

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots = -\frac{1}{12}$$

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December 22, 2019

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Hardy and Ramanujan

Divergent series

Letter of Ramanujan addressed to G. H. Hardy containing the Claim

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots = -\frac{1}{12}$$

We will explain the intriguing proof of Ramanujan from his notes on the right.

the way of finding the constant is as follows -
 us take the series $1+2+3+4+5+\dots$. Let C be constant. Then $C = 1+2+3+4+\dots$
 $\therefore 4C = 4+8+\dots$
 $\therefore -3C = 1-2+3-4+\dots = \frac{1}{(1+1)^2} = \frac{1}{4}$
 $-\frac{1}{12}$.

For finding the sum to a fractional number assume the sum to be true always and it is anything difficult in finding $\phi(h)$ with small, take n any integer you choose, find $\phi(h)$ and then subtract $\{f(1+h)+f(2+h)+\dots+f(n+h)\}$ from the result,

sum to a negative number of terms is the same as the sign changed, calculated backwards from the term previous to the first. to the given no. of terms with positive sign instead of negative.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{n!} f^{(n)}(x) \cos \frac{\pi n}{2}$$

Let $\frac{B_n}{n!} \psi(n)$ be the coeff. of $f^{(n)}(x)$, then we have

$$\psi(1)=1, \psi(2)=-1, \psi(3)=1, \psi(4)=-1 \text{ \&c}$$

$$\psi(5)=0, \psi(6)=0, \psi(7)=0 \text{ \&c} \cdot \frac{B_1}{1!} \psi(1) = \frac{1}{2} \text{ But } B_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Let us take the series $1+2+3+4+5+\dots$. Let C be its sum.

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- Hence $C = -\frac{1}{12}$

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- Well, if the infinite sum $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots$ is not known to be convergent, then to say that $C - 4C = -3C$ is not legitimate. One of the issues is that of subtracting infinities.

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- Well, if the infinite sum $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots$ is not known to be convergent, then to say that $C - 4C = -3C$ is not legitimate. One of the issues is that of subtracting infinities.
- Moreover, it is not clear, unless the infinite sum $1 - 2 + 3 - 4 + \dots$ is convergent, why it should equal $\frac{1}{4}$.

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• Now, evaluating at $x = -1$ (which is not legitimate), we get the desired sum.

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- However, the sequence of partial sums is $1, 0, 1, 0, \dots$ and it doesn't have a limit.
- Clearly, violating the requirement $|x| < 1$ leads to meaningless consequences (put $x = 2$).

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- How do we make sense of these sums?

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• We notice that the elements in the sequence of the partial sums are at most 2 and they keep getting closer to 2.

• Moreover, this sequence has the limit 2.

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- This need not be the only way that one might be able to make sense of an infinite series. Are there are other ways?

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- Let $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$ and $b_1 + b_2 + b_3 + \dots$ be two convergent series with sum A and B respectively.
- Then it makes sense to multiply such a series by a scalar α and obtain a new series $\alpha a_1 + \alpha a_2 + \alpha a_3 + \dots$, which is convergent and the sum is αA . Also, $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + b_1 + b_2 + \dots = A + B$.

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- Suppose $1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots$ is convergent for some value of r . Then setting $R = 1 + r + r^2 + \dots$ and subtracting rR from R , we conclude that $R = \frac{1}{1-r}$.

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- Suppose $1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots$ is convergent for some value of r . Then setting $R = 1 + r + r^2 + \dots$ and subtracting rR from R , we conclude that $R = \frac{1}{1-r}$.
- Caution: All this is valid only if the initial series is (somehow) known to be convergent.

Multiplying infinite series

• The product of two infinite series is the series $c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + \dots$, where $c_k = \sum_{i=1}^k a_{k-i} b_i$.

• The product of two convergent series need not be convergent.

• An example: $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} + \dots \right)^2$.

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- What if we take the average of this sequence? We then get a new sequence, namely, $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{5}, \dots$

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- What if we take the average of this sequence? We then get a new sequence, namely, $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{5}, \dots$
- This new sequence of averages converges!

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- For instance, sum of two infinite series which are Cesaro summable is again Cesaro summable.
- We have a little more, namely, the product of two Cesaro summable infinite series is also Cesaro summable.
- An convergent series is Cesaro summable.

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- If the infinite series $1 + r + r^2 + r^3$ is convergent in the sense of Cesaro, then it sums to $\frac{1}{1-r}$.
- To justify this, recall that the earlier proof involved only multiplying the original convergent series R with the scalar r and the subtraction $R - rR$

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- Well, this is not a convergent sequence either.
So, what do we do.
- Let us take the average of the averages and
get $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{9}, \frac{5}{12}, \frac{34}{75}, \frac{34}{90}, \dots$

