# 93. On Analytic Functions in Abstract Spaces. 

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§1. The purpose of the present paper is to extend some of the theorems of H . Cartan ${ }^{1)}$ on functions of several complex variables to the case of functions whose domain and range both lie in complex Banach spaces.*)

Let $E$ and $E^{v}$ be two complex Banach spaces, and let $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ be an $E^{\prime}$-valued function defined on a certain neighborhood $V\left(x_{0}\right)$ of a point $x_{0} \in E$. $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is said to admit a variation or a Gateaux differential at $x=x_{0}$ if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{f\left(x_{0}+\alpha y\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)}{a} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists strongly for any $y \in E$ ( $\alpha$ is a complex number).
An $E^{\prime}$-valued function $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ defined on a domain $D$ of $E$ is analytic in $D$ if it is strongly continuous on $D$ and if it admits a Gateaux differential at every point of $D$. It is clear that, in case both $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ are the field of complex numbers, this definition coincides with the usual definition of a complex-valued analytic function of a single complex variable. Further, if $E$ is the field of complex numbers while $E^{\prime}$ is an arbitrary complex Banach space, then our definition coincides with that of a Banach-space-valued analytic function of a single complex variable given by E. Hille and N. Dunford. ${ }^{2)}$

An $E^{\prime}$-valued function $x^{\prime}=p(x)$ defined on $E$ is a polynomial of degree $n$ if the following conditions are satisfied: 1) $p(x)$ is strongly continuous at each point of $E$, 2) for each $x$ and $y$ in $E$, and for any complex number $a, p(x+a y)$ can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
p(x+\alpha y)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha^{k} p_{k}(x, y), \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p_{k}(x, y)$ are arbitrary $E^{\prime}$-valued functions of two variables $x$ and $y$, 3) $p_{n}(x, y) \neq 0$ for some $x$ and $y$. If, in addition to these, $p(\alpha x)=$ $a^{n} p(x)$, then the function $p(x)$ is called a homogeneous polynomial of degree $n$. It is clear that an $E^{\prime}$-valued polynomial defined on $E$ is analytic on $E$.

We shall state a theorem of A. E. Taylor ${ }^{3}$ ) which we shall need in the following discussions:

Let $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ be two complex Banach spaces. If an $E^{\prime}$-valued

[^0]function $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is defined and $2 s$ analytic in the sphere $S_{\rho}=$ $\{x \mid\|x\|<\rho\}$ of $E$, then it may be expanded into the series
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=f(0)+\sum_{n-1}^{\infty} f_{n}(x), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

where $f_{n}(x)$ is an $E^{\prime}$-valued homogeneous polynomial of degree $n$ given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{n}(x)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int \frac{f(\alpha x)}{\alpha^{n+1}} d \alpha . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

the integral being taken in the positive sense on the circle $|\alpha|=\rho^{\prime}<1$. The series on the right hand side of (3) converges absolutely and uniformly in the sphere $S_{\rho^{\prime}}=\left\{x \mid\|x\| \leqq \rho^{\prime}\right\}$, where $\rho^{\prime}$ is a sufficiently small positive number.
§2. Theorem 1. Let $E, E^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime \prime}$ be three complex Banach spaces and let $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ be two domains in $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ respectively. If $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is an $E^{\prime}$-valued analytic function defined on $D$ whose value lies in $D^{\prime}$, and if $x^{\prime \prime}=g\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ is an $E^{\prime \prime}$-valued analytic function defined on $D^{\prime}$, then $x^{\prime \prime}=g(f(x))$ is an $E^{\prime \prime}$-valued analytic function defined on $D$.

Proof. It is clear that $x^{\prime \prime}=g(f(x))$ is strongly continuous on $D$. So it suffices to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{g\left(f\left(x_{0}+\alpha y\right)\right)-g\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)\right)}{\alpha} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists for any $x_{0} \in D$ and for any $y \in E$. Without loss of generality we may assume that $x_{0}=0, f(0)=0^{\prime}$ and $g\left(0^{\prime}\right)=0^{\prime \prime}$, where $0,0^{\prime}$ and $0^{\prime \prime}$ denote the origin of $E, E^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime \prime}$ respectively. Thus we have only to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(f(\alpha y))}{a} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists for any $y \in E$, which we shall assume given and fixed.
Since $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is analytic at $x=0$, so there exist two positive constants $\delta$ and $M$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\alpha y)=\alpha f_{1}(y)+\alpha^{2} R(y, \alpha) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\|R(y, \alpha)\| \leqq M$ for any $\alpha$ with $|\alpha| \leqq \delta$. Further, since $x^{\prime \prime}=g\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ is analytic at $x^{\prime}=0^{\prime}$, so there exist two positive constants $\delta^{\prime}(\leq \delta)$ and $M^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(\alpha z)=a g_{1}(z)+\alpha^{2} S(z, \alpha) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\|S(z, \alpha)\| \leqq M^{\prime}$ for any $z$ and $\alpha$ with $\|z\| \leqq\left\|f_{1}(y)\right\|+\delta M$ and $|\alpha| \leq \delta^{\prime}$. Consequently, $|\alpha| \leqq \delta^{\prime}$ implies

