

APPROXIMATION BY POLYNOMIALS IN z AND ANOTHER FUNCTION¹

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ABSTRACT. We present some progress in the understanding of when and why polynomials in z and a given continuous function f are uniformly dense in all continuous complex valued functions on the closed unit disk. The first theorem requires that f be an ACL^2 -function in a neighborhood of the disk which satisfies $\operatorname{Re} f_{\bar{z}} > |f_z|$ almost everywhere and $f^{-1}(f(a))$ is countable for each a . The second theorem requires that f have a special form and satisfy $|f_{\bar{z}}| > |f_z|$ everywhere except at the origin. The form is that $f = \bar{z}^k \phi(|z|^{2k})$ where ϕ is a complex valued function of a real variable satisfying ϕ is continuous in $[0, 1]$, ϕ' exists in $(0, 1)$ and where k is a positive integer.

1. Introduction. Denote by \mathbb{C} the complex plane and by z the identity function. D denotes the closed disk $\{s \in \mathbb{C}: |s| \leq 1\}$, $C(D)$ will be the set of all complex valued continuous functions on D and for f in $C(D)$, P_f will be the uniform closure on D of all finite sums $\sum_{i,j > 0} a_{ij} z^i \bar{z}^j$ where $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}$. If $f = U + iV$, then the Jacobian determinant of f is given by $\det \begin{pmatrix} U_x & U_y \\ V_x & V_y \end{pmatrix}$. Alternately, if we put $f_z = (U_x + V_y)/2 + i(V_x - U_y)/2$ and $f_{\bar{z}} = (U_x - V_y)/2 + i(V_x + U_y)/2$, then direct computation yields $U_x V_y - U_y V_x = |f_z|^2 - |f_{\bar{z}}|^2$. In particular, f has negative Jacobian determinant if and only if $|f_{\bar{z}}| > |f_z|$. Finally, Lebesgue two dimensional measure in \mathbb{C} is denoted by m .

We are concerned with the following open question. Assume f is smooth in a neighborhood of D and $|f_{\bar{z}}| > |f_z|$; is $P_f = C(D)$? Our main frame of reference consists of two papers ([6] and [7]) of J. Wermer and two papers ([3] and [4]) by the author. In [3], it is shown that $|f_{\bar{z}}| > |f_z|$ implies all rational functions in z and f , which are finite, are uniformly dense in $C(D)$ and in [4] it is proved that if $\operatorname{Re} f_{\bar{z}} \geq |f_z|$ everywhere in the interior of D , then $P_f = C(D)$.

In §2, we prove the following theorem and a mild extension of it.

THEOREM I. *Let f be an ACL^2 -function in a neighborhood of D which satisfies*

- (i) $\operatorname{Re} f_{\bar{z}} > |f_z|$ a.e. in D and
- (ii) $f^{-1}(f(a))$ is countable for each a in D .

Then $P_f = C(D)$.

In §3, we prove the following theorem.

Received by the editors July 18, 1977.

AMS (MOS) subject classifications (1970). Primary 46J10, 56J15; Secondary 30A60, 30A82.

¹This work was partially done while the author was at Boston College on a faculty fellowship.

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THEOREM II. Assume ϕ is a complex valued function of a real variable satisfying ϕ is continuous in $[0, 1]$ and ϕ' exists in $(0, 1)$. Put $f = \bar{z}^k \phi(|z|^{2k})$ where k is a fixed but arbitrary positive integer. If $|f_{\bar{z}}| > |f_z|$ everywhere in $\text{Int } D - \{0\}$, then $P_f = C(D)$.

The author is grateful to Bruce Palka for helpful suggestions concerning the main theorem in §2, and to Andrew Browder for helpful conversations about §§ 2 and 3.

2. Before we prove Theorem I, we quote some needed definitions and results which may be found in [5].

Let Q be a closed rectangle in \mathbb{C} . A complex valued function f on Q is said to be ACL or absolutely continuous on lines if f is continuous in Q and if f is absolutely continuous on almost every line segment in Q parallel to the coordinate axes. A function f on an open set U in \mathbb{C} is ACL when f restricted to any rectangle in U is ACL. An ACL-function on an open set U has partial derivatives a.e. in U and they are Borel functions. When the partial derivatives of an ACL-function f are locally L^2 -integrable, f is said to be ACL^2 . (Reference: §26 in [5].)

