# ON THE LOCUS OF AN ANALYTIC EQUATION IN THE REAL PLANE* 

BY A. B. BROWN
I have been unable to find in the literature a statement or proof of the following theorem.

Theorem. Let $f(x, y)$ be analytic at the real point $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, with $f\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)=0$ and $f(x, y)$ irreducible at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right) . \dagger$ Then the locus of the equation $f(x, y)=0$ in the real $x y$ plane near $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ consists of one of the following three: (1) the point $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$; (2) a single smooth curve through ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ); (3) a cusp with vertex at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$.

More detailed descriptions of (2) and (3) are contained in the proof which follows.

By a change of coordinates we may suppose $x_{0}=y_{0}=0$. According to the Weierstrass preparation theorem for the case of one independent variable, since $f$ is irreducible at ( 0,0 ), either $f(x, y) \equiv x \Omega(x, y)$, with $\Omega(0,0) \neq 0$ and $\Omega$ analytic at $(0,0)$ or

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y) \equiv\left[y^{m}+A_{1}(x) y^{m-1}+\cdots+A_{m}(x)\right] \Omega(x, y) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\Omega$ as above, $m>0, A_{j}(x)$ analytic at $x=0$, and $A_{j}(0)=0$, $(j=1, \cdots, m)$. Since in the first case the real locus $f(x, y)=0$ is merely a straight line, it is sufficient to consider the case that (1) holds.

Since $f$ is irreducible at $(0,0)$, the same is true of the algebroid function in (1), and hence its $m$-leaved Riemann surface is connected near $(0,0)$ and we can uniformize locally as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
& x=t^{m}  \tag{2}\\
& y=\psi(t)=a_{1} t+a_{2} t^{2}+\cdots \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

with $\psi$ analytic at $t=0$, and a neighborhood of the origin in the

[^0]$t$ plane giving exactly the points $(x, y)$ in a neighborhood of $(0,0)$ satisfying $f(x, y)=0$, each just once. Now $x$ is real if and only if
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
t=\tau e^{k \pi i / m}, \quad(k=0,1, \cdots, m-1), \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

with $\tau$ real and positive, negative, or zero. Substituting from (4) in (3), for a fixed value of $k$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=\phi_{k}(\tau)=b_{k, 1} \tau+b_{k, 2} \tau^{2}+\cdots, \quad b_{k, \nu}=a_{\nu} e^{k \nu \pi i / m} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Either all the coefficients in (5) are real, in which case equation (4) for the given $k$, together with (2) and (3), gives only real points $(x, y)$, or else there is a first non-real $b_{k, j}$. In this case we have from (5) that

$$
y=R(\tau)+\tau^{i}\left(b_{k, j}+b_{k, j+1} \tau+b_{k, j+2 \tau^{2}}+\cdots\right),
$$

where $R(\tau)$ is real. Since $b_{k, j}$ is not real, we see that for sufficiently small $\tau$ the parenthesis is not real. Since $\tau$ is real, it follows that for small values of $\tau \neq 0, y$ is not real. When $\tau=0, y=0$. We thus see that in this case only $\tau=0$ gives real $y$. Next we show that at most one value of $k$ can give real $y$ for real $\tau \neq 0$.

Suppose $t=\tau e^{k \pi i / m}$ and $t=\tau e^{i \pi i / m}$, with $0<j-k<m$, both gave real loci for real $\tau$, when used with (2) and (3). Then $b_{k, \nu}=a_{\nu} e^{k \nu \pi i / m}$ and $b_{j, \nu}=a_{\nu} e^{j \nu \pi i / m}$ would be real, $(\nu=1,2, \cdots)$, and hence if $a_{\nu} \neq 0$, their ratio $e^{(j-k) \nu x i / m}$ would be real. Therefore $(j-k) \nu / m$ would be an integer. Let $m=m_{1} \cdot m_{2}$, where $m_{1}$ is the H. C. F. of $(j-k)$ and $m$. Thus $m_{2}>1$, since $0<j-k<m$. Then $\nu$ would have to be a multiple of $m_{2}$, and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=\psi(t) \equiv \zeta\left(t^{m_{2}}\right), \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\zeta$ analytic at the origin. Now if we set $t_{1}=t e^{2 \pi i / m 2}$, then $\left(t_{1}\right)^{m}=t^{m} e^{2 \pi m_{1} i}=t^{m}$, and $t_{1}{ }^{m 2}=t^{m 2} e^{2 \pi i}=t^{m}$. Hence from (2) and (6) we see that $t_{1}$ and $t$ would give the same $(x, y)$. But since $m_{2}>1$, $t_{1} \neq t$ if $t \neq 0$, and therefore we would have a contradiction. Consequently at most one of the $m$ values of $k$ gives real $(x, y)$ when used in (2), (3), and (4) with real $\tau \neq 0$.

