

6.5 BERNOULLI NUMBERS

The next important sequence of numbers on our agenda is named after Jakob Bernoulli (1654–1705), who discovered curious relationships while working out the formulas for sums of m th powers [26]. Let's write

$$S_m(n) = 0^m + 1^m + \cdots + (n-1)^m = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^m = \sum_0^n x^m \delta x. \quad (6.77)$$

(Thus, when $m > 0$ we have $S_m(n) = H_{n-1}^{(-m)}$ in the notation of generalized harmonic numbers.) Bernoulli looked at the following sequence of formulas and spotted a pattern:

$$\begin{aligned} S_0(n) &= n \\ S_1(n) &= \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \\ S_2(n) &= \frac{1}{3}n^3 - \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{6}n \\ S_3(n) &= \frac{1}{4}n^4 - \frac{1}{2}n^3 + \frac{1}{4}n^2 \\ S_4(n) &= \frac{1}{5}n^5 - \frac{1}{2}n^4 + \frac{1}{3}n^3 - \frac{1}{30}n \\ S_5(n) &= \frac{1}{6}n^6 - \frac{1}{2}n^5 + \frac{5}{12}n^4 - \frac{1}{12}n^2 \\ S_6(n) &= \frac{1}{7}n^7 - \frac{1}{2}n^6 + \frac{1}{2}n^5 - \frac{1}{6}n^3 + \frac{1}{42}n \\ S_7(n) &= \frac{1}{8}n^8 - \frac{1}{2}n^7 + \frac{7}{12}n^6 - \frac{7}{24}n^4 + \frac{1}{12}n^2 \\ S_8(n) &= \frac{1}{9}n^9 - \frac{1}{2}n^8 + \frac{2}{3}n^7 - \frac{7}{15}n^5 + \frac{2}{9}n^3 - \frac{1}{30}n \\ S_9(n) &= \frac{1}{10}n^{10} - \frac{1}{2}n^9 + \frac{3}{4}n^8 - \frac{7}{10}n^6 + \frac{1}{2}n^4 - \frac{3}{20}n^2 \\ S_{10}(n) &= \frac{1}{11}n^{11} - \frac{1}{2}n^{10} + \frac{5}{6}n^9 - n^7 + n^5 - \frac{1}{2}n^3 + \frac{5}{66}n \end{aligned}$$

Can you see it too? The coefficient of n^{m+1} in $S_m(n)$ is always $1/(m+1)$. The coefficient of n^m is always $-1/2$. The coefficient of n^{m-1} is always ... let's see ... $m/12$. The coefficient of n^{m-2} is always zero. The coefficient of n^{m-3} is always ... let's see ... hmmm ... yes, it's $-m(m-1)(m-2)/720$. The coefficient of n^{m-4} is always zero. And it looks as if the pattern will continue, with the coefficient of n^{m-k} always being some constant times m^k .

That was Bernoulli's empirical discovery. (He did not give a proof.) In modern notation we write the coefficients in the form

$$\begin{aligned} S_m(n) &= \frac{1}{m+1} \left(B_0 n^{m+1} + \binom{m+1}{1} B_1 n^m + \cdots + \binom{m+1}{m} B_m n \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m+1}{k} B_k n^{m+1-k}. \end{aligned} \quad (6.78)$$

Bernoulli numbers are defined by an implicit recurrence relation,

$$\sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m+1}{j} B_j = [m=0], \quad \text{for all } m \geq 0. \tag{6.79}$$

For example, $\binom{2}{0}B_0 + \binom{2}{1}B_1 = 0$. The first few values turn out to be

n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
B_n	1	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	0	$-\frac{1}{30}$	0	$\frac{1}{42}$	0	$-\frac{1}{30}$	0	$\frac{5}{66}$	0	$-\frac{691}{2730}$

(All conjectures about a simple closed form for B_n are wiped out by the appearance of the strange fraction $-691/2730$.)

