

# Math2411 - Calculus II

## Section 001 Fall 2024

### Introduction to Sequences and Series

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## Sequences and Series Introduction:

Our objective is to study the basics of *infinite sequences* and *infinite series*. So to get started, what is an infinite sequence?

### Definition

An **infinite sequence**  $\{a_n\}$  is an ordered list of numbers of the form

$$a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, \dots$$

The subscript  $n$  is called the **index variable** of the sequence. Each number  $a_n$  is a **term** of the sequence. Sometimes sequences are defined by **explicit formulas**, in which case  $a_n = f(n)$  for some function  $f(n)$  defined over the positive integers. In other cases, sequences are defined by using a **recurrence relation**. In a recurrence relation, one term (or more) of the sequence is given explicitly, and subsequent terms are defined in terms of earlier terms in the sequence.

## Sequence Examples:

**Example 1.** Consider the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  where  $a_n = 2^n$  for natural numbers  $n$ .

$$\{2^n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \{2, 4, 8, 16, 32, \dots\}$$

Notice that we will use curly set brackets for sequence notation. And as above we can describe a sequence either by some explicit rule, or by listing enough of the sequence elements to understand the pattern (if there is indeed a pattern). Here is a graph of the sequence.

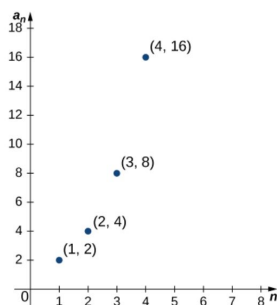


Figure 1: Graph of the sequence where  $a_n = 2^n$ .

Here is another example.

**Example 2.** The Fibonacci sequence is one of the most famous sequences in all of mathematics. This is defined recursively as follows.

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}, \quad \text{where } a_0 = a_1 = 1$$

Notice that the sequence is not defined as an explicit formula involving  $n$ . That is, we are not given a rule  $a_n = f(n)$ . Rather, the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term in the sequence is determined by the previous two terms. Here is the sequence.

$$\{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, \dots\}$$

Here is another simpler example.

**Example 3.** Define a sequence as follows so that  $a_n = \frac{n}{n^2 + 1}$ .

$$\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{10}, \frac{4}{17}, \dots \right\}$$

Here is another example.

**Example 4.** Here is is one of the most important sequences in all of mathematics. Let  $k$  be any real number and define

$$a_n = \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^n$$

So we have

$$\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \left\{ 1 + k, \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right)^2, \left(1 + \frac{k}{3}\right)^3, \left(1 + \frac{k}{4}\right)^4, \dots \right\}$$

## Limiting Values of Sequences:

The main question we will ask about sequences is whether or not the sequence converges to some value or diverges.

### Definition

Given a sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , if the terms  $a_n$  become arbitrarily close to a finite number  $L$  as  $n$  becomes sufficiently large, we say  $\{a_n\}$  is a **convergent sequence** and  $L$  is the **limit of the sequence**. In this case, we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$$

If a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is not convergent, we say it is a **divergent sequence**.

There is a nice graphic that reflects this idea.

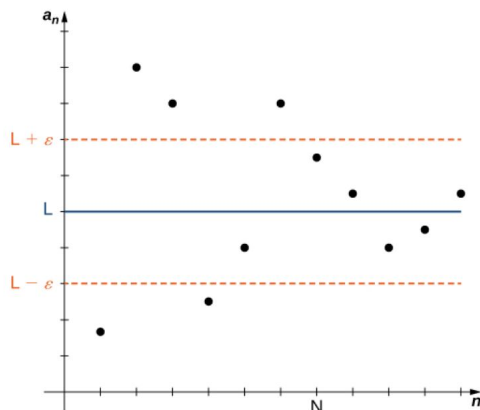


Figure 2: Graphic Representation of a Sequence  $\{a_n\}$  Converging to  $L$ .

The above definition is a somewhat informal definition that we will use in this class. However, we should realize that this definition can be formalized to be perfectly precise as follows.

#### Definition

A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to a real number  $L$  if for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N$  such that  $|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$  if  $n \geq N$ . The number  $L$  is the limit of the sequence and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \text{ or } a_n \rightarrow L.$$

In this case, we say the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a convergent sequence. If a sequence does not converge, it is a divergent sequence, and we say the limit does not exist.

