DERIVATIVE MANIFOLDS AND TAYLOR SERIES IN THE MEAN(1)

BY
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1. Introduction. Let $f(x) \in C \infty$ $(-\infty, \infty)$ and let there be some $p \ge 1$ such that $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ $(n \ge 0)$. It has been shown [1, p. 38] that the closed linear manifold D[f] of L^p spanned by f(x), f'(x), f''(x), \cdots is contained in the closed linear manifold T[f] spanned by the translates f(x+h). For p=2 there is the stronger result [2, p. 130](2)

l.i.m.
$$\frac{f^{(n)}(x+h) - f^{(n)}(x)}{h} = f^{(n+1)}(x)$$
.

It is thus of interest to determine when D[f] = T[f]. This question has been studied by Mandelbrojt [1, pp. 39–40], who has found it necessary to consider classes of functions designated $L^p\{M_n\}$, where $\{M_n\}$ is a sequence of positive reals and $L^p\{M_n\}$ consists of all $C^{\infty}(-\infty,\infty)$ functions such that $\|f^{(n)}(x)\|_p \leq M_n$ $(n \geq 0)$. His principal result states that D[f] = T[f] for all $f(x) \in L^p\{M_n\}$ if and only if the class $C\{M_n\}$ is quasi-analytic, $C\{M_n\}$ being the class of all $f(x) \in C(-\infty,\infty)$ such that $|f^{(n)}(x)| \leq k^n M_n (-\infty \leq x \leq \infty)$ $(n \geq 0)$ for some positive k. If $C\{M_n\}$ is not quasi-analytic, then there is at least one $f(x) \in L^p\{M_n\}$ for which $D[f] \neq T[f]$. Hence, if the derivatives of f(x) are too large in norm, Mandelbrojt's theorem cannot be used to decide whether D[f] = T[f].

For p=2 we shall establish the following necessary and sufficient condition on f(x) for D[f] = T[f]:

THEOREM 1.1. Let f(x) be a $C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ function such that $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^2(-\infty, \infty)$ $(n \ge 0)$ and let F(x) be the Fourier transform of f(x). Then D[f] = T[f] if and only if the distribution function $\psi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} |F(x)|^2 dx$ is the solution of a determined Hamburger moment problem.

Thus in L^2 it is not necessary to consider classes of functions. Furthermore, it will be shown that if D[f] = T[f] for an L^2 function, then $D[f^{(n)}] = T[f]$ $(n \ge 0)$, which in turn implies an interesting result in the theory of orthogonal polynomials.

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⁽²⁾ As a corollary of our Theorem 3.1, this result is actually valid for general p.

We shall also consider approximating translates by Taylor series; that is, the possibility of representing f(x+h) by

l.i.m.
$$\sum_{n\to\infty}^{n-1} \frac{h^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(\nu)}(x)$$
.

It will be shown that the class of L^p functions admitting such a representation is the generalization to L^p of an analytic function class in L^2 studied by Paley and Wiener [3, pp. 3–13] and that the "Taylor series in the mean" can be used to prove a theorem of Paley and Wiener concerning the Fourier transforms of functions in the Paley-Wiener class.

2. Derivative manifolds in L^2 and the Hamburger moment problem. In this chapter we shall restrict ourselves to L^2 . Our principal aim is to prove Theorem 1.1, thus showing the intimate connection between the Hamburger moment problem and the derivative manifold in L^2 .

To characterize D[f] and T[f] we work with the Fourier transform

$$F(x) = \text{l.i.m.} (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-n}^{n} f(t)e^{-ixt}dt$$

of f(x). Let A be the (measurable) set of all x for which $F(x) \neq 0$. Then by a theorem of Bochner and Chandrasekharan [2, p. 149], T[f] consists of all $g(x) \in L^2(-\infty, \infty)$ whose Fourier transforms vanish almost everywhere on the complement of A. (As a special case of the theorem, $T[f] = L^2$ if and only if the complement of A has measure zero. This result is due to Wiener [4, p. 100].)

