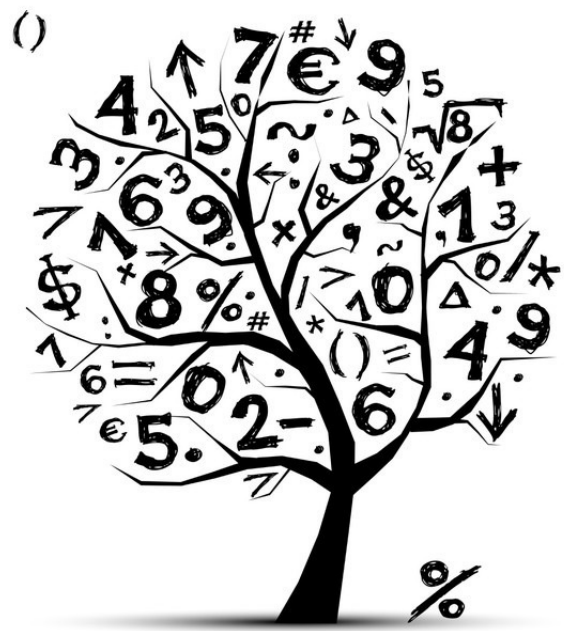


Summations and geometric progressions/series



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1 Summations

Definition 1: summation

Given n values $a_j \in \mathbb{R}$ with $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the **summation**

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

can be indicated in compact form with the summation symbol:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j$$

which reads: “summation for j from 1 to n of a_j ”. The symbol j is called **summation index**.

- The summation symbol is therefore very useful when the terms a_j are explicitly defined as a function of the summation index j .

Example 1: summations

$$\sum_{j=1}^{10} \frac{1}{j} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10}$$

$$\sum_{j=3}^n j^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + \dots + n^2$$

- The summation index is a **dummy index**. This means that if j is replaced with i , k or any other index in all its occurrences the value of the summation does not change.

Example 2: dummy index

We have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n k^2$$

as the two symbols indicate the summation of the squares of the first n the natural numbers (without zero). On the contrary, we have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 \neq \sum_{j=1}^m j^2$$

as the two symbols indicate the summation, respectively, of the first n and the first m squares of the natural numbers (without zero). Clearly, if $n \neq m$, the result is different.

1.1 Summation properties

Observation 1

Given $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (c \cdot a_j) = c \sum_{j=1}^n a_j \quad (\text{product by a constant}) \quad (1)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n c = n \cdot c \quad (\text{summation with constant terms}) \quad (2)$$

Proof. First property (1). From the distributive property we have:

$$\underbrace{c a_1 + c a_2 + \dots + c a_n}_{=\sum_{j=1}^n (c \cdot a_j)} = \underbrace{c (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n)}_{=c \sum_{j=1}^n a_j}$$

Second property (2):

$$\underbrace{c + c + \dots + c}_{=\sum_{j=1}^n c, \quad c \text{ summed up } n \text{ times}} = n c$$

□

Observation 2

Given two summations $\sum_{j=1}^n a_j$ e $\sum_{j=1}^n b_j$, we have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j + \sum_{j=1}^n b_j = \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j + b_j) \quad (3)$$

Proof. We have:

$$\underbrace{a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n}_{=\sum_{j=1}^n a_j + \sum_{j=1}^n b_j} = \underbrace{a_1 + b_1 + a_2 + b_2 + \dots + a_n + b_n}_{=\sum_{j=1}^n (a_j + b_j)}$$

□

Observation 3

Given two natural numbers $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$, we have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n+m} a_j = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j + \sum_{j=n+1}^{n+m} a_j \quad (\text{scomposition}) \quad (4)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j = \sum_{j=1+m}^{n+m} a_{j-m} = \sum_{j=1-m}^{n-m} a_{j+m} \quad (\text{index translation}) \quad (5)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{n-j+1} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{n-j} \quad (\text{index reflexion}) \quad (6)$$

Proof. The three properties are simply different notations and/or arrangements of the terms in the summations. \square

1.2 Some important summations

Observation 4: sum of the first n natural numbers (without zero)

For any natural number $n \geq 1$:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j = \frac{n^2 + n}{2} \quad (7)$$

Proof. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^n j &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n j + \sum_{j=1}^n j \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n j + \sum_{j=1}^n (n - j + 1) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n (j + n - j + 1) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n (n + 1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n^2 + n}{2} \end{aligned}$$

\square

Observation 5: sum of the first n odd numbers

For any natural number $n \geq 1$:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (2j-1) = n^2 \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (2j+1) = n^2$$