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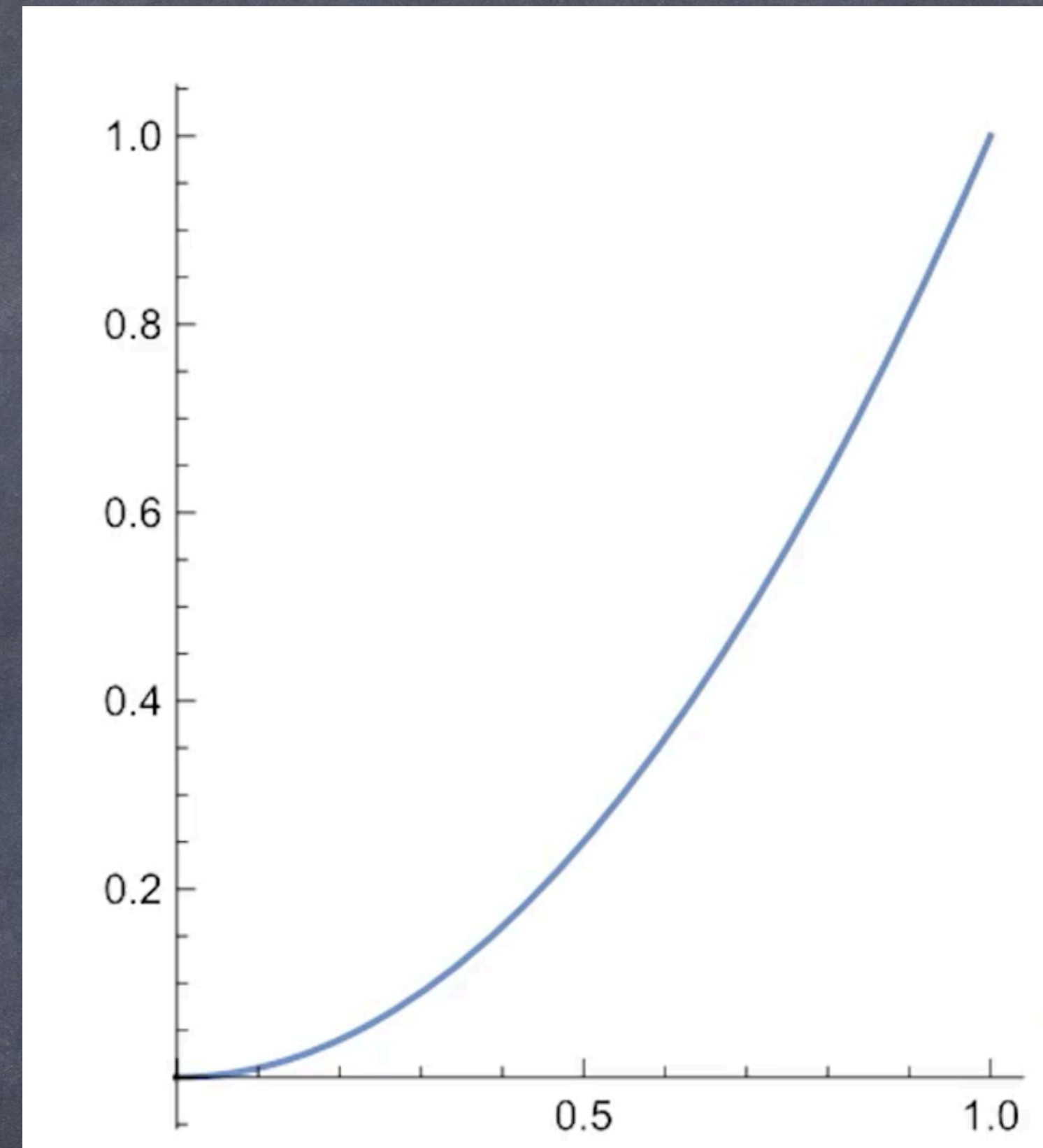
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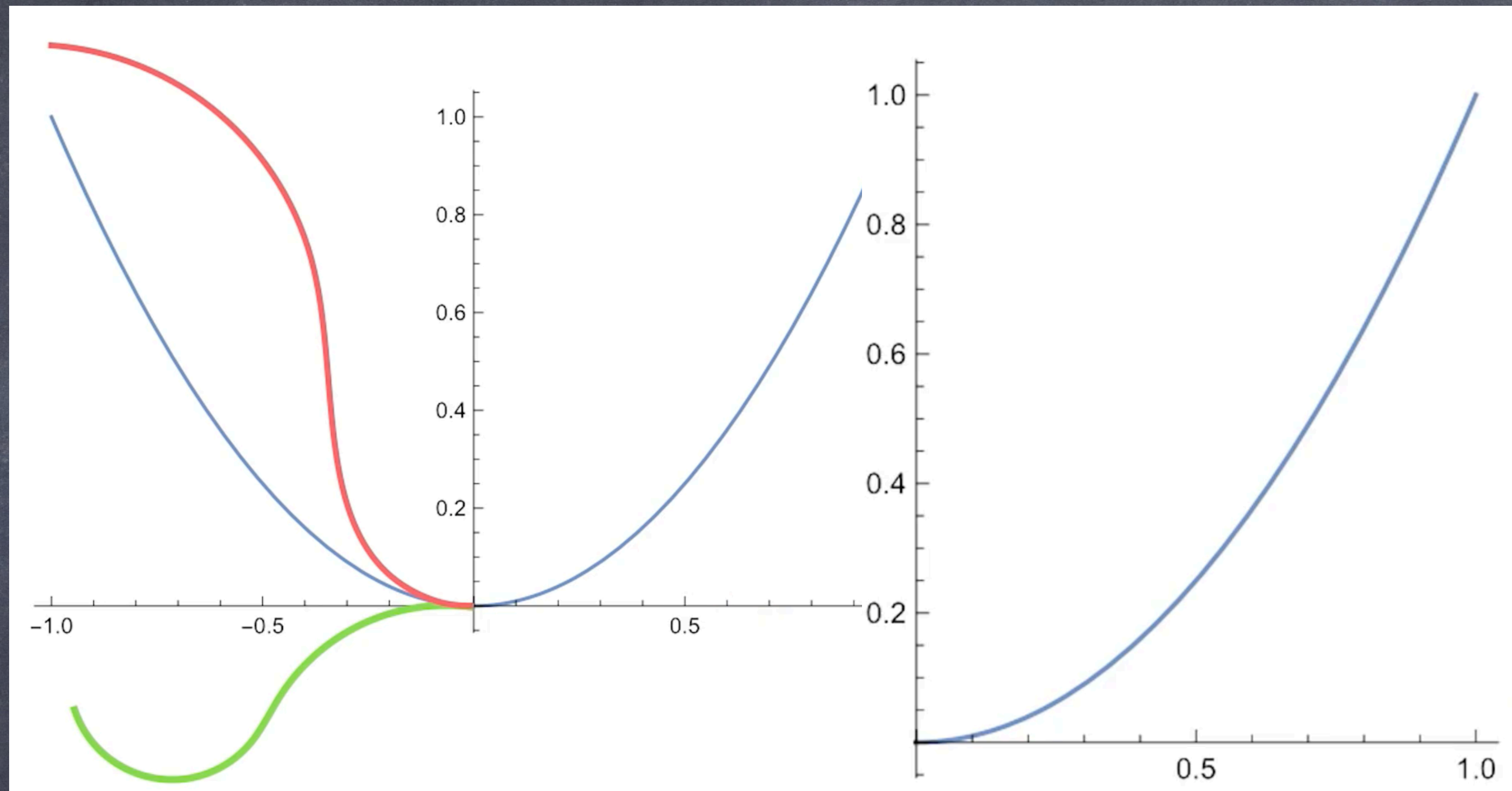
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- Can we ever make sense of
 $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots$

