Mathematics Year 1, Calculus and Applications I

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Solutions Problem Sheet 5

1. Let $\{r_n\}$ denote the rational numbers in the interval (0,1) arranged in the sequence whose first few terms are $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{2}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \dots$ Prove that the series $\sum_{1}^{\infty} r_n$ diverges.

Solution $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r_n$ diverges because r_n does not then to zero as $n \to \infty$. In fact $r_n \to 1$ as $n \to \infty$.

2. Determine the convergence or divergence of the following infinite series:

(a)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!}$$
 (b) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!} 5^n$ (c) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2}$ (d) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{n^2} 4^n$

$$(e) \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{\sqrt{n}} \qquad (f) \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \left(\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} \right) \qquad (g) \ \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\log n)^{\log n}}$$

$$(h) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{(2n+1)!}, \qquad (i) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^{n^2}}{n!}, \qquad (j) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

Solution

- (a) Ratio test $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{((n+1)!)^2}{(2(n+1))!} \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2} = \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+2)(2n+1)} \to \frac{1}{4}$ as $n \to \infty$. Converges.
- (b) As above, only difference is the extra $\frac{5^{n+1}}{5^n}$ factor. Hence $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \to \frac{5}{4}$. Diverges.
- (c) Can do this in different ways: (i) Write $a_n = \left[\left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n \right]^n$; defining $x_n = \left(\frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n$, calculate

$$x_n = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^n = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^{n+1} \frac{1}{\left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)} \to e^{-1}$$
 as $n \to \infty$,

by definition of e. Hence $a_n \sim e^{-n}$ for large n and the series converges (geometric of ratio $e^{-1} < 1$).

(ii) Alternatively, note that

$$\log(a_n) = n^2 \log\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right) = n^2 \log\left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) = n^2 \left(-\frac{1}{n+1} + \dots\right) \to -n,$$

as $n \to \infty$ hence $a_n \sim e^{-n}$ and the conclusion is the same as above. [I used Taylor's theorem to expand the log, only the first term is needed.]

- (d) As above, and on including the extra factor 4^n we have $a_n \to e^{-n} 4^n = (4-e)^n$. Since 4-e>1, the series diverges.
- (e) Series converges by the alternating series test since $1/\sqrt{n} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

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(f) Here $a_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n} \right) = \frac{1}{n \left(\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n} \right)}$. Hence $a_n < \frac{1}{2n^{3/2}}$ for $n \ge 1$, and by comparison with $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x^{3/2}}$ we have convergence.

(g) Use the comparison test with the integral $I := \int_2^\infty \frac{dx}{(\log x)^{\log x}}$. Calculate I first making the substitution $y = \log x$

$$I = \int_{\log 2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{y} dy}{y^{y}} = \int_{\log 2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{y} dy}{e^{y \log y}} = \int_{\log 2}^{\infty} e^{-y(\log y - 1)} dy = \left(\int_{\log 2}^{\log M} + \int_{\log M}^{\infty}\right) e^{-y(\log y - 1)} dy$$

Now pick the constant M so that $\log M - 1 > 0$ (e.g. M = 2e will do). The first integral is a finite number. The second integral can be estimated as follows

$$\int_{\log M}^{\infty} e^{-y(\log y - 1)} dy < \int_{\log M}^{\infty} e^{-y} dy = \frac{1}{M},$$

hence the integral and the series converge.

- (h) Ratio test $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{2}{(2n+3)(2n+2)} \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. Converges.
- (i) Ratio test $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{2^{n^2+2n+1}}{2^{n^2}} = \frac{2^{2n+1}}{n+1} \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$.
- (j) Compare with

$$\lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{1}^{M} \left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} \right) dx = \lim_{M \to \infty} \left(\log M - 2\sqrt{M} + 2 \right) = \infty,$$

hence the series diverges.

3. (a) Prove that the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots = 1.$$

Use the result to prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges, and obtain upper and lower bounds for this sum.

- (b) Find the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{(n+1)!}$.
- (c) Find the sum $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1+n}{2^n}$. [Hint: Differentiate a certain power series, justifying any operations.]

Solution

(a) Consider the partial sum $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{N+1}$ (telescoping series). Hence $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \lim_{N \to \infty} S_N = 1$. Now

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} > \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} - 1,$$

hence $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = 2$, i.e. converges with upper bound 2. To find a lower bound note that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} > \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = 1$.

(b) Write $\frac{n}{(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{n!} - \frac{1}{(n+1)!}$, hence the partial sum

$$S_N := \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{n}{(n+1)!} = \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\frac{1}{n!} - \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \right) = 1 - \frac{1}{(N+1)!} \to 1 \text{ as } N \to \infty.$$

(c) Consider the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ and in particular its Binomial expansion which converges absolutely for |x| < 1. The Binomial expansion is $f(x) = (1-x)^{-1} = 1+x+x^2+x^3+\ldots$, and since the series converges absolutely we can differentiate to find $f'(x) = 1+2x+3x^2+\ldots$. In particular

$$f'(1/2) = 1 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{2^n}$$
 (1)

But $f'(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$ hence f'(1/2) = 4. Combining with (1) yields $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n^2} = 3$.

4. Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is a decreasing sequence of positive terms such that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. Prove that $na_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. [Hint - consider the sum $a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \ldots + a_{2n}$.]

Solution

Consider $a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \ldots + a_{2n} = \sum_{n=1}^{2n} a_n - \sum_{n=1}^{n} a_n$. Since the series has positive terms and is decreasing we have the bound

$$0 \le a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \ldots + a_{2n} \le na_{2n}$$
.

But $\left(\sum_{n=1}^{2n} a_n - \sum_{n=1}^{n} a_n\right) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$ by Cauchy's test for convergence. Hence, by the squeeze theorem $na_{2n} \to 0$, equivalently $(2n)a_{(2n)} \to 0$ and hence $na_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

5. (a) For what values of α do the following series converge or diverge

(i)
$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\log n)^{\alpha}}$$
 (ii)
$$\sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n \log n (\log \log n)^{\alpha}}$$

(b) Show that the following series converges

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

Solution

(a) (i) Use the integral comparison test - we need to consider (for $\alpha \neq 1$ at the moment)

$$\int_{2}^{M} \frac{dx}{x(\log x)^{\alpha}} = \frac{(\log x)^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} \bigg|_{2}^{M} = \frac{(\log M)^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} - \frac{\log 2}{1-\alpha},$$

and the improper integral converges as $M\to\infty$ only if $\alpha>1$. Need to check $\alpha=1,$ i.e. the integral

$$\int_{2}^{M} \frac{dx}{x \log x} = \log(\log M) - \log(\log 2) \to \infty \quad \text{as} \quad M \to \infty,$$

hence the integral diverges.

(ii) Again use the integral test hence consider

$$\int_3^M \frac{dx}{(x \log x)(\log \log x)^{\alpha}} = \frac{(\log \log x)^{1-\alpha}}{1-\alpha} \Big|_3^M,$$

hence convergence as $M \to \infty$ only if $\alpha > 1$. For $\alpha = 1$

$$\int_{3}^{M} \frac{dx}{x \log x (\log \log x)} = \log \log \log M - \log \log \log 3 \to \infty \quad \text{as} \quad M \to \infty.$$

(b) Combine the logarithms in the numerator to write the series as $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\log(1+\frac{1}{n})}{(\log n)^2}$. Next we show that $\log(1+\frac{1}{n})<\frac{1}{n}$. Can do this many ways (e.g. $(1+\frac{1}{n})^n< e$ from the definition of the exponential - see Chapter 1) but I will do it using Taylor's theorem that gives

$$\log\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{n^3} - \dots$$
 (2)

The power series converges absolutely for |1/n| < 1 and since the series starts with n = 2 we are fine. The series (2) is alternating with decreasing terms, hence it is smaller than its first term, i.e. $\log\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right) < \frac{1}{n}$ for $n \ge 2$.

Now we are in a position to use the comparison theorem for series. We have

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\log \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)}{(\log n)^2} < \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(1/n)}{(\log n)^2},$$

and the latter sum is convergent by comparison with the integral

$$\int_{2}^{M} \frac{dx}{x(\log x)^{2}} = \frac{1}{\log 2} - \frac{1}{\log M} \to 0 \quad \text{as} \quad M \to \infty.$$

6. For what values p > 0 does the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^p}\right)^n$ converge.

Solution

Recall and use the result $\lim_{k\to\infty} \left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right)^k = e^{-1}$. Write $a_n = \left(1-\frac{1}{n^p}\right)^n$. If p < 0 then a_n does not tend to zero and the series diverges. If p = 0 then the series converges and is equal to 0. Hence $p \ge 0$ is a necessary condition for convergence. Take p > 0 and re-write

$$a_n = \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{n^p} \right)^{n^p} \right)^{n/n^p}.$$

For large n, therefore, we have

$$a_n \sim \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{n/n^p} \to \begin{cases} e^{-1} & p = 1\\ 1 & p > 1\\ \exp(-n^{1-p}) & p < 1 \end{cases}$$

Clearly if $p \ge 1$ the series does not converge (the terms do not tend to zero). So the only possibility is $0 \le p < 1$. We need to prove this. One way to do is is to compare with the integral

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \exp(-x^{1-p}) dx = \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{y^{\frac{p}{1-p}}}{1-p} \exp(-y) dy,$$

where the substitution $y = x^{1-p}$ has been used. Now for any $0 we can find an integer <math>N > \frac{p}{1-p}$, and so

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{y^{\frac{p}{1-p}}}{1-p} \exp(-y) dy \leq \int_1^\infty y^N \exp(-y) dy < \infty,$$

hence the series converges for $0 \le p < 1$.

