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## 1 Power Series

## 1.1 Review of Taylor Polynomials, Taylor/MacLaurin Series

**Definition 1.1** (Taylor Polynomials). Let f be a function with  $f', f'', \ldots, f^{(n)}$  defined at a. Then *n*th-order Taylor polynomial for f with its center at a, denoted  $p_n$ , has the property that it matches f in value, slope, and all derivatives up to the *n*th derivative at a; that is,

$$p_n = f(a), p'_n(a) = f'(a), \dots, p^{(n)}(a) = f^{(n)}(a).$$

The *n*th-order Taylor polynomial centered at a is

$$p_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k(x-a)^k,$$

where the *coefficients* are

$$c_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}$$
, for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ 

**Definition 1.2** (Taylor/MacLaurin Series for a Function). Suppose the function f has derivatives of all orders on an interval centered at the point a. The Taylor series for f centered at a is

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

A Taylor series centered at 0 is called a *MacLaurin series*.

**Example 1.1** (MacLaurin series for  $\sin x$ ). Find the MacLaurin series for  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$ , and find their intervals of convergence.

SOLUTION.

(a)

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x,$$
  

$$f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x,$$
  

$$f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(-\sin x) = -\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = -\cos x,$$
  

$$f^{(4)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(-\cos x) = -\frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -(-\sin x) = \sin x$$

Observe that  $f^{(4)}(x) = f(x) = \sin(x)$ , then  $f^{(5)}(x) = f'(x) = \cos x$ ,  $f^{(6)}(x) = f''(x) = -\sin x$ , and  $f^{(7)}(x) = f^{(3)}(x) = -\cos x$ . More generally,  $f^{(4n+j)}(x) = f^{(j)}(x)$ , j = 0, 1, 2, 3; n = 0, 1, 2, ... Then by definition, the MacLaurin series for  $f(x) = \sin x$  is

$$\sin x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} (x-0)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k$$
  
=  $\sin 0 + \frac{\cos 0}{1!} x + \frac{-\sin 0}{2!} x^2 + \frac{-\cos 0}{3!} x^3 + \frac{\sin 0}{4!} x^4 + \frac{\cos 0}{5!} x^5 + \cdots$   
=  $x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$   
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$ 

Then we apply the Ratio Test to  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} \right| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|x|^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$  to test for absolute convergence:

$$r = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k}$$
  
=  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x|^{2k+3}/(2k+3)!}{|x|^{2k+1}/(2k+1)!}$   
=  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x|^2(2k+1)!}{(2k+1)! \cdot (2k+2)(2k+3)}$   
=  $|x|^2 \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{(2k+2)(2k+3)}$   
= 0.

In this case, r < 1 for all x, so the MacLaurin series converges absolutely for all x, which implies that the series converges for all x. We conclude that the interval of convergence is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

(b)

$$g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}g(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x,$$
  

$$g''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(-\sin x) = -\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = -\cos x,$$
  

$$g^{(3)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}g''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(-\cos x) = -\frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -(-\sin x) = \sin x,$$
  

$$g^{(4)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}g^{(3)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x,$$

Observe that  $g^{(4)}(x) = g(x) = \cos(x)$ , then  $g^{(5)}(x) = g'(x) = -\sin x$ ,  $g^{(6)}(x) = g''(x) = -\cos x$ , and  $g^{(7)}(x) = g^{(3)}(x) = \sin x$ . More generally,  $g^{(4n+j)}(x) = g^{(j)}(x)$ ,  $j = 0, 1, 2, 3; n = -\cos x$ , and  $g^{(5)}(x) = g^{(3)}(x) = \sin x$ .

