

*An Extension of the Notion of Higher
Differential Coefficients*

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1. Definitions. Throughout this paper z is assumed to take any value in an intersection of a range $\alpha \leq \arg z \leq \beta$ ($\alpha \leq \beta$) and a circular neighborhood of $z=0$. Also functions of z are assumed to be defined on such a region. In particular when $\alpha=\beta=0$, z takes some positive real value or 0.

When a function $f(z)$ of z has differential coefficients in ordinary sense, let us denote them by

$$f'(z), f''(z), \dots, f^{(n)}(z), \dots$$

If a function $f(z)$ has the n th differential coefficients at $z=0$, then

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \{f^{(n-1)}(z) - f^{(n-1)}(0)\} / z.$$

Hence

$$f^{(n-1)}(z) = f^{(n-1)}(0) + f^{(n)}(0)z + o(z).$$

Integrating along the line segment joining 0 and z , we have

$$f^{(n-2)}(z) = f^{(n-2)}(0) + f^{(n-1)}(0)z/1! + f^{(n)}(0)z^2/2! + o(z^2).$$

Continuing integration $n-2$ times we have

$$f(z) = f(0) + f'(0)z/1! + f''(0)z^2/2! + \dots + f^{(n)}(0)z^n/n! + o(z^n).$$

From this we have the following extended notion of n th differential coefficients.

DEFINITION 1. When a function $f(z)$ is represented as

$$f(z) = A_0 + A_1z + A_2z^2 + \dots + A_nz^n + o(z^n) \quad (1),$$

where A_i 's are constants, $n!A_n$ is denoted by $D^n f(0)$. $D^n f(0)$ may be called *the generalized differential coefficient of the 1st kind of $f(z)$ at $z=0$* .

It is obvious that $D^n f(0)$ is unique whenever it exists. And from what we have seen,

THEOREM 1. *The existence of $f^{(n)}(0)$ implies the existence of $D^n f(0)$. And*

$$D^n f(0) = f^{(n)}(0).$$

For the difference of n th order of $f(z)$

$$\Delta^n(f, a, z) = \sum_{r=0}^n {}_n C_r (-1)^{n-r} f(a+rz).$$

DEFINITION 2. When $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \Delta^n(f, 0, z)/z^n$ exists, this limit is denoted by $d^n f(0)$. $d^n f(0)$ may be called *the generalized differential coefficient of the 2nd kind of $f(z)$ at $z=0$* .

Since $\Delta^n(z^m, a, z) = m(m-1)\dots(m-n+1)a^{m-n}z^n + z^{n+1}g(a, z)$, where $g(a, z)$ is either 0 or a homogeneous polynomial of $m-n-1$ th degree in a and z , (1) implies $d^n f(0) = n!A_n = D^n f(0)$. Hence

THEOREM 2. *The existence of $D^n f(0)$ implies the existence of $d^n f(0)$. And*

$$d^n f(0) = D^n f(0).$$

Clearly the converses to Theorems 1 and 2 are true when $n=1$, that is, the existence of $Df(0)$ and $df(0)$ imply that of $f'(0)$ and $Df(0)$ respectively. However we will see in Example 1, (b) and (c), that those converses are not true when $n \geq 2$.

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The significance of $D^n f(0)$ and $d^n f(0)$ is that the existence of lower derivatives is not necessary to define $D^n f(0)$ and $d^n f(0)$, whereas the existence of $f^{(n-1)}(z)$ throughout some neighborhood of $z=0$ is necessary to define $f^{(n)}(0)$.

2. Example. The following theorems will easily be proved.

THEOREM 3. $D^n\{f(0)+g(0)\}=D^n f(0)+D^n g(0)$, $D^n\{cf(0)\}=cD^n f(0)$, $d^n\{f(0)+g(0)\}=d^n f(0)+d^n g(0)$, $d^n\{cf(0)\}=cd^n f(0)$, where c is a constant.

THEOREM 4. The existence of $D^n f(0)$ implies the existence of $D^m f(0)$ for positive integer m less than n .

This property that the existence of a higher differential coefficient implies that of lower differential coefficients does not necessarily hold for $d^n f(0)$ as we shall see in the following example.

EXAMPLE 1. For 0 or positive real value of z , let $f(z)=z^n$ when z is a rational number, $f(z)=0$ when z is an irrational number, where n is a positive integer, then

- (a) when $n \geq 1$, $d^{n+1}f(0)=0$, eventhough $d^n f(0)$ does not exist.
- (b) when $n \geq 3$, $D^{n-1}f(0)=0$, eventhough $f^{(n-1)}(0)$ does not exist.
- (c) when $n \geq 1$, $d^{n+1}f(0)=0$, eventhough $D^{n+1}(0)$ does not exist.

