M. OZAWA KODAI MATH. SEM. REP. 27 (1976), 1-10

# ON CERTAIN CRITERIA FOR THE LEFT-PRIMENESS OF ENTIRE FUNCTIONS, II

# By Mitsuru Ozawa

1. Introduction. In our previous paper [5] we had proved two general theorems guaranteeing the left-primeness of entire functions. The first one may be stated in the following manner:

THEOREM A. Let F(z) be an entire function of finite order whose derivative F'(z) has infinitely many zeros. Assume that the equations F(z)=c and F'(z)=0 have only finitely many common roots for any constant c. Then F(z) is left-prime in entire sense.

Although this has a wide range of applicability, there are lots of defects, for example, this does not work to the function  $z \sin z + z$ . The function has infinitely many double zeros and hence F(z)=0 and F'(z)=0 have infinitely many common roots. We shall now fill up this kind of defect. Our theorems are the following.

THEOREM 1. Let F(z) be an entire function of finite order. Assume that for a certain constant A F(z)=A has at least one but at most finitely many simple roots and has infinitely many multiple roots all of whose multiplicities are the same. Assume further that the equations F(z)=c, F'(z)=0 have only a finite number of common roots for any  $c \neq A$ . Then F(z) is left-prime in entire sense.

THEOREM 2. Let F(z) be such an entire function that for a constant A F(z)=A has at least one but at most finitely many simple roots and has infinitely many multiple roots all of whose multiplicities are the same. Assume that

and

$$N(r, A, F) - N(r, A, F) \ge Km(r, F)$$
  
$$N(r, 0, F') - (N(r, A, F) - \overline{N}(r, A, F)) \ge km(r, F)$$

for some K, k>0. Assume further that F(z)=c, F'(z)=0 have only a finite number of common roots for any  $c \neq A$ . Then F(z) is left-prime in entire sense.

Firstly we should remark that any entire function has neither three perfectly branched values nor a finite Picard exceptional value and a perfectly branched value. Here we call a a perfectly branched value of F(z) when F(z)=a has

Received Jan. 15, 1974.

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infinitely many multiple roots except for a finite number of simple roots. We shall make use of the above fact repeatedly.

2. Proof of Theorem 1. Suppose that F(z)=f(g(z)) with transcendental f and g. Then by Pólya's result  $\rho(f)=0$ , where  $\rho(f)$  indicates the order of f. Assume that f(w)-A has three simple zeros  $w_1, w_2, w_3$ . Then  $g(z)=w_3$  should have only finitely many simple roots by the finiteness of simple zeros of F(z)-A. This is impossible. Further at least one zero of f(w)-A should be simple, since F(z)-A has at least one simple zero. Hence there occur three possibilities:

- 1)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)M(w)^{\mu}$ ,
- 2)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)(w w_2)^{\lambda} M(w)^{\mu}, \ \lambda \ge 2,$
- 3)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)(w w_2)M(w)^{\mu}$ ,

where M(w) has infinitely many simple zeros and  $\mu \neq \lambda$ . Here  $\mu$  is the order of multiple zeros of F(z)-A. In what follows we shall prove the existence of a  $w_0$  for which  $f'(w_0)=0$  but  $f(w_0)\neq A$ . Suppose this is not the case. Then any zero of f'(w) satisfies f(w)=A and every multiple root of f(w)=A satisfies f'(w)=0.

The case 1). In this case

$$\frac{f'^{\mu}}{(f-A)^{\mu-1}} = \frac{1}{B^{\mu-1}(w-w_1)^{\mu-1}}.$$

By integration of this equation we have

$$\mu(f-A)^{1/\mu} = B^{(1-\mu)/\mu} \mu[(w-w_1)^{1/\mu} - d].$$

We put  $w=w_1$ . Then  $f(w_1)=A$  implies d=0. Thus

$$f - A = B^{(1-\mu)}(w - w_1)$$

This is impossible.

