

Advanced Placement Specialty Conference

**TEACHING THE IDEAS BEHIND
POWER SERIES**



Presented by

LIN McMULLIN

Sequences and Series in Precalculus

Power Series

Intervals of Convergence & Convergence Tests

Error Bounds

Geometric Series

New Series from Old

Problems

Q & A

From the Course Description

***IV. Polynomial Approximations and Series**

- * Concept of series. A series is defined as a sequence of partial sums, and convergence is defined in terms of the limit of the sequence of partial sums. Technology can be used to explore convergence or divergence.**
- * Series of constants.**
- + Motivating examples, including decimal expansion.**
- + Geometric series with applications.**
- + The harmonic series.**
- + Alternating series with error bound.**
- + Terms of series as areas of rectangles and their relationship to improper integrals, including the integral test and its use in testing the convergence of p -series.**
- + The ratio test for convergence and divergence.**
- + Comparing series to test for convergence or divergence.**

*** Taylor series.**

- + **Taylor polynomial approximation with graphical demonstration of convergence. (For example, viewing graphs of various Taylor polynomials of the sine function approximating the sine curve.)**
- + **Maclaurin series and the general Taylor series centered at $x = a$.**
- + **Maclaurin series for the functions, e^x , $\sin x$, $\cos x$, and $\frac{1}{1-x}$.**
- + **Formal manipulation of Taylor series and shortcuts to computing Taylor series, including substitution, differentiation, antidifferentiation, and the formation of new series from known series.**
- + **Functions defined by power series.**
- + **Radius and interval of convergence of power series.**
- + **Lagrange error bound for Taylor polynomials.**

Precalculus

Sequences and series:

- **Sigma notation,**
- **Recursive and non-recursive definitions of sequences,**
- **Basic formulas for the sums of simple sequences**
($\sum_{k=1}^n \text{constant}$, $\sum_{k=1}^n k$, $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2$, etc.).
- **Given a sequence they should be able to write the formula for the n^{th} term; given the n^{th} term they should be able to write the terms of the sequence.**
- **Definition of convergence of a series as the limit of the associated sequence of partial sums.**

Types of Series

- **Arithmetic series,**
- **Geometric series,**
- **Alternating series,**
- **Harmonic series,**
- **Alternating harmonic series,**
- **p -series**

Decimals

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{0.3333}\dots &= 0.3 + 0.03 + 0.003 + 0.0003 + \dots \\ &= (0.3)10^0 + (0.3)10^{-1} + (0.3)10^{-2} + (0.3)10^{-3} + \dots \\ &= \frac{0.3}{1 - \frac{1}{10}} = \frac{0.3}{0.9} = \frac{1}{3}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{0.999} &= (0.9)10^0 + (0.9)10^{-1} + (0.9)10^{-2} + (0.9)10^{-3} + \dots \\ &= \frac{0.9}{1 - \frac{1}{10}} = \frac{0.9}{0.9} = 1\end{aligned}$$

$$\overline{0.999}\dots = 3\left(\overline{0.333}\dots\right) = 3\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1$$

$$\frac{1 + \overline{0.999}\dots}{2} = \frac{1.999\dots}{2} = \overline{0.999}\dots = 1$$

To graph $a_n = 1 - (-0.7)^t$ in the plane:

Mode: Parametric

Graph format: Dot

Equation Editor:

$$x1(t) = t$$

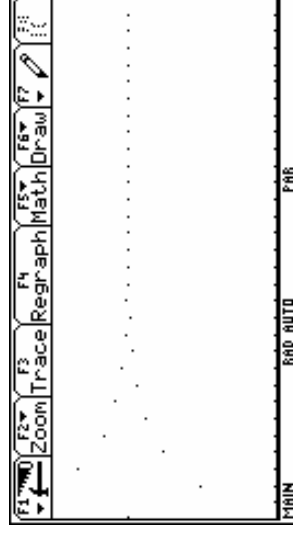
$$y1(t) = 1 - (-0.7)^t$$

Window:

$$\begin{aligned}tmin &= 1, \\tmax &= 30, \\tstep &= 1,\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}xmin &= 0, \\xmax &= 31, \\xsc1 &= 1,\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}ymin &= 0, \\ymax &= 1.5, \\ysc1 &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

