## 11.9 - Representations of Functions as Power Series

## **Review:**

## **Commonly Encountered Power Series:**

Observe that  $(1 - x)(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + ...)$ 

 $= (1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + ...) - (x + x^{2} + x^{3} + ...) = 1.$ So, dividing both sides by 1 - x, we have:  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^{2} + x^{3} + ... = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n}$ . Convergent for |x| < 1. (Notice how untrue the above calculations are for x = 2!!)

Calculation tricks:  $\frac{1}{2+x} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-(-\frac{x}{2})} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{2^{n+1}}$ , and  $\frac{x^3}{1-x} = x^3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n+3}$ .

**Term-by-Term Differentiation and Integration Theorem**: If the power series  $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$  has radius of convergence R > 0, then the function f defined by  $f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + ... = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(x-a)^n$  is differentiable (and therefore continuous) on the radius (a - R, a + R) and:

♦ f'(x) = c<sub>1</sub> + 2c<sub>2</sub>(x - a) + 3c<sub>3</sub>(x - a) + ... = ∑<sub>n=1</sub><sup>∞</sup> nc<sub>n</sub>(x - a)<sup>n-1</sup>,
♦ ∫f(x)dx = C + c<sub>0</sub>(x - a) + c<sub>1</sub> (x-a)<sup>2</sup>/2 + c<sub>2</sub> (x-a)<sup>3</sup>/3 + ... = C + ∑<sub>n=0</sub><sup>∞</sup> c<sub>n</sub> (x-a)<sup>n+1</sup>/n+1.

The radii of convergence of the power series in the above two equations are both R.

These two equations can be rewritten as:

- $\oint \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left[ c_n (x-a)^n \right],$   $\oint \left[ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n \right] dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int c_n (x-a)^n dx.$

Warning: even though this theorem indicates that the radius of convergence remains the same, the endpoints may change as it relates to convergence. In other words, the *interval of convergence* may change upon taking a derivative or integrating.

Suppose you know that the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  converges for |x| < 2. What can you say about the series Problem #2  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{n+1} x^{n+1}$  ? Why?

If  $f(x) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  converges on (-2, 2), then  $\int f(x) dx = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{n+1} x^{n+1}$  has the same radius of convergence (by theorem 2), but may not have the same interval of convergence — it may happen that the integrated series converges at an endpoint, or both endpoints.

Find a power series representation for the function  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{a^3 - x^3}$  and determine the interval of convergence. Problem #10

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{a^3} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^3}{a^3}} = \frac{x^2}{a^3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{x^3}{a^3}\right)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{3n+2}}{a^{3n+3}}.$$

The series converges when  $\left|\frac{x^3}{a^3}\right| < 1 \implies |x^3| < |a^3|$ 

- |x| < |a|, so R = |a| $\Rightarrow$
- and I = (-|a|, |a|).

Express the function  $f(x) = \frac{x+2}{2x^2-x-1}$  as the sum of a power series by first using partial fractions. Find the Problem #12 interval of convergence.

 $f(x) = \frac{x+2}{(2x+1)(x-1)} = \frac{A}{2x+1} + \frac{B}{x-1}$  x+2 = A(x-1) + B(2x+1).Let x = 1 to get  $3 = 3B \implies B = 1$ and  $x = -\frac{1}{2} \implies \frac{3}{2} = -\frac{3}{2}A$ , or A = -1. Thus,  $\frac{x+2}{2x^2-x-1} = \frac{-1}{2x+1} + \frac{1}{x-1}$  $= -1\left(\frac{1}{1-(-2x)}\right) - 1\left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)$   $= -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-2x)^n - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [(-2)^n + 1]x^n.$ 

We represented *f* as the sum of two geometric series; the first converges for |2x| < 1 or  $x \in (-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ ,

and the second converges for (-1, 1).

Thus, the sum converges for  $x \in \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = I$ .

**Problem #20** Find a power series representation for the function  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 + x}{(1-x)^3}$  and determine the radius of convergence.

By example 5 in the text, we have:  $\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)x^n$ , so  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} \right) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1)x^n \right) \implies \frac{2}{(1-x)^3} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n+1)nx^{n-1}.$ Thus,  $f(x) = \frac{x^2+x}{(1-x)^3} = \frac{x^2}{(1-x)^3} + \frac{x}{(1-x)^3} = \frac{x^2}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{(1-x)^3} + \frac{x}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{(1-x)^3}$   $= \frac{x^2}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n+1)nx^{n-1} + \frac{x}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n+1)nx^{n-1}$  (want to bring these under a common sum)  $= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+1)n}{2}x^{n+1} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+1)n}{2}x^n$  (want to bring these under a common sum)  $= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n(n-1)}{2}x^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n+1)n}{2}x^n$  (make the exponents on x equal by changing an index)  $= \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2-n}{2}x^n + x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+n}{2}x^n$  (make the starting n values equal)  $= x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n^2x^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2x^n$ , with radius .... R = 1.

**Problem #26** Evaluate the indefinite integral  $\int \frac{t}{1+t^3} dt$  as a power series. What is the radius of convergence? Observe that  $\frac{t}{1+t^3} = t \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1-(-t^3)}\right) = t \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-t^3)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n t^{3n+1}$ Therefore,  $\int \frac{t}{1+t^3} dt = \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n t^{3n+1} dt$   $= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \int t^{3n+1} dt = C + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{t^{3n+2}}{3n+2}$ . Convergence? The series for  $\frac{1}{1+t^3}$  converges when  $|-t^3| < 1 \implies |t| < 1$ , so R = 1 for that series and also for the series  $\frac{t}{1+t^3}$ .

By theorem 2, the series for  $\int \frac{t}{1+t^3} dt$  also has R = 1.