19. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\ln n}{\sqrt{n}}$

20. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt[3]{k} - 1}{k(\sqrt{k} + 1)}$

21. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \cos(1/n^2)$

22. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2 + \sin k}$

23. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \tan(1/n)$

24. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \sin(1/n)$

25. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{e^{n^2}}$

26. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 1}{5^n}$

27. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k \ln k}{(k+1)^3}$

28. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^{1/n}}{n^2}$

29. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\cosh n}$

30. $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (-1)^j \frac{\sqrt{j}}{j + 5}$

31. $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{5^k}{3^k + 4^k}$

32. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^n}{n^{4n}}$

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

34. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n + n\cos^2 n}$

35. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{1+1/n}}$

36. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\ln n)^{\ln n}}$

37. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt[n]{2} - 1)^n$

38. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt[n]{2} - 1)$

11.8 Power Series

A **power series** is a series of the form

$$\boxed{1} \qquad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \cdots$$

where x is a variable and the c_n's are constants called the **coefficients** of the series. For each fixed x, the series $\boxed{1}$ is a series of constants that we can test for convergence or divergence. A power series may converge for some values of x and diverge for other values of x. The sum of the series is a function

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_n x^n + \cdots$$

whose domain is the set of all x for which the series converges. Notice that f resembles a polynomial. The only difference is that f has infinitely many terms.

For instance, if we take $c_n = 1$ for all n, the power series becomes the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + \cdots$$

which converges when $-1 < x < 1$ and diverges when $|x| \geqslant 1$. (See Equation 11.2.5.)

More generally, a series of the form

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

is called a **power series in $(x - a)$** or a **power series centered at a** or a **power series about a**. Notice that in writing out the term corresponding to $n = 0$ in Equations 1 and 2 we have adopted the convention that $(x - a)^0 = 1$ even when $x = a$. Notice also that when $x = a$ all of the terms are 0 for $n \geqslant 1$ and so the power series $\boxed{2}$ always converges when $x = a$.

Trigonometric Series

A power series is a series in which each term is a power function. A **trigonometric series**

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx)$$

is a series whose terms are trigonometric functions. This type of series is discussed on the website

www.stewartcalculus.com

Click on *Additional Topics* and then on *Fourier Series*.

V EXAMPLE 1 For what values of x is the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!x^n$ convergent?

SOLUTION We use the Ratio Test. If we let a_n, as usual, denote the nth term of the series, then $a_n = n!x^n$. If $x \neq 0$, we have

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

Notice that

$$(n+1)! = (n+1)n(n-1) \cdot \cdots \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$
$$= (n+1)n!$$

By the Ratio Test, the series diverges when $x \neq 0$. Thus the given series converges only when $x = 0$.

V EXAMPLE 2 For what values of x does the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$ converge?

SOLUTION Let $a_n = (x-3)^n/n$. Then

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

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}}|x-3| \to |x-3| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

By the Ratio Test, the given series is absolutely convergent, and therefore convergent, when $|x-3| < 1$ and divergent when $|x-3| > 1$. Now

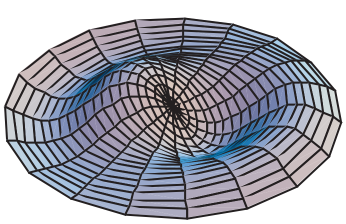
$$|x-3| < 1 \iff -1 < x-3 < 1 \iff 2 < x < 4$$

so the series converges when $2 < x < 4$ and diverges when $x < 2$ or $x > 4$.

The Ratio Test gives no information when $|x-3| = 1$ so we must consider $x = 2$ and $x = 4$ separately. If we put $x = 4$ in the series, it becomes $\Sigma\, 1/n$, the harmonic series, which is divergent. If $x = 2$, the series is $\Sigma\, (-1)^n/n$, which converges by the Alternating Series Test. Thus the given power series converges for $2 \leqslant x < 4$.

National Film Board of Canada

We will see that the main use of a power series is that it provides a way to represent some of the most important functions that arise in mathematics, physics, and chemistry. In particular, the sum of the power series in the next example is called a **Bessel function**, after the German astronomer Friedrich Bessel (1784–1846), and the function given in Exercise 35 is another example of a Bessel function. In fact, these functions first arose when Bessel solved Kepler's equation for describing planetary motion. Since that time, these functions have been applied in many different physical situations, including the temperature distribution in a circular plate and the shape of a vibrating drumhead.



Notice how closely the computer-generated model (which involves Bessel functions and cosine functions) matches the photograph of a vibrating rubber membrane.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the domain of the Bessel function of order 0 defined by

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$$

SOLUTION Let $a_n = (-1)^n x^{2n}/[2^{2n}(n!)^2]$. Then

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{(-1)^{n+1}x^{2(n+1)}}{2^{2(n+1)}[(n+1)!]^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2n}(n!)^2}{(-1)^n x^{2n}}\right|$$

$$= \frac{x^{2n+2}}{2^{2n+2}(n+1)^2(n!)^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2n}(n!)^2}{x^{2n}}$$

$$= \frac{x^2}{4(n+1)^2} \to 0 < 1 \qquad \text{for all } x$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the given series converges for all values of x. In other words, the domain of the Bessel function J_0 is $(-\infty, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$.

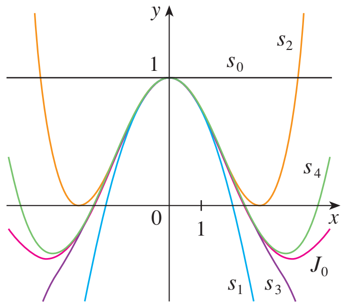


FIGURE 1
Partial sums of the Bessel function J_0

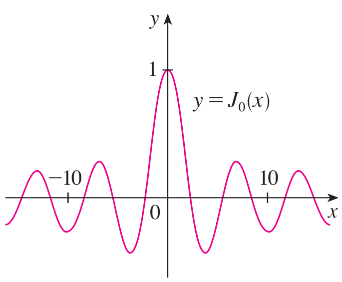


FIGURE 2

Recall that the sum of a series is equal to the limit of the sequence of partial sums. So when we define the Bessel function in Example 3 as the sum of a series we mean that, for every real number x,

$$J_0(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} s_n(x) \qquad \text{where} \qquad s_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^i x^{2i}}{2^{2i}(i!)^2}$$

The first few partial sums are

$$s_0(x) = 1 \qquad s_1(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} \qquad s_2(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64}$$

$$s_3(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304} \qquad s_4(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{x^4}{64} - \frac{x^6}{2304} + \frac{x^8}{147{,}456}$$

Figure 1 shows the graphs of these partial sums, which are polynomials. They are all approximations to the function J_0, but notice that the approximations become better when more terms are included. Figure 2 shows a more complete graph of the Bessel function.

For the power series that we have looked at so far, the set of values of x for which the series is convergent has always turned out to be an interval [a finite interval for the geometric series and the series in Example 2, the infinite interval $(-\infty, \infty)$ in Example 3, and a collapsed interval $[0, 0] = \{0\}$ in Example 1]. The following theorem, proved in Appendix F, says that this is true in general.

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

(i) The series converges only when $x = a$.

(ii) The series converges for all x.

(iii) There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x - a| < R$ and diverges if $|x - a| > R$.

The number R in case (iii) is called the **radius of convergence** of the power series. By convention, the radius of convergence is $R = 0$ in case (i) and $R = \infty$ in case (ii). The **interval of convergence** of a power series is the interval that consists of all values of x for which the series converges. In case (i) the interval consists of just a single point a. In case (ii) the interval is $(-\infty, \infty)$. In case (iii) note that the inequality $|x - a| < R$ can be rewritten as $a - R < x < a + R$. When x is an *endpoint* of the interval, that is, $x = a \pm R$, anything can happen—the series might converge at one or both endpoints or it might diverge at both endpoints. Thus in case (iii) there are four possibilities for the interval of convergence:

$$(a - R, a + R) \qquad (a - R, a + R] \qquad [a - R, a + R) \qquad [a - R, a + R]$$

The situation is illustrated in Figure 3.

