

Calculus II

Lecture 19

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Outline

- 1 Power Series
- 2 Power Series as Functions
 - Differentiation and Integration of Power Series
- 3 Taylor and Maclaurin Series

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Power Series

Definition (Power Series)

A power series is a series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \dots$$

where x is a variable and the c_n 's are constants called the coefficients of the series.

- For each fixed x , this is a series of constants which either converges or diverges.
- A power series might converge for some values of x and diverge for others.
- The sum of the series is a function

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + c_3 x^3 + \dots$$

whose domain is the set of all x for which the series converges.

- f resembles a polynomial, except it has infinitely many terms.

Definition (Power Series Centered at a)

A series of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + c_3(x-a)^3 + \cdots$$

is called a power series centered at a or a power series about a or a power series in $(x-a)$.

- We use the convention that $(x-a)^0 = 1$, even if $x = a$.
- If $x = a$, then all terms are 0 for $n \geq 1$, so the series always converges when $x = a$.

Example

For what values of x is the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!x^n$ convergent?

- Use the Ratio Test.
- The n th term is $a_n = n!x^n$.
- If $x \neq 0$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!x^{n+1}}{n!x^n} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1)|x| \\ &= \infty\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore by the Ratio Test the series diverges for all $x \neq 0$.
- Therefore the series only converges for $x = 0$.

Example

Find the domain of the Bessel function of order 0 defined by

$$J_0(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n} (n!)^2}$$

- The n th term is $a_n = \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n} (n!)^2}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{2(n+1)}}{2^{2(n+1)} [(n+1)!]^2} \cdot \frac{2^{2n} (n!)^2}{(-1)^n x^{2n}} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{4(n+1)^2} = 0 < 1 \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore by the Ratio Test the series converges for all x .
- Therefore the domain of the function is $(-\infty, \infty)$, or \mathbb{R} .

Example

For what values of x is the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$ convergent?

- Use the Ratio Test.
- The n th term is $a_n = \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x-3)^{n+1}}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{(x-3)^n} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x-3| \frac{n}{n+1} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x-3| \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n}} = |x-3| \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore by the Ratio Test the series converges absolutely if $|x-3| < 1$ and diverges if $|x-3| > 1$.

$$|x-3| < 1 \iff -1 < x-3 < 1 \iff 2 < x < 4$$

- If we put $x = 4$ in the series, we get $\sum \frac{1}{n}$, which is divergent.
- If we put $x = 2$ in the series, we get $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$, which is convergent.
- The series converges if $2 \leq x < 4$ and diverges otherwise.

Theorem (Convergence of Power Series)

For a power series $\sum c_n(x - a)^n$, there are three possibilities:

- 1 *The series converges only when $x = a$.*
- 2 *The series converges for all x .*
- 3 *There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x - a| < R$ and diverges if $|x - a| > R$.*

Definition (Radius of Convergence)

The number R in case three of the theorem is called the radius of convergence of the power series.

- 1 In the first case, we say $R = 0$.
- 2 In the second case, we say $R = \infty$.

Theorem (Convergence of Power Series)

For a power series $\sum c_n(x - a)^n$, there are three possibilities:

- 1 *The series converges only when $x = a$.*
- 2 *The series converges for all x .*
- 3 *There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x - a| < R$ and diverges if $|x - a| > R$.*

Definition (Interval of Convergence)

The interval of convergence of a power series is the interval consisting of all numbers x for which the series converges.

- 1 In the first case, the interval contains the single point a .
- 2 In the second case, the interval is $(-\infty, \infty)$.
- 3 In the third case, the inequality $|x - a| < R$ can be rewritten $a - R < x < a + R$.

What happens at the endpoints of the interval $a - R < x < a + R$?

