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p-ADIC ANALYTIC INTERPOLATION

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Abstract. Let K be a complete ultrametric algebraically closed field. We study the Kernel of infinite van der Monde Matrices and show close connections with the zeroes of analytic functions. We study when such a matrix is invertible. Finally we use these results to obtain interpolation processes for analytic functions. They are more accurate if K is spherically complete.

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1. NOTATIONS, DEFINITIONS AND THEOREMS

K denotes an algebraically closed field complete for an ultrametric absolute value. Given $a \in \mathbf{K}$, r > 0, we denote by d(a, r) (resp. $d(a, r^{-})$) the disk $\{x \in \mathbf{K} : |x - a| \le r\}$ (resp. $\{x \in \mathbf{K} : |x - a| < r\}$). Given r > 0 we denote by C(0, r) the circle $d(0, r) \setminus d(0, r^{-})$. Given $r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{R}_+$ such that $0 < r_1 < r_2$, we denote by $\Gamma(0, r_1, r_2)$ the set $d(0, r_2^{-}) \setminus d(0, r_1)$.

Given r > 0, we denote by $A(d(0, r^{-}))$ the algebra of the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$

converging for |x| < r.

Given K-vector spaces $E, F, \mathcal{L}(E, F)$ will denote the space of the K-linear mappings from E into F.

 \mathcal{E} will denote the K-vector space of the sequences in K, and \mathcal{E}_0 will denote the subspace of the bounded sequences. The identically zero sequence will be denoted by (0).

 \mathcal{E}_1 will denote the set of the sequences (a_n) such that $\limsup_{n \to \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} \leq 1$. So \mathcal{E}_1 is seen to be a subspace of \mathcal{E} isomorphic to the space $A(d(0, 1^-))$, and obviously contains \mathcal{E}_0 .

Let \mathbf{M}_{∞} be the set of the infinite matrices $(\lambda_{i,j})$ with coefficients in K.

 $\delta_{i,j}$ will denote the Kronecker symbol. I_{∞} will denote the infinite identical matrix defined as $\lambda_{i,j} = \delta_{i,j}$.

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In this paper, (a_n) will denote an injective sequence in $d(0, 1^-)$ such that $a_n \neq 0$ for every n > 0. and we will denote by $\mathcal{M}(a_n)$ the infinite matrix $M = (\lambda_{i,j})$ defined as $\lambda_{i,j} = (a_i)^j, (i,j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.

A matrix $M = (\lambda_{i,j}) \in \mathbf{M}_{\infty}$ will be said to be bounded if there exists $A \in \mathbf{R}_{+}$ such that $|\lambda_{i,j}| \leq A$ whenever $(i,j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.

M will be said to be *line-vanishing* if for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $\lim_{i \to \infty} \lambda_{i,j} = 0$.

A line-vanishing matrix M is seen to define a K-linear mapping ψ_M from \mathcal{E}_0 into \mathcal{E} .

So the matrix $M = \mathcal{M}(a_n)$ clearly defines a K-linear mapping ϕ_M from \mathcal{E}_1 into \mathcal{E} , because given a sequence $(b_n) \in \mathcal{E}_1$, the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n (a_j)^n$ is obviously convergent.

Lemmas 1 and 2 are immediate :

Lemma 1: Let $M \in \mathbf{M}_{\infty}$ be line vanishing. The three following statements are equivalent: ψ_M is continuous ψ_M is an endomorphism of \mathcal{E}_0 M is bounded.

In particular, Lemma 1 applies to matrices of the form $\mathcal{M}(a_n)$.

Lemma 2: Let $M = \mathcal{M}(a_n)$ and let $(b_n) \in \mathcal{E}_1$. Then (b_n) belongs to $\operatorname{Ker}\phi_M$ if and only if the analytic function $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n$ admits each point a_j for zero.

Theorem 1: Let $M = \mathcal{M}(a_n)$. Then $\operatorname{Ker}\phi_M \neq \{(0)\}$ if and only if $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$. Besides $\operatorname{Ker}\psi_M \neq \{(0)\}$ if and only if $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} |a_n| > 0$.

Theorem 2: Let $b = (b_n) \in \mathcal{E}_0$. There exists an injective sequence (α_n) in $d(0, 1^-)$ such that $b \in \operatorname{Ker} \psi_{\mathcal{M}(\alpha_n)}$ if and only if b satisfies $|b_j| < \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n|$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definitions and notations : An injective sequence (a_n) in $d(0, 1^-)$ will be called a regular sequence if $\inf_{n \neq m} |a_n - a_m| > 0$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$. Let (a_n) be a regular sequence and let $\rho = \inf_{n \neq m} |a_n - a_m|$. For every $r \in]0, 1[$, we will denote by $\Omega((a_n), r)$ the set $d(0, 1^-) \setminus (\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} d(a_n, r^-))$, and by $\Omega(a_n)$ the set $d(0, 1^-) \setminus (\bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} d(a_n, \rho^-))$. Let $\mathbf{a} = (a_n)$ and $\mathbf{b} = (b_n)$ be two sequences in K. We will denote by $\mathbf{a} * \mathbf{b}$ the convolution product (c_n) defined as $c_n = \sum_{j=0}^n a_j b_{n-j}$.