We can prove Bernoulli's formula (6.78) by induction on m , using the perturbation method (one of the ways we found $S_2(n) = \square_n$ in Chapter 2):

$$\begin{aligned} S_{m+1}(n) + n^{m+1} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k+1)^{m+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{j} k^j = \sum_{j=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{j} S_j(n). \end{aligned} \tag{6.80}$$

Let $\widehat{S}_m(n)$ be the right-hand side of (6.78); we wish to show that $S_m(n) = \widehat{S}_m(n)$, assuming that $S_j(n) = \widehat{S}_j(n)$ for $0 \leq j < m$. We begin as we did for $m = 2$ in Chapter 2, subtracting $S_{m+1}(n)$ from both sides of (6.80). Then we expand each $S_j(n)$ using (6.78), and regroup so that the coefficients of powers of n on the right-hand side are brought together and simplified:

$$\begin{aligned} n^{m+1} &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m+1}{j} S_j(n) = \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m+1}{j} \widehat{S}_j(n) + \binom{m+1}{m} \Delta \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m+1}{j} \frac{1}{j+1} \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{j+1}{k} B_k n^{j+1-k} + (m+1)\Delta \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq j \leq m} \binom{m+1}{j} \binom{j+1}{k} \frac{B_k}{j+1} n^{j+1-k} + (m+1)\Delta \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq j \leq m} \binom{m+1}{j} \binom{j+1}{j-k} \frac{B_{j-k}}{j+1} n^{k+1} + (m+1)\Delta \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq j \leq m} \binom{m+1}{j} \binom{j+1}{k+1} \frac{B_{j-k}}{j+1} n^{k+1} + (m+1)\Delta \\ &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq m} \frac{n^{k+1}}{k+1} \sum_{k \leq j \leq m} \binom{m+1}{j} \binom{j}{k} B_{j-k} + (m+1)\Delta \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq m} \frac{n^{k+1}}{k+1} \binom{m+1}{k} \sum_{k \leq j \leq m} \binom{m+1-k}{j-k} B_{j-k} + (m+1) \Delta \\
 &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq m} \frac{n^{k+1}}{k+1} \binom{m+1}{k} \sum_{0 \leq j \leq m-k} \binom{m+1-k}{j} B_j + (m+1) \Delta \\
 &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq m} \frac{n^{k+1}}{k+1} \binom{m+1}{k} [m-k=0] + (m+1) \Delta \\
 &= \frac{n^{m+1}}{m+1} \binom{m+1}{m} + (m+1) \Delta \\
 &= n^{m+1} + (m+1) \Delta, \quad \text{where } \Delta = S_m(n) - \widehat{S}_m(n).
 \end{aligned}$$

(This derivation is a good review of the standard manipulations we learned in Chapter 5.) Thus $\Delta = 0$ and $S_m(n) = \widehat{S}_m(n)$, QED.

Here's some more neat stuff that you'll probably want to skim through the first time.
— Friendly TA

In Chapter 7 we'll use generating functions to obtain a much simpler proof of (6.78). The key idea will be to show that the Bernoulli numbers are the coefficients of the power series

$$\frac{z}{e^z - 1} = \sum_{n \geq 0} B_n \frac{z^n}{n!}. \tag{6.81}$$

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Let's simply assume for now that equation (6.81) holds, so that we can derive some of its amazing consequences. If we add $\frac{1}{2}z$ to both sides, thereby cancelling the term $B_1 z/1! = -\frac{1}{2}z$ from the right, we get

$$\frac{z}{e^z - 1} + \frac{z}{2} = \frac{z}{2} \frac{e^z + 1}{e^z - 1} = \frac{z}{2} \frac{e^{z/2} + e^{-z/2}}{e^{z/2} - e^{-z/2}} = \frac{z}{2} \coth \frac{z}{2}. \tag{6.82}$$

Here \coth is the "hyperbolic cotangent" function, otherwise known in calculus books as $\cosh z / \sinh z$; we have

$$\sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}; \quad \cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}. \tag{6.83}$$