Proof. (a) Let $f_1(z)=z^n$, $f_2(z)=0$. Since z , $2z$, $3z$, ..., nz , $(n+1)z$ are either simultaneously rational numbers or simultaneously irrational numbers, when z is rational,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{n+1}(f, 0, z) &= \Delta^{n+1}(f_1, 0, z) = 0, \\ \Delta^n(f, 0, z) &= \Delta^n(f_1, 0, z) = n!z^n, \end{aligned}$$

when z is irrational,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta^{n+1}(f, 0, z) &= \Delta^{n+1}(f_2, 0, z) = 0, \\ \Delta^n(f, 0, z) &= \Delta^n(f_2, 0, z) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$d^{n+1}f(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \Delta^{n+1}(f, 0, z)/z^{n+1} = 0,$$

eventhough

$$d^n f(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \Delta^n(f, 0, z)/z^n$$

does not exist.

(b) Since $f(z)=o(z^{n-1})$, $D^{n-1}f(0)=0$ by Definition 1. On the other hand since $f(z)$ is discontinuous at every point except $z=0$, $f'(z)$ does not exist except $z=0$. Therefore $f''(0)$ does not exist, and furthermore $f^{(n-1)}(0)$ does not exist for $n \geq 3$.

(c) $d^{n+1}f(0)=0$ by (a). Since $d^n f(0)$ does not exist by (a), $D^n f(0)$ does not exist by Theorem 2, and hence $D^{n+1}f(0)$ does not exist by Theorem 4. q.e.d.

3. Relations between D^n and d^n . As we saw in Example 1, (c), $D^n f(0)$ may not exist eventhough $d^n f(0)$ exists for $n \geq 2$. Then there naturally arises a question, "Does $D^n f(0)$ exist when both $d^n f(0)$ and $D^{n-1}f(0)$ exist for $n \geq 2$?" The answer is affirmative in the case $n=2$ (Theorem 5), whereas it is negative in the case $n=3$ (Example 2). It is an open question whether the answer is always negative for $n \geq 3$ or not.

THEOREM 5. $D^2 f(0)$ exists when both $d^2 f(0)$ and $Df(0)$ exist.

Proof. If we write

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(z) &= f(0) + \{df(0)\}z + \{d^2f(0)\}z^2/2 + g(z), \\
 \text{then } g(0) &= dg(0) = d^2g(0) = 0, \\
 \text{Hence } g(z) &= o(z) \\
 \text{and } g(2z) - 2g(z) &= o(z^2) \\
 \text{Since } g(2z)/2z - g(z)/z &= o(z)
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

by (2), for an arbitrarily given $\epsilon > 0$, we can choose a positive number δ , so that when $|z| < \delta$

$$|g(2z)/2z - g(z)/z| < \epsilon |z|.$$

For z of (3)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \left| g(z)/z - g\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)/\frac{z}{2} \right| < \epsilon \left| \frac{z}{2} \right| \\
 & \left| g\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)/\frac{z}{2} - g\left(\frac{z}{2^2}\right)/\frac{z}{2^2} \right| < \epsilon \left| \frac{z}{2^2} \right| \\
 & \dots\dots\dots \\
 & \left| g\left(\frac{z}{2^{k-1}}\right)/\frac{z}{2^{k-1}} - g\left(\frac{z}{2^k}\right)/\frac{z}{2^k} \right| < \epsilon \left| \frac{z}{2^k} \right|.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\left| g(z)/z - g\left(\frac{z}{2^k}\right)/\frac{z}{2^k} \right| < \epsilon |z|.$$

Since $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g\left(\frac{z}{2^k}\right)/\frac{z}{2^k} = 0$ by $g(z) = o(z)$, we have

$$|g(z)/z| < \epsilon |z|,$$

that is

$$g(z) = o(z^2). \qquad \text{q. e. d.}$$

EXAMPLE 2. Let $g(z) = 2^p \left(\frac{7}{3}\right)^q$ when $z = 2^p 3^q$ ($p, q = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$), and $g(z) = 0$ for any other positive real value of z and $z = 0$. If $f(z) = z^2 g(z)$, then $d^3f(0) = 0$, $D^2f(0) = 0$, eventhough $D^3f(0)$ does not exist.

Proof. Since $g(z) \rightarrow 0$ when $z \rightarrow 0$, $g(z) = 0(1)$.

