

B. The Binomial Theorem

A general expression that we often encounter in algebra and calculus is $(A + B)^p$. A and B denote real numbers; the exponent p might be an integer, although not necessarily. The binomial theorem tells how to expand this expression in powers of A and B .

The simplest example is $p = 2$, which is familiar from school,

$$(A + B)^2 = A^2 + 2AB + B^2. \tag{B-1} \quad \boxed{\text{eq:AB2}}$$

For example, what is the square of $5 + 7$? We could first add, $5 + 7 = 12$, and then square, $12^2 = 144$. Or, we could use (B-1) , $25 + 70 + 49 = 144$. For a case where the values of A and B are known, there is no particular advantage in the expansion. But if A or B (or both) are symbolic variables, expanding in powers in powers may lead to simplification.

Example 1. Simplify $(A + B)^2 - (A - B)^2$.

Solution. Using (B-1) , the quantity is

$$(A^2 + 2AB + B^2) - (A^2 - 2AB + B^2) = 4AB. \tag{B-2}$$

We will also need higher powers, such as $(A + B)^3$ or $(A + B)^4$. The proof of (B-1) and its generalizations is based on the associative property of multiplication,

$$(A + B)C = AC + BC. \tag{B-3} \quad \boxed{\text{eq:assoc}}$$

For example, $(3 + 4) \times 5 = 35$ is equal to $15 + 20$. Letting $C = (A + B)$ in (B-3) leads to (B-1) :

$$\begin{aligned} (A + B)(A + B) &= A(A + B) + B(A + B) \\ &= A^2 + AB + BA + B^2 \\ &= A^2 + 2AB + B^2. \end{aligned} \tag{B-4}$$

Then letting $C = A^2 + 2AB + B^2$ leads to the equation for $(A + B)^3$,

$$\begin{aligned} (A + B)^3 &= (A + B)(A^2 + 2AB + B^2) \\ &= A(A^2 + 2AB + B^2) + B(A^2 + 2AB + B^2) \\ &= A^3 + 3A^2B + 3AB^2 + B^3. \end{aligned} \tag{B-5} \quad \boxed{\text{eq:AB3}}$$

The expansion for $(A + B)^4$ is derived similarly,

$$(A + B)^4 = A^4 + 4A^3B + 6A^2B^2 + 4AB^3 + B^4. \quad (\text{B-6}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:AB4}}$$

A general theorem for $(A + B)^n$, with n an integer, is given in the next section. The result is extended to $(A + B)^p$ for noninteger p in the final section.

B.1 INTEGER POWERS

Theorem B-1. The expansion of $(A + B)^n$ in powers of A and B , where n is a positive integer, is

$$(A + B)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} A^{n-k} B^k. \quad (\text{B-7}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:BT}}$$

The sum in (B-7) has $n + 1$ terms. Each term is the product of a numerical constant, a power of A , and a power of B . The exponents of A and B add to n . The A and B powers are

$$A^n, A^{n-1}B, A^{n-2}B^2, \dots, AB^{n-1}, B^n,$$

i.e., all combinations such that the sum of exponents is n . For $n = 2$ these are the three terms in (B-1) ; for $n = 3$ they are the four terms in (B-5) , and so on.

The coefficient of $A^{n-k}B^k$ is called the *binomial coefficient*, denoted by $\binom{n}{k}$, and defined by

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}. \quad (\text{B-8}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:BC}}$$

Here $n!$ (read as “ n factorial”) is, for $n \geq 1$, the product of all the integers from 1 to n ,

$$n! = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \dots \times (n-1) \times n. \quad (\text{B-9})$$

The value of $0!$ is defined to be 1. Also, note the recursion relation $(n+1)! = (n+1) \times n!$.

The highest power of A in (B-7) is A^n (the term with $k = 0$); the coefficient is

$$\binom{n}{0} = \frac{n!}{0!n!} = 1.$$

The highest power of B is B^n , which also has coefficient 1. Note how these results agree with (B-1) , (B-5) and (B-6) .

