

## Power series of familiar functions

(Unless we specify otherwise, power series are meant to be about  $x = 0$ .)

**Example 127.** The **hyperbolic cosine**  $\cosh(x)$  is defined to be the even part of  $e^x$ . In other words,  $\cosh(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x + e^{-x})$ . Determine its power series.

**Solution.** It follows from  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  that  $\cosh(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$ .

**Comment.** Note that  $\cosh(ix) = \cos(x)$  (because  $\cos(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{ix} + e^{-ix})$ ).

**Comment.** The hyperbolic sine  $\sinh(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$  is similarly defined to be the odd part of  $e^x$ .

**Example 128.** Determine a power series for  $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ .

**Solution.** Replace  $x$  with  $-x^2$  in  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  (geometric series!) to get  $\frac{1}{1+x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n}$ .

**Example 129.** Determine a power series for  $\arctan(x)$ .

**Solution.** Recall that  $\arctan(x) = \int \frac{dx}{1+x^2} + C$ . Hence, we need to integrate  $\frac{1}{1+x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n}$ .

It follows that  $\arctan(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} + C$ . Since  $\arctan(0) = 0$ , we conclude that  $C = 0$ .

**Example 130.** Determine a power series for  $\ln(x)$  around  $x = 1$ .

**Solution.** This is equivalent to finding a power series for  $\ln(x+1)$  around  $x = 0$  (see the final step).

Observe that  $\ln(x+1) = \int \frac{dx}{1+x} + C$  and that  $\frac{1}{1+x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n$ .

Integrating,  $\ln(x+1) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ . Since  $\ln(1) = 0$ , we conclude that  $C = 0$ .

Finally,  $\ln(x+1) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$  is equivalent to  $\ln(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} (x-1)^{n+1}$ .

**Comment.** Choosing  $x = 2$  in  $\ln(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} (x-1)^{n+1}$  results in  $\ln(2) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

The latter is the alternating harmonic sum.

Can you see from the series for  $\ln(x)$  why the harmonic sum  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$  diverges?

**Example 131. (error function)** Determine a power series for  $\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$ .

**Solution.** It follows from  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  that  $e^{-t^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n t^{2n}}{n!}$ .

Integrating, we obtain  $\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{n!(2n+1)}$ .

**Example 132.** Determine the first several terms (up to  $x^5$ ) in the power series of  $\tan(x)$ .

**Solution.** Observe that  $y(x) = \tan(x)$  is the unique solution to the IVP  $y' = 1 + y^2$ ,  $y(0) = 0$ .

We can therefore proceed to determine the first few power series coefficients as we did earlier.

That is, we plug  $y = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 + \dots$  into the DE. Note that  $y(0) = 0$  means  $a_0 = 0$ .

$$y' = a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 + 4a_4x^3 + 5a_5x^4 + \dots$$

$$1 + y^2 = 1 + (a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots)^2 = 1 + a_1^2x^2 + (2a_1a_2)x^3 + (2a_1a_3 + a_2^2)x^4 + \dots$$

Comparing coefficients, we find:  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $2a_2 = 0$ ,  $3a_3 = a_1^2$ ,  $4a_4 = 2a_1a_2$ ,  $5a_5 = 2a_1a_3 + a_2^2$ .

Solving for  $a_2, a_3, \dots$ , we conclude that  $\tan(x) = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} + \frac{17x^7}{315} + \dots$

**Comment.** The fact that  $\tan(x)$  is an odd function translates into  $a_n = 0$  when  $n$  is even. If we had realized that at the beginning, our computation would have been simplified.

**Advanced comment.** The full power series is  $\tan(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} 2^{2n} (2^{2n} - 1) B_{2n} x^{2n-1}}{(2n)!}$ .

Here, the numbers  $B_{2n}$  are (rather mysterious) rational numbers known as **Bernoulli numbers**.

The radius of convergence is  $\pi/2$ . Note that this is not at all obvious from the DE  $y' = 1 + y^2$ . This illustrates the fact that nonlinear DEs are much more complicated than linear ones. (There is no analog of Theorem 116.)

## Fourier series

The following amazing fact is saying that any  $2\pi$ -periodic function can be written as a sum of cosines and sines.

**Advertisement.** In Linear Algebra II, we will see the following natural way to look at Fourier series: the functions  $1, \cos(t), \sin(t), \cos(2t), \sin(2t), \dots$  are orthogonal to each other (for that to make sense, we need to think of functions as vectors and introduce a natural inner product). In fact, they form an orthogonal basis for the space of piecewise smooth functions. In that setting, the formulas for the coefficients  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are nothing but the usual projection formulas for orthogonal projection onto a single vector.

**Theorem 133.** Every\*  $2\pi$ -periodic function  $f$  can be written as a **Fourier series**

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt)).$$

Technical detail\*:  $f$  needs to be, e.g., piecewise smooth.

Also, if  $t$  is a discontinuity of  $f$ , then the Fourier series converges to the average  $\frac{f(t^-) + f(t^+)}{2}$ .

The **Fourier coefficients**  $a_n, b_n$  are unique and can be computed as

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt, \quad b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \sin(nt) dt.$$

**Comment.** Another common way to write Fourier series is  $f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{int}$ .

These two ways are equivalent; we can convert between them using Euler's identity  $e^{int} = \cos(nt) + i \sin(nt)$ .

**Definition 134.** Let  $L > 0$ .  $f(t)$  is  **$L$ -periodic** if  $f(t+L) = f(t)$  for all  $t$ . The smallest such  $L$  is called the **(fundamental) period** of  $f$ .

**Example 135.** The fundamental period of  $\cos(nt)$  is  $2\pi/n$ .

**Example 136.** The trigonometric functions  $\cos(nt)$  and  $\sin(nt)$  are  $2\pi$ -periodic for every integer  $n$ . And so are their linear combinations. (Thus,  $2\pi$ -periodic functions form a vector space!)