Topics from Sequences and Series of Functions

Introduction to the Approximation Theory

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Ulterior Goal

• Brief introduction to the basic theory of approximation

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- Brief introduction to the basic theory of approximation
- Theory of **power series**, **Fourier series** and their applications

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Introduction Taylor's Theorem Taylor's Theorem Power Series Proof of Taylor's Theorem Examples Application

Course Overview and Objectives

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- Brief introduction to the basic theory of approximation
- Theory of **power series**, **Fourier series** and their applications

Tools

Knowledge of numerical sequences/series

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- Brief introduction to the basic theory of approximation
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Tools

- Knowledge of numerical sequences/series
- Theory of sequence and series of functions:

$$\{f_n(x)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}; \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x); \quad x \in [a,b].$$

Notations

• The symbol $\mathbb R$ will always denote the set of *real* numbers

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- We will use shorthands

$$\{a_n\} \searrow$$
, $\{a_n\} \nearrow$, $\sum_n a_n \searrow$ and $\sum_n a_n \nearrow$

to indicate <u>convergence</u> and <u>divergence</u>, respectively.

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- Thus, $S = \sum_{n} a_n \iff \lim_{N \to \infty} S_N = S$
- The expression $S < \infty$ indicates that the sum is a finite number

Observe that

$$S < \infty \implies \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$$

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• Absolute convergence \Longrightarrow convergence, i.e.,

$$\sum_{n} |a_n| < \infty \implies \sum_{n} a_n < \infty$$

Important Convergence Tests

• The Comparison test –

If
$$|a_n| \le c_n$$
, then $\sum_n c_n \searrow \Longrightarrow \sum_n a_n \searrow$

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• The **Root** test –

If
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{1/n} < 1(>1)$$
, then $\sum_n a_n \searrow (\nearrow)$

Important Convergence Tests

• The **Ratio** test – If

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1 (> 1), \quad \text{then} \quad \sum_n a_n \searrow (\nearrow)$$

Important Convergence Tests

• The **Ratio** test – If

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• For any $\alpha > 0$ and any β in \mathbb{R} , we have

$$\sum_{n} \frac{(\log n)^{\beta}}{n^{1+\alpha}} \searrow$$

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Meaning, if g(x) is a so called "bad" function with domain [a,b], then find a "good" function f(x) having the same domain and s.t.

$$|f(x) - g(x)| = \text{really small} \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

Theorem (Not really a theorem)

Every reasonable function g(x) can be approximated by a <u>continuous</u> function f(x) in a closed interval [a,b].

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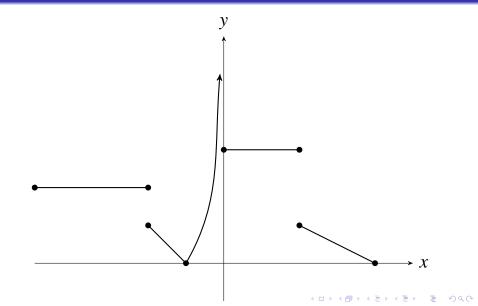
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Theorem (Weierstrass Approximation Theorem)

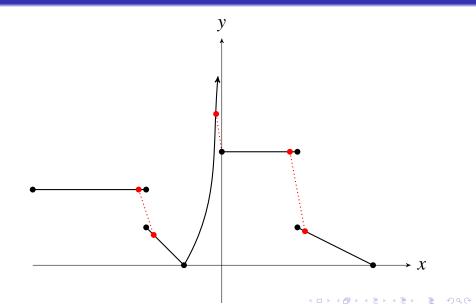
Let f(x) be a <u>continuous</u> function on [a,b], and let $\varepsilon > 0$ (Think $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$) be given. Then there is a polynomial p(x) with real coefficients such that

$$|f(x)-p(x)| < \varepsilon$$
 for any $x \in [a,b]$.

