

## 10.7 Power Series

Power series is an infinite sum of Polynomials.

Def: A power series about  $x=0$  is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots + c_n x^n + \dots$$

Def: A power series about  $x=a$  is a series of the form:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1 (x-a) + c_2 (x-a)^2 + \dots + c_n (x-a)^n + \dots$$

in which the center  $a$  and the coefficients

$c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n, \dots$  are constants.

Example:  $\int \neq$   $c_0 = c_1 = \dots = c_n = \dots = 1$  and  $a=0$  Uploaded By: Rawan AlFares

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

first term is 1

which is Geometric series with  $a=1$  &  $r=x$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1$$

(Reciprocal Power Series).

(95)

Remark: If  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ ,  $-1 < x < 1$ . Then

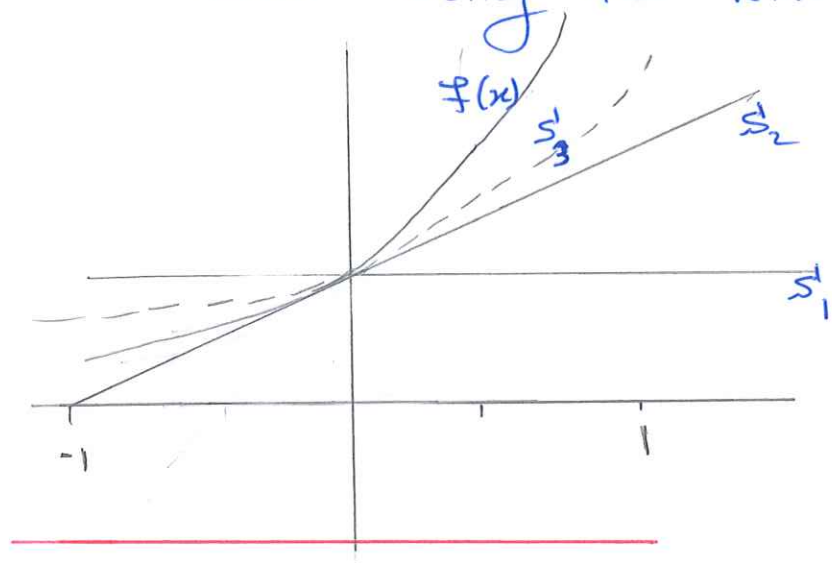
we can approximate  $f(x)$  using the  $n$ th partial

sum:  $S_1 = 1$

$$S_2 = 1 + x$$

$$S_3 = 1 + x + x^2$$

$\vdots$



Example:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n (x-2)^n$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2}(x-2) + \frac{1}{4}(x-2)^2 + \dots$$

is a power series with  $c_n = \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$  coefficients and center = 2.

Also, this series is Geometric Series with  $a = 1$

and  $r = -\frac{1}{2}(x-2)$ . The series converges if

$$|r| < 1 \Leftrightarrow \left| -\frac{1}{2}(x-2) \right| < 1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}|x-2| < 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow |x-2| < 2 \Leftrightarrow -2 < x-2 < 2 \Leftrightarrow 0 < x < 4$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n (x-2)^n = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}(x-2)} = \frac{2}{x}, \quad 0 < x < 4.$$

(96)

Remark: The power series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n (x-a)^n = C_0 + C_1(x-a) + C_2(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

Converges on an Interval around  $a$ ;  $(a-R, a+R)$ ;

and diverges outside the Interval.

$$\begin{array}{c} \Downarrow \\ |x-a| < R. \end{array}$$

- $R$  is called Radius of Convergence.
- $(a-R, a+R)$  is called Interval of Convergence.
- At  $x = a-R$  and  $x = a+R$ , we need to check for the Convergence.

Example: Find the Radius of Convergence and the Interval of Convergence for the following

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$$\square \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n}$$

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Applying Ratio Test with nonnegative terms:  
(or Root Test).

