ON CERTAIN ENTIRE FUNCTIONS WHICH TOGETHER WITH THEIR DERIVATIVES ARE PRIME

By Hironobu Urabe and Chung-Chun Yang

Introduction. In studying the factorization of meromorphic functions, we may ask the relationship between the factors of a function and those of its derivatives. A meromorphic function F(z)=f(g(z)) is said to have f and g as left and right factors, respectively, provided that f is meromorphic and g is entire (g may be meromorphic if f is rational). F(z) is said to be prime (pseudoprime, left-prime, right-prime) if every factorization of the above form into factors implies either f is linear or g is linear (either f is rational or g is a polynomial, f is linear whenever g is transcendental, g is linear whenever f is transcendental). When factors are restricted to entire functions, it is called to be a factorization in entire sense. In this paper only entire factors will be considered. We note here it is known ([7]) that, when f is not periodic, then f is prime if f is prime in entire sense. Because of this observation, in this note entire factors only need to be considered.

Suppose that a transcendental entire function F(z) is prime. Does it follow that its n-th derivative $F^{(n)}(z)$ is also prime? In general, there is not much that we can really say. For example, take $F(z)=e^z+z$, then F is known to be prime (cf. [5] or [10] etc.), but $F'(z)=e^z+1$ is not prime (F'(z) is pseudo-prime). Further take $F(z)=\exp[e^z]+z$, then F(z) is prime (cf. [6] or [10]), but $F'(z)=e^z\cdot\exp[e^z]+1$ is composite (both factors are transcendental). While if we take $F(z)=z\cdot e^z$, then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,\cdots(F^{(0)}(z)=F(z))$. (Note that $F(z)=z\cdot\exp[z^2]$ is prime but F'(z) is not prime, since F'(z) is an even function.) Another interesting example is given by

$$F(z) = \alpha(z) + P_1(z)e^z + P_2(z)e^{z^2} + \cdots + P_m(z)e^{z^m}$$

where $\alpha(z)$ is an entire function of order less than 1, $P_j(z)$ $(j=1, \dots, m; m \ge 2)$ are polynomials, $P_1(z) \not\equiv 0$ and $P_m(z) \not\equiv 0$. F(z) is left-prime ([4] Cor. of Th. 6) and right-prime ([12]). Also $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=1,2,\dots$ Further, also let $F(z) = \alpha(z) + \beta(z)e^z$, where α and β are entire, α is transcendental and $\beta \not\equiv 0$, with both of order less than 1. $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,2,\dots$ (cf. [4]).

In this note we shall exhibit some classes of transcendental entire functions which together with their derivatives are prime.

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1. Lemmas which will be used in the proofs of our results.

LEMMA 1 (Goldstein [3]). Let F(z) be an entire function of finite order such that $\delta(a,F)=1$ for some $a\neq\infty$ or $\delta(0,F')=1$, where $\delta(,)$ denotes the Nevanlinna deficiency. Then F(z) is pseudo-prime.

LEMMA 2 (Baker-Gross [2]) Let F(z) be entire and periodic mod h(z) (a non-const. entire function of order less than 1) with period σ . (This means that $F(z+\sigma)-F(z)\equiv h(z)$.) Then every right factor g(z) of F(z) is of the form:

$$g(z)=H_1(z)+h_1(z)\cdot\exp\left[H_2(z)+az\right]$$
,

where $H_j(z)$ (j=1,2) are periodic entire functions with the same period σ , a is a constant and $h_1(z)$ is an entire function of order less than 1. If h(z) is a polynomial, then $h_1(z)$ is also a polynomial.

Remark. By the Rajagopal-Reddy Theorem ([13]), we have that h_1 is of order less than 1, in Lemma 2.

Lemma 3 (Pólya [11]). Suppose that f(z), g(z) and h(z) are (non-const.) entire functions such that f(z)=g(h(z)). If h(0)=0, then there exists a constant c with 0 < c < 1 such that $M(r, f) \ge M \lceil cM(r/2, h), g \rceil$ $(r \ge r_0)$, where M(r, f) denotes the maximum modulus of f(z) for |z|=r. (Here the condition h(0)=0 is not essential.)

LEMMA 4 (Ozawa [10]). Let F(z) be an entire function of finite order whose derivative F'(z) has infinitely many zeros. Assume that the number of common roots of F(z)=c and F'(z)=0 is finite for any constant c. Then F(z) is left-prime in entire sense.