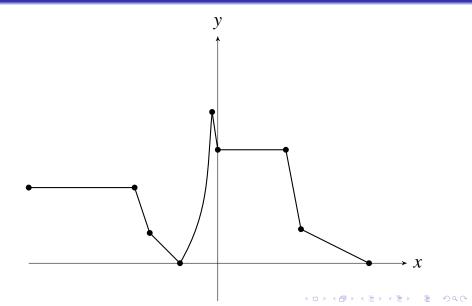
Step 0. Initial Bad Function



Step 1. Slight Perturbations at Bad points



Step 1'. The Continuous Neighbour



Theorem (Explicit Weierstrass)

Let f(x) be a continuous function on the interval [0,1]. For a positive integer n, define the **Bernstein** polynomial

$$B_{f,n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) x^k (1-x)^{n-k}.$$

Then one has that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} B_{f,n}(x) = f(x) \quad uniformly.$$

Upshot

Every bad (but reasonably good) function can be uniformly approximated by a polynomial function on a closed interval.

In this course, we will handle "bad" functions that are slightly *better* than continuous functions.

The "bad" functions we will deal with here are:

Definition

A function f(x) is called *n*-smooth at a point x = a in its domain if its first *n* derivatives $-f^{(1)}(x)$, $f^{(2)}(x)$, \cdots , $f^{(n)}(x)$, all exist in a small neighbourhood of *a*, and $f^{(n)}(x)$ is *continuous* at x = a.

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The "good" functions we make use of here are

Definition

A function f(x) is called **smooth** at a point x = a in its domain if derivatives of every order of f(x) exists in a small neighbourhood of a.

Taylor's Approximation Theorem

Theorem (Taylor's Theorem)

Let f(x) be a real valued function on [a,b] such that f(x) is (n-1)-smooth on [a,b], and $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists on [a,b].

Taylor's Approximation Theorem

Theorem (Taylor's Theorem)

Let f(x) be a real valued function on [a,b] such that f(x) is (n-1)-smooth on [a,b], and $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists on [a,b]. Let α and β be two points in [a,b]. Define the polynomial P(x) as follows:

$$P(x) = f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!} (x - \alpha) + \frac{f^{(2)}(\alpha)}{2!} (x - \alpha)^{2} + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (x - \alpha)^{n-1}.$$

Taylor's Theorem

Theorem (Taylor's Theorem continued..)

Then there is a point γ between α and β such that

$$f(\beta) = P(\beta) + \frac{f^{(n)}(\gamma)}{n!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n}$$

$$= f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!} (\beta - \alpha) + \frac{f^{(2)}(\alpha)}{2!} (\beta - \alpha)^{2} + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(\gamma)}{n!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n}.$$

Proof of Taylor's Theorem

The (θ, h) version of Taylor's Theorem

• Set $\beta = \alpha + h$ so that, |h| > 0

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Taylor's Theorem

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The (θ, h) version of Taylor's Theorem

- Set $\beta = \alpha + h$ so that, |h| > 0
- Since, γ is in between α and β , there is a $0 < \theta < 1$ s.t. $\gamma = \alpha + \theta h$
- Now, Taylor's theorem can be restated as

$$f(\alpha + h) = f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!}h + \frac{f^{(2)}(\alpha)}{2!}h^{2} + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!}h^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha + \theta h)}{n!}h^{n}.$$

Remarks on Taylor's Theorem

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- The last term appearing in the expression for $f(\beta)$ is called the **remainder**, or the **error** term and denoted by $E_n(\beta)$. Thus

$$f(\beta) = P(\beta) + E_n(\beta)$$

where
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• The function f(x) in question just falls short of being n-smooth, namely that $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists but need not be continuous



• If n = 1, then the theorem boils down to that there is a γ between α and β s.t.

$$f(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = f(\boldsymbol{\alpha}) + f^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{\gamma})(\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\alpha}),$$

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Taylor's theorem in short

Any *n*-smooth function can be approximated by a polynomial of degree < n-1.