- 7. This problem follows closely the derivation in class for the power series expansion for $\log(1+x)$.
 - (a) Write down the sum of the geometric series $\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k}$.
 - (b) Use (a) to show that

$$\frac{1}{1+t^2} = 1 - t^2 + t^4 - \dots + (-1)^{n-1}t^{2n-2} + (-1)^n \frac{t^{2n}}{1+t^2}.$$

(c) Use (b) to show that

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2n-1} + R_n,$$
 (3)

where R_n is the remainder which you should express as an integral involving x.

- (d) Show that the power series for $\tan^{-1} x$ converges absolutely for x in the closed interval [-1,1].
- (e) Use the power series to show that $\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} \frac{1}{7} + \dots$ How many terms do we have to keep in this series in order to estimate π with accuracy to 10 decimal places, i.e. with error less than 10^{-10} ?

Solution

- (a) $\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^k = 1 + r + r^2 + \ldots + r^n = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$.
- (b) Use the result above but for n terms not n+1, i.e.

$$1 + r + \dots + r^{n-1} = \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r} = \frac{1}{1 - r} - \frac{r^n}{1 - r} \implies \frac{1}{1 - r} = 1 + r + \dots + r^{n-1} + \frac{r^n}{1 - r}$$

and putting $r = -t^2$ gives

$$\frac{1}{1+t^2} = 1 - t^2 + t^4 - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} t^{2n-2} + (-1)^n \frac{t^{2n}}{1+t^2},\tag{4}$$

as desired.

(c) Now integrate (4) between 0 and x noting that $\int_0^x (1+t^2)^{-1} dt = \tan^{-1} x$ to find

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2n-1} + \int_0^x \frac{(-1)^n t^{2n}}{1+t^2} dt,$$
 (5)

where the last integral is R_n .

(d) For absolute convergence we can use the ratio test of successive terms in the series for $\tan^{-1} x$ above. Find

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{|x|^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \cdot \frac{2n-1}{|x|^{2n-1}} \to |x|^2 \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty,$$

hence we have absolute convergence as long as |x| < 1. The boundary points |x| = 1 must be considered separately since the ratio test gives no information for them. This comes from the requirement that for absolute convergence the remainder $R_n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$. To prove this, estimate the integral form of R_n as follows

$$|R_n| \le \left| \int_0^x t^{2n} dt \right| \le \frac{|x|^{2n+1}}{2n+1} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty \text{ if } |x| \le 1.$$

Hence, we have absolute convergence of the power series for $\tan^{-1} x$ if $|x| \leq 1$.

(e) Putting x = 1 in the power series (5) and noting that $\tan^{-1} 1 = \pi/4$ gives

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

An upper bound for the error in estimating π using this series after truncating an n terms, is given by $\frac{4}{2n+1}$ (why? because the series is alternating the error is less than the absolute value of the first term dropped). For accuracy 10^{-10} we need $2n+1>4\times 10^{10}$, i.e. $n\gtrsim 2\times 10^{10}$, a lot of terms!

- 8. Following up from the calculation of π above, here is a much more efficient way.
 - (a) Starting from the addition formula for the tangent

$$\tan(x+y) = \frac{\tan x + \tan y}{1 - \tan x \, \tan y},$$

introduce the inverse functions $x = \tan^{-1} u$ and $y = \tan^{-1} v$ to show that

$$\tan^{-1} u + \tan^{-1} v = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{u+v}{1-uv} \right). \tag{6}$$

(b) Show that choosing (u+v)/(1-uv)=1 in expression (6), we have the following formula for π ,

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \tan^{-1} u + \tan^{-1} v,\tag{7}$$

and that restricting u and v to be in the interval (0,1) we can express them as the one-parameter family

$$u = \frac{1-p}{1+p}, \qquad v = p, \qquad 0 (8)$$

or equivalently

$$u = \frac{n-m}{n+m}, \qquad v = \frac{m}{n}, \qquad 0 < m < n, \tag{9}$$

where we picked p to be the rational number p = m/n.

Use your earlier findings regarding the power series for $\tan^{-1} x$ (equation (3)) to explain why the choices (8)-(9) are useful.

(c) Hence show that (first derived and used by Euler)

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{2} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3}.\tag{10}$$

Noting that $\frac{\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{7}}{1 - \frac{1}{21}} = \frac{1}{2}$, show that $\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{3} + \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{7}$, which when combined with (10) gives the formula (used by Jurij Vega, 1754-1802, a Slovenian mathematician who got 140 digits accuracy to π using this formula)

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{7},\tag{11}$$

and on use of $\frac{\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{8}}{1 - \frac{1}{40}} = \frac{1}{3}$ and previous results we also have

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{5} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{7} + 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{8}.$$
 (12)

(d) If we use the expressions (10), (11) and (12), respectively, how many terms in the expansion (3) do we need to compute π to 10 decimals accuracy? Compare with your answer to question 8(e).

Solution

(a) From the definitions of u and v, the addition formula becomes

$$\tan(x+y) = \frac{u+v}{1-uv} \Rightarrow$$

$$x+y = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{u+v}{1-uv}\right) \Rightarrow$$

$$\tan^{-1}u + \tan^{-1}v = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{u+v}{1-uv}\right),$$
(13)

as required.

