

XI. Review of power series

Lesson Overview

- A function $f(x)$ has a Taylor Series expansion around a point x_0 :

$$TS(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x-x_0)^n, \text{ where } a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}$$

If $x_0 = 0$, it's also called Maclaurin Series.

- Common Maclaurin Series to remember from calculus:

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

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

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

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

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

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \text{ for } |x| < 1$$

Any power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$ has a radius of convergence R around x_0 , i.e. when you plug in values for x satisfying $|x - x_0| < R$, it converges. It might or might not converge at the endpoints $x = x_0 - R, x = x_0 + R$.

Extreme cases:

- $R = 0$. It only converges for $x = x_0$.
- $R = \infty$. Then it converges for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- To find the radius of convergence, we usually use the Ratio Test: A series converges if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\text{term}_{n+1}}{\text{term}_n} \right| < 1.$$

- We must check the endpoints separately (using a non-Ratio test).

Example I

Identify the following power series as an elementary function:

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 + 3x^2 + \frac{9}{2}x^4 + \frac{9}{2}x^6 + \frac{27}{8}x^8 + \dots \\ &= 1 + 3x^2 + \frac{9}{2}x^4 + \frac{27}{6}x^6 + \frac{81}{24}x^8 + \dots \\ &= 1 + 3x^2 + \frac{(3x^2)^2}{2!} + \frac{(3x^2)^3}{6} + \frac{(3x^2)^4}{24} + \dots \\ &= \boxed{e^{3x^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Example II

Find the Maclaurin Series for $f(x) = \ln(1 - x)$.

Lesson from Calc II: Writing down $f(x), f'(x), f''(x), \dots$ is usually the worst way to find a Taylor Series.

Instead, note that

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(1 - x) &= - \int \frac{dx}{1 - x} \\ &= - \int (1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots) dx \\ &= C - x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots\end{aligned}$$

Plug in $x = 0$ to get $C = 0$.

So $a_n = 0$ for $n = 0$, $a_n = -\frac{1}{n}$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$\ln(1 - x) = \boxed{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{x^n}{n} \right)}$$

Example III

Find the interval of convergence for the Maclaurin Series for $\ln(1 - x)$.

Use the Ratio Test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{-\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}}{-\frac{x^n}{n}} \right| = |x| < 1$$

So it converges for $|x| < 1$. Ratio $R = 1$ around $x_0 = 0$.

Check the endpoints separately (using a non-Ratio test): $x = 1$ gives $-1 - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} - \dots$,

which diverges (Harmonic Series/ p -series).
 $x = -1$ gives $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$, which converges
(Alternating Series Test).

So this series converges for $\boxed{-1 \leq x < 1}$, or
 $\boxed{[-1, 1)}$. This was predictable since $\ln(1 - x)$
blows up at $x = 1$.

Example IV

Use power series to solve the following integral:

$$\int e^{x^2} dx$$

$\int e^{x^2} dx$ can not be done by any integration
technique you learned in Calc II (substitution,
parts, partial fractions, etc.). That's because
there is no "elementary function" whose derivative
is e^{x^2} . But we can find a series that works:

$$\begin{aligned} \int e^{x^2} dx &= \int \left(1 + x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2!} + \frac{x^6}{3!} + \dots \right) dx \\ &= \boxed{C + x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 2!} + \frac{x^7}{7 \cdot 3!} + \dots} \end{aligned}$$

Alternately,

$$\int \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} \right) dx = \boxed{C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)n!}}.$$

Example V

Suppose $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$. Find power series
expressions for $y'(x)$ and $y''(x)$ and shift the
indices of summation so that they start at $n = 0$.

$$y'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Omit the } n = 0 \text{ term} \\ \text{because it is 0 anyway.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 + \dots \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Shift the index of} \\ \text{summation by 1.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \boxed{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)a_{n+1}x^{n+1}}$$

Mnemonic: If you lower the n in the index by 1, then raise the n 's in the formula by 1.

$$y'' = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1)a_n x^{n-2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Omit the } n = 0 \text{ and } n = 1 \\ \text{terms because they are 0.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)a_n x^{n-2} = \boxed{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+2)(n+1)a_{n+2}x^n} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Shifting } n \text{ by 2.} \end{array} \right\}$$