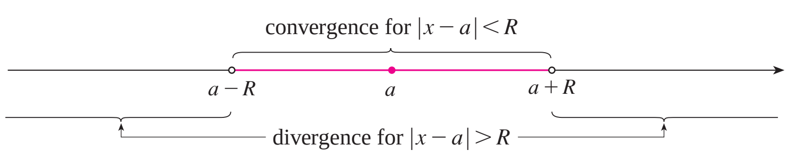


FIGURE 3

We summarize here the radius and interval of convergence for each of the examples already considered in this section.

	Series	Radius of convergence	Interval of convergence
Geometric series	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$	$R = 1$	$(-1, 1)$
Example 1	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!\, x^n$	$R = 0$	$\{0\}$
Example 2	$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$	$R = 1$	$[2, 4)$
Example 3	$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$	$R = \infty$	$(-\infty, \infty)$

In general, the Ratio Test (or sometimes the Root Test) should be used to determine the radius of convergence R. The Ratio and Root Tests always fail when x is an endpoint of the interval of convergence, so the endpoints must be checked with some other test.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series

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

SOLUTION Let $a_n = (-3)^n x^n/\sqrt{n+1}$. Then

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

$$= 3\sqrt{\frac{1+(1/n)}{1+(2/n)}}\,|x| \to 3|x| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

By the Ratio Test, the given series converges if $3|x| < 1$ and diverges if $3|x| > 1$. Thus it converges if $|x| < \frac{1}{3}$ and diverges if $|x| > \frac{1}{3}$. This means that the radius of convergence is $R = \frac{1}{3}$.

We know the series converges in the interval $\left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$, but we must now test for convergence at the endpoints of this interval. If $x = -\frac{1}{3}$, the series becomes

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \cdots$$

which diverges. (Use the Integral Test or simply observe that it is a p-series with $p = \frac{1}{2} < 1$.) If $x = \frac{1}{3}$, the series is

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

which converges by the Alternating Series Test. Therefore the given power series converges when $-\frac{1}{3} < x \leqslant \frac{1}{3}$, so the interval of convergence is $\left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right]$.

V EXAMPLE 5 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series

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

SOLUTION If $a_n = n(x+2)^n/3^{n+1}$, then

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{(n+1)(x+2)^{n+1}}{3^{n+2}} \cdot \frac{3^{n+1}}{n(x+2)^n}\right|$$
$$= \left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)\frac{|x+2|}{3} \to \frac{|x+2|}{3} \quad \text{as } n \to \infty$$

Using the Ratio Test, we see that the series converges if $|x+2|/3 < 1$ and it diverges if $|x+2|/3 > 1$. So it converges if $|x+2| < 3$ and diverges if $|x+2| > 3$. Thus the radius of convergence is $R = 3$.

The inequality $|x+2| < 3$ can be written as $-5 < x < 1$, so we test the series at the endpoints -5 and 1. When $x = -5$, the series is

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

which diverges by the Test for Divergence [$(-1)^n n$ doesn't converge to 0]. When $x = 1$, the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(3)^n}{3^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{3}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n$$

which also diverges by the Test for Divergence. Thus the series converges only when $-5 < x < 1$, so the interval of convergence is $(-5, 1)$.

11.8 Exercises

1. What is a power series?

2. (a) What is the radius of convergence of a power series? How do you find it?
(b) What is the interval of convergence of a power series? How do you find it?

3–28 Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series.

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

4. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$

5. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2n-1}$

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

7. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

8. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^n x^n$

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

10. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{10^n x^n}{n^3}$

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

12. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n3^n}$

13. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{4^n \ln n}$

14. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$

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

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

17. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n (x+4)^n}{\sqrt{n}}$

18. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{4^n}(x+1)^n$

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

20. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x-1)^n}{5^n\sqrt{n}}$

Graphing calculator or computer required   CAS Computer algebra system required   1. Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

21. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{b^n}(x-a)^n, \quad b>0$

22. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{b^n}{\ln n}(x-a)^n, \quad b>0$

23. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n!(2x-1)^n$

24. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2x^n}{2\cdot 4\cdot 6\cdot \cdots \cdot (2n)}$

25. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(5x-4)^n}{n^3}$

26. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{n(\ln n)^2}$

27. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}$

28. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!x^n}{1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}$

---

29. If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n 4^n$ is convergent, does it follow that the following series are convergent?

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-2)^n$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-4)^n$

30. Suppose that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ converges when $x=-4$ and diverges when $x=6$. What can be said about the convergence or divergence of the following series?

(a) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n$ (b) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n 8^n$

(c) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(-3)^n$ (d) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n c_n 9^n$

31. If k is a positive integer, find the radius of convergence of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^k}{(kn)!}x^n$$

32. Let p and q be real numbers with $p<q$. Find a power series whose interval of convergence is

(a) (p, q) (b) $(p, q]$

(c) $[p, q)$ (d) $[p, q]$

33. Is it possible to find a power series whose interval of convergence is $[0, \infty)$? Explain.

34. Graph the first several partial sums $s_n(x)$ of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, together with the sum function $f(x)=1/(1-x)$, on a common screen. On what interval do these partial sums appear to be converging to $f(x)$?

35. The function J_1 defined by

$$J_1(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!(n+1)!\,2^{2n+1}}$$

is called the *Bessel function of order 1.*

(a) Find its domain.

(b) Graph the first several partial sums on a common screen.

CAS (c) If your CAS has built-in Bessel functions, graph J_1 on the same screen as the partial sums in part (b) and observe how the partial sums approximate J_1.

36. The function A defined by

$$A(x)=1+\frac{x^3}{2\cdot 3}+\frac{x^6}{2\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot 6}+\frac{x^9}{2\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot 6\cdot 8\cdot 9}+\cdots$$

is called an *Airy function* after the English mathematician and astronomer Sir George Airy (1801–1892).

(a) Find the domain of the Airy function.

(b) Graph the first several partial sums on a common screen.

CAS (c) If your CAS has built-in Airy functions, graph A on the same screen as the partial sums in part (b) and observe how the partial sums approximate A.

37. A function f is defined by

$$f(x)=1+2x+x^2+2x^3+x^4+\cdots$$

that is, its coefficients are $c_{2n}=1$ and $c_{2n+1}=2$ for all $n\geqslant 0$. Find the interval of convergence of the series and find an explicit formula for $f(x)$.

38. If $f(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$, where $c_{n+4}=c_n$ for all $n\geqslant 0$, find the interval of convergence of the series and a formula for $f(x)$.

39. Show that if $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}=c$, where $c\neq 0$, then the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^n$ is $R=1/c$.

40. Suppose that the power series $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$ satisfies $c_n\neq 0$ for all n. Show that if $\lim_{n\to\infty}|c_n/c_{n+1}|$ exists, then it is equal to the radius of convergence of the power series.

41. Suppose the series $\sum c_n x^n$ has radius of convergence 2 and the series $\sum d_n x^n$ has radius of convergence 3. What is the radius of convergence of the series $\sum (c_n+d_n)x^n$?

42. Suppose that the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^n$ is R. What is the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum c_n x^{2n}$?

11.9 Representations of Functions as Power Series

In this section we learn how to represent certain types of functions as sums of power series by manipulating geometric series or by differentiating or integrating such a series. You might wonder why we would ever want to express a known function as a sum of infinitely many terms. We will see later that this strategy is useful for integrating functions that don't have elementary antiderivatives, for solving differential equations, and for approximating functions by polynomials. (Scientists do this to simplify the expressions they deal with; computer scientists do this to represent functions on calculators and computers.)

We start with an equation that we have seen before:

1
$$\boxed{\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \qquad |x| < 1}$$

We first encountered this equation in Example 6 in Section 11.2, where we obtained it by observing that the series is a geometric series with $a = 1$ and $r = x$. But here our point of view is different. We now regard Equation 1 as expressing the function $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)$ as a sum of a power series.