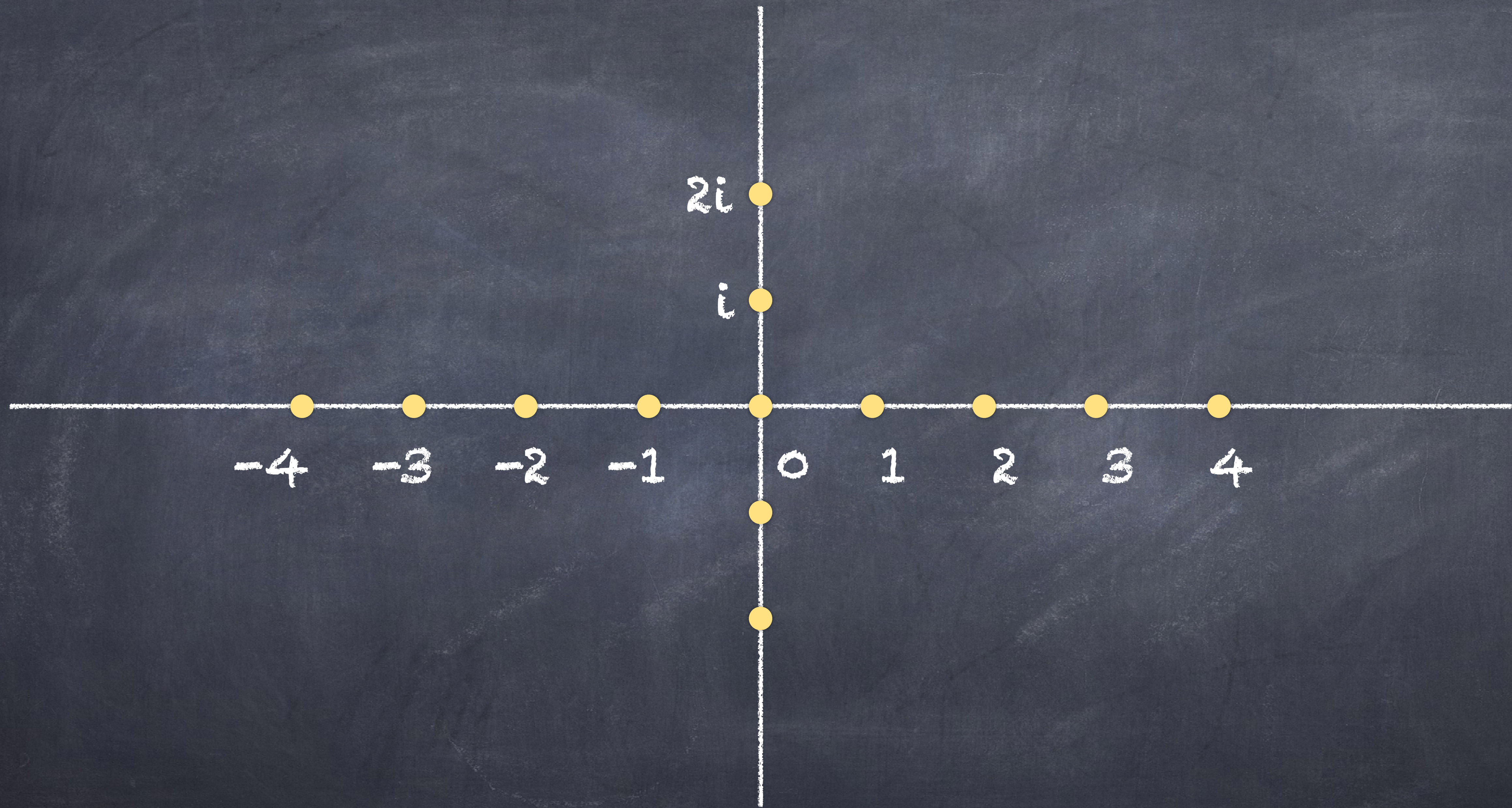
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Analytic