Changing z to $-z$ gives $(\frac{-z}{2}) \coth(\frac{-z}{2}) = \frac{z}{2} \coth \frac{z}{2}$; hence every odd-numbered coefficient of $\frac{z}{2} \coth \frac{z}{2}$ must be zero, and we have

$$B_3 = B_5 = B_7 = B_9 = B_{11} = B_{13} = \dots = 0. \tag{6.84}$$

Furthermore (6.82) leads to a closed form for the coefficients of \coth :

$$z \coth z = \frac{2z}{e^{2z} - 1} + \frac{z}{2} = \sum_{n \geq 0} B_{2n} \frac{(2z)^{2n}}{(2n)!} = \sum_{n \geq 0} 4^n B_{2n} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}. \tag{6.85}$$

But there isn't much of a market for hyperbolic functions; people are more interested in the "real" functions of trigonometry. We can express ordinary

trigonometric functions in terms of their hyperbolic cousins by using the rules

$$\sin z = -i \sinh iz, \quad \cos z = \cosh iz; \quad (6.86)$$

the corresponding power series are

$$\begin{aligned} \sin z &= \frac{z^1}{1!} - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \cdots, & \sinh z &= \frac{z^1}{1!} + \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} + \cdots; \\ \cos z &= \frac{z^0}{0!} - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \cdots, & \cosh z &= \frac{z^0}{0!} + \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} + \cdots. \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\cot z = \cos z / \sin z = i \cosh iz / \sinh iz = i \coth iz$, and we have

I see, we get "real" functions by using imaginary numbers.

$$z \cot z = \sum_{n \geq 0} B_{2n} \frac{(2iz)^{2n}}{(2n)!} = \sum_{n \geq 0} (-4)^n B_{2n} \frac{z^{2n}}{(2n)!}. \quad (6.87)$$

Another remarkable formula for $z \cot z$ was found by Euler (exercise 73):

$$z \cot z = 1 - 2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{z^2}{k^2 \pi^2 - z^2}. \quad (6.88)$$

We can expand Euler's formula in powers of z^2 , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} z \cot z &= 1 - 2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \left(\frac{z^2}{k^2 \pi^2} + \frac{z^4}{k^4 \pi^4} + \frac{z^6}{k^6 \pi^6} + \cdots \right) \\ &= 1 - 2 \left(\frac{z^2}{\pi^2} H_{\infty}^{(2)} + \frac{z^4}{\pi^4} H_{\infty}^{(4)} + \frac{z^6}{\pi^6} H_{\infty}^{(6)} + \cdots \right). \end{aligned}$$

Equating coefficients of z^{2n} with those in our other formula, (6.87), gives us an almost miraculous closed form for infinitely many infinite sums:

$$\zeta(2n) = H_{\infty}^{(2n)} = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{2^{2n-1} \pi^{2n} B_{2n}}{(2n)!}, \quad \text{integer } n > 0. \quad (6.89)$$

For example,

$$\zeta(2) = H_{\infty}^{(2)} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \cdots = \pi^2 B_2 = \pi^2/6; \quad (6.90)$$

$$\zeta(4) = H_{\infty}^{(4)} = 1 + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{81} + \cdots = -\pi^4 B_4/3 = \pi^4/90. \quad (6.91)$$

Formula (6.89) is not only a closed form for $H_{\infty}^{(2n)}$, it also tells us the approximate size of B_{2n} , since $H_{\infty}^{(2n)}$ is very near 1 when n is large. And it tells us that $(-1)^{n-1} B_{2n} > 0$ for all $n > 0$; thus the nonzero Bernoulli numbers alternate in sign.

And that's not all. Bernoulli numbers also appear in the coefficients of the tangent function,

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$$\tan z = \frac{\sin z}{\cos z} = \sum_{n \geq 0} (-1)^{n-1} 4^n (4^n - 1) B_{2n} \frac{z^{2n-1}}{(2n)!}, \tag{6.92}$$

as well as other trigonometric functions (exercise 72). Formula (6.92) leads to another important fact about the Bernoulli numbers, namely that

$$T_{2n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{4^n (4^n - 1)}{2n} B_{2n} \text{ is a positive integer.} \tag{6.93}$$

We have, for example:

n	1	3	5	7	9	11	13
T_n	1	2	16	272	7936	353792	22368256

(The T 's are called *tangent numbers*.)