A geometric illustration of Equation 1 is shown in Figure 1. Because the sum of a series is the limit of the sequence of partial sums, we have

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n(x)$$

where

$$s_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n$$

is the nth partial sum. Notice that as n increases, $s_n(x)$ becomes a better approximation to $f(x)$ for $-1 < x < 1$.

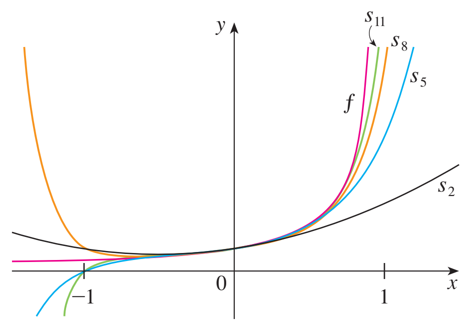


FIGURE 1
$f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1-x}$ and some partial sums

V EXAMPLE 1 Express $1/(1 + x^2)$ as the sum of a power series and find the interval of convergence.

SOLUTION Replacing x by $-x^2$ in Equation 1, we have

$$\frac{1}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{1-(-x^2)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + x^8 - \cdots$$

Because this is a geometric series, it converges when $|-x^2| < 1$, that is, $x^2 < 1$, or $|x| < 1$. Therefore the interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$. (Of course, we could have determined the radius of convergence by applying the Ratio Test, but that much work is unnecessary here.)

EXAMPLE 2 Find a power series representation for $1/(x + 2)$.

SOLUTION In order to put this function in the form of the left side of Equation 1, we first factor a 2 from the denominator:

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

This series converges when $|-x/2| < 1$, that is, $|x| < 2$. So the interval of convergence is $(-2, 2)$.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a power series representation of $x^3/(x + 2)$.

SOLUTION Since this function is just x^3 times the function in Example 2, all we have to do is to multiply that series by x^3:

It's legitimate to move x^3 across the sigma sign because it doesn't depend on n. [Use Theorem 11.2.8(i) with $c = x^3$.]

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

$$= \tfrac{1}{2}x^3 - \tfrac{1}{4}x^4 + \tfrac{1}{8}x^5 - \tfrac{1}{16}x^6 + \cdots$$

Another way of writing this series is as follows:

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

As in Example 2, the interval of convergence is $(-2, 2)$.

Differentiation and Integration of Power Series

The sum of a power series is a function $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n$ whose domain is the interval of convergence of the series. We would like to be able to differentiate and integrate such functions, and the following theorem (which we won't prove) says that we can do so by differentiating or integrating each individual term in the series, just as we would for a polynomial. This is called **term-by-term differentiation and integration**.

2 Theorem If the power series $\sum c_n(x - a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, then the function f defined by

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

is differentiable (and therefore continuous) on the interval $(a - R, a + R)$ and

(i) $$f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x - a) + 3c_3(x - a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n(x - a)^{n-1}$$

(ii) $$\int f(x)\,dx = C + c_0(x - a) + c_1\frac{(x-a)^2}{2} + c_2\frac{(x-a)^3}{3} + \cdots$$

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

The radii of convergence of the power series in Equations (i) and (ii) are both R.

In part (ii), $\int c_0\,dx = c_0x + C_1$ is written as $c_0(x - a) + C$, where $C = C_1 + ac_0$, so all the terms of the series have the same form.

NOTE 1 Equations (i) and (ii) in Theorem 2 can be rewritten in the form

(iii) $$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n\right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx}\left[c_n(x - a)^n\right]$$

(iv) $$\int\left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n\right]dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int c_n(x - a)^n\,dx$$

We know that, for finite sums, the derivative of a sum is the sum of the derivatives and the integral of a sum is the sum of the integrals. Equations (iii) and (iv) assert that the same is true for infinite sums, provided we are dealing with *power series*. (For other types of series of functions the situation is not as simple; see Exercise 38.)

NOTE 2 Although Theorem 2 says that the radius of convergence remains the same when a power series is differentiated or integrated, this does not mean that the *interval* of convergence remains the same. It may happen that the original series converges at an endpoint, whereas the differentiated series diverges there. (See Exercise 39.)

NOTE 3 The idea of differentiating a power series term by term is the basis for a powerful method for solving differential equations. We will discuss this method in Chapter 17.

EXAMPLE 4 In Example 3 in Section 11.8 we saw that the Bessel function

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$$

is defined for all x. Thus, by Theorem 2, J_0 is differentiable for all x and its derivative is found by term-by-term differentiation as follows:

$$J_0'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2n x^{2n-1}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}$$

V EXAMPLE 5 Express $1/(1-x)^2$ as a power series by differentiating Equation 1. What is the radius of convergence?

SOLUTION Differentiating each side of the equation

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

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

If we wish, we can replace n by $n+1$ and write the answer as

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

According to Theorem 2, the radius of convergence of the differentiated series is the same as the radius of convergence of the original series, namely, $R = 1$.

EXAMPLE 6 Find a power series representation for $\ln(1+x)$ and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION We notice that the derivative of this function is $1/(1+x)$. From Equation 1 we have

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1-(-x)} = 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots \qquad |x| < 1$$

Integrating both sides of this equation, we get

$$\ln(1+x) = \int \frac{1}{1+x}\,dx = \int (1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \cdots)\,dx$$

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

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

To determine the value of C we put $x = 0$ in this equation and obtain $\ln(1 + 0) = C$. Thus $C = 0$ and

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1}\frac{x^n}{n} \qquad |x| < 1$$

The radius of convergence is the same as for the original series: $R = 1$.

V EXAMPLE 7 Find a power series representation for $f(x) = \tan^{-1}x$.

SOLUTION We observe that $f'(x) = 1/(1 + x^2)$ and find the required series by integrating the power series for $1/(1 + x^2)$ found in Example 1.

$$\tan^{-1}x = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2}\,dx = \int (1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \cdots)\,dx$$

$$= C + x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$$

The power series for $\tan^{-1}x$ obtained in Example 7 is called *Gregory's series* after the Scottish mathematician James Gregory (1638–1675), who had anticipated some of Newton's discoveries. We have shown that Gregory's series is valid when $-1 < x < 1$, but it turns out (although it isn't easy to prove) that it is also valid when $x = \pm 1$. Notice that when $x = 1$ the series becomes

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \cdots$$

This beautiful result is known as the Leibniz formula for π.

To find C we put $x = 0$ and obtain $C = \tan^{-1}0 = 0$. Therefore

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

Since the radius of convergence of the series for $1/(1 + x^2)$ is 1, the radius of convergence of this series for $\tan^{-1}x$ is also 1.

EXAMPLE 8

(a) Evaluate $\int [1/(1 + x^7)]\,dx$ as a power series.

(b) Use part (a) to approximate $\int_0^{0.5} [1/(1 + x^7)]\,dx$ correct to within 10^{-7}.

SOLUTION

(a) The first step is to express the integrand, $1/(1 + x^7)$, as the sum of a power series. As in Example 1, we start with Equation 1 and replace x by $-x^7$:

$$\frac{1}{1+x^7} = \frac{1}{1-(-x^7)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^7)^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{7n} = 1 - x^7 + x^{14} - \cdots$$

This example demonstrates one way in which power series representations are useful. Integrating $1/(1 + x^7)$ by hand is incredibly difficult. Different computer algebra systems return different forms of the answer, but they are all extremely complicated. (If you have a CAS, try it yourself.) The infinite series answer that we obtain in Example 8(a) is actually much easier to deal with than the finite answer provided by a CAS.

Now we integrate term by term:

$$\int \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx = \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{7n}\,dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{7n+1}}{7n + 1}$$

$$= C + x - \frac{x^8}{8} + \frac{x^{15}}{15} - \frac{x^{22}}{22} + \cdots$$

This series converges for $|-x^7| < 1$, that is, for $|x| < 1$.

