

# On the equation $F(x) = f(f(x))$

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## 1 The Problem

Following Ed Pegg Jr (see the section “Material added 21 November 04” on <http://www.Mathpuzzle.com>) we want to discuss the problem:

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{which functions } F \text{ have a representation of the form } F(x) = f(f(x))? \\ \text{for a given } F, \text{ how many are the solutions, and how to build them?} \end{array} \right.$

We will confine ourselves to work in a polynomial framework, assuming that both  $F$  and  $f$  are polynomials. In fact the non-polynomial framework seems out of reach because unexpected non-polynomial solutions come out very often; see later on. On the other hand, we will allow complex coefficients for our polynomials  $F, f$ : as often happens, the real results easily follow from the complex ones; and the complex approach gives rise to more elegant results.

**Remark** *After reading a preliminary redaction of this paper, Ed sent me the feedback:*

One interesting trick to add:  $(f(f(x)) - x)/(f(x) - x)$  always divides evenly thus I added a last section, “Factorizations”, absent in the previous redaction.

## 2 Preliminary Remarks

Let us firstly deal with a somewhat anomalous case: the function  $F(x) = x + c$  has the solution  $f(x) = x + c/2$ . If  $c \neq 0$  we will see that this is the unique solution; however, if  $c = 0$ , for any  $a$  we can also choose  $f(x) = a - x$ .

We will also see that, in the polynomial framework, the case  $F(x) = x$  is the unique one giving raise to infinitely many solutions. Remark that this  $F$  is singular even in the non-polynomial framework: for  $x \neq 0$  also the functions  $f(x) = a/x$  solve. A last remark on the non-polynomial case: the rational function  $F(x) = 2x/(1 - x^2)$  has, for  $|x| < 1$ , the trascendental solution  $f(x) = \tan(\sqrt{2} \cdot \arctan(x))$ .

Let us fix some notations. For  $f$  polynomial of degree  $k$ , the polynomial  $f(f(x))$  has degree  $k^2$ ; thus, for a suitable  $k$ , we can represent the given  $F$  and the

unknown  $f$  in the form:

$$F(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{k^2} A_j x^{k^2-j}; \quad f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^k a_j x^{k-j}; \quad (A_0, a_0 \neq 0);$$

remark that we used capital letters  $A_j$  for the data, and small letters  $a_j$  for the unknown coefficients. In other terms: we would freely choose the  $k^2 + 1$  coefficients of  $F$ , and impose the equation  $F(x) = f(f(x))$  by using the  $k + 1$  coefficients of  $f$ . It is quite natural to expect that, if  $k > 1$ , this is impossible; and in fact we will see that, generally speaking, once we fix the first  $k + 1$  coefficients  $A_0, \dots, A_k$  we have no more degree of freedom.

### 3 Results

Let us evaluate  $f(f(x))$  modulo the lower order terms, say the terms of order strictly less than  $k^2 - k$ ; we will use the symbol “ $\cong$ ” to denote that some lower order terms have been suppressed. Because of

$$\begin{cases} f(f(x)) \cong a_0 \cdot [f(x)]^k + a_1 \cdot [f(x)]^{k-1}; \\ a_0 \cdot [f(x)]^k \cong a_0 \cdot [(a_0 \cdot x^k)^k + k \cdot [a_0 \cdot x^k]^{k-1} \cdot [a_1 \cdot x^{k-1} + \dots + a_k]]; \\ a_1 \cdot [f(x)]^{k-1} \cong a_1 [a_0 \cdot x^k]^{k-1} \end{cases};$$

we get:

$$f(f(x)) \cong a_0^{k+1} \cdot x^{k^2} + k \cdot [a_0 \cdot x^k]^{k-1} \cdot [a_1 \cdot x^{k-1} + \dots + a_k] + a_1 [a_0 \cdot x^k]^{k-1}$$

The comparison between the leading coefficients of  $F(x)$  and  $f(f(x))$  gives:

$$A_0 = a_0^{k+1}; \quad A_j = k \cdot a_0^k \cdot a_j \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, k-1; \quad A_k = k \cdot a_0^k \cdot a_k + a_1 \cdot a_0^{k-1}.$$

In particular, from  $a_0^{k+1} = A_0$ , we have  $k + 1$  possible choices for  $a_0$  (recall that  $A_0 \neq 0$ ). Once a value for  $a_0$  has been fixed:

- if  $k = 0$  we finished;
- if  $k = 1$ , we need  $a_1 = A_1 / (a_0 + 1)$ , to be discussed later on;
- if  $k > 1$  we must choose:

$$\begin{aligned} a_j &= A_j / (k \cdot a_0^k) \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, k-1; \\ a_k &= (A_k - a_1 \cdot a_0^k) / (k \cdot a_0^k) = (A_k - A_1/k) / (k \cdot a_0^k) \end{aligned}$$

the last formula following from the already known form of  $a_1$ .