LEMMA 5 (Borel's unicity theorem, cf. [9]). Let $a_j(z)$ be entire functions of order ρ (at most), $g_j(z)$ also be entire, and let $g_j(z) - g_k(z)$ ($j \neq k$) be transcendental entire functions or polynomials of degree greater than ρ , then the identity

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}(z) \exp [g_{j}(z)] = a_{0}(z)$$

holds only when $a_0(z) \equiv a_1(z) \equiv \cdots \equiv a_n(z) \equiv 0$.

DEFINITION. Denote by $\rho(f)$ the order of f(z) and by $\rho^*(f)$ the exponent of convergence of the zeros of f(z).

With this notation, we have

LEMMA 6. Let f(z) be a transcendental entire function and let P(z) be a

polynomial of degree $k \ge 1$. Then $\rho^*(f(P)) = k \cdot \rho^*(f)$.

Proof. Give $\varepsilon > 0$, using the usual notation n(r, 0, *), we have for sufficiently large values of r,

$$k \cdot n(r^{k-\varepsilon}, 0, f) \leq n(r, 0, f(P)) \leq k \cdot n(r^{k+\varepsilon}, 0, f)$$
.

Hence, putting $t^{k+\varepsilon}=s$ or $t^{k-\varepsilon}=s$, we deduce that

$$\frac{k}{k-\varepsilon} \int_{s_0}^{\infty} \frac{n(s,0,f)}{s^{\lambda/(k-\varepsilon)+1}} ds \leq \int_{r_0}^{\infty} \frac{n(t,0,f(P))}{t^{\lambda+1}} dt \leq \frac{k}{k+\varepsilon} \int_{s_0'}^{\infty} \frac{n(s,0,f)}{s^{\lambda/(k+\varepsilon)+1}} ds$$

If $\lambda > (k+\varepsilon)\rho^*(f)$, then the right hand side is finite. If $\lambda < (k-\varepsilon)\rho^*(f)$, then the left hand side is infinite. Thus $\rho^*(f(P)) = k \cdot \rho^*(f)$, (cf. [8] p. 25, Lemma 1.4)

2. We shall begin with the following:

Theorem 1. Let $F(z)=h(z)e^z$, where h(z) is a transcendental entire function with $\rho(h)<1$ which has zeros of multiplicity k for every natural number k. Then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,2,\cdots$. Generally, if h(z) is an entire function with $\rho(h)<1$ which has at least one simple zero, then $F(z)=h(z)e^z$ is prime. (Thus, for instance, let $F(z)=e^z\cdot\prod_{n=1}^{\infty}\left[1+z/e^n\right]^n$, then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,2,\cdots$.)

Proof. F(z) is pseudo-prime by Lemma 1. Let F(z)=f(P(z)), where P is a polynomial of degree $k \ge 2$. As $\rho(F)=1$, we have $\rho(f)=\rho^*(f)=1/k(\le 1/2)$. By Lemma 6, $\rho^*(h)=\rho^*(f(P))=k\cdot \rho^*(f)=1$, which contradicts $\rho^*(F)=\rho^*(h)<1$. Next let F(z)=P(f(z)), where P is a non-linear polynomial. As $\rho(f)=1$ in this case, if P(z) has two distinct zeros, then $\rho^*(P(f))=1$ by Borel's theorem (cf. [14] p. 279), which again contradicts $\rho^*(h)<1$. There remains the possibility that $P(z)=a(z-b)^m$, for some constants $a\ne 0$ and b, and for some integer $m\ge 2$. In this case, the zeros of P(f) must have multiplicities at least m. That is, P(f) and so h(z) has no simple zeros, which is contrary to the hypothesis. Thus F(z) is prime.

Remark. The pseudo-primeness of $F(z)=h(z)\cdot e^z$ with $\rho(h)<1$, can also be proved in the following manner: Let F(z)=f(g(z)), where f and g are both transcendental. By a well-known theorem of Pólya (which is proved by Lemma 3), $\rho(f)=0$, whence f has infinitely many zeros (at least two). As $\rho^*(h)<1$, by Borel's theorem, we have $\rho(g)<1$. Then by the proof of Lemma 9 (in this paper), the factorization F(z)=f(g(z)) with $\rho(f)=0$ and $\rho(g)<1$ is impossible. Thus F(z) is pseudo-prime.

3. We shall prove the following results which is a generalization of a results in $\lceil 2 \rceil$.

THEOREM 2. Let $F(z)=P(e^z)+\alpha(z)$, where P is a non-constant polynomial and α is a transcendental entire function with $\rho(\alpha)<1$. Then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,\cdots$. (Here $F^{(-1)}(z)$ means the indefinite integral of F(z).)

Remark. The right-primeness follows from Goldstein's theorem ([4], Theorem 1). But, here, we prove Theorem 2 by a somewhat different argument.