We now consider the case that some value of $k$ does give a real locus. We define as the branches of the locus for the $k$ in question the parts for which $\tau \geqq 0$ and $\tau \leqq 0$, respectively. Thus the two branches have the origin as a common end point. From (4), (2), and (3) we see that on each of the two branches $y$ is a
single-valued real function of $x$, analytic when $x \neq 0$. If $m$ is even, $x$ has the same sign on each branch. If $m$ is odd, $x$ has opposite signs on the two branches except at $x=0$, and $y$ is a single-valued real continuous function of $x$ for $x$ on an interval of the real axis containing the origin.

From (2) and (3) we see that (i) if $a_{1}=a_{2}=\cdots=a_{m}=0$, then $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} y / x=0$; (ii) if $a_{1}=\cdots=a_{m-1}=0$ but $a_{m} \neq 0$, then $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} y / x=a_{m} \neq 0$; (iii) if some $a_{i} \neq 0$ with $0<j<m$, then when $x$ approaches zero, $y / x$ becomes infinite. Hence the two branches have a common tangent line. By a rotation of axes we now arrange that the $x$ axis is the tangent line at the origin, and that $x \geqq 0$ on the real locus if $m$ is even. Since $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} y / x$ must then be 0 , we must have case (i), so that $a_{1}=\cdots=a_{m}=0$. Then, for $t \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d y}{d x}=\left(\frac{d y}{d t}\right)\left(\frac{d t}{d x}\right)=\left[(m+1) a_{m+1} t^{m}+\cdots\right]\left(\frac{1}{m t^{m-1}}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} d y / d x=0$. Hence we have a continuously turning tangent; though if $m$ is even, properly speaking we may only say that each branch has the positive $x$ axis as right-hand tangent at the origin (a cusp).

Now from (7), for $t \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d y}{d x}=b_{m+1} t+b_{m+2} t^{2}+\cdots \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence when $t \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}=\left[\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right)\right] \cdot \frac{d t}{d x}=\left(b_{m+1}+2 b_{m+2} t+\cdots\right)\left(\frac{1}{m t^{m-1}}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore on either branch, with $t \neq 0, d^{2} y / d x^{2}$ is either identically zero or nowhere zero. Hence unless the locus is a straight line, $d^{2} y / d x^{2}$ has a fixed sign on each branch except at ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) where it may be zero, and the branch does not meet $T$, the tangent at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$, except at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$. We also see that as a point on the locus approaches ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ), the curvature either approaches a fixed limit, possibly zero, or becomes infinite. The curvature at ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) exists for each branch and equals this limit (also in the infinite case, where we have infinite curvature at $\left(x_{0}, y_{0}\right)$ ), as follows from (2), (8), and (9).

As examples we mention $y^{3}-x^{4}=0, y^{3}-x^{5}=0, \quad$ and $\left[y-1+\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}\right]^{2}-x^{5}=0$ with the determination of $\left(1-x^{2}\right)^{1 / 2}$ which equals 1 when $x=0$. These give respectively, at the origin, a minimum, a point of inflection, and a cusp with both branches concave upward. In none of the three cases is $y$ analytic in $x$ at the origin. An example where the locus is a single point is given by $y+i x=0$.

In the case of a reducible function $f(x, y)$, the real locus $f(x, y)=0$ neighboring ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) consists of a finite number of configurations of the kind described in the theorem, no two of which have any point except ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) in common. This is easily proved by use of theorems on resultants and on divisibility of one function by another. Of course two irreducible factors may have exactly the same locus.

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## A PARTIAL DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION CONNECTED WITH THE FUNCTIONS OF THE PARABOLIC CYLINDER*

BY HARRY BATEMAN
The partial differential equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{s=1}^{p}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} V}{\partial x_{s}^{2}}-x_{s} \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_{s}}\right)+\nu V=0 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which was considered by Mehler $\dagger$ in 1866, is a slight modification of an equation which occurs in wave-mechanics in the theory of the rotator in a plane and in space. $\ddagger$ The case in which $\nu$ is a positive integer is then of chief physical interest and Mehler's simple solution

$$
\begin{equation*}
V=\prod_{s=1}^{p} H_{m_{s}}\left(x_{s}\right), \quad \sum_{s=1}^{p} m_{s}=\nu \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

acquires a physical significance. The function $H_{m}(x)$ is the polynomial of Laplace and Hermite defined by the equation

[^1]
[^0]:    * Presented to the Society, February 23, 1935.
    $\dagger$ That is, not the product, near ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ) in the 4 -space of the complex variables, of two functions each analytic and zero at ( $x_{0}, y_{0}$ ). For theorems which we use involving functions of complex variables, see W. F. Osgood, Lehrbuch der Funktionentheorie, vol. 1, Chapter 8, §14, and vol. 2, part 1, Chapter 2, §§2, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11.

[^1]:    * Presented to the Society, December 2, 1933.
    $\dagger$ F. G. Mehler, Journal für Mathematik, vol. 66 (1866), p. 161.
    $\ddagger$ A. Sommerfeld, Atombau und Spektrallinien, wellenmechanischer Ergänzungsband, 1929, p. 23.

