INTEGRAL FUNCTIONS OBTAINED BY COMPOUNDING POLYNOMIALS*

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1. Introduction. We consider a sequence of polynomials $P_n(z)$, $(n = 1, 2, \dots)$, where the degrees of the P_n do not exceed a fixed integer m and where each P_n , ordered in ascending powers of z, starts with the term z. We shall study the sequence of polynomials $Q_n(z)$ defined by

(1)
$$Q_1(z) = P_1(z); Q_{n+1}(z) = Q_n [P_{n+1}(z)], \quad (n = 1, 2, \cdots),$$

and also the sequence of polynomials $R_n(z)$ defined by

(2)
$$R_1(z) = P_1(z); R_{n+1}(z) = P_{n+1}[R_n(z)], (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

If the coefficients, after the first, in P_n , are sufficiently small, these sequences will converge to integral functions. For instance, sin z can be obtained, in many ways, as a limit of a sequence (1). In what follows, our chief object will be to establish conditions under which the sequences converge to integral functions.

2. The Sequence of $Q_n(z)$. Let

$$P_n(z) = z + a_{n2}z^2 + \cdots + a_{nm}z^m, \quad (n = 1, 2, \cdots),$$

where m is an integer independent of n.

THEOREM 1. Let a convergent series of positive numbers,

$$(3) c_1 + c_2 + \cdots + c_n + \cdots$$

exist such that $|a_{ni}| < c_n$, for every n and for $i = 2, \dots, m$. Then the sequence of polynomials $Q_n(z)$ converges to an integral function, the convergence being uniform in every bounded domain.

PROOF. For every n,

(4)
$$U_n(z) = z + c_n(z^2 + \cdots + z^m)$$

is a majorant of $P_n(z)$. Let

$$V_1 = U_1; V_{n+1} = V_n(U_{n+1}), (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

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Then V_n is a majorant of Q_n . Also, if we let

$$\alpha_n = c_n(z^2 + \cdots + z^m),$$

we have

$$V_{n+1} - V_n = V_n(z + \alpha_{n+1}) - V_n$$

= $\frac{dV_n}{dz} \alpha_{n+1} + \frac{1}{2!} \frac{d^2V_n}{dz^2} \alpha_{n+1}^2 + \cdots,$

from which it follows easily that $V_{n+1} - V_n$ is a majorant of $Q_{n+1} - Q_n$. For every positive z, $V_{n+1}(z) > V_n(z)$. These considerations show that our theorem will be proved if we can show that the sequence of V_n converges for every positive z.

Let b be any positive number. Let

(5)
$$h = 2b + 4b^2 + \cdots + 2^{m-1}b^{m-1}$$
.

Then the infinite product $(1+hc_1) \cdots (1+hc_n) \cdots$ converges. Let p be a fixed integer such that

(6)
$$(1 + hc_{p+1})(1 + hc_{p+2}) \cdots < 2.$$

Let

$$W_1 = U_{p+1}; W_{n+1} = W_n(U_{p+n+1}), (n = 1, 2, \cdots).$$

It will plainly suffice to show that the sequence of W_n converges for z=b. For any n, by (4) and (5),

 $U_{p+n}(b) < b(1 + hc_{p+n}),$

so that, by (6), $U_{p+n}(b) < 2b$. Hence

$$U_{p+n-1}[U_{p+n}(b)] = U_{p+n}(b)[1 + c_{p+n-1}(U_{p+n}(b) + \cdots)]$$

$$< U_{p+n}(b)[1 + hc_{p+n-1}]$$

$$< b(1 + hc_{p+n-1})(1 + hc_{p+n}),$$

and the last quantity, by (6), is less than 2b. Continuing in this fashion, we find that, for every n,

$$W_n < b(1 + hc_{p+1}) \cdots (1 + hc_{p+n}) < 2b.$$

This shows that the $W_n(b)$, which increase with n, approach a limit. The theorem is proved.

That the condition placed on the P_n is critical with respect to the convergence of the Q_n , is seen on taking $P_n = z + c_n z^m$ with

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 $c_n > 0$ and (3) divergent. The coefficient of z^m in Q will be $c_1 + \cdots + c_n$ and Q_n will tend towards infinity with n for every positive z.