(b) In applying the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, it doesn't matter which antiderivative we use, so let's use the antiderivative from part (a) with $C = 0$:

$$\int_0^{0.5} \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx = \left[x - \frac{x^8}{8} + \frac{x^{15}}{15} - \frac{x^{22}}{22} + \cdots \right]_0^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 2^8} + \frac{1}{15 \cdot 2^{15}} - \frac{1}{22 \cdot 2^{22}} + \cdots + \frac{(-1)^n}{(7n + 1)2^{7n+1}} + \cdots$$

This infinite series is the exact value of the definite integral, but since it is an alternating series, we can approximate the sum using the Alternating Series Estimation Theorem. If we stop adding after the term with $n = 3$, the error is smaller than the term with $n = 4$:

$$\frac{1}{29 \cdot 2^{29}} \approx 6.4 \times 10^{-11}$$

So we have

$$\int_0^{0.5} \frac{1}{1 + x^7}\,dx \approx \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 2^8} + \frac{1}{15 \cdot 2^{15}} - \frac{1}{22 \cdot 2^{22}} \approx 0.49951374$$

11.9 Exercises

1. If the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$ is 10, what is the radius of convergence of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n x^{n-1}$? Why?

2. Suppose you know that the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ converges for $|x| < 2$. What can you say about the following series? Why?

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{n + 1} x^{n+1}$$

3–10 Find a power series representation for the function and determine the interval of convergence.

3. $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{1 + x}$ **4.** $f(x) = \dfrac{5}{1 - 4x^2}$

5. $f(x) = \dfrac{2}{3 - x}$ **6.** $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{x + 10}$

7. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{9 + x^2}$ **8.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{2x^2 + 1}$

9. $f(x) = \dfrac{1 + x}{1 - x}$ **10.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{a^3 - x^3}$

11–12 Express the function as the sum of a power series by first using partial fractions. Find the interval of convergence.

11. $f(x) = \dfrac{3}{x^2 - x - 2}$ **12.** $f(x) = \dfrac{x + 2}{2x^2 - x - 1}$

13. (a) Use differentiation to find a power series representation for

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

What is the radius of convergence?

Graphing calculator or computer required **1.** Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

(b) Use part (a) to find a power series for

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x)^3}$$

(c) Use part (b) to find a power series for

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{(1+x)^3}$$

14. (a) Use Equation 1 to find a power series representation for $f(x) = \ln(1-x)$. What is the radius of convergence?
(b) Use part (a) to find a power series for $f(x) = x\ln(1-x)$.
(c) By putting $x = \frac{1}{2}$ in your result from part (a), express ln 2 as the sum of an infinite series.

15–20 Find a power series representation for the function and determine the radius of convergence.

15. $f(x) = \ln(5-x)$

16. $f(x) = x^2 \tan^{-1}(x^3)$

17. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{(1+4x)^2}$

18. $f(x) = \left(\dfrac{x}{2-x}\right)^3$

19. $f(x) = \dfrac{1+x}{(1-x)^2}$

20. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2+x}{(1-x)^3}$

21–24 Find a power series representation for f, and graph f and several partial sums $s_n(x)$ on the same screen. What happens as n increases?

21. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{x^2+16}$

22. $f(x) = \ln(x^2+4)$

23. $f(x) = \ln\left(\dfrac{1+x}{1-x}\right)$

24. $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(2x)$

25–28 Evaluate the indefinite integral as a power series. What is the radius of convergence?

25. $\displaystyle\int \frac{t}{1-t^8}\,dt$

26. $\displaystyle\int \frac{t}{1+t^3}\,dt$

27. $\displaystyle\int x^2\ln(1+x)\,dx$

28. $\displaystyle\int \frac{\tan^{-1}x}{x}\,dx$

29–32 Use a power series to approximate the definite integral to six decimal places.

29. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.2} \frac{1}{1+x^5}\,dx$

30. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.4} \ln(1+x^4)\,dx$

31. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.1} x\arctan(3x)\,dx$

32. $\displaystyle\int_0^{0.3} \frac{x^2}{1+x^4}\,dx$

33. Use the result of Example 7 to compute arctan 0.2 correct to five decimal places.

34. Show that the function

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

is a solution of the differential equation

$$f''(x) + f(x) = 0$$

35. (a) Show that J_0 (the Bessel function of order 0 given in Example 4) satisfies the differential equation

$$x^2 J_0''(x) + xJ_0'(x) + x^2 J_0(x) = 0$$

(b) Evaluate $\int_0^1 J_0(x)\,dx$ correct to three decimal places.

36. The Bessel function of order 1 is defined by

$$J_1(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!\,(n+1)!\,2^{2n+1}}$$

(a) Show that J_1 satisfies the differential equation

$$x^2 J_1''(x) + xJ_1'(x) + (x^2-1)J_1(x) = 0$$

(b) Show that $J_0'(x) = -J_1(x)$.

37. (a) Show that the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

is a solution of the differential equation

$$f'(x) = f(x)$$

(b) Show that $f(x) = e^x$.

38. Let $f_n(x) = (\sin nx)/n^2$. Show that the series $\Sigma f_n(x)$ converges for all values of x but the series of derivatives $\Sigma f_n'(x)$ diverges when $x = 2n\pi$, n an integer. For what values of x does the series $\Sigma f_n''(x)$ converge?

39. Let

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

Find the intervals of convergence for f, f', and f''.

40. (a) Starting with the geometric series $\Sigma_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} \qquad |x| < 1$$

(b) Find the sum of each of the following series.

(i) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n, \quad |x| < 1$ (ii) $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n}$

(c) Find the sum of each of the following series.

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

(ii) $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 - n}{2^n}$ (iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$

41. Use the power series for $\tan^{-1}x$ to prove the following expression for π as the sum of an infinite series:

$$\pi = 2\sqrt{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{(2n+1)3^n}$$

42. (a) By completing the square, show that

$$\int_0^{1/2} \frac{dx}{x^2 - x + 1} = \frac{\pi}{3\sqrt{3}}$$

(b) By factoring $x^3 + 1$ as a sum of cubes, rewrite the integral in part (a). Then express $1/(x^3 + 1)$ as the sum of a power series and use it to prove the following formula for π:

$$\pi = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{8^n} \left(\frac{2}{3n+1} + \frac{1}{3n+2} \right)$$

11.10 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

In the preceding section we were able to find power series representations for a certain restricted class of functions. Here we investigate more general problems: Which functions have power series representations? How can we find such representations?

We start by supposing that f is any function that can be represented by a power series

$$\boxed{1} \quad f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + c_3(x-a)^3 + c_4(x-a)^4 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

Let's try to determine what the coefficients c_n must be in terms of f. To begin, notice that if we put $x = a$ in Equation 1, then all terms after the first one are 0 and we get

$$f(a) = c_0$$

By Theorem 11.9.2, we can differentiate the series in Equation 1 term by term:

$$\boxed{2} \quad f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + 4c_4(x-a)^3 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

and substitution of $x = a$ in Equation 2 gives

$$f'(a) = c_1$$

Now we differentiate both sides of Equation 2 and obtain

$$\boxed{3} \quad f''(x) = 2c_2 + 2 \cdot 3c_3(x-a) + 3 \cdot 4c_4(x-a)^2 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

Again we put $x = a$ in Equation 3. The result is

$$f''(a) = 2c_2$$

Let's apply the procedure one more time. Differentiation of the series in Equation 3 gives

$$\boxed{4} \quad f'''(x) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4c_4(x-a) + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5c_5(x-a)^2 + \cdots \qquad |x-a| < R$$

and substitution of $x = a$ in Equation 4 gives

$$f'''(a) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 = 3!c_3$$

By now you can see the pattern. If we continue to differentiate and substitute $x = a$, we obtain

$$f^{(n)}(a) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot \cdots \cdot nc_n = n!c_n$$

Solving this equation for the nth coefficient c_n, we get

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

This formula remains valid even for $n = 0$ if we adopt the conventions that $0! = 1$ and $f^{(0)} = f$. Thus we have proved the following theorem.