Proof of Theorem B-1. Equation (B-7)^{eq:BT} is proven by induction. It is obviously true for $n = 1$,

$$(A + B)^1 = \frac{1!}{0!1!}A^1B^0 + \frac{1!}{1!0!}A^0B^1 = A + B. \quad (\text{B-10})$$

Now assume that it is true for n , and consider the next power, $n + 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} (A + B)^{n+1} &= (A + B)(A + B)^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (A^{n-k+1}B^k + A^{n-k}B^{k+1}). \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-11}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:ind1}}$$

The exponents sum to $n + 1$ in both terms in the sum. Now rearrange the terms in the sum to the form in (B-7)^{eq:BT},

$$\sum_{\ell=0}^{n+1} C_\ell A^{n+1-\ell} B^\ell. \quad (\text{B-12}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:induc}}$$

We use here a different summation variable ℓ so that it will not be confused with k in (B-11)^{eq:ind1}. The coefficient of the term $A^{n+1-\ell}B^\ell$ is

$$C_\ell = \binom{n}{\ell} + \binom{n}{\ell-1}; \quad (\text{B-13}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:Cell}}$$

the two terms come from the two terms in (B-11)^{eq:ind1}. (The first term is the coefficient of $A^{n-k+1}B^k$ with $k = \ell$; the second term is the coefficient of $A^{n-k}B^{k+1}$ with $k = \ell - 1$.) C_ℓ can be simplified using properties of the factorial,

$$\begin{aligned} C_\ell &= \frac{n!}{\ell!(n-\ell)!} + \frac{n!}{(\ell-1)!(n-\ell+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(\ell-1)!(n-\ell)!} \left[\frac{1}{\ell} + \frac{1}{n-\ell+1} \right] \\ &= \frac{n!}{(\ell-1)!(n-\ell)!} \frac{n+1}{\ell(n+1-\ell)} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)!}{\ell!(n+1-\ell)!} = \binom{n+1}{\ell}; \end{aligned} \quad (\text{B-14}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:proof}}$$

i.e., C_ℓ is the binomial coefficient for $n + 1$ factors. Hence (B-12)^{eq:induc} is the formula (B-7)^{eq:BT} in the theorem, for $(A + B)^{n+1}$. By induction, the theorem is proven.

Pascal's triangle

The coefficients of $A^{n-k}B^k$ in the expansion (B-7)^{eq:BT} may be arranged in Pascal's triangle, shown in Table B-1^{tbl2}. For example, the numbers in the rows

n	binomial coefficients									
0	1									
1	1		1							
2	1		2		1					
3	1		3		3		1			
4	1		4		6		4	1		
5	1		5		10		10	5	1	
6	1		6		15		20	15	6	1
etc.										

Table B-1: Pascal's triangle

tbl2

with $n = 2, 3,$ and $4,$ agree with the coefficients in Eqs. [\(B-1\)](#), [\(B-5\)](#), and [\(B-6\)](#). In Pascal's triangle, each number (for $n > 0$) is the sum of the two adjacent numbers in the line above. In terms of binomial coefficients, this construction is

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

which is just the identity in the proof of Theorem B-1 [see [\(B-13\)](#) and [\(B-14\)](#)].

B.2 THE BINOMIAL EXPANSION FOR NONINTEGER POWERS

Theorem B-1 is an exact and finite equation for any A and B and integer n . There is a related expression if n is not an integer, discovered by Isaac Newton.