Since the Fourier transform of $f^{(n)}(x)$ is equal to $(ix)^n F(x)$, D[f] consists of all L^2 functions whose Fourier transforms belong to the closed linear manifold spanned by F(x), xF(x), $x^2F(x)$, \cdots . It therefore follows that D[f] = T[f] if and only if F(x), xF(x), $x^2F(x)$, \cdots span $L^2(A)$.

We next introduce the distribution function

$$\psi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} |F(x)|^2 dx.$$

Since

(2.1)
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^{2n} d\psi(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x^n F(x)|^2 dx < \infty,$$

 $\psi(t)$ has moments of all orders. Conversely, if $\psi(t)$ is an absolutely continuous distribution having moments of all orders and F(t) is any measurable function such that $|F(t)|^2 = \psi'(t)$ almost everywhere, then

(2.2)
$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(t)e^{itx}dt$$

is equivalent to a $C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ function all of whose derivatives belong to L^2 .

Consider now the Hilbert space L^2_{ψ} consisting of all ψ -measurable g(t) such that

$$\|g(t)\|_{\psi}^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 d\psi(t) < \infty.$$

It follows from (2.1) that

$$||t^n||_{\psi} = ||x^n F(x)||.$$

We are thus led to consider the following isometry of $L^2(A)$ onto L^2_{ψ}

$$g(x)(\epsilon L^2(A)) \leftrightarrow h(t)(\epsilon L_{\psi}^2),$$

(2.4)
$$h(t) = g(t)/F(t),$$

$$(2.5) g(x) = F(x)h(x).$$

(Note that the points where h(t) might be undefined by (2.4) are of ψ -measure zero.) Hence, D[f] = T[f] if and only if 1, t, t^2 , \cdots are complete in L^2_{ψ} .

The question of completeness of polynomials in L_{ψ}^2 is completely resolved by the following theorem of M. Riesz [5; 6, p. 62]:

THEOREM 2.1. Let $\psi(t)$ be a distribution function having moments of all orders. Then 1, t, t^2 , \cdots span L^2_{ψ} if and only if one of the following conditions holds:

- (1) $\psi(t)$ is the solution of a determined Hamburger moment problem.
- (2) The Hamburger moment problem of which $\psi(t)$ is a solution is indeterminate, but $\psi(t)$ is one of R. Nevanlinna's [6, p. 60; 7] extremal solutions.

We need not consider here the definition of "extremal solution"; for our purpose we need only remark that such distribution functions are known [6, p. 60; 7] to have discontinuous spectra. Since our $\psi(t)$ is absolutely continuous, the validity of Theorem 1.1 follows.

Theorem 1.1 allows us to construct functions for which $D[f] \neq T[f]$. If $\psi(t)$ is an absolutely continuous solution of an indeterminate Hamburger moment problem(3) and F(t) is a measurable function such that $|F(t)|^2 = \psi'(t)$ almost everywhere, then such an f(x) may be obtained from F(t) via (2.2). An example of such a $\psi'(t)$ is exp $(-|t|^{1/2})$ [6, p. 22]. Hence for

$$f(x) = \int_0^\infty \exp(-t^{1/2}/2) \cos xt dt$$

we have $D[f] \neq T[f]$.

⁽³⁾ It is of interest to note that Hamburger [6, p. 61; 9] has shown that every indeterminate Hamburger moment problem has absolutely continuous solutions.

