

## Popper 30

1. Give the 3rd degree Taylor polynomial for $\sin (2 x)$ centered at 0 .
(0) $x-\frac{1}{162} x^{3}$
(1) $1-2 x^{2}$
(2) $1-\frac{1}{18} x^{2}$
(3) $2 x-\frac{8}{3} x^{3}$
(4) $1-\frac{1}{2} x+\frac{1}{8} x^{2}-\frac{1}{48} x^{3}$
(5) None of these.

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2. Give the 3rd degree Taylor polynomial for $\cos (x / 3)$ centered at 0 .
(0) $x-\frac{1}{162} x^{3}$
(1) $1-2 x^{2}$
(2) $1-\frac{1}{18} x^{2}$
(3) $2 x-\frac{8}{3} x^{3}$
(4) $1-\frac{1}{2} x+\frac{1}{8} x^{2}-\frac{1}{48} x^{3}$
(5) None of these.

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3. Give the 3rd degree Taylor polynomial for $\exp (-x / 2)$ centered at 0 .
(0) $x-\frac{1}{162} x^{3}$
(1) $1-2 x^{2}$
(2) $1-\frac{1}{18} x^{2}$
(3) $2 x-\frac{8}{3} x^{3}$
(4) $1-\frac{1}{2} x+\frac{1}{8} x^{2}-\frac{1}{48} x^{3}$
(5) None of these.
(Taylor Series: (essentially, infinite degree Taylor polynomials)
Power series
Definition: If $f(x)$ is defined and has derivatives of every order at $x=$ $a$, then the Taylor series for $f(x)$ centered at $x=a$ is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(a)+\frac{f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)}{}+\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(a)}{2!}(x-a)^{2}+\cdots \\
& =\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^{k}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P_{n, a}(x)
\end{aligned}
$$

...just like a Taylor polynomial, but the degree is infinite...

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4. Give the Taylor series centered at 0 for $\sin (x)$.
(0) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k)!} x^{2 k}$
(1) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k+1)!} x^{2 k+1}$
5. Give the Taylor series centered at 0 for $\cos (x)$
(2) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} x^{k}$
(0) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k)!} x^{2 k}$
(3) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{k}$
(1) $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{(2 k+1)!} x^{2 k-1}$
6. Repeat for
$e^{x}$
(2) $\sum_{k=0}^{x} \frac{1}{k!} x^{k}$
(4) None of these.
(3) $\sum_{k=0}^{x} x^{k}$
(4) None of these.

Comment:
$\sin (x), \cos (x)$ and $e^{x}$ are equal to their Taylor Series centered at 0 for all $x$.

This is not the case for all functions.
e.g. $1 /(1+x), \ln (1+x), \arctan (x)$ and many others.
$\frac{\ln (x)}{\frac{1}{1-x} \text { centered at } x=1 \text {. }}$
Geometric Series

$$
=\frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text { iff }|x|<1
$$

This series diverges when $|x| \geqslant 1$.

A power series centered at $a$ has the form

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_{k}(x-a)^{k}
$$

The radius of convergence of a power series is the larges value of $R$ so that the power series

$$
\text { converges for }|x-a|<R .
$$

Notes:

1. Absolute convergence determines the radius of convergence.
2. If a power series is equal to a function on an interval, then the power series is the Taylor series for the function.
3. Power series can be integrated and differentiated in the interior of their interval of convergence, and the power series, the derivative and the antiderivative all have the SAME radius of convergence.


Example: Determine the values of $x$ where

$$
\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k}}{k+1}(x-1)^{k} \text { converges }
$$

and give the radius of convergence.