The case  $k = 1$ , as already remarked, deserves a surprise: for  $A_0 \neq 1$  we simply need to choose  $a_1 = A_1 / (a_0 + 1)$ ; the same formula remains true if  $A_0 = 1$  and we choose  $a_0 = 1$ ; however, for  $A_0 = 1$ , if we want to choose  $a_0 = -1$ , we need  $A_1 = 0$ ; then any value for  $a_1$  is allowed.

Let us summarize the results in the complex framework. Searching for representable polynomials  $F(x)$  of degree  $k$ , we have:

- If  $k < 2$ , for any choice of  $F(x)$  other than  $x + c$ , there exist exactly  $k + 1$  solutions.
- If  $k \geq 2$  we can freely choose the first  $k + 1$  coefficients of  $F$ ; this generates  $k + 1$  functions  $f$  that automatically select their own “lower order part” for  $F$ .

Let us show how the last claim works by discussing the original example  $F(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 8x + 2$  proposed by Ed Pegg. Our formulas force  $f(x) = \omega \cdot x^2 - 2\omega \cdot x + 1 - 2\omega$ , where  $\omega$  denotes a third root of the unit. Accordingly we get  $f(f(x)) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 8x + 5 - 3\omega$ ; thus we need  $\omega = 1$ , say  $f(x) = x^2 - 2x - 1$ .

A last remark concerns the real framework: let  $F(x)$  be a real polynomial of degree  $k$ , other than  $x + c$ . Among the  $k + 1$  complex-coefficients polynomials  $f$  we have built, the number of real  $f$  is just one if  $k$  is odd; and, for even  $k$ , is two or none, according to  $A_0 > 0$  or  $A_0 < 0$ .

## 4 Factorizations

A somewhat different approach can be based on factorizations results; e.g. let us remark that:

$$F'(x)/f'(x) \text{ always divides evenly}$$

as obvious because of  $F'(x) = f(f(x))' = f'(f(x)) \cdot f'(x)$ .

**Remark** Let  $x_0$  be a (real or complex) value such that  $f(x_0) = x_0$ . Then:

- $F'(x_0) = f'(x_0)^2$ .
- $F''(x_0) = f''(x_0)f'(x_0)^2 + f'(x_0)f''(x_0)$
- For  $k > 2$  any term appearing in  $F^{(k)}(x_0)$  contains a factor like  $f^{(j)}(x_0)$  for a  $j \geq 2$ .

Now let us set  $G(x) := f(f(x)) - x$  and  $g(x) := f(x) - x$ . For any  $x_0$  with  $g(x_0) = 0$  one has  $G(x_0) = 0$ ; if one has also  $g'(x_0) = 0$ , say  $f'(x_0) = 1$  then (see the previous remark)  $G'(x_0) = F'(x_0) - 1 = 0$ ; always due to the previous remark, if  $g''(x_0) = 0$ , say  $f''(x_0) = 0$ , then  $G''(x_0) = 0$ ; and so on.

In other words, any (real or complex) root of  $g$  is also a root of  $G$  with at least the same multiplicity; this implies that  $g(x)$  is a factor of  $G(x)$ ; say:

$$(f(f(x)) - x)/(f(x) - x) \text{ always divides evenly.}$$

Let us see how these properties can be used, by treating again the example  $F(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 8x + 2$ : we confine ourselves to discuss the real case, thus the leading coefficients of  $f$  and  $f'$  must be 1 and 2, instead of  $\omega$  and  $2\omega$ .

Because of  $F'(x) = 4(x-1)(x-1-\sqrt{3})(x-1+\sqrt{3})$ , for  $f'(x)$  we have to choose one among  $2(x-1)$ ,  $2(x-1-\sqrt{3})$  and  $2(x-1+\sqrt{3})$ .

Because of  $F(x) - x = (x-2)(x+1)(x-\frac{3+\sqrt{13}}{2})(x-\frac{3-\sqrt{13}}{2})$  we have a priori six possible choices for the second degree polynomial  $f(x) - x$ ; but only the choice  $f(x) - x = (x-\frac{3+\sqrt{13}}{2})(x-\frac{3-\sqrt{13}}{2}) = x^2 - 3x - 1$  is compatible with the formulas we got for  $f'(x)$ ; thus we end up with the already found solution  $f(x) = x^2 - 2x - 1$ .