DEFINITION. Given a family Γ of locally rectifiable paths in \mathbb{C} , let $F(\Gamma)$ denote all Borel functions $\rho: \mathbb{C} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ such that $\int_{\gamma} \rho ds \geq 1$ for each γ in Γ . The modulus of Γ , denoted by $M(\Gamma)$, is the number $\inf_{\rho \in F(\Gamma)} \int_{\mathbb{C}} \rho^2 dm$; if $F(\Gamma) = \emptyset$, then $M(\Gamma) = \infty$.

THEOREM 2.1. $M(\Gamma)$ has the following properties:

- (i) $M(\Gamma)$ is invariant under similarity mappings,
- (ii) $M(\emptyset) = 0$,
- (iii) if $\Gamma_1 \subset \Gamma_2$, then $M(\Gamma_1) \leq M(\Gamma_2)$,
- (iv) $M(\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} \Gamma_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} M(\Gamma_i)$,
- (v) if each γ in Γ_2 has a subcurve which belongs to Γ_1 , then $M(\Gamma_2) \leq M(\Gamma_1)$.

For a proof, see §6 in [5].

PROPOSITION 2.2. Let $0 < \epsilon < R < \infty$ and let $S(\epsilon), S(R)$ equal respectively the circles about 0 with radii ϵ, R . Let Y be a measurable set on the unit circle and take $\Gamma =$ all radial line segments γ joining $S(\epsilon)$ to $S(R)$ such that $|\gamma| \subset \{s \in \mathbb{C}: s/|s| \in Y\}$. Then $M(\Gamma) = \sigma(Y)(\text{Log } R/\epsilon)^{-1}$ where $\sigma(Y) = 2(m\{ru: 0 < r < 1 \text{ and } u \in Y\})$.

In order to prove the proposition, one can mildly modify the argument given in Example 7.5 of [5].

THEOREM 2.3 (FUGLEDE). Suppose U is an open set in \mathbb{C} and that f is an ACL^2 -function on U . Let T be the family of all locally rectifiable paths in U which have a closed subpath on which f is not absolutely continuous. Then $M(T) = 0$.

PROOF OF THEOREM I. It suffices to show that for s, t in D we have $\text{Re}[(t-s)(f(t) - f(s))] \geq 0$. That $P_f = C(D)$ will follow from this fact and

from the hypothesis that $f^{-1}(f(a))$ is countable for each a exactly as in Theorem A of [4]. Also, the continuity of f allows us to restrict our attention to the situation $t \in D$, $s \in \text{Int } D$ and $t \neq s$. Fix such an s and t . Choose $\epsilon > 0$ so small that $t \notin D(s; \epsilon) = \{w: |w - s| < \epsilon\} \subset \text{Int } D$ and let $s_\epsilon = s + \epsilon(t - s)/|t - s|$. Again, by the continuity of f , it suffices to prove that $\text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)(f(t) - f(s_\epsilon))] \geq 0$ and this is what we will show.

Choose T as in Theorem 2.3; there are two cases to consider.

Case I. The line segment ν joining s_ϵ to t is not in T and $\text{Re } f_{\bar{z}} \geq |f_z|$ a.e. with respect to linear measure on ν .

By Theorem 2.3

$$f(t) - f(s_\epsilon) = \int_\nu (f_x dx + f_y dy)$$

and so

$$\text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)(f(t) - f(s_\epsilon))] = \int_\nu \text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)df(t - s_\epsilon)].$$

A straightforward calculation yields

$$\text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)df(t - s_\epsilon)] = \text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)^2 f_z + |t - s_\epsilon|^2 f_{\bar{z}}].$$

And our assumption that $\text{Re } f_{\bar{z}} \geq |f_z|$ implies that the last expression is nonnegative almost everywhere. We conclude that

$$\text{Re}[(t - s_\epsilon)(f(t) - f(s_\epsilon))] \geq 0.$$

Case II. Either the line segment from s_ϵ to t is in T or it is not true that $\text{Re } f_{\bar{z}} \geq |f_z|$ a.e. on that segment.

