

# Lecture 14 Infinite sequences and series

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## 1 Infinite Sequences

**Definition.** An infinite sequence is an ordered list of numbers of the form

$$\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n, \dots\}.$$

For each  $n$ , the term  $a_n$  is called the  $n$ -th term of the sequence.

**Example.**

- $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n, \dots\}$ ,  $a_n = n$ ;
- $\{1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots\}$ ,  $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}$ ;
- $\{3, 3.14, 3.141, 3.1415, \dots\}$ ,  $a_n$  can be thought of the truncation of  $\pi$  to  $n - 1$  decimal place, but no explicit expression;
- Given  $a_n = f(n)$  with  $f(n) = \cos(\frac{\pi}{n})$ , gives  $\{\cos \frac{\pi}{1}, \cos \frac{\pi}{2}, \cos \frac{\pi}{3}, \dots\}$ ;
- The sequence

$$\left\{ \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}, \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}}, \dots \right\},$$

$$a_1 = \sqrt{2}, a_n = \sqrt{2 + a_{n-1}}, \text{ for } n \geq 2.$$

**Definition (limit of sequence).**

- An infinite sequence  $\{a_n\}$  has the **limit**  $a$ , which is a finite number, and we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a,$$

or  $a_n \rightarrow a$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists, we say the sequence **converges** (or is **convergent**). Otherwise, we say the sequence **diverges** (or is **divergent**).

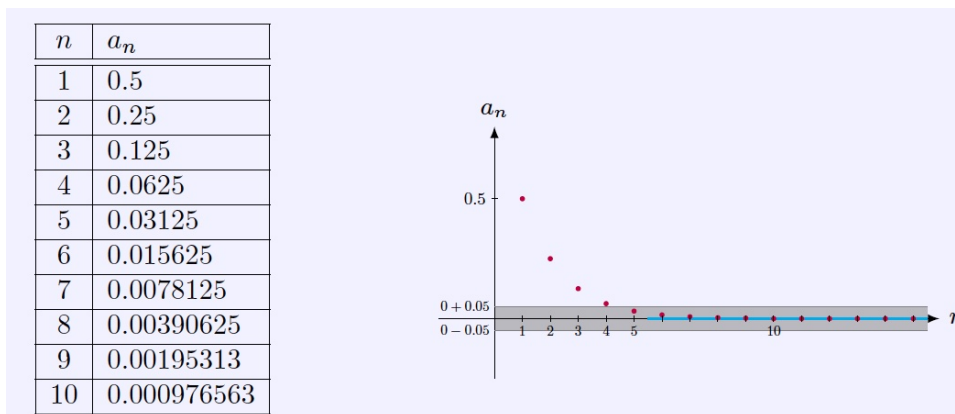
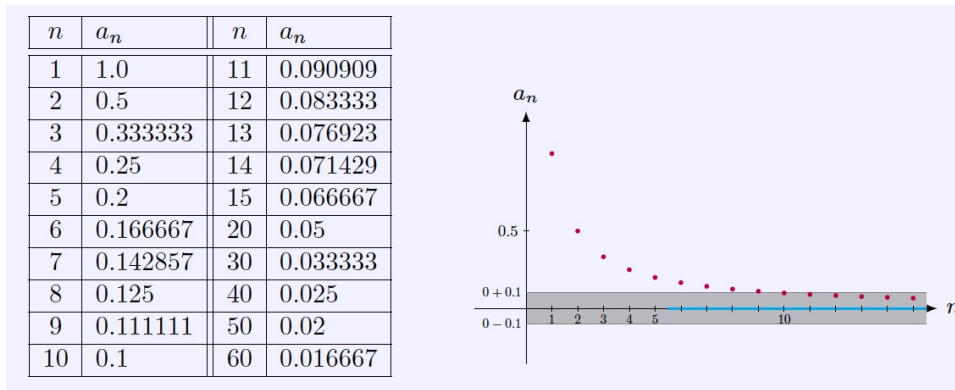
- The infinite limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$ . In this case, we say the sequence **diverges** to infinity. Similarly, we can define  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -\infty$ .

**Example.**

- The sequence  $\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots\}$ ,  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Since that  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We say that the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is convergent to 0. Note that

$$|a_n - 0| < 0.1, \implies n > 10.$$

The variation of  $a_n$  is shown below.



- The sequence  $\{\frac{1}{2}, (\frac{1}{2})^2, (\frac{1}{2})^3, \dots, (\frac{1}{2})^n, \dots\}$ ,  $a_n = (\frac{1}{2})^n$ . Since that  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we say that the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is convergent to 0. Note that

$$|a_n - 0| < 0.05, \implies n > 4.$$

The variation of  $a_n$  is shown below.