Let p be a real number, positive or negative. Then consider $(A+B)^p \equiv N$. The binomial expansion, generalized to noninteger p , is

$$\begin{aligned} (A+B)^p &= A^p + \frac{p}{1!}A^{p-1}B + \frac{p(p-1)}{2!}A^{p-2}B^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{3!}A^{p-3}B^3 \\ &\quad + \cdots + C(p, k)A^{p-k}B^k + \cdots; \end{aligned} \tag{B-15}$$

eq:BE

the general coefficient (for $k > 0$) is

$$C(p, k) = \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)\cdots(p-k+1)}{k!}. \tag{B-16}$$

In general the number of terms that must be summed in [\(B-15\)](#) is infinite,

i.e., the expansion is an infinite series,

$$(A + B)^p = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(p, k) A^{p-k} B^k. \quad (\text{B-17}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:BE2}}$$

If $p = n$, an integer, then the coefficient of the term proportional to $A^{n-k} B^k$ is

$$C(n, k) = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!} = \binom{n}{k}, \quad (\text{B-18}) \quad \boxed{\text{eq:casepn}}$$

just the binomial coefficient for power n . In this case the number of terms in the expansion is finite, and equal to $n + 1$. The coefficient $C(n, k)$ is 0 for $k > n$, because one of the factors in the numerator of $\binom{n}{k}$ is 0. For example, $C(n, n+1) = 0$ because the final factor is $n - (n+1) + 1 = 0$. Thus the binomial expansion (B-17) reduces to Theorem B-1 if p is an integer.

If p is not an integer then (B-17) is an infinite series. In order for the series to be convergent, A should be the larger (in magnitude) of A and B . (Otherwise, reverse the roles of A and B in the right-hand side of (B-17) .) Then the k th term is proportional to

$$A^{p-k} B^k = A^p \left(\frac{B}{A}\right)^k$$

where $|B/A|$ is less than 1. As k increases, the factor $(B/A)^k$ gets smaller and smaller (in magnitude) so that the sum can converge to a finite value as more and more terms are added.¹

An interesting special case is $A = 1$ and $B = x$. Then the binomial expansion becomes

$$(1+x)^p = 1 + \frac{p}{1!}x + \frac{p(p-1)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)\cdots(p-k+1)}{k!}x^k + \cdots. \quad (\text{B-19})$$

This series is the Taylor series (Chapter 7) of the function $(1+x)^p$.

Example 2. Estimate $\sqrt{5}$ from the binomial expansion.

Solution. Write $\sqrt{5} = (4+1)^{1/2}$, and apply (B-17) with $A = 4$, $B = 1$ and $p = 1/2$; that is,

$$\sqrt{5} = 4^{1/2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C\left(\frac{1}{2}, k\right) \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^k$$

¹Convergence of infinite series is discussed in Appendix C.

$$\begin{aligned}
&= 2 \left[1 + \frac{1}{1!} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) - \frac{1}{2!} \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \frac{3}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^3 + \dots \right] \\
&\approx 2.236.
\end{aligned} \tag{B-20}$$

The first four terms in the series give an approximation to $\sqrt{5}$ that is accurate to 3 decimal places.

Example 3. Calculate $\sqrt[3]{3}$ accurate to 3 decimal places.

Solution. Write $\sqrt[3]{3} = (8 - 5)^{1/3} = 2(1 - 5/8)^{1/3}$. The coefficient $C(1/3, k)$ may be calculated from the recursion relation

$$C(1/3, k+1) = \frac{1/3 - k}{k+1} C(1/3, k).$$

The first few coefficients are

$$1, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{9}, \frac{5}{81}, \dots$$

The table shows how the expansion [\(B-15\)](#) converges as terms are added one by one. To achieve an accuracy of 3 decimal places, 12 terms in the sum are necessary, which gives $\sqrt[3]{3} = 1.442$.

n	sum of n terms
1	2
2	1.583
3	1.497
4	1.466
5	1.454
6	1.448
7	1.445
8	1.444
9	1.443
10	1.443
12	1.442

Example 4. Write the binomial expansion for $A = 1$, $B = x$, and $p = -1$. What is the series? Is it convergent?

Solution. The expression for this case is

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{1-x} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(-1, k)(-x)^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)(-2)(-3)\dots(-k)}{k!} (-x)^k \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots
\end{aligned} \tag{B-21}$$

This is the geometric series. The series converges for x in the range $-1 < x < 1$.