(b) Choosing $\frac{u+v}{1-uv} = 1$ in (13) immediately yields $\tan^{-1} u + \tan^{-1} v = \frac{\pi}{4}$. Continuing with $u, v \in (0, 1)$, write $v = p, \ 0 , so that <math>u = \frac{1-p}{1+p}$. Restricting to rationals, let $p = m/n, \ 0 < m < n$, so that $v = \frac{m}{n}$ and $u = \frac{n-m}{n+m}$.

These choices for u, v ensure that we are within the radius of convergence of the power series for $\tan^{-1} u$ and $\tan^{-1} v$ found in problem 7.

(c) Pick m = 1, n = 3, so that $u = \frac{1}{2}$, $v = \frac{1}{3}$, and (13) gives

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{2} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3} \tag{14}$$

Picking u = 1/3, v = 1/7 makes (u+v)/(1-uv) = 1/2 as given, and hence (13) becomes

$$\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{7} = \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{2} \tag{15}$$

Now eliminate $\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{2}$ between expressions (15) and (14) to find the required formula

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{7}.\tag{16}$$

Next picking u = 1/5, v = 1/8 gives (u + v)/(1 - uv) = 1/3, hence

$$\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{5} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{8} = \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{3},$$

which when combined with (16) gives

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{5} + \tan^{-1}\frac{1}{7} + 2\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{8}.$$
 (17)

(d) To estimate how many terms we need for an error of 10^{-10} for each of formulas (14), (16) and (17), first note that it is sufficient to consider the power series for the largest argument of \tan^{-1} appearing in each of these formulas, i.e. 1/2, 1/3 and 1/5, respectively. (Any smaller arguments present will contribute smaller errors automatically, so no need to bother with them further.) For (14) and on use of formula (5) we have

$$\tan^{-1}\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2^3} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 2^5} - \ldots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{(2n-1)2^{2n-1}}.$$

Now, $2^{34} \approx 1.7 \times 10^{10}$, so if n = 17 are used the error is guaranteed to be smaller than 10^{-10} .

For the Vega expression (16) the *n*th term has size $\frac{1}{(2n-1)3^{2n-1}}$. Since $3^21 \approx 1.05 \times 10^{10}$, n = 10 will do.

Finally, for formula (17) the *n*th term has size $\frac{1}{(2n-1)5^{2n-1}}$ and since $13 \times 5^{13} \approx 1.6 \times 10^{10}$ we see that 2n-1=13, i.e. n=6 terms are enough.

The differences with the number of terms needed in question 6 are striking, i.e. 6 terms instead of 2×10^{10} terms! The moral of the exercise is - do analysis before you compute!

- 9. (a) Binomial Theorem. Let $f(x) = (1+x)^s$ where s is a real number. Use induction arguments to show that $f^{(n)}(x) = s(s-1)\dots(s-n+1)(1+x)^{s-n}$ and hence write down the Taylor series for f(x) including the remainder term. Hence show that $(1+x)^s$ converges uniformly (i.e. it is analytic) for |x| < 1.
 - (b) Use the Binomial Theorem to compute $(126)^{1/3}$ and $\sqrt{96}$ to 4 decimals.
 - (c) Write out the Maclaurin series for $1/\sqrt{1+x^2}$ using the binomial series. What is $\frac{d^{20}}{dx^{20}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}\right)\Big|_{x=0}$?
 - (d) Find the Maclaurin series for $g(x) = \sqrt{1+x} + \sqrt{1-x}$, and hence calculate $g^{(20)}(0)$ and $g^{(2001)}(0)$.

Solution

(a) Induction. Start with $f(x) = (1+x)^s$ with s real. Differentiate once, $f'(x) = s(1+x)^{s-1}$, hence the formula is true for n = 1. Assume it is true for n, i.e. $f^{(n)} = s(s-1)\dots(s-(n-1))(1+x)^{s-n}$, differentiating once more we find $f^{(n+1)}(x) = s(s-1)\dots(s-(n-1))(s-n)(1+x)^{s-(n+1)}$, hence the formula holds for n+1 also and the induction proof is complete.

We can now write down the Taylor series of f(x) about x = 0 (i.e. its Maclaurin series). This is, with remainder where ξ is a number between 0 and x,

$$f(x) = f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!}f^{(2)}(0) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!}f^{(n)}(0) + \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}f^{(n+1)}(\xi), \Rightarrow$$

$$= 1 + sx + s(s-1)\frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{s(s-1)\dots(s-n+1)}{n!}x^n + \frac{s(s-1)\dots(s-n)}{(n+1)!}(1+\xi)^{s-n-1}.$$

Using the ratio test for convergence we find

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

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x||s-n|}{n} = |x|,$$

hence we need |x| < 1 for absolute convergence.

