

Today, we keep looking at convergence of series, but this time, we will consider series like functions, allowing differentiation and integration.

More precisely, we

- present one more test for convergence (ratio test)
- learn about radius of convergence of series
- and - within radius of convergence, we differentiate and integrate the series, regarded as functions.

Theorem (Ratio test)

- If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$, the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.
- If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| > 1$ (or if it is infinite), the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.
- If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 1$, the Ratio Test is inconclusive.

Example (Geometric series)

Using the ratio test, we can prove that geometric series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$ converges if and only if $-1 < r < 1$.

Example

Does the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{3^n}$ converge?

2 min
by themselves

Using the ratio test:

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

That series converges.

Example

Does the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converge?

1 min

Using the ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{(n+1)^2}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{(n+1)^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{n^2 + 2n + 1} = 1.$$

The test is inconclusive. (However, the answer is yes).

Convergence of power series

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Definition

A power series is a series of the form

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

coefficients \rightarrow variable x

More generally, a power series centered at a is

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

Example

Geometric series, when all coefficients are 1, are evaluations of $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ in $x=r$.

We then say that the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ converges when $|x| < 1$, or in a radius 1 from 0.

Theorem Convergence of power series.

For a given power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$, there are only 3 possibilities

- The series converges only at $x=a$.
- The series converges for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- There is a positive number R such that the series converges if $|x-a| < R$ and diverges if $|x-a| > R$.

Such a number R is the radius of convergence, and the interval of convergence, is the set of all values of x for which the series converges.

Examples

(4)

- Geometric series

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ has a radius of convergence of 1, and its interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$.

- The series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! x^n$ is a power series that converges only for $x=0$, and has thus a radius of convergence of 0.

- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-3)^n}{n}$ has a radius of convergence of 1 (that can be seen through to the ratio test), and an interval of convergence of $[2, 4)$

- $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x}{n!}$ has a radius of convergence of size ∞ , and its interval of convergence is $(-\infty, \infty)$.

Reference: James STEWART, Calculus, 8th edition.
Sections 11.2, 11.6 and 11.8.

How do we find power series?

- When they are not hard to compute, Taylor series are great.
- Sometimes, derivatives and integrals can be more useful.

Theorem (term-by-term differentiation and integration)

If the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$ has radius of convergence $R > 0$, the function f defined by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n$$

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

$$(i) f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a)^2 + 3c_3(x-a)^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n (x-a)^{n-1}$$

$$(ii) \int f(x) dx = C + c_0(x-a) + \frac{c_1(x-a)^2}{2} + \frac{c_2(x-a)^3}{3} + \dots$$

$$= C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

The radii of convergence of the power series in (i) and (ii) are both R .

Question: What is a power series for $\ln(x)$, $0 < x < 2$? 6

Solution: We know that $(\ln(x))' = \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{1-(1-x)}$.

We also know that $\frac{1}{1-(1-x)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$ when $|1-x| < 1$

(i.e. when $0 < x < 2$)
Hence, by the term-by-term differentiation theorem,

$$\ln(x) = \int \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n dx$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int (1-x)^n dx \quad \text{when } 0 < x < 2.$$

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

To find the value of C , we look at one precise value of x (here $x=1$):

$$\ln(1) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{-(1-1)^{n+1}}{n+1} + C = C,$$

which means $C=0$.

Question: Can you find the 7th Taylor polynomial of $\tan^{-1}(x)$ at $a=0$?
or $\arctan(x)$

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Doing the regular way for Taylor polynomials, we would get the following:

$$f(x) = \tan(x)$$

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

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

$$f'''(x) = \frac{-2(1+x^2) - 4x^2}{(1+x^2)^3}$$

Explanation of $f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$:

$$\arctan(x) = y$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = \tan(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow (x)' = (\tan(y))'$$

$$\Rightarrow (= \sec^2(y) \cdot y')$$

$$\Rightarrow (= (1+x^2) \cdot y')$$

$$\Rightarrow y' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$



(deduced from $x = \tan(y)$.)

Of course, many things cancel each other out, but it still seems painful! And we are not still close to the 7th Taylor polynomial!

Using the theorem,

$$\tan^{-1}(x) = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n dx$$

because this is a geometric series.

$$= \int (1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + x^8 - x^{10} + \dots) dx$$

expansion

$$= C + x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \frac{x^9}{9} - \frac{x^{11}}{11} + \dots$$

term-by-term integration.

To find C , we evaluate in $x=0$: $\tan^{-1}(0) = 0 \Rightarrow C=0$, in this case
Therefore,

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

in the interval of convergence of $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$, which is $(-1,1)$ (it is geometric).