Theorem 3: Let (α_n) be a regular sequence of $d(0,1^-)$ such that there exists $g \in A(d(0,1^-))$ satisfying

(i) α_n is a zero of order 1 of g for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. (ii) $g(x) \neq 0$ whenever $x \in d(0, 1^-) \setminus \{\alpha_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. (iii) $\lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1^-\\ x \in \Omega(\alpha_n)}} |g(x)| = +\infty$.

Let $M = \mathcal{M}(\alpha_n)$. Then ψ_M is injective but its image does not contain \mathcal{E}_0 . Also there exists $P = (\lambda_{i,j}) \in \mathcal{M}_{\infty}$ (not unique) satisfying

- (1) P is line-vanishing.
- (2) $\lim_{\substack{n\to\infty\\\infty}} \lambda_{n,j} \alpha_h^n = 0$ for all $(j,h) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- (3) $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{n,j} \alpha_h^n = \delta_{j,h}$ for all $(j,h) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.
- (4) $MP = PM = I_{\infty}$.
- (5) $P(\mathbf{b}) \in \mathcal{E}_1$ for all $\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{E}_0$.
- (6) $MP(\mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{b}$ for all $\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{E}_0$.
- (7) ψ_P is injective.

Let (ν_n) be a sequence in K such that $|\nu_0| \ge |\nu_n|$ for every n > 0. For every $j \in \mathbb{N}$, let $(\mu_{n,j})_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ denote the sequence $(\frac{1}{\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \nu_m \alpha_j^m})((\lambda_{n,j}) * (\nu_n))$. Then the matrix $Q = (\mu_{i,j})$ also satisfies properties (1) - (7) and is not equal to P for infinitely many sequences (ν_n) .

Remarks. 1. Mainly, the proof of Theorem 3 takes inspiration from that of Lemma 3 in [7]. However, in this lemma, the considered matrix, roughly, was P. Here the matrix we consider is a van der Monde matrix M and we look for P.

2. Given M, the matrix P depends on g and therefore is not unique satisfying (1)-(7). Indeed \mathcal{M}_{∞} is not a ring because the multiplication of matrices is not always defined and even when it is defined, is not always associative. As a consequence, if P, P' satisfy $MP = MP' = PM = P'M = I_{\infty}$, we cannot conclude P' = P.

Actually we can consider $\phi_M \circ \psi_P \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{E}_0, \mathcal{E})$ and then this is the identity in \mathcal{E}_0 . Next we can consider $\psi_{P'} \circ \psi_M \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{E}_0, \mathcal{E}_1)$ and this is the identity in \mathcal{E}_0 . But we cannot consider $\psi_{P'} \circ (\phi_M \circ \psi_P)$ because $\psi_{P'}$ is not defined in \mathcal{E}_1 . In the same way, we cannot consider $(\psi_{P'} \circ \psi_M) \circ \psi_P$ because $\psi_{P'} \circ \psi_M$ is only defined in \mathcal{E}_0 .

We consider the matrix P and look for "inverses" M such that $MP = PM = I_{\infty}$. Suppose that there exists a bounded matrix $M' \neq M$ such that $PM' = M'P = I_{\infty}$. Now we can consider $\phi_{M'} \circ (\psi_P \circ \psi_M) \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{E}_0, \mathcal{E})$. Since $\psi_P \circ \psi_M$ is the identity in \mathcal{E}_0 , then $\phi_{M'} \circ (\psi_P \circ \psi_M)$ is equal to $\psi_{M'}$. Next we can consider $(\phi_{M'} \circ \psi_P) \circ \psi_M \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{E}_0, \mathcal{E})$. Since

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 $\phi_{M'} \circ \psi_P$ is the identity on \mathcal{E}_0 , we have $(\phi_{M'} \circ \psi_P) \circ \psi_M = \psi_M$ and therefore $\psi_M = \psi_{M'}$ hence M = M'.

3. Let $P, Q \in \mathcal{M}_{\infty}$ satisfy (1) - (7). Let $\mathcal{E}' = \psi_P(\mathcal{E}_0)$, let $\mathcal{E}'' = \psi_Q(\mathcal{E}_0)$. Then the restriction of ϕ_M to \mathcal{E}' (resp. \mathcal{E}'') is just the reciprocal of ψ_P (resp. ψ_Q).

