

① Power Series of Functions

Idea: can view a power series

$$\sum c_n (x-a)^n$$

as a function $f(x)$ on its interval of convergence.

amazingly: many well-known functions can be represented as power series

○ we already know one ex:

if $|x| < 1$ then $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$

is equal to $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1+x+x^2+\dots$

- of course if $|x| \geq 1$, $\sum x^n$ diverges and so is no longer $= \frac{1}{1-x}$.

↳
$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1x^{n-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{1-x} \\ &\text{by geo. series formula} \end{aligned}$$

- but we'll see: representing functions $f(x)$ as power series on even parts of their domain can be useful!

② ex: express $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ as a power series and find the interval of convergence.

Sol'n: we know $\frac{1}{1-t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n$

as long as $|t| < 1$.

So let $t = -x^2$ we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1-(-x^2)} &= \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} \\ &= 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

as long as $|x^2| < 1$, i.e. $x^2 < 1$, i.e. $|x| < 1$

because $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n$ is a geometric series, (with $r = -x^2$), this is as good as we can do. converges if and only if $|1-x^2| < 1$ i.e. interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$.

(3)

ex: Some q for $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+2}$.

Soln: $\frac{1}{x+2} = \frac{1}{2+x} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \frac{x}{2}} \right)$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{1 - (-\frac{x}{2})} \right)$$

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{1}{8}x^2 - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n x^n$$

which converges iff $\left| -\frac{x}{2} \right| < 1$

i.e. $\left| \frac{x}{2} \right| < 1$

i.e. $-1 < \frac{x}{2} < 1$

i.e. $-2 < x < 2$

So interval of convergence is this case is $(-2, 2)$.

4) ex: same q for $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{x+2}$

Sol'n: - we know we can distribute constants over series: $c \sum a_n = \sum ca_n$

- we also know for a fixed x in $(-2, 2)$, the series $\sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n (\frac{1}{2})^{n+1} x^n$ converges to $\frac{1}{x+2}$

- so... for x in $(-2, 2)$ we must have:

$$x^3 \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n (\frac{1}{2})^{n+1} x^n = \sum_0^{\infty} x^3 (-1)^n (\frac{1}{2})^{n+1} x^n = \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n (\frac{1}{2})^{n+1} x^{n+3}$$

converges to $= \frac{x^3}{x+2}$

So: $\sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n (\frac{1}{2})^{n+1} x^{n+3} = \frac{1}{2}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{1}{8}x^5 - \dots$

is a power series representation for $\frac{x^3}{x+2}$

on interval $(-2, 2)$

① - Recall: we think of a power series

$$\sum_0^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots$$

as an "infinite polynomial".

- Polynomials are nice because they are ez to differentiate + integrate.

- turns out: same is true of power series!

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

term by term...

Theorem IF the power series $\sum_0^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, then the function f defined by:

$$f(x) = \sum_0^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

is continuous and differentiable on $(a-R, a+R)$ and further:

(i) $f'(x) = \sum_1^{\infty} n c_n (x-a)^{n-1} = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + \dots$

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

$$= \left(c_0(x-a) + \frac{c_1(x-a)^2}{2} + \frac{c_2(x-a)^3}{3} + \dots \right) + C$$

② and the radius of convergence for both (173)
series is also R .

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- won't prove theorem (beyond scope)
 - Note: thm says: can differentiate + integrate power series term-by-term!
 - Note: thm also says: radius R of convergence for differentiated and integrated series is same as original series, but what happens at the endpoints $x = a + R$ and $x = a - R$ may be different.
 - can use thm to get power series rep's for new functions.

ex: Find a power series representation for $\frac{1}{1-x}$. What is the radius of convergence?

Sol'n: We know:

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

③ So:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{d}{dx} (1 + x + x^2 + \dots)$$

i.e. $\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} \stackrel{\text{by theorem}}{=} 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \dots$

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

then also says: $R=1$ for this series too.
 (can check: $\sum (n+1)x^n$ diverges if $x=1$ or -1)
 So interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$.

(in this case: same as original interval, but in general can be diff).

ex: Find power series rep'n for $\frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$.

Sol'n: by above:

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

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

$$= x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + \dots$$

mult. by x

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)x^{n+1} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$$

does not change radius

④ ex: Same q for $\ln(1+x)$.

