

12.9 Functions as Power Series

Math 104 – Rimmer
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The very first function we have seen represented as a power series is the geometric series with $a = 1$ and $r = x$

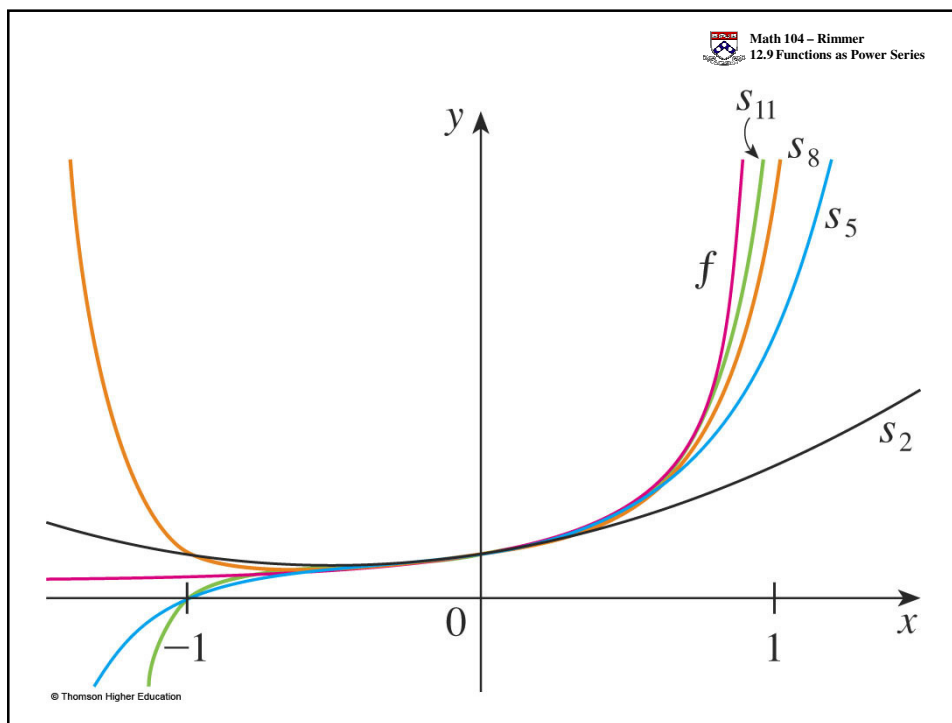
$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots, |x| < 1$$

We can find the power series representation of other functions by algebraically manipulating them to be some multiple of this series.

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1-(-x)}$$

The interval of convergence remains unchanged since this is still a type of geometric series.

$$\frac{1}{1+x} =$$

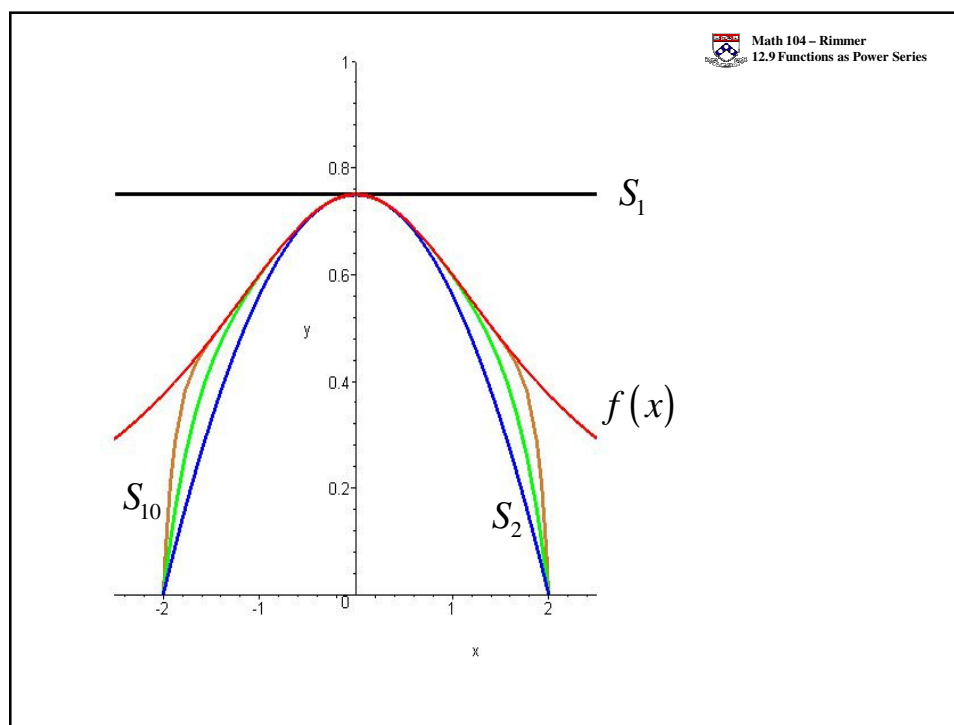


Represent the function as a power series and determine the interval of convergence.

$$\frac{3}{4+x^2}$$

, so the interval of
convergence is

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



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

If the power series representation of $f(x)$ has a radius of convergence $R > 0$,

we can obtain a power series representation for $f'(x)$ by

term - by - term _____:

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

$$f'(x) = c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} [c_n (x-a)^n] = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n (x-a)^{n-1}$$

with the same radius
of convergence R
starts at $n = 1$

we can obtain a power series representation for $\int f(x) dx$ by

term - by - term _____:

$$\int f(x) dx = C + c_0 x + c_1 \frac{(x-a)^2}{2} + c_2 \frac{(x-a)^3}{3} + c_3 \frac{(x-a)^4}{4} + \dots$$

$$\int \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int [c_n (x-a)^n] dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_n (x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

with the same radius
of convergence R
 C is a constant of integration

Represent the function as a power series and determine the radius of convergence.

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

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \quad \text{with } R = 1$$

Represent the function as a power series and determine the radius of convergence.

$$f(x) = \arctan x$$

$$\frac{1}{1+x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n}, \text{ with } R=1$$

$$= 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots$$

$$\arctan x = C +$$

$$\arctan x =$$


Represent the function as a power series and determine the radius of convergence.

$$f(x) = \ln(1-x)$$


$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \text{ with } R=1$$

$$-\ln(1-x) =$$

$$\ln(1-x) =$$


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$\arctan x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}, \text{ with } R = 1$ $\arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots$ $\arctan 1 =$	$\ln(1-x) = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}, \text{ with } R = 1$ $\ln(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$ $\ln\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) =$ $\ln\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) =$ $\ln 1 - \ln 2 =$
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Algebraically manipulate $\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$ (the same way we manipulated $\frac{1}{1-x}$)

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} \text{ with } R = 1$$

Represent $\frac{1}{(4-3x)^2}$ as a power series and determine the radius of convergence.

$$\frac{1}{(4-3x)^2}$$

Algebraically manipulate $\ln(1-x)$ (the same way we manipulated $\frac{1}{1-x}$)

$$\ln(1-x) = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}, \text{ with } R=1$$

Represent $\ln(3+2x)$ as a power series and determine the radius of convergence.

$$\ln(3+2x)$$