Conjecture. Under the hypothesis of Theorem 1, every matrix satisfying properties (1) - (7) is of the form

$$\mu_{n,j} = \left(\frac{1}{\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \nu_m \alpha_j^m}\right) ((\lambda_{n,j}) * (\nu_n)).$$

Theorem 4 : Let K be spherically complete, and let (α_n) be a sequence in $d(0, 1^-)$ satisfying $|\alpha_n - \alpha_m| \ge \min(|\alpha_n|, |\alpha_m|)$ whenever $n \ne m$, $\lim_{n \to \infty} |\alpha_n| = 1$, and $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_n| = 0$.

Then $\mathcal{M}(\alpha_n)$ admits inverses P such that, for every bounded sequence $\mathbf{b} := (b_n)$ in K, the sequence $\mathbf{a} := (a_n) = P(\mathbf{b})$ defines a function $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \in A(d(0, 1^-))$ satisfying

$$f(\alpha_n)=b_n.$$

Theorem 5: Let (α_n) be a regular sequence in $d(0, 1^-)$. There exists a regular sequence (γ_n) in $d(0, 1^-)$ such that (α_n) is a subsequence of (γ_n) satisfying: for every inverse matrix P of $\mathcal{M}(\gamma_n)$ and for every bounded sequence $\mathbf{b} = (b_n)$ of \mathbf{K} , the sequence $\mathbf{a} = P(\mathbf{b}) := (a_n)$ defines an analytic function $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ such that $f(\gamma_j) = b_j$ whenever $j \in \mathbb{N}$.

2. PROVING THEOREMS 1 AND 2.

For each set D in \mathbf{K} , we denote by H(D) the set of the analytic elements in D (i. e., the completion of the set of the rational functions with no pole in D).

Given $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0, 1^-))$, one defines the valuation function $v(f, \mu)$ in the interval $[0, +\infty)$ as $v(f, \mu) = \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} (v(b_n) + n\mu)$.

Lemma 3 and 4 gather the main properties of the function $v(f, \mu)$ ([1],[4]).

Lemma 3 Let $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0,1^-))$. For every $\mu > 0$, f satisfies $v(f,\mu) = \lim_{v(t) \to \mu, v(t) \neq \mu} v(f(t))$. For every $x \in d(0,1^-)$, f satisfies $v(f(x)) \ge v(f,v(x))$. For every $r \in]0, 1[$, f satisfies $-\log ||f||_{d(0,r)} = v(f, -\log r)$.

Besides f is bounded in $d(0,1^-)$ if and only if the sequence (b_n) belongs to \mathcal{E}_0 . If f is bounded in $d(0,1^-)$, then $\|f\|_{d(0,1^-)} = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n|$ and $-\log \|f\|_{d(0,1^-)} = \lim_{\mu \to 0} v(f,\mu)$.

Lemma 4: Let $f(t) \in A(d(0,1^{-}))$ and let $r_1, r_2 \in (0,1)$ satisfy $r_1 < r_2$. If f admits q zeros in $d(0,r_1)$ (taking multiplicities into account) and t distinct zeros $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_t$, of multiplicity order ζ_j $(1 \le j \le t)$ respectively in $\Gamma(0, r_1, r_2)$, then f satisfies

$$v(f, -\log r_2) - v(f, -\log r_1) = -\sum_{j=1}^t \zeta_j(v(a_j) + \log r_2) - q(\log r_2 - \log r_1).$$

Proof of Theorem 1. Let $\mathbf{b} = (b_n) \in \mathcal{E}_1 \setminus \{(0)\}$ and let $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0, 1^-))$.

First we suppose $\operatorname{Ker} \phi_M \neq \{(0)\}$ and therefore we can assume $\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{Ker} \phi_M$. Then, by Lemma 2, f satisfies $f(a_j) = 0$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$. But for every $r \in]0, 1[$, we know that fbelongs to H(d(0,r)) and has finitely many zeros in d(0,r). Hence we have $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$.

Reciprocally, let the sequence (a_n) satisfy $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 1$. By Proposition 5 in [4], we

know that there exists a not identically zero analytic function $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0, 1^-))$

which admits each a_j as a zero. Hence we have $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n a_j^n = 0$, and of course the sequence

 (b_n) belongs to \mathcal{E}_1 , hence to Ker ϕ_M .