One way to prove (6.93), following an idea of B. F. Logan, is to consider the power series

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sin z + x \cos z}{\cos z - x \sin z} &= x + (1+x^2)z + (2x^3+2x)\frac{z^2}{2} + (6x^4+8x^2+2)\frac{z^3}{6} + \dots \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} T_n(x) \frac{z^n}{n!}, \end{aligned} \tag{6.94}$$

When $x = \tan w$, this is $\tan(z + w)$. Hence, by Taylor's theorem, the n th derivative of $\tan w$ is $T_n(\tan w)$.

where $T_n(x)$ is a polynomial in x ; setting $x = 0$ gives $T_n(0) = T_n$, the n th tangent number. If we differentiate (6.94) with respect to x , we get

$$\frac{1}{(\cos z - x \sin z)^2} = \sum_{n \geq 0} T'_n(x) \frac{z^n}{n!};$$

but if we differentiate with respect to z , we get

$$\frac{1+x^2}{(\cos z - x \sin z)^2} = \sum_{n \geq 1} T_n(x) \frac{z^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} = \sum_{n \geq 0} T_{n+1}(x) \frac{z^n}{n!}.$$

(Try it—the cancellation is very pretty.) Therefore we have

$$T_{n+1}(x) = (1+x^2)T'_n(x), \quad T_0(x) = x, \tag{6.95}$$

a simple recurrence from which it follows that the coefficients of $T_n(x)$ are nonnegative integers. Moreover, we can easily prove that $T_n(x)$ has degree $n + 1$, and that its coefficients are alternately zero and positive. Therefore $T_{2n+1}(0) = T_{2n+1}$ is a positive integer, as claimed in (6.93).

Recurrence (6.95) gives us a simple way to calculate Bernoulli numbers, via tangent numbers, using only simple operations on integers; by contrast, the defining recurrence (6.79) involves difficult arithmetic with fractions.

If we want to compute the sum of n th powers from a to $b - 1$ instead of from 0 to $n - 1$, the theory of Chapter 2 tells us that

$$\sum_{k=a}^{b-1} k^m = \sum_a^b x^m \delta x = S_m(b) - S_m(a). \tag{6.96}$$

This identity has interesting consequences when we consider negative values of k : We have

$$\sum_{k=-n+1}^{-1} k^m = (-1)^m \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^m, \quad \text{when } m > 0,$$

hence

$$S_m(0) - S_m(-n + 1) = (-1)^m (S_m(n) - S_m(0)).$$

But $S_m(0) = 0$, so we have the identity

$$S_m(1 - n) = (-1)^{m+1} S_m(n), \quad m > 0. \tag{6.97}$$

Therefore $S_m(1) = 0$. If we write the polynomial $S_m(n)$ in factored form, it will always have the factors n and $(n - 1)$, because it has the roots 0 and 1. In general, $S_m(n)$ is a polynomial of degree $m + 1$ with leading term $\frac{1}{m+1} n^{m+1}$. Moreover, we can set $n = \frac{1}{2}$ in (6.97) to deduce that $S_m(\frac{1}{2}) = (-1)^{m+1} S_m(\frac{1}{2})$; if m is even, this makes $S_m(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$, so $(n - \frac{1}{2})$ will be an additional factor. These observations explain why we found the simple factorization

$$S_2(n) = \frac{1}{3} n(n - \frac{1}{2})(n - 1)$$

in Chapter 2; we could have used such reasoning to deduce the value of $S_2(n)$ without calculating it! Furthermore, (6.97) implies that the polynomial with the remaining factors, $\hat{S}_m(n) = S_m(n)/(n - \frac{1}{2})$, always satisfies

