then $g_k(x) = (1+x)^k$. Thus, (*) holds for all x , when k is a positive

integer or 0, and when $|x| < 1$, otherwise. For example,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1-x} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{-1}{n} (-x)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{-1}{n} \frac{-2}{n-1} \cdots \frac{-n}{1} (-1)^n x^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \end{aligned}$$

as we expect. Also

$$\sqrt{1+x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{1/2}{n} x^n.$$

Since

$$\binom{k}{n+1} = \binom{k}{n} \frac{k-n}{n+1},$$

we have

$$\binom{1/2}{0} = 1, \quad \binom{1/2}{1} = \frac{1}{2},$$

and then

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{1/2}{2} &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{-1/2}{2} = -\frac{1}{8}, \\ \binom{1/2}{3} &= -\frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{-3/2}{3} = \frac{1}{16}, \\ \binom{1/2}{4} &= \frac{1}{16} \cdot \frac{-5/2}{4} = -\frac{5}{128}, \end{aligned}$$

and generally

$$\binom{1/2}{n} = (-1)^{n+1} \cdot \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdots (2n-3)}{2^n n!}$$

when $n > 1$. Therefore

$$\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{16}x^3 - \frac{5}{128}x^4 + \cdots,$$

an alternating series when $x > 0$. In particular,

$$\sqrt{1+x} \approx 1 + \frac{x}{2}$$

when $|x|$ is small (this is the tangent-line approximation); to be precise, if $0 < x < 1$, then

$$0 < \sqrt{1+x} - \left(1 + \frac{x}{2}\right) \leq \frac{x^2}{8}.$$

For a better approximation, again when $0 < x < 1$,

$$\left| \sqrt{1+x} - \left(1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{8}x^2\right) \right| \leq \frac{x^3}{16}.$$

In Einstein's special theory of relativity,

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}},$$

where m is the mass of an object with velocity v whose rest mass is m_0 , and c is the speed of light. The kinetic energy K

of the object is then given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 K &= (m - m_0)c^2 = m_0c^2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} - 1 \right) \\
 &= m_0c^2 \left(\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right)^{-1/2} - 1 \right) \\
 &= m_0c^2 \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{-1/2}{n} \left(\frac{-v^2}{c^2} \right)^n - 1 \right) \\
 &= m_0c^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \binom{-1/2}{n} \left(\frac{v^2}{c^2} \right)^n \\
 &= m_0c^2 \left(\frac{v^2}{2c^2} + \frac{3v^4}{8c^4} + \dots \right).
 \end{aligned}$$

In particular, for low velocities,

$$K \approx \frac{1}{2}m_0v^2.$$

To be precise, by Taylor's Theorem,

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0) \cdot x + \frac{1}{2}f''(t) \cdot x^2$$

for some t between x and 0 . If $f(x) = (1 + x)^{-1/2}$, then $f''(x) = 3(1 + x)^{-5/2}/4$, so that, if $-1 < x < 0$, then also $x < t < 0$, and

$$|f(x) - f(0) - f'(0)x| = \frac{1}{2} |f''(t)x^2| < \frac{3x^2}{8(1 + x)^{5/2}}.$$

In our case, letting $x = -v^2/c^2$, we have

$$0 < K - \frac{1}{2}m_0v^2 < m_0c^2 \cdot \frac{3(v^2/c^2)^2}{8(1 - v^2/c^2)^{5/2}}.$$