Now we suppose that $\operatorname{Ker}\psi_M \neq (0)$ and we assume that the sequence (b_n) belongs to $\operatorname{Ker}\psi_M$. In particular $\operatorname{Ker}\phi_M \neq (0)$ and therefore $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$. Without loss of generality we may clearly assume $|a_n| \leq |a_{n+1}|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Besides, by definition we have $|a_1| > 0$. By Lemma 3 we know that $\inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} v(b_n) = \lim_{\mu \to 0^+} v(f,\mu) = \lim_{|x| \to 1, x \in D} v(f(x)) = -\log ||f||_{d(0,1^-)}$. Now for each $\mu > 0$, let $q(\mu)$ be the unique integer such that $v(a_n) \geq \mu$ for every $n \leq q(\mu)$ and $v(a_n) < \mu$ for every $n > q(\mu)$. By Lemma 4, we check

$$v(f,\mu) - v(f,v(a_1)) \le \sum_{j=2}^{q(\mu)} \mu - v(a_j) + 2(\mu - v(a_1)).$$

Since $v(f,\mu)$ is bounded when μ approaches 0, by (1) it is seen that $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v(a_j)$ must be

bounded and therefore we have $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| > 0$.

Reciprocally we suppose $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| > 0$. We can easily check that $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$, and then we can assume $|a_n| \leq |a_{n+1}|$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ without loss of generality. For each

 $j \in \mathbb{N}$ we put $P_j(x) = \prod_{m=1}^{j} (1 - x/a_m)$. By Theorem 1 in [2], we can check that there exists $f \in A(d(0, 1^-))$ (f not identically zero) satisfying (3) $f(a_m) = 0$ for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$, and (4) $v(f, \mu) \ge v(P_{q(\mu)}, \mu) - 1$ for all $\mu > 0$. Now we notice that if $\mu_1 > \mu_2 > 0$ then we have $v(P_{q(\mu_1)}, \mu_1) = v(P_{q(\mu_2)}, \mu_1)$ and then we see that $\lim_{\mu \to 0^+} v(P_{q(\mu)}, \mu) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v(a_j)$. But by (2) we have $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} v(a_j) < +\infty$ and therefore

by (4), $v(f,\mu)$ is bounded in $]0, +\infty[$. Let $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n$. By Lemma 3 the sequence (b_n) is bounded and by (3) it clearly belongs to Ker. ψ_M . This finishes the proof of Theorem 1.

Lemma 5: Let $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0,1^-))$ and let $r \in (0,1)$. Then f admits at least one zero in C(0,r) if and only if there exist $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$ (k < l) such that $|b_k| r^k = |b_l| r^l$.

Proof of Theorem 2. As a consequence of Lemma 5, a function $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n t^n \in A(d(0, 1^-))$ admits infinitely many zeros in $d(0, 1^-)$ if and only if $|b_j| < \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |b_n|$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$. Then the conclusion comes from Lemma 2.

3. PROVING THEOREM 3.

As an application of Corollary (of Theorem 5) in [8], we have this lemma.

Lemma 6: Let $f \in A(d(0, 1^{-}))$ have a regular sequence of zeros (b_n) and satisfy $\lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1^{-} \\ x \in \Omega(b_n)}} |f(x)| = +\infty$. Then 1/f belongs to $H(\Omega(b_n))$.

Proof of Theorem 3. We may obviously assume $|\alpha_n| \leq |\alpha_{n+1}|$ and therefore $\alpha_n \neq 0$ whenever n > 0. Since g is not bounded in $d(0, 1^-)$, by Lemma 3 we have $\lim_{\mu \to 0^+} v(g, \mu) = -\infty$,

and by Lemma 4 the sequence of the zeros (α_n) satisfies $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} |\alpha_n| = 0$, hence ψ_M is injective. Now we look for P. Since g admits each α_j as a simple zero, it factorizes in $A(d(0, 1^-))$ in the form $\psi_j(x)(1 - x/\alpha_j)$ and we have $\psi_j(\alpha_j) \neq 0$. We put $g_j(x) = \frac{\psi_j(x)}{\psi_j(\alpha_j)}$. Then g_j belongs to $A(d(0, 1^-))$ and may be written as $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{n,j} x^n$. We denote by P the matrix

/λ00	λ_{01}	• • •	λ_{0n}	\
λ_{10}	λ_{11}	•••	λ_{1n}]
	:	٠.	:	·. [
λ_{j0}	λ_{j1}	•••	λ_{jn}	
(:	:	۰.	÷	·)

and we will show this satisfies Properties (1) - (7).

