

The following proof was obtained by Jessica Bernier and William Yslas Vélez, October 2008

Theorem: $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ ($r \in \mathbb{N}$) is a polynomial in the variable n of degree $r + 1$, where $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, the set of natural numbers.

Proof:

We will prove the theorem by induction on r . Let's begin with the base case, $r = 1$. For this case, we want to show that $\sum_{k=1}^n k$ is a quadratic polynomial. From Fig. 1, we see that we can express the sum as:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \int_0^n x dx + \frac{n}{2} \tag{1}$$

In other words, $\sum_{k=1}^n k$ is the right-hand Riemann sum approximation of the integral $\int_0^n x dx$, which exceeds the value of the integral by the collective area above the line $y = x$ (this area is $n/2$).

Since the integral $\int_0^n x dx$ evaluates to $\frac{1}{2} x^2 \Big|_0^n = \frac{1}{2} n^2$, we arrive at the equation

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

which is indeed a quadratic polynomial.

Now, we will prove the theorem is true for a $r + 1$ by using "strong induction". In the usual form of induction we only use the assumption that the assertion is true for r to prove that the assertion is true for $r + 1$. In "strong induction" we use the assumption that the statement is true for all s , where $0 < s < r + 1$.

Let's return to the proof. In analogy to the base case, we can express $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ as the right-hand Riemann sum approximation of the integral $\int_0^n x^r dx$ (see Fig. 2). Thus,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \int_0^n x^r dx + \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx \right],$$

and first integral evaluates to $\frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1}$. The integral inside the summation is a little trickier to integrate. (In case you're wondering where this term came from, the integral is the area between k^r and x^r , and is only one unit wide, which makes sense when we closely examine Fig. 2. We must then sum each individual area to get the total area above the line $y = x^r$. But, one step at a time. Let's tackle the integral first.) We know:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx &= \left[k^r x - \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} \right]_{k-1}^k \\
&= \left(k^{r+1} - \frac{k^{r+1}}{r+1} \right) - \left(k^r (k-1) - \frac{(k-1)^{r+1}}{r+1} \right) \\
&= k^r + \frac{(k-1)^{r+1} - k^{r+1}}{r+1}
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

after a bit of algebra. Now, we want to group all the like powers together, so that we have only one term with k^{r+1} in it, one term with k^r , and so on (the motivation for this will become apparent later). To do this, observe that we can expand the polynomial $(k-1)^{r+1}$ as:

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

where

$$\binom{r+1}{p} = \frac{(r+1)!}{p!(r+1-p)!} \tag{3}$$

is the binomial coefficient. Now, we rewrite the polynomial $(k-1)^{r+1}$ as:

$$\begin{aligned}
(k-1)^{r+1} &= \binom{r+1}{0} k^{r+1} (-1)^0 + \binom{r+1}{1} k^r (-1)^1 + \binom{r+1}{2} k^{r-1} (-1)^2 + \dots \\
&\quad + \binom{r+1}{r} k^1 (-1)^r + \binom{r+1}{r+1} k^0 (-1)^{r+1} \\
&= k^{r+1} - (r+1)k^r + \binom{r+1}{2} k^{r-1} - \dots + \binom{r+1}{r} k^1 (-1)^r + (-1)^{r+1}
\end{aligned}$$

(some binomial coefficients have been evaluated for clarity). Now, when we plug this expression back into Eq. 2, we have

$$k^r + \frac{\left[k^{r+1} - (r+1)k^r + \binom{r+1}{2} k^{r-1} (-1)^2 + \binom{r+1}{3} k^{r-2} (-1)^3 \dots + \binom{r+1}{r} k^1 (-1)^r + (-1)^{r+1} \right] - k^{r+1}}{r+1}$$

We see the k^{r+1} and k^r terms cancel, leaving

$$\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx = \frac{\binom{r+1}{2} k^{r-1} (-1)^2 + \binom{r+1}{3} k^{r-2} (-1)^3 + \dots + \binom{r+1}{r} k^1 (-1)^r + (-1)^{r+1}}{r+1}$$

as our final expression for the integral.