For the proof of Theorem 2, we shall use the following Lemmas:

LEMMA 7 (Pólya [14] p. 273). Let $\Pi(z)$ be a canonical product of order ρ with zeros $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$. If about each zero z_n ($|z_n| > 1$) we describe a circle of radius $|z_n|^{-h}$, where $h > \rho$, then in the region excluded from these circles, we have, for any $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$|\Pi(z)| > \exp[-r^{\rho+\epsilon}]$$
 $(|z|=r>r_0(\varepsilon))$.

Lemma 8 (cf. [1] Theorem 3). Let f(z) be a transcendental entire function with $0 \le \rho(f) < 1/2$, and let Q(z) be a polynomial of degree $k \ge 1$. Then for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $\delta > 0$, there exists a sequence of closed Jordan curves Γ_j which contains the origin and satisfies the following conditions: denoting by σ_j the distance of Γ_j and the origin,

$$(i) \quad \sigma_{\jmath} \! \to \! \infty \ \, (as \ \jmath \! \to \! \infty) \qquad \qquad (ii) \quad \varGamma_{\jmath} \! \subset \! \{ \sigma_{\jmath} \! < \! |z| \! < \! \sigma_{\jmath}^{\ 1+\delta} \}$$

(iii)
$$|f(Q(z))| > M(\sigma_1^{k-\epsilon}, f)^{\cos[\pi\rho(f)]-\epsilon}, z \in \Gamma_j$$
.

LEMMA 9. Let $F(z)=\varphi(e^z)+\alpha(z)$, where φ is a non-constant entire function with $\rho(\varphi(e^z))<\infty$ and α is also an entire function with $\rho(\alpha)<1$, then F(z) cannot be factorized as F(z)=f(g(z)), where f and g are transcendental with $\rho(f)=0$ and $\rho(g)<1$.

The proof of this is essentially the same as the argument of Goldstein's (cf. [4], p. 490-491), noting that F is of lower order not less than 1 and $\rho(g) < 1$. Remark. It follows from Lemma 3 that $\rho(\varphi(e^z)) < \infty$ if and only if $\log \log M(r,\varphi) = o(\log \log r)$.

LEMMA 10. Let $F(z)=\varphi(e^z)+\alpha(z)$, where φ is a non-constant entire function with $\rho(\varphi(e^z))<3/2$ and α is also a non-constant entire function with $\rho(\alpha)<1$, then the right factor of F(z) cannot be a non-linear polynomial.

Proof of Lemma 10. Let F(z)=f(Q(z)), where f is transcendental and Q is a polynomial of degree $k \ge 2$. Assume $k \ge 3$. Since $k \cdot \rho(f) = \rho(F) < 3/2$, we have $\rho(f) < 1/2$. Letting $\rho(f) \le 1/2 - \delta_0$ $(0 < \delta_0 < 1/2)$, we have $\cos \lceil \pi \rho(f) \rceil - \varepsilon \ge \cos \lceil (1/2 - \delta_0)\pi \rceil - \varepsilon > \delta_1 > 0$, for sufficiently small positive number ε . Then, applying Lemma 8, we obtain, for $z \in \Gamma$, with $\sigma_j < |z| < \sigma_j^{1+\delta_2}$ $(\delta_2$: a positive constant),

$$\begin{split} M(\sigma_{j}^{k-\varepsilon}, f)^{\delta_{1}} &\leq M(\sigma_{j}^{k-\varepsilon}, f)^{\cos \pi \rho(f) - \varepsilon} \\ &\leq |f(Q(z))| \leq |\varphi(e^{z})| + |\alpha(z)|, \end{split}$$

where Γ_j and σ_j are defined as in Lemma 8. As $\varphi(e^z)$ is bounded on the negative real axis, we have from above that

(1)
$$M(\sigma_1^{k-\varepsilon}, f)^{\delta_1} \leq O(1) + M(\sigma_1^{1+\delta_2}, \alpha).$$

Taking the iterated logarithm of both sides of (1), we have

$$\log \log M(\sigma_j^{k-\varepsilon}, f) + O(1) \leq \log \log M(\sigma_j^{1+\delta_2}, \alpha) + O(1)$$
.

