

# Learning to Trust Your Calculator: An Exploration of How Calculators Compute Non-Polynomial Functions

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## 1 Introduction

Try this: take your calculator and type in  $e^\pi$  and watch what happens. You get a neat decimal 23. 14069... appearing almost instantly on your display, with no indication anything particularly complicated has taken place. Now try  $\ln 2$ : again, the calculator will confidently serve us an answer (0. 693147...), but do you really understand *where* that number came from - or how it could possibly be computed at all?

For most high-school students encountering these sorts of functions for the first time, their calculator quickly becomes a magical black box: we press buttons, receive answers, and simply move on without stopping to question the process behind them. Yet, this blind trust in our calculators is not entirely justified.

Functions like  $e^x$ ,  $\ln x$ , and  $\sin x$  fundamentally *transcend* algebra. They are called transcendental functions, because they cannot be expressed as a finite combination of algebraic operations and are thus impossible to calculate analytically for general inputs.

Contrarily, a calculator, under all the layers of abstraction, is fundamentally limited to performing these basic arithmetic operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. So, then, how do our calculators evaluate functions that go beyond these operations?

This essay answers that question —and reveals why the calculators' deserve our trust.

## 2 The Power Series for $e^x$

Let us begin by understanding how calculators find  $e^x$ . One method used to evaluate non-polynomial functions is by approximating them via Taylor's Theorem.

A Taylor series is used to express a smooth function as an infinite sum of polynomial terms centred around a point  $a$ . If a function  $f(x)$  is infinitely differentiable, then near a point  $a$ , it can be approximated by a polynomial whose coefficients are derived from the derivatives of  $f$  at  $a$ .

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n$$

Using Taylor's theorem, we can approximate a function as a finite polynomial by taking a partial sum of its Taylor series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x - a)^n + R_N(x)$$

### Deriving the Maclaurin Series for $e^x$ :

The function  $e^x$  is particularly well-suited to this approach, as it has the remarkable property that all of its derivatives are identical:

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x, \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2} e^x = e^x, \quad \dots$$

Evaluating these derivatives at  $x = 0$  gives

$$f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1 \text{ for all } n$$

Substituting  $f^{(n)}(0)$  into the Taylor series formula and setting  $a = 0$ , we obtain

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

or explicitly,

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

### Convergence of the Taylor Series:

Consider the ratio of successive terms of this series:

$$\left| \frac{x^{n+1}/(n+1)!}{x^n/n!} \right| = \frac{|x|}{n+1} + 1$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this expression tends to 0 for any fixed  $x$ . Therefore, the series converges for all real  $x$ .

This is an extremely useful property, as  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

### Number of Terms Needed to minimize error:

However, a calculator cannot sum infinitely many terms. Instead, it truncates the series after  $N$  terms, forming a Taylor polynomial. Taylor's theorem provides a bound on the error introduced by truncation. The remainder after  $N$  terms is given by

$$R_N(x) = \frac{f^{(N+1)}(\xi)}{(N+1)!} x^{N+1}$$

for some  $\xi$  between 0 and  $x$ .

For  $e^x$ , since all derivatives are  $e^x$ , the error is

$$|R_N(x)| \leq \frac{e^{|x|}}{(N+1)!} |x|^{N+1}$$

1. The factorial  $(N + 1)!$  grows extremely rapidly, causing the error to shrink quickly as  $N$  increases.
2. The error also depends strongly on  $|x|$ : larger values of  $x$  require more terms.

Modern calculators typically use IEEE 754 double-precision (64-bit) floating-point numbers, which provide approximately 15–16 decimal digits of accuracy. For this level of accuracy, 15 terms are sufficient. However we need  $|x| \leq 1$ , as the series converges slowly.

### Range reduction of $x \leq 1$ :

To overcome this, calculators use range reduction. The idea is to rewrite  $x$  in a form that brings it closer to zero, where the series converges quickly.

We use the identity:

$$x = n \ln 2 + r$$

where  $n$  is an integer and  $r$  is chosen such that

$$r \leq \frac{\ln 2}{2}$$

Then,

$$e^x = e^{n \ln 2 + r} = e^{n \ln 2} * e^r = 2^n * e^r$$

Hence the value of  $r$  is reduced to between  $0 \leq 1$  and the majority of the computation is involving to  $2^n$ , which can be computed efficiently in binary (via bit shifts).

## 3 Conclusion

The computation of  $e^x$  via the Taylor series illustrates the power of approximation. Even a complicated non-polynomial function can be evaluated using techniques such as Taylor Series approximations and Chebyshev polynomials. Together, alongside other methods such as  $\ln x$  approximations via Chebyshev polynomials and  $\sin x$  calculations using the CORDIC algorithm, a calculator is able to evaluate such complex transcendental functions. I truly hope that overall, you have learned to trust your calculator and

gained a deeper appreciation for the computation behind math, which is stranger than any other problem.