(b)

$$(126)^{1/3} = (125+1)^{1/3} = 5\left(1+\frac{1}{5}\right)^{1/3} = 5\left[1+\frac{1}{3}\cdot\frac{1}{5}+\frac{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)}{2!}\frac{1}{5^2} + \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{3}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{3}\right)\left(-\frac{5}{3}\right)\left(-\frac{8}{3}\right)}{4!}\frac{1}{5^4} + \dots\right]$$

The last term has absolute value $\frac{5\times80}{81\times24\times725}\approx3\times10^{-4}$, hence it needs to be kept. The next term can be neglected.

$$\sqrt{96} = \sqrt{100 - 4} = 10 \left(1 - \frac{1}{25} \right)^{1/2} = 10 \left[1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{25} + \frac{(1/2)(-1/2)}{2!} \frac{1}{25^2} + \frac{(1/2)(-1/2)(-3/2)}{3!} \frac{1}{25^3} + \dots \right]$$

(c) Use $x \to x^2$ and s = -1/2 to find

$$(1+x^2)^{-1/2} = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \dots + \frac{(-1/2)(-3/2)\dots(-1/2-n+1)}{n!}x^{2n} + \dots$$

The only term that survives in $\frac{d^{20}}{dx^{20}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \right) \Big|_{x=0}$ comes from the x^{20} term, i.e. n=10. Hence

$$\left. \frac{d^{20}}{dx^{20}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \right) \right|_{x=0} = \frac{(-1/2)(-3/2)\dots(-1/2-10+1)}{10!} 20!$$

Note that the 20! factor comes from differentiating x^{20} twenty times.

(d) We know from part (a) that $\sqrt{1+x}+\sqrt{1-x}$ will give a series that only contains even powers of x. Hence we conclude immediately that $g^{(2001)}(0) = 0$ (in fact any odd derivative will be zero at x = 0).

For $g^{(20)}(0)$ the only non-zero term comes from the coefficient of x^{20} . Now

$$(1 \pm x)^{1/2} = 1 + \dots + (1/2)(1/2 - 1)\dots(1/2 - 20 + 1)\frac{x^{20}}{20!} + \dots,$$

hence

$$g^{(20)}(0) = 2(1/2)(1/2 - 1) \dots (1/2 - 20 + 1).$$

10. Find the radius of convergence of the following series:

$$(1) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2} x^n \quad (2) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{(n!)} x^n \quad (3) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^3}{(3n)!} x^n \quad (4) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{5n}}{(2n)!} n^{3n} x^n$$

(5)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(3n)!}{(n!)^2} x^n \quad (6) \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\pi/2)}{2^n} x^n \quad (7) \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\log n}{2^n} x^n \quad (8) \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1+\cos 2\pi n}{3^n} x^n$$

(9)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n x^n$$
 (10) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(2\pi n)}{n!} x^n$ (11) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 x^n$ (12) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos n^2}{n^n} x^n$

$$(13) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\log n} x^n \quad (14) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n! - 1} x^n \quad (15) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n} x^n \quad (16) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n + 1}{n!} x^n$$

You may use Stirling's formula

$$n! = (2\pi n)^{1/2} n^n e^{-n} e^{\theta/12n}, \qquad 0 \le \theta \le 1,$$

in its appropriate form for large n.

[**Answers:** (1)
$$1/4$$
, (2) $1/e$, (3) 27 , (4) $4/e^2$, (5) 0, (6) 2, (7) 2, (8) 3, (9) 1, (10) ∞ , (11) 1, (12) ∞ , (13) 1, (14) ∞ , (15) e , (16) ∞ .]

Solution

These problems are solved using the ratio test and the given Stirling formula if you wish. I didn't bother with it, but the way you could use it is to replace n! in any of the sums by the formula - this is valid for large n and it would get rid of the n^n terms. I kept it as a ratio and that needs the familiar result $e = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$.

Will denote by a_n the *n*th term in a series and by R the radius of convergence.

(1)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(2n+2)! (n!)^2}{((n+1)!)^2 (2n)!} |x| = \frac{(2n+2)(2n+1)}{(n+1)^2} |x| \to 4|x| \implies R = \frac{1}{4}$$

(2)
$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)^{n+1} n!}{(n+1)! n^n} |x| = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n |x| \to e|x| \implies R = \frac{1}{e}$$

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)^3}{(3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)} |x| \to \frac{|x|}{27} \implies R = 27$$

(4)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{5n}}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{3n}} \frac{(n+1)^5}{(2n+2)(2n+1)(n+1)^3} |x| \to \frac{e^5}{e^3} \frac{|x|}{4} \implies R = \frac{4}{e^2}$$

(5)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)}{(n+1)^2} |x| \sim 9n|x| \implies R = 0$$

(6) Note first that $a_n = 0$ if n is even, so need to consider the new series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2^{2n-1}}$, so

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{|x|^{2n+1}2^{2n+1}}{|x|^{2n-1}2^{2n+1}} \to \frac{|x|^2}{4} \implies R = 2$$

(7)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{\log(n+1) \, 2^n}{2^{n+1} \, \log(n)} |x| \to \frac{|x|}{2} \ \Rightarrow R = 2$$

(8) Note that $\cos 2n\pi = 1$ for all $n \ge 1$, hence

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{|x|}{3} \Rightarrow R = 3$$

(9)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)|x|^{n+1}}{n|x|^n} \to |x| \implies R = 1$$

(10) Since $\sin(2\pi n) = 0$ for all positive integers, the sum is 0 for all x. Hence $R = \infty$.