3 of 7

 $0, 1, 2, \ldots$  Then by definition, the MacLaurin series for  $g(x) = \cos x$  is

$$\cos x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(k)}(0)}{k!} (x-0)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k$$
  
=  $\cos 0 + \frac{-\sin 0}{1!} x + \frac{-\cos 0}{2!} x^2 + \frac{\sin 0}{3!} x^3 + \frac{\cos 0}{4!} x^4 + \frac{-\sin 0}{5!} x^5 + \cdots$   
=  $1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$   
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$ 

Or we can observe that  $\cos x = \frac{d}{dx} \sin x$ , then

$$\cos x = \frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \frac{d}{dx}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{d}{dx}\frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^k (2k+1)x^{2k}}{(2k)! \cdot (2k+1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$$

Then we apply the Ratio Test to  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \right| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$  to test for absolute convergence:

$$r = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k}$$
  
=  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{x^{2(k+1)}/[2(k+1)]!}{x^{2k}/(2k)!}$   
=  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{x^{2k+2}}{x^{2k}} \frac{(2k)!}{(2k+2)!}$   
=  $\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{x^{2k} \cdot x^2}{x^{2k}} \frac{(2k)!}{(2k)!(2k+1)(2k+2)!}$   
=  $x^2 \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{(2k+1)(2k+2)!}$   
= 0.

In this case, r < 1 for all x, so the MacLaurin series converges absolutely for all x, which implies that the series converges for all x. We conclude that the interval of convergence is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

**Example 1.2** (Manipulating MacLaurin series). Let  $f(x) = e^x$ .

- (a) Find the MacLaurin series for f.
- (b) Find its interval of convergence.
- (c) Use the MacLaurin series for  $e^x$  to find the MacLaurin series for the functions  $x^4e^x$ ,  $e^{-2x}$ , and  $e^{-x^2}$ .

SOLUTION.

$$e^{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} (x-0)^{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{0}}{k!} x^{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \frac{x^{4}}{4!} + \cdots$$

(b) Then we apply the Ratio Test to  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |a_k| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{x^k}{k!} \right| = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{|x|^k}{k!}$  to test for absolute convergence:

$$r = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k}$$
$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x|^{k+1}/(k+1)!}{|x|^k/k!}$$
$$= \lim_{k \to \infty} |x| \frac{k!}{k! \cdot (k+1)}$$
$$= |x| \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{k+1}$$
$$= 0.$$

In this case, r < 1 for all x, so the MacLaurin series converges absolutely for all x, which implies that the series converges for all x. We conclude that the interval of convergence is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

(c) Apply the Theorem of Combining Power Series, we have the following

$$\begin{aligned} x^4 e^x &= x^4 \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k x^4}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k+4}}{k!}, \\ e^{-2x} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-2x)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (2x)^k}{k!}, \\ e^{-x^2} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x^2)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (x^2)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{k!} \end{aligned}$$

Proposition 1.1 (MacLaurin series).

(a) 
$$\sin x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$
, for  $|x| < \infty$ .  
(b)  $\cos x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$ , for  $|x| < \infty$ .  
(c)  $e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$ , for  $|x| < \infty$ .  
(d)  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$ , for  $|x| < 1$ .  
(e)  $\frac{1}{1+x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-x)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^k$ , for  $|x| < 1$ .

(f) 
$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k x^{k+1}}{k+1}$$
, for  $-1 < x \le 1$ .  
(g)  $-\ln(1-x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1}$ , for  $-1 \le x < 1$ .

## **1.2** Remainder and Approximation of Series

**Definition 1.3** (Remainder). The *remainder* is the error in approximating a convergent series by the sum of its first n terms, that is,

$$R_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k - \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} a_k = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + a_{n+3} + \cdots$$

**Theorem 1.1** (Estimating Series with Positive Terms). Let f be a continuous, positive, decreasing function, for  $x \ge 1$ , and let  $a_k = f(k)$ , for  $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$  Let  $S = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  be a convergent series and

let  $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k$  be the sum of the first *n* terms of the series. The remainder  $R_n = S - S_n$  satisfies

$$R_n < \int_n^\infty f(x) \, dx.$$

Furthermore, the exact value of the series is bounded as follows:

$$S_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) \, dx < \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k < S_n + \int_n^{\infty} f(x) \, dx.$$

**Example 1.3** (Approximating a *p*-series).

(a) How many terms of the convergent *p*-series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$  must be summed to obtain an approxima-

tion that is within  $10^{-3}$  of the exact value of the series?