For convenience, we put $D = \Omega(\alpha_n)$. Since $\lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1^- \\ x \in D}} |g(x)| = +\infty$, by Lemma 6, we know that 1/g belongs to H(D). For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we put $u_n = x^n/g$. Then in H(D), u_n has a Mittag-Leffler series ([3], [5]) of the form $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\beta_{j,n}}{1 - x/\alpha_j}$. Now we put $\theta_j = \psi_j(\alpha_j)$ and we have $g(x) = \theta_j g_j(x)(1 - x/\alpha_j)$. We will compute the $\beta_{j,n}$. Let $v_{j,n} = (1 - x/\alpha_j)u_n$. Then we have $v_{j,n}(\alpha_i) = \frac{\alpha_j^n}{g_j(\alpha_j)\theta_j}$. But since $g_j(\alpha_j) = 1$ whenever $j \in \mathbb{N}$, we see that $\beta_{j,n} = \alpha_j^n/\theta_j$, hence $x^n g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{\alpha_j^n}{\theta_j(1 - x/\alpha_j)}$. We notice that $\left\|\frac{\alpha_j^n}{1 - x/\alpha_j}\right\|_D = \frac{|\alpha_j|^{n+1}}{\rho}$ and then we have $\lim_{j \to \infty} |\theta_j| = +\infty$, because the sequence of the terms $x^n/g(x)$ must tend to 0. Now we have $x^n = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{\alpha_j^n g(x)}{\theta_j(1 - x/\alpha_j)}$, while $g_j(x) = \frac{g(x)}{\theta_j(1 - x/\alpha_j)}$. Since $g_j(x) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \lambda_{n,j} x^n$, we obtain

(8)
$$x^{n} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_{j}^{n} (\sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{h,j} x^{h})$$

In particular, (8) holds in every disk d(0,r) with $r \in]0,1[$. But then we know that $\|g_j\|_{d(0,r)} = \sup_{h \in \mathbb{N}} |\lambda_{j,h}| r^h \leq \frac{\|\psi_j\|_{d(0,r)}}{|\theta_j|}$. Now, we have $\|\phi_j\|_{d(0,r)} \leq \|g\|_{d(0,r)}$ as soon as $|\alpha_i| > r$ because then $\|1/(1 - x/\alpha_j)\|_{d(0,r)} = 1$ and therefore the sequence $(\|\phi_j\|_{d(0,r)})_{j \in \mathbb{N}}$ is bounded. Then the family $(|\lambda_{h,j}| r^h)_{j,h \in \mathbb{N}}$ tends to zero when j tends to $+\infty$, uniformly with respect to h. In particular, P is line-vanishing. For each $h \in \mathbb{N}$, we put $s_h = \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |\lambda_{h,j}|$. We will show

(9)
$$\limsup_{h \to +\infty} s_h^{1/h} \le 1.$$

Indeed this is equivalent to show that for every $r \in]0, 1[$, we have

(10)
$$\lim_{h\to\infty}s_hr^h=0.$$

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Let $r \in]0, 1[$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. Since the family $(|\lambda_{h,j}| r^h)_{j,h\in\mathbb{N}}$ tends to zero uniformly with respect to h when j tends to $+\infty$, there clearly exists N such that $|\lambda_{h,j}| r^h < \epsilon$ whenever j > N, whenever $h \in \mathbb{N}$, hence for every $h \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $s_h r^h \leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq N} |\lambda_{h,j}| r^h$. But for each fixed $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we know that $\lim_{h \to \infty} |\lambda_{h,j}| r^h = 0$, hence $\lim_{h \to \infty} (\max_{1 \leq j \leq N} |\lambda_{h,j}| r^h) = 0$. This finishes showing (10). Therefore (9) is proven and so is (2).

Now, we can apply the limits inversion theorem and, then, by (8), we have

(11)
$$x^{n} = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} (\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_{j}^{n} \lambda_{h,j}) x^{h},$$

whenever $x \in d(0, r)$. Actually this is true for all $r \in]0, 1[$ and therefore (11) holds for all $x \in d(0, 1^-)$. Hence we have $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_j^n \lambda_{h,j} = 0$ whenever $n \neq h$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \alpha_j^n \lambda_{n,j} = 1$. So (3) is satisfied.

Thus we have proven that $PM = I_{\infty}$. Now we check that $MP = I_{\infty}$. For every $h \neq j$, we have $g_j(\alpha_h) = g(\alpha_h) = 0$, hence $\sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \alpha_h^n \lambda_{h,j} = 0$. Besides, it is seen that $g_j(\alpha_j) = 1$,

hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_j^n \lambda_{n,j} = 1$. So we conclude that $MP = I_{\infty}$ and this finishing proving (4).

