Power Series

A power series centered at *c* is an infinite series of the form

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-c)^n = a_0 + a_1 (x-c) + a_2 (x-c)^2 + a_3 (x-c)^3 + \dots + a_n (x-c)^n + \dots$$
 (1)

Some notes:

- What's new is that, not only does a base sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots get used to build an infinite series, but the size of each term is tempered by a power of (x a). This means the series is not one fixed sum, but a different sum for every choice of x. Correspondingly, the question is no longer "Does the series converge?", but "Does it converge at this x?," or "At which choices of x does it converge?"
- The series always converges "at the center"—that is, at x = c.
- The phrase "centered at c" is reminiscent of Taylor polynomials. Recall that, when we begin with a sufficiently differentiable function f(x) and a center c, we generate Taylor polynomials

$$T_n(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{f^{(j)}(c)}{j!} = f(c) + f'(c)(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x-c)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}(x-c)^n.$$

Indeed, if *f* is differentiable at *c* to all orders, the extension of these Taylor polynomials is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} = f(c) + f'(c)(x-c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x-c)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}(x-c)^n + \dots,$$

called the Taylor series of *f* centered at *c*. This is one way that power series arise.

- Suppose each $a_n \ge 0$. In that instance, if x > c, then the terms of the series F(x) are all positive. This leads to the observations that, if $x_2 > x_1 > c$ and the series $F(x_2)$ converges, then
 - \circ $F(x_1)$ converges, by the direct comparison test, and
 - ∘ $F(c-(x_1-c)) = a_0 a_1(x_1-c) + a_2(x_1-c)^2 a_3(x_1-c)^3 + \cdots$ converges, by the absolute convergence test. (Draw picture)

Though the situation is a little more difficult to analyze when not all $a_n \ge 0$, even then it can be proved that one of the following situations must hold for (1):

- 1. F(x) converges only when x = c and at no other location.
- 2. There exists a positive number R such that F(x) converges when |x-c| < R and diverges when |x-c| > R. In this instance, the **interval of convergence** is one of (c-R,c+R) (open at both endpoints), [c-R,c+R), (c-R,c+R), or [c-R,c+R].

3. F(x) converges for all real x. That is, the interval of convergence is $(-\infty, \infty)$.

The number R in Situation 2 is called the **radius of convergence**. It makes sense in Situation 1 to say R = 0, and in Situation 3 to say $R = +\infty$.

We often determine the radius of convergence using the ratio test. This differs from the use of ratio test in Section 11.5 in that consecutive terms include powers of (x - c):

rato of consecutive terms
$$= \left| \frac{a_{n+1}(x-c)^{n+1}}{a_n(x-c)^n} \right| = \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| \cdot |x-c|.$$

It is this quantity whose limit, as $n \to \infty$, we label ρ .

Example 1:

Find the interval and radius of convergence for the given power series.

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

$$2. \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$3. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n3^n \sqrt{n}}$$

4.
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x+1)^{2n}}{4^n}$$

A power series can be differentiated/antidifferentiated just like a polynomial—term-by-term; its radius of convergence does not change, though the inclusion of one endpoint or the other in the interval of convergence may change. This is the content of Theorem 2 on p. 573.

Some mileage can be made out of the sum of a geometric series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n + \dots, \qquad -1 < x < 1.$$
 (2)

Example 2:

- 1. Substitute into (2) the following "values" to see how the series changes, and the new radius of convergence.
 - \bullet (2x)
 - (x-1)

- (5-3x)
- \bullet (-x)
- $(-x^2)$
- 2. Find a power series centered at 0 which equals 2x/(1-3x). What is this power series' radius of convergence?
- 3. Find a power series centered at 0 which equals $\arctan x$. What is this power series' radius of convergence?
- 4. What power series centered at 0 results from differentiating 1/(1-x)?

Example 3:

Find a power series centered at 0 associated with $ln(5 + x^4)$.

Answer: We have that $d/dx \ln(5 + x^4) = \frac{4x^3}{5+x^4}$. Working with this derivative, we have

$$\frac{4x^3}{5+x^4} = \frac{4x^3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{1+x^4/5} = \frac{4x^3}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{1-(-x^4/5)} \qquad (1/(1-r), \text{ with } r = -x^4/5)$$

$$= \frac{4x^3}{5} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{x^4}{5}\right)^n = \frac{4x^3}{5} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{4n}}{5^n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{4x^{4n+3}}{5^{n+1}} = \frac{4}{5}x^3 - \frac{4}{25}x^7 + \frac{4}{125}x^{11} - \cdots$$

This series converges when

$$|r| = \left| -\frac{x^4}{5} \right| < 1 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad |x| < \sqrt[4]{5}.$$

Now, $\ln(5+x^4)$ is an antiderivative of $4x^3/(5+x^4)$, and by Theorem 2 on p. 573 all antiderivatives of the latter (at least in the interval $(-\sqrt[4]{5}, \sqrt[4]{5})$) have the power series representation

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int (-1)^n \frac{4x^{4n+3}}{5^{n+1}} dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{4x^{4n+4}}{(4n+4)5^{n+1}} = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{4n+4}}{(n+1)5^{n+1}}.$$

Example 4:

Find a power series centered at 3 for 1/(1+x), and determine its radius of convergence.

Answer: We want to manipulate 1/(1+x) so that some multiple of (x-3) is subtracted from

1 in the denominator.

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{4+x-3} = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1-(-1)(x-3)/4} \qquad (1/(1-r) \text{ with } r = (x-3)/(-4))$$
$$= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{x-3}{4}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(x-3)^n}{4^{n+1}}.$$

This power series converges for

$$|r| = \left| -\frac{x-3}{4} \right| < 1 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad |x-3| < 4,$$

that is, when the distance from *x* to the center at 3 does not exceed 4. Thus, the radius of convergence is 4.