(11)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)^2 |x|^{n+1}}{n^2 |x|^n} \to |x| \implies R = 1$$

(12)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{|\cos(n+1)^2| \, n^n}{|\cos n^2| \, (n+1)^{n+1}} |x| = \frac{|\cos(n+1)^2|}{|\cos n^2|} \frac{1}{(n+1)} \frac{1}{(1+\frac{1}{n})^n} |x|$$

$$\leq M \frac{|x|}{(n+1)} \to 0 \quad \Rightarrow R = \infty$$

The bound M follows since $|\cos n^2|$ with n an integer is always bounded away from 0.

(13)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)\log n}{n\log(n+1)}|x| \to 1 \implies R = 1$$

(14)

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n!-1)}{[(n+1)!-1]} |x| \to \frac{|x|}{n+1} \implies R = \infty$$

- (15) The coefficients of x^n in a_n are the reciprocals of those in problem (2). Hence R = e.
- (16) Odd terms are zero, hence $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n + 1}{n!} x^n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{(2k)!} x^{2k}$, hence

$$\frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|} = \frac{|x|^2}{(2k+2)(2k+1)} \to 0 \implies R = \infty$$

11. Find the Taylor series of the function $f(x) = \int_1^x \log t \, dt$ for x near 1. Do the same for the function $x \log x$ and compare the two. What do you conclude?

Solution

Generally, $f(x) = f(1+x-1) = f(1) + (x-1)f^{(1)}(1) + \frac{(x-1)^2}{2!}f^{(2)}(1) + \dots$ is the Taylor expansion near x = 1. For $f(x) = \int_1^x \log t \, dt$ calculate

$$f'(x) = \log x \ f^{(2)}(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \ f^{(3)}(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}, \ f^{(4)}(x) = \frac{2}{x^3}, \dots$$

Hence

$$f(x) = \frac{(x-1)^2}{2!} - \frac{(x-1)^3}{3!} + \frac{(x-1)^4}{4!} \cdot 2! - \frac{(x-1)^5}{5!} \cdot 3! + \dots,$$
 (18)

is the Taylor series for the given integral.

Now define $g(x) = x \log x$ and again calculate derivatives

$$g'(x) = 1 + \log x$$
, $g^{(2)}(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, $g^{(3)}(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$, ...

i.e. $f^{(k)}(x) = g^{(k)}(x)$ for all $k \ge 2$. Hence the Taylor expansion of $x \log x$ is

$$x \log x = (x-1) + \frac{(x-1)^2}{2!} - \frac{(x-1)^3}{3!} + \frac{(x-1)^4}{4!} \cdot 2! - \frac{(x-1)^5}{5!} \cdot 3! + \dots,$$
(19)
= $(x-1) + f(x)$,

on use of (18). This of course is expected since

$$f(x) = \int_{1}^{x} \log t dt = [t \log t]_{1}^{x} - \int_{1}^{x} dt = x \log x - (x - 1),$$

in complete agreement with (19).

12. Find the first four non-vanishing terms of the Maclaurin series for the following functions:

(a)
$$x \cot x$$
 (b) $e^{\sin x}$, (c) $\frac{\sqrt{\sin x}}{\sqrt{x}}$

(d)
$$e^{e^x}$$
, (e) $\sec x$, (f) $\log \sin x - \log x$

Solution

(a) I avoided differentiating $x \cot x$ three times and used Maclaurin combined with Binomial - good to see it done this way also - can be much quicker.

$$x \cot x = x \frac{\cos x}{\sin x} = x \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \right] \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \right] \left[1 - \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right) \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right) + \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right)^2 + \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right)^3 + \dots \right]$$

and since we only need terms up to and including x^6 we only keep relevant terms in the second bracket, i.e.

$$= \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \ldots\right] \left[1 + \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \ldots\right) + \left(\frac{x^4}{(3!)^2} - 2\frac{x^6}{(3!)(5!)} + \ldots\right) + \left(\frac{x^6}{(3!)^3} + \ldots\right)\right] = \left[1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \ldots\right] \left[1 + \frac{x^2}{3!} + \left(\frac{1}{(3!)^2} - \frac{1}{5!}\right)x^4 + \left(\frac{1}{(3!)^2} - \frac{2}{(3!)(5!)}\right)x^6 + \ldots\right] = 1 + \left(\frac{1}{3!} - \frac{1}{2!}\right)x^2 + \left(\frac{1}{(3!)^2} - \frac{1}{5!} - \frac{1}{(2!)(3!)} + \frac{1}{4!}\right)x^4 + \left(\frac{1}{(3!)^2} - \frac{2}{(3!)(5!)} - \frac{1}{(2!)(3!)^2} + \frac{1}{(2!)(5!)} + \frac{1}{(3!)(4!)} - \frac{1}{6!}\right)x^6 + \ldots$$