$$\hat{S}_m(1 - n) = \hat{S}_m(n), \quad m \text{ even}, \quad m > 0.$$

It follows that $S_m(n)$ can always be written in the factored form

$$S_m(n) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m+1} \prod_{k=1}^{\lfloor m/2 \rfloor} (n - \frac{1}{2} - \alpha_k)(n - \frac{1}{2} + \alpha_k), & m \text{ odd;} \\ \frac{(n - \frac{1}{2})}{m+1} \prod_{k=1}^{m/2} (n - \frac{1}{2} - \alpha_k)(n - \frac{1}{2} + \alpha_k), & m \text{ even.} \end{cases} \tag{6.98}$$

Johann Faulhaber implicitly used (6.97) in 1635 [119] to find simple formulas for $S_m(n)$ as polynomials in $n(n + 1)/2$ when $m \leq 17$; see [222].

Here $\alpha_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, and $\alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{\lfloor m/2 \rfloor}$ are appropriate complex numbers whose values depend on m . For example,

$$\begin{aligned} S_3(n) &= n^2(n-1)^2/4; \\ S_4(n) &= n(n-\frac{1}{2})(n-1)(n-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{7/12})(n-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{7/12})/5; \\ S_5(n) &= n^2(n-1)^2(n-\frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{3/4})(n-\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{3/4})/6; \\ S_6(n) &= n(n-\frac{1}{2})(n-1)(n-\frac{1}{2} + \alpha)(n-\frac{1}{2} - \alpha)(n-\frac{1}{2} + \bar{\alpha})(n-\frac{1}{2} - \bar{\alpha}), \\ &\text{where } \alpha = 2^{-5/2} 3^{-1/2} 31^{1/4} (\sqrt{\sqrt{31} + \sqrt{27}} + i \sqrt{\sqrt{31} - \sqrt{27}}). \end{aligned}$$

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If m is odd and greater than 1, we have $B_m = 0$; hence $S_m(n)$ is divisible by n^2 (and by $(n-1)^2$). Otherwise the roots of $S_m(n)$ don't seem to obey a simple law.

Let's conclude our study of Bernoulli numbers by looking at how they relate to Stirling numbers. One way to compute $S_m(n)$ is to change ordinary powers to falling powers, since the falling powers have easy sums. After doing those easy sums we can convert back to ordinary powers:

$$\begin{aligned} S_m(n) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^m = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j \geq 0} \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ j \end{Bmatrix} k^{\underline{j}} = \sum_{j \geq 0} \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ j \end{Bmatrix} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^{\underline{j}} \\ &= \sum_{j \geq 0} \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ j \end{Bmatrix} \frac{n^{\underline{j+1}}}{j+1} \\ &= \sum_{j \geq 0} \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ j \end{Bmatrix} \frac{1}{j+1} \sum_{k \geq 0} (-1)^{j+1-k} \begin{bmatrix} j+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} n^k. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, equating coefficients with those in (6.78), we must have the identity

$$\sum_{j \geq 0} \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ j \end{Bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} j+1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} \frac{(-1)^{j+1-k}}{j+1} = \frac{1}{m+1} \binom{m+1}{k} B_{m+1-k}. \tag{6.99}$$

It would be nice to prove this relation directly, thereby discovering Bernoulli numbers in a new way. But the identities in Tables 264 or 265 don't give us any obvious handle on a proof by induction that the left-hand sum in (6.99) is a constant times $m^{\underline{k-1}}$. If $k = m + 1$, the left-hand sum is just $\begin{Bmatrix} m \\ m \end{Bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix} / (m+1) = 1/(m+1)$, so that case is easy. And if $k = m$, the left-hand side sums to $\begin{Bmatrix} m \\ m-1 \end{Bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ m \end{bmatrix} m^{-1} - \begin{Bmatrix} m \\ m \end{Bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix} (m+1)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2}(m-1) - \frac{1}{2}m = -\frac{1}{2}$; so that case is pretty easy too. But if $k < m$, the left-hand sum looks hairy. Bernoulli would probably not have discovered his numbers if he had taken this route.