$2i$

i

-4

-3

-2

-1

0

1

2

3

4



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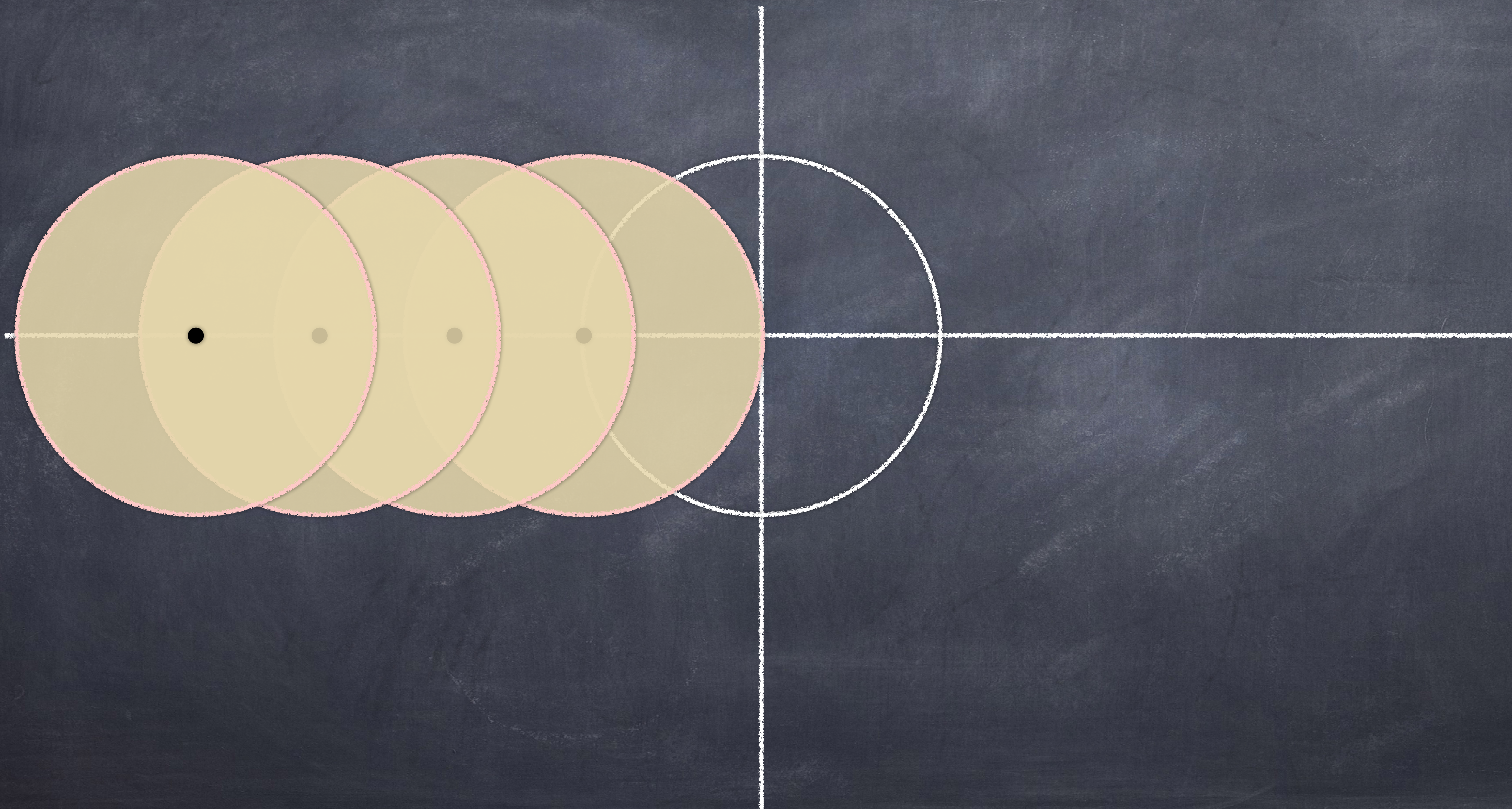
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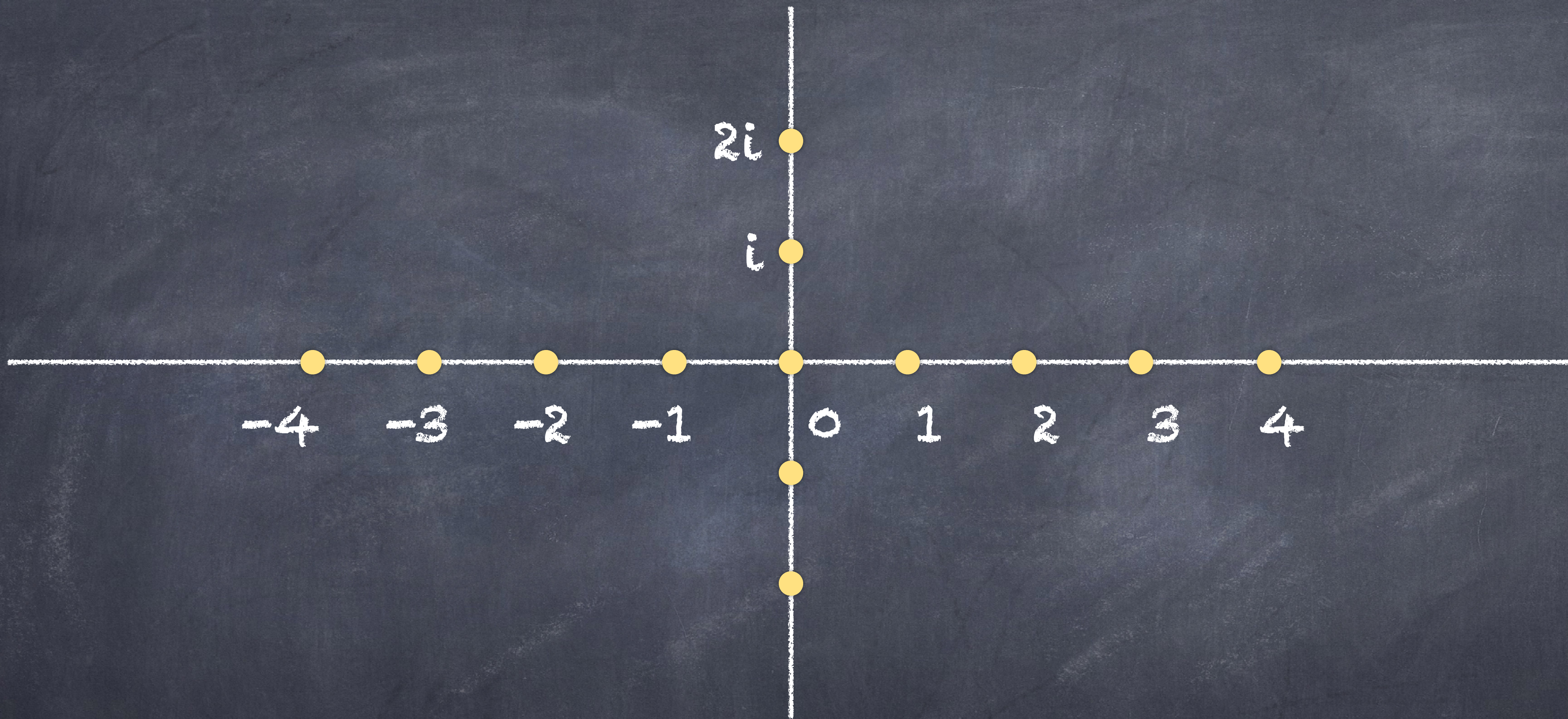
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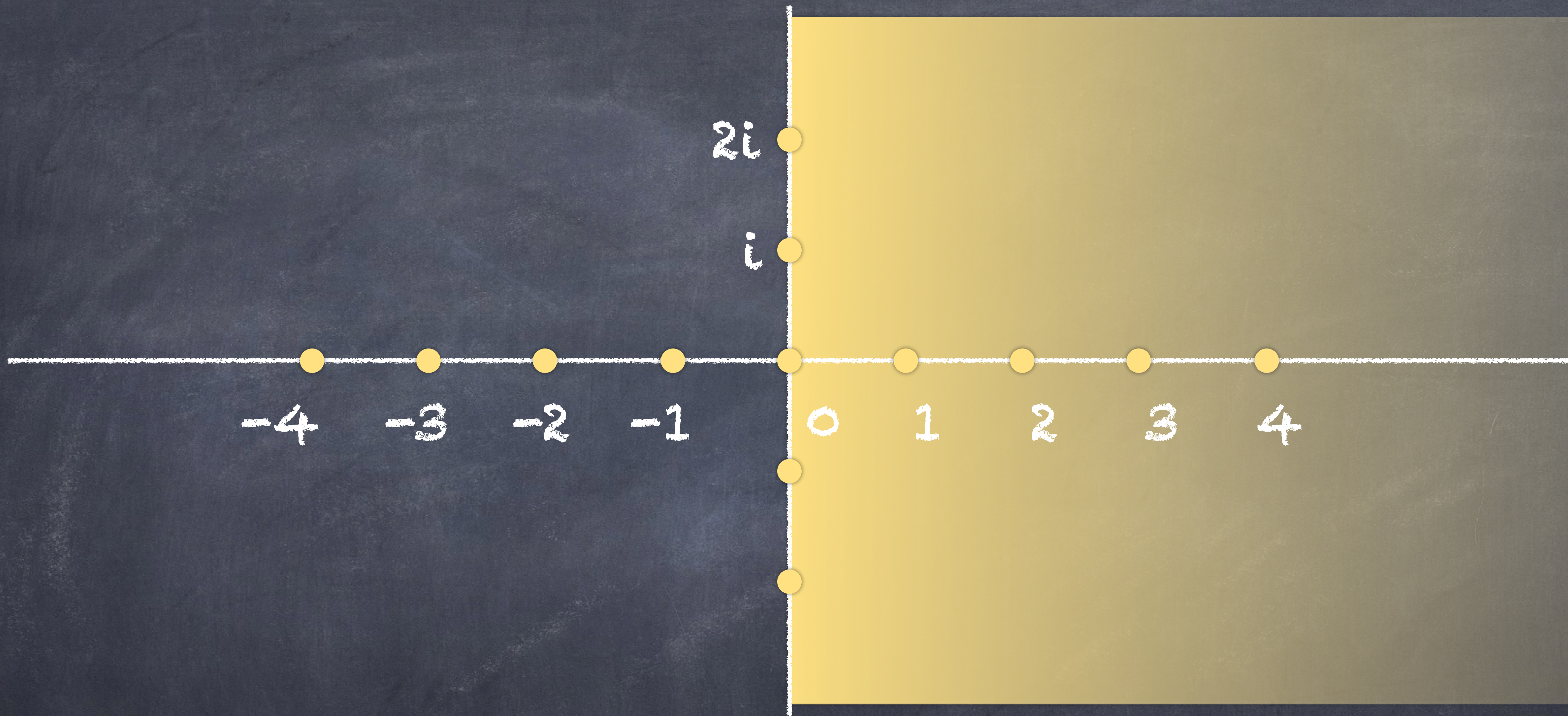
- Polynomials and convergent power series are examples of analytic functions
- If we are given an analytic function defined on the right half plane, how many different ways, can we extend to the left?
- Unlike the case of smooth functions, if there is such an extension, then it is unique.