5 Theorem If f has a power series representation (expansion) at a, that is, if

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n \qquad |x-a| < R$$

then its coefficients are given by the formula

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$$

Substituting this formula for c_n back into the series, we see that *if* f *has a power series expansion at* a, then it must be of the following form.

$$\boxed{6} \quad f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

$$= f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \cdots$$

Taylor and Maclaurin

The Taylor series is named after the English mathematician Brook Taylor (1685–1731) and the Maclaurin series is named in honor of the Scottish mathematician Colin Maclaurin (1698–1746) despite the fact that the Maclaurin series is really just a special case of the Taylor series. But the idea of representing particular functions as sums of power series goes back to Newton, and the general Taylor series was known to the Scottish mathematician James Gregory in 1668 and to the Swiss mathematician John Bernoulli in the 1690s. Taylor was apparently unaware of the work of Gregory and Bernoulli when he published his discoveries on series in 1715 in his book *Methodus incrementorum directa et inversa*. Maclaurin series are named after Colin Maclaurin because he popularized them in his calculus textbook *Treatise of Fluxions* published in 1742.

The series in Equation 6 is called the **Taylor series of the function f at a** (or **about a** or **centered at a**). For the special case $a = 0$ the Taylor series becomes

$$\boxed{7} \quad f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots$$

This case arises frequently enough that it is given the special name **Maclaurin series**.

NOTE We have shown that *if* f can be represented as a power series about a, then f is equal to the sum of its Taylor series. But there exist functions that are not equal to the sum of their Taylor series. An example of such a function is given in Exercise 74.

V EXAMPLE 1 Find the Maclaurin series of the function $f(x) = e^x$ and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION If $f(x) = e^x$, then $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$, so $f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1$ for all n. Therefore the Taylor series for f at 0 (that is, the Maclaurin series) is

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

To find the radius of convergence we let $a_n = x^n/n!$. Then

$$\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| = \left|\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^n}\right| = \frac{|x|}{n+1} \to 0 < 1$$

so, by the Ratio Test, the series converges for all x and the radius of convergence is $R = \infty$.

The conclusion we can draw from Theorem 5 and Example 1 is that *if* e^x has a power series expansion at 0, then

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

So how can we determine whether e^x *does* have a power series representation?

Let's investigate the more general question: Under what circumstances is a function equal to the sum of its Taylor series? In other words, if f has derivatives of all orders, when is it true that

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

As with any convergent series, this means that $f(x)$ is the limit of the sequence of partial sums. In the case of the Taylor series, the partial sums are

$$T_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!}(x-a)^i$$
$$= f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

Notice that T_n is a polynomial of degree n called the ***n*th-degree Taylor polynomial of *f* at *a***. For instance, for the exponential function $f(x) = e^x$, the result of Example 1 shows that the Taylor polynomials at 0 (or Maclaurin polynomials) with $n = 1$, 2, and 3 are

$$T_1(x) = 1 + x \qquad T_2(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} \qquad T_3(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

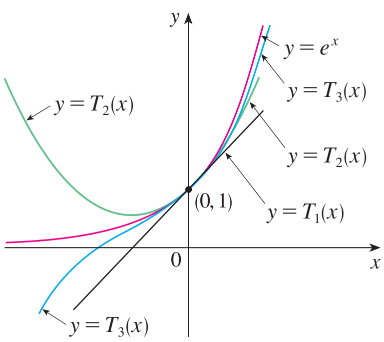


FIGURE 1

As n increases, $T_n(x)$ appears to approach e^x in Figure 1. This suggests that e^x is equal to the sum of its Taylor series.

The graphs of the exponential function and these three Taylor polynomials are drawn in Figure 1.

In general, $f(x)$ is the sum of its Taylor series if

$$f(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} T_n(x)$$

If we let

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(x) \qquad \text{so that} \qquad f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$$

then $R_n(x)$ is called the **remainder** of the Taylor series. If we can somehow show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$, then it follows that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} T_n(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} [f(x) - R_n(x)] = f(x) - \lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = f(x)$$

We have therefore proved the following theorem.

8 Theorem If $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$, where T_n is the nth-degree Taylor polynomial of f at a and

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

for $|x - a| < R$, then f is equal to the sum of its Taylor series on the interval $|x - a| < R$.

In trying to show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$ for a specific function f, we usually use the following theorem.

9 Taylor's Inequality If $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leqslant M$ for $|x - a| \leqslant d$, then the remainder $R_n(x)$ of the Taylor series satisfies the inequality

$$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x - a|^{n+1} \qquad \text{for } |x - a| \leqslant d$$

To see why this is true for $n = 1$, we assume that $|f''(x)| \leqslant M$. In particular, we have $f''(x) \leqslant M$, so for $a \leqslant x \leqslant a + d$ we have

$$\int_a^x f''(t)\,dt \leqslant \int_a^x M\,dt$$

An antiderivative of f'' is f', so by Part 2 of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, we have

$$f'(x) - f'(a) \leqslant M(x - a) \qquad \text{or} \qquad f'(x) \leqslant f'(a) + M(x - a)$$

Thus

$$\int_a^x f'(t)\,dt \leqslant \int_a^x [f'(a) + M(t - a)]\,dt$$

$$f(x) - f(a) \leqslant f'(a)(x - a) + M\frac{(x - a)^2}{2}$$

$$f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a) \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

But $R_1(x) = f(x) - T_1(x) = f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a)$. So

$$R_1(x) \leqslant \frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

A similar argument, using $f''(x) \geqslant -M$, shows that

$$R_1(x) \geqslant -\frac{M}{2}(x - a)^2$$

So

$$|R_1(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{2}|x - a|^2$$

Although we have assumed that $x > a$, similar calculations show that this inequality is also true for $x < a$.

Formulas for the Taylor Remainder Term

As alternatives to Taylor's Inequality, we have the following formulas for the remainder term. If $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous on an interval I and $x \in I$, then

$$R_n(x) = \frac{1}{n!}\int_a^x (x - t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t)\,dt$$

This is called the *integral form of the remainder term*. Another formula, called *Lagrange's form of the remainder term*, states that there is a number z between x and a such that

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}$$

This version is an extension of the Mean Value Theorem (which is the case $n = 0$).

Proofs of these formulas, together with discussions of how to use them to solve the examples of Sections 11.10 and 11.11, are given on the website

www.stewartcalculus.com

Click on *Additional Topics* and then on *Formulas for the Remainder Term in Taylor series*.

This proves Taylor's Inequality for the case where $n = 1$. The result for any n is proved in a similar way by integrating $n + 1$ times. (See Exercise 73 for the case $n = 2$.)

NOTE In Section 11.11 we will explore the use of Taylor's Inequality in approximating functions. Our immediate use of it is in conjunction with Theorem 8.

In applying Theorems 8 and 9 it is often helpful to make use of the following fact.

10
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \qquad \text{for every real number } x$$

This is true because we know from Example 1 that the series $\sum x^n/n!$ converges for all x and so its nth term approaches 0.

EXAMPLE 2 Prove that e^x is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series.

SOLUTION If $f(x) = e^x$, then $f^{(n+1)}(x) = e^x$ for all n. If d is any positive number and $|x| \leqslant d$, then $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| = e^x \leqslant e^d$. So Taylor's Inequality, with $a = 0$ and $M = e^d$, says that

$$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{e^d}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} \qquad \text{for } |x| \leqslant d$$

Notice that the same constant $M = e^d$ works for every value of n. But, from Equation 10, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{e^d}{(n+1)!}|x|^{n+1} = e^d \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = 0$$

It follows from the Squeeze Theorem that $\lim_{n\to\infty} |R_n(x)| = 0$ and therefore $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$ for all values of x. By Theorem 8, e^x is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series, that is,

11
$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \qquad \text{for all } x$$

In particular, if we put $x = 1$ in Equation 11, we obtain the following expression for the number e as a sum of an infinite series:

12
$$e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots$$

In 1748 Leonhard Euler used Equation 12 to find the value of e correct to 23 digits. In 2007 Shigeru Kondo, again using the series in 12, computed e to more than 100 billion decimal places. The special techniques employed to speed up the computation are explained on the website

numbers.computation.free.fr

EXAMPLE 3 Find the Taylor series for $f(x) = e^x$ at $a = 2$.