Let $X = \{w \text{ in } D: f_x(w) \text{ or } f_y(w) \text{ does not exist or, if they exist, } \text{Re } f_{\bar{z}}(w) < |f_z(w)|\}$. For each $\alpha \in [0, 2\pi]$ denote by $L(\alpha)$ the radial (with center = s) segment joining $s + \epsilon e^{i\alpha}$ to the unit circle and let $B = \{\alpha \in [0, 2\pi]: X \cap L(\alpha) \text{ has positive linear measure}\}$.

It is not hard to show that $m_1 B = 0$ where m_1 is Lebesgue measure on the real line; for instance, Fubini's theorem may be applied to this situation. Next, let $A = \{\alpha \in [0, 2\pi]: L(\alpha) \in T\}$. It will now be shown A has the property that if G is a measurable subset of A , then $m_1 G = 0$.

Let G be a measurable subset of A and let $Y = \{e^{i\alpha}: \alpha \in G\}$. Choose $R > \epsilon$ so large that $D \subset D(s; R)$. Put $L = \{L(\alpha): \alpha \in G\}$ and $L' =$ all extensions of segments in L to the circle $S(s; R)$. On the one hand, $M(L') = \sigma(Y)(\text{Log } R/\epsilon)^{-1}$ by Proposition 2.2 (and Theorem 2.1, part (i)); on the other hand $L \subset T$ and each path in L' has a subpath in L so that (again by Theorem 2.1) $M(L') \leq M(L) \leq M(T)$. Since T is from Theorem 2.3, $M(T) = 0$. Thus, $M(L') = 0$ and $\sigma(Y) = 0$; from which it follows that $m_1 G = 0$.

Now since any measurable subset of A has m_1 -measure zero and since $m_1 B = 0$, any measurable subset of $A \cup B$ has m_1 -measure zero. We conclude that $A \cup B$ contains no intervals. Therefore, the line segment from s_ϵ to t (although it may be in T) can be approximated arbitrarily close by radial

segments which are not in T . Choose a_n, b_n on such line segments such that $a_n \in S(s; \varepsilon)$, $a_n \rightarrow s_\varepsilon$, $b_n \rightarrow t$. By Theorem 2.3, the Case I situation applies to yield $\operatorname{Re}[(b_n - a_n)(f(b_n) - f(a_n))] \geq 0$. The continuity of f implies $\operatorname{Re}[(t - s_\varepsilon)(f(t) - f(s_\varepsilon))] \geq 0$ and by the comments at the start of the proof, Theorem I is proved.

Next, we indicate a mild extension of Theorem I.

THEOREM. *Suppose g is a function which satisfies the hypothesis of Theorem I and suppose R is a function in $C(D)$ which satisfies $|R(t) - R(s)| \leq k|g(t) - g(s)|$ for all t, s in D with k a positive constant between 0 and 1. If $f = g + R$, then $P_f = C(D)$.*

An example of such a function R can be constructed by taking any real valued function of a real variable, say h , which satisfies $|h'| \leq k < 1$ and putting $R = h(\operatorname{Im} g) - ih(\operatorname{Re} g)$. In order to prove this extension, a couple of observations are relevant. First, for each $s \in D$, $f^{-1}(f(s)) = g^{-1}(g(s))$; this is a direct consequence of the Lipschitz condition on R . Since $g^{-1}(g(s))$ is countable, $f^{-1}(f(s))$ is also. Next, for each s the function $(z - s)(f - f(s))$ never takes a negative real number for a value in D . In fact, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ and any $t \in D$

$$\begin{aligned} |(t - s)(f(t) - f(s)) + \varepsilon| &= |(t - s)(g(t) - g(s)) + \varepsilon + (t - s)(R(t) - R(s))| \\ &> |(t - s)(g(t) - g(s)) + \varepsilon| - |(t - s)(R(t) - R(s))| \\ &\geq |(t - s)(g(t) - g(s)) + \varepsilon| - k|(t - s)(g(t) - g(s))|. \end{aligned}$$

And this last expression is positive since $\operatorname{Re}[(t - s)(g(t) - g(s))] \geq 0$. In order to finish a proof of the extension, it suffices to combine an argument used by J. Wermer in Lemma 3 of [7] with the argument in Theorem A of [4].