We are not done yet, for we must still take the summation over k . This becomes:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \left[\frac{\binom{r+1}{2} k^{r-1} + \binom{r+1}{3} k^{r-2} (-1)^3 \dots + \binom{r+1}{r} k^1 (-1)^r + (-1)^{r+1}}{r+1} \right]$$

which we can separate into terms according to

$$\frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1} + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-2} (-1)^3 \dots + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{r} \sum_{k=1}^n k^1 (-1)^r + \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1}$$

Now, we can finally use the inductive step. Since we have assumed that $\sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1}$ is a polynomial

of degree r , and since we can likewise argue that each of the summations will be of lesser degree, the whole expression must be (at most) degree r . Applying the above expression into the

equation for $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n k^r &= \int_0^n x^r dx + \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx \right] \\ &= \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \left[\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1} - \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-2} (-1)^3 + \dots \\ &+ \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{r} \sum_{k=1}^n k^1 (-1)^r + \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1} \end{aligned} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

From this we see that $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ is a polynomial of degree $r+1$. Thus, we have proven that the assertion is true for $(r \in \mathbb{N})$.

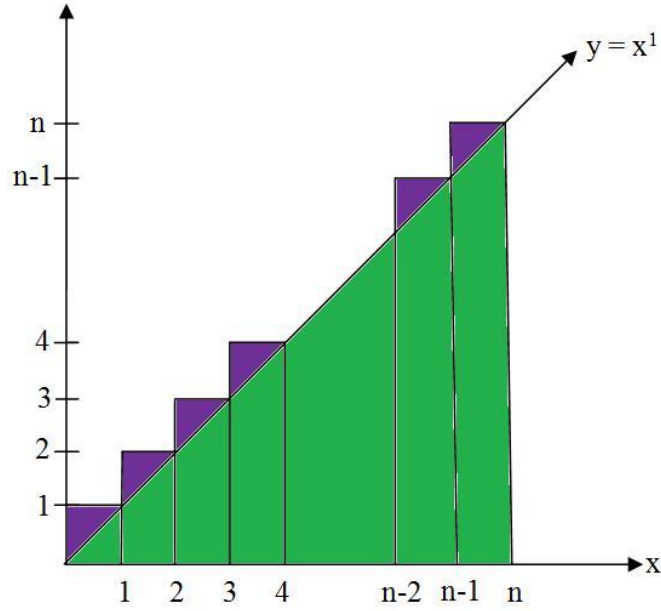


Figure 1. The sum $\sum_{k=1}^n k$ is the total colored area. $\int_0^n x dx$ is the area in green and $n/2$ is the collective area in purple.