- Anything can happen.
- The series might converge at one endpoint.
- The series might converge at both endpoints.
- The series might diverge at both endpoints.
- Thus we have four possibilities for the endpoints.
 - 1 $[a - R, a + R)$
 - 2 $(a - R, a + R]$
 - 3 $[a - R, a + R]$
 - 4 $(a - R, a + R)$
- In general, the Ratio Test (or Root Test) should be used to find the radius of convergence R .
- The Ratio and Root Tests will always fail when x is an endpoint $a - R$ or $a + R$, so the endpoints must be checked with another test.

Example

Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^n x^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-3)^{n+1} x^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n+2}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{(-3)^n x^n} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3|x| \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3|x| \sqrt{\frac{1 + \frac{1}{n}}{1 + \frac{2}{n}}} = 3|x|\end{aligned}$$

- Ratio Test: it converges if $3|x| < 1$ and diverges if $3|x| > 1$.
- So it converges if $|x| < \frac{1}{3}$ and diverges if $|x| > \frac{1}{3}$.
- Therefore $R = \frac{1}{3}$.
- If we use $x = \frac{1}{3}$, we get $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\sqrt{n+1}}$, which is convergent.
- If we use $x = -\frac{1}{3}$, we get $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$, which is divergent.
- The interval of convergence is $(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}]$.

Representations of Functions as Power Series

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$$

- This is a geometric series with $a = 1$ and $r = x$.
- It is convergent if $|x| < 1$ and divergent otherwise.
- If convergent, the sum is $\frac{1}{1-x}$.
- The domain of $g(x)$ is $|x| < 1$.
- The domain of $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ is $x \neq 1$.
- In this way $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ is a new way to compute/expresses the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$ for $|x| < 1$.
- Except for their domains, the functions $g(x)$ and $f(x)$ coincide.

Recall the geometric series formula:

$$\frac{1}{1-y} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y^n = 1 + y + y^2 + y^3 + \dots \quad \text{if \& only if } |y| < 1.$$

Example

Write $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ as a power series and find the interval of convergence.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1+x^2} &= \frac{1}{1-(-x^2)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n && \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{if \& only if} \\ |-x^2| < 1 \end{array} \right. \\ &= 1 + (-x^2) + (-x^2)^2 + (-x^2)^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} \end{aligned}$$

- This converges if and only if $\left| \begin{array}{l} |-x^2| < 1 \\ |x| < 1 \end{array} \right.$.
- Therefore the interval of convergence is $x \in (-1, 1)$.

Example

Find a power series representation for $\frac{1}{x+2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{2+x} &= \frac{1}{2\left(1+\frac{x}{2}\right)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\left(1-\left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)\right)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)^n \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{if \& only if} \\ \left|-\frac{x}{2}\right| < 1 \end{array} \right. \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^n \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x}{4} + \frac{x^2}{8} - \frac{x^3}{16} + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

To find interval of convergence:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left|-\frac{x}{2}\right| &< 1 \\
 |x| &< 2
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the interval of convergence is $x \in (-2, 2)$.

Example

Find a power series representation for $\frac{x^3}{x+2}$.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{x^3}{x+2} &= x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{x+2} \\ &= x^3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^n && \left| \text{if \& only if } |x| < 2 \right. \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^{n+1}} x^{n+3} \\ &= \frac{x^3}{2} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{8} - \frac{x^6}{16} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

- Another way to write this is $\frac{x^3}{x+2} = \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{2^{n-2}} x^n$.
- The interval of convergence is again $x \in (-2, 2)$.

Differentiation and Integration of Power Series

Theorem (Differentiation and Integration of Power Series)

If a power series $\sum c_n(x - a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, then the function f defined by

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x - a) + c_2(x - a)^2 + c_3(x - a)^3 + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x - a)^n$$

is differentiable (and therefore continuous) on the interval $(a - R, a + R)$ and

$$\textcircled{1} \quad f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x - a) + 3c_3(x - a)^2 + \cdots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nc_n(x - a)^{n-1}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{2} \quad \int f(x) \, dx &= C + c_0(x - a) + c_1 \frac{(x - a)^2}{2} + c_2 \frac{(x - a)^3}{3} + \cdots \\ &= C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(x - a)^{n+1}}{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

- This is called term-by-term differentiation and integration.
- Another way of saying it is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right] &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} [c_n (x-a)^n] \\ \int \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right] dx &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int [c_n (x-a)^n] dx\end{aligned}$$

- We can treat power series like polynomials with infinitely many terms.

