#### Abel's Theorem

We saw that if a power series  $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$  has radius of convergence R>0, then the series is differentiable on (a-R,a+R) and hence it is continuous on (a-R,a+R). **Theorem (Abel).** Suppose that a power series  $f(x) = \sum c_n(x-a)^n$  has radius of convergence R>0 and that the series converge for a-R (resp. a+R). Then f is continuous from the right at a-R (resp. from the left at a+R).

**Example.** Show Leibniz' formula:

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \cdots$$



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

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

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

$$f(a) = c_0$$

We can differentiate the series in Equation 1 term by term:

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

and substitution of x = a in Equation 2 gives

$$f'(a) = c_1$$

Now we differentiate both sides of Equation 2 and obtain

3 
$$f''(x) = 2c_2 + 2 \cdot 3c_3(x-a) + 3 \cdot 4c_4(x-a)^2 + \cdots$$
, for  $|x-a| < R$ 

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

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

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 *n*th 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.

**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.

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

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

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

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

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

# Example 2

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

The conclusion we can draw from Theorem 5 and Example 2 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

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

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

Notice that  $T_n$  is a polynomial of degree n called the nth-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

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

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

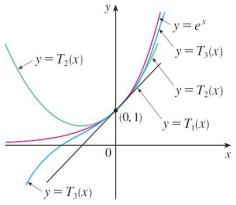


Figure 1

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.

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

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

If we let

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(x)$$
 so that  $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$ 

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.

**8** Theorem If  $f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$ , where  $T_n$  is the *n*th-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  $|f^{(n+1)}(x)| \le M$  for  $|x-a| \le d$ , then the remainder  $R_n(x)$  of the Taylor series satisfies the inequality

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

# Taylor's Theorem

The proof of Taylor's inequality is based on Taylor's Theorem (interestingly, not due to Taylor).

**Theorem (Lagrange, 1797).** If  $f^{(n+1)}$  is continuous on an open interval I that contains a, and  $a \neq x \in I$ , then there exists a number c between a and x such that

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

**Note**. This is the so-called *Lagrange's form* of the remainder term.

# Note

There are examples of functions f that have derivatives of all order for all x and their Maclaurin series converge for all x, yet the sum of the Maclaurin series of f does not equal to f except for at x=0 (where, of course, it always does).

#### Example. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}, & x \neq 0, \\ 0, & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Without doing the details it turns out that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  for all n and thus the Maclaurin series of f yields the constant 0 function.

# Examples 3 and 4

**Example 3.** Prove that  $e^x$  is equal to the sum of its Maclaurin series.

**Example 4.** Find the Taylor series for  $f(x) = e^x$  at a = 2.

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

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

# Examples 5 and 6

**Example 5.** Find the Maclaurin series for  $f(x)=\sin x$  and prove that it represents  $\sin x$  for all x.

**Example 6.** Find the Maclaurin series for cos x.