The case 2). In this case  $(g(z)-w_2)^{\lambda}$  has infinitely many zeros, whose orders should be equal to  $\mu$ . Hence  $\lambda s = \mu$ ,  $s \ge 2$ . Then consider

$$\frac{f'^{\mu}}{(f-A)^{\mu-1}} = \frac{1}{B^{\mu-1}(w-w_1)^{\mu-1}(w-w_2)^{\mu-\lambda}} \,.$$

Integrating this equation we have

$$\mu (f-A)^{1/\mu} = B^{(1-\mu)/\mu} \int \frac{dw}{(w-w_1)^{1-1/\mu} (w-w_2)^{1-\lambda/\mu}}$$
  
=  $B^{(1-\mu)/\mu} (L(w)-d) .$ 

We put  $w=w_1$  or  $w=w_2$ . Then  $d=L(w_1)=L(w_2)$ . Thus  $L(w_2)-L(w_1)=0$ . However

$$L(w_{2}) - L(w_{1}) = \int_{w_{1}}^{w_{2}} \frac{dw}{(w - w_{1})^{1 - 1/\mu} (w - w_{2})^{1 - \lambda/\mu}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(-1)^{1-\lambda/\mu} (w_2 - w_1)^{1-1/\mu - \lambda/\mu}} \int_0^1 \frac{dW}{W^{1-1/\mu} (1-W)^{1-\lambda/\mu}} \neq 0.$$

This is a contradiction.

The case 3). Consider

$$\frac{f'^{\mu}}{(f-A)^{\mu-1}} = \frac{1}{B^{\mu-1}\{(w-w_1)(w-w_2)\}^{\mu-1}}.$$

Similarly as in the case 2) we have

$$\begin{split} 0 &= L(w_2) - L(w_1) \\ &= \int_{w_1}^{w_2} \frac{dw}{\{(w - w_1)(w - w_2)\}^{1 - 1/\mu}} \\ &= \frac{1}{(-1)^{1 - 1/\mu}(w_2 - w_1)^{1 - 2/\mu}} \int_0^1 \frac{dW}{\{W(1 - W)\}^{1 - 1/\mu}} \\ &\neq 0 \,. \end{split}$$

This is untenable.

Hence in all the cases there exists a  $w_0$  such that  $f'(w_0)=0$  but  $f(w_0)\neq A$ . Then consider  $g(z)=w_0$ . At all the roots of  $g(z)=w_0$   $F(z)=f(w_0)\neq A$  and F'(z)=0, which have only a finite number of common roots. Hence  $g(z)=w_0$  has only finitely many roots, that is,  $w_0$  is a Picard exceptional value of g. However g has already at least one perfectly branched value  $w_1$ . This is impossible. Therefore F(z) is pseudo-prime in entire sense.

Suppose that F(z)=f(g(z)) with a non-linear polynomial f and entire g. Then similarly as in the above we have three possibilities:

$$\begin{split} f - A &= B(w - w_1)(w - w_2)^{\mu} \cdots (w - w_s)^{\mu}, \qquad s \ge 2, \\ f - A &= B(w - w_1)(w - w_2)^{\lambda}(w - w_3)^{\mu} \cdots (w - w_s)^{\mu}, \qquad \lambda \ge 2, \quad s \ge 2 \\ f - A &= B(w - w_1)(w - w_2)(w - w_3)^{\mu} \cdots (w - w_s)^{\mu}, \qquad s \ge 2. \end{split}$$

and

We shall prove the existence of  $w_0$  such that  $f'(w_0)=0$  but  $f(w_0)\neq A$ . In each case we put x the number of roots of f'=0 other than the ones satisfying f(w) = A. We compute the degree of f' in two manners. Then we have

$$\mu(s-1) = (\mu-1)(s-1) + x$$

in the first case,

$$\mu(s-2)+\lambda=(\mu-1)(s-2)+\lambda-1+x$$

in the second case and

$$\mu(s-2)+1=(\mu-1)(s-2)+x$$

in the third case. In every case we have

 $x=s-1\geq 1$ .

This gives the desired result. Then considering  $g(z)=w_0$  and hence the equations  $F(z)=f(w_0)\neq A$ , F'(z)=0 and remarking the existence of a perfectly branched value  $w_1$  of g we have a contradiction. q.e.d.

We can release our assumptions on the roots of F(z)=A in the following manner:  $F(z)-A=B(z-z_1)^{\lambda_1}\cdots(z-z_s)^{\lambda_s}L(z)^{\mu}$  for a certain A, where  $\lambda_j$  and  $\mu$  are coprime for each j  $(1 \le j \le s)$ ,  $s \ge 1$  and L(z) has only infinitely many simple zeros.