Now, we will check that $P(\mathbf{b}) \in \mathcal{E}_1$ for all $\mathbf{b} \in \mathcal{E}_0$. Let $\mathbf{b} := (b_n) \in \mathcal{E}_0$, let $\mathbf{a} := (a_n) = P(\mathbf{b})$ and let $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n$. For each $j \in \mathbb{N}$ we put $f_j(t) = \sum_{m=0}^{j} b_m g_m(t)$. Then f_j belongs to $A(d(0, 1^-))$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $r \in]0, 1[$. Like the family $|\lambda_{n,j}| r^n$, the family $|\lambda_{n,j}b_j| r^n$ tends to zero uniformly with respect to n when j tends to $+\infty$. That way, in

H(d(0,r)) we have $\lim_{j\to\infty} ||f-f_j||_{d(0,r)} = 0$ and therefore f belongs to H(d(0,r)). This is true for all $r \in]0,1[$ and therefore f belongs to $A(d(0,1^-))$. Hence $P(\mathbf{b}) \in \mathcal{E}_1$. This shows (5).

Let us show (6). Let $\mathbf{b} := (b_0, \ldots, b_n, \ldots)$ be a bounded sequence. Let $\mathbf{a} = P\mathbf{b}$, and let $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, \ldots, a_n, \ldots)$. We will show

(12)
$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} \le 1.$$

Without loss of generality, we may assume $|b_j| \leq 1$, whenever $j \in \mathbb{N}$. Then we have $|a_n| \leq \sup_{j \in \mathbb{N}} |\lambda_{n,j}| = s_n$, therefore $\limsup_{n \to \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} \leq \limsup_{n \to \infty} s_n^{1/n} \leq 1$. Now, by (12), it is

seen that for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$, the series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \alpha_j^n$ is convergent and therefore we may consider

 $M\mathbf{a} = M(P\mathbf{b})$. By definition, for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $a_i = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{i,j} b_j$. Let $M\mathbf{a} = (x_h)_{h \in \mathbb{N}}$.

For each $h \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $x_h = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha_h^m a_m = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha_h^m (\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{m,j} b_j)$. Let $r = |\alpha_h|$. As we saw,

the family $|\lambda_{m,j}b_j| r^m$ tends to 0 when m tends to $+\infty$, uniformly with respect to j. Hence by the Limits Inversion Theorem, we have

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \alpha_h^m (\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{m,j} b_j) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j (\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda_{m,j} \alpha_h^m).$$

Hence by (3), we see that $x_j = b_j$ and this finishes proving (6). Then by (6) ψ_P is clearly injetive.

Finally we will prove the last statement of the theorem. Let $\phi(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \nu_n x^n$. The

function ϕ belongs to $A(d(0, 1^{-}))$ and is invertible in $A(d(0, 1^{-}))$ thanks to the inequality $|\nu_0| > |\nu_n|$ whenever n > 0. Hence the function $G(x) = g(x)\phi(x)$ is easily seen to satisfy i), ii), iii), iv) like g. Then G factorizes in $A(d(0, 1^{-}))$ and can be written as $\phi_j(x)(1 - x/\alpha_j)$

with $\phi_j(x) = \psi_j(x)\phi(x)$. Hence we put $G_j(x) = \frac{\phi_j(x)}{\phi_j(\alpha_j)} = \frac{g_j(x)\phi(x)}{\phi(\alpha_j)}$. Now it is clearly

seen that the power series of G_j is $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu_{n,j} x^n$. By definition, the matrix Q satisfies the

same properties as P. But when ϕ is not a constant function, for each fixed $j \in \mathbb{N}$, we do not have $\mu_{n,j} = \lambda_{n,j}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence Q is different from P. As a consequence we see that ψ_M is not surjective, it would be an automorphism of \mathcal{E}_0 and therefore ψ_P would also be an automorphism of \mathcal{E}_0 and it would be unique. This ends the proof of Theorem 3.

4. PROVING THEOREMS 4 AND 5

Notation. For each integer $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$, we will denote by $\mathcal{G}(q)$ the group of the q-roots of 1.

Lemma 7: Let (a_n) be a sequence in $d(0, 1^-)$ such that $\lim_{n \to \infty} |a_n| = 1$. For each $s \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a prime integer q > p and $\zeta \in \mathcal{G}(q)$ such that $|\zeta^h a_s - a_j| = \max(|a_s|, |a_j|)$ for every $j \in \mathbb{N}$, for every $h = 1, \ldots, q - 1$.