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{x^n} \right|$$

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

Thus:  $R$  (Radius of Convergence) = 1

center = 0  $\Rightarrow$  Interval of Convergence  $(-1, 1)$ .

(The series converges absolutely on  $(-1, 1)$ ).

At the end points:

If  $x = 1$   $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$  which is <sup>conditionally</sup> convergent

Since it's Alternating harmonic series.

If  $x = -1$   $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{2n-1}}{n} = -1 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

which is Harmonic series (Divergent).

Thus, the series Converges  $-1 < x \leq 1$

= { Abs. Converges  $(-1, 1)$   
 Converges  $(-1, 1]$   
 Conditionally Conv.  $x = 1$



Example: Find the Radius of Convergence and

the Interval of Convergence for the following series:

(b) For what values of  $x$  does the series converge absolutely?

(c) For what values of  $x$  does the series converge conditionally?

1  
Q4

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(3x-2)^n}{n}$$

center =  $\frac{2}{3}$

a) Apply Ratio Test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(3x-2)^{n+1}}{(n+1)} \cdot \frac{n}{(3x-2)^n} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(3x-2)^n n}{(n+1)} \right| = |3x-2| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right) = |3x-2| < 1$$

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$$\Rightarrow -1 < 3x-2 < 1$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$\frac{1}{3} < x < 1$$

Converges  
Absol.

At the end points:

If  $x = \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$

converges by A.S.T.

If  $x = 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges Harmonic series

$\therefore$  Interval of Convergence is  $[\frac{1}{3}, 1)$   $R = \frac{1}{3}$

(b) The Series Converges Absolutely :  $(\frac{1}{3}, 1)$

(c) The Series Converges Conditionally :  $x = \frac{1}{3}$ .

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$$\boxed{2} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^x.$$

Using Ratio Test:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^n} \right|$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x}{n+1} \right| = |x| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = |x| \cdot 0 = 0 < 1$$

Thus,  $R = \infty$ , (i.e) The series Converges

absolutely for all  $x$ .

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$\therefore$  Interval of Convergence :  $(-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$ .

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$$\boxed{3} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! x^n$$

Apply Ratio Test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)! x^{n+1}}{n! x^n} \right| = |x| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1) = \infty > 1$$

Thus,  $R = 0$ .

The series diverges  $\forall x$  except when  $x = 0$

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$$\boxed{4} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{10^n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x-2)^{n+1}}{10^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{10^n}{(x-2)^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x-2)}{10} \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{x-2}{10} \right| < 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow |x-2| < 10$$

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$\therefore R = 10$  & The series Converges Absolutely:  $(-8, 12)$

At  $x = -8$ :  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-10)^n}{10^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n$  Diverges by

$n$ th term test.

$$\text{At } x = 12 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{10^n}{10^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1$$

which is diverges by nth term test.

$$\boxed{5} \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (4x-1)^n}{3^n \sqrt{n+1}}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} (4x-1)^{n+1}}{3^{n+1} \sqrt{n+2}} \cdot \frac{3^n \sqrt{n+1}}{(-1)^n (4x-1)^n} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|4x-1|}{3} \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2}} = \frac{|4x-1|}{3} < 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow -3 < 4x-1 < 3 \quad \Leftrightarrow -\frac{1}{2} < x < 1.$$

$$\text{Radius of Convergence} = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}}{2} = \frac{3}{4} = R$$

$$\text{At } \boxed{x = -\frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n (-3)^n}{3^n \sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{2n}}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$$

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with  $b_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\sum b_n$  diverges

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$$\& \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} \text{ Diverges.}$$



$$\text{At } \boxed{x=1} \Rightarrow \sum \frac{(-1)^n (3^n)}{3^n \sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$$

So, By A.S.T with  $u_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

(i)  $u_n > 0, \forall n$ , (ii)  $u_n' < 0$ , (iii)  $u_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0$

Therefore, at  $x=1$ , the series is Conditionally Convergent.