3. Proof of Theorem 2. Suppose that F=f(g) with transcendental f and g. Then we have again three possibilities:

- 1)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)M(w)^{\mu}$ ,
- 2)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)(w w_2)^{\lambda}M(w)^{\mu}, \ \lambda \ge 2$ and
  - 3)  $f(w) A = B(w w_1)(w w_2)M(w)^{\mu}$ .

Here M(w) is transcendental entire. In all the cases we shall firstly prove the existence of infinitely many zeros of M(w). In the case 1)

$$N(r, A, F) \leq N(r, w_1, g) + \mu \sum_{j=2}^{p} N(r, w_j, g)$$
$$\leq (\mu p - \mu + 1) m(r, g) .$$

However

$$N(r, A, F) - \overline{N}(r, A, F) \ge Km(r, F)$$
$$\ge Ksm(r, g)(1-\varepsilon)$$

for  $r \in E_g$ , which is of finite measure. This gives a contradiction, since s is arbitrary. Hence M(w) has infinitely many simple zeros in this case. Quite similarly we can prove the existence of infinitely many (simple) zeros of M(w) in the remaining two cases.

Next we shall prove the existence of at least one  $w_0$ , for which  $f'(w_0)=0$  but  $f(w_0)\neq A$ . Suppose this is not the case. Then in the case 1)

$$N(r, 0, f'(g)) = N(r, A, F(g)) - N(r, A, f(g)).$$

Therefore for  $r \oplus E_g$ 

$$\begin{split} N(r, 0, F') &= N(r, 0, f'(g)) + N(r, 0, g') \\ &\leq N(r, A, F) - \overline{N}(r, A, F) + N(r, 0, g') \\ &\leq N(r, 0, F') - km(r, F) + m(r, g)(1 + \varepsilon) \,. \end{split}$$

Thus

$$km(r, F) \leq m(r, g)(1+\varepsilon)$$
.

However

 $km(r, F) \ge ksm(r, g)(1-\varepsilon)$ 

for  $r \notin E_g$ . Hence

 $ks \leq 1$ ,

which is impossible, since s is arbitrary. This gives the desired existence of  $w_0$ , for which  $f'(w_0)=0$  but  $f(w_0)\neq A$  in the case 1). Similarly we can prove the desired existence of  $w_0$  in the remaining two cases. Once the existence of  $w_0$  such that  $f'(w_0)=0$ ,  $f(w_0)\neq A$  is accrtained, the remaining part of the proof is quite similar as in Theorem 1. Then we have the pseudo-primeness of F in entire sense. If F(z)=f(g(z)) with a non-linear polynomial f and entire g, we can prove the existence of  $w_0:f'(w_0)=0$ ,  $f(w_0)\neq A$  as in Theorem 1 and then we have the left-primeness of F. q. e. d.

As in the case of Theorem 1 we can release the condition on the roots of F=A.

## 4. Applications.

COROLLARY 1.  $P(z)(\sin z+1)$  is prime, where P(z) is a polynomial of odd degree.

*Proof.* Let A be zero. Then

$$F(z) = P(z) \left( \frac{e^{iz/2} + ie^{-iz/2}}{\sqrt{2i}} \right)^2$$
.

Since P(z) is of odd degree, there is at least one zero of P of odd multiplicity. Consider

$$\begin{split} F(z) &= P(z)(\sin z + 1) \!=\! c \!\neq\! 0 \,, \\ F'(z) \!=\! P'(z)(\sin z \!+\! 1) \!+\! P(z) \cos z \!=\! 0 \,. \end{split}$$

Then we have

$$2P(z)^{3} = CP(z)^{2} + CP'(z)^{2}$$
.

This has only finitely many roots. Hence F(z) is left-prime in entire sense.

