How Small is Small?

Asymptotic Series in Physics

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How often have you used the small angle approximation $\sin \theta \approx \theta$ or the binomial expansion $(1+x)^p \approx 1 + px$? How accurate is the formula $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}$ giving the period of a pendulum for angles that are not small? How fast must you have to move for relativistic effects to be important? Do series expansions have to converge to be useful? In this lecture we will explore some of these questions as we investigate the role of series expansions in our approximations. In particular, we describe the typical use of series expansions in undergraduate physics, provide some examples and if there is time we may see how divergent series are often useful.

Geometric Series

2 Binomial Series

- Special Relativity Example
- 3 Taylor Series

Applications

- Small Angles
- The Nonlinear Pendulum
- 6 Asymptotic Series



Geometric Series

Definition

A geometric series is of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^n + \dots$$
 (1)

Here a is the first term and r is called the ratio.

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Examples

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{3^n} = 1 + \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2^2}{3^2} + \frac{2^3}{3^3} + \cdots$$
$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} 3(2^n) = 3(2^2) + 3(2^3) + 3(2^4) + \cdots$$
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \cdots$$

Sum of Geometric Progression

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• Consider the *n*th partial sum:

$$s_n = a + ar + \cdots + ar^{n-2} + ar^{n-1}$$

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(2)

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• Now, multiply this equation by r.

$$rs_n = ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^{n-1} + ar^n$$
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Subtracting

$$(1-r)s_n = a - ar^n. \tag{4}$$

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• Thus, the *n*th partial sum is

$$s_n = \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}.$$
(5)

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Limit of Partial Sums

Recall that the sum, if it exists, is given by

$$S = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a(1-r^n)}{1-r}$$

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Geometric Series Result

The sum of the geometric series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r}, \qquad |r| < 1.$$
(6)

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In this case we have that a = 1 and $r = \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, this infinite series converges and the sum is

$$S = rac{1}{1 - rac{1}{2}} = 2.$$

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Example 2. $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{4}{3^k}$

In this example we note that the first term occurs for k = 2. So, $a = \frac{4}{9}$. Also, $r = \frac{1}{3}$. So,

$$S = rac{rac{4}{9}}{1 - rac{1}{3}} = rac{2}{3}.$$

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The First Terms

$$(1+x)^p = 1 + px + \frac{p(p-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$$
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More General Expressions

Consider the approximation $(r \ll R)$:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 + R^2}}$$

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More General Expressions

Consider the approximation $(r \ll R)$:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{r^2 + R^2}} = (r^2 + R^2)^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{R} \left(1 + \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 \right)^{-1/2} \approx \frac{1}{R} \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{2R^2} + \frac{3}{8} \frac{r^4}{R^4} \right)$$

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 $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$

Consider $(a + b)^p$ for nonnegative integer p's:

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$$(a+b)^{3} = a^{3}+3a^{2}b+3ab^{2}+b^{3}$$

$$(a+b)^{4} = a^{4}+4a^{3}b+6a^{2}b^{2}+4ab^{3}+b^{4}$$

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Do you see any patterns?

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General Patterns

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• Each term consists of a product of a power of *a* and a power of *b*.

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Result

So, we can write the k + 1st term in the expansion as

$$C_{k-1}^r a^{n-k} b^k$$
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Example - 6th term in $(a + b)^{51}$

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Example - 6th term in $(a + b)^{51}$

 $a^{51-5}b^5 = a^{46}b^5$. What is the numerical coefficient?

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April 11, 2007 11 / 37

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Observations

• Each row begins and ends with a one.

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- Add consecutive pairs in each row to obtain next row.

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Observations

Dr. Her

- Each row begins and ends with a one.
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- Add consecutive pairs in each row to obtain next row.

$$n = 2: \qquad 1 \qquad 2 \qquad 1 \qquad (9)$$

$$n = 3: \qquad 1 \qquad 3 \qquad 3 \qquad 1$$
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We can generate the next several rows of our triangle.

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We can generate the next several rows of our triangle.

The *k*th term in the expansion of $(a + b)^n$.

Let r = k - 1. Then this term is of the form $C_r^n a^{n-r} b^r$, where $C_r^n = C_r^{n-1} + C_{r-1}^{n-1}$.

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Actually, the coefficients have been found to take a simple form.

$$C_r^n = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!} = \begin{pmatrix} n \\ r \end{pmatrix}.$$

For example, the r = 2 case for n = 4 involves the six products: *aabb*, *abab*, *abba*, *abba*, *baba*, and *bbaa*.

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For example, the r = 2 case for n = 4 involves the six products: *aabb*, *abab*, *abba*, *abba*, *baba*, and *bbaa*.

The Binomial Series for Nonnegative Integer Powers

So, we have found that

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{r=0}^n \begin{pmatrix} n \\ r \end{pmatrix} a^{n-r} b^r.$$
 (12)

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Note: Sums may be infinite.

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Is There a Problem?