Hence

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} \frac{\log \log M(\sigma_j^{k-\varepsilon}, f)}{\log \sigma_j^{k-\varepsilon}} \leq \overline{\lim_{j \to \infty}} \frac{\log \log M(\sigma_j^{1+\delta_2}, \alpha)}{\log \sigma_j^{1+\delta_2}} \cdot \frac{\log \sigma_j^{1+\delta_2}}{\log \sigma_j^{k-\varepsilon}}$$

We note here that F(z)=f(Q(z)) is of lower order not less than 1. Hence we have that f(z) is of lower order not less than 1/k. It follows from the above inequality that

$$\frac{1}{k} \leq \frac{1+\delta_2}{k-\varepsilon} \rho(\alpha)$$
.

As ε and δ_2 are arbitrary, we obtain that $\rho(\alpha) \ge 1$, contrary to the hypothesis. If k=2, we can write $Q(z)=a(z-b)^z+c$ for some constants $a\ne 0$, b and c. Hence we may assume without loss of generality that F(z) is an even function, that is; $\varphi(e^z)+\alpha(z)=\varphi(e^{-z})+\alpha(-z)$. Since φ is entire, F(z) is at most of order $\rho(\alpha)$ in the right half plane. But it is so, of course, in the left half plane. Therefore we can conclude that $1\le \rho(F)\le \rho(\alpha)$, contrary to the hypothesis. Thus we have proved that the right factor of F(z) cannot be a non-linear polynomial.

Proof of Theorem 2. Let F(z)=f(g(z)). Then by Lemma 2, $g(z)=H(z)+h(z)\cdot e^{az}$, where $\rho(H)\leq 1$ and $H(z+2\pi i)=H(z)$, a is a constant and h(z) ($\not\equiv 0$) is entire with $\rho(h)<1$. Since H(z) is either a constant or of exponential type (order 1 and mean type), it is well known that H(z) can be expressed as: $H(z)=\sum\limits_{k=-m}^{m}a_ke^{kz}$, where a_k ($-m\leq k\leq m$) are constants and m is a non-negative integer. Thus $g(z)=\sum\limits_{k=-m}^{m}a_k\cdot e^{kz}+h(z)\cdot e^{az}$. Noting $\rho(h)<1$ ($h\not\equiv 0$), we can conclude, using Lemma 7 if necessary, that there exists a positive constant δ such that $M(r,g)\geq e^{\delta r}$ ($r\geq r_0$), except when $H(z)\equiv \text{constant}$ (i. e. $a_k=0$, $k\neq 0$) and a=0, in which case we have $\rho(g)<1$. Here assume that both factors f and g are transcendental. Then $\rho(f)=0$ by a well known theorem of Pólya (which is reduced from Lemma 3), since $\rho(F)=1$: finite. Then by Lemma 9, we can rule out the case when $\rho(f)=0$ and $\rho(g)<1$. Thus we may assume that $M(r,g)\geq e^{\delta r}$ ($r\geq r_0$). As f is assumed to be transcendental, for any K>0, we have $M(r,f)\geq r^K$ ($r\geq r_0$). By these, together with Lemma 3, we have

$$M(r, P(e^{z}) + \alpha(z)) = M(r, F) \ge M \left[cM\left(\frac{r}{2}, g\right), f \right]$$
$$\ge \left[cM\left(\frac{r}{2}, g\right) \right]^{K} \ge c^{K} \cdot \exp\left[\frac{\delta Kr}{2}\right] \quad (r \ge r_{0}).$$

As K>0 is arbitrary, this leads to a contradiction, since F(z) (= $P(e^z)+\alpha(z)$) is of exponential type. If f(z)=Q(z), where Q is a non-linear polynomial, then we have the following identity:

$$Q\left[\sum_{k=-m}^{m} a_k \cdot e^{kz} + h(z) \cdot e^{az}\right] = P(e^z) + \alpha(z)$$
.

We note here that in this case H(z) \equiv constant or $a \neq 0$. Using Lemma 5, we see at first that $a_{-k} = 0$ for $k = 1, \cdots, m$ and a is a non-negative integer. In this step, we must show that there does not occur the following case where there exists some j with $-m \leq j \leq -1$ such that $a_j + h(z) \equiv 0$ and a = j, while $a_i = 0$ for $-m \leq l \leq -1$, $l \neq j$. Then the above relation becomes that $Q[\sum_{k=0}^{m} a_k \cdot e^{kz}] = P(e^z) + \alpha(z)$. Taking z = it (pure imaginary), we have $\alpha(z)$ is bounded on the imaginary axis. As $\rho(\alpha) < 1$ and $\alpha(z)$ is non-constant (transcendental), we have a contradiction, noting the Phragmen-Lindelöf's theorem. If h(z) is a constant ($\neq 0$), comparing the growth in the suitable half plane, we have a contradiction. Noting that neither $\alpha(z)$ nor h(z) is a constant, again by Lemma 5, we will arrive at a contradiction. Thus F(z) is left-prime.