Hence $f(z) = o(z^2)$ (4)

and $D^2f(0) = 0$.

When

$$z = 2^p 3^q, \quad 3g(3z) - 4g(2z) + g(z) = 3g(2^p 3^{q+1}) - 4g(2^{p+1} 3^q) + g(2^p 3^q) = 0.$$

Therefore, for any value of z

$$3g(3z) - 4g(2z) + g(z) = 0.$$

From this we have

$$f(3z) - 3f(2z) + 3f(z) = 0.$$

That is

$$\Delta^3(f, 0, z) = 0,$$

therefore

$$d^3f(0) = 0.$$

However when $z = 2^p$ $f(z)/z^3 = g(z)/z = 2^p/2^p = 1$,

and we have

$$f(z) \neq o(z^3) \tag{5}.$$

If $D^3f(0)$ were to exist, $D^3f(0)$ would be equal to $d^3f(0) = 0$. From this and (4), we would have $f(z) = o(z^3)$ contrary to (5). So $D^3f(0)$ does not exist. q. e. d.

4. Leibniz' formula. It is easy to see that the following formula holds.

THEOREM 6. $D^n\{f(0)g(0)\} = \sum_{r=0}^n {}_n C_r D^r f(0) D^{n-r} g(0)$, when differential coefficients of the right hand side exist.

It is an open question whether Leibniz' formula holds for d^n or not. However we can prove the following theorem.

THEOREM 7. For $g(x) = x^m$ ($m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$),

$$d^n\{f(0)g(0)\} = \sum_{r=0}^n {}_n C_r d^r f(0) d^{n-r} g(0) \quad (6),$$

when $df(0), d^2f(0), \dots, d^n f(0)$ exist ($n \geq 1$).

In order to prove this theorem, we shall first prove the following lemmas.

LEMMA 1. When $d^{n-1}f(0), d^n f(0)$ exist, $d^n h(0) = nd^{n-1}f(0)$ ($n \geq 1$), where $h(x) = xf(x)$.

Proof. From the assumptions

$$\Delta^{n-1}(f, 0, x) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} {}_{n-1} C_r (-1)^{n-1-r} f(rx) = o(x^{n-1}),$$

$$\Delta^n(f, 0, x) = \sum_{r=0}^n {}_n C_r (-1)^{n-r} f(rx) = \{d^n f(0)\} x^{n-1} + o(x^{n-1}).$$

Multiplying the sum of the above two expressions by n , we have

$$\sum_{r=0}^n r {}_n C_r (-1)^{n-r} f(rx) = \{nd^n f(0)\} x^{n-1} + o(x^{n-1}).$$

Hence

$$\Delta^n(h, 0, x) = x \sum_{r=0}^n r {}_n C_r (-1)^{n-r} f(rx) = \{nd^n f(0)\} x^n + o(x^n),$$

therefore $d^n h(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \Delta^n(h, 0, x)/x^n = nd^n f(0)$. q. e. d.

LEMMA 2. When $f(0) = df(0) = d^2f(0) = \dots = d^n f(0) = 0$,

$$h(0) = dh(0) = d^2h(0) = \dots = d^n h(0) = 0 \quad (n \geq 1),$$

where $h(x) = x^m f(x)$ ($m = 1, 2, \dots$).

Proof. Proof is complete by induction if we prove the lemma for $m = 1$.

When $h(x) = xf(x)$, $h(0) = 0$ is obvious, and if we replace n of Lemma 1 by $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ successively, we get $dh(0) = 0, d^2h(0) = 0, d^3h(0) = 0, \dots, d^n h(0) = 0$.

Proof of Theorem 7. If we write

$$f(x) = f(0) + \{df(0)\}x/1! + \{d^2f(0)\}x^2/2! + \dots + \{d^n f(0)\}x^n/n! + F(x),$$

then $F(0) = dF(0) = d^2F(0) = \dots = d^n F(0) = 0$,

and $f(x)g(x) = f(0)x^m + \{df(0)\}x^{m+1}/1! + \{d^2f(0)\}x^{m+2}/2! + \dots$
 $+ \{d^n f(0)\}x^{m+n}/n! + x^m F(x)$.

Since for the last term $h(x) = x^m F(x)$ we have $d^n h(0) = 0$ by Lemma 2,

$$d^n\{f(0)g(0)\} = 0 \quad \text{when } m > n,$$

$$d^n\{f(0)g(0)\} = n!d^{n-m}f(0)/(n-m)! \quad \text{when } m \leq n,$$

which are nothing but (6). q. e. d.