Consider the coefficient for r = 1 in an expansion of $(1 + x)^{-1}$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{(-1)!}{(-1-1)!1!} = \frac{(-1)!}{(-2)!1!}.$$

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where $(-1)! = (-1)(-2)(-3) \cdots = ????$

Eliminate the factorials

Exercising a little care:

$$\frac{(-1)!}{(-2)!} = \frac{(-1)(-2)!}{(-2)!} = -1.$$

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In General

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \\ r \end{pmatrix} = \frac{p!}{(p-r)!r!} = \frac{p(p-1)\cdots(p-r+1)(p-r)!}{(p-r)!r!} = \frac{p(p-1)\cdots(p-r+1)}{r!}.$$
 (14)

Theorem

The general binomial expansion of $(1 + x)^p$ for p real is

$$(1+x)^{p} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(p-1)\cdots(p-r+1)}{r!} x^{r}.$$
 (15)

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Approximations

Often we need the first few terms for the case that $x \ll 1$:

$$(1+x)^p = 1 + px + \frac{p(p-1)}{2}x^2 + O(x^3).$$
 (16)

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$$K = E - E_0$$

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= $\left(\left(1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) + \cdots\right) - 1\right)mc^2$

Dr. Herman (UNCW)

$$K = E - E_0$$

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= $\left(\left(1 + \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) + \cdots\right) - 1\right)mc^2$
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= $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

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Taylor and Maclaurin Series

Power Series

A power series expansion about x = a with coefficients c_n is given by $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - a)^n$.

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Power Series

A *power series* expansion about x = a with coefficients c_n is given by $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - a)^n$.

Taylor Series

A Taylor series expansion of f(x) about x = a is the series

$$f(x) \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x-a)^n, \qquad (17)$$

where

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}.$$
 (18)

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Expand $f(x) = e^x$ about $x = 0$.			
	n	$f^{(n)}(x)$	$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}$
	0	e ^x	$\frac{e^0}{0!} = 1$
	1	e ^x	$\frac{e^0}{1!} = 1$
	2	e ^x	$\tfrac{e^0}{2!} = \tfrac{1}{2!}$
	3	e ^x	$\frac{e^0}{3!}=\frac{1}{3!}$

In this case, we have that the pattern is obvious:

$$c_n=rac{1}{n!}.$$

So,

$$e^x \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}.$$

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Common Series Expansions

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$$

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

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

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

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

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Small Angle Approximation

$$\sin\theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \dots$$

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$$\sin \theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \dots$$
 Relative Error $= \left\| \frac{\sin \theta - \theta}{\sin \theta} \right\|$

Small Angle Approximation

$$\sin \theta = \theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} + \dots$$
 Relative Error $= \left\| \frac{\sin \theta - \theta}{\sin \theta} \right\|$

The relative error in percent when approximating $\sin \theta$ by θ .



A one percent relative error occurs for $\theta \approx 0.24$ radians = 0.24rad $\frac{180^{\circ}}{\pi rad} < 14^{\circ}$.

The Simple Pendulum



Consider Newton's Second Law for Rotational Motion:

 $\tau = I\alpha$



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Then

$$-(mg\sin\theta)L = mL^2\ddot{\theta} \Rightarrow L\ddot{\theta} + g\sin\theta = 0.$$



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Pendulum Equations

• Nonlinear Pendulum: $L\ddot{\theta} + g\sin\theta = 0$



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Pendulum Equations

- Nonlinear Pendulum: $L\ddot{\theta} + g\sin\theta = 0$
- Linear Pendulum: $L\ddot{\theta} + g\theta = 0$.



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The general solution

$$\theta(t) = c_1 \cos(\omega t) + c_2 \sin(\omega t) \tag{19}$$

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where

$$\omega \equiv \sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}.$$

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where

$$\omega \equiv \sqrt{\frac{g}{L}}.$$

The period is found to be

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}}.$$
 (20)

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Multiply Equation by $\dot{\theta}$:

 $\ddot{\theta}\dot{\theta}+\omega^2\sin\theta\dot{\theta}$

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Multiply Equation by $\dot{\theta}$:

$$\ddot{\theta}\dot{\theta} + \omega^2 \sin\theta \dot{\theta} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{1}{2} \dot{\theta}^2 - \omega^2 \cos\theta \right] = 0.$$

Image: A math a math

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Therefore,

$$\frac{1}{2}\dot{\theta}^2 - \omega^2\cos\theta = c.$$
(21)

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(21)

Solving for $\dot{\theta}$, we obtain

$$rac{d heta}{dt} = \sqrt{2(c+\omega^2\cos heta)}.$$

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Therefore,

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Solving for $\dot{\theta}$, we obtain

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \sqrt{2(c+\omega^2\cos\theta)}.$$

Rearrange and integrate:

$$t = \int dt = \int \frac{d\theta}{\sqrt{2(c + \omega^2 \cos \theta)}}$$

Energy Analysis

The kinetic energy,

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The kinetic energy, potential energy,

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A little rearranging:

$$\frac{1}{2}\dot{\theta}^2 - \omega^2\cos\theta = \frac{1}{mL^2}E - \omega^2 = c.$$