Theorem 1.1 may also be used to show that if D[f] = T[f], then derivatives of all orders are not necessary to approximate translates. In fact, we have:

THEOREM 2.2. Let $f(x) \in C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ and let $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^2(-\infty, \infty)$ $(n \ge 0)$. Then if D[f] = T[f], $D[f^{(n)}] = T[f]$ $(n \ge 0)$. In other words, for each non-negative integer n and each real h, f(x+h) is the limit in norm of finite linear combinations of the form

$$C_n f^{(n)}(x) + \cdots + C_{n+N} f^{(n+N)}(x).$$

To prove Theorem 2.2, we first show that D[f] = T[f] implies that $f(x) \in D[f']$. Taking Fourier transforms and using the isometry (2.4) of $L^2(A)$ onto L^2_{ψ} , this is seen to be equivalent to showing that 1 belongs to the closed linear manifold of L^2 spanned by t, t^2, \cdots . To show this, we evaluate

$$\rho_n = \min_{C_1, \ldots, C_n} ||1 - C_1 t - \cdots - C_n t^n||_{\psi}^2.$$

If $\omega_n(t)$ is the orthonormal polynomial of degree n (i.e., $\omega_n(t)$ is of degree n and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \omega_m(t)\omega_n(t)d\psi(t) = \delta_{mn}$) and if

$$K_n(t, 0) = \sum_{k=0}^n \omega_k(0)\omega_k(t),$$

then for any polynomial P(t) of degree not exceeding n

$$P_n(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P_n(t) K_n(t, 0) d\psi(t).$$

Applying the Schwarz inequality,

$$|P_n(0)|^2 \le ||P_n(t)||_{\psi}^2 \sum_{k=0}^n \omega_k^2(0).$$

Hence, it is seen that $\rho_n = 1/\sum_{k=0}^n \omega_k^2(0)$, the minimum being attained when the C_k are the coefficients of

$$\frac{K_n(t, \ 0)}{K_n(0, \ 0)} - 1.$$

But in the theory of the Hamburger moment problem [6, p. 44], it is shown that $1/\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\omega_k^2(0)$ is the minimum mass at t=0 for any distribution having the same moments as $\psi(t)$. Hence, since $\psi(t)$ is absolutely continuous and determined by its moments, $\lim_{n\to\infty}\rho_n=0$.

Thus D[f'] = T[f]. But T[f] = T[f'], since $\{x \mid F(x) \neq 0\}$ and $\{x \mid xF(x) \neq 0\}$ differ by at most a set of measure zero. Hence, we have

$$D[f] = T[f] = T[f'] = D[f''] = \cdots = D[f^{(n)}] = \cdots$$

Theorem 2.2 is considerably stronger than the following theorem of Mandelbrojt [1, pp. 39-40], which only states that the first derivative is not needed for approximating translates provided f(x) belongs to a class of functions $\{g(x)\}$ for each of which D[g] = T[g]:

THEOREM 2.3. Let $f(x) \in L^p\{M_n\}$ and let $C\{M_n\}$ be quasi-analytic. Then for each real h, f(x+h) is the limit in norm of finite linear combinations of the form

$$f(x) + C_2 f''(x) + \cdots + C_N f^{(N)}(x).$$

It is interesting to note the following immediate consequence of Theorem 2.2:

Theorem 2.4. Let F(x) be a measurable function which is positive almost everywhere on the interval (a, b), where a may equal $-\infty$ and b may equal $+\infty$ and let

$$\int_{a}^{b} x^{2n} F(x) dx < \infty \qquad (n \ge 0).$$

Then if $(F(x))^{1/2}$, $x(F(x))^{1/2}$, $x^2(F(x))^{1/2}$, \cdots are complete in $L^2(a, b)$, it follows that for each positive integer n, $x^n(F(x))^{1/2}$, $x^{n+1}(F(x))^{1/2}$, $x^{n+2}(F(x))^{1/2}$, \cdots are also complete in $L^2(a, b)$.

Theorem 2.4 is believed to be new. It would be interesting to see a proof which does not depend on Theorem 2.1.

3. Taylor series in the mean. We shall now consider the use of Taylor series to approximate translates; i.e., given $f(x) \in C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ such that $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ ($n \ge 0$), we wish to represent f(x+h) by

(3.1)
$$(l.i.m.)_{p} \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{h^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(\nu)}(x).$$

The expression (3.1) will be called the " L^p -Taylor series" of f(x) (h being restricted to real values for the present).