Analytic Continuation





$$f(z) = 1 - \frac{1}{2^z} + \frac{1}{3^z} - \frac{1}{4^z} + \dots$$



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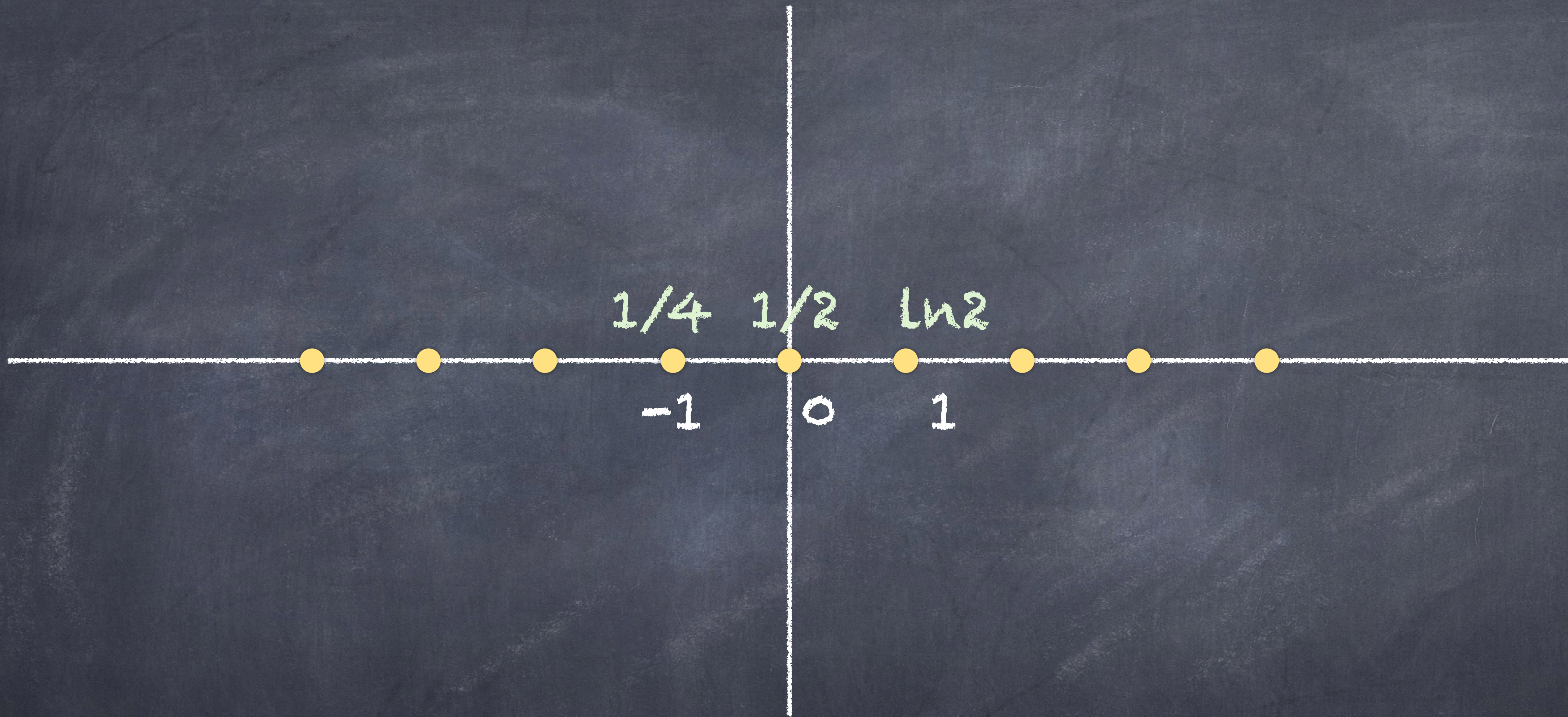
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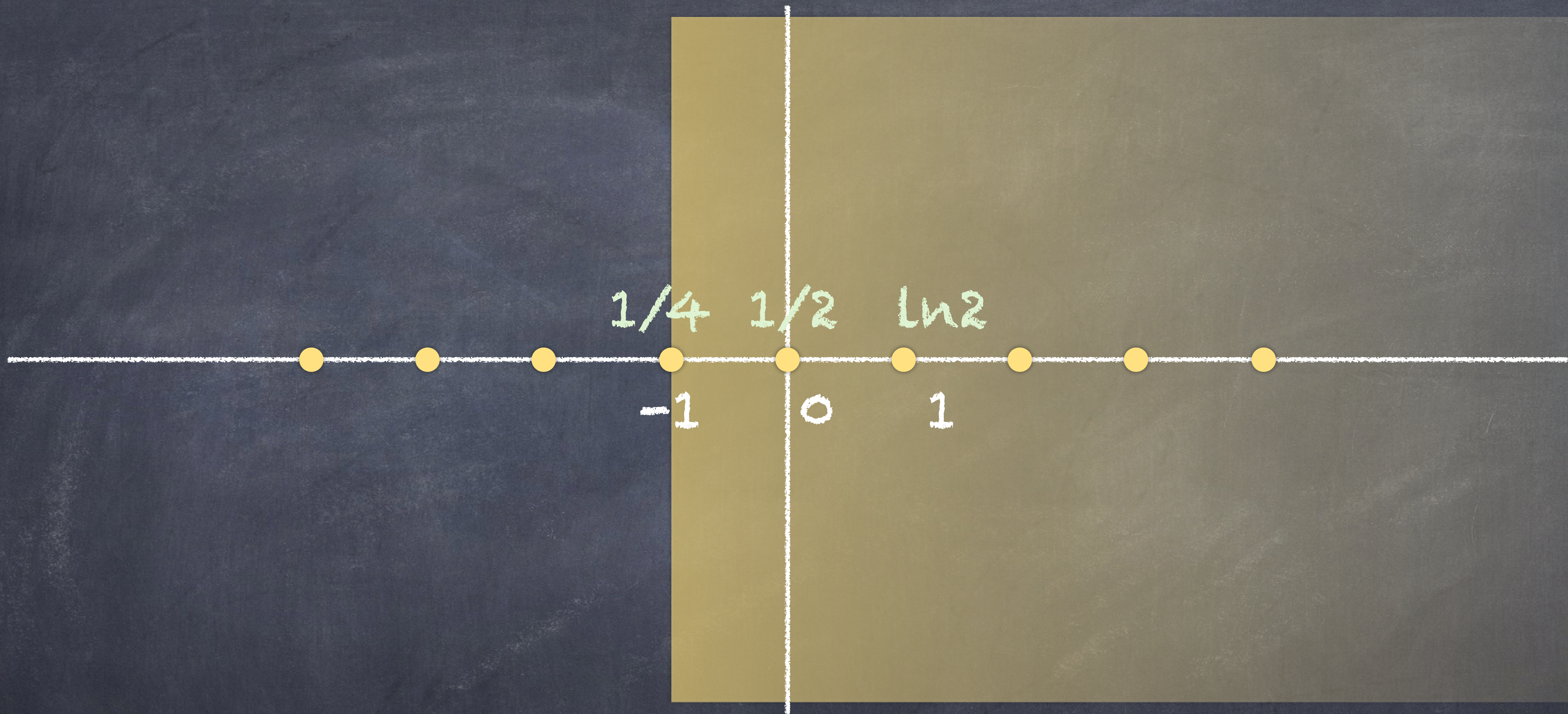
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Complex series

