## Geometric Series

The geometric is a very important series in mathematics. The series is written as:

$$\mathrm{s} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum a * r^n$$
 or  $\mathrm{s} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sum a * r^{(n-1)}$ 

Here 's' is equal to the sum of the series and can be found by:

$$\begin{split} & {\rm s} = a + a * r + a * r^2 + a * r^3 + \dots + a * r^{n-1} \\ & r * s = a * r + a * r^2 + a * r^3 + \dots + a * r^{n-1} + a * r^n \\ & {\rm s} - r * s = a - a * r^n \\ & {\rm s}(1-r) = a(1-r^n) \qquad {\rm and} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} r^n = 0 \ {\rm if} \ r < 1 \\ & {\rm s} = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad {\rm when} \ {\rm r} < 1 \end{split}$$

Now we can write  $\frac{a}{1-r} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum a * r^n$  and this series is convergent for all r<1 where 'a' is arbitrary constant.

# Power Series

One of the applications of a geometric series is that we can use it to represent functions as a power series. So if we can manipulate a function to get it in the form of  $\frac{1}{1-x}$  it can be written as a power series. In general,  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum x^n$ .

#### Example:

Seeing how things work always help me to visualize things more so here is an example of how a function can be written as a power series.

$$f(x) = \int \frac{dx}{1+x^3}$$

The first step is to write  $\frac{1}{1+x^3}$  as a power series:

$$\frac{1}{1+x^3} = \frac{1}{1-(-x^3)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-x^3)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-1)^n x^{3n}$$

The last thing we need to do to get f(x) is to integrate the series:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-1)^n \int x^{3n} d\mathbf{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-1)^n \frac{x^{3n+1}}{3n+1}$$

# Taylor and Maclaurin Series

A taylor series is similar to a power series, except that the coefficients are variable.

$$\begin{split} \mathrm{f}(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathrm{c}_0 + \mathrm{c}_1 \ast \mathbf{x} + \mathrm{c}_2 \ast \mathbf{x}^2 + \mathrm{c}_3 \ast \mathbf{x}^3 + \dots \\ \mathrm{f}'(x) &= \mathrm{c}_1 + 2 \ast \mathrm{c}_2 \ast \mathbf{x} + 3 \ast \mathrm{c}_3 \ast \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots \\ \mathrm{f}''(x) &= 2 \ast \mathrm{c}_2 + 6 \ast \mathrm{c}_3 \ast \mathbf{x} + \dots \\ \mathrm{f}^{'''}(x) &= 6 \ast \mathrm{c}_3 + \dots \end{split}$$

We can see a pattern developing so now we can find  $c_n$ , the nth coefficient:

$$f^{(n)}(x) = n! * c_n$$
 This can be rearranged to find  $c_n$ .  
 $c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!}$ 

In general, any function can be written as a taylor series centered at 'a':

$$\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x}) = \mathop{\sim}\limits_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum \, rac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!} (\mathrm{x-a})^n$$

You may be wondering how we got (x-a) in there and its actually very simple. Remember the rules for translation of functions. A function shifted to the right is f(x-a). If a = 0, then the function is centered about zero, and this type of series is a Maclaurin series.

## An Example:

Just so you can visualize what all this means I'm going to show how you can find the series for  $e^x$ . After you find a series you need to find the radius of convergence, which I am not going to discuss, but this can be done with the ratio test.

 $f(x) = e^x$  The function for which we want to find the series is the exponential function.

Let's center the series at 0 so we are finding the Maclauring series.

f(0) = 1

$$f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$$
 so the nth derivative of  $e^x$  is  $e^x$ . This leads us to the conclusion that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 1$ .

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!} (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a})^n = 1 + \frac{x}{1} + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

Common Maclaurin Series:

$$\exp(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum \frac{x^n}{n!}$$
Converges for all x.  

$$\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$
Converges for all x.  

$$\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$
Converges for all x.