Proof. Let $r = |a_s|$. Since $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 1$, the circle C(0,r) contains finitely many terms of the sequence (a_n) . Without loss of generality we may assume $|a_n| < r$ whenever n < l, $|a_n| > r$ whenever n > t and $|a_n| = r$, whenever $n = l, \ldots, t$ (with obviously $l \le s \le t$). Whatever $q \in \mathbb{N}$, $\zeta \in \mathcal{G}(q)$ are, it is seen that we have $|\zeta^h a_s - a_j| = |a_s|$ for all j < l and $|\zeta^h a_s - a_j| = |a_j|$ for all j > t. In the residue class field k of K, for every $j = l, \ldots, t$. let γ_j be the class of a_j/a_s . There does exist a prime integer q > p such that the polynomial $p(x) = x^q - 1$ admits none of the γ_j ($l \le j \le t$) as a zero. Hence, for

every q-root ν of 1 in k, we have $\nu^h \neq \gamma_j$ whenever $j = l, \ldots, t$, whenever $h = 1, \ldots, q-1$. Now let ζ be a q-th root of 1 in K. Then by classical properties of the polynomials, we have $\left|\frac{\zeta^h - a_j}{a_s}\right| = 1$, hence $|\zeta^h a_s - a_j| = |a_s| = r$ whenever $h = 1, \ldots, q-1$, whenever $j = l, \ldots, t$. This completes the proof of Lemma 7.

Lemma 8 : Let (a_n) be a regular sequence and let $\rho = \inf_{n \neq m} |a_n - a_m|$. There exists a sequence (b_n) in $d(0, 1^-)$ satisfying :

- (1) $\lim_{n \to \infty} |b_n| = 1.$
- (2) $|b_n b_m| \ge \rho$ whenever $n \neq m$.
- (3) (a_n) is a subsequence of (b_n) ,

(4) There exists a sequence (q_n) of prime integers different from p satisfying $\lim_{n \to \infty} q_n = +\infty$, such that for every $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $\zeta \in \mathcal{G}(q_n)$, ζb_n is another term of the sequence (b_n) ,

(5) There exists $f \in A(d(0,1^{-}))$ admitting each b_n as a simple zero and having no other zero in $d(0,1^{-})$, satisfying

 $\lim_{\substack{|x|\to 1^-\\x\in\Omega(b_n)}} |f(x)| = +\infty.$

Proof. First we will construct a sequence (b'_n) satisfying (1), (2), (3), (4). Let (q_j) be a strictly increasing sequence of prime integers strictly bigger than p and, for each $j \in \mathbb{N}$, let $s_j = \sum_{i=0}^{j} q_i$, let $\zeta_j \in \mathcal{G}(q_j) \setminus \{1\}$ and let $b'_{\zeta_j+h} = \zeta_j^h a_j$ ($0 \le h \le q_j - 1$). We will show that a good choice of the sequence (q_j) enables us to obtain

(6)
$$|b'_n - b'_m| = \max(|b'_n|, |b'_m|)$$

for every couple (n,m) satisfying $n \neq m$ and $(n,m) \neq (s_i, s_j)$ whenever $(i, j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$. In other words $|b'_n - b'_m| = \max(|b'_n|, |b'_m|)$ must be true all time except when n = m and when (b'_n, b'_m) is equal to some couple (a_{s_i}, a_{s_j}) . For each $t \in \mathbb{N}$, let $F_t = \{s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_t\}$ and let E_t be $\{0, 1, \ldots, s_t - 1\} \setminus F_t$. Assume that $q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_{t-1}$ have been chosen to satisfy the following properties (α_t) and (β_t)

 $(\alpha_t) \quad |b'_n - a_{s_i}| = \max(|b'_n|, |a_{s_i}|) \text{ for all } j \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ for all } n \in E_t.$

 (β_t) $|b'_n - b'_m| = \max(|b'_n|, |b'_m|)$ for all $(n, m) \in E_t \times E_t$ such that $n \neq m$. We will choose q_t such that both $(\alpha_{t+1}), (\beta_{t+1})$ are satisfied. Indeed, by Lemma 7 we can take a prime integer u such that, given $\zeta_t \in \mathcal{G}(u)$, we have $|\zeta_t^h a_t - a_j| = \max(|a_t|, |a_j|)$ for all $j \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $h = 1, \ldots, u - 1$, $|\zeta_t^h a_t - b'_n| = \max(|a_t|, |b'_n|)$ for all $n < s_t$, for all $h = 1, \ldots, u - 1$. Thus we can take $q_t = u$ and we see that both $(\alpha_{t+1}), (\beta_{t+1})$ are satisfied. Hence we can construct the sequence (q_t) by induction and, therefore, the sequence (b'_n) satisfying (6) is now constructed. Then it is easily checked that the sequence (b'_n) so obtained satisfies (1), (2), (3), (4).