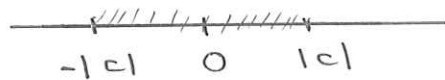
$\therefore$  Interval of Convergence is  $\left(-\frac{1}{2}, 1\right]$

Theorem: The Convergence theorem for power series:

If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$  Converges

at  $x=c \neq 0$ , then it converges absolutely

for all  $x$  with  $|x| < |c|$



If the series diverges at  $x=d$ , then it diverges

for all  $x$  with  $|x| > |d|$

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Remark: In example [2], the series converges at  $x=3$

$\Rightarrow$  it converges absolutely for  $|x| < 3$ .

In example [4], the series converges at  $x=3$ ,

$\Rightarrow$  it converges absolutely for  $|x-2| < 3$ .

## Corollary to the previous Theorem:

For a given power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$ , there are only three possibilities:

- 1) There is a  $R > 0$ , such that the series diverges for  $x$  with  $|x-a| > R$ , but converges absolutely for  $x$  with  $|x-a| < R$ .

The series may not converge at the end points  $x = a - R$  and  $x = a + R$ .

- 2) The series converges absolutely for all  $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$ . In this case  $R = \infty$ .

- 3) The series converges at  $x = a$  and diverges elsewhere, in this case  $R = 0$ .

# Operations on power Series.

Theorem: The Series Multiplication Theorem for

Power Series: If  $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  and

$B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  Converge absolutely for

$|x| < R$ , and

$$C_n = a_0 b_n + a_1 b_{n-1} + a_2 b_{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1} b_1 + a_n b_0$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k b_{n-k},$$

then  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n x^n$  Converges Absolutely to  $A(x)B(x)$

for  $|x| < R$ . That is:

$$\left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n x^n$$

Example: Find the first four nonzero terms of

$$\left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} \right)$$

$$= (1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots) \left( x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \right)$$

$$= \left( x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \right) + \left( x^2 - \frac{x^3}{2} + \frac{x^4}{3} - \frac{x^5}{5} + \dots \right)$$

$$+ \left( x^3 - \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^5}{3} - \frac{x^6}{4} + \dots \right) + \dots$$

$$= x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{5x^3}{6} - \frac{x^4}{6} + \dots$$

Theorem: If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges absolutely

for  $|x| < R$ , then:

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (f(x))^n$  converges absolutely for

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any continuous function  $f$  on  $|f(x)| < R$ .



Example:  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  Converges Absolutely

for  $|x| < 1$ . Then:

•  $\frac{1}{1-4x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (4x^2)^n$  Converges Absolutely

for  $|4x^2| < 1 \Leftrightarrow |x| < \frac{1}{2}$ .

•  $\frac{1}{1-\ln x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\ln x)^n$  Converges Absolutely

for  $|\ln x| < 1 \Leftrightarrow -1 < \ln x < 1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{e} < x < e$ .

Theorem: The term by term Differentiation Theorem:

If  $\sum C_n (x-a)^n$  has radius of convergence  $R > 0$ ,

it defines a function

$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n (x-a)^n$  on  $a-R < x < a+R$ .

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This function  $f$  has derivatives of all orders

inside the interval such that:

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n (x-a)^{n-1},$$

$$f''(x) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) c_n (x-a)^{n-2}$$

⋮

Each of these derived series converges on  $|x-a| < R$ .

Example: find  $f'(x)$  and  $f''(x)$  if

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \quad |x| < 1.$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1}, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{2}{(1-x)^3} = 2 + 6x + 12x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1) x^{n-2}, \quad |x| < 1$$

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Example: Find the sum  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^{n-1}}$

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$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^{n-1}} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1}$$

$$\text{Using } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}, \quad |x| < 1$$

substitute  $x = \frac{1}{2}$ , then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} = \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2} = \boxed{4}.$$

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Caution: Term by term differentiation theorem might not work for other kind of series.