$$
\begin{align*}
g(f(\alpha y)) & =g\left(\alpha f_{1}(y)+\alpha^{2} R(y, \alpha)\right)  \tag{9}\\
& =\alpha g_{1}\left(f_{1}(y)+\alpha R(y, \alpha)\right)+\alpha^{2} S\left(f_{1}(y)+\alpha R(y, \alpha), \alpha\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Since $g_{1}(z)$ is strongly continuous, it follows from (9) that the limi (6) exists and is equal to $g_{1}\left(f_{1}(y)\right)$ for any $y \in E$.

Exactly in the same way, we may prove the following

Theorem 2. In addition to the assumptions in Theorem 1, let us assume that $0 \in D, 0^{\prime} \in D^{\prime}, f(0)=0^{\prime}$ and $g\left(0^{\prime}\right)=0^{\prime \prime}$, where $0,0^{\prime}$ and $0^{\prime \prime}$ denote the origin of $E, E^{\prime}$ and $E^{\prime \prime}$ respectively. Let further

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(x)=\sum_{n-m}^{\infty} f_{n}(x),  \tag{10}\\
& g\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{n-p}^{\infty} g_{n}\left(x^{\prime}\right) \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

be the Taylor expansions of $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ and $x^{\prime \prime}=g\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ at $x=0$ and $x^{\prime}=0^{\prime}$ respectively which begin with the $m$-th term and the $p$-th term respectively. Then $x^{\prime \prime}=h(x)=g(f(x))$ is an analytic function defined on $D$, and the Taylor expansion

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=\sum_{n-m p}^{\infty} h_{n}(x) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

of $x^{\prime \prime}=h(x)$ begins with the $m p-t h$ term $h_{m p}(x)=g_{p}\left(f_{m}(x)\right)$.
§3. Theorem 3. Let $E$ be a complex Banach space, and let $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ be an $E$-valued analytic function defined on the unit sphere $S=\{x \mid\|x\|<1\}$ of $E$ which maps $S$ into itself. If the Taylor expansion of $f(x)$ at $x=0$ is of the form :

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=x+\sum_{n-2}^{\infty} f_{n}(x), \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ must be the identity mapping: $f(x) \equiv x$.
Proof. It suffices to show that $f_{n}(x) \equiv 0$ for $n=2,3, \ldots$. Assume the contrary, and let $f_{m}(x)(m \geqq 2)$ be the first term which does not vanish identically. i.e. $f_{n}(x) \equiv 0$ for $\mathrm{n}=2, \ldots, m-1$, and $f_{m}\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$ for some $x_{0} \in S$.

Let us define a sequence $\left\{f^{(k)}(x) \mid k=1,2, \ldots\right\}$ of $E$-valued functions $f^{(k)}(x)$ recurrently by

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{(k)}(x)=f\left(f^{(k-1)}(x)\right), \quad k=2,3, \ldots ; \quad f^{(1)}(x)=f(x) . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, from Theorem 1 follows that each $f^{(k)}(x)$ gives an analytic mapping of $S$ into itself. Further, it is not difficult to see, by appealing to Theorem 2, that the Taylor expansion of $x^{\prime}=f^{(k)}(x)$ at $x=0$ is of the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{(k)}(x)=x+k f_{m}(x)+\sum_{n-m+1}^{\infty} f_{n}^{(k)}(x) . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact, (15) is clear for $k=1$, and the case for general $k$ may be proved by mathematical induction.