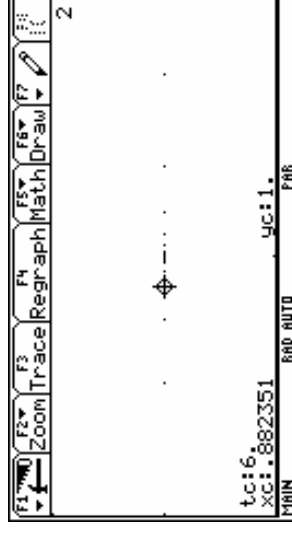


To graph $a_n = 1 - (-0.7)^t$ on a number line:

Mode: Parametric

Graph format: Dot

Equation Editor:



$$xt1(t) = 1 - (-0.7)^t \text{ and } yt1(t) = 1$$

Window:

$$tmin = 1,$$

$$tmax = 30,$$

$$tstep = 1,$$

$$xmin = 0,$$

$$xmax = 2,$$

$$xscl = 1,$$

$$ymin = 0,$$

$$ymax = 2,$$

$$yscl = 1.$$

Then TRACE the graph and watch it converge.

Taylor Polynomial

If f has n derivatives at c then the n^{th} Taylor polynomial for f at $x = c$ is

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

If $c = 0$, the n^{th} Maclaurin polynomial for f is

$$T_n(x) = f(c) + f'(c)x + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}x^n$$

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 14x - 24$$

- a. Write the power series for f centered at $x = 2$.
- b. Expand the terms of the power series and simplify.
- c. Is this an accident or will this happen with any polynomial? Explain.

$$f(x) = -40 + 2(x - 2) + 7(x - 2)^2 + (x - 2)^3$$

Now expand the binomial terms and see what you get!

1988 BC 4: Determine all values of x for which the series

$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^k x^k}{\ln(k+2)}$ converges.

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\left(\frac{2^{k+1} x^{k+1}}{\ln(k+3)} \right)}{\left(\frac{2^k x^k}{\ln(k+2)} \right)} \right| = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |2x| \frac{\ln(k+2)}{\ln(k+3)}$$

By L'Hopital's rule,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(k+2)}{\ln(k+3)} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1} \frac{k+2}{k+3} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k+3}{k+2} = 1$$

$$\therefore \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |2x| \frac{\ln(k+2)}{\ln(k+3)} = |2x|$$

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

\therefore Converges for $-\frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{1}{2}$

At $x = \frac{1}{2}$, series becomes $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln(k+2)}$

diverges, by comparison with harmonic series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k+2}$

At $x = -\frac{1}{2}$, series becomes $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{\ln(k+2)}$

converges, by the alternating series test.

\therefore Series converges for $-\frac{1}{2} \leq x < \frac{1}{2}$

Memorize the Maclaurin Series and the interval of convergence for

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

for all x

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

for all x

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

for all x

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$$

$-1 < x < 1$

2000 BC 3: The Taylor series about $x = 5$ for a certain function f converges to $f(x)$ for all x in the interval of convergence. The n th derivative of f at

$$x = 5 \text{ is given by } f^{(n)}(5) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{2^n (n+2)}, \text{ and } f(5) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

(a) Write the third-degree Taylor polynomial for f about $x = 5$.

$$P_3(f, 5)(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{6}(x-5) + \frac{1}{16}(x-5)^2 - \frac{1}{40}(x-5)^3$$

(b) Find the radius of convergence of the Taylor series for f about $x = 5$.

$$\text{Ratio test gives } \frac{|x-5|}{2} < 1$$

$$|x-5| < 2$$

Radius is 2

(c) Show that the sixth-degree Taylor polynomial for f about $x = 5$ approximates $f(6)$ with error less than $\frac{1}{1000}$.