Proof. We have:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^n (2j-1) &= 2 \sum_{j=1}^n j - \sum_{j=1}^n 1 \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{n^2+n}{2} \right) - n = n^2 + n - n = n^2 \\ \\ \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (2j+1) &= 2 \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} j + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} 1 = 2 \sum_{j=1}^n (j-1) + \sum_{j=1}^n 1 \\ &= 2 \left(\sum_{j=1}^n j - \sum_{j=1}^n 1 \right) + n \\ &= 2 \left(\frac{n^2+n}{2} - n \right) + n = n^2 + n - 2n + n = n^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

Observation 6: sum of the first n even numbers (without zero)

For any natural number $n \geq 1$:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n 2j = n^2 + n \tag{8}$$

Proof. We have:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n 2j = 2 \sum_{j=1}^n j = 2 \left(\frac{n^2+n}{2} \right) = n^2 + n$$

□

2 Geometric progressions

Definition 2: geometric progression

A sequence of real numbers is in a **geometric progression** if the ratio between each term (starting from the second) and its predecessor is constant. This constant is called the **common ratio** of the progression.

Given the first term $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and the common ratio $r \in \mathbb{R}$, the associated geometric progression is:

$$a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, ar^4, \dots$$

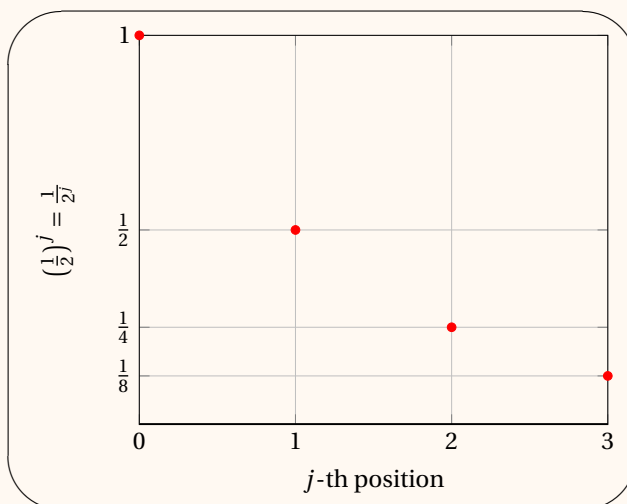
- Each term (starting from the second) is obtained by multiplying the previous term by b . The j -th term ($j \in \mathbb{N}$) can be expressed as ab^j and we have:

$ar^0 = a$	first term, in position $j = 0$
$ar^1 = ab$	second term, in position $j = 1$
ar^2	third term, in position $j = 2$
ar^3	fourth term, in position $j = 3$
\dots	\dots

Example 3: geometric progression

- With $a = 1$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$, the first 4 terms are:

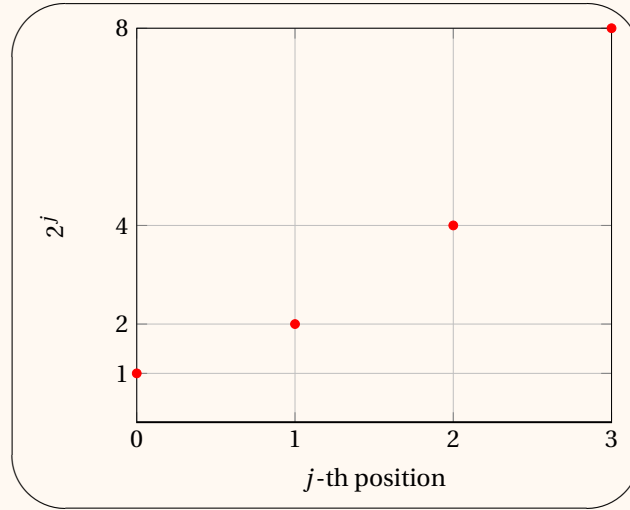
$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}$$



Example 4: geometric progression

- With $a = 1$ and $r = 2$, the first 4 terms are:

1, 2, 4, 8



2.1 Summations of terms in geometric progression

Observation 7: sum of the first n terms of the geometric progression with $a = 1$

Given a common ratio $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ we have:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j = \begin{cases} \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} & \text{if } r \neq 1 \\ n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

Proof. If $r \neq 1$, applying the properties of summations, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} (r - 1) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j &= r \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^{j+1} - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j = \sum_{j=1}^n r^j - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} r^j + r^n - \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} r^j \right) = r^n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

□

Proof. If $r = 1$, we have:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} 1^j = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} 1 = n$$