• If f(x) is smooth on [a,b], then

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!} (\beta - \alpha) + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (\beta - \alpha)^n + \cdots$$

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- That is, one gets rid of the <u>error</u> term in this case, but instead the Taylor polynomial becomes a <u>series</u>
- but of course, one can truncate the series at any n to get a Taylor polynomial if one wishes to approximate $f(\beta)$

• If f is smooth on [a,b], and if we fix α in [a,b], then the last formula for $f(\beta)$ is valid for all β in [a,b]

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- i.e., one may substitute β by x, to get the expression

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (x - \alpha)^{n}$$

for f(x) which is valid over [a,b]

Taylor Series

If a real valued function f is smooth on [a,b], and $\alpha \in [a,b]$. Then f can be expressed as a series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} (x - \alpha)^{n} \quad \text{on} \quad [a, b]$$

The series appearing above is called the **Taylor Series** of (the smooth function) f(x) at $x = \alpha$.

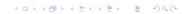
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Remark: f is smooth on $[a,b] \Longrightarrow f$ has a Taylor series at every $\alpha \in [a,b]$.



Maclaurin Series

If a real valued function f is defined on [a,b], and smooth on [a,b]. If $0 \in [a,b]$. Then f can be expressed as a series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$
 in $[a, b]$

The series appearing above is called the **Maclaurin Series** of (the smooth function) f(x).

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- If the above power series converges for each x in [a,b], then its sum is unique for each x
- Thus, one can define a function f as

$$f(x) = S(x) = \sum_{n} a_n (x - \alpha)^n, \quad x \in [a, b]$$

Uniqueness of power series

If

$$\sum_{n} a_n (x - \alpha)^n = \sum_{n} b_n (x - \alpha)^n, \quad x \in [a, b],$$

then $a_n = b_n$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \cdots$.

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- Now, the <u>smoothness</u> of f(x) and the <u>uniqueness</u> of power series guarantees that

$$a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!} \quad (\mathbf{Ex.})$$

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 (Ex.)

 A convergent power series = the Taylor series of its sum



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- A smooth function = its Taylor series on its domain
- Smooth functions are nothing but sums of convergent power series
- Power series is "better" than polynomial approximations as there are no error terms appearing in the power series

Examples

Consider the examples from high school

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

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• Since the <u>tail</u> of a convergent series is <u>small</u>, any finite truncation of the power series gives a reasonable estimate.

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- Then $f(x) = \sum_{n} a_n (x \alpha)^n$ is smooth on [a, b](To be proved later)

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- Then $f(x) = \sum_{n} a_n (x \alpha)^n$ is smooth on [a, b](To be proved later)
- Thus, the function $g(x) = f(x + \alpha)$, is smooth on $[a \alpha, b \alpha]$, and $g(x) = f(x + \alpha) = \sum_{n} a_n x^n$; $x \in [a \alpha, b \alpha]$

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- Thus, the function $g(x) = f(x + \alpha)$, is smooth on $[a \alpha, b \alpha]$, and $g(x) = f(x + \alpha) = \sum_{n} a_n x^n$; $x \in [a \alpha, b \alpha]$
- Thus it suffices to study g(x), i.e., w.l.o.g, we may assume $\alpha = 0$ and our typical power series will be a Maclaurin series $\sum a_n x^n$

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• How about $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n$? (Ex.)

Let

$$\ell = \lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{1/n}$$

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Set

$$R = \begin{cases} 1/\ell & \text{if } 0 < \ell < \infty \\ 0 & \text{if } \ell = \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } \ell = 0 \end{cases}$$

Application of Root test to $\sum_{n} a_n \beta^n$

Observe that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n\beta^n|^{1/n} = |\beta| \lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = |\beta| / R$$

Application of Root test to $\sum_{n} a_n \beta^n$

Observe that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n\beta^n|^{1/n} = |\beta| \lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = |\beta| / R$$

• By <u>root</u> test, we deduce that if $|\beta| \neq R$, then

$$\sum_{n} a_{n} \beta^{n} \to \begin{cases} \searrow & \text{if} \quad \beta \in (-R, R) \\ \nearrow & \text{if} \quad \beta \in (-R, R) \end{cases}$$

Radius of Convergence

The number R is called the **radius of convergence** of the power series $\sum_{n} a_n x^n$. Thus, a power series

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The end points $x = \pm R$ are the only points where we do not know the behaviour of the series. Even if, say, the series \searrow at x = R, it is not entirely clear as to whether we can *continuously* extend the domain of f to (-R,R] by defining $f(R) = \sum_n a_n R^n$!