By the alternating series test the error is less than

$$\left| \frac{(-1)^7 7! (6-5)^7}{2^7 (7+2) 7!} \right| = \frac{1}{2^7 (9)} = \frac{1}{1152} < \frac{1}{1000}$$

Is this true at $f(4)$? Why, or why not?

Lagrange Form of the Remainder and the Lagrange Error Bound

Taylor's Theorem:

If f has derivatives of all orders on an interval containing a , then for any positive integer n and for all x in the interval, there exist a number c between x and a such that:

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_n(x)$$

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

This is called the **Lagrange Form of the Remainder**.

Example 1: applying the theorem to the sine function centered at the origin, there exists a c between x and zero such that

$$\sin x = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 + \frac{1}{6!}\sin(c)x^6$$

$$\sin(0.2) = 0.2 - \frac{1}{6}(0.2)^3 + \frac{1}{120}(0.2)^5 + \frac{1}{720}\sin(c)(0.2)^6$$

$$\sin(0.2) \approx 0.2 - \frac{1}{6}(0.2)^3 - \frac{1}{120}(0.2)^5 \approx 0.1986693$$

Notice that the remainder term is *not* calculated at $x = 0$, but at some $x = c$ in the interval $(0, 0.2)$, so the sixth power term is used, $R_5 = \frac{1}{720}\sin(c)(0.2)^6$ is not zero. In the open interval $(0, 0.2)$ the largest the $\sin(c)$ can be is 1: (Note: $\sin(0.2) \approx 0.19866933\dots$), so the largest the error can be is

$$\frac{1}{720}(1)(0.2)^6 \approx 8.89 \times 10^{-8} \text{ (or } \frac{1}{720}(0.1986693)(0.2)^6 \approx 1.77 \times 10^{-8}\text{)}. \text{ The actual}$$

error is considerably less, about 2.54×10^{-9} .

Example 2: applying the theorem to e^x centered at the origin, there exists a c between x and zero such that

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3!}x^3 + \frac{1}{4!}e^c x^4$$

Then at, say, $x = 0.2$:

$$e^{0.2} = 1 + (0.2) + \frac{1}{2}(0.2)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(0.2)^3 + \frac{1}{24}e^c(0.2)^4$$

In the interval $[0, 0.2]$ the largest that e^c can be is $e^{0.2} \approx 1.22140$, so the largest the error can be is $\left| \frac{1}{24}(1.22140)(0.2)^4 \right| \approx 8.1427 \times 10^{-5}$. This is the

Lagrange Error Bound. The actual error is about 6.94×10^{-5} .

$$e^{0.2} \approx 1 + 0.2 + \frac{1}{2}(0.2)^2 + \frac{1}{6}(0.2)^3 = 1.221333 \pm 8.1427 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$e^{0.2} = 1.22140275816\dots$$



1999 BC 4: The function f has derivatives of all orders for all real numbers x . Assume $f(2) = -3$, $f'(2) = 5$, $f''(2) = 3$, and $f'''(2) = -8$.

- (a) Write the third-degree Taylor polynomial for f about $x = 2$ and use it to approximate $f(1.5)$.

$$T_3(f, 2) = -3 + 5(x - 2) + \frac{3}{2}(x - 2)^2 - \frac{8}{6}(x - 2)^3$$

$$f(1.5) \approx -4.958$$

- (b) The fourth derivative of f satisfies the inequality $|f^{(4)}(x)| \leq 3$ for all x in the closed interval $[1.5, 2]$. Use the **Lagrange error bound** on the approximation to $f(1.5)$ found in part (a) to explain why $f(1.5) \neq -5$.

$$\text{LEB} = \frac{3}{4!} |1.5 - 2|^4 = 0.0078125, \quad f(1.5) > -4.958\bar{3} - 0.0078125 = -4.966 > -5$$

(c) Write the fourth degree Taylor polynomial, $P(x)$, for $g(x) = f(x^2 + 2)$ about $x = 0$. Use P to explain why g must have a relative minimum at $x = 0$.

$$T_3(f, 2)(x) = -3 + 5(x - 2) + \frac{3}{2}(x - 2)^2 - \frac{8}{6}(x - 2)^3$$

$$T_2(f, 2)(x^2 + 2) = -3 + 5x^2 + \frac{3}{2}x^4$$

and from the coefficients $g'(0) = 0$ and $g''(0) > 0$ therefore a minimum by the Second Derivative Test.