- The sequence  $\{0.9, 0.99, 0.999, 0.9999\}$  converges to 1.
- The sequence

$$\left\{ -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{8}{9}, \frac{3}{19}, \dots, \frac{n^2 + 2 \cdot (-1)^n n}{2n^2 + 1}, \dots \right\},$$

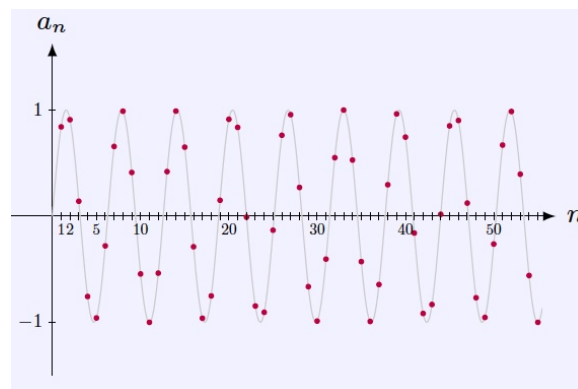
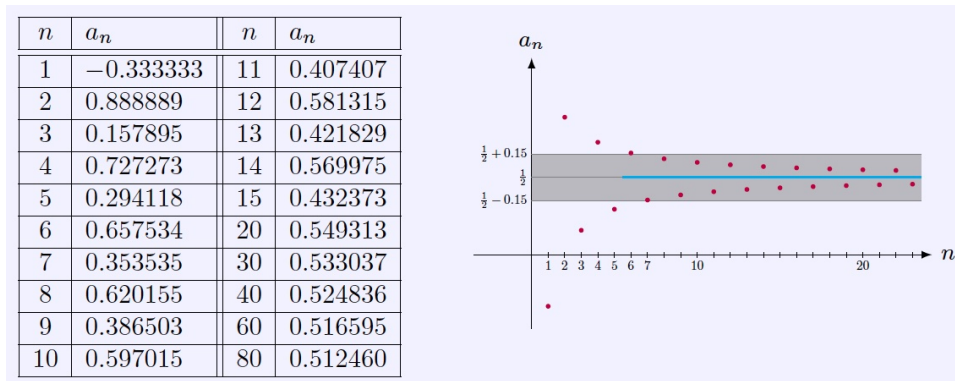
$a_n = \frac{n^2 + 2 \cdot (-1)^n}{2n^2 + 1}$ . Since that  $a_n \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we that the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Note that

$$|a_n - \frac{1}{2}| < 0.15, \implies n > 6.$$

The variation of  $a_n$  is shown below.

- The sequence  $\{\sin 1, \sin 2, \sin 3, \dots, \sin n, \dots\}$  diverges, since  $a_n = \sin n$  does not appear to approach any finite number as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . As is shown below.
- The sequence

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\ln 2}, \frac{2}{\ln 3}, \frac{3}{\ln 4}, \dots, \frac{n}{\ln(n+1)}, \dots \right\}.$$



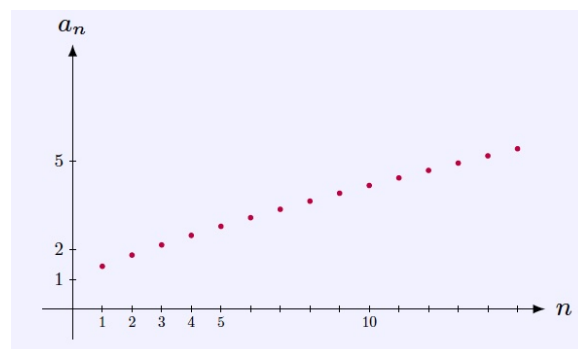
Note that by l'Hospital rule

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

Thus, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{\ln(n+1)} = \infty.$$

In turn, the sequence is divergent. As is shown below.



**Theorem (limit of a sequence from limit of a function).** If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = a$ , and  $f(n) = a_n$ , when  $n$  is an integer, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ . The same result holds when  $a = \infty$  or  $-\infty$ .

**Theorem (Limit Laws for sequences)** Suppose  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are convergent sequences and  $c$  is a constant. Then,

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (ca_n \pm b_n) = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \pm \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n;$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n;$

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n}$ , if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n \neq 0$ ;
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n^p = [\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n]^p$ , if  $p > 0$  and  $a_n > 0$ .

**Example.**

- Compute  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ , ( $p > 0$ ). Since that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ , we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ . Thus for  $p > 0$ , by the Limit Laws,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \right)^p = 0.$$

- Compute

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 2n - 1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 1}.$$

Since that

$$\frac{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 2n - 1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 1} = \frac{n^{\frac{3}{2}} \left( 1 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}} \right)}{n^{\frac{3}{2}} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}} \right)} = \frac{1 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}}{1 + \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}},$$

from the Limit Laws, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 2n - 1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}} + 1} = \frac{1 + 2 \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}}{1 + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^{\frac{3}{2}}}} = 1.$$

**Theorem (Squeeze Theorem).** If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq n_0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ .

**Example.** Compute  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{\sqrt{n}}$ .

**solution.**

Since that  $-1 < \cos n < 1$  for all  $n$ , we have

$$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\cos n}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \right) = 0$ , by the Squeeze Theorem, we get that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos n}{\sqrt{n}} = 0$ .

**Rk.**

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0 \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ ;
- If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n+1} = a$ , then  $\{a_n\}$  is convergent and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ .

**Definition (two asymptotic relations).**

- $a_n \ll b_n$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  means that  $a_n$  is much smaller than  $b_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0$ ;
- $a_n \sim b_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  means that  $a_n$  is asymptotic to  $b_n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 1$ .

**Rk.** For any real numbers  $p > 0$ ,  $q > 0$ ,  $r > 0$  and  $b > 1$ , when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we have

$$\ln^q n \ll n^p \ll n^p \ln^r n \ll b^n \ll n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \ll n^n.$$

Actually, by Stirling's formula, we have

$$n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Theorem (geometric sequences). Let  $r$  be a real number, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } |r| < 1, \\ 1, & \text{if } r = 1, \\ \infty \text{ or } -\infty \text{ (diverges)}, & \text{if } r \leq -1 \text{ or } r > 1. \end{cases}$$

Theorem (sequential limit for continuous function). If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$  and the function  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = f\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n\right) = f(a).$$

Example. Compute

$$(1) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a} \text{ for } a > 0, \quad (2) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n}, \quad (3) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right)^n.$$

solution. For (1), let the substitution  $a_n = \ln \sqrt[n]{a} = \frac{\ln a}{n}$ . Thus,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  and  $\sqrt[n]{a} = e^{a_n}$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{a_n} = e^0 = 1.$$

For (2), let the substitution  $a_n = \ln \sqrt[n]{n} = \frac{\ln n}{n}$ . Then  $\sqrt[n]{n} = e^{a_n}$ . Note that  $\ln n \ll n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{a_n} = e^0 = 1.$$

For (3), let the substitution

$$a_n = \ln \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right)^n = n \cdot \ln \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right).$$

Then  $\left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right)^n = e^{a_n}$ . Note that by l'Hospital's Rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{-1} \cdot \ln(1 - 2x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(1 - 2x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{-2}{1-2x}}{1} = -2,$$

so we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = -2$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{a_n} = e^{-2}.$$

Rk. Terminology for sequences below,

- $\{a_n\}$  is **increasing** if  $a_{n+1} > a_n$ , e.g.,  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  with  $a_n = n$ ;
- $\{a_n\}$  is **non-decreasing** if  $a_{n+1} \geq a_n$ , e.g.,  $\{1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, \dots\}$ ;
- $\{a_n\}$  is **decreasing** if  $a_{n+1} < a_n$ , e.g.,  $\{0, -1, -2, -3, \dots\}$ ;
- $\{a_n\}$  is **non-increasing** if  $a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ , e.g.,  $\{0, 0, -1, -1, -2, -2, \dots\}$ ;
- $\{a_n\}$  is **monotonic** if it is either non-increasing or non-decreasing;
- $\{a_n\}$  is **bounded** if there is a number  $M$  such that  $|a_n| \leq M$  for all  $n$ .

Rk (product of sequences). If  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = 0$ .

Theorem (Monotonic Sequence Theorem). Every **bounded, monotonic** sequence is convergent.

Example. Compute the limit of a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  with

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2}a_{n-1} + 1, \quad (n \geq 2); \quad a_1 = 1.$$

solution. From the observation, we have

$$a_{n+1} > a_n, \quad 1 \leq a_n < 2,$$

actually, this can be proved by mathematical induction. Since that  $\{a_n\}$  is increasing and bounded, by the Monotonic Sequence Theorem, we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = a$ . To find  $a$ , note that  $a_n = \frac{1}{2}a_{n-1} + 1$ , we take the limit on both sides as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and have

$$a = \frac{1}{2}a + 1, \quad \implies a = 2.$$

Example. Determine if the following sequences converge or diverge. If the sequence converges determine its limit.

$$(a) \left\{ \frac{3n^2 - 1}{10n + 5n^2} \right\}_{n=2}^{\infty} \quad (b) \left\{ \frac{e^{2n}}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad (c) \left\{ \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \quad (d) \{(-1)^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}.$$

solution. For (a),

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 - 1}{10n + 5n^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 \left(3 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)}{n^2 \left(\frac{10}{n} + 5\right)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 - \frac{1}{n^2}}{\frac{10}{n} + 5} = \frac{3}{5}.$$

For (b), since that by the L'Hospital rule, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{2x}}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2e^{2x}}{1} = \infty.$$

Thus, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{2n}}{n} = \infty,$$

which says the sequence diverges to  $\infty$ .