- Everything said about infinite series of real number actually applies to the complex counter part.
- This includes convergence, Cesaro sums, average of average etc.
- The series $f(z) = 1 - \frac{1}{2^z} + \frac{1}{3^z} - \frac{1}{4^z} + \dots$ converges on the right half plane.



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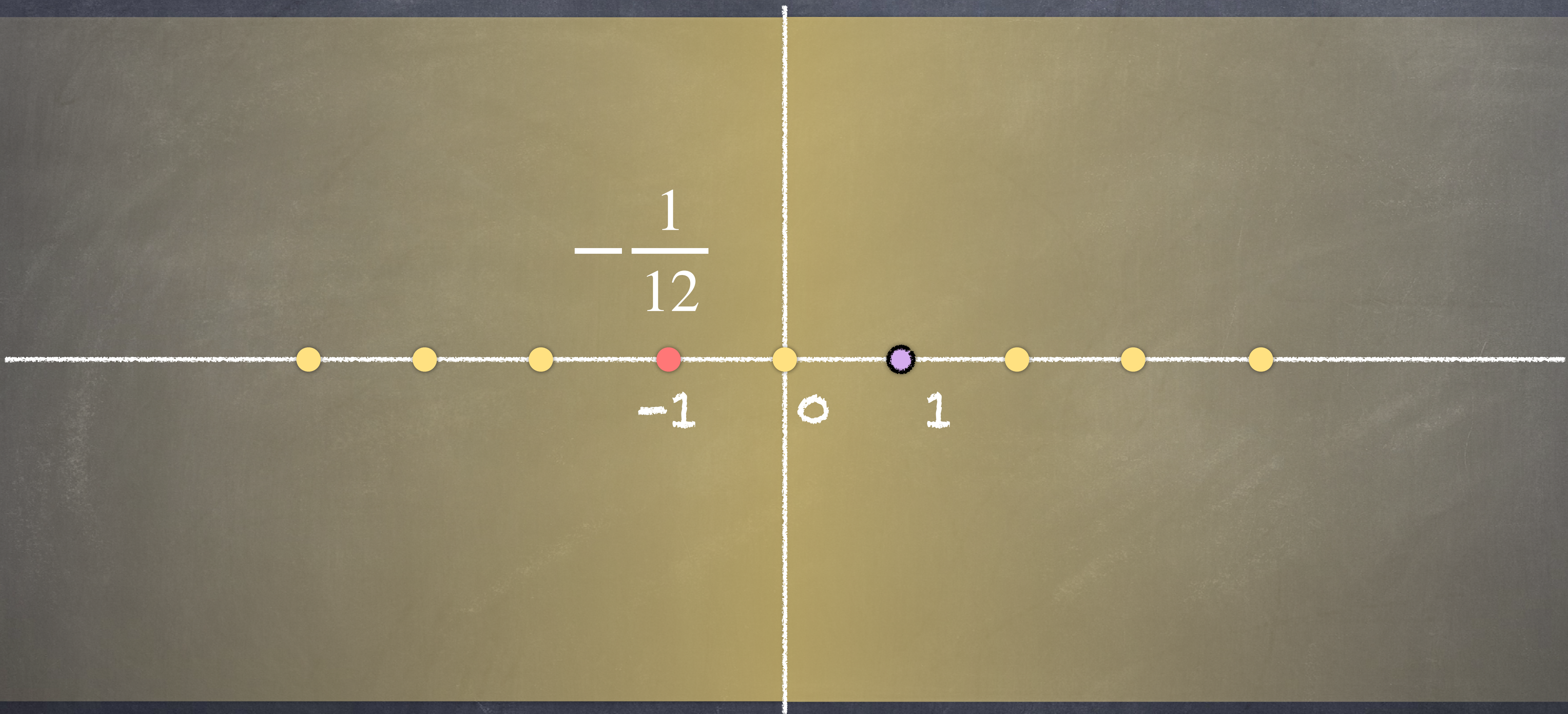
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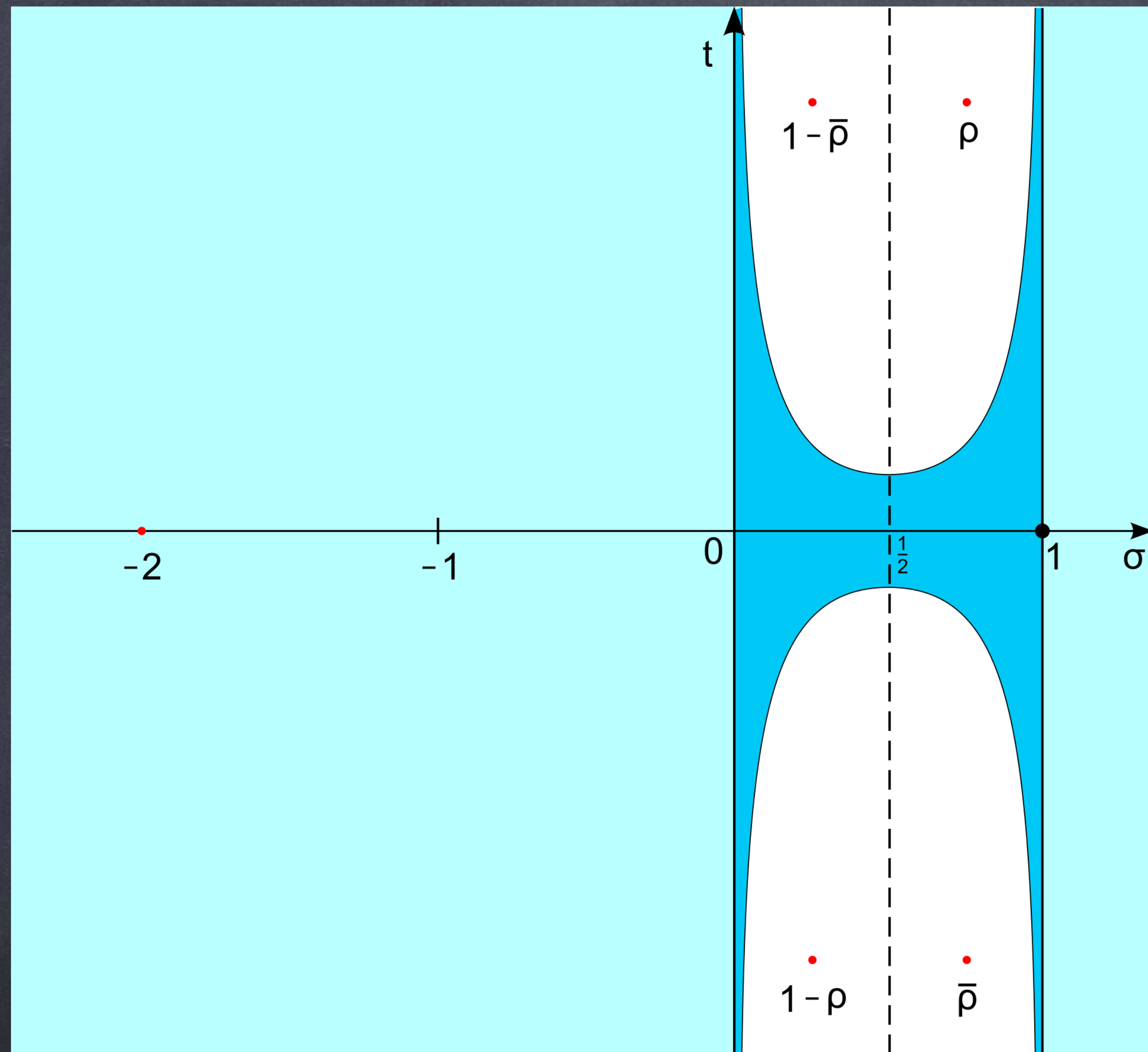
$$\zeta(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^z} + \frac{1}{3^z} + \frac{1}{4^z} + \dots$$

- It converges, when the σ of $z = \sigma + it$ is < 1 .
- It does not converge if $\sigma > 1$. But it has an analytic continuation to the entire complex plane except

$$\zeta(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^z} + \frac{1}{3^z} + \frac{1}{4^z} + \dots$$



$$\zeta(-1) = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots = -\frac{1}{12}$$



Apart from the trivial zeros, the Riemann zeta function has no zeros to the right of $\sigma = 1$ and to the left of $\sigma = 0$ (neither can the zeros lie too close to those lines). Furthermore, the non-trivial zeros are symmetric about the real axis and the line $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$ and, according to the Riemann hypothesis, they all lie on the line $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$.

THANK YOU!