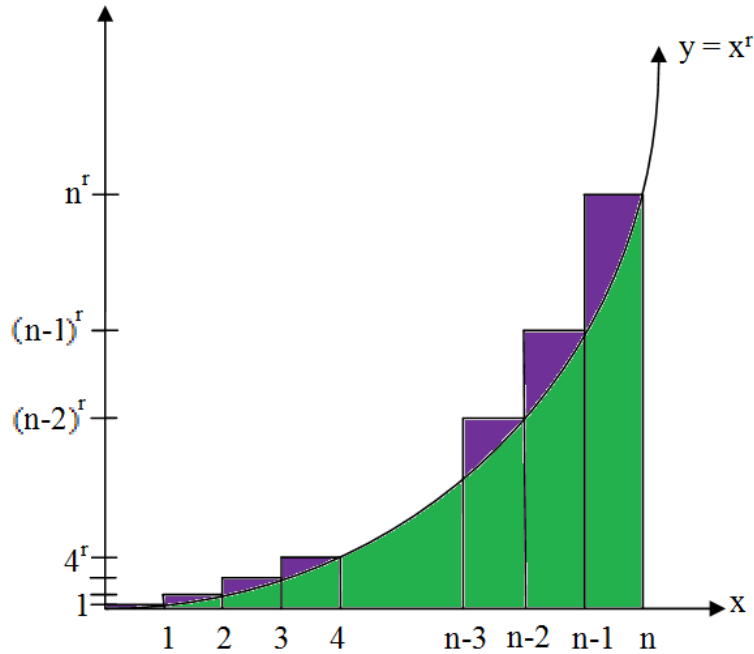


Figure 2. The sum $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ is the total colored area. $\int_0^n x^r dx$ is the area in green. The collective area in purple is $\sum_{k=1}^n \left[\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx \right]$, where each chunk has volume $\int_{k-1}^k (k^r - x^r) dx$.

Corollary 1: $(r+1)! \sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ is a polynomial in n with integer coefficients.

Proof: If we multiply Eq. 4 by $(r+1)!$, we obtain

$$(r+1)! \sum_{k=1}^n k^r = n^{r+1} + \left[\begin{aligned} & \binom{r+1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1} + (-1)^3 \binom{r+1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-2} + \dots \\ & + (-1)^r \binom{r+1}{r} \sum_{k=1}^n k^1 (-1)^r + (-1)^{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n 1 \end{aligned} \right].$$

Now, the binomial coefficients defined in Eq. 3 are always natural numbers (if you don't believe this, try a few examples yourself). However, some terms are multiplied by -1 , so overall we can only conclude that the coefficient of each term is an integer.

As a quick check, we verify that $2! \sum_{k=1}^n k = n(n+1)$ and $3! \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)$ are indeed polynomials in n with integer coefficients.

Corollary 2: $n = 0$ is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ ($r \in \mathbb{N}$).

Proof: We will prove this by induction. For the base case $r = 1$, the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ which we obtained from Eq. 1 clearly has a root at $n = 0$. For the case of arbitrary $r \in \mathbb{N}$, let's refer to the result of Eq. 4:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \left[\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1} + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-2} (-1)^3 + \dots \\ & + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{r} \sum_{k=1}^n k^1 (-1)^r + \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1} \end{aligned} \right]$$

Observe that $\frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1}$ gives $\pm n/(r+1)$, so the first term and the last term have 0 as a root.

If we apply the induction hypothesis, then each term in the brackets, except for the last term, has a factor $\sum_{k=1}^n k^s$ where $s < r$. The induction hypothesis applies to yield that each of these terms has 0 as a root, thus proving the corollary.

Corollary 3: $n = -1$ is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ ($r \in \mathbb{N}$).

Proof: We will prove this by induction, but in a slightly different way than for Corollary 2. For the base case $r = 1$, the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ clearly has a root at $n = -1$. For the case of arbitrary $r \in \mathbb{N}$, we again refer to the result of Eq. 4:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \left[\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-1} + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^{r-2} (-1)^3 + \dots \\ & + \frac{1}{r+1} \binom{r+1}{r} \sum_{k=1}^n k^1 (-1)^r + \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1} \end{aligned} \right]$$

We know that $n = -1$ is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$ if we get 0 after we plug $n = -1$ into the

polynomial equation. Our induction hypothesis ($n = -1$ is a root of all polynomials $\sum_{k=1}^n k^s$ ($s < r$))

allows us to conclude that all of the summations in the square brackets are 0 except

$\frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1}$, because this is a summation of k^0 . We are left with the equation

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \frac{1}{r+1} \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{r+1}$$

Plugging $n = -1$ into this equation does not make sense because we would be taking a summation from 1 to -1. However, we can rewrite that term to give the polynomial

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \frac{n^{r+1}}{r+1} + \frac{(-1)^{r+1} n}{r+1},$$

which we can evaluate at $n = -1$ without problem. We get

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^r = \frac{(-1)^{r+1}}{r+1} + \frac{(-1)^{r+1} (-1)}{r+1} = 0$$

Thus, $n = -1$ is a root of the polynomial $\sum_{k=1}^n k^r$.