Geometric Series

Method 1: The expression $\frac{1}{1-x}$ is similar to $\frac{a}{1-r}$. If we had a geometric

series with a first term of $a = 1$ and a common ratio of x , then $S = \frac{1}{1-x}$.

Turning this around, the power series for $\frac{1}{1-x}$ must be the geometric

series

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots + x^n + \dots$$

and the interval of convergence must be all x such that $|x| < 1$ or $-1 < x < 1$.

Rational Expressions

Method 2: Long division yields the same result:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1 + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \\ (1-x) \overline{)1} \end{array}$$

$$\underline{1-x}$$

x

$$\underline{x-x^2}$$

x^2

$$\underline{x^2-x^3}$$

\dots

Binomial Theorem

Method 3: Expanding $(1-x)^{-1}$ by the Binomial Theorem also gives the same result.

$$(a+b)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}a^{n-2}b^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{2 \cdot 3}a^{n-3}b^3 + \text{etc.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1-x)^{-1} &= 1^{-1} + (-1)(1)^{-2}(-x)^1 + \frac{(-1)(-2)}{2}(1)^{-3}(-x)^2 \\ &+ \frac{(-1)(-2)(-3)}{2 \cdot 3}(1)^{-4}(-x)^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Rational Expressions

Other functions can be handled in the same ways. One way to find the Maclaurin Series for any rational expression, such as $\frac{15x}{x^2 + 5}$, is to arrange the terms with the *lowest power first* and perform a long division.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3x - \frac{3}{5}x^3 + \frac{3}{25}x^5 - \frac{3}{125}x^7 + \dots \\ 5 + x^2 \overline{) 15x} \\ \underline{15x + 3x^3} \\ -3x^3 \\ \underline{-3x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x^5} \\ \frac{3}{5}x^5 + \frac{3}{25}x^7 \\ \underline{-\frac{3}{25}x^7} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{15x}{5+x^2} = \frac{3x}{1-\left(-\frac{x^2}{5}\right)}$$

This is a geometric series with a first term of $3x$ and a ratio of $r = -\frac{x^2}{5}$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{3x}{1-\left(-\frac{x^2}{5}\right)} &= 3x + 3x\left(-\frac{x^2}{5}\right) + 3x\left(-\frac{x^2}{5}\right)^2 + 3x\left(-\frac{x^2}{5}\right)^3 + \dots \\ &= 3x - \frac{3}{5}x^3 + \frac{3}{25}x^5 - \frac{3}{125}x^7 + \dots\end{aligned}$$