Now let $\{r_0, \ldots, r_n, \ldots\} = \{|a_j| : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and let $D = \Omega(b_n)$. The infinite product $g(x) = \prod_{j=0}^{\infty} (1 - (x/a_j)^{q_j})$ converges in $A(d(0, 1^-))$ and has no zero in $d(0, r) \cap D$ because, by construction of the sequence (b'_n) , each zero of g is one of the points b'_m for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence it is seen that we have $|g(x)| \ge 1$ for every $x \in d(0, 1^-) \setminus (\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C(0, r_n))$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\Sigma_n = D \cap C(0, r_n)$, let $\tau_n = \inf_{x \in \Sigma_n} |g(x)|$, let $\sigma_n \in (r_n, r_{n+1}) \cap |\mathbf{K}|$, let $c_n \in C(0, \sigma_n)$, and let $u_n > \min(p, n)$ be a prime integer such that $\tau_n(\frac{r_{n+1}}{\sigma_n})^{u_n} > n + 1$. Since $\lim_{n \to \infty} u_n = +\infty$, it is seen that the infinite product $h(x) = \prod_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 - (x/c_n)^{u_n})$ converges in $A(d(0, 1^-))$. Let $D' = \Omega((c_n), \rho)$ and let $D'' = D' \cap D$. Let $h(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n x^n$ and, for each $r \in (0, 1)$, let $M(r) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |\lambda_n| r^n$. Each pole of h is simple and is of the form ζc_n with $\zeta \in \mathcal{G}(u_n)$. Hence it is seen that h satisfies $|h(x)| \ge M |x| / \rho$ for all $x \in D'$. Hence if $x \in D'' \setminus (\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \Sigma_n)$, then we have $|g(x)h(x)| = M(r_n)\tau_n \ge (\frac{r_n}{r_{n-1}})^{u_{n-1}}\tau_n > n$ and finally we have $(7) \lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1 \\ x \in D''}} |g(x)h(x)| = +\infty$.

Now let (b''_n) be the sequence of the zeros of g. Clearly (b''_n) satisfies (1) and (4) and also satisfies $|b''_n - b'_m| = \max(|b''_n|, |b'_m|)$ whenever $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $|b''_n - b''_m| = \max(|b''_n|, |b''_m|)$ whenever $n \neq m$. Now we put $b_{2n} = b'_n$ and $b_{2n+1} = b''_n$. The sequence (b_n) clearly satisfies (1), (2), (3), (4) and also satisfies (5) because the zeros of h are the b''_n while those of g are the b'_n . Thus the zeros of f are just the b_n , and then, by (7), we have $\lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1\\ x \in \Omega(b_n)}} |f(x)| = +\infty$.

This ends the proof of Lemma 8.

Proof of Theorem 4. Without loss of generality we may obviously assume $|\alpha_n| \leq |\alpha_{n+1}|$ whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\rho = |\alpha_0|$. Hence by hypothesis each disk $d(\alpha_q, \rho^-)$ contains no point α_n for each $n \neq q$. Let $D = \Omega((\alpha_n), \rho^-)$.

For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let T_n be the hole $d(\alpha_n, \rho^-)$ of D. Since $|\alpha_n| = 0$, it is shortly checked that the sequence $(T_n, 1)$ is a T-sequence of D([8]). Then, since K is spherically complete, by [4], Theorem 4, there exists $g \in A(d(0, 1^-))$ admitting each α_n as a simple zero and having no zero else in $d(0, 1^-)$. Therefore, as $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} |\alpha_n| = 0$, is is seen that g

satisfies $\lim_{\substack{|x|\to 1^-\\x\in D}} |g(x)| = +\infty$. Now we can apply Theorem 3, which shows that the matrix

 $M = \mathcal{M}(a_n)$ admits inverses P. Then the sequence (a_n) satisfies $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \alpha_j^n = b_j$ for every

 $j \in \mathbb{N}$ and this clearly ends the proof of Theorem 4.

Proof of Theorem 5. By Lemma 8, there exists a regular sequence (γ_n) of $d(0, 1^-)$ such that (α_n) is a subsequence of (γ_n) together with an analytic function $g \in A(d(0, 1^-))$ admitting each γ_m as a simple zero and having no other zero in $d(0, 1^-)$, satisfying $\lim_{\substack{|x| \to 1^- \\ x \in \Omega(\gamma_n)}} |g(x)| = +\infty$ with $\rho = \inf_{n \neq m} |\gamma_n - \gamma_m|$. Then, by Theorem 3, the matrix $M = \mathcal{M}(\gamma_n)$

admits line-vanishing inverses M' satisfying $M(M'(\mathbf{b})) = \mathbf{b}$ for all bounded sequence

 $\mathbf{b} = (b_n)$. Let $\mathbf{a} := (a_n) = M'(\mathbf{b})$. Thus we have $M(\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{b}$ and therefore $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \gamma_j^n = b_j$

whenever $j \in \mathbb{N}$. This ends the proof of Theorem 5.

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