

Notation for sums. In Notes §4.1, we define the integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as a limit of approximations. That is, we split the interval $x \in [a, b]$ into n increments of size $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, we choose sample points x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and we take:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x.$$

The sum which appears on the right is called a *Riemann sum*. Similar sums appear frequently in mathematics, and we define a special notation to handle them.

In the most general situation, we have a sequence of numbers $q_0, q_1, q_2, q_3, \dots$ so that for any $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ we have a number q_i . We consider an interval of integers $i = m, m+1, m+2, \dots, n$, and we introduce a notation for the sum of all the q_i for $i = m$ to n :

$$\sum_{i=m}^n q_i = q_m + q_{m+1} + q_{m+2} + \cdots + q_n.$$

The summation symbol Σ is capital sigma, the Greek letter S meaning *sum*. The variable i is called the *index of summation*.

Examples

- Letting $q_i = \sqrt{i}$, we have $q_0 = \sqrt{0} = 0$, $q_1 = \sqrt{1} = 1$, $q_2 = \sqrt{2}$, $q_3 = \sqrt{3}$, \dots , and taking the interval of integers $i = 2, 3, 4, 5$, we have:

$$\sum_{i=2}^5 \sqrt{i} = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{4} + \sqrt{5} \approx 7.38.$$

- Letting $q_i = 1$, we have: $\sum_{i=1}^{10} 1 = \underbrace{1 + 1 + \cdots + 1}_{10 \text{ terms}} = 10$.
- Given the sum of the first ten square numbers $1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + \cdots + 100$, we wish to write this compactly in sigma notation. Considering the terms as a sequence $q_i = i^2$, we get:

$$1 + 4 + 9 + \cdots + 100 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \cdots + 10^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{10} i^2.$$

- Given the sum of the first five odd numbers $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9$, we can write this in sigma notation by considering the terms as $q_i = 2i-1$:

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 = (2(1)-1) + (2(2)-1) + \cdots + (2(5)-1) = \sum_{i=1}^5 (2i-1).$$

Another way would be to consider the terms as $q_i = 2i+1$:

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 = (2(0)+1) + (2(1)+1) + \cdots + (2(4)+1) = \sum_{i=0}^4 (2i+1).$$

- The sum of the first n odd numbers, where n is an unspecified whole number:

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n-1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (2i-1).$$

- For a sum with alternating plus and minus terms, use $(-1)^{i-1} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for odd } i \\ -1 & \text{for even } i. \end{cases}$

$$1 - 3 + 5 - 7 + \cdots \pm (2n-1) = \sum_{i=1}^n (-1)^{i-1} (2i-1).$$

- Riemann sum for $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ with $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and sample points $x_i = a + i\Delta x$:

$$f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + \frac{i}{n}(b-a)\right) \frac{b-a}{n}.$$

Summation Rules. As we did for limits and derivatives, we can sometimes compute summations by starting with known Basic Summations, and combining them by Summation Rules.

- *Sum:* $\sum_{i=m}^n (q_i + p_i) = \sum_{i=m}^n q_i + \sum_{i=m}^n p_i.$
- *Difference:* $\sum_{i=m}^n (q_i - p_i) = \sum_{i=m}^n q_i - \sum_{i=m}^n p_i.$
- *Constant Multiple:* $\sum_{i=m}^n C q_i = C \cdot \sum_{i=m}^n q_i$, where C does not depend on i .

Like all facts about summations, these formulas can be understood by writing out the terms in dot-dot-dot (ellipsis) notation, for example:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=m}^n (q_i + p_i) &= (q_m + p_m) + (q_{m+1} + p_{m+1}) + \cdots + (q_n + p_n) \\ &= (q_m + q_{m+1} + \cdots + q_n) + (p_m + p_{m+1} + \cdots + p_n) \\ &= \sum_{i=m}^n q_i + \sum_{i=m}^n p_i. \end{aligned}$$

Note that n is a constant not depending on i , so we may factor it out of a summation: $\sum_{i=1}^n n i^2 = n \sum_{i=1}^n i^2$. Specifically for $n = 3$, this means $3(1^2) + 3(2^2) + 3(3^2) = 3(1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2)$. However, the variable i has *no meaning* outside the summation, and cannot be factored out: $\sum_{i=1}^3 i 2^i \stackrel{??}{=} i \sum_{i=1}^3 2^i$ is nonsense: the left side means $1(2^1) + 2(2^2) + 3(2^3)$, but the right side should mean a constant i times $2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3$, but i is *not* a constant.

Warning: the summation of a product $\sum q_i p_i$ is NOT equal to the product of summations $(\sum q_i)(\sum p_i)$. For example: $1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 3 \neq (1+2+3)(1+2+3)$.

Basic Summations. We can get a few surprisingly neat formulas:

$$(a) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n;$$

$$(b) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1);$$

$$(c) \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1).$$

Proof. (a) $\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = 1 + \cdots + 1$ with n terms, which indeed equals n .

(b) Taking two copies of $\sum_{i=1}^n i$, we can pair each term with its complement:

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n i & = & 1 & + & 2 & + & \cdots & + & n-1 & + & n \\ & & + & n & + & n-1 & + & \cdots & + & 2 & + & 1 \\ \hline & & = & n+1 & + & n+1 & + & \cdots & + & n+1 & + & n+1 & = & n(n+1). \end{array}$$

The equation $2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n i = n(n+1)$, divided by 2, gives the desired formula.

(c) Consider that $(i+1)^3 = i^3 + 3i^2 + 3i + 1$, so that:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (i+1)^3 - i^3 &= \sum_{i=1}^n (3i^2 + 3i + 1) \\ &= 3 \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + 3 \sum_{i=1}^n i + \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \\ &= 3 \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \frac{3}{2}n(n+1) + n. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, we have a “collapsing sum”:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (i+1)^3 - i^3 &= (n+1)^3 - n^3 + n^3 - (n-1)^3 + \cdots + 3^3 - 2^3 + 2^3 - 1^3 \\ &= (n+1)^3 - 1^3. \end{aligned}$$

Solving the equation:

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

gives, as desired:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{3}((n+1)^3 - \frac{3}{2}n(n+1) - (n+1)) = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1).$$

A similar computation will produce a formula for $\sum_{i=1}^n i^3$, etc.