(b) Need four derivatives of $f(x) = e^{\sin x}$, since $f^{(3)}(0) = 0$ as we see below:

$$f'(x) = (\cos x)e^{\sin x}, \qquad f^{(2)}(x) = (\cos^2 x)e^{\sin x} - (\sin x)e^{\sin x},$$

$$f^{(3)}(x) = (\cos^3 x)e^{\sin x} - 3(\cos x \sin x)e^{\sin x} - (\cos x)e^{\sin x}$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = (\cos^4 x)e^{\sin x} - 3(\cos^2 x \sin x)e^{\sin x} - 3(\cos^2 x \sin x)e^{\sin x}$$

$$-3(\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x)e^{\sin x} - (\cos^2 x)e^{\sin x} + (\sin x)e^{\sin x}$$

Hence the first 4 non-zero terms are

$$e^{\sin x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - 3\frac{x^3}{3!}$$

(c) Use the Binomial expansion after canceling x:

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\sqrt{\sin x}}{\sqrt{x}} = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots\right)^{1/2} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots\right) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2!} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots\right)^2 \\ &+ \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots\right)^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2 \cdot 3!} + \left(\frac{1}{2 \cdot 5!} - \frac{1}{4 \cdot 2! \cdot 3!}\right) x^4 + \left(-\frac{1}{2 \cdot 7!} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 2! \cdot 3! \cdot 5!} + \frac{1}{8(3!)^2}\right) x^6 + \dots \end{split}$$

(d) Need 3 derivatives of $f(x) = e^{e^x}$:

$$f' = e^x e^{e^x}, \quad f^{(2)} = e^x e^{e^x} + (e^x)^2 e^{e^x}, \quad f^{(3)} = e^x e^{e^x} + (e^x)^2 e^{e^x} + 2(e^x)^2 e^{e^x} + (e^x)^3 e^{e^x},$$

hence

$$e^{e^x} = e + ex + 2e\frac{x^2}{2!} + 5e\frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

(e) Write

$$\sec x = (\cos x)^{-1} = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots\right)^{-1}$$

and use the Binomial expansion as in parts (a) and (c). The calculations are almost identical, so I will omit them.

If you try differentiating $f(x) = \sec x$ to find the Maclaurin series, you will need 6 derivatives since $f^{(1)}(0) = f^{(3)}(0) = f^{(5)}(0) = 0$ by virtue of the function being even. The terms increase substantially - try it that way and the Binomial way to appreciate the differences.

(f) Here we expand $\sin x$ and cancel the log:

$$f(x) := \log \sin x - \log x = \log x \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} + \dots \right) - \log x$$
$$= \log x + \log \left[1 - \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} - \frac{x^8}{9!} + \dots \right) \right] - \log x \tag{20}$$

If I define $y = \left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} - \frac{x^8}{9!} + \ldots\right)$ then the Taylor series we need is

$$\log(1-y) = -y - \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} + \dots,$$

and the first 4 non-zero terms follow by keeping terms up to and including x^8 in each y-term

$$f(x) = -\left(\frac{x^2}{3!} - \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} - \frac{x^8}{9!} + \dots\right) - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x^4}{(3!)^2} - \frac{2}{(3!)(5!)}x^6 + \frac{1}{(5!)^2}x^8 + \frac{2}{(3!)(7!)}x^8\right) - \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{x^6}{(3!)^2} - \frac{3x^8}{(3!)^2(5!)}\right) - \frac{1}{4}\frac{x^8}{(3!)^4} + \dots$$

13. Consider the function h(x) defined on the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$ and given by

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2\sin(x/2)} & x \neq 0\\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Use a Maclaurin expansion to show that h(x) is continuous and has a continuous first derivative at x = 0.

Solution

Will expand $\sin(x/2)$ and then use a Binomial expansion:

$$\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2\sin(x/2)} = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{2\left(\frac{x}{2} - \frac{(x/2)^3}{3!} + \frac{(x/2)^5}{5!} + \dots\right)}$$

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

$$= -\frac{x}{24} + Kx^3 + \dots,$$

where K is a known constant. It follows that the function is both continuous and has a continuous first derivative at x = 0. [In fact all derivatives exist at x = 0 and are continuous.]

- 14. Let $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ and g(x) = f(x)/(1-x).
 - (a) By multiplying the power series of f(x) and 1/(1-x), show that $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$, where $b_n = a_0 + \ldots + a_n$ is the nth partial sum of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$.
 - (b) Suppose that the radius of convergence of f(x) is greater than 1 and that $f(1) \neq 0$. Show that $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$ exists and is not equal to zero. What does this tell you about the radius of convergence of g(x)?
 - (c) Let $\frac{e^x}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$. What is $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$?

Solution

(a) The power series of 1/(1-x) follows from the identity $\frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x} = 1+x+\ldots+x^n$ which we have seen often, by having |x| < 1 and sending $n \to \infty$. Thus

$$g(x) = (a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots)(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots)$$

= $a_0 + (a_0 + a_1)x + (a_0 + a_1 + a_2)x^2 + \dots + (a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n)x^n + \dots$

and so $b_n = a_0 + a_1 + \ldots + a_n$ as required.