But by Lemma 10, the right factor of F(z) cannot be a non-linear polynomial. Therefore F(z) must be prime. Also $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,\pm 1,\pm 2,\cdots$, since $F^{(n)}(z)$ has the same form as F(z). This completes the proof of Theorem 2.

Along similar lines we prove

Theorem 3. Let $F(z)=\varphi(e^z)+P(z)$, where φ is a non-constant entire function with $\rho(\varphi(e^z))<\infty$ and P is a non-constant polynomial. Then F(z) is prime.

Remark. It follows from Theorem 3 that, given a natural number n, there is an entire function F(z) of finite order such that $F^{(k)}(z)$ is prime for $k \le n$ and $F^{(k)}(z)$ is composite (both factors are transcendental) for $k \ge n+1$. In the case where F(z) is of infinite order, $F(z) = \exp \lfloor e^z \rfloor + P(z)$, where P(z) is a nonconstant polynomial of degree n, gives such an example, since we can prove that $F(z) = P(z) + Q(e^z) \exp (e^z)$ is prime, where $P \ne \text{const.}$ and $Q \ne 0$ are polynomials, cf. [10].

Proof of Theorem 3. Let F(z)=f(g(z)), where f and g are transcendental entire functions. Then $\rho(f)=0$, and $g(z)=H_1(z)+P_1(z)\cdot e^{az}$, where $H_1(z)$ is entire with $H_1(z+2\pi i)=H_1(z)$, a is a constant and $P_1(z)$ is a polynomial $(\not\equiv 0)$. Hence we can write

(2)
$$f(H_1(z) + P_1(z) \cdot e^{az}) = \varphi(e^z) + P(z).$$

As $\rho(f)=0$ and f is transcendental, given $\varepsilon>0$, there exists a sequence $\{r_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$, $r_n>0$ and $r_n\to\infty$ (as $n\to\infty$) such that $m(r_n,f)\geqq M(r_n,f)^{1-\varepsilon}$, where $m(r,f)=\min_{\|z\|=r}|f(z)|$, and, for any K>0, we have $M(r,f)\geqq r^{2K}$ $(r\geqq r_0)$, whence we obtain that

$$(3) m(r_n, f) \ge r_n^K (n \ge n_0),$$

here we take ε as $0 < \varepsilon < 1/2$.

If $a \in R$ (the set of real numbers) and $P_1 \not\equiv \text{const.}$ ($p = \deg P_1 \ge 1$), restricting z as purely imaginary; z = it, $t \in R$, we have $|H_1(it_n) + P_1(it_n)e^{ait_n}| = r_n$ for some $t_n \in R$. (This is indeed possible, since $H_1(it)$ is bounded, $|e^{ait}| = 1$ and $P_1(it)$ is continuously unbounded.) Since $\varphi(e^{it})$ is bounded, we have $|\varphi(e^{it}) + P(it)| \le |t|^q$, for some natural number $q(|t| \ge |t_0|)$. Hence we have from (2),

(4)
$$m(r_n, f) \leq |f[H_1(it_n) + P_1(it_n) \cdot e^{ait_n}]| \leq |t_n|^q \quad (n \geq n_0).$$

While, noting that

$$r_n = |H_1(it_n) + P_1(it_n) \cdot e^{ait_n}| \ge |t_n|^{p/2} \quad (n \ge n_0)$$

we have from (3),

(5)
$$m(r_n, f) \geq r_n^{\kappa} \geq |t_n|^{p\kappa/2} \quad (n \geq n_0).$$

A comparison of (4) and (5) gives that $q \ge pK/2$. As K>0 is taken arbitrarily large, this contradicts $q < \infty$.

If $a \in R$ and $P_1 \equiv \text{const.} (\neq 0)$, the left hand side of (2) is bounded on the imaginary axis, while the right hand side of (2) is unbounded there. This is a contradiction.

If $a \in R$, then noting $P_1 \not\equiv 0$, $|H_1(e^{it}) + P_1(it)e^{ait}| > e^{\delta t}$ for some $\delta > 0$, when t > 0 or t < 0 ($|t| \ge |t_0|$). Hence we have again a similar contradiction as above. Thus F(z) must be pseudo-prime.

It is known that the left factor of F(z) (periodic mod a polynomial) cannot be a non-linear polynomial ([2] Theorem 2) and the right factor of F(z) cannot be a polynomial of degree greater than 2 ([2] Theorem 3). There remains only the possibility that F(z)=f(Q(z)), where Q is a polynomial of degree 2. Putting $Q(z)=a(z-b)^2+c$, where $a\neq 0$, b and c are constants, and substituting the variable, we may assume without loss of generality that F(z) is an even function, that is: $\varphi(e^z)+P(z)=\varphi(e^{-z})+P(-z)$. If the identity is satisfied, $\varphi(e^z)$ must be of polynomial growth in the (whole) plane, which is clearly impossible. Thus we have proved that F(z) is prime.