3. In order to have $P_f = C(D)$ it is not sufficient to assume that $f_{\bar{z}} \neq 0$ everywhere. This is demonstrated by an example of J. Wermer, namely, $f = \bar{z}\phi(|z|^2)$ where $\phi(t) = (t^2 - 1)/3 + i(t - 1)/2$. Straight calculation shows $f_{\bar{z}}$ vanishes nowhere in \mathbb{C} and f itself vanishes on the unit circle. Hence, if $g \in P_f$, then g , restricted to the unit circle, is approximable by polynomials in z . It follows that $P_f \neq C(D)$.

This partially leads us to consider the class of functions which have the special form $f = \bar{z}^k \phi(|z|^{2k})$ where ϕ is a complex valued function of a real variable and where k is an arbitrary but fixed positive integer. For instance, some polynomials in z and \bar{z} can be expressed in this form with ϕ being a polynomial in a real variable which has complex coefficients.

Before proving Theorem II, we supply additional information which will be needed.

THEOREM 3.1 (LAVRENTIEV). *Let X be a compact subset of \mathbb{C} and let $P(X)$ denote the uniform closure on X of all polynomials in z . If X has empty interior*

and connected complement, then $P(X) = C(X)$.

A functional-analytic proof of this result may be found in [1].

THEOREM 3.2. *Let X be a compact subset of \mathbb{C} and let A be a closed subalgebra of $C(X)$. Let g be a real valued function in A and for each real number α put $X_\alpha = g^{-1}(\alpha)$. If A restricted to each X_α is dense in $C(X_\alpha)$ for each α , then $A = C(X)$.*

This is a special case of a theorem due to Silov (and, in greater generality due to Bishop). For a simple proof which was discovered by Glicksberg and which is based on an argument of De Branges in [2], the reader should see Theorem 2.7.5 in [1].

LEMMA 3.3. *Let f be as in Theorem II. Then the function z^{kf} maps D onto a Jordan arc Γ where distinct circles about 0 are mapped to distinct points of Γ .*

PROOF OF LEMMA 3.3. Straightforward calculation yields

$$f_z = k\bar{z}^{k+1}\phi'(|z|^{2k})|z|^{2k-2}$$

and

$$f_{\bar{z}} = k\bar{z}^{k-1}\phi'(|z|^{2k})|z|^{2k} + k\bar{z}^{k-1}\phi(|z|^{2k})$$

in $\text{Int } D$. Hence,

$$|f_z|^2 - |f_{\bar{z}}|^2 = -k^2|z^{k-1}|^2 \left(|\phi(|z|^{2k})|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re} [|z|^{2k}\phi(|z|^{2k})\overline{\phi'(|z|^{2k})}] \right).$$

Let $t = |z|^{2k}$ and $H(t) = |\phi(t)|^2$. The hypotheses on f imply that $|\phi(t)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}[t\phi(t)\overline{\phi'(t)}] > 0$ or that $[tH(t)]' > 0$ when $0 < t < 1$. Thus, $t \rightarrow tH(t)$ is a strictly increasing function of t . Next, if $0 < r < s < 1$, then we have $r^2|\phi(r)|^2 < rsH(s) < s^2H(s) = s^2|\phi(s)|^2$; so that the map $t \rightarrow t|\phi(t)|$ is also a strictly increasing function. We conclude that the image of the closed unit interval under $t\phi$ is a Jordan arc Γ . Since $z^{kf} = |z|^{2k}\phi(|z|^{2k})$ the image of D under z^{kf} is exactly Γ and distinct circles about 0 are mapped into distinct points of Γ .

PROOF OF THEOREM II. Let Γ be as in Lemma 3.3. Since Γ is a Jordan arc, it has connected complement and no interior. By Theorem 3.1, $P(\Gamma) = C(\Gamma)$. Let h be the inverse of the map $t \rightarrow t\phi(t)$ which traced out Γ and let $g = h \circ (z^{kf})$. Since $h \in C(\Gamma)$, $h \in P(\Gamma)$ and so $g \in P_f$. Further, the level sets of g are precisely the circles in D with center at 0 and the restriction of P_f to any circle about the origin is dense in all continuous functions on that circle (P_f restricted to the circle contains z and \bar{z}^k , hence, z and \bar{z}). We conclude from Theorem 3.2 that $P_f = C(D)$.

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