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and for $\theta_{max} = \theta_0$,

$$E = mgL(1 - \cos\theta_0) = mL^2\omega^2(1 - \cos\theta_0).$$

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Therefore, we have found that

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Using the half angle formula, $\sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos \theta)$, we have

$$\frac{1}{2}\dot{\theta}^2 = 2\omega^2 \left[\sin^2\frac{\theta_0}{2} - \sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right].$$
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Solving for $\dot{\theta}$,

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = 2\omega \left[\sin^2 \frac{\theta_0}{2} - \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} \right]^{1/2}.$$
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And separating:

$$2\omega dt = \frac{d\theta}{\left[\sin^2\frac{\theta_0}{2} - \sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right]^{1/2}}$$

The Period of Oscillation

Consider a quarter of a cycle ($\theta = 0$ to $\theta = \theta_0$):

$$T=rac{2}{\omega}\int_{0}^{ heta_{0}}rac{d\phi}{\sqrt{\sin^{2}rac{ heta_{0}}{2}-\sin^{2}rac{ heta}{2}}}.$$

Defining
$$z = \frac{\sin \frac{\theta}{2}}{\sin \frac{\theta_0}{2}}$$
 and $k = \sin \frac{\theta_0}{2}$, we obtain
$$T = \frac{4}{\omega} \int_0^1 \frac{dz}{\sqrt{(1-z^2)(1-k^2z^2)}}$$

This is done using

$$dz = \frac{1}{2k}\cos{\frac{\theta}{2}} d\theta = \frac{1}{2k}(1-k^2z^2)^{1/2} d\theta$$
 and $\sin^2{\frac{\theta_0}{2}} - \sin^2{\frac{\theta}{2}} = k^2(1-z^2).$

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(26)

For small angles, $k = \sin \frac{\theta_0}{2}$ is small.

$$(1-k^2z^2)^{-1/2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}k^2z^2 + \frac{3}{8}k^2z^4 + O((kz)^6)$$

$$T = \frac{4}{\omega} \int_0^1 \frac{dz}{\sqrt{(1-z^2)(1-k^2z^2)}}$$

= $2\pi \sqrt{\frac{L}{g}} \left[1 + \frac{1}{4}k^2 + \frac{9}{64}k^4 + \dots \right].$ (27)

Image: A math a math

... and finally!

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The Relative Error - Using 1,2,3 Terms



Usefulness of Divergent Series

Convergent Power Series

To date you have learned that convergent power series are good and divergent series are bad. Recall the ratio test: For $\sum c_n(x-a)^n$, the ratio test

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right| |x - a| < 1$$

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Simple Example

Recall

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

This converges absolutely when

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n}{(-1)^n (n+1)} \right| |x| < 1,$$

or |x| < 1.

Definition

 $f(x) \simeq \phi(x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{x^n}$ provided

$$\lim_{|x|\to\infty} x^n \left[\frac{f(x)}{\phi(x)} - \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{a_n}{x^n} \right] \to 0$$

Thus,

- for a given N, the sum of N + 1 terms of the series can be as close to ^{f(x)}/_{φ(x)} as one desires for sufficiently large x.
- For each x and N the error is of the order $1/x^{N+1}$
- However, the series is divergent and thus there are an optimal number of terms needed.

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A Simple Asymptotic Series

Example

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-zt}}{1+t^2} dt = \frac{1}{z} - \frac{2!}{z^3} + \frac{4!}{z^5} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(2n-2)!}{z^{2n-1}} + R_n(z)$$

where $|R_n(z)| \leq \frac{(2n)!}{z^{2n+1}}$ and for fixed n, $\lim_{|z|\to\infty} R_n(z) = 0$.

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The Relative Error for x = 5, 10



Dr. Herman (UNCW)

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Exponential Integral

$$\mathsf{Ei}(x)=\int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{t}\,dt.$$

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Integration by parts $(u = x^{-1}, dv = e^{-x} dx)$ gives

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$$Ei(x) = \frac{e^{-x}}{x} \left[1 - \frac{1}{x} + \frac{2!}{x^2} - \frac{3!}{x^3} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^n n!}{x^n} \right] + (-1)^{n+1} (n+1)! \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{t^{n+2}} dt.$$

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In general,

$$Ei(x) = \frac{e^{-x}}{x} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n!}{x^n}$$

Convergence of the Series $Ei(x) = \frac{e^{-x}}{x} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n!}{x^n}$

$$\rho = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!}{n!} \right| |x| = \infty,$$

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The Relative Error - Using 1,5,10 Terms



The Problem

Tie a string around the Earths equator so that it is tight. Now, add ten feet to the string. Pull it at one point until it is tight but comes up to a point. How far from the Earths surface is this? (How long a pole would you need to support it?) To how many digits can you give your answer?



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$$h = \sqrt{R^2 + (\frac{d}{2} + R\theta)^2} - R$$



Summary of Talk

1 Geometric Series

2 Binomial Series

- Special Relativity Example
- 3 Taylor Series

Applications

- Small Angles
- The Nonlinear Pendulum
- 6 Asymptotic Series

6 Homework - The World on a String

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