An infinite sum identity

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1 Introduction

We wish to compute, say, the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4n^3 + 2n^2 - 8n - 23}{2^n}.$$

Alright, whatever, seems a bit tricky.

Consider the numerator, a polynomial in n, and write down its values for n = 1, 2, 3, ... in a row.

-23 -25 1 79 233 487 865 ...

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Still doesn't look so nice. But now, write a row below it, whose numbers are the difference of the number on its top right and its top left.

If you take the first column of numbers, add them up, and multiply them by two, this turns out to be the answer: it happens to be that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{4n^3 + 2n^2 - 8n - 23}{2^n} = 2(-23 - 2 + 28 + 24) = 54.$$

Moreover, this "always happens" to be, which we will now show.

2 Finite differences and computing polynomials

But first, we define a discrete analogue of the derivative, the *difference operator*, or the *first difference operator*.

Definition 2.1. The *difference operator* Δ is defined by the equation

$$(\Delta f)(x) \coloneqq f(x+1) - f(x).$$

We define a related operator which is interesting in its own right, but whose purpose right now is to one specific calculation easier.

Definition 2.2. The *shift operator T* is defined by

$$(Tf)(x) \coloneqq f(x+1).$$

Then, we can write $T = \Delta + 1$, where **1** is the identity operator. This *immediately* gives us the following result.

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Theorem 2.3. Let f be some function. We have that

$$f(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \Delta^{k} f(0).$$

Proof.

$$f(n) = f(0+n)$$

= $T^n f(0)$
= $(\Delta + \mathbf{1})^n f(0)$
= $\left[\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \Delta^k \mathbf{1}^{n-k}\right] f(0)$
= $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \Delta^k f(0).$

One remark is in order: just as differentiating enough times kills off polynomials, taking enough finite differences does the same thing as well.

Remark 2.4. If p(x) is a polynomial, then for all $m > \deg p$,

$$(\Delta^m p) \equiv 0.$$

Proof. Left to the reader.

This gives us an easy corollary to Theorem 2.3.

Corollary 2.5. If p(x) is a polynomial in *x*, we have that

$$p(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \binom{n}{k} (\Delta^k p)(0).$$

Proof. Left to the reader.

This result is one of the easier pieces of proving the identity, which we can now finally precisely state using the difference operator.

3 The identity

Constructing the triangular array we constructed earlier.

Now instead of numbers, we can write it with notation.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} f(0) & f(1) & f(2) & f(3) & \cdots \\ & \Delta f(0) & \Delta f(1) & \Delta f(2) & \cdots \\ & & \Delta^2 f(0) & \Delta^2 f(1) & \cdots \\ & & & & \Delta^3 f(0) & \cdots \\ & & & & \ddots \end{array}$$

Now, we can see that "taking the first column" accounts to looking at $(\Delta^k f)(0)$ for all k.

We've looked at $(\Delta^k f)(0)$ for a bit now— in Theorem 2.3, in Corollary 2.5, and now in the identity we want to prove. This is another "finite calculus" analogy— Theorem 2.3 is an analogue of *Taylor series expansion*. Instead of expanding f as a sum of *derivatives* $f^{(k)}(0)$, we expand f as a sum of *differences* $(\Delta^k f)(0)$.

In its more general form, the identity looks very similar to Corollary 2.5. Without further ado, here it is.

Theorem 3.1 (The theorem, more generally). Let p be some polynomial. Fix a number a > 1. Then,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(n)}{a^n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \frac{a}{(a-1)^{k+1}} (\Delta^k p)(0).$$

We can't quite prove this yet, though.

For the meantime, we note that something *awesome* happens in the a = 2 case, which was demonstrated in the introduction.

Corollary 3.2 (The theorem, less generally). Let *p* be some polynomial. Then,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(n)}{2^n} = 2 \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} (\Delta^k p)(0).$$

Proof. Left to the reader.

Here's a quick example:

Example 3.3. Consider the sum

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n},$$

so now p(n) = n, and a = 2. The finite differences are $(\Delta^0 p)(0) = 0$, $(\Delta^1 p)(0) = 1$, so

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} = 2(0+1)$$

4 Falling factorials and Newton's binomial formula

Next, we define an operation that is *like* taking powers, just like how differences are *like* taking derivatives.

Definition 4.1. Let $m \ge 0$ be a number. The *falling factorial*, $x^{\underline{m}}$, is defined by

$$x^{\underline{m}} \coloneqq \underbrace{x \cdot (x-1) \cdots (x-m+1)}_{m \text{ factors}}.$$

Note that the ordinary factorial n! is $n^{\underline{n}}$. On the flip side, if m < n are two integers, then $n^{\underline{m}} = n!/(n-m)!$. With that said, we can see then that $\binom{n}{k} = n^{\underline{k}}/k!$, when n and k are positive integers.

Even better, falling factorials allow us to give a *more general definition* of the binomial coefficient, in which the upper index is no longer required to be a nonnegative integer.