For (c), Since that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = 0.$$

For (d), by the exponential series using  $r = -1$ , the sequence is divergent.

## 2 Series

Definition (convergent series). For a given series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \dots$ , let  $s_n$  denote its  $n$ -th partial sum

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

If the sequence  $\{s_n\}$  is convergent and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s$  exists as a real number, then the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  is called **convergent** and we write

$$a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots = s \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = s.$$

The number  $s$  is called the sum of the series. If the sequence  $\{s_n\}$  is divergent, then the series is called **divergent**.

**Example.** Perform the following index shifts.

(a) Write  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1}$  as a series that starts at  $n = 0$ ;

(b) Write  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{1-3^{n+1}}$  as a series that starts at  $n = 3$ .

solution.

For (a),

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ar^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^{(n+1)-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n.$$

For (b),

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

Rk. Note that

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

For example,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = \sum_{n=1}^4 a_n + \sum_{n=5}^{\infty} a_n.$$

Theorem (geometric series). Let  $a \neq 0$  and  $r$  be a real number. Then the geometric series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ar^{k-1} = \begin{cases} \frac{a}{1-r}, & \text{if } |r| < 1; \\ \text{diverges,} & \text{if } |r| \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Proof.

- If  $r = 1$ , the partial sum  $s_n = a + a + \cdots + a = na$ , diverges either to  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ;
- If  $r \neq 1$ , the partial sum is

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

In turn,

$$rs_n = ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \cdots + ar^n,$$

Subtracting these equations, we get

$$s_n - rs_n = a - ar^n,$$

so that

$$s_n = \frac{a - ar^n}{1 - r}.$$

✓ if  $-1 < r < 1$ , since  $r^n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a - ar^n}{1 - r} = \frac{a}{1 - r};$$

✓ if  $r \leq -1$  or  $r > 1$ , the sequence  $\{r^n\}$  is divergent, so  $\{s_n\}$  is divergent as well.

Example. Evaluate the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{2^k} - \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right).$$

solution. The partial sum is

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{2^k} - \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{2^1} - \frac{1}{2^2} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{2^3} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{1}{2^n} - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{2^k} - \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Example. Evaluate the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)}.$$

solution. Note that the partial sum is

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) = 1.$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = 1.$$

Exercise. Determine if the following series converges or diverges. If it converges determine its sum.

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 - 1}. \quad (\text{hint: convergent, } \frac{3}{4}) \\ &\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 3n + 2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (properties of convergent series).



- If  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  converge, then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (ca_k \pm b_k) = c \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k.$$

- the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=N}^{\infty} a_k$  either both converge or both diverge, where  $N$  is a positive integer. In general, changing a finite number of terms in a convergent series does not change its convergence, although it does change the value of the series.

Rk. Generally, it is not easy to find the sum of a series. However, it is possible to study convergence of a series without knowing its sum.

Theorem (Divergence Test).

- $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  converges  $\implies \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$ ;
- $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k \neq 0 \implies \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges.

Since that if  $\sum a_k$  converges, we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s$  exists, where  $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$ . Thus

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (s_k - s_{k-1}) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_k - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} s_{k-1} = s - s = 0.$$

Example. Determine the series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k k^2}{k^2 + 1},$$

if it is convergent or divergent.

solution. Since, as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\left| \frac{(-1)^k k^2}{k^2 + 1} \right| = \frac{k^2}{k^2 + 1} = \frac{k^2}{k^2 (1 + \frac{1}{k^2})} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{k^2}} \rightarrow 1 \neq 0.$$

In turn,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^k k^2}{k^2 + 1} \neq 0$ . Hence, by the Divergence Test, the given series is divergent.

Rk.

- $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k \neq 0$ , then either the limit does not exist, or the limit exists but does not equal to 0;
- If  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$ , the Divergence Test is inconclusive. In other words, the zero limit of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is not sufficient for the convergence of the series  $\sum a_k$ . An example of such kind of series is the so-called harmonic series  $\sum \frac{1}{k}$  (diverges), since that the partial sum  $\{s_n\}$  does not have a finite limit.

Exercise. Determine if the following series is convergent or divergent.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4n^2 - n^3}{10 + 2n^3}, \quad (\text{hint: divergent})$$

Since that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^2 - n^3}{10 + 2n^3} = -\frac{1}{2} \neq 0.$$