(b) If f(x) has radius of convergence greater than 1 and $f(1) \neq 0$, we can evaluate the power series for f at x = 1 to obtain

$$f(1) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \neq 0.$$

Now $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = f(1) \neq 0$. This means that the radius of convergence of g(x) is 1 since on use of the ratio test for $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ we find

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{|b_{n+1}|}{|b_n|}|x|=\frac{|f(x)|}{|f(x)|}|x|.$$

(c) You can do the expansion directly but that is not the way. Using (a) and (b) above, we identify $f(x) = e^x$. Clearly the radius of convergence is greater than 1 and $f(1) = e \neq 0$. Hence

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = e.$$

- 15. (a) Write the Maclaurin series for the functions $1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$ and $\sin^{-1} x$. For what values of x do they converge?
 - (b) Find the terms up to and including x^3 in the series for $\sin^{-1}(\sin x)$ by substituting the series for $\sin x$ into the series for $\sin^{-1} x$.
 - (c) Use the substitution method from part (b) to obtain the first five terms of the series for $\sin^{-1} x$ by using the relation $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x$ and solving for a_0 to a_5 .
 - (d) Find the terms up to and including x^5 of the Maclaurin series for the inverse function g(s) of $f(x) = x^3 + x$. [Hint: Use the relation g(f(x)) = x and solve for the coefficients in the series for g.]

Solution

(a) Use the Binomial expansion:

$$(1-x^2)^{-1/2} = 1 + (1/2)x^2 + (1/2)(3/2)\frac{x^4}{2!} + (1/2)(3/2)(5/2)\frac{x^6}{3!} + \dots$$
 (21)

The radius of convergence is |x| < 1.

Since $\sin^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1-t^2}}$, and as long as |x| < 1 we can integrate (21) to establish the power series for $\sin^{-1} x$ (the radius of convergence is 1 of course):

$$\sin^{-1} x = x + \frac{(1/2)}{3}x^3 + \frac{(1/2)(3/2)}{5 \cdot 2!}x^5 + \frac{(1/2)(3/2)(5/2)}{7 \cdot 3!}x^7 + \dots$$
 (22)

(b) A direct substitution of $\sin x = \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \ldots\right)$ into (22) gives, up to and including x^3 ,

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

(c) Start by assuming a power series expansion for $\sin^{-1} y$ with the first 5 terms to be found, i.e. write

$$\sin^{-1} y = a_0 + a_1 y + a_2 y^2 + a_3 y^3 + a_4 y^4 + a_5 y^5 + \dots, \tag{23}$$

and now put $y = \sin x$ where |x| < 1. The left hand side of (23) becomes $\sin^{-1}(\sin x)$ which equals x. Hence we have

$$x = a_0 + a_1 \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \right) + a_2 \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \right)^2 + a_3 \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \right)^3 + a_4 \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \right)^4 + a_5 \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots \right)^5 + \dots$$

The only way this can be satisfied is for the coefficients to balance, i.e.

$$x^{0}: a_{0} = 0$$

$$x^{1}: a_{1} = 1$$

$$x^{2}: a_{2} = 0$$

$$x^{3}: -\frac{a_{1}}{3!} + a_{3} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{3} = \frac{1}{3!}$$

$$x^{4}: a_{4} = 0$$

$$x^{5}: \frac{a_{1}}{5!} - \frac{3a_{3}}{3!} + a_{5} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{5} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3!} - \frac{1}{5!} = \frac{(1/2)(3/2)}{10}$$

[Could have anticipated $a_0 = a_2 = a_4 = 0$ since the function is odd.]

These are exactly the first three non-zero coefficients found in (22).

(d) To find the expansion for the inverse function, assume

$$g(s) = a_0 + a_1 s + a_2 s^2 + a_3 s^3 + a_4 s^4 + a_5 s^5 + \dots$$
 (24)

Since $f(x) = x + x^3$ is an odd function of x, then g(s) is also an odd function of s, hence $a_0 = a_2 = a_4 = \ldots = 0$. If you didn't use this it will come out of the calculations that I include for completeness (similar to part (c)). Using the identity g(f(x)) = x in (24), we have

$$x = a_0 + a_1(x+x^3) + a_2(x+x^3)^2 + a_3(x+x^3)^3 + a_4(x+x^3)^4 + a_5(x+x^3)^5 + \dots$$

Equating powers of x gives the coefficients

$$x^{0}:$$
 $a_{0} = 0$
 $x^{1}:$ $a_{1} = 1$
 $x^{2}:$ $a_{2} = 0$
 $x^{3}:$ $a_{1} + a_{3} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{3} = -1$
 $x^{4}:$ $a_{4} = 0$
 $x^{5}:$ $3a_{3} + a_{5} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{5} = 3$

hence

$$g(s) = s - s^3 + 3s^5 + \dots$$