And the interval of convergence is

$$\left|-\frac{x^2}{5}\right| < 1$$

$$|x| < \sqrt{5}$$

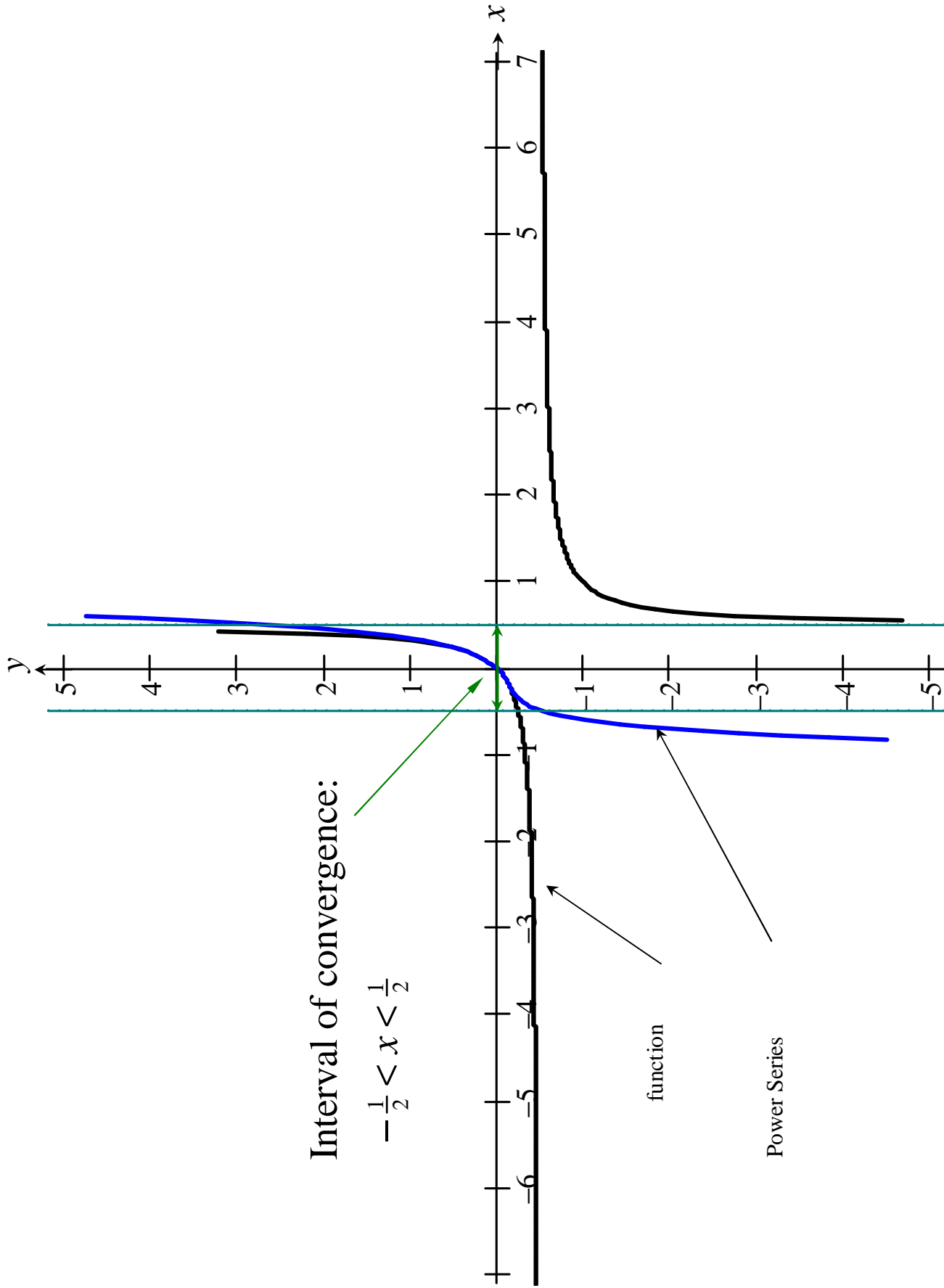
$$-\sqrt{5} < x < \sqrt{5}$$

A ‘Mistake’

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{x}{1-2x} &= x + x(2x) + x(2x)^2 + x(2x)^3 + \dots \\ &= x + 2x^2 + 4x^3 + 8x^4 + 16x^5 \dots + 2^{n-1}x^n + \dots = \sum_{k=1}^n 2^{k-1}x^k\end{aligned}$$

The series is geometric and converges when $|2x| < 1$ or $-\frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{1}{2}$.

So the interval of convergence is $-\frac{1}{2} < x < \frac{1}{2}$.

