

## Lecture 6 :

Note Title

11/28/2021

Power series and radius of convergence of power series.

Theorem: (Term by term differentiation of power series):

A power series can be differentiated term by term within the interval of convergence. In fact, if

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  has radius of convergence  $R$ , then

the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  is  $R$ .

Also, if  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ ,  $|x| < R$ , then  $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  for  $|x| < R$ .

Proof: ①  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  have same radius of convergence.

We have  $\limsup \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \beta$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also, } \limsup \sqrt[n]{|n a_n|} &= \limsup \left( \sqrt[n]{n} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \right) \\ &= \limsup \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \beta. \end{aligned}$$

However, to prove that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  converges to  $f'(x)$  whenever  $|x| < R$  requires another concept called "uniform convergence" which is beyond the scope of this course. #

### Taylor's Series:

If a function  $f$  has derivatives of all orders at a point  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , then we can calculate the Taylor coefficients by

$$a_0 = f(c), \quad a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

In this way, we obtain a power series

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

This series is called the Taylor's series of  $f$  at  $c$ .

$$f^{(0)}(c) = f(c)$$

The Taylor series of a function  $f$  at  $c=0$  is known as Maclaurin's series.

Convergence of Taylor series: Let the power series

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$  have radius of convergence  $R$   
Then.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$  converges to  $f(x)$  for  $|x-c| < R$

if and only if the sequence  $(R_n(x))$  of remainders converges to 0 for each  $x$  in  $|x-c| < R$ .

Proof:  $f$  has a derivatives of all orders at  $c$ .

$$f(x) = T_1(x) + R_1(x)$$

$$= T_2(x) + R_2(x)$$

$\vdots$

$$= T_n(x) + R_n(x)$$

$\vdots$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$$

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(x) \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \text{ s.t. } |x-c| < R.$$

Example: The Maclaurin series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}$  of  $\sin x$  converges to  $\sin x \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Soln: Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ .

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is infinitely differentiable.

$$f^{(2n-1)}(x) = (-1)^{n+1} \cos x, \quad f^{(2n)}(x) = (-1)^n \sin x \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} f^{(2n-1)}(0) = (-1)^{n+1} \\ f^{(2n)}(0) = 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Hence, the Maclaurin series of  $\sin x$  is the series

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

Radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}$

$$x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(2n-1)!}, \text{ so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(2n-1)!}{(2n+1)!} = 0.$$

$\therefore \beta = 0 \Rightarrow$  Radius of convergence,  $R = \frac{1}{\beta} = \infty$ .

$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}$  converges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

[This conclusion holds even though the series is  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^{2n-1}$  instead of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ .]

Now we prove that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!}$  converges to  $\sin x$   
 $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

To prove this, we have to prove that the sequence  $(R_n(x))$  of remainders converges to 0  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

For  $x=0$ , the Maclaurin series of  $\sin x$

becomes  $0 - 0 + \dots$ , which clearly converges to  $\sin 0 = 0$ .

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x \neq 0$ . The remainder term in Taylor expansion of  $\sin x$  about the point  $c=0$  is given by  $R_n(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} f^{(n+1)}(c_n)$ , where  $c_n$  lies between 0 and  $x$ .



Since  $|\sin c_n| \leq 1$  and  $|\cos c_n| \leq 1$ , so  $|f^{(n+1)}(c_n)| \leq 1$ .

$$\Rightarrow |R_n(x)| \leq \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$\therefore$  The Maclaurin series of  $\sin x$  converges to  $\sin x$ .

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$$b_n = \frac{|x|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

$$\frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} = \frac{|x|^{n+2}}{(n+2)!} \frac{(n+1)!}{|x|^{n+1}}$$

$$= \frac{|x|}{n+2}$$
$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} \right| = 0 < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0.$$

Example: Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

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

Then,  $f$  is differentiable any number of times, and that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence, in a neighborhood of 0, the Maclaurin series of  $f$  is identically zero. But, the function takes non-zero value at  $x \neq 0$ . Thus, the Maclaurin series of  $f$  does not

converge to  $f$  for  $x \neq 0$ .

The reason is that the sequence of remainder terms  $(R_n(x))$  does not converge to 0 for any  $x \neq 0$ .

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