

SOME SOLUTIONS FOR ASSIGNMENT 5

8.6. (Slightly rephrased.) Suppose that $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, that

$$f(x)f(y) = f(x+y), \quad (5.1)$$

for all real x and y , and that f is not identically zero. Prove that there is a $c \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $f(x) = e^{cx}$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, assuming: (a) that f is differentiable; (b) only that f is continuous.

Solution: We are told that f is not identically zero; suppose that $f(x_0) \neq 0$. Taking $y = 0$ and $x = x_0$ in (5.1), we find that $f(0) = 1$, and taking then $y = -x$ we find that $f(-x) = 1/f(x)$; in particular, $f(x)$ is nonzero for all x . Moreover, by induction on n we find from (5.1) that

$$f(nx) = f(x)^n, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (5.2)$$

(a) Since f is differentiable we may differentiate (5.1) with respect to y and then set $y = 0$ to obtain $f'(x) = cf(x)$, where $c = f'(0)$. But then if $g(x) = e^{-cx}f(x)$ we find that $g'(x) = 0$ for all x ; thus g is a constant (by the mean value theorem or 5.11(b)) and since $g(0) = 1$, $g(x) = 1$ for all x , i.e., $f(x) = e^{cx}$.

(b) As a warm-up, let us do the case in which f is real-valued. From $f(x) = f(x/2)^2$ we then see that $f(x) > 0$ for all x , and from Theorem 8.6 it follows that $f(1) = e^c$ for some unique real number c . We now show that

$$f(x) = e^{cx}. \quad (5.3)$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$; we already know that this holds for $x = 0$ and $x = 1$. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the two numbers $f(1/n)$ and $e^{c/n}$ are both positive n^{th} roots of e^c , and so must be equal (Theorem 1.21), establishing (5.3) for $x = 1/n$; but then $f(m/n) = f(1/n)^m = (e^{c/n})^m = e^{cm/n}$, so that (5.3) holds for positive rationals. From $f(-x) = 1/f(x)$ it follows that (5.3) holds for all rationals. But both sides of (5.3) are continuous functions of x ; if they agree on the dense set \mathbb{Q} they must agree for all x .

Now suppose that f may take complex values. The difficulty then is that the equation $f(x) = f(x/n)^n$ does not determine $f(x/n)$ in terms of $f(x)$, since a complex number has n (complex) n^{th} roots. When f was real and hence positive we used the fact that every positive number has a unique *positive* n^{th} root; we need a substitute for this, and we find it in the continuity of f . We will use freely the polar representation $z = re^{i\theta} = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ of a complex number z ; properties of this can be derived from our work on exponentials, logarithms, and trig functions, but we omit details.

The right half plane $H = \{z \mid \operatorname{Re} z > 0\}$ is an open set containing $f(0) = 1$, so by the continuity of f there exists an $r > 0$ such that if $|x| < r$ then $f(x) \in H$. Choose n sufficiently large that $2^{-n} < r$, so that $f(2^{-n}) \in H$; $f(2^{-n})$ thus has a representation $f(2^{-n}) = \rho e^{i\phi} = e^{\log \rho + i\phi}$ with $\rho > 0$ and $|\theta| < \pi/2$. Now consider $f(2^{-(n+1)})$ by ; this number must lie in H (since $2^{-(n+1)} < 2^{-n} < r$) and satisfy $f(2^{-(n+1)})^2 = f(2^{-n})$ by (5.2); these conditions uniquely determine that $f(2^{-(n+1)}) = \sqrt{\rho} e^{i\phi/2} = e^{(\log \rho + i\phi)/2}$. [**Note:** this is the key idea, continuity tells us that $f(2^{-(n+1)}) \in H$ and this determines which of the two possible square roots of $f(2^{-n})$ it is.] Repeating this argument we find inductively that for $j \geq 0$, $f(2^{-(n+j)}) = e^{2^{-j}(\log \rho + i\phi)}$, and then from (5.2) that for x any dyadic rational ($x = k2^{-m}$, $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$) that $f(x) = e^{x2^n(\log \rho + i\phi)} = e^{cx}$ with $c = 2^n(\log \rho + i\phi)$. Since the dyadic rationals are dense in \mathbb{R} we get $f(x) = e^{cx}$ for all x in \mathbb{R} , by the continuity argument used above.