SOLUTION We have $f^{(n)}(2) = e^2$ and so, putting $a = 2$ in the definition of a Taylor series 6, we get

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(2)}{n!}(x-2)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^2}{n!}(x-2)^n$$

Again it can be verified, as in Example 1, that the radius of convergence is $R = \infty$. As in Example 2 we can verify that $\lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0$, so

13 $$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^2}{n!}(x-2)^n \qquad \text{for all } x$$

We have two power series expansions for e^x, the Maclaurin series in Equation 11 and the Taylor series in Equation 13. The first is better if we are interested in values of x near 0 and the second is better if x is near 2.

EXAMPLE 4 Find the Maclaurin series for $\sin x$ and prove that it represents $\sin x$ for all x.

SOLUTION We arrange our computation in two columns as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sin x & f(0) &= 0 \\ f'(x) &= \cos x & f'(0) &= 1 \\ f''(x) &= -\sin x & f''(0) &= 0 \\ f'''(x) &= -\cos x & f'''(0) &= -1 \\ f^{(4)}(x) &= \sin x & f^{(4)}(0) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 2 shows the graph of $\sin x$ together with its Taylor (or Maclaurin) polynomials

$$T_1(x) = x$$

$$T_3(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!}$$

$$T_5(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!}$$

Notice that, as n increases, $T_n(x)$ becomes a better approximation to $\sin x$.

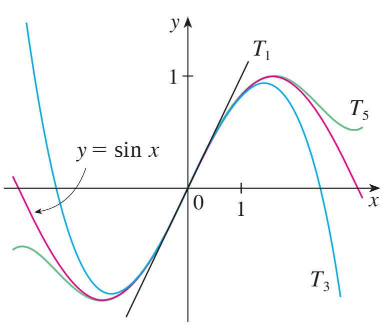


FIGURE 2

Since the derivatives repeat in a cycle of four, we can write the Maclaurin series as follows:

$$f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

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

Since $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ is $\pm\sin x$ or $\pm\cos x$, we know that $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \leqslant 1$ for all x. So we can take $M = 1$ in Taylor's Inequality:

14 $$|R_n(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{(n+1)!}|x^{n+1}| = \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

By Equation 10 the right side of this inequality approaches 0 as $n \to \infty$, so $|R_n(x)| \to 0$ by the Squeeze Theorem. It follows that $R_n(x) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, so $\sin x$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series by Theorem 8.

We state the result of Example 4 for future reference.

15 $$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \sin x &= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \qquad \text{for all } x \end{aligned}}$$

EXAMPLE 5 Find the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$.

SOLUTION We could proceed directly as in Example 4, but it's easier to differentiate the Maclaurin series for sin x given by Equation 15:

$$\cos x = \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots\right)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{3x^2}{3!} + \frac{5x^4}{5!} - \frac{7x^6}{7!} + \cdots = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$$

The Maclaurin series for e^x, $\sin x$, and $\cos x$ that we found in Examples 2, 4, and 5 were discovered, using different methods, by Newton. These equations are remarkable because they say we know everything about each of these functions if we know all its derivatives at the single number 0.

Since the Maclaurin series for sin x converges for all x, Theorem 2 in Section 11.9 tells us that the differentiated series for cos x also converges for all x. Thus

16

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned}\cos x &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \qquad \text{for all } x\end{aligned}}$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find the Maclaurin series for the function $f(x) = x \cos x$.

SOLUTION Instead of computing derivatives and substituting in Equation 7, it's easier to multiply the series for cos x (Equation 16) by x:

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

EXAMPLE 7 Represent $f(x) = \sin x$ as the sum of its Taylor series centered at $\pi/3$.

SOLUTION Arranging our work in columns, we have

We have obtained two different series representations for $\sin x$, the Maclaurin series in Example 4 and the Taylor series in Example 7. It is best to use the Maclaurin series for values of x near 0 and the Taylor series for x near $\pi/3$. Notice that the third Taylor polynomial T_3 in Figure 3 is a good approximation to $\sin x$ near $\pi/3$ but not as good near 0. Compare it with the third Maclaurin polynomial T_3 in Figure 2, where the opposite is true.

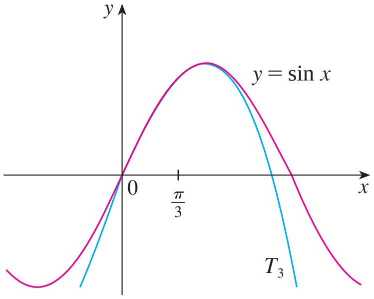


FIGURE 3

$$f(x) = \sin x \qquad f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$f'(x) = \cos x \qquad f'\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f''(x) = -\sin x \qquad f''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$f'''(x) = -\cos x \qquad f'''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

and this pattern repeats indefinitely. Therefore the Taylor series at $\pi/3$ is

$$f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) + \frac{f'\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{1!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) + \frac{f''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{2!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 + \frac{f'''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)}{3!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^3 + \cdots$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 1!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2 \cdot 2!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3!}\left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^3 + \cdots$$

The proof that this series represents $\sin x$ for all x is very similar to that in Example 4. (Just replace x by $x - \pi/3$ in $\boxed{14}$.) We can write the series in sigma notation if we separate the terms that contain $\sqrt{3}$:

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \sqrt{3}}{2(2n)!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^{2n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2(2n+1)!} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^{2n+1}$$

The power series that we obtained by indirect methods in Examples 5 and 6 and in Section 11.9 are indeed the Taylor or Maclaurin series of the given functions because Theorem 5 asserts that, no matter how a power series representation $f(x) = \sum c_n(x - a)^n$ is obtained, it is always true that $c_n = f^{(n)}(a)/n!$. In other words, the coefficients are uniquely determined.

EXAMPLE 8 Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = (1 + x)^k$, where k is any real number.

SOLUTION Arranging our work in columns, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= (1+x)^k & f(0) &= 1 \\
f'(x) &= k(1+x)^{k-1} & f'(0) &= k \\
f''(x) &= k(k-1)(1+x)^{k-2} & f''(0) &= k(k-1) \\
f'''(x) &= k(k-1)(k-2)(1+x)^{k-3} & f'''(0) &= k(k-1)(k-2) \\
&\;\vdots & &\;\vdots \\
f^{(n)}(x) &= k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)(1+x)^{k-n} & f^{(n)}(0) &= k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore the Maclaurin series of $f(x) = (1 + x)^k$ is

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

This series is called the **binomial series**. Notice that if k is a nonnegative integer, then the terms are eventually 0 and so the series is finite. For other values of k none of the terms is 0 and so we can try the Ratio Test. If the nth term is a_n, then

$$\begin{aligned}
\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}\right| &= \left|\frac{k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)(k-n)x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{k(k-1)\cdots(k-n+1)x^n}\right| \\
&= \frac{|k-n|}{n+1}|x| = \frac{\left|1 - \dfrac{k}{n}\right|}{1 + \dfrac{1}{n}}|x| \to |x| \qquad \text{as } n \to \infty
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Ratio Test, the binomial series converges if $|x| < 1$ and diverges if $|x| > 1$.

The traditional notation for the coefficients in the binomial series is

$$\binom{k}{n} = \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)\cdots(k-n+1)}{n!}$$

and these numbers are called the **binomial coefficients**.

The following theorem states that $(1 + x)^k$ is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series. It is possible to prove this by showing that the remainder term $R_n(x)$ approaches 0, but that turns out to be quite difficult. The proof outlined in Exercise 75 is much easier.