Consider the distribution of zeros of F(z)=f(g(z)) with a non-linear polynomial g. Then g should be quadratic. Let g(z) be  $\alpha(z-a)^2+b$ . In the present case a should be either  $2n\pi+5\pi/2$  or  $2n\pi+3\pi/2$ , where n is an integer. Hence with x=z-a

$$\begin{split} P(a+x)\{\sin{(a+x)}+1\} = &F(a+x) = f(\alpha x^2 + b) = f(\alpha(-x)^2 + b) \\ = &F(a-x) = P(a-x)\{\sin{(a-x)}+1\} \;. \end{split}$$

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However  $\sin(a+x)+1=\sin(a-x)+1$ . Hence P(a+x)=P(a-x). By comparing the leading coefficients of both sides we have a contradiction. Thus we have the right-primeness of F in entire sense. Hence F is prime by Gross' theorem [2]. q. e. d.

By the above proof we can say that  $P(z)(\sin z+1)$  is prime if P(z) does not have the form  $Q(z)^2$  and does not satisfy P(a-z)=P(a+z) for any  $a=2n\pi+2\pi$  $+\pi/2$  or  $2n\pi+\pi+\pi/2$ . These conditions are necessary as the following examples show:

$$z^{2}(\sin z+1) = \left(z\frac{e^{iz/2} + ie^{-iz/2}}{\sqrt{i2}}\right)^{2}.$$
$$z(z-\pi)(\sin z+1) = \left\{\left(w - \frac{\pi^{2}}{4}\right)(\cos \sqrt{w} + 1)\right\} \circ \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - z\right)^{2}.$$

COROLLARY 2.  $z(e^{\alpha z}+e^{\beta z})^2$  is prime if either  $\alpha\beta\neq 0$ ,  $\alpha\beta^{-1}$  is real or  $\alpha=0$ ,  $\beta\neq 0$  or  $\alpha=\beta=0$ .

*Proof.* We firstly consider the case  $\alpha \neq \beta$ ,  $\alpha \beta \neq 0$ . Consider

$$F(z) = z(e^{\alpha z} + e^{\beta z})^2 = c \neq 0,$$
  

$$F'(z) = \{(2z\alpha + 1)e^{\alpha z} + (2z\beta + 1)e^{\beta z}\}(e^{\alpha z} + e^{\beta z}) = 0.$$

Then

$$(\alpha - \beta)z = \log \frac{z + 1/2\beta}{z + 1/2\alpha} + \log \frac{\beta}{\alpha} + \pi i + 2p\pi i$$

and

$$\alpha z = \log \frac{z + 1/2\beta}{z} - \frac{1}{2} \log z + \log \frac{\beta \sqrt{c}}{\beta - \alpha} + 2q\pi i.$$

Taking their real parts we have

$$\left(1-\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)\Re(\alpha z) = \log \frac{|z+1/2\beta|}{|z+1/2\alpha|} + \log \left|\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right|$$

and

$$\Re(\alpha z) = \log \frac{|z+1/2\beta|}{|z|} + \log \frac{|\beta \sqrt{c}|}{|\beta - \alpha|} - \frac{1}{2} \log |z|.$$

If  $z \to \infty$ , then  $|\Re(\alpha z)|$  is bounded but by the second equation  $\Re(\alpha z) \to -\infty$ . This is impossible. Hence the equations  $F=c\neq 0$ , F'=0 have only finitely many common roots. Hence F is left-prime in entire sense.

We next consider the right-primeness. To this end we consider the distribution of zeros of F. The set of zeros of F is  $\{0\}$  and  $\{(2p-1)\pi i/(\alpha-\beta)\}$  $p=0, \pm 1, \cdots$ . The latter ones are of order 2. Hence F(z)=f(g(z)) with a polynomial g implies that g is of degree two or one. Since the set of zeros of F is symmetric with respect to the origin only, g(z) must be  $az^2+b$  if deg g=2. Then F(-z)=F(z). This implies that

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$$e^{-\alpha z} + e^{-\beta z} = +i(e^{\alpha z} + e^{\beta z})$$

This is impossible by the impossibility of Borel's identity [1], [3]. Hence F is right-prime in entire sense. Hence F is prime.

Next we consider the case  $\alpha = \beta \neq 0$ . We may consider the function  $ze^{az}$ . This has 0 as a Picard exceptional value. Hence  $ze^{az}$  is pseudo-prime [4]. Then the remaining part is almost trivial. The case  $\alpha = \beta = 0$  is trivial.