To study the convergence of L^p -Taylor series, we shall first establish the following analog of Taylor's theorem:

Theorem 3.1. Let $f(x) \in C^n(-\infty, \infty)$ and let $f^{(\nu)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ $(0 \le \nu \le n)$. Then the remainder

$$r_{n,h}(x) = f(x+h) - \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{h^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(\nu)}(x)$$

admits the following estimates:

(3.2)
$$||r_{n,h}(x)||_p \leq \frac{|h|^n}{n!} ||f^{(n)}(x)||_p,$$

$$(3.3) |r_{n,h}(x)| \leq \begin{cases} \frac{|h|^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} ||f^{(n)}(x)||_{p}[|h|/(1+q(n-1))]^{1/q} & \text{if } p > 1, \\ \frac{|h|^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} ||f^{(n)}(x)||_{p} & \text{if } p = 1, \end{cases}$$

where q = p/(p-1).

The proof of Theorem 3.1 depends on the well-known formula

(3.4)
$$r_{n,h}(x) = \int_0^h \frac{(h-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(x+t) dt.$$

Applying the generalized Minkowski inequality [9, Theorem 202] to (3.4):

$$||r_{n,h}(x)||_p \le \left| \int_0^h \frac{|h-t|^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} ||f^{(n)}(x+t)||_p dt \right|$$

which immediately yields (3.2).

To prove (3.3) for p = 1, we note that

$$\left| r_{n,h}(x) \right| \leq \frac{\left| h \right|^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \left| \int_0^h \left| f^{(n)}(x+t) \right| dt \right| \leq \frac{\left| h \right|^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left| f^{(n)}(x+t) \right| dt.$$

For p > 1, we note that

$$\frac{(h-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \in L^q(0,h)$$

and apply Hölder's inequality.

The right hand side of (3.2) is equal to the norm of the first neglected term of the L^p -Taylor series, a quantity which must tend to zero in order that the series converge. Hence, for the convergence of the L^p -Taylor series, it is both necessary and sufficient that the nth term converge strongly to zero. Furthermore, convergent L^p -Taylor series always converge to the proper limit f(x+h), in contrast to the behavior of ordinary Taylor series.

We are now able to compute the radius of convergence of the L^p -Taylor series. Using the well-known root criterion of Cauchy, it is seen that for the series to converge, the relation

$$|h| \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{||f^{(n)}(x)||_p}{n!} \right]^{1/n} \le 1$$

must hold. Hence, the following theorem is true:

THEOREM 3.2. Let $f(x) \in C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ and let $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ $(n \ge 0)$. Then for

$$-\rho < |h| < \rho = \left(\lim \sup_{n \to \infty} \left[\frac{||f^{(n)}(x)||_{p}}{n!} \right]^{1/n} \right)^{-1},$$

$$f^{(k)}(x+h) = (\lim_{n \to \infty})_{p} \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{h^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(k+\nu)}(x) \qquad (k \ge 0).$$

For $|h| > \rho$, the L^p-Taylor series for f(x) and its derivatives do not converge.

Thus if $\rho > 0$, $f^{(n)}(x+h) \in D[f]$ for all n and for $|h| < \rho$. We shall now show that the restriction on h is not needed; i.e., the condition $\rho > 0$ implies that $f^{(n)}(x+h) \in D[f]$ for all h and for all n. This follows from the result of Mandelbroit [1, pp. 39-40] cited in Chapter 1, since the class $C\{||f^{(n)}(x)||_p\}$ is regular in the strip $-\rho < \text{Im } z < \rho$. It is also possible to give a proof based on Theorem 3.2. Consider any h_0 smaller than ρ in absolute value. Since L^p norms are invariant under translation, the L^p -Taylor series of $f(x+h_0)$ also has ρ as its radius of convergence. Hence by a finite number of "continuations in the mean," every translate of $f^{(n)}(x)$ can be shown to be in D[f].

It might be thought possible to obtain a larger radius of convergence for the L^p -Taylor series by considering weak L^p convergence instead of strong L^p convergence. This is not so. If the L^p -Taylor series converges weakly, then its partial sums, and hence its terms, must be bounded in norm. But for $|h| > \rho$ the terms are not bounded in norm. Hence the weak and strong radii are equal.