Soln: a new trick.

Observe: $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(1+x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$

$$= \frac{1}{1-(-x)}$$

geo series for $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x)^n$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n$$

$$= 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots$$

for $|x| < 1$

① Hence $\ln(1+x) = \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n$

$$= \int (1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots)$$

$$= x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots + C$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} x^n + C \quad \text{if } |x| < 1$$

To solve for C at $x=0$

$$\ln(1) = 0 + C$$

i.e. $0 = C$. Hence: $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} / n x^n$
(won't check end points). if $|x| < 1$.

⑤

176

ex: some question for $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$

Soln: we know:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1} x = \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{1-(-x^2)}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n$$

(f $| -x^2 | < 1$
i.e. $|x| < 1$)

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

$$= 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots$$

So: $\tan^{-1} x = \int (1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots) dx$ for $|x| < 1$

$$= \left(x - \frac{1}{3} x^3 + \frac{1}{5} x^5 - \frac{1}{7} x^7 + \dots \right) + C$$



To find C , let $x=0$:

$$\tan^{-1} 0 = 0 + C$$

$$\text{i.e. } 0 = C.$$

So $\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{1}{3} x^3 + \frac{1}{5} x^5 - \frac{1}{7} x^7 + \dots$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \quad \checkmark$$

6

Q. evaluate $\int \frac{x}{1+x^3} dx$ as a power series. what is radius of convergence?

Soln: first we do $\frac{x}{1+x^3}$

We know:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x}{1+x^3} &= x \left(\frac{1}{1+x^3} \right) = x \left(\frac{1}{1-(-x^3)} \right) \\ &= x \left(\sum_0^{\infty} (-x^3)^n \right) \quad \text{if } |x^3| < 1 \\ &\quad \text{i.e. if } |x| < 1 \\ &= x \left(\sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{3n} \right) = x(1 - x^3 + x^6 - x^9 + \dots) \\ &= \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{3n+1} \\ &= x - x^4 + x^7 - x^{10} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

for $|x| < 1$.

Hence $\int \frac{x}{1+x^3} dx$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int x - x^4 + x^7 - x^{10} + \dots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^2 - \frac{1}{5} x^5 + \frac{1}{8} x^8 - \frac{1}{11} x^{11} + \dots + C \\ &= \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{3n+2}}{3n+2} + C \quad \text{for } |x| < 1 \end{aligned}$$

⑦ Note: it turns out

$$\int \frac{x}{1+x^3} dx = \frac{1}{6} (-\ln(x^2-x+1) + 2\ln(x+1) + 2\sqrt{3} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{2x-1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)) + C$$

... but this is hard to solve for directly.
Our power series rep'n of this integral is good enough for many applications.

ex. Approximate $\int_0^{0.3} \frac{x}{1+x^3} dx$ using the previous power series, to within two decimal places.

Sol'n: from above:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x}{1+x^3} &= \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{5}x^5 + \frac{1}{8}x^8 - \dots + C \\ &= \sum_0^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{3n+2}}{3n+2} + C \quad \text{for } |x| < 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \int_0^{0.3} \frac{x}{1+x^3} &= \left(\frac{1}{2}(-.3)^2 - \frac{1}{5}(-.3)^5 + \frac{1}{8}(-.3)^8 - \dots \right) \\ &\quad - \left(\frac{1}{2}0^2 - \frac{1}{5}0^5 + \frac{1}{8}0^8 - \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(-.3)^2 - \frac{1}{5}(-.3)^5 + \frac{1}{8}(-.3)^8 - \dots \end{aligned}$$

8

- this is a convergent alternating series
- let's approximate it with first three terms:

$$\approx \overset{a_0}{\frac{1}{2}(.3)^2} - \overset{a_1}{\frac{1}{5}(.3)^5} + \overset{a_2}{\frac{1}{8}(.3)^8}$$

$$= .0445222015$$

we know error is bounded by next term:

$$R_2 \leq b_{n+1} = \frac{1}{11}(.3)^{11} = 1.61 \times 10^{-7}$$

i.e. ~~0.0445~~ .0445... is within 1.61×10^{-7}

cf $\int_0^{.3} \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx$... way better than
two decimal places!