We will not be working with this formal definition in this class. So how will we determine if a sequence converges or diverges? We will be exclusively evaluating explicit sequences and the following theorem will be our main tool for determining convergence or divergence.

#### Theorem 5.1: Limit of a Sequence Defined by a Function

Consider a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  such that  $a_n = f(n)$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . If there exists a real number  $L$  such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L,$$

then  $\{a_n\}$  converges and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$$

This theorem tells us that we can use all of our previous knowledge of function limits to evaluate sequence limits.

**Example 5.** Determine if the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , where  $a_n = n/(n^2 + 1)$ , converges or diverges.

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** We see that  $a_n = f(n)$  for the function  $f(x) = x/(x^2 + 1)$ . Then our knowledge of growth rates tells us that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} = 0.$$

Therefore, the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to zero.

Alternatively we could apply L'Hopital's rule.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} = \frac{\infty}{\infty} \quad \text{form}$$

$\downarrow$  by L'Hopital's Rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2x} = \frac{1}{\infty} \quad \text{form}$$

So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + 1} = 0.$

Let's consider another example.

**Example 6.** Determine if the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , where  $a_n = 2n^3/(5n^3 - n^2 + 1)$ , converges or diverges.

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** We see that  $a_n = f(n)$  for the function  $f(x) = 2x^3/(5x^3 - x^2 + 1)$ . Then our knowledge of growth rates tells us that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} = \frac{2}{5}.$$

Therefore, the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to  $2/5$ .

Alternatively we could apply algebraic techniques.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^3}{5x^3 - x^2 + 1} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3}{x^3} \cdot \left( \frac{2}{5 - \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^3}} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{5 - \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^3}} \\ &= \frac{2}{5 - 0 + 0} \\ &= \frac{2}{5} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2n^3}{5n^3 - n^2 + 1} = \frac{2}{5}.$$

Let's try another example.

**Example 7.** Determine if the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , where  $a_n = 7n/\ln(n+1)$ , converges or diverges.

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** We see that  $a_n = f(n)$  for the function  $f(x) = 7x/\ln(x+1)$ . Then our knowledge of growth rates tells us that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{7x}{\ln(x+1)} = \infty.$$

So the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  diverges to  $\infty$ .

Alternatively we could apply L'Hopital's rule.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{7x}{\ln(x+1)} = \frac{\infty}{\infty} \quad \text{form}$$

$\downarrow$  by L'Hopital's Rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 7(x+1) = \infty$$

So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{7n}{\ln(n+1)} = \infty$  and the sequence diverges.

Let's try another extremely important example.

**Example 8.** Determine if the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , where  $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^n$ , converges or diverges.

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** We see that  $a_n = f(n)$  for the function  $f(x) = \left(1 + \frac{k}{x}\right)^x$ . Then our knowledge of limits from Calculus I tells us that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{k}{x}\right)^x = e^k.$$

So the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to the exponential  $e^k$ .

Alternatively we could apply L'Hopital's rule to verify the above limit, but from this point on we will define

$$\lim \left(1 + \frac{k}{n}\right)^n := e^k.$$

And now one more example that will be important for us in this course.

**Example 9.** Determine if the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , where  $a_n = cr^n$  for some real numbers  $r$  and  $c$ , converges or diverges. This sequence is called a ***geometric sequence***.

**Workspace:**



**Solution:** The sequence is listed as

$$\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty} = \{c, cr, cr^2, cr^3, cr^4, \dots\}.$$

The defining property of this sequence is the common ration between consecutive terms.

$$\dots, cr^{k-1}, \underbrace{cr^k, cr^{k+1}}, \dots$$

$a_{k+1} = r a_k$

The limiting value of this sequence depends on the value of  $r$ .

- If  $-1 < r < 1$ , then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} cr^k = 0$ .
- If  $r = 1$ , then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c1^k = c$ .
- If  $r > 1$ , then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} cr^k = \infty$ .
- If  $r \leq -1$ , then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} cr^k$  does not exist.

## Infinite Series:

Next we will be studying *infinite series*. So what is an infinite series? It is simply a non-terminating discrete sum. We can think of it as an infinite sum of the terms in an infinite sequence.