(b) Find an approximation to the series using 50 terms of the series.

SOLUTION. The function associated with this series is  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ .

(a) Using the bound on the remainder, we have

$$R_n < \int_n^\infty f(x) \, dx = \int_n^\infty \frac{dx}{x^2}$$
$$= \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_n^b \frac{dx}{x^2}$$
$$= \lim_{b \to \infty} -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_n^b$$
$$= \lim_{b \to \infty} -\left(\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{n}.$$

- (b) To ensure that  $R_n < 10^{-3}$ , we must choose *n* so that  $\frac{1}{n} < 10^{-3}$ , which implies n > 1000. In otherwords, we must sum at least 1001 terms of the series to be sure that the remainder is less than  $10^{-3}$ .
- (c) Using the bounds on the series, we have  $L_m < S < U_m$ , where S is the exact value of the series, and

$$L_n = S_n + \int_{n+1}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2} = S_n + \frac{1}{n+1}$$
 and  $U_n = S_n + \int_n^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2} = S_n + \frac{1}{n}$ .

Therefore, the series is bounded as follows,

$$S_n + \frac{1}{n+1} < S < S_n + \frac{1}{n},$$

where  $S_n$  is the sum of the first *n* terms. Using a calculator to sum the first 50 terms of the series, we find  $S_{50} \approx 1.625133$ . The exact value of the series is in the interval

$$S_{50} + \frac{1}{51} < S < S_{50} + \frac{1}{50}$$

or 1.644741 < S < 1.645133. Taking the average of these two bounds as out approximation of S, we find that  $S \approx 1.644937$ .

**Theorem 1.2** (Remainder in Alternating Series). Let  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} a_k$  be a convergent alternating series with terms that are nonincreasing in magnitude. Let  $R_n = S - S_n$  be the remainder in approximating the value of that series by the sum of its first *n* terms. Then  $|R_n| \leq a_{n+1}$ . In other words, the magnitude of the remainder is less than or equal to the magnitude of the first neglected term.

**Example 1.4** (Remainder in an alternating series).

(a) In turns out that  $\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \ln(1+x) \Big|_{x=1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k 1^{k+1}}{k+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k+1}.$ 

How many terms of the series are required to approximate  $\ln 2$  with an error less than  $10^{-6}$ ? The exact value of the series is given but is not needed to answer the question.

(b) Consider the series  $-1 + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} - \cdots = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$ . Find an upper bound for the magnitude of the error in approximating the value of the series (which is  $e^{-1} - 1$ ) with n = 9 terms.

SOLUTION.

(a) The series is expressed as the sum of the first n terms plus the remainder:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} + \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n+2} + \dots$$

In magnitude, the remainder is less than or equal to the magnitude of the (n + 1)st term:

$$|R_n| = |S - S_n| \le a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+2}.$$

To ensure that the error is less than  $10^{-6}$ , we require that

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+2} < 10^{-6} \implies n+2 > 10^{6} \implies n > 10^{6} - 2.$$

Therefore, it takes 1 million terms of the series to approximate  $\ln 2$  with an error less than  $10^{-6}$ .

(b) The series may be expressed as the sum of the first nine terms plus the remainder:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} = -1 + \frac{1}{2!} - \frac{1}{3!} + \dots - \frac{1}{9!} + \frac{1}{10!} - \dots$$

The error committed when using the first nine terms to approximate the value of the series satisfies

$$|R_9| = |S - S_9| \le a_{10} = \frac{1}{10!} \approx 2.8 \times 10^{-7}.$$

Therefore, the error is no greater than  $2.8 \times 10^{-7}$ . As a check, the difference between the sum of the first nine terms,  $\sum_{k=1}^{9} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \approx -0.632120811$ , and the exact value,  $S = e^{-1} - 1 \approx -0.632120559$ , is approximately  $2.5 \times 10^{-7}$ .