## Chapter 3: Sequences, series and convergence

Section 3.1: Introduction to sequences and series

## Question 51

Does it make sense to talk about the "number"

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}=1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\frac{1}{16}+\frac{1}{25}+\ldots ?
$$

- $1+\frac{1}{4}=1.25$
- $1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\frac{1}{16} \approx 1.423611$
- $1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots+\frac{1}{(10)^{2}} \approx 1.549767$
- $1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots+\frac{1}{(200)^{2}} \approx 1.639947$

■ $1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots+\frac{1}{(10000)^{2}} \approx 1.644834$

- $1+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{9}+\cdots+\frac{1}{(100000)^{2}} \approx 1.644924$


## The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2}}$

The series

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

converges to the number $\frac{\pi^{2}}{6}$ (we will have precise definitions for the highlighted terms a bit later).

This fact is remarkable - there is no obvious connection between $\pi$ and squares of the form $\frac{1}{n^{2}}$; moreover all the terms in the series are rational but $\frac{\pi^{2}}{6}$ is certainly not.
This example gives us in principle a way of calculating the digits of $\pi$ or at least of $\pi^{2}$. (In practice there are similar but better ways, as the convergence in this example is very slow).

## Another Example

## Example 52

What about

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}=1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{4}+\ldots ?
$$

Try experimenting with initial segments again :

- $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{50} \approx 4.4992$
- $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{100} \approx 5.1874$
- $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{1000} \approx 7.4855$
- $1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3}+\cdots+\frac{1}{50000} \approx 11.3970$

There's no sign of this "settling down" or converging to anything that we can identify from this information. This doesn't tell us anything of course.

## Another Example ...

## Example 53

What about

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{2 n}}=\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{16}+\frac{1}{64}+\ldots ?
$$

Experimenting reveals

- $\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{16}=\frac{5}{16}$
- $\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{16}+\frac{1}{64}+\frac{1}{256}+\frac{1}{1024}=\frac{341}{1024} \approx 0.33301$
- $\frac{1}{2^{2}}+\frac{1}{2^{4}}+\frac{1}{2^{6}}+\cdots+\frac{1}{2^{14}} \approx 0.3333$

These calculations can be verified directly using properties of sums of geometric progressions. It appears that this series is converging (quite fast) to $\frac{1}{3}$.

## Another Example ...

## Example 54

What about

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{2 n}}=\frac{1}{4}+\frac{1}{16}+\frac{1}{64}+\ldots ?
$$

The following picture gives some graphical evidence for this hypothesis.


## A last example

## Example 55

Does it make sense to talk about

$$
f(x)=x-\frac{x^{3}}{3!}+\frac{x^{5}}{5!}-\frac{x^{7}}{7!}+\ldots
$$

as a function of $x$ ?
If it does, then $f$ must have a domain (consisting of some or all of the real numbers?) and substituting these values in to the definition in place of $x$ must somehow make sense.

- $x=0: f(0)=0$
- $x=\frac{\pi}{2}: f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \approx 0.9999$ (six terms)

■ $x=\frac{\pi}{6}: f\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) \approx 0.5000$ (six terms)
■ $x=\frac{\pi}{3}: f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \approx 0.8660$ (six terms) $\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \approx 0.8660\right)$
In all cases we get (just from the first six terms) something very close to $\sin x$.

## Section 3.2 : Sequences

Note: Chapter 11 of Stewart's Calculus is a good reference for this chapter of our lecture notes.

## Definition 56

A sequence is an infinite ordered list

$$
a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots
$$

- The items in list $a_{1}, a_{2}$ etc. are called terms (1st term, 2 nd term, and so on).
- In our context the terms will generally be real numbers - but they don't have to be.
- The sequence $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ can be denoted by $\left(a_{n}\right)$ or by $\left(a_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$.
- There may be an overall formula for the terms of the sequence, or a "rule" for getting from one to the next, but there doesn't have to be.