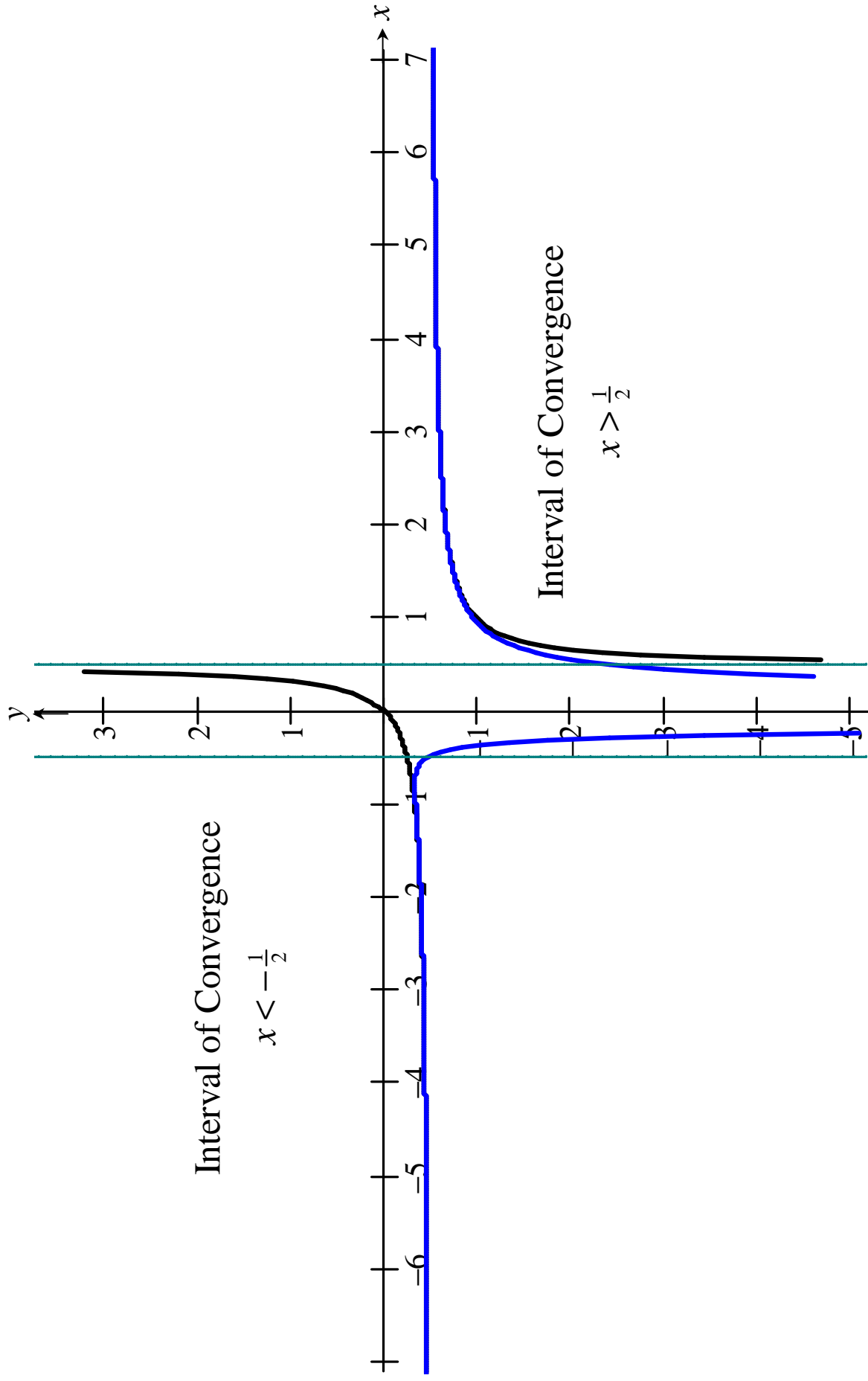


But what if you do this?

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x}{1-2x} &= \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2x}} = \frac{1}{1-\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2x} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2x} \right)^3 + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4x} + \frac{1}{8x^2} - \frac{1}{16x^3} + \frac{1}{32x^4} - \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{-1}{2^n x^{n-1}} \end{aligned}$$

The series is geometric and converges when $\left| \frac{1}{2x} \right| < 1$ or $\frac{1}{2} < |x|$.