The function $\sin z$ can be expressed as a limit of polynomials Q_n . Let

(7)
$$P_n(z) = z - \frac{4}{3^{2n+1}} z^3.$$

The formula

$$\sin z = 3\sin\frac{z}{3} - 4\sin^3\frac{z}{3}$$

gives then

$$\sin z = Q_n (3^n \sin 3^{-n} z).$$

From (7) we see that the Q_n converge to an integral function. This integral function must be $\sin z$, since $3^n \sin 3^{-n}z$ approaches z as n increases.*

3. The Sequence of $R_n(z)$. We shall study the sequence of $R_n(z)$ defined by (2).

THEOREM 2. Let the $P_n(z)$ all be of degree at most m > 1. Let a sequence of positive numbers c_n exist such that

(8)
$$\limsup_{n\to\infty} c_n^{1/m^n} < 1,$$

and such that, for every n, the moduli of the coefficients of z^2, \dots, z^m in P_n are all less than c_n . Then the $R_n(z)$ converge to an integral function, the convergence being uniform in every bounded domain.

PROOF. Let r be a number which lies between the two members of (8). Then, for n large,

$$z + r^{mn}(z^2 + \cdots + z^m)$$

will be a majorant of $P_n(z)$. A fortiori, since m > 1,

(9) $U_n(z) = z + r^{mn-1}z^2 + r^{2mn-1}z^3 + \cdots + r^{(m-1)mn-1}z^m$

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^{*} In the same way, one can express as limits of polynomials Q_n a large class of the functions with rational multiplication theorems introduced by Poincaré (Journal de Mathématiques, vol. 55 (1890)).

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will be a majorant of $P_n(z)$ for *n* large. We see now readily that it will suffice, for the proof of our theorem, to show that the sequence of $V_n(z)$ defined by

(10)
$$V_1 = U_1; V_{n+1} = U_{n+1}(V_n), \qquad (n \ge 1),$$

converges for every real and positive z.†

Let p be any non-negative integer. Putting

(11)
$$W_1 = U_{p+1}; W_{n+1} = U_{p+n+1}(W_n), \quad (n \ge 1),$$

we shall show that the sequence of W_n converges for $z < hr^{-m^p}$, where h = 1 - r.

By (9),

$$S_n(z) = \frac{z}{1 - r^{mp+n-1}z}, \qquad (n = 1, 2, \cdots),$$

is a majorant of U_{p+n} . If, then,

$$T_1 = S_1; \ T_{n+1} = S_{n+1}(T_n), \qquad (n \ge 1),$$

 T_n will be a majorant of W_n . Now an easy calculation shows that

$$T_n(z) = \frac{z}{1 - (r^{mp} + \cdots + r^{m^{p+n-1}})z}$$

For any positive z less than the reciprocal of the infinite series

$$r^{mp}+r^{mp+1}+\cdots,$$

which reciprocal we shall denote by k, the $T_n(z)$ form a sequence of numbers which increase towards kz/(k-z). Also, if 0 < z < k, $T_n(z) > W_n(z)$, so that the $W_n(z)$ will form a bounded sequence of increasing numbers and will converge to a limit. Now as m > 1,

$$k\geq \frac{r^{-mp}}{1+r+r^2+\cdots}=hr^{-mp},$$

and our statement with respect to (11) is proved.

Thus Theorem 2 will be established if, putting $V_0(z) = z$, we show that for every positive z there is a p such that $V_p(z) < hr^{-m^p}$.

[†] The fact that U_n may not be a majorant of P_n for n small is of no significance. One may suppress a finite number of P_n and then add a finite number of polynomials (9) to the beginning of the resulting sequence of U_n .