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• Courtesy a criteria of Abel, we shall find out that this is *always* the case

• The Radius of convergence can also be computed using the <u>ratio</u> test, i.e., if

$$\ell' = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|, \text{ set}$$

$$R' = \begin{cases} 1/\ell' & \text{if } 0 < \ell' < \infty \\ 0 & \text{if } \ell' = \infty \\ \infty & \text{if } \ell' = 0 \end{cases}$$

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• Then R' = R (**Ex.**)



• The series $\sum_{n} a_n x^n$ converges <u>absolutely</u> on (-R,R) (Ex.), that is

$$\sum_{n} a_{n} x^{n} \searrow \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{n} |a_{n} x^{n}| \searrow \text{ on } (-R, R)$$

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$$\sum_{n} a_{n} x^{n} \searrow \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{n} |a_{n} x^{n}| \searrow \text{ on } (-R, R)$$

• If R = 0, then the series \nearrow at all but one point, and if $R = \infty$, then it \searrow everywhere, and as such, its sum function is smooth everywhere. Such functions are called **entire** functions

• For $R \neq 0$, $R \neq \infty$, consider the series

$$g(x) = \sum_{n} a_n (Rx)^n = f(Rx)$$

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- Thus, g has radius of convergence = 1
- Note that f and g are the same as far as their analytic properties are concerned (g is a contraction of f)
- Therefore, if $R \neq 0$ and $R \neq \infty$, then we may assume w.l.o.g. that R = 1

A Key Aspect of Power Series Convergence

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Proof.

For every
$$\beta \in (-R,R)$$
, let $\delta = \min\{|\beta \pm R|/2\}$.
Then $\delta \neq 0$. the interval $(\beta - \delta, \beta + \delta) \subset (-R,R)$.
Hence proved.

1. The series

$$1 + x + 4x^2 + 27x^3 + 256x^4 + \cdots$$

converges only at x = 0 (**Ex.**)

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2. The series

$$1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{x^3}{512} + \frac{x^4}{65536} + \cdots$$

converges everywhere on \mathbb{R} (Ex.)

3. The function $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ is smooth on

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• In (-1,1), f(x) has the Maclaurin series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$$

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• In (-1,1), f(x) has the Maclaurin series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$$

• How about its power series in $(-\infty, -1)$ and $(1, \infty)$?

• Let $\alpha > 1$ be any number, then the Taylor series about α is given by

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{1}{1-\alpha} \sum_{n} \frac{(x-\alpha)^n}{(1-\alpha)^n}$$

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- Work out the details and then repeat for x < -1 (Ex.)

Question 1.

Suppose

$$\sum_{n} a_n x^n \searrow f(x); \quad \text{in } (-1,1)$$

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• Define $f(1) = \sum_{n} a_n$

Question 1. Continued...

Then, is it true that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} f(x) = {}^{?}f(1) = \sum_{n} a_{n} \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left(\sum_{n} a_n x^n \right) = \sum_{n} \left(\lim_{x \to 1} a_n x^n \right)$$

In other words, does the fact that $\sum_n a_n$ guarantees that the sum function f(x) is *continuous* at the boundary x = 1?

Question 2.

Is it true that

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)) = \sum_{n} na_n x^{n-1}; \quad x \in (-1,1)$$
 i.e.,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\sum_{n} a_{n} x^{n}\right) = \sum_{n} \left(\frac{d}{dx}(a_{n} x^{n})\right)$$

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In other words, is term by term differentiation of the series admissible assuming $\sum_{n} a_{n}x^{n} \searrow f(x)$ in order to determine the derivative f'(x) of the sum function?