For example:  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n!x)}{n^2}$  converges  $\forall x$ .

But  $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n! \cos(n!x)}{n^2}$  diverges  $\forall x$ .

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Theorem: The Term by Term Integration Theorem:

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Suppose that  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$  converges

for  $|x-a| < R$ , ( $R > 0$ ). Then

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$  converges for  $|x-a| < R$

and  $\int f(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$

for  $|x-a| < R$ .

Example: Find a power series for  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$ .

We know that :

$$\ln(1+x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t} dt.$$

But  $\frac{1}{1+t} = 1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \dots$ , Converges  $|t| < 1$ .

$$\Rightarrow \ln(1+x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t} dt = \int_0^x (1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \dots) dt$$

$$= \left[ t - \frac{t^2}{2} + \frac{t^3}{3} - \frac{t^4}{4} + \dots \right]_0^x$$

$$= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

Therefore :  $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} x^n}{n}$ ,  $|x| < 1$

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Example: Find a power series for  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$ .

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We know that :

$$\tan^{-1} x = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + C$$




$$= \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n dx, \quad |x^2| < 1$$

$$= \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} dx, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan^{-1} x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} + C, \quad |x| < 1$$

If  $x=0$ , then  $\tan^{-1} 0 = 0 + C \Rightarrow C=0$



$$\tan^{-1} x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}, \quad |x| < 1.$$

Example: Identify the function

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

Notice that :

$$f'(x) = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots$$

$|x| < 1$   
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which is a Geometric series  $\Rightarrow f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

$$\text{Hence } f(x) = \int f'(x) dx = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x + C$$

Notice that  $f(0) = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{C=0}$

$$\therefore \boxed{f(x) = \tan^{-1} x}$$

(III)

Example: Find  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$ .

$\Rightarrow \text{sum} = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$

Example: Find  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2n+1}$

$\Rightarrow \text{sum} = \tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}$ .

Example: Write  $\ln\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)$  as an infinite series.

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} x^n}{n}, \quad |x| < 1$$

substitute  $\boxed{x = \frac{1}{2}}$   $\Rightarrow \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n}{n}$

Example: Represent the following functions as

power series.

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$$\boxed{1} \quad f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x} = x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{n+2}, \quad |x| < 1.$$

$$\boxed{2} \quad g(x) = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

We know  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ ,  $|x| < 1$

$$\left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)' = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^{n-1}$$

$$\therefore g(x) = x \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^n, \quad |x| < 1$$

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$$\boxed{3} \quad h(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{1-(1-x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n, \quad |1-x| < 1$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n, \quad 0 < x < 2$$

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Example: Find the Radius and the Interval

of Convergence of the following series:

$$\textcircled{1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n (3x-1)^n}{n^3+1}$$

Using Ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} (n+1) (3x-1)^{n+1} \cdot (n^3+1)}{[(n+1)^3+1] \cdot (-1)^n n (3x-1)^n} \right|$$
$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |3x-1| \left( \frac{n+1}{n} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{n^3+1}{(n+1)^3+1} \right) = |3x-1| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow -1 < 3x-1 < 1 \Leftrightarrow 0 < x < \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\therefore \text{Radius of Convergence: } \left( \frac{2}{3} - 0 \right) / 2 = \boxed{\frac{1}{3}} = R.$$

$$\text{At } \boxed{x=0} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3+1} \quad (\text{Converges}).$$

STUDENTS-HUB.com Using L.T with  $b_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ ,  $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 1$  Uploaded By: Rawan AlFares

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  Converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^3+1}$  Converges.

$$\text{At } \boxed{x = \frac{2}{3}} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{n^3+1} \quad (\text{Converges})$$

Since the Absolute values of the series Converges

$$\Rightarrow \text{Interval of Convergence} = \left[ 0, \frac{2}{3} \right]. \quad (114)$$



$$(2) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+1}} (e-x)^n$$

The series has the form:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{\sqrt{n+1}} (x-e)^n \quad (\text{so its power series}).$$

Using Ratio Test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} (n+1) \cdot (x-e)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{(-1)^n n (x-e)^n} \right|$$

$$= |x-e| < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad e-1 < x < e+1$$

$$\therefore \text{Radius of Convergence} = \frac{e+1 - (e-1)}{2} = \boxed{1}$$

$$\text{At } \boxed{x=e-1} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{\sqrt{n+1}} (-1)^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$$

which is divergent by nth term test ( $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$ ).

