Power series and Taylor series

• A power series (冪級數) in x - c is a series of the form

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$$

The a_k 's are called the coefficients of the power series (冪級數的係數).

- Radius of convergence (收斂半徑). For a power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$, one of (i)-(iii) holds.
 - (i) The series converges absolutely for every real number x.
 - (ii) The series converges only for x = c.
 - (iii) There exists a number $r \in (0, \infty)$ such that the series converges absolutely for |x c| < r and diverges for |x c| > r.

We say that the radius of convergence of the power series is

ſ	∞	in Case	(i);
{	0	in Case	(ii);
l	r	in Case	$(\mathrm{iii}).$

- Example 1. Let r be the radius of convergence for a power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-2)^k$. What can be said about r in each of the following cases?
 - (a) The power series converges for x = 2.1.
 - (b) The power series diverges for x = 3.1.
 - (c) The power series converges for x = 3 and diverges for x = 1.

Sol. Note that the power series converges absolutely for |x - 2| < r and diverges for |x - 2| > r, so $r \ge |2.1 - 2| = 0.1$ in Case (a) and $r \le |3.1 - 2| = 1.1$ in Case (b). In Case (c), since $r \ge |3 - 2| = 1$ and $r \le |1 - 2| = 1$, we have r = 1.

• Ratio test (or root test) can be used for finding the radius convergence of a power series.

Example 2. Find the radius of convergence of $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k / k!$.

Sol. We can show that the series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x^k|/k!$ converges for all x using the ratio test. Therefore, the radius of convergence for $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |x^k|/k!$ is ∞ .

Example 3. Find the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x^k / \sqrt{k}$.

Sol. From the ratio test, the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |x^k|/\sqrt{k}$ converges when |x| < 1 and diverges when |x| > 1. Since the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x^k/\sqrt{k}$ does not diverge for |x| < 1, its radius of convergence cannot be less than 1. Also, the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x^k/\sqrt{k}$ does not converge absolutely for |x| > 1, so its radius of convergence cannot be greater than 1. Therefore, the radius of convergence is equal to 1.

- Term by term differentitation and integration. Suppose that a power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$ has radius of convergence r > 0. Then the following results hold.
 - The series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k k(x-c)^{k-1}$ has radius of convergence r, and

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k k (x-c)^{k-1} \text{ for } |x-c| < r.$$

- The series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k (x-c)^{k+1}}{k+1}$ has radius convergence r, and

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k (x-c)^{k+1}}{k+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k \text{ for } |x-c| < r$$

Example 4. Let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k / k!$ for $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$. Show that f'(x) = f(x) for $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$.

Sol. Term by term differentiation.

• Example 5. Show that $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^{k+1}/(k+1)$ for |x| < 1. Sol. Since $1/(1+x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-x)^k$ and the power series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-x)^k$ has radius of convergence 1, from term by term integration, we have

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(-1)^k\frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} = \frac{1}{1+x}$$

and

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

for |x| < 1. From the zero derivative theorem, $\ln(1+x) = C + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^{k+1} / (k+1)$ for |x| < 1. When x = 0, we have $\ln(1+0) = C + 0$, so C = 0 and $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^{k+1} / (k+1)$ for |x| < 1.

• Uniqueness theorem (Theorem 8.24). Suppose that $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$ has radius of convergence r > 0. Let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$ for |x-c| < r. Then $a_k = f^{(k)}(c)/k!$ for all k.

- The series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(c)(x-c)^k/k!$ is called the Taylor series (泰勒級數) of f at c. When c = 0, it is called the Maclaurin series (麥克勞倫級數) of f. The partial sum of the first n+1 terms of the Maclaurin series is denoted by $M_n(x)$.
- Note that if $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$ for |x-c| < r, where r > 0 is the radius of convergence of $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$, then by the uniqueness theorem, the Taylor series of f at c is $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x-c)^k$.

Example 6. Find the Maclaurin series of $1/(1+x^2)$.

Sol. Since $1/(1+x^2) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (-1)^m x^{2m}$ for |x| < 1, the Maclaurin series of $1/(1+x^2)$ is $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (-1)^m x^{2m}$.

• It is possible that $f(x) \neq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(c)(x-c)^k/k!$ for |x-c| < r, where r is the radius of convergence of the Taylor series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(c)(x-c)^k/k!$. If $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(c)(x-c)^k/k!$, then we say that f can be represented by its Taylor series at c.

Example 7. Let $f(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$ for $x \neq 0$ and f(0) = 0. Show that f cannot be represented by its Maclaurin series.

Sol. It can be shown that for $k \ge 1$,

$$f^{(k)}(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2} p_k(1/x) & \text{if } x \neq 0; \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases}$$

where $p_k(1/x)$ is a polynomial of 1/x. Therefore, the Maclaurin series of f is $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f^{(k)}(0)x^k/k! = 0 \neq f(x)$ for $x \neq 0$.

Example 8. Find the Maclaurin series for $\cos(x)$.

Ans. The Maclaurin series for $\cos(x)$ is $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_k}{k!} x^k$, where

$$b_k = \left. \frac{d^k}{dx^k} \cos(x) \right|_{x=0} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k \text{ is odd;} \\ (-1)^{k/2} & \text{if } k \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

We can also express the Maclaurin series for $\cos(x)$ as $\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m}{(2m)!} x^{2m}$.

Example 9. Find the Taylor series of $\ln(x)$ at 1.

Ans. The Taylor series of
$$\ln(x)$$
 at 1 is $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} (x-1)^k$.

