

Lecture #3

2009

It is very common in physics to use a summation to calculate a certain value, or to sum various contributions to calculate the total effect.

Very common summations

Sum $S_N = a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_N = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n$ finite calculatable sum.

Arithmetic progressions

$a_n = a + b \cdot n$
 $S_N = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n = \frac{(N+1)}{2} (a_0 + a_N) = (N+1) \left(a + \frac{bN}{2} \right)$

Geometrical progression

$a_n = a \cdot d^n$
 $S_N = \sum_{n=0}^N a_n = a \frac{d^{N+1} - 1}{d - 1}$

Proof: $S_N = a + da + \dots + d^N a \Rightarrow dS_N = da + d^2a + \dots + d^{N+1}a = S_N - a + d^{N+1}a$
 $(d-1)S_N = a(d^{N+1} - 1)$
 $S_N = a \frac{d^{N+1} - 1}{d - 1}$

Binomial sum

$S_N = (1+x)^N = \sum_{n=0}^N \binom{N}{n} x^n$ $a_n = \binom{N}{n} x^n$

$\binom{N}{n} = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}$
 $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n!$
 $0! = 1$

Infinite series

$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a_n$

Geometrical progression

$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} a \frac{d^{N+1} - 1}{d - 1} \rightarrow \begin{cases} d < 1 & S = \frac{a}{d-1} \\ d > 1 & S_{N \rightarrow \infty} \text{ diverges} \\ d = 1 & S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a = \text{diverges} \end{cases}$

Checking the convergence of the following series:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{e^n}{n!}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n - \ln n)}{5n^2 - 3n + 1}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{2^n + 3^n} \quad \textcircled{D}$$

Tests of convergence

1. Preliminary test: if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ such series diverges

$$a_n = \frac{3^n}{2^n + 3^n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n}{2^n + 3^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{2}{3})^n} = 1$$

Series diverges

2. Integral test [Maclauren test]

The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ (converges / diverges) if $\int a_n dn$ is (finite / infinite) at upper limit

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \int \frac{1}{n} dn = \ln(n) \Big|_1^{\infty} = \infty \text{ diverges at the upper limit}$$

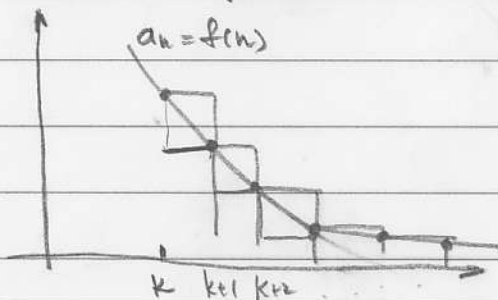
so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \Rightarrow \int \frac{1}{n^2} dn = -\frac{1}{n} \Big|_1^{\infty} = 0 \text{ converges at the upper limit}$$

so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges.

In fact, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^d}$ converges for any $d > 1$ according to the integral test.

Short proof



$$\int f(n) dn < \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} a_n; \int f(n) dn > \sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} a_n$$

$$\int f(n) dn < \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} a_n < \int f(n) dn + a_k$$

If $\int f(n) dn < \infty$, then the summation converges.

3. Ratio test [D'Alembert test]

If $S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \rho$, then the series

converges if $\rho < 1$, diverges if $\rho > 1$; this test does not work for $\rho = 1$.

Short proof: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \rho$ means that for any small ϵ we can find $n = N$ such that for any $n > N$ $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} - \rho \right| < \epsilon$

We can safely assume that for any $n > N$ $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} < (\rho + \epsilon)$, and $a_{n+1} < (\rho + \epsilon)a_n$; $a_{n+1} < (\rho + \epsilon)^{(n-N)} a_N$

Then $\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} a_n < a_N \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} (\rho + \epsilon)^{n-N} = \frac{a_N}{1 - (\rho + \epsilon)}$ for $\rho + \epsilon < 1$
 $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, so $\rho < 1$

$\sum \frac{e^n}{n!}$ $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{e^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{e^n} = \frac{e}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$ series converges

This test is particularly useful for the series containing $n!$

4. Comparison test

a) if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ is converging series of positive terms and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$ is finite, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.

b) if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ is diverging series of positive terms and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} \neq 0$ ($> 0, \infty$), $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges.

$a_n = \frac{n - \ln n}{5n^2 - 3n + 1} \Rightarrow$ let's leave only leading terms $\Rightarrow \frac{n}{5n^2} = \frac{1}{5n}$

$b_n = \frac{1}{n}$ - diverges. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{n(n - \ln n)}{5n^2 - 3n + 1} = \frac{1}{5} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges

Alternating series

$\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ - converges conditionally; diverges absolutely

Absolute convergence \Rightarrow in $\sum |a_n|$ converges.

Conditional convergence: If absolute values of the terms decrease steadily to zero ($|a_{n+1}| < |a_n|$) and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ then the series converges conditionally.

Series of Functions

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n f_n(x)$$

\rightarrow x^n (Power series)
[$\sin nx, \cos nx$] Fourier series
(special functions & polynomials)

We will talk about power series.

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (x-x_0)^n$$

for power series we need to talk about interval of convergence

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{converges for } |x| < 1$$

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2x)^n}{3^{2n}} \rightarrow \text{Convenient to use ratio test}$$
$$\lim \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \left| \frac{2x}{3} \right| < 1 \quad \text{for } |x| < \frac{3}{2}$$

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{\ln n + n!} \rightarrow \text{Convenient to use the comparison test}$$
$$b_n = \frac{x^n}{n!} \rightarrow \text{converging by the ratio test for any } x$$

thus $S(x)$ converges for any x

If we talk about complex series, it is more accurate to talk about the disc of convergence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(iz)^n}{4n^2} \quad \text{ratio test} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(iz)^{n+1}}{4(n+1)^2} \frac{n^2}{(iz)^n} \right| = |z| < 1$$

it also converges for $|z|=1$
by comparison test

Complex series

$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$ absolute convergence: if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |C_n|$ converges.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + ib_n) = \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n}_{\text{converges}} + i \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n}_{\text{converges}}$$

If these two series converge independently,
 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$ converges

Start Taylor series

$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad ; \quad \sin x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} \quad ; \quad \cos x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

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

$$(1+x)^p = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{p}{n} x^n = 1 + px + \frac{p(p-1)}{2} x^2 + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{3!} x^3 + \dots$$

$$\binom{p}{n} = \frac{p!}{n!(p-n)!} = \frac{p(p-1)\dots(p-n+1)}{n!}$$

If p is not integer, the last series is infinite