### Definition

An **infinite series** is an expression of the form

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$$

For each positive integer  $k$ , the sum

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_k$$

is called the  $k$ th **partial sum** of the infinite series. The partial sums form a sequence  $\{S_k\}$ . If the sequence of partial sums converges to a real number  $S$ , the infinite series converges. If we can describe the **convergence of a series** to  $S$ , we call  $S$  the sum of the series, and we write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S.$$

If the sequence of partial sums diverges, we have the **divergence of a series**.

## Infinite Series Examples:

**Example 10.** Determine if the following infinite series converges.

$$\frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{100} + \frac{3}{1000} + \frac{3}{10000} + \cdots$$

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** Recognizing this series as corresponding to the decimal expansion of  $1/3$  we can see that the series will converge to  $1/3$ . But let's be more formal and use the given definition.

$$s_k = \frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{10^2} + \frac{3}{10^3} + \cdots + \frac{3}{10^k}.$$

Multiplying both sides by  $1/10$  we have

$$s_k/10 = \frac{3}{10^2} + \frac{3}{10^3} + \frac{3}{10^4} + \cdots + \frac{3}{10^{k+1}}.$$

It follows that

$$s_k - \frac{s_k}{10} = \frac{9s_k}{10} = \frac{3}{10} - \frac{3}{10^{k+1}} \implies s_k = \frac{10}{9} \left( \frac{3}{10} - \frac{3}{10^{k+1}} \right) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 10^k}.$$

To keep things as concrete as possible let's see what this means. If we have added  $k = 5$  terms then the  $5^{th}$  partial sum is

$$s_5 = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 10^5} = 0.33333.$$

If we have added  $k = 10$  terms then the  $10^{th}$  partial sum is

$$s_{10} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 10^{10}} = 0.3333333333.$$

If we have added  $k = 100$  terms then the  $100^{th}$  partial sum is

$$s_{100} = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 10^{100}} = 0.\underbrace{33333 \dots 3333}_{\text{One Hundred 3's}}.$$

It should be clear that as we add more and more terms we are getting arbitrarily close to the value  $1/3$ .

More formally,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 10^k} = \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{1}{3}.$$

So the infinite series converges to  $s = 1/3$ .

This example is a specific case of what's known as a geometric series. Let's consider the general case for a geometric series (one of the most important sequences).

**Example 11.** Determine if the following infinite series converges.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} cr^n = c + cr + cr^2 + cr^3 + cr^4 + \cdots$$

**Workspace:**

**Workspace Cont.:**

**Solution:** Let's be very careful and use the formal definition.

$$s_k = c + cr + cr^2 + cr^3 + cr^4 + \cdots + cr^k.$$

Multiplying both sides by  $1/10$  we have

$$rs_k = cr + cr^2 + cr^3 + cr^4 + \cdots + cr^{k+1}.$$

It follows that

$$s_k - \frac{s_k}{10} = (1 - r)s_k = c - cr^{k+1} \implies s_k = c \left( \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r} \right).$$

Now formally,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} c \left( \frac{1 - r^{k+1}}{1 - r} \right) = c \left( \frac{1}{1 - r} \right) \quad \text{if } -1 < r < 1.$$

Otherwise the limit does not exist. So the geometric series converges to  $s = \frac{c}{1 - r}$  only when  $|r| < 1$ . In this case, we write

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} cr^n = \frac{c}{1 - r}.$$

Otherwise, the series diverges. This is a fact that should be memorized from this point onwards.

Let's try another important example.

**Example 12.** Determine if the infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  converges or diverges.

**Note:** This is an important infinite series known as the *Harmonic Series*.

**Workspace:**

**Solution:** Let's group terms of the sum as follows.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}}_{\geq 1/2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{5} + \cdots + \frac{1}{8}}_{\geq 1/2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{9} + \cdots + \frac{1}{16}}_{\geq 1/2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{17} + \cdots + \frac{1}{32}}_{\geq 1/2} + \cdots$$

It is easy to see that the sequence of partial sums  $\{s_k\}$  is increasing and not bounded above. Therefore we have

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k = \infty$$

and the infinite series diverges to  $\infty$ .

We will discover that for most infinite series it may be practically impossible to discover a formula for the  $k^{th}$  partial sum. So we will need to spend a good deal of time developing tests for convergence and divergence of infinite series that don't require knowledge of any formula for the partial sums. This content will occupy a good deal of time in the next part of the course. See you there.

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**Please let me know if you have any questions, comments, or corrections!**