1 $\left((-1)^{n}+1\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}: a_{n}=(-1)^{n}+1$

$$
\begin{gathered}
a_{1}=-1+1=0, \quad a_{2}=(-1)^{2}+1=2, a_{3}=(-1)^{3}+1=0, \ldots \\
0,2,0,2,0,2, \ldots
\end{gathered}
$$

$2\left(\sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{2}\right)\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}: a_{n}=\sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{2}\right)$
$a_{1}=\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)=1, a_{2}=\sin (\pi)=0, a_{3}=\sin \left(\frac{3 \pi}{2}\right)=-1, a_{4}=$ $\sin (2 \pi)=0, \ldots$.

$$
1,0,-1,0,1,0,-1,0, \ldots
$$

$3\left(\frac{1}{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{2}\right)\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}: a_{n}=\frac{1}{n} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi}{2}\right)$
$a_{1}=\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)=1, a_{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sin (\pi)=0, a_{3}=\frac{1}{3} \sin \left(\frac{3 \pi}{2}\right)=-\frac{1}{3}, a_{4}=$ $\frac{1}{4} \sin (2 \pi)=0, \ldots$.

$$
1,0,-\frac{1}{3}, 0, \frac{1}{5}, 0,-\frac{1}{7}, 0, \ldots
$$

## Visualising a sequence

One way of visualizing a sequence is to consider is as a function whose domain is the set of natural numbers and think of its graph, which will be a collection of isolated points, one for each natural number.

## Example 57

$\left(2+(-1)^{n} 2^{1-n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$. Write $a_{n}=2+(-1)^{n} 2^{1-n}$. Then
$a_{1}=2-2^{0}=1, a_{2}=2+2^{-1}=\frac{5}{2}, a_{3}=2-2^{-2}=\frac{7}{4}, a_{4}=2+2^{-3}=\frac{17}{8}$.
Graphical representation of $\left(a_{n}\right)$ :


## The sequence $\left(2+(-1)^{n} \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$

As $n$ gets very large the positive number $\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$ gets very small. By taking $n$ as large as we like, we can make $\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$ as small as we like. Hence for very large values of $n$, the number $2+(-1)^{n} \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$ is very close to 2 . By taking $n$ as large as we like, we can make this number as close to 2 as we like.
We say that the sequence converges to 2 , or that 2 is the limit of the sequence, and write

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(2+(-1)^{n} \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\right)=2
$$

Note: Because $(-1)^{n}$ is alternately positive and negative as $n$ runs through the natural numbers, the terms of this sequence are alternately greater than and less than 2.

## Convergence of a sequence: "official" definitions

## Definition 58

The sequence ( $a_{n}$ ) converges to the number $L$ (or has limit $L$ ) if for every positive real number $\varepsilon$ (no matter how small) there exists a natural number $N$ with the property that the term $a_{n}$ of the sequence is within $\varepsilon$ of $L$ for all terms $a_{n}$ beyond the $N$ th term. In more compact language :

$$
\forall \varepsilon>0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \text { for which }\left|a_{n}-L\right|<\varepsilon \forall n>N \text {. }
$$

## Notes

■ If a sequence has a limit we say that it converges or is convergent. If not we say that it diverges or is divergent.

- If a sequence converges to $L$, then no matter how small a radius around $L$ we choose, there is a point in the sequence beyond which all terms are within that radius of $L$. So beyond this point, all terms of the sequence are very close together (and very close to $L$ ). Where that point is depends on how you interpret "very close together".


## Ways for a sequence to be divergent

Being convergent is a very strong property for a sequence to have, and there are lots of different ways for a sequence to be divergent.

## Example 59

$1\left(\max \left\{(-1)^{n}, 0\right\}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}: 0,1,0,1,0,1, \ldots$
This sequence alternates between 0 and 1 and does not approach any limit.
2 A sequence can be divergent by having terms that increase (or decrease) without limit.
$\left(2^{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}: 2,4,8,16,32,64, \ldots$
3 A sequence can have haphazard terms that follow no overall pattern, such as the sequence whose nth term is the nth digit after the decimal point in the decimal representation of $\pi$.

## Convergence is a precise concept!

Remark: The notion of a convergent sequence is sometimes described informally with words like "the terms get closer and closer to $L$ as $n$ gets larger". It is not true however that the terms in a sequence that converges to a limit $L$ must get progressively closer to $L$ as $n$ increases.

## Example 60

The sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)$ is defined by

$$
a_{n}=0 \text { if } n \text { is even, } a_{n}=\frac{1}{n} \text { if } n \text { is odd. }
$$

This sequence begins :

$$
1,0, \frac{1}{3}, 0, \frac{1}{5}, 0, \frac{1}{7}, 0, \frac{1}{9}, 0, \ldots
$$

It converges to 0 although it is not true that every step takes us closer to zero.