If  $\alpha = 0$ , we consider

$$\begin{split} F &= z(e^{\beta z} + 1)^2 = c \neq 0 \; . \\ F' &= \{ 2z(\beta e^{\beta z} + 1) + e^{\beta z} + 1 \} (e^{\beta z} + 1) = 0 \; . \end{split}$$

By cancelling out  $e^{\beta z}$  we have

 $c(1+2\beta z)^2 = 4\beta^2 z^3$ ,

which has only three roots. Hence F is left-prime in entire sense. The rightprimeness is almost similarly proved as in the general case. Hence F is prime. q. e. d.

COROLLARY 3.

$$z \left( \int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt + z \right)^2$$

is prime.

Proof. It is necessary to prove that

 $\int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt + z$ 

has only finitely many multiple zeros and infinitely many simple zeros. However this fact was proved already in [5]. Let us consider

$$F = z \left( \int_{0}^{z} e^{-t^{2}} dt + z \right)^{2} = c \neq 0,$$
  
$$F' = \left( \int_{0}^{z} e^{-t^{2}} dt + z \right)^{2} + 2z (e^{-z^{2}} + 1) \left( \int_{0}^{z} e^{-t^{2}} dt + z \right) = 0.$$

Then

$$\int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt + z = \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}.$$

Hence

$$e^{-z^2} = -\frac{2z\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{c}}{az\sqrt{z}},$$

which implies

$$-z^{2} = \log \frac{2z\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{c}}{2z\sqrt{z}} + \pi i + 2p\pi i,$$
  
$$\Re(z^{2}) = -\log \frac{|z\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{c}/2|}{|z\sqrt{z}|}.$$

Let z be  $re^{i\theta}$ . Then if  $z \to \infty$ ,  $r^2 \cos 2\theta \to 0$ . Therefore  $\theta \to \pi/4$ ,  $3\pi/4$ ,  $5\pi/4$  or  $7\pi/4$  if  $r \to \infty$ . We firstly consider the case  $\theta \to \pi/4$ . Then  $r^2 \cos 2\theta \to 0$  as  $r \to \infty$  implies  $r^2(\theta - \pi/4) \to 0$ . In this case

$$\left|\int_{re^{i\pi/4}}^{re^{i\theta}} e^{-t^2} dt\right| \leq \left|\int_{\pi/4}^{\theta} r e^{-r^2 \cos 2\phi} d\phi\right| \leq 2r |\theta - \pi/4| \to 0 \qquad (r \to \infty).$$

Further

$$\left|\int_{0}^{re^{i\pi/4}} e^{-t^{2}} dt\right| = \left|\int_{0}^{r} \cos s^{2} ds - i \int_{0}^{r} \sin s^{2} ds\right| \leq M.$$

Hence

$$\left|z - \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}\right| \leq \left|\int_{0}^{re^{i\pi/4}} e^{-t^{2}} dt\right| + \left|\int_{re^{i\pi/4}}^{re^{i\theta}} e^{-t^{2}} dt\right|$$

implies that

$$\left|z - \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}\right|$$

is bounded as  $z \to \infty$  along the solutions of  $e^{-z^2} = -(2z\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{c})/2z\sqrt{z}$  being near the ray  $\theta = \pi/4$ . This is impossible. The same holds in the other three cases. Hence F is left-prime in entire sense.

The proof fo the right-primeness of F is quite similar as in the one of

$$\int_0^z e^{-t^2} dt + z$$

in [5]. We shall make use of the result in [5]. Firstly we have only one possibility for the right-factor, that is, g is a quadratic polynomial, if F is not right-prime. Then by the symmetry with respect to the origin g(z) should be  $\alpha z^2 + b$ . Hence F(z) = F(-z). However it is immediate to prove F(-z) = -F(z). This is impossible. Hence F is right-prime. q. e. d.

COROLLARY 4.  $z(e_2(z)-p(z))^2$  is prime, where  $e_2(z)=\exp e^z$  and p(z) is a non-zero polynomial.

*Proof.* Firstly it is necessary to prove that  $e_2(z)-p(z)$  has only finitely many multiple zeros and infinitely many simple zeros. This was already proved in [5] for any non-constant p(z). If p(z) is a non-zero constant, this is almost trivial.