Let us assume that there is a positive z for which no such p exists. In what follows, we work with a fixed z of this type. We have, by (9) and (10), for any $n \ge 0$,

(12)
$$V_{n+1} = V_n + r^{m^n} V_n^2 + \dots + r^{(m-1)m^n} V_n^m \\ \leq V_n (1 + r^{m^n} V_n)^{m-1}.$$

Now, for every *n*,

(13) $V_n \ge hr^{-m^n},$

so that

$$1 \leq \frac{r^{m^n} V_n}{h},$$

and, if we put $a = (1+1/h)^{m-1}$, we have, by (12),

 $V_{n+1} \leq ar^{(m-1)m^n} V_n^m \leq ar^{m^n} V_n^m.$

We have thus

$$V_1 \leq arz^m, V_2 \leq a^{m+1}r^{2m}z^{m^2}, V_3 \leq a^{m^2+m+1}r^{3m^2}z^{m^3},$$

and, in general,

$$V_{n+1} \leq a^{m^n + \dots + 1} r^{(n+1)m^n} z^{m^{n+1}}.$$

As m > 1, we have $m^n + \cdots + 1 < m^{n+1}$. Then, because a > 1,

(14)
$$V_{n+1} < \left[r^{(n+1)/m} az \right]^{m^{n+1}}$$

As z is fixed, $r^{(n+1)/m}az$ is small for n large, so that, by (14), V_{n+1} approaches 0 as n increases. This contradicts (13). The theorem is proved.

The condition (8) is a critical one. That we cannot let the first member of (8) be as great as unity is seen on taking $P_n = z + z^m$. The coefficient of z^m in Q_n will be n and the Q_n will diverge for every positive z. That m in the first member of (8) cannot be replaced by any smaller positive number α , is seen, taking m=2, for instance, on putting $P_n = z + 2^{-\alpha^n} z^2$. For any positive z, we have

$$P_n > 2^{-\alpha n} z^2.$$

Then

$$R_1 > 2^{-\alpha} z^2, R_2 > 2^{-(\alpha^2 + 2\alpha)} z^4,$$

and, in general,

$$R_n > 2^{-(\alpha^n + 2\alpha^{n-1} + \cdots + 2^{n-1}\alpha)} z^{2^n}$$

Now

$$-(\alpha^n+2\alpha^{n-1}+\cdots+2^{n-1}\alpha)=\frac{\alpha^{n+1}-2^n\alpha}{2-\alpha}>-b2^n,$$

where $b = \alpha/(2-\alpha)$. Thus

$$R_n > \left(\frac{z}{2^b}\right)^{2^n},$$

so that the R_n diverge for $z > 2^b$.

Let f(z) be an integral function obtained as a limit of polynomials $R_n(z)$, the approach being uniform in every bounded domain. Unless $P_n(z) = z$ for every n, f(z) will not be linear, for if some $R_n(z)$ is of degree greater than unity, f(z), like that $R_n(z)$, will assume certain values at more than one place. In what follows, we shall assume that f(z) is not linear.

We are going to prove that, between any two branches of the inverse of f(z), there exists an algebraic relation of a simple type.

Let a and b be two distinct points such that f(a) = f(b) and that the derivative of f(z) does not vanish at a or at b. Let A be a circle with a as center such that, in the interior of A, f(z)assumes no value twice. Let B be a similar circle with center at B. We can find a neighborhood M of f(a) = f(b) such that, both in A and in B, $R_n(z)$ with n large assumes all values in M. If n is large enough, $R_n(a)$ will be in M. In what follows, we deal with a fixed $R_n(z)$ for which both conditions just described are realized.

If z_a is a point in A, very close to a, there will be a z_b in Bsuch that $f(z_b) = f(z_a)$, and, furthermore, $R_n(z_a)$ will lie in M. We shall prove that $R_n(z_a) = R_n(z_b)$. As $R_n(z_a)$ is in M, there is a ζ in B such that $R_n(\zeta) = R_n(z_a)$. Now ζ must coincide with z_b , for $f(\zeta) = f(z_a) = f(z_b)$ and f(z) assumes no value twice in B.

Thus, if we put w = f(z) and if $\alpha(w)$ and $\beta(w)$ are two branches of the inverse of f(z), then, for n large, $R_n[\alpha(w)] = R_n[\beta(w)]$.

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