The integration formula (4) then gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
k f_{m}(x)=\frac{1}{2 \pi i} \int \frac{f^{(k)}(a x)}{a^{m+1}} d \alpha, \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

the integral being taken in the positive sense on the circle $|a|=\rho<1$. From (16) follows immediately

$$
\begin{equation*}
k\left\|f_{m}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\| \leqq \frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{\left\|f^{(k)}\left(\alpha x x_{0}\right)\right\|}{\rho^{m+1}} \rho d \theta \leqq \frac{1}{\rho^{m}} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $k=1,2, \ldots$, in contradiction to our assumption that $f_{m}\left(x_{0}\right) \neq 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 3.
$\S 4$. Let $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ be two domains in two complex Banach spaces $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ respectively. If $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is a one-to-one mapping of $D$ onto $D^{\prime}$ such that both $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ and its inverse $x=f^{-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ are analytic functions in $D$ and $D^{\prime}$ respectively, then $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is called an analytical mapping of $D$ onto $D^{\prime}$.

Theorem 4. Let $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ be two complex Banach spaces, and let $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ be an analytic mapping of the unit sphere $S=\{x \mid\|x\|<1\}$ of $E$ onto the unit sphere $S^{\prime}=\left\{x^{\prime} \mid\left\|x^{\prime}\right\|<1\right\}$ of $E^{\prime}$. If the origin 0 of $E$ is mapped to the origin $0^{\prime}$ of $E^{\prime}$ by $x^{\prime}=f(x)$, then $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ is a linear and isometric mapping.

Proof. For any $\theta(0 \leqq \theta<2 \pi)$, let us consider an analytic mapping $x^{\prime}=h_{\theta}(x)$ of $S$ onto itself given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\theta}(x)=e^{-i \theta} f^{-1}\left(e^{i \theta} f(x)\right) . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\theta}(0)=0, \quad h_{0}(x) \equiv x . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Further, let us consider the Taylor expansions of $f(x), g(x)=f^{-1}(x)$ and $h_{\theta}(x)$ at $x=0$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(x)=\sum_{n-1}^{\infty} f_{n}(x),  \tag{20}\\
& g(x)=\sum_{n-1}^{\infty} g_{n}(x),  \tag{21}\\
& h_{\theta}(x)=\sum_{n-1}^{\infty} h_{\theta, n}(x) . \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

Then Theorem 2 implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\theta, 1}(x)=e^{-i \theta} g_{1}\left(e^{i \theta} f_{1}(x)\right)=g_{1}\left(f_{1}(x)\right) . \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence $h_{\theta, 1}(x)$ is independent of $\theta$, and so by (19),

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{\theta, 1}(x) \equiv x . \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus Theorem 3 is applicable, and we see that $h_{\theta}(x) \equiv x$, or equivalently that $f\left(e^{i \theta} x\right) \equiv e^{i \theta} f(x)$ for any $\theta(0 \leqq 0<2 \pi)$ and for any $x \in S$. From this follows immediately by (4) that $f_{n}(x) \equiv 0$ for $n \geqq 2$. Thus we see $f(x)=f_{1}(x)$, and this shows that $f(x)$ is linear. ${ }^{1)}$ Further, since every $y \in S$ is mapped by $x^{\prime}=f(x)$ to an element $f(y) \in S^{\prime}$, so we see that $\|f(x)\|=\|(\|x\|+\varepsilon) f(x /(\|x\|+\varepsilon))\| \leqq\|x\|+\varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon>0$, from which follows that $\|f(x)\| \leqq\|x\|$. Since the inverse inequality $\|x\|=\left\|f^{-1}(f(x))\right\|$ $\leqq\|f(x)\|$ may be obtained in a similar way, so we finally see that $\|f(x)\|=\|x\|$. This completes the proof of Theorem 4.

[^1]
[^0]:    *) I am deeply grateful to Professor Kakutani who has kindly given me a number of valuable suggestions.

    1) H. Gartan, Sur les groupes des transformations analytiques, Actualités, Paris, 1938.
    2) Cf. E. Hille, Semi-group of linear transformations, Annals of Math., 40 (1939).
    3) A.F. Taylor, On the properties of analytic functions in abstract spaces, Math. Annalen, 115 (1938).
[^1]:    1) It is easy to see that a homogeneous polynomial of degree 1 is linear. It only suffices to show that a homogeneous polynomial $p(x)$ of degree 1 satisfies $p(x+y)=$ $p(x)+p(y)$. In fact, by definition, $p(x)$ satisfies a relation $p(x+a y)=p_{0}(x, y)+a p_{1}(x, y)$, for any $x, y$ and $a$. It is easy to see that $p_{0}(x, y)=p(x)$, and so $p_{1}(x, y)=\frac{1}{a} p(x+a y)-$ $\frac{1}{a} p(x)=p\left(\frac{1}{a} x+y\right)-p\left(\frac{1}{a} x\right)$. If we now let $a \rightarrow \infty$, then the continuity of $p(x)$ implies that $p_{1}(x, y)=p(y)$.