Since  $e_2(z) - p(z)$  has only finitely many multiple zeros together with infinitely many simple zeros,

$$N(r, 0, F) - N(r, 0, F) \ge N(r, 0, e_2(z) - p(z))(1 - \varepsilon)$$
$$\ge m(r, e_2(z))(1 - \varepsilon)$$
$$\ge \frac{1}{2} m(r, F)(1 - \varepsilon)$$

for  $r \in E_{\phi}$ , which is of finite measure, and

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$$N(r, 0, F') - N(r, 0, F) + \overline{N}(r, 0, F)$$
  
=  $N(r, p + 2zp', (1 + 2ze^z)e_2(z))$   
 $\geq m(r, \phi)(1 - \varepsilon) \geq m(r, e_2(z))(1 - \varepsilon)$   
 $\geq \frac{1}{2}m(r, F)(1 - \varepsilon)$ 

for  $r \in E_{\phi}$ , which is of finite measure. Here

$$\psi = \frac{e_2(z)}{e_2(z) - p(z)}, \qquad \phi = \frac{e_2(z)(1 + 2ze^2)}{e_2(z)(1 + 2ze^2) - p(z) - 2zp'(z)}.$$

Now let us consider

$$\begin{cases} F = z(e_2(z) - p(z))^2 = c \neq 0 \\ F' = \{(2ze^z + 1)e_2(z) - p(z) - 2zp'(z)\} \{e_2(z) - p(z)\} = 0. \end{cases}$$

We now assume that p(z) is not a constant. Then

$$e_2(z) = p(z) + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}$$

and

$$e^{z} = \frac{2z\sqrt{z}p'(z) - \sqrt{c}}{2z(\sqrt{c} + \sqrt{z}p(z))}.$$

Hence

$$\Re z = \log \left| \frac{2z\sqrt{z} p'(z) - \sqrt{c}}{2z(\sqrt{z} p(z) + \sqrt{c})} \right| \to -\infty$$

as  $z \rightarrow \infty$ . Putting z = x + iy we have  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ . Further

$$e^x \cos y = \log \left| p(z) + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}} \right| \to +\infty$$

as  $z \to \infty$ . But  $x \to -\infty$  implies the boundedness of  $e^x \cos y$ . This is impossible. We next assume that p(z) is a non-zero constant a. Then

$$e_2(z) = a + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}$$

and

$$e^{z} = -\frac{\sqrt{c}}{az\sqrt{z}+z\sqrt{c}}$$

imply

$$\log\left(a + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{z}}\right) + 2p\pi i = -\frac{\sqrt{c}}{az\sqrt{z} + \sqrt{c}z}$$

and

$$-\frac{\sqrt{c}}{az\sqrt{z}+\sqrt{c}z} = \log a + \frac{\sqrt{c}}{a\sqrt{z}} - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sqrt{c}}{a\sqrt{z}}\right)^2 + \cdots + 2p\pi i.$$

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Hence as  $z \rightarrow \infty \log a + 2p\pi i = 0$ , that is, a = 1. This implies p = 0. Hence

$$1 - \frac{\sqrt{c}}{2\sqrt{z}} + \cdots = -\frac{1}{z + \sqrt{c}\sqrt{z}},$$

which is impossible. Hence in both cases  $F=c\neq 0$ , F'=0 have at most a finite number of common roots. Therefore F is left-prime in entire sense.

For the right-primeness of F we remark the following fact:

$$e^x \cos y = \log |p(z)|$$

is satisfied by the non-zero roots of F(z)=0. Hence for  $x \leq x_0$  there are at most finitely many solutions of F(z)=0 if p(z) is not a constant. Here  $x_0$  is arbitrary. Then we can conclude the right-primeness of F as in [5], Corollary 3. If p(z) is a non-zero constant a, then

$$e^{z} = \log a + 2p\pi i$$
,  
 $e^{x} \cos y = \log |a|$ .

Therefore there is no solution in  $x \leq -x_0$  for a sufficiently large  $x_0$  and there are infinitely many roots in  $x \geq x_0$ . Therefore we can conclude the right-primeness of F in entire sense in a quite similar manner. Thus F(z) is prime. q.e.d.

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Department of Mathematics, Tokyo Institute of Technology, Oh-okayama, Meguro-ku, Tokyo, Japan

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