Example

Find the derivative of the Bessel function

$$\begin{aligned}J_0(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} \\J'_0(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} \right) \\&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n 2n x^{2n-1}}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}\end{aligned}$$

- $J_0(x)$ is defined everywhere.
- Therefore its derivative $J'_0(x)$ is also defined everywhere.

Example

Find a power series for $\ln(1 - x)$ and state its radius of convergence.

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(1 - x) &= \int d(\ln(1 - x)) = \int (\ln(1 - x))' dx && \left| \text{up to const.} \right. \\ &= \int \left(-\frac{1}{1 - x} \right) dx \\ &= - \int \left(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \right) dx && \left| \text{for } |x| < 1 \right. \\ &= - \left(x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \right) + C \\ &= C - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}\end{aligned}$$

- To find C , plug in $x = 0$: $C = 0$.
- Therefore the theorem on integrating power series implies that

$$\ln(1 - x) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}, \text{ for } |x| < 1.$$

- By the same theorem, the radius of convergence remains $R = 1$.

Example

Find a power series for $\arctan x$ and state its radius of convergence.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \arctan(x) &= \int d(\arctan x) = \int (\arctan x)' dx && \left| \text{up to const.} \right. \\
 &= \int \left(\frac{1}{1+x^2} \right) dx = \int \left(\frac{1}{1-(-x^2)} \right) dx \\
 &= \int (1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots) dx && \left| \text{for } |x| < 1 \right. \\
 &= \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots \right) + C \\
 &= C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}
 \end{aligned}$$

- To find C , plug in $x = 0$: $C = 0$.
- Therefore the theorem on integrating power series implies that

$$\arctan x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}, \text{ for } |x| < 1.$$

- By the same theorem, the radius of convergence remains $R = 1$.

Taylor and Maclaurin Series

- Let f be a function that can be represented by a power series:
- $f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x - a) + c_2(x - a)^2 + c_3(x - a)^3 + \dots$
- $f(a) = c_0$.
- $f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x - a) + 3c_3(x - a)^2 + 4c_4(x - a)^3 + \dots$
- $f'(a) = c_1$.
- $f''(x) = 2c_2 + 2 \cdot 3c_3(x - a) + 3 \cdot 4c_4(x - a)^2 + 4 \cdot 5c_5(x - a)^3 + \dots$
- $f''(a) = 2c_2$.
- $f'''(x) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 + 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4c_4(x - a) + 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5c_5(x - a)^2 + \dots$
- $f'''(a) = 2 \cdot 3c_3 = 3!c_3$.
- $f^{(n)}(a) = n!c_n$.
- Therefore $c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}$.

Theorem (Coefficients of a Power Series)

If f has a power series representation at a , that is, if

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n, \quad |x-a| < R,$$

then its coefficients are given by the formula

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}.$$

Here is what we get if we plug these coefficients into the power series:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n \\ &= f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!} (x-a)^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Definition (Taylor Series)

This series is called the Taylor series of f .

The case when $a = 0$ is special enough to have its own name:

Definition (Maclaurin Series)

The Maclaurin series of f is the Taylor series of f centered at $a = 0$. In other words, it is the series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!} x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!} x^3 + \dots$$

Example

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

- $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$.
- $f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1$.
- Therefore the Maclaurin series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

- To find the radius of convergence, let $a_n = \frac{x^n}{n!}$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x|}{n+1} = 0 < 1$$

- Therefore by the Ratio Test the series converges for all x .
- Therefore $R = \infty$.