STUDENTS-HUB.COM  $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$ , which is Alternating

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series with  $u_n = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n+1}} \rightarrow \infty \neq 0$

$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$  DNE, so the series diverges.

$\therefore$  Interval of Convergence  $(e-1, e+1)$ .

## Lecture Problems:

Q36 Find the radius and Interval of Convergence

for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}) (x-3)^n$ .

الجزء الكسري =  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}} \right) (x-3)^n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left( \frac{(x-3)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2} + \sqrt{n+1}} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}{(x-3)^n} \right) \right|$$

$$= |x-3| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{n+2} + \sqrt{n+1}} = |x-3| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 < x < 4$$

At  $x=2$   $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}$  which is Conditionally Converged  
check!!!

At  $x=4$   $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n}}$  which is divergent.

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$\therefore$  Radius of Convergence =  $\frac{4-2}{2} = 1$

Interval of Convergence =  $[2, 4)$ .

Q40  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2} x^n$ . Find the Radius of Convergence.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n} < 1 \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2} \cdot x^n} < 1$$

$$= |x| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n < 1 \quad \dots (*)$$

Now, let us find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{n \ln\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\frac{\ln n - \ln(n+1)}{\frac{1}{n}}}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{L.H}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{\frac{\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}}{-\frac{1}{n^2}}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{-\frac{n^2}{n(n+1)}} = \boxed{e^{-1}} \text{ (converge)}$$

Back to (\*)  $|x| e^{-1} < 1 \iff |x| < e$

$\therefore -e < x < e$ , with radius of Convergence = e

Recall:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = e^x$

If  $x=1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n}\right)^n = e$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n = e^{-1}$

## 10.8 Taylor and Maclaurin Series:

Question: If a function  $f(x)$  has derivatives of all orders on an Interval  $I$ , can it be expressed as a power series on  $I$ ?

If it can, what will its coefficients be?

The following definition answer the question.

Def: Let  $f$  be a function with derivatives of all orders throughout some interval containing  $a$  as an interior point. Then the Taylor series generated by  $f$  at  $x=a$  is

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

$$+ \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + \dots$$



Def: The Maclaurin series generated by  $f$  is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots$$
$$\dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \dots$$

Which is Taylor series of  $f$  at  $x=0$ .

Def: Let  $f$  be a function with derivatives of order  $k$

for  $k=1, 2, \dots, N$  in some interval containing  $a$

as an interior point. Then for any integer  $n$

from 0 through  $N$ , the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$

generated by  $f$  at  $x=a$  is the polynomial:

$$P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n.$$

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Remark:  $f(x)$  can be approximated using polynomials:

That is:  $P_0(x) = f(a).$

$P_1(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a).$  "Linearization"

$P_2(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2.$

⋮

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Example: Find the Taylor series of  $f(x) = e^x$

at  $x = 0$ ? "Maclaurin Series"

$$f(x) = e^x, \quad f'(x) = e^x, \quad f''(x) = e^x, \quad \dots$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$$

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

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

2 Find Taylor polynomial of order 0, 1, 2, 3.

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = 1 + x$$

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$$P_2(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$

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$$P_3(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3!} \approx e^x$$

Notice that More terms is more accurate approx.

We say of order  $n$ , not of degree  $n$ , since  $f^{(n)}(a)$  maybe 0 (120)

Example: Find the Taylor series of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

at  $x = 2$ ? Does the series converge to  $\frac{1}{x}$ ?