Question 3.

Is it true that

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \frac{n}{n} \sum_n \frac{a_n}{n+1} x^{n+1} \quad \text{i.e.,}$$

$$\int_0^1 \left(\sum_n a_n x^n\right) = \frac{n}{n} \sum_n \left(\int_0^1 (a_n x^n) dx\right)$$

Question 3.

Is it true that

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \frac{n}{n+1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1} x^{n+1} \quad \text{i.e.,}$$

$$\int_0^1 \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n\right) = \frac{n}{n+1} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\int_0^1 (a_n x^n) dx\right)$$

In other words, is term by term integration of the series admissible assuming $\sum_{n} a_{n}x^{n} \searrow f(x)$ in order to evaluate the integral of f(x)?

In order to address these questions, we will study the theory of *sequence and series of functions*.

A tool from Calculus

Theorem (2-nd MVT of Calculus)

Let H(x) and $\phi(x)$ be continuous functions on [a,b] with $\phi(x) \ge 0$ for all x in [a,b]. Then for any α and β in [a,b], there exists a γ in (α,β) such that

$$H(\gamma) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} H(t)\phi(t)dt}{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \phi(t)dt}.$$

A tool from Calculus

Remarks on 2nd MVT of Calculus

• A continuous function <u>attains</u> its *weighted* average by a nonnegative continuous function over any closed interval

A tool from Calculus

Remarks on 2nd MVT of Calculus

- A continuous function <u>attains</u> its weighted average by a nonnegative continuous function over any closed interval
- Take $\phi(x) = 1$ and suppose H(x) = h'(x) for some h

A tool from Calculus

Remarks on 2nd MVT of Calculus

- A continuous function <u>attains</u> its weighted average by a nonnegative continuous function over any closed interval
- Take $\phi(x) = 1$ and suppose H(x) = h'(x) for some h
- then 2nd MVT \Longrightarrow there is a $\gamma \in (\alpha, \beta)$ s.t.

$$h'(\gamma) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} h'(t)dt}{\beta - \alpha} = \frac{h(\beta) - h(\alpha)}{\beta - \alpha}$$

Towards the Proof of Taylor's Theorem

Recall the relaxed version of Taylor's Theorem:

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Recall the relaxed version of Taylor's Theorem:

Theorem (Relaxed version of Taylor's Theorem)

Let f(x) be a real valued function on [a,b] that is n-smooth on [a,b]. Then for any α and β in [a,b], there is a γ between α and β such that

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!} (\beta - \alpha) + \frac{f^{(2)}(\alpha)}{2!} (\beta - \alpha)^{2} + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(\gamma)}{n!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n}.$$

• Extra Assumption – that $f^{(n)}(x)$ is continuous on [a,b] (i.e., integrable), and assume w.l.o.g. that $\alpha < \beta$

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- Step 1. We write

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f^{(1)}(t)dt$$

- Extra Assumption that $f^{(n)}(x)$ is continuous on [a,b] (i.e., integrable), and assume w.l.o.g. that $\alpha < \beta$
- Step 1. We write

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f^{(1)}(t)dt$$

• **Step 2.** Now, integrate the integral above by parts, taking

$$u(t) = f^{(1)}(t)$$
 and $v(t) = \beta - t$



Thus, we have

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f^{(1)}(t)dt = -\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} u(t)d(v(t))$$

$$= -\left(u(t)v(t)\Big|_{\alpha}^{\beta} - \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} v(t)d(u(t))\right)$$

$$= f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (\beta - t)f^{(2)}(t)dt$$