Remark. It is known that $F(z)=\varphi(e^z)+az$, where $\rho(\varphi(e^z))<\infty$ and a is a non-zero constant, is prime. (cf. [2] or [6]).

4. Next we shall prove.

THEOREM 4. Let $F(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} c_j \exp\left[\alpha_j z\right]$ $(m \ge 2)$, where c_j $(j=1, \dots, m)$ are non-zero constants and α_j $(j=1, \dots, m)$ are distinct non-zero constants such that (i) $\alpha_j/\alpha_k \in R$ (the set of real numbers) for any $1 \le j < k \le m$ and $(\alpha_j - \alpha_l)/(\alpha_k - \alpha_l) \in R$ for any distinct $1 \le j$, k, $l \le m$ and (ii) α_j $(j=1, \dots, m)$ all lie on a half plane (including the relative boundary) which has the origin as a boundary point. Then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,2,\cdots$.

LEMMA 11. Let α , β , a and b be non-zero constants. Assume that there exists an unbounded sequence $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ such that $\exp \left[\alpha z_n\right] \to a$ and $\exp \left[\beta z_n\right] \to b$ as $n\to\infty$. Then $\beta/\alpha\in R$.

Proof of Lemma 11. By the assumption, we can write

$$e^{\alpha z_n} = a + \varepsilon(n)$$
 and $e^{\beta z_n} = b + \delta(n)$.

where $\varepsilon(n)$ and $\delta(n)$ tend to zero as $n\to\infty$. Hence $\alpha z_n = \log(a+\varepsilon(n)) + 2l_n\pi i$, where we take as the value of $\log(a+\varepsilon(n))$ the principal value and l_n is an integer. We may assume (taking a subsequence if necessary) that l_n are mutually distinct $(|l_n| \uparrow \infty)$. We have

$$e^{\beta z_n} = \exp\left[\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\log\left(a + \varepsilon(n)\right) + \frac{2\beta}{\alpha}l_n\pi i\right].$$

As $\exp(\beta z_{n+1})/\exp(\beta z_n) = (b+\delta(n+1))/(b+\delta(n)) \to 1$ as $n\to\infty$, we see that $\exp[(2\beta/\alpha)(l_{n+1}-l_n)\pi i] \to 1$ as $n\to\infty$. Hence we obtain $\operatorname{Im}(\beta/\alpha) = 0$, this is $\beta/\alpha \in R$.

To prove the left-primeness of F(z) in Theorem 4, we only need to check the condition in Lemma 4. For this we prove the following:

THEOREM 5. Let c_j $(j=1, \dots, m)$ be non-zero constants, and α_j $(j=1, \dots, m)$ be distinct non-zero constants $(m \ge 2)$. Let $F(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} c_j \exp[\alpha_j z]$. Then for every complex number a_j , the number of roots of the simultaneous equation

(6)
$$F(z)=a, \quad F'(z)=0$$

is always finite, unless either $\alpha_j/\alpha_k \in R$ for some $j \neq k$ or $(\alpha_j - \alpha_l)/(\alpha_k - \alpha_l) \in R$ for some distinct j, k and l.

Proof of Theorem 5. Assume $a \neq 0$. Equation (6) becomes

(7)
$$\begin{cases} c_1 e^{\alpha_1 z} + c_2 e^{\alpha_2 z} + \dots + c_m e^{\alpha_m z} = a \\ \alpha_1 c_1 e^{\alpha_1 z} + \alpha_2 c_2 e^{\alpha_2 z} + \dots + \alpha_m c_m e^{\alpha_m z} = 0 \end{cases}$$

Let $\{z_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an infinite sequence of the solutions of (7). If $\{\exp(\alpha_n z_n)\}$ (j=

 $1, \cdots, m; n=1, 2, \cdots)$ are bounded, we can choose a subsequence $\{z_{n_k}\}$ of $\{z_n\}$ such that $\exp \left[\alpha_j z_{n_k}\right] \to b_j$ as $n_k \to \infty$ $(j=1, \cdots, m)$. In this case at least two of $\{b_j\}_{j=1}^m$ are not zero, as is seen from (7). Then by Lemma 11, we have $\alpha_j/\alpha_k \in R$ for some $j \neq k$. If $\{\exp(\alpha_j z_n)\}$ are unbounded, we may assume without loss of generality that $\exp(\alpha_1 z_n) \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. Dividing both side of (7) by $\exp(\alpha_1 z)$, we obtain

