

## Recursive Formulae for Power Sums

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If  $r$  and  $n$  are nonnegative integers, the  $r^{\text{th}}$  power sum  $S_r(n)$  is defined by

$$(1) \quad S_r(n) := \sum_{k=0}^n k^r, \text{ where } 0^0 := 1.$$

In particular,

$$(2) \quad S_0(n) = 1 + n.$$

Along with (2), the following recurrence provides a recursive formula for  $S_r(n)$ :

$$(3) \quad S_r(n) = \frac{1}{r+1} \left\{ (n+1)^{r+1} - \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \binom{r+1}{i} S_i(n) \right\}, \text{ for all } r \geq 1.$$

*Proof of (3):* By the binomial theorem,

$$(4) \quad (k+1)^{r+1} - k^{r+1} = \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{r+1}{i} k^i,$$

and so

$$(5) \quad \sum_{k=0}^n [(k+1)^{r+1} - k^{r+1}] = \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{r+1}{i} k^i = \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{r+1}{i} \sum_{k=0}^n k^i = \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{r+1}{i} S_i(n).$$

Since the left-most sum above telescopes to  $(n+1)^{r+1}$ , this yields the implicit recurrence

$$(6) \quad \sum_{i=0}^r \binom{r+1}{i} S_i(n) = (n+1)^{r+1},$$

which yields (3) upon solving for  $S_r(n)$ . See Wagner [2] for a combinatorial proof of (6).  $\square$

From (2) and (3) it follows by induction on  $r$  that  $S_r(n)$  is a polynomial in  $n$  of degree  $r+1$ .

Accordingly, let us write

$$(7) \quad S_r(n) = \sum_{j=0}^{r+1} a(r, j) n^j.$$

From (2) and the recurrence (3), we may compute

$$(8) \quad S_1(n) = \frac{1}{2}n + \frac{1}{2}n^2,$$

$$(9) \quad S_2(n) = \frac{1}{6}n + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{3}n^3,$$

$$(10) \quad S_3(n) = \frac{1}{4}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n^3 + \frac{1}{4}n^4, \text{ and}$$

$$(11) \quad S_4(n) = -\frac{1}{30}n + \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^4 + \frac{1}{5}n^5, \text{ etc.}$$

Tabulating the coefficients of these polynomials clarifies the connection between the coefficients of  $S_r(n)$  and those of  $S_{r-1}(n)$ .

*Table 1.*  $a(r, j)$  for  $0 \leq r \leq 4$  and  $0 \leq j \leq 5$

	$j=0$	$j=1$	$j=2$	$j=3$	$j=4$	$j=5$
$r=0$	1	1				
$r=1$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$			
$r=2$	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{3}$		
$r=3$	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	
$r=4$	0	$-\frac{1}{30}$	0	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{5}$

A careful examination of the above table leads us to conjecture the following theorem:

**Theorem.** For all  $r \geq 1$ ,  $a(r, 0) = 0$  and

$$(12) \quad \sum_{j=0}^{r+1} a(r, j) = \sum_{j=1}^{r+1} a(r, j) = 1, \text{ whence,}$$

$$(13) \quad a(r, 1) = 1 - \sum_{j=2}^{r+1} a(r, j).$$

For all  $r \geq 1$  and  $j \geq 2$ ,

$$(14) \quad a(r, j) = \frac{r}{j} a(r-1, j-1).$$

*Proof* (Owens [1]). Setting  $n=1$  in (7) yields  $\sum_{j=0}^{r+1} a(r, j) = S_r(1) = 0^r + 1^r = 1$ . Setting  $n=0$  in (7) for  $r \geq 1$  yields  $a(r, 0) = S_r(0) = 0^r = 0$ . Now consider the polynomial

$$(15) \quad S_r(x) := \sum_{j=0}^{r+1} a(r, j)x^j.$$

In what follows we use the easily established fact that, applied to a polynomial  $p(x)$ , the finite difference operator  $\Delta$  and the differentiation operator  $D$  commute, i.e.,

$$(16) \quad \Delta(Dp(x)) = D(\Delta p(x)).$$

Now by (1), it is the case that for fixed  $r \geq 0$  and all  $n \geq 0$ ,  $S_r(n+1) - S_r(n) = (n+1)^r$ , which implies the polynomial identity

$$(17) \quad \Delta S_r(x) = S_r(x+1) - S_r(x) = (x+1)^r.$$

From (16) and (17) it follows that

$$(18) \quad \Delta(DS_r(x)) = D(\Delta S_r(x)) = D(x+1)^r = r(x+1)^{r-1} = r\Delta S_{r-1}(x) = \Delta rS_{r-1}(x).$$

Hence,

$$(19) \quad \Delta(D S_r(x) - rS_{r-1}(x)) = 0,$$

from which it follows that the polynomial  $DS_r(x) - rS_{r-1}(x)$  is equal to a constant<sup>1</sup>, namely, the constant  $c = DS_r(0) - rS_{r-1}(0) = a(r, 1) - r\delta_{r,1}$ . Hence,

$$(20) \quad DS_r(x) = rS_{r-1}(x) + c, \text{ which implies that}$$

$$(21) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{r+1} ja(r, j)x^{j-1} = \sum_{j=0}^r (j+1)a(r, j+1)x^j = \sum_{j=0}^r ra(r-1, j)x^j + c.$$

Comparing coefficients of  $x^j$  for  $j \geq 1$  yields

$$(22) \quad (j+1)a(r, j+1) = ra(r-1, j) \text{ for all } r, j \geq 1, \text{ i.e.,}$$

$$(23) \quad ja(r, j) = ra(r-1, j-1) \text{ for all } r \geq 1 \text{ and all } j \geq 2. \quad \square$$

*Remark.* The numbers  $B_r$  defined by  $B_0 = a(0,1)$ ,  $B_1 = -a(1,1)$ , and  $B_r = a(r,1)$  for all  $r \geq 2$ , are called *Bernoulli numbers*. We have

$B_0 = 1, B_1 = -1/2, B_2 = 1/6, B_3 = 0, B_4 = -1/30, B_5 = 0, B_6 = 1/42, B_7 = 0, B_8 = -1/30, B_9 = 0, B_{10} = 5/66, B_{11} = 0, B_{12} = -691/2730$ , etc. It may be proved that  $B_r = 0$  for all odd  $r \geq 3$ , and that  $B_r$  alternates in sign for  $r$  even. If we define a function  $\beta: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$(24) \quad \beta(x) = \frac{x}{e^x - 1} \text{ if } x \neq 0 \text{ and } \beta(0) = 1 \left( = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{e^x - 1} \right),$$

then

$$(25) \quad \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} B_r \frac{x^r}{r!} = \beta(x) \quad (\text{and so } \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} a(r,1) \frac{x^r}{r!} = \beta(x) + x) \quad \text{for } |x| < 2\pi.$$

### Notes

<sup>1</sup> If  $p(x) = \sum_{j=0}^m c_j \binom{x}{j}$ , and  $\Delta p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \binom{x}{j-1} = 0$ , then  $c_1 = \dots = c_m = 0$ , since the set of polynomials  $\left\{ \binom{x}{j-1}, j = 1, \dots, m \right\}$  is a basis for the vector space of polynomials of degree  $\leq m-1$ . So  $p(x) = c_0$ .

### References

1. R. Owens, Sums of powers of integers, *Mathematics Magazine* **65** (1992), 38-40.
2. C. Wagner, Combinatorial proofs of formulas for power sums, *Archiv der Mathematik* **68** (1997), 464-467.