We shall now determine what functions may be represented by L^p -Taylor series. From the estimate (3.3), it is seen that if $\rho > 0$, then the ordinary Taylor series for f(x) about each real x_0 converges to f(x) for $x_0 - \rho < x < x_0 + \rho$. Hence f(x) may be extended to an analytic function f(z) which is regular in the strip S_ρ : $-\rho < \text{Im } z < \rho$.

Hence we may extend the definition of L^p -Taylor series to complex h. For any h such that $|h| < \rho$, the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{|h|^n}{n!} ||f^{(n)}(x)||_p$$

converges, so that the limit (3.1) exists for such h and is necessarily equal to f(x+h). More generally, if $h=\xi+i\eta\in S_\rho$

$$f(x+h) = (1.i.m.)_p \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{(i\eta)^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(\nu)}(x+\xi)$$

and

$$||f(x+h)||_p \le \sum_{n=0}^n \frac{|\eta|^n}{n!} ||f^{(n)}(x)||_p.$$

Thus we have:

THEOREM 3.3. If the L^p -Taylor series of f(x) has radius of convergence $\rho > 0$, then f(x) may be extended to an analytic function f(z) which is regular in the strip S_p . Furthermore, for each positive σ which is less than ρ , $\sup_{h \in S_{\sigma}} ||f(x+h)||_p < \infty$.

We thus find it convenient to make the following definitions:

DEFINITION 3.1. The function class $W_p(\sigma)$ consists of all analytic functions f(z) which are regular in S_{σ} and are such that $f(x+h) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ for each h in S_{σ} , $||f(x+h)||_p$ being bounded in each S_{λ} for which $\lambda < \sigma$.

DEFINITION 3.2. The function class $T_p(\sigma)$ consists of all $f(x) \in C^{\infty}(-\infty, \infty)$ such that $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ ($n \ge 0$) whose L^p -Taylor series have radius of convergence at least equal to σ .

According to Theorem 3.3, $T_p(\sigma) \subset W_p(\sigma)$. We shall show that $T_p(\sigma) = W_p(\sigma)$. To prove this we first establish the following generalization of a theorem of Paley and Wiener [3, p. 5].

THEOREM 3.4. Let f(z) be regular in \overline{S}_{λ} , the closure of S_{λ} . Furthermore, let $\sup_{h \in \overline{S}_{\lambda}} ||f(x+h)||_{p} = M < \infty.$

Then for each $\zeta \in S_{\lambda}$

$$(3.5) f^{(n)}(\zeta) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x-i\lambda)}{(x-i\lambda-\zeta)^{n+1}} dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x+i\lambda)}{(x+i\lambda-\zeta)^{n+1}} dx \right]$$

$$(n \ge 0).$$

To prove Theorem 3.4, we use Cauchy's integral formula, observing that for sufficiently large A

$$f^{(n)}(\zeta) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \left[\int_{-A}^{A} \frac{f(x-i\lambda)}{(x-i\lambda-\zeta)^{n+1}} dx - \int_{-A}^{A} \frac{f(x+i\lambda)}{(x+i\lambda-\zeta)^{n+1}} dx + i \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} \frac{f(A+iy)}{(A+iy-\zeta)^{n+1}} dy - i \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} \frac{f(-A+iy)}{(-A+iy-\zeta)^{n+1}} dy \right]$$

$$= \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \left[I_1(A) - I_2(A) + i I_3(A) - i I_4(A) \right].$$

Thus for sufficiently large B

$$f^{(n)}(\zeta) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \int_{B}^{B+1} [I_1(A) - I_2(A) + iI_3(A) - iI_4(A)] dA.$$

Now

$$\int_{B}^{B+1} I_{3}(A) dA = \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} dy \int_{B}^{B+1} \frac{f(A+iy)}{(A+iy-\zeta)^{n+1}} dA.$$