• From last slide

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (\beta - t)f^{(2)}(t)dt$$

• From last slide

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (\beta - t)f^{(2)}(t)dt$$

• **Step 3.** We evaluate the integral above again by parts, taking

$$u(t) = f^{(2)}(t)$$
 and $v(t) = (\beta - t)^2/2!$

• From last slide

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} (\beta - t)f^{(2)}(t)dt$$

• **Step 3.** We evaluate the integral above again by parts, taking

$$u(t) = f^{(2)}(t)$$
 and $v(t) = (\beta - t)^2/2!$

• to get that it is equal to

$$f^{(2)}(\alpha) \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{2!} + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^2}{2!} f^{(3)}(t) dt$$

Thus,

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + f^{(2)}(\alpha) \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{2!} + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^2}{2!} f^{(3)}(t) dt$$

$$= f(\alpha) + f^{(1)}(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) + f^{(2)}(\alpha) \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^2}{2!} + f^{(3)}(\alpha) \frac{(\beta - \alpha)^3}{3!} + \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^3}{3!} f^{(4)}(t) dt$$

After (n-1) steps, we get

$$f(\beta) = f(\alpha) + \frac{f^{(1)}(\alpha)}{1!} (\beta - \alpha) + \frac{f^{(2)}(\alpha)}{2!} (\beta - \alpha)^{2} + \cdots$$

$$\cdots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^{n-1}$$

$$+ \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(t) dt.$$

• To finish the proof, need to convince ourselves that

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(\gamma)}{n!}(\beta-\alpha)^n = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(t)dt$$

for some γ in (α, β)

• To finish the proof, need to convince ourselves that

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• The above expression for the error is known as the **Lagrange's formula** for the remainder term in Taylor expansion of f(x)

• Recall the 2nd MVT of integral calculus - for some γ in (α, β)

$$H(\gamma) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} H(t)\phi(t)dt}{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \phi(t)dt}; \quad H, \phi - \text{cont.}; \quad \phi \ge 0$$

• Recall the 2nd MVT of integral calculus - for some γ in (α, β)

$$H(\gamma) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} H(t)\phi(t)dt}{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \phi(t)dt}; \quad H, \phi - \text{cont.}; \quad \phi \ge 0$$

Set

$$H(x) = f^{(n)}(x)$$
 and $\phi(x) = \frac{(\beta - x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$



Noting that $(\beta - x)^{n-1}/(n-1)! \ge 0$ for any $x \in [\alpha, \beta]$, deduce that there is a γ in (α, β) such that

Noting that $(\beta - x)^{n-1}/(n-1)! \ge 0$ for any $x \in [\alpha, \beta]$, deduce that there is a γ in (α, β) such that

$$f^{(n)}(\gamma) = \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(t) dt}{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} dt}$$
$$= \frac{\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{(\beta - t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(t) dt}{\left(\frac{(\beta - \alpha)^n}{n!}\right)}$$



The case $\beta < \alpha$ can be handled similarly; one has to make minor changes while choosing $\phi(x)$. But the conclusion remains the same. This is left as an **Ex**.

• Since $f^{(n)}(x)$ is assumed to be <u>continuous</u> on [a,b], it is also <u>bounded</u> there, say

$$|f^{(n)}(x)| \le M$$
 for all $x \in [a,b]$

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• Then we have an easy estimate for the error term

$$\left|\frac{f^{(n)}(\gamma)}{n!}(\beta-\alpha)^n\right| \leq \frac{M|\beta-\alpha|^n}{n!}$$

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• The error $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

An Example

• Find an approximate value of $e^{1/3}$ using Taylor expansion. Also estimate the error of approximation. (Use e < 3)

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- Find an approximate value of $e^{1/3}$ using Taylor expansion. Also estimate the error of approximation. (Use e < 3)
- Since $f(x) = e^x$ is smooth on \mathbb{R} , use the Maclaurin expansion, truncating at n = 4. Here, we take $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta = 1/3$ so that,

$$e^{1/3} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{2!} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^3 + \int_0^{1/3} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{3} - t\right)^3}{3!} e^t dt$$

Example Contd. ...

Thus

$$e^{1/3} = 1 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{18} + \frac{1}{162} + E \approx 1.39506 + E$$

Example Contd. ...

