## Huygens Institute - Royal Netherlands Academy of Arts and Sciences (KNAW)

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Mathematics. - "On a certain point concerning the generating functions of Lapt,ace." By Dr. H. B. A. Bockwinkrl. (Communicated by Prof. H. A. Lorentz).
(Communicated in the meeting of May 31, 1919).

1. The following remarkable proposition of the integral $\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x r} \varphi(r) d r$, or of the integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(x)=\int_{0}^{1} f\left((1) t^{x} d t\right. \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

derived from the former by the substitution $r=-\log t$, has been proved by Lerren ${ }^{1}$ ):

If the determining function $\alpha(x)$ vanishes for an arithmetical progression of values of $x$ with positive common difference $\eta$

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\boldsymbol{\xi}+\mu \eta, \quad(\mu=0,1,2, \ldots) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

then it vanishes for all values of $x$, and the generating function $f(t)$ also vanishes.

Lerch uses for the proof a theorem of Weimestrass, according to which any function which is continuous in a closed interval can be represented by a uniformly converging series of rational integral functions. Since the theorem, which is also mentioned by Pincherle ${ }^{*}$ ) and by Nielsen ${ }^{\circ}$ ), has a great many interesting consequences, it seems not unuseful to prove it in a manner which is independent of Weirrstrass's theorem. The reasoning we give in the next pages makes use of the theorem of Fourier.
2. The following suppositions are sufficient for the purpose:

1. The function $f(t)$ is continuous in the interval of integration, with possible exception as to the value $t=0$.

[^0]2. The integral (1) exists for a certain value $x=c$ of $x$.

We put

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(l)=\int_{0}^{t} f(u) u^{c} d u \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, by 2, $g(t)$ is continuous in the closed interval $(0,1)$, and zero for $t=0$. Further, by $1, g^{( }(t)$ is differentiable at all points of that interval, except, possibly, at $t=0$, and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}(t)=f(t) t^{c} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, if $\delta>0$, we may write

$$
\int_{\delta}^{1} f(t) t^{x} d t=\int_{0}^{1} g^{\prime}(t) t^{x-c} d t=\left[g(t) t^{x-c}\right]_{o}^{1}-(x-c) \int_{\delta}^{1} g(t) t^{t-c-1} d t
$$

If, now, $x$ is a complex number with real part $R(x)$ greater than $c$, the number $\delta$ in this equation may be made to approach to zero, and thus we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} f(t) t^{z} d t=g(1)-(x-c) \int_{0}^{1} g(t) t^{t-c-1} d t \quad . . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

From this it follows. If the integral (1) exists for a certain value $x=c$ of $x$, it exists in the whole half-plane defined by $\left.R(x)^{\prime}>R(c)^{1}\right)$.

Further it follows from (5) that the integral in the left-land member represents a continuous function of $x$ in any domain $S$ lying wholly in the finite part of the half-plane $R(c)+\delta$, where $(\delta>0)$. In the same manner as above it is found that the integral

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} f(t) t^{x} \log t d t \quad . \quad . \quad . \quad . \cdot . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists for $R(x)>R(c)$ and represents the derivative of $a(x)$ at any point of this half-plane, so that $\alpha(x)$ is also an anrytytic function. These consequences, too, are mentioned by Pinchlide.

The proof Lerch gives of his theorem equally starts from the equation (5). In the following reasoning, bowever, we shall use an
${ }^{1}$ ) This theorem is fundamental in the theory of generating functions. After Pincherle different authors have proved it, though often under less general suppositions. The reasoning in the text is due to Lerch. This reasoning is founded upon the continuity of $f(t)$, which, presumably, is forgotten by Lerch, when, at the end stating his theorem, he says that $f(t)$ may be as well discontinuous. (Of course we do not mean to say that generalization is $2 m p o s s i b l e$ ).
equation derived from (5) by repeating once more the process which leads to the latter equation. So we put

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(t)=\int_{0}^{t} g(u) d u \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, again, $h(t)$ is continuous and differentable in (0,1) and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}(t)=g(t) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The principal point, however, is that the latter equation is also valid at $t=0$. Thus the derivative of $h(t)$ is a limited function in the closed interval $(0,1)$. Further, observing that

$$
\lim _{t=0}[h(t): t]=h^{\prime}(0)=g(0)=0
$$

we find on integrating by parts, for $R(x)>R(c)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} g(t) t^{x-c-1} d t=h(1)-(x-c-1) \int_{0}^{1} h(t) t^{x-c-2} d t . \quad . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(x)=g(1)-(x-c) h(1)+(x-c)(x-c-1) \int_{0}^{1} h(t) t^{x-c-2} d t \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. The preceding statements are ralid independently of any further hypothesis as to the character of $f(t)$. Now, suppose that $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(x)$ becomes zero for the arithmetical progression of values

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\xi+\mu, \quad(\mu=0,1,2, \ldots) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Choosing the number $c$ in the preceding equations equal to $\boldsymbol{\xi}$, we find $g(1)=0$ and the integral in the right-hand member of (5) vanishes for

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=\xi+1+\mu, \quad(\mu=0,1,2, \ldots) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

From this it follows that $h(1)=0$, and, in connection with the latter cesult, from (10)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} h(t) t^{\mu} d t=0, \quad(\mu=0,1,2, \ldots) . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we saw that the derivative of $h(t)$ is limited. According to a well-known proposition $h(t)$ can therefore be expanded in a series of Fourier. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(t)=\sum_{0}^{\infty} n\left(a_{n} \cos 2 \pi n t+b_{n} \sin 2 \pi n t\right) . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
a_{0}=\int_{0}^{1} h(t) d t
$$

and, for $n=1,2,3, \ldots$

$$
a_{n}=2 \int_{0}^{1} h(t) \cos 2 \pi n t d t, \quad b_{n}=2 \int_{0}^{1} h(t) \sin 2 \pi n t d t
$$

Now the functions $\cos 2 \pi n t$ and $\sin 2 \pi n t$ are for any value of $n$ expansible in power-series

$$
-\cos 2 \pi n t=\sum_{0}^{\infty} A_{\mu} t^{\mu}, \quad \sin 2 \pi n t=\sum_{\mu}^{\infty} B_{\mu} t^{\mu}
$$

converging uniformly in the interval $(0,1)$. Since $h(t)$ is limited in that interval we may use the following reduction

$$
\int_{0}^{1} h(t) \cos 2 \pi n t d t=\int_{0}^{1} h(t) \sum_{0}^{\infty} A_{\mu} t^{\mu} d t=\sum_{0}^{\infty} A_{\mu} \int_{0}^{1} h(t) t^{\mu} d t
$$

and in a similar manner we find

$$
\int_{0}^{1} h(t) \sin 2 \pi n t d t=\sum_{\mu}^{\infty} B_{\mu} \int_{0}^{1} h(t) t^{\mu} d t
$$

Hence by (13) all coefificients in the expansion of Fourier are zero, and therefore $h(t)$ is identically zero in the interval $(0,1)$. Since, further, $g(t)=h^{\prime}(t)$, the same thing holds for $g(t)$, and since $f(t) t^{\xi}=g^{\prime}(t)$ (except at $t=0$ ), the generating fnnction $f(t)$ itself is zero in the interval $(0,1)$. This is the second part of Lench's theorem. Since the first part follows immediately from the second, the theorem has been proved in the particular case that the arithmetical progression of zeros of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}(x)$ has 1 for its common difference.

If this difference is equal to the positive number $\eta$ and if, therefore, the zeros are given by formula (2), we substitute

$$
t^{\wedge}=s, \quad x=\eta y, \quad \xi=\eta c
$$

by which the integral passes into

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\eta} \int_{0}^{1} f^{\frac{1}{n}\left(s^{n}\right) s^{\frac{1}{n}-1+\eta} d s=\int_{0}^{1} \varphi(s) s^{y} d s . . . . . . .} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function $\frac{1}{r_{i}} f\left(s^{\frac{1}{n}}\right) s^{\frac{1}{n}-1}=\varphi(s)$ has the properties 1 and 2 of $\S 2$, so that the foregong arguments may be applied to it. The
integral (15) ranishes for the sequence of values (11), hence if(s), and therefore also $f(s)$, identically vanishes m the interval $(0,1)$. The theorem of Iarch has thus been proved completely.
4. The first part of the theorem, that $a(x)$ becomes identically zero, if this is the case for an arithmetical progression of $x$-values, may be proved in a direct manner, without first proving the second part; and it is an immediate consequence of the proposition:

A function $a(x)$ defined by an inteyral of the form (1) can, under the suppositions 1 and 2 mentioned at the beginning of $\$ 2$, be expanded in a binomial series

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha(x)=\sum_{0}^{\infty} c_{n}\binom{n-\beta}{n} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\beta$ is a number lying in the domain of convergence of the integral.
Suppose, for a moment, this proposition to be true. If, then, $a(x)$ becomes zero for the sequence of values (11), we take $\beta=\xi$ in the equation (16). Substituting for $x$ the values $\xi, \xi+1, \xi+2, \ldots$ in succession, we find that all coefficients $c_{n}$ of the binomial expansion vanish and therefore that a $(x)$ vanishes identically.

The first part of Lerch's theorem is very easily proved in this manner and it would therefore be desirable that we might derive from it the second part in a short manner. But as yet we are not in a position to do this. The above demonstration is, after all, rather short, but besides, on grounds that, with a view to conciseness, we prefer not to state, we do not think it likely that the identical vanishing of $\alpha(x)$ is more effective for the purpose than the vanishing for an arithmetical progression of values of the argument.

Nevertheless the first part of Lerca's theorem has an interest in itself, because remarlzable consequences may be inferred from it. Among these Lerch mentions the truth that simple functions such as

$$
\sin k x, \quad \cos k x, \frac{2}{\Gamma(l-k x)},(k>0)
$$

cannot be the determining functions of generating functions, in other words that they cannot be represented by integrals of the form (1), neither can products of these functions with others which remain within finite limits in the finite part of a certain halfplane $R(x)>c$.
The proposition concerning the expansion of the integral (1) in a binomial series may be proved in different manners. In the first place integrals of that form belong to the general category of functions of which I showed, in an earlier communication in these

Proceedings (Vol. XXIl, $\mathrm{N}^{0}$. 1) that they are expansible in series of the form (16). Consider a domain $R(x) \geq c+\delta$, take a positive number $\delta_{1}<\delta$ and substitute $x=c+\delta_{1}+y$ in the second integral of the right-hand member of (5), then $R(y) \overline{>}^{\prime} \delta-\delta_{1}$ and thus positive, so that we have

$$
\left|\int_{0}^{1} t^{x-c-1} g(t) d t\right|<\int_{0}^{1} t^{R(y)}\left|t^{\delta_{1}-1} g(t)\right| d t<\int_{0}^{1} t^{\delta_{1}-1}|g(t)| d t,
$$

where the latter integral exists, since $g(t)$ is a limited function in the-interval $(0,1)$. Hence $a(x)$ is in the whole domain considered of the form

$$
\alpha(x)=(x-b) \mu(x)
$$

where $\mu(x)$ is a function remaining within finite limits and $b$ a number lying without the domain. Suchlike functions, however, can always be expanded in series of the form in question.

A second, more direct proof, is obtained by substituting $t=1-u$ in the same integral as considered before, and using the following reduction
$(1-u)^{x-c-1}=(1-u)^{\beta-c-1}(1-u)^{x-\beta}=(1-u)^{\beta-c-1} \sum_{0}^{\infty}(-1)^{m}\binom{x-\beta}{m} u^{m}$
where the series for $R(x)>R(\beta)$ converges uniformly in the interval $0<u<1$. Since, for $R(\beta)>R(c)$ the integral

$$
\int_{0}^{1} g(1-u)(1-u)^{\beta-c-1} d u
$$

converges absolutely (on account of the continuity of $g(1-u)$ ), we may, after performing the substitution in question, integrate term by term, and then we find (replacing again $1-u$ by $t$ in the partial integrals)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{0}^{1} g(t) t^{x-c-1} d t=\sum_{0}^{\infty}(-1)^{m}\binom{x-\beta}{m} \int_{0}^{1}(1-t)^{m} \beta^{\beta-c-1} g(t) d t . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

This expansion is, therefore, valid for $R\left(x^{\prime}\right)>R(\boldsymbol{\beta})>R(c)$. Since the product of this series with $x-c$ can be transformed into a series of the same form, the required proposition has been proved again ${ }^{1}$ ).

[^1]A third proof has the adrantage of showing that expansion of (1) according to factorials of $x-c$ is possible when the integral only exists for $x=c$, even when the straight line $R(x)=R(c)$ were the limit between the domains of convergence and divergence in the $x$-plane, and when the integral did not exist at all points of that line. The proof consists in repeating the process which led to the theorem of Lerch an infinite number of times. We write

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
g(t)=\int_{0}^{t} u^{c} f(u) d u, \quad g_{1}(t) \equiv h(t)=\int_{0}^{t} g(u) d u,  \tag{18}\\
g_{2}(t)=2 \int_{0}^{t} g_{1}(u) d u, \ldots g_{n}(t)=n \int_{0}^{t} g_{n-1}(u) d u, \ldots
\end{array}\right\}
$$

Then formula (10) may be generalized in the following manner: $\left.a(x)=g(1)-g_{1}(1)(x-c)+g_{2}(1)\binom{x-c}{2}-g_{8}(1)\binom{x-c}{3}+\cdots\right)$ $+(-1)^{n-1} g_{n-1}(1)\binom{x-c}{n-1}+(-1)^{n}\binom{x-c}{n} \int_{0}^{1} g_{n}^{\prime}(t) t^{x-c-n} d t \ldots$.
The remainder has zero as a limit for $R(x)>R(c)$, for if $G$ is the maximum modulus of the limited function $g(t)$ in the interval. $(0,1)$, we have in succession

$$
\left|g_{1}(t)\right|<G t \quad\left|g_{2}(t)\right|<G t^{2}, \ldots \quad\left|g_{n}(t)\right|<G t^{n}, \ldots
$$

hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\int_{0}^{1} g^{\prime} n(t) t^{x-c-n} d t\right| & =\left|n \int_{0}^{1} g_{n-1}(t) t^{x-c-n} d t\right| \\
& -n \int_{0}^{1} G t^{R(x-c)-1} d t \\
& <\frac{n G}{R(x-c)}, \text { voor } R(x-c)>0
\end{aligned}
$$

Now $\binom{n-c}{n}$ is for $n=\infty$ equivalent to $n^{-R(x-c)-1}$, and thus the modulus of the remainder in formula (19) is for all $n$-values less than

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{H(x-c)}{R(x-c) n_{R(x-c)}}, \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H$ is a certain positive number greater than $G$. For $R(x)>$ $R$ (c) the remainder has therefore zero as a limit as $n$ increases indefinitely. Moreover the majorant-value (20) shews that on the half-line going from $x=c$ in the direction of the positive part of the real axis, the binomial series converges uniformly; for $R(x-c)=$ $x-c$ on this line. Pincherde has observed (l.c.) that a similar statement, which is analogous to a known theorem of Abed on power series, holds for the integral.(1), and that it follows from the equation (5), which has been found by means of integration by parts. In the same manner the just mentioned proposition may be proved generally by means of summation by parts, both for series of integral factorials (the binomial series treated of in this note) and the series of factorials in the more restrictive sense of the word, which proceed according to inverse factorials. For the latter series I have shown this in a communication on those series ${ }^{1}$ ). The expansion of the integral (1) in such a series is, however, as appears from investigations of Nielsen ${ }^{2}$ ) and Pincherle ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ), only possible under restricting conditions for $f(t)$, viz. if it is an analytic function, whose circle of convergence for the point $t=1$ passes through $t=0$, and whose order on this circle is different from $+\infty$.
${ }^{1)}$ Proceedings XXII, No. 1.
${ }^{2}$ ) Handbuch, p. 244.
3) Sulla sviluppabilità di una funzione in serie di fattorali, Rendic. d. R. Acc. d. Lincei 1903 (2e Semestre).


[^0]:    1) Acta mathem. 27, 1903.
    2) "Sur les fonctions déterminantes", Ann. de l'Éc. Norm. 22, 1905. Pincherle calls $f(t)$ "fonction génératrice" and $\alpha(x)$ "fonction déterminante", whereas Lerch does the reverse. We have followed the nomenclature of Pinchfride in the text.
    ${ }^{3}$ ) "Handbuch der Gammafuntetion", p. 118.
[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ ) In Nielsen's book (l.c. p. 125) we find an analogous proof of the proposition in question; this, however, does not part from the inlegral in the second member of (5), but from the original integral, so that the hypothesis must be made that the latter converges absolutely for $\lim t=0$. The reduction (5) makes this hypothesis superfluous.