So the interval of convergence is $(-\infty, -\frac{1}{2}) \cup (\frac{1}{2}, \infty)$.



Interval of Convergence

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

Interval of Convergence

$$x > \frac{1}{2}$$

New Series from Old

Treating $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ as a geometric series with $r = -x^2$ gives:

$$\frac{1}{1+x^2} = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k x^{2k} \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1$$

But $\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1} x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$. Therefore

$$\tan^{-1} x = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = C + x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{5}x^5 - \frac{1}{7}x^7 + \dots = C + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{2k-1}}{2k-1} x^{2k-1}$$

The initial condition $\tan^{-1}(0) = 0$ tells us that $C = 0$. So the power series for

$$\tan^{-1} x \text{ is } \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{2k-1}}{2k-1} x^{2k-1} \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1.$$

1993 BC 3

Let f be the function given by $f(x) = e^{\frac{x}{2}}$.

- (a) Write the first four nonzero terms and the general term for the Taylor series expansion of $f(x)$ about $x = 0$.

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \cdots$$

$$e^{x/2} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{(x/2)^2}{2!} + \frac{(x/2)^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{(x/2)^n}{n!} + \cdots$$

$$e^{x/2} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{2^2 2!} + \frac{x^3}{2^3 3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{2^n n!} + \cdots$$

(b) Use the result from part (a) to write the first three nonzero terms and the general term of the series expansion about $x = 0$ for

$$g(x) = \frac{e^x - 1}{x}.$$

$$e^{x/2} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{2^2 2!} + \frac{x^3}{2^3 3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{2^n n!} + \cdots$$

$$\frac{e^{x/2} - 1}{x} = \frac{\left(1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{2^2 2!} + \frac{x^3}{2^3 3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{2^n n!} + \cdots \right) - 1}{x}$$

$$\frac{e^{x/2} - 1}{x} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{2^2 2!} + \frac{x^2}{2^3 3!} + \cdots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{2^n n!} + \cdots$$

(c) For the function g in part (b), find $g'(2)$ and use it to show that

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

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{2^2 2!} + \frac{x^2}{2^3 3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{2^n n!} + \dots$$

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{2^2 2!} + \frac{2x}{2^3 3!} + \dots + \frac{(n-1)x^{n-2}}{2^n n!} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} + \frac{x}{24} + \dots + \frac{(n-1)x^{n-2}}{2^n n!} + \dots$$

$$g'(2) = \frac{1}{2^2 2!} + \frac{2 \cdot 2}{2^3 3!} + \dots + \frac{(n-1)2^{n-2}}{2^n n!} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{12} + \dots + \frac{n-1}{4n!} + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{4(n+1)!}$$

$$\text{Also; } g(x) = \frac{e^{x/2} - 1}{x}$$

$$g'(x) = \frac{x \left(\frac{1}{2} e^{x/2} \right) - (e^{x/2} - 1)(1)}{x^2}$$

$$g'(2) = \frac{2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} e - (e - 1)}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{4(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Euler's Formula

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

$$e^{ix} = 1 + ix + \frac{(ix)^2}{2!} + \frac{(ix)^3}{3!} + \frac{(ix)^4}{4!} + \frac{(ix)^5}{5!} + \dots$$

Expand, and simplify the terms. Group those terms without i and those with i .

$$e^{ix} = 1 + ix + \frac{i^2 x^2}{2!} + \frac{i^3 x^3}{3!} + \frac{i^4 x^4}{4!} + \frac{i^5 x^5}{5!} + \dots$$

$$e^{ix} = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \right) + \left(ix - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \right) i$$

$$e^{ix} = \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots \right) + \left(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots \right) i$$

Recognize the Maclaurin Series for $\cos x$ and $\sin x$.

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$

Finally substitute $x = \pi$ and simplify again.

$$e^{i\pi} = \cos \pi + i \sin \pi$$

$$e^{i\pi} = -1 + 0i$$

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$$