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• Estimating E: Since e < 3, we have

$$E < \frac{3}{3!} \int_0^{1/3} \left(\frac{1}{3} - t \right)^3 dt = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{-(\frac{1}{3} - t)^4}{4} \Big|_0^{1/3} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{648} < 0.00155$$

The exponential function $f(x) = e^x$

• Note that $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$ for all $n = 1, 2, 3, \cdots$

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- Maclaurin expansion at x = 0 given by

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

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• Since $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{1}{n!}\right)^{1/n} = 0$ (**Ex.**), we deduce that $R = \infty$ (formula valid everywhere)

The trigonometric function $f(x) = \sin x$

• In this case, we have

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \sin(x + n\pi/2);$$
 for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

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• In this case, we have

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \sin(x + n\pi/2);$$
 for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

• Thus the Maclaurin expansion for sin *x* is given by

$$\sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)}{n!} x^n$$

The trigonometric function $f(x) = \sin x$ contd. ...

• Note that for an integer *k*,

$$\sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if} \quad n = 2k\\ (-1)^k & \text{if} \quad n = 2k+1 \end{cases}$$

The trigonometric function $f(x) = \sin x$ contd. ...

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Thus

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

The trigonometric function $f(x) = \sin x$ contd. ...

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Thus

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• The radius of convergence, $R = \infty$ (Ex.)

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$

• In this case,

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!}{x^n}$$
 for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

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• Since, f(0), $f^{(1)}(0)$, $f^{(2)}(0)$, ..., are not defined, the Maclaurin approach won't work

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$

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- Since, f(0), $f^{(1)}(0)$, $f^{(2)}(0)$, ..., are not defined, the Maclaurin approach won't work
- Instead, find Taylor expansion about some $x \in \mathbb{R}$, in a neighborhood of which $f^{(n)}(x)$ is defined for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, say x = 1

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

Expanding $\log x$ about x = 1 yields

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

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

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

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

• How about the radius of convergence?

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$$\frac{1}{(1/n)^{1/n}} = n^{1/n} \to 1 \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty$$

• For what values of x, does the series converge?

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

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• For what values of x, does the series converge?

$$|x-1| < 1$$
 i.e., $0 < x < 2$

Introduction

Proof of Taylor's Theorem

Applications

i.e., $x \rightarrow x + 1$, to get

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

• Now, shift the graph of log x to the left by 1 unit,

$$\log(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n}; \quad -1 < x < 1$$

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

• Now, shift the graph of log x to the left by 1 unit, i.e., $x \rightarrow x + 1$, to get

$$\log(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n}; \quad -1 < x < 1$$

• Thus for |-1 < x < 1|, we have

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

Introduction

The natural logarithm function $f(x) = \log x$ contd. ...

• Substituting x by -x, yields (note that $x \in (-1,1) \Leftrightarrow -x \in (-1,1)$ so that, the formula remains valid)

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

Abel's Theorem

Theorem (Abel)

Suppose, a power series $\sum_{n} a_{n} x^{n} \setminus_{\iota} to f(x)$ in (-1,1), that is

$$f(x) = \sum a_n x^n \quad for \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

If $\sum_{n} a_n < \infty$, then f(x) is continuous (from left) at x = 1. That is, if we set $f(1) = \sum_{n} a_n$, then $f(1) = \lim_{x \to 1} f(x)$. More precisely,

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \sum_{n} a_n x^n = \sum_{n} \left(\lim_{x \to 1} (a_n x^n) \right)$$

An Application of Abel's Theorem

• Note that, by *Leibniz test*, we have

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

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• Thus, upon applying Abel's Theorem to the function log(1+x), we find that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left(\log(1+x) \right) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots,$$

An Application of Abel's Theorem

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• Thus, upon applying Abel's Theorem to the function log(1+x), we find that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left(\log(1+x) \right) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots,$$