Sol: We need to find:  $f(2), f'(2), f''(2), \dots$

$$f(x) = x^{-1}, \quad f'(x) = -x^{-2}, \quad f''(x) = 2x^{-3}, \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow f(2) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad f'(2) = -\frac{1}{4} = -\frac{1}{2^2}, \quad f''(2) = \frac{2}{8} = \frac{2}{2^3} \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(2)}{k!} (x-2)^k = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{(x-2)}{2^2} + \frac{(x-2)^2}{2^3} + \dots$$

Which is a geometric series, with  $a = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0$

and  $r = -\frac{(x-2)}{2}$ .

It converges absolutely if  $|r| < 1 \Leftrightarrow |x-2| < 2$   
 $\Leftrightarrow 0 < x < 4$

and its sum is:  $\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1 + \frac{(x-2)}{2}} = \frac{1}{2 \left( \frac{2+x-2}{2} \right)} = \frac{1}{x}$ .

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$\therefore$  Taylor series generated by  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  at  $x = 2$

converges to  $\frac{1}{x}$ , for  $0 < x < 4$ .



Example: Find Taylor series generated by

$$f(x) = \cos x \quad \text{at } x=0? \quad \text{"Maclaurin Series"}$$

Sol:  $f(x) = \cos x$ ,  $f'(x) = -\sin x$ ,  $f''(x) = -\cos x$ , ...

$$\Rightarrow f(0) = 1, f'(0) = 0, f''(0) = -1, f'''(0) = 0, \dots$$

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

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{converges to} \\ \cos x, \forall x \\ \text{NEXT SECTION} \end{array} \right)$$

Remark: If we want to find First order Taylor polynomial generated by  $f(x) = \cos x$  at  $x=0$

$P_1(x) = 1$ , which has degree 0 not 1.

Remark: Taylor polynomials of order  $2n$  and  $2n+1$  are identical, since: for  $f(x) = \cos x$

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$$f^{(2n)}(0) = (-1)^n \quad \text{while} \quad f^{(2n+1)}(0) = 0$$

$$\therefore P_{2n}(x) = P_{2n+1}(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$



Remark: Maclaurin Series for  $f(x) = \sin x$

$$\text{is : } 1 - x + \frac{x^3}{3!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \quad (\text{check})$$

Converges to  $\sin x$ ,  $\forall x$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$

Example: Find Maclaurin Series for  $\cosh x$ .

Recall that  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \right) + \left( 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ 2 + \frac{2x^2}{2!} + \frac{2x^4}{4!} + \frac{2x^6}{6!} + \dots \right]$$

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

Example: Find Maclaurin Series for  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x=0 \\ e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}, & x \neq 0 \end{cases}$

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$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0) x^k}{k!} = 0 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + 0 \cdot x^3 + \dots + 0 \cdot x^k + \dots$$

So the series converges for every  $x$  (its sum = 0).

But converges to  $f(x)$  only at  $x=0$ .

Thus, Taylor series generated by  $f(x)$  is not equal to  $f(x)$  itself.

Example: Find Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = \ln\left(\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right)$

Notice that  $f'(x) = \frac{2}{1-x^2} = \frac{a}{1-r}$

⇒ Geometric series:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2x^{2k} = 2 + 2x^2 + 2x^4 + 2x^6 + \dots$$

$$\therefore \ln\left(\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right) = \int_0^x \frac{2}{1-t^2} dt$$

$$= 2x + \frac{2}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{5}x^5 + \dots = \sum \frac{2x^{2k+1}}{2k+1}$$

Example: Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = x \sinh x$ .

we know that Maclaurin series for  $\sinh x$  is

$$1 + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

⇒ Maclaurin series for  $f(x)$  is

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$$x - \frac{x^4}{3!} + \frac{x^6}{5!} - \frac{x^8}{7!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+2}}{(2k+1)!}$$

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