Example

Find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2^n n!} = 1 - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 1!} + \frac{1}{4 \cdot 2!} - \frac{1}{8 \cdot 3!} + \dots$$

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{2^n n!} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \\ &= e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{e}} \end{aligned}$$

Example

Find the Taylor series for $f(x) = e^x$ at $a = 3$.

- $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$.
- $f^{(n)}(3) = e^3$.
- Therefore the Taylor series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(3)}{n!} (x-3)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^3}{n!} (x-3)^n$$

- To find the radius of convergence, let $a_n = \frac{e^3}{n!} (x-3)^n$.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{e^3 (x-3)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{e^3 (x-3)^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x-3|}{n+1} = 0$$

- Therefore by the Ratio Test the series converges for all x .
- Therefore $R = \infty$.
- Just like the Maclaurin series, this series also represents e^x .

Example

Find the Taylor series for $f(x) = e^x$ at $a = 3$.

$$\begin{aligned} e^x &= e^{x-3+3} = e^3 e^{x-3} \\ &= e^3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n!} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^3}{n!} (x-3)^n \end{aligned} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{Recall that } e^y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{y^n}{n!} \\ \text{Set } y = x - 3 \end{array} \right.$$

The radius of convergence was already computed to be $R = \infty$.

Example

Find the Maclaurin series of $f(x) = \sin x$ and its radius of convergence.

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 f(x) &= \sin x & f(0) &= 0 \\
 f'(x) &= \cos x & f'(0) &= 1 \\
 f''(x) &= -\sin x & f''(0) &= 0 \\
 f'''(x) &= -\cos x & f'''(0) &= -1 \\
 f^{(4)}(x) &= \sin x & f^{(4)}(0) &= 0
 \end{array}$$

The Maclaurin series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

Use the Ratio Test to find R .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{2n+3}}{(2n+3)!} \cdot \frac{(2n+1)!}{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}} \right| \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{(2n+2)(2n+3)} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $R = \infty$. It can be shown that this series sums to $\sin x$.

Example

Find the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\pi^{2n+1}}{2^{2n+1} (2n+1)!} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi^3}{8 \cdot 3!} + \frac{\pi^5}{32 \cdot 5!} - \frac{\pi^7}{128 \cdot 7!} + \dots$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\pi^{2n+1}}{2^{2n+1} (2n+1)!} &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{(2n+1)!} \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{2n+1} \\ &= \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example

Find the Maclaurin series for $\cos x$.

$$\begin{aligned}\cos x &= \frac{d}{dx} (\sin x) \\&= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \right) \\&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left((-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \right) \\&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!} \\&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\&= 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots\end{aligned}$$

The series for $\sin x$ converges everywhere, so the series for $\cos x$ does too.

Example

Find the Maclaurin series for $x \cos x$.

$$\begin{aligned}x \cos x &= x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\&= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n)!} \\&= x - \frac{x^3}{2!} + \frac{x^5}{4!} - \frac{x^7}{6!} + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

Here is a table of some important Maclaurin series we have learned:

Function	Series	R
$\frac{1}{1-x}$	$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$	1
$\arctan x$	$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots$	1
e^x	$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$	∞
$\sin x$	$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$	∞
$\cos x$	$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$	∞

Example

Use a power series to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2}$.

$$\begin{aligned} e^x &= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \\ e^x - 1 - x &= \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots \\ \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2} &= \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{x}{3!} + \frac{x^2}{4!} + \dots \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{3!} + \frac{x^2}{4!} + \dots \right) = \frac{1}{2} . \end{aligned}$$

Example

Use a power series to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x^3}$.

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$$

$$-\sin x = -x + \frac{x^3}{3!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} - \dots$$

$$x - \sin x = \frac{x^3}{3!} - \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} - \dots$$

$$\frac{x - \sin x}{x^3} = \frac{1}{3!} - \frac{x^2}{5!} + \frac{x^4}{7!} - \dots$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{6} - \frac{x^2}{5!} + \frac{x^4}{7!} - \dots \right) = \frac{1}{6}$$