(8)
$$\begin{cases} c_2 e^{(\sigma_2 - \alpha_1)z} + \dots + c_m e^{(\alpha_m - \alpha_1)z} = -c_1 + \varepsilon_1(z) \\ \alpha_2 c_2 e^{(\sigma_2 - \alpha_1)z} + \dots + \alpha_m c_m e^{(\alpha_m - \alpha_1)z} = -\alpha_1 c_1 \end{cases}$$

for $z=z_n$, where $\varepsilon_1(z_n)\to 0$ as $n\to\infty$. If $\{\exp{[(\alpha_j-\alpha_1)z_n]}\}\ (j=2,\cdots,m\,;\,n\geqq 1)$ are bounded, then, noting $\{\alpha_j\}$ are mutually distinct, we can conclude that $(\alpha_j-\alpha_1)/(\alpha_k-\alpha_1)\in R$ for some $2\leqq j\neq k\leqq m$. If $\{\exp{[(\alpha_j-\alpha_1)z_n]}\}$ are unbounded, by repeating the above argument, we will arrive at the conclusion that either $(\alpha_j-\alpha_l)/(\alpha_k-\alpha_l)\in R$ for some distinct j,k and l, or

(9)
$$\begin{cases} c_{m}e^{(\alpha_{m}-\alpha_{m-1})z} = -c_{m-1}+\varepsilon_{1}(z) \\ \alpha_{m}c_{m}e^{(\alpha_{m}-\alpha_{m-1})z} = -\alpha_{m-1}c_{m-1}+\varepsilon_{2}(z) \end{cases}$$

for some sequence $z=z_k$, where $\varepsilon_j(z_k)\to 0$ as $k\to\infty$ (j=1,2). We wish to put aside the latter case. $\{\exp\left[(\alpha_m-\alpha_{m-1})z_k\right]\}$ cannot be unbounded, since $\{c_j\}$ are non-zero constant. Now suppose that the sequence $\{\exp\left[(\alpha_m-\alpha_{m-1})z_k\right]\}$ is bounded and it has a finite cluster point $b\neq 0$ (say). Then from (9) we have $c_mb=-c_{m-1}$ and $\alpha_mc_mb=-\alpha_{m-1}c_{m-1}$. This will lead to a contradiction, since $\{c_j\}$ are non-zero constants and $\{\alpha_j\}$ are distinct non-zero constants.

If a=0, we only need to start from (8), where we take $\varepsilon_1(z)$ as identically zero. Then the number of roots of (6) must be finite for every complex number a.

Proof of Theorem 4. The left-primeness of F(z) (in Theorem 4) follows from Theorem 5, since F'(z) has infinitely many zeros, which is clear by Lemma 5. The right-primeness of F(z) is proved easily as follows: Let F(z)=f(P(z)), where P is a polynomial of degree $k \ge 2$. Then f(z) is an entire function of order 1/k. If $k \ge 3$, then $\rho(f) \le 1/3 (<1/2)$, whence we have by a well-known theorem of Wiman f(P(z)) is unbounded on any radial straight half line, while F(z) is bounded on a suitable such one, as is seen by the assumption that $\{\alpha_j\}_{j=1}^m$ all lie on a half plane. If k=2, we can rule out this possibility by Lemma 5, noting that $F(z-z_0)$ is an even function of z for some z_0 . Thus F(z) is prime. Also $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=1,2,\cdots$, since $F^{(n)}(z)$ has a similar form to F(z).

5. Here we note the following.

THEOREM 6. Let $F(z)=e^{z^k}(e^z-1)$ $(k\geq 2: an integer)$. Then $F^{(n)}(z)$ is prime for $n=0,1,2,\cdots$. More generally, $F(z)=e^{z^k}\cdot (P(z)e^z+Q(z))$ is prime, provided that

P and Q are polynomials ($\not\equiv 0$) such that deg $P = \deg Q$ and the leading coefficients of P and Q have the equal modulus.

Proof. By Lemma 1, F(z) is pseudo-prime. We can conclude that the left factor of F(z) is linear, by comparison with the exponent of convergence of the zeros and by noting that the zeros of $P(z) \cdot e^z + Q(z)$ are all simple except at most a finite number of them (cf. the proof of Theorem 1). Since the zeros of $P(z)e^z+Q(z)$ distribute almost near the imaginary axis, it follows that the right factor of F(z) cannot be a polynomial of degree greater than 2. Also, as in the proof of Theorem 8, we can rule out the possibility that the right factor of F(z) is a polynomial of degree 2.