17 The Binomial Series If k is any real number and $|x| < 1$, then

$$(1 + x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n = 1 + kx + \frac{k(k-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

Although the binomial series always converges when $|x| < 1$, the question of whether or not it converges at the endpoints, ± 1, depends on the value of k. It turns out that the series converges at 1 if $-1 < k \leqslant 0$ and at both endpoints if $k \geqslant 0$. Notice that if k is a positive integer and $n > k$, then the expression for $\binom{k}{n}$ contains a factor $(k - k)$, so $\binom{k}{n} = 0$ for $n > k$. This means that the series terminates and reduces to the ordinary Binomial Theorem when k is a positive integer. (See Reference Page 1.)

V EXAMPLE 9 Find the Maclaurin series for the function $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x}}$ and its radius of convergence.

SOLUTION We rewrite $f(x)$ in a form where we can use the binomial series:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4-x}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\left(1 - \dfrac{x}{4}\right)}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - \dfrac{x}{4}}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{x}{4}\right)^{-1/2}$$

Using the binomial series with $k = -\frac{1}{2}$ and with x replaced by $-x/4$, we have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4-x}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 - \frac{x}{4}\right)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\binom{-\frac{1}{2}}{n}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^n$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right) + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)}{2!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{2}\right)}{3!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^3 \right.$$

$$\left. + \cdots + \frac{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{2}\right)\cdots\left(-\frac{1}{2} - n + 1\right)}{n!}\left(-\frac{x}{4}\right)^n + \cdots\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[1 + \frac{1}{8}x + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2!\,8^2}x^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}{3!\,8^3}x^3 + \cdots + \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot \cdots \cdot (2n-1)}{n!\,8^n}x^n + \cdots\right]$$

We know from $\boxed{17}$ that this series converges when $|-x/4| < 1$, that is, $|x| < 4$, so the radius of convergence is $R = 4$.

We collect in the following table, for future reference, some important Maclaurin series that we have derived in this section and the preceding one.

TABLE 1
Important Maclaurin Series and Their Radii of Convergence

$\dfrac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \dfrac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \dfrac{x}{1!} + \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \dfrac{x^5}{5!} - \dfrac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^4}{4!} - \dfrac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$	$R = \infty$
$\tan^{-1}x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \dfrac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = x - \dfrac{x^3}{3} + \dfrac{x^5}{5} - \dfrac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \dfrac{x^n}{n} = x - \dfrac{x^2}{2} + \dfrac{x^3}{3} - \dfrac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$	$R = 1$
$(1+x)^k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \dbinom{k}{n} x^n = 1 + kx + \dfrac{k(k-1)}{2!}x^2 + \dfrac{k(k-1)(k-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$	$R = 1$

EXAMPLE 10 Find the sum of the series $\dfrac{1}{1 \cdot 2} - \dfrac{1}{2 \cdot 2^2} + \dfrac{1}{3 \cdot 2^3} - \dfrac{1}{4 \cdot 2^4} + \cdots$.

SOLUTION With sigma notation we can write the given series as

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

Then from Table 1 we see that this series matches the entry for $\ln(1 + x)$ with $x = \frac{1}{2}$. So

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n \cdot 2^n} = \ln\left(1 + \tfrac{1}{2}\right) = \ln \tfrac{3}{2}$$

TEC Module 11.10/11.11 enables you to see how successive Taylor polynomials approach the original function.

One reason that Taylor series are important is that they enable us to integrate functions that we couldn't previously handle. In fact, in the introduction to this chapter we mentioned that Newton often integrated functions by first expressing them as power series and then integrating the series term by term. The function $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$ can't be integrated by techniques discussed so far because its antiderivative is not an elementary function (see Section 7.5). In the following example we use Newton's idea to integrate this function.

V EXAMPLE 11

(a) Evaluate $\int e^{-x^2}\,dx$ as an infinite series.

(b) Evaluate $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2}\,dx$ correct to within an error of 0.001.

SOLUTION

(a) First we find the Maclaurin series for $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$. Although it's possible to use the direct method, let's find it simply by replacing x with $-x^2$ in the series for e^x given in Table 1. Thus, for all values of x,

$$e^{-x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x^2)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{1!} + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \cdots$$

Now we integrate term by term:

$$\int e^{-x^2}\,dx = \int \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{1!} + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{n!} + \cdots\right) dx$$

$$= C + x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 1!} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 2!} - \frac{x^7}{7 \cdot 3!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)n!} + \cdots$$

This series converges for all x because the original series for e^{-x^2} converges for all x.

(b) The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus gives

We can take $C = 0$ in the antiderivative in part (a).

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2}\,dx = \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 1!} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 2!} - \frac{x^7}{7 \cdot 3!} + \frac{x^9}{9 \cdot 4!} - \cdots\right]_0^1$$

$$= 1 - \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{10} - \tfrac{1}{42} + \tfrac{1}{216} - \cdots$$

$$\approx 1 - \tfrac{1}{3} + \tfrac{1}{10} - \tfrac{1}{42} + \tfrac{1}{216} \approx 0.7475$$

The Alternating Series Estimation Theorem shows that the error involved in this approximation is less than

$$\frac{1}{11 \cdot 5!} = \frac{1}{1320} < 0.001$$

Another use of Taylor series is illustrated in the next example. The limit could be found with l'Hospital's Rule, but instead we use a series.

EXAMPLE 12 Evaluate $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2}$.

SOLUTION Using the Maclaurin series for e^x, we have

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\left(1 + \dfrac{x}{1!} + \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots\right) - 1 - x}{x^2}$$

Some computer algebra systems compute limits in this way.

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \dfrac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots}{x^2}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{3!} + \frac{x^2}{4!} + \frac{x^3}{5!} + \cdots\right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

because power series are continuous functions.

Multiplication and Division of Power Series

If power series are added or subtracted, they behave like polynomials (Theorem 11.2.8 shows this). In fact, as the following example illustrates, they can also be multiplied and divided like polynomials. We find only the first few terms because the calculations for the later terms become tedious and the initial terms are the most important ones.

EXAMPLE 13 Find the first three nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for (a) $e^x \sin x$ and (b) $\tan x$.

SOLUTION

(a) Using the Maclaurin series for e^x and $\sin x$ in Table 1, we have

$$e^x \sin x = \left(1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots\right)\left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots\right)$$

We multiply these expressions, collecting like terms just as for polynomials:

$$\begin{array}{rl}
 & 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \cdots \\
\times & x \qquad\quad - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \cdots \\
\hline
 & x + x^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^3 + \frac{1}{6}x^4 + \cdots \\
+ & \qquad\quad - \frac{1}{6}x^3 - \frac{1}{6}x^4 - \cdots \\
\hline
 & x + x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \cdots
\end{array}$$

Thus $$e^x \sin x = x + x^2 + \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 + \cdots$$

(b) Using the Maclaurin series in Table 1, we have

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = \frac{x - \dfrac{x^3}{3!} + \dfrac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots}{1 - \dfrac{x^2}{2!} + \dfrac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots}$$

We use a procedure like long division:

$$\begin{array}{r|l}
 & x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \cdots \\
\hline
1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 - \cdots & x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 - \cdots \\
 & x - \frac{1}{2}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^5 - \cdots \\
\cline{2-2}
 & \qquad \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{30}x^5 + \cdots \\
 & \qquad \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{6}x^5 + \cdots \\
\cline{2-2}
 & \qquad\qquad \frac{2}{15}x^5 + \cdots
\end{array}$$

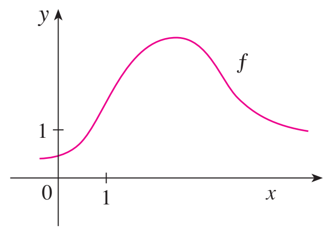
Thus $$\tan x = x + \tfrac{1}{3}x^3 + \tfrac{2}{15}x^5 + \cdots$$

Although we have not attempted to justify the formal manipulations used in Example 13, they are legitimate. There is a theorem which states that if both $f(x) = \Sigma\, c_n x^n$ and $g(x) = \Sigma\, b_n x^n$ converge for $|x| < R$ and the series are multiplied as if they were polynomials, then the resulting series also converges for $|x| < R$ and represents $f(x)g(x)$. For division we require $b_0 \neq 0$; the resulting series converges for sufficiently small $|x|$.

