Always have a radius of convergence R.

If x is in (c-R, c+R) them F(x) converges.

How to find R:

1. Use ratio test.

2. Look at the endpoints.

Geometric series $\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c^{n} = \frac{1}{1-c} \text{ for } 107(1) \text{ have been useful. Now:} \right)$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n} = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1.$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n} = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1.$$

$$|x| < 1$$

Has condits of convergence 1=R.

Geometric series. Within the radius of convergence, this behaves like ~

polynomial.

Example: Find the radius of convergence of Z= 2"x".

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^{n} \times^{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2 \cdot x)^{n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y^{n} = \frac{1}{1-y} = \frac{1}{1-2x} \quad |x| < \frac{1}{2}$$

$$|y| < 1$$

$$y = 2x$$

$$|x| < \frac{1}{2}$$

Also for
$$x = \pm \frac{1}{2}$$
 then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n x^n$ diverges.

So
$$R = \frac{1}{2}$$
 is the radius of convergence.

Example: Find a power series F(x) and a radius of convergence R such that

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2+x^2} \quad \text{for } 1 \times 1 < R.$$
the center is $c = 0$.

Nate:

$$\frac{1}{2+x^{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\frac{x^{2}}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1-\left(\frac{-x^{2}}{2}\right)}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1-y} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y^{n} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{-x^{2}}{2}\right)^{n} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-1\right)^{n} \cdot \frac{x^{2n}}{2^{n}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-1\right)^{n} \cdot \frac{x^{2n}}{2^{n+1}} \quad \text{for } 1 \times 1 < 12.$$

$$1y_{1} < 1 \quad \left|\frac{-x^{2}}{2}\right| < 1 \quad \frac{|x^{2}|}{2} < 1 \quad |x|^{2} < 2 \quad |x| < 12.$$

Term by term differentiation and integration:

Then Fix) is differentiable:

$$F'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u \cdot au \cdot (x-c)^{n-1}$$
 with radius of convergence R.

Than Fixi is integrable:

Example: Find a power series F(x) and a radius of convergence R such that

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} \quad \text{for } \underline{1x1(R)}$$

$$\text{center } c = 0.$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x}$$
 has differential $\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$

FOR
$$|x| < 1$$
 we have $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$, so:

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{1-x} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left(x^n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w \cdot x^{n-1}.$$

So for IXICI then:

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w \cdot x^{n-1}.$$

Exercise: Do this for arctan(x).

Hint 4:
$$\arctan(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots$$
 1x1<1.

As long as we are inside the radius of convergence, power series behave like

polynomials: we can add them, we can unliply them, we can evaluate them

(Fix) is convergent), we can take derivatives, we can take integrals.

Section 11.7.: Taylor series.

Taylor polynomials approximated functions using derivatives.

fix) Tu(x)

Taylor series: approximation using all the derivatives. g(x)

 $T(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g_{n}(c)}{n!} \cdot (x-c)^{n}$

It will have some radius of convergence R, so T(x) will converge for 1x-c1<R.

This will work lest when g(x) can be written as a power series contered at c.

If fix) can be written as a power series, then Tin) will be that power series.

Question: For all functions f(x) there is a u such that Tu(x) = f(x).

Question: For all functions g(x) there is a power series F(x) such that

F(x) = f(x). Spoiler: $f(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$ around c = 0.

Compute Tu(x) for all u.

Compute its Taylor series.

Example: Find the Taylor series of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$ at c = 1. $T(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g_n^{(n)}}{n!} \cdot (x-c)^n$

$$\int_{0}^{1} (x) = \frac{-3}{x^{4}} \qquad \int_{0}^{\infty} (x) = \frac{3 \cdot 4}{x^{5}} \qquad \int_{0}^{\infty} (x) = \frac{-3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}{x^{6}} \quad , \dots, \quad \int_{0}^{\infty} (x) = (-1) \cdot \frac{x}{3} \cdot 4 \cdots (\omega + 2)}{x^{m+3}}$$

$$3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 \cdots (u+2) = \frac{(u+2)!}{2}$$
 $(u+2)! = (u+2) \cdot (u+1) \cdots 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2$

$$\begin{cases} (1) = (-1)^{n} \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots (n+2) = (-1)^{n} \cdot \frac{2}{(n+2)!} \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\int_{-\infty}^{(n)} (1)}{n!} = (-1)^n \cdot \frac{(n+2)!}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{n!} = \frac{(-1)^n}{2!} \cdot \frac{(n+2)(n+1) \cdot n!}{2!} = \frac{(-1)^n}{2!} \cdot \frac{(n+2)(n+1)}{2!}$$

$$(n+s)$$
 ; = $(n+s)\cdot(n+r)\cdot n$;

So the Taylor series of
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$$
 around $c = 1$ is:

$$T(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{p} (-1)^{x} \frac{(x+2)(x+1)}{2} \cdot (x-1)^{x}$$

Let I = (c-R, c+R), R>0, and a K>0 such that $|j_{(x)}^{(n)}| \le K$ for all radius of convergence

u and 1x-c1 (R. Then f(x) equals its Taylor series for 1x-c1 < R.

T(x) cowerges and T(x)= f(x) for x in (c-R, c+R).