6. Finally, we note the following two results.

THEOREM 7. The only non-trivial factorization of $F(z) = \int_0^z e^{P(z)} (P_1(z)e^z + P_2(z)) dz$ is F(z) = Q(g(z)) or F(z) = g(Q(z)), where P(z) = 0 and P(z) = 0 are polynomials with deg $P \ge 0$ and deg Q(z) = 0, and Q(z) is entire.

We leave the verification to the reader.

THEOREM 8. The entire function $F(z) = \int_0^z e^{z^2} (e^z - 1) dz$ is prime.

Proof. F(z) is pseudo-prime by Lemma 1. Let F(z)=P(g(z)), where P is a polynomial of degree $k \ge 2$. Then $\rho(g)=2$ and $F'(z)=e^{z^2}\cdot(e^z-1)=P'(g(z))g'(z)$. We shall treat two cases separately: case (i) $k \ge 3$ and case (ii) k=2. In case (i) we have $\deg P'=k-1 \ge 2$. If P' has two distinct zeros, then we have $\rho^*(F')=\rho^*(P'(g))=2$, while $\rho^*(F')=\rho^*(e^z-1)=1$, which is a contradiction. If P' has only one zero, then we may write $P'(z)=A(z-z_0)^{k-1}$ and $g(z)=z_0+e^{Q(z)}$, where $A\ne 0$, z_0 are constants and Q is a polynomial with $\deg Q=2$, since e^z-1 has only simple zeros. Then, as $g'(z)=Q'(z)e^{Q(z)}$, we have $F'(z)=P'(g(z))g'(z)=A\cdot e^{(k-1)Q(z)}Q'(z)e^{Q(z)}=A\cdot Q'(z)e^{kQ(z)}$, which has only a finite number of zeros. This is a contradiction.

Now we consider case (ii) k=2. Then $\deg P'=1$. Let P'(z)=az+b. Then $(e^z-1)e^{z^2}=(ag(z)+b)g'(z)$. Putting f(z)=ag(z)+b, we have

$$(10) a \cdot (e^z - 1) \cdot e^{z^2} = f(z) f'(z).$$

But no entire function f(z) can satisfy the equation (10), which is proved as follows: Let f(z) be an entire solution of (5), then we have

$$f(z)^2 = 2a \int_0^z (e^z - 1)e^{z^2} dz + c$$
 (c: a const.).

We note that along the imaginary axis, the limit values $f(i\infty)$ and $f(-i\infty)$ both exist. Also we have

$$f(i\infty)^{2} - f(-i\infty)^{2} = 2a \int_{-i\infty}^{i\infty} (e^{z} - 1)e^{z^{2}} dz$$

$$= 2ai \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^{2} + it} dt - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^{2}} dt \right]$$

$$= 2ai \cdot \sqrt{\pi} \cdot \left[\exp\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) - 1 \right] \neq 0.$$

Thus either $f(i\infty)$ or $f(-i\infty)$ cannot be zero. On the other hand, from the equation (10), we can conclude that $f(z)=h(z)\cdot e^{z^2/2}$, where h(z) is an entire function of order at most 1. It follows that $f(i\infty)=f(-i\infty)=0$, as the limit values of f(z) along the imaginary axis. This contradicts the above fact just derived. Hence F(z) is left-prime.

Now, suppose that F(z)=f(Q(z)), where Q is a polynomial of degree $k \ge 2$. Then $\rho(f)=2/k$. If $k \ge 3$, then $\rho(f)<1$, whence f' has an infinite number of zeros. But then the zeros of f'(Q) cannot be distributed along a line. If k=2, let $Q(z)=a(z-z_0)^2+b$. Putting $w=z-z_0$ and $\tilde{F}(w)=F'(z)$, we have $\tilde{F}(-w)=-\tilde{F}(w)$. That is $(e^{-w+z_0}-1)\cdot \exp{[(-w+z_0)^2]}=-(e^{w+z_0}-1)\exp{[(w+z_0)^2]}$, from which it follows that either $z_0=0$ and $e^w\equiv 1$ or $e^{2z_0}=1$ and $\exp{[(1+4z_0)w]}\equiv \pm 1$. In any case, we have a contradiction. Therefore the right factor of F(z) must be linear. Thus we have proved that F(z) is prime.

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DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS, KYOTO UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, FUSHIMI-KU, KYOTO, 612, JAPAN. Applied Mathematics Staff, Naval Research Laboratory, Washington D. C. 20375.