11.10 Exercises

1. If $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n(x-5)^n$ for all x, write a formula for b_8.

2. The graph of f is shown.



(a) Explain why the series

$$1.6 - 0.8(x-1) + 0.4(x-1)^2 - 0.1(x-1)^3 + \cdots$$

is *not* the Taylor series of f centered at 1.

(b) Explain why the series

$$2.8 + 0.5(x-2) + 1.5(x-2)^2 - 0.1(x-2)^3 + \cdots$$

is *not* the Taylor series of f centered at 2.

3. If $f^{(n)}(0) = (n+1)!$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, find the Maclaurin series for f and its radius of convergence.

4. Find the Taylor series for f centered at 4 if

$$f^{(n)}(4) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{3^n(n+1)}$$

What is the radius of convergence of the Taylor series?

5–12 Find the Maclaurin series for $f(x)$ using the definition of a Maclaurin series. [Assume that f has a power series expansion. Do not show that $R_n(x) \to 0$.] Also find the associated radius of convergence.

5. $f(x) = (1-x)^{-2}$
6. $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$
7. $f(x) = \sin \pi x$
8. $f(x) = e^{-2x}$
9. $f(x) = 2^x$
10. $f(x) = x\cos x$
11. $f(x) = \sinh x$
12. $f(x) = \cosh x$

13–20 Find the Taylor series for $f(x)$ centered at the given value of a. [Assume that f has a power series expansion. Do not show that $R_n(x) \to 0$.] Also find the associated radius of convergence.

13. $f(x) = x^4 - 3x^2 + 1, \quad a = 1$
14. $f(x) = x - x^3, \quad a = -2$
15. $f(x) = \ln x, \quad a = 2$
16. $f(x) = 1/x, \quad a = -3$
17. $f(x) = e^{2x}, \quad a = 3$
18. $f(x) = \sin x, \quad a = \pi/2$
19. $f(x) = \cos x, \quad a = \pi$
20. $f(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad a = 16$

21. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 7 represents $\sin \pi x$ for all x.

22. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 18 represents $\sin x$ for all x.

23. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 11 represents $\sinh x$ for all x.

24. Prove that the series obtained in Exercise 12 represents $\cosh x$ for all x.

25–28 Use the binomial series to expand the function as a power series. State the radius of convergence.

25. $\sqrt[4]{1-x}$
26. $\sqrt[3]{8+x}$
27. $\dfrac{1}{(2+x)^3}$
28. $(1-x)^{2/3}$

29–38 Use a Maclaurin series in Table 1 to obtain the Maclaurin series for the given function.

29. $f(x) = \sin \pi x$
30. $f(x) = \cos(\pi x/2)$
31. $f(x) = e^x + e^{2x}$
32. $f(x) = e^x + 2e^{-x}$
33. $f(x) = x\cos\left(\frac{1}{2}x^2\right)$
34. $f(x) = x^2 \ln(1+x^3)$
35. $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{\sqrt{4+x^2}}$
36. $f(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{\sqrt{2+x}}$
37. $f(x) = \sin^2 x \quad \left[\textit{Hint:} \text{ Use } \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1-\cos 2x).\right]$
38. $f(x) = \begin{cases} \dfrac{x - \sin x}{x^3} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{6} & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$

39–42 Find the Maclaurin series of f (by any method) and its radius of convergence. Graph f and its first few Taylor polynomials on the same screen. What do you notice about the relationship between these polynomials and f?

39. $f(x) = \cos(x^2)$
40. $f(x) = e^{-x^2} + \cos x$
41. $f(x) = xe^{-x}$
42. $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x^3)$

43. Use the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$ to compute $\cos 5°$ correct to five decimal places.

44. Use the Maclaurin series for e^x to calculate $1/\sqrt[10]{e}$ correct to five decimal places.

45. (a) Use the binomial series to expand $1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$.
(b) Use part (a) to find the Maclaurin series for $\sin^{-1}x$.

46. (a) Expand $1/\sqrt[4]{1+x}$ as a power series.
(b) Use part (a) to estimate $1/\sqrt[4]{1.1}$ correct to three decimal places.

Graphing calculator or computer required   1. Homework Hints available at stewartcalculus.com

47–50 Evaluate the indefinite integral as an infinite series.

47. $\int x \cos(x^3)\, dx$

48. $\int \dfrac{e^x - 1}{x}\, dx$

49. $\int \dfrac{\cos x - 1}{x}\, dx$

50. $\int \arctan(x^2)\, dx$

51–54 Use series to approximate the definite integral to within the indicated accuracy.

51. $\int_0^{1/2} x^3 \arctan x\, dx$ (four decimal places)

52. $\int_0^1 \sin(x^4)\, dx$ (four decimal places)

53. $\int_0^{0.4} \sqrt{1 + x^4}\, dx$ $(|\text{error}| < 5 \times 10^{-6})$

54. $\int_0^{0.5} x^2 e^{-x^2}\, dx$ $(|\text{error}| < 0.001)$

55–57 Use series to evaluate the limit.

55. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x - \ln(1 + x)}{x^2}$

56. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{1 + x - e^x}$

57. $\displaystyle\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x - x + \frac{1}{6}x^3}{x^5}$

58. Use the series in Example 13(b) to evaluate

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x - x}{x^3}$$

We found this limit in Example 4 in Section 4.4 using l'Hospital's Rule three times. Which method do you prefer?

59–62 Use multiplication or division of power series to find the first three nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for each function.

59. $y = e^{-x^2} \cos x$

60. $y = \sec x$

61. $y = \dfrac{x}{\sin x}$

62. $y = e^x \ln(1 + x)$

63–70 Find the sum of the series.

63. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{4n}}{n!}$

64. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \pi^{2n}}{6^{2n}(2n)!}$

65. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{3^n}{n\, 5^n}$

66. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{5^n n!}$

67. $\displaystyle\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \pi^{2n+1}}{4^{2n+1}(2n + 1)!}$

68. $1 - \ln 2 + \dfrac{(\ln 2)^2}{2!} - \dfrac{(\ln 2)^3}{3!} + \cdots$

69. $3 + \dfrac{9}{2!} + \dfrac{27}{3!} + \dfrac{81}{4!} + \cdots$

70. $\dfrac{1}{1 \cdot 2} - \dfrac{1}{3 \cdot 2^3} + \dfrac{1}{5 \cdot 2^5} - \dfrac{1}{7 \cdot 2^7} + \cdots$

71. Show that if p is an nth-degree polynomial, then

$$p(x + 1) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{p^{(i)}(x)}{i!}$$

72. If $f(x) = (1 + x^3)^{30}$, what is $f^{(58)}(0)$?

73. Prove Taylor's Inequality for $n = 2$, that is, prove that if $|f'''(x)| \leqslant M$ for $|x - a| \leqslant d$, then

$$|R_2(x)| \leqslant \frac{M}{6}|x - a|^3 \qquad \text{for } |x - a| \leqslant d$$

74. (a) Show that the function defined by

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

is not equal to its Maclaurin series.

(b) Graph the function in part (a) and comment on its behavior near the origin.

75. Use the following steps to prove $\boxed{17}$.

(a) Let $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{k}{n} x^n$. Differentiate this series to show that

$$g'(x) = \frac{kg(x)}{1 + x} \qquad -1 < x < 1$$

(b) Let $h(x) = (1 + x)^{-k} g(x)$ and show that $h'(x) = 0$.

(c) Deduce that $g(x) = (1 + x)^k$.

76. In Exercise 53 in Section 10.2 it was shown that the length of the ellipse $x = a \sin\theta$, $y = b \cos\theta$, where $a > b > 0$, is

$$L = 4a \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{1 - e^2 \sin^2\theta}\, d\theta$$

where $e = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}/a$ is the eccentricity of the ellipse.

Expand the integrand as a binomial series and use the result of Exercise 50 in Section 7.1 to express L as a series in powers of the eccentricity up to the term in e^6.