Definition 4.2. Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and let *n* be *any* number. The *binomial coefficient* $\binom{n}{k}$ is defined by

$$\binom{n}{k} \coloneqq \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{k!}.$$

Now we have identities which we couldn't have *dreamed of* without a more general binomial coefficient, for example:

Lemma 4.3 (Upper negation). Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and let *n* be any number again. Then

$$\binom{-n}{k} = (-1)^k \binom{n+k-1}{k}.$$

Proof. We start by expanding the left hand side, which is

$$\binom{-n}{k} = \frac{(-n)^{\underline{k}}}{k!}.$$

Then, we manipulate the product $(-n)^{\underline{k}}$ with our bare hands:

$$(-n)^{\underline{k}} = ((-n))((-n) - 1)((-n) - 2) \cdots ((-n) - k + 1)$$

= $((-1)(n))((-1)(n+1))((-1)(n+2)) \cdots ((-1)(n+k-1))$
= $(-1)^{k}(n)(n+1)(n+2) \cdots (n+k-1)$
= $(-1)^{k}(n+k-1)^{\underline{k}}.$

Then,

$$\binom{-n}{k} = \frac{(-n)^{\underline{k}}}{k!} = \frac{(-1)^k (n+k-1)^{\underline{k}}}{k!} = (-1)^k \binom{n+k-1}{k}.$$

What this tells us is that negating the upper index can be "straightened out" this way into an expression *without* a negative upper index.

As another application of our new binomial coefficient, we have a powerful and important generalization of the *binomial formula*, which involves a *series* rather than a sum.

Theorem 4.4 (Newton's binomial formula). For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(1+x)^a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{a}{k} x^k.$$

Proof. Doing this rigorously takes *forever*, so I refer to [GrinbergAC], Theorem 3.8.3.

However, in proving our identity, we'll want the above sum to run over the *upper index* of the binomial coefficient. Luckily, we *do* have a version that runs over the upper index.

Theorem 4.5. Fix $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^n = \frac{x^k}{(1-x)^{k+1}}.$$

Proof. We begin with Newton's binomial formula

$$(1+x)^a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{a}{k} x^k,$$

And we, superficially for now, replace k with n, so we have

$$(1+x)^a = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{a}{n} x^n.$$

Now *k* is back in our pool of free variables, so put a = -k - 1. Then,

$$\frac{1}{(1+x)^{k+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{-(k+1)}{n} x^n.$$

Now we hit it with upper negation,

$$\binom{-(k+1)}{n} = (-1)^n \binom{(k+1)+n-1}{n} = (-1)^n \binom{n+k}{n},$$

so now we finally have a *n* in the top index,

$$\frac{1}{(1+x)^{k+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{n} (-1)^n x^n.$$

To get rid of the *n* in the bottom index, we use binomial coefficient symmetry,

$$\binom{n+k}{n} = \binom{n+k}{(n+k)-n} = \binom{n+k}{k},$$

and now we're almost done, since we have

$$\frac{1}{(1+x)^{k+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^n x^n.$$

To cancel out the $(-1)^n$, we introduce another $(-1)^n$ by substituting -x for x, so

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^{k+1}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^n (-x)^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^n (-1)^n x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} (-1)^{2n} x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} x^n.$$

And finally, we shift by a x^k term, so that we can do a re-indexing of the sum,

$$\frac{x^k}{(1+x)^{k+1}} = x^k \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{k} x^{n+k}$$
$$= \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^n.$$

Since, for integers, $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ if n < k, we can rewrite the sum to start from n = 0, since this amounts to padding leading zeros.

$$\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^n = \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{n}{k} x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^n.$$

Now we basically have the *other* piece we need to prove our identity.

Corollary 4.6. Fix *k*. We have that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{a^n} = \frac{a}{(a-1)^{k+1}}.$$

Proof. Left to the reader.

5 Proof of the identity

Now we have all the tools to prove this!

Proof of Theorem **3.1**. By Theorem **2.3**, we have that

$$p(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \binom{n}{k} (\Delta^k p)(0)$$

Next, we grind it out a little.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(n)}{a^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} {n \choose k} (\Delta^k p)(0)}{a^n}$$
By Corollary 2.5
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \frac{{n \choose k} (\Delta^k p)(0)}{a^n}$$
Push the a^{-n} inside the sum
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{{n \choose k} (\Delta^k p)(0)}{a^n}$$
Interchange sums
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} (\Delta^k p)(0) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{{n \choose k}}{a^n}$$
Pull out $(\Delta^k) p(0)$ from
sum running over n
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} (\Delta^k p)(0) \frac{a}{(a-1)^{k+1}}$$
By Corollary 4.6
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\deg p} \frac{a}{(a-1)^{k+1}} (\Delta^k p)(0).$$

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References

[GrinbergAC] Darij Grinberg, An Introduction to Algebraic Combinatorics, http://www.cip.ifi.lmu.de/~grinberg/t/21s/lecs.pdf