If p>1, we apply Hölder's inequality to obtain

$$\left| \int_{B}^{B+1} I_{3}(A) dA \right|$$

$$\leq \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} dy \left(\int_{B}^{B+1} \left| f(A+iy) \right|^{p} dA \right)^{1/p} \left(\int_{B}^{B+1} \frac{dA}{\left| A+iy-\zeta \right|^{q(n+1)}} \right)^{1/q}$$

$$\leq \frac{2\lambda M}{\left| B-\operatorname{Re} \zeta \right|^{n+1}}.$$

For p=1, the same inequality is even more easily established. Hence $\int_B^{B+1} I_3(A) dA \to 0$ as $B \to \infty$. Similarly, $\int_B^{B+1} I_4(A) dA \to 0$. Clearly $\int_B^{B+1} I_1(A) dA \to I_1(\infty)$, $\int_B^{B+1} I_2(A) dA \to I_2(\infty)$, and the theorem is proven.

We are now ready to prove:

Theorem 3.5. Under the conditions of Theorem 3.4, $f^{(n)}(x) \in L^p(-\infty, \infty)$ $(n \ge 0)$ and

(3.6)
$$||f^{(n)}(x)||_p \le \frac{n!M}{\lambda^n}$$
 $(n \ge 0).$

Proof. Applying the generalized Minkowski inequality [9, Theorem 202] to (3.5), we have for $n \ge 1$

$$\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f^{(n)}(t)|^p dt\right)^{1/p} \leq \frac{n!}{2\pi} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{|x-i\lambda|^{n+1}} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x+t-i\lambda)|^p dt\right)^{1/p} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{|x+i\lambda|^{n+1}} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x+t+i\lambda)|^p dt\right)^{1/p}\right]$$

$$\leq \frac{n!M}{2\pi} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{|x-i\lambda|^{n+1}} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{|x+i\lambda|^{n+1}}\right]$$

$$= \frac{n!M}{\pi\lambda^{n-1}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2 + \lambda^2} = \frac{n!M}{\lambda^n}.$$

Now we shall prove:

THEOREM 3.6. The classes $W_p(\sigma)$ and $T_p(\sigma)$ are identical. Given $f(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$ the radius of convergence ρ of the L^p -Taylor series of f(x) is given by

(3.7)
$$\rho = \sup \{ \sigma \mid f(z) \in W_p(\sigma) \}.$$

Proof. By Theorem 3.3, $T_p(\sigma) \subset W_p(\sigma)$. Let $f(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$ and let $|h| < \sigma$. Choose λ so that $|h| < \lambda < \sigma$. Then by (3.6)

$$\frac{\left| h \right|^n}{n!} \left\| f^{(n)}(x) \right\|_p \le \frac{\left| h \right|^n M}{\lambda^n} \to 0 \qquad (n \to \infty).$$

Hence $\rho \ge \sigma$ and $W_p(\sigma) = T_p(\sigma)$. Since $f(z) \in W_p(\rho)$, (3.7) is clear.

The class $W_2(\sigma)$ was studied by Paley and Wiener [3, pp. 3-13]. Their

principal theorem concerning this class may be stated as follows:

THEOREM 3.7. Let $f(z) \in W_2(\sigma)$ and let F(x) be the Fourier transform of f(x). Then for each $h \in S_{\sigma}$, $e^{ihx}F(x)$ is the Fourier transform of f(x+h) and is absolutely integrable so that

(3.8)
$$f(z) = (2\pi)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{izt} F(t) dt \qquad (z \in S_{\sigma}).$$

Conversely, if $e^{ihx}F(x)L^2(-\infty, \infty)$ for each $h \in S_{\sigma}$, then it is absolutely integrable for each such h and F(x) substituted in (3.8) yields an $f(z) \in W_2(\sigma)$.