□

- Given $r \in \mathbb{R}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}$, the formula (9) can be extended as follows:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a r^j = \begin{cases} a \left(\frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} \right) = a \left(\frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r} \right) & \text{if } r \neq 1 \\ a n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{since} \quad \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a r^j = a \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} r^j \quad (10)$$

Example 5: sum of the first n terms of geometric progressions

- With $a = 1$ and $r = \frac{1}{2}$, the first 4 terms are:

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8} \quad \text{and} \quad 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{8 + 4 + 2 + 1}{8} = \frac{15}{8}$$

The sum of the first $n = 4$ terms is given by the formula:

$$\sum_{j=0}^3 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^j = \sum_{j=1}^4 \frac{1}{2^j} = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{2^4}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{16}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{15}{16} \cdot 2 = \frac{15}{8}$$

- With $a = 1$ and $r = 2$, the first four terms are:

$$1, 2, 4, 8 \quad \text{and} \quad 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15$$

The sum of the first $n = 4$ terms is given by the formula:

$$\sum_{j=1}^3 2^j = \frac{2^4 - 1}{2 - 1} = 16 - 1 = 15$$

- With $a = 1$ and $r = -2$, the first four terms are:

$$1, -2, 4, -8 \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - 2 + 4 - 8 = 5$$

The sum of the first $n = 4$ terms is given by the formula:

$$\sum_{j=1}^3 -2^j = \frac{-2^4 - 1}{-2 - 1} = \frac{-15}{-3} = 5$$

2.2 Geometric series

Definition 3: geometric series

Given a common ratio $r \in \mathbb{R}$, the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n r^j$$

is called the **geometric series** of common ratio r and it is denoted by $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j$.

Observation 8: convergence of the geometric series

Given a common ratio $r \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\text{the geometric series } \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j \text{ is } \begin{cases} \text{convergent} & \text{if } |r| < 1 \\ \text{divergent at } +\infty & \text{if } r \geq 1 \\ \text{irregular} & \text{if } r \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

If the geometric series is convergent, we have $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j = \frac{1}{1-r}$

Proof. Given $r \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} r^n = \begin{cases} +\infty & \text{if } r > 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } r = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } |r| < 1 \\ \text{does not exist} & \text{if } r \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

If $r \neq 1$ we have $\sum_{j=0}^n r^j = \frac{r^{n+1}-1}{r-1}$ and:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n r^j = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{r^{n+1}-1}{r-1} = \frac{1}{r-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (r^{n+1}-1) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-r} & \text{if } |r| < 1 \\ +\infty & \text{if } r > 1 \\ \text{does not exist} & \text{if } r \leq -1 \end{cases}$$

If $r = 1$, we have $\sum_{j=0}^n r^j = n+1$ and accordingly:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{j=0}^n r^j = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (n+1) = +\infty$$

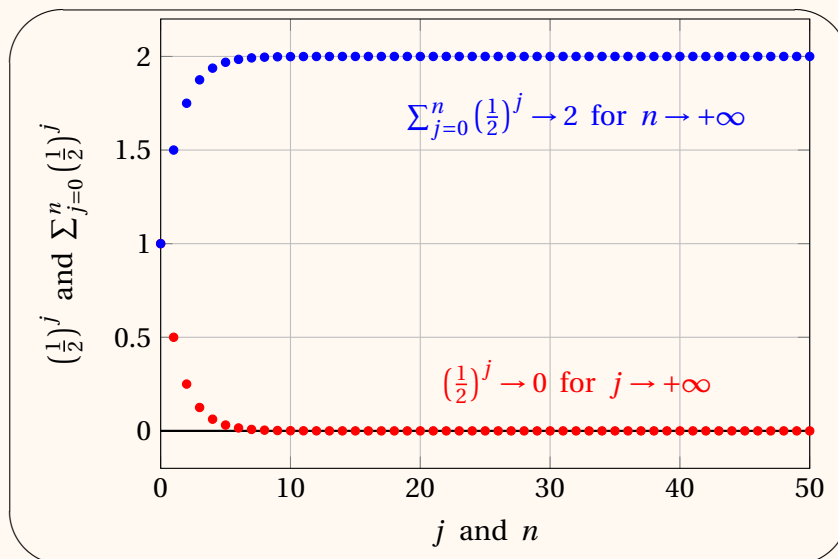
□

Example 6: geometric series

For the following geometric series we have:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^j = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2$$

since the common ratio r is $1/2$ and $|1/2| < 1$.



For the following geometric series we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{13}{12}\right)^k = +\infty$$

since the common ratio r is $13/12$ and $13/12 > 1$.