• Taylor's theorem (Theorem 8.25). Suppose that $f^{(k)}$ exists for $k \leq (n+1)$ on an open interval I that contains a number c. Then for $x \in I$,

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x-c)^k + \frac{f^{n+1}(z_n)}{(n+1)!} (x-c)^{n+1},$$
 (1)

where z_n is a number between c and x.

Example 10. Find the Maclaurin polynomial series $M_5(x)$ for e^x and use this polynomial to approximate e. Use the Taylor's theorem to determine the approximation accuracy.

Sol. $M_5(x) = \sum_{k=0}^5 x^k/k!$. From Taylor's theorem, $e^1 - M_5(1) = e^z 1^6/6!$, where z is between 0 and 1. Therefore, $|e - M_5(1)| \le e/6! \le 3/6! = 1/240$. Here $e \le 3$ follows from the fact that $(1 + 1/n)^n \le \sum_{k=0}^n 1/k! \le 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n 2^{-k+1} \le 3$.

Example 11. Show that $\cos(x)$ can be represented by its Maclaurin series.

Sol. Apply Taylor's theorem with $f(x) = \cos(x)$ and show that the remainder term $\frac{f^{n+1}(z_n)}{(n+1)!}(x-0)^{n+1}$ converges to 0 as $n \to \infty$.

• From Taylor's theorem, if f'' exists on an open interval containing [a, b] and

$$|f''(x)| \le M_0 \text{ for } x \in [a, b],$$

then for $c \in (a, b)$,

$$|f(x) - f(c) - f'(c)(x - c)| \le \frac{M_0(x - c)^2}{2}$$
 for $x \in [a, b]$.

Example 12. Suppose that $f(x) = \sin(x)$.

- (a) Find the maximum of |f''| on [-0.05, 0.05].
- (b) Find a, b and M such that $|f(x) a bx| \le Mx^2$ for $|x| \le 0.05$.

Answers: (a) $\sin(0.05)$. (b) a = f(0) = 0, b = f'(0) = 1 and M = 0.025 (*M* can be any number such that $M \ge 0.5 \sin(0.05) = 0.024989...$).

Proof for Taylor's theorem (Theorem 8.25).

We will first show that

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x-c)^k + (-1)^{m-1} \int_c^x \frac{f^{(m)}(t)}{(m-1)!} (t-x)^{m-1} dt \qquad (2)$$

for $1 \le m \le n$. It is clear that (2) holds for m = 1. Suppose that (2) holds for a particular $m \le n$ and suppose that $m + 1 \le n$, then

$$\begin{split} f(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x-c)^k + (-1)^{m-1} \int_c^x f^{(m)}(t) d\frac{(t-x)^m}{m!} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x-c)^k + (-1)^{m-1} f^{(m)}(t) \frac{(t-x)^m}{m!} \Big|_c^x \\ &- (-1)^{m-1} \int_c^x \frac{(t-x)^m}{m!} f^{(m+1)}(t) dt \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!} (x-c)^k + (-1)^m f^{(m)}(c) \frac{(c-x)^m}{m!} \\ &+ (-1)^m \int_c^x \frac{f^{(m+1)}(t)}{m!} (t-x)^m dt, \end{split}$$

so (2) holds for m + 1. By induction, (2) holds for $1 \le m \le n$. Note that (1) follows from (2) with m = n and the fact that

$$(-1)^{n-1} \int_{c}^{x} \frac{f^{(n)}(t)}{(n-1)!} (t-x)^{n-1} dt - \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^{n} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z_{n})}{(n+1)!} (x-c)^{n+1}$$
(3)

for some z_n between x and c. Now we are ready to prove (3). Let J be the closed interval with endpoints c and x. Define

$$g(t) = \frac{f^{(n)}(t) - f^{(n)}(c)}{t - c}$$
 for $t \neq c$

and $g(c) = f^{(n+1)}(c)$, then g is continuous on J. Let M_g and m_g be the maximum and minimum of g on J respectively. Let

$$I = (-1)^{n-1} \int_{c}^{x} \frac{f^{(n)}(t)}{(n-1)!} (t-x)^{n-1} dt - \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^{n}$$

= $(-1)^{n-1} \int_{c}^{x} \left(f^{(n)}(t) - f^{(n)}(c) \right) \frac{(t-x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dt$
= $\int_{c}^{x} \left(f^{(n)}(t) - f^{(n)}(c) \right) \frac{(x-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dt,$

then

$$\frac{I}{(x-c)^{n+1}} = \int_{c}^{x} \frac{f^{(n)}(t) - f^{(n)}(c)}{t-c} \frac{(t-c)(x-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!(x-c)^{n+1}} dt$$
$$= \int_{0}^{1} g(c+u(x-c)) \frac{u(1-u)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} du$$

Since $c + u(x - c) \in J$ for $u \in [0, 1]$, we have $m_g \leq g(c + u(x - c)) \leq M_g$ and

$$\int_0^1 m_g \frac{u(1-u)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} du \le \frac{I}{(x-c)^{n+1}} \le \int_0^1 M_g \frac{u(1-u)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} du,$$

 \mathbf{so}

$$m_g \le \frac{I}{(x-c)^{n+1}/(n+1)!} \le M_g.$$

By the intermediate value theorem, there exists c_1 in J such that

$$g(c_1) = \frac{I}{(x-c)^{n+1}/(n+1)!}$$

From the definition of g, there exists z_n between c and c_1 such that $g(c_1) = f^{(n+1)}(z_n)$, so

$$f^{(n+1)}(z_n) = \frac{I}{(x-c)^{n+1}/(n+1)!},$$

and (3) holds. The proof of (1) is complete.