Calculus with Analytic Geometry II

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1 Sequences

Each time we have solved a geometric problem (area, volume, surface area), we have first approximated the solution as a sum. Then, we applied a limit to transform our sum into a Riemann sum, which we recognize as a definite integral. The mathematical concept underlying this methedology is known as a sequence. Today, we introduce the sequence in its general form. This investigation will lead us to the representation of functions via series, which is a powerful tool in the study of differential equations.

A sequence is a unending succession of numbers, called terms. It is understood that the terms have a definite order, that is, there is a first term a_1 , a second term a_2 , a third term a_3 , and so on. Such a sequence can be written as

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$$

Due to this definite order, sequences can be viewed as functions from the positive integers to the real numbers. For example, the sequence

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{4}{5}, \ldots$$

can be written as the function $f(n) = \frac{n}{n+1}$. As another example, the sequence

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \ldots$$

can be written as the function $f(n) = \frac{1}{2^n}$. The function of a sequence can also be written using bracket notation: $\{f(n)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. For instance, the sequences above can be written as $\{\frac{n}{n+1}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ and $\{\frac{1}{2^n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$, respectively.

A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is said to converge to the value L if for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is a positive integer N such that $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$ for all n > N. In this case, we write $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = L$. For example, the sequence $\{\frac{n}{n+1}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to 1. Indeed, for each $\epsilon > 0$, Let $N = \frac{1-\epsilon}{\epsilon}$. Then, n > N implies that $n > \frac{1-\epsilon}{\epsilon}$, i.e., $n+1 > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$. Therefore,

$$\left|\frac{n}{n+1} - 1\right| = \left|\frac{n - (n+1)}{n+1}\right|$$
$$= \frac{1}{n+1} < \epsilon.$$

If a sequence does not converge to a finite number L, then it is said to diverge. A sequence that diverges satisfies the following: For all finite numbers L, there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that for all positive integers N, there is a n > N such that $|a_n - L| \ge \epsilon$. For example, the sequence $\{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ diverges. Let L be any finite number and define $\epsilon = 1$. Then for any positive integer N, there is an n > N such that $|n - L| \ge \epsilon$.

2 Series

An infinite series is an expression that can be written in the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} u_k = u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + \dots + u_k + \dots$$

To determine the convergence or divergence of an infinite series, we define the sequence of partial sums:

$$s_1 = u_1$$

$$s_2 = u_1 + u_2$$

$$s_3 = u_1 + u_2 + u_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n u_k$$

If the sequence of partial sums $\{s_n\}$ converges to S, then the infinit series converges to S. If the sequence of partial sums diverges, then the infinite series diverges. For example, consider the infinite series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k$, which has sequence of partial sums

$$s_1 = -1$$

$$s_2 = 0$$

$$s_3 = -1$$

$$s_4 = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

This sequence of partial sums diverges; hence, the infinite series diverges.

As another example, consider the infinite series $\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{2^{k}}$, which has sequence of partial sums

$$s_{0} = 1$$

$$s_{1} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$s_{2} = \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{7}{4}$$

$$s_{3} = \frac{7}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{15}{8}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_{n} = \frac{2^{n+1} - 1}{2^{n}},$$

which converges to 2.

As another example, consider the series $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k(k+1)}$, which has sequence of partial sums

$$s_{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$s_{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$s_{3} = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{1}{12} = \frac{9}{12} = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$s_{4} = \frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{20} = \frac{16}{20} = \frac{4}{5}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_{n} = \frac{n}{n+1},$$

which converges to 1.