That is

$$\log 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}/$

• Write $f(x) = \exp(\alpha \log(1+x))$

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- Write $f(x) = \exp(\alpha \log(1+x))$
- Differentiate once to get

$$f^{(1)}(x) = \exp\left(\alpha \log(1+x)\right) \frac{\alpha}{1+x} = \frac{\alpha}{1+x} \cdot f(x)$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}/$

- Write $f(x) = \exp(\alpha \log(1+x))$
- Differentiate once to get

$$f^{(1)}(x) = \exp\left(\alpha \log(1+x)\right) \frac{\alpha}{1+x} = \frac{\alpha}{1+x} \cdot f(x)$$

Therefore

$$f^{(1)}(x) = \alpha (1+x)^{\alpha-1} = \alpha \exp((\alpha-1)\log(1+x))$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

• After repeating *n* times, we have

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \alpha(\alpha - 1) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)(1 + x)^{\alpha - n}$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

• After repeating *n* times, we have

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \alpha(\alpha - 1) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)(1 + x)^{\alpha - n}$$

• Thus, $f^{(n)}(0)$ exists for all n, and

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)f(0)$$
$$= \alpha(\alpha - 1)(\alpha - 2) \cdots (\alpha - n + 1)$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

• Therefore the Maclaurin expansion for f(x) is given by

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

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

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- How about the radius of Convergence?
- Let us try the ratio Test this time

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

Apply Ratio Test to

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

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1+x)^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

Apply Ratio Test to

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

• The radius of convergence is given by

$$\frac{1}{R} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|\alpha - n|}{n+1} = 1$$

The Binomial Function $f(x) = (1 + \underline{x})^{\alpha}$; $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

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Introduction

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 for any $n > \alpha$

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• In that event, use root rest to deduce that

$$\frac{1}{R} = \lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = 0.$$

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Thus

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

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• Where the radius of convergence *R* is given by

$$R = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } \alpha \text{ is a nonnegative integer} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Differentiation and Integration Rules

Theorem (Friendly Theorem)

For

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} a_n x^n; \quad -R < x < R,$$

we have

$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)) = \sum_{n} n \, a_n x^{n-1}; \quad x \in (-R, R)$$

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$$\frac{d}{dx}(f(x)) = \sum n a_n x^{n-1}; \quad x \in (-R, R)$$

That is to say that

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sum_{n}a_{n}x^{n} = \sum_{n}\frac{d}{dx}(a_{n}x^{n}); \quad x \in (-R,R)$$

Differentiation and Integration Rules

Theorem (Friendly Theorem Contd. ...)

Moreover, for any x in (-R,R)

$$\int_0^x f(t)dt = \sum_n \frac{a_n}{n+1} x^n$$

Differentiation and Integration Rules

Theorem (Friendly Theorem Contd. ...)

Moreover, for any x in (-R,R)

$$\int_0^x f(t)dt = \sum_n \frac{a_n}{n+1} x^n$$

That is

$$\int_0^x \left(\sum_n a_n t^n\right) dt = \sum_n \int_0^x (a_n t^n) dt.$$

Problem 1.

Using the geometric series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots; \quad -1 < x < 1,$$

find Maclaurin expansions and the domain of validity for

$$\log(1-x)$$
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Hint: Friendly Theorem allows us to differentiate and integrate the series *term by term* within (-1,1)

Problem 2.

Use the Maclaurin expansion of $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$, to find that of arctan x. Describe its interval of convergence. Now, deduce that

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Hint: Use Leibniz test and Abel's Theorem

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expressing your answer in up to 5 decimal places. Is it possible to give an error for your application?

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Hint: Routine application of truncated Taylor expansion and Lagrange's remainder formula

Problem 4.

Let

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

Using Maclaurin expansion, evaluate $f^{(5)}(0)$. You must justify your answer.

Problem 5.

Show that the number *e* (base of ln) is irrational.

Upcoming Lecture

- Discuss solutions to the 5 problems
- Introduction to the theory of *sequences and series of functions*