We shall give a new proof of the first part of the theorem. By Theorem 3.6, f(x+h) is represented for all $h = \xi + i\eta \in S_{\sigma}$ by

(3.9)
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{(i\eta)^{\nu}}{\nu!} f^{(\nu)}(x+\xi).$$

Since the Fourier transform of $f^{(n)}(x+\xi)$ is equal to $(ix)^n e^{i\xi x} F(x)$, the Fourier transform of (3.9) is seen to equal

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \sum_{\nu=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-\eta x)^{\nu}}{\nu!} e^{i\xi x} F(x) = e^{(-\eta + i\xi)x} F(x) = e^{ihx} F(x).$$

The absolute integrability of $e^{ihx}F(x)$ is easily established by applying the Schwarz inequality

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\eta x} |F(x)| dx = \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{\epsilon x} e^{-(\eta + \epsilon)x} |F(x)| dx + \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\epsilon x} e^{-(\eta - \epsilon)x} |F(x)| dx$$

$$\leq \left(\int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{2\epsilon x} dx \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{-2(\eta + \epsilon)x} |F(x)|^{2} dx \right)^{1/2} + \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2\epsilon x} dx \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2(\eta - \epsilon)x} |F(x)|^{2} dx \right)^{1/2}.$$

The rest of the theorem is easily verified.

Returning to general p, we shall show that two L^p -Taylor series can be multiplied (in a manner analogous to the multiplication of ordinary Taylor series) to give a new L^p -Taylor series whose radius of convergence is at least equal to the smaller of the radii of convergence of the series being multiplied. In other words, if $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$ both belong to $T_p(\sigma)$, then so does $f_1(x)f_2(x)$.

By Theorem 3.6, $f_1(z)$ and $f_2(z)$ both belong to $W_p(\sigma)$. But any $f(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$ is bounded in each S_λ for which $\lambda < \sigma$. This follows immediately from (3.5), by simple estimation when p=1 and by Hölder's inequality when p>1. Hence if $B = \sup_{z \in S_\lambda} |f_1(z)|$ and $M = \sup_{h \in S_\lambda} ||f_2(x+h)||_p$ then

$$||f_1(x+h)f_2(x+h)||_p \le BM \qquad (h \in S_{\lambda})$$

and $f_1(z)f_2(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$. Since the L^p -Taylor series of $f_1(x)f_2(x)$ can be formed from the L^p -Taylor series of $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$ by the usual Cauchy method of multiplying power series, our assertion concerning the multiplication of L^p -Taylor series is valid. Two of our results are important enough to be numbered as theorems; viz.,

THEOREM 3.8. If $f(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$, then f(z) is bounded in each S_{λ} for which $\lambda < \sigma$.

THEOREM 3.9. The class $W_p(\sigma)$ is closed with respect to multiplication.

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 3.8, we have:

Theorem 3.10. If $p_1 < p_2$, then $W_{p_1}(\sigma) \subset W_{p_2}(\sigma)$.

We also have the following more general multiplication theorem:

THEOREM 3.11. If $f_1(z) \in W_{p_1}(\sigma)$ and $f_2(z) \in W_{p_2}(\sigma)$, then $f_1(z)f_2(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$ for all p such that $p \ge \min(p_1, p_2)$. If $1/p_1 + 1/p_2 \ge 1$, then $f_1(z)f_2(z) \in W_p(\sigma)$ for all $p \ge 1$.

The first part of the theorem being an obvious consequence of Theorems 3.8 and 3.10, let us consider the case $1/p_1+1/p_2 \ge 1$. In this case $p_2 \le q_1$, the index conjugate to p_1 . Hence $f_2(z) \in W_{q_1}(\sigma)$ and by Hölder's inequality, $f_1(z)f_2(z) \in W_1(\sigma)$.

We close with some examples of functions belonging to various $W_p(\sigma)$. It is readily verified that $e^{-z^2} \in W_p(\sigma)$ for all $p \ge 1$ and for all positive σ . The function $(z - i\sigma_0)^{-1/p_0} \in W_p(\sigma_0)$ for each $p > p